Stochastic Multiscale Analysis



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Overview



Motivation

- Why Multiscale ?
 - all physical processes involve a synergy of multiple scales
 - often we can/choose to ignore finer-scales and employ coarsened descriptions (e.g. continuum models)
 - in a lot of problems we cannot ignore the fine-scale and we have to work with fine-scale or multi-scale models
- Why Stochastic?
 - the finer the scale we consider the less we know
 - when we coarse-grain, we loose information and information loss leads to uncertainty

Coarse-grained models of complex, many-body systems are useful in at least two ways:

- They enhance our understanding of the salient physical/chemical/bio mechanisms
- They enable efficient computations in multiscale/multiphysics regimes



Molecular Dynamics aim to *estimate* numerically *macroscopic* quatities

- equilibrium
- non-equilibrium

Atomistic Simulation is a commonly-used tool in many fields

- biology
- material science
- chemistry ^a
- engineering

^a2013 Nobel Prize in Chemistry to Karplus & Levitt & Warshel for the "development of multiscale models for complex chemical systems"

Mature software exists

LAMMPS, GROMACS (free)

AMBER, CHARMM

www.tinyurl.com/mnmuq2014



If \boldsymbol{q}_i is the position of atom *i*:



Newton's law:

$$m_i \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}_i = \boldsymbol{f}_i = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}_i} \sum_{j \neq i} V(\boldsymbol{q}_i, \boldsymbol{q}_j)$$

For an isolated system with N atoms, the total energy is the Hamiltonian H:

$$H(\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{p}) = \sum_{i} \frac{1}{2} \frac{\boldsymbol{p}_{i}^{2}}{m_{i}} + \underbrace{V(\boldsymbol{q}_{1}, \boldsymbol{q}_{2}, \dots, \boldsymbol{q}_{N})}_{\text{potential energy}}$$

Hamiltonian equations:

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{q}}_i = rac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}_i}, \quad \boldsymbol{p}_i = -rac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}_i}$$

where $\boldsymbol{p}_i = m \dot{\boldsymbol{q}}_i$ are the momenta



One would need only to integrate in time (chaotic, non-linear equations):

Newtonian equations:

Hamiltonian equations:

$$m_i \ddot{\boldsymbol{q}}_i = \boldsymbol{f}_i = -\frac{\partial V(\boldsymbol{q})}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}_i}$$

$$\dot{\boldsymbol{q}}_i = rac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}_i}, \quad \boldsymbol{p}_i = -rac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}_i}$$



There are two + one problems with that:

- The number of atoms is very large, $N \rightarrow 10^{23}$
- The dynamics is too fast, $\Delta t \rightarrow 10^{-12} 10^{-15}$



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The evolution of MD simulations (from *T. Schlick. Molecular Modeling: An Interdisciplinary Guide, 2010*)



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The evolution of MD simulations (from *T. Schlick. Molecular Modeling: An Interdisciplinary Guide, 2010*)

• We do not know (exactly) the initial conditions i.e. there is uncertainty



- We do not know (exactly) the initial conditions for all DoFs $\boldsymbol{q}_i, \boldsymbol{p}_i, i = 1, 2 \dots N$.
- We prescribe an initial probability density of microstates ρ₀(**q**, **p**) which is consistent with the initial *macroscopic* conditions
- This density will evolve in time, ρ(q, p; t)¹:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}} \cdot \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}} + \frac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}} \cdot \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}} \quad \text{(Liouville's equation)}$$

• Is there an equilibrium/stationary distribution $\rho_{eq}(q, p) = \lim_{t \to \infty} \rho(q, p; t)$?

¹R. Zwanzig, Nonequilibrium Statistical Mechanics



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$$ho_{eq}(oldsymbol{q},oldsymbol{p})\propto\delta(H(oldsymbol{q},oldsymbol{p})-H_{0})$$

• Canonical ensemble (system in a heat bath with temperature T):

$$H_{eq}(\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{p}) = rac{ heta x p\{-rac{1}{k_{ heta}T}H(\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{p})\}}{T}.$$

Grand-canonical ensemble . . .



