# Faraday Discussions

### Accepted Manuscript

This manuscript will be presented and discussed at a forthcoming Faraday Discussion meeting. All delegates can contribute to the discussion which will be included in the final volume.

Register now to attend! Full details of all upcoming meetings: http://rsc.li/fd-upcoming-meetings



This is an *Accepted Manuscript*, which has been through the Royal Society of Chemistry peer review process and has been accepted for publication.

Accepted Manuscripts are published online shortly after acceptance, before technical editing, formatting and proof reading. Using this free service, authors can make their results available to the community, in citable form, before we publish the edited article. We will replace this Accepted Manuscript with the edited and formatted Advance Article as soon as it is available.

You can find more information about *Accepted Manuscripts* in the **Information for Authors**.

Please note that technical editing may introduce minor changes to the text and/or graphics, which may alter content. The journal's standard <u>Terms & Conditions</u> and the <u>Ethical guidelines</u> still apply. In no event shall the Royal Society of Chemistry be held responsible for any errors or omissions in this *Accepted Manuscript* or any consequences arising from the use of any information it contains.



www.rsc.org/faraday\_d

## Nucleation rate analysis of methane hydrate from molecular dynamics simulations

Daisuke Yuhara,<sup>*a*</sup> Brian C. Barnes,<sup>*b*‡</sup> Donguk Suh,<sup>*a*</sup> Brandon C. Knott,<sup>*c*</sup> Gregg T. Beckham,<sup>*c*</sup> Kenji Yasuoka,<sup>*a*</sup> David T. Wu,<sup>*b*,*d*</sup> and Amadeu K. Sum<sup>\**b*</sup>

Received Xth XXXXXXXXX 20XX, Accepted Xth XXXXXXXX 20XX First published on the web Xth XXXXXXXX 200X DOI: 10.1039/c000000x

Clathrate hydrate are solid crystalline structures most commonly formed from solutions that have nucleated to form a mixed solid composed of water and gas. Understanding the mechanism of clathrate hydrate nucleation is essential to grasp the fundamental chemistry of these complex structures and their applications. Molecular dynamics (MD) simulation is an ideal method to study nucleation at the molecular level because the size of the critical nucleus and formation rate occur in the nano scale. Various analysis methods for nucleation have been developed through MD to analyze nucleation. In particular, the mean first-passage time (MFPT) and survival probability (SP) methods have proven to be effective in procuring the nucleation rate and critical nucleus size for monatomic systems. This study shows that the MFPT and SP methods used for monatomic systems are also applicable for analyzing clathrate hydrate nucleation. Because clathrate hydrate nucleation is relatively difficult to observe in MD simulations (due to high free energy barrier), these methods have yet to be applied to clathrate hydrate systems. In this study, we have analyzed the nucleation rate and critical nucleus size of methane hydrate using MFPT and SP methods from data generated by MD simulations at 255 K and 50 MPa. MFPT for clathrate hydrate was modified from the original version by adding the maximum likelihood estimate and growth effect term. The nucleation rates calculated by MFPT and SP methods are in good agreement, and an estimated critical nucleus size was produced through the MFPT method. These methods can also be extended to the analysis of other clathrate hydrates.

#### 1 Introduction

This journal is © The Royal Society of Chemistry [year]

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>a</sup> Department of Mechanical Engineering, Keio University, Yokohama, Japan.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>b</sup> Center for Hydrate Research, Chemical & Biological Engineering Department, Colorado School of Mines, Golden, Colorado, USA.

E-mail: asum@mines.edu

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>c</sup> National Renewable Energy Laboratory, Golden, Colorado, USA.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>d</sup> Chemistry Department, Colorado School of Mines, Golden, Colorado, USA.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>‡</sup> Present address: Weapons and Materials Research Directorate, U.S. Army Research Laboratory, Aberdeen Proving Ground, Maryland, USA.

Clathrate hydrates are ice-like structures in which guest molecules are trapped inside water cages connected by a hydrogen-bonded network.<sup>1</sup> The formation of clathrate hydrates of natural gases, also called gas hydrates, is a serious problem in the flow assurance of oil/gas flow lines. Inhibiting and mitigating hydrate formation in flow lines are crucial in the safety and reduction of operating cost of maintaining flow lines.<sup>1,2</sup> Gas hydrates are also abundant in the seafloor and have attracted attention as a potential energy resource.<sup>3</sup> Depressurization of these hydrate deposits is projected to be an efficient method to produce natural gas from the hydrates in the sea.<sup>4</sup> To depressurize the hydrate reservoir, it is important to induce dissociation to release the gas from the hydrates, which will consequently generate thermodynamically favorable conditions for hydrate reformation. Therefore, understanding hydrate formation is required to develop efficient energy production strategies. At the most fundamental level, the mechanism of hydrate formation must be understood, since the incipient hydrate crystallization phenomenon can be controlled in flow lines during the production of oil/gas and for the gathering of gas from hydrate reservoirs. Moreover, a thorough understanding of the hydrate formation process will improve the efficiency of other challenging hydrate applications such as gas transport,<sup>2,3</sup> hydrogen storage,<sup>5</sup> and capture/sequestration of carbon dioxide.<sup>6</sup>

