CHE501 Lecture Notes (builds on CHE502, Fall semester 2019/2020)

Feb. 10, 2020 to Feb. 21, 2020

URL: http://theo.ism.u-bordeaux.fr/PBopp/vistec2020.1/index.html

Aj. Sareeya, Aj. Montree, Aj. Michael, and Aj. Philippe

michael.probst@uibk.ac.at
sareeya.b@vistec.ac.th

philippebopp@yahoo.com
montree.s@vistec.ac.th



About Science and Research

Wenn wir wüssten, was wir tun, würde man es nicht Forschung nennen. (If we knew what we are doing it would not be called research) Albert Einstein





"If I have seen farther than others, it is because I have stood on the shoulders of giants."

Sir Isaac Newton (1642 – 1727) Physicist

Grades (American English) Or Marks (British English)

50%: Written open-book exam of \approx 2 hours on the last day (Feb. 15) +

50%: Doing a small ($\lesssim 50$ lines) coding exercise on an MD-related problem as a take-home exam on the last days of the second week (Feb. 19-21 (or so))

- Part 1: We try to remember CHE502
- a little bit of Quantum Mechanics (QM)
- a little bit of Statistical Mechanics
- Part 2: Statistical Mechanics via molecular simulations (MD & MC)
- Modeling
- A Few Necessary Approximations & Tricks
- Part 3: Extracting Information from Simulations
- Statics (thermodynamics)
- Dynamics (kinetics)
- Part 4: Other Simulation Methods
- Part 5: Examples, Computer Lab

Things that were already mentioned and (at least partly) discussed in CHE502 have a yellow background

Try to remember

>> You can find excellent lecture notes and videos (in Thai)
on Aj.Teepanis' (Naresunan University) web site
(https://sites.google.com/site/siamphysics/)
'Siam Physics'
check in particular
- Classical Mechanics - Quantum Mechanics,
- Numerical Methods - Statistical Mechanics

– Numerical Methods – Statistical Mechanics

Part 1 CHE502

— Quantum Mechanics



Time independent Schrödinger Equation

$$\hat{H} \Psi_{i_1, i_2, i_3, \dots}(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots) = E_{i_1, i_2, i_3, \dots} \cdot \Psi_{i_1, i_2, i_3, \dots}(x_1, x_2, x_3, \dots)$$

 \hat{H} : 0 (describes the system (atom, molecule, ...)) $\Psi_{i_1,i_2,i_3,...}(x_1, x_2, x_3, ...)$: Wavefunction, eigenfunction, also called state, with n independent variables x_j and n quantum numbers i_j $E_{i_1,i_2,i_3,...}$: Energy eigenvalues

Hamiltonian \hat{H}	Eigenvalues E	Eigenfunctions Ψ
particle in box	$E_n = h^2 / (8mL^2) \cdot n^2, n = 1, 2, 3$	Cosine
harmonic oscillator	$E_v = \hbar \omega (v + 1/2)$, $v = 0, 1, 2,$	Hermite-Gaussian
rigid rotor	$E_l = \hbar^2 / (2I)l(l+1), l = 0, 1, 2$	spherical harmonics (l,m)
hydrogenoid	$E_n = -\mathcal{R} \cdot 1/n^2, n = 1, 2, 3$	*

— Statistical Mechanics

If we know (or can construct to a good approximations) all (or at least a "representative sample") of the (micro-)states of a system that are compatible with our macroscopic state (e.g. NVE, NVT, NpT, μVT , ...) then we can (in principle, if not practically) compute its partition function (called Ω , Q (Z), Ξ , ...)

We have studied a few cases, where the ratio of partition functions (= the equilibrium constant k of a gas-phase reaction) can be obtained to a good approximation using only the first term of the partition function

(i.e. only one of the very large number of possible states)

This is, however, quite exceptional, and in most cases we have to do a more careful job.

Q, the canonical partition function (sum of states Z)

$$Q = \sum_{\text{all states } i} \exp(\frac{-E_i(N, V, T)}{k_{\text{B}}T})$$

The average value $\langle ... \rangle$ of any quantity (observable) A over the given ensemble (NVE, NVT, etc.) is given by (just two examples):

$$\langle A \rangle_T = \frac{1}{Q} \int_{\text{all } p,q} A(p,q) \cdot \exp \frac{-E(p,q)}{k_{\text{B}}T} \, \mathrm{d}p \, \mathrm{d}q$$

where q stands for all positions variables $(x_1, y_1, z_1, x_2, y_2, \dots, z_N)$ and p for all velocity variables $(vx_1, vy_1, \dots, vz_N)$

So the integrals are 6N-fold integrals $(\int \int \int \dots \int)$ over the (q, p)-space, which is called **phase space**

From Ω (*NVE*), it is

$$\langle A \rangle_E = \frac{1}{\Omega} \int_{\text{all } p,q} A(p,q) \cdot \delta(E(p,q) - E_0) \, \mathrm{d}p \, \mathrm{d}q$$
 (Av Ω)

In both cases (and in all other cases):

- \Rightarrow not really doable (too many $\int \int \int \int \int \int \int \int \dots dx_1 dx_2 dx_3 d\dots dv_1 dv_2 d\dots$)
- \Rightarrow simulations

Part 2 Basic Ideas

Instead of doing systematically all the $\int \int \int \int dp$ over all the q and p, we try to select beforehand those q and p which contribute markedly to the integral for $\langle A \rangle$.

Doing this is a "simulation"

- \rightarrow We construct a <u>sample</u> of qs and ps compatible with our conditions (NVE, NVT, etc.)
- \rightarrow The computation of the averages is thus much simpler:

Thermodynamic average from simulations (much simpler!)

MD:
$$\langle A \rangle_E = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A(\mathcal{P}_i)$$

(and for later: MC:
$$\langle A \rangle_T = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A(\mathcal{C}_i)$$
)

where \mathcal{P}_i (which stands for all the q and p) is called the *i*th configuration (from the sample) in **phase space** and \mathcal{C}_i (all the q only) is the *i*th configuration (from the sample) in **configuration** space)

 \Rightarrow more later

Statistical Mechanics via MD-Simulations Flowchart



Each step needs critical thinking nothing is 'automatic' there are no 'standard' procedures (chemists, engineers, remember this)



- **REMINDER**: Born Oppenheimer (BO) approximation

Let's look at a molecule.

Its Hamiltonian \hat{H} will depend on the positions of the nuclei \mathcal{R} and electrons r,

and so will the Eigenvalues (energies) and Eigenfunctions (states) let's call them $\Psi(\mathcal{R},r)$

We do the usual product-ansatz (BO approximation):

 $\Psi(\mathcal{R}, r) = \psi^{\text{electronic}}(r) \cdot \varphi^{\text{nuclei}}(\mathcal{R})$

- Solving the equations for the electrons, at fixed positions of the nuclei (which appear in the Hamiltonian of the electronic equation as parameters) is the topic of quantum chemistry.

From this we get the **Potential Energy Surface (PES)**

The Schrödinger equation for the nuclei can in many cases (but not always!) be replaced by classical mechanics (MD): Newton's equation

For all masses larger than Hydrogen and temperatures \geq room temperature classical mechanics (Newton's equation) is a good approximation.

