Classical Density Functional Theory (cDFT) for Thermopack

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1 Introduction

The purpose of classical Density Functional Theory (cDFT) for fluids is to study heterogeneous systems such as planar vapor-liquid interfaces, droplets, bubbles and confined fluids. The following document describes the implementation of a cDFT code that couples to the Thermopack thermodynamics code [22, 17]. This note will provide a brief introduction to the fundamentals, with special reference to how they are handled in the code.

2 The overall concept - Functional minimization

A common starting point for cDFT is the grand canonical functional:

$$\Omega([\{\rho_i\}]) = F([\{\rho_i\}]) + \sum_{i=1}^{N_c} \rho_i(\mathbf{r}) \left(V_i^{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}) - \mu_i\right) d\mathbf{r}$$
(1)

where ρ_i is the density of component i, F is the Helmholtz energy functional, $V_i^{\rm ext}$ is the external potentials acting on component i, μ_i is the chemical potential of component i and ${\bf r}$ is the coordinate. In the following, similar to Stierle et al. [18], we shall use square brackets to denote a functional dependence, and curly brackets to indicate a vector of all components in a mixture.

Equilibrium at fixed temperature, T and chemical potentials is a minimum of the grand canonical functional. A stationary state is defined by setting all functional derivatives equal to zero (The Euler Lagrange equations), which gives:

$$\frac{\delta F\left[\{\rho_i\}\right]}{\delta \rho_i(\mathbf{r})} = \mu_j - V_j^{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}) \tag{2}$$

cDFT amounts to solving the above equations, but the physics of course has to be put into the functionals.

2.1 Solving the equations

Before embarking on how to describe the functionals, lets have a look at how Eq. 2 is usually solved. Since at equilibrium the chemical potentials are constant, we can

insert for μ_j from the bulk (superscript bulk), and we can split into ideal gas and residual contributions as follows:

$$F\left[\left\{\rho_{i}\right\}\right] = F^{ig}\left[\left\{\rho_{i}\right\}\right] + F^{res}\left[\left\{\rho_{i}\right\}\right] \tag{3}$$

$$\mu_i = \mu_i^{\text{ig}} + \mu_i^{\text{res}} = \mu_i^{\text{bulk}} \tag{4}$$

where

$$F^{ig}[\{\rho_i\}] = \frac{1}{\beta} \sum_{i=1}^{N_c} \int \rho_i(\mathbf{r}) \left(\ln \left(\rho_i(\mathbf{r}) \Lambda_i^3 \right) - 1 \right) d\mathbf{r}$$
 (5)

$$\mu_i^{ig,bulk} = \frac{\ln\left(\rho_i^{\text{bulk}}\Lambda_i^3\right)}{\beta} \tag{6}$$

where $\beta = 1/k_BT$. Using this in Eq. 1 results in:

$$\Omega\left[\left\{\rho_{i}\right\}\right] = \sum_{i=1}^{N_{c}} \int \frac{\rho_{i}\left(\mathbf{r}\right)}{\beta} \left(\ln\left(\frac{\rho_{i}\left(\mathbf{r}\right)}{\rho_{i}^{\text{bulk}}}\right) - 1\right) + \rho_{i}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) \left(V_{i}^{\text{ext}}\left(\mathbf{r}\right) - \mu_{i}^{\text{res,bulk}}\right) d\mathbf{r} + F^{\text{res}}\left[\left\{\rho_{i}\right\}\right]$$
(7)

Setting the functional derivative equal to zero for the above expression allows us to formulate the following self-consistent equation for the density profile of component j that should be satisfied for the equilibrium profiles:

$$\rho_{j}(\mathbf{r}) = \rho_{j}^{\text{bulk}} \exp\left(\beta \mu_{j}^{\text{res, bulk}} - \beta V_{j}^{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}) - \frac{\delta F^{\text{res}}[\{\rho_{i}\}]}{\delta \rho_{j}(\mathbf{r})}\right)$$
(8)

The above equation can be used in a Picard iteration scheme, or the faster Anderson mixing approach [10].

The main challenge in cDFT is to define and compute the functional derivative of the Helmholtz energy, which will be the focus in the following sections.

2.2 The Weighted Density Approximation (WDA)

In order to formulate the Helmholtz energy functional for inhomogeneous systems (and also homogeneous systems), one uses so-called Weighted Density Approximation (WDA) functionals:

$$\beta F\left[\left\{\rho_{i}\right\}\right] = \int \Phi\left(\left\{n_{\alpha}\left(\mathbf{r}\right)\right\}\right) d\mathbf{r} \tag{9}$$

where Φ is the reduced Helmholtz energy density. The WDA-functional depends on the *weighted densities*, which are calculated via convolution of the density profiles as follows:

$$n_{\alpha} = \sum_{i}^{N_{c}} \int d\mathbf{r}' \rho_{i} (\mathbf{r}') w_{i}^{\alpha} (\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}') \equiv \sum_{i}^{N_{c}} \rho_{i} (\mathbf{r}) \circledast w_{i}^{\alpha} (\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{i}^{N_{c}} n_{\alpha,i}$$
(10)

and

$$n_{\alpha,i} = \rho_i(\mathbf{r}) \circledast w_i^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) \tag{11}$$

The residual Helmholtz energy of an equation of state such as PC-SAFT, or SAFT-VR-Mie can be split into several terms, e.g:

$$F^{\text{res}}[\{\rho_{i}\}] = F^{\text{hs}}[\{\rho_{i}\}] + F^{\text{hc}}[\{\rho_{i}\}] + F^{\text{disp}}[\{\rho_{i}\}] + F^{\text{polar}}[\{\rho_{i}\}] + F^{\text{assoc}}[\{\rho_{i}\}]$$
(12)

where the terms on the right-hand-side are from the hard-sphere reference, chain contribution, dispersion contribution, polar contribution and association contribution respectively. The different terms use different weight functions and approximation.

