INVESTIGATION OF QUANTUM AND CLASSICAL MODELS FOR MOLECULAR RELAXATION USING THE DIRECT SIMULATION MONTE CARLO METHOD

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Abstract

It is widely known that losses due to viscous, thermal and molecular relaxation play an important role in sound propagation. Traditionally, acoustics is concerned with the treatment of the fluid as a (linear) continuum using macroscopic quantities such as velocity and pressure as dependent variables. However, the continuum model has its limitations and the model breaks down for Knudsen numbers ($Kn$) greater than roughly 0.05, where $Kn$ is defined as the ratio of mean free path to wavelength. Particle or Boltzmann equation methods are necessary for, but not limited to, problems with $Kn > 0.05$. In our studies we have used a particle method, Bird’s direct simulation Monte Carlo method, to study acoustics which allows us to simulate real gas effects for all values of $Kn$ with a molecular model that continuum methods cannot offer. Direct simulation Monte Carlo allows us to explore acoustics at varying temperatures, molecular composition, Knudsen numbers, and amplitude. Our current simulations of gas mixtures have employed different methods to model the internal degrees of freedom in molecules and the exchange of translational, rotational and vibrational energies in collisions. One of these methods is the fully classical rigid-rotor/harmonic-oscillator model for rotation and vibration developed by Borgnakke and Larsen. A second takes into account the discrete quantum energy levels for vibration with rotation treated classically. This method gives a more realistic representation of
the internal structure of diatomic and polyatomic molecules. In our studies, we have investigated the application of these methods with the direct simulation - at the molecular level - of the propagation of sound and its attenuation along with their dependence on temperature for diatomic nitrogen systems.

1. INTRODUCTION

Fluid dynamics models can be categorized into two groups: continuum methods and particle methods. Continuum methods, which are popular for acoustic problems, model the fluid as a continuous medium. This model describes the state of the fluid with macroscopic level using quantities such as density, velocity, and temperature. The continuum approximation is valid when the characteristic length of the problem is much larger than the mean free path. This assumption is satisfied for many engineering problems, and thus fluid dynamics can be described using continuum equations such as the Navier-Stokes or Euler equations.

However, the continuum model has its limitations. The macroscopic model assumes deviations from thermal equilibrium are small, and it is the failure of the closure of the Navier-Stokes equations that limit the applications of this approach. The Knudsen number \( Kn \) is defined as the mean free path divided by a characteristic length and is a measure of the nonequilibrium or viscous effects of the gas. The Knudsen number is also used to distinguish the regimes where different governing equations of fluid dynamics are applicable. The Navier-Stokes equations are valid for \( Kn < 0.05 \) and reduce to the Euler equations as \( Kn \) approaches 0. The Boltzmann equation is the mathematical model for particle methods and is valid for all \( Kn \). Therefore, particle methods are necessary for, but not limited to, problems where the Knudsen number is greater than 0.05.

Particle methods are based on molecular models and describe the state of the gas at the microscopic level. Despite the fact that the Boltzmann equation has been derived using a microscopic approach, it can be shown that the Boltzmann equation will reduce to the continuum conservation equations (e.g. Navier-Stokes) for low \( Kn \).

Direct simulation Monte Carlo is a stochastic, particle-based method developed by Bird that is capable of simulating real gas effects for all values of \( Kn \) with a molecular model that traditional continuum models cannot offer [1]. The Knudsen number is large for sound propagation in very dilute gases or at high frequencies. Prior work with DSMC has shown that sound absorption depends heavily on \( Kn \) for acoustic wave propagation in monatomic gases [2]. The successful application of DSMC to nonlinear acoustic waves has also been demonstrated for monatomic and diatomic gases [3]. Further investigation has led to the study of absorption with a more realistic emphasis on the models used for the energy exchange found in inelastic collisions. Both discrete and continuous internal energy models have been examined at a variety of temperatures and Knudsen numbers in order to gain a more fundamental understanding of the effects of vibrational and rotational modes in nonlinear acoustics.

2. DIRECT SIMULATION MONTE CARLO

Direct simulation Monte Carlo is a stochastic method used to computationally model gas flows with thousands or millions of representative molecules through the direct physical modeling of particle motions and intermolecular collisions. DSMC is based on the kinetic theory of gases
with the movement of particles being determined by their velocities and treated deterministically. On the other hand, collisions are determined statistically (independent of their position in a cell) but are required to conserve mass, momentum, and energy. In DSMC the particle positions and velocities are initialized randomly and the boundary conditions are applied to exhibit the appropriate behavior of the system being modeled and ultimately determine the final solution.

