

# Introduction to rare events and collective variables

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## 1 Motivation

Molecular dynamics (MD) simulations can be used to produce trajectories for systems composed of hundreds to millions of atoms. However, it is very difficult to analyze all these coordinates without simplifying them by means of some form of dimensional reduction. The variables obtained from a dimensional reduction are usually complex collective functions of the microscopic coordinates, and are thus called *collective variables*.

Collective variables (CVs) are however not used just to *analyze* simulations, but can also be used to *bias* simulation. This is particularly interesting in the case of rare event sampling. The timestep for MD is typically in between  $10^{-13}$  and  $10^{-12}$  seconds. However, many processes happen on timescales that are many orders of magnitude larger (e.g. milliseconds or seconds). Sometime these long time scales can be rationalized in terms of the slow dynamics of a limited number of CVs subject to *free energy barriers*. In these cases, knowledge of these CVs can be exploited to accelerate dynamics.

In the next sections we will learn more about what is a CV and how it can be used to *analyze* and *bias* a molecular dynamics simulation.

## 2 Collective variables

Collective variables provide a coarse graining of the coordinates of a system. Let's consider some example:

- A nucleoside, where isomerization around the glycosidic bond can be described by the torsional angle  $\chi$ .
- A protein that is folding, where the progression along the folding trajectory might be described using the number of native contacts.
- A ion translocating across a membrane, where the translocation might be described using the  $z$  projection of its Cartesian coordinates, or better of their distance from the center of the membrane.

- The transfer of a proton between two atoms, that can be described by the distances between the hydrogen and the two atoms.
- The association of two ions in solution, that can be described by the distance between the two ions and perhaps the number of water molecules interacting with each ion.

In these cases one might want to describe a process that in reality involves a large number of atoms looking only at a few degrees of freedom of the system (e.g. a torsional angle or a distance between two atoms). Notice that the state of the system is fully determined by the microscopic coordinates and velocities  $q$  and  $v$ . A CV is just an arbitrary function of  $q$  and, optionally (but almost never!), of  $v$ :

$$s = s(q, v)$$

In the following we will use everywhere  $s$  as if a single CV was defined, but obviously a process might require multiple variables to be described. All the equations are easily generalized to the case where  $s$  is actually a vector.

## 2.1 Angles, distances, centers

Common CVs are angles and distances between atoms or groups of atoms. CVs might depend on the position of the center of a molecule rather than that of a specific atom. For instance, if you want to analyze a small molecule translocating across a membrane, you might use the  $z$  projection of its center.

## 2.2 Coordination numbers

Notice that collective variables can in principle be discontinuous functions of positions. This is fine if you only want to analyze an MD trajectory. However, if you want to bias a trajectory you will need collective variables that are continuous functions of positions. This is why variables such as the “number of neighbors of atom  $i$ ” are written as

$$s_i = \sum_j f(d_{ij})$$

Here  $d_{ij}$  is the distance between atom  $i$  and atom  $j$ , and  $f(x)$  is a so-called “switching function” that goes from 1 to 0 as  $x$  goes from 0 to infinity. A typical switching function is

$$f(r) = \frac{1}{1 + (r/r_0)^6}$$

Here  $r_0$  here is the distance for which the value of the switching function is 1/2.

### 2.3 Number of native contacts

Imagine that you know the list of a number of contacts that are formed when a protein is folded and are not formed when it is not folded (native contacts). You can analyze a folding trajectory by counting the number of formed contacts with a collective variable such as

$$s = \sum_{ij \in NC} f(d_{ij})$$

Here  $NC$  is the list of pairs of atoms corresponding to native contacts, and  $f$  is a switching function like the one mentioned above.

## 3 Free-energy landscapes

If the system is at thermodynamic equilibrium, the probability of finding a given value of  $q$  and  $v$  is the Boltzmann distribution

$$P(q, v) \propto e^{-\frac{K(v) + U(q)}{k_B T}} \quad (1)$$

Here  $U(q)$  is the potential energy and  $K(v)$  is the kinetic energy,  $k_B$  is the Boltzmann constant and  $T$  is the temperature. The equivalent of the Boltzmann distribution for a CV is obtained by marginalization:

$$P(s) \propto \int dq dv P(q, v) \delta(s(q, v) - s)$$

This distribution can be expressed as

$$P(s) \propto e^{-\frac{F(s)}{k_B T}}$$

where  $F(s)$  is the free-energy associated to the value  $s$  of the collective variable.  $F$  is also called potential of mean force since its gradient corresponds to the average force acting on a collective variable. By straightforward algebra one can express  $F$  as

$$F(s) = -k_B T \log \int dq dv P(q, v) \delta(s(q, v) - s) + C$$

where  $C$  is an arbitrary constant. Notice that  $F(s)$  is nothing more than “the marginal probability expressed in energy units”. States (i.e. value of  $s$ ) with a large free energy are states with a low population.

Provided you have a trajectory that is long enough to be ergodic and visit all the relevant states of a system, you can obtain  $F(s)$  in the following way:

1. Accumulate the histogram of the visited values of  $s$ .
2. Take its logarithm and multiply by  $-k_B T$  to have energy units.

