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The structural and dynamical liquid–glass transition for metallic sodium

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Abstract. We perform a molecular-dynamics simulation for the liquid metal sodium with the intention to study the glass transition temperature. Using the same set of liquid \rightarrow glass structure factors, this is done (a) structurally by calculating the Wendt-Abraham parameter and (b) dynamically by solving the non-linear integral equation embodied in the mode-coupling theory. It is found that the glass transition temperature obtained from the former is distinctly lower than that from the latter. In an attempt to explain such a difference in the glass transition temperature, we draw attention to some recent works on shear viscosity coefficients and analyse the latter results in light of the basic hypothesis of the mode-coupling formulation. It appears that the glass transition point obtained in the context of mode-coupling theory for metallic sodium is reasonably predicted, and that the Wendt-Abraham glass transition point, determined directly from the structure data, seems numerically closer to the calorimetric glass transition temperature. Also, we compare the metallic non-ergodicity form factor obtained from the present moleculardynamics simulation with the corresponding asymptotic formula proposed in the mode-coupling theory, and they are found to agree reasonably well with each other. The effect of the pair potential on the non-ergodicity form factor is also discussed briefly for both the hard-sphere and the metallic systems.

1. Introduction

A liquid can freeze into a disordered solid phase if the slow nucleation process in the supercooled state can be overcome. The liquid-glass transition phenomenon has been observed to occur in laboratory experiments. To account for this microscopic behaviour, computer simulation experiments have been playing a crucial role. One of the early attempts from computer simulations which is of relevance to the present work is the Monte Carlo simulation on the pair correlation function g(r) carried out by Wendt and Abraham (1978) and Abraham (1980). By studying the change of $\mathcal{R} = g_{\min}(r)/g_{\max}(r)$, $g_{\min}(r)$ and $g_{max}(r)$ being respectively the first minimum and the first maximum for the pair correlation function, versus temperature T they were able to deduce a structural criterion signalling the onset of the glass transition. Specifically, Wendt and Abraham noticed that a liquid transforms into a glassy state when the supercooled branch of $\mathcal R$ versus T, which is linear, changes in slope and bends over linearly also to a glassy branch. They further asserted the liquid-glass transition point to be the extrapolated interception of these two branches and defined the corresponding temperature as the glass transition temperature T_e^{WA} . This particular parameter R, which indicates the inception of the liquid-glass transition, has subsequently received substantial attention in the literature. An interesting feature common among subsequent computer simulation experiments is that the \mathcal{R}_{LG} (at the liquid-glass transition point) for any monatomic liquid, whether it be a liquid metal or a non-metallic

simple liquid such as a Lennard-Jones system, satisfies quite well $\mathcal{R}_{LG} = 0.1 \pm 0.02$ at the glass transition temperature. An account of all these related works has been summarized in a recent article by the present author (Lai 1988a). (The interested reader should consult the following very recent work, which relates to \mathcal{R} : Lai (1988b), Li *et al* (1988), Shen *et al* (1990) and Tanaka and Ichimaru (1987).)

In the theoretical approach to T_g , Bengtzelius, Götze and Sjölander (BGS) (Bengtzelius et al 1984, Bengtzelius 1986a, b), and independently Leutheusser (1984), formulated a microscopic theory to study glass transition problems. This so-called mode-coupling approach, based on many-body methods and the kinetic theory, has made considerable progress in recent years (Sjölander 1980, 1985, 1989, Jäckle 1989, Götze and Sjögren 1992). Underlying this mode-coupling theory is the memory effect. The latter describes the influence that each atom in a liquid system experiences as a disturbance (that it creates on the medium) propagates through its surrounding atoms and as this disturbance reacts back on the same tagged atom at a later time. This kind of non-linear feedback mechanism becomes more transparent as the temperature of a liquid system is lowered. Accordingly, the existence of the memory effect has resulted in the occurrence of slowly decaying correlation functions in which are buried most of the physics of glass transition. Bengtzelius et al (1984) first succeeded in deriving a closed non-linear coupled integral equation for the densitydensity correlation function. By appealing to the argument that the density fluctuation should remain 'long-lasting' at sufficiently reduced temperature and that the finite solutions of the non-linear coupled equation would then indicate the onset of a non-ergodic state, they subsequently applied their formalism to both the hard-sphere (Bengtzelius et al 1984) and the Lennard-Jones (Bengtzelius 1986a, b) systems. Satisfactory agreement between theory, simulation data and experiments was obtained. In the following years, Götze and Sjögren (1987a, b, 1989a) and Buchalla et al (1988) proposed a modification to the mode-coupling model by adding an extra (linear) memory term to the integral equation. Specifically, they considered explicitly the coupling between density and longitudinal current fluctuations in deriving the mode-coupling contribution to the memory function. This modification enables one to make a more quantitative analysis of the dynamics of the glass transition, particularly in the vicinity of the liquid-glass domain, which is found to exhibit significant changes in viscosity measurements (Taborek et al 1986). Although the mode-coupling model of BGS can be extended readily to include coupling between density and temperature fluctuations, leading thus to the study of the glass transition via examining various thermodynamic quantities (see Bengtzelius and Sjögren (1986) for further details), in this work we confine ourselves solely to the evaluation of T_g through the study of the density fluctuation.

