

Molecular Dynamics

Molecular Dynamics (MD):

- Technique for computing *equilibrium* and *transport* properties of classical many-body systems
- This is, of course, is an approximation but good for a wide range of materials
- Follows dynamical trajectories dictated by equations of motion

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Similar to experiments

Experiments:

1. Prepare the sample
2. Hook up to measuring equipment
3. Measure for a period of time

MD:

1. Select a system with N particles
2. Equilibrate (eq. of motion)
3. Production run (measure)

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MD – how does it look like?

MD pseudo code

```
void md(void)
// INITIALIZATION
init()
t = 0

// LOOP OVER TIMESTEP
while (t < tmax)
{
    // CALCULATE FORCES
    force(f, en)
    // INTEGRATE EQS. OF MOTION
    integrate(f, en)
    t = t + delta_t
    // UPDATE AVERAGES|
    sample()
}
exit()
```

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Main sections:

- *init*
- *force*
- *integrate*
- *sample*

MD – how does it look like?

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init:

- *Read parameters of the run such as N, T, ρ , dt*
- *Setup initial positions and velocities*

MD – how does it look like?

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force:

- “core” step
- *Modeling comes into play*
- *Non-bonded (short-range)*
- *Coulombic (long-range)*

MD – how does it look like?

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```

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integrate:

- “core” step
- *Numerical integration of equations of motion*

MD – how does it look like?