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Maximum Entropy connection ^a

^aE.T. Jaynes, Information Theory and Statistical Mechanics, 1957

- Entropy increases with time t
- The equilibrium density is the one that maximizes the entropy:

$$m{S} = -\int
ho_{eq}(m{q},m{p})\log
ho_{eq}(m{q},m{p})\;dm{q}dm{p}$$





The objective of equilibrium statistical mechanics is to compute *averages* :

E.g.:

$$E[f(oldsymbol{q},oldsymbol{p})] = \int f(oldsymbol{q},oldsymbol{p})
ho_{eq}(oldsymbol{q},oldsymbol{p}) doldsymbol{q} doldsymbol{p}$$

- Other notations: $< f(\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{p}) >, E_{eq}[f] \dots$
- These averages correspond to *macroscopic* thermodynamic quantities e.g.:
 - stress,
 - pressure
 - diffusivity,
 - viscosity,
 - specific heat etc.



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Deterministic methods

- Generate a trajectory $(\boldsymbol{q}(t), \boldsymbol{p}(t), \boldsymbol{x}(t))$
- The auxiliary variables $\mathbf{x}(t)$ are appropriately selected to ensure states consistent with the canonical ensemble
- Typical examples: Nosé-Hoover, Nosé-Poincaré

Stochastic Methods (Monte Carlo)

- Generate random samples q_i, p_i or sample trajectories (q(t), p(t)) from appropriately selected Stochastic PDEs.
- Typical examples: Importance Sampling, Markov Chain Monte Carlo, Sequential Monte Carlo
- Strong convergence results, increased flexibility that can incorporate deterministic methods.



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Suppose we wish to sample from:

$$p_{eq}(\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{p}) = rac{exp\{-rac{1}{k_BT}H(\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{p})\}}{Z}$$

where
$$H(\boldsymbol{q}, \boldsymbol{p}) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2} \frac{\boldsymbol{p}_{i}^{2}}{m_{i}} + V(\boldsymbol{q}_{1}, \boldsymbol{q}_{2}, \dots \boldsymbol{q}_{N})$$

- N is very large i.e. we can afford algorithms that scale O(N) but probably not O(N²)
- Correlations between *q* and *p* are strong (i.e. no random-walk scheme would work)
- Sampling p is easy (i.e. multivariate Gaussian)



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• Techniques that employ first-order derivatives of *H* are generally employed. Their cost is generally determined by the number of times force evalautions have to be performed i.e. $\frac{\partial V}{\partial a}$.

Increasing the temperature *T* "flattens" the target density

 ρ_{eq} is generally *multi-modal*. It is very difficult for usual MCMC schemes
 to escape these modes.



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Hybrid or Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (R. Neal, 2012)

Given the current state $(\boldsymbol{q}_{old}, \boldsymbol{p}_{old})$

- Draw new p from multivariate Gaussian
- Perform *L* time-integration steps with your favorite, explicit (volume-perserving, reversible) integrator e.g. velocity Verlet:

$$(\boldsymbol{q}_{old}, \hat{\boldsymbol{p}}) \rightarrow \dots$$
 $\stackrel{\boldsymbol{\dot{q}} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{p}}}{\underbrace{\boldsymbol{p}} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial \boldsymbol{q}}} \dots \rightarrow (\boldsymbol{q}_{new}, \boldsymbol{p}_{new})$
 $\underbrace{\boldsymbol{L}-steps}$

M-H accept/reject based on: exp{-¹/_{k_BT}(H(q_{new}, p_{new}) - H(q_{old}, p̂)}



Hybrid/Hamiltonian Monte Carlo (R. Neal, 2012)





Samples of *q*₁ for a 2-dimensional problem using Random Walk Metropolis (left) and HMC (right)



Samples of q_1 for a 100-dimensional problem using Random Walk Metropolis (left) and HMC (right)



- Consider a very long (N >> 1) one-dimensional chain of atoms at equilibruim temperature T
- We want to predict the *macroscopic* behavior of the chain i.e. the (force)
 F (length) / relation.



i.e. the probability that the length of chain is I.



