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Stochastic Hard-Sphere Dynamics for Hydrodynamics of Nonideal Fluids

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A novel stochastic fluid model is proposed with a nonideal structure factor consistent with compressibility, and adjustable transport coefficients. This stochastic hard-sphere dynamics (SHSD) algorithm is a modification of the direct simulation Monte Carlo algorithm and has several computational advantages over event-driven hard-sphere molecular dynamics. Surprisingly, SHSD results in an equation of state and a pair correlation function identical to that of a deterministic Hamiltonian system of penetrable spheres interacting with linear core pair potentials. The fluctuating hydrodynamic behavior of the SHSD fluid is verified for the Brownian motion of a nanoparticle suspended in a compressible solvent.

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With the increased interest in nanofluidics and microfluidics, it has become necessary to develop tools for hydrodynamic calculations at the atomistic scale [1,2]. Of particular interest is the modeling of flexible polymers in a flowing solvent for both biological (e.g., cell membranes) and engineering (e.g., microchannel DNA arrays) applications. Typically the polymer chains are modeled using molecular dynamics (MD). For many applications, a realistic representation of the solvent and bidirectional coupling between the flow and the polymer motion is needed, for example, in the modeling of turbulent drag reduction. Previously, we introduced the stochastic event-driven molecular dynamics (EDMD) algorithm that uses direct simulation Monte Carlo (DSMC) calculations for the solvent coupled to deterministic EDMD for the polymer chain [3]. However, the DSMC algorithm is limited to perfect gases. Efforts have been undertaken to develop solvents that have a nonideal equation of state and that also have greater computational efficiency than brute-force molecular dynamics. Examples include the lattice Boltzmann method [4], dissipative particle dynamics (DPD) [5], and multiparticle collision dynamics [6], each of which has its own advantages and disadvantages [1]. The stochastic hard-sphere dynamics (SHSD) algorithm described in this Letter is based on successive stochastic collisions of variable hard-sphere diameters and is thermodynamically consistent (i.e., the direct calculation of compressibility from density fluctuations agrees with the density derivative of pressure). SHSD modifies previous algorithms for solving the Enskog kinetic equation [7,8] while maintaining good efficiency.

In the SHSD algorithm, randomly chosen pairs of approaching particles that lie less than a given diameter of each other undergo collisions as if they were hard spheres of diameter equal to their actual separation. The SHSD fluid is shown to be nonideal, with structure and equation of state equivalent to that of a fluid mixture where spheres effectively interact with a repulsive linear core pairwise potential. We theoretically demonstrate this correspondence at low densities. Remarkably, we numerically find that this effective interaction potential, similar to the quadratic core potential used in many DPD variants, is valid at all densities. Therefore, the SHSD fluid, as DPD, is intrinsically thermodynamically consistent, while nonideal multiparticle collision dynamics is only numerically thermodynamically consistent for tuned choices of the parameters [6,9].

As an algorithm, SHSD is similar in nature to DPD and has a similar computational complexity. The essential difference is that DPD has a continuous-time formulation, where as the SHSD dynamics is discontinuous in time. This is similar to the difference between MD for continuous potentials and discontinuous potentials. Just as the DSMC algorithm is a stochastic alternative to hard-sphere MD for low-density gases, SHSD is a stochastic modification of hard-sphere MD for dense gases.

The SHSD algorithm is not as efficient as the DSMC algorithm at a comparable collision rate. However, when low compressibility is desired, SHSD is several times faster than EDMD for hard spheres, the fastest available deterministic alternative. Low compressibility, for example, is desirable so that flows are kept subsonic even for high Reynolds number flows. Furthermore, SHSD has several important advantages over EDMD, in addition to its simplicity: (1) SHSD has several controllable parameters that can be used to change the transport coefficients and compressibility, while EDMD only has density; (2) SHSD is time driven rather than event driven, thus allowing for easy parallelization. (3) Because the SHSD fluid is weakly structured, an SHSD domain can be more easily coupled to continuum hydrodynamic solvers, just as for ideal-gas DSMC [10] and DPD fluids [2].