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    sample()
}
exit()
```

sample:

- *Properties like pressure and temperature are periodically calculated here*

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Example

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Equations of Motion

Lets start from Hamiltonian Dynamics.

- Because Newton's 2nd law is invariant under time translations

$$(1) \quad \mathbf{F}_i = m\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_i$$

- we expect some function of \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{p} whose value is constant in time, the Hamiltonian

$$(2) \quad H(\mathbf{r}^N, \mathbf{p}^N) = \text{const}$$

- where \mathbf{p} is the momentum

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For an isolated system, energy (E) is conserved.

$$(3) \quad H(\mathbf{r}^N, \mathbf{p}^N) = \frac{1}{2m} \sum_i \mathbf{p}_i^2 + U(\mathbf{r}^N) = E$$

Where U is the interparticle potential.

For equations of motion, first consider the total time derivative

$$(4) \quad \frac{dH}{dt} = \sum_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{p}_i} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{p}}_i + \sum_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_i + \frac{\partial H}{\partial t}$$

That for H independent of time we get

$$(5) \quad \sum_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{p}_i} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{p}}_i + \sum_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_i = 0$$

This is the general result

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Put (3) definition of H and get

$$(6) \quad \frac{1}{m} \sum_i \mathbf{p}_i \cdot \dot{\mathbf{p}}_i + \sum_i \frac{\partial U}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_i = 0$$

Comparing (5) and (6) get

$$(7) \quad \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{p}_i} = \frac{\mathbf{p}}{m} = \dot{\mathbf{r}}_i \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i} = \frac{\partial U}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i}$$

That putting back into (5) get

$$(8) \quad \sum_i \dot{\mathbf{r}}_i \cdot \dot{\mathbf{p}}_i + \sum_i \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i} \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_i = 0$$

$$\sum_i (\dot{\mathbf{p}}_i + \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i}) \cdot \dot{\mathbf{r}}_i = 0$$

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Since the velocities are all independent of one another

$$(9) \quad -\dot{\mathbf{p}}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i}$$

that along with (7)

$$\dot{\mathbf{r}}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{p}_i}$$

form Hamilton's equation of motion.

Note that these form a $6N$ 1st order differential equations system equivalent to the $3N$ 2nd order differential eq. system from Newton's laws.

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Note that from the definition of momentum

$$\mathbf{p}_i = m\dot{\mathbf{r}}_i$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_i = m\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_i$$

Substitute into (9)

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i} = -m\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_i$$

That along with (7) and Newton's 2nd get

$$(10) \quad \mathbf{F}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i} = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i}$$

Thus \mathbf{F} is conservative

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Newton vs Hamilton

Note:

- Under Newtonian view, motion is the result of an applied force.
- Under Hamiltonian view, motion results from the equations of motion using $H(\mathbf{r}, \mathbf{p})$ (forces are not there explicitly).

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Recap of assumptions

Isolated system: if it were not, then there could be energy exchange with surroundings, thus:

- H has to contain additional terms to account for those interactions
- H is still conserved but would not correspond to the total energy E
- E is not conserved

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Recap of assumptions

- Momentum-velocity relation is taken as

$$\mathbf{p}_i = m\dot{\mathbf{r}}_i$$

- H does not have explicit time dependent – a requirement for a constant H

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Recap of Eq. of motion

- Newton:

$$\mathbf{F}_i = m\ddot{\mathbf{r}}_i$$

- Hamilton:

$$-\dot{\mathbf{p}}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i}$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{r}}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{p}_i}$$

The job of the simulation is to solve them

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Remark 1

- A consequence of

$$-\dot{\mathbf{p}}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i}$$

is that in some circumstances a particular generalized momentum \mathbf{p}_i might be conserved provided that H is independent of the corresponding generalized coordinate \mathbf{r}_i

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Remark 1

- Define total momentum

$$P = \sum_i p_i$$

and total angular momentum

$$L = \sum_i r_i \times p_i = \sum_i m_i r_i \times \dot{r}_i$$

- if H is invariant under translation in a particular direction, \mathbf{p} is conserved in that direction
- If the system is invariant under rotations around an axis, then \mathbf{L} along that axis is conserved

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Remark 1

Examples:

- Infinite system – both are conserved

But because we are dealing with computers...

- Spherical box – L , but not P , is conserved
- Cubic box – P nor L are conserved
- PBC – P , but not L , is conserved (no spherical PBC)

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Remark 2

The equations of motion are reversible in time.

- Particles retrace their trajectories if change sign of \mathbf{p} and \mathbf{v}
- **IF** we solve the equations of motion correctly, the computer-generated trajectories will (should) also have this property

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Remark 3

The explicit spatial derivative of the potential in the equations of motion

$$\mathbf{F}_i = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial \mathbf{r}_i}$$

makes a difference when numerically solving the eq. of motion for a *continuous* vs a *discontinuous* potential.

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Remark 3

For continuous function of positions:

- Time-step method based on Taylor expansions of $\mathbf{r}(t)$

For discontinuous functions (hard spheres, square wells):

- Particle dynamics have to be treated explicitly and separately from the inter-collisional motion

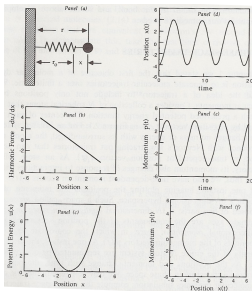
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Phase Space

- Goal of simulations is to calculate \mathbf{r} and \mathbf{p} , thus to determine the *phase space* trajectory

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Example – harmonic spring



- Mass m and potential $U = kx^2/2$
- Energy $E = \frac{1}{2m}p^2 + \frac{1}{2}kx^2$
that defines an ellipse in phase space with semi-axes $(2mE)^{1/2}$ (mom) and $(2E/k)^{1/2}$ (pos)

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Example – harmonic spring

Note that the initial conditions $x(0)$ and $p(0)$ determine the constant value of the energy E , and thus the “volume” of the phase space that for an isolated system remains the same.

- The volume in phase space determines values for equilibrium macroscopic properties
- which means: externally imposed constraints are connected to macroscopic properties

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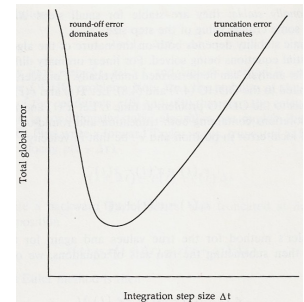
Sources of error

- On solving the equations of motion we will incur in *truncation* and *round-off* sources of error