- Consider a very long (N >> 1) one-dimensional chain of atoms at equilibruim temperature T
- We want to predict the *macroscopic* behavior of the chain i.e. the (force)
 F (length) / relation.

• Suppose we fix
$$q_1 \equiv 0$$
 and $l = l(\mathbf{q}) = q_N$.
 $F^{micro}(\mathbf{q}) \xrightarrow{F} F = -\langle F^{micro} \rangle_{q_N=l} = \langle \frac{\partial V(\mathbf{q})}{\partial q_N} \rangle_{q_N=l}$
 $q_N \equiv l = \int \frac{\partial V(\mathbf{q})}{\partial q_N} \rho_{eq}(\mathbf{q}|q_N = l) d\mathbf{q}$
• What is $\rho_{eq}(\mathbf{q}|q_N = l)$?
• Let:
 $Z(l) = \int \rho_{eq}(\mathbf{q}) \delta(l - q_N) d\mathbf{q}$

i.e. the probability that the length of chain is I.

Then:

$$\rho_{eq}(\boldsymbol{q}|q_N=l) = \frac{1}{Z(l)}\rho_{eq}(\boldsymbol{q})\delta(l-q_N) = \frac{1}{Z(l)}e^{-\beta V(\boldsymbol{q})}\delta(l-q_N)$$

Note that:

$$F = \int \frac{\partial V(\boldsymbol{q})}{\partial q_N} \rho_{eq}(\boldsymbol{q}|q_N = I) \, d\boldsymbol{q}$$

=
$$\int \frac{\partial V(\boldsymbol{q})}{\partial q_N} \frac{e^{-\beta V(\boldsymbol{q})} \delta(I-q_N)}{Z(I)} \, d\boldsymbol{q}$$

=
$$\frac{\partial}{\partial q_N} \left(-\frac{1}{\beta} \log Z(I) \right) \quad (\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T})$$

• The quantity:

$$A(I) = -\frac{1}{\beta} \log Z(I) = -\frac{1}{\beta} \log \int e^{-\beta V(\boldsymbol{q})} \delta(I - q_N) d\boldsymbol{q}$$

is called Helmholtz Free Energy.

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Note that:

 $e^{-\beta A(l)} = Z(l) \equiv$ probability that the length of chain is *l*

• Hence *A*(*I*) is the *effective potential* for the *marginal distribution* of the *macroscopic* variable *I*.

Since A(I) gives the exact marginal of I, there is no coarse-graining error i.e. we do not lose any information by "integrating out" the atomistic degreees of freedom.

One can, in principle, compute free energies w.r.t to any macroscopic variables *Q* = ξ(*q*) (e.g. strain) i.e.:

 $A(\boldsymbol{Q}) = -rac{1}{B}\log \int \delta(\boldsymbol{Q} - \boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q})) \ e^{-eta V(\boldsymbol{q})} \ d\boldsymbol{q}$

Helmholtz Free Energy

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$$A(\boldsymbol{Q}) = -rac{1}{eta} \log \int \delta(\boldsymbol{Q} - \boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q})) \; e^{-eta V(\boldsymbol{q})} \; d \boldsymbol{q}$$

Free Energy comprises contributions from:

- Energy/Potential
- Entropy

Energetic contributions

Suppose:

$$V(\boldsymbol{q}) = W(q_N) + \hat{V}(q_1, \ldots, q_{N-1})$$

• Then for $Q = q_N$:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathsf{A}(Q) &= -\frac{1}{\beta} \log \int e^{-\beta V(\boldsymbol{q})} \delta(Q - q_N) \, d\boldsymbol{q} \\ &= -\frac{1}{\beta} \log e^{-\beta W(Q)} \int e^{-\beta \hat{V}(q_1, \dots, q_{N-1}))} \, dq_1 \dots dq_{N-1} \\ &= W(Q) \end{array}$$