Hydrogen is 'borderline' (de Broglie wavelength \approx particle dimension)

Reminder: relation of QM to classical mechanics the larger the mass, the higher the temperature, the more 'classical', see "de Broglie (thermal) wavelength":

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$$
, with p from $\langle E_{\rm kin} \rangle \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2\pi m k_{\rm B} T}}$

Thus:

For each particle
$$i : m_i \cdot \frac{\partial^2 \vec{r}}{\partial t^2} = \vec{F_i} = -\vec{\text{grad}}_i(\text{PES})$$

For \boldsymbol{N} particles, this is a system of

- 3N coupled 2nd order partial differential equations, or
- 6N coupled 1st order partial differential equations

(coupled because " $\vec{\text{grad}}_i(\text{PES})$ " depends also on all other particles j)

Before we discuss how to solve such differential equations, we will deal with the description of the $\ensuremath{\mathrm{PES}}$

$$PES = V(\mathcal{R}) = V(R_1, R_2, R_3, \dots, R_N)$$

Interaction Models (PES) ⇔ CHE502,

some reminder and additional material below (also called molecular Modeling, Force Field Development)



PES, recap from a slightly different viewpoint:

We distinguish first between:

Inter- (between) and intra- (inside) molecular interactions

 $V^{\text{total}} = V^{\text{inter}} + V^{\text{inter}} + V^{\text{inter-intra}} ?$

Remember:



(1) Intermolecular Interactions

Keywords: **Pairwise additive** (or simply **pair**) potentials **Many-body** potentials, polarizabilities and polarization

(2) Intramolecular Interactions

Keywords: Internal coordinates (bond-stretch, angle-bend, torsion ...) "bonded" and "non-bonded" interactions

So why do we (usually) use different mathematical representations for the inter- and intramolecular interactions (inter- and intramolecular PES) ?

(1) <u>Inter</u>molecular

Usually this PES V is a function of many variables: $V(r_1, r_2, r_3, r_4, ...)$ ($\approx 3N$ variables for N particles) and one struggles to get a meaningful representation.

Example: Two Lennard-Jones (LJ) potentials V1 and V2



3Dplot, color coded (redundant here) Contour plot



same, color coded for some **other** property

We discussed this already a lot in CHE502; see also the little example (FORTRAN and gnuplot) (scripting and plots with the gnuplot free software) describing a PES: "Salami tactics"



Put together $V^{\text{inter}}(\{R_I^{\text{nuclei}}\})$ from smaller pieces $(\{R_I^{\text{nuclei}}\}=$ all nuclear coordinates) (in some way like a LEGO



as we shall shortly see.

However, there is a price (*There is no free lunch*!)

Most frequently made approximation: The pair potential approximation

The pair potential approximation

We will <u>assume</u> that:

$$V^{\text{inter}}(\{R_I^{\text{nuclei}}\}) = \sum_{i_{\alpha}, j_{\beta}} U_{ij}(r_{ij})$$

where i_{α} is a site on a molecule α and j_{β} is a site on a (usually different) molecule β . r_{ij} is the absolute value (modulus) of the distance between the two sites i and j: $r_{ij} = |\vec{r_i} - \vec{r_j}|$ U_{ij} is the pair potential between the sites i and j.

The pair potential approximation is a **very drastic** assumption so let's look at it again very quickly since most of this was already discussed in CHE502 Let us first assume that molecules are **"rigid bodies"**, i.e. that there are **no deformations, no intramolecular motions** (vibrations) etc.





The question now is: How to find the different U_{ij} s?

.. via the PES from quantum chemistry:

Step 1): You make many ($\approx 100 - 1000$) single point quantum chemical calculations for 'super-molecules' consisting of one red and one green molecule with **all** possible mutual distances and orientations, keeping the molecular geometries constrained.

Step 2): You chose sites on the molecule. In most cases, you locate the sites on the atoms. Sometimes, you use one site for several atoms (e.g. a CH_2 -group, or a CH_3 group and such).

This is called the "united atom" approach, see below.

Step 3): Once you have determined the sites, you know how many different site-site pair potentials U_{ij} you will need. You make an Ansatz^{*} for the U_{ij}

e.g.

 U_{ij} = electrostatic attraction or repulsion + short range repulsion + ...

* Ansatz, German word, plural Ansätze: What you put in initially in a chemical reaction; what you start out with, assuming that it will work

The most frequently used mathematical expression is:

$$U_{ij}(r_{ij}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{q_i \cdot q_j}{r_{ij}} + 4 \cdot \epsilon_{ij} \cdot \left(\left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}}\right)^{12} - \left(\frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}}\right)^6 \right) = U^{\text{Coulomb}} + U^{\text{Lennard-Jones}}$$

with

 $\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$ a constant depending on which unit system you use, q_i and q_j partial electric charges on the sites *i* and *j* and ϵ_{ij} and σ_{ij} two (Lennard-Jones) constants depending on the type of interaction (black-black, black-blue, blue-blue, etc.)

In our example (red and green molecules) we would thus have 4 different partial charges q_i (4 types of sites), 10 ϵ_{ij} s and 10 σ_{ij} s, a total of 24 parameters.

Step 4): Determine these 24 parameters by fitting the 10 U_{ij} Ansatz-functions to reproduce as well as possible the 100-1000 interaction energies determines in Step 1 by quantum chemical calculations.

Making these fits is difficult, and many tricks must be used. Sometimes additional constraints must be applied This is ongoing research work

We note that if we want to compute the total energy of an ensemble of N molecules, each of which contains M sites, the total number of pair interactions to compute will increase $\propto (N \cdot M)^2$ - a little something. (Because every site will interact with every other site except itself and sites on the same molecule.)

Let's now ask:

What is the price of the "pair potential approximation"? i.e. What do we miss? What do we leave out? ...

Pair potential approximation



You miss the influence that a third particle (in blue) may have on the (shape, strength, of the) interaction U between 1 and 2

Summary: <u>intermolecular</u> interactions

In the pair potential approximation V^{inter} will thus be a simple sum of Us, and each U will depend only of the distance $(r_{ij} = |\vec{r_i} - \vec{r_j}|, \text{ i.e. a scalar, not the vectors})$ of only two sites i and j:

$$V^{\text{inter}} = \sum U_{ij}(r_{ij})$$

 \rightarrow "Rigid" molecules are not always a reasonable approximation (think e.g. of polymers)

So we need to describe the fact that molecules can change their shape, vibrate,

This is done by means of <u>intra</u>molecular potentials V^{intra} (*intra* means "inside")

(2) <u>Intra</u>molecular interactions

Main features Deep (compared to $k_{\rm B}T$) potential wells Stable molecules (no dissociation)

- \Rightarrow model potential can diverge at small and large values of the argument (e.g. distance)
- \Rightarrow harmonic (bilinear) ansatz:

$$V^{\text{intra}} = \sum k_{ij} \rho_i \rho_j \qquad \rho = \text{internal (or Wilson's) coordinate}$$

types of ρ : bond stretch: $\delta r = ((r_{\alpha\beta}) - (r_{\alpha\beta}^0))$ angle bend: $\delta \alpha = ((\alpha_{\alpha\beta\gamma}) - (\alpha_{\alpha\beta\gamma}^0))$, α, β, γ (adjacent) atoms (sites) on the same molecule; torsion: $\delta \Theta = ((\Theta_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}) - (\Theta_{\alpha\beta\gamma\delta}^0))$, $\alpha, \beta, \gamma\delta$ (adjacent) atoms (sites) on the same molecule; ⁰: equilibrium value This is a generalization of the Hook's law spring model (\rightarrow Torsions : harmonic not always suitable. Why?)

$$V^{\text{intra}} = \sum_{l \le m} f_{lm} \cdot \rho_l \cdot \rho_m$$

where f_{lm} is the force constant (or element of the *F*-matrix), the ρ are Wilson's internal displacement coordinates. **Warning**: The sum goes either as written here (1-1, 1-2, 1-3, but not 2-1, 3-1, 3-2, ... (i.e. no double counting)), but definitions vary.

