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The influence of solubility on the reliability of optical fiber

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ABSTRACT

Recent advances in the understanding of reliability of silica optical fiber indicate that the chemical
durability of the fiber can control the long duration lifetime both under stress-induced fatigue and zero-
stress aging conditions. In particular, dissolution of surface material produces strength degrading
surface roughness. These mechanisms are discussed and strategies for improving reliability by
inhibiting dissolution are examined. As an example, a modified polymer coating formulation is
described that is shown to increase the lifetime of the fiber by up to a factor of thirty-fold. Strategies
for improving the strength and durability of non-oxide fibers using a similar approach are also
discussed.

1. INTRODUCTION

The fatigue, or delayed failure, exhibited by oxide glasses containing micro-cracks is now well
understood, at least qualitatively. The phenomenon is attributed to the combined action of stress and an
environmental reactant which is usually water. The water reacts preferentially with bonds at the tip of a
defect or crack due to the concentration of stress at that position; the stress acts to reduce the activation
energy of the chemical reaction. One such reaction proposed by Michalske and Freiman\(^1\) is shown
schematically in Fig. 1 for the attack of a siloxane bond in silica by water. The rupture of the bond
causes the local crack front to advance by one bond spacing; the force supported by the broken bond is
transferred to an adjacent bond and the process proceeds until the stress at the crack tip exceeds the
strength of the material and catastrophic failure occurs.

It has been found empirically\(^2\) that the rate of bond rupture is dependent on the intensity of the
local stress field around the crack tip, as quantified by the stress intensity factor, \(K_1\). A simple chemical
rate theory predicts that the crack velocity, \(\dot{c}\), is given by:\(^3,4\)

\[
\dot{c} = A' \exp \left[ n' \left( \frac{K_1}{K_{IC}} \right) \right]
\]

(1)

where \(A'\) and \(n'\) are material parameters and \(K_{IC}\) is the material's toughness. This equation may be
integrated under conditions of constant applied stress, \(\sigma_a\), to give the time to failure, \(t_f\):\(^5\)
where $Y$ is a parameter of order unity describing the crack geometry, and $\sigma_i$ is the intrinsic strength of the glass (i.e. the strength in the absence of fatigue). Eq. 2 is the basis for lifetime predictions if the fatigue parameters, $A'$ and $n'$, are determined by fitting to the results of accelerated tests. If $\sigma_a$ is interpreted as the in-service stress then $t_f$ gives the expected lifetime. Alternatively, if $t_f$ is the design life, $\sigma_a$ can be interpreted as the maximum allowed service stress.

In practice a power law form of Eq. 1 is almost always employed because of its mathematical simplicity. However, there are good arguments against using this form of the crack growth kinetics equation; firstly, it is not based on any physical model and secondly because, under all circumstances, the power law predicts longer lifetimes than other kinetic models frequently used and therefore lacks design conservatism.6'7

There is some question of the applicability of this model for fatigue to silica optical fiber. Kurkjian and Paek8 showed that the strength of pristine fiber (greater than a few GPa) is essentially single valued, and under inert conditions is close to the theoretical strength of the material. They therefore concluded that pristine fiber is essentially flaw free. Such fibers do fail by fracture and thus the failure process includes nucleation as well as propagation of the crack. The nucleation kinetics are not included in the subcritical crack growth model outlined above. Relatively weak fiber (50-1000 MPa) is usually weak due to extrinsic defects such as abrasion damage or adhering particles. Such fiber is also not expected to have well defined sharp cracks, and any cracks that might be present are expected to be subjected to residual stresses left by the process that introduced the defect.9,10

