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ABSTRACT

Ab initio molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulations have become an important tool used in the construction of equations of state (EOS) tables for warm dense matter. Due to computational costs, only a limited number of system state conditions can be simulated, and the remaining EOS surface must be interpolated for use in radiation-hydrodynamic simulations of experiments. In this work, we develop a thermodynamically consistent EOS model that utilizes a physics-informed machine learning approach to implicitly learn the underlying Helmholtz free-energy from AIMD generated energies and pressures. The model, referred to as PIML-EOS, was trained and tested on warm dense polystyrene producing a fit within a 1% relative error for both energy and pressure and is shown to satisfy both the Maxwell and Gibbs–Duhem relations. In addition, we provide a path toward obtaining thermodynamic quantities, such as the total entropy and chemical potential (containing both ionic and electronic contributions), which are not available from current AIMD simulations.

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I. INTRODUCTION

The development of reliable equations of state (EOS) is fundamental to furthering the understanding of material properties. This is particularly true for warm dense matter (WDM) systems, which have both a solid-state density and a thermal energy comparable to the Fermi energy. In this regime, accurate and fully consistent EOS are required for the closure of the fluid equations governing hydrodynamic simulations, which are utilized to investigate spherical target implosions in inertial confinement fusion (ICF) research^{1–8} and in some cases used to determine the full thermodynamic state of experimentally measured systems.^{9,10} Beyond ICF research, EOS also play a key role in planetary science: reliable EOS tables are

utilized in studies of planetary evolution and collisions,¹¹ as well as to provide insights into intraplanetary dynamics.^{12–14}

A standard approach to constructing EOS is often a semiempirical one where a first-principles-based EOS with adjustable free parameters is fit to experimental measurements.^{15–21} However, in the WDM regime, experimentally producing target temperatures and densities is a challenging task. In most cases, the sampling of the EOS surface is often limited to a few points primarily confined to the principle Hugoniot,^{9,10,22–25} leaving portions of a material's EOS experimentally unexplored. Furthermore, the underlying form of a first-principles-based EOS may have limited ability to accurately describe the WDM system. Such is the case in QEOS²⁶ and SESAME,¹⁹ where the Thomas–Fermi model,²⁷ known for its

inability to bind molecules, is often used to describe the electronic contribution to the constructed EOS. When these two EOS are compared to results based on the state-of-the-art density functional theory (DFT) treatment of the electrons, significant differences can be observed in the predicted Hugoniot and in the resulting simulated implosions.^{4–8}

An alternative approach to constructing EOS tables is to utilize *ab initio* molecular dynamics (AIMD) simulations.^{4–8,28,29} Although this approach has been made possible by the increase in computing power over the past few decades, on-the-fly calculations of a material's EOS in the WDM regime are still prohibitively costly. Therefore, an EOS is often calculated at a few hundred temperature and density conditions, at most,²⁸ to produce a grid of EOS values across the domain of temperature and density of interest. The intermediate values of the EOS surface are then obtained by applying an interpolation scheme to the calculated points. A key factor in the reliability of this approach is ensuring that the interpolation scheme provides thermodynamically consistent energies and pressures, which is often overlooked.

One of the earliest interpolation schemes with built-in thermodynamic consistency was the bi-quintic scheme put forth by Swesty³⁰ in which the Helmholtz free-energy of a system was directly interpolated. The challenge of utilizing such an interpolation scheme for EOS data generated by AIMD simulations is that the total Helmholtz free-energies are unavailable (this is also the case for the total entropies and chemical potentials). This issue was later circumvented by Dilts³¹ where thermodynamic constraints were directly enforced in a tuned regression estimator method that utilized a set of monomials to simultaneously interpolate the available energy and pressure data. In recent years, the underpinnings of Swesty and Dilts studies have lived on in the context of machine learning (ML) based schemes where neural networks^{32–38} or Gaussian process regressions^{39,40} have been trained to learn EOSs. In the work of Gaffney *et al.*,³⁹ the use of AIMD training data in the direct modeling of the Helmholtz free-energy produced excellent interpolations for the energy and pressure of warm dense B₄C. However, not all thermodynamic relations were confirmed to hold (e.g., Gibbs–Duhem relation), nor was it clear if any information

is missing from the implicitly learned Helmholtz free-energies. In addition, many of the other current ML-based EOS models have been primarily applied to cases where synthetic data can be easily obtained and where most, if not all, EOS quantities are available. Such models may not be suitable for use with AIMD training data due to the missing thermodynamic quantities.

In the present work, we aim to address the above concern by constructing a physics-informed ML-based EOS, referred to as PIML-EOS, that utilizes only available energy, pressure, temperature, and density data from AIMD simulations. A thorough check of the level of thermodynamic consistency of the model will be provided. In addition, we will demonstrate a potential path toward obtaining thermodynamic quantities that are currently unavailable from the direct output of AIMD simulations. The rest of this paper is outlined as follows: Sec. II provides details about the reference dataset and data scaling. Section III defines the criteria for thermodynamic consistency. Section IV provides details on the construction of the model. In addition, Sec. V contains the results and discussion before this work is concluded in Sec. VI.

II. REFERENCE DATA

A. Dataset

Having a reliable EOS for warm dense polystyrene (CH) is of importance due to its utilization as an ablator material in ICF implosions.^{7,29} As polystyrene has been extensively studied, EOS data are readily available. Here, the data from Zhang *et al.*²⁹ for polystyrene with equal parts carbon and hydrogen will be used as a test of the proof of principle of the PIML-EOS model constructed in Sec. IV. Shown in Fig. 1(a) are the temperature and density points comprising the reference dataset. For simplicity, the original set of conditions has been truncated to form a rectangular domain of reference data where the densities vary between 2.1 and 12.6 g/cm³. The temperature range was not affected by this truncation, and the full range from 6.7×10^3 to 1.3×10^8 K is considered. The corresponding target internal energies range from -10^3 to 1.5×10^5 eV/CH, and the pressures range from 44 to 9.4×10^6 GPa.

