

Solving the equations of motion

[Main source: Allen-Tildesley]

- In MD, what we really want to do is solve the equations of motion of N atoms (or particles in general) interacting via a potential V
- Lagrange equations of motion:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} \right) - \frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} = 0;$$

$$L(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}) = K(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}}) - V(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}})$$

\mathbf{q} = generalized coordinate

- By using the cartesian coordinates

$$q_i = r_i$$

$$K(\dot{\mathbf{r}}) = \sum_i \frac{1}{2} m_i \dot{r}_i^2,$$

$$V = V(\mathbf{r}),$$

we get the familiar (Newtonian) form

$$m_i \ddot{\mathbf{r}}_i = \mathbf{f}_i,$$

where $\mathbf{f}_i = \nabla_{\mathbf{r}_i} L = -\nabla_{\mathbf{r}_i} V$ is the force acting in atom i

Solving the equations of motion

- We can also start by considering the Hamiltonian equations of motion

$$\dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i}, \quad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i},$$

where $p_i = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i}$ is the generalized momentum

and $H(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}) = \sum_i \dot{q}_i p_i - L(\mathbf{q}, \dot{\mathbf{q}})$ the Hamiltonian function (we assume that q_i can be given as a function of \mathbf{p})

- If V does not depend on the velocities, we get quickly back to the familiar form

$$H(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{p}) = K(\mathbf{p}) + V(\mathbf{q})$$

and if we again use cartesian coordinates the equations of motion will be:

$$\dot{\mathbf{r}}_i = \frac{\mathbf{p}_i}{m_i}$$

$$\dot{\mathbf{p}}_i = -\nabla_{\mathbf{r}_i} V = \mathbf{f}_i$$

- So we have two alternatives:

1. Solve a system of $3N$ 2nd order ODE's ($m_i \ddot{\mathbf{r}}_i = \mathbf{f}_i$) derived from the Lagrangian or Newtonian formalism
2. Solve a system of $6N$ 1st order ODE's derived from the Hamiltonian formalism

Numerical solution of equations of motion

- Finite difference method: from a system configuration (atom positions, velocities etc.) at time t we calculate the configuration at time $t + \delta t$
 - δt can be constant or variable
 - initial conditions $\mathbf{r}(0)$, $\mathbf{v}(0)$ have to be known (initial value problem)
- As an example a predictor-corrector -algorithm:
 - Use a Taylor series to predict the system configuration at time $t + \delta t$ using the small deviation δt :

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

Equations of motion
not (yet) used.

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

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

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

- \mathbf{v} , \mathbf{a} and \mathbf{b} are higher time derivatives of \mathbf{r} :

\mathbf{v} = velocity, \mathbf{a} = acceleration and \mathbf{b} = the time derivative of acceleration.

Numerical solution of equations of motion

- We can instead of \mathbf{b} also use information from previous time steps:

$$\{\mathbf{r}(t), \mathbf{v}(t), \mathbf{v}(t - \delta t), \mathbf{v}(t - 2\delta t)\}$$

or $[\mathbf{r}(t), \mathbf{v}(t), \mathbf{a}(t), \mathbf{a}(t - \delta t)]$

- **Correction** step: we now have \mathbf{r}^p , from which we can get the forces

$$\mathbf{F}_i(\mathbf{r}^p_i) \text{ at } t + \delta t$$

Equations of motion
now used.

\Rightarrow accurate corrected accelerations $\mathbf{a}^c(t + \delta t)$

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

- Using this known error, one can calculate corrected positions, velocities and so on

$$\mathbf{r}^c(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}^p(t + \delta t) + c_0 \Delta\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)$$

$$\mathbf{v}^c(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}^p(t + \delta t) + c_1 \Delta\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)$$

$$\mathbf{a}^c(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{a}^p(t + \delta t) + c_2 \Delta\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)$$

$$\mathbf{b}^c(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{b}^p(t + \delta t) + c_3 \Delta\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)$$