- truncation = accuracy with which a finite diff. method approximates the true soln. of the eq. of motion (e.g. in a Taylor expansion)
- round-off = all errors resulting from the implementation of the finite diff. algorithm (e.g. num of significant digits, sq. roots, exp., etc)

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Errors

- Errors are related to time step:
 - Truncation error decreases with step size
 - Round-off error increases with # of calculations
- But, usually, dt is determined by trial and error



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Finite difference methods

- Consider a potential that is a continuous function of spatial coordinates.
- Can use a finite difference approach where \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{v} , and other quantities at time t are calculated at $t+dt$
- Accuracy of the calculated properties depends on the size of dt
- A good dt depends on the method, but in general (t_d time to travel diameter) $dt \ll t_d$

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I. Gear predictor-corrector method

The basic algorithm is the following:

1. Predict \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{a} , etc at time $t+dt$ using values at t
2. Evaluate $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{f} / m$ at new positions
3. Correct predicted coordinates
4. Calculate energy, virial, order parameters, etc before returning to 2.

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I. Gear predictor-corrector method

1. Predict coordinates:

Use Taylor's expansion to predict $\mathbf{r}(t+dt)$

- For an infinitely differentiable function f , Taylor's series expansion around t

$$f(t + \delta t) = \sum_{i=0} \frac{f^{(i)}(t)\delta t^i}{i!}$$

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I. Gear predictor-corrector method

1. Predict coordinates:

Expand $\mathbf{r}(t+dt)$:

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \frac{d\mathbf{r}(t)}{dt}\delta t + \frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2\mathbf{r}(t)}{dt^2}\delta t^2 + \frac{1}{6}\frac{d^3\mathbf{r}(t)}{dt^3}\delta t^3 + \dots$$

substituting definitions

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)\delta t + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}(t)\delta t^2 + \frac{1}{6}\mathbf{b}(t)\delta t^3 + \dots$$

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I. Gear predictor-corrector method

1. Predict coordinates:

Do the same for $\mathbf{v}(t+dt)$:

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{d\mathbf{v}(t)}{dt}\delta t + \frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2\mathbf{v}(t)}{dt^2}\delta t^2 + \dots$$

substituting

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \mathbf{a}(t)\delta t + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{b}(t)\delta t^2 + \dots$$

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I. Gear predictor-corrector method

1. Predict coordinates:

Do the same for $\mathbf{a}(t+dt)$ and $\mathbf{b}(t+dt)$:

$$\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{a}(t) + \mathbf{b}(t)\delta t + \dots$$

$$\mathbf{b}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{b}(t) + \dots$$

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I. Gear predictor-corrector method

1. Predict coordinates:

Summary

$$\begin{aligned}\mathbf{r}^p(t + \delta t) &= \mathbf{r}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2}\delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t) + \frac{1}{6}\delta t^3 \mathbf{b}(t) + \dots \\ \mathbf{v}^p(t + \delta t) &= \mathbf{v}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{a}(t) + \frac{1}{2}\delta t^2 \mathbf{b}(t) + \dots \\ \mathbf{a}^p(t + \delta t) &= \mathbf{a}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{b}(t) + \dots \\ \mathbf{b}^p(t + \delta t) &= \mathbf{b}(t) + \dots\end{aligned}$$

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I. Gear predictor-corrector method

- ### 2. Calculate \mathbf{a} at new position $\mathbf{r}^p(t+dt)$, using the equations of motion, to obtain:

$$\mathbf{a}^c(t + \delta t)$$

- ### 3. Correct predicted coordinates by calculating an error

$$\Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{a}^c(t + \delta t) - \mathbf{a}^p(t + \delta t)$$

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I. Gear predictor-corrector method

3. Correct predicted coordinates by calculating an error – use the error for the correction

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{r}^c(t + \delta t) &= \mathbf{r}^p(t + \delta t) + c_0 \Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \\ \mathbf{v}^c(t + \delta t) &= \mathbf{v}^p(t + \delta t) + c_1 \Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \\ \mathbf{a}^c(t + \delta t) &= \mathbf{a}^p(t + \delta t) + c_2 \Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \\ \mathbf{b}^c(t + \delta t) &= \mathbf{b}^p(t + \delta t) + c_3 \Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \end{aligned}$$

- values for c_i are tabulated for best convergence and depend on order of expansion (Gear's suggestion for this level: $c_0 = 1/6$; $c_1 = 5/6$; $c_2 = 1$; $c_3 = 1/3$)
- corrector step can be iterated (expensive!) for better accuracy.

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II. Verlet Method

One of the most popular finite difference methods for MD.

- Start by again expanding using Taylor's expansion:

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \mathbf{v}(t)\delta t + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}(t)\delta t^2 + \dots$$

and expanding on the other direction

$$\mathbf{r}(t - \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{v}(t)\delta t + \frac{1}{2}\mathbf{a}(t)\delta t^2 + \dots$$

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II. Verlet Method

Combining those two equations:

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = 2\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{r}(t - \delta t) + \delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t) + O(\delta t^4)$$

For \mathbf{v} we have to use

Does not need \mathbf{v} !

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \frac{\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t - \delta t)}{2\delta t} + O(\delta t^2)$$

Notes:

- \mathbf{r} accurate to $O(\delta t^4)$ while \mathbf{v} to $O(\delta t^2)$, not too accurate!
- This algorithm is properly "centered", thus time-reversible
- \mathbf{r} is updated in one single step, as opposed to previous in two

show in code

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III. Velocity Verlet

- Meant to fix awkward velocity estimate from Verlet, and minimize round off error (2 big + 1 small in \mathbf{r})
- Uses both, positions and velocities
- $\mathbf{r}(t+\delta t)$ looks like a Taylor expansion

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2}\delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t)$$

- $\mathbf{v}(t+\delta t)$ only after getting new positions

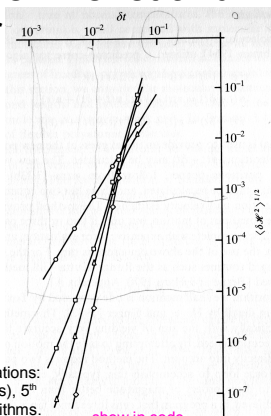
$$\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2}\delta t [\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) + \mathbf{a}(t)]$$

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Comparison between Verlet and Gear

- Apparent higher accuracy of Gear (higher order terms) is not reflected for bigger time steps – thus, Gear is not much better than the low order Verlet
- Also, high density of liquids make the 'predictor' step unreliable

Root mean square energy fluctuations:
Circles – Verlet, Gear 4th (squares), 5th (trigs), 6th (diamonds) order algorithms.



show in code

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Which one to choose?

- If the higher accuracy of Gear is not reflected in high-dense systems, then why not Verlet with a bigger δt ?
- Some applications benefit more from Gear that is more amenable to handle modified 1st and 2nd order equations of motion

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