Our motive to carry out the work is threefold. First, we present a quantitative application of the mode-coupling theory to a real metal using a realistic potential constructed rigorously from the electron theory of metals. The results of calculations may serve to indicate whether a metallic fluid is an exception in the kind of dynamical transition that has so far been applied only to non-metallic liquids such as the hard-sphere or the Lennard-Jones system. Furthermore, anomalies in viscosity were reported that reveal the fact that liquid metals show a deviation in the power-law behaviour contrasted to a class of 'fragile' liquids investigated (Taborek *et al* 1986). Secondly, by virtue of the non-linear integral equation of BGS we estimate the T_g and the root-mean-square displacement. We compare the BGS T_g with the one corresponding to the \mathcal{R}_{LG} parameter. Because we make use of the same g(r) or its Fourier transform, the static structure factor S(q), both in obtaining the T_g via the Wendt-Abraham criterion and in solving for the non-trivial solutions of slowly decaying density correlation functions at long time, such a comparison, in addition to ascertaining further the role played by the structure parameter \mathcal{R} , should clarify certain ambiguities raised recently by Yip (1989) in relation to the glass transition temperature. Thirdly, to delve further into the mode-coupling theory, we shall discuss briefly certain properties of the present realistic non-ergodicity form factor obtained here from the molecular-dynamics (MD) simulation, and compare it with the recent proposed asymptotic formula of Götze and Sjögren (1992). This comparison will give us information regarding the relaxation process of a supercooled liquid.

This paper is organized as follows. In section 2 we first describe our MD simulation and in executing the algorithm introduce a reasonable approximation for estimating the change in density of Na metal with the quenching temperature. We present the mode-coupling theory in section 3 by summarizing briefly relevant equations for the time-dependent density-density correlation function. Our results of calculations for (i) the MD simulation and (ii) the modecoupling theory will be given in section 4 along with a discussion on any implications that may be drawn from this work. In section 5 we give our conclusion.

2. Molecular-dynamics simulation

We performed an MD simulation for the pure sodium system starting from a liquid state at T = 423 K and quenching down to T = 23 K. A total of 686 particles were confined in a cubic cell subject to the standard periodic boundary condition at the cubic walls. Following our previous work (Lai and Lin 1990), we adopted Beeman's algorithm (Beeman 1976) in numerical integration of the equation of motion. The temperature quenching process was divided into stages and at each stage we carried out 4500 time steps for the equilibrium pair correlation function, after performing a series of heat-bath contacts (Tanaka 1981, 1982) to achieve the stationary state. The time step is here taken to be 10^{-15} s, which corresponds to a quenching rate higher than our previous work (Lai and Lin 1990). Since the interatomic potential V(r) and the density of Na metal are prime inputs to MD simulation, we describe in sections 2.1 and 2.2 below how we obtained these quantities.

2.1. Interatomic potential

Given a system of N pseudoatoms confined in a volume Ω at a given density $n = N/\Omega$ and temperature T, we assume that the pseudoatoms interact via a symmetric pairwise potential V(r), which is constructed using the modified generalized non-local model pseudopotential of Li *et al* (1986) and Wang and Lai (1980). According to the latter works we write

$$V(r) = \frac{Z_{\text{eff}}^2}{r} \left(1 - \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty \mathrm{d}q \ G_{\mathrm{N}}(q) \frac{\sin(qr)}{q} \right) \tag{1}$$

where $G_N(q)$ is the normalized energy-wavenumber characteristic and $Z_{eff}^2 = Z^2 - \rho_d^2$, Z and ρ_d being the nominal valence and the depletion charge, respectively. It is worth while to note that in (1) proper attention has been given to the one-electron energy and pseudo-wavefunction by carefully incorporating higher-order perturbative corrections through introduction of a parameter in the bare-ion pseudopotential.

2.2. Estimation of atomic volume

In view of the fact that the densities of real materials were observed (Owen 1985, Brawer 1985) to undergo continuous change in magnitude with temperature in the liquid \rightarrow glass transition, it is therefore necessary to include this realistic effect throughout the glass

transition process. The present method of determining the atomic volume Ω_0 versus T follows that of our very recent work (Lai *et al* 1993) and proceeds as follows.

First, we performed an MD simulation to calculate the g(r) using V(r) evaluated at each temperature with the Ω_0 obtained from a linear interpolation between the experimental liquid and crystalline densities (Borgstedt and Mathews 1987). Secondly, from the calculated g(r), we determined the associated Wendt-Abraham \mathcal{R} at each T. The interception of the linear supercooled liquid branch and the linear glassy solid branch (Lai et al 1987, Lai 1988a, Lai and Lin 1990) allows us to locate a glass transition temperature, say with a value $T_{g}^{(1)}$. Next, we returned to the Ω_0 versus T curve and modified it such that for $T \leq T_s^{(1)}$ the Ω_0 versus T behaviour follows that of the crystalline phase. In other words, for $T \leq T_{\sigma}^{(1)}$ we assumed the same gradient for the modified Ω_0 versus T curve and for the crystalline Na metal. This assumption is based on the observation that below T_g the glassy branch is almost solid-like (Owen 1985, Zallen 1983). With this new set of Ω_0 versus T data we constructed V(r)and repeated MD simulations for pair correlation functions. The corresponding $\mathcal R$ versus Tcurve can be plotted to obtain a new $T_g^{(2)}$. For liquid Na we noticed that $T_g^{(2)}$ was higher than $T_g^{(1)}$. Our next step was to modify again the Ω_0 versus T relation. Since $T_g^{(2)} > T_g^{(1)}$, a physically reasonable modification was to shift the glassy Ω_0 versus T branch (in parallel with the crystalline one) until it intersects at $T_g^{(2)}$. The whole MD simulation for g(r) and a corresponding plotting of \mathcal{R} versus T to locate a new $T_g^{(i+1)}$, $i = 2, 3, \ldots$, were repeated. This procedure was carried out iteratively for i = 2, 3, ... until $T_g^{(i+1)} \simeq T_g^{(i)}$. In actual simulation we terminated the iterative procedure when a difference in T_{g} of less than 5 K was detected. Albeit approximated, the present procedure did take into account the density effect realistically (Elliott 1984).