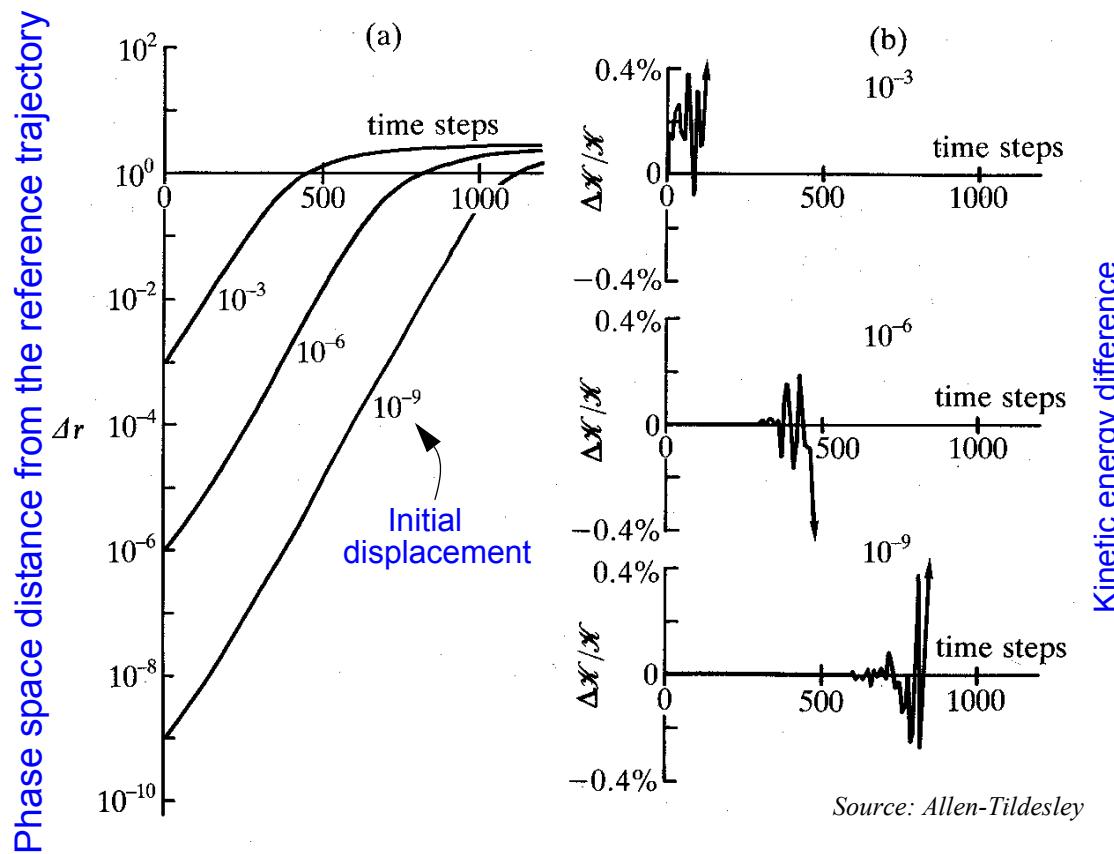
- The constants c_i depend on how many derivatives of \mathbf{r} we include and the degree of the equation, etc.
- The correction can also be iterated in principle; but not sensible in MD: calculating the forces expensive
 \Rightarrow use an algorithm requiring only *one evaluation of the force* per time step (one correction)
- If the correction is not iterated, an obvious choice is $c_2 = 1$.

Numerical solution of equations of motion

- Thus we reach the following approach to solving the MD equations of motion:
 - (a) predict \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{a} for the time $t + \delta t$ using the present values of the same variables
 - (b) calculate forces and hence $\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{f}/m$ from the new \mathbf{r}
 - (c) correct the predicted \mathbf{r} , \mathbf{v} and \mathbf{a} etc. using the new \mathbf{a}
- Requirements for a good MD algorithm
 - (a) fast (not that important)
 - (b) takes little memory (important)
 - (b) allows a long time step δt (important)
 - (c) reproduces the correct path (see below)
 - (d) conserves energy (and is reversible:
 $\delta t \rightarrow -\delta t \Rightarrow$ back to original state) (very important)
 - (f) easy to implement (not that important)
 - (g) only one force evaluation/time step (important for complex V)

Numerical solution of equations of motion

- Fulfilling (c) completely is *not possible*: any small deviation somewhere will grow exponentially with time. Since all computers have limited floating-point precision, a small round-off error will eventually grow to a large difference (Lennard-Jones system; in reduced units $\rho^* = 0.6$, $T^* = 1.05$):



- A reversible algorithm has in principle no drift in energy, except for that induced by numerical inaccuracies.