Despite these difficulties, the subcritical crack growth model can be used as a semi-empirical model for extrapolating accelerated fatigue data. Fig. 2, for example, shows static fatigue data obtained for polymer coated fiber tested in 22°C pH 7 buffer solution. Also shown are extrapolations of these data (using the techniques of Matthewson7) out to a typical service life of 25 years. The solid lines are the best fit predictions of both the power law and exponential (Eq. 1) kinetics models; the dashed lines represent 95% confidence intervals on the predictions and arise from the statistical scatter in the data. While different kinetics models give different results, the statistical uncertainty is reasonably small. Therefore, if an appropriately conservative crack growth kinetics model is used, reasonable reliability predictions can be made. However, this process is a semi-empirical
During the course of their experiments, Matthewson and Kurkjian (unpublished data) observed that in 1M KOH (pH 14), for a given applied stress in the post-knee region, a narrow distribution of failure times was produced, but that the mean time to failure could vary by up to a factor of 10. This variability was eventually found to depend on how long the KOH had been in the apparatus before use. Fig. 4 shows their results which indicate that the older KOH gives longer times to failure and is therefore less aggressive. Their explanation for this phenomenon was that the KOH slowly dissolves silica and boria from the borosilicate glassware used in the apparatus and that increasing extrapolation since the details of the fatigue process in high strength silica are not clearly understood. Therefore, such predictions are only valid if there is no change of behavior or change of mechanism beyond the range of accelerated tests. Unfortunately, it is now well established that under some conditions there is indeed a change of behavior at long times to failure, low applied stress - the fatigue "knee" or "transition" - beyond which fatigue progresses at an accelerated rate. However, if the onset of the knee can be sufficiently delayed in time, the subcritical crack growth model could still be used to make reliability predictions. The purpose of this paper is to discuss the mechanism that leads to the fatigue knee and to present one strategy for delaying it.

2. THE FATIGUE "KNEE"

Fig. 3 shows static fatigue data for UV-curable epoxy-acrylate coated silica fiber in 100°C water which exhibit the typical fatigue in which there is an abrupt change in slope for times to failure above 10^5 s.

Kurkjian, Krause and Paek pointed out that high strength fiber aged in hot water degrades in strength down to approximately 2.5 GPa and that initially weak silica rods are strengthened by aging also to ~2.5 GPa. They proposed that this similarity in strength resulted from surface roughness of similar shape but different scale for the two cases; i.e. that ellipsoidal etch pits form in the surface of the fiber. Matthewson and Kurkjian showed that the onset in the strength degradation under zero stress aging conditions occurred at a similar time to the onset of the fatigue knee. Both sets of data are superimposed in Fig. 3. This result indicates that the fatigue knee is closely related to the zero stress aging behavior and results from the same mechanism.

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quantities of silica (or perhaps boria) in solution slows the etch pit formation proposed by Kurkjian, Krause and Pack. They found that adding sodium silicate to the KOH to give 0.1M SiO2 in solution increased the time to failure (Fig. 4). The increase is only modest since the sodium silicate increases the pH of the KOH which tends to counteract the effect of the dissolved silica. It was these results the lead to the ideas outlined in this paper.

Yuce and coworkers verified the formation of surface roughness during aging by imaging the fiber surface using scanning tunneling microscopy and atomic force microscopy. They found that the magnitude of the roughness correlated with residual strength after aging. Interestingly, they found that while the degradation kinetics varied with the coating material for a range of coatings, the different coatings yielded unique roughness/strength behavior.

The above observations indicate that the fatigue knee is caused by surface etching. The etch pits then behave as stress concentrations which lead to nucleation of a crack and subsequent failure. This implies that the pre-knee behavior is characterized by propagation of existing "defects" while the post-knee behavior is characterized by formation of surface roughness which then acts as the defect.

2.1 The Role of Dissolution

The formation of surface etch pits, discussed above, clearly requires removal of silica from the glass surface. This process of dissolution is quite distinct from the mechanism of crack growth discussed in the introduction, which only requires bond rupture along a plane. The etching process differs in two key ways; firstly it involves material removal, in the form of silicic acid, Si(OH)4, and secondly it is a surface reaction free of the steric hindrance at the tip of a sharp crack.

This mechanism for the fatigue knee implies that the fiber reliability can be improved if the dissolution chemical reaction can be slowed. Perhaps the most obvious way to achieve this is to introduce the product of the reaction into the environment, as exemplified in Fig. 4. This has been achieved by introducing colloidal silica into the polymer coating of the fiber. These small particles are more soluble than the fiber due to their curvature and so, it is thought, preferentially dissolve as the environmental water penetrates the coating. The partially saturated water then has a reduced activity at the glass surface.