3. Mode-coupling theory

In this section we present some basic formulae that permit calculation of T_g within the socalled ideal glass transition and then move on to the equations for studying the prediction of Götze.

3.1. Basic formulae

Central to the mode-coupling theory is the time-dependent density-density correlation function $F(q, t) = \langle \delta n(q, t) \delta n(-q, 0) \rangle$ where $\delta n(q, t)$ is the Fourier transform of $\delta n(r, t)$, being the microscopic density fluctuation from the homogeneous equilibrium value, and $\langle \ldots \rangle$ is the usual ensemble average. This function contains useful information on the local atomic structure as well as accounting for its time evolution. Let us write the Laplace transform of F(q, t) as

$$\hat{F}(q,z) = i \int_0^\infty dt \, e^{izt} F(q,t) \qquad \text{Im} \, z > 0.$$
(2)

Its relation written in terms of the so-called memory function $\hat{M}(q, x)$ can be shown (Bengtzelius 1986b) to be

$$\hat{R}(q,z) \equiv \frac{\hat{F}(q,z)}{S(q)} = -\frac{z + \hat{M}(q,z)}{z^2 - q^2/m\beta S(q) + z\hat{M}(q,z)}$$
(3)

where $\beta = 1/k_{\rm B}T$ is the inverse temperature and *m* is the atomic mass. As discussed in the work of BGS (Bengtzelius *et al* 1984a), one can identify two separate mechanisms pertaining to the decaying behaviour of F(q, t) in terms of its associated memory function M(q, t). Specifically, it can be shown that F(q, t) consists of a short-time rapidly decaying part representing essentially uncorrelated binary collisions and of a collective long-lasting decaying part $\Gamma(q, t)$ involving non-linear couplings of the slowly varying F(q, t). At high densities or at low temperatures, the former contribution is insignificantly small while the latter effect is dominant. Bengtzelius *et al* (1984) and Bengtzelius (1986a) derived a non-linear self-consistent dynamical equation for which the solidification condition

$$f(q) = F(q, t \to \infty) / S(q) \neq 0 \tag{4}$$

is related to the memory function $\Gamma(q, t)$ through

$$f(q)/[1-f(q)] = [m\beta S(q)/q^2]\Gamma(q, t \to \infty).$$
(5)

By making a two-mode approximation, BGS (Bengtzelius *et al* 1984) showed that the slowly decaying part $\Gamma(q, t)$ satisfies

$$\Gamma(q,t) = \frac{n}{8mq\beta\pi^2} \int_0^\infty dq' q' \int_{|q'-q|}^{|q'+q|} dq'' q'' \left(\frac{q'^2 - q''^2}{2q} [c(q') - c(q'')] + \frac{q}{2} [c(q') + c(q'')]\right)^2 S(q') S(q'') R(q',t) R(q'',t)$$
(6)

where $R(q, t \to \infty) \to f(q)$, and c(q) = [1 - 1/S(q)]/n is the direct correlation function. It is appropriate to note at this point that f(q) can be checked against experiments such as Mössbauer scattering (Champeney and Sedgwick 1972), neutron scattering (Mezei *et al* 1987a, b, Frick *et al* 1990, Börjesson *et al* 1990), dynamic light scattering (Van Megen and Pusey 1991), and Brillouin scattering (Elmroth *et al* 1992).

In a similar vein, we can calculate the self-part of f(q), $f^{s}(q)$, by replacing M(q, t)and R(q, t) in the above equation with $M^{s}(q, t)$, having the same mathematical form, and $F^{s}(q, t)$ respectively (note, in particular, that for the self-part $f^{s}(q)$ the liquid structure factor S(q) = 1). The root-mean-square displacement $\langle \Delta r^{2}(t) \rangle$ can thus be defined in terms of $F^{s}(q, t)$ as

$$\langle \Delta r^2(t) \rangle = -3 \lim_{q \to 0} \left(\frac{\partial^2 F^s(q, t)}{\partial q^2} \right) \tag{7}$$

where $F^{s}(q, t)$ satisfies an integral equation similar to (6). Equations (5) and (6) are basic formulae derived previously by BGS. Given a means to determine S(q) as a function of the control parameter (temperature or density), the above equations should be solved iteratively (and quantitatively when S(q) is given as a smooth and continuous function especially in an analytic form) for non-zero solutions f(q) and accordingly $f^{s}(q)$. The temperature at which this just happens is defined to be T_{g}^{BGS} .

However, in a series of important works (Götze 1985, 1986, 1987), Götze studied (5) and (6) in some detail. He proposed that the analytic properties for f(q) should be examined. Indeed, as shown in the appendix, near the glass transition point f(q) is given analytically by equation (A17):

$$f(q) = f^{\text{BGS}}(q) + \alpha h^{\text{BGS}}(q)\xi^{1/2}$$

where $f^{BGS}(q)$ is the non-ergodicity form factor at the transition point, α is a parameter defined in the appendix by (A15), $h^{BGS}(q) \propto [1 - f^{BGS}(q)]^2$ is the critical amplitude depending on the physical system and $\xi = (T^{BGS} - T)/T^{BGS}$ is the separation parameter.