Nucleation is the first stage in hydrate formation, which is generally an activated process where small clusters of the new phase are formed from a supersaturated phase. A free energy barrier exists between the two phases and small clusters, which exceed the critical size located at the peak of the barrier become the nucleus of the new phase.<sup>7</sup> Hydrate growth can be observed experimentally<sup>8</sup>, however, hydrate nucleation cannot be observed, as it is a molecular level process that involves nuclei size and time scales that are in the nano scale. Molecular dynamics (MD) simulation has proven to be an invaluable tool to observe hydrate nucleation.<sup>9–11</sup> There have been numerous studies on hydrate nucleation<sup>12–14</sup>, growth<sup>15–17</sup>, and stability<sup>18–20</sup> by simulations. Previous studies have throughly examined the formation mechanisms of various hydrate structures.<sup>21–25</sup> Order parameters that characterize the hydrate structures formed in the nucleation process have also been developed.<sup>26–30</sup> Nonetheless, the analysis of hydrate nucleation is still in the early stages, and there are remarkably scarce reports in which the nucleation rate and the critical nucleus size are discussed.<sup>31,32</sup>

Nucleation is a stochastic process and commonly considered to be a "rare event" in molecular simulations.<sup>33</sup> Direct molecular simulations typically require long calculation time (100s nanoseconds to microseconds) to observe hydrate nucleation. But more importantly, the critical nucleus size of hydrate formation, which is essential in calculating the nucleation rate, cannot be found beforehand. Although there are many difficulties in the simulations of hydrate nucleation, Walsh *et al.* succeeded to observe hydrate nucleation in microsecond simulations.<sup>12</sup> Recently, Barnes *et al.* performed a number of similar simulations using high-performance computing and analyzed the nucleation rate and critical nucleus size.<sup>34</sup>

Nucleation rate analysis using MD simulations have actually been well documented for monatomic systems forming droplets or bubbles through homogeneous and heterogeneous nucleation.<sup>35–44</sup> This study is initiated from the assumption that the various methods to analyze the nucleation rate and critical nu-

<sup>2 |</sup> Faraday Discuss., [year], [vol], 1–12

cleus size may be applicable for other nucleation processes, and therefore we have used the methods to analyze hydrate nucleation.<sup>45–48</sup> In this study, we analyzed the simulation results from Barnes *et al.*<sup>49</sup> and calculated the nucleation rate and critical nucleus size of the methane hydrates by implementing methods originally applied to analyze vapor-to-liquid nucleation. This work introduces a methodology in analyzing methane hydrate nucleation but the findings are easily applicable to other complex clathrate hydrate structures.

#### 2 Methods

#### 2.1 Simulation details

Barnes et al. performed 200 MD simulations of methane hydrate nucleation at T = 255 K, P = 50 MPa.<sup>49</sup> Simulation cells included 2944 water and 512 methane molecules with a cylindrical water/methane interface. The initial configuration was created by melting 64 unit cells of structure I hydrate at T =550 K.<sup>12</sup> Water and methane models were TIP4P/Ice<sup>50</sup> and the unified atom model,<sup>51</sup> respectively, and the Lorentz-Berthelot combining rules were used to calculate water-methane interactions. GROMACS 4.5 and 4.6 were used to perform the simulations, using the Verlet leapfrog algorithm for time integration.<sup>52</sup> The isobaric-isothermal ensemble was applied, where the pressure was controlled by the Parrinello-Rahman barostat<sup>53</sup> with a time constant of 4 ps, and the temperature was controlled by the Nosé-Hoover thermostat 54,55 with a time constant of 2 ps. The SETTLE algorithm was used to constrain the bond lengths and angles of water molecules.<sup>56</sup> A time step of 2 fs was used, with short-range interactions truncated at 1 nm, and the long-range electrostatic interactions were calculated by the particle mesh Ewald algorithm<sup>57,58</sup> with a Fourier spacing of 0.12 nm. Over 90% of the simulations were performed for a minimum of 3 µs.

