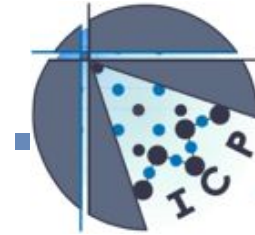




**University of Stuttgart**  
Germany



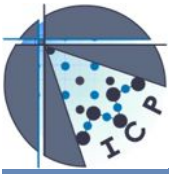
**INSTITUTE FOR  
COMPUTATIONAL  
PHYSICS**

# Simulating Soft Matter with ESPResSo, ESPResSo++ and VOTCA

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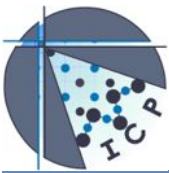
**Christian Holm**

Institut für Computerphysik, Universität Stuttgart  
Stuttgart, Germany



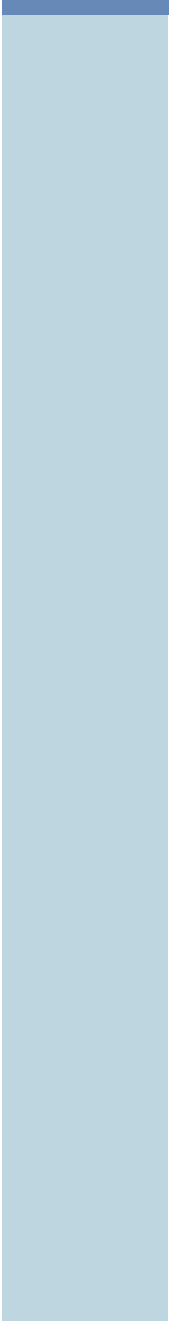
# Intro to Soft Matter Simulations

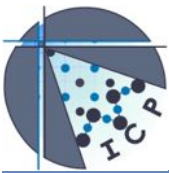
- What is Soft Matter?
- What can simulations do for you?
- What is needed to perform **good** simulations?
- Bits and pieces of necessary background information for understanding molecular simulations
- ESPReso: history, aim, background



# What is Soft Matter?

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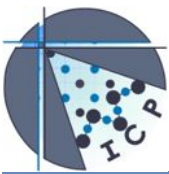




# What is Soft Matter?

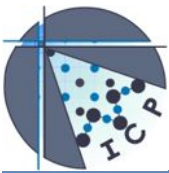
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....and why is it interesting?



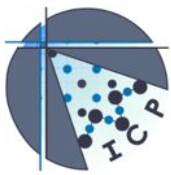
# What is Soft Matter?





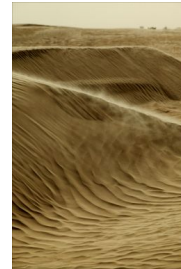
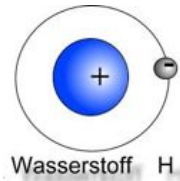
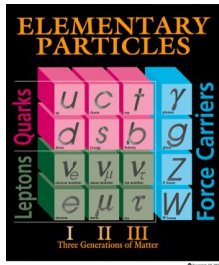
# What is Soft Matter?

- Gummy bears, gels, networks: Rubber, low fat food,
- Fibers (z.B. Goretex, Nylon)...
- Colloidal systems: milk, mayonnaise, paints, cosmetics...
- “Simple” plastics: yoghurt cups, many car parts, CDs, ...
- Membranes: cell walls, artificial tissue, vesicles...
- Many parts of the cell, cytoskeleton, nucleus
- Most biomolecules (RNA, DNA, proteins, amino-acids)
- Liquid crystals
- Many applications: smart materials (actuators, sensors, photonic crystals), biotechnology, biomedicine (hyperthermia, drug targeting, cell separation techniques), model systems for statistical physics

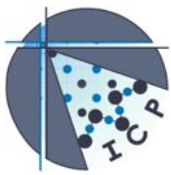


# Length Scales of Matter

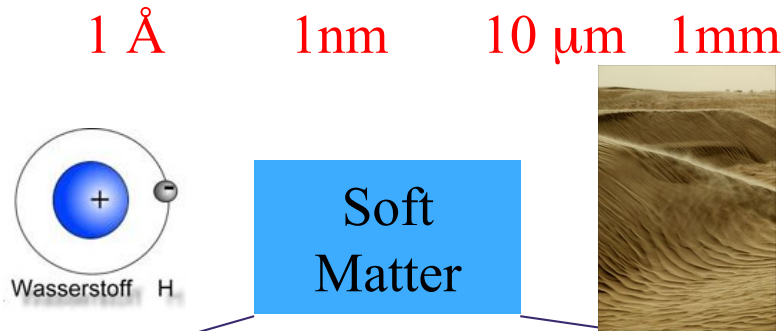
1 fm    1 pm    1 Å    1 nm    10 μm    1 mm    1 m    1 km    10<sup>3</sup> km    10<sup>6</sup> parsec



10<sup>-15</sup>m    10<sup>-12</sup>m    10<sup>-9</sup>m    10<sup>-6</sup>m    10<sup>-3</sup> m    10<sup>0</sup>m    10<sup>3</sup>m    10<sup>6</sup>m

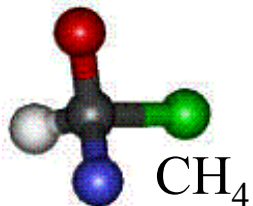
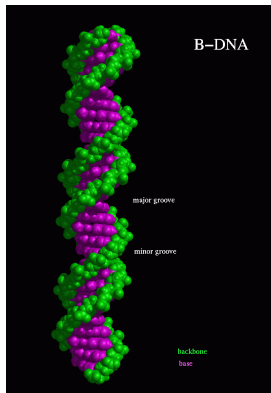


# Length Scales of Soft Matter

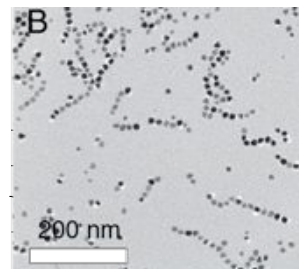
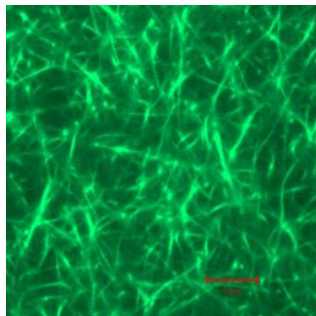


$10^{-15}\text{m}$     $10^{-12}\text{m}$     $10^{-9}\text{m}$     $10^{-6}\text{m}$     $10^{-3}\text{m}$     $10^0\text{m}$     $10^3\text{m}$     $10^6\text{m}$

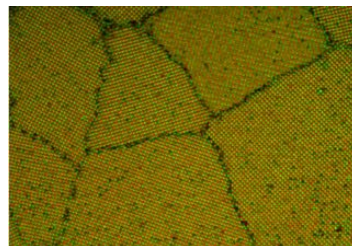
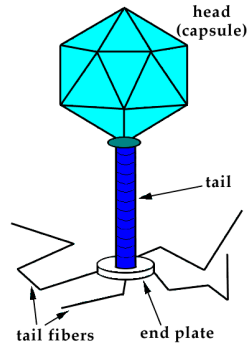
1 nm



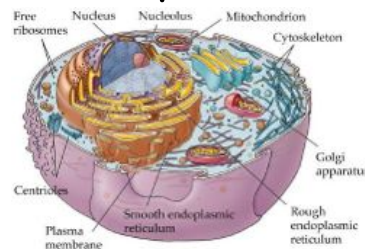
10 nm



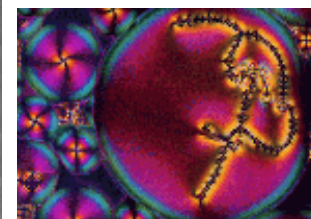
100 nm



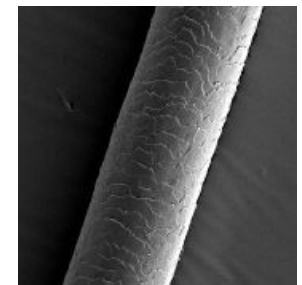
1 μm

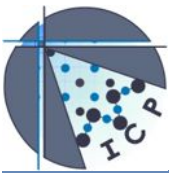


10 μm



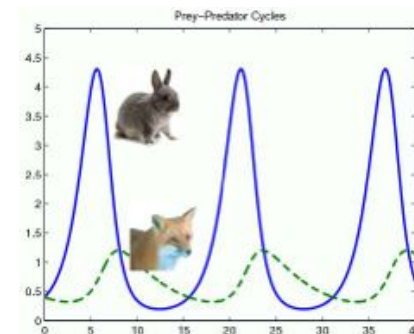
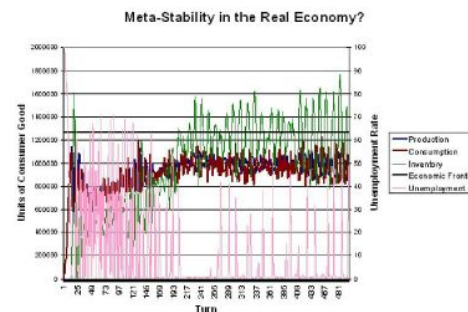
100 μm

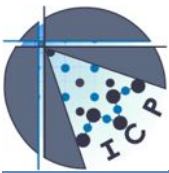




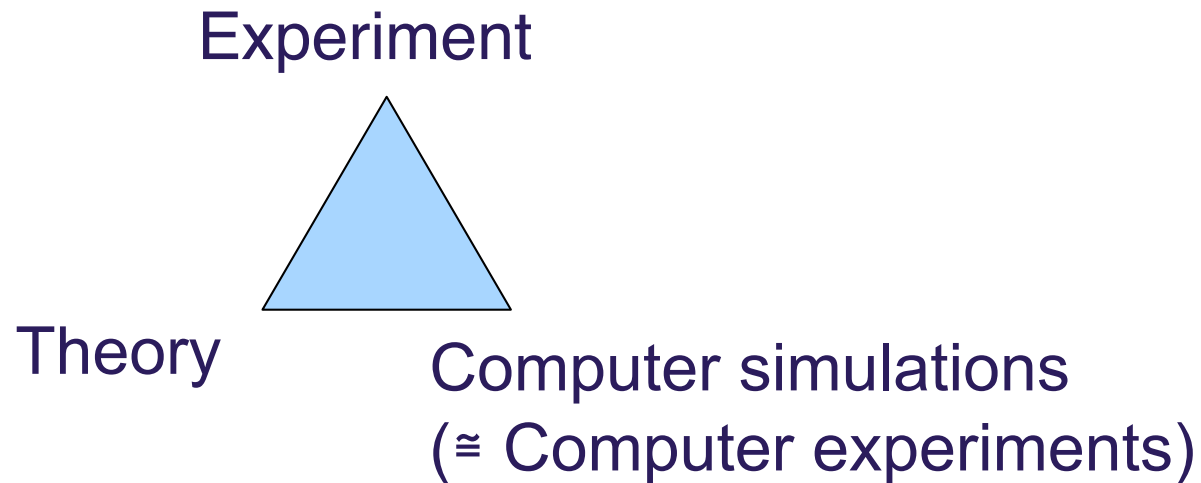
# Who needs Simulations?

- Goal: Understanding and prediction of interesting systems
- Computer science: Network simulations, “emulations” of not-yet-existing CPUs, ...
- Economy: Simulations of economical cycles
- Biology: Simulations of metabolic networks, ecological simulations (e.g. Predator-prey-systems, population dynamics)
- Physics: Simulations of quantum systems, simulations of mechanical systems, astronomical simulations, weather prediction
- Here: Physics/Chemistry/Boplogy: Simulation of Soft Matter and Bio Systems (Polymers, Fluids, Proteins, ...)





# The New Trinity of Physics

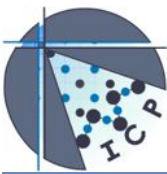


## ■ Why using simulations in physics?

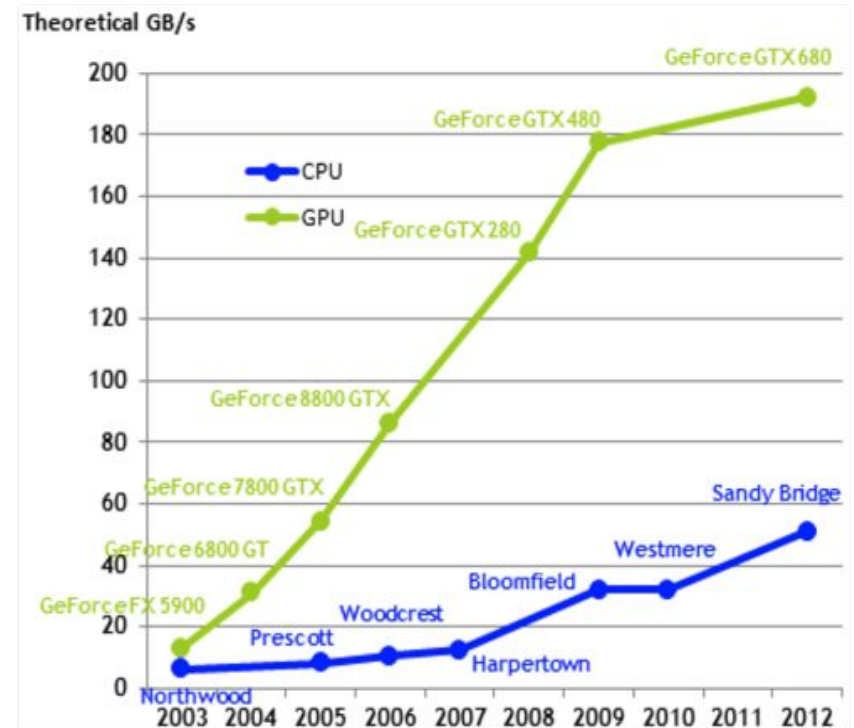
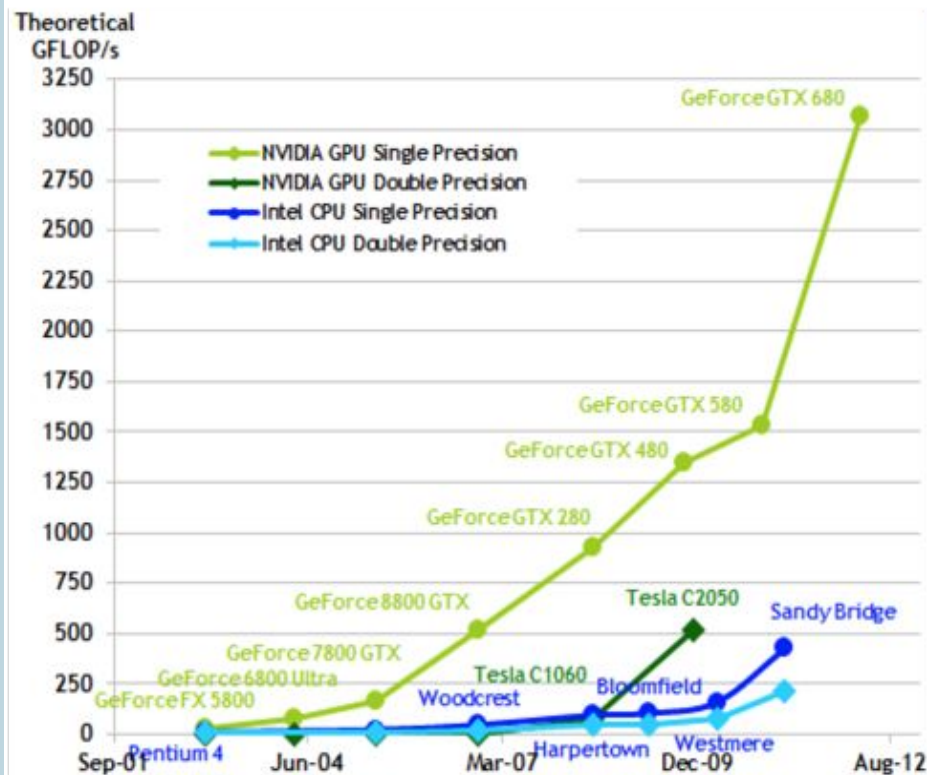
- All laws of nature can be expressed as mathematical formulas
- However, only few physical systems can be solved analytically
- Simulations can be used to numerically solve the most complex formulas and to compare them to experimental results
- System properties can be estimated without actually creating the system (cheaper, simpler, faster and/or less dangerous, well controlled)



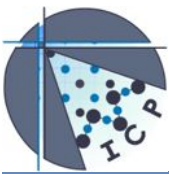
Computer power doubles every 24 months ends  
Future: computer power / 1000 Euro ?  
Need to exploit parallelism!