4. Numerical results and discussion

In this section we input the MD Fourier-transformed S(q) into the non-linear integral equation (5) and determine T_g^{BGS} by requiring the eigenvalue of C_{qk}^{BGS} to approach one. We compare first in section 4.1 the resulting T_g^{BGS} with that T_g^{WA} determined from the \mathcal{R} versus T curve. The variation of the eigenvalue in the vicinity of the critical point will be examined and compared in section 4.2 with the theoretical prediction of Götze.

4.1. Comparison of T_{g}^{WA} and T_{g}^{BGS}

We first assess our MD data by comparing in figure 1 the Fourier-transformed and the experimental S(q) at T = 423 K and 373 K. The simulated g(r) at lower T displays similar change as our previous works (Lai *et al* 1987, Lai 1988a, b, Lai and Lin 1990). In figures 2 and 3, we present respectively the Ω_0 versus T and \mathcal{R} versus T curves calculated iteratively from pair correlation functions. We note three relevant points.

(i) Our calculated S(q) at the melting point and at higher temperatures agree very well with the x-ray results (Huijbin and van der Lugt 1979).

(ii) The g(r) versus T results display the same subtle changes in structure (such as the flattening of the second maximum near T_g^{WA} , the development of the double-peak structure, enhanced oscillations at large r and at sufficiently low T, etc) in accord with our previous findings (Lai *et al* 1987, Lai 1988a, b, Lai and Lin 1990) and with those observed in laboratory experiments.

(iii) We see from figure 3 that \mathcal{R} exhibits a change in slope and that \mathcal{R}_{LG} at $T_g^{WA} = 189$ K is equal to 0.105 satisfying the criterion $\mathcal{R}_{LG} = 0.1 \pm 0.02$. We note at this point that this universal criterion has so far been confirmed only for a monatomic system. For a binary system Lewis (1991), however, has recently found an \mathcal{R}_{LG} that deviates far from this criterion.

All these three points reinforce our belief that the present non-local pseudopotential is adequate for structural studies.

Having gained confidence in our simulated g(r), we may use them as input to the mode-coupling theory. To this end, we need, first of all, to Fourier-transform the g(r). The resulting S(q) are sole inputs to the integral equations (5) and (6) and are to be solved iteratively as follows. Initially we arbitrarily set f(q) = 0.5 and insert it into (5) and (6) along with the MD S(q) at the appropriate temperature. Next, the obtained f(q) versus q is substituted back into the equations and the procedure is repeated iteratively. At $T \ge 223$ K we observe that we always have the trivial solution f(q) = 0. A first non-vanishing f(q)occurs at T = 198 K; here we find that f(q) stabilizes to show a well developed structure and this behaviour persists for more than 220 iterations (see figure 4). Consequently, we may expect T_g^{BGS} to lie in between 198 and 223 K for the Na element. To locate T_g^{BGS} , one has two alternatives. One is to search for it manually, that is, starting at a temperature a few kelvins above 198 K, say with an interval $\Delta T^{(j)}$. We progressively increase the temperature and perform iterative calculations at each T until f(q) = 0 is encountered. The whole procedure is repeated each time starting at the next highest T for which $f(q) \neq 0$ and with a $\Delta T^{(j+1)} < \Delta T^{(j)}$. Because the MD simulation is carried out stepwisely, this method is generally quite tedious to implement numerically. In particular, we have to resort to interpolation for the intermediate $g^{(i)}(r)$ at $T^{(i)}$ using $g^{(i-1)}(r)$ and $g^{(i+1)}(r)$ respectively at $T^{(i-1)}$ and $T^{(i+1)}$. Fortunately with a refined algorithm (Davis and Polonsky 1972), the interpolated g(r) is well justified by the quality of the g(r) obtained (see figure 5 and the inset showing the magnitude of the error).





Figure 1. Structure factor S(q) for the liquid metal sodium (full curve) compared with x-ray experiments (full circles) from Huijbin and van der Lugt (1979).

Figure 2. Atomic volume Ω_0 versus temperature T in kelvins for the sodium system. The broken line is the expected path taken by the crystalline phase (taken from Borgstedt and Mathews (1987)) whereas the full line refers to the liquid-glass path obtained iteratively as described in the text.



Equivalently one can follow the analytic prescription of Götze (1985) and examine the stability matrix C_{qk} as defined in (A5). According to Götze C_{qk} possesses a largest eigenvalue E_0 and this eigenvalue decreases as the temperature is lowered. In fact from the



Figure 4. Non-ergodicity form factor f(q) (broken curve) for the sodium element calculated iteratively (see text) from (5) and (6). The corresponding self-part $f^{s}(q)$ is given by the full curve.

definition of C_{qk} one can derive easily a relation for E_0 which, near to T_q^{BGS} , is given by

$$E_0 = 1 - 2\alpha(1-\lambda)\xi^{1/2}.$$

In other words one can determine T_g^{BGS} by plotting $[1 - E_0(T)]^2$ versus T and looking for a T that yields $[1 - E_0(T)]^2 = 0$. Practically the method of Götze is straightforward and appears a lot easier to operate. We have followed and cross-checked both approaches. We found that $T_g^{BGS} = 215.78$ K seems to agree quite well by both means. At this point it is appropriate to digress for a moment and make a comment on this T_g^{BGS} . We note that T_g^{BGS} moderately depends on the treatment of S(q) at small q due to truncation in the Fourier transform of g(r). We have tested the Percus-Yevick hard-sphere, Verlet-Weis hard-sphere and charged hard-sphere analytic formulae in order to extrapolate S(q) from just before the first peak $(q < 1 \text{ Å}^{-1})$ to q = 0. For reasons of regularity and smoothness in the extrapolation process, we adopted $S_{PY}(q)$, although T_g^{BGS} determined differs by a few kelvins from that using $S_{CHS}(q)$. Furthermore because we are using $S_{PY}(q)$ to approximate the small-q behaviour, our estimation for the eigenvalue of the stability matrix was found numerically to be 0.984 ± 0.0007 (at T = 215.7961 K our calculation after 150 iterations yields f(q) = 0), an accuracy limited by our MD-simulated S(q).

