

Tutorial 1: Lennard-Jones Liquid*

ESPResSo Basics

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1 Introduction

Welcome to the basic ESPResSo tutorial!

In this tutorial, you will learn, how to use the ESPResSo package for your research. We will cover the basics of ESPResSo, i.e. how to set up and modify a physical system, how to run a simulation, and how to load, save and analyze the data.

The more advanced features and algorithms available in the ESPResSo package will be described in additional tutorials in the future.

2 Background

Today's research on Soft Condensed Matter has brought the needs for having a flexible, extensible, reliable and efficient (parallel) molecular simulation package. For this reason ESPResSo (Extensible Simulation Package for Research on Soft matter) [1] has been developed in Max Planck Institute for Polymer Research, Mainz by the Group of PD Dr. Christian Holm [2]. The Espresso package is probably the most flexible and extensible simulation package in the market. It is specially developed for coarse-grained molecular dynamics (MD) simulation of polyelectrolytes but not necessarily limited to this. It can

be used even in simulating granular media for example. ESPResSo has been nominated for the Heinz-Billing-Preis for Scientific Computing in 2003 [3].

3 Tutorial Outline

In this short tutorial, you will be introduced to the ESPResSo package as smooth as possible with a minimal set of skills. We will guide you through the initial steps of working with ESPResSo and help you to examine a simple physical system, a Lennard-Jones liquid.

After a brief introduction to ESPResSo in Section 4, we provide you with a short tutorial to the Tcl programming language which is used to control simulations using ESPResSo in Section 5. In Section 6.2, we will introduce you to the problem system studied in this tutorial and familiarize you with the necessary background knowledge. Please note, however, that it is beyond the scope of this tutorial to give a complete overview of the the area. We give a few references that can give you more detailed information regarding MD.

4 First steps

What is ESPResSo? It is not a coffee, indeed. It is an extensible, efficient Molecular Dynamics package specially powerful on simulating charged systems. In depth information about the package can be found in the relevant sources [1, 3] and a recent paper [2].

From the users point of view, ESPResSo is driven by Tcl(/TK)¹ [4], that the user can interact with the package core via command line interface (CLI) or scripts by using Tcl scripting language². In a given ESPResSo script, some commands are interpreted by the scripting language (Tcl), while others by the core ESPResSo program written in C. However, all ESPResSo commands and directives in the script are transparent to the user, regardless of its implementation either on the C- or Tcl-level.

Note: This tutorial assumes that you already have a working ESPResSo installation on your system. If this is not the case, please go to http://espressomd.org/ for information on how to obtain and install ESPResSo.

¹Tool command language

²In short, a *scripting language* allows the user to write instructions that are carried out by an interpreter without prior compiling. This enables the user to use ESPResSo for vastly different applications without the need of different specialized executable files.

Task 1 To start ESPResSo, simply type Espresso in the command line shell. This will open the Command Line Interface (CLI) of ESPResSo. Upon issuing the ESPResSo command code_info you can see the options that are included in your ESPResSo binary^a.

Figure 1: Example output of the ESPResSo Command Line Interface upon issuing the code info command.

Task 2 Figure 1 shows the terminal output you should have obtained. What kind of output are you receiving from **code_info** command?

^aESPResSo provides many different features, some which are mutually exclusive. This is why not all features are activated by default, but instead have to be explicitly requested at compile time of the executable. Please consult the user's guide for details on this.

On the screenshot you can see several compiled in features, i.e. the fake multiprocessing interface, the fast Fourier transform, the Lennard-Jones and electrostatic potential. All features can be found explained in the ESPResSo User Guide.

5 Short TCL Tutorial

Tcl (Tool Command Language) is a very powerful but easy to learn programming language. ³ Aside from writing any valid Tcl code, the user can write any valid ESPResSo command on the ESPResSo CLI. Here we will review the basic Tcl tutorial [5] in Espresso CLI. Now type Espresso. Once in the CLI, you can familiarize yourself with the basics of TCL.

