Short Course on Molecular Dynamics Simulation

> Lecture 8: Static Properties

Professor A. Martini Purdue University

## High Level Course Outline

- 1. MD Basics
- 2. Potential Energy Functions
- 3. Integration Algorithms
- 4. Temperature Control
- 5. Boundary Conditions
- 6. Neighbor Lists
- 7. Initialization and Equilibrium
- 8. Extracting Static Properties
- 9. Extracting Dynamic Properties
- 10. Non-Equilibrium MD

### **Static Properties**

#### Thermodynamic properties

- Simple functions of the Hamiltonian
- Response functions
- Entropic properties
- Static Structure
  - Radial distribution function

Internal energy and temperature

$$H(\vec{r}^N,\vec{p}^N) = const$$

$$H = E_k + U$$

$$\left\langle E_k \right\rangle = \frac{3}{2} NkT = \frac{1}{2mt_{\infty}} \sum_{t'=1}^{t_{\infty}} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \vec{p}_i(t'\Delta t) \cdot \vec{p}_i(t'\Delta t)$$

$$\left\langle U \right\rangle = \frac{1}{t_{\infty}} \sum_{t'=1}^{t_{\infty}} \sum_{\bar{\alpha}} \sum_{i}^{N} \sum_{j>i}^{N} u \left( \left| \vec{r}_{ij} \left( t' \Delta t \right) - \vec{\alpha} L \right| \right)$$

#### Pressure

- The continuum concepts of stress or pressure do not translate directly to the discrete particles of an MD simulation
- Pressure is typically calculated using the pressure virial (also called the Irving-Kirkwood equation)
- This expression is obtained by considering stress / pressure to be a momentum flux across an area

$$P = \frac{force}{area} = \frac{1}{area} \frac{d(mv)}{dt}$$

- Momentum transferred via two mechanisms
  - 1. Carried across an area by a moving atom



2. Interaction between atoms on opposite sides of an area



Irving Kirkwood / Pressure Virial

- Used for all components of the stress tensor

$$\boldsymbol{\sigma}_{\alpha\beta} = -\frac{1}{V} \left\langle \sum_{i}^{N} m_{i} u_{i\alpha} u_{i\beta} + \sum_{i}^{N} \sum_{j>i}^{N} \mathbf{r}_{ij\alpha} \mathbf{F}_{ij\beta} \right\rangle$$

- Mean square force
  - Gives information about the shape of the repulsive part of the pair potential
  - Obtainable experimentally for comparison

On one atom: 
$$\langle F_1^2 \rangle = \left\langle \sum_{j \neq 1} \left( \nabla U(r_{1j}) \right)^2 \right\rangle$$

On all atoms: 
$$\langle F^2 \rangle = \frac{2}{MN} \sum_{k=1}^{M} \sum_{\alpha} \sum_{i < j} \left( \nabla U \left[ \left| \vec{r}_{ij} \left( k \Delta t \right) - \vec{\alpha} L \right| \right] \right)^2$$

- How do simple thermodynamic properties response to changes
  - Temperature
  - Pressure
- Two general methods
  - Use several simulations to determine values of a quantity as functions of the changing variable
  - Evaluate the derivative analytically using statistical mechanics

Example: Constant volume heat capacity

$$C_{v} = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T}\right)_{V=const}$$

- Method 1
  - Begin with an initial configuration
  - Run simulation at temperature T1
  - Measure the internal energy U1
  - Repeat process at T2, T3, ....
  - Empirically fit simulation results for U(T)
  - Numerically or analytically take derivative



- Advantages
  - Only requires a single simulation
- Disadvantages
  - Typically less accurate than Method 1
    - Round off / small differences in big numbers

Similar approaches are possible for

– Adiabatic compressibility 
$$\kappa$$

$$= \frac{-1}{V} \left( \frac{\partial V}{\partial P} \right)_{S=const}$$

- Thermal pressure coefficient

$$\gamma = \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial T}\right)_{V=const}$$

- Entropic properties are not simple time averages over a phase-space trajectory
  - Entropy
  - Gibbs free energy
  - Helmholtz free energy
  - Chemical potential
- Methods
  - Thermodynamic integration
  - Test particle method
  - Coupling parameter method

#### Thermodynamic integration

 $dS = \frac{dU}{T} + \frac{P}{T}dV - \frac{\mu}{T}dN$  Chemical potential

- Fix N and V, vary U, measure T

 $dS = \left(\frac{dU}{T}\right)_{N,V=const} \qquad S(U_2) - S(U_1) = \int_{U_1}^{U_2} \frac{dU}{T}$ 