2.3 The one body correlation function

The one body correlation functions is given from the Helmholtz free energy functional as,

$$c^{(1)}(\mathbf{r}) = \beta \frac{\partial \mathcal{F}_{\text{ex}}[\rho]}{\partial \rho(\mathbf{r})} = -\sum_{\alpha} \int d\mathbf{r}' \frac{\partial \Phi_{\alpha}}{\partial n_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial n_{\alpha}}{\partial \rho}.$$
 (13)

In a planar geometry, the one body correlation function simply becomes,

$$\frac{\partial n_{\alpha}(z')}{\partial \rho(z)} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho(z)} \int dz'' \rho(z'') w_{\alpha}(z' - z'') = w_{\alpha}(z' - z), \qquad (14)$$

$$c^{(1)}(z) = -\sum_{\alpha} \int dz' \frac{\partial \Phi_{\alpha}}{\partial n_{\alpha}} w_{\alpha} (z' - z).$$
 (15)

3 The hard-sphere term - Fundamental Measure Theory

We shall start with the arguably most important term in cDFT, the hard-sphere term. To describe the hard-sphere term, we shall use Fundamental Measure Theory (FMT), where the weight functions are given by

$$w_3^i(\mathbf{r}) = \Theta(R_i - |\mathbf{r}|) \tag{16}$$

$$w_2^i(\mathbf{r}) = \delta(R_i - |\mathbf{r}|) \tag{17}$$

$$w_1^i(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi R_i} w_2^i(\mathbf{r}) \tag{18}$$

$$w_0^i(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi R_i^2} w_2^i(\mathbf{r}) \tag{19}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{2}^{i}(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{\mathbf{r}}{|\mathbf{r}|} \delta(R_{i} - |\mathbf{r}|)$$
 (20)

$$\mathbf{w}_1^i(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi R_i} \mathbf{w}_2^i. \tag{21}$$

Here Θ is the Heaviside function, and δ are the Dirac delta function.

FMT for hard sphere mixtures was first developed by Rosenfeld [13]. The name "measure" relates to the fundamental geometrical measures (volume, surface area, mean radius of curvature and the Euler characteristic) of a sphere particle. The fundamental geometrical measures are recovered when integrating the weight functions in Eqs. 16-21. Historically, there are three FMT functionals used for hard-sphere mixtures, which differ only in terms of how the reduced Helmholtz energy density, Φ depends on the weighted densities.

The FMT introduced by Rosenfelt (Sec. 3.1) reduces to the compressibility from the Percus Yevick integral equation in the bulk phases. This is a decent, but not very accurate description of the hard-sphere mixture, in particular at higher densities.

For the White Bear functional [14], the bulk phase properties are consistent with additive hard-sphere mixture compressibillity of Boublík [1] and Mansoori-Carnahan-Starling-Leland (MCSL) [11]. This functional will be presented in Sec. 3.3, and it is the functional that is normally used for e.g. PC-SAFT:

The BMCSL equation of state leads to a excess free energy density that is slightly inconsistent, and a new generalization of the Carnahan- Starling [2] equation of state to mixtures was derived, the White Bear Mark II [8].

3.1 The Rosenfeld functional

The Rosenfeld functional for the hard-sphere mixture term uses the following reduced Helmholtz energy functional:

$$\Phi^{\text{RF}} = -n_0 \ln(1 - n_3) + \frac{n_1 n_2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{1 - n_3} + \frac{n_2^3 - 3n_2 \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{24\pi (1 - n_3)^2}$$
(22)

The differentials needed when searching for the Grand potential and the equilibrium density profile:

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{RF}}{\partial n_0} = -\ln\left(1 - n_3\right) \tag{23}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial n_1} = \frac{n_2}{1 - n_3} \tag{24}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial n_2} = \frac{n_1}{1 - n_3} + \frac{n_2^2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{8\pi (1 - n_3)^2}$$
 (25)

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial n_3} = \frac{n_0}{1 - n_3} + \frac{n_1 n_2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{(1 - n_3)^2} + \frac{n_2^3 - 3n_2 \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{12\pi (1 - n_3)^3}$$
(26)

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1} = -\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{1 - n_3} \tag{27}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2} = -\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}}_1}{1 - n_3} - \frac{n_2 \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{4\pi (1 - n_3)^2}$$
 (28)

3.1.1 Weight functions for planar geometry

For the planar geometry $\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \rho(z)$, and the weight functions can be integrated for the x, y dimensions.

$$W_{\nu}(z) = \int_{-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx dy w_{\nu} \left(\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \right) = 2\pi \int_{|z|}^{\infty} dr r w_{\nu}(r)$$
 (29)

This can be integrated analytically to

$$w_3^i(z) = \pi (R_i^2 - z^2) \Theta(R_i - |z|)$$
(30)

$$w_2^i(z) = 2\pi R_i \Theta(R_i - |z|) \tag{31}$$

$$\mathbf{w}_{2}^{i}(z) = 2\pi z \mathbf{e}_{z} \Theta(R_{i} - |z|)$$
(32)

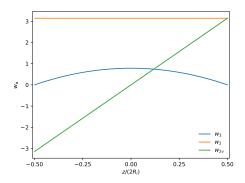


Figure 1: Planar weight functions.

