Introduction to Molecular Dynamics Simulations

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1

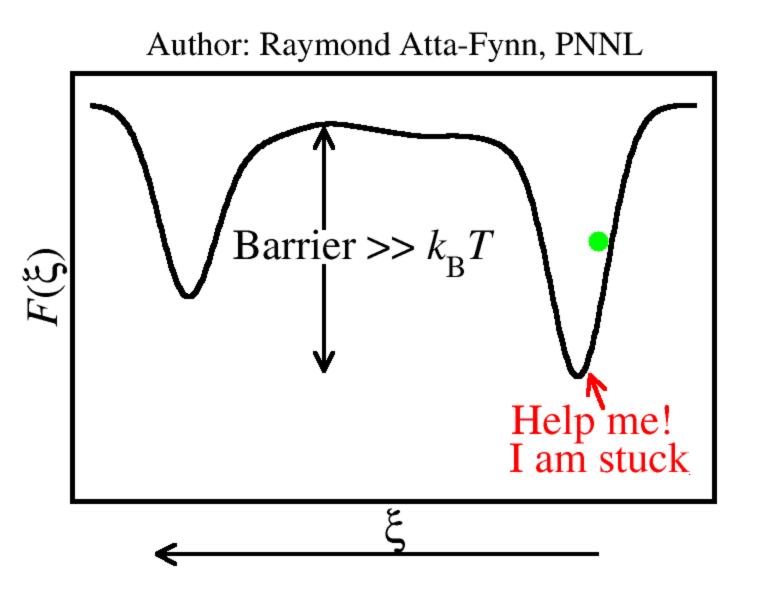
Outline

- What is molecular Dynamics?
- Numerical solutions to equations of motion
- Ingredients of Molecular Dynamics Simulations
 - Constant energy molecular dynamics
 - Constant temperature molecular dynamics
- Other Considerations
- Summary

What is molecular dynamics?

Molecular dynamics is the time evolution of a system of atoms described by *Newton's second law* of motion under the influence of temperature (and pressure)

- Molecular dynamics provides a means for dynamical quantities [i.e. time-dependent quantities] and thermals quantities of a system to be readily computed.
- Examples of such properties are:
- (i) the rate of diffusion (how fast or slow atoms move when subjected to thermal effects)
- (ii) thermal conductivity of a material (how good or bad a material conducts heat)
- (iii) Phase transformations in materials (how materials change, for example, their softness or hardness when subject to temperature and pressure)



Customized molecular dynamics simulations can be employed to access different energetic states of a system or material.

This applies to cases where the system can be trapped in one energy state for a long time [see cartoon; ξ denotes a state of the system and $F(\xi)$ denotes energy of that state]

<u>Newton's second law employed in molecular dynamics</u>

• Newton's second law of motion: The net force \vec{F} acting on object of mass m is proportional to the object's acceleration \vec{a} :

$$\vec{F} \propto \vec{a} \Rightarrow \vec{F} = m\vec{a}$$

• Since \vec{a} is the rate of change of velocity \vec{v} with time t [that is, $\vec{a} = d\vec{v}/dt$] and \vec{v} is the rate of change of displacement \vec{r} with t [that is, $\vec{v} = d\vec{r}/dt$], Newton's second law can be restated at:

$$\vec{F} = m \frac{d \vec{v}}{dt}$$
 and $\vec{v} = \frac{d \vec{r}}{dt}$

- Consider a system of N atoms of masses $\{m_1, m_2, ..., m_N\}$ with atomic positions $\{\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, ..., \vec{r}_N\}$, velocities $\{\vec{v}_1, \vec{v}_2, ..., \vec{v}_N\}$ under the action forces $\{\vec{F}_1, \vec{F}_2, ..., \vec{F}_N\}$ at a given instant in time t.
- Per Newton's second law, the time evolution of the system is governed by the pair of coupled equations:

$$\frac{d\vec{v}_{i}(t)}{dt} = \frac{\vec{F}_{i}}{m_{i}}$$

$$\frac{d\vec{r}_{i}(t)}{dt} = \vec{v}_{i}$$
[1]

where i = 1, 2, ..., N labels the atoms

Let us examine a few standard numerical algorithms to solving the system of equations in
 [1] above.

