

Introduction to Computational Physics

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Course Information

- ▶ Every Thursday at 14.15, online only
- ▶ GitHub link: <https://github.com/jakryd/0800-fizobl/>
- ▶ Slack group: [ncu-students/0800-fizobl-21](#)
- ▶ Zoom meeting ID: [208 317 2371](#)
- ▶ Exams take place in June 2021

Outline

Part 1. Statistical Mechanics

- ▶ Probability
- ▶ Phase space
- ▶ Thermodynamic equilibrium
- ▶ Statistical ensembles

Part 2. Monte Carlo Methods

- ▶ Sampling probability distributions
- ▶ Importance sampling

Part 3. Molecular Dynamics

- ▶ Verlet integrator
- ▶ Force and energy

Outline

Part 4. Enhanced Sampling

- ▶ Rare events
- ▶ Collective variables
- ▶ Free energy

Part 5. Nonequilibrium Statistical Physics

Part 6. Machine Learning

- ▶ Connection between machine learning and statistical physics
- ▶ Unsupervised learning

Literature

- ▶ M. E. Tuckerman, *Statistical Mechanics: Theory and Simulation*, Oxford University Press (2016).
- ▶ D. Chandler, *Introduction to Modern Statistical Mechanics*, Oxford University Press (1987).
- ▶ R. K. Patria, P. D. Beale, *Statistical Mechanics*, Elsevier (2011).
- ▶ M. Toda, R. Kubo, N. Saito, *Statistical Physics I: Equilibrium Statistical Mechanics*, Springer-Verlag (1983).
- ▶ R. Kubo, M. Toda, N. Hashitsume, *Statistical Physics II: Nonequilibrium Statistical Mechanics*, Springer-Verlag (1991).

Statistical Mechanics

Probability

- ▶ Probability is the language of statistical mechanics.
- ▶ Fundamental to the understanding of quantum mechanics.
- ▶ The large number of degrees of freedom of a macroscopic system make it necessary to use statistics.

Probability

Random Variable

A random variable \mathbf{X} is completely defined by the range of values it can take, and its probability distribution $p_{\mathbf{X}}(x_1, \dots, x_k)$. The value $p_{\mathbf{X}}$ is the probability that the random variable \mathbf{X} takes the value $\mathbf{x} = (x_1, \dots, x_k)$.

- ▶ Note that $p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) \equiv \mathbb{P}[\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}]$.
- ▶ From now on we write $p(\mathbf{x})$ to denote $p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$.
- ▶ $p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x})$ is non-negative and satisfies the normalization condition:

$$\int d\mathbf{x} p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) = 1. \quad (1)$$

- ▶ The expectation value of $f(\mathbf{X})$ (or average) is denoted by:

$$\mathbb{E}[f] = \int d\mathbf{x} p_{\mathbf{X}}(\mathbf{x}) f(\mathbf{x}). \quad (2)$$

Probability

Gaussian Random Variable $\mathbf{X} \sim \mathcal{N}(\boldsymbol{\mu}, \boldsymbol{\Sigma})$

A continuous variable $\mathbf{X} \in \mathbb{R}^k$ has a Gaussian distribution of mean $\boldsymbol{\mu}$ and variance $\boldsymbol{\sigma}^2$ if its probability density is:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\exp\left(-\frac{1}{2}(\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})^T \boldsymbol{\Sigma}^{-1} (\mathbf{x} - \boldsymbol{\mu})\right)}{\sqrt{(2\pi)^k \det(\boldsymbol{\Sigma})}}. \quad (3)$$

We have $\mathbb{E}[\mathbf{X}] = \boldsymbol{\mu}$ and $\text{Var}[\mathbf{X}] = \boldsymbol{\Sigma}$.

Probability

- The *entropy* of a random variable \mathbf{X} with probability distribution $p(\mathbf{x})$ is defined as:

$$H_{\mathbf{X}} \equiv - \int d\mathbf{x} p(\mathbf{x}) \log p(\mathbf{x}), \quad (4)$$

where we define $0 \log 0 = 0$.¹

- Entropy $H_{\mathbf{X}}$ is a measure of uncertainty of the random variable \mathbf{X} .

¹Units for \log_2 : bits and \log_e : nats

Probability

Examples

A fair coin has two values with equal probability. Its entropy is 1 bit.

Consider throwing M fair coins: the number of all possible outcomes is 2^M . The entropy equals M bits.

Bernoulli process. A Bernoulli random variable X can take two values 0, 1 with probabilities $p(0) = q$ and $p(1) = 1 - q$. Its entropy is:

$$H_X = -q \log q - (1 - q) \log(1 - q). \quad (5)$$

The entropy vanishes for $q = 0$ or $q = 1$ because the outcome is certain.

Probability

- The Kullback-Leibler (KL) divergence (or the relative entropy) measures a statistical distance between $p(x)$ and $q(x)$. It is defined as:

$$D_{\text{KL}}(q\|p) \equiv \int dx q(x) \log \frac{q(x)}{p(x)}. \quad (6)$$

- $D_{\text{KL}}(q\|p)$ is convex in $q(x)$,
- $D_{\text{KL}}(q\|p) \geq 0$,
- and $D_{\text{KL}}(q\|p) = 0$ if $q(x) = p(x)$.
- Not symmetric: $D_{\text{KL}}(q\|p) \neq D_{\text{KL}}(p\|q)$.

Dirac δ function

- $\delta(x) = 0$ if $x \neq 0$ and $\delta(x) \rightarrow \infty$ (undefined) if $x = 0$
- $\int_{-\epsilon}^{\epsilon} dx \delta(x) = 1$ for all $\epsilon > 0$
- Gaussian model:

$$\delta_\sigma(x) = \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}} \quad (7)$$

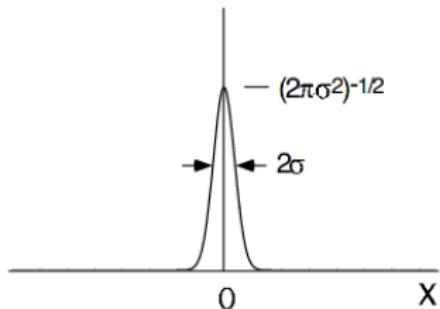


Figure 1: Gaussian model for the Dirac δ function.

Dirac δ function

- δ function times any arbitrary function $f(x)$ is:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta(x) f(x) = f(0). \quad (8)$$

- Other models for δ function include Fourier integral:

$$\delta_\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dk e^{ikx - |\sigma|k}, \quad (9)$$

and scaled sinc:

$$\delta_\sigma(x) = \frac{1}{\pi\sigma} \text{sinc}(x/\sigma). \quad (10)$$

- Important for building histograms (notice the change of variables):

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \delta(x - a) f(x) = f(a). \quad (11)$$

Definitions

- ▶ *Microscopic variable*: A variable pertaining to the individual atoms and molecules making up the system.
- ▶ *Macroscopic variable*: A measurable quantity used to describe the state of the system. It depends collectively on the behavior of all the atoms and molecules. These are also referred to as *thermodynamic variables*.
- ▶ *Extensive variables*: The system under consideration is often defined as encompassing some specific N molecules. Then extensive variables are those whose magnitude is proportional to N .
- ▶ *Intensive variables*: Those macroscopic variables whose magnitude is independent of N .

Scales

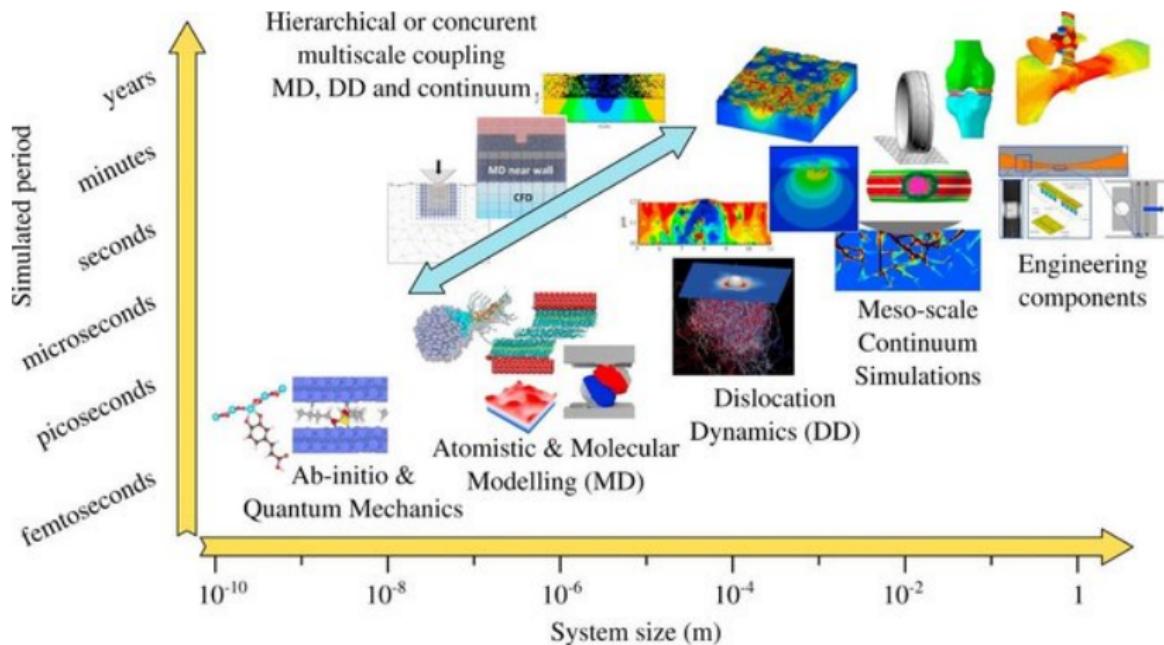


Figure 2: Spatial and temporal scales.

Phase Space



Figure 3: Ludwig Boltzmann (1844–1906)

Phase Space

- ▶ Consider a system with N particles.
- ▶ Microscopic coordinates: $\mathbf{r} \equiv (r_1, \dots, r_{3N})$.
- ▶ Conjugate momenta: $\mathbf{p} \equiv (p_1, \dots, p_{3N})$.
- ▶ We introduce the notion of generalized coordinates by stacking coordinates and momenta:

$$\mathbf{x} \equiv (r_1, \dots, r_{3N}, p_1, \dots, p_{3N}). \quad (12)$$

- ▶ \mathbf{x} evolves in Γ which defines the $6N$ -dimensional *phase space*.

Phase Space

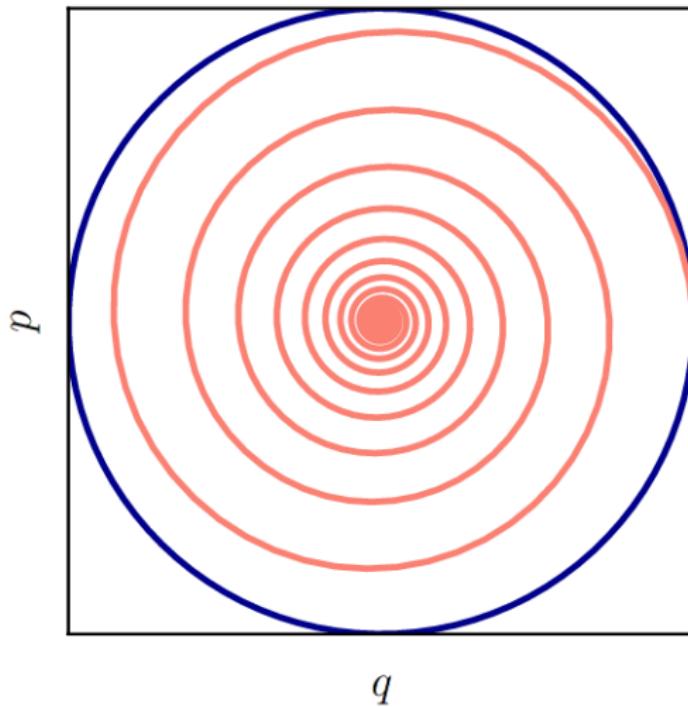


Figure 4: Phase spaces of an undamped (blue) and a damped (orange) harmonic oscillator.

Phase Space

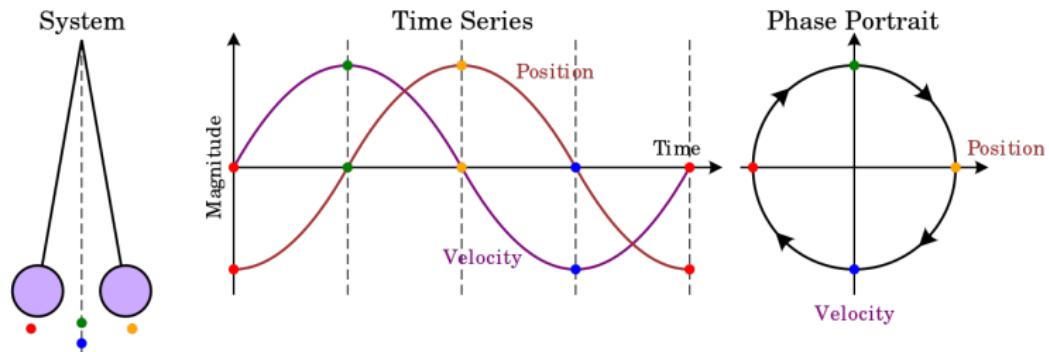


Figure 5: Phase spaces of the system.

Ensemble Average

- ▶ *Ergodicity hypothesis* – the assumption that all states in an ensemble are reached by the time evolution of the corresponding system.
- ▶ We define the ensemble average of a quantity $A(\mathbf{x})$ as:

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{\int d\mathbf{x} A(\mathbf{x})\rho(\mathbf{x})}{\int d\mathbf{x} \rho(\mathbf{x})}, \quad (13)$$

where $\rho(\mathbf{x})$ is the phase space probability density.

Hamiltonian

- The dynamics of the system under study is described by their *Hamiltonian* $H(\mathbf{x}) = \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{\mathbf{p}_i^2}{2m_i} + U(\mathbf{r})$.
- The equations of motion are:

$$\dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial r_i} \quad \text{and} \quad \dot{r}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \quad (i = 1, \dots, 3N). \quad (14)$$

- Can be rewritten as:

$$\dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial U}{\partial r_i} \quad \text{and} \quad \dot{r}_i = \frac{p_i}{m_i}, \quad (15)$$

where $U(\mathbf{r})$ is the potential energy.

Liouville Theorem

- Temporal evolution of a phase space element of volume V and boundary ∂V is given by:

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_V dV \rho + \int_{\partial V} dB \rho \mathbf{v} = 0, \quad (16)$$

where \mathbf{v} is a generalized velocity vector.

- In Eq. 16, ρ satisfies the continuity equation:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla \cdot (\rho \mathbf{v}) = 0, \quad (17)$$

which simplifies to ($\nabla \cdot \mathbf{v} = 0$):

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = \{H, \rho\} \quad (18)$$

Liouville Theorem

- The Liouville Theorem describes the time evolution of the phase space density $\dot{\rho} = \{H, \rho\}$.
- Poisson bracket: $\{u, v\} = \sum_i \left(\frac{\partial u}{\partial r_i} \frac{\partial v}{\partial p_i} - \frac{\partial u}{\partial p_i} \frac{\partial v}{\partial r_i} \right)$.

