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A molecular dynamics simulation framework for predicting noise in solid-state nanopores

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ABSTRACT

In this paper, we perform all-atom molecular dynamics (AA-MD) simulations to predict noise in solid-state nanopores. The simulation system consists of $\sim 70,000$ to $\sim 350,000$ atoms. The simulations are carried out for $\sim 1.3 \mu\text{s}$ over ~ 6500 CPU hours in 128 processors (Intel® E5-2670 2.6 GHz Processor). We observe low and high frequency noise in solid-state nanopores. The low frequency noise is due to the surface charge density of the nanopore. The high frequency noise is due to the thermal motion of ions and dielectric material of the solid-state nanopore. We propose a generalised noise theory to match both the low and high frequency noise. The study may help ways to study noise in solid-state nanoporous membranes using MD simulations.

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1. Introduction


Nanofluidics is the study and manipulation of fluids confined within 1–100 nm [1–4]. The behaviour of fluid changes at the nanoscale compared to the bulk scale, because atomic and molecular interactions between solid-liquid interfaces play a significant role at such small length scales. Over the last decade, nanofluidics has made giant strides in applications like DNA sequencing [5–8], seawater desalination [9–12], liquid electronics [13–15], and nanofluidic diodes [16–20]. The solid-state nanopores, however exhibit significantly higher noise than the biological membranes and hence act as a roadblock for many of these applications [21–23]. The origin of the noise was postulated as surface charge fluctuations [24,25], nanochannel's opening and closing processes in the case of track etched membranes [26], the formation of nanobubble inside the nanopore [27], and cooperative effect on ion motion inside confined geometry [28]. In this paper, we propose all-atom molecular dynamics simulations (AA-MD) framework [29–32] to predict noise inside solid-state nanopores. Any statistical fluctuation of current or voltage may be quantified by the variance, its square root, the standard deviation, or the power spectral density (PSD) which also considers the frequency (f) dependence. The variance is calculated as the integral of the PSD over a bandwidth (B). We measure the PSD from ionic current-time data for solid-state nanopores and discuss the origin of the noise.

2. Simulation details

First, the silicon nitride (Si_3N_4) slab of dimension $6.19 \text{ nm} \times 6.19 \text{ nm} \times 4.64 \text{ nm}$ (and $15.4 \text{ nm} \times 15.4 \text{ nm} \times 4.64 \text{ nm}$) is created by replicating cubic unit cell of $\gamma\text{-Si}_3\text{N}_4$ [33] in three

dimensions. To drill a nanopore of diameters 3.56, 5.2, and 10.16 nm, the centre of the pore is chosen in such a way resulting in a uniform circular nanopore. The creation of the pore led to the non-zero charge of the Si_3N_4 slab. In order to maintain electroneutrality of the Si_3N_4 slab, the partial charge of the Si atom was adjusted by 0.1%. In this work, we assume a uniform surface charge (σ) of -0.02 , -0.2 , and 2 C/m^2 . To obtain the desired surface charge density (σ), additional charges were added to the surface atoms of the pore along with its partial charge (see Figure 1(a)). The entire Si_3N_4 slab is solvated, and K^+ and Cl^- ions were added using the autoionize VMD plugin [34]. Also, extra positive ions (K^+) were added inside the pore to make the system electro-neutral. SPC/E water model was used to model the water molecules, and ions were modelled as the L-J particles. The non-bonded parameters for all-atom types are taken from ref [33]. Further, a cut off radius of 1.1 nm was used for non-bonded interactions. Also, the particle mesh Ewald (PME) with a grid space of 1.1 nm was used for computing electrostatic interactions. Furthermore, the AA-MD simulations are performed using NAMD 2.12 package [35]. The multi-time step (MTS) algorithm with a 1-2-4 fs time step was used for integrating Newton's equation of motion to get the trajectory of the atoms. The trajectories were recorded every 0.1 ps. Initially, the entire system undergoes the minimisation of 10,000 steps to reach a minimum energy configuration state. Then the system was equilibrated in NPT ensemble at atmospheric pressure and constant temperature for 3 ns. The final system after NPT simulation, having a total length of 17.98 nm is shown in Figure 1(b). We carried out all our simulation at 300 K using Langevin thermostat with a dampening coefficient of 0.1 ps^{-1} . The non-equilibrium simulation was performed by applying an external voltage under NVT