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Entropic contributions

• Suppose V(x, y) is 0 inside the box and $+\infty$ outside. For Q = x:



From Lelievre et al. 2010. Free Energy Computations: A mathematical perspective

www.tinyurl.com/mnmuq2014

Some considerations:

$$A(\mathbf{Q}) = -rac{1}{eta} \log \int \delta(\mathbf{Q} - \boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q})) \ e^{-eta V(\boldsymbol{q})} \ d\boldsymbol{q}$$

- The Helmholtz Free Energy $A(\mathbf{Q})$ provides a principled and exact representation of the equilibrium atomistic ensemble w.r.t the *reduced coordinates* $\mathbf{Q} = \xi(\mathbf{q})$.
- If A(Q) is known we can reproduce exactly any macroscopic property depending on Q.
- $A(\mathbf{Q})$ is really $A(\mathbf{Q}, \beta)$ i.e. it depends on the temperature
- Free energy differences are of interest.

Helmholtz Free energy $A(\mathbf{Q})$:

$$m{A}(m{Q}) = -rac{1}{eta} \log \int \delta(m{Q} - m{\xi}(m{q})) \; m{e}^{-eta V(m{q})} \; dm{q}$$

- How can one estimate A(Q)?
 - Suppose $\boldsymbol{Q} \equiv \boldsymbol{q}_1$ and $\rho_{eq}(\boldsymbol{q}_1, \boldsymbol{q}_2)$ is bimodal.

(a) _{Peq}(q₁,q₂)

Convergence is very, very slow - q₁ is the slow variable

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Coarse-grained variables $\boldsymbol{Q} = \boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q})$:

- Other names: relevant variables, macrostates, macroscopic variables, collective variables, *reaction coordinates*, internal variables, order parameters etc.
 - How does one find the most appropriate coarse-grained variables ${\cal Q}^{\,a}$
 - based on the macroscopic prediction objectives.
 - based on physical insight
 - based on (principled) processing of computational data (machine learnining)
- In the following we will assume that $Q = \xi(q)$ is given.

^aRohrdanz et al. 2013 Discovering mountain passes via torchlight: methods for the definition of reaction coordinates and pathways in complex macromolecular reactions



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Given *good* $\boldsymbol{Q} = \boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q})$ the computation of free energy (differences) $A(\boldsymbol{Q})$ amounts to:

- sampling efficiently a multi-modal density
- computing the marginal w.r.t. Q.

Some techniques:

- Thermodynamic integration (Kirkwood 1935)
- Equilibrium methods
- Nonequilibrium methods (Jarzynski 1997)
- Adaptive Biasing Potential (ABP) or Force (ABF) methods (Wang-Landau 2001)
- Keep in mind that a lot of these techniques can be used in completeley different contexts in UQ e.g. Bayesian inference (Chopin et al. 2012)



Recall that the marginal ρ_Q(Q) w.r.t the coarse-grained variables
 Q = ξ(q) is:

$$ho_{oldsymbol{Q}}(oldsymbol{Q}) \propto oldsymbol{e}^{-eta A(oldsymbol{Q})} = \int oldsymbol{e}^{-eta V(oldsymbol{q})} \delta(oldsymbol{Q} - oldsymbol{\xi}(oldsymbol{q})) \; doldsymbol{q}$$

• Define an <u>auxiliary</u> density $\hat{\rho}(\boldsymbol{q})$ as:

$$\hat{
ho}(\boldsymbol{q}) = rac{\boldsymbol{e}^{-eta(V(\boldsymbol{q})-\hat{A}(\boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q});\phi))}}{Z(\phi)}$$

where $\hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q}; \phi)$ is a function of the coarse-grained variables \boldsymbol{Q} that is parameterized by ϕ .