5.1 Assignments and evaluation

A simple text output, or a print statement can be carried out with puts ⁴

```
puts "Hello Espresso \n"
puts "This is line 1"; puts "this is line 2"
```

In order to declare a variable and/or assign a value to it, you use the assignment command, called **set**.

```
set X "This is a string"
set Y 1.24
puts $X
puts $Y
```

When assigning a value to a variable, the variable is accessed simply by its variable name (as in the first line, X). When a value is accessed, the variable name is preceded by a dollar sign (as in the third line, X)

C-like backslash sequences can be used along put. For example, \t puts a tab, \r puts a line return and \n puts a carriage return. Comments are placed using a hash (#) sign.

```
set X 1.2 ;  # this is a comment
set Y 2.1 ;  # another comment
puts "\t tab \t another tab \n X=$X and Y=$Y"
```

³It is dynamically interpreted, which means that commands are read, interpreted, and executed by the computer one command line at a time.

⁴Valid TCL / ESPResSo commands are bold and blue, all following code can be direct used with ESPResSo.

To evaluate the result of mathematical expressions you can use the **expr** command. Note, that the entire statement is enclosed in square brackets.

```
set X 60
set Y 30
set Z [expr $X+$Y]
puts " X=$X and Y=$Y and X+Y=$Z"
set cosX [expr cos($X)]
puts "cos ($X) = $cosX"
```

Most C-like operators and math functions are valid TCL syntax.

5.2 Comparisons and looping

Syntax of numeric comparison is as follows

```
set x 5 if \{\$x == 5\} {puts "\$x is 5"} else {puts "\$x is not 5"}
```

You may also write this in different lines by using backslashes. As in many shell scripting languages such as Tcl, the backslash is used for line continuation only in the Espresso CLI, not when running a loaded script. However, there is one exception: even in a script, Tcl expects all parameters of a function, including flow control commands such as if or while, on the same line. Here you need continuation backslashes even in a script. However, a block with in curled braces, which is the most common in Tcl, does not require backslashes for continuation inside. Therefore, in a script, the above code might look like this:

```
set x 5
if {$x == 5} {
   puts "$x is 5"
} else {
   puts "$x is not 5"
}
```

but still, you need the backslashes in this style:

```
set x 5
if {$x == 5} \
    { puts "$x is 5" } \
else \
    { puts "$x is not 5" }
```

You can loop with standard **for** or **while** constructs. For example finding 10! with the **for** construct:

```
set factorial 1.0
for {set i 1} {$i < 11} {incr i} \
    {set factorial [expr $factorial*$i]}
puts "10! is $factorial"

Or with a while construct
set factorial 1.0
set i 1
while {$i < 11} {set factorial [expr $factorial*$i] ; incr i}
puts "10! is $factorial"</pre>
```

5.3 Lists

An ordered collection of entities can be assigned to a variable that makes it a \mathbf{list}^5 . This is the basic data structure in TCL. Lists can be set similar to variables. To access the list data one can use \mathbf{lindex} by using corresponding index value. Remember that in TCL the list indices start with 0 like in other scripting/programming languages.

```
set x "1 2 3"
puts "first element is [lindex $x 0]"
puts "second element is [lindex $x 1]"
puts "and the last [lindex $x 2]"
```

One can access all the elements by using **foreach** looping construct as well

Also we can access list of lists

```
set y "{100 101} {110 111} {120 121}"
puts "first element of second list is [lindex $y 1 0]"
puts "second element of third list is [lindex $y 2 1]"
```

⁵This is similar - but not entirely equivalent - to arrays in computer languages such as C or C++.

We can also find the length of a list by **llength**, append an element by **lappend** and inserting an element by **linsert**:

```
set x "1 2 3 4";  # generate a list x
llength $x ;  # get the size of list x (number of elements)
lappend x 5 ;  # add a new member end of list
puts "x is {$x}";  # print list again
set x [linsert $x 3 3a];  # insert an element "3a" at index 3
puts "x is {$x}";  # print list again
```

6 Adding a new Tcl command

In Tcl there is actually no distinction between commands (often known as 'functions' in other languages) and "syntax" [5]

```
proc sum {arg1 arg2} { \
set x [expr {$arg1 + $arg2}]; \
return $x \
}
sum 1 4
puts [sum 1 4]
```

6.1 Writing to a file

It is useful to write the data into a file. For example

For further and advanced language details please consult with official Tcl documentation [4].

So far, we have been typing all the commands line by line in the CLI. In practice, these lines are actually written in one text file, whose filename is usually ending with the extension tcl. The commands in that text file are then executed from the Linux command line with the command Espresso filename.tcl.

Task 3 Write a Tcl procedure (custom Tcl command) to compute an arithmetic average

$$\bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$$

out of given list of real numbers respectively. Use rand() command to produce arbitrary number of real numbers between 0 and 1 to test your new command. Write your code into a file called task1.tcl and run as follows: Espresso task1.tcl. Check your result with smaller data set that you can verify the correctness manually.