 Before we delve into widely employed numerical algorithms in molecular dynamics simulation, let us examine a few heuristics.

• First, we note following about numerical approximation to first derivatives: $\frac{d\vec{v}_i(t)}{dt} \approx [\vec{v}_i(t + \Delta t) - \vec{v}_i(t)]/\Delta t$ $\frac{d\vec{r}_i(t)}{dt} \approx [\vec{r}_i(t + \Delta t) - \vec{r}_i(t)]/\Delta t$

where it is implicitly assumed that Δt is small enough.

• Per the above approximations, a simple solution to the pair of Newton's equations are:

$$\frac{d\vec{v}_i}{dt} = \frac{\vec{F}_i}{m_i} \Rightarrow \vec{v}_i(t + \Delta t) \approx \vec{v}_i(t) + \vec{a}_i(t)\Delta t \quad \left[\text{where } \vec{a}_i(t) = \frac{\vec{F}_i(t)}{m_i} \right]$$

$$\frac{d\vec{r}_i}{dt} = \vec{v}_i \quad \Rightarrow \vec{r}_i(t + \Delta t) \approx \vec{r}_i(t) + \vec{v}_i(t)\Delta t$$

where i = 1, 2, ..., N and Δt is known as the time step.

• Let us examine a few standard numerical approaches

Numerical solutions to equations of motion

Verlet method: The equations of motion are

$$\vec{r}_i(t + \Delta t) = 2\vec{r}_i(t) - \vec{r}_i(t - \Delta t) + \vec{a}_i(t)(\Delta t)^2 \text{ where } \vec{a}_i(t) = \frac{F_i(t)}{m_i}$$
$$\vec{v}_i(t) = \frac{\vec{r}_i(t + \Delta t) - \vec{r}_i(t - \Delta t)}{2\Delta t}$$

- Advantages of the Verlet method: (i) Straightforward to implement; (ii) the propagation of the atomic positions does not explicitly require the atomic velocities [thus one can ignore the velocities unless they are really needed]
- **Disadvantages of the Verlet method**: (i) It is non-self starting; (ii) the velocities accumulate significant round-off errors (especially for dynamics spanning long time scales)

Numerical solutions to equations of motion

Leapfrog method: The equations of motion are

$$\vec{v}_i \left(t + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \right) = \vec{v}_i \left(t - \frac{\Delta t}{2} \right) + \vec{a}_i(t) \Delta t \quad \text{where } \vec{a}_i(t) = \frac{\vec{F}_i(t)}{m_i}$$
$$\vec{r}_i(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}_i(t) + \vec{v}_i \left(t + \frac{\Delta t}{2} \right) \Delta t$$

The velocity at time *t* is given by

 $\vec{v}_i(t) = [\vec{v}_i(t - \Delta t/2) + \vec{v}_i(t + \Delta t/2)]/2$

- Advantages of the Leapfrog method: (i) It is time reversible; (ii) it is symplectic (i.e. it conserves the energy of the system)
- Disadvantage of the Leapfrog method: The velocities and positions are computed at different times, that is, they leap frog each other by half a time step $[\Delta t/2]$

Numerical solutions to equations of motion

Velocity Verlet method: The equations of motion are

$$\vec{r}_{i}(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}_{i}(t) + \vec{v}_{i}(t)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}\vec{a}_{i}(t)(\Delta t)^{2} \quad \text{where } \vec{a}_{i}(t) = \frac{\vec{F}_{i}(t)}{m_{i}}$$
$$\vec{v}_{i}(t + \Delta t) = \vec{v}_{i}(t) + \frac{1}{2}[\vec{a}_{i}(t) + \vec{a}_{i}(t + \Delta t)]\Delta t$$

- Advantages of the velocity Verlet method: (i) It is time reversible; (ii) it is symplectic (i.e. it conserves the energy of the system)
- This algorithm is very popular; it is very reliable and accurate. We will employ it in the Lab sessions.

The following are the key ingredients required to successfully execute a molecular dynamics:

(1) Atomistic model

(2) Interaction potential (or potential energy)

(3) Atomic forces

(4) Basic molecular dynamics observables: kinetic energy, total energy, temperature, and pressure.