Many 'types' of ρ , here only 3 are given:

Type "stretch": $\rho^{\text{stretch}} = r_{ij} - r_{ij}^0$ Type "bend": $\rho^{\text{bend}} = \alpha_{ijk} - \alpha_{ijk}^0$ Type "torsion": $\rho^{\text{torsion}} = \phi_{ijkl} - \phi_{ijkl}^0$ where r_{ij} is the distance between two sites (here always site = atom!) α_{ijk} is the angle between r_{ji} and r_{jk} at atom j ϕ_{ijkl} is the angle between the plane defined by atoms i,j,kand the plane defined by atoms j,k, and l Note:

1) You see that the definitions of the ρ already contain parameters, the "equilibrium values"

2) You can easily extend V^{intra} up to higher orders in ρ (anharmonicities):

$$V^{\text{intra}} = \sum_{l \le m} f_{lm} \cdot \rho_l \cdot \rho_m + \sum_{k \le m \le n} k_{klm} \cdot \rho_k \cdot \rho_l \cdot \rho_m + \dots$$

3) The computation of such V^{intra} is "technically" more complicated than the simple sum or pair-potentials U, but In our system with N molecules with M sites each, we define a number of ρs between the M sites of each molecule, say M_ρ, and the total number of interactions to compute will be N · M_ρ, which increases ∝ N

and not $\propto N^2$ (like intermolecular interactions) when we increase the "system size".

4) Torsions:

If the barriers are not very hight compared to $k_{\rm B}T$, torsional potentials should be written as something like:




Let's put everything together and write:

 $V^{\text{total}} = V^{\text{inter}} + V^{\text{intra}}$

and look at two examples:

- Various classes of models for CCl₄
- Model potentials (models) for water

This can also be seen as an exercise in **coarse graining**

Example Modeling CCI₄



Coarse-graining often involves replacing a feature by its average value e.g. : united atom replace several atoms (sites) by one pseudo-atom (site), e.g.: $CH_3 = "Me"$, $CH_2 = xx$, $CCI_4 = carbon-tet$ (our example)

This saves a lot of computer time, e.g. for N CCl₄-molecules : $\approx 25 N^2$ interactions for the all-atom model $\approx ~N^2$ interactions for the united atom model

Difficulty: Which 'average' to use? Average energy (of some sort)? Average 'size' (whatever that may be)? Average ...?



Which is the 'correct' radius ?

Intramolecular potential for water:

A) Define the internal coordinates:

$$\rho_1 = r_{\text{OH}_1} - r_{\text{OH}_1}^0 , \quad \rho_2 = r_{\text{OH}_2} - r_{\text{OH}_2}^0 , \quad \rho_3 = \alpha_{\text{H}_1\text{OH}_2} - \alpha_{\text{H}_1\text{OH}_2}^0$$

 $\rho_1 \text{ and } \rho_2 \text{ are of type "stretch", } \rho_3 \text{ is of type "bend".}$ $<math>r_{OH_1}^0 = r_{OH_2}^0 \approx 0.98 \text{ Å,}$ $\alpha_{H_1OH_2}^0 \approx 109 \text{ degrees.}$ (Other definitions are possible, we can also use more than 3 coordinates)B) For symmetry reasons, the potential then must be written as:

$$V^{\text{intra}} = f_{11} \cdot (\rho_1^2 + \rho_2^2) + f_{33} \cdot \rho_3^2 + f_{12} \cdot \rho_1 \cdot \rho_2 + f_{13} \cdot \rho_3 \cdot (\rho_1 + \rho_2)$$

We have thus 4 independent constants (i.e. $f_{11} = f_{22}$ etc.) f_{11} is called the (diagonal) O-H stretching force constant (Hook's law), f_{33} is the (diagonal) HOH bending force constant, f_{12} and f_{13} are the stretch-stretch and stretch-bend coupling constants, respectively. In other terms (nomenclature more like the one used in spectroscopy): Water, c_{2v} symmetry, harmonic potential, thus:

$$\rho_1 = \delta r_{\mathrm{O-H}_1} \quad \rho_2 = \delta r_{\mathrm{O-H}_2} \quad \rho_3 = \delta \Theta_{\mathrm{H}_1 - \mathrm{O-H}_2}$$

 $V(\rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3) = k_{11} \cdot (\rho_1^2 + \rho_2^2) + k_{33} \cdot \rho_3^2 + k_{12} \cdot \rho_1 \cdot \rho_2 + k_{13} \cdot (\rho_1 \rho_3 + \rho_2 \rho_3)$

$$\leftrightarrow (\rho_1, \rho_2, \rho_3) \cdot \begin{pmatrix} k_{11} & k_{12} & k_{13} \\ k_{12} & k_{11} & k_{13} \\ k_{13} & k_{13} & k_{33} \end{pmatrix} \cdot \begin{pmatrix} \rho_1 \\ \rho_2 \\ \rho_3 \end{pmatrix} \qquad (factors\frac{1}{2} \ !)$$

The matrix is called the *F*-matrix (!) (remember chi502) (it is symmetric,

be careful, there are different ways in the literature to write this) here it contains 4 independent constants k.

Water: Models for the intermolecular interaction:

Just for water (H_2O) , there are probably about 50 reasonably good, but quite different models in the literature.

They are known by acronyms like BNS, ST2, MCY, TIPS, TIP3P, TIP4P, CF2, CF3, BJH, SPC, SPC/E, etc. etc. etc.

- "rigid" (V^{intra} replaced by constraints) or "flexible" models
- -3, 4, 5 or more sites
- "polarizable" ($ec{\mu}\propto \stackrel{\leftrightarrow}{lpha} ec{E}$) and "non-polarizable"
- from Quantum-Chemical PES (ab-initio, DFT, ... of various qualities) or fitted to reproduce certain properties (structure (g(r)s), thermodynamics, phase diagrams, spectroscopy, solvent properties,)

One more reminder

If the potential is 'narrow' (Δx small in the uncertainty relation) the frequencies ω can still be obtained to a very good approximation classically

(and then used to compute the 'quantum' energy levels of this 'oscillator system', (i.e., for example, without diffusion))

So if we have again a system of i = 1, ..., N interacting particles (here via a very specific potential energy function)

$$m_i \frac{\partial^2 \vec{r_i}}{\partial t^2} = \text{grad}_i V = \vec{F_i} \ , \ i = 1, N$$

Such a system of **coupled**

(because $\vec{F_i}$ depends in general not only on $\vec{r_i}$ but also on all other $\vec{r_j}$ s) differential equations generally **does not have 'analytical'** solutions (Henri Poincaré)

However, in this particular case (\Rightarrow 'harmonic' problem), it has, and the solutions are called **"normal modes"**.

Systems which have analytical solutions (i.e. mathematical expressions, like sin(..), cos(...), exp(..), ...) are called 'regular' (or linear) systems, the others are 'irregular', non-linear' or 'chaotic' Studying non-linear systems is a branch of mathematics (chaos theory) See 'normal modes' in the supplementary material for the usual way to study harmonic (a class of linear or regular) systems.