Sample solution:

1. Define the new function and set the counting and result variables:

```
proc xsquare {arg1} {
  set res 0
  set i 0
```

2. Sum up the given values and printout the sum:

```
4 foreach j $arg1 { set res [expr $j+$res]; incr i };
5 puts $res;
```

3. count the elements, divide the sum an return the value:

```
6 set lang [llength $arg1]
7 set res [expr {$res / $lang } ];
8 return $res; }
```

4. to call your function with an array \$x:

```
9 set y [xsquare $x];
10 puts $y;
```

6.2 System setup

An Espresso script is a tcl simulation script that drives the C-core of the package. It contains commands native to Tcl - like those we have already learned - plus special ESPResSo commands that execute procedures specific to MD calculations. In this section we will review some very basic commands that will help you to understand the sample introductory script. An actual script used for research is usually more complicated.

6.3 Lennard-Jones Potential

A pair of neutral atoms or molecules is subject to two distinct forces in the limit of large separation and small separation: an attractive force at long ranges (van der Waals force, or dispersion force) and a repulsive force at short ranges (the result of overlapping electron orbitals, referred to as Pauli repulsion from Pauli exclusion principle). The Lennard-Jones potential (also referred to as the L-J potential, 6-12 potential or, less commonly, 12-6 potential) is a simple mathematical model that represents this behavior. It was proposed in 1924 by John Lennard-Jones. The L-J potential is of the form $V(r) = 4\epsilon [(\frac{\sigma}{r})^{12} - (\frac{\sigma}{r})^{6}]$ where ϵ is the depth of the potential well and σ is the (finite) distance at which the inter particle potential is zero and r is the distance between the particles. The $(\frac{1}{r})^{12}$ term describes repulsion and the $(\frac{1}{r})^{6}$ term describes attraction. The Lennard-Jones potential is an approximation. The form of the repulsion term has no theoretical justification; the repulsion force should depend exponentially on the distance, but the repulsion term of the L-J formula is more convenient due to the ease and efficiency of computing r^{12} as the square of r^{6} .

6.4 Units

Novice users must understand that Espresso has no fixed unit system. The unit system is set by user. Conventionally, reduced units are employed, in other words LJ units. ⁶

6.5 Simulation Parameters

There are global parameters of the simulation system. Some of them are dynamic, that is to say we can change on the fly, others are read only⁷. One important ESPResSo command to address these parameters is **setmd**

ESPResSo needs to know which integrator to use for dynamics. One can use NVE (particle Number, Velocity, Energy) or NVT (particle Number, Velocity, Tempera-

⁶If we have charges there is additionally a concept of Bjerrum length, consult Espresso original paper for more details.

 $^{^{7}}$ For more information on read-only variables consult the user's guide.

ture)(Langevin) as well as NPT-isotropic (particle Number, Pressure, Temperature) ensembles. Some examples how to use the thermostats

```
thermostat off
```

This implies to use NVE ensemble

```
thermostat langevin 1.0 0.5
```

Use a langevin thermostat (NVT ensemble) with temperature set to 1.0 and damping coefficient to 0.5

6.6 Assigning Particle Properties

The power of the ESPResSo package lies in the flexible manipulation of particle data. Particles can be manipulated by the **part** command which recognizes the unique particle id. Each particle must be a member of a group which is called *type*. Interactions among those types can be defined through *type* number with **inter** command. ⁸ For example to place a *particle id* 0 and *type* 0 at given position (x, y, z)

```
part 0 pos $x $y $z type 0
```

it is also possible to read the information on the given particle

```
part 0 print pos
```

which returns position vector of particle id 0.9

6.7 Assigning Interactions

LJ interaction among type 0 particles can be defined as follows

 $^{^{8}}$ Note that, In most electrostatic algorithms, one does not need a type id for interaction specification.

⁹Note, that the words pos, type, and print are not variables but directives to the part command. See the ESPResSo user's guide for more details.

This ¹⁰ setting corresponds to following potential form

$$U(r) = 4\epsilon \left[\left(\frac{\sigma}{r - \text{offset}} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma}{r - \text{offset}} \right)^{6} + \text{shift} \right]$$

6.8 Generating Data: Lennard-Jones Liquid Simulation

After we have shortly explained how you can use ESPResSo, we now come to the Lennard-Jones Liquid Simulation. Before we explain the script step by step, run the lj_tutorial.tcl with ESPResSo to get all generated files.