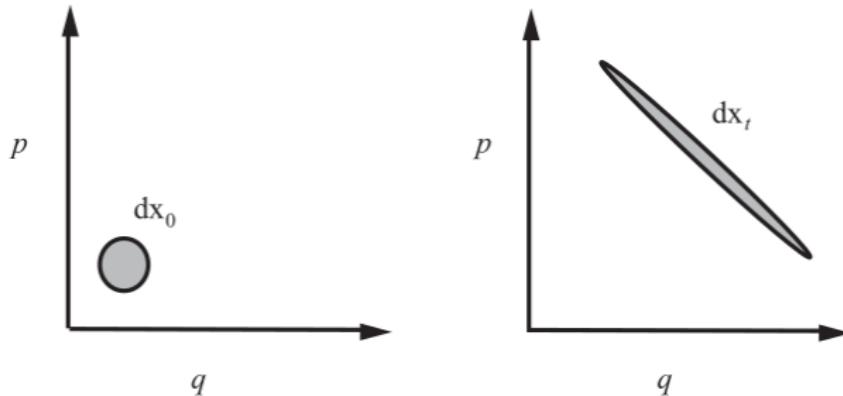


Figure 6: Illustration of phase space volume conservation prescribed by Liouville's theorem.

Thermodynamic Equilibrium

- ▶ In general, if $\rho(\mathbf{x}, t)$ has an explicit time dependence, then so will an observable A .
- ▶ However, a system in thermodynamic equilibrium do not change in time, $\partial\rho/\partial t$ must be equal to 0.
- ▶ In such a case, no external forces act on the system.
- ▶ The Liouville equation reduces to:

$$\{\rho, H\} = 0. \quad (19)$$

Thermodynamic Equilibrium

- The general solution to Eq. 19 is any function of H :

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) \propto F[H(\mathbf{x})]. \quad (20)$$

- As ρ needs to be properly normalized, we write the solutions as:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} F[H(\mathbf{x})], \quad (21)$$

where $Z = \int d\mathbf{x} F[H(\mathbf{x})]$ is referred to as the *partition function*.

- The partition function is a measure of the number of microscopic states in the phase space accessible within a given ensemble.
- Each ensemble has a particular partition function that depends on the macroscopic observables used to define the ensemble.

Ensembles

- ▶ N – the number of particles, V – volume, P – pressure, T – temperature, E – internal energy.
- ▶ Microcanonical ensemble: constant NVE .
- ▶ Canonical ensemble: constant NVT .
- ▶ Canonical pressure ensemble: constant NPT .

Microcanonical Ensemble

- NVE are fixed, so also the probability density is constant:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} \delta[H(\mathbf{x}) - E], \quad (22)$$

where $\delta[\cdot]$ is the Dirac delta function and the microcanonical partition function is given by:

$$Z = \int d\mathbf{x} \delta[H(\mathbf{x}) - E]. \quad (23)$$

- We can see that the function $F[H(\mathbf{x})]$ from Eq. 20 is:

$$F[H(\mathbf{x})] \propto \delta[H(\mathbf{x}) - E]. \quad (24)$$

Microcanonical Ensemble

- ▶ State function is the entropy – a quantity that can be related to the number of the microscopic states of the system.
- ▶ Control variables are:

$$\frac{1}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial E} \right)_{N,V}, \frac{P}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial V} \right)_{N,E}, \frac{\mu}{T} = - \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial N} \right)_{V,E}. \quad (25)$$

- ▶ Let Ω be the number of microscopic states; the relation of S to Ω is:

$$S(N, V, E) = k_B \log \Omega(N, V, E), \quad (26)$$

where k_B is Boltzmann's constant:

$$k_B = 1.3806505(24) \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K.} \quad (27)$$

Canonical Ensemble

- NVT are fixed.

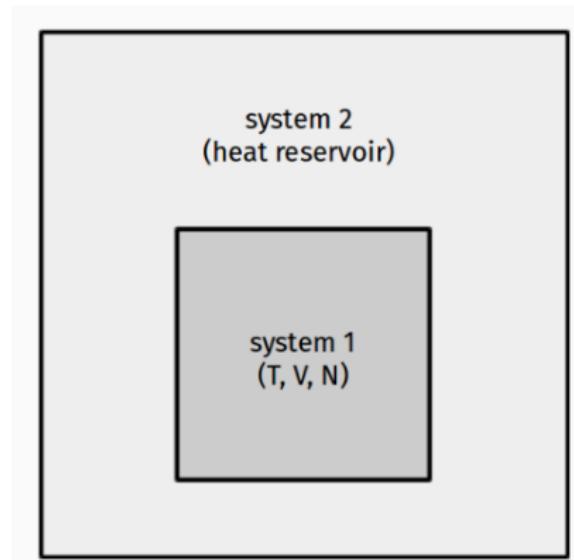


Figure 7: In a canonical ensemble setup, the system we study (system 1) is coupled to a heat reservoir (system 2) that guarantees a constant temperature.

Canonical Ensemble

- At a given temperature T , the probability for a system to be in a certain configuration \mathbf{x} with energy $E(\mathbf{x})$ is:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\beta E(\mathbf{x})}, \quad (28)$$

where $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$ is the *inverse temperature*², and the canonical partition function is:

$$Z = \int d\mathbf{x} e^{-\beta E(\mathbf{x})}. \quad (29)$$

- The ensemble average of a quantity A is given by:

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \int d\mathbf{x} A(\mathbf{x}) e^{-\beta E(\mathbf{x})}. \quad (30)$$

² $\beta \approx 0.4 \text{ kJ/mol}$ at 300 K.

Canonical Ensemble

- We can derive Eq. 28 by using the maximum entropy principle. We know that:

$$\int d\mathbf{x} \rho(\mathbf{x}) E(\mathbf{x}) = U, \quad (31)$$

and that ρ must be normalized.

- We introduce the augmented function J :

$$J \equiv -k_B \int d\mathbf{x} \rho(\mathbf{x}) \log \rho(\mathbf{x}) \quad (32)$$

$$+ \lambda_1 \left(\int d\mathbf{x} \rho(\mathbf{x}) E(\mathbf{x}) - U \right) \quad (33)$$

$$+ \lambda_0 \left(\int d\mathbf{x} \rho(\mathbf{x}) - 1 \right), \quad (34)$$

where λ_0 and λ_1 are the Lagrange multipliers.

Canonical Ensemble

- Taking the functional derivative w.r.t. to ρ and setting it to zero, we have:

$$\frac{\delta J}{\delta \rho} = -k_B \log \rho(\mathbf{x}) - k_B + \lambda_1 E + \lambda_0 = 0, \quad (35)$$

- which implies that the maximum entropy distribution is:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \lambda_1 e^{\frac{-k_B + \lambda_0 + \lambda_1 E(\mathbf{x})}{k_B}}, \quad (36)$$

which translates to:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = Z e^{\frac{-k_B + \lambda_0}{k_B}} \quad (37)$$

where Z is the canonical partition function:

$$Z = \int d\mathbf{x} e^{\frac{\lambda_1}{k_B} E}. \quad (38)$$

Canonical Ensemble

- We get that the density must have a form:

$$\rho(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{\frac{\lambda_1}{k_B} E(\mathbf{x})} \quad (39)$$

and the entropy is:

$$S(\mathbf{x}) = -\lambda_1 U + k_B \log Z. \quad (40)$$

- We differentiate S w.r.t. U and apply $dU = TdS - PdV$:

$$\frac{dS}{dU} = -\lambda_1 \equiv \frac{1}{T} \quad (41)$$

from which we get that:

$$\frac{\lambda_1}{k_B} = -\frac{1}{k_B T} = -\beta. \quad (42)$$

Monte Carlo Methods

Monte Carlo Methods

The main steps of the Monte Carlo sampling are:

- ▶ Choose randomly a new configuration in phase space based on a Markov chain.
- ▶ Accept or reject the new configuration, depending on the strategy used.
- ▶ Compute the physical quantity and add it to the averaging procedure.
- ▶ Repeat the previous steps until convergence.

Monte Carlo Methods

$$I = \int_0^1 dx \int_0^{\sqrt{1-x^2}} dy = \frac{\pi}{4} \quad (43)$$

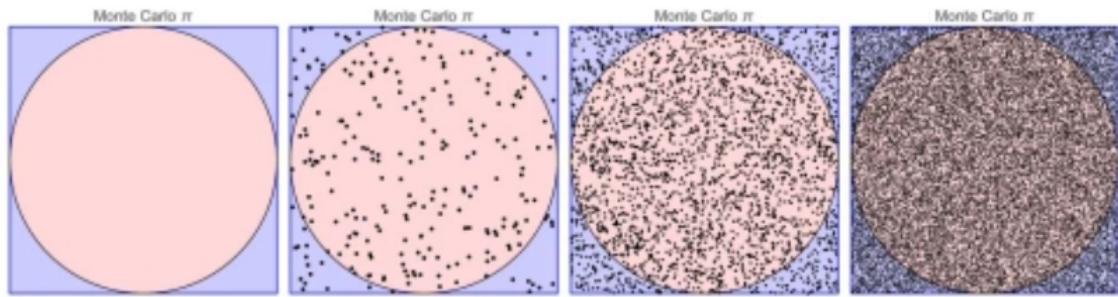


Figure 8: Example of a Monte Carlo method to compute π .

Monte Carlo Methods

- The integrals that must be evaluated in equilibrium statistical mechanics are generally of the form:

$$I = \int d\mathbf{x} \phi(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x}), \quad (44)$$

where \mathbf{x} is an n -dimensional vector, $\phi(\mathbf{x})$ is an arbitrary function, and $p(\mathbf{x})$ is a function satisfying the properties of a probability distribution:

$$p(\mathbf{x}) \geq 0 \quad \text{and} \quad \int d\mathbf{x} p(\mathbf{x}) = 1. \quad (45)$$

- Eq. 44 represents the ensemble average of a physical observable in equilibrium statistical mechanics.

Monte Carlo Methods

- ▶ Let $\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_M$ be a set of M n -dimensional vectors that are sampled from $p(\mathbf{x})$.
- ▶ The problem of sampling from $p(\mathbf{x})$ is a nontrivial one.
- ▶ For now, let us assume that such an algorithm exists. Then, an estimator:

$$\hat{I}_M = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \phi(\mathbf{x}_i) \quad (46)$$

is such that:

$$\lim_{M \rightarrow \infty} \hat{I}_M = I. \quad (47)$$

- ▶ Eq. 47 is guaranteed by the *central limit theorem*.³

³ For the derivation, see M. E. Tuckerman, *Statistical Mechanics: Theory and Simulation*, Oxford University Press (2016), p. 281.

Monte Carlo Methods

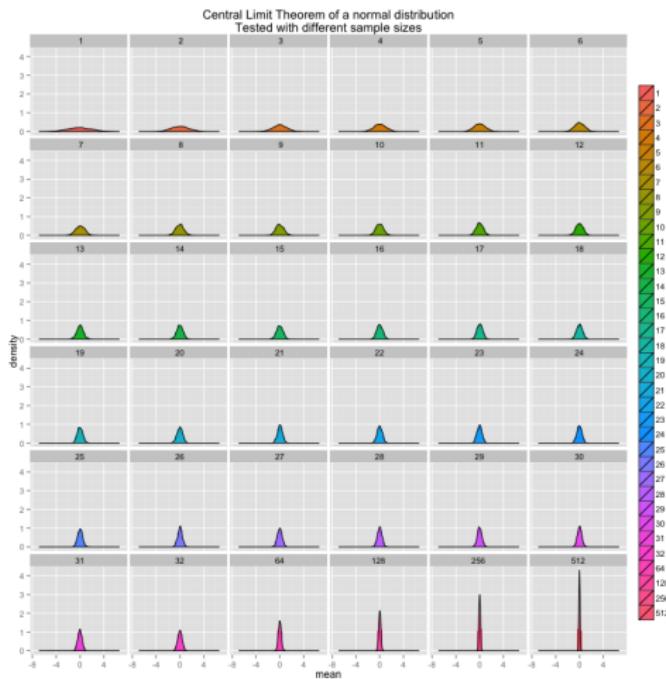


Figure 9: Central limit theorem for a normal distribution.

Source: https://www.reddit.com/r/math/comments/2wrduu/central_limit_theorem/.

Monte Carlo Methods

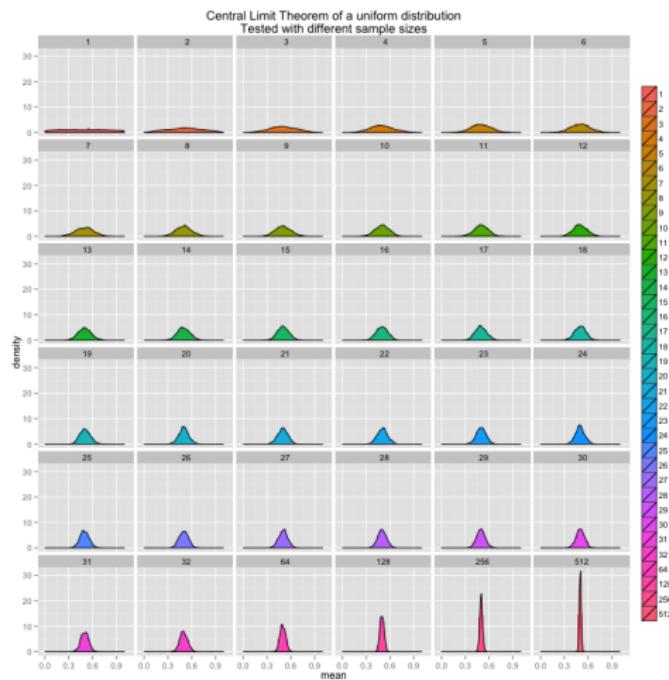


Figure 10: Central limit theorem for a uniform distribution.

Source: https://www.reddit.com/r/math/comments/2wrduu/central_limit_theorem/.

Monte Carlo Methods

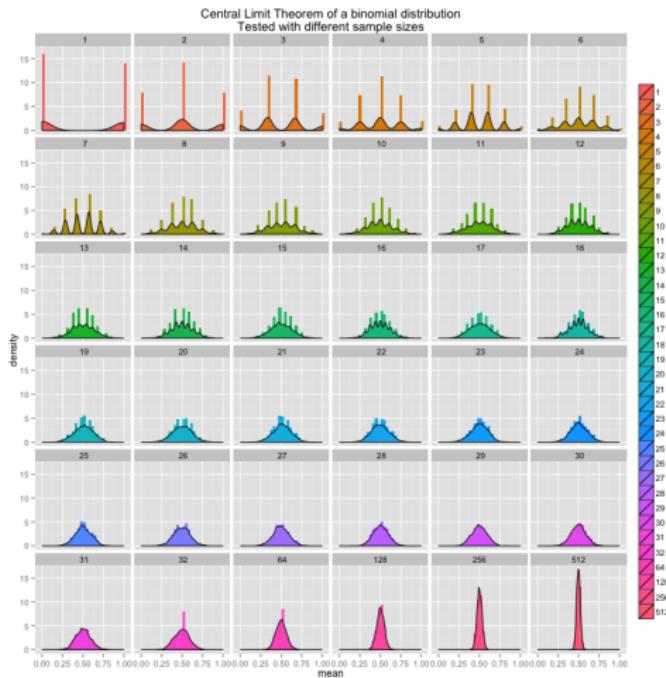


Figure 11: Central limit theorem for a binomial distribution.

Source: https://www.reddit.com/r/math/comments/2wrduu/central_limit_theorem/.

Monte Carlo Methods

Central Limit Theorem

If x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n are n random variables drawn from a population with overall mean μ and finite variance σ^2 , and if \bar{x}_n is the sample mean, the limiting form of the distribution, $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \sqrt{n} \left(\frac{\bar{x}_n - \mu}{\sigma} \right)$, is the standard normal distribution.