Normal Modes

In some cases, Newton's coupled differential equations of motion:

$$m_i \frac{\partial^2 r_i}{\partial t^2} = \operatorname{grad}_i V = F_i \ , \ i = 1, N$$

do have an <u>analytical</u> solution.

The most famous case are 'normal modes' (physicists talk about 'group coordinates'), which exist ONLY if the right hand side (rhs, i.e. the potential V and forces F) have a very special form and the motions are 'infinitesimally small' around an extremum (usually minimum, however, \rightarrow transition states).

Normal modes are a generalization of the well-know harmonic oscillator problem (*which you have studied over and over*)

Reminder:

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}} \quad , \quad E_v = \hbar \; \omega \; (v + \frac{1}{2})$$

m: the mass; *k*: the force constant (2nd derivative of potential) ω : frequency, *v* **vibrational quantum number**

(Note again the the frequency computed from classical mechanics is used in the expression for the quantum energies) Classical solution:

$$\Delta x(t) = A \cdot \cos(\omega t) + B \cdot \sin(\omega t) = C \cdot \cos(\omega t + \delta)$$

 $\Delta x(t) = x(t) - x_0$: a displacement with respect to an equilibrium position A, B, C, δ from the initial conditions

for two masses m and M (and one 'spring') on has:

$$\omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$
, $\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{M}$, and still $E_v = \hbar \omega (v + \frac{1}{2})$

Spring: Hooke's law $V(x) = k \cdot (x - x_0)^2$ (often written as $V(x) = k/2 \cdot (x - x_0)^2$

For more masses and 'springs', we generalize the springs as:

$$V = \sum_{ij} k_{ij} \rho_i \rho_j \quad (which \ can \ be \ expanded \ as \ V = \sum_{kl} c_{kl} \ u_k^{x,y,z} u_l^{x,y,z} \)$$

 k_{ij} are (generalized) force constants (force field), ρ internal (Wilson) coordinates (stretch, bend, torsion ...) $u_k^{x,y,z}$ are (infinitesimally) small displacements of particle k in x, y or z direction

Such a 'harmonic' potential can be obtained by expanding any potential around an extremum (minimum) This is what the quantum chemistry codes do. With this potential (bilinear form) Newton's equations of motion can be solved analytically

(see Wilson, Decius and Cross)

and one gets for the motions of particle i:

$$\vec{r}_i(t) - \vec{r}_i^0 = \sum_{J=1}^{\mathcal{N}} A_J \cdot \vec{Q}_i^J \cdot \cos\left(\Omega_J \cdot t + \delta_J\right)$$

There are (if) $\mathcal{N} = 3N - 6$ normal modes for a system (molecule) of N masses, $\mathcal{N} = 3N - 5$ for linear systems (molecules)

 A_j and δ_J are arbitrary amplitude and phase factors (which depend on the initial conditions)

 \vec{Q}_i^J are vectors (the normal modes) describing the relative motion of atom *i* under mode *J*.

Properties of normal modes:

- All atoms i in a normal mode J move 'in phase' (or anti-phase), the A and δ depend only on J, not on i

- Normal modes are 'orthogonal' (or adiabatic) to each other, this means a mode J will not transfer vibrational energy to another mode (you know that e.g. in molecules this is not entirely true)

Normal modes are the main tool to assign and interpret
 vibrational spectra (IR, Raman)
 the symmetry of the normal modes is related to the selection rules

The quantum energies are, since the modes are independent:

$$E_{v_1,v_2,v_3,\dots,v_{\mathcal{N}}} = \hbar \Big(\Omega_1(v_1 + \frac{1}{2}) + \Omega_2(v_2 + \frac{1}{2}) + \Omega_3(v_3 + \frac{1}{2}) + \dots + \Omega_{\mathcal{N}}(v_{\mathcal{N}} + \frac{1}{2}) \Big)$$

Beware:

Since normal modes are independent, i.e. do not exchange energy, a normal mode system will not evolve toward thermodynamic equilibrium!

 \rightarrow Your spectroscopy class

In the general case,

i.e. when normal modes cannot be computed, the eqs. of motion of an *N*-particle problem MUST be solved numerically

- \rightarrow MD-simulations
- \Rightarrow Statistical mechanics with partition function Ω

or avoid altogether solving equations of motions

- \rightarrow MC-simulations
- \Rightarrow Statistical mechanics with partition function Q(Z)

Simulations: MD and MC: A few (essential!) "tricks"



Let's remember some of our goals

- study matter, mostly disordered condensed phases (e.g. liquids),
 at finite temperatures, from a molecular (microscopic) standpoint
- understand the links between molecular properties and the macroscopic observables
- study matter under conditions (pressure (density), temperature, ...)
 not easily attainable in the laboratory
- try avoid as much as possible 'unnecessary experiments' (e.g. in the pharmaceutical industry)
- gain some predictive power

The properties of condensed matter (e.g. its structure, internal energy, viscosity, diffusion, ...) in particular at finite temperatures T > 0 Kcannot be related to the properties of a single molecule alone. Such properties are properties of ensembles of many (how many?) molecules.

Many methods in theoretical chemistry consider only the (potential) energies at T = 0 K an thus neglect the influence of the kinetic energy (entropy).

This is sufficient in many cases, e.g. in reactions where the energy differences between the reactants (educts) and the products are large.

Remember the examples from CHI502

However, many reactions, e.g. in biology, are so fine-tuned that **temperature becomes a very important factor** and we need much better approximation to the partition function(s)

 \Rightarrow partition function approximated well enough by a single term

\Rightarrow statistical mechanics

(Statistical mechanics \approx statistical thermodynamics \approx statistical physics \approx many particle physics \approx ...)

- Molecular simulations (MD MC)

Molecular Dynamics (MD), Monte Carlo (MC)

allow to go beyond simple (e.g. harmonic) potentials and the few 'academic' cases that can be treated 'analytically'

Basic idea of molecular simulations:

Since it is impossible to compute the partition functions $(\Omega, Q, \Xi \dots)$ (i.e. **all** states compatible with a set of external conditions (e.g. (NVE)), we will construct a **representative sample**

This is called a **simulation**

Here we shall briefly look at the two main simulation methods: <u>Molecular Dynamics (MD)</u> (Metropolis) <u>Monte Carlo (MC)</u>

(and there are several others, to be discussed if we have time)

Historical remarks:

Numerical work (e.g. MD, MC) was not possible before computer became generally available (1970ies with some precursors (Edward Teller, Bernie Alder ...) since the 1940ies (Manhattan Project))

Theoreticians were used to search for 'analytical solutions' (i.e. finding mathematical solutions of (usually differential or integral) equations)

Simulations required a different way of thinking, they were thus often called **computer experiments**

Basic Idea of MD (many of which also for MC)

We first remember, from classical mechanics: If the potential V (and thus forces \vec{F}) in Newton's equation depend ONLY on the relative positions (\vec{rs}) of the particles (and not e.g. on some 'external' variables) the total energy of this system (and the momenta) will remain constant along the trajectory (conservation of total energy, independently whether this trajectory can be found analytically or not).

Quantities which remain constant along the trajectory (energy, momenta) are called (first) 'integrals' of the system

We will make use of this when we construct the (NVE) ensemble using MD simulations.