– Fix N and V, vary T, measure U

$$S(T_{2}) - S(T_{1}) = \int_{T_{1}}^{T_{2}} \frac{1}{T} \left(\frac{dU}{T}\right) dT$$

- Thermodynamic integration
  - Fix two quantities, vary another, and measure the response of the last
  - For example,
    - Fix N and V
    - Perform a series of simulations at fixed energy
    - Calculate average temperature each time

$$S(U_2) - S(U_1) = \int_{U_1}^{U_2} \frac{dU}{T}$$

 Typically very accurate method, but extremely time consuming because of the large number of simulations to obtain a single entropy difference

- Test Particle Method
  - Instead of varying the energy, temperature, or volume, alternatively vary the number of particles
  - Randomly insert a particle,
    - If it does overlap (i.e. large positive energy), its effect is ignored
    - If the placement is ok, we can measure the change in energy that results
  - Disadvantages
    - Implementation rather complex
    - Less successful at high densities (most insertions fail)

- Test Particle Method
  - Estimate the change in entropy due to a change in the number of particles, vary N

$$\mu = -T \left( \frac{dS}{dN} \right)_{U,V=const}$$



- Coupling parameter method
  - Redefine the potential energy as a function of both position and a "coupling parameter"

 $U = U(\vec{r}^N, \lambda)$ 

- Parameter determines how strongly the atoms are coupled via the potential function
- It varies between  $\lambda_0$  which is a reference conditions (typically an ideal gas state) and  $\lambda_f$ which is the potential at its full strength

$$\lambda_0 < \lambda < \lambda_f$$

Reference State (Ideal Gas)

Full Strength

- Coupling parameter method
  - Can obtain an expression for the change in entropy between different values of  $\lambda$  which can in turn be related to density and temperature
  - Then systematically vary  $\lambda$  to get entropy
  - Method preferred over the test particle method because it does not fail in the high density limit

$$U = U(\vec{r}^{N}, \lambda)$$

$$(3N)^{\lambda_{f}} / 1 (dU)$$

$$S(\lambda_f) - S(\lambda_0) = -k \left(\frac{3N}{2} - 1\right) \int_{\lambda_0}^{\beta} \left\langle \frac{1}{E_k} \left(\frac{dU}{d\lambda}\right)_{NVE} \right\rangle d\lambda$$

**Radial distribution function**, g(r)

- Measure of how atoms organize themselves around one another
- Plays an important role in many statistical mechanics methods
- Can be extracted from x-ray and neutron diffraction

Ratio between the average number density at a given distance from any atom to the density at the same distance in an ideal gas Necessarily, g(r)=1 in an ideal gas

#### Radial distribution function



Radial distribution function from MD

$$\rho g(r) = \frac{1}{N} \left\langle \sum_{i}^{N} \sum_{j \neq i}^{N} \delta[r - r_{ij}] \right\rangle$$

$$\rho g(r) = \frac{2}{N} \left\langle \sum_{i}^{N} \sum_{j < i}^{N} \delta[r - r_{ij}] \right\rangle$$

$$\delta$$

- Integrate over all possible two atom separations

$$\rho \int g(r) dr = \frac{2}{N} \left\langle \sum_{i}^{N} \sum_{j < i}^{N} \int \delta[r - r_{ij}] dr \right\rangle$$

**Molecular Dynamics Simulation** 

- By definition 
$$\int \delta \left[ r - r_{ij} \right] dr = 1$$

- So 
$$\rho \int g(r) dr = N - 1 \approx N$$

- Probabilitistic interpretation

$$\frac{\rho}{N-1}g(r)V(r,\Delta r)$$

= probability that an atomic center lies in a spherical shell of radius rand thickness  $\Delta r$  with the shell centered on another atom



**Molecular Dynamics Simulation** 

Zero at distances less than an atomic diameter due to the strong repulsive forces Largest peak ~3.7 where there is 3 times more likely to be an atom (than ideal gas)

At large distances the system approaches an ideal gas; no longrange order





- Discriminate between crystal structures
  - FCC lattice has fewer atomic pairs separated by sqrt(2) and more atomic pairs separated by sqrt(3) than a simple cubic lattice
- Near fluid-solid boundaries, g(r) used to determine phase
  - Crystalline solids will exhibit deeper valleys and higher, narrower secondary peaks liquids or amorphous solids