The DSMC program used contains several types of energy models to treat molecules in gas mixtures with internal energy. Internal energy is divided into rotational and vibrational modes and has been programmed to simulate classical or quantum behavior or a combination of both. The classical model for rotation and vibration was first developed by Borgnakke and Larsen [4] and uses a phenomenological approach to handle inelastic collisions between molecules with internal degrees of freedom. Our continuous model based on work by Bird [1] obeys detailed balancing and selects the post-collision internal energies by sampling from known equilibrium distributions associated with a notional temperature based on the collision energy. The rate at which the collisions are inelastic and result in an exchange of energy is a function of both temperature and the molecular species contained within the system.

A second model used in this research for handling internal energy exchange accounts for the quantum nature of the internal energy of the molecules. This model uses discrete, quantized energy levels to represent the vibrational state of the molecules and is a more realistic representation of the internal structure of diatomic and polyatomic molecules. The model is based primarily on those developed by Anderson [5] and Boyd [6] and uses characteristic temperatures and collision energies to determine the populations at specified energy levels for a given molecular species.

Simulations of nitrogen with a fully classical rotation-vibration model and a quasi classical rotation-vibration model are given to test the molecular relaxation as a function of the number of collisions per molecule in Figures 1 and 2, respectively. Both simulations were completed under the same conditions in a single cell with a length of 1/2 the mean free path, an initial freestream (translational) temperature of 4000 K, and on average 1 out of every 5 collisions treated as inelastic. Relaxation is the mechanism at which the system exchanges energy between translational and internal modes in order to reach a state of thermal equilibrium. Both cases are compared to simple theoretical treatments (model rates) derived by Bird [1] to determine the validity of the models. Figure 1 shows excellent agreement between the exponential model and the classical rate of exchange. In Figure 2, if no quantum behavior was present, the relaxation rate would be expected to match the model rate. The coupled classical rotation/quantum vibration model deviates from this idealized exponential rate and in fact gives a more realistic rate of exchange by modeling discrete vibrational levels.

3. THEORY

The physical properties of the absorption of sound include classical losses associated with the transfer of acoustic energy into heat and relaxation losses associated with the redistribution of internal energy of molecules. The relaxation losses are associated with the relaxation of the molecule’s rotational energy and the losses associated with the relaxation of the molecule’s vibrational energy. The total absorption coefficient $\alpha$ in Np/m is usually written [7] as

$$\alpha = \alpha_{cr} + \alpha_{vib} ,$$

(1)
where $\alpha_{\text{cr}}$ is the combined attenuation due to classical (translational) and rotational relaxation losses and $\alpha_{\text{vib}}$ is the attenuation due to vibrational relaxation losses.

Greenspan [8] presents theoretical expressions based on the Navier-Stokes equations for the combined absorption due to classical and rotational relaxation. Greenspan writes the absorption due to translational and rotational relaxation $\alpha_{\text{cr}}$ as

$$\alpha_{\text{cr}} = \frac{\alpha_{\text{cl}} \beta_{\text{rot}}}{\beta_0} + \frac{\alpha_{\text{rot}} \beta_{\text{cl}}}{\beta_0},$$

(2)

where $\beta_0 = \omega/c_0$ with $c_0$ is the low frequency, low amplitude speed of sound, and $\omega$ is the acoustic angular frequency in rad/sec. $\beta_{\text{rot}} = c_{\text{rot}}/c_0$ and $\beta_{\text{cl}} = c_{\text{cl}}/c_0$ are the scaled phase speed for translational and rotational relaxation, respectively. $\beta_{\text{rot}}$ and $\alpha_{\text{rot}}$ can be written in terms of the rotational relaxation collision number, where $\beta_{\text{cl}}$ and $\alpha_{\text{cl}}$ are functions of $Kn$ and are derived from the Navier-Stokes equations. The solution to the Navier-Stokes equations can be written in terms of the complex classical propagation constant $K_{\text{cl}} = \alpha_{\text{cl}} + i\beta_{\text{cl}}$ and is given by the dispersion relation

$$\left(\frac{\omega}{c_0}\right)^2 + \left[1 + i\omega\left(\frac{4\mu}{3\rho} + \frac{\kappa}{pc_v}\right)\right] K_{\text{cl}}^2 + \frac{\kappa}{\omega pc_v} \left[i\frac{\omega}{\gamma} - \frac{4\omega\mu}{3 c_0^2\rho}\right] K_{\text{cl}}^4 = 0,$$

(3)

where $\mu$ is the coefficient of viscosity, $\kappa$ is the coefficient of thermal conductivity, and $c_v$ is the specific heat at constant volume.