We include necessary functions with **source** lj_functions.tcl by using the external lj_functions.tcl file and print out the in compiled features of ESPResSo

6.8.1 System Setup

At first, we must configure the environment and set the needed parameters.

```
9 # System identification:
10 set name "lj_liquid"
11 set ident "_s1"
12
13 # System parameters
14 ###############
15 # we set 108 particles in our system
16
17 set n_part 108
18
19 # Interaction parameters
20 ##########################
21 # we must set our lennard—jones interaction parameters
```

¹⁰As in the previous example, the word lennard-jones is not a variable but a directive of the command inter.

```
22
23 set lj1_eps
                   1.0
24 set lj1_sig
                   1.0
25 set lj1_cut
                   2.5
26 set lj1_shift
                   [\mathbf{expr} - (\mathbf{pow}(1.0 / \$1j1_c ut, 12) - pow(1.0 / \$1j1_c ut, 6))]
27 set lj1_offset
                 0.0
29 # Integration parameters
31 # we need some information about our system
33 thermostat off;
                           # Simulation in NVE Ensemble
34
35 setmd time_step 0.001
36 set eq_tstep 0.0001
37 set tstep
              0.001
38 set skin 0.1
39 setmd skin $skin
40 set target_temperature 0.728
41
42 # we need some warmup information
44 set warm_steps
                    100
45 set warm_n_times 2000
47 \# do the warmup until the particles have
48 \# at least the distance min\_dist
49
50 set min_dist
                    0.87
52 # some parameters for the integration self
53
54 set sampling_interval
                            1000
55 set equilibration_interval 1000
57 set sampling_iterations 200
  set equilibration_iterations 200
_{61} \ \# \ Other \ parameters
```

```
64 set tcl_precision 8
65 #setting a seed for the random number generator
66 expr srand([pid])
```

As a second step we initialise the particles and interactions in our system.

```
67 # Particle setup
70 set density 0.8442
                          # we need the density of the particles
71
72 # now we setup the particle box
73 set box_length [expr pow(n_part/$density, 1.0/3.0)+2*$skin]
74 puts "density = $density box_length = $box_length"
75 setmd box $box_length $box_length $box_length
77 # we set particles on random places within the Box
 for {set i 0} {$i < $n_part} {incr i} {
     set pos_x [expr rand()*$box_length]
     set pos_y [expr rand()*$box_length]
80
     set pos_z [expr rand()*$box_length]
81
     part $i pos $pos_x $pos_y $pos_z q 0.0 type 0
82
83 }
84
85 \ \# \ write \ initial \ particle \ data \ to \ file
86 writepdb data/config.pdb
88 # Interaction setup
90 # we setup the lennard-jones potential
91 # as the only interaction between the particles
93 inter 0 0 lennard-jones $lj1_eps $lj1_sig $lj1_cut $lj1_shift
    $lj1_offset
```

Task 4 Study the file $lj_{tutorial.tcl}$. This system mimics the case study 4 of section 4, in the book [6]. How can one define truncated-shifted potential in $lj_{tutorial.tcl}$? (keep in mind that Espresso has already a factor of 4 at shifted part with cut off $r_c = 2.5$)

$$U(r) = 4\epsilon \left[\left(\frac{\sigma}{r} \right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma}{r} \right)^{6} \right]$$

$$U(r)^{tr-sh} = \begin{cases} U(r) - U(r_c) & r_c > r \\ 0 & r_c < r \end{cases}$$

(To find the solution look at line 26. Look at picture 2 to see a plot of the potential

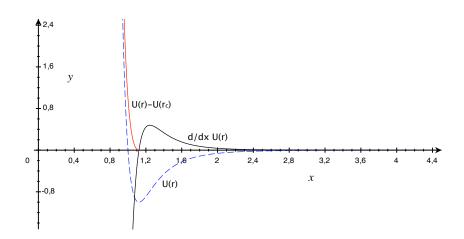


Figure 2: Lennard Jones Potential with $\epsilon=1$ and radius $\sigma=1$. If you use a large cutoff such as 2.5σ , the potential is practically zero at the cutoff. The red curve indicates the Weeks-Chandler-Andersen potential, which is obtained from the Lennard-Jones potential by cutting it off in its minimum at $r_c=\sqrt[6]{2}$ and shifting it up.

