Center for the Exascale Simulation of Material Interfaces in Extreme Environments

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Cuong Nguyen: Performance and Accuracy of Machine Learning Potentials Dionysios Sema: E(3)-Equivariant ML-DFT Spencer Wyant: Developing Machine-Learning Interatomic Potentials with *julia*





PERFORMANCE AND ACCURACY OF MACHINE LEARNING POTENTIALS



Scalar, l = 0

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MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY INTRODUCTION **PROPER ORTHOGONAL DESCRIPTORS** LITHIUM ION DIFFUSIVITY VAPOR-LIQUID EQUILIBRIA We introduce the following set of snapshots on (r_{\min}, r_{\max}) : Lin. SNAP1 NN SNAP2 NN SNAP1 Allegro POD POD+SNAP We introduce the proper orthogonal descriptors for efficient and accurate interatomic potentials of complex chemical 180.4 116.2 84.5 70.4 63.3 48.1 $\xi_{\ell}(r_{ij}, \eta) = V^{(2)}(r_{ij}, \eta, \mu_{\ell}), \quad \ell = 1, \dots, N_{s}$ (1) systems [1, 2, 3]. We compose the proper orthogonal de-Table 1: Force training MAE (meV/Å) of various potentials for LGPS. SNAP1 refers to $j_{max} = 3$ (31 descriptors) and SNAP2 refers to $j_{max} = 4$ (36 descriptors). For POD-SNAP, we use $j_{max} = 2$ which includes 15 4-body SNAP descriptors on top of the 91 2-body and 3-body POD descriptors. scriptors to develop two interatomic potentials by expressand compute the covariance matrix ing the per-atom energies as a linear and then as a linear and quadratic combination of proper orthogonal descrip- $C_{ij} = \frac{1}{N_c} \int_{-\infty}^{r_{\text{max}}} \xi_i(x, \boldsymbol{\eta}) \xi_j(x, \boldsymbol{\eta}) dx, \quad 1 \le i, j \le N_s.$ tors. We demonstrate the weak and strong scaling of these potentials and perform MD simulations to calculate material properties. We also perform MD simulations using Al-We then solve the eigenvalue problem $Ca = \lambda a$ to obtain legro [4] on complex systems to model the oxidation process the orthogonal basis functions of Hf and map the vapor-liquid dome of Al. Finally, we use POD and Allegro for accurate prediction of melting points $U_m^{(2)}(r_{ij},\boldsymbol{\eta}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N_s} a_{\ell m}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) \, \xi_{\ell}(r_{ij},\boldsymbol{\eta}),$ plain and mechanical properties of our target systems. Figure 3: Prediction of vapor-liquid Al phases using SNAP, $U_{mn}^{(3)}(r_{ij}, r_{ik}, \theta_{ijk}, \eta) = U_m^{(2)}(r_{ij}, \eta)U_m^{(2)}(r_{ik}, \eta)\cos(n\theta_{ijk})$ E(3) EQUIVARIANT DEEP NNS Figure 2: Simulation of Lithium ion diffusivity using AIMD, POD, and Allegro [5]. Our results show the ability of linear POD to ac and compute the proper orthogonal descriptors $\mathbf{V}_{n,\ell,x}^{(j,L-1)}$ curately model diffusion in Li superionic conductors $D_{imn}^{(3)}(\eta) = \sum_{i} \sum_{k} U_{mn}^{(3)}(r_{ij}, r_{ik}, \theta_{ijk}, \eta).$ **PERFORMANCE SCALING** MELTING AND MECHANICAL OOIS (2) $\sum w_{n,\ell_1,m}^{ik,L} \vec{Y}_{\ell_2,m}^{ik}$ $\otimes \mathbf{V}_{n,l_1,m}^{ij,L-1}$ The linear POD potential is defined as $E(\boldsymbol{\eta}) = c^{(1)} + \sum_{m=0}^{N_d^{(2)}} c_m^{(2)} d_m^{(2)}(\boldsymbol{\eta}) + \sum_{m=0}^{N_d^{(3)}} c_n^{(3)} d_n^{(3)}(\boldsymbol{\eta})$ (3)

with $d_m^{(q)} = \sum_{i=1}^N D_{im}^{(q)}$. The quadratic POD potential is

$$E = c^{(1)} + \sum_{m=1}^{N_d^{(2)}} \left(c_m^{(2)} + b_m^{(2)} \right) d_m^{(2)} + \sum_{n=1}^{N_d^{(3)}} \left(c_n^{(3)} + b_n^{(3)} \right) d_n^{(3)}$$
(4)

with $b_m^{(2)} = \sum_{n=1}^{N_d^{(3)}} c_{mn}^{(23)} a_n^{(3)}$ and $b_n^{(3)} = \sum_{m=1}^{N_d^{(2)}} c_{mn}^{(23)} d_m^{(2)}$. The coefficients $c^{(1)}, c_m^{(2)}, c_n^{(3)}, c_{mn}^{(23)}$, and η are found by solving a nonlinear least-squares regression against DFT data.