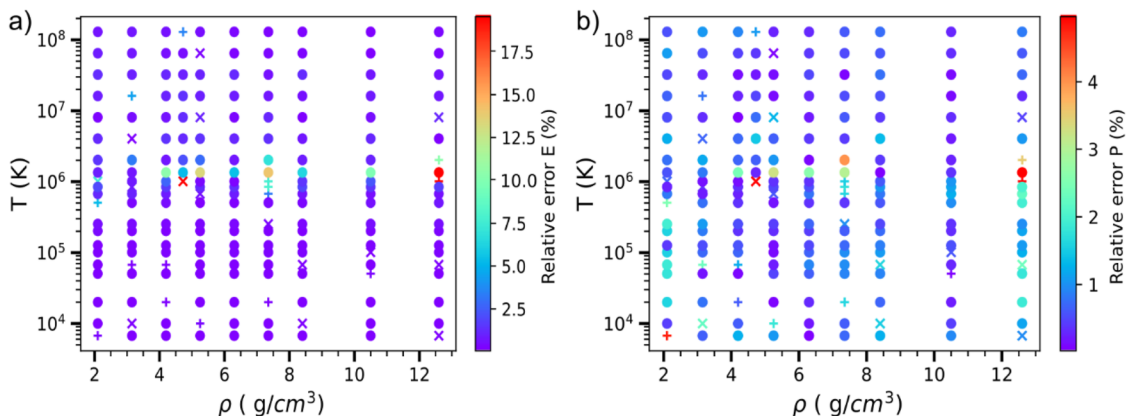


FIG. 1. Prediction errors for the energy (a) and pressure (b). Filled circles, pluses, and x's represent the points in the training, validation, and test sets, respectively. The color bar is with respect to the relative error, in %, for each quantity. Note that, for temperature and density, the conversion back to dimensional variables has been made.

TABLE I. Definition and scaling relation for all thermodynamic quantities.

Quantity	Symbol	Scaling
Density	ρ	$\frac{1}{\rho_0}$
Temperature	T	$\frac{k_B}{E_0}$
Energy (internal)	E	$\frac{1}{N_0 E_0}$
Helmholtz free energy	F	$\frac{1}{N_0 E_0}$
Entropy	S	$\frac{1}{N_0 k_B}$
Pressure	P	$\frac{m}{\rho_0 E_0}$
Chemical potential	μ	$\frac{1}{E_0}$

At temperatures below 10^6 K, the reference data were obtained with AIMD simulations driven by Kohn–Sham DFT. Above 10^6 K, path integral Monte Carlo (PIMC) based AIMD simulations were utilized. The DFT based energies were then shifted to match within 21.8 eV/CH at 10^6 K (this will be referred to as the matching boundary). For additional details about the calculation of the reference data, see Ref. 29.

B. Scaling relations

Before constructing the PIML-EOS model, all thermodynamic quantities are made dimensionless. To achieve this, a value of E_0 and ρ_0 must be set to scale the energy and density, respectively. These values can be chosen independently but should be representative of the values found in the reference dataset. For the polystyrene dataset described above, E_0 and ρ_0 were chosen to be 100 eV and 2.1 g/cm³, respectively. In addition, with the use of Boltzmann's constant, k_B , and the mass of a CH pair, m , all remaining thermodynamic quantities can be made dimensionless. Furthermore, all extrinsic variables are transformed to intrinsic variables with a scaling by N_0 , the number of CH pairs in the system. Due to the 1:1 ratio of C to H, this choice enables the system to be treated as a single component system. For further details on the scaling relations, see Table I. Moving forward, all thermodynamic quantities and equations should be assumed to be dimensionless and describe intrinsic quantities unless stated otherwise.

III. THERMODYNAMIC CONSISTENCY

For an interpolation scheme to be thermodynamically consistent, the predicted energies and pressures must be in accordance with the definitions for the associated thermodynamic potential.^{30,31,41} In addition, both Maxwell's relation^{30,31,35,39,41} and the Gibbs–Duhem relation⁴¹ must be satisfied. The latter has not been thoroughly explored in the context of ML interpolation schemes. The predicted pressures and entropies of the interpolation scheme should also be non-negative, and in the context of a single phase, the corresponding stability conditions for the thermodynamic potential must be met.^{30,31,35,41}

A. Definitions

Given that the polystyrene reference dataset contains temperatures, T , and densities, ρ (two independent variables), the natural

thermodynamic potential to work in is that of the Helmholtz free-energy, $F(T, \rho)$. From the Helmholtz free-energy, the energy, E , and pressure, P , are defined as

$$E = F + TS = F - T \frac{\partial F}{\partial T} \quad (1)$$

and

$$P = \rho^2 \frac{\partial F}{\partial \rho}, \quad (2)$$

where S is the entropy.

B. Maxwell's relation

In terms of the Helmholtz free-energy, Maxwell's relation is a statement about the commutativity of the partial derivatives of temperature and density,^{30,41}

$$\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial T \partial \rho} = \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial \rho \partial T}. \quad (3)$$

Using Eqs. (1) and (2), Maxwell's relation of Eq. (3) can be rewritten in terms of energy and pressure,

$$P = T \frac{\partial P}{\partial T} + \rho^2 \frac{\partial E}{\partial \rho}. \quad (4)$$

Satisfaction of Maxwell's relation ensures that there is at least one Helmholtz free-energy surface capable of providing the given energies and pressures. The work of Ref. 30 showed that, in the context of hydrodynamic simulations, a failure to ensure this level of consistency can lead to an effective error accumulation causing a divergence from the expected result with a consistent EOS.

C. Gibbs–Duhem relation

Due to the homogeneous first order property of the Helmholtz free-energy, the quantities P , T , and chemical potential μ are not independent of one another.⁴¹ The relation between these quantities is referred to as the Gibbs–Duhem relation, which states

$$d\mu = -SdT + \frac{1}{\rho} dP. \quad (5)$$

Any interpolation scheme capable of providing chemical potentials must do so in a way that the gradients of the chemical potential are consistent with the entropy and density.