Sometime instead of being interested in the free-energy associated to a single value of  $s$  you might be interested in the stability of a whole free-energy basin. Remember the connection with probabilities, and notice that the probability for a basin  $A$  can be obtained by integrating the probability on that basin. Thus the free energy of a basin  $A$  will be

$$F_A = -k_B T \log \int_A ds e^{-\frac{F(s)}{k_B T}} + C$$

If you have two metastable basins (e.g. *syn* and *anti*), their free-energy difference is

$$F_{syn} - F_{anti} = -k_B T \log \frac{\int_{syn} ds e^{-\frac{F(s)}{k_B T}}}{\int_{anti} ds e^{-\frac{F(s)}{k_B T}}}$$

So, if the system has 80% probability to be in *syn* and 20% probability to be in *anti*, you can say that  $\Delta F = 0.6 \text{kcal/mol} \times \log \frac{1}{4} \approx -0.83 \text{kcal/mol}$ , where  $k_B T \approx 0.6 \text{kcal/mol}$ . You will then know that if you disfavor the *anti* state by 0.83 kcal/mol the two states will have the same probability.

## 4 Overlapping metastable states

The free-energy landscape  $F(s)$  associated to a collective variable can always be defined and computed as discussed above (if a long enough simulation can be performed). However, depending on the choice of the collective variable, it might be totally uninformative. Imagine for instance a case where the typical values assumed by  $s$  in reactant and product states are overlapping. Knowing the value of  $s$  will not be enough to decide in which metastable state the system is located.

Remember that  $s$  is just a function of  $q$  and  $v$ , so given  $q$  and  $v$  I can obtain a unique  $s$ . Conversely, there are many possible values of  $q$  and  $v$  that correspond to the same value of  $s$ . What I should check is that all these values (i.e. all these conformations) belong to “the same state”. The definition of “belonging to the same state” depends on which time scale I am investigating. Clearly, if the typical time to isomerize a bond is on the order on  $10^{-10}$  seconds, on the timescale of  $10^{-6}$  seconds two isomers would correspond to the same state. This won’t be true if I want to analyze the system on the timescale of picoseconds.

## 5 Enhancing transitions

Let’s now imagine that the value of the collective variable is sufficient to completely characterize the state of the system. Obviously, knowing  $s$  does not tell us the precise position of all the atoms of the system. However, if knowing  $s$  is sufficient to characterize the system on timescale  $\tau$ , the probability of observing a given value of the CV  $s'$  after a time  $\tau$  will only depend on the previous value of  $s$ :

$$P(s', t + \tau | s, t) = M(s' \leftarrow s, \tau)$$

The dynamics of  $s$  will be Markovian on timescale  $\tau$ .

Let’s also consider  $s$  to be a discrete rather than continuous variable. This is not a strong assumption, since it can be relaxed by assuming the discrete values to be very dense. We consider a simple system where  $s$  can only take three possible values for  $s$  (A, B and C), such that to go from  $A$  to  $C$  it is necessary to cross  $B$ :

$$A \rightleftharpoons B \rightleftharpoons C$$

If  $P(B) \ll P(A) \approx P(C)$  then the transition between  $A$  and  $C$  will require a lot of time. This can be interpreted as a “free energy barrier”, since  $F(B)$  will be much larger than  $F(A)$  and  $F(C)$ . As you will learn later, by simply adding a bias potential that encourages the system to visit  $B$  you will be able to greatly enhance the probability to see a transition between  $A$  and  $C$ . This is basically the same way enzymes work: by relatively stabilizing the transition state of a reaction.

## 6 Troubles with transition states

To be useful in enhanced sampling techniques, CVs should be able to identify transition states. Let’s make an example where it is not verified. Let’s start with a Markovian system with three states ( $A$ ,  $B$ , and  $C$ , as above), where  $P(B) \ll P(A) \approx P(C)$ . Now let’s make a further coarse graining and define a CV whose value is

- $s = 0$  when the system is in  $A$  or  $B$
- $s = 1$  when the system is in  $C$

Our variable  $s$  is capable to distinguish  $A$  and  $C$  (the metastable minima) but not capable to distinguish  $A$  from  $B$  (the transition state from one of the minima). Clearly, in this case stabilizing  $B$  (and thus also  $A$ ) would not increase the probability to see a transition between  $A$  and  $C$ .

## 7 Comments

Designing CVs with the properties above is far from trivial and highly system dependent. Often, they can only be found by trial and error. In the case of analysis, trial and error means “analyze multiple times the same simulation”. In the case of biased MD, trial and error means “running MD again”, which can be painful. A number of methods that allow to automatize, at least partially, this search is available. Learning how to combine existing CVs in PLUMED can significantly speedup your workflow. Finally, consider that once you will have found a CV that works well, the choice of the CV should be considered a *result* of your work and will tell you which are the important physical or chemical processes underlying the phenomenon you are studying.

## 8 Summary

- Collective variables are generic functions of the microscopic coordinates of system (hypothetically including velocities, though this is very rare).
- To be useful in analysis, a collective variable should at least be able to distinguish different metastable conformations.
- When used for biasing trajectories, variables should be continuous.
- To be useful in enhanced sampling methods based on collective variables (e.g umbrella sampling, metadynamics, etc; you will learn more later about these methods), a collective variable should in addition be able to correctly distinguish the transition states from the metastable conformations.