In MC, we usually construct the (NVT) ensemble

However, many assumptions (and tricks) are common to MD and MC (MC needs fewer, but also yields fewer results!) We talk first mainly about MD and about MC later

Definitions:

In MD, we used the term configuration to designate the ensemble of the nuclear positions ($\{R^{nuclei}\}$) and velocities ($\{\dot{R}^{nuclei}\}$) of all particles in a system at a given time t_j .

In statistical mechanics, this is called a phase space point. We shall call such a phase space point $\mathcal{P}(t)$, or simply \mathcal{P} .

The ensemble of all the \mathcal{P} , $\{\mathcal{P}\}$, that we compute, is the sample of thermodynamics states; it is a part of the corresponding thermodynamic ensemble.

Since we obtain the sample by integrating the equations of motion (see below), the sample is (a part of) the trajectory of the system.

Let us **assume** that we know one phase space point \mathcal{P} that belongs to the ensemble of microstates compatible with the MACROSTATE we are interested in.

(We just assume that we have this \mathcal{P} , we don't know (yet!) how/where to get it, how to generate it ...)

<u>Reminder</u>: we **assume** that our **particles** (= atoms or molecules) are heavy enough and/or the temperature high enough so that the particles' "de Broglie wavelength" is small (compared e.g. with the particles' dimensions), then we can replace the **(time dependent) Schrödinger equation** for the particle motions by **Newton's equation**.

(This is almost always true in "chemistry",

i.e. with masses $\geq m_{\rm H}$ and $T \approx 300$ K.)

Example: Standard (NVE)-MD

We will now consider a system of N particles, restricted to a volume V(*i.e. the particle positions are all inside the volume*).

We <u>want to assume</u> that we have one configuration \mathcal{P} for our N particles in this volume V). We shall call it $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$, it corresponds to **some** MACROSTATE (NV?).

Can we <u>fully</u> characterize the MACROSTATE?

Answer: **Yes**, because we know how to compute the total energy E of $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$:

$$E = E^{\text{total}} = T + V$$
; $T = E^{\text{cin}}$; $V = E^{\text{pot}}$

T we can compute because $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ contains all velocities V we can compute from our model because $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ contains all positions

Thus $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ is one (micro)state compatible with the MACROSCOPIC values of N, V, and E.

We write the N Newton's equations for all particles i in the configuration $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$:

$$m_i \cdot \vec{\vec{r}_i} = -\operatorname{grad}_i V = \vec{F}_i \quad , \quad i = 1, 2, 3, ..., N$$

where m_i is the mass of particle *i*, $\vec{R_i}$ its position, $\operatorname{grad}_i V$ is the gradient of *V* with respect to the coordinates of *i*, and $\vec{F_i}$ the force acting on *i*. (*Note that this equation is for simple point masses.*)

If the particles are rigid bodies, the equations are more complicated.)

Imagine that we can somehow (not analytically) solve this system of N2nd order differential equations starting from $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ (the **initial conditions**) Then we could get after some time δt a new configuration $\mathcal{P}(t_0 + \delta t)$ So we have now:

- $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ characterized by N, V, E
- $\mathcal{P}(t_0 + \delta t)$ characterized by:
 - N because Newton's equations do not change particle numbers
 - V because the particles are always restricted to this volume (We'll have to make sure that this is so ightarrow PBC)
 - E because the total energy is a constant of motion in a Newtonian system without external interactions and all the interactions in our model are internal to the system (e.g. no external fields)

So if $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ is a microstate belonging to a certain MACROSTATE, $\mathcal{P}(t_0 + \delta t)$ is also a microstate belonging to the same MACROSTATE. We are halfway there, yet

We still need to know:

(a) How to deal with the volume restriction

(b) How to deal with the integration of Newton's equations

(c) How to find $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$

Question (a): Volume restriction

How to make sure that the particle positions are always restricted to inside the volume $V\ ?$

Answer: Use Periodic Boundary Conditions (PBC) with the Minimum Distance Convention to compute the interactions

\Rightarrow (Almost) the same tricks are used in MC !

(In MD one needs to compute the interaction energies AND the forces In MC ONLY the energies are needed)

VISTEC, ESE program



Interactive Java script:

PBC

'basic box' containing 'real' particles

'periodic' boxes containing 'mirror' particles

box centered on particle *i* containing its interaction partners (minimum distance convention)



k and all k^\prime

http://research.chem.psu.edu/shsgroup/chem647/project6/project6.html

Advantages/consequences of periodic boundary conditions and minimum distance convention:

- 1) There will always be N particles in the basic box (because if one particle, say k, leaves the box on one side a mirror particle k' will enter from the other side).
- 2) Each particle will be in the center of all its interaction partners (green box)

The will thus be no surface at the limits of the red box

(nor anywhere else in the system)

In other words:

each particle sits in the center of all other particles

(as far as the computation of the interactions is concerned)

Question (b): How to deal with the integration of Newton's equations?

What is actually the problem with the equations on page 51?:

$$m_i \cdot \vec{\vec{r}}_i = -\operatorname{grad}_i V = -\operatorname{grad}_i V \left(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \vec{r}_3, \dots, \vec{r}_N\right) \quad , \quad i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, N$$

The N 2nd order differential equations are all coupled through their right hand sides.

There is <u>no analytic solution</u>^{*} for this problem (except in a few special cases e.g. \rightarrow normal modes)

* Analytic solution: You can write the trajectory $R_i(t)$ of a particle *i* as some mathematical function, e.g.:

 $\vec{R}_i(t) = A \cdot \cos(\Omega \cdot t) + \dots$ or whatever other function

Answer (b): Do a numerical solution (numerical integration)

All numerical solutions are based in some way or other on <u>series expansions</u>. I.e. (*omitting the vector notation*): If you know $r_i(t)$ and $\dot{r}_i(t)$ at some time t, you can find to a good approximation $r_i(t + \delta t)$ as (Taylor series):

$$r_i(t+\delta t) \approx r_i(t) + \dot{r}_i(t)|_t \cdot \delta t + \frac{1}{2}\ddot{r}_i(t)|_t \cdot \delta t^2 + \dots$$

and Newton's equation tells us that

$$\ddot{r}_i(t)|_t = \frac{1}{m_i} \cdot \operatorname{grad}_i V = F_I(t)$$

for a small δt δt is called the time step The smaller δt , the better your approximation (in principle!)

 \longrightarrow We'll have to think how small/big to make our δt in practical cases How to find 'good' integration methods is studied in numerical mathematics **Question (c)**: How to find a suitable $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$? (*This is the most cumbersome of the 3 questions (a)-(c), which is why we kept it until the end!*)

Problems:

- Our MACROSTATES are characterized by N, V, E being constant However, we usually do not know E for the system that we want to study.
- Even if we knew E, we don't know how to "make" a ${\mathcal P}$ which has exactly this energy.
- Finally, in a thermodynamic system, at constant composition, we can fix 3 quantities (here N, V, E), all other quantities will fluctuate (i.e. we should really write < T > for the temperature instead of T etc.)

Note: In the **thermodynamic limit** one can show that the results will not depend on the ensemble if the 'conditions' are the same, e.g. ensemble: $(NV\mathbf{E})$ with $\langle T \rangle = \mathbf{T}$ will give the same results as: ensemble: $(NV\mathbf{T})$ with $\langle E \rangle = \mathbf{E}$

Answer (c):

The figure shows how to proceed in principle to find a $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$.