Monte Carlo Methods

- Example of sampling a simple distribution given by:

$$p(x) = ce^{-cx}, \quad (48)$$

on the interval $x \in [0, \infty)$.

- To sample from $p(x)$, we need $P(X)$ such that:

$$P(X) = \int_0^X dx ce^{-cx} = 1 - e^{-cX}, \quad (49)$$

and equate Eq. 49 to a random number $\xi \in [0, 1]$, then we can solve for X , which gives:

$$X = -\frac{1}{c} \log(1 - \xi). \quad (50)$$

- In general, we do not have such simple distribution to sample from in statistical mechanics.

Monte Carlo Methods: Examples

Estimator no 1

```
def pi_estimator(n_samples):
    est = list()
    n_inside = 0; n_all = 0
    for i in range(n_samples):
        x = np.random.uniform(-1.0, 1.0)
        y = np.random.uniform(-1.0, 1.0)
        dist = np.sqrt(np.power(x, 2) +
                       np.power(y, 2))
        if dist <= 1.0:
            n_inside += 1
        n_all += 1
        est.append(4.0 * np.float(n_inside) /
                   np.float(n_all))
    return np.array(est)
```

Monte Carlo Methods: Examples

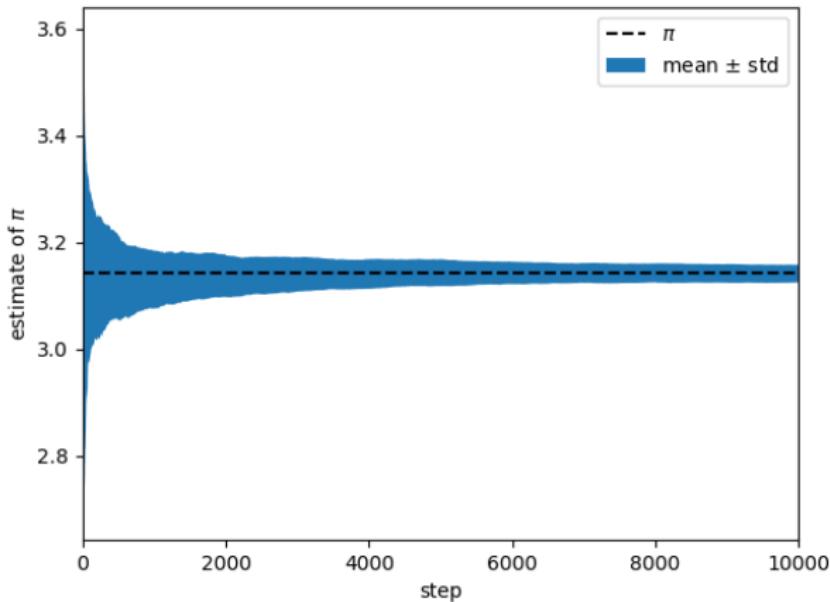


Figure 12: Estimator no 1.

Monte Carlo Methods: Examples

Estimator no 2

```
def pi_estimator_integral(n_samples):
    est = list()
    e = 0.0
    for i in range(n_samples):
        x = np.random.uniform(0.0, 1.0)
        y = 4.0 * np.sqrt(1.0 - np.power(x, 2))
        e += (y - e) / (np.float(i) + 1.0)
        est.append(e)
    return np.array(est)
```

Monte Carlo Methods: Examples

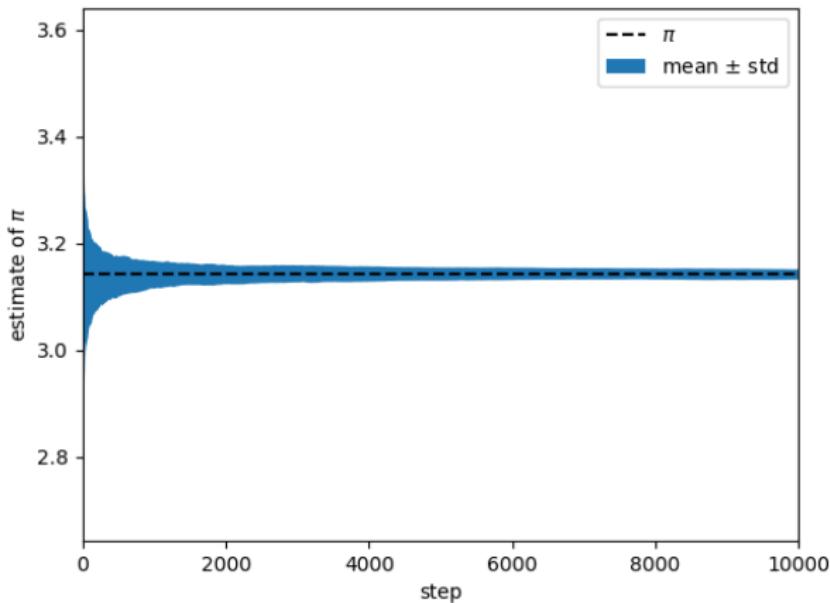


Figure 13: Estimator no 2.

Monte Carlo Methods: Examples

Estimator no 3

```
def pi_estimator_markov_chain(n_samples, step=0.1):
    est = list()
    n_inside = 0; n_all = 0;
    x = np.random.uniform(-1.0, 1.0)
    y = np.random.uniform(-1.0, 1.0)
    for i in range(n_samples):
        dx = np.random.uniform(-step, step)
        dy = np.random.uniform(-step, step)
        xn = x + dx; yn = y + dy
        if abs(xn) < 1.0 and abs(yn) < 1.0:
            x = xn; y = yn
        dist = np.sqrt(np.power(x, 2) + np.power(y, 2))
        if dist <= 1.0: n_inside += 1
        n_all += 1
        est.append(4.0 * np.float(n_inside) /
                   np.float(n_all))
    return np.array(est)
```

Monte Carlo Methods: Examples

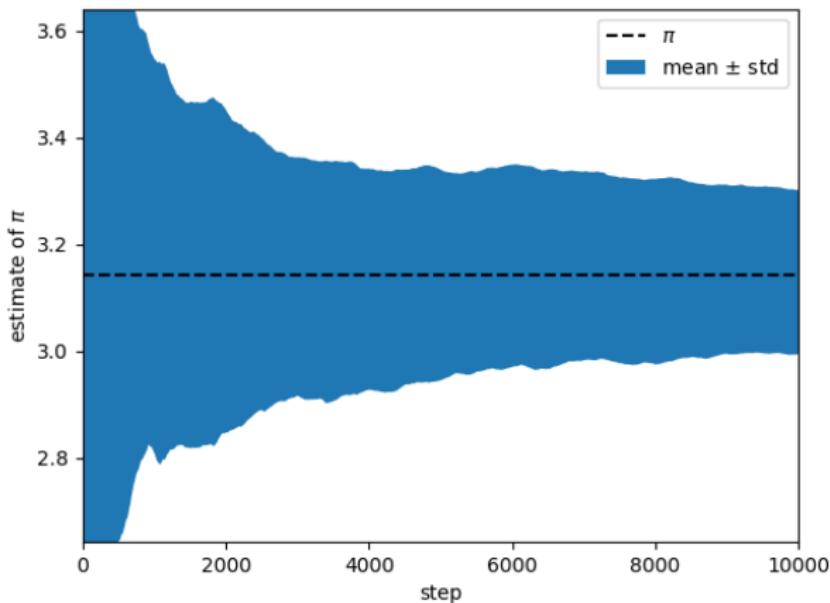


Figure 14: Estimator no 3.

Importance Sampling

- ▶ However, instead of sampling $p(\mathbf{x})$ to estimate $\int d\mathbf{x} \phi(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})$, we could sample from a different distribution $b(\mathbf{x})$ by rewriting the integral as:

$$I = \int d\mathbf{x} \left[\frac{\phi(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})}{b(\mathbf{x})} \right] b(\mathbf{x}). \quad (51)$$

- ▶ We set $\psi(\mathbf{x}) = \phi(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x})/b(\mathbf{x})$ which gives us:

$$I = \int d\mathbf{x} \psi(\mathbf{x})b(\mathbf{x}) \quad (52)$$

$$\approx \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M \psi(\mathbf{x}_i), \quad (53)$$

where the vectors \mathbf{x}_i are sampled from $b(\mathbf{x})$.

- ▶ This trick is the basis of *importance sampling*.

Importance Sampling

- ▶ Using $b(\mathbf{x})$ as an importance function may lead to easier sampling.
- ▶ But how do we select $b(\mathbf{x})$?
- ▶ Is there an optimal choice of $b(\mathbf{x})$? The best one leads to the smallest possible variance:

$$\text{Var}[b(\mathbf{x})] = \int d\mathbf{x} \psi^2(\mathbf{x})b(\mathbf{x}) - \left(\int d\mathbf{x} \psi(\mathbf{x})b(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \quad (54)$$

that gives us:

$$\int d\mathbf{x} \frac{\phi^2(\mathbf{x})p^2(\mathbf{x})}{b^2(\mathbf{x})}b(\mathbf{x}) - \left(\int d\mathbf{x} \phi(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x}) \right)^2 \quad (55)$$

- ▶ Minimize Var w.r.t. $b(\mathbf{x})$ subject to the constraint $\int d\mathbf{x} b(\mathbf{x}) = 1$

Importance Sampling

- From Eq. 55, we have:

$$F[b(\mathbf{x})] = \text{Var}[b(\mathbf{x})] - \lambda \int d\mathbf{x} b(\mathbf{x}), \quad (56)$$

where λ is a Lagrange multiplier.

- Computing the functional derivative $\delta F/\delta b(\mathbf{x})$, we obtain:

$$\frac{\phi^2(\mathbf{x})p^2(\mathbf{x})}{b^2(\mathbf{x})} + \lambda = 0 \quad (57)$$

or

$$b(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-\lambda}}\phi(\mathbf{x})p(\mathbf{x}). \quad (58)$$

Importance Sampling

- Normalizing $b(\mathbf{x})$, we have:

$$\int d\mathbf{x} b(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{-\lambda}} \int d\mathbf{x} \phi(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x}) = 1. \quad (59)$$

- Thus, the optimal choice for $b(\mathbf{x})$ is:

$$b(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{\phi(\mathbf{x}) p(\mathbf{x})}{I}.$$

(60)

- But if we knew the integral value I , we would not need to perform the calculation...

Importance Sampling: Examples

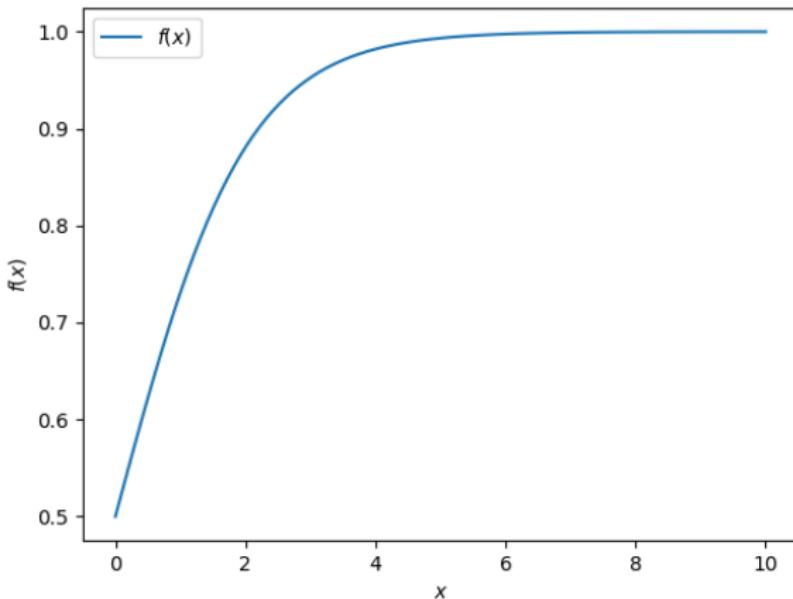


Figure 15: Function $f(x) = 1/(1 + \exp(-x))$.

Importance Sampling: Examples

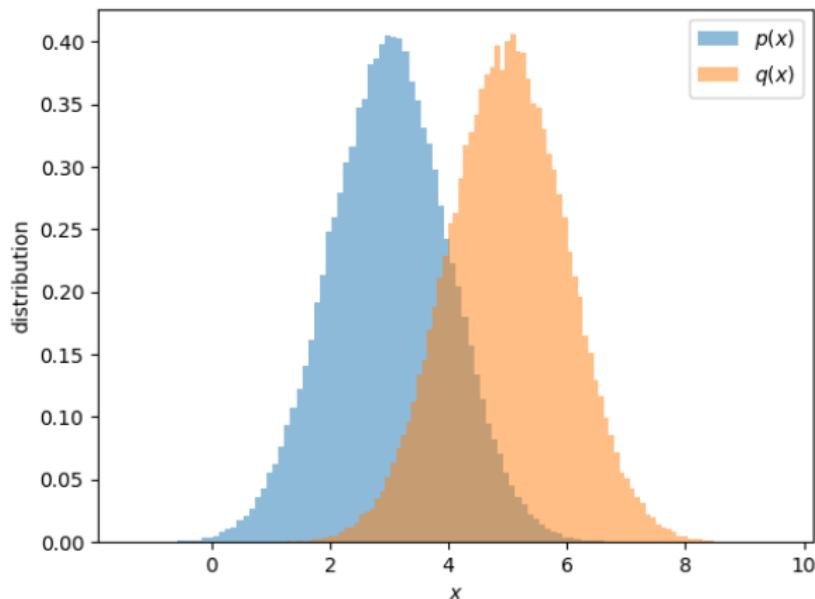


Figure 16: Distributions to sample from.

Importance Sampling: Examples

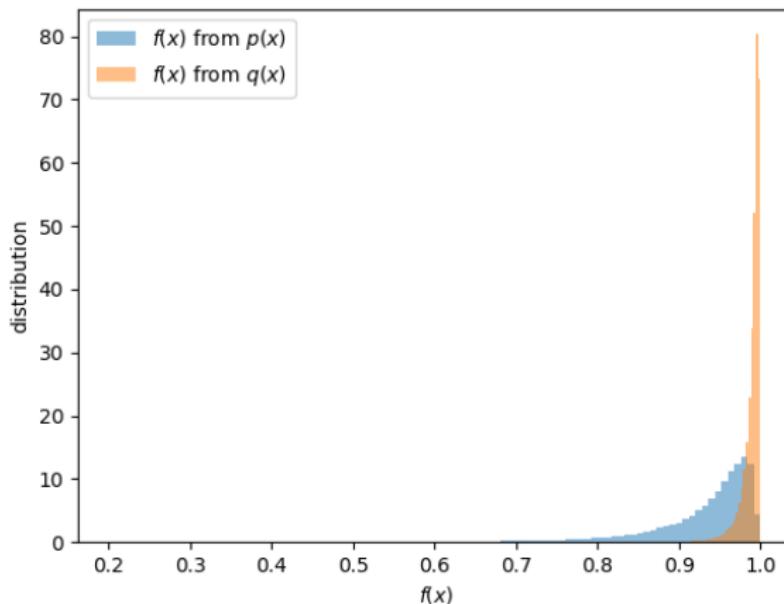


Figure 17: Distributions of evaluated samples.