Fig. 5. Fracture surface of the epoxy-acrylate coating (C) showing the glass fiber (F) and the fracture origin (O) for (a) "with" and (b) "without" fiber.
3. RESULTS

Two lengths of 125 μm diameter silica fiber were drawn; each with a UV-curable epoxy- acrylate coating with an outside diameter of 250 μm. One coating (denoted "with") contained 0.7 wt% of grade M5 Cab-O-Sil silica particles with ~30 nm diameter and a surface area of ~200 m²·g⁻¹. The other coating (denoted "without") did not have any silica added and acted as a control.

The silica particles were introduced into the "with" coating by manually stirring into the pre-polymer. This procedure did not fully disperse the particles since the coating appeared milky and agglomerates were visible in the optical microscope. These agglomerates sometimes acted as origins for fracture of the coating when breaking the fiber (Fig. 5a), while the "without" coating typically fractured from its inner or outer surface (Fig. 5b). However, the position of the coating fracture origin is unlikely to affect the fiber strength.

3.1 Strength

Fig. 6 shows the results of short term dynamic fatigue experiments performed in 2-point bending on the "with" and "without" fiber. The strengths and slopes are similar implying that the "with" fiber strength has not been degraded by the presence of agglomerates in the coating, and that the fatigue behavior of both fibers is essentially identical.

The tensile strengths of 150 mm lengths of fiber were measured in 20%rh, 22°C air at a loading rate of 500 MPa·s⁻¹. The "without" fiber had a strength of 5.55±0.03 GPa while the "with" fiber was somewhat weaker at 3.22±0.22 GPa with a significantly broader spread of values. It is therefore likely that the agglomerates in the "with" coating can occasionally damage the fiber, probably at the capstan grips. However, this problem could be avoided by better dispersion of the silica in the coating.

3.2 Static Fatigue

Fig. 7 shows the results of static fatigue in two-point bending for both the "with" and "without" fiber in 90°C pH 7 buffer solution. At all applied stress levels, the "with" fiber lasts longer than the "without" and, most significantly the fatigue knee, which occurs at about 10⁴ s for the "without" fiber, is delayed until ~5x10⁶ s for the "with" fiber with an overall improvement of a factor of 30 or more. At applied stresses less than 2.5 GPa, the lifetime is prolonged by at least a factor of 3 by having the silica in the coating. At the lowest applied stresses the behavior of the two fibers appear to converge. This might be because the protection mechanism becomes exhausted after a sufficiently long period.
long duration. Increasing the small amount of silica in the coating used in these experiments may well prolong the efficacy of the coating.

The error bars for the "with" fiber data in Fig. 7 are generally larger than those for the "without" fiber. Fig. 8 shows Weibull plots of representative points from the "with" data of Fig. 7. In the post-knee region (applied stress < 2.4 GPa) the lines are steeper (higher Weibull modulus) than in the pre-knee region, as is expected since the local value of the fatigue parameter, n, is lower past the knee. However, a low strength mode is observed in the knee region. The failure times of the low strength mode are similar to those of the "without" fiber. The low strength mode is therefore probably due to regions of the coating having little or no silica particles due to the poor dispersion. Better dispersion should lead to removal of the low strength mode and further improvement.

Fig. 9 shows static fatigue results for both coatings in pH 4 buffer solution. Again, the "with" fiber has improved behavior with double the lifetime in the post-knee region, though not as pronounced as in the pH 7 environment. Results in pH 10 buffer reported elsewhere show similar benefits though, again, not as great as in pH 7. Therefore, this scheme for improving fiber reliability is effective across a broad range of pH but is most effective under neutral conditions.

### 3.3 Zero Stress Aging Behavior

Fig. 10 shows the post-aging strength of "with" and "without" fiber, measured at room temperature in pH 7 buffer solution, as a function of aging time in 90°C pH 7 buffer. There is an initial rapid decrease in strength over the first few hours, and then a more gradual one. Under all conditions the "with" fiber has a significantly higher residual strength than the "without" fiber.
3.4 AFM Profilometry

Specimens of aged fiber have been stripped using 200°C concentrated sulfuric acid and atomic force microscopy (AFM) has been used to examine the fiber surface profile. Fig. 11 shows AFM images of (a) unaged fiber and (b) "without" and (c) "with" fiber aged for 168 hours in 90°C pH 7 buffer solution.