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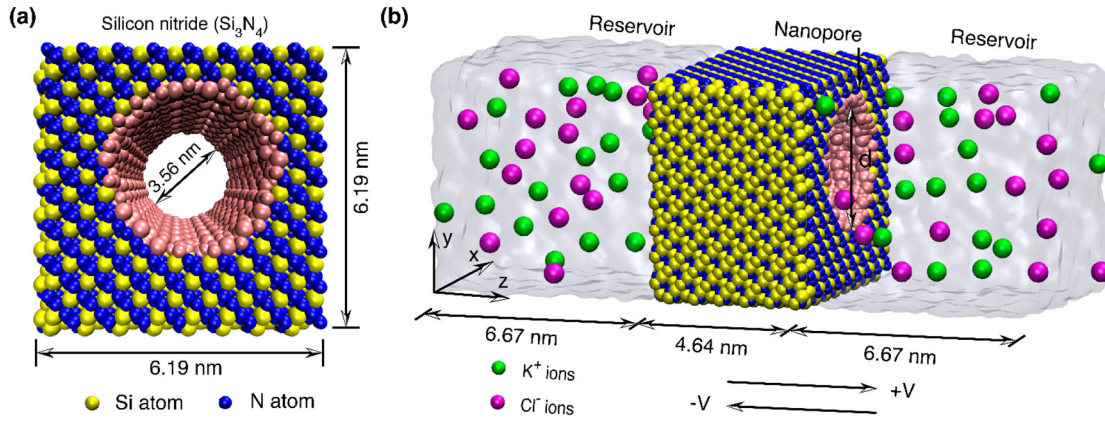


Figure 1. (Colour online) All-atom molecular dynamics (AA-MD) simulation setup. (a) A silicon nitride nanopore and (b) A final simulation setup indicates the size of the system after NPT simulation. Semitransparent surface indicates the water molecules.

ensemble. Each simulation was run for 100 ns. The large simulation time was used to gather good statistics to study low and high frequency noise.

3. Results and Discussions

3.1. I-V characteristics

A total of $\sim 70,000$ to $\sim 350,000$ atoms are simulated for a total time of $\sim 1.3 \mu\text{s}$ in ~ 6500 hours CPU hours using 128 cores (Intel® E5-2670 2.6 GHz) processor. The ionic current is calculated inside the nanopore using Equation (1) [30–32]

$$I\left(t + \frac{T}{2}\right) = \frac{1}{TL} \sum_{i=1}^{N_p} q_i (z_i(t+T) - z_i(t)) \quad (1)$$

where $i = 1, 2, \dots, N_p$, N_p is the total number of ions inside the nanopore, z_i and q_i are the z -coordinate and charge of ion, respectively. L is the length of the nanopore, and T is the sampling time. Figure 2(a) shows the variation of the current with time. Figure 2(b) shows the I-V characteristics of the solid-state nanopore for three different diameters (d). Here, the current follows the Ohm's law during both forward (+V) and reverse (−V) bias. For all the pore diameters considered,

the aspect ratio (L/d) is less than 1.5. Due to such a low aspect ratio, we used a thin nanofluidic membrane equation to calculate the ionic conductance (G) and ionic current (I) [36–39]

$$G = K_b \left[\frac{4L}{\pi d^2} \frac{1}{1 + 4(l_{Du}/d)} + \frac{2}{\gamma d + \beta l_{Du}} \right]^{-1} \quad (2)$$

where K_b is the bulk conductivity, L is the pore length, d is the pore diameter, l_{Du} is the Dukhin length (which can be approximated by $(|\sigma/F|/2c_s)$, where F is the Faraday's constant and c_s is the bulk concentration), γ is a geometrical prefactor that depends on the model used and β is a fitting parameter (here, $\gamma = 1$ and $\beta = -3$) to obtain the best match with the MD simulation results.