D. Stability conditions

As the temperature–density conditions of polystyrene dataset cover only a single phase, the extremum principle (maximum entropy and minimum energy) must apply. In accordance, the Helmholtz free-energy must then be concave in temperature and convex in density,^{30,31,35,41}

$$\frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial T^2} \leq 0, \quad \rho^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \left(\rho^2 \frac{\partial F}{\partial \rho} \right) \geq 0. \quad (6)$$

In terms of energy and pressure, the stability requirements of Eq. (6) become

$$\frac{\partial E}{\partial T} \geq 0 \quad \frac{\partial P}{\partial \rho} \geq 0. \quad (7)$$

If the energies and pressures provided by an interpolation scheme for a single phase away from critical points do not satisfy the conditions of Eq. (7), then they are not physically achievable by the system.

IV. MODEL CONSTRUCTION

A. Transformation of the Helmholtz free-energy

Directly modeling the Helmholtz free-energy and utilizing Eqs. (1) and (2) has the advantage of ensuring that Maxwell's relation is satisfied by construction. This approach has been shown to be successful in recent ML-based EOS models^{35,36,39} and will be the approach taken here. It is important to note that, while the Helmholtz free-energies are not available in the polystyrene dataset, it will be shown that the energies and pressures can be used to implicitly learn the Helmholtz free-energy. Furthermore, with the wide range of energies, pressures, and temperatures encountered in the polystyrene dataset, it would be advantageous to work within a log representation of the Helmholtz free-energy. To accomplish this, an auxiliary function f is introduced, which will be related to the Helmholtz free-energy through an arcsinh transformation,

$$f = \operatorname{arcsinh}(F) = \ln \left(F + \sqrt{F^2 + 1} \right). \quad (8)$$

The use of arcsinh over a standard natural log eliminates the need for an arbitrary energy shift, preventing any issues from arising due to a negative Helmholtz free-energy (without explicit values of F , an arbitrary energy shift cannot guarantee positive values of F under all conditions).

For an input quantity X , the corresponding derivative of the Helmholtz free-energy transforms as

$$X \frac{\partial F}{\partial X} = \cosh(f) \frac{\partial f}{\partial \ln(X)}. \quad (9)$$

Utilizing Eq. (9), the equations for the energy and pressure become

$$E = F - T \frac{\partial F}{\partial T} = \sinh(f) - \cosh(f) \frac{\partial f}{\partial \tau} \quad (10)$$

and

$$P = \rho^2 \frac{\partial F}{\partial \rho} = \rho \cosh(f) \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma}. \quad (11)$$

Here, the quantities τ and σ are defined as $\tau = \ln(T)$ and $\sigma = \ln(\rho)$, respectively. They are to be considered as the input variables of f moving forward.

Eliminating the common factor of $\cosh(f)$ in Eqs. (10) and (11) leads to the following partial differential equation (PDE) that describes the auxiliary function f :

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \tau} + \rho \frac{E - \sinh(f)}{P} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \sigma} = 0. \quad (12)$$

If the energy and pressure are known as a function of temperature and density, Eq. (12) can be solved to determine f and correspondingly the Helmholtz free-energy of the system (similar method of solving PDE for unknown exchange–correlation free-energy by direct fitting of a suitable analytical form was used in Ref. 42). As energy and pressure data are available at select temperatures and densities, these data can be used in conjunction with Eq. (12) during the training process to produce a physics-informed ML model, which is capable of implicitly learning the Helmholtz free-energies as will be shown in Sec. IV B.

B. Introducing ML

To utilize the transformed Helmholtz free-energy, the auxiliary quantity f will be modeled with an artificial neural network (ANN).⁴³ That is, the ANN will take the quantities $\vec{x}^T = (\tau, \sigma)$ as an input and output a single value for the auxiliary function f . In this work, a fully connected feedforward ANN with a single hidden layer is utilized. Mathematically, f can be written as

$$f^{ANN} = W^{(2)} g \left(W^{(1)} \vec{x} + \vec{\beta} \right). \quad (13)$$

Here, the matrices $W^{(1)}$, $W^{(2)}$ and the bias vector $\vec{\beta}$ contain free parameters that will be optimized during the training process. The function g is the activation function, which was set to tanh throughout this work.

The parameters of the ANN are optimized by minimizing the following cost function:

$$C = \frac{1}{2 \sum_i \gamma_i} \sum_i^{N_i} \gamma_i \left\{ \left(\frac{\partial f^{ANN}(\tau, \sigma)}{\partial \tau} + \rho_i^{ref} \frac{E_i^{ref} - \sinh(f^{ANN}(\tau, \sigma))}{P_i^{ref}} \frac{\partial f^{ANN}(\tau, \sigma)}{\partial \sigma} \right)^2 \right\}_{\tau_i, \sigma_i} + \lambda_1 \left(1 - \frac{E_i^{ANN}}{E_i^{ref}} \right)^2 + \lambda_2 \left(1 - \frac{P_i^{ANN}}{P_i^{ref}} \right)^2 \quad (14)$$

The first term of the cost function is based on the PDE of Eq. (12). Here, the PDE is being evaluated at each training point, indexed by i , with the reference energy, pressure, temperature, and density replacing the corresponding value. The gradients of the ANN needed in the first term of the cost function are calculated analytically,

$$\frac{\partial f_{ANN}}{\partial \vec{x}} = \left(\frac{\partial f_{ANN}}{\partial \tau_{ANN}} \right) = W^{(1)\top} W^{(2)\top} \circ g' \left(W^{(1)} \vec{x} + \vec{\beta} \right). \quad (15)$$

The symbol \circ denotes a Hadamard product, which, in our notation, is given higher priority than standard matrix multiplication in the order of operations. In effect, by minimizing the first term of the cost function, the model aims to find the solution to Eq. (12). The second and third terms of the cost function, which contain the hyperparameters λ_1 and λ_2 , respectively, are added to ensure that when the cost is minimized, a trivial solution (f equal to a constant) of Eq. (12) is not found. Furthermore, γ_i is a stochastic quantity assigned to each member of the training set and can take on values of either 0 (probability 10%) or 1 (probability 90%). On each training epoch, the value of γ_i for every training sample point is redrawn. This provides a level of stochasticity to the gradient descent to enable the model to work its way out of potential local minimum on the cost surface.