The planar weight functions are visualized in Figure 1.

3.1.2 Weight functions for spherical geometry

For the shperical geometry $\rho(\mathbf{r}) = \rho(r)$, and the weight functions can be integrated for the angle dimensions.

$$W_{v}(r) = \int_{-\infty-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx dy w_{v}\left(\sqrt{x^{2} + y^{2} + z^{2}}\right) = 4\pi \int_{|r|}^{\infty} dr r^{2} w_{v}(r)$$
(33)

TODO

3.2 The White Bear functional

The reduced Helmholtz energy of the White Bear functional with derivatives is:

$$\Phi^{\text{WB}} = -n_0 \ln(1 - n_3) + \frac{n_1 n_2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{1 - n_3} + \left(n_2^3 - 3n_2 \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2\right) \frac{n_3 + (1 - n_3)^2 \ln(1 - n_3)}{36\pi n_3^2 (1 - n_3)^2}$$
(34)

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WB}}}{\partial n_0} = -\ln\left(1 - n_3\right) \tag{35}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WB}}}{\partial n_1} = \frac{n_2}{1 - n_3} \tag{36}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WB}}}{\partial n_2} = \frac{n_1}{1 - n_3} + \left(n_2^2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2\right) \frac{n_3 + (1 - n_3)^2 \ln(1 - n_3)}{12\pi n_3^2 (1 - n_3)^2}$$
(37)

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{\Phi}^{\text{WB}}}{\partial n_3} = \frac{n_0}{1 - n_3} + \frac{n_1 n_2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{(1 - n_3)^2}$$

$$+\left(n_{2}^{3}-3n_{2}\vec{\mathbf{n}}_{2}\cdot\vec{\mathbf{n}}_{2}\right)\left(\frac{n_{3}\left(5-n_{3}\right)-2}{36\pi n_{3}^{2}\left(1-n_{3}\right)^{3}}-\frac{\ln\left(1-n_{3}\right)}{18\pi n_{3}^{3}}\right)$$
(38)

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WB}}}{\partial \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1} = -\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}}_2}{1 - n_3} \tag{39}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WB}}}{\partial \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2} = -\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}}_1}{1 - n_3} - n_2 \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \frac{n_3 + (1 - n_3)^2 \ln(1 - n_3)}{6\pi n_3^2 (1 - n_3)^2}$$
(40)

3.3 The White Bear Mark II functional

The reduced Helmholtz energy of the White Bear Mark II functional with derivatives is:

$$\Phi^{\text{WBII}} = -n_0 \ln (1 - n_3) + (n_1 n_2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2) \frac{1 + \frac{1}{3} \phi_2 (n_3)}{1 - n_3} + (n_2^3 - 3n_2 \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2) \frac{1 - \frac{1}{3} \phi_3 (n_3)}{24\pi (1 - n_3)^2}$$
(41)

with,

$$\phi_2(n_3) = \frac{1}{n_3} \left(2n_3 - n_3^2 + 2(1 - n_3) \ln(1 - n_3) \right) \tag{42}$$

$$\phi_3(n_3) = \frac{1}{n_3^2} \left(2n_3 - 3n_3^2 + 2n_3^3 + 2(1 - n_3)^2 \ln(1 - n_3) \right)$$
 (43)

$$\frac{d\phi_2}{dn_3} = -1 - \frac{2}{n_3} - \frac{2\ln(1 - n_3)}{n_3^2} \tag{44}$$

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}\phi_3}{\mathrm{d}n_3} = -\frac{4(1-n_3)\ln(1-n_3)}{n_3^3} - \frac{4}{n_3^2} + \frac{2}{n_3} + 2\tag{45}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WBII}}}{\partial n_0} = -\ln\left(1 - n_3\right) \tag{46}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WBII}}}{\partial n_1} = \frac{n_2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \phi_2\right)}{1 - n_3} \tag{47}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WBII}}}{\partial n_2} = \frac{n_1 \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \phi_2 \right)}{1 - n_3} + \frac{\left(n_2^2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \right) \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} \phi_3 \right)}{8\pi \left(1 - n_3 \right)^2} \tag{48}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WBII}}}{\partial n_3} = \frac{n_0}{1 - n_3} + (n_1 n_2 - \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2) \left(\frac{\frac{1}{3} \frac{d\phi_2}{dn_3}}{1 - n_3} + \frac{1 + \frac{1}{3} \phi_2}{(1 - n_3)^2} \right) + \frac{(n_2^3 - 3n_2 \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \cdot \vec{\mathbf{n}}_2)}{24\pi (1 - n_3)^2} \left(-\frac{1}{3} \frac{d\phi_3}{dn_3} + \frac{2(1 - \frac{1}{3} \phi_3)}{1 - n_3} \right) \tag{49}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WBII}}}{\partial \vec{\mathbf{n}}_1} = -\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}}_2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \phi_2\right)}{1 - n_3} \tag{50}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{WBII}}}{\partial \vec{\mathbf{n}}_{2}} = -\frac{\vec{\mathbf{n}}_{1} \left(1 + \frac{1}{3} \phi_{2}\right)}{1 - n_{3}} - \frac{n_{2} \vec{\mathbf{n}}_{2} \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} \phi_{3}\right)}{4\pi \left(1 - n_{3}\right)^{2}}$$
(51)