• The corresponding marginal $\hat{\rho}_{\boldsymbol{Q}}(\boldsymbol{Q})$ will be:

$$\hat{\rho}_{\boldsymbol{Q}}(\boldsymbol{Q}) = \int \hat{\rho}(\boldsymbol{q}) \delta(\boldsymbol{Q} - \boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q})) d\boldsymbol{q} \\ = \frac{e^{-\beta(\boldsymbol{A}(\boldsymbol{Q}) - \boldsymbol{\lambda}(\boldsymbol{Q}, \boldsymbol{\phi}))}}{Z(\boldsymbol{\phi})}$$



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• Note that if $A(\mathbf{Q}) = \hat{A}(\mathbf{Q}; \phi)) + constant$ then:

$$\hat{
ho}_{\boldsymbol{Q}}(\boldsymbol{Q}) = rac{\boldsymbol{e}^{-eta(\boldsymbol{A}(\boldsymbol{Q})-\hat{\boldsymbol{A}}(\boldsymbol{Q};\phi))}}{Z(\phi)} \equiv (\textit{uniform})$$

- In practice we define a (small or large) subset of *Q*-values, say *D*, that is of interest. Let π(*Q*) ∝ 1_D(*Q*) be the uniform on *D*
- Hence the optimal free energy approximation Â(Q; φ)) is found by:

$$\phi^{opt} = \arg\min_{\phi} f(\phi) = DISTANCE(\underbrace{\pi(\mathbf{Q})}_{uniform on \mathcal{D}}, \hat{\rho}_{\mathbf{Q}}(\mathbf{Q}))$$

 We propose using the Kullback-Leibler divergence to measure the distance between densities i.e.:

$$\begin{aligned} f(\phi) &= KL(\pi(\mathcal{Q})||\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{Q}}(\mathcal{Q})) &= -\int \pi(\mathcal{Q}) \log \frac{\hat{\rho}_{\mathcal{Q}}(\mathcal{Q})}{\pi(\mathcal{Q})} \, d\mathcal{Q} \\ &= -\int \pi(\mathcal{Q}) \left(-\beta(\mathcal{A}(\mathcal{Q}) - \hat{\mathcal{A}}(\mathcal{Q}; \phi)) \right) \, d\mathcal{Q} + \log Z(\phi) + . \end{aligned}$$



• Note that if $A(\mathbf{Q}) = \hat{A}(\mathbf{Q}; \phi)) + constant$ then:

$$\hat{
ho}_{\boldsymbol{a}}(\boldsymbol{Q}) = rac{\boldsymbol{e}^{-eta(\boldsymbol{A}(\boldsymbol{Q})-\hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q};\phi))}}{Z(\phi)} \equiv (\textit{uniform})$$

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$$= -\beta \underbrace{\int \pi(\mathbf{Q}) \hat{A}(\mathbf{Q}; \phi) d\mathbf{Q}}_{easy} + \underbrace{\log Z(\phi)}_{difficult}$$



Objective:

$$\min_{\phi} f(\phi) = -\beta \int \pi(\boldsymbol{Q}) \hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q};\phi) \ d\boldsymbol{Q} + \log Z(\phi)$$

Suppose one expresses:

$$\hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q}; \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \phi_i K_i(\boldsymbol{Q})$$

where $K_i(\mathbf{Q})$ are some given basis/kernel functions².

$$\begin{array}{l} \frac{\partial f}{\partial \phi_l} &= -\beta E_{\pi} \left[\frac{\partial A(\boldsymbol{Q}; \phi)}{\partial \phi_l} \right] + \frac{d \log Z(\phi)}{\partial \phi_l} \\ &= -\beta \left(E_{\pi} [K_l(\boldsymbol{Q})] - E_{\hat{\rho}_{\boldsymbol{Q}}} [K_l(\boldsymbol{Q})] \right), \quad \hat{\rho}_{\boldsymbol{Q}}(\boldsymbol{Q}) = \frac{e^{-\beta (A(\boldsymbol{Q}) - \hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q}; \phi))}}{Z(\phi)} \end{array}$$