In principle, additional terms can be added to the cost function of Eq. (14) to enforce the remaining thermodynamic constraints. In practice, however, this may lead to additional difficulties training the model. For instance, attempts were made to add a regularization term that penalized functions in the hypothesis set (set of functions represented by the architecture of the ANN) with negative entropy. This additional regularization often led to stability issues in the training process, which can be attributed to such a term eliminating potential pathways in the domain of free parameters that the ANN can take during training. In effect, for ease of training, it may be better to allow the ANN to pass through physically unacceptable functions for f on its way to the final thermodynamically consistent form.

C. Training the model

In total, the reference dataset is comprised of 198 temperature–density points where AIMD simulations were performed. Of these 198 points, 15 were randomly chosen and set aside for the test set. An additional 15 points were randomly chosen for the validation set, which was used to monitor the training process to prevent overfitting. The remaining 168 points were then used as the training set. The temperature–density conditions chosen for each dataset can be seen in Fig. 1(a), where each of the test, validation, and training points are indicated by an x, a plus symbol, and a filled circle, respectively. Attempts to utilize a smaller fraction of the reference data demonstrated that the training size could be cut to 90 data points and provide satisfactory results; see the supplementary material. Below, only results for the largest training set utilizing a single-fold cross-validation are discussed. Additional results with a fivefold cross-validation are comparable and can also be found in the supplementary material.

The number of nodes in the hidden layer of the ANN was set to 80, a value chosen to provide the ANN with reasonable flexibility

while not exceeding a 2:1 ratio of free parameters to available training data. The free parameters were then optimized by performing a stochastic gradient descent⁴⁴ on the cost function of Eq. (14). During this procedure, the gradients needed to update the weights were calculated analytically (supplementary material). The hyperparameters λ_1 and λ_2 were both determined to be a value of 0.3. Tests of these hyperparameters indicated that, if the value was below 0.1, a trivial solution to Eq. (12) was often found. Values above 1.0 would produce a model that fits the training data well but may have unphysical oscillations in the energies and pressures along the reference isochores. Furthermore, with a learning rate of 0.003, the training run consisted of 25×10^6 epochs. Attempts to use a larger learning rate to shorten the training run often affected the stability of the stochastic gradient descent. The learning curves along with an analysis of the gradients during the backpropagation stage can be found in the supplementary material.

The code for the training of the PIML-EOS model was written from scratch in Python version 3.6. NumPy⁴⁵ was utilized for all matrix operations as well as for its built-in hyperbolic trig functions. The mpi4pi library^{46–49} was utilized to parallelize the training process. The Python code for the PIML-EOS can be found at <https://github.com/jhin2/PIML-EOS>.

V. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

A. Training results

The resulting relative errors in the predicted energies and pressures are shown in Figs. 1(a) and 1(b), respectively. These values have been tabulated and are presented in Table II. As can be seen, for both the energy and pressure, 75% of the predictions are within 1% of the target value across all three datasets. In the case of energy, there were two points in the test set and nine points in the training set with a relative error above 5%, and no points exceed a 25% error. Interestingly, all eleven of these points are clustered around the 10^6 K boundary, where the energies of the KS and PIMC AIMD simulations were matched, Fig. 1(a). As there is both a higher uncertainty in the target energies and a likely discontinuity in the slope of the energies at the matching boundary, the struggles of the model here can be attributed to an underlying thermodynamic inconsistency in the reference data related to thermal exchange–correlation (XC) effects taken into account by the PIMC approach and missed by DFT simulations with employment of a ground-state XC functional (see Ref. 50). In the case of pressure, a similar result can be seen, Fig. 1(b). While none of the predicted pressures exceeded a 5% error, the largest errors again occur at the matching boundary. However, unlike the energies, predicted pressures along the boundary of the domain of the reference dataset also experience some of the larger errors.

To examine the interpolations of the PIML-EOS model, the energies and pressures were calculated at 900 temperature points (evenly spaced on the log scale) along each reference isochore. The results for energy are shown in Fig. 2(a), and those for pressure are shown in Fig. 2(b). Overall, the predictions of the PIML-EOS model appear smooth with no sharp jumps or oscillations. Even near the 10^6 K matching boundary where the prediction errors are largest, the model is able to make a smooth transition from the DFT data to the PIMC data (more on this below). In the case of the 4.72 g/cm^3

TABLE II. Distribution of relative errors, in %, for the predicted energies and pressures of the PIML-EOS model on the training, validation, and test sets. Here, the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles of each distribution, measured from the left tail, are provided. Rows 1 and 2 are the model's predictions compared to the available AIMD data. Rows 3 and 4 are comparisons of the model's predictions to ideal gas (IG) values for temperatures above 3×10^7 K. For clarity, the percentiles should be interpreted as the fraction of each distribution, which has an error below the given value. For example, 75% of the test predictions on AIMD data have an error less than 0.992%.

	Training					Validation					Test				
	Min	25th	50th	75th	Max	Min	25th	50th	75th	Max	Min	25th	50th	75th	Max
Energy	0.001	0.057	0.282	0.834	19.499	0.005	0.025	0.491	0.995	3.036	0.002	0.038	0.168	0.992	25.475
Pressure	0.001	0.289	0.553	0.910	4.948	0.020	0.402	0.570	0.848	1.744	0.015	0.362	0.587	0.974	3.122
IG energy											10^{-4}	0.594	1.042	1.500	1.800
IG pressure											10^{-5}	0.188	0.430	0.646	1.178

isochore, only high temperature data were available to the model. At lower temperatures, the PIML-EOS model produces the remainder of the energies and pressures in a way that is consistent with the behavior of the neighboring reference isochores.