The **writepdb** command writes the atomic configuration in the PDB (Brookhaven Protein DataBase) format to the given file. This standard formatted file can easily be imported to standard applications like VMD.

As it was said in 6.6 we had to set up the interactions between all groups separately. After we have set the necessary environment we must warmup our system before we run the simulation. We set particles at random positions so some particles can overlap. In this situation ESPResSo will crash with an error: particle out of range. To take particles apart we cap forces by setting the Lennard-Jones force constant below a certain distance. Therefore we use the **inter** forcecap command. We do the procedure \$warm_n_times times for \$warm_steps steps and stop only if the minimal distance between particles is also larger than \$min_dist, that was set earlier. To turn the capping off, we set ljforcecap to 0. Then we equilibrate our system until all relevant physical observables are fluctuating around their mean values. In the case of Lennard Jones it is enough to monitor energy. To equilibrate we rescale particles' velocities to reach the target temperature.

```
Warmup Integration
  96
97
  set act_min_dist [analyze mindist]
  puts "Start with minimal distance $act_min_dist"
99
100
    open Observable file
101
  puts "\nStart warmup integration:"
  puts "At maximum $warm_n_times times $warm_steps steps"
  puts "Stop if minimal distance is larger than $min_dist"
107 \# set LJ cap
  set cap 1.0
  inter forcecap $cap
  # Warmup Integration Loop, equilibrate particles
111
  set i 0
112
  while { $i < $warm_n_times && $act_min_dist < $min_dist } {
113
      integrate $warm_steps
114
115
      # Warmup criterion
116
      set act_min_dist [analyze mindist]
117
      puts -nonewline "run $i at time=[setmd time] (LJ cap=$cap) min
118
```

```
dist = $act_min_dist\r"
119
       # to force the printout immediately and don't wait for the
120
         buffer been printed
      flush stdout
121
122
      # Increase LJ cap
      set cap [expr $cap+1.0]
124
      inter forcecap $cap
125
      incr i
126
127 }
128
129 inter forcecap 0
131 puts "\n Warm up finished \n"
132
133 ### Thermalization
134 setmd time_step $eq_tstep
  for { set i 0 } { $i < $equilibration_iterations } { incr i } {
     integrate $equilibration_interval
136
     set energies [analyze energy]
137
     138
     puts -nonewline "eq run $i at time=[setmd time] \r"
139
140 }
```

After we have set the necessary environment and warmed up our system, we can now start with the actual simulation. To analyse our data after the simulation, we open some files for writing the data in.

```
puts "sampling "
143 setmd time_step $tstep
145 # files to save simulation data
146 set en [open "data/energy.dat" "w"]
147 set blockfile [open "data/sim_info.dat" "w"]
148
149 puts $en "#"
  puts $en "#"
151 puts $en "#
                Pressure
                             Kinetic
                                         Potential
                                                   Temperature "
152 puts $en "# "
153 for {set i 0} { $i < $sampling_iterations } { incr i} {
        integrate $sampling_interval
```

Task 5 Study the file lj_functions.tcl, specifically the procedure save_sim and how it is called in lj_tutorial.tcl file. Then run lj_tutorial.tcl and check data directory for the simulation data file. Inspect the simulation data file sim_info.dat.

Run ESPResSo by typing Espresso lj_tutorial.tcl on the Linux command line.

The **save_sim** statement calls the function defined in lj_tutorial.tcl . We tell the function what parameters to be saved and which particles we want to save (all). Before continuing with our example we have a look at the **save_sim** procedure

```
proc save_sim {cfile parinfo range } {
  blockfile $cfile write variable all
  blockfile $cfile write tclvariable all
  blockfile $cfile write particles $parinfo $range
  blockfile $cfile write interactions
  blockfile $cfile write bonds
  blockfile $cfile write random
  blockfile $cfile write seed
}
```