# other architectures (GPUs) and...



<http://developer.nvidia.com/cuda/nvidia-gpu-computing-documentation>



# ... more clever Algorithms can help!

The more powerful modern computers are, the greater is the advantage of optimal algorithms.

**Example** Consider following two algorithms ( $N$  is the input size):

$$\text{ALG1} \quad T_{CPU} \sim N^2$$

$$\text{ALG2} \quad T_{CPU} \sim N$$

In a certain time (neglecting the proportionality factors) ALG1 can run a problem 100 times larger compared to a problem 10,000 times larger by ALG2 or in other words: ALG1 takes 100 times longer!

To illustrate the power of optimal algorithms we will analyze the numerical solution of Poisson's equation on a cube of size  $N = n^3$  (table 1.1):

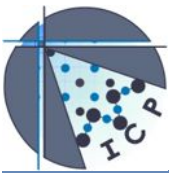
$$\nabla^2 u = f \quad (1.2)$$

Year	Method	Storage	Flops
1947	Gauss elimination	$n^3$	$n^3$
1950	Optimal Successive Overrelaxation (SOR)	$n^3$	$n^3 \lg n$
1971	Conjugated Gradient (CG)	$n^3$	$n^3.5 \lg n$
1984	Full Multigrid	$n^3$	$n^3$

Table 1.1: Algorithms for solving Poisson's equation on a cube  $N = n^3$

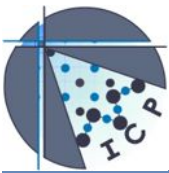
This means that for a cube of size  $n = 64$  the optimization of the algorithm will give us a reduction of flops in the order of  $n^4 \sim 17 \cdot 10^6$ !

Smart Algorithms can (and do) outperform Moore's law !!



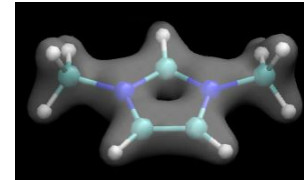
# Molecular Simulations

- In a molecular simulation, the evolution of the states of a molecular system needs to be simulated
- In principle, only a pure quantum mechanical description of such a system is *exact* (careful, even here are pitfalls! How many **exact** solutions are known?)
  - Only very small systems can be simulated on that level
  - The system has to be simplified (“coarse-grained”)
  - First step: Classical Atoms and Interactions
- Real systems have  $\sim 10^{23}$  atoms
  - A statistical description is needed
  - Only a part of a molecular system can be simulated
  - The simulated system has significant boundaries

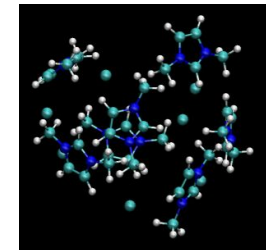


# Coarse-graining

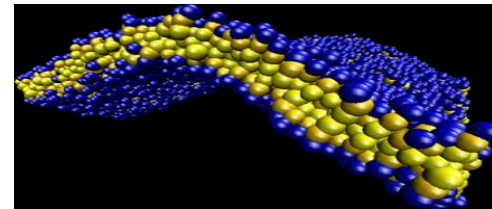
- A model consists of a number of *Degrees of Freedom* (e.g. the atom positions) and the *Interactions* between them
- *Coarse-graining*:
  - reduce the number of degrees of freedom by keeping only the “important” degrees of freedom
  - Use “effective” interactions
- Classical first step: Atoms and Interactions (*all-atom* or *atomistic*)
- Further coarse-graining is often needed and useful
- For Soft Matter we are often on the molecular and mesoscopic level



Quantum

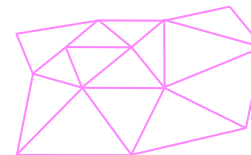
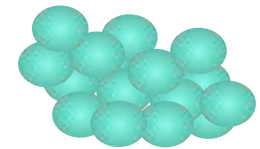


All-atom

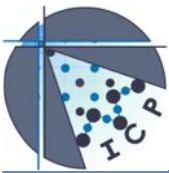


Molecular

Mesoscopic  
Fluid Methods

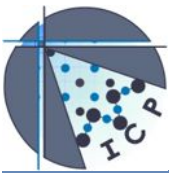


Continuum



# Computational Approaches

- **Quantum**: ab-initio QM or first principles high-level QM, PHF, MP2, Car-Parrinello MD, Born-Oppenheimer MD, TBDFT, hybrid embedded QM/MM, ...
- **Atomistic**: Classical Force Field AA MD, MC
- **Coarse-grained**: Classical DFT, Molecular Dynamics, Monte Carlo, Field theoretic methods (SCFT)
- **Mesosopic Fluid**: Lattice-Boltzmann, MPC, DPD
- **Continuum Solvers**: Computational Fluid Dynamics codes (Navier-Stokes), Poisson-Boltzmann, Lattice-Boltzmann, FEM



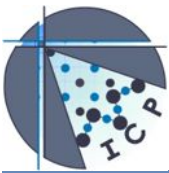
# Available Programs:

- **First principles Quantum:** TURBOMOLE, Molpro (Stuttgart), Gaussian,...
- **DFT:** CP2K, Car-Parrinello MD, Quantum Espresso, Wien2K,... Look on [www.psi-k.org](http://www.psi-k.org)
- **All-Atom:** GROMOS, GROMACS, NAMD, AMBER, CHARM, DL\_POLY, LAMMPS...
- **Coarse-grained:** DL\_POLY, LAMMPS, ESPResSo, OCTA,...
- **Continuum**
  - For PB: Delphi, APBS, UHBD
  - For FEM: DUNE, more on <http://www.cfd-online.com/Wiki/Codes>
  - Lattice-Boltzmann: openLB
  - .....much more than I can list



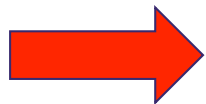
# Making Molecular Simulations

- How to make a molecular simulation?
  - Choose the system to be simulated
  - Choose the model and coarse-graining level of the simulation
  - Determine the initial state of the model
  - Simulate the model (using an appropriate algorithm and appropriate tools)
  - Analyze and interpret the results
- ➔ Executing the simulation is only a small part of the work!



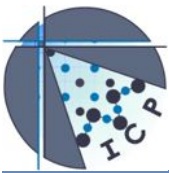
# Possible errors

- Simulations have plenty of sources for errors!
  - Errors of the boundary of the system
  - Errors of the initial state
  - Errors of the model / level of coarse-graining
  - Numerical errors (Errors of the simulation)
  - Errors of the interpretation / analysis



**Theory and experimental verifications are still needed**

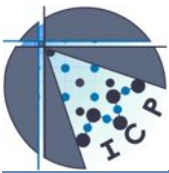
**Remember Murphy's Law!**




# What do I need to know...

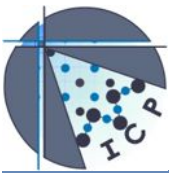
## ...before I start simulating?

- Statistical Mechanics
- Theory behind my system (i.e. Soft Matter theory)
- The program I am using (best way is to write it yourself!)
- Background of the algorithm (strength, weakness, limitations)
- Clever ways of analyzing the data



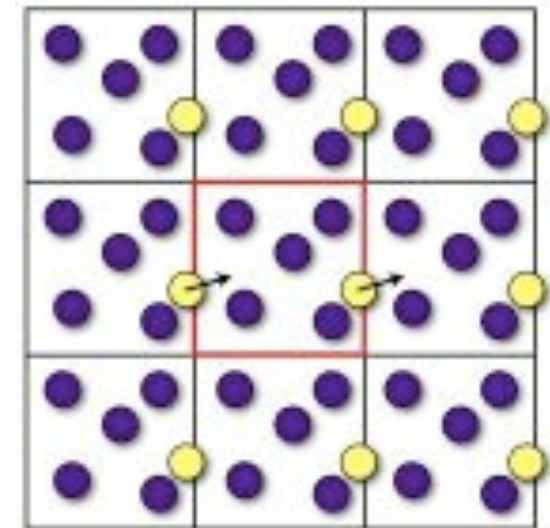
# Aim of this week long tutorial?

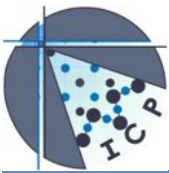
- Describe some Algorithms:
  - Long range interactions
  - CG Hydrodynamics
  - Membrane simulations (Mbtools)
  - VOTCA, AdResS, ESPResSo++
  - Some sample applications
  - ...there is much more you need to know....
- 
- 
- Bits and pieces
  - Meet developers for specific questions



# Periodic Boundary Conditions

- Simulated systems are much smaller than “real” systems
  - Boundaries make up a significant part of the system!
  - Surface/Volume not small (i.e. for  $N=1000$  the boundary makes up 49%)
- Trick: *Periodic boundary conditions*
- The simulated system has infinitely many copies of itself in all directions
- A particle at the right boundary interacts with the particle at the left boundary in the image
- *Minimum image convention*: Each particle only interacts with the closest image of another particle (i.e. interaction range  $L/2$ )
- Pseudo-infinite system without boundaries
- Significantly reduces boundary-related errors
- More tricky for long range interactions...





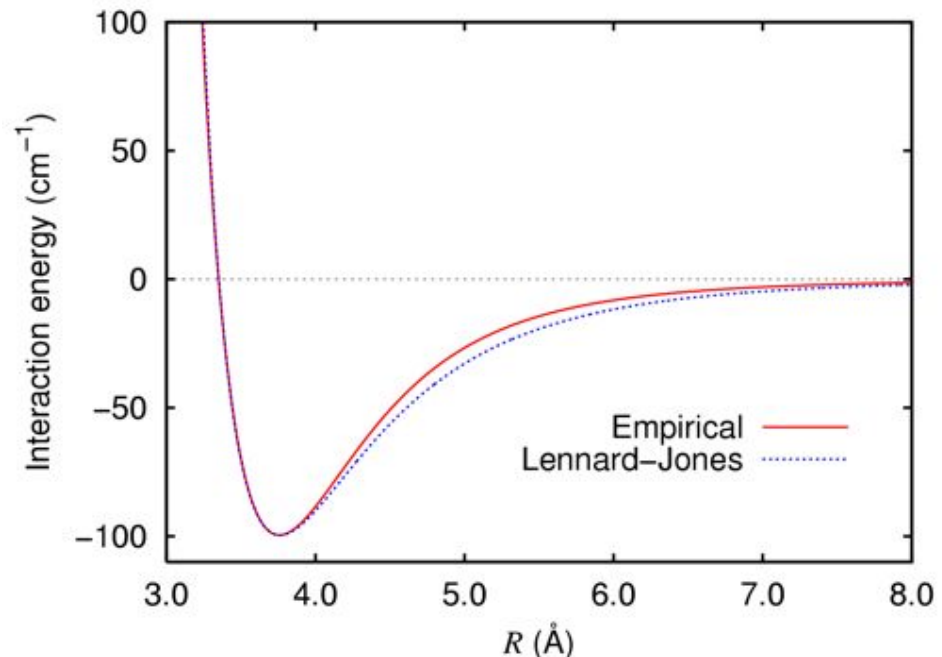
# Example: Modeling Liquid Argon

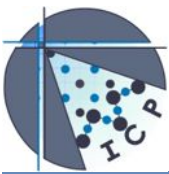
- Very simple system:
  - Noble gas: no bonds between atoms
  - Closed shell: almost spherical
- Contributions to the interaction (from QM):
  - Pauli exclusion principle: strongly repulsive core (exact functional form does not matter)
  - Van-der-Waals interaction: attractive interaction for larger distances  $\sim -1/r^6$

- Semi-empirical *Lennard-Jones-Potential*:

- $$V^{LJ}(r) = 4\epsilon \left( \left( \frac{\sigma}{r} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{\sigma}{r} \right)^6 \right)$$

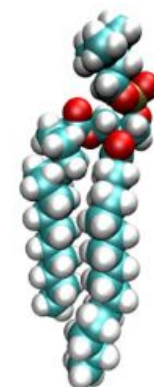
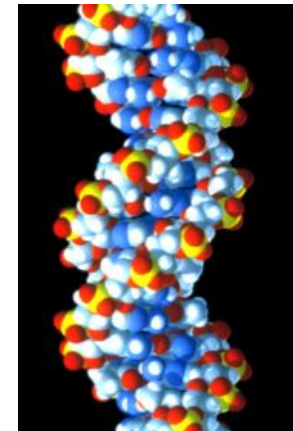
Liquid argon:  $\sigma = 3.4 \text{ \AA}$ ,  $\epsilon = 100 \text{ cm}^{-1}$

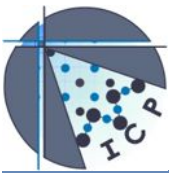




# All-Atom Models

- Most commonly used model
- Each atom is represented by one spherical particle
- A *force field (FF)* describes the interactions between the atoms and consists of
  - a set of equations
  - a long table of parameters for all atom type pairs
- For different applications, various different force fields exist (e.g. GROMOS, AMBER, OPLS, Charm... )
- The interactions can be split into two groups:
  - Non-bonded potentials: e.g. Lennard-Jones, Coulomb
  - Bonded potentials for bonded atoms





# Non-bonded Potentials

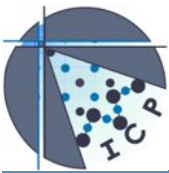
- Non-bonded potentials model the interaction between atoms that do not have bonds
- Lennard-Jones potential accounts for Pauli exclusion and van-der-Waals interaction:

$$V_{LJ}(\mathbf{r}_{ij}) = 4\epsilon_{ij} \left( \left( \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right)$$

- Coulomb interaction for charged atoms:

$$V_c(r_{ij}) = f \frac{q_i q_j}{\epsilon_r r_{ij}}$$

- Beware: The Coulomb interaction is long-ranged. This may require special measures to compute it!
- In some force fields, usually uncharged atoms can carry partial charges to account for polarization effects in certain compounds (for example water)

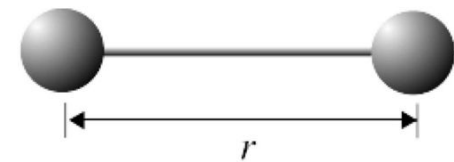


# Bonded Potentials

- Bonded potentials model the bonds between atoms
- Bond-stretching: harmonic 2-body potential models bond length:

$$V_b(r_{ij}) = \frac{1}{2}k_{ij}^b(r_{ij} - b_{ij})^2$$

- Classical spring potential!

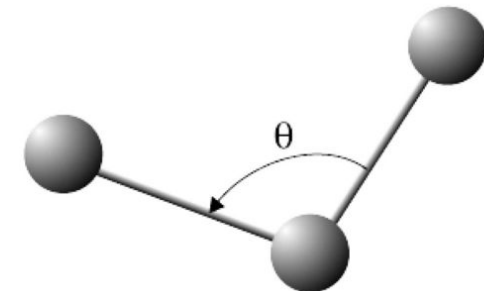


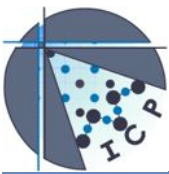
- Bond-angle potential (3-body) models bond angle:

$$V_a(\theta_{ijk}) = \frac{1}{2}k_{ijk}^\theta(\theta_{ijk} - \theta_{ijk}^0)^2$$

or

$$V_a(\theta_{ijk}) = \frac{1}{2}k_{ijk}^\theta \left( \cos(\theta_{ijk}) - \cos(\theta_{ijk}^0) \right)^2$$





# Dihedral Potentials (4-body)

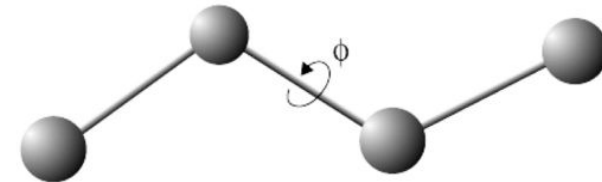
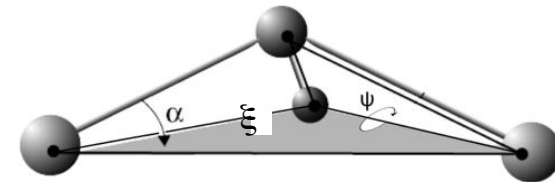
- The dihedral angle is the angle between the planes of 4 bonded atoms
- *Improper dihedrals* keep planar groups planar (e.g. aromatic rings):

$$V_{id}(\xi_{ijkl}) = k_{\xi}(\xi_{ijkl} - \xi_0)^2$$

– again: harmonic potential

- *Proper dihedrals* model cis/trans conformations:

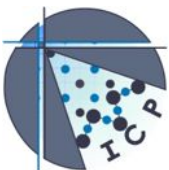
$$V_d(\phi_{ijkl}) = k_{\phi}(1 + \cos(n\phi - \phi_0))$$





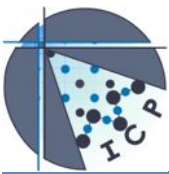
# How to find the FF parameters?

- Fit experimental data (density,  $g(r)$ , diffusion, heat of vaporization, ...)
- use QM calculations to calculate some interaction parameters
- FF work for the situation where they were parametrized, hope carries us along... (transferability)
- Combining FF parameters is non-trivial, often needs reparametrization



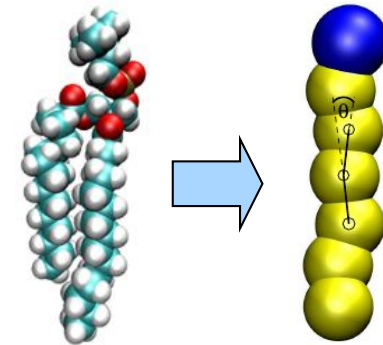
# Pros and Cons of FF

- **PRO:**
  - Fast and easy to use (practically linear scaling)
  - Visualization of microscopic behavior
  - Mechanistic insight
- **CON:**
  - Quality difficult to assess
  - Chemical reactions difficult to model
  - Orbital interactions (polarizability) often not included



# Coarse-grained Models

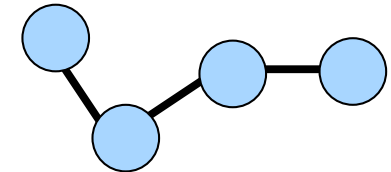
- Large and complex molecules (e.g. long polymers) can not be simulated on the all-atom level
- Requires coarse-graining of the model
- Coarse-grained models are usually also particles (beads) and interactions (springs, ...)
- A bead represents a group of atoms
- Coarse-graining a molecule is highly non-trivial, see systematic coarse-graining, VOTCA, AdResS





# Gaussian Polymer in a $\Theta$ -solvent

- Conformational properties of a Gaussian polymer in a  $\Theta$ -solvent are that of a random walk
- Basis for bead-spring model of a polymer!
- Use a harmonic potential for the bonds:

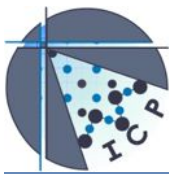


$$V_h(r) = \frac{k}{2} (r - r_0)^2$$

- We can compute the partition function exactly

$$H_0 = \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\frac{3k_B T}{b^2}}_k \sum_{i=0}^{N-1} |\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_{i+1}|^2$$

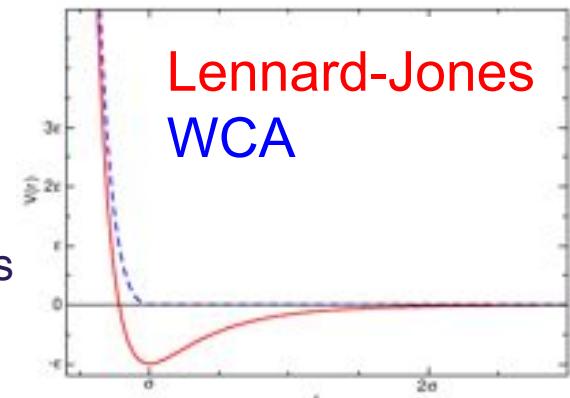
- Random walk and bead-spring model generate the same partition function!



# Gaussian Chains in Good Solvent

- $\Theta$ -solvent is a special case!
- Solvents are good or poor w.r. to the polymer
- Good solvent can be modeled via a repulsive potential
  - Use the repulsive part of Lennard-Jones (aka Weeks-Chandler-Anderson)

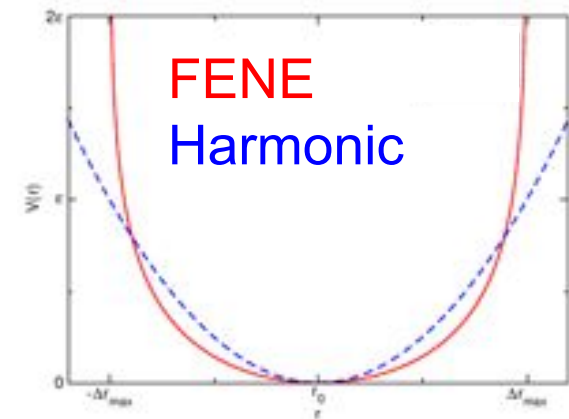
$$V_{\text{WCA}}(r) = \begin{cases} V_{\text{LJ}}(r) + \varepsilon & \text{if } r < 2^{1/6}\sigma \\ 0 & \text{, otherwise} \end{cases}$$



- FENE (Finite Extensible Nonlinear Elastic) bond

$$V_{\text{FENE}}(r) = -\frac{1}{2}\epsilon(\Delta r_{\text{max}})^2 \log\left(1 - \frac{r - r_0}{\Delta r_{\text{max}}}\right)^2$$

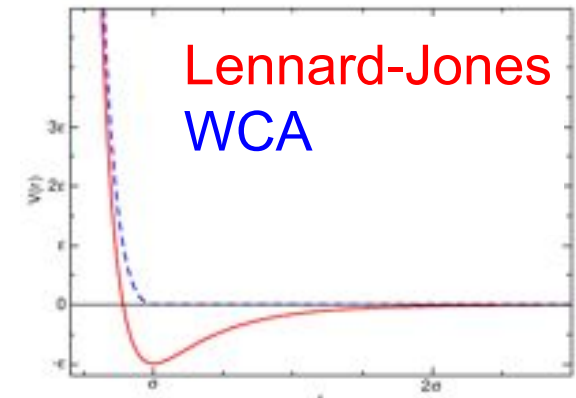
- Has a maximal extension/compression
- Very similar to harmonic potential at  $r_0$

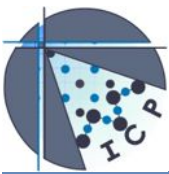




# Gaussian Chains in Poor Solvent

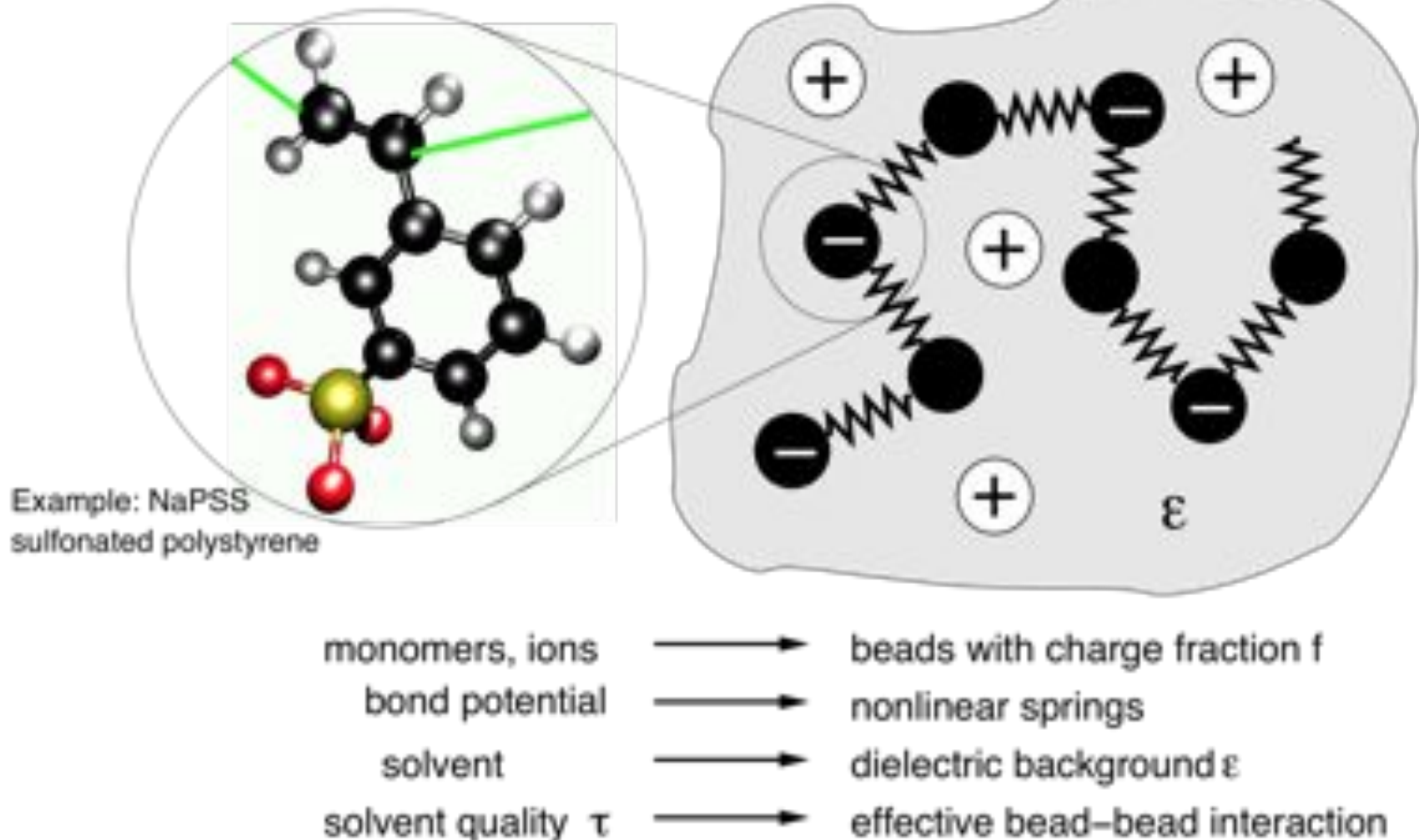
- Poor solvent can be modeled via a full Lennard-Jones potential
- Polymer monomers experience an attraction, since they want to minimize contact with solvent
- the quality of the solvent can be changed by
- varying the attraction via the interaction parameter  $\epsilon$  and the cut-off
- Scaling laws  $R \propto N^\nu$  with Flory exponent  $\nu$
- RW  $\nu = 0.5$
- SAW  $\nu = 0.588$  (3/5)
- Globule  $\nu = 1/3$
- Rod  $\nu = 1$

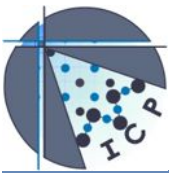




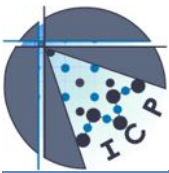
# Charged Polymers

Mapping onto a bead-spring model





# Molecular Dynamics



# Newton's Equations of Motion

- Basic idea of Molecular Dynamics (MD):
  - The system consists of point particles and interactions (e.g. atoms and their interactions)
  - Solve the classical equations of motion for the particles on the computer:

$$\vec{F}_i = m\vec{a}_i$$

or

$$\ddot{\vec{x}}_i = \frac{f(\vec{x}_i)}{m}$$

- Can be applied to a wide range of problems:
  - Molecular systems (gases, fluids, polymers, proteins, liquid crystals, ...)
  - Granular materials (sand, sugar, salt, ...)
  - Planetary motion
  - Nuclear missiles
  - ...



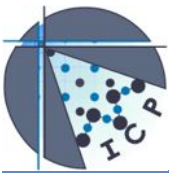
# Euler's Method of Integration

- Numerical integration: discretize in time, time-step  $\Delta t$
- Use finite differences:

$$\frac{\partial f(x)}{\partial x} = \frac{f(x + \varepsilon) - f(x)}{\varepsilon}$$

- Taylor expand  $x(t + \Delta t)$

$$x(t + \Delta t) = x(t) + v(t) \cdot \Delta t + \frac{f(x(t))}{2m} \cdot \Delta t^2 + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^3)$$



# Euler's Method of Integration

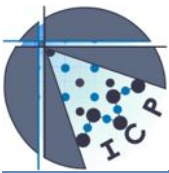
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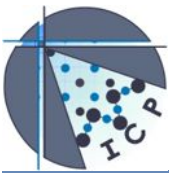
- Truncate at higher order terms!
  - Positions in the next time-step can be computed!
  - Simplest integration method, least accurate



# Estimating the Time-step

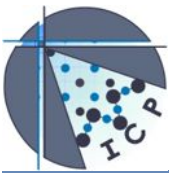
- How large should the time-step  $\Delta t$  be?
- It should not cause numerical instabilities of the integration algorithm
- It should allow to observe the collision of two particles
- Rule of thumb: Particles should move maximally  $\sim 1/10$  of the particle diameter  $d$  per time-step
- Time-step depends on the maximal velocity  $v_{max}$

$$\Delta t \approx \frac{d}{10} \cdot \frac{1}{v_{max}}$$



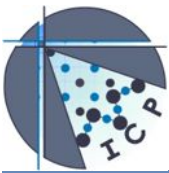
# Required Iterations

	Atoms / Molecules	Granular matter	Astro- physics
Diameter $d$	$10^{-10}$ m	$10^{-3}$ m	$10^7$ m
Maximal velocity $V_{max}$	10 m/s	1 m/s	$10^8$ m/s
Time-step $\Delta t$	$10^{-12}$ s	$10^{-4}$ s	$10^{-2}$ s
Wanted simulation time	1s	$10^2$ s	$10^{13}$ s
Required Iterations	$10^{12}$	$10^6$	$10^{15}$



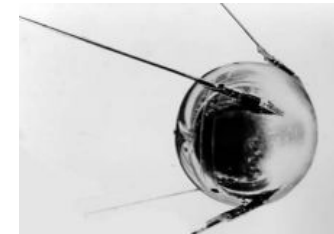
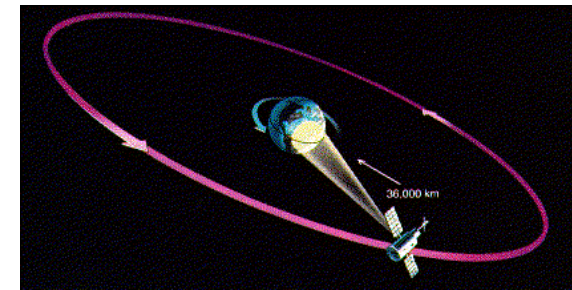
# Good Integration Algorithms

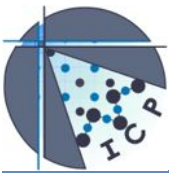
- What is a good integration algorithm?
  - Easy to implement, fast to compute
  - Numerically stable for large time-steps to allow for long simulations
  - Trajectory should be reproducible
  - Should conserve energy, linear and angular momentum



# Short-time Stability

- Depending on the problem at hand, different properties of the integration algorithm are important
- For some systems, it is important that the algorithm has a minimal error in the trajectory (“short-time stable”) (e.g. satellite orbits)
- Note that the error in the trajectory always grows exponentially over time due to positive Lyapunov exponents





# Long-time Stability

- In molecular simulations, we want to compute statistical averages (i.e. *ensemble averages*) of observables
- MD uses the *Ergodic hypothesis*:  
$$\langle A \rangle_{\text{trajectory}} = \langle A \rangle_{\text{ensemble}}$$
- Accurate trajectories are not important
- Instead, the correct physical ensemble should be described throughout the simulation:
  - Conservation of energy, linear and angular momentum
  - Time-reversibility
  - (In fact: conservation of phase space)
- Integrators that do this are “long-time stable” (or “symplectic”)



# Verlet Algorithm

- *Verlet Integrator* (1967) is more accurate than Euler's method, and it is long-time stable(!)
- To derive it, Taylor expand  $x(t)$  forward and backward in time

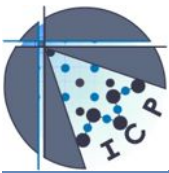
$$x(t + \Delta t) = x(t) + v(t)\Delta t + \frac{f(t)}{2m}\Delta t^2 + \frac{\partial^3 x}{3!\partial t^3}\Delta t^3 + O(\Delta t^4)$$

$$x(t - \Delta t) = x(t) - v(t)\Delta t + \frac{f(t)}{2m}\Delta t^2 - \frac{\partial^3 x}{3!\partial t^3}\Delta t^3 + O(\Delta t^4)$$

- This results in

$$x(t + \Delta t) = 2x(t) - x(t - \Delta t) + \frac{f(t)}{2m}\Delta t^2 + O(\Delta t^4)$$

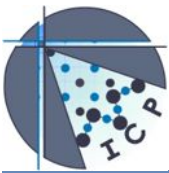
- Straightforward algorithm, long-time stable
- Bootstrapping problem: Requires  $x(t - \Delta t)$  for the initial step



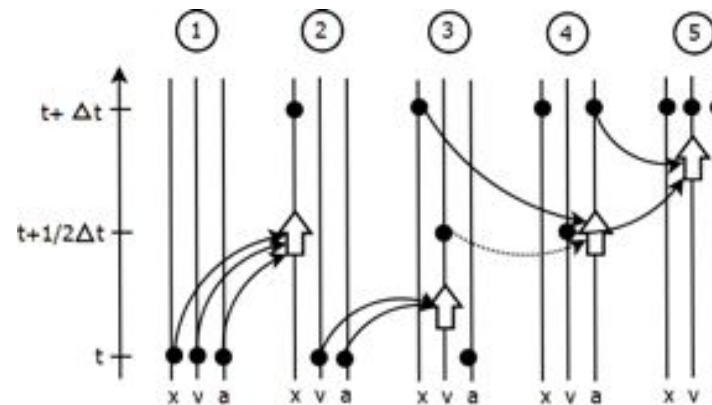
# Velocity Verlet Algorithm

$$\begin{aligned}x(t + \Delta t) &= x(t) + v(t)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}a(t)\Delta t^2 \\v(t + \Delta t) &= v(t) + \frac{a(t) + a(t + \Delta t)}{2}\Delta t\end{aligned}$$

- Mathematically equivalent to Verlet algorithm
  - Same accuracy  $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^4)$
  - No bootstrapping problem
  - Requires initial velocities instead
  - Symplectic- preserves shadow Hamiltonian
- Standard algorithm for MD simulations of atomistic and molecular systems

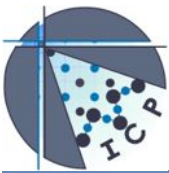


# Velocity Verlet in Practice



- Start with  $x(t), v(t), a(t)$
- Calculate new positions:  $x(t + \Delta t) = x(t) + v(t)\Delta t + \frac{1}{2}a(t)\Delta t^2$
- Calculate intermediate velocities:  $v(t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t) = v(t) + \frac{1}{2}a(t)\Delta t$
- Compute the new acceleration  $a(t + \Delta t)$
- Compute the new velocities:

$$v(t + \Delta t) = v(t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t) + \frac{1}{2}a(t + \Delta t)\Delta t$$



# Higher order algorithms

- For problems that require short-time stable behavior for example higher order Runge-Kutta methods can be utilized
- Example (4<sup>th</sup> order Runge-Kutta):

$$\begin{aligned}v_1 &= v(t) + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t \frac{f(x(t))}{m} \\x_1 &= \Delta t v(t) \\v_2 &= v(t) + \Delta t \frac{f(x(t) + \frac{x_1}{2})}{m} \\x_2 &= \Delta t v_1 \\v_3 &= v(t) + \Delta t \frac{f(x(t) + \frac{x_2}{2})}{m} \\x_3 &= \Delta t v_2 \\x_4 &= \Delta t v_3\end{aligned}$$

$$x(t + \Delta t) = x(t) + \frac{x_1}{6} + \frac{x_2}{3} + \frac{x_3}{3} + \frac{x_4}{6} + \mathcal{O}(\Delta t^5)$$



# MD in various Ensembles

- Equations of motion are energy conserving
  - NVE (microcanonical) ensemble
- Dynamics can be modified to yield other ensembles:
  - NVT: canonical ensemble
  - NPT: isothermal – isobaric
  - $\mu$ PT: Gibbs ensemble
- Often achieved via changing the equations of motions (i.e. barostats, thermostats,...)
- Methods that go beyond standard MD are often needed

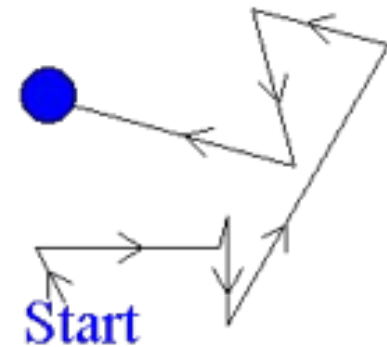


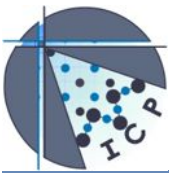
# Langevin Dynamics

- Simulated molecules are usually not in vacuum. Air or solvent molecules collide constantly with the molecules, leading to Brownian motion
- Simulating all solvent particles would be tedious and time consuming
- *Langevin Dynamics (LD)* models solvent kicks via a random force and a friction:

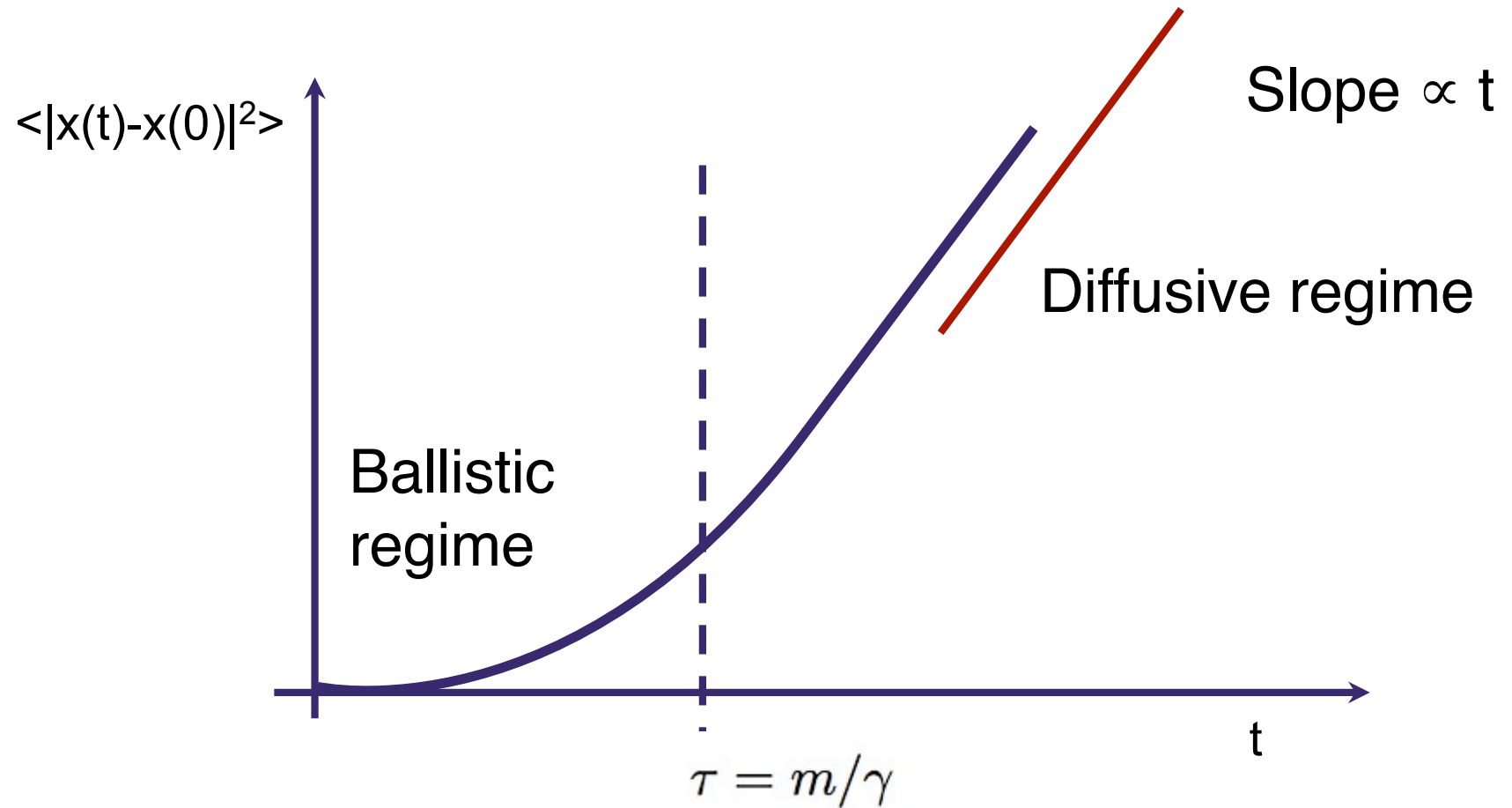
$$m_i \ddot{\vec{r}}_i = -\nabla V(\{\vec{r}_i\}) - \underbrace{\Gamma \dot{\vec{r}}_i}_{\text{Drag force}} + \underbrace{\xi_i(t)}_{\text{random force}}$$

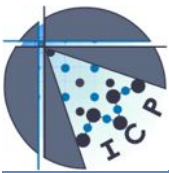
- Nice side-effect: LD thermalizes the system (simulates constant temperature, NVT ensemble)





# Mean-squared deviation (MSD) in a Langevin Simulation





# Advanced MD Techniques

- Parallel tempering
- Metadynamics, Wang-Landau sampling
- Widom insertion
- Flux forward sampling / Transition path sampling / other rare event techniques
- Expanded ensemble techniques
- Umbrella sampling
- Steered MD
- MC/MD hybrids.... and many more...

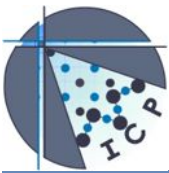


# MD versus Monte-Carlo (MC)

- Properties of Monte-Carlo as compared to Molecular Dynamics:
  - Does not (easily) allow to observe dynamics
  - Easier to implement
  - Harder to parallelize
  - No time-step required
  - Good random number generator required
  - Faster for some systems (special moves!)
  - Often need physical insight to select good MC moves

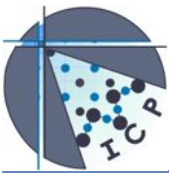


# Some historical remarks



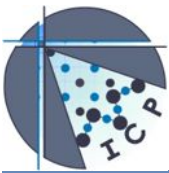
# ESPResSo at MPI-P in Mainz

- **Pre 1:** 1998 U. Micka (Fortran Basis, PME)
- **Pre 2:** 1998 M. Deserno (polymd, P3M)
- **Pre 3:** 1999 M. Puetz (fast, parallel, no electrostatics, P++)
- 2000 T. Soddemann (extensions on P++)
- 1999 -2001 H.J. Limbach (P++ plus P3M)
- 1998 – 2002 A. Arnold (VMD, more electrostatics routines)



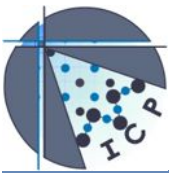
# History of ESPResSo

- Start in 2001 Codename „TCL\_MD“  
Effort to create an efficiently parallized MD code with P3M (Coulomb interactions), extensible-flexible research tool
- Heinz-Billing Prize 2003 => ESPResSo  
(release party 25.4.2003)
- Early 2005 => paper ready  
H. J. Limbach and A. Arnold and B. A. Mann and C. Holm *ESPResSo - An Extensible Simulation Package for Research on Soft Matter Systems*, Comp. Phys. Comm. **174** 704-727, 2006.



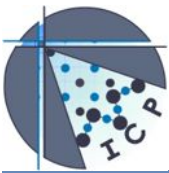
# Initial a pep effort (2004)





# Initial a pep effort (2004)





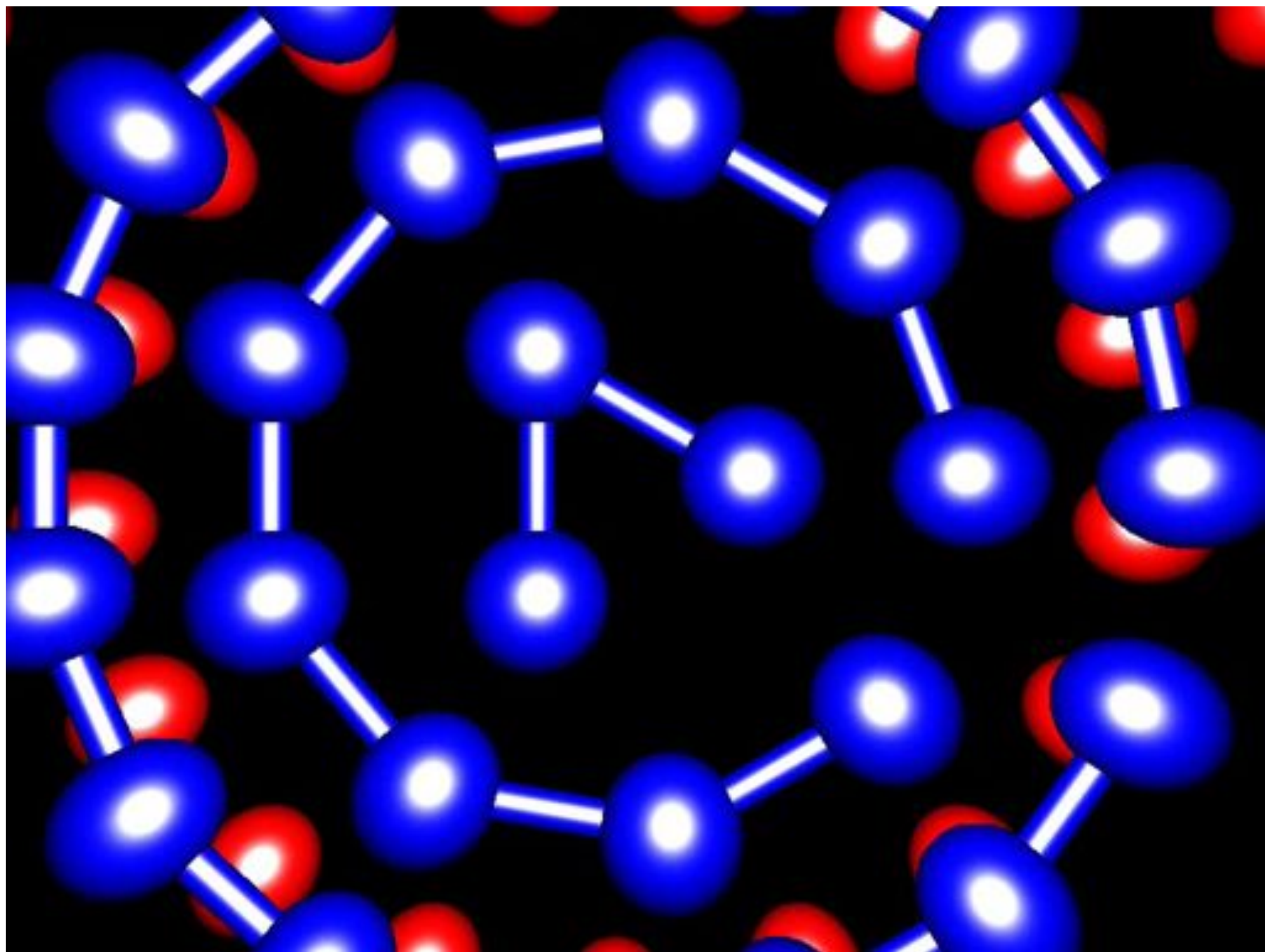
# It soon aquired more people for a lift-off

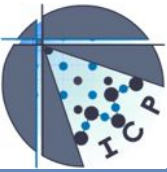




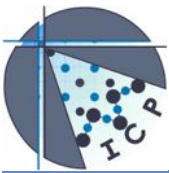
It soon aquired more people for a lift-off







Ready for Star Wars??



# The END



Thank you for your attention