The smoothness of the interpolations is further confirmed by examining the derivatives of the PIML-EOS model. For both energy and pressure, the derivative with respect to temperature at each of the 900 points along the reference isochores is calculated analytically

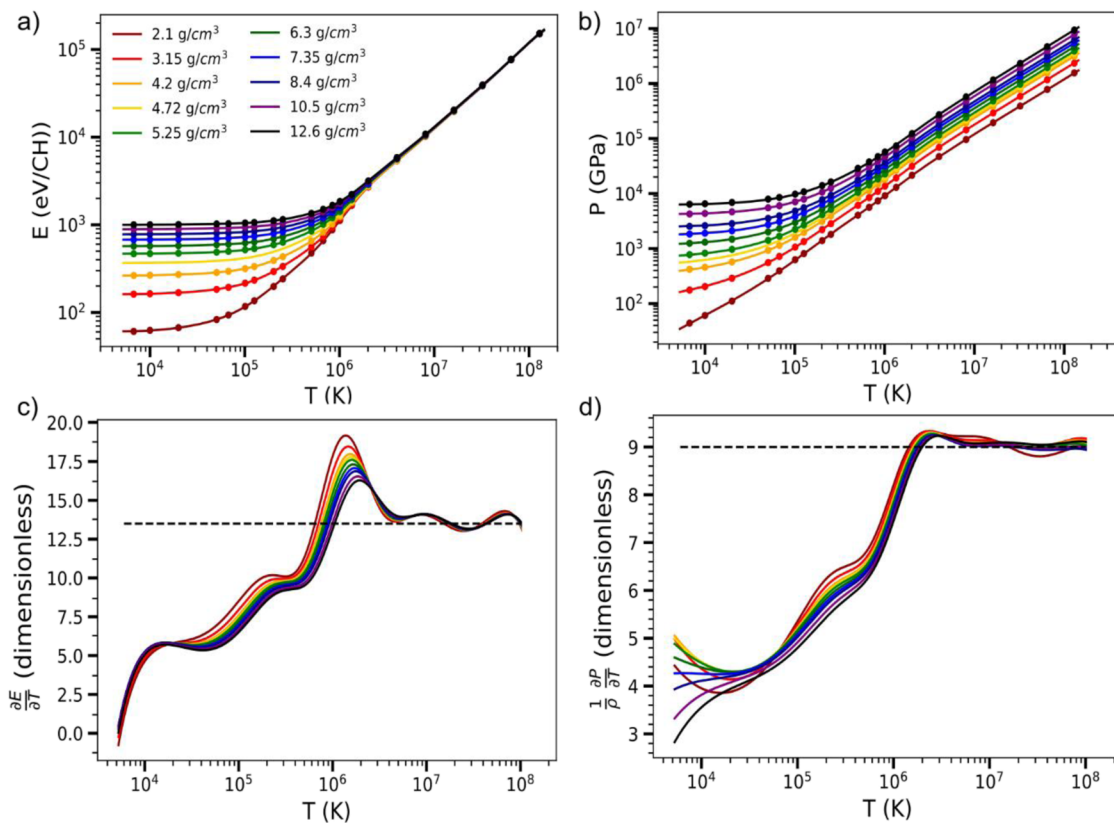


FIG. 2. (a) Interpolated energies and (b) interpolated pressures with the PIML-EOS model along the reference isochores. The solid lines indicate the model's predictions, while the circles indicate the reference data points. Note that the energies have been shifted for plotting purposes. The energies of 2.1 g/cm³ isochore have been shifted by 1100 eV/CH, and each subsequent isochore has been shifted by an additional 100 eV/CH. (c) and (d) Provide the derivative of the energy and pressure with respect to temperature, respectively, from the model along each of the reference isochores. The black dotted line indicates the expected value for an ideal gas. Note that, for temperature, density, energy, and pressure, the conversion back to dimensional variables has been made. Derivatives have been intentionally left dimensionless to provide insights into the number of degrees of freedom in the system.

(supplementary material). From Figs. 2(c) and 2(d), it is clear that both the derivative of energy and the derivative of pressure with respect to temperature are continuous everywhere and appear to be smooth themselves. Around 10^6 K, there does not appear to be any discontinuities or significant jumps associated with the inconsistency of the slopes of the DFT and PIMC data. However, at present, it is not possible with the available data to confirm whether the accuracy of predicted quantities such as specific heats in this region is significantly affected. Regardless, the smoothing of the discontinuity in the slope of the reference data can be advantageous for hydrodynamic simulations as discontinuities in the EOS can cause numerical difficulties.³⁰ Furthermore, boundary effects at the high and low temperature regimes appear to be more prevalent in the model's derivatives than the predicted energies and pressures.

While the initial results of the model are promising, due to the limited availability of reference data, it is important to provide further quantification of the generalization error. This validation can be carried out in the high temperature regime, $T > 3 \times 10^7$ K, as the ground truth EOS from the MD simulations converges with that of an ideal gas (IG). To form this second test set, 120 000 IG energies and pressures are generated at temperatures between 3×10^7 and 10^8 K (evenly spaced on a log scale) and across the full range of densities considered. The PIML-EOS model trained only on the AIMD data is then applied to make corresponding predictions at each of these points. The resulting error distributions are provided in Table II. As can be seen, in the case of pressure, the predictions are consistently within 1% of the IG values and never exceed an error of 1.2%. The errors in energy are slightly worse as the median error is just over 1% and the maximum error sits at 1.8%. This higher error observed in the energies can be attributed to small oscillations that appear along isotherms in this temperature regime. These oscillations suggest that a function that is constant in density, as the ground truth EOS is in this regime, may be just outside of the hypothesis set formed by the ANN (analogous to expanding a constant function in a finite number of sines and cosines). Overall, based on this result, the results of the original test set and the observed behavior of the interpolations, it is expected that the general error of the model across the full domain of temperatures and densities considered will be around 1% for both the energy and pressure.

B. Consistency checks

To evaluate Maxwell's relation, the energy, pressure, and the corresponding derivatives from the PIML-EOS model were

calculated at 90 000 temperature and density points (evenly space on log scale) across the same domain of temperature and density consistent with the reference dataset. The residual error, defined as the absolute value of the difference between both sides of Eq. (4), was calculated at each point, and the resulting distribution is presented in Table III. As can be seen, the errors in Maxwell's relation are at or near machine precision, confirming that Maxwell's relation holds.

To determine if the non-negativity condition on the pressure and the conditions of stability are satisfied, the maximum between 0 and the negative of the predicted target quantity of interest was evaluated at each of the 90 000 points used above in the test of the Maxwell relation. The resulting distributions, as shown in Table III, indicate that there are no points where the pressure becomes negative and that the stability conditions of Eq. (7) hold across the domain of temperatures and densities consistent with the reference dataset. However, as a note of caution, care must be taken when the predictions of the PIML-EOS model are extrapolated beyond the domain containing the reference data. As can be seen in Fig. 2(c), at temperatures below 5×10^3 K, the stability condition for the energy begins to break down.