3.4 The chain rule, convolutions and Fourier transforms

The last term in the functional derivative (Eq. 8) must for the hard-sphere term be expanded by use of the chain rule:

$$\beta \frac{\delta F^{\text{hs}}\left[\left\{\rho_{i}\right\}\right]}{\delta \rho_{j}(\mathbf{r})} = \sum_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{hs}}}{\partial n_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}')} \frac{\delta n_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}')}{\delta \rho_{j}(\mathbf{r})}$$
(52)

Furthermore, it can be shown that [18]:

$$\frac{\delta n_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}')}{\delta \rho_{j}(\mathbf{r})} = w_{j}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}')$$
(53)

which gives:

$$\beta \frac{\delta F^{\text{hs}}\left[\{\rho_{i}\}\right]}{\delta \rho_{i}(\mathbf{r})} = \sum_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \Phi^{hs}}{\partial n_{\alpha}} \circledast w_{j}^{\alpha} \tag{54}$$

which is a convolution of the derivative of the reduced Helmholtz density. Furthermore, the first term in the product is a function of the weighted densities, which are also convolutions (see Eq. 11). While convolutions can, in principle, be calculated by performing the intergrals in question numerically, it is both faster and more accurate to use fourier space transforms to do this task. The idea here is that while the convolution is an integral in real space, it is a product between two fourier transformed functions in Fourier space. The weighted density, for instance, can be calculated by:

$$n_{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{i}^{N_{c}} \rho_{i}(\mathbf{r}) \circledast w_{i}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r})$$

$$= \mathscr{F}^{-1} \left[\mathscr{F} \left[\rho_{i}(\mathbf{r}) \right] \mathscr{F} \left[w_{i}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{r}) \right] \right]$$

$$= \mathscr{F}^{-1} \left[\hat{\rho}_{i}(\mathbf{k}) \hat{w}_{i}^{\alpha}(\mathbf{k}) \right]$$
(55)

where refers to the transform of the respective quantity.

3.4.1 Analytic representation of the transformed weight functions

The convolutions above are all taken with respect to the weight functions, w_i^{α} . The transforms of these functions can be computed analytically. The analytical expressions depend on which transform that is used. For the Fourier transform, they are:

$$\hat{w}_i^0(\mathbf{k}) = j_0(2\pi R_i |\mathbf{k}|) \tag{56}$$

$$\hat{w}_i^1(\mathbf{k}) = R_i j_0 \left(2\pi R_i |\mathbf{k}| \right) \tag{57}$$

$$\hat{w}_i^2(\mathbf{k}) = 4\pi R_i^2 j_0(2\pi R_i |\mathbf{k}|) \tag{58}$$

$$\hat{w}_{i}^{3}(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{4}{3}\pi R_{i}^{3} \left(j_{0} \left(2\pi R_{i} |\mathbf{k}| \right) + j_{2} \left(2\pi R_{i} |\mathbf{k}| \right) \right)$$
 (59)

$$\hat{w}_i^{V1}(\mathbf{k}) = \frac{-i\mathbf{k}}{2R_i}\hat{w}_i^3(\mathbf{k}) \tag{60}$$

$$\hat{w}_i^{V2}(\mathbf{k}) = -i2\pi \mathbf{k} \hat{w}_i^3(\mathbf{k}) \tag{61}$$

Here, j_z is the Bessel functions of first kind of order z, \mathbf{k} is the coordinate in Fourier space and R_i is the hard-sphere diameter of component i which is just a constant.

3.4.2 Minimum number of convolutions for efficient computations

From a numerical point of view, we would like to perform as few convolutions in Fourier space as possible. Looking at Eq. 56-61, we see that:

$$\hat{w}_i^0 = \frac{\hat{w}_i^2}{4\pi R_i^2} \tag{62}$$

$$\hat{w}_i^1 = \frac{\hat{w}_i^2}{4\pi R_i} \tag{63}$$

$$\hat{w}_i^{V1} = \frac{\hat{w}_i^{V2}}{4\pi R_i} \tag{64}$$

where R_i is a constant. This means that we only need to perform three convolutions for each component to compute the weighted densities, for $n_{2,i}$, $n_{3,i}$ and $n_{V2,i}$ (see Eq. 11). then the rest follow from:

$$n_{0,i} = \frac{n_{2,i}}{4\pi R_i^2} \tag{65}$$

$$n_{1,i} = \frac{n_{2,i}}{4\pi R_i} \tag{66}$$

$$n_{V1,i} = \frac{n_{V2,i}}{4\pi R_i} \tag{67}$$

Furthermore, we also need to compute convolutions in Eq. 54, and we can use the same procedure here, where:

$$\sum_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \Phi^{hs}}{\partial n_{\alpha}} \circledast w_{j}^{\alpha} = \Phi^{hs}_{2,j,\text{eff}} \circledast w_{j}^{2} + \frac{\partial \Phi^{hs}}{\partial n_{3}} \circledast w_{j}^{3} + \Phi^{hs}_{V2,j,\text{eff}} \circledast w_{j}^{V2}$$
(68)

where

$$\Phi_{2,i,\text{eff}}^{hs} = \frac{1}{4\pi R_i^2} \frac{\partial \Phi^{hs}}{\partial n_0} + \frac{1}{4\pi R_i} \frac{\partial \Phi^{hs}}{\partial n_1} + \frac{\partial \Phi^{hs}}{\partial n_2}$$
 (69)

$$\Phi_{2V,i,\text{eff}}^{hs} = \frac{1}{4\pi R_i} \frac{\partial \Phi^{hs}}{\partial n_{V1}} + \frac{\partial \Phi^{hs}}{\partial n_{V2}}$$
 (70)

4 Numerics

Solving of the convolution integrals in the FMT and cDFT in real space uses $O(N^2)$ operations, however according to the convolution theorem the integrals can

be done by Fourier transformations, leading to only $O(N \ln N)$ operations [15, 9]. Different options for solving the discrete fast Fourier transform (FFT) is available, FFTW (GNU General Public License), FFTPACK (MIT) and Python FFT.