We are now in a position to compare the above T_g^{BGS} with that determined via the Wendt-Abraham criterion. We notice in the first place that T_g^{BGS} is higher than T_g^{WA} by



Figure 5. Pair correlation function g(r) for the sodium element calculated at T = 198 K (full curve) compared with an approximated g(r) (full circles) interpolated between g(r) at T = 223 K and T = 173 K respectively. The inset shows the difference between the calculated and interpolated g(r).

about 27 K. What implication does this number convey? In order to answer this question, let us recall a recent paper by Yip (1989). Yip made an assessment of the validity of modecoupling theory by analysing its theoretical framework and by studying comparatively the viscosity measurements. He observed two points. Firstly, he noticed from his study of the experimental shear viscosity coefficient η (Taborek et al 1986) for a class of diverse 'fragile' liquids that the glass transition temperature extrapolated from the data in the low- η region to infinity viscosity and defined by Taborek et al to be T_0 is distinctly greater than the calorimetric glass transition point T_g . In particular he found that this T_0 delineates an interesting feature in that it marks the boundary between two types of viscous behaviour: power-law for $T > T_0$ and approximately Arrhenius (where the viscosity changes rapidly from a value about a factor of 10 times that in a normal liquid to several orders of magnitude greater) for $T < T_0$. Secondly, Yip (1989) made a detailed comparison between the modecoupling theory in the context of (5) and (6), so-called ideal glass transition, and that in the more refined version (Götze and Sjögren 1987b, Das and Marzenko 1986, Das 1987) where the coupling between density and current fluctuations is explicitly included. Based on the numerical data of η by Das and Marzenko (1986) and Das (1987), he came to the conclusion that T_g^{BGS} is perhaps more appropriately identified to be T_0 , an ideal glass transition temperature. Accordingly if one were to assert that T_g^{WA} , being determined directly from structural data, is a temperature closer to the calorimetric glass transition temperature T_g , it is thus not surprising to see the difference in the T_g^{BGS} and T_g^{WA} . There are ample evidences from computer simulations (Kimura and Yonezawa 1983, Nose and Yonezawa 1985, Tanaka 1986a, b, Watanabe and Tsumuraya 1988) that such an assertion for T_e^{WA} is physically reasonable. It should be noted, however, that although the cooling rate has a non-negligible effect on T_g^{WA} , its influence is inconsequential here because we are using the same set of g(r) or $\tilde{S}(q)$ for both calculations. Furthermore the relation $T_{r}^{BCS} > T_{r}^{WA}$ is not an exception for the metallic Na but occurs also in the Lennard-Jones system (Bengtzelius 1986a).

The same calculational procedure has been repeated for the self-part $f^{s}(q)$. Since the latter in the present mode-coupling theory is proportional to f(q), the iteration of $f^{s}(q)$ begins at T = 215.78 K at which f(q) has a non-zero solution. The results for $f^{s}(q)$ at three quenched temperatures are displayed in figure 4 together with their respective

f(q). From these $f^{s}(q)$, we determined the root-mean-square displacement using either the half-width method (Bengtzelius et al 1984) or directly via (7), which has a finite value for $t \to \infty$. These results are plotted in figure 6 and serve to illustrate the change of the single-particle mean-square displacement from a small value to infinity in going from the glass-like to the liquid state, thereby recovering the quite similar Lindemann's melting criterion. This, of course, is not surprising since in the present version of the modecoupling theory the root-mean-square displacement is determined from $F^{s}(q, t)$ or from the half-width method, and either method leads naturally to the temperature T_g^{BGS} . We note that although both methods yield $\langle u_x^2 \rangle^{1/2} / r_1$, being the root-mean-square displacement in one direction measured relative to the position of the first maximum of g(r), very close to 0.1, the temperature at which this happens is the same as T_g^{BGS} . What implication can we draw from this T? In order to dwell on this point, we recall (Götze 1986) that the mode-coupling theory as used here only describes the dynamical motion of atoms where the possibility of the activated or hopping process is excluded explicitly. In other words, the whereabouts of any atom is coupled dynamically to its neighbouring atoms such that any disturbance that the tagged atom creates and exerts on the other surrounding atoms can merely propagate via this type of collective interaction. This (memory) effect will in turn act back on the tagged atom after an elapse of a certain time (see, for example, figure 10 in Sjölander 1980). As T is lowered this kind of collective coupling between atoms is surely enhanced, and gradually a point is reached where it becomes dynamically unfavourable for the tagged atom to push its way through the many neighbouring atoms. When this happens the resulting atomic motion is then found to undergo a (dynamical) transition displaying a trapped-like behaviour with the tagged atom confined to move within a cage formed by the surrounding atoms. Such vibrational motion delineates a liquid→viscous-like behaviour, a scenario whereby an atom wanders back and forth within a restricted region. In the absence of the thermally activated mechanism, this is perhaps the only method of phase transition. We stress that the physical origin of this kind of vibrational motion is quite different from that implied by the structural parameter \mathcal{R} . The latter, which describes the variation of 'localized' points $g(r_{max})$ and $g(r_{min})$ with temperature, is perhaps more appropriately associated with the structural origin. Nevertheless, it is still possible to get some feeling of this dynamical transition if one were to examine the change in g(r) with T for the half-width at half-maximum (HWHM, Lai 1988a). Physically the HWHM roughly describes the vibrational amplitude of ions and when divided by the first-nearest-neighbour r_1 , i.e. HWHM/ r_1 , is equivalent to the well known Lindemann's criterion from the liquid side. Figure 7 shows HWHM/ r_1 versus T for Na metal. It is interesting to note that HWHM/ r_1 changes linearly in slope and intercept at $T_g^{HWHM} = 206$ K. As in our previous work (Lai 1988a) for Y and Zr (for Y metal T_g^{WA} and T_g^{HWHM} are given by 1020 and 1040 K whereas for Zr metal the corresponding temperatures are 1350 and 1380 K), we find that this temperature is higher than the T_e^{WA} by about 17 K. This result implies that the origin of the above (mode-coupling) 0.1 criterion is likely dynamical rather than structural. Accordingly we may thus mark the above 0.1 description to be the beginning of the slowing down of structural relaxation and that the value 0.1 is just the ratio of the oscillatory amplitude (within the cage) to an average distance between the tagged atom and neighbouring atoms in the supercooled regime. Since we have identified T_{g}^{BGS} to be the viscosity-predicted T_0 where the viscosity coefficient changes from a liquid-like magnitude to a relative value about a factor of 10-100 larger, the physical picture presented above nonetheless appears to correlate with it quite well.