The standard DSMC algorithm [11] starts with a time step where particles are propagated advectively, \( \mathbf{r}_i' = \mathbf{r}_i + \mathbf{v}_i \Delta t \), and sorted into a grid of cells. Then, a certain number \( N_{\text{coll}} \sim N_{\text{sc}} (N_c - 1) \Delta t \) of stochastic collisions are executed between pairs of particles randomly chosen from the \( N_c \) particles inside the cell. The conservative stochastic collisions exchange momentum and energy between two particles \( i/j \) that is not correlated with the actual...
positions of the particles. Typically the probability of collision is made proportional to the magnitude of the relative velocity \(v_{ij} = |v_{ij}|\) by using a conventional rejection procedure. The DSMC algorithm, unlike MD, is not microscopically isotropic and does not conserve angular momentum, leading to an anisotropic stress tensor. To avoid such grid artifacts, all collision partners within a collision diameter \(D_{ij}\) must be considered even if they are in neighboring cells, and, if angular momentum conservation is required, only radial momentum should be exchanged in collisions as for hard spheres. This grid-free variant will be called isotropic DSMC (I-DSMC). The cost is that the computational efficiency is reduced by a factor of 2–3 due to the need to perform neighbor searches. Note that a pairwise Anderson thermostat proposed within the context of MD/DPD in Ref. [12] essentially adds (thermally stated) I-DSMC collisions to ordinary MD and has a very similar computational behavior. As in I-DSMC collisions, in SHSD we consider particles in neighboring cells as collision partners in order to ensure isotropy of the collisional (nonideal) component of the pressure tensor.

The virial \(\langle \Delta \mathbf{v}_{ij} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{r}_{ij} \rangle\) vanishes in I-DSMC collisions giving an ideal-gas pressure. In order to introduce a nontrivial equation of state, it is necessary either to give an additional displacement to the particles that is parallel to \(\Delta \mathbf{v}_{ij}\), or to bias the momentum exchange \(\Delta \mathbf{v}_{ij}\) to be (statistically) aligned to \(\Delta \mathbf{r}_{ij}\). The former approach has already been investigated in the consistent Boltzmann algorithm [13]; however, the consistent Boltzmann algorithm is not thermodynamically consistent since it modifies the compressibility without affecting the density fluctuations (i.e., the structure of the fluid is still that of a perfect gas). A fully consistent approach requires that the particles collide as if they are elastic hard spheres of diameter equal to the distance between them at the time of the collision. Such collisions produce a positive virial only if the particles are approaching each other, \(v_{n\psi} = -v_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{f}_{ij} > 0\); therefore, we reject collisions among particles that are moving apart. Furthermore, as for hard spheres, it is necessary to collide pairs with probability that is linear in \(v_{n\psi}\), which requires a further increase of the rejection rate and thus a decrease of the efficiency. Without rejection based on \(v_{n\psi}\) or \(v_{ij}\), fluctuations of the local temperature \(T_{ij}\) would not be consistently coupled to the local pressure \(p_{ij} = \langle \Delta \mathbf{v}_{ij} \cdot \Delta \mathbf{r}_{ij} \rangle_{c}\) because \(p_{ij}\) would be \(\sqrt{T_{ij}}\) instead of the necessary \(p_{ij} \propto T_{ij}\). For DSMC calculations, the collisional rules can be manipulated arbitrarily to obtain the desired transport coefficients; however, for nonideal fluids thermodynamic requirements eliminate some of the freedom. This important observation has not been taken into account in other algorithms that randomize hard-sphere MD [14]. Note that one can in fact add I-DSMC collisions to SHSD in order to tune the viscosity without affecting the compressibility.