The common approach used when solving classical DFT problems is Picard iterations. Instead of using a successive substituting iteration, $\tilde{\rho}^{(i)} \rightarrow \rho^{(i)}$, a mixing of the new density with the original density is used to dampen the effect of the new value, according to,

$$\tilde{\rho}^{(i+1)}(z) = \alpha \rho^{(i)}(z) + (1 - \alpha) \,\tilde{\rho}^{(i)}(z). \tag{71}$$

The main reason is to avoid n_3 values exceeding unity.

Often the Picard parameter is set to a fixed low value, typically $\alpha=0.1$, resulting in slow convergence. However using a line search requiring some decay in error is probably the best way to implement the Picard iterations. Roth [15] suggest using a simple quadratic line search. Roth [15] used the Grand Potential Ω , when evaluating the line search. [9] evaluated the $\|\tilde{\rho}^{(i)} - \rho^{(i)}\|$ as a function of α and found the minimum of a quadratic polynomial.

One simple way of accelerate the solution of the equilibrium density profile is by extrapolation as used by Ng [12].

[9] tested a Newton solver (using numerical approximations for the differentials), but they report linear convergence through most of the iteration steps. The use of inefficient generation of differentials was also reported as an issue.

Looking at Equation (14) and (15) we see that differentiating Equation (15) will require convolution of the $\Phi_{\alpha\gamma}$ with $w_{\alpha}(z'-z_1)w_{\gamma}(z'-z_2)$. The latter will become a matrix constant matrix requiering a convolution integral per element in the banded Jacobian. The matrix is constant and only the inverse Fourier transform will require computuational effort. Each of these elements will require CPU time similar to one half Picard iteration. For example if there are 1000 grid cells over the diameter of a particle, the generation of one Jacobian instance will be similar to 500 Picard iterations.

Parallel solution for the Fourier transforms are simple using the FFTW library....

4.0.1 Quadratures for the weight functions

Integrating on a regular grid the integral can be made more accurate using a qudrature formula

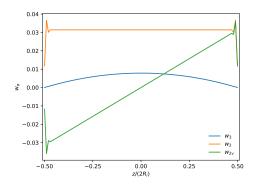


Figure 2: Actual planar weight functions.

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,

$$\int_{z_{N}}^{z_{1}} dz' f(z') g(z'-z) = \Delta z \left(\frac{3}{8} f_{1} g_{i-1} + \frac{7}{6} f_{2} g_{i-2} + \frac{23}{24} f_{3} g_{i-3} + f_{4} g_{i-4} + \dots + f_{N-3} g_{i-N+3} + \frac{23}{24} f_{N-2} g_{i-N+2} + \frac{7}{6} f_{N-1} g_{i-N+1} + \frac{3}{8} f_{N-2} g_{i-N+2}.$$
(72)

The qudarature is implemeted by multipying the end weights with by the quadrature weights.

The actual planar weight functions are visualized in Figure 2.

5 Perturbation theory

The canonical partition function,

$$Q_N = \frac{1}{h^{3N}N!} \int d\mathbf{p}^N \int d\mathbf{r}^N e^{-\beta \mathcal{H}}$$
 (73)

Relation between Helmholtz energy and partition function,

$$F = -k_{\rm B}T \ln Q_N \tag{74}$$

Using a Hamiltonian,

$$\mathcal{H} = \Phi\left(\mathbf{r}^{N}\right) + K\left(\mathbf{p}^{N}\right) + V_{\text{ext}}\left(\mathbf{r}^{N}\right),\tag{75}$$

where the kinetic energies is given from the moments,

$$K\left(\mathbf{p}^{N}\right) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{|\mathbf{p}_{i}|^{2}}{2m} \tag{76}$$

the partition function can be integrated with respect to the moments,

$$Q_{N} = \frac{1}{h^{3N}N!} \int d\mathbf{p}^{N} e^{-beta + K(\mathbf{p}^{N})} \int d\mathbf{r}^{N} e^{-\beta(\Phi(\mathbf{r}^{N}) + V_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}^{N}))}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\Lambda^{3N}N!} \int d\mathbf{r}^{N} e^{-\beta(\Phi(\mathbf{r}^{N}) + V_{\text{ext}}(\mathbf{r}^{N}))}$$

$$= \frac{Z_{N}}{\Lambda^{3N}N!}$$
(77)

where Z_N is the configurational integral, and Λ is the thermal de Broglie wavelength.