4. Low frequency noise – model

Figure 2 shows the power spectral density (PSD) of the ionic current calculated using Welch method [40]. The simulations show both low and high frequency noise. Note, in the experiments the frequency range typically studied is 1 Hz to 1 MHz. Further, the low frequency noise range is between 1 Hz and 1 kHz and the noise above 1 kHz is studied as high

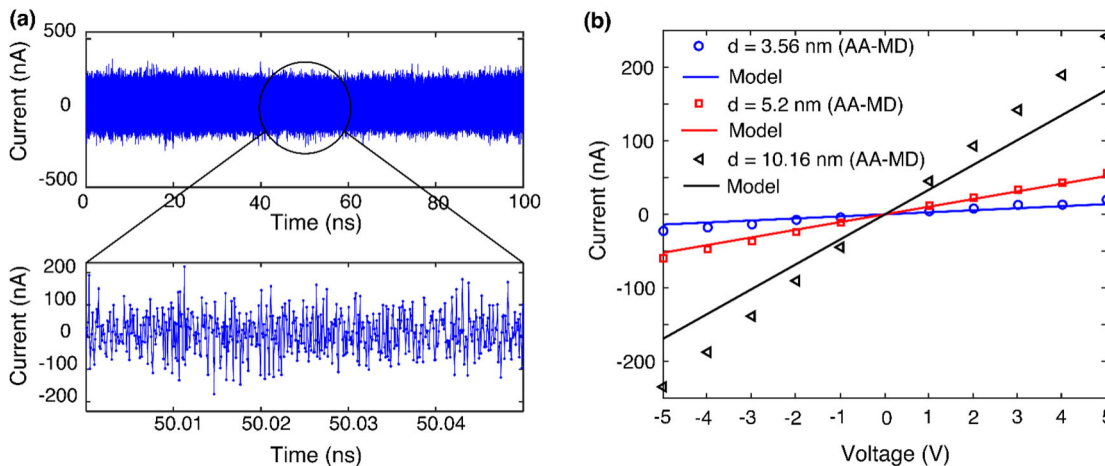


Figure 2. (Colour online) (a) Current oscillations of nanopore ($d = 3.56$ nm) for the applied voltage of 3 V corresponding to the surface charge of -0.2 C/m^2 . (b) Shows the I-V characteristics for three different nanopore diameters.

frequency noise [41–50]. However in our simulations, owing to the computational limitations of MD, we took the length of the reservoir to be ~ 7 nm which is many orders smaller than a real experimental reservoir, hence the time scales are shifted compared to the real experimental system. For example, the longest relaxation time of the system is the diffusion time, which in our case is $(2L_{\text{reservoir}} + L)^2/6D$ where, $L_{\text{reservoir}}$ is the length of the reservoir, L as discussed before is the pore length. The longest relaxation time of the system is found to be ~ 26.9 ns. We ran our simulations for 100 ns so that we can capture the longest relaxation time. The low frequency noise regime is the reciprocal of the longest relaxation time which is ~ 37.12 MHz. Also, the high frequency limit corresponds to the smallest relaxation time of the system. The drift of the ions dictates the smallest relaxation time of the system. In our simulations, the drift velocity of the ion is found to be ~ 289.6 m/s. The smallest relaxation time of the system is given by L/v , where v is the drift velocity of the ion inside the nanoporous membrane. The smallest relaxation time is found to be ~ 16 ps. We used a time step of 0.1 ps to record the current trajectory and thus, we are able to capture the smallest relaxation time and the high frequency regime of the system. Thus, one cannot directly consider the same time scales of the experiment with our simulations. However, the conclusions drawn from our simulations are same as the experimental results as the dimensions of the nanoporous membrane are in the same range as the experimental results [42].