Next, for the evaluation of the Gibbs–Duhem relation, the chemical potential from the PIML-EOS model was obtained using the following Euler equation:

$$\mu = F + \frac{1}{\rho}P. \quad (16)$$

Equation (16) comes from a manipulation of Eq. (1), where the Euler relation $E = ST + \mu - P/\rho$ has been utilized. As the chemical potential is needed as a function of pressure and not density, Eq. (5), a transformation of the input variables is performed. This is done by fitting a tangent plane to the chemical potential surface at each of the 90 000 temperature–density points. For each fit, both the temperature and density were varied by $\pm 0.05\%$ to generate 25 points around (T_0, ρ_0) , the conditions where the Gibbs–Duhem relation is being evaluated. Using a least squares fit to the model predictions at these 25 conditions, the coefficients a_1 and a_2 in the tangent plane,

$$\mu - \mu_0 = a_1(T - T_0) + a_2(P - P_0), \quad (17)$$

were optimized. Here, (P_0, μ_0) are the predicted values of the pressure and chemical potential at (T_0, ρ_0) . The coefficients associated

TABLE III. Distributions for various checks on the thermodynamic consistency of the PIML-EOS model. Column 1 indicates the quantity calculated at each of the 90 000 points sampled across the domain of T and ρ consistent with the reference data. For Maxwell's relation, this is the absolute value of the difference between the two sides of Eq. (4). Column 2 gives the minimum of each distribution; columns 3 through 5 indicate the 25th, 50th, and 75th percentiles of the distribution, respectively; and column 6 provides the maximum of the distribution.

Distribution	Min	25th	50th	75th	Max
Maxwell relation	0.0	0.0	2.22×10^{-16}	7.11×10^{-15}	2.73×10^{-12}
$\max(0, -P)$	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
$\max\left(0, -\frac{\partial E}{\partial T}\right)$	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
$\max\left(0, -\frac{\partial P}{\partial \rho}\right)$	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

with these fits are directly related to the derivatives of the chemical potential and can be interpreted as

$$a_1 = \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial T}, \quad a_2 = \frac{\partial \mu}{\partial P}. \quad (18)$$

Comparing Eqs. (5) and (18), the coefficients a_1 and a_2 should be equal to the negative of the entropy and the reciprocal of the density, respectively. Here, the entropy is calculated from the Helmholtz free-energy and the comparison with the coefficient a_1 is made in Fig. 3(a). Overall, the relative error in a_1 is consistently below 1% across most of the domain associated with the reference data. Near the matching boundary, 10^6 K, there are some instances where this error can reach 10% or more. In total, these high error points constitute only 300 of the 90 000 points sampled. Furthermore, the coefficient a_2 is compared with the reciprocal of the density in Fig. 3(b). Again, the error in the coefficient is consistently below 1% for most conditions sampled with the exception of a few points near the matching boundary. For both coefficients, the high error points seem to be the most sensitive to the window used to fit the tangent plane. With a more accurate scheme to calculate the derivatives of the chemical potential, these larger errors may be reduced. Overall, these results demonstrate that the Gibbs–Duhem relation

holds for the PIML-EOS model but may be susceptible to a breakdown in regions where thermodynamic inconsistencies exist in the reference data.

The remaining consistency check is to examine the sign of the model's predicted entropy. As with the pressure and stability conditions, the maximum of 0 and the negative of the entropy is calculated at each of the 90 000 points sampled. The resulting color map of values is shown in Fig. 4(a). Below 20 000 K for most densities considered, the entropy becomes negative, which is the first observed thermodynamic inconsistency in the PIML-EOS model's predictions not related to an inconsistency in the reference data.

This inconsistency in the entropy can be explained by the fact that the use of $E(T, \rho)$ and $P(T, \rho)$ does not provide the same information as $F(T, \rho)$ about a system's EOS. This means that the true Helmholtz free-energy of polystyrene differs by some unknown function of temperature and density from the Helmholtz free-energy of the model,

$$F^{sys} = F^{ANN} + h(T, \rho). \quad (19)$$

The form of the function h can be determined by the fact that both the pressure and energy used in the construction of the model are