Having the perturbation potential

$$\phi_{\lambda}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') = \phi_{0}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') + \lambda \phi_{\text{att}}(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \quad 0 \le \lambda \le 1, \tag{78}$$

where λ is the perturbation strength, the potential energy felt between all particles is given by

$$\Phi\left(\mathbf{r}^{N}\right) = \sum_{j=1}^{N} \sum_{k>j}^{N} \phi_{\lambda}\left(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}'\right)$$
(79)

The excess Helmholtz energy can be differentiated with respect to λ using Equation (74),

$$\beta \frac{\partial F_{\text{ex}}}{\partial \lambda} = -\frac{1}{Z_N} \frac{\partial Z_N}{\partial \lambda} = \frac{\beta}{2} \int d\mathbf{r} \int d\mathbf{r}' \rho_{\lambda}^{(2)} (\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}') \phi_{\text{att}} (\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{r}')$$
(80)

we can also describe the Helmholtz energy using ensemble average, $\langle \dots \rangle_{\lambda}$, for a system described by ϕ_{λ} ,

$$\beta \frac{\partial F_{\text{ex}}}{\partial \lambda} = \langle \Phi' \rangle_{\lambda} \tag{81}$$

where $\frac{\partial \Phi_{\lambda}}{\partial \lambda} = \Phi_{\lambda}'$. Integration yields,

$$\beta F_{\rm ex} = \beta F_0 + \int_{\lambda=0}^{\lambda=1} d\lambda \langle \Phi' \rangle_{\lambda}$$
 (82)

In order to get ensemble averages over the reference system $\lambda = 0$, the average can be expanded in λ around $\lambda = 0$.

Leading to

$$\beta F_{\rm ex} = \beta F_0 + \beta F_1 + \beta F_2 + \beta F_3 + O(\beta^4)$$
 (83)

where

$$\beta F_1 = \beta \langle \Phi_{\text{aff}} \rangle_0 \tag{84}$$

$$\beta F_2 = -\frac{\beta^2}{2} \left[\langle \Phi_{\text{att}}^2 \rangle_0 - \langle \Phi_{\text{att}} \rangle_0^2 \right] \tag{85}$$

$$\beta F_3 = \frac{\beta^3}{3!} \left\langle \Phi_{\text{att}} - \langle \Phi_{\text{att}} \rangle_0 \right\rangle^3 \tag{86}$$

For pair-wise additive potentials we have,

$$\frac{\beta F_1}{N} = \frac{\beta \rho}{2} \int g_{\lambda}(r) \, \phi_{\text{att}}(r) \, dr \tag{87}$$

and to first order $g_{\lambda} = g_0$.

6 Approaches used when extending classical DFT to attractive fluids

6.1 Mean Field Theory (MFT)

Under the MFT approximation, $g_{\approx}1$, and Equation (87) simply becomes

$$\frac{\beta F_1}{N} = \frac{\beta \rho}{2} \phi_{\text{att}}(r) dr \tag{88}$$

For some reason it is common to use the WCA perturbation potential, however the hard-sphere diameter seem to be independent of density.

Check if cDFT_Package uses sigma=1 with WCA simulation....

6.2 Local density approximation (LDA)

Under the LDA assumption the Helmholtz energy density of an inhomogeneous system with density profile $\rho(r)$ is calculated using the bulk phase Helmholtz energy density evaluated at the value of the local density. This often work for surface tension calculations, however adjacent to walls where the density oscillate strongly and the local density can exceed the maximum packing fractions this will be a problem.

6.3 Weighted density approximation (WDA)

The WDA uses locally weighted densities and evaluates the Helmholtz energy functional with these densities. This methodology have proven successful even for fluid to wall interacting systems.

Sauer and Gross [16] Tarazona [19], Tarazona and Evans [20]

6.4 Nonlocal perturbation theory (NLP)

Gloor et al. [3] Gross [5]

7 The PCP-SAFT classical DFT

Sauer and Gross [16]

PC-SAFT Gross and Sadowski [6] Polar extensions Quadruplole-Quadruplole:Gross [4] Dipole-dipole:Gross and Vrabec [7] Dipole-Quadruplole: Vrabec and Gross [21]

8 Analytial Fourier transforms of the weight functions

Knepley et al. [9, Appendix B] derives the analytical Fourier transform for the weight functions.

8.1 Planar geometry

The weight functions in a planar geometry is derived in section 3.1.1. The weight functions can be transformed to Fourier space according to the definition,

$$\hat{w}_{\alpha}^{i}(k) = \mathcal{F}\left(w_{\alpha}^{i}(z)\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz w_{\alpha}^{i}(z) e^{-ikz}$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz w_{\alpha}^{i}(z) \cos(kz) + i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz w_{\alpha}^{i}(z) \sin(kz) \qquad (89)$$

Since w_3^i and w_2^i are even functions, the Fourier transform will be purely real valued, while \mathbf{w}_2^i is odd and therefore purly imaginary,

$$\hat{w}_{3}^{i} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz \pi \left(R_{i}^{2} - z^{2}\right) \Theta\left(R_{i} - |z|\right) \cos\left(kz\right)$$

$$= \pi \int_{-R_{i}}^{R_{i}} dz \left(R_{i}^{2} - z^{2}\right) \cos\left(kz\right)$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{k^{3}} \left(\sin\left(kR_{i}\right) - kR\cos\left(kR_{i}\right)\right)$$
(90)

$$\hat{w}_{2}^{i} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz 2\pi R_{i} \Theta(R_{i} - |z|) \cos(kz)$$

$$= 2\pi R_{i} \int_{-R_{i}}^{R_{i}} dz \cos(kz)$$

$$= \frac{4\pi R_{i}}{k} \sin(kR_{i})$$
(91)

$$\hat{\mathbf{w}}_{2}^{i} = i \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dz 2\pi \mathbf{z} \Theta(R_{i} - |z|) \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{z})$$

$$= 2\pi i \int_{-R_{i}}^{R_{i}} dz \mathbf{z} \cos(\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{z}) = -2\pi i \mathbf{e}_{k} \int_{-R_{i}}^{R_{i}} dz z \cos(kz)$$

$$= -\frac{4\pi i}{k^{2}} \left(\sin(kR_{i}) - kR_{i} \cos(kR_{i}) \right) \mathbf{e}_{k}$$
(92)