This procedure saves all variables available in our programme to \$cfile which is in our example sim_info.dat. Have a look at the sim_info.dat to see what that means

```
{variable
{box_1 5.2387886 5.2387886 5.2387886}
{cell_grid 2 2 2}
{cell_size 2.6193943 2.6193943 2.6193943}
{dpd_gamma 0.0}
{dpd_r_cut 0.0}
...
}
{tclvariable
{density 0.8442}
{tstep 0.001}
{energies { energy -384.41147 } { kinetic 121.41453 } { 0 0 nonbonded -505.826 }}
```

```
{lj1_cut 2.5}
{blockfile file6}
}
{particles {id pos v f q type}
{0 13.08106 4.376436 2.4466876 1.2432192 ...}
{1 -2.7657422 -0.09919841 -1.0362237 -0.4642931...}
{2 4.4635587 5.4885591 5.460385 0.18670765 ...}
{3 -2.9920063 0.88519503 7.3518191 0.5820964 ...}
}
{interactions
{0 0 lennard-jones 1.0 1.0 2.5 0.0040792228 0.0 0.0 }
}
{bonds
{0 { } }
{1 { } }
}
{random
{1198928294 .... }
{seed
{16838}
}
```

What do we see? We find that there are five types of blocks which are repeated very often. The first block (variable) contains all ESPResSo variables, the second (tclvariable) all variables of the tcl script. In the third block we find the entire particle data we had told the save_sim function to save (id: particle id, pos: position, v: velocity, : force, q: charge, type). save_sim saves interactions, bonds, random and seed. In our case the interaction is Lennard-Jones. The bonds block is empty because the particles are not bound to each other like, for example, in a polymer. The rest of the blocks contains information (random, seed) to be able to restore the status of the random generator as it was while writing these blocks. What do we need that for? If we rerun the simulation we will get the same results after we have set our variables including the random generator status. Looking at the example script, we see that the save_sim function is called every time in the loop; that is why the blocks are repeated.

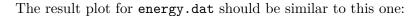
Task 6 Study and run blockfile_read.tcl to see how to read offline data. Modify this script to print out simulation time and average particle positions $x_{avq}, y_{avq}, z_{avq}$.

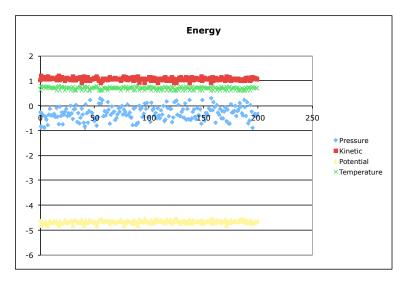
In the energy dat file we print out the values for pressure, kinetic and potential energies, temperature obtained with the command analyze energy.

```
set energies [analyze energy]
        set pressure [analyze pressure total]
157
        set total [expr [lindex $energies 0 1]/$n_part]
158
        set kinetic [expr [lindex $energies 1 1]/$n_part]
159
        set potential [expr [lindex $energies 2 3]/$n_part]
160
        set kinetic_temperature [expr [lindex $energies 1 1]/(1.5*[setmd
161
           n_part])]
        set temperature $kinetic_temperature
162
        puts $en "$i
                        $pressure
                                   $kinetic
                                              $potential
                                                           $temperature
163
          $total"
        lappend apressure $pressure
164
        lappend akinetic $kinetic
165
        lappend apotential $potential
166
        lappend atemperature $temperature
167
        lappend atotal $total
168
        puts -nonewline "integration step $i / $sampling_iterations \r
170 }
171 close $en
```

kinetic temperature here refers to the measured temperature obtained from kinetic energy and the number of degrees of freedom in the system. It should fluctuate around the preset temperature of the thermostat.

Task 7 Plot the time evolution of pressure and energy, which are written into the data directory in the file energy.dat.





As we can see the system is in equilibrium because pressure, potential and kinetic energy per particle and calculated current temperature fluctuate around their mean values.

6.9 Simple Error Analysis on Time Series Data with uwerr

Espresso provides a build-in time series analysis tool called **uwerr**. In our simulation we don't know if values of the same variable that we got from two adjacent samples are correlated or not and sampling too seldom will lead either to long runs of the simulation or to bad statistics. On the other hand, sampling too often leads to strong correlations between the samples, which will make us underestimate the statistical errors in our measurements using usual formulas e. g. for the standard deviation. **uwerr** is used to determine the mean and its standard error of total energy per particle for arbitrary numerical time series based on the article by Wolff [7]. Unlike the standard formulas, it can be used even with strongly correlated samples.