At low frequencies, Eq (2) reduces to $\alpha_{\text{cr}} = \alpha_{\text{cl}} + \alpha_{\text{rot}}$ and all absorption mechanisms are additive. In that limit, $\alpha_{\text{cl}}$ becomes the familiar expression

$$\alpha_{\text{cl}} = \frac{\omega^2}{2\rho_0 c_0^2} \left(\frac{4}{3}\mu + \frac{(\gamma - 1)\kappa}{c_p}\right).$$

(4)

It has been shown that the absorption due to vibrational relaxation is important to sound propagation on the Earth’s atmosphere [9]. There have been many approaches for the theoretical development of absorption due to vibrational relaxation. The most common approach assumes
the absorption due to a single relaxation process takes the form

\[ \alpha_{\text{relax}} = \pi s \frac{f_r^2}{c_0 \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{f}{f_r} \right)^2 \right]^2}, \]  

(5)

where \( s \) is the relaxation strength and \( f_r \) is the frequency of maximum absorption due to the relaxation process (relaxation frequency). While the development of Eq (5) relies on microscopic information of the internal structure of the molecules it is inherently a macroscopic relationship.

Comparison between the above theoretical predictions for the absorption of sound and experiment show poor agreement at high \( Kn \) due to the invalid continuum assumption at high \( Kn \). In addition, experimentation at high \( Kn \) is difficult [10] and is dependent on distance between source and receiver [11]. Several molecular-kinetics adjustments have been made to the theory to account for the discrepancy at high \( Kn \) with varying degrees of success. Sutherland and Bass [7] use an empirical adjustment to account for the high \( Kn \) behavior while Buckner and Ferziger [12] and Sirovich and Thurber [13] use approximations to the Boltzmann equation to describe deviation from the Navier-Stokes prediction for a monatomic gas.

4. SIMULATION APPROACH

Due to the importance of relaxation effects on the absorption of sound, our interest is in investigating the relative importance of internal energy models as a function of \( Kn \). The acoustic waves were generated in the simulation domain by creating a piston boundary condition at one end of the domain. In all cases the velocity amplitude of the piston source is 20 m/s. Results for varying \( Kn \) were simulated in gaseous nitrogen as a hard sphere (molecular weight \( M = 28.01 \) and hard sphere diameter \( \sigma = 3.78 \times 10^{-10} \) m). The variation in \( Kn \) was obtained by maintaining the cells per wavelength constant at 100, but varying the cell size from 1/2 of a mean free path to 1/200 of a mean free path. Each cell contained 50 particles per cell on average. The time step was taken to be at least an order of magnitude smaller than the mean collision time and is on the order of picoseconds for each case. Care was taken that the time step remained smaller than the acoustic period of oscillation.

Calculations were performed at temperatures of 273 K, 2000 K, and 4000 K in order to monitor the temperature dependence of the excitation of the vibrational mode of nitrogen. Nitrogen’s characteristic temperature was specified as 3371 K, which allows for a single vibrational energy level to adequately model the temperatures simulated (as shown in Figure 2). For the classical model, a single degree of freedom represented by two square terms was simulated. For both approaches, nitrogen was modeled using two rotational degrees of freedom with each degree of freedom represented by a single square term. Each case was initialized in thermal equilibrium, but since molecular relaxation is a nonequilibrium process, we expect deviation from equilibrium. Section 5.2 describes this in further detail.