Figure 6. Ratio of the asymptotic value of the root-mean-square displacement in one direction $\langle \mu_{\chi}^2 \rangle^{1/2}$ in units of the first-nearest-neighbour r_1 calculated from (7) and the MD-simulated g(r) for the sodium element.

Figure 7. Ratio of the half-width at halfmaximum HWHM in units of the first-nearestneighbour r_1 calculated from the MD-simulated g(r) for the sodium element.

4.2. Numerical evidence of Götze's prediction

We now turn to an examination of (A17). There are several features deserving discussion here. First of all, since T_g^{BGS} was determined above to be 215.78 K, the right-hand side of (A17) can be calculated at each q provided α given by (A15) is known. We have, in fact, evaluated the latter parameter at the transition temperature. When this parameter is substituted into (A17) we obtain immediately the metallic asymptotic f(q) at different T near T_g^{BGS} . On the other hand f(q) at these same temperatures have been iterated separately using (6) and the MD-simulated S(q). Both sets of data are plotted together in figure 8. As the figure shows, these two sets of non-ergodicity parameters vindicate the asymptotic $\xi^{1/2}$ dependence of f(q) in agreement with Götze's hypothesis (compare also figure 4 of Van Megen and Pusey (1991)). The temperature dependence of f(q) at the first peak and at the first minimum of S(q) are also depicted separately in figure 9. This latter figure further illustrates the predictive power of the mode-coupling theory, for although a direct comparison with experiments is not possible, it nevertheless dictates the same asymptotic f(q) behaviour similar to that of a hard-sphere system (Fuchs *et al* 1992) and bears many close resemblances to those of related measurements (Frick *et al* 1990, Elmroth *et al* 1992).



Figure 8. Non-ergodicity form factor f(q) for the sodium element obtained from (6) and the Fourier-transformed S(q) (full curve) compared with the asymptotic formula of Götze, $f(q) = f^{BGS}(q) + 1.123h^{BGS}(q)\xi^{1/2}$ (broken curve). The separation parameter $\xi = (T_g^{BGS} - T)/T_g^{BGS}$, where $T_g^{BGS} = 215.78$ K, for T = 198, 215 and 215.75 K is given by 8.2×10^{-2} , 3.6×10^{-3} and 1.4×10^{-4} respectively.

Further insight into the Debye-Waller factor f(q) can be extracted if one were to focus on the effect of the pair potential. To this end, we first compare the exponent parameter λ given by (A16). For metallic Na we obtain $\lambda = 0.687$, which appears to be a reasonable value since the hard-sphere (Barrat *et al* 1989) (having an infinitely repulsive potential) and the Lennard-Jones (Bengtzelius 1986b) (having still large repulsive potential but less than the hard-sphere one) systems yield respectively 0.758 and 0.714. Although it is not the main purpose of this work, we find it worth while to mention that from λ it is possible to determine two critical parameters, 0 < a < 1/2 and $0 < b \leq 1$. The parameter *a* may be used to study the so-called β dynamics through a formula that can be shown to satisfy (Götze and Sjögren 1989b, Sjögren 1989, Götze 1990, 1991)

$$R(q,t) = f^{\text{BGS}}(q) + h^{\text{BGS}}(q)(t_0/t)^a \qquad t_0 \ll t \ll \omega_{\sharp}^{-1}$$
(8)

where t_0 is a microscopic time scale, the correlator R(q, t) is that in (6) and $\omega_{\xi} \propto |\xi|^{1/(2a)}$. On the other hand the parameter b enters the α relaxation process (Götze and Sjögren 1987a,



Figure 9. Non-ergodicity form factor $f(q_i)$ (full circles) for the sodium element with q_i at the first peak (top) and at the first minimum (bottom) of S(q) compared with the asymptotic formula of Götze, $f(q) = f^{BGS}(q) + 1.123h^{BGS}(q)\xi^{1/2}$ (broken curve).