For applied surface charge density (σ) of -0.2 C/m², Figure 3(c) shows that the low frequency noise scales as $1/f^\alpha$ with $\alpha \approx 0.65$. The results agree well with the literature where α is typically 0.5 to 1.5. To understand the origin of low frequency noise, we varied the surface charge density of the nanopore. When the surface charge density (σ) is 0 C/m², i.e. the charge on each atom of Si₃N₄ is zero, the factor α is found to be equal to 0.25 (see Figure 3(a)). The result revealed that surface charge density of the nanopore plays a major role in the scaling of the low frequency noise in solid-state nanopores. To confirm the result, we varied the surface charge density of the nanopore from $\sigma = -0.02$ C/m² to $\sigma = -2$ C/m². We observed that the factor α is almost constant, α varied between 0.65 and 0.7. The constant value of α is because the counter-ions are screened completely at such high surface charge densities, resulting in dominant surface conduction mode. To reconfirm if surface charge density of the nanopore and the surface conduction is the dominant mechanism for the origin of the low frequency noise, we varied the concentration between 0.5 and 5 M at $\sigma = -0.2$ C/m². For low concentrations from 0.5 M to 1 M, the factor α is found to be 0.65 and for high concentrations between 2 and 5 M, α is found to decrease to 0.35–0.25, respectively (see Figure 4(a)). The decrease in α at high concentration is due to the fact that the surface conduction mode becomes less dominant and the bulk conduction starts to dominate.

To model the low frequency noise, we use Hooge's phenomenological relation [51]. According to Hooge relation, noise power (A) scales inversely with the total number of charge carriers.

$$\frac{S_{IL}}{I^2} = \frac{A}{f} = \frac{\alpha'}{N_c f} \quad (3)$$

where S_{IL} is the PSD of the low frequency noise, I is the ionic current, α' is the Hooge parameter, N_c is the number of charge carriers which is directly proportional to bulk concentration, and A is the noise power. Figure S1(a) shows that the noise power (A) decreases with an increase in the salt concentration consistent with Equation (3). The slope of A with $1/N_c$ gives the Hooge parameter ($\alpha' = 8.41 \times 10^{-3}$) and is observed to be constant (see Figure S1(b)). For high bulk concentration (2 and 5 M), the noise power deviates from the linear variation due to the dominance of the bulk conduction.

5. High frequency noise – model

For the high frequency noise, we propose thermal noise and dielectric noise to be dominant source of noises. The two sources of noise are given by

$$S_{IH} = S_{IT} + S_{ID} \quad (4)$$

$$S_{IT} = \frac{4K_b T}{R_p} \quad (5)$$

$$S_{ID} = 8\pi K_b C_p T D f \quad (6)$$

where S_{IT} is the thermal noise (also called Johnson noise or shot noise or white noise) which arises from thermal motions of ions and is independent of frequency, S_{ID} term is a dielectric noise; the noise associated with the dielectric material of the nanopore, K_b is the Boltzmann constant, T is the temperature in K, D is the dielectric dissipation factor, R_p and C_p are the resistance and capacitance of the nanopore, respectively. To find the resistance (R_p) and the capacitance (C_p) of the nanopore, we approximate the entire simulation system as a hypothetical system. In such a system, the reservoir resistance (R_R) is assumed to be connected in series with parallel resistor-capacitor (R_p – C_p) circuit of the solid-state nanopore [42,50]. To determine the capacitance of the nanopore, we assume the nanopore as an ideal capacitor (i.e. dielectric dissipation factor (D) = 0, and $R_p = 0$) resulting a series reservoir resistance (R_R) – nanopore capacitor (C_p) circuit. The value of reservoir resistance (R_R) is obtained by simulating the reservoir alone filled with KCl solution. The reservoir resistance (R_R) is then subtracted from total resistance of the system ($R_{\text{Total}} = R_p + R_R$) to obtain the pore resistance (R_p). For a series R_R – C_p circuit, the initial decay rate of the ionic current, I_t is given by Equation (7) and is used to find the capacitance (C_p)