Dissociation of diatomic nitrogen in the high temperature-low pressure systems was found to be negligible for the conditions at which the simulations were run. An independent simulation was completed using DSMC in a single cell 1/30 of a mean free path containing 25,000 nitrogen molecules. This allowed for very similar temperatures and pressures to that of Figure 5 in Section 5 which was determined to have the greatest likelihood for dissociation. Using a line-of-centers reaction model, the nitrogen molecules were given the opportunity to dissociate.
and was recorded if such an event occurred. The Arrhenius expression chosen to model the rate of dissociation was \( k = 3.0 \times 10^{21} T^{-1.5} e^{-113,260/T} \) cm\(^3\) mol\(^{-1}\) sec\(^{-1}\) by Hammerling et al. [14]. The results were averaged over 20 ensembles to simulate a total of 500,000 molecules and recorded an average of 1449 dissociations over 7 \( \mu \)s. It was determined that approximately 10,950 collisions were encountered, on average, between each dissociation. Based on the rate expression, the total simulation time and the pressure, the simulations in Figure 5 are predicted to have less than 1 molecule undergo dissociation over the entire simulation. This was validated with an independent DSMC simulation that allowed for dissociation modeled under very similar conditions.

A parallel, object-oriented DSMC solver was developed for this problem. The code was written in C++ and Message Passing Interface (MPI) for interprocessor communication, and was run on massively parallel computers. The object-oriented approach allows the DSMC algorithm to be divided into physical objects that are individually maintained. Cell and Particle classes were created to govern fundamental components of the algorithm. With this object oriented technique it was possible to develop a C++ code that was easy to read, maintain and modify. Despite excellent parallel efficiency, CPU time and memory requirements were quite large, taking approximately 6 hours on 32 processors for each run.

5. RESULTS

5.1. Absorption as a function of temperature

At low temperatures the quantum vibrational model will exhibit almost no vibrational activity as a large majority of diatomic nitrogen molecules will populate only the ground state given the high characteristic temperature. In contrast, the classical model allows for a continuous distribution of vibrational energy determined by the capacity of the molecule and energy available. At this low temperature, continuous and discrete vibrational models are expected to produce different results due to their contrasting behaviors. The classical harmonic oscillator model assumes a fully active vibrational mode while the quantum harmonic oscillator does not. At higher temperatures these models become more similar as the excited state will contain a much larger distribution of molecules.

The scaled absorption \( \alpha/k_0 \) as a function of \( Kn \) is shown for 273 K, 2000 K and 4000 K in Figures 3, 4, and 5, respectively. DSMC results are also plotted against theoretical predictions given by Equations 2, 3, and 4. The results for the quantum, classical, and no vibration models are shown for a range of \( Kn \) in each case. The scaled absorption data was computed with two wavelengths for each case. Large deviations from continuum theory are seen for high \( Kn \), as expected. In each temperature case, differences between the models are small for low \( Kn \). For \( Kn \) near the relaxation frequency, the amount of absorption depends more heavily on the vibrational model and temperature.

Due to the stochastic nature of DSMC, there is an intrinsic degree of scatter in the simulation results. Scatter is reduced by averaging many independent ensembles and random error is estimated from variance in repeated runs. As the temperature increases, the amount of scatter increases. The amount of random error was found to have no significant effect on the results shown for 273 K. However, for 2000 K and 4000 K the error is more significant. Error bars indicating one standard deviation are given for several simulations completed.

As the temperature increases, the excited state for discrete vibration becomes more pop-
ulated. Therefore the differences between continuous and discrete vibrational models should become less, as is shown in Figures 4 and 5.

Figure 3. Scaled absorption in nitrogen for 273 K

Figure 4. Scaled absorption in nitrogen for 2000 K

Figure 5. Scaled absorption in nitrogen for 4000 K

Figure 6. Nonequilibrium effects for $Kn = 0.02$ at 273 K

5.2. Nonequilibrium

The physics of molecular relaxation imply that when a system that starts in equilibrium is subject to a sound source, there is a time delay between the exchange in energy between translational and internal modes. The details of this relaxation process are shown in Figure 6 where the temperatures associated with the translational, rotational, and classical vibrational modes are specified for $Kn = 0.02$ at 273 K. The relaxation time for the classical vibrational model is considerably longer than that for rotation and is evident by the minimal disturbance in the vibrational temperature.

6. CONCLUSIONS

Using the direct simulation Monte Carlo method, it is possible to simulate the details of molecular relaxation. An investigation with two internal energy models was performed as a function of $Kn$ for multiple temperatures. Large deviations from continuum theory were seen for high $Kn$. Differences between internal energy modes were small for low $Kn$ at low temperatures.
and for all $Kn$ at high temperatures. Nonequilibrium effects were evident in the simulations, even at low $Kn$, due to the infrequency of inelastic collisions and inherent differences in the internal energy models.

REFERENCES