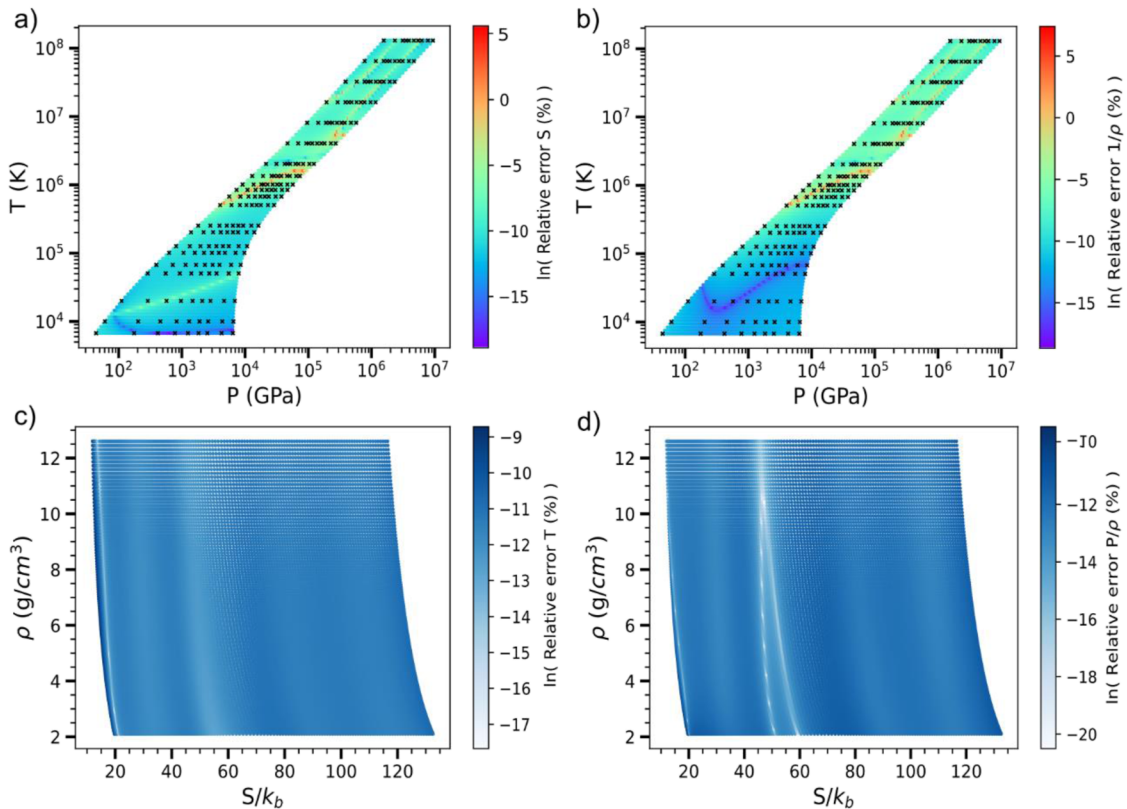


FIG. 3. (a) and (b) Indicate the error in the calculated gradients $\partial\mu/\partial T$ and $\partial\mu/\partial P$, respectively, needed in the evaluation of the Gibbs–Duhem relation. The color bar is based on the log of the relative error in %. The black circles are the reference data. (c) and (d) Provide the error on the gradients $\partial E/\partial S$ and $\partial E/\partial \rho$, respectively, when the model is transformed to the energy representation $E(S, \rho)$. Note that, for temperature, density, and pressure, the conversion back to dimensional variables has been made.

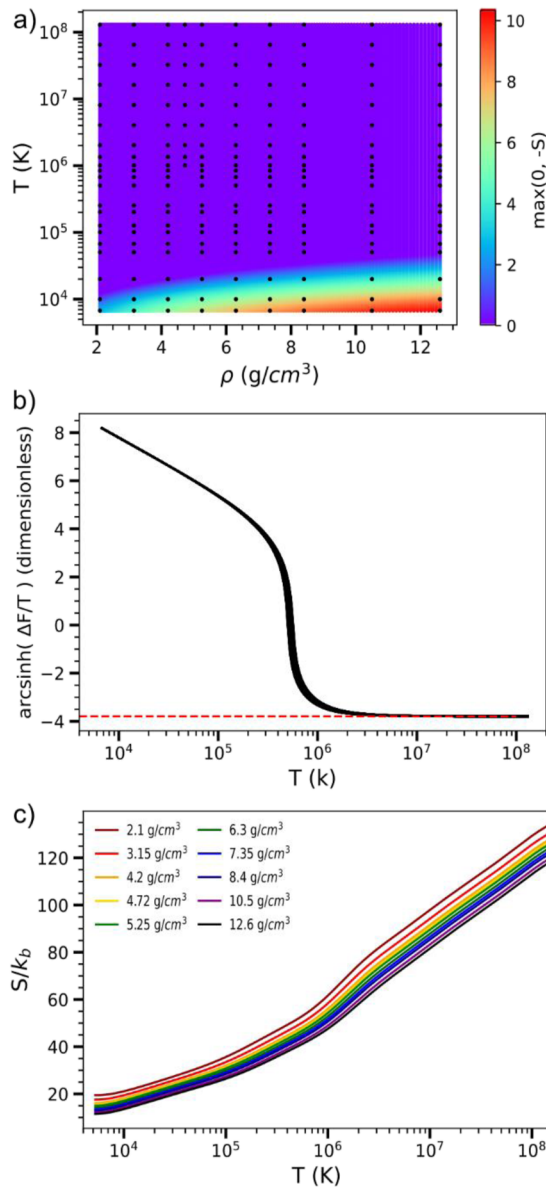


FIG. 4. (a) Evaluation of the sign of the predicted entropy across the domain of thermodynamic conditions consistent with the reference data, which are indicated by the black circles. (b) Distribution of $\Delta F/T$ for the comparison with an ideal gas. The red dotted line indicates the values of S_0 needed to completely determine the total Helmholtz free-energy of the system. (c) Corrected entropy along each of the reference isochores.

total quantities containing all contributions, both electronic and ionic, within the context of the approximations made in the AIMD simulations. As such, the function h is constrained by $P^{\text{sys}} = P^{\text{ANN}}$ and $E^{\text{sys}} = E^{\text{ANN}}$.

Plugging Eq. (19) into Eq. (2) and enforcing the constraint on pressure, it can be seen that the function h will be independent of density, $h(\rho, T) \rightarrow h(T)$. In a similar manner, Eq. (19) can be

inserted into Eq. (1) and the constraint on the energy can be applied. This results in the following ordinary differential equation that describes h :

$$h(T) - T \frac{dh(T)}{dT} = 0. \quad (20)$$

Solving Eq. (20) leads to h being a linear function of temperature. Therefore, during the training process, the PIML-EOS model picks out one Helmholtz free-energy surface in a family of possible surfaces with the resulting true Helmholtz free-energy of the system being

$$F^{\text{sys}} = F^{\text{ANN}} - S_0 T. \quad (21)$$

The unknown constant S_0 can be determined with an exact calculation of the system's entropy at a single temperature–density point or in the limit where the Helmholtz free-energy goes to a known form. It is important to note that the presence of this unknown constant does not affect the previous consistency checks as the constant will either cancel out or be eliminated by a derivative. It is also of note that any model that learns the Helmholtz free-energy from only energy and pressure data will be missing this linear contribution of temperature.

To determine the constant S_0 for the polystyrene dataset, the convergence to an IG in the high temperature regime (see Fig. 2) is utilized. Here, F^{sys} in Eq. (21) is replaced with the exact expression for an IG, F^{IG} ,⁴¹ and the difference $\Delta F = F^{\text{IG}} - F^{\text{ANN}}$ is taken at each of the 90 000 conditions previously sampled. From the distribution of $\Delta F/T$, Fig. 4(b), all points with a temperature greater than 3×10^7 K were averaged, producing a value of 22.24 for S_0 . The corresponding standard deviation associated with this average is 0.04, confirming that $\Delta F/T$ does, in fact, go to a constant at high temperatures. When S_0 is added to the predicted entropies from the PIML-EOS model, the thermodynamic inconsistency is resolved as shown in Fig. 4(c). With the calculation of S_0 , the total Helmholtz free-energy is now completely determined, enabling the prediction of quantities such as the total entropy and total chemical potential of the system under all temperature–density conditions. As these quantities are not directly obtainable from AIMD simulations, this makes the PIML-EOS model a valuable tool for the construction of a more complete EOS table and may help facilitate a better understanding of material properties.

C. Additional validation

With the consistency checks complete, two additional tests of the model are performed. For the first test, the PIML-EOS model was used to calculate the principle Hugoniot, which describes the locus of possible final states, (E_2, P_2, ρ_2) , a system can achieve after being shock compressed from an initial state (E_1, P_1, ρ_1) . This locus of final states is determined by the Rankine–Hugoniot equation,

$$E_2 - E_1 + \frac{1}{2}(P_2 + P_1) \left(\frac{1}{\rho_2} - \frac{1}{\rho_1} \right) = 0. \quad (22)$$

For the calculation of the polystyrene Hugoniot, the same initial conditions used by Zhang *et al.*²⁹ are used here. In dimensionless

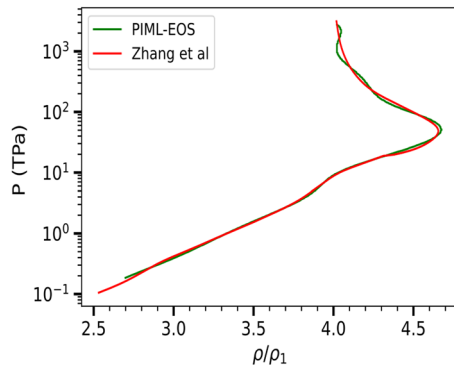


FIG. 5. Calculated Hugoniot for the PIML-EOS model, green curve. A comparison is made to the result predicted by Zhang *et al.*,²⁹ red curve, which was obtained with a cubic spline interpolation of the reference dataset.

quantities, these values are $E_1 = -10.4281$, $P_1 = 0$, and $\rho_1 = 0.5$. The resulting Hugoniot, Fig. 5, is in overall good agreement with that produced by Zhang *et al.* with a cubic spline interpolation. The maximum compression of both curves is within 0.5% of one another. In the high-pressure regime, oscillations in the PIML-EOS predicted Hugoniot of $\pm 2\%$ about the Zhang *et al.* curve can be observed. This can be attributed to the Hugoniot's sensitivity to errors in the fitted EOS and not the presence of apparent shell structure as retraining the model often resulted in a differing behavior of the oscillations. The use of an ensemble approach has been shown to eliminate such oscillations³⁸ and was attempted in the supplementary material. It was found that the behavior of the Hugoniot, particularly in the low-pressure regime, is highly sensitive to errors in the model. Therefore, caution must be taken when interpreting the Hugoniot through a physics lens.

For the second additional test, a transformation to the energy representation, $E(S, \rho)$, is performed. As was done in the test of the Gibbs–Duhem relation, the transformation of the input variables is done by fitting a tangent plane under each of the 90 000 temperature–density conditions previously used in the consistency checks. The coefficients of the fits are then compared to the expected values of the derivatives $\partial E / \partial S = T$ and $\partial E / \partial \rho = -P / \rho$. From Figs. 3(c) and 3(d), it can be seen that the derivatives are reproduced well within a 1% error. Together with the tests of the Gibbs–Duhem relations, this demonstrates that the PIML-EOS model can be trained in one thermodynamic potential and utilized in another.

VI. CONCLUSION

In summary, a physics-informed machine learning EOS model was constructed such that energy and pressure data can be utilized to implicitly learn the Helmholtz free-energy up to an unknown constant. With the use of a known limit, the unknown constant can be determined, allowing for previously unobtainable quantities such as the total Helmholtz free-energy, entropy, and chemical potential to be calculated for AIMD based EOS tables. Trained on reference data for warm dense polystyrene, the PIML-EOS model was capable of reproducing the target energies and pressures within a 1% error.

The model was also shown to be thermodynamically consistent, providing thermodynamically stable predictions that satisfied both the Maxwell and the Gibbs–Duhem relations. Furthermore, we found that the model appears to be capable of identifying inconsistencies in the reference dataset. While this is not the intended purpose of the model, this sensitivity may be a valuable tool to improve existing discrete EOS tables. Moving forward, additional tests are needed to determine how the model will handle more complex systems that experience a phase transition in the considered domain of temperature and density. At present, it appears that such transitions will likely be smoothed out, which could be advantageous for hydrodynamic simulations, but for other applications where smoothing is undesirable, further developments of the model are likely needed. Furthermore, additional validation should be performed, when possible, to ensure that the level of error on the energies and pressures is maintained for quantities such as specific heats.

SUPPLEMENTARY MATERIAL

The supplementary material contains technical details about the implementation of the PIML-EOS model. This includes details about how gradients of the model are calculated for both the back-propagation and analysis of the smoothness of energies and pressures. In addition, learning curves from the training runs can be found here.

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AUTHOR DECLARATIONS

Conflict of Interest

The authors have no conflicts to disclose.

Author Contributions

J. Hinz: Conceptualization (equal); Methodology (lead); Software (lead); Writing – original draft (lead); Writing – review & editing (equal). **Dayou Yu:** Conceptualization (equal); Methodology (supporting); Writing – review & editing (supporting). **Deep Shankar Pandey:** Conceptualization (equal); Methodology (supporting); Writing – review & editing (supporting). **Hitesh Sapkota:** Conceptualization (supporting); Methodology (supporting). **Qi Yu:** Conceptualization (lead); Methodology (equal); Supervision (equal); Writing – review & editing (equal). **D. I. Mihaylov:** Conceptualization (equal); Methodology (equal); Writing – review & editing (supporting). **V. V. Karasiev:** Conceptualization (lead); Methodology (equal); Supervision (lead); Writing – review & editing (equal). **S. X. Hu:** Conceptualization (lead); Methodology (equal); Supervision (lead); Writing – review & editing (equal).

DATA AVAILABILITY

The data that support the findings of this study are openly available in the database constructed in Ref. 28 under the table C18H18_EOS_09-18-20.txt.

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