Sjögren 1989, Sjögren and Götze 1991), which is ruled by a time scale τ_{α} defined by

$$\tau_{\alpha} \propto |\xi|^{-\gamma} \qquad \gamma = 1/(2a) + 1/(2b) \qquad \xi \to 0^{-}. \tag{9}$$

For Na these critical exponents a and b are collected in table 1 along with those for the hard-sphere and the Lennard-Jones systems. It is gratifying to notice from this table that as the pair potential changes from an ideally infinite repulsive (hard-sphere system), to a still highly repulsive but weakly attractive (Lennard-Jones system), and to much softer repulsive part accompanied by long-range Friedel oscillations (liquid metal), these critical exponents vary systematically, implying the increasingly important role played by the interparticle interaction.

Table 1. Parameters λ , a and b calculated from the present work for metallic Na compared with those of the hard-sphere (HS) and the Lennard-Jones (LI) systems.

λ	а	b
0.758	0.301	0.545
0.714	0.321	0.617
0.687	0.332	0.663
	λ 0.758 0.714 0.687	λ a 0.758 0.301 0.714 0.321 0.687 0.332

Finally, it is of great theoretical interest to compare the spatial variation of the critical amplitudes for the hard-sphere and metallic systems. In r-space this system-dependent

quantity is given by

$$H(r) = \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3 n} \int dq \ S(q) h^{BGS}(q) e^{-iq \cdot r}$$
(10)

being the Fourier transform of $S(q)h^{BGS}(q)$ (see (A17)). We depict in figure 10 the H(r) for both systems. A noticeable feature in this figure is that even for a realistic Coulomb system such as the liquid metal the β dynamics is also characterized only by a nearestneighbour interaction. However, in contrast to the hard-sphere system, the behaviour of the metallic H(r) beyond the first-nearest neighbour is much less oscillatory. This is one manifestation of the realistic potential being described by a softer interparticle potential and contrasted to a typical hard-sphere potential being unrealistically 'hard'. As a consequence all fluctuations for $r < 2.48\sigma$ move qualitatively in phase. But since H(r) vanishes rapidly for $r > 2.48\sigma$ the physical picture that β relaxation is a localized excitation remains true also for a metallic system.



Figure 10. Spatial variation of the critical amplitude H(r) for the sodium element (full curve) compared with the same quantity for a hard-sphere system (broken curve). The hard-sphere diameter σ is related to the packing ratio η by $\eta \approx \pi \sigma^3 n/6$.

5. Conclusion

Starting with a full non-local model pseudopotential, we have applied the electron theory of a metal to construct a first-principles interatomic potential for Na liquid metal for use in

molecular-dynamics simulation. The pair correlation functions obtained are tested against experiments at the melting point and at an elevated temperature. Excellent agreement with x-ray measurements is found. This prompts us to extend the MD technique to study the undercooled liquid and glassy states of Na. To execute this program we need to know the temperature dependence of the density of Na. A novel method to estimate the density of the sodium system from the liquid via supercooling to the glassy phase is proposed. Basically this is an iterative scheme making use of the Wendt-Abraham structure parameter in conjunction with the experimental thermal linear expansion coefficient data of the Na crystalline state. We find that the pair correlation function simulated from quenching displays several features in accord with our previous simulation data using the Monte Carlo method and similar to those observed in laboratory glass experiments. From the calculated Wendt-Abraham structure parameter \mathcal{R} at various T, we obtain $\mathcal{R}_{LG} = 0.105$ at $T_g^{WA} = 189$ K, in agreement with our previously proposed hypothesis (Lai 1988a) for the universality of \mathcal{R}_{LG} . As an alternative to the determination of T_g we make use of the same MD structure data and insert them into the non-linear self-consistent integral equation of Bengtzelius et al (1984) for the time-dependent density fluctuation within the context of the modecoupling theory. It turns out that the predicted glass transition point $T_g^{BGS} = 215.78$ K. is somewhat higher than T_g^{WA} . This difference in T_g is not unexpected if one recalls the basic hypothesis of the mode-coupling theory. Physically, the difference in the glass transition point can be further corroborated by referring to shear viscosity measurements. Based on the latter data, it appears that T_{g}^{WA} , determined directly from the structure data, is numerically much closer to the real glass transition temperature such as that defined in the calorimetric measurement. To proceed further we analyse the non-ergodicity form factor f(q) in light of Götze's prediction. The good agreement between our MD iterated f(q) and the asymptotic functional form of f(q) at two selected wavevectors versus T lends great credence to Götze's conjecture. The effects of the pair potential on f(q) are also discussed in the context of systematic change of the critical exponent parameters. These parameters, which contain information on the relaxation dynamics, are seen to change consistently as the repulsive part of the interparticle potential varies from an ideally infinite hard-sphere system to a softer metallic system. Finally comparison of the spatial critical amplitudes between the hard-sphere and sodium systems shows discernible differences, which can be interpreted physically to be related to the detail of structure.