Here to obtain, for example, the error for the total energy we submit as a first argument for **uwerr** the array of all measured values of total energy **\$atotal**, and then the total number of samples **\$sampling_iterations**. 1 as the third argument means that we ran

only one full measurement (complete simulation). In general, the mean value could be also obtained from several simulations, providing **\$atotal** then as a matrix, not as an array, the total number of samples for every simulation should be the same and the third argument for **uwerr** would be the number of simulations. **uwerr** returns a string, the first value of which is a calculated mean value and the second is its error.

```
puts "--Reporting Energies and Temperature"
172
     set error [uwerr $atotal $sampling_iterations 1]
173
     set value [lindex $error 0]
174
     set verror [lindex $error 1]
                Total Energy: $value
                                        $verror"
176
     set error [uwerr $akinetic $sampling_iterations 1]
177
     set value [lindex $error 0]
178
     set verror [lindex $error 1]
                Kinetic Energy: $value
                                          $verror"
180
     set error [uwerr $apotential $sampling_iterations 1]
181
     set value [lindex $error 0]
182
     set verror [lindex $error 1]
183
                 Potential Energy: $value $verror"
184
     set error [uwerr $atemperature $sampling_iterations 1]
185
     set value [lindex $error 0]
186
     set verror [lindex $error 1]
187
     puts "
                Temperature : $value
                                        $verror"
188
     set error [uwerr $apressure $sampling_iterations 1 ]
189
     set value [lindex $error 0]
190
     set verror [lindex $error 1]
191
     puts "
                 Pressure : $value
                                     $verror"
192
193 exit
```

The last line here is the last line of the script terminating the process.

Task 8 Inspect what analyze pressure total command returns. Make a similar error analysis for total pressure.

Hint: analyze pressure (without total) returns the pressure and corresponding contributions to it.

6.10 Online analysis of correlations

ESPResSo can do online analysis of observables and correlations. This means that part of the analysis is run on the fly during the simulation without first writing the configuration data to disk and re-reading it later on for analysis. To illustrate this the script calculates the mean square displacement of the particles online. The mean square displacement (MSD) is the average squared distance that a particle traveled during a given time. It is defined by

$$MSD(t) = \langle \Delta r(t)^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N} |r_i(t) - r_i(0)|^2$$

See section 6.11 for an offline version of the MSD calculation. The basic idea is to have a set of observables that can be evaluated and correlated as needed. In the script the correlation for the mean square displacement of the particle is setup by

```
# Setup observable for the positions
set obs_pos [observable new particle_positions all]
# Setup msd as position correlation
set msd [correlation new obs1 $obs_pos corr_operation
    square_distance_componentwise dt $tstep tau_max [expr 50.*$tstep]]
```

First a new observable is created via the observable new command, which is then used to create a new correlation. Here we use the predefined observable particle_positions. There is a large set of predefined obsevables which are listed in the users guide. Observables can also defined as TCL functions provided by the user, please refer to the documentation.

The correlation command can create arbitraty time-correlations between observables. In this case we want to calculate the position auto correlation. Autocorrelations are created by only passing one observable to the command. The most important other parameters are the corr_operation, which is the operation performed by bevor averaging, here the observable is squared componentwise. For a list of predefined operations please have a look at the documentation. The maximum timespan for which the correlation function should be sampled is set by tau_max.

Observables can either be updated automatically in regular intervals or explicitly by the user. In the script we update explicitly by calling

correlation \$msd update

Finally after the sampling phase we have to write the calculated MSD to the disk. Since we calculated the correlation separately for every component of every particle we first average over all the components to improve statistics.

```
# Get calculated MSD from correlator
set msd_data [correlation $msd print]
# Open file to write MSD to
set msd_file [open "data/msd_correlator.dat" "w"]
# Loop over all the times
foreach msd_sample $msd_data {
   # Holds the average over all the components of all the particles
    set average 0.0
   # Current time
    set tau [lindex $msd_sample 0]
   # Loop over all the components of all the particles for this time
    for { set i 0 } { $i < [expr 3*$n_part] } { incr i } {
       # and sum them up
        set average [expr $average + [lindex $msd_sample [expr $i +
          2]]]
   # Normalize
    set average [expr $average/(3*$n_part)]
   # Write to file
    puts $msd_file "$tau $average"
}
close $msd_file
```

ESPResSo employs an algorithm called $multiple\ au$ correlator to calculate the correlation function that makes it efficient to calculate correlations for very long times (cf. [6]), possibly over the run of the complete simulation. The correlator is a very powerful tool that is very flexible and can do many types of calculations. An in-depth discussion of its features would be a tutorial in its own right and is beyond the scope of this one, but it might be worthwhile to read up on it and see if it can solve your problem before you implement something yourself. The predefined observables and correlation functions are implemented in the ESPResSo core and are typically several orders of magnitude faster than analysis that is implemented on the TCL level.