Extension to multi-element systems is carried out by computing the PODs in (2) for different atom types. The complexity of the resulting POD potentials is $O(NN_{\pi}^2N_f)$, where $N_{\rm p}$ is the number of neighbors and $N_{\rm f}$ is the number of basis functions. The complexity of the multi-element SNAP potential is $O(NN_nN_t^2N_e^2)$. Hence, the cost ratio between multi-element SNAP and POD potentials is $N_f N_r^2/N_n$.

ONGOING RESEARCH AND INTEGRATION

Figure 1: Allegro architecture (left) and the component of each

layer (right). Features in the invariant and equivariant latent

The Allegro Network contains separate latent spaces for in-

variant features (scalar, rotation order l = 0) and equivari-

ant features of rotation order l > 0. The 2-body interac-

tions are encoded with Bessel basis functions and a poly-

nomial envelope and ACE-like many body interactions are

constructed in each layer with: $N_{order} = N_{layers} + 2$. The

spaces interact at each layer with tensor products.

final output are pairwise energies, E_{ii}

We plan to develop NN/GCN potentials based on the proper orthogonal descriptors. We plan to equip POD potentials with UQ and active learning methods developed by our CESMIX team. We are also working on a Kokkos implementation to gain significant performance gains using multiple GPUs. As we aim to make the POD potentials available to the LAMMPS community, we would like to collaborate the DOE labs to implement POD models in LAMMPS and FitSNAP.

V^{ij,L}



[3] (top) and performance scaling of POD using LAMMPS/ML-POD. For weak scaling (left), we performed MD on various HfO2 sized systems on 36 cores. For strong scaling (right), we performed MD simulations of 1M HfO2 atoms

POD, Allegro, and EAM. The critical point for the experiment is $(\rho_c, T_c) = (0.745g/cm^3, 6500K)$. POD matches the experimental data better than Allegro, SNAP and the empirical EAM potentials.



Figure 5: Predictions of the melting point of Hf (left) and HfO2 (right) for POD and Allegro. The ML-IAPs exhibit close aggreement with the experimental values.

Network Projettes		Bulk Modula. B. (SPA)		Sheer Middak G. (SPiel		Posser Ratu, v		Mechanical		Bulk Modulan By (GPa)		Shaar Mudaha Gi (SiPa)		Poisson Ratio, v	
		7+88	T = 256 A	7+18	T = 298 H	7+88	T+298.4	rigeras		Tern	T+208 K	THOR	T+398.K	7+28	7+208.8
*	Linesr POD	108.1	96.2	80.0	36.8	6.375	8.872	ų	Lines POD	249.3	304.1	258	285.8	0.529	0.512
	DVT.	118	-	34.8		8.37	-		Gual P00	197.1	185.7	103	227	0.117	8.00
	14				34		1.344		1000	217.8		128.4	191	0.961	-6.27
nidi), Pl2,41	POD	216.8	.198.5	81.0		0.945	9.412		10	201.8	100.1	218.8	248.5	8.50	1.096
	OFT	302.8		81.3		8.29			041	263		248		0.141	
	Dep		THE .		108.2	- 1	4.3%		100		272		218		8.116

Figure 6: Predictions of mechanical properties for Hf, HfO2 (left) and HfB2 (right) for POD at 0K and room temperature in comparison with DFT and experiments.

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E(3)-EQUIVARIANT ML-DFT

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INTRODUCTION

The development of an accurate and transferable machine-learned interatomic potentials (ML-IAPs) can take several months and requires computing resources and expertise across disciplines. In active learning approaches, we can use uncertainty metrics from an ensemble of trained potentials to drive an active learning approach, expand our datasets with additional DFT calculations and retrain the next generation of ML-IAPs. In this process, data generation is the most time-consuming part. Our goal is to accelerate this process and achieve potential-in-a-day development cycles. To this end, we propose a E(3)-equivariant ML-DFT that can be used as a proxy DFT model to accelerate DFT calculations or perform DFT calculations that predict the electron density, energy and atomic forces of large and complex systems ($\mathcal{O}(10^5)$ atoms) that are intractable for regular DFT codes.