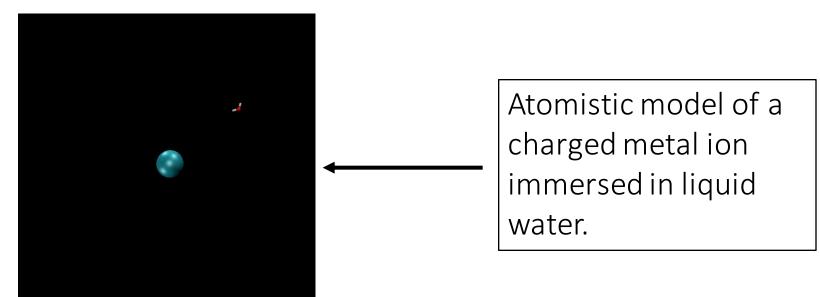
(5) Thermodynamic ensembles: microcanonical and canonical ensembles

(6) The ergodic hypothesis

(7) Method for solving the equations of motion [already discussed in three previous slides]

Ingredient 1: Atomistic model:

- Comprises a set of atoms, which representative of the system of interest, with well-defined positions (or coordinates) $\{\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, ..., \vec{r}_N\}$.
- Normally, a random set of atomic positions are chosen subject to geometric constraints and other constraints such as the correct atomic density (i.e. the number of atoms per volume).



Ingredient 2: Potential energy (or interaction potential):

- The *potential energy* of a system of *N* atoms, denoted by *U*, tells us how the atoms interact with each or position themselves relative to each other.
- The potential energy depends on the atomic positions: $U \equiv U(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, ..., \vec{r}_N)$.
- *U* usually has a well-defined analytic/mathematical representation.

Example: the potential energy due to the bond between two atoms *i* and *j* located at positions $\vec{r}_i = (x_i, y_i, z_i)$ and $\vec{r}_j = (x_j, y_j, z_j)$ respectively, may be represented as $U(\vec{r}_i, \vec{r}_j) = \frac{1}{2}k|\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j|^2 = \frac{1}{2}k[(x_j - x_i)^2 + (y_j - y_i)^2 + (z_j - z_i)^2]$

where \boldsymbol{k} is a constant.

Ingredient 3: Atomic forces:

- The *atomic forces* (needed to solve the equations of motion) are obtained from the potential energy $U \equiv U(\vec{r_1}, \vec{r_2}, ..., \vec{r_N})$.
- The force $\vec{F_i}$ acting on atom *i* is given by the *negative gradient of the potential energy U* with respect to the atom's position $\vec{r_i}$:

$$\vec{F}_i = -\nabla_i U(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \dots, \vec{r}_N) = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial \vec{r}_i} = \left(-\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_i}, -\frac{\partial U}{\partial y_i}, -\frac{\partial U}{\partial z_i}\right)$$

• **Example**: if the potential energy of a 2-atom system is given by

$$U(\vec{r}_i, \vec{r}_j) = \frac{1}{2}k \left| \vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j \right|^2 = \frac{1}{2}k \left[(x_j - x_i)^2 + (y_j - y_i)^2 + (z_j - z_i)^2 \right]$$

where k is a constant, then force \vec{F}_i on atom i is given by

$$\vec{F}_i = \left(-\frac{\partial U}{\partial x_i}, -\frac{\partial U}{\partial y_i}, -\frac{\partial U}{\partial z_i}\right) = \left(k(x_j - x_i), k(y_j - y_i), k(z_j - z_i)\right)$$

(4) Basic molecular dynamics observables:

(a) The *total kinetic energy* (i.e. the energy due to atomic motion) is

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^{N} m_i v_i^2$$

where m_i and $v_i = |\vec{v}_i|$ are the mass and speed of atom *i*.