$\sum_{\substack{i \neq j \\ \partial \phi_i}} = \beta^2 Cov_{\hat{\rho}_{\boldsymbol{a}}}[K_i(\boldsymbol{Q}), K_j(\boldsymbol{Q})] > 0 \quad \longrightarrow \text{ CONVEX}$

²You will ask how did you pick K_i and how do you know how many M you must use?



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- Q: But one does not know $\hat{\rho}_{Q}(Q)$, after all, isn't A(Q) is what we are looking for?
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- Q: Even if you do Monte Carlo for p̂(q) you will get a very poor estimates (especially in the begining i.e. when A ≡ 0)?
- A: Stochastic Approximation (Robbins-Monro, 1951)

$$\boldsymbol{\phi}^{(m+1)} = \boldsymbol{\phi}^{(m)} - \eta_m \, \nabla f(\boldsymbol{\phi}^{(m)})$$



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Enforcing Sparsity - Greedy addition of kernels (Berger et al 1996. A Maximum Entropy Approach to Natural Language)

$$\hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q}; \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \phi_i K_i(\boldsymbol{Q})$$

Let Â(Q)^(M) the approximation with M basis/kernel functions
 If

$$\hat{\rho}(\boldsymbol{q}) = \frac{\boldsymbol{e}^{-\beta(V(\boldsymbol{q}) - A^{(m)}(\boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q});\phi))}}{Z(\phi)}$$

is the corresponding *auxiliary* density, then select $K_{M+1}(\mathbf{Q})$ such as:

$$K_{M+1}(\boldsymbol{Q}) = \arg \max_{K(\boldsymbol{Q}) \in \mathcal{K}} \left(E_{\pi}[K(\boldsymbol{Q})] - E_{\hat{\rho}_{\boldsymbol{Q}}}[K(\boldsymbol{Q})] \right)^2$$



Example: Bimodality





Example: Bimodality





LJ_{38} : Two reaction coordinates







From Noid et al. 2008



CG of water moleculers. (from Bilionis et al. 2013)

• e.g. define *pseudoatoms I* such that for all atoms $i \in I$:

$$\mathbf{Q}_{I} = \frac{\sum_{i \in I} m_{i} \mathbf{q}_{i}}{\sum_{i \in I} m_{i}}$$

• Is there an optimal CG-description? How should two alternative CG-coordinate systems be compared?

(



• If V(q) is the refequence potential and $\rho_{eq}(q)$:

$$\rho_{eq}(\boldsymbol{q}) = \frac{e^{-\beta V(\boldsymbol{q})}}{Z}$$

the equilibrium distribution.

 The *exact* coarse-graining w.r.t. to **Q** = ξ(**q**) requires the compution of the corresponding Helmholtz free energy A(**Q**):

$$A(\boldsymbol{Q}) = -\frac{1}{\beta} \log \int \frac{e^{-\beta V(\boldsymbol{q})}}{Z} \, \delta(\boldsymbol{Q} - \boldsymbol{\xi}(\boldsymbol{q})) \, d\boldsymbol{q}$$

- In principle any of the Free Energy computational techniques can be employed.
- The problem is that all of them are applicable to low-dimensional Q (e.g. dim(Q) < 5or10)
- When dim(Q) >> 1, physical insight is necessary.



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• Let an *approximation* to the true free energy $A(\mathbf{Q})$ be:

$$\hat{A}(oldsymbol{Q};\phi) o \hat{
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that depends on some parameters ϕ .E.g.:

$$\hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q}; \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \sum_{l < J} \underbrace{V(|\boldsymbol{Q}_{l} - \boldsