

# Spatial Boundary Conditions

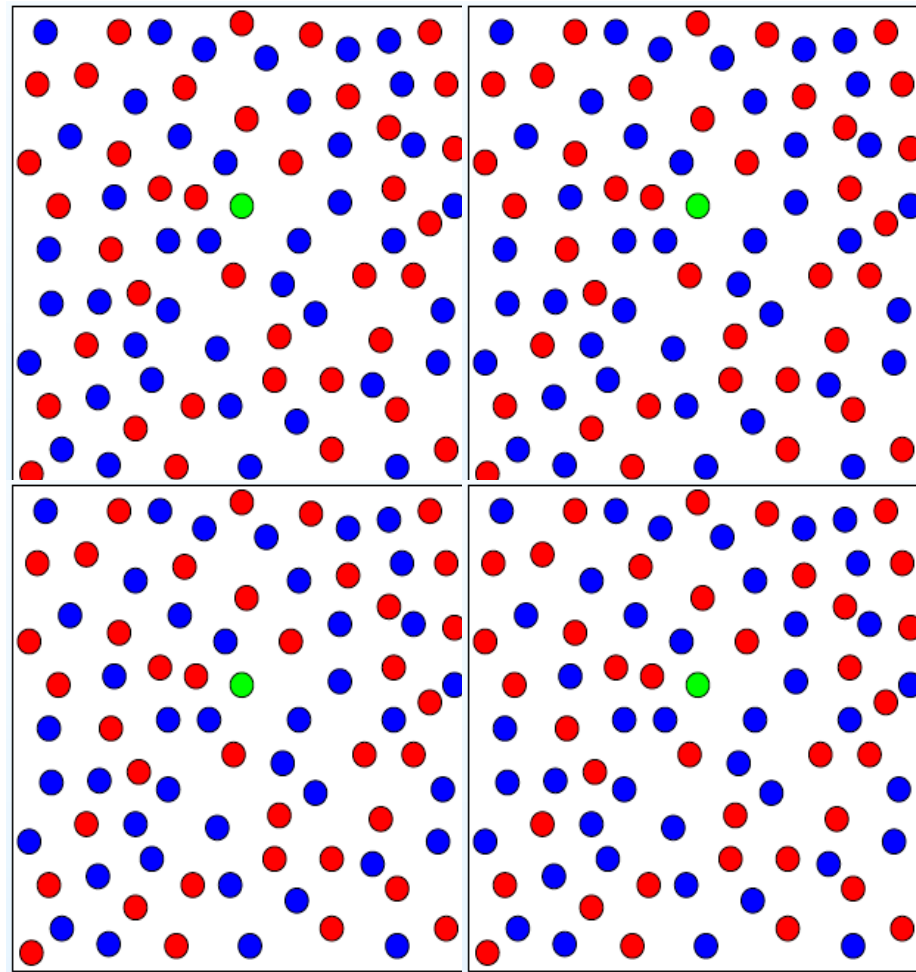
Important because spatial scales are limited.

What BC can we choose? There are different possibilities:

- **Free boundaries:** e.g. droplet, protein in vacuum.
  - If droplet has 1 million =  $(10^3)^3$  atoms and surface layer is 5 atoms thick, then *25% of atoms are on the surface.*
- **Periodic boundaries:** most popular choice because there are no surfaces (see next slide) but there can still be problems.
- Simulations on a sphere
- External potentials
- Mixed boundaries (e.g. free in  $z$ , periodic in  $x$  and  $y$ )
- **Coupled boundaries:** “embed” simulation in another through additional forces, constraints, displacements...

# Why use Periodic Boundary Conditions?

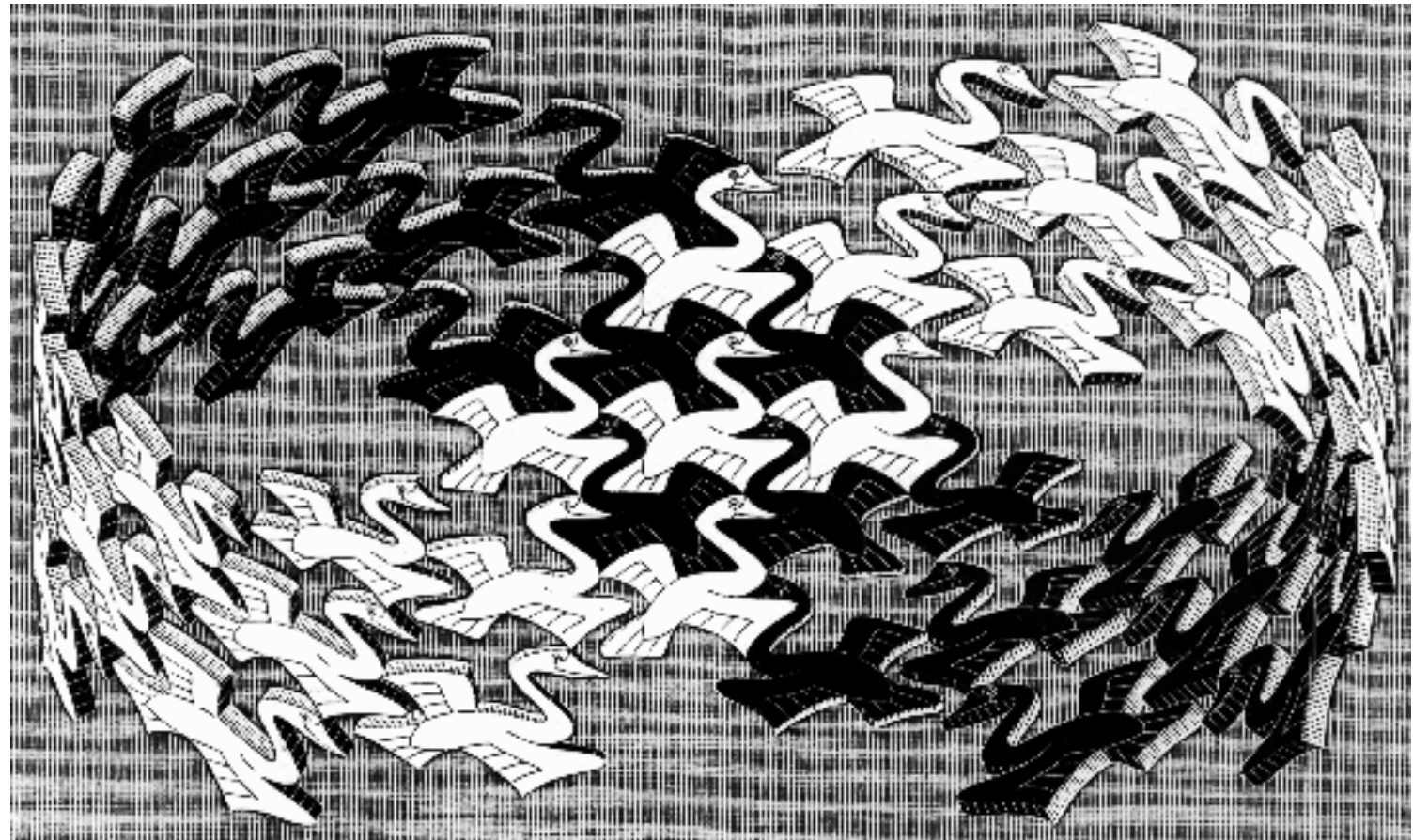
- Macroscopic systems  $O(10^{23})$  particles.
- We eliminate **surfaces** from simulation.
- Allows us to get at **bulk properties with few particles**.
- Applied to solids, liquids, gases, and plasmas.
- Some finite-size effects remain, but can often be removed with **scaling**.



# Periodic Boundary Conditions

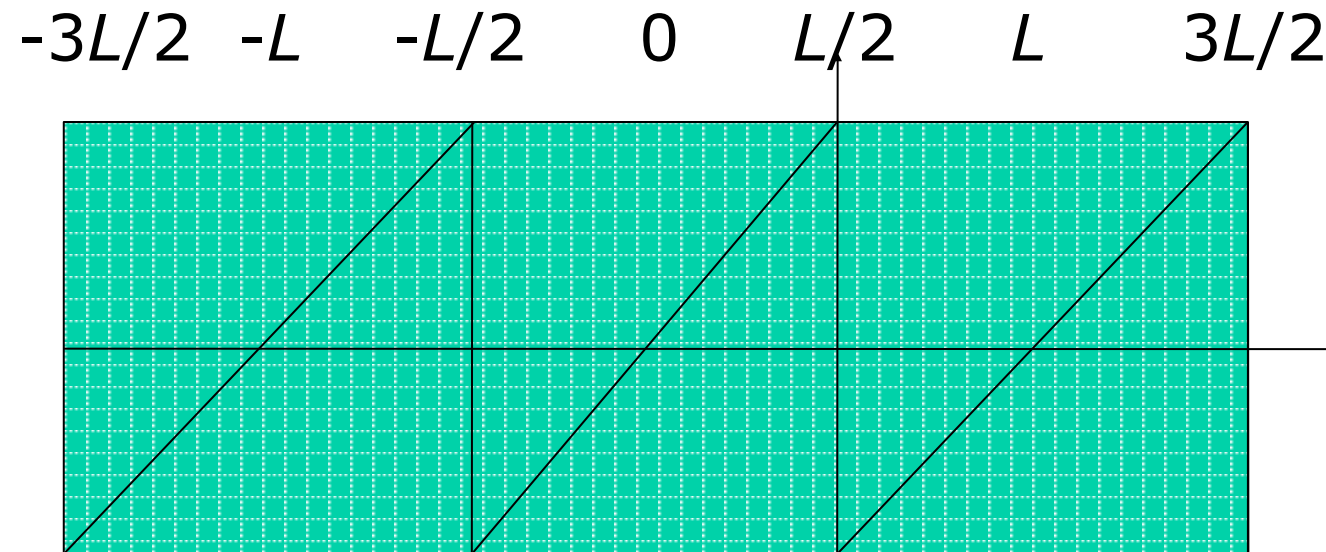
Is the system periodic or just an infinite array of images?

How do you calculate distances in periodic system?



# Periodic distances

**Minimum Image Convention:** Take the closest distance  $|r|_M = \min (r+nL)$



How to handle the “tail” of the potential:

- **Potential cutoff :**  $V_c(r) = 0$  for  $r > r_c$ 
  - continuous potential:  $V_c(r) = V(r) - V(r_c)$  for  $r \leq r_c$
  - continuous pot. and F:  $V_c(r) = V(r) - V(r_c) - \nabla V(r_c) \cdot (r - r_c)$  for  $r \leq r_c$
- **Image potential:** 
$$V_{\text{image}}(r_i - r_j) = \sum_n V(r_i - r_j + nL)$$

For long-range potential this leads to the **Ewald image potential**.

You need a charge background and convergence factor (more later)

# Lennard-Jones Force calculation

```
for i in range(Natoms):
    for j in range(i+1,Natoms):
        dx=x[i]-x[j]          # this will be a vector if x&y are array
        for d in range(3):    # more clever ways to do this?
            if dx[d]>L[d]/2:   dx[d] -= L[d]
            if dx[d]<-L[d]/2:  dx[d] += L[d]
        r2 = sum(dx*dx)        # dx[0]*dx[0]+dx[1]*dx[1]+dx[2]*dx[2]
        if r2>rcutoff2: continue # outside of cutoff distance^2
        r2i = sigma/r2
        r6i = r2i**3
        pot += eps4*r6i*(r6i-1) - potcut
        rforce = eps24*r6i*r2i*(2*r6i-1)
        F[i] = F[i] + rforce*dx # F[i] and dx are vectors!
        F[j] = F[j] - rforce*dx
```

We can do better with the PBC! rewrite as a remainder of division

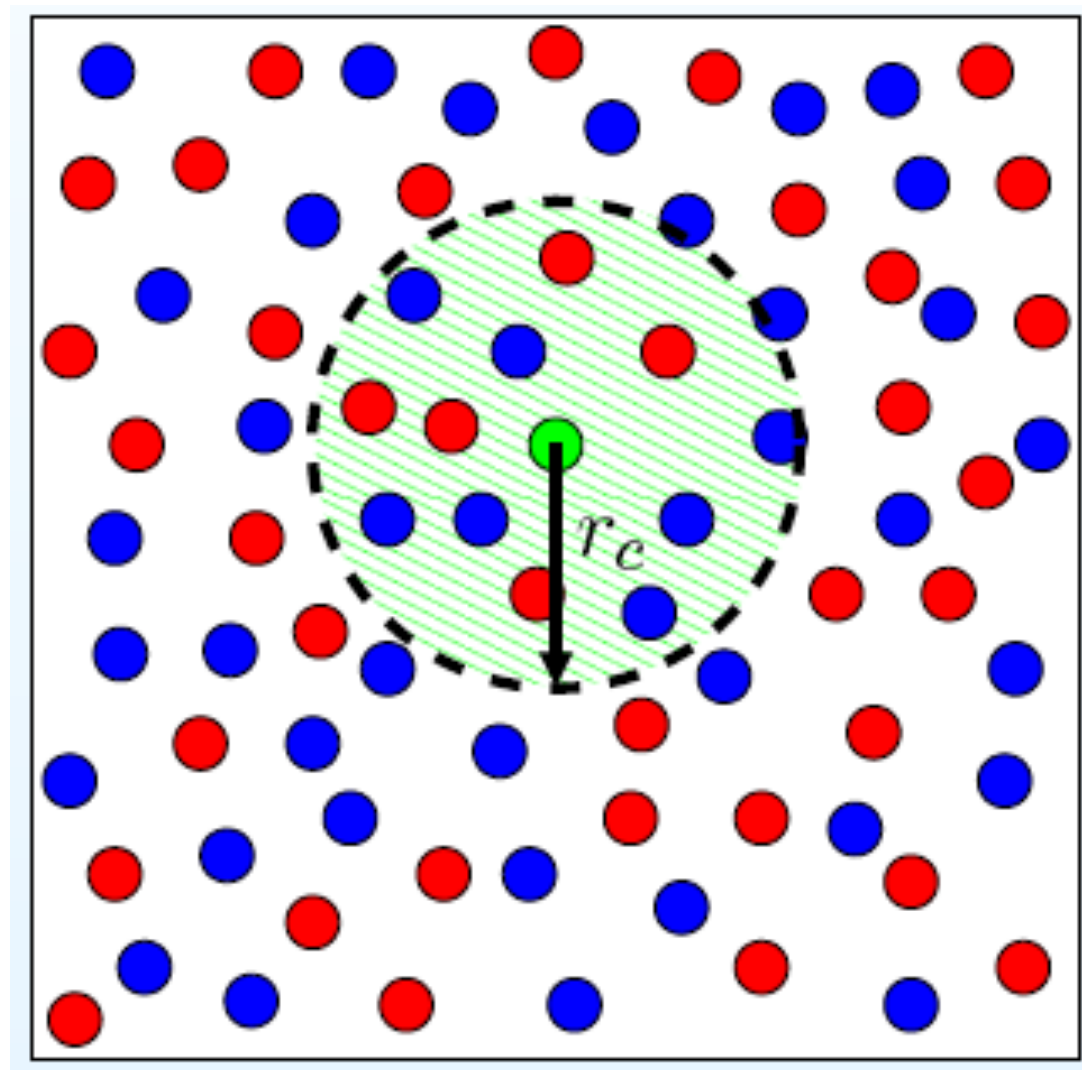
Need to initialize forces and potential: `F.fill(0)`, `pot=0`

# Complexity of Force Calculations

- Complexity is defined as how a computer algorithm scales with the number of degrees of freedom (atoms).
- Number of terms in pair potential is  $N(N-1)/2 \approx O(N^2)$
- For short-range  $V(r)$ , use **neighbor tables** to reduce it to  $O(N)$ .
  - **Explicit Neighbor list (Verlet)** for systems that move slowly (keep a list and update occasionally.)
  - **Bin Sort list** (sort particles into bins and sum over neighboring bins)
- Long-range potentials require more sophisticated treatment:
  - **Ewald sums** are  $O(N^{3/2})$
  - **Fast Multipole Algorithms** are  $O(N)$ , for very large  $N$ .
  - Tree Methods
- More later...

# Neighbor Lists: $O(N^2)$ to $O(N)$

- **Pair Potentials:** If  $V_c(r) = 0$  for  $r > r_c$  (i.e., short-ranged), then
  - Number of computations of the potential is  $mN$ , where  $m$  is average number of neighbors inside  $r_c$  and is independent of system size!
  - So, once we have the **neighbor table**, the calculation is  $O(N)$ !
- Constructing Neighbor Tables:
- $O(N^2)$ , must check if particles fall inside each other's radius.
- only have to reconstruct the table occasionally.

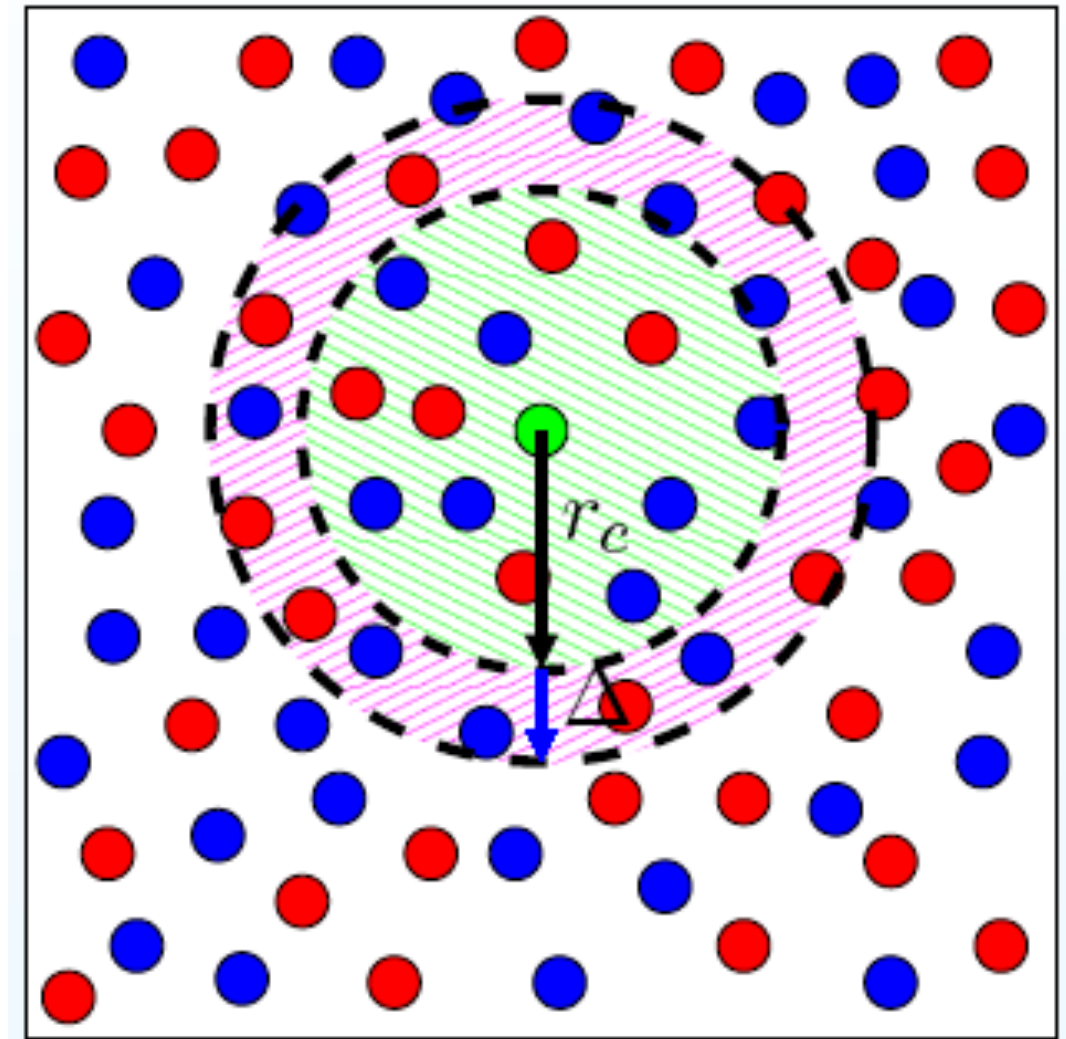


# An example neighbor table

| Neighbors | Particles |    |    |    |    |     |
|-----------|-----------|----|----|----|----|-----|
|           | 1         | 2  | 3  | 4  | 5  | 6   |
|           | 6         | 45 | 9  | 15 | 19 | 1   |
|           | 34        | 57 | 16 | 43 | 31 | 3   |
|           | 17        | 16 | 25 | 36 | 14 | 19  |
|           | 29        | 10 | 61 | 13 | 59 | 40  |
|           | 12        | 8  | 58 | 7  | 63 | 21  |
|           | 18        |    | 12 | 27 | 26 | 64  |
|           | 47        |    | 30 | 38 |    | 39  |
|           | 19        |    | 21 |    |    | 23  |
|           |           |    | 51 |    |    | 14  |
|           |           |    |    |    |    | ... |

# Maintaining neighbor Lists: use skin depth

- Cut off table at  $r_c + \Delta$  (skin depth).
  - allows a particle to move a while before new table needed.
- Keep track of the two largest distances traveled,  $d_1$  and  $d_2$ ,
- when  $d_1 + d_2 \geq \Delta$  get new table.
- Choose  $\Delta$  to optimize efficiency
  - As  $\Delta$  decreases, fewer neighbors and force evaluations.
  - As  $\Delta$  increases, need to calculate neighbor table less often.  $O(N^2)$  operation.
  - Dynamically optimize  $\Delta$  by fitting  $t(\Delta)$  to a polynomial and minimizing.



# Improvements: the Cell Method

- divide box into cells of size  $L > r_c + \Delta$ .
  - Need only particle's own and neighboring cells.
- table construction is  $O(N)$ !
- To find neighbors use a linked list
- Memory is also  $N$  (not  $mN$ )