$$I_t = I_{\text{max}} e^{(-t/R_R C_p)} \quad (7)$$

where I_{max} is the maximum current at the time, $t = 0$. We fit Equation (7) to ionic current obtained from AA-MD simulation and the capacitance of the nanopore was found to be 2.7868×10^{-18} F which is in close agreement with the theoretical value ($C_p = \epsilon_o \epsilon_r A/L$, where ϵ_o is the relative permittivity of the free space, ϵ_r is the dielectric constant of the nanopore material, A is the nanopore cross sectional area, and L is the length of the nanopore). The dielectric dissipation factor (D) is a free parameter which is the property of the nanopore material and is obtained by fitting the PSD with Equation (4). The dielectric dissipation factor (D) is found to be 0.003, which matches well with experimental dielectric dissipation

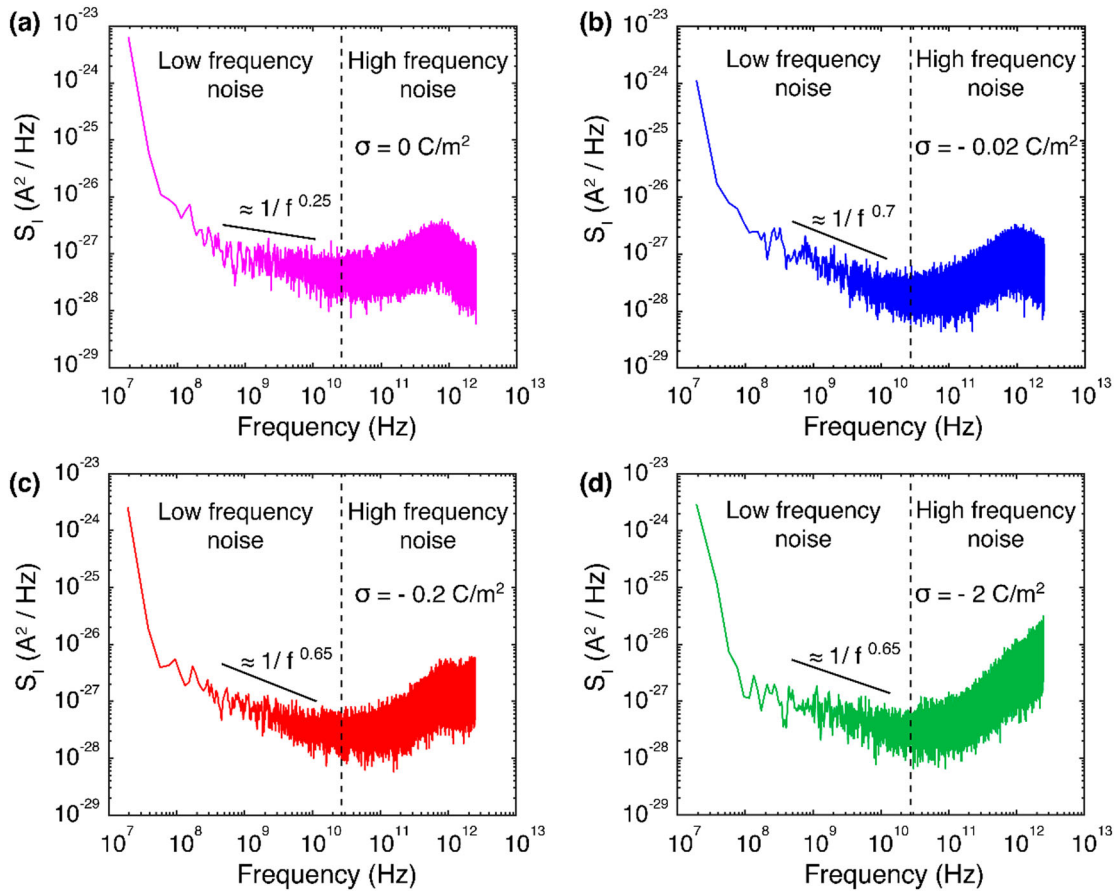


Figure 3. (Colour online) Power spectral density (PSD) for nanopore of diameter (d) = 3.56 nm corresponding to four different surface charge density under the applied voltage of 3 V. (a) $\sigma = 0 \text{ C/m}^2$, (b) $\sigma = -0.02 \text{ C/m}^2$, (c) $\sigma = -0.2 \text{ C/m}^2$, and (d) $\sigma = -2 \text{ C/m}^2$.

factor (D) for silicon nitride material [52,53]. Our theory for high frequency noise is further validated by fitting the theory with the simulation results (see Figure 4(b)).

Finally, a generalised noise theory to capture both low and high frequency noise in solid-state nanopores is given as

$$S_I = S_{IL} + S_{IH} = \frac{\alpha' I^2}{N_C f^\alpha} + \frac{4K_b T}{R_P} + 8\pi\kappa_b C_P T D f \quad (8)$$

The noise theory is validated by fitting the theory with the simulation results. Figure 4(b) shows the comparison between the simulation and theory and we see a good agreement between the two results. Further, to confirm the theory works well we fit the theory for different values of surface charge density of the nanopore (see Figure S3). We observe that the theory matches well with the simulations for capturing both low and high frequency noise. Furthermore, resistance-capacitance (R_R - C_P) noise, generally modelled in experiments [42] is absent

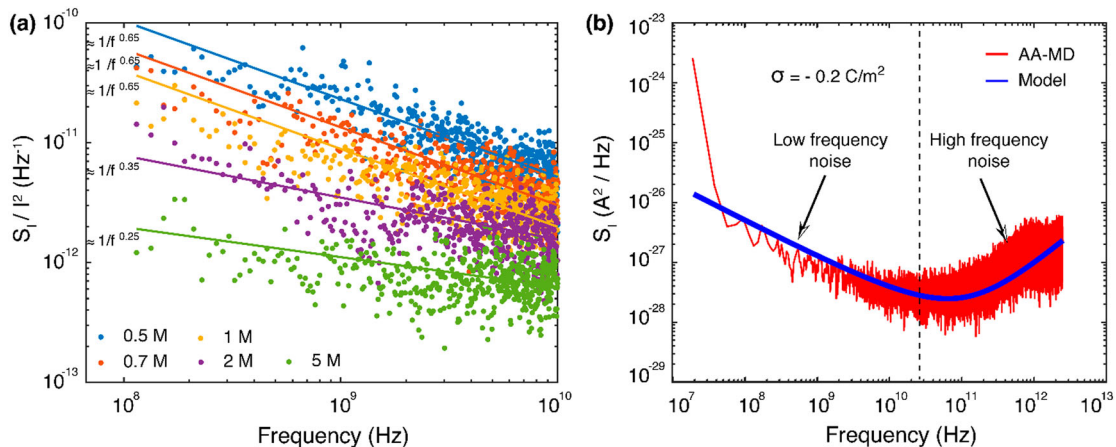


Figure 4. (Colour online) (a) Normalised power spectral density of nanopore ($d = 3.56 \text{ nm}$) for five different concentrations, and (b) Shows the generalised noise theory predicting low and high frequency noise corresponding to the surface charge density of $\sigma = -0.2 \text{ C/m}^2$ and the applied voltage of 3 V.

in our simulations, since we controlled the temperature of the reservoir and also the nanopore by using a Langevin thermostat [35] that reduced this source of noise.

6. Conclusion

In this paper we present a molecular dynamics simulation framework to predict the noise in solid-state nanopores. We found surface charge density as the main source of noise in low frequency noise regime and thermal and dielectric noises are the main sources of noise in high frequency regime. The study may help ways to study noise in solid-state nanoporous membranes using MD simulations.

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Disclosure statement

No potential conflict of interest was reported by the author(s).

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