Common algorithms

- In the following we present some of the most common MD algorithms:

- **Verlet**

- Derived from the following two Taylor series:

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

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

- Sum them up and rearrange:

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

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

- So we have an algorithm which essentially does:

$$\{\mathbf{r}(t), \mathbf{a}(t), \mathbf{r}(t - \delta t)\} \rightarrow \{\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t), \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)\}.$$

- However, the velocities are missing; these can be calculated from

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

- The error per iteration $O(\delta t^4)$; in the velocities $O(\delta t^2)$.
 - Memory requirement: $9N$.
 - Numerical problems, fluctuates heavily

Common algorithms

- **Leap-frog**

- Mathematically equivalent with Verlet (not numerically)

$$\left\{ \mathbf{r}(t), \mathbf{a}(t), \mathbf{v}\left(t - \frac{1}{2}\delta t\right) \right\} \rightarrow \left\{ \mathbf{r}(t + \delta t), \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t), \mathbf{v}\left(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t\right) \right\}$$

$$\mathbf{v}\left(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t\right) = \mathbf{v}\left(t - \frac{1}{2}\delta t\right) + \delta t \mathbf{a}(t)$$

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

- Velocity

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

for energies etc.

- Advantage: explicit \mathbf{v} .
- Memory requirement $9N$.
- But still velocities at different time than the positions.

Common algorithms

- **Velocity Verlet**

- Eliminates the half-step velocity problem

$$\{\mathbf{r}(t), \mathbf{v}(t), \mathbf{a}(t)\} \rightarrow \{\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t), \mathbf{v}(t + \delta t), \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)\}$$

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

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

- If we would eliminate \mathbf{v} we would get back to normal Verlet
- This can also be considered to be a simple predictor-corrector-algorithm:
(same as three stage Gear with \mathbf{r} correction = 0):

1. Predictor stage:

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

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

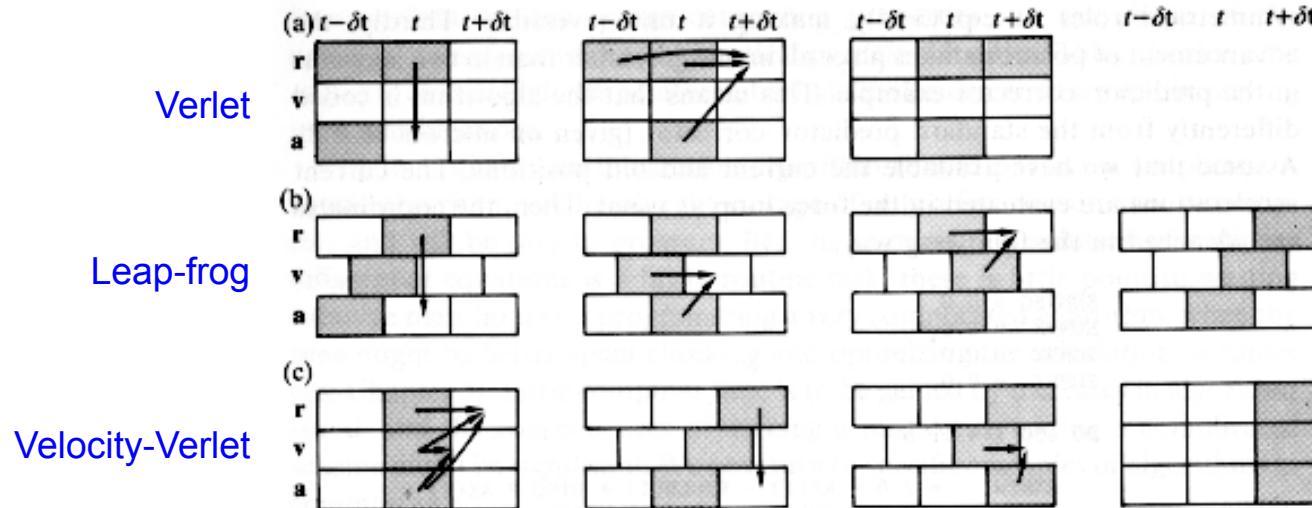
2. Corrector stage:

$$\mathbf{v}^c(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}^p\left(t + \frac{1}{2} \delta t\right) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)$$