For sufficiently small time steps, the SHSD fluid can be considered as a simple modification of the standard hard-sphere fluid. Particles move ballistically in between collisions. When two particles \(i\) and \(j\) are less than a diameter apart, \(r_{ij} < D\), there is a probability rate \((3\chi/D)v_{ij}\Theta(v_{ij})\) for them to collide as if they were elastic hard spheres with a variable diameter \(D_{ij} = r_{ij}\). Here \(\Theta\) is the Heaviside function, and \(\chi\) is a dimensionless parameter determining the collision frequency. The prefactor \(3/D\) has been chosen so that for an ideal gas the average collisional rate would be \(\chi\) times larger than that of a low-density hard-sphere gas with density (volume fraction) \(\phi = \pi ND^3/(6V)\).

In order to understand the properties of the SHSD fluid as a function of \(\phi\) and \(\chi\), we consider the equilibrium pair correlation function \(g_2\) at low densities, where correlations higher than pairwise can be ignored. We consider the cloud of point walkers \(i\) representing the \(N(N-1)/2\) pairs of particles, each at position \(\mathbf{r} = r_{ij} - r_{ij}^0\) and with velocity \(\mathbf{v} = v_{ij} - v_{ij}^0\). At equilibrium, the distribution of the point walkers in phase space will be \(f(v, r) = f(v_{ij}, r_{ij})\exp(-mv_{ij}^0/2kT)\). Inside the core \(r < D\), this distribution of pair walkers satisfies a kinetic equation

\[
\frac{\partial f_{\psi}}{\partial \psi} + v_n \frac{\partial f_{\psi}}{\partial \psi} = v_n \Gamma_0 f,
\]

where \(\Gamma_0 = 3\chi/D\psi\) is the collision frequency. At equilibrium, \(\partial f/\partial \psi = 0\) and \(v_{n\psi}\) cancel, consistent with choosing collision probability linear in \(v_{n\psi}\). Thus \(dg_2/\partial\psi = 3\chi (g_2(1) + x)\) with the solution \(g_2(x) = \exp[3\chi(x - 1)]\) for \(x < 1\) and \(g_2(x) = 1\) for \(x > 1\), where \(x = r/D\). Indeed, numerical experiments confirmed that at sufficiently low densities the equilibrium \(g_2\) for the SHSD fluid has this exponential form inside the collision core. This low-density result is equivalent to \(g_2^U = \exp[-U(r)/kT]\), where \(U(r)/kT = 3\chi(1 - x)\Theta(1 - x)\) is an effective linear core pair potential similar to the quadratic core potential used in DPD. Remarkably, it was found numerically that this repulsive potential can predict exactly \(g_2(x)\) at all liquid densities. Figure 1 shows a comparison between the pair correlation function of the SHSD fluid on one hand, and a Monte Carlo (MC) calculation using the linear core pair potential on the other, at several densities. Also shown is a numerical solution to the hypernetted chain (HNC) integral equations for the linear core system, inspired by its success for the Gaussian core model [15]. The excellent agreement at all densities permits the use of the HNC result in practical applications, notably the calculation of the transport coefficients.

Interestingly, in the limit \(\chi\psi \rightarrow \infty\) the SHSD algorithm reduces to hard-sphere MD. For higher densities, if \(\psi\) is sufficiently high, crystallization is observed in SHSD, either to the usual hard-sphere crystals if \(\phi\) is lower than the close-packing density, or if not, to an unusual partially ordered state with multiple occupancy per site, typical of weakly repulsive potentials.

An exact Bogoliubov-Born-Green-Kirkwood-Yvon–like hierarchy of Master equations for the s-particle distribution functions of the SHSD fluid is given in Ref. [16]. For the first equation of the hierarchy, valid at low den-
sities, we can neglect correlations other than pair ones and approximate \( f_2(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{v}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{v}_2) = g_2(\mathbf{r}_{12}) f_1(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{v}_1) f(\mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{v}_2) \).

With this assumption we obtain a stochastic Enskog equation similar to a revised Enskog equation for hard spheres with a smeared distribution of hard-sphere diameters, as studied in Ref. [17]. The Chapman-Enskog expansion carried out in Ref. [17] produces the equation of state \( \rho \equiv 0 \)

\[ PV = \rho kT \]

and approximations to the self-diffusion coefficients \( \zeta \), the shear \( \eta \) and bulk \( \eta_B \) viscosities, and thermal conductivity \( \kappa \) of the SHSD fluid. The expressions ultimately give the transport coefficients in terms of various integer moments of \( g_2(x) \), \( x \equiv D_0 \chi \overline{\gamma} g_2(x) dx \), specifically, \( \rho - 1 = 12 \phi \chi_3 \), \( \zeta = 48 \phi^2 \chi_4 / \pi^{3/2} \), and

\[ \eta / \eta_0 = \kappa / \kappa_0 = \frac{(1 + c_2 \phi \chi_3)^2 + c_3 \phi \chi_4}{1 + c_1 \phi \chi_3} \]

where \( \eta_0 = D \rho kT / m \), \( \eta_0 = D^{-2} \sqrt{\rho kT} \), and \( \kappa_0 = kD^{-2} \rho kT / m \) are natural units, and \( c_1 = 5 / 48 \), \( c_2 = 24 / 5 \), and \( c_3 = 3 / 5 \) for \( \eta \), while \( c_1 = 25 / 64 \), \( c_2 = 24 / 5 \), and \( c_3 = 3 / 5 \) for \( \kappa \).

The above formula for the pressure is exact and is equivalent to the virial theorem for the linear core potential, and thus thermodynamic consistency between \( g_2(x) \) and \( p(\phi) \) is guaranteed. In the inset in the top panel of Fig. 2, we directly demonstrate the thermodynamic consistency of SHSD by comparing the compressibility calculated from the equation of state, \( \kappa_0 = (p(\phi) \phi dp/\phi) \), to the structure factor at the origin \( S_\phi = S_0 = S(0, 0, 0) \). Furthermore, good agreement is found between the adiabatic speed of sound \( c_0^2 = S_0^{-1} + 2p^2 / 3 \) and the location of the Brillouin lines in the dynamic structure factor \( S(k; \omega) \) for small \( k \omega \) values. In Fig. 2, we also compare the theoretical predictions for \( \eta \) utilizing the HNC approximation for \( g_2 \) to the ones directly calculated from SHSD. Surprisingly, good agreement is found for the shear viscosity at all densities. The corresponding results for \( \zeta \) show significant differences between the low-density diffusion coefficient at higher densities because of corrections due to higher-order correlations.

As an illustration of the correct hydrodynamic behavior of the SHSD fluid and the significance of compressibility, we study the velocity autocorrelation function (VACF) \( C(t) = \langle v_x(0) v_x(t) \rangle \) for a single neutrally buoyant hard sphere of mass \( \rho \) and radius \( R \) suspended in an SHSD fluid of mass density \( \rho \). This problem is relevant to the modeling of polymer chains or (nano)colloids in solution and led to the discovery of a long power-law tail in \( C(t) \) [18,19]. Here the solvent-solute particles interact as in SHSD. The solvent-solute interaction is treated as if the SHSD particles are hard spheres of diameter \( D_s \), chosen to be somewhat smaller than their interaction diameter with other solvent particles (specifically, we use \( D_s = D / 4 \) for computational efficiency reasons, using an event-driven algorithm [3]. Upon collision the relative velocity of the solvent particle is reversed in order to provide a no-slip condition at the surface of the suspended sphere [3,18] (slip boundaries give qualitatively identical results). For comparison, an ideal solvent of comparable viscosity is also simulated.

FIG. 1 (color online). Equilibrium pair correlation function of the SHSD fluid (solid symbols), compared to MC (open symbols) and HNC calculations (solid lines) for the linear core system, at various densities and \( \chi \).