Comparing equations (90), (91) and (92), we see that the equation s

•••••

9 Bulk properties for hard spheres

The excess pressure of the system is described as

$$\beta p_{\text{ex}} = -\frac{\partial \beta \mathcal{F}_{\text{ex}}}{\partial V} = -\frac{\partial (V\Phi)}{\partial V} = -\Phi - V \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial n_{\alpha}}{\partial V} = -\Phi + \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{\alpha}} n_{\alpha}$$
(93)

The ideal pressure of the system is simply

$$\beta p_{\rm id} = n_0. \tag{94}$$

The excess chemical potential of the system is described as

$$\hat{\mu}_{\rm ex}^i = \beta \mu_{\rm ex}^i = \frac{\partial \beta \mathcal{F}_{\rm ex}}{\partial N_i} = \frac{\partial (V\Phi)}{\partial N_i} = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \rho_i} = \sum_{\alpha} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{\alpha}} \frac{\partial n_{\alpha}}{\partial \rho_i}$$
(95)

For the bulk limit we have

$$n_{0,b} = \sum_{i=1}^{NC} \rho_{i,b} \tag{96}$$

$$n_{1,b} = \sum_{i=1}^{NC} R_i \rho_{i,b}$$
 (97)

$$n_{2,b} = 4\pi \sum_{i=1}^{NC} R_i^2 \rho_{i,b}$$
 (98)

$$n_{3,b} = \frac{4\pi}{3} \sum_{i=1}^{NC} R_i^3 \rho_{i,b}$$
 (99)

and

$$\frac{\partial n_{0,b}}{\partial \rho_{i,b}} = 1 \tag{100}$$

$$\frac{\partial n_{1,b}}{\partial \rho_{i,b}} = R_i \tag{101}$$

$$\frac{\partial n_{2,b}}{\partial \rho_{i,b}} = 4\pi R_i^2 \tag{102}$$

$$\frac{\partial n_{3,b}}{\partial \rho_{i,b}} = \frac{4\pi}{3} R_i^3 \tag{103}$$

leading to

$$\beta \mu_{\text{ex,b}}^{i} = \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{0,b}} + R_{i} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{1,b}} + 4\pi R_{i}^{2} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{2,b}} + \frac{4\pi R_{i}^{3}}{3} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{3,b}}$$
(104)

9.1 The Rosenfeld functional

In the bulk phase (delete vector weight contributions) the Rosenfeld functional reduces to

$$\Phi_{\rm b}^{\rm RF} = -n_0 \ln(1 - n_3) + \frac{n_1 n_2}{1 - n_3} + \frac{n_2^3}{24\pi (1 - n_3)^2}$$
 (105)

which is the scaled particle theory (SPT) Helmholtz energy equation for mixtures. The SPT EOS is identical to the Percus–Yevick EOS.

The bulk differentials become,

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial n_{0,b}} = -\ln\left(1 - n_{3,b}\right) \tag{106}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial n_{1,b}} = \frac{n_{2,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} \tag{107}$$

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial n_{2,b}} = \frac{n_{1,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} + \frac{n_{2,b}^2}{8\pi \left(1 - n_{3,b}\right)^2}$$
(108)

$$\frac{\partial \Phi^{\text{RF}}}{\partial n_{3,b}} = \frac{n_{0,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} + \frac{n_{1,b}n_{2,b}}{\left(1 - n_{3,b}\right)^2} + \frac{n_{2,b}^3}{12\pi \left(1 - n_{3,b}\right)^3}$$
(109)

$$\beta p_{\text{ex}} + \Phi = \sum_{i=1}^{\infty} \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial n_{\alpha}} n_{\alpha}$$

$$= -n_{0,b} \ln (1 - n_{3,b})$$

$$+ n_{1,b} \frac{n_{2,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}}$$

$$+ n_{2,b} \left(\frac{n_{1,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} + \frac{n_{2,b}^2}{8\pi (1 - n_{3,b})^2} \right)$$

$$+ n_{3,b} \left(\frac{n_{0,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} + \frac{n_{1,b}n_{2,b}}{(1 - n_{3,b})^2} + \frac{n_{2,b}^3}{12\pi (1 - n_{3,b})^3} \right)$$

$$= -n_{0,b} \ln (1 - n_{3,b}) + \frac{2n_{1,b}n_{2,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} + \frac{n_{2,b}^3}{8\pi (1 - n_{3,b})^2}$$

$$+ n_{3,b} \left(\frac{n_{0,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} + \frac{n_{1,b}n_{2,b}}{(1 - n_{3,b})^2} + \frac{n_{2,b}^3}{12\pi (1 - n_{3,b})^3} \right)$$

$$\beta p_{\text{ex}} = \frac{n_{1,b}n_{2,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} + \frac{n_{2,b}^3}{8\pi (1 - n_{3,b})^2}$$

$$+ n_{3,b} \left(\frac{n_{0,b}}{1 - n_{3,b}} + \frac{n_{1,b}n_{2,b}}{(1 - n_{3,b})^2} + \frac{n_{2,b}^3}{12\pi (1 - n_{3,b})^3} \right)$$

$$- \frac{n_{2,b}^3}{24\pi (1 - n_{3,b})}$$

$$= \frac{n_{0,b}n_{3,b}}{(1 - n_{3,b})} + \frac{n_{1,b}n_{2,b}}{(1 - n_{3,b})^2} + \frac{n_{2,b}^3}{12\pi (1 - n_{3,b})^3}$$
(111)