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Appendix

In this appendix we shall outline briefly the derivation of the asymptotic f(q). Let us begin by writing the right-hand side of (5) as

$$\mathcal{F}_q(f(k)) = [m\beta S(q)/q^2]\Gamma(q, t \to \infty)$$
(A1)

where $\mathcal{F}_q(f(k))$ is a functional of f(k), which appears in the integral in (6). The iterative numerical method to solve (5) and (6) implies

$$f^{(i)}(q)/[1 - f^{(i)}(q)] = \mathcal{F}_q(f^{(i-1)}(k)) \qquad i = 1, 2, \dots$$
(A2)

Götze examined the structure of (A2) and hypothesized the existence of a possible fixed point T_g^{BGS} such that close to T_g^{BGS} where $f^{(i)}(q)$ approaches f(q) one can expand (A2) as

$$\mathcal{F}_{q}(f^{(i-1)}(k)) = \mathcal{F}_{q}(f(k)) + \sum_{k} \left(\frac{\partial \mathcal{F}_{q}}{\partial f^{(i-1)}(k)}\right)_{f^{(i-1)}(k) = f(k)} [f^{(i-1)}(k) - f(k)] + \dots$$
(A3)

Introducing a $g^{(i)}(q)$, which satisfies

$$f^{(i)}(q) - f(q) = [1 - f(q)]^2 g^{(i)}(q)$$
(A4)

we find that $g^{(i)}(q)$ would be a small perturbation when the physical system is near the fixed point T_g^{BGS} . In fact it can be shown that in the vicinity of T_g^{BGS} (A2)–(A4) mutually agree provided that $g^{(i)}(q)$ satisfies the following linearized evolution equation:

$$g^{(i)}(q) = \sum_{k} C_{qk} g^{(i-1)}(k)$$
(A5)

where $C_{qk} = [1 - f(k)]^2 \partial \mathcal{F}_q / \partial f(k)$, which is a matrix having several properties. One important property is that all the matrix elements C_{qk} are non-negative. This latter property ensures that the matrix C_{qk} satisfies the theorems of Perron and Frobenius (Bellman 1960), which state that for a matrix $C_{qk} \ge 0$ there exists a largest non-degenerate real eigenvalue E_0 such that any other eigenvalue E_{γ} , $\gamma = 1, 2, ...,$ of C_{qk} obeys the inequality

$$|E_{\gamma}| < E_0. \tag{A6}$$

Since the largest eigenvalue is non-degenerate, the corresponding left- and right-hand eigenvectors, denoted by \hat{l}_k and l_k respectively,

$$\sum_{k} C_{qk} l_k = E_0 l_q \tag{A7}$$

$$\sum_{q} \hat{l}_q C_{qk} = E_0 \hat{l}_k \tag{A8}$$

are uniquely determined up to an additive constant. Götze called C_{qk} a stability matrix because the unique (maximum) eigenvalue sets a necessary and sufficient condition for searching for the solution. For the other properties, the interested reader is referred to the original works of Götze (1985, 1986, 1987).

To make further progress, we take temperature to be our control parameter. Varying the temperature and by appealing to (5), the found solution $f^{(i)}(q)$ suffers a corresponding change which, from (A4), $\delta f = [1 - f(q)]^2 g(q)$, permits a straightforward derivation of the following equation:

$$\sum_{k} (\delta_{qk} - C_{qk})g(k) = -[1 - f(q)]g^{2}(q) + \sum_{k',k''} g(k')C_{q,k',k''}g(k'') + \frac{\delta T}{T}C_{q} + O(g^{3}, (\delta T)^{2}, g\delta T).$$
(A9)

Here $C_q = T(\partial \mathcal{F}_q/\partial T)_{f(k)}$ and $C_{q,k',k''} = [\partial^2 \mathcal{F}_q/\partial f(k')\partial f(k'')]_T$. Equation (A9) constitutes a basic formula for solving (A2) asymptotically. To obtain an asymptotic f(q), let us define a separation parameter

$$\xi = (T_g^{BGS} - T)/T_g^{BGS}$$
(A10)

and expand

$$g(q) = g^{(1)}(q)\xi^{1/2} + g^{(2)}(q)\xi.$$
(A11)

By virtue of (A10) and (A11), (A9) can be written in ascending powers of $\xi^{1/2}$. The coefficients of $\xi^{1/2}$ and ξ lead respectively to two equations, viz.

$$\sum_{k} (\delta_{qk} - C_{qk}^{BGS}) g^{(1)}(k) = 0$$
(A12)
$$\sum_{k} (\delta_{qk} - C_{qk}^{BGS}) g^{(2)}(k) = -[1 - f^{BGS}(q)] [g^{(1)}(q)]^2 + \sum_{k',k''} g^{(1)}(k') C_{q,k',k''}^{BGS} g^{(1)}(k'') + \xi C_q^{BGS}.$$
(A13)

In the above equations, we have designated appropriate quantities at the critical point by the superscript BGS. From (A12) we see that $g^{(1)}(k)$ is an eigenvector of the stability matrix C_{qk}^{BGS} corresponding to the largest eigenvalue $E_0^{BGS} = 1$. Since this eigenvalue is non-degenerate it is possible to write

$$g^{(1)}(q) = \alpha l_q^{\text{BGS}} \tag{A14}$$

where α is a parameter that can be shown from (A13) to read

$$\alpha^{2} = \left(\sum_{q} \hat{l}_{q}^{\text{BGS}} C_{q}^{\text{BGS}}\right) / (1 - \lambda)$$
(A15)

and

$$\lambda = \sum_{q,k',k''} \hat{l}_{q}^{\text{BGS}} C_{q,k',k''}^{\text{BGS}} l_{k'}^{\text{BGS}} l_{k''}^{\text{BGS}}.$$
(A16)

Accordingly (A4), (A11) and (A14) yield

$$f(q) = f^{\text{BGS}}(q) + \alpha [1 - f^{\text{BGS}}(q)]^2 l_q^{\text{BGS}} \xi^{1/2} = f^{\text{BGS}}(q) + \alpha h^{\text{BGS}}(q) \xi^{1/2}$$
(A17)

which is the formula sought.

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