- Memory requirement $9N$.

Common algorithms

- Schematic illustration of the progress of different Verlet algorithms:



Source: Allen-Tildesley

- Velocity Verlet is a very popular algorithm because it is simple, reversible, yet reasonably accurate.

Common algorithms

- Velocity Verlet as pseudocode:

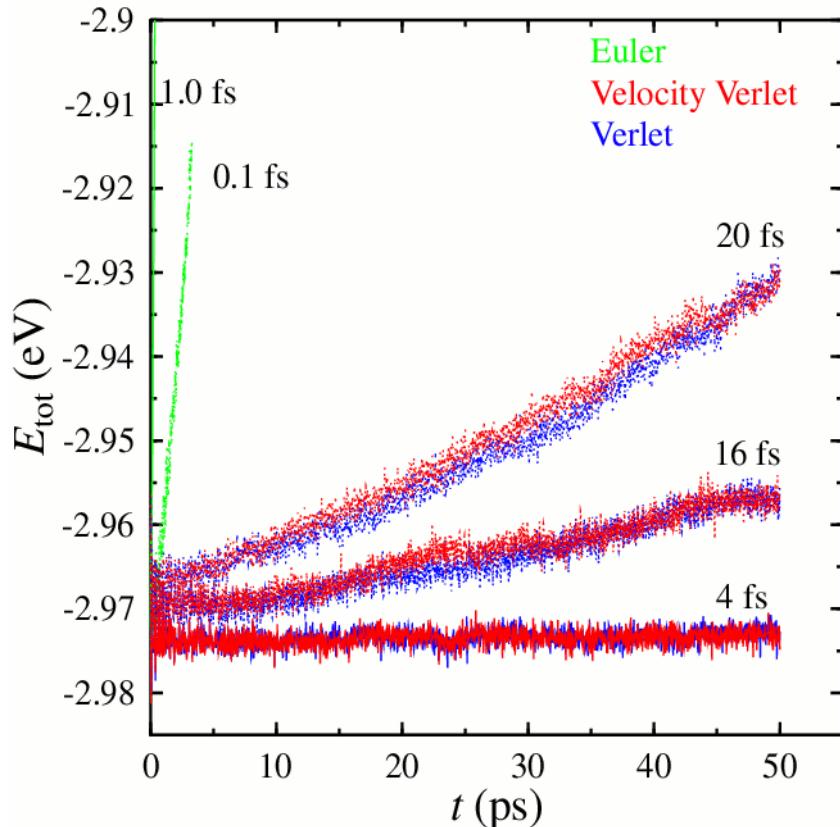
```
do i=1,N
    x(i)=x(i)+deltat*vx(i)+0.5*deltat**2*ax(i)
    vx(i)=vx(i)+0.5*deltat*ax(i)
    ((and same for y and z))
enddo

((get new forces F and accelerations ax(i)))

do i=1,N
    vx(i)=vx(i)+0.5*deltat*ax(i)
    ((and same for y and z))
enddo
```

- Comparison of performance

- 500 Cu atoms at 300 K
- Euler: $\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{v}(t)$
 $\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{a}(t)$



Common algorithms

- Beeman algorithm (D. Beeman, *J. Comp. Phys.* 20 (1976) 130.)
 - Equivalent with Verlet if \mathbf{v} eliminated, but velocity more accurate

$$\{\mathbf{r}(t), \mathbf{v}(t), \mathbf{a}(t), \mathbf{a}(t - \delta t)\} \rightarrow \{\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t), \mathbf{v}(t + \delta t), \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)\} :$$