- 1) We "guess" a preliminary $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ (educated guesses preferred!).
- 2) We start the simulation (numeric integration).
- 3) The total energy E will be constant if we integrate correctly.
- 4) However, almost always, our guessed $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ will have too much potential energy (interactions) compared to its kinetic energy.
- 5) The kinetic energy (\propto temperature) will thus increase, the potential energy decrease, first quickly, then more and more slowly.
- 6) If our system is *well-behaved*, it will approach a steady state. (only fluctuations between kinetic and potential energy, no drift.)
- 7) Trouble! The MACROSTATE that we have is not at all the one we wanted to study (usually much too much kinetic energy!).
- 8) We now remove kinetic energy from the system (which is easy: scale the velocities) and use the \mathcal{P} that we have now reached as a new, better guess for $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$
- 9) We restart the simulation form the new $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ (GOTO 2) until this $\mathcal{P}(t_0)$ is really the one that we want In this case, we forget this whole "equilibration procedure" and start the **real simulation**.
Note:

You cannot change the kinetic and potential energies independently

They are linked (Virial Theorem)

So whenever you have changed the kinetic energy (scaled the velocities) you must wait for the potential energy to relax, and vice versa

Summary: Making the sample with MD

MD generates (in the simplest case) \mathcal{P} s for MACROSTATES characterized by:

- Constant number of particles N,
- constant volume V,
- constant total energy E.

This ensemble is known (surprise! surprise!) as the (N, V, E) ensemble, it is a sub-ensemble of the microcanonic ensemble of statistical mechanics.

<u>Note</u>: MD can be 'doctored' to generate \mathcal{P} s representative of other ensembles.

Added value:

MD generates the $\mathcal{P}s$ in a <u>meaningful order</u>.

The 'order parameter' is the time t.

MD thus generates $\mathcal{P}(t_1), \mathcal{P}(t_2), \mathcal{P}(t_3), \mathcal{P}(t_4), \dots$ for increasing times t_1, t_2, t_3, \dots

in passing, more below after the end of the discussion of MD

MC generates **only** the position-part (the \vec{R}_I s) of \mathcal{P} , let's call it \mathcal{C} , for MACROSTATES characterized, in the simplest case, by:

- Constant number of particles N,
- constant volume V,
- constant temperature T.

This ensemble is known (even bigger surprise) as the (N, V, T) ensemble, it is a sub-ensemble of the canonic ensemble of statistical mechanics.

MC generates the Cs in a random order.

<u>Note</u>:

 $\overline{\text{MC}}$ can also be 'doctored' to generate \mathcal{C} s representative of other ensembles.

Terminology:

 $\mathcal P$ (generated by MD) is often called a point in the $6\cdot N$ -dimensional $\mathcal P$ hase space.

 $\mathcal C$ (generated by MC) is often called a point in the $3\cdot N$ -dimensional $\mathcal C$ onfiguration space.

The term **configuration** is used both for \mathcal{P} and \mathcal{C} .

The (ordered) \mathcal{P} s are (a part of) the system **trajectory**

The list of all \mathcal{P} s is often called the **history** of the system.

We now know how to generate a large number of microstates ${\cal P}$ for the MACROSTATE we are interested in

- How do we know that the steady state that we have reached is "thermal equilibrium"?
- How do we know that we have enough configurations and that they are "representative"?

These are very difficult questions. There is no way to decide them "a-priori", they have to be settled "a-posteriori" by looking at various quantities computed from the simulated sample.

But first we must learn how to compute observables from the simulated sample.

From input to output through a huge amount of intermediate data



Notes in passing:

-Some people have questioned whether first generating such a huge amount of data and then whittling them down to a few 'observables' qualifies as 'simple'

-Others have called simulation methods 'brute force'

-There is indeed no systematic way to 'improve' (what does it mean?) results (unlike e.g. the variational principle)

-However, simulations usually need fewer, and weaker, assumptions than analytical methods

 In their philosophy, they are akin to experiments
 computer experiments and thus often allow 'trial and error' approaches One problem has initially bothered people a lot:

The solution of differential equations (see harmonic oscillator) depend on the initial conditions

So MD results will depend on initial conditions

- Is this good? Do we want this?
- Are there cases where we want this and others where we do not?
- What can we do to avoid it if we do not like it?

- $\mathsf{Model}\ 1 \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \mathsf{Observable}\ 1$
- Model 2 \iff Observable 2

Model 3 \iff Observable 3

- $\mathsf{Model}\ 1 \quad \Longleftrightarrow \quad \mathsf{Observable}\ 1$
- Model 2 \iff Observable 2
- Model 3 \iff Observable 3

The simulation approach



Being able to compute observables **consistently** is one of the main advancements brought about by computer simulations

Consistency III: Consistent Coarse Graining



The representative MD sample is thus:

Sample = {

$$\begin{array}{ll}
r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_N, v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_N & t = 0 \\
, r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_N, v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_N & t = 1 \\
, r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_N, v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_N & t = 2 \\
, r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_N, v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_N & t = 3 \\
, \dots, \dots, \dots, \dots & t = \dots \\
, r_1, r_2, r_3, \dots, r_N, v_1, v_2, v_3, \dots, v_N & t = M \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{ll}
= & q_i & p_i(/m_i) \\
= & \{R^{\text{nuclei}}\} & , & \{\dot{R}^{\text{nuclei}}\}
\end{array}$$

In the language of differential equations, this is the **system trajectory** (which meanders through (i.e. samples) **phase space**) we also call this the **configurations**, or the **history**

On the computer: several Mb or Gb of data

(In MC, it is the same <u>except</u> no velocities and no time, and the $\{r\}$ in random order) Statistical mechanics: compute thermodynamics averages from the partition function, e.g. some observable A:

From Q (NVT)

$$\langle A \rangle_T = \frac{1}{Q} \int_{\text{all } p,q} A(p,q) \cdot \exp \frac{-E(p,q)}{k_{\text{B}}T} \, \mathrm{d}p \, \mathrm{d}q$$

From Ω (*NVE*)

$$\langle A \rangle_E = \frac{1}{\Omega} \int_{\text{all } p,q} A(p,q) \cdot \delta(E(p,q) - E_0) \, \mathrm{d}p \, \mathrm{d}q$$

where q stands for all positions variables $(x_1, y_1, z_1, x_2. y_2, \dots, z_N)$ and p for all velocity variables $(vx_1, vy_1, \dots, vz_N)$

So the integrals are 6N-fold integrals $(\int \int \int \dots \int)$ or sums $(\sum \sum \sum \dots)$ over the (q, p)-space, **phase space** \Rightarrow not really doable (except in some very simple cases)! Thermodynamic average from simulations

MD:
$$\langle A \rangle_E = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i \neq i}^N A(\mathcal{P}_i)$$

MC: $\langle A \rangle_T = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A(\mathcal{C}_i)$

where \mathcal{P}_i is the *i*th configuration from the sample in phase space and \mathcal{C}_i is the *i*th configuration from the sample in **configuration** space (which contains only the positions, we'll come to this later)

Part 3: results, results, results

Examples of thermodynamic averages routinely computed from MD-simulations (all masses assumed to be equal to simplify the equations)

$$\frac{3}{2} k_{\rm B}T = \frac{3}{2} m \left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} v_i^2\right) = \frac{3}{2} m \langle v^2 \rangle_N$$

We can compute this for all particles,

for selected particles (to check e.g. whether the system is in equilibrium), for selected degrees of freedom (e.g. using only the v_x s, v_{θ} s, $v_{...}$ s), also combinations thereof, etc.etc.