Task 9 Inspect the code for the MSD calculation and plot the MSD from data/msd_correlator.dat. Try different parameters for the correlator command, such as the sample length and the number of points. What do you observe if you make the maximal tau bigger? Can you find out how to calculate the velocity autocorrelation instead?

6.11 Other Useful Scripts

The radial distribution function (RDF) describes the distribution of particles around the center of a fixed particle, as a function of the particle-particle distance. This of course assumes that the particle distribution is isotropic around the particles.

Task 10 Run rdf.tcl, inspect the code and plot the RDF from data/rdf.dat. Try different parameters for the analyze rdf command, such as the bin size. What do you observe?

Our RDF is structureless, which means we have liquid. If the bin size is increased, the number of points in the graph will also increase, but due to poorer sampling the curve will not be smooth anymore.

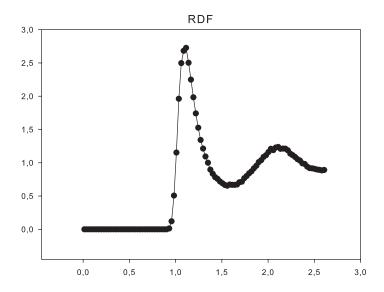


Figure 3: The rdf.dat plot should be similar to this one

The velocity autocorrelation function (VACF) is an averaged time dependent correlation function of all particles' velocities.

Task 11 Run vacf.tcl, inspect the code and plot the VACF from data/vacf.dat. The VACF C(t) can be computed directly:

$$C(t) = \langle \mathbf{v}_i(0)\mathbf{v}_i(t)\rangle$$

which can be estimated by

$$C(t) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N} \mathbf{v}_i(0) \mathbf{v}_i(t)$$

where N is the number of particles.

Try to modify vacf.tcl by using vecsub and veclen and the tcl math functions.

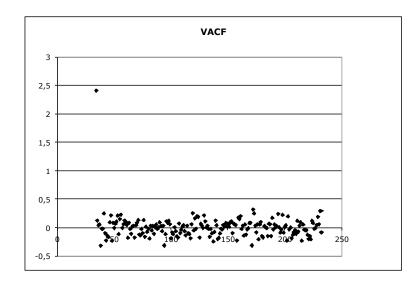


Figure 4: The vacf.dat plot should be similar to this one

We can see when time is bigger than 50 the particles have already 'forgot' about their initial velocities. Sampling more in the time interval [0;50] will show the decay of VACF there.

We can also calculate the mean square displacement (MSD) from the offline data (see section 6.10 for an online version of the calculation). The mean square displacement (MSD) is the average squared distance that a particle traveled during a given time.

Task 12 Run msd.tcl, inspect the code and plot the MSD from data/msd.dat. The MSD can be simply computed by:

$$\langle \Delta r(t)^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N} \Delta \mathbf{r}_i(t)^2$$

or

$$\langle \Delta r(t)^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=0}^{N} |r_i(t) - r_i(0)|^2$$

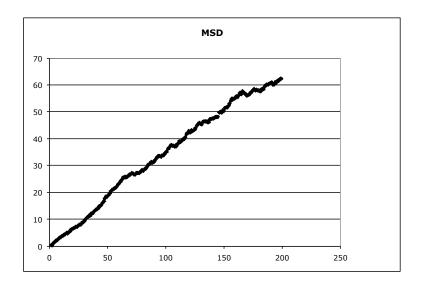


Figure 5: The msd.dat plot should be similar to this one

On short time scales a particle does not collide with others (ballistic regime) so the distance traveled should be proportional to the time and therefore the MSD should increase quadratically. On bigger time scales, a particle performs sort of a random walk

due to many interactions with other particles. This regime is called diffusive; in this regime the MSD increases linearly with time. The coefficient of proportionality is the diffusion coefficient: $D = \frac{1}{2dt} \langle \Delta r(t) \rangle^2$, where d is the dimensionality of the problem and t the traveling time.

If msd.dat is plotted in log-log scale, then ballistic and diffusive regimes will be visible even better (better sampling won't harm).

References

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- [6] Daan Frenkel and Berend Smit. *Understanding Molecular Simulation*. Academic Press, San Diego, second edition, 2002.
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