FIG. 2 (color online). Comparison between numerical results for SHSD at several collision frequencies (different symbols) with predictions based on the stochastic Enskog equation using the HNC \( g_2(x) \) (solid lines). The low-density approximations are also indicated (dashed lines). Top panel: Normalized equation of state. The inset compares the compressibility (pressure derivative, dashed lines) to the structure factor at the origin \( S(k; \omega = 0) \) (symbols), measured using a direct Fourier transform of the particle positions for small \( k \omega \) and extrapolating to \( k \omega = 0 \). Bottom panel: The shear viscosity at high and low densities (inset), as measured using an externally forced Poiseuille flow. There are significant corrections (Knudsen regime) for large mean free paths (i.e., at low densities and low collision rates).
The velocity autocorrelation function for a neutrally buoyant hard sphere suspended in a nonideal SHSD (\(\chi_{\text{sh}} = 1\)) solvent at two densities (symbols), as well as an ideal DSMC solvent (\(\chi_{\text{sh}} = 0.5\), \(\chi_{\text{sh}} = 0.62\), symbols), at short and long times (inset). For the more compressible (less viscous) fluids the theoretical predictions based on the Langevin equation (\(\chi_{\text{sh}} = 0.5\), \(\chi_{\text{sh}} = 0.62\)) and DSMC are compared to the theoretical predictions. It is seen, as solvent and an SHSD solvent at two different densities are shown (lines). The diameter of the nanocolloidal particle is only \(2.5D\), although we have performed simulations using larger spheres as well with very similar results. Since periodic boundary conditions were used, we show only the tail up to about the time at which sound waves generated by its periodic images reach the particle, \(t_{\text{visc}} = L/c_s\).

Theoretically, \(C(t)\) has been calculated from the linearized (compressible) fluctuating Navier-Stokes equations [18]. The results are analytically complex even in the Laplace domain; however, at short times an inviscid compressible approximation applies. At large times the compressibility does not play a role, and the incompressible Navier-Stokes equations can be used to predict the long-time tail. At short times, \(t < t_{\text{visc}} = 2R/c_s\), the major effect of compressibility is that sound waves generated by the motion of the suspended particle carry away a fraction of the momentum, so that the VACF quickly decays from its initial value \(C(0) = kT/m\Phi\), \(\Phi = kT/M\), where \(M = m + 2\pi R^2 \rho/3\). At long times, \(t > t_{\text{visc}} = 4\rho R^2 /3\eta\), the VACF decays as in an incompressible fluid, with an asymptotic power-law tail \(C(t) = (kT/m)\exp(-6\pi R_H^2 \eta t/m)\). We have estimated the effective (hydrodynamic) colloid radius \(R_H\) from numerical measurements of the Stokes friction force \(F = -6\pi R_H \eta v\).

In Fig. 3 numerical results for the VACF for an I-DSMC solvent and an SHSD solvent at two different densities are compared to the theoretical predictions. It is seen, as predicted, that the compressibility or the sound speed \(c_s\) determines the early decay of the VACF. The exponent of the power-law decay at large times is also in agreement with the hydrodynamic predictions. The coefficient of the VACF tail agrees reasonably well with the hydrodynamic prediction for the less dense solvents; however, there is a significant deviation of the coefficient for the densest solvent, perhaps due to ordering of the fluid around the suspended sphere, not accounted for in continuum theory.

In closing, we should point out that for reasonable values of the collision frequency \(\chi T\) and density \(\phi\) the SHSD fluid is still relatively compressible compared to a dense liquid, \(c_s^2 \phi < 10\). Similarly, the Schmidt number \(S_t = \eta(\rho c_s)^{-1}\) is less than 10 instead of being on the order of 100–1000. Achieving higher \(c_s\) or \(S_t\) requires high collision rates (for example, \(\chi T, \phi \times 10^9\) is used in Ref. [12]) and appropriately smaller time steps to ensure that there is at most one collision per particle per time step, and thus a similar computational effort as in molecular dynamics. The advantage of SHSD is its simplicity, easy parallelization, and simpler coupling to continuum methods such as fluctuating hydrodynamics [10].

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