The "without" fiber is substantially roughened by aging (1.36 nm rms roughness compared with 0.30 nm for the unaged fiber). In contrast, the "with" fiber has a surface roughness of only 0.46 nm. These results clearly show the efficacy of the coating additive in suppressing the development of the surface roughness and consequent strength loss.

Examination of Fig. 11 shows that the frequency as well as amplitude of surface roughness is modified by aging, with the unaged specimen having much longer wavelength undulations. Fig. 12 shows the spectral distribution of the surface roughness. These spectra must be interpreted carefully since the AFM control software normalizes the spectra to the peak wavelength so each spectrum has a different vertical scale. The peaks near DC (infinite wavelength) represent overall curvature of the fiber surface and so can be ignored. (Note that the AFM control software can only remove curvature in the x and y directions consecutively; this leaves residual curvature at 45° to these axes. Simultaneous removal of x and y curvature is required to remove the overall curvature of the fiber surface). The unaged fiber tends to only have long wavelength components and has relatively small spectral content for wavelengths less than 150 nm or so. In contrast, the "without" fiber has significant spectral content down to ~45 nm while the "with" fiber has a broad spectrum extending down to ~20 nm. The longer wavelengths of the unaged fiber are a function of conditions during the fiber drawing process and depend on, amongst other things, the distribution of viscosity fluctuations at the draw temperature. In contrast, the surface profile of the aged specimens depends on the fluctuation of chemical activity in the amorphous surface and is of much shorter wavelength. The spectral content is important since the stress magnification of an etch pit depends both on its depth and tip curvature, and in this way on its width. Higher frequency components in the roughness spectrum mean narrower, sharper pits with greater associated strength degradation.

Fig. 11. AFM profiles of the surface of (a) unaged and (b) "without" and (c) "with" fiber aged for 168 hours in 90°C pH 7 buffer.

† Nanoscope II, software version 5.4, Digital Instruments, Santa Barbara, CA.
4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This paper presents results for the mechanical behavior of an optical fiber whose polymer coating has been loaded with a small quantity (0.7 wt%) of colloidal silica. This prototype fiber could be improved in many ways. In particular, the poor dispersion of the silica particles in the coating leads to occasional weak specimens measured in tension, presumably due to surface damage by hard agglomerates of particles, and to increased scatter in static fatigue results. However, despite these imperfections, the coating additive results in substantial improvements in both the static fatigue and zero stress aging behavior. In particular, the fatigue knee onset is delayed in time by almost two decades at pH 7. This delay is significant since, with our current level of understanding, the presence, or absence, and position of the fatigue knee cannot be predicted a priori. The presence of the knee invalidates any reliability predictions made by extrapolating short term data using the subcritical crack growth model. If the knee can be delayed so that it does not occur during the design life of a fiber in more moderate environments, then the reliability predictions can be made with more confidence.

Further improvements over the already substantial performance benefits of the particle additive can be made by better dispersing the particles in the coating. Also, adding more particles should bring further improvements, as will optimizing the particle sizes.

This technique of adding suitable particles to the coating in order to suppress etching of the fiber surface by environmental moisture can readily be extended to other systems. The particles are easily added to other coating materials while in their liquid state, such as the silicones and polyimides. Also the technique is applicable to other glass systems. Multi-component glass systems could also be protected by adding appropriate components of the glass to the coating; presumably the more soluble components. This would be very useful for the heavy metal fluoride glasses whose mechanical properties are dominated by their poor durability in water.

This technique should prove in practice to be a relatively inexpensive approach to improving fiber reliability. The particles can be added to existing prepolymer coating formulations. A mixing and degassing step is added to the manufacturing process and it might be necessary to heat the prepolymer in order to offset the increase in viscosity the particles cause. However, in critical applications, this added expense must be weighed against the substantial improvements in mechanical reliability.

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