An important technique used here is **binning** (histograms)

Here one does several averages at the same time:

$$\langle n(A(x+\Delta x))\rangle_E \propto \sum_{\text{all configurations}} \delta(A_i \text{ between } A(x) \text{ and } A(x+\Delta x))$$

- i.e. a 1 is added to the counter $n(A(x + \Delta x)$ every time a value of A_i between A(x) and $A(x + \Delta x)$ is found in the configurations
- We decide on a Δx (the resolution) and study $\langle n_A(x) \rangle$, which, suitably normalized, is the probability distribution (of A): $p_A(x)$

How to code this:

```
REAL A
INTEGER INDEX
REAL or INTEGER histogram(....), total_number_of_A
A = .....
index = convert_to_integer ( A / resolution + shift)
```

```
histogram(index) = histogram(index) + 1
total_number_of_A = total_number_of_A + 1
```

You have to make sure that your histogram does not overflow, i.e. that no index larger or smaller than the array boundaries of histogram appears during the computations (Compilers can generate code to do this automatically, but then it runs much more slowly) You can then normalize the histogram to one:

LOOP OVER index

```
histogram(index) = histogram(index) / total_number_of_A
```

Histograms often computed in the equilibrium system:

Binning v_x (v_y , v_z): we get a Gaussian (width depending on the mass and the temperature)

Binning v^2 : we get the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution

Binning interparticle distances $r_{\alpha\beta}(=r_{\beta\alpha})$

(and normalizing correctly):

we get the radial pair distribution functions (rdf, g(r)),

which are important in many statistical mechanics theories,

(more about this later)

and can also be obtained (not so easily, but still)

from X-ray scattering, neutron scattering, electron scattering

Note

$$n_{\alpha\beta}(\mathbf{R}_{\alpha\beta}) = 4\pi \cdot \frac{N_{\beta}}{V} \cdot \int_{0}^{\mathbf{R}_{\alpha\beta}} r_{\alpha\beta}^{2} g_{\alpha\beta}(r_{\alpha\beta}) \, \mathrm{d}r_{\alpha\beta}$$

is the average number of neighbors of type β around a particle of type α in a sphere of radius $R_{\alpha\beta}$ (upper limit of integral).

Thus: $g_{\alpha\beta} = g_{\beta\alpha}$ (from the definition), but $n_{\alpha\beta} \neq n_{\beta\alpha}$

So often it is more instructive to plot the n rather than the g. Example:

The average number of water molecules around an ion is meaningful (the hydration number)

The average number of ions around a water molecule is much less intuitive

As an aside

The g(r)s are so important (many properties e.g. of liquids can be approximated 'in the 2-body approximation' if one knows them) People have tried, and in many cases succeeded, in computing them without taking the detour through the huge simulation ensemble (see above)

On thus tries to go straight from the pair potentials to the g(r)s

The methods are usually called 'integral equation theory' more later (may be)

The *g*-functions are related through Fourier transforms (FT) to the experimental X-ray–, neutron– (elastic), electron–scattering functions:

$$S(Q) \propto \sum x_{\alpha} x_{\beta} f_{\alpha} f_{\beta} \left(\operatorname{FT}(g_{\alpha,\beta}(r) - 1) \right)$$

Q scattering vector, also often called k α,β types of atom in the system x mole fractions f factors that depend on the type of scattering and type of atom

As we have seen, when we use **MD** to construct (a sample of) the 'microcannonical (NVE)' ensemble, we get, quasi 'for free', information about the time evolution of the system.

This can be studied 'in equilibrium' and 'out of equilibrium'

The way to explore the evolution of things in the equilibrium ensemble^{*} is to compute **time-correlation functions**

* Equilibrium does not mean that 'nothing moves', it is just that for macroscopic observables one has $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} = 0$ So we extend the equation

$$\langle A \rangle_E = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N A(\mathcal{P}_i)$$

to become

$$\langle A(0)A(t)\rangle_E = \frac{1}{M_j} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^{M_j} A(\mathcal{P}(t_j)_i) \otimes A(\mathcal{P}(t_j+t)_i) = c_{AA}(t)$$

<u>auto</u>correlation, or more generally

$$\langle A(0)B(t)\rangle_E = \frac{1}{M_j} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N \sum_{j=1}^{M_j} A(\mathcal{P}(t_j)_i) \otimes B(\mathcal{P}(t_j+t)_i) = c_{AB}(t)$$

<u>cross</u>correlation

 \otimes is some operation, often a scalar product. Like previously, the *i*-sum can be over all or only over selected particles

Example: velocity autocorrelation function $C_{vv}(t)$

 \otimes will be a scalar product So I can regroup all the $A_i(t_j)$ in a big vector \mathcal{V} for the time t:

$$\mathcal{V}(t) = (vx_1(t), vy_1(t), vz_1(t), vx_2(t), vy_2(t), vz_2(t), vx_3(t), vy_3(t), vz_3(t), \dots, vx_N(t), vy_N(t), vz_N(t))$$

a big 3N-dimensional vector, and one gets

$$\langle v(0)v(t)\rangle_E = \frac{1}{M_j} \sum_{j=1}^{M_j} \left(\mathcal{V}(t_j)\right) \cdot \left(\mathcal{V}(t_j+t)\right) = c_{vv}(t)$$

(the *i*-sum is already in the scalar product)

The Fourier Transforms (FT) of correlation functions are called 'spectra':

$$c_{vv}(\omega) = f \cdot \int_0^\infty c_{vv}(t) \cdot \cos(\omega t) \, \mathrm{d}t = \mathrm{FT}(c_{vv}(t))$$

(It is enough to take the cosine since the (classical) correlation function is even in time: $c_{vv}(t) = c_{vv}(-t)$) f is some factor that people chose differently.

A time-correlation function (time domain) and a spectrum (frequency domain) thus contain exactly the same information (*experimentally one may be much harder to get than the other*)

Molecular graphics

There are many (free and commercial) graphics programs that can 'read' the configurations from MD (and MC) simulations and:

- draw graphic symbols of various kinds (colored spheres etc.) to show the particle positions
- draw other symbols (e.g. lines) based on geometric criteria (which it computes from the positions
- do some statistics
- make animations
- ...

```
\implies exercises
```



Configuration from MD-simulation

544 water molecules $ho=1~{
m g~cm^{-3}}$ ightarrow PBC, box-edge= 25.34Å (T= 300 K)

Part 4

'Other' simulation (and other) methods

Sometimes molecular simulations either

- provide much more information than we need
- cannot be carried out meaningfully because of
 - lack of information (model)
 - lack of computational resources
 - costs (industry)

—

This can be addressed by:

- Applying different levels of theory to different parts of the problem
 - e.g. in QM/MM approaches

by coupling to 'cheaper' methods

(normal modes, field equations on grids,....)

- Coarse graining
 - e.g. by removing (integrating over) the solvent and treating only the solute
- Computing (with approximations) only certain quantities,
 - e.g. rdfs in integral theory approaches

We'll look briefly at these things in the reverse order

Let's look at the basic ideas of **integral equation theory**

We define a 'total' pair **correlation** function as:

$$h(r_{ij}) = g(r_{ij}) - 1$$

which goes to 0 for r large, as a correlation function should

which we divide up into a 'direct' and and 'indirect' part:

$$h(r_{13}) = c(r_{12}) + \rho \cdot \int_{\text{all particles } 3} c(r_{13}) \cdot h(r_{23}) \, \mathrm{d}r_3$$

where the integral describes the 'indirect' influence of particle 1 on particle 2 via particle 3.