SELECTION SCHEME

We use a minimax sampling method to select M configurations from a set of K configurations $\{\mathcal{C}_k\}_{k=1}^K$ with $M \ll K$. Define the similarity matrix

$$S_{ij} = \frac{D(\mathcal{C}_i) \cdot D(\mathcal{C}_j)}{\|D(\mathcal{C}_i)\|\|D(\mathcal{C}_j)\|}, \quad i, j = 1, \dots, K,$$

(1)

(2)

(3)

where $D(C_i)$ is a vector of descriptors for C_i . Choose a set of M indices $\{i_1, \ldots, i_M\}$, where the first two indices are

$$(i_1, i_2) = \arg \min_{1 \le i, j, \le N} S_{ij}$$

and, for $m = 3, \ldots, M$,

$$i_m = \arg \min_{1 \le i \le N} \max_{j \in \{i_1, \dots, i_{m-1}\}} S_{ij}.$$

This method is used in the following algorithm.

AUTOMATIC CONFIGURATION GENERATION



E(3)-GCN ELECTRON DENSITY The electron density is a scalar value over all 3D

space. We typically represent it using a "basis set". The functions of the basis set have the mathematical form:

 $\Phi_{l,m} = Y_l^m \exp(-\alpha_{l,m} ||r - R_i||^2), \quad (4)$

where the first term are the spherical harmonics, and the second is a Gaussian radial basis. The density on a given atom, *i*, is represented by a linear combination of the basis functions projected onto a delta Dirac function (the origin of DFT formulation). Each basis function has a coefficient that is the weight of that function's contribution:

$$\rho_i = \sum_{\lambda} \delta(r - r_{\lambda}) \|\psi_{\lambda}(r)\|^2 = \sum_l C_i^{l,m} \Phi_{l,m}.$$
 (5)

We perform DFT runs with pyscf with pbc and project the electron density onto a density fitting basis. We calculate the 3-center 2e tensor integral, P|ij, and the 2c2e integral, P|Q:

We can then extract the final irreps that are determined for each atom type, following the approach of Dunlap et al. [1]. The coefficients and exponents of the basis functions is the data we will train the model with. The raw data is subtracted from the density of the isolated atoms and converted to a molecular graph.

The GCN contains 3 layers of fully connected tensor products with gated block non-linearities. The input are the coordinates and atoms types concatenated to the radial basis as a one-hot vector of length, N, with irreps Nxoe. The hidden features have 16 copies with $l_{max} = 4$ with even and odd parity, $p = \{-1, 1\}$. The cutoff radius was set to $r_{-1} = -4$.

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Developing Machine-Learning Interatomic Potentials withjulia



Spencer Wyant, Youssef Marzouk

(with package contributions from Emmanuel Lujan, Dallas Foster, Joanna Zou, and other CESMIX contributors)

Background

When performing molecular dynamics (MD), the motion of a given particle *i* in a system of *N* atoms is governed by Newton's equation of motion: $d^2 \boldsymbol{r}_i$



 $\mathcal{Z}:=\{1,\dots,N_e\}$ The PES maps the positions and chemical identities of each atom in the system to the total potential energy (in the absence of external forces). A model of the PES



While density functional theory (IDFT) calculations can provide an accurate PES and downstream properties, their computational cost and O(N) scaling prevents accessing systems larger than a few hundred atoms and timescales beyond tens of picoseconds. Machine-learning interatomic potentials (MUIPS), which leverage flexible models trained on DFT-computed forces and energies, at as a bridge to the larger spatial and temporal scales accessed with traditional MD methods, bringing the *ab initio* accuracy of more expensive methods to these scales.

Key Features of MLPP Example 1 and Locality $E(r) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} E_i \left(\{r_i\}_{j \in \mathcal{N}(i)} \right)$

Symmetry Preserving

MUPs can model systems with arbitrary number of atoms by decomposing the total energy into a sum of atom-wise or pairwise terms. Likewise, they exploit the typically local nature of interpanticle forces by employing a cutoff function, which only considers atoms within some neighborhood \mathcal{N} . Finally, interatomic potentials need to respect the Euclidean group E[3) symmetries (energy invariance and force equivariance] and, from a computational perspective, should be invariant to the