(b) The *total energy* E of a system at any instant is the sum of the kinetic energy KE and the potential energy U:

$$E = KE + U(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, ..., \vec{r}_N) = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N m_i v_i^2 + U(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, ..., \vec{r}_N)$$

Ingredient 4: Basic molecular dynamics observables:

(c) The *temperature T* of the system at any instant is given by the equipartition theorem:

$$\frac{1}{2}N_f k_B T = KE \qquad \Rightarrow T = \frac{2KE}{N_f k_B} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^N m_i v_i^2}{N_f k_B T}$$

where N_f is the degrees of freedom (usually $N_f = 3N - 3$) and k_B is the Boltzmann constant.

(d) The *pressure P* of the system at any instant is given by virial equation

$$PV = Nk_BT - \frac{1}{3} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \vec{F_i} \cdot \vec{r_i} \right) \Rightarrow P = \frac{Nk_BT}{V} - \frac{1}{3V} \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} \vec{F_i} \cdot \vec{r_i} \right)$$

where () denotes average over all atoms in the system.

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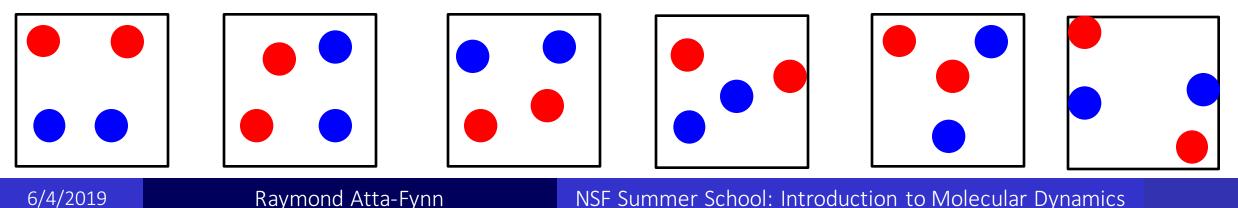
where () denotes average over all atoms in the system.

Ingredient 5: Thermodynamic ensembles:

An ensemble, within the context of **statistical thermodynamics**, denotes an assembly of identical copies of a system in *different states*. We will consider only two of such ensembles.

(a) Microcanonical or (N,V,E) ensemble: In this ensemble, copies of the system each have the same number of particles N, the same volume V, and the same energy E. But each copy can be in a different state characterized by temperature T and pressure P.

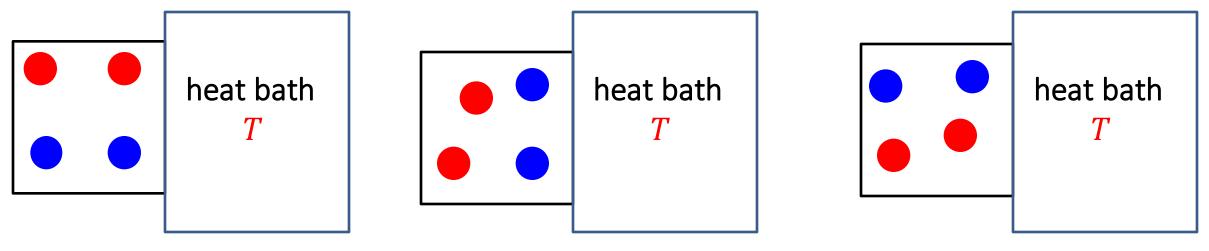
Example: an microcanonical ensemble comprising 6 copies; each copy has the same values of N, V, and E [note that N = 4]. However, each system can be in different T and P states.



Ingredient 5: Thermodynamic ensembles:

(b) Canonical or (N,V,T) ensemble: In this ensemble, copies of the system each have the same number of particles *N*, the same volume *V*, and the system is connected to a heat bath (or thermostat) to keep temperature *T* constant. But each copy can be in a different state characterized by the energy *E* and pressure *P*.

Example: a canonical ensemble comprising 3 copies; each copy has the same values of N, V, and T [connected to heat bath]. However, each system can be in different E and P states.

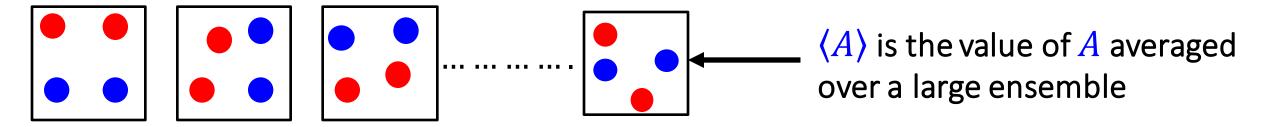


Ingredient 6: Ergodic Hypothesis:

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Often in molecular dynamics simulations one is interested in some dynamical property A.