(The g_{12} -function results not only from the interaction of 1 with 2, but also from **all** interactions between 1 and 3, and 3 and 2)

This is called the Ornstein Zernike (OZ) equation

 $c(r_{ij})$ is called the 'direct correlation' (ρ is the density)

Since we know neither h nor c we need one more equation for any attempt to solve this.

This additional equation, an approximation, is called the **closure relation**

There are several in the literature, among which: the Percus Yevick approximation the Hypernetted-chain equation

This is a very specialized field of statistical mechanics, and we shall not dwell much on this here.

See the Wikipedia articles on these topics

See also prof. Wim Briels lecture:

http://cbp.tnw.utwente.nl/PolymeerDictaat/index.html

The relation with the pair potential is made in the closure relation, e,g, in HNC via the 'potential of mean force' (PMF, W)

If one thinks of g(r) as a probability (distribution), one can write some sort of 'Boltzmann factor' $(N_1/N_2 = \exp(-\Delta E/(k_B T)))$

$$g_{ij}(r_{ij}) = \exp(\frac{-\mathcal{W}_{ij}(r_{ij})}{k_{\rm B}T})$$

We note in passing

The PMF is often used in other contexts too.

When one has the g-functions, like in MD, it is simply

(beware the error bars)

computed by taking the logarithm of g(r)

Several thermodynamic quantities can be computed from $\ensuremath{\mathcal{W}}$

We assume (see above, no *ijs* written))

$$c = g^{\text{total}} - g^{\text{indirect}} = \exp(\frac{-\mathcal{W}}{k_{\text{B}}T}) - \exp(\frac{-(\mathcal{W} - V)}{k_{\text{B}}T})$$

and \boldsymbol{V} is the pair potential

Fourier transform techniques are used to solve this ONE DIMENSIONAL integral

 \rightarrow So even if the math is complected, at the end it is fast on the computer (i.e. get g-functions in minutes, not hours) 'Removing' the solvent: **Brownian** (and similar) **Dynamics**

This is of interest if we are interested in some '*big*' solute (i.e. much bulkier, much heavier than the solvent molecules) in a solutions

In this case, we are often not interested in the (fast) motions of the *'little'* solvent molecules and it would thus be nice if they could somehow be removed from the simulation

(there are usually many more solvent than solute molecules)

Idea:

Solve equations of motion only for the solute particles,

describe the influence of the solvent by:

- and 'effective' solute-solute potential (cf. PMF $\mathcal{W}(r)$)
- a friction term in the equations of motion
- an additional (stochastic, random)- force that balances the friction

So the equation of motion becomes for a solute particle i

$$M_i \cdot \frac{\partial^2 r_i}{\partial t^2} + \gamma \cdot \frac{\partial r_i}{\partial t} = -\text{grad}_i \ \mathcal{V} + \mathcal{F}_i$$

In red the new terms:

- velocity dependent: friction
- additional force ${\mathcal F}$ to compensate the friction

The various methods (Brownian Dynamics (BD), Dissipative Particle Dynamics (DPD) etc.) differ in what they postulate for \mathcal{V} , the friction and the compensating forces.

 \mathcal{V} is a suitable solute-solute effective potential (e.g. the PMF obtained from MD or MC simulations)

If the $\mathcal V,\,\gamma$ and $\mathcal F$ are taken from molecular simulations, this would be real 'coarse graining'

Hybrid methods

See e.g.

Hybrid Particle-Continuum Methods in Computational Materials Physics edited by M.H. Müser, G. Sutmann, and R.G. Winkler Publication Series of the John von Neumann Institute for Computing NIC Series Volume 46 available for free on the Internet

From the preface:

,,, It [*the book*] covers subjects from modeling of hydrodynamic interactions between particles in complex fluids or environments, through coarsegrained descriptions of biological systems, to the coupling of atomically represented regions with various continuum-based theories for fluids and solids. Special aspects are long-time-scale properties of systems with slow collective dynamics, ... Example:

Molecular Dynamics Meets Finite Elements:

An Approach for Coupled Simulations of Nanocomposites

S.Pfaller, G.Possart, P.Steinmann, M.Rahimi , M.C. Böhm, F. Müller-Plathe

Hybrid techniques bring together the **advantages** of particle-based and continuum- based tools by coupling the different domains. In our approach, we aim to combine the efficiency of continuum mechanics with the accuracy of MD simulations by applying the particle-based approach only in regions of interest, e.g. in the vicinity of solid-polymer interfaces. The remaining parts are treated by continuum mechanics at a much coarser resolution. Thus, a spatial decomposition into a particle region and into a continuum is necessary.

However as Hans Ågren (Stockholm) famously said:

QM-MM methods combine the **disadvantages** of QM with the **disadvantages** of MM

In the 'hybrid' methods, where one uses a spatial decomposition,

e.g. QM 'inside' and MM (i.e. mainly MD) 'outside' (as in QM-MM),

or

MD 'inside' and continuum mechanics (e,g Navier-Stokes)) 'outside',

or

MD 'inside' and BD 'outside',

the main problems arise in the intermediate region:

How to couple the 'inside' with the 'outside'

This is an active area of current research

summary

 Molecular simulations allow to link molecular properties with macroscopic observables at **finite temperatures** In most cases this cannot be treated by conventional theory (i.e. analytical methods)

- Molecular simulations allow the **consistent** determination of many observables from from one model

- Molecular simulations are part of a well defined hierarchy of methods, making thus **coarse graining** possible (if not easy!)

– Limitations are the **space** (MC and MD) and **time** (MD) **domains** that can be explored.

Computer time (and storage) still is, and always will be, a limitation
 pure brute force does not work, smart approaches are required

Space-time window accessible to molecular (MD) simulations







analytical vs. predictive usage

A referee recently stressed in a comment:

".. the importance of carefully validating models before their applications .."

However, this is more easily said than done:

- using simulations as an analytical tool \rightarrow possible (and often done)
- using simulations as a predictive tool

→ difficult at best
 (if you do not want your result just
 to reflect your prejudice)

Books

P.W. Atkins, Physical Chemistry, XYth Edition, Oxford University Press for general physical chemistry

D.A. McQuarrie, Statistical Mechanics, Harper & Row for molecular partition function, equilibria, and everything on liquids

E. B. Wilson, J. C. Decius and P. C., Cross Molecular Vibrations The Theory of Infrared and Raman Vibrational Spectra, Dover Books *THE classic on normal modes and vibrational spectra*

C. Kittel, Introcuction to Solid State Physics, Wiley *The title says it all*

R.K. Pathria (and P.D. Beale in later editions)
Statistical Mechanics, Elsevier
http://home.basu.ac.ir/~psu/Books/[Pathria_R.K.,_Beale_P.D.]
_Statistical_mechanics.pdf
for the introduction to the 'partition function'

M.P. Allen, D.J. Tildesley, Computer Simulation of Liquids, Oxford Science detailed explanations of the fundamentals, with FORTRAN codes http://www.ccl.net/cca/software/SOURCES/FORTRAN/ allen-tildesley-book/f.00.shtml

I.R. Levine, Quantum chemistry, Prentise Hall one of my favorite QC books http://www.slideshare.net/diegogarciadossantos/ 0835quantum-chemistry-5th-edition-by-ira-n-levine

More free books at: http://www.freebookcentre.net/Chemistry/ Quantum-Chemistry-Books.html

I have some of these books as pdf files