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

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{3} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) + \frac{5}{6} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t) - \frac{1}{6} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t - \delta t)$$

- Memory requirement $12N$

Common algorithms

- **Ion irradiation physics**

- Initially $E_{\max} \sim 1 - 100 \text{ keV}$;
- In the end $E_{\max} \sim k_B T \Rightarrow$ **variable time step**
- Let us mark $\mathbf{r}_n = \mathbf{r}(t_n)$; $\mathbf{r}_{n+1} = \mathbf{r}(t_n + \delta t)$

- **Smith & Harrison** (*Computers in Physics* **3** (1989) 68):

$$\{\mathbf{r}_n, \mathbf{v}_n, \mathbf{a}_n, \mathbf{a}_{n-1}\} \rightarrow \{\mathbf{r}_{n+1}, \mathbf{v}_{n+1}, \mathbf{a}_{n+1}\} :$$

- Taylor : $\mathbf{r}_{n+1} = \mathbf{r}_n + \mathbf{v}_n \delta t_n + \mathbf{a}_n \frac{\delta t_n^2}{2} + \mathbf{a}'_n \frac{\delta t_n^3}{6} + O(\delta t_n^4)$

- Estimate $\mathbf{a}'_n = \frac{\mathbf{a}_n - \mathbf{a}_{n-1}}{\delta t_{n-1}} + O(\delta t_{n-1})$

Time step ratio

$$R = \frac{\delta t_n}{\delta t_{n-1}}$$

\Rightarrow Predictor for positions:

$$\mathbf{r}_{n+1} = \mathbf{r}_n + \mathbf{v}_n \delta t_n + [(3 + R)\mathbf{a}_n - R\mathbf{a}_{n-1}] \frac{\delta t_n^2}{6} \quad (1)$$

Velocity:

$$\mathbf{v}_{n+1} = \mathbf{v}_n + \mathbf{a}_n \delta t_n + \mathbf{a}'_n \frac{\delta t_n^2}{2} + \mathbf{a}''_n \frac{\delta t_n^3}{6} + O(\delta t_n^4)$$

Common algorithms

- Force calculation from \mathbf{r}_{n+1} :

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{a}'_n = \frac{\mathbf{a}_{n+1} - R^2 \mathbf{a}_{n-1} + (R^2 - 1) \mathbf{a}_n}{\delta t_n (1 + R)}$$

$$\mathbf{a}''_n = 2R \left[\frac{\mathbf{a}_{n+1} - R \mathbf{a}_{n-1} + (R + 1) \mathbf{a}_n}{\delta t_n^2 (1 + R)} \right]$$

- Let's insert these into the Taylor series of \mathbf{v}_{n+1} :

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{v}_{n+1} = \mathbf{v}_n + \left[\frac{(3 + 2R) \mathbf{a}_{n+1}}{1 + R} + (3 + R) \mathbf{a}_n - \frac{R^2 \mathbf{a}_{n-1}}{1 + R} \right] \frac{\delta t_n}{6} \quad (2)$$

- Algorithm:

- calculate new positions \mathbf{r}_{n+1} using equation (1)
- calculate new accelerations \mathbf{a}_{n+1}
- calculate velocities using equation (2)

- Memory $12N$, error $O(\delta t_n^4)$.

- With a constant time step this reduces to the fairly simple form.

$$\Rightarrow \mathbf{r}_{n+1} = \mathbf{r}_n + \mathbf{v}_n \delta t_n + [4 \mathbf{a}_n - \mathbf{a}_{n-1}] \frac{\delta t_n^2}{6}, \quad \mathbf{v}_{n+1} = \mathbf{v}_n + [5 \mathbf{a}_{n+1} + 8 \mathbf{a}_n - \mathbf{a}_{n-1}] \frac{\delta t_n}{12}$$

[(d) correct the positions using

$$\mathbf{r}_{n+1} = \mathbf{r}_n + \mathbf{v}_n \delta t_n + \left[\frac{(2 + R) \mathbf{a}_{n+1}}{1 + R} + (4 + R) \mathbf{a}_n - \frac{R^2 \mathbf{a}_{n-1}}{1 + R} \right] \frac{\delta t_n^2}{12}$$

but this demands two force evaluations per time step]

Common algorithms

- Six-value (fifth-order predictor) **Gear algorithm (Gear5)**. This is quite often used in MD¹.

• Using the notation: $\mathbf{r}_i = \frac{\mathbf{r}^{(i)}(\delta t)^i}{i!}$, where $\mathbf{r}^{(i)} = \frac{\partial^i}{\partial t^i} \mathbf{r}$

we get the **predictor** \mathbf{r}_i^p :

$$\begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_0^p(t + \delta t) \\ \mathbf{r}_1^p(t + \delta t) \\ \mathbf{r}_2^p(t + \delta t) \\ \mathbf{r}_3^p(t + \delta t) \\ \mathbf{r}_4^p(t + \delta t) \\ \mathbf{r}_5^p(t + \delta t) \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 & 6 & 10 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 4 & 10 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 & 5 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \mathbf{r}_0(t) \\ \mathbf{r}_1(t) \\ \mathbf{r}_2(t) \\ \mathbf{r}_3(t) \\ \mathbf{r}_4(t) \\ \mathbf{r}_5(t) \end{bmatrix}$$

- Note that the triangle is simply a Pascal's triangle matrix.
- For 2nd order (Newtonian) equations of motion, error term is $\delta \mathbf{r}_2 = \mathbf{r}_2 - \mathbf{r}_2^p$.

1. G. W. Gear, *Numerical initial value problems in ordinary differential equations*, (Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ, USA) 1971; Allen-Tildesley

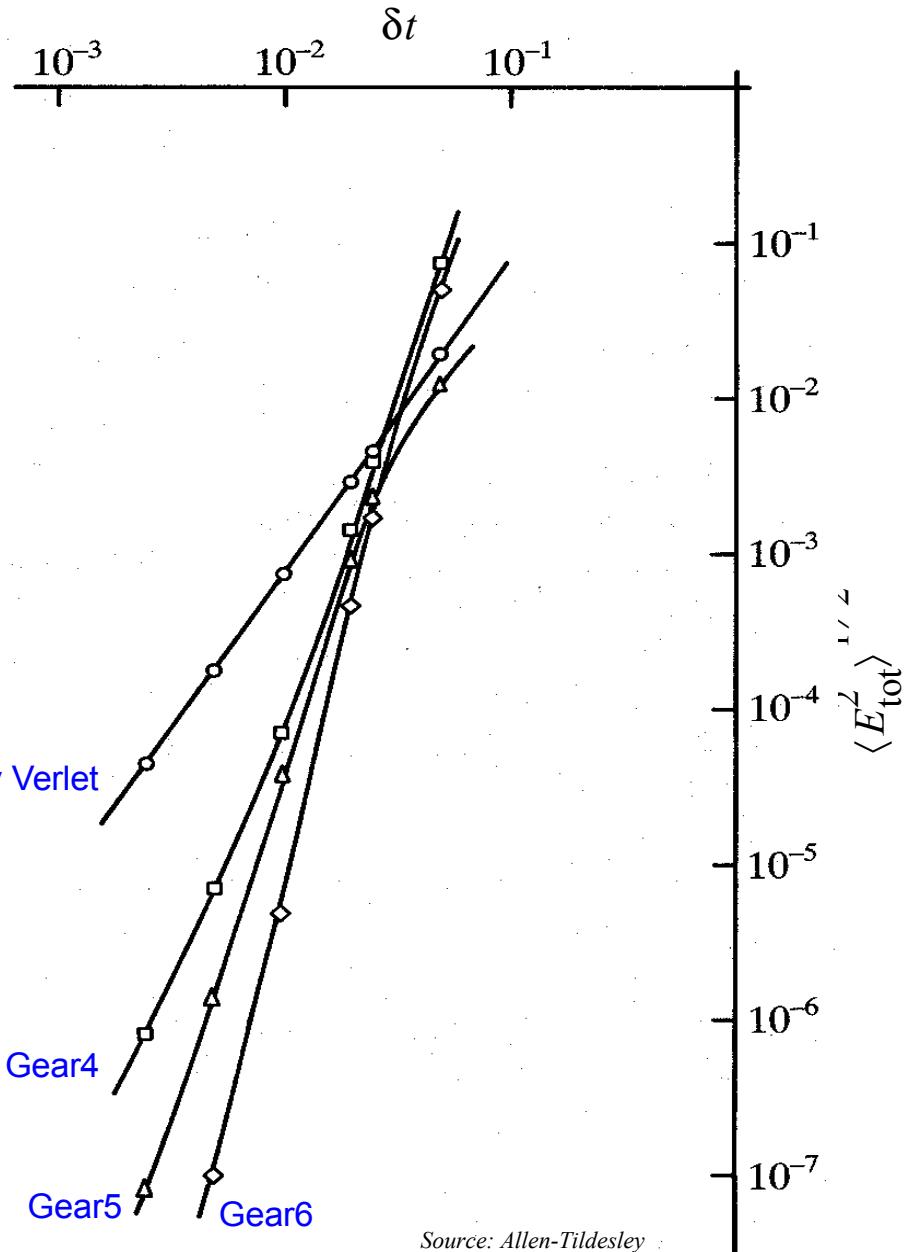
Common algorithms

$$\bullet \text{ Corrector: } \mathbf{r}_n^c = \mathbf{r}_n^P + \alpha \delta \mathbf{r}_2, \alpha = \begin{bmatrix} 3/16 \\ 251/360 \\ 1 \\ 11/18 \\ 1/6 \\ 1/60 \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} 0.1875 \\ 0.6972 \\ 1.0000 \\ 0.6111 \\ 0.1667 \\ 0.0167 \end{bmatrix}$$

- Note that if the forces may depend on the velocities, we should have $\alpha_0 = 3/20$ instead.