Adding the ideal contribution, $\beta p_{id} = n_{0,b}$, and dividing by $n_{0,b}$ we get the compressibility of the SPT EOS,

$$z_{\rm b}^{\rm RF} = \frac{p}{n_0 k_{\rm B} T} = \frac{1}{(1 - n_3)} + \frac{n_1 n_2}{n_0} \frac{1}{(1 - n_3)^2} + \frac{n_2^3}{12\pi n_0} \frac{1}{(1 - n_3)^3},\tag{112}$$

and for a singel component the equation reduces to

$$z_{b,p}^{RF} = \frac{1 + n_3 + n_3^2}{\left(1 - n_3\right)^3}.$$
 (113)

For the pure fluid, using $\eta = n_{3,b}$ and (95) we get,

$$\hat{\mu}_{\text{ex,b}}^{p} = -\ln(1-\eta) + \frac{3\eta}{1-\eta} + \frac{3\eta}{1-\eta} + \frac{36\pi\eta^{2}}{8\pi(1-\eta)^{2}} + \frac{\eta}{1-\eta} + \frac{3\eta^{2}}{(1-\eta)^{2}} + \frac{36\pi\eta^{3}}{12\pi(1-\eta)^{3}} = -\ln(1-\eta) + \frac{7\eta}{1-\eta} + \frac{15\eta^{2}}{2(1-\eta)^{2}} + \frac{3\eta^{3}}{(1-\eta)^{3}} = \frac{14\eta - 13\eta^{2} + 5\eta^{3}}{2(1-\eta)^{3}} - \ln(1-\eta)$$
(114)

10 Thermopack properties

The cDFT code use reduced units, and the spatial dimension is reduced with respect to the hard-sphere diameter of the first component in the mixture. The gemoetry is therefore defined by the widt L in reduced units, and the actual widht is therefore Ld_{11} . The component densities are

$$\rho_i^* = \frac{N_i d_{11}^3}{V}.\tag{115}$$

The temperature is also given from component 1 and

$$T^* = \frac{\mathbf{k_B}T}{\varepsilon_{11}}.\tag{116}$$

10.1 Bulk fluid

The thermopack interface use functions of temperature, volume and mol numbers, (T, V, n). When calculating thermopack properties, the densities must be converted to Thermopack units

$$\rho_n = \rho^* \frac{1}{N_{\rm A} d_{11}^3}.\tag{117}$$

Thermopack can then be evaluated using V = 1.0 and ρ , or the densities cam be converted to mol numbers and specific volume.

$$\beta A(T, V, \mathbf{n}) = \frac{1}{V} \beta A(T, 1, \rho) \tag{118}$$

$$\frac{1}{V}\beta A(T,1,\rho)\frac{1}{\sum \rho_i} = \beta A(T,1,\rho)\frac{1}{\sum n_i}$$

$$= a(T,\rho) \tag{119}$$

The ex reduced chemical potential is given from thermopack as

$$\beta \mu_i^{\text{ex}} = \beta \frac{\partial A^{\text{ex}}}{\partial N_i} = \beta \frac{\partial A^{\text{ex}}(T, V, \mathbf{n})}{\partial n_i} \frac{\partial n_i}{\partial N_i} = \frac{1}{RT} \frac{\partial A^{\text{ex}}(T, V, \mathbf{n})}{\partial n_i}.$$
 (120)

The ex compressibillity from thermopack is given as

$$z^{\text{ex}} = \frac{P^{\text{ex}}}{\sum_{i} \rho_{n,i} RT} \tag{121}$$

10.2 Dispersion functional differentials

Thermopack implements the dispersion contribution as

$$a_{\text{disp}}(T, V, \mathbf{n}) = \frac{A_{\text{disp}}(T, V, \mathbf{n})}{nRT}.$$
(122)

The classical DFT code need differentials for the functional $\beta \rho^* a_{\text{disp}}(\rho^*)$,

$$\frac{\partial \left(\rho a_{\text{disp}}(\rho^*)\right)}{\partial \rho_{i}} = a_{\text{disp}} + \rho^* \frac{\partial a_{\text{disp}}}{\partial \rho_{i}^*}$$

$$= a_{\text{disp}} + \rho^* \frac{\partial a_{\text{disp}}}{\partial \rho_{n,i}} \frac{\partial \rho_{n,i}}{\partial \rho_{i}^*}$$

$$= a_{\text{disp}} + \rho^* \frac{\partial a_{\text{disp}}}{\partial \rho_{n,i}} \frac{1}{N_{\text{A}} d_{11}^3}$$

$$= a_{\text{disp}} + \rho_n \frac{\partial a_{\text{disp}}}{\partial \rho_{n,i}}.$$
(123)

Thermopack can then be evaluated setting V = 1.0 and $n = \rho_n$.

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