Importance Sampling: Examples

Results

```
python importance-sampling.py --n_samples 100000  
  
f(x) from p(x): mean=0.9306712389 std=0.0686291035  
f(x) from q(x): mean=0.9891990210 std=0.0132275039  
f(x) from IS:    mean=0.9261305966 std=4.5258393804
```

Markov Chain

If the vectors $\mathbf{x}_1, \dots, \mathbf{x}_M$ are generated sequentially, and \mathbf{x}_{i+1} is generated only based on the knowledge of \mathbf{x}_i . the sequence is called a Makov chain.

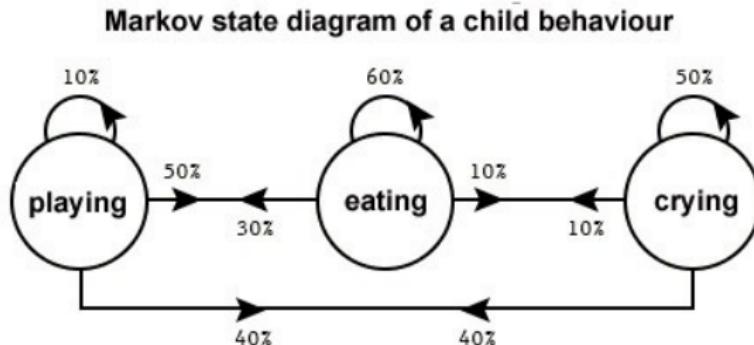


Figure 18: Example of a simple Markov chain.

M(RT)²

- For physical systems, a Markov chain must satisfy the condition of *detailed balance*, which ensures that the Markov process is microscopically reversible.
- M(RT)² is a rejection method.
- With the acceptance probability given by:

$$A(\mathbf{x}_i | \mathbf{x}_j) = \min [1, f(\mathbf{x}_i)/f(\mathbf{x}_j)], \quad (61)$$

where $f(\mathbf{x})$ is the probability of the system being at \mathbf{x} .

- Sampling in the canonical ensemble:⁴

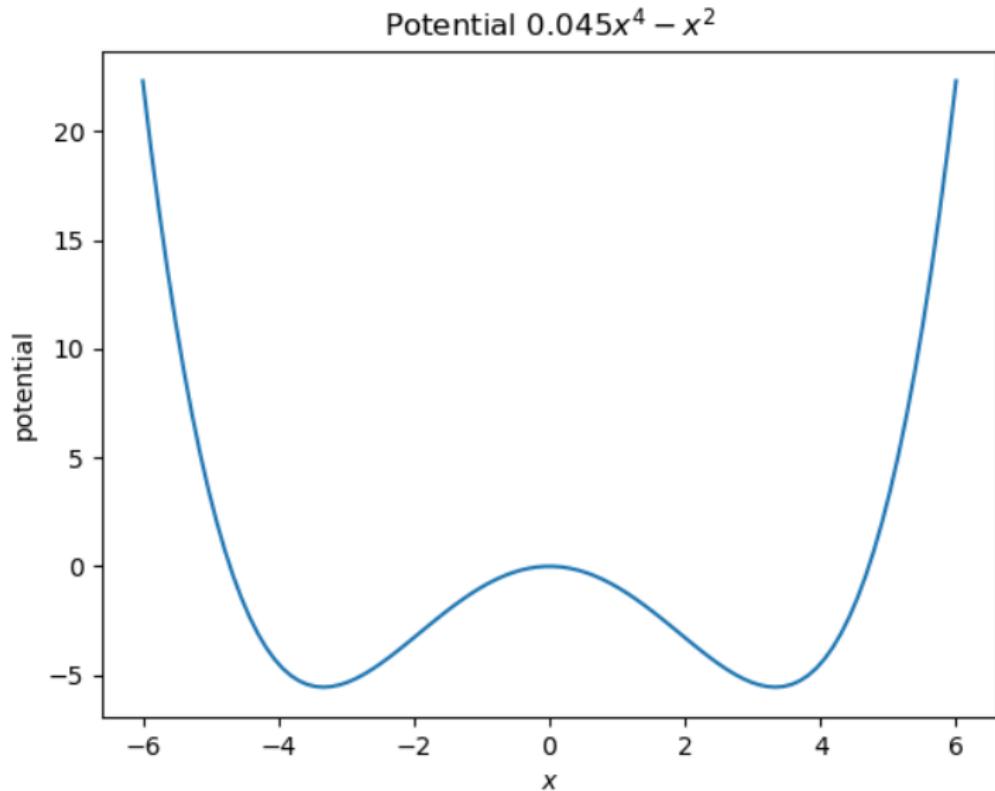
$$A(\mathbf{r}_i | \mathbf{r}_j) = \min \left[1, e^{-\beta[U(\mathbf{r}_i) - U(\mathbf{r}_j)]} \right], \quad (62)$$

as $f(\mathbf{r}) \propto e^{-\beta U(\mathbf{r})}$.

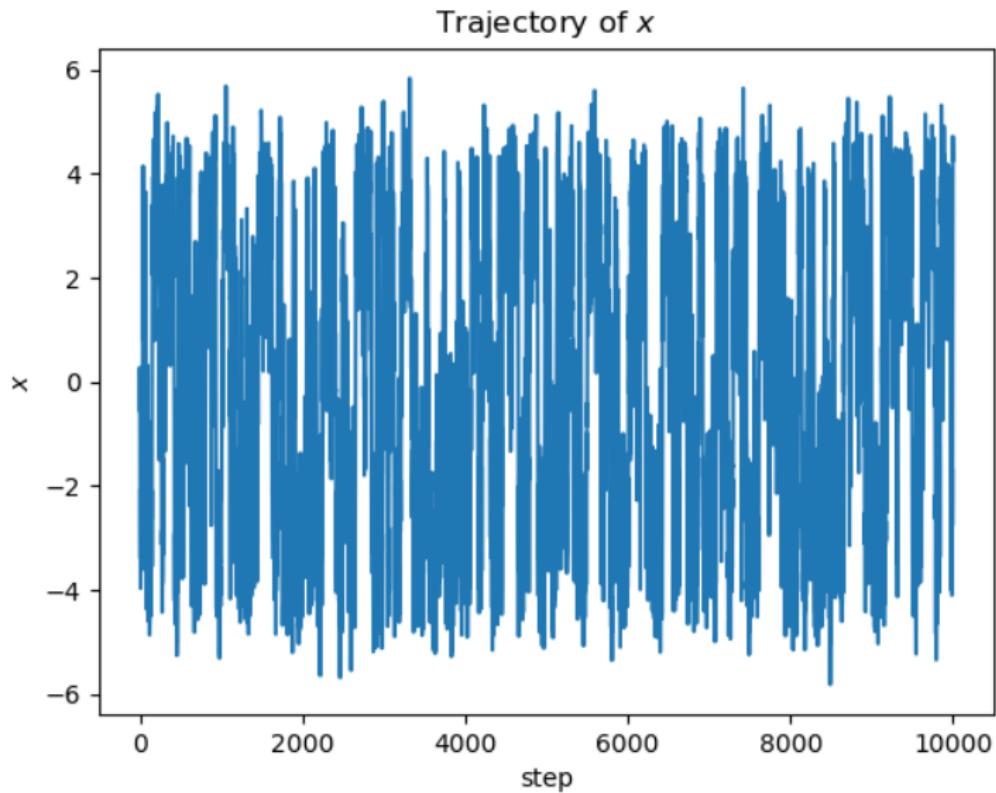
⁴Reminder: \mathbf{r} are microscopic coordinates.

Particle on Double-Well Potential

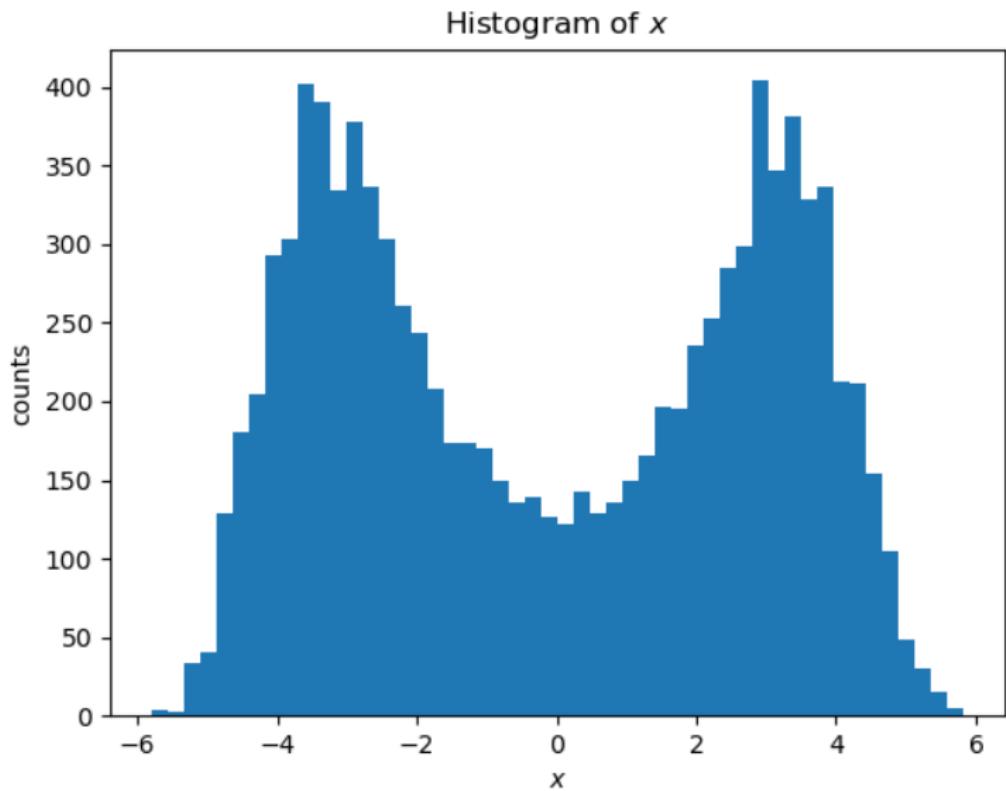
```
python mc-double-well.py --n_samples 10000 --temp 5
```



Particle on Double-Well Potential

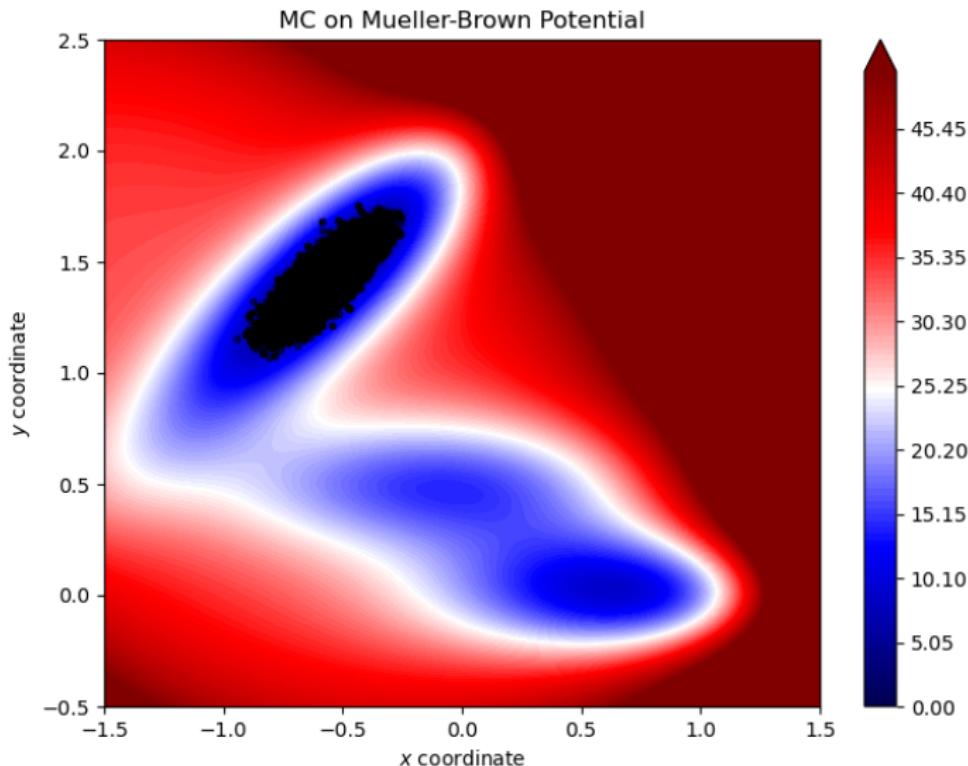


Particle on Double-Well Potential



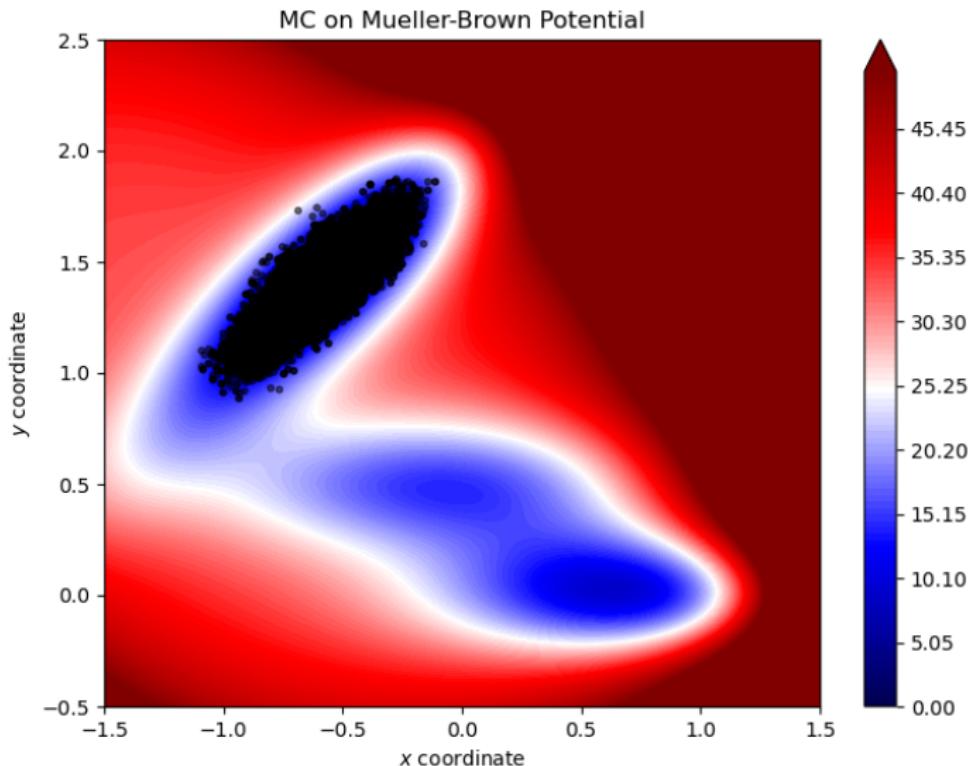
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential

```
python mc-potential.py --n_samples 10000 --temp 1.0
```



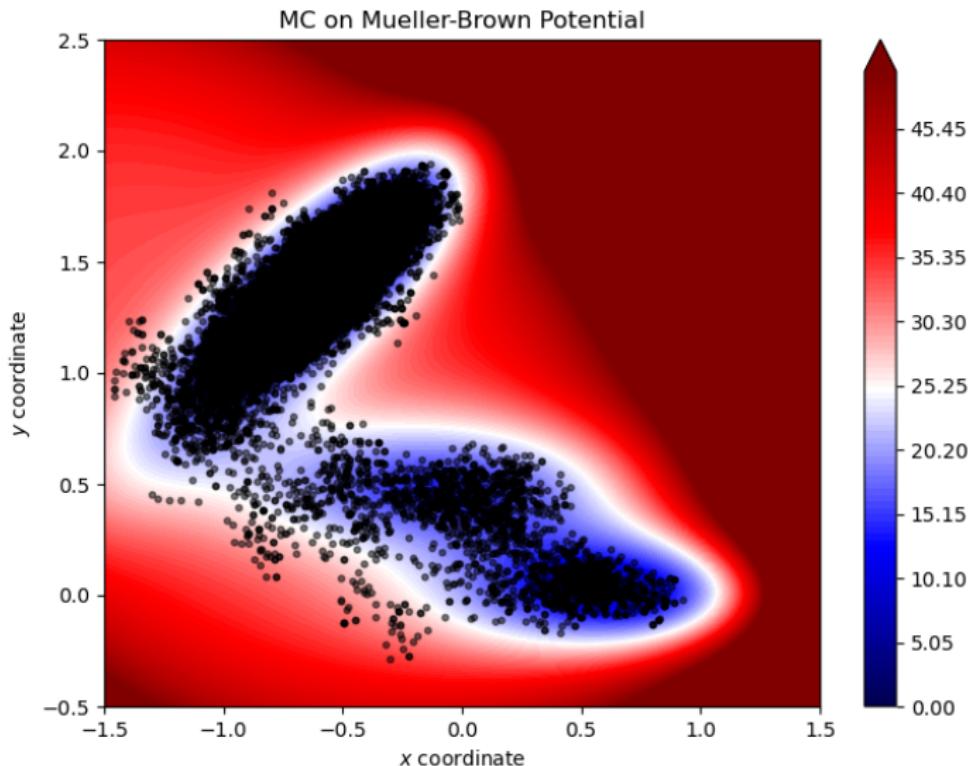
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential

```
python mc-potential.py --n_samples 10000 --temp 2.0
```



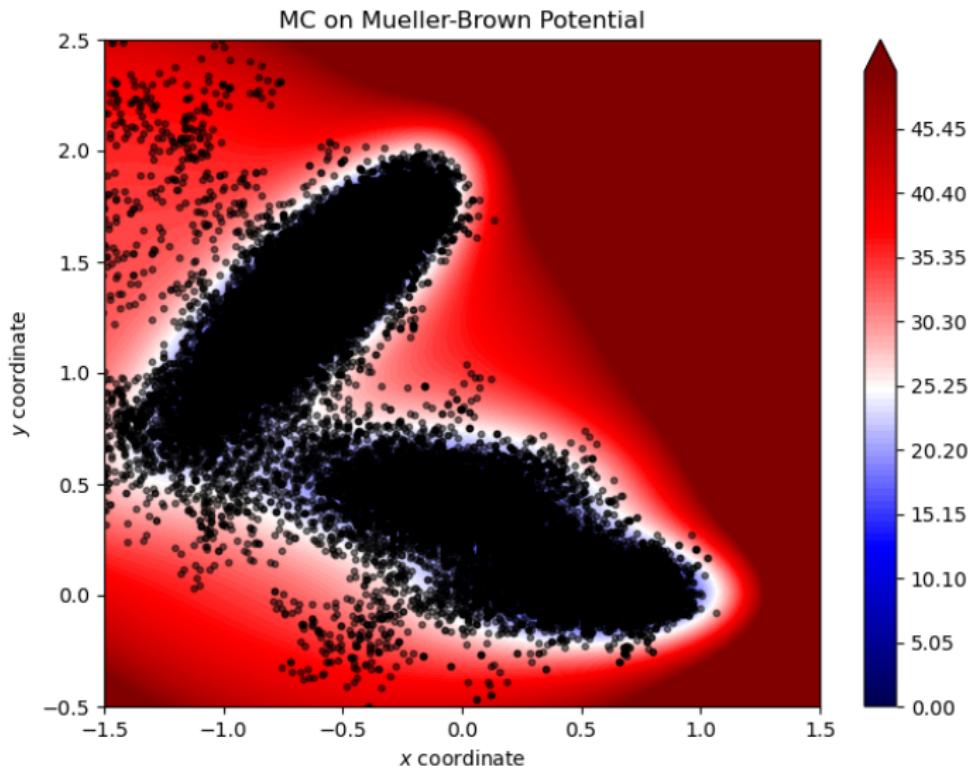
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential

```
python mc-potential.py --n_samples 10000 --temp 3.0
```



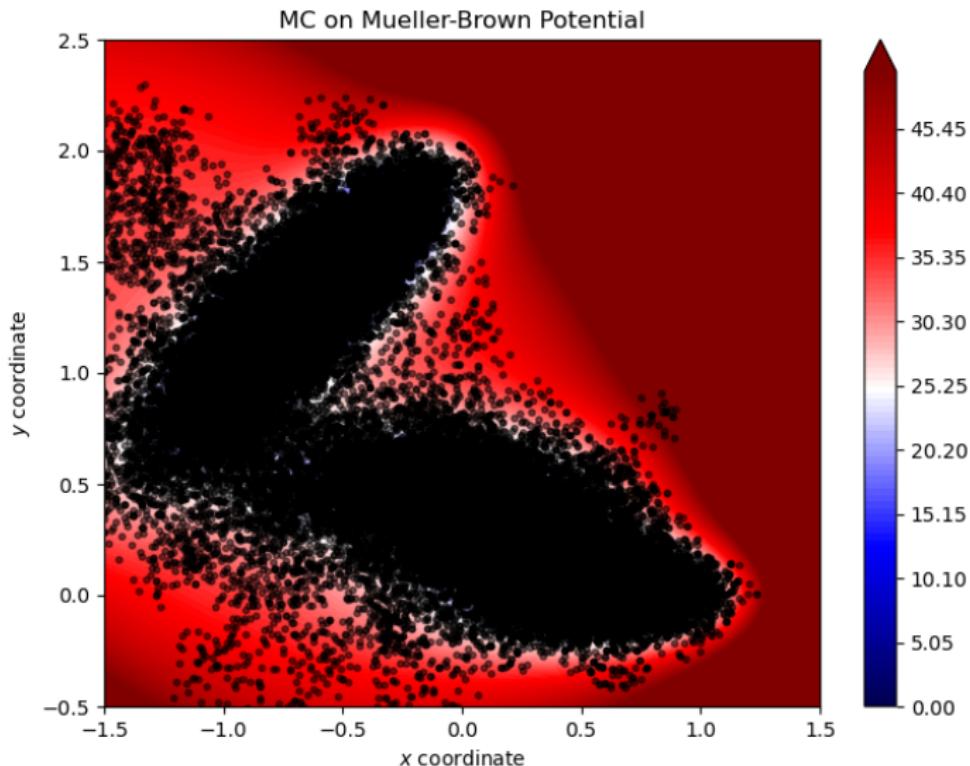
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential

```
python mc-potential.py --n_samples 10000 --temp 4.0
```



Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential

```
python mc-potential.py --n_samples 10000 --temp 5.0
```



Replica Exchange Monte Carlo

- ▶ Barrier crossing are frequently rarely encountered during a simulation.
- ▶ For a barrier height of 15 kJ/mol at 300 K, the Boltzmann factor is approximately 3×10^{-3} ; for 30 kJ/mol is 6×10^{-6} .

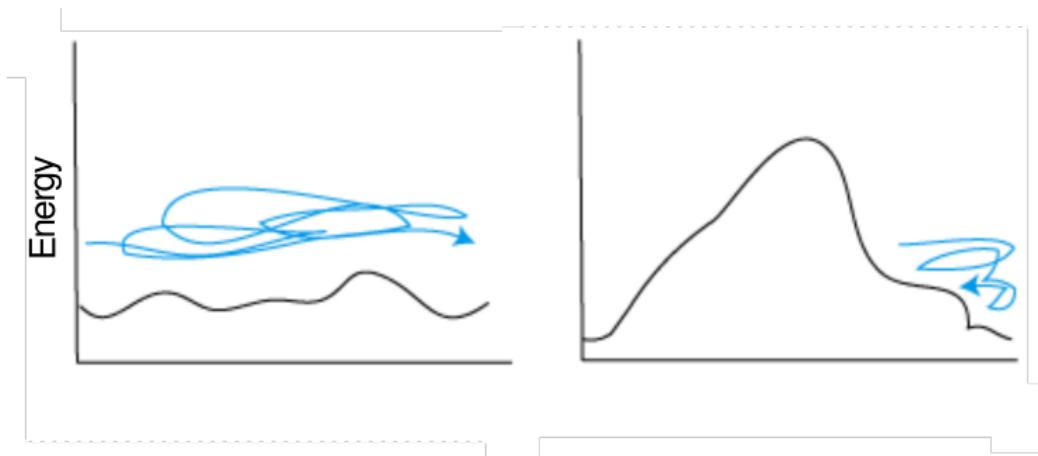


Figure 19: Barrier crossing showing a trajectory in the case of a low and a high energy barrier, respectively.

Parallel Tempering⁵

- ▶ Temperature is used as the control variable, and different temperatures are assigned to the *replicas*.
- ▶ In the parallel tempering scheme, a set of temperatures T_1, \dots, T_M such that:

$$T_1 < T_2 < \dots < T_M \quad (63)$$

are assigned to the M replicas, where T_1 is the temperature T of the canonical distribution.

- ▶ The high-temperature replicas easily cross potential energy barriers.
- ▶ We attempt exchanges between the neighboring replicas.

⁵Marinari and Parisi. *Simulated tempering: A new Monte Carlo scheme* Europhys. Lett. 19 (1992)

Parallel Tempering

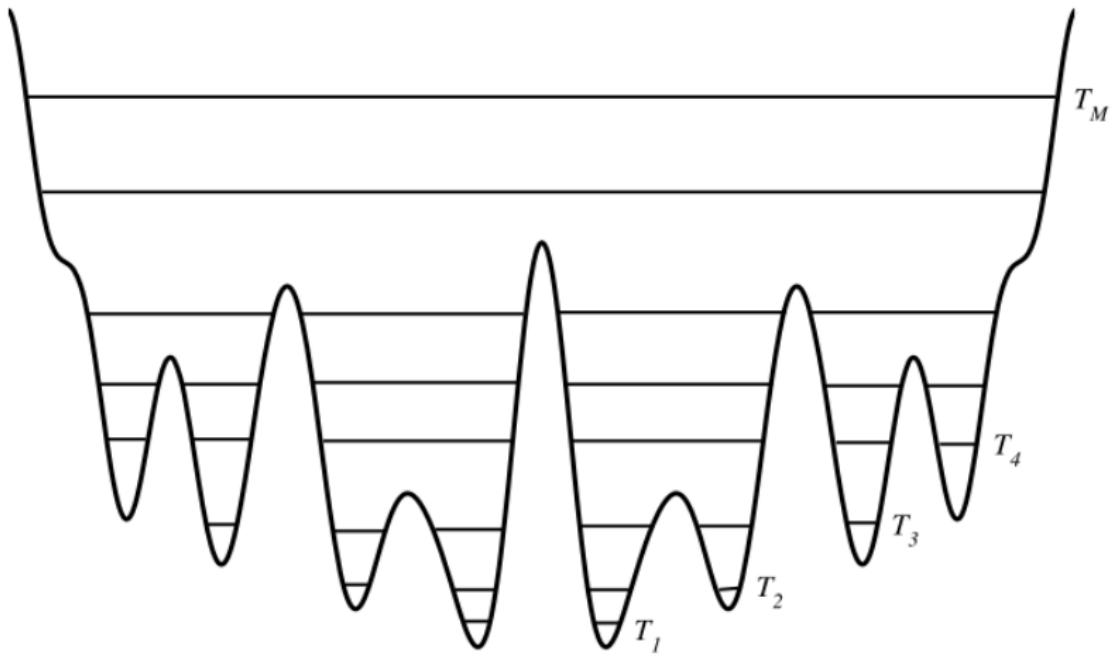


Figure 20: Schematic of the parallel-tempering replica exchange Monte Carlo.⁶

⁶Source: M. E. Tuckerman, *Statistical Mechanics: Theory and Simulation*, Oxford University Press (2016)

Parallel Tempering

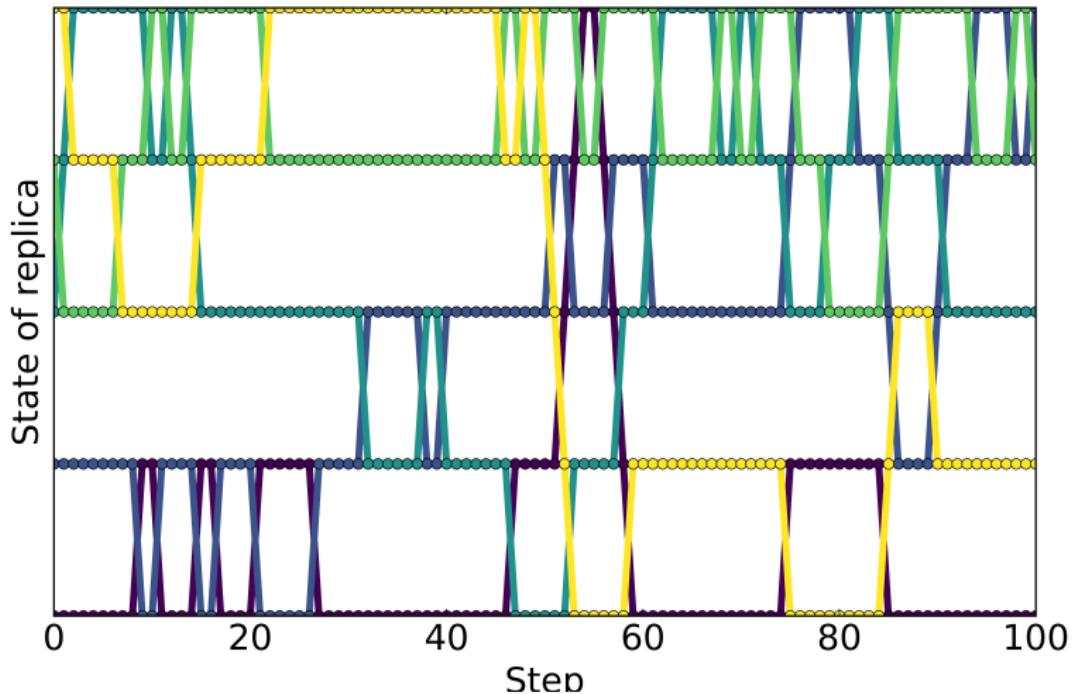


Figure 21: An example of a parallel tempering trajectory.⁷

⁷Source: <https://coulomb.umontpellier.fr/perso/daniele.coslovich/pt/>

Paralell Tempering

- ▶ Let $\mathbf{r}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{r}^{(M)}$ be the complete configurations of the M replicas, i.e., $\mathbf{r}^{(K)} \equiv (\mathbf{r}_1^{(K)}, \dots, \mathbf{r}_N^{(K)})$.
- ▶ The replicas are independent, so the total probability distribution $F(\mathbf{r}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{r}^{(M)})$ is:

$$F(\mathbf{r}^{(1)}, \dots, \mathbf{r}^{(M)}) = \prod_{K=1}^M f_K(\mathbf{r}^{(K)}), \quad (64)$$

where:

$$f_K(\mathbf{r}^{(K)}) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\beta_K U(\mathbf{r}^{(K)})}, \quad (65)$$

in which $\beta_K = (k_B T_K)^{-1}$.

Parallel Tempering

- ▶ Periodically, a neighboring pair of replicas K and $K + 1$ is selected, and an attempted switch is made with probability:

$$A_s = A \left[(\mathbf{r}^{(K+1)}, \mathbf{r}^{(K)}) | (\mathbf{r}^{(K)}, \mathbf{r}^{(K+1)}) \right] \quad (66)$$

$$= \min \left[1, \frac{f_K(\mathbf{r}^{(K+1)})}{f_K(\mathbf{r}^{(K)})} \cdot \frac{f_{K+1}(\mathbf{r}^{(K)})}{f_{K+1}(\mathbf{r}^{(K+1)})} \right] \quad (67)$$

$$= \min \left[1, e^{-\Delta_{K,K+1}} \right], \quad (68)$$

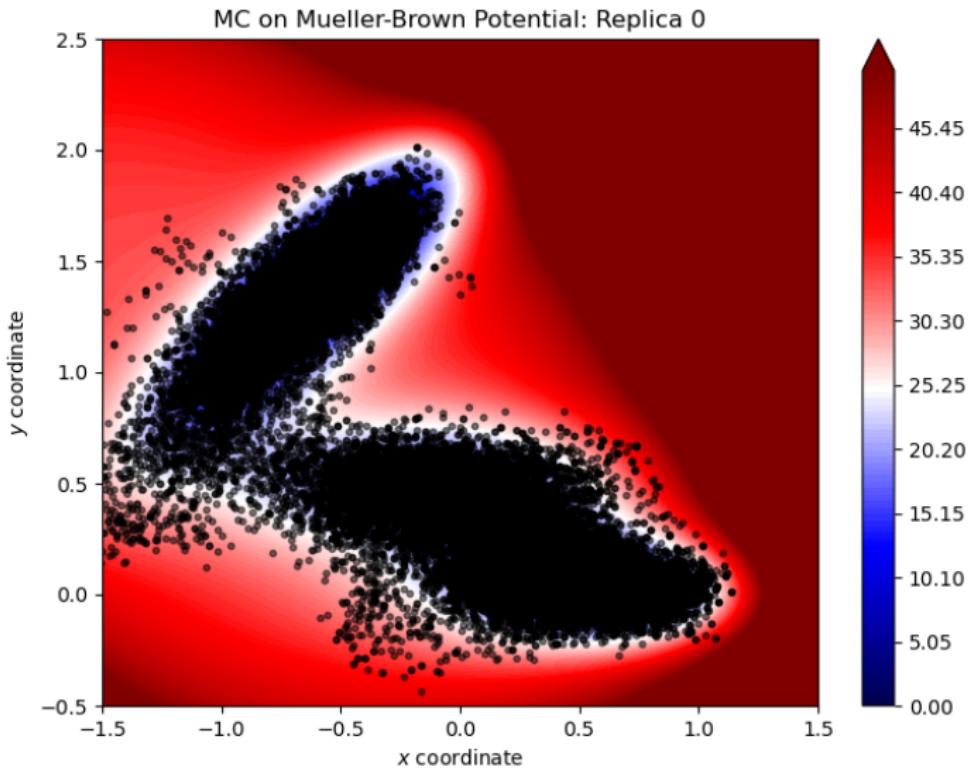
where:

$$\Delta_{K,K+1} = (\beta_K - \beta_{K+1}) \left[U(\mathbf{r}^{(K)}) - U(\mathbf{r}^{(K+1)}) \right] \quad (69)$$

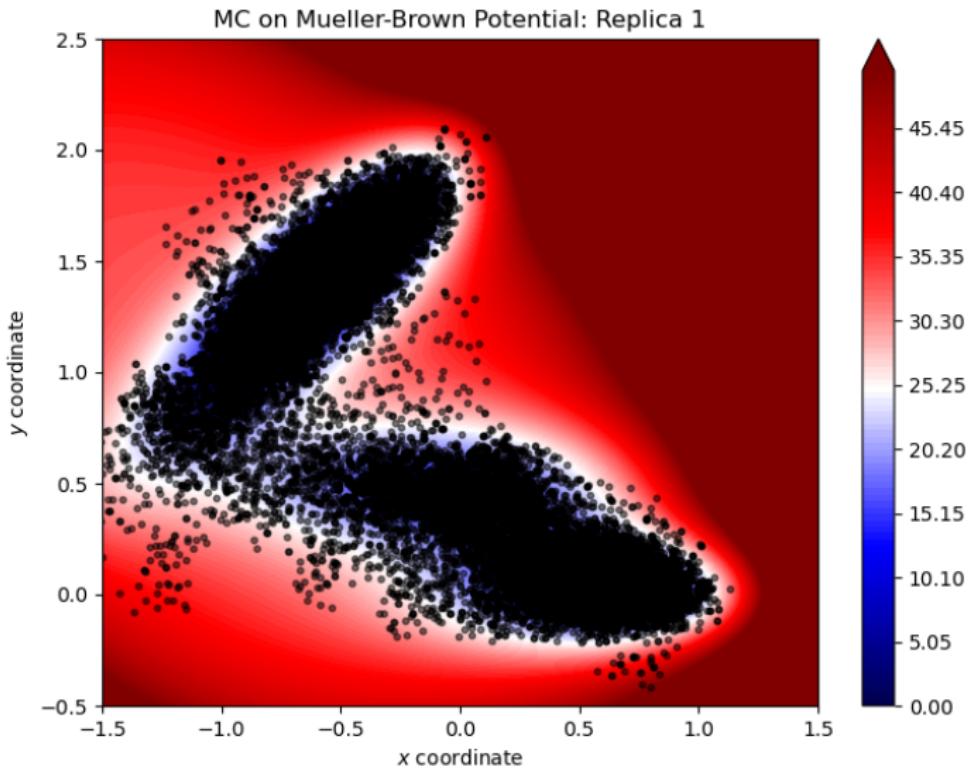
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential

```
python mc-pt-potential.py --n_samples 10000  
                      --temp 1,2,3,4,5  
                      --n_replicas 5  
                      --exchange 1000
```

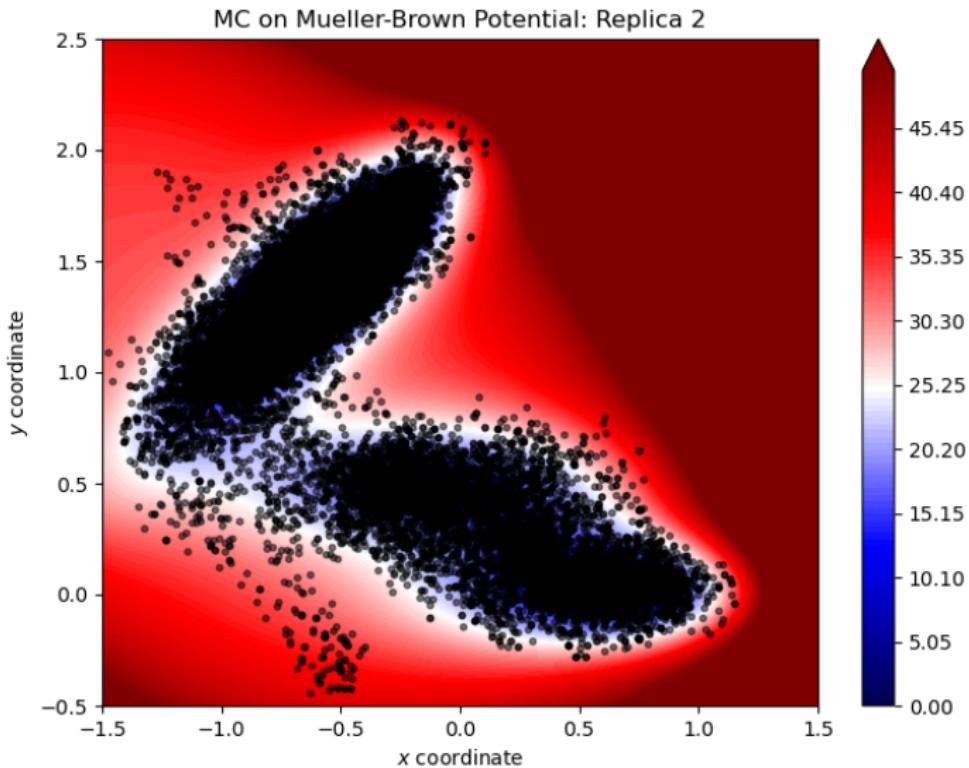
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential



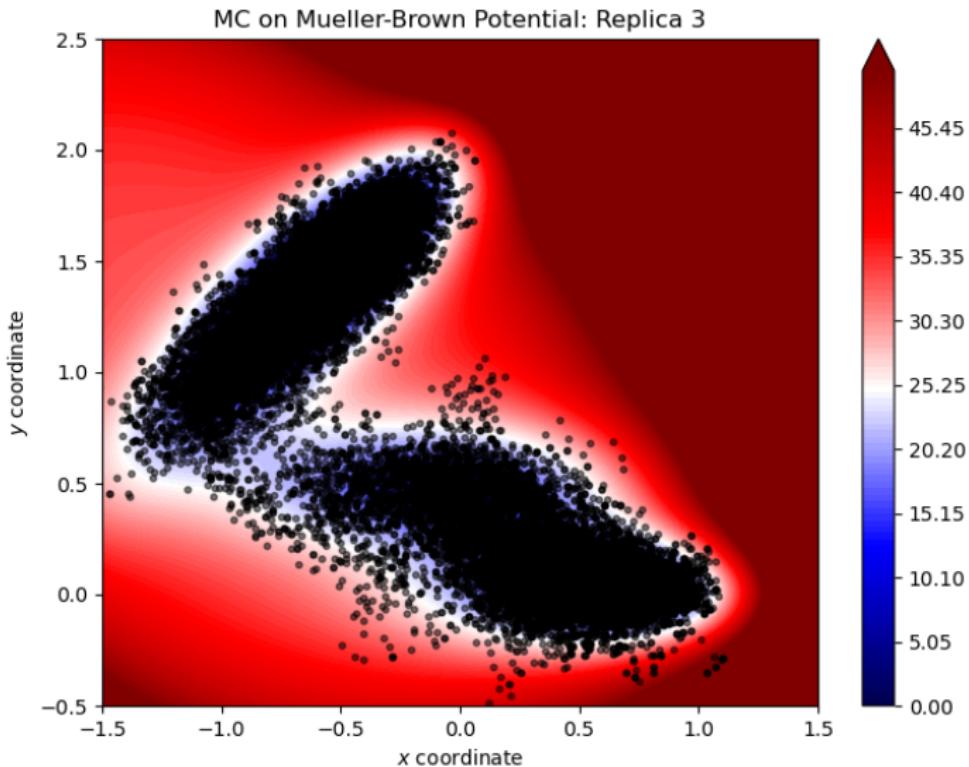
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential



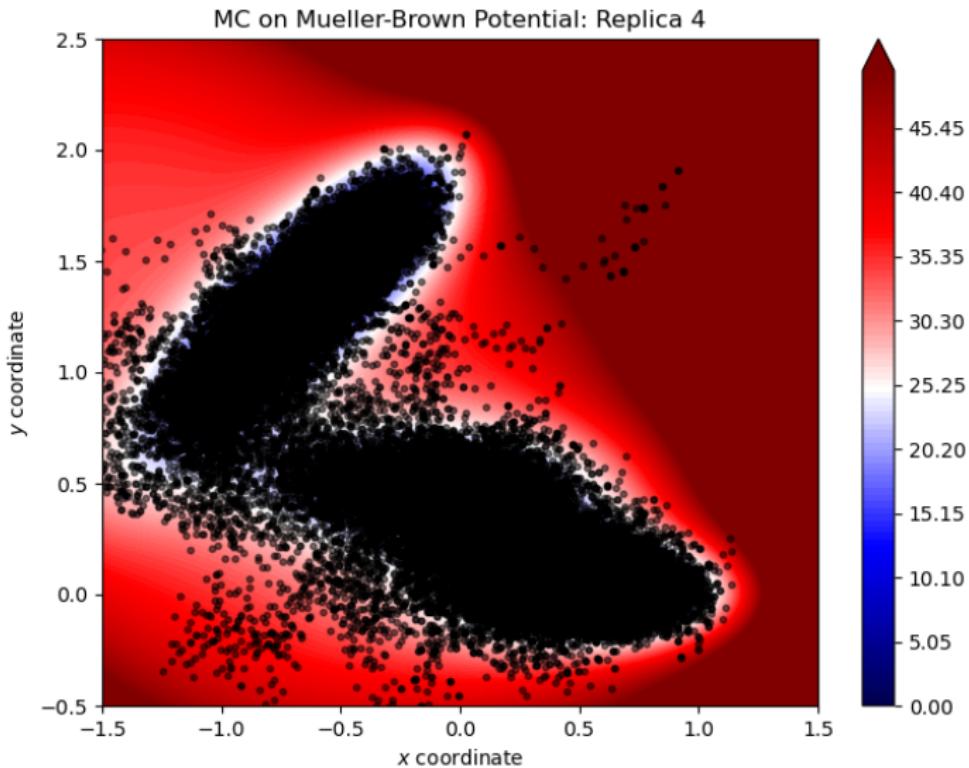
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential



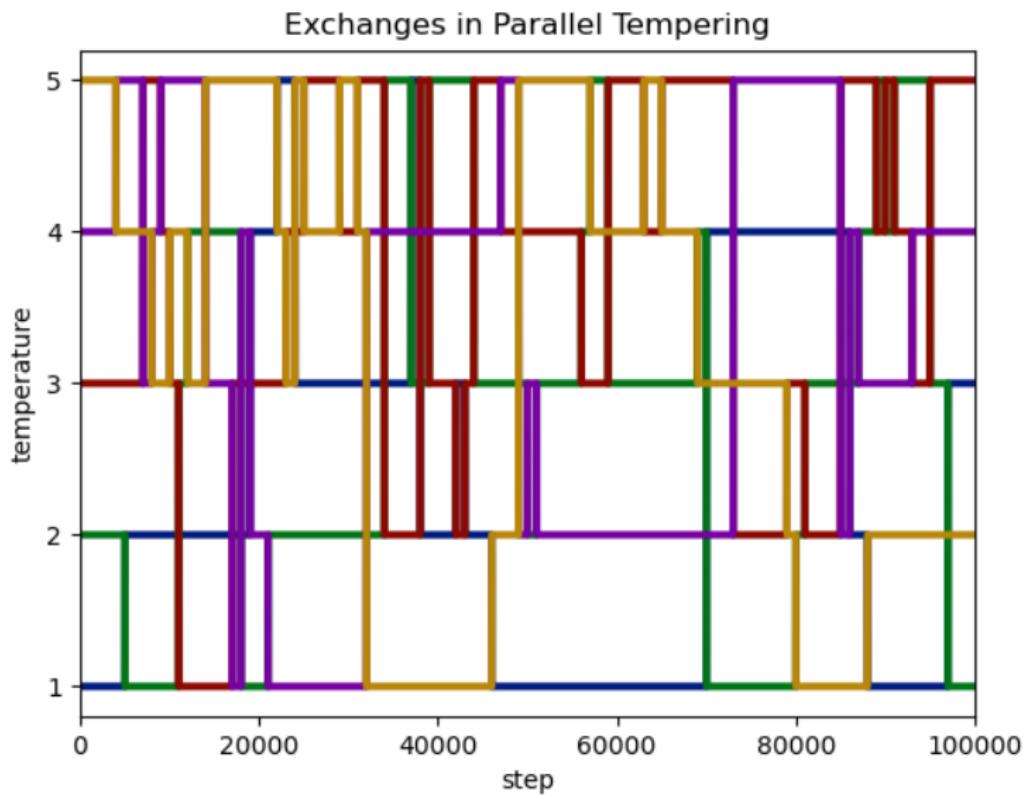
Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential



Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential



Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential



Wang-Landau Sampling

- Recall that the canonical partition function $Z(N, V, T)$ can be expressed in terms of the microcanonical partition function $\Omega(N, V, E)$:

$$Z(N, V, T) = \frac{1}{E_0} \int_0^{\infty} dE e^{-\beta E} \Omega(N, V, E), \quad (70)$$

where E_0 is an arbitrary reference energy.

- Setting $E_0 = 1$ and dropping fixed V and N , we have:

$$Z(\beta) = \int_0^{\infty} dE e^{-\beta E} \Omega(E). \quad (71)$$

- Eq. 71 suggests a procedure to compute the canonical partition function, and thus, all thermodynamic quantities.

Wang-Landau Sampling

Wang-Landau Algorithm⁸

1. Set $\Omega(E)$ for all values of E .
2. Attempt a trial move from E to E' with the acceptance probability given by:

$$A(E'|E) = \min \left[1, \frac{\Omega(E)}{\Omega(E')} \right]. \quad (72)$$

3. Modify the bin such that $\Omega(E) \rightarrow \Omega(E)f$, where $f > 1$.
4. Accumulate the histogram of energy, $h(E) \rightarrow h(E) + 1$.
5. If $h(E)$ is flat enough, then $f \rightarrow \sqrt{f}$.
6. If not converged, move to 2; else return $\Omega(E)$.

⁸Numerical implementations require that $\Omega(E)$ be discretized into a number of energy bins.

Wang-Landau Sampling

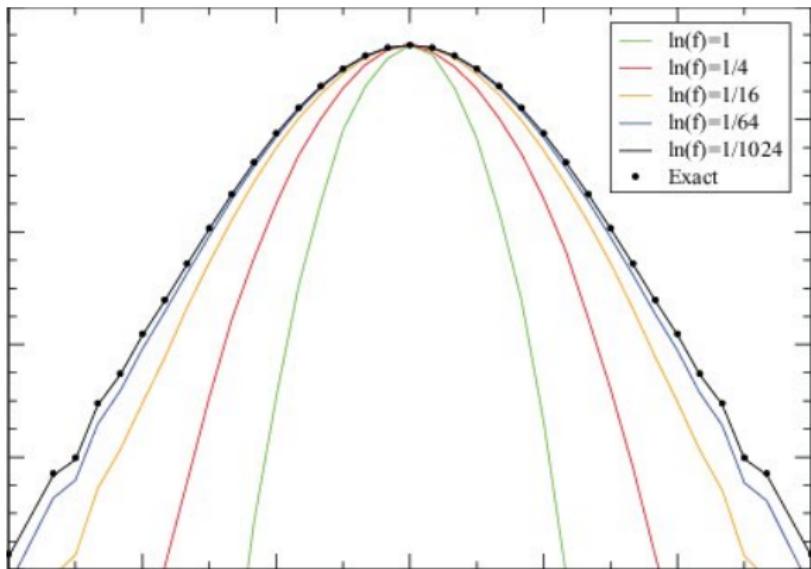


Figure 22: Convergence of the Wang-Landau algorithm.⁹

⁹ Source: Brown, Odbadrakh, Nicholson, and Eisenbach, *Convergence for the Wang-Landau density of states*, Phys. Rev. E 84, 065702(R) (2011)

Molecular Dynamics

Molecular Dynamics

There are three main ingredients in molecular dynamics (MD):

- ▶ The algorithm to integrate the equations of motion,
- ▶ The model describing the interparticle interactions,
- ▶ The calculation of forces and energies from the model.

Verlet Algorithm

- The simplest approach to obtain a numerical integration scheme is to use a Taylor series:

$$\mathbf{r}_i(t + \Delta t) \approx \mathbf{r}_i(t) + \Delta t \mathbf{v}_i(t) + \frac{\Delta t^2}{2m_i} \mathbf{F}_i(t), \quad (73)$$

and

$$\mathbf{r}_i(t - \Delta t) \approx \mathbf{r}_i(t) - \Delta t \mathbf{v}_i(t) + \frac{\Delta t^2}{2m_i} \mathbf{F}_i(t). \quad (74)$$

- Adding Eq. 73 to Eq. 74, we get a velocity-independent Verlet algorithm:

$$\mathbf{r}_i(t + \Delta t) = 2\mathbf{r}_i(t) - \mathbf{r}_i(t - \Delta t) + \frac{\Delta t^2}{m_i} \mathbf{F}_i(t). \quad (75)$$

Velocity Verlet Algorithm

- Consider a shift in time in comparison to Eq. 73:

$$\mathbf{r}_i(t) \approx \mathbf{r}_i(t + \Delta t) - \Delta t \mathbf{v}_i(t + \Delta t) + \frac{\Delta t^2}{2m_i} \mathbf{F}_i(t + \Delta t), \quad (76)$$

which after some rearrangements takes the following form:

$$\mathbf{v}_i(t + \Delta t) = \mathbf{v}_i(t) + \frac{\Delta t}{2m_i} [\mathbf{F}_i(t) + \mathbf{F}_i(t + \Delta t)]. \quad (77)$$

- This scheme allows to use both evolution of the positions and velocities.

Initial Conditions

- ▶ Initial coordinates.
- ▶ Initial velocities are sampled from a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution, taking care to ensure that the sampled velocities are consistent with any constraints imposed on the system:

$$f(v) = \frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}^{1/2} e^{-mv^2/2k_B T}, \quad (78)$$

where v is the velocity of a particle of mass m at temperature T .

- ▶ An example of a Gaussian probability distribution.

Potential Energy Model

- ▶ Commonly used model of potential energy in MD for biological macromolecules is the following:

$$U(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{\text{bond}} \frac{1}{2} K_{\text{bond}} (r - r_0)^2 \quad (79)$$

$$+ \sum_{\text{angle}} \frac{1}{2} K_{\text{bends}} (\theta - \theta_0)^2 \quad (80)$$

$$+ \sum_{\text{dihedral}} \sum_{n=0}^6 A_n [1 + \cos(C_n \phi + \delta_n)] \quad (81)$$

$$+ \sum_{i,j \in \text{non-bonded}} \left(4\epsilon_{ij} \left[\frac{\sigma_{ij}^{12}}{r_{ij}} - \frac{\sigma_{ij}^6}{r_{ij}} \right] + \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}} \right). \quad (82)$$

- ▶ Force is given by $\mathbf{F} = -\partial U / \partial \mathbf{r}$.
- ▶ Called *force field* in MD.

Potential Energy Model

- Force field provides constraints into the systems.

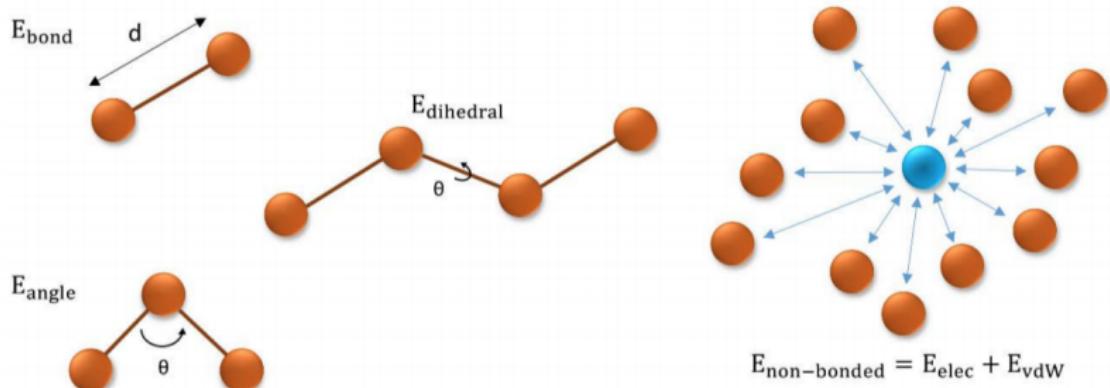
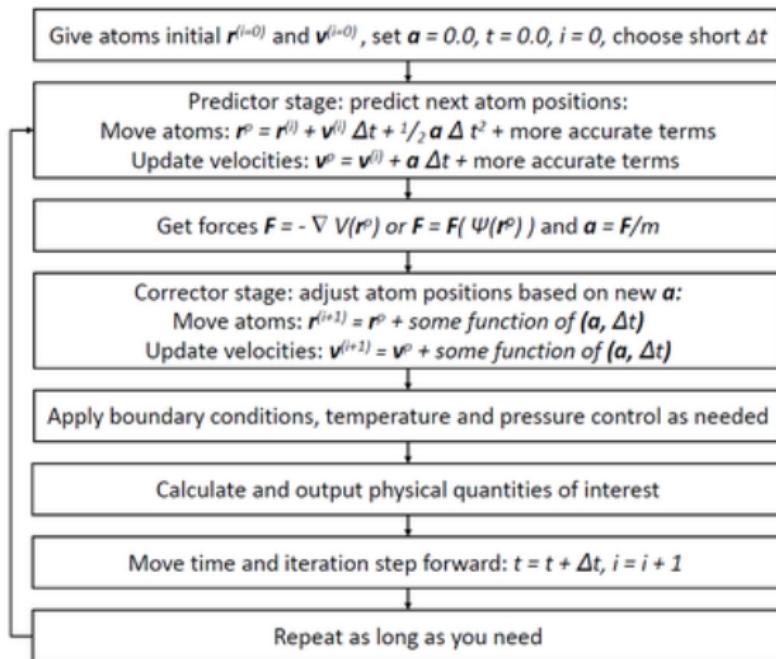


Figure 23: Force field contributions.

- Many force fields are available: Amber, CHARMM, Gromos.

General Scheme in MD

Simplified schematic of the molecular dynamics algorithm

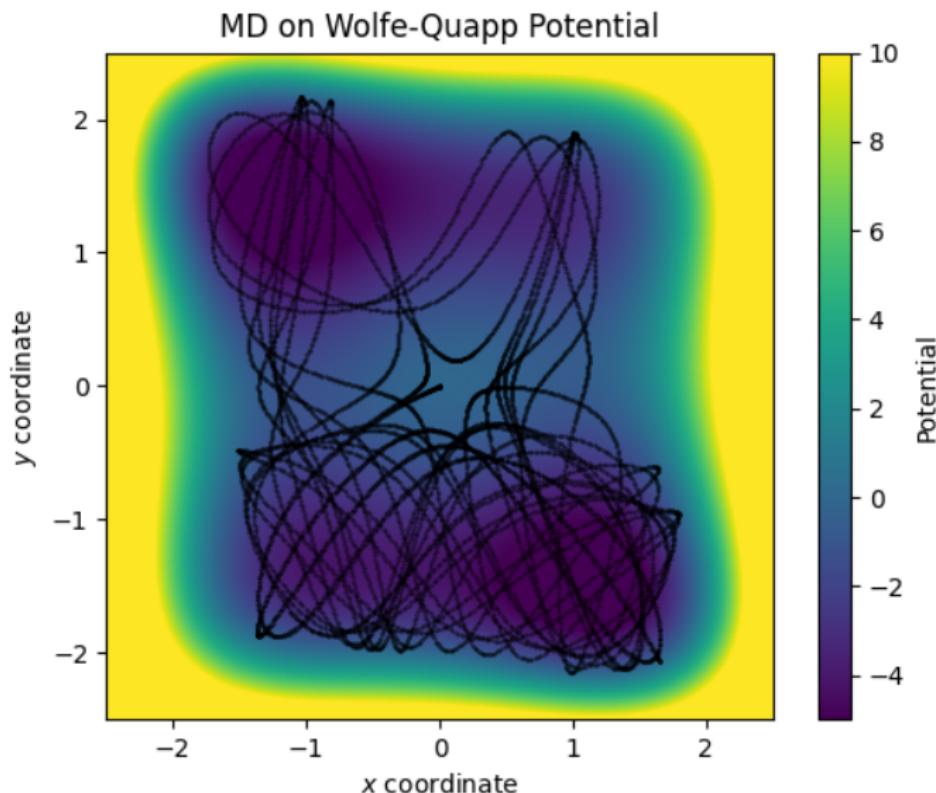


Particle on the Wolfe-Quapp Potential

```
for i in range(0, args.n_samples-1):
    position[i+1] = position[i]
        + velocity[i]*dt
        + 0.5*(force/m)*dt**2
    p, f = U.eval(position[i+1])
    velocity[i+1] = velocity[i]
        + 0.5/m*dt*(force+f)
    p_energy[i+1] = p
    force = f
```

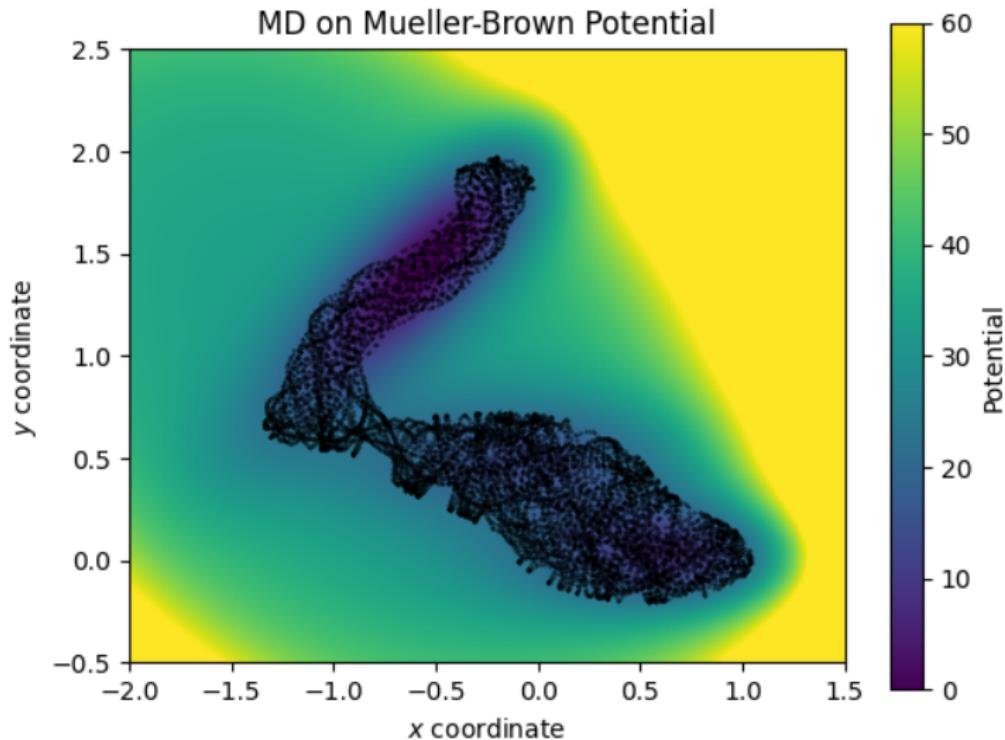
Particle on the Wolfe-Quapp Potential

```
python MD-WolfeQuapp.py --n_samples 10000 --dt 0.01 --mass 1
```

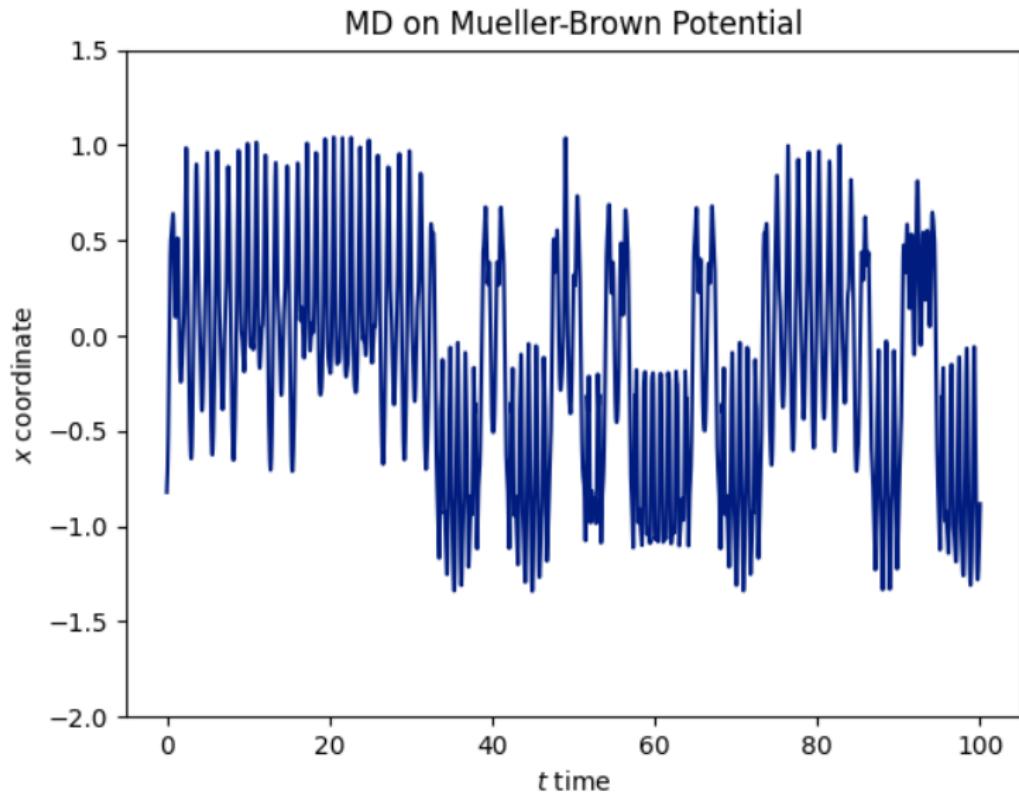


Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential

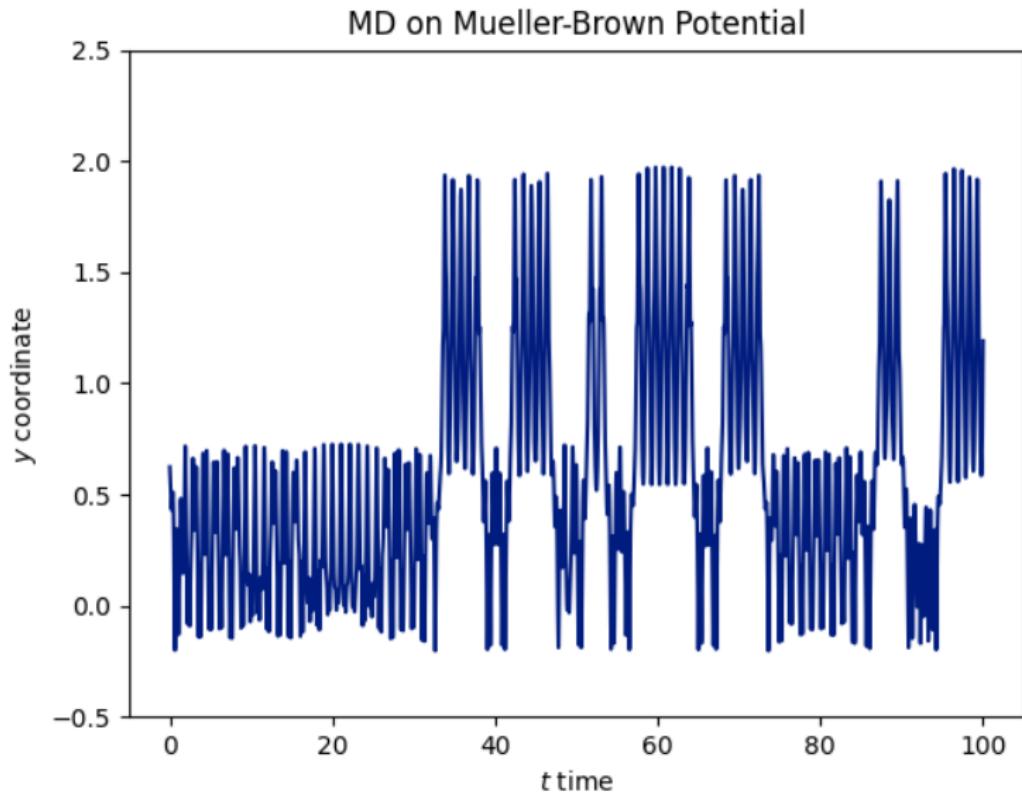
```
python MD-MuellerBrown.py --n_samples 10000 --dt 0.01 --mass 1
```



Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential



Particle on the Müller-Brown Potential



Alanine Dipeptide

- Benchmark system for MD methods.

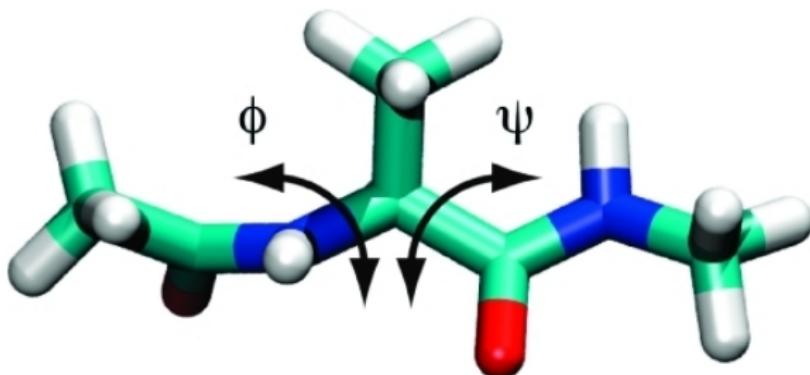


Figure 24: Alanine dipeptide with the dihedral angles.

- Scatter plot of the dihedral angles in called the Ramachandran plot.

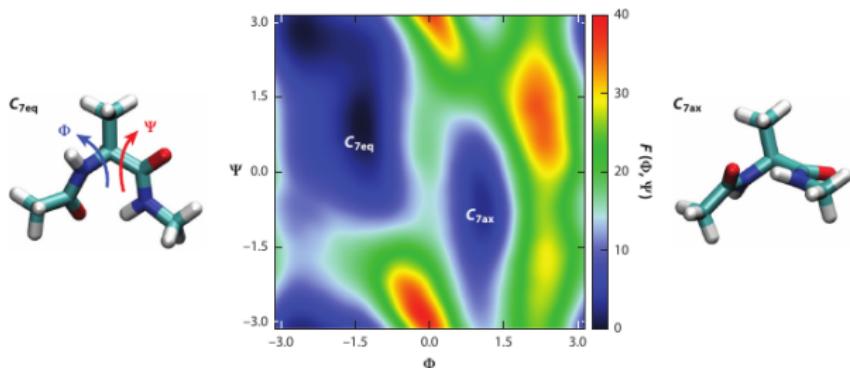
Alanine Dipeptide

- An example of the .gro file with alanine dipeptide.

22					
1ACE	HH31	1	1.075	1.111	1.585
1ACE	CH3	2	1.129	1.065	1.502
1ACE	HH32	3	1.070	0.991	1.448
1ACE	HH33	4	1.215	1.011	1.540
1ACE	C	5	1.162	1.167	1.395
1ACE	O	6	1.140	1.286	1.416
2ALA	N	7	1.230	1.118	1.289
2ALA	H	8	1.248	1.019	1.293
2ALA	CA	9	1.260	1.194	1.165
2ALA	HA	10	1.304	1.125	1.093
2ALA	CB	11	1.126	1.224	1.093
2ALA	HB1	12	1.078	1.312	1.135
2ALA	HB2	13	1.147	1.247	0.989
2ALA	HB3	14	1.073	1.129	1.094
2ALA	C	15	1.357	1.317	1.171
2ALA	O	16	1.392	1.372	1.068
3NME	N	17	1.404	1.353	1.294
3NME	H	18	1.350	1.322	1.373
3NME	CH3	19	1.517	1.445	1.315
3NME	HH31	20	1.495	1.544	1.278
3NME	HH32	21	1.546	1.457	1.420
3NME	HH33	22	1.606	1.405	1.267

Alanine Dipeptide

- Evolution of alanine dipeptide in vacuum.



- Free energy can be calculated if the trajectory displays ergodicity as:

$$F(\Phi, \Psi) = -\beta^{-1} \log P(\Phi, \Psi), \quad (83)$$

where β is the inverse temperature and $P(\Phi, \Psi)$ is the probability of occurrence in a given state described by the dihedral angles.

Alanine Dipeptide

- Difference between the ergodic and non-ergodic trajectories.

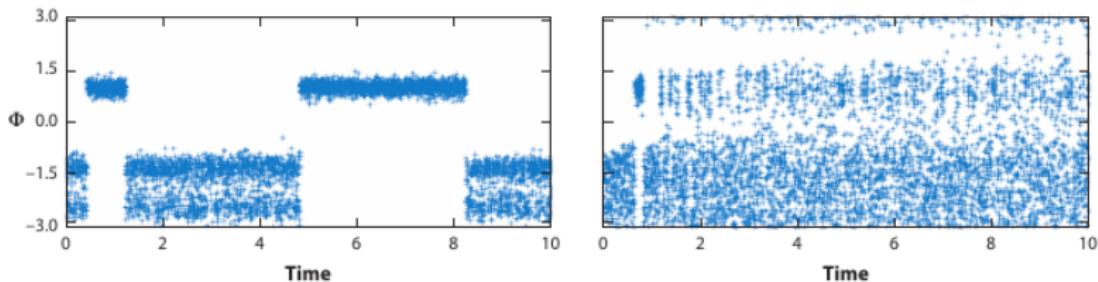


Figure 25: Time evolution of alanine dipeptide in vacuum.

- In the left, the transitions between two energy basins are *rare* or *infrequent*.
- In the right, the trajectory jumps between the states many times.

Proteins in MD

- Proteins, DNA, viruses, membranes can be studied using MD.

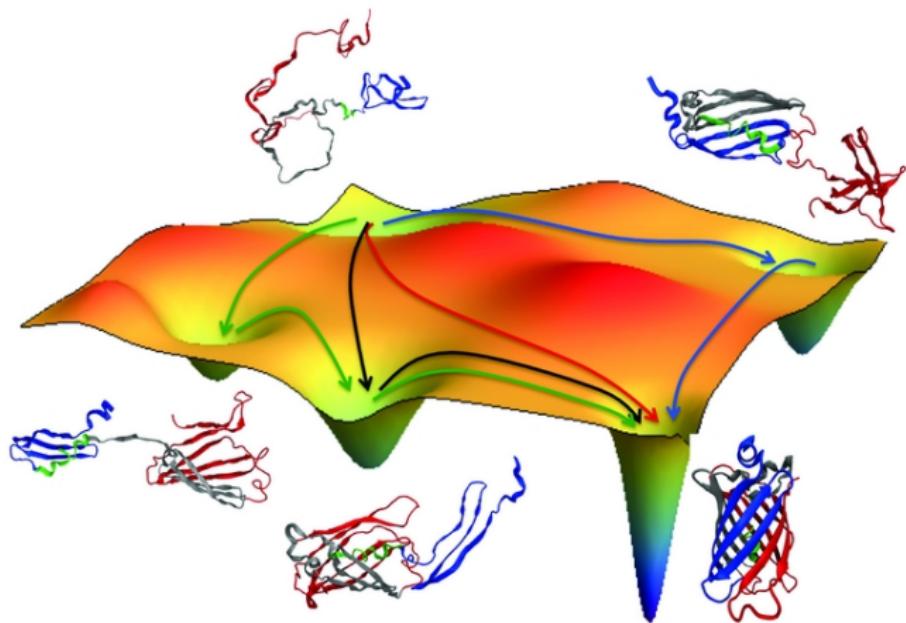


Figure 26: Protein in the phase space.

MD Engines



- ▶ Gromacs <https://www.gromacs.org/>
- ▶ NAMD <https://www.ks.uiuc.edu/Research/namd/>
- ▶ OpenMM <https://openmm.org/>
- ▶ LAMMPS <https://lammps.sandia.gov/>

Enhanced Sampling

Long Timescales

- ▶ Modeling the long-timescale behavior of complex dynamical systems is a fundamental task in physical sciences.
- ▶ MD simulations allow us to probe the spatiotemporal details of molecular processes, but the so-called sampling problem severely limits their usefulness in practice.
- ▶ This sampling problem comes from the fact that a typical free energy landscape is characterized by many metastable states separated by free energy barriers that are much higher than the thermal energy $k_B T$.

Sampling Problem

- On the timescale one can simulate, barrier crossings are rare events, and the system remains kinetically trapped in a single metastable state.

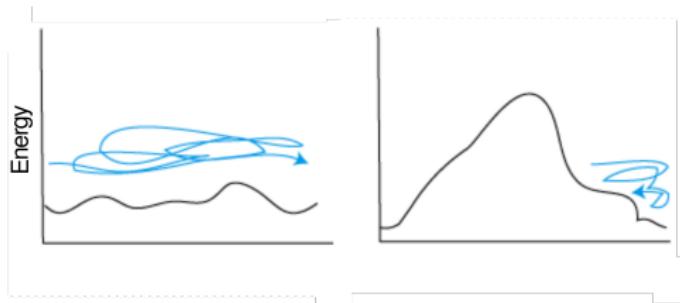


Figure 27: Ergodic and infrequent trajectories.

- ES can be used to alleviate the sampling problem.
- Here, we focus on ES methods that work by identifying coarse variables and enhancing their fluctuations.

Theory of Enhanced Sampling

- ▶ Consider a molecular system, described by microscopic coordinates \mathbf{R} and a potential energy function $U(\mathbf{R})$.
- ▶ We limit our theory to the canonical ensemble (NVT).
- ▶ At equilibrium, the microscopic coordinates follow the Boltzmann distribution:

$$P(\mathbf{R}) = e^{-\beta U(\mathbf{R})} / \int d\mathbf{R} e^{-\beta U(\mathbf{R})}, \quad (84)$$

where β is the inverse of the thermal energy.

- ▶ We identify a small set of coarse-grained order parameters called *collective variables* (CVs):

$$\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{R}) = [s_1(\mathbf{R}), s_2(\mathbf{R}), \dots, s_d(\mathbf{R})]. \quad (85)$$

Theory of Enhanced Sampling

- The equilibrium marginal distribution of CVs is given by integrating out all other degrees of freedom:

$$P(\mathbf{s}) = \int d\mathbf{R} \delta[\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{R})] P(\mathbf{R}), \quad (86)$$

where we use the sifting property of the Dirac δ -function.

- Eq. 86 is equivalent to:

$$P(\mathbf{s}) = \langle \delta[\mathbf{s} - \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{R})] \rangle, \quad (87)$$

where $\langle \cdot \rangle$ denotes an ensemble average.

- Up to an unimportant constant, the *free energy* surface (FES) is given by:

$$F(\mathbf{s}) = -\beta^{-1} \log P(\mathbf{s}). \quad (88)$$