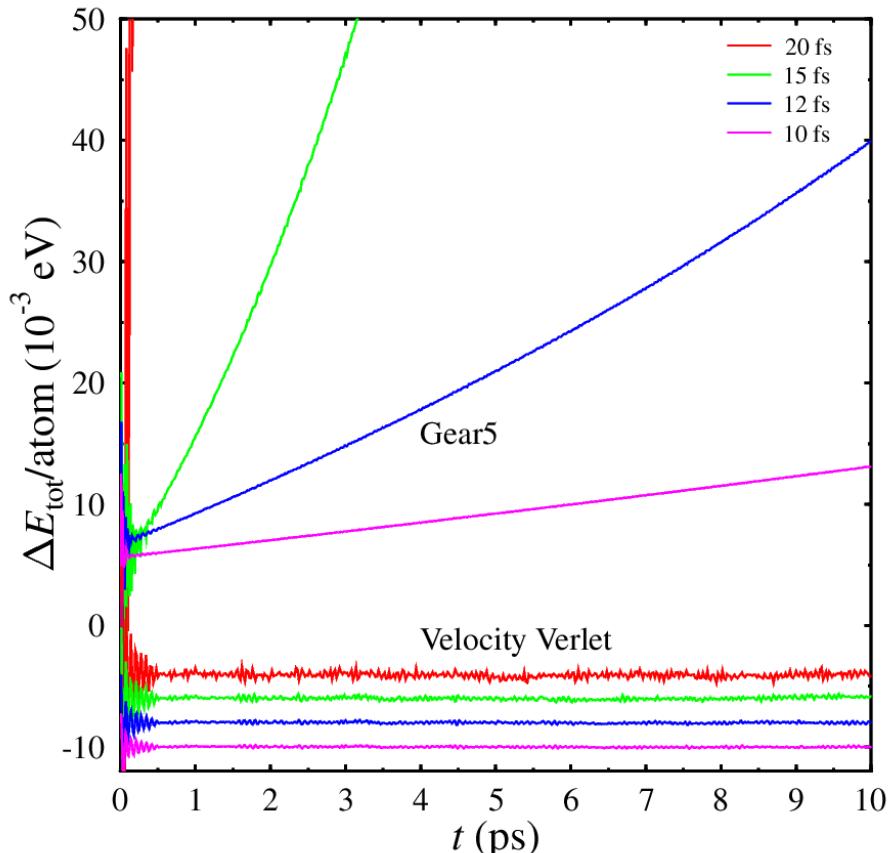
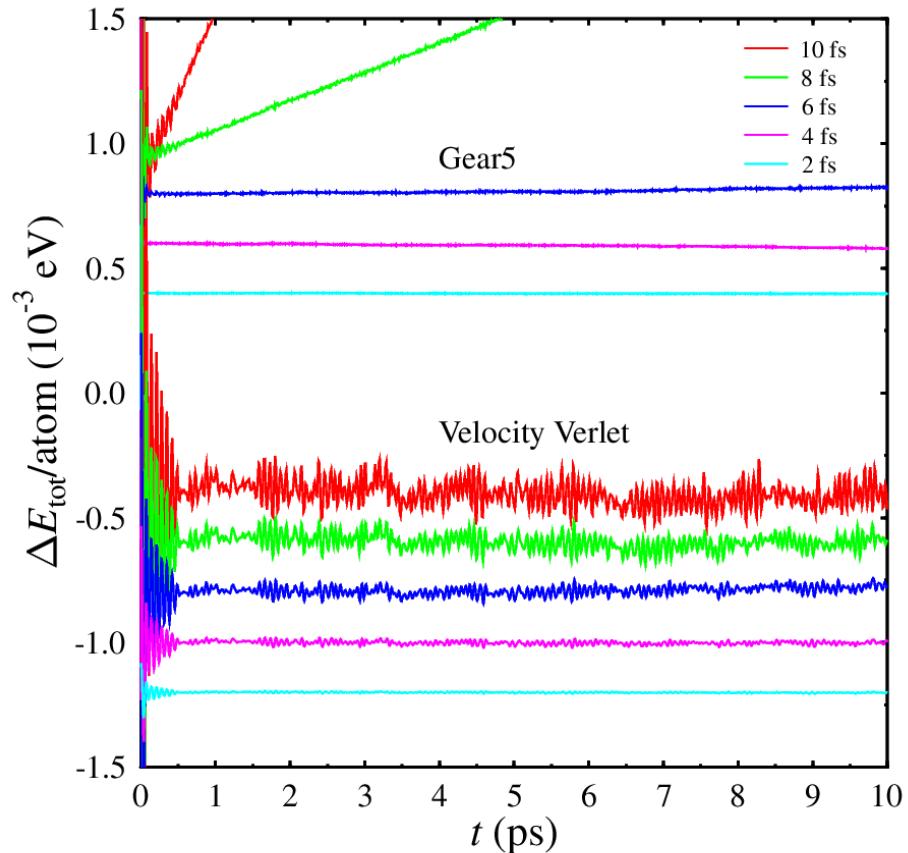
Common algorithms

- The fluctuations in energy of different algorithms as a function of the time step is illustrated on the right (Lennard-Jones system; in reduced units $\rho^* = 0.6$, $T^* = 1.05$)
- So the ‘better’ algorithms have much less fluctuations for very short timesteps.



Common algorithms

- Another illustration of this: a 10 ps simulation of a 4000 atom Cu lattice at 300 K.
Potential = EAM



Curves are shifted in y direction in order to make the figures clearer.

Newer algorithms

- Tuckerman, Berne and Martyna developed around 1990 new reversible MD-algorithms using a Trotter factorisation of Liouville propagators.
 - The method is theoretically very well motivated, and it can be used to derive e.g. the Verlet algorithms [Tuckerman *et al.*, *J. Chem. Phys.* **97** (1992) 1990.]
 - It can also be used to derive a predictor-corrector-type algorithm which is comparable to Gear4 in accuracy but is also time reversible [Martyna and Tuckerman, *J. Chem. Phys.* **102** (1995) 8071.]
- So, what algorithm should one use?
 - A quick solution which works well with short time steps: **velocity Verlet**.
 - If one wants minimal oscillations in the total energy: **Gear5**.
 - If one wants great accuracy and minimal energy drift, it is worth looking into **Tuckerman's method**.