Per statistical thermodynamics, a representative value of the quantity A is the average value $\langle A \rangle$, obtained by averaging A is over a large ensemble (i.e. over several copies; see fig. below).



Practically, computing $\langle A \rangle$ is not feasible. Luckily, the **ergodic hypothesis** provides a solution.

Ergodic Hypothesis: the time averaged value of A over a long time span in only a *single copy* of the system, denoted by \overline{A} is equal to the emsemble average $\langle A \rangle$, that is,

$$\langle A \rangle = \bar{A}.$$

Other Considerations

- Temperature Control in NVT simulation:
- (i) Velocity scaling method
 - Scale velocities to match the target temperature [easy to implement]
 - Efficient, but does not correctly describe dynamics
- (ii) Nose-Hoover thermostat
 - Fictitious degree of freedom is added but correctly describes NVT dynamics
 - Can cause temperature to fluctuate; not so easy to implement
- (iii) Berendsen thermostat
 - Scales velocities to match temperature
 - Good compromise between the (i) and (ii); okay to use in simulations

Other Considerations

Initial velocities: Maxwell-Boltzmann velocity distribution

• The Maxwell-Boltzmann (MB) probability of finding a particle with speed v_x at a given temperature T

$$P(v_x) = \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}m v_x^2 / k_B T\right)$$

- Same for v_y and v_z
- Generate random initial atomic velocities using the
- Use the equipartition theorem to scale each initial velocity by a factor γ so that the kinetic energy matches the temperature T:

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{3k_B T}{m(v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2)}}$$

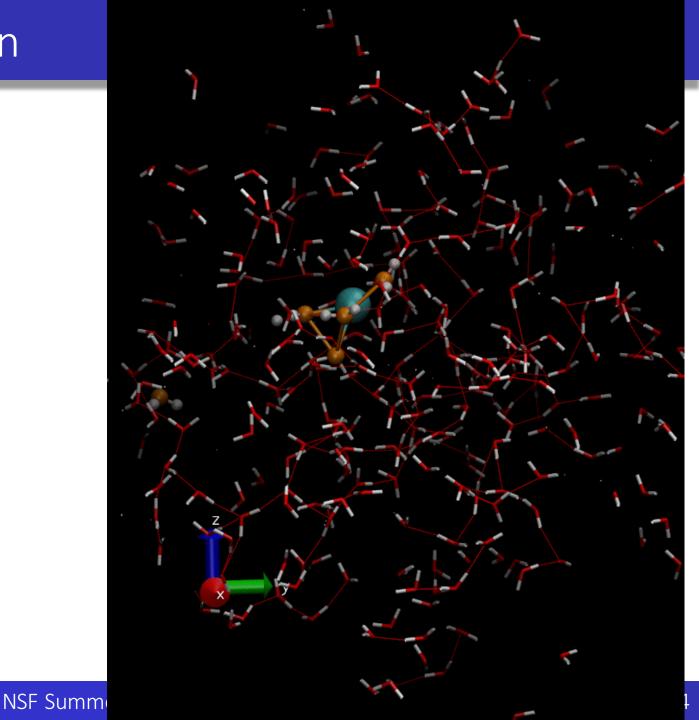
Other Considerations

<u>Choosing the time molecular dynamics step Δt </u>

- Δt cannot be chosen to be too big other energy conservation will be destroyed
- Typically, $\Delta t \leq 4$ fs is employed [fs denotes "femto-seconds" i.e. 1 fs = 10^{-15} f].
- It is fairly common to use $\Delta t = 1$ fs in practice
- If the computational cost is very cheap or if highly accurate dynamical results are required, then choose Δt as small as possible. E.g. $\Delta t = 0.1$ fs is considered small

Molecular Dynamics in Action

Molecular dynamics simulations of a charged metal ion interacting with water molecules at room temperature (300 K).



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