#### 2.2 Analysis of nucleation

An activated process typified by nucleation is the formation of small embryos of a new phase from an existing metastable phase by overcoming a free energy barrier.<sup>7</sup> The rate of which the critical-sized embryos are formed during the nucleation process is the nucleation rate. The nucleation process is considered to be a diffusion process over a barrier in an internal space, which can be described by the Fokker-Planck equation in terms of a variable *X* that is an internal coordinate or degree of freedom,

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial X} \left( D(X,t) \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial X} + A(X,t) \rho \right), \tag{1}$$

where  $\rho$  is the density in the internal space, and *D* and *A* are the diffusion and drift coefficients in this space, respectively. In the nucleation process, equation (1) can be expressed as a function of a variable *n*, which is the number of molecules constituting a cluster, instead of *X*. In this case,  $\rho$  indicates the cluster size distribution, and equation (1) can be expressed in the form of a continuity equation in the internal space,

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\rho(n,t) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial n}j(n,t),$$
(2)

This journal is © The Royal Society of Chemistry [year]

Faraday Discuss., [year], [vol], 1–12 | 3

where  $\rho(n,t)$  is the number density of clusters containing *n* monomers at time *t* and j(n,t) is the formation rate of size *n* clusters in the system. At steady state,  $\partial \rho(n,t)/\partial t = 0$  and j(n,t) is constant, so the nucleation rate at steady state can be defined as J = j/V, where *V* is the volume of the system. The nucleation rate can also be described by means of integrating equation (2) with respect to n,  $\partial N(n_t,t)/\partial t = j(n_t,t)$ .  $N(n_t,t)$  is the total number of clusters larger than a threshold size of  $n_t$ . The nucleation rate obtained by this expression is

$$J(n_t,t) = \frac{1}{V} \frac{\partial N(n_t,t)}{\partial t}.$$
(3)

In this equation, the nucleation rate is described by a time derivative of the number of clusters greater than  $n_t$  per unit volume. This rate should be constant at steady state and independent of  $n_t$ , so  $n_t$  must be greater than the critical size. In this work, the nucleation rate was evaluated by this definition based on equation (3).

**2.2.1 Definition of Clusters.** The definition of cluster size is essential in the analysis of nucleation. Recent hydrate nucleation studies indicate that amorphous structures are initially formed and these may anneal and crystallize.<sup>59,60</sup> Nucleation and growth of hydrates are usually characterized by order parameters that distinguish the phase of water molecules, structure of cages, and coordinates of guest molecules.<sup>26–30,61</sup> However, it is difficult to identify clusters that have formed initially using these order parameters due to the complex molecular geometries. Most recently, Barnes *et al.* developed an order parameter, called the Mutually Coordinated Guest (MCG) order parameter, that identifies guest molecules separated by water clusters consisting of five or six-member rings.<sup>62</sup> This order parameter can estimate the cluster size of methane hydrates sufficiently, so the MCG-1 OP from the MCG algorithm was used as the cluster size *n* in this work.

**2.2.2** Mean first-passage time method (MFPT). This method is suitable to analyze nucleation in MD simulations. The method is ideal when the free energy barrier is too high for spontaneous crossing to occur, making it difficult to observe the phenomenon in a limited calculation time.<sup>47,48</sup> MFPT does not require large systems for the simulation, but rather demands numerous replications of small nucleating systems to analyze the statistics of the phenomenon. Direct MD simulations of methane hydrate nucleation require enormous calculation time, so MFPT is advantageous in analyzing this event because the calculation time strongly depends on the total number of molecules in a system.

The mean first-passage time in the case of nucleation is defined as the mean time  $\tau(n)$  that the largest cluster in each system requires to reach or exceed a threshold size  $n_t$  for the first time. If the free energy barrier is high enough, MFPT as a function of the cluster size n can be described by a specific sigmoidal curve

$$\tau(n) = \frac{\tau_J}{2} \left[ 1 + \operatorname{erf} \left( Z \sqrt{\pi} (n - n^*) \right) \right], \tag{4}$$

where  $\tau_J$  is the nucleation time,  $\operatorname{erf}(x)$  is the error function, and Z is the Zeldovich factor. A fitting of the simulation results to equation (4) directly yields the nucleation time  $\tau_J$ , critical nucleus size  $n^*$ , and the Zeldovich factor. In the

<sup>4 |</sup> Faraday Discuss., [year], [vol], 1–12

case of a high free energy barrier, the MFPT curve has a clear plateau at the end of the sigmoidal shape, which indicates the nucleation time  $\tau_J$ . The critical nucleus size is considered to be the size at time  $\tau_J/2$  in the MFPT curve because the probability of the transition at the top of the barrier is 50%. The nucleation rate *J* is calculated from the nucleation time  $\tau_J$  as

$$J = \frac{1}{V\tau_J}.$$
(5)

**2.2.3 Survival probability.** The formation of a large enough postcritical cluster in the presence of a high free energy barrier is a random event, which follows the Poisson distribution

$$P_k(t) = \frac{(t/\tau_n)^k e^{-t/\tau_n}}{k!},$$
 (6)

where  $P_k(t)$  is the probability that *k* clusters larger than *n* appear at time *t*, and  $\tau_n$  is the average time of when these clusters appear. In the case of k = 0, equation (6) indicates the survival probability (SP)  $P_0(t)$ ,<sup>8,46,48</sup> i.e., the probability that there are no clusters larger than *n* after a time *t* in the system to be

$$P_0(t) = e^{-t/\tau_n}.$$
 (7)

On the other hand, the nucleation probability  $P_{nuc}(t)$  is given by

$$P_{\rm nuc}(t) = \frac{N_{\rm nuc}}{N_{\rm all}},\tag{8}$$

where  $N_{\text{nuc}}$  is the number of systems in which nucleation is observed and  $N_{\text{all}}$  is the number of all simulation systems. From equation (7) and (8), the SP  $P_{\text{surv}}(t)$  becomes

$$P_{\text{surv}}(t) = \exp\left(-\frac{t-t_0}{\tau_J}\right) = 1 - P_{\text{nuc}}(t), \tag{9}$$

where  $t_0$  is the fastest time a cluster takes to reach the threshold size *n* among all simulations. If the free energy barrier is high, these probabilities do not depend on the threshold size of cluster *n*. A fitting of the simulation results to equation (9) yields the nucleation time  $\tau_J$ , and the nucleation rate can be obtained with equation (5).

#### **3** Results and Discussion

Nucleation and growth of methane hydrate was observed in 46 out of the 200 replications of the MD simulation trajectories. We analyze the nucleation rate from this set using MFPT and SP, and the critical nucleus size is also calculated from MFPT.

#### 3.1 Mean first-passage time

The MFPT of each cluster size n (up to n = 400, corresponding to *near complete solidification* of the system) was calculated and plotted in Fig. 1. The statistics



**Fig. 1** The MFPT curve obtained from 200 nucleation trajectories.  $\tau$  is the MFPT and *n* is the threshold size of a cluster. The symbols are mean first-passage times calculated from the results of the simulations and the solid line is a fitting of the MFPT data.

for small *n* is better than that for large *n*. This is mainly due to the observation time being relatively short (even though this "short" time consumed massive computational resources) to fully observe complete nucleation for all 200 replications. The ratio of nucleated to non-nucleated systems most likely influences the calculation of MFPT, so  $\tau$  is calculated by a supplemental equation, which is based on the maximum likelihood estimate, <sup>31,63</sup>

$$\tau = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{N_R} \tau_i + \sum_{k=1}^{N_{NR}} \tau_k}{N_R},$$
(10)

where  $N_R$  (= 46) is the number of reacted (clusters reaching or exceeding a particular size *n*) trajectories and  $N_{NR}$  (= 154) is the number of remaining trajectories.  $\tau_i$  is the nucleation time, and  $\tau_k$  is the total simulation time for non-nucleating trajectories. The nucleation time  $\tau_J$  and critical nucleus size  $n^*$  are obtained by fitting the data to equation (4). The nucleation rate *J* is calculated by plugging the obtained values into equation (5) with V = 84.9 nm<sup>3</sup> (estimated by considering the volume of the aqueous phase in a non-nucleating trajectory – volume of bulk methane phase subtracted from total volume). The nucleation rate from Fig. 1 is  $J = 8.61 \times 10^{23}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>, and the critical nucleus size is  $n^* = 25.9$ .

The fitting of the MFPT curve from equation (4) is poor in the range of  $40 \le n \le 120$ . Under the thermodynamic conditions considered, the free energy barrier is relatively high, so it is difficult to observe nucleation (only about a quarter of replications nucleated). In systems where nucleation solely occurs, the plateau is expected to appear right after the sigmoidal curve.<sup>47</sup> Compared to nucleation, the time scale of growth is commonly much shorter, but in our case, there seems to be an overlap of the time scales in the nucleation and growth processes, which can affect the MFPT results. Therefore, a modification to the MFPT curve is applied as suggested by Yi *et al.* by adding an additional term to equation (4) to

6 | Faraday Discuss., [year], [vol], 1–12



**Fig. 2** The MFPT curve considering nucleation and growth simultaneously. The symbols are mean first-passage times calculated from the results of the simulations and the solid line is a fitting of MFPT data points.

account for finite growth rates of post-critical clusters with,64

$$\tau(n) = 0.5\tau_J \left[ 1 + \operatorname{erf} \left( Z \sqrt{\pi} (n - n^*) \right) \right] + G^{-1} (n - n^*) H(n - n^*), \quad (11)$$

where *G* is the growth rate and H(x) is the Heaviside function. The Heaviside function becomes effective when a cluster size exceeds the critical nucleus size, i.e., when growth occurs after nucleation. The smooth approximation of the Heaviside function can also be presented by an error function, transforming equation (11) into

$$\tau(n) = 0.5\tau_J \left[ 1 + \operatorname{erf} \left( Z \sqrt{\pi} (n - n^*) \right) \right] + 0.5G^{-1} (n - n^*) \left[ 1 + \operatorname{erf} \left( C(n - n^*) \right) \right],$$
(12)

where *C* is required to be a large positive number. Fig. 2 shows the fitting given by equation (12). The plateau in Fig. 1 becomes a positive slope that incorporates the growth contribution that is absent in Fig. 1. The newly calculated nucleation rate is  $J = 9.43 \times 10^{23}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>, and the critical nucleus size becomes  $n^* = 23.8$ . The variation in the nucleation rate is greater than that of the critical nucleus size without growth.

To analyze how the number of replications influences the results when using the MFPT method, a sensitivity analysis is conducted. Subsets of replications are randomly taken from the total of 200 and the nucleation times are estimated by the maximum likelihood method. The MFPT curve is generated from the averages of the subsets. Table 1 shows the averaged results of MFPT for different number of subsets. The results show that both the nucleation rate and critical nucleus is within 20%, which is an insignificant variation for typical nucleation studies. <sup>45,47,48</sup> Despite the variation, a greater number of replications are expected to produce more accurate results.

As in Table 1, from all 200 replications, the nucleation rate and critical nucleus size are estimated as  $9.43 \times 10^{23}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup> and  $n^* = 23.8$ , respectively.

N <sub>all</sub>	20	50	100	150	200
$J (10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1})$	8.19	10.28	10.53	8.49	9.43
<i>n</i> *	21.8	24.9	23.6	23.1	23.8

**Table 1** The MFPT results calculated from the various number of simulations.  $N_{\text{all}}$  is the number of total simulation, J is the nucleation rate, and  $n^*$  is the critical nucleus size.

Nucleation in the monatomic systems can be observed relatively quickly, so the MFPT curve has a clear plateau right after the sigmoidal shape<sup>47,48</sup>. On the other hand, hydrate nucleation required long calculation time due to a high free energy barrier, so nucleation may not be observed for many systems within the limited calculation time. Furthermore, hydrate formation is a complex process and growth just after the nucleation process tend to occur at the same time scale of nucleation. Therefore, MFPT for methane hydrate was modified from its original function using the maximum likelihood estimate by adding the growth term. The nucleation rate results compare favorably to that obtained by Barnes et al.<sup>49</sup>, though the critical nucleus size is somewhat larger. The critical nucleus size obtained by Barnes *et al.* was estimated from  $p_{\rm b}$  histogram test and this seems to have a higher variance.<sup>49,65–67</sup> However, MFPT is a function of the nucleus size *n* only, so there are limitations in fully capturing the complexities of hydrate nucleation. The source of the discrepancy in the critical nucleus size also may be from the aforementioned comparable nucleation and growth time scales. Although further studies are required to clarify the discrepancy in the nucleus size, the agreement in the nucleation rate confirms the effectiveness of the MFPT analysis method.

#### 3.2 Survival probability

The survival probability is calculated by equation (9) and the results shown in Fig. 3. The threshold cluster size in Fig. 3 corresponds to a nucleated system to have a methane hydrate equal to or greater than this value. Unlike completely nucleated systems ( $n_t = 400$ ) that had 46 out of 200 occurrences,  $n_t = 40$  had 49, and the range of the survival probability is within  $0.76 \le P_{\text{surv}}(t) \le 1.00$ . The systems that nucleated are found to grow and not dissociate. If the threshold size is increased to  $n_t = 80$ , the number of nuclei converges to 46. In other words, three replications did not have a nucleus that reached 80 in size within the simulation time. The variation in the threshold size is analyzed and is found to have little effect on the results of SP. The fitting line in Fig. 3 illustrates SP at a longer time scale, and presents the asymptotic tendency at infinite time. Based on Fig. 3, one can see that if the simulations of this study are performed till around 70 µs, the SP will become zero, meaning all systems will most likely have nucleated. The inset in Fig. 3 portrays a single logarithmic transformation from the original SP plot, and the nucleation rate is calculated from the slope of this graph. The nucleation rate is  $J = 9.31 \times 10^{23}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>, which is close to that obtained by MFPT.

SP is commonly independent of the threshold cluster size in the case that the free energy barrier is high. We verified this by changing the threshold cluster size, and Table 2 contains the results. The difference among the values is around 5%,



**Fig. 3** Survival probability in the case of threshold  $n_t = 40$ . Points are calculated from the results of the simulations and the solid line is the fitting of the data points. The inset is a single logarithmic graph in the range of SP calculated from the results of the simulations ( $0.76 \le P_{\text{surv}}(t) \le 1.00$ ).

**Table 2** The SP of the various threshold cluster sizes.  $n_t$  is the threshold size,  $N_{nuc}$  is the number of nucleated systems, and *J* is the nucleation rate.

n <sub>t</sub>	10	20	40	60	80	100
N <sub>nuc</sub>	54	49	49	47	46	46
$J \ (10^{23} \ {\rm cm}^{-3} {\rm s}^{-1})$	9.52	8.98	9.31	9.25	9.10	9.10

which is remarkable considering the deviation in typical nucleation studies. The nucleation rate will slightly decrease with an increasing threshold size because the number of nucleated systems decreases. The rate at  $n_t = 20$ , however, was the smallest. The reason for this is from the fact that 20 is around the critical nucleus size obtained by Barnes *et al.* and MFPT, hence the inconsistency.<sup>49</sup> Therefore, when using the SP method, the threshold size should be set by an adequately larger number than the critical nucleus size ( $n_t \ge 40$  was sufficient in this study). On the other hand, if the threshold size is too large, the analysis range may spill over to the growth stage rather than staying purely in the nucleation stage, which is the primary target.

The nucleation rate calculated by Walsh *et al.* is from the maximum likelihood estimate.<sup>31</sup> They performed the six replications at T = 250 K, P = 50 MPa and the induction times were verified by analyzing the evolution of the global  $F_4^{61}$  order parameter as well as the appearance of cages larger than seven through the MD trajectories. The nucleation rate from Walsh *et al.* is around  $J_{sim} = 5.00 \times 10^{24}$  cm<sup>-3</sup>s<sup>-1</sup>. Their results are one order of magnitude greater than our results from MFPT and SP. This difference may be attributed from the small number of samples and the definition of induction time. On the other hand, the nucleation rate calculated by Barnes *et al.* is from the maximum likelihood

Faraday Discussions Accepted Manuscript

estimate based on prior knowledge of the critical nucleus size.<sup>31,49</sup> The nucleation rate from Barnes *et al.* is  $J_{sim} = 9.07 \times 10^{23} \text{ cm}^{-3} \text{s}^{-1}$ , which is very close to our results from MFPT and SP. The biggest advantage of this study compared to previous studies is that the MFPT and SP methods can generate the nucleation rate directly from the MD trajectories.

#### 4 Conclusion

The nucleation of methane hydrate is a phenomenon that is complex to analyze at the molecular level due to a high free energy barrier. Recently, this process has been observed by molecular dynamics simulations using high performance computing. In this study, we analyzed the nucleation rate and critical nucleus size of methane hydrate using MFPT and SP, and verified the applicability of these methods for methane hydrate nucleation analysis. In this study, MFPT was modified from its original function using the maximum likelihood estimate and adding the growth term. The nucleation rates obtained by MFPT and SP are in good agreement (within 20%) and these results are also close to the rate Barnes et al. estimated using direct calculations based on the maximum likelihood estimate. MFPT and SP are convenient methods to calculate the methane hydrate nucleation rate since they only require simulation trajectories. The critical nucleus size was also calculated by MFPT, which was found to be larger than that of Barnes *et al.* based on the  $p_b$  histogram test. This difference is likely to come from the methane hydrate system having comparable nucleation and growth time scales, which will influence the critical nucleus size generated from MFPT. However, a modification for growth for MFPT slightly improves the fit of the simple fitting function. Though the MFPT and SP methods are only applied for the estimation of the nucleation rate and critical nucleus size of methane hydrate, the methods can easily be extended to the analysis of other clathrate hydrates.

#### Acknowledgements

This work was supported (in part) by MEXT Grant-in-Aid for the "Program for Leading Graduate Schools". This project was partially funded by the U.S. National Science Foundation (CHE-1125235). B.C.K. and G.T.B. thank the NREL Directors Fellowship Program for Funding. High-performance computing resources were provided by the National Renewable Energy Laboratory, Golden Energy Computing Organization (Colorado School of Mines), and Sandia National Laboratories.

#### References

- 1 E. D. Sloan Jr and C. Koh, Clathrate hydrates of natural gases, CRC press, 2007.
- 2 E. D. Sloan, Nature, 2003, 426, 353-363.
- 3 R. Boswell, Science, 2009, 325, 957-958.
- 4 M. R. Walsh, S. H. Hancock, S. J. Wilson, S. L. Patil, G. J. Moridis, R. Boswell, T. S. Collett, C. A. Koh and E. D. Sloan, *Energy Economics*, 2009, 31, 815–823.
- 5 L. J. Florusse, C. J. Peters, J. Schoonman, K. C. Hester, C. A. Koh, S. F. Dec, K. N. Marsh and E. D. Sloan, *Science*, 2004, **306**, 469–471.

- 6 Y. Park, D.-Y. Kim, J.-W. Lee, D.-G. Huh, K.-P. Park, J. Lee and H. Lee, *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences*, 2006, **103**, 12690–12694.
- 7 D. Reguera, J. Rubi and A. Pérez-Madrid, *Physica A: Statistical Mechanics and its Applications*, 1998, **259**, 10–23.
- 8 R. Ohmura, M. Ogawa, K. Yasuoka and Y. H. Mori, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 2003, 107, 5289–5293.
- 9 C. P. Ribeiro Jr and P. L. Lage, Chemical Engineering Science, 2008, 63, 2007–2034.
- 10 J. A. Ripmeester and S. Alavi, ChemPhysChem, 2010, 11, 978–980.
- 11 B. C. Barnes and A. K. Sum, Current Opinion in Chemical Engineering, 2013.
- 12 M. R. Walsh, C. A. Koh, E. D. Sloan, A. K. Sum and D. T. Wu, Science, 2009, 326, 1095–1098.
- 13 S. Sarupria and P. G. Debenedetti, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry Letters*, 2012, 3, 2942–2947.
- 14 N. J. English, M. Lauricella and S. Meloni, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 2014, 140, 204714.
- 15 S. Liang and P. G. Kusalik, Chemical Physics Letters, 2010, 494, 123-133.
- 16 D. Yuhara, M. Hiratsuka, D. Takaiwa and K. Yasuoka, Molecular Simulation, 2014, 1-5.
- 17 D. Bai, B. Liu, G. Chen, X. Zhang and W. Wang, AIChE Journal, 2013.
- 18 N. J. English and G. M. Phelan, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 2009, 131, 074704.
- 19 S. A. Bagherzadeh, P. Englezos, S. Alavi and J. A. Ripmeester, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry* B, 2012, 116, 3188–3197.
- 20 M. Conde and C. Vega, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 2013, 138, 056101.
- 21 M. Matsumoto, The Journal of Physical Chemistry Letters, 2010, 1, 1552-1556.
- 22 L. C. Jacobson and V. Molinero, Journal of the American Chemical Society, 2011, 133, 6458– 6463.
- 23 A. H. Nguyen, L. C. Jacobson and V. Molinero, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2012, 116, 19828–19838.
- 24 F. Jimenez-Angeles and A. Firoozabadi, The Journal of Physical Chemistry C, 2014.
- 25 G. S. Smirnov and V. V. Stegailov, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 2012, 136, 044523.
- 26 R. W. Hawtin, D. Quigley and P. M. Rodger, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 2008, 10, 4853–4864.
- 27 M. R. Walsh, J. D. Rainey, P. G. Lafond, D.-H. Park, G. T. Beckham, M. D. Jones, K.-H. Lee, C. A. Koh, E. D. Sloan, D. T. Wu *et al.*, *Physical Chemistry Chemical Physics*, 2011, **13**, 19951– 19959.
- 28 L. C. Jacobson, W. Hujo and V. Molinero, The Journal of Physical Chemistry B, 2009, 113, 10298–10307.
- 29 M. Matsumoto, A. Baba and I. Ohmine, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 2007, 127, 134504.
- 30 S. N. Chakraborty, E. M. Grzelak, B. C. Barnes, D. T. Wu and A. K. Sum, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2012, **116**, 20040–20046.
- 31 M. R. Walsh, G. T. Beckham, C. A. Koh, E. D. Sloan, D. T. Wu and A. K. Sum, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry C*, 2011, 115, 21241–21248.
- 32 B. C. Knott, V. Molinero, M. F. Doherty and B. Peters, *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 2012, **134**, 19544–19547.
- 33 D. Frenkel and B. Smit, Understanding molecular simulation 2nd edition, 2002.
- 34 B. C. Barnes, B. C. Knott, G. T. Beckham, D. T. Wu and A. K. Sum, to be published.
- 35 K. Yasuoka and M. Matsumoto, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 1998, 109, 8463-8470.
- 36 T. Kinjo, K. Ohguchi, K. Yasuoka and M. Matsumoto, *Computational materials science*, 1999, 14, 138–141.
- 37 P. R. Ten Wolde and D. Frenkel, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 1998, 109, 9901–9918.
- 38 K. Yasuoka and X. C. Zeng, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 2007, 126, 124320.
- 39 H. Matsubara, T. Koishi, T. Ebisuzaki and K. Yasuoka, *The Journal of Chemical Physics*, 2007, 127, 214507.
- 40 B. R. Novak, E. J. Maginn and M. J. McCready, Physical Review B, 2007, 75, 085413.
- 41 J. Wedekind, D. Reguera and R. Strey, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 2006, 125, 214505.
- 42 J. Wedekind and D. Reguera, The Journal of Physical Chemistry B, 2008, 112, 11060-11063.
- 43 D. Suh and K. Yasuoka, The Journal of Physical Chemistry B, 2011, 115, 10631–10645.
- 44 D. Suh and K. Yasuoka, The Journal of Physical Chemistry B, 2012, 116, 14637–14649.
- 45 K. Yasuoka and M. Matsumoto, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 1998, 109, 8451.

- 46 M. Sekine, K. Yasuoka, T. Kinjo and M. Matsumoto, *Fluid dynamics research*, 2008, 40, 597–605.
- 47 J. Wedekind, R. Strey and D. Reguera, The Journal of chemical physics, 2007, 126, 134103.
- 48 G. Chkonia, J. Wölk, R. Strey, J. Wedekind and D. Reguera, *The Journal of Chemical Physics*, 2009, **130**, 064505.
- 49 B. C. Barnes, B. C. Knott, G. T. Beckham, D. T. Wu and A. K. Sum, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 2014.
- 50 J. Abascal, E. Sanz, R. G. Fernández and C. Vega, *The Journal of Chemical Physics*, 2005, 122, 234511.
- 51 W. L. Jorgensen, J. D. Madura and C. J. Swenson, *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 1984, 106, 6638–6646.
- 52 B. Hess, C. Kutzner, D. Van Der Spoel and E. Lindahl, *Journal of Chemical Theory and Computation*, 2008, **4**, 435–447.
- 53 M. Parrinello and A. Rahman, Journal of Applied Physics, 1981, 52, 7182–7190.
- 54 S. Nosé, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 1984, 81, 511.
- 55 W. Hoover, *Physical Review A*, 1985, **31**, 1695.
- 56 S. Miyamoto and P. A. Kollman, Journal of Computational Chemistry, 1992, 13, 952–962.
- 57 T. Darden, D. York and L. Pedersen, The Journal of Chemical Physics, 1993, 98, 10089.
- 58 U. Essmann, L. Perera, M. Berkowitz, T. Darden, H. Lee and L. Pedersen, *The Journal of Chemical Physics*, 1995, 103, 8577.
- 59 L. C. Jacobson, W. Hujo and V. Molinero, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 2010, **114**, 13796–13807.
- 60 L. C. Jacobson, W. Hujo and V. Molinero, *Journal of the American Chemical Society*, 2010, **132**, 11806–11811.
- 61 C. Moon, R. Hawtin and P. M. Rodger, Faraday discussions, 2007, 136, 367-382.
- 62 B. C. Barnes, G. T. Beckham, D. T. Wu and A. K. Sum, *The Journal of chemical physics*, 2014, 140, 164506.
- 63 D. D. Dunlop and A. C. Tamhane, *Statistics and data analysis: from elementary to intermediate*, Prentice Hall, 2000.
- 64 P. Yi, C. R. Locker and G. C. Rutledge, Macromolecules, 2013, 46, 4723-4733.
- 65 R. Du, V. S. Pande, A. Y. Grosberg, T. Tanaka and E. S. Shakhnovich, *The Journal of Chemical physics*, 1998, **108**, 334–350.
- 66 P. L. Geissler, C. Dellago and D. Chandler, *The Journal of Physical Chemistry B*, 1999, **103**, 3706–3710.
- 67 P. G. Bolhuis, C. Dellago and D. Chandler, Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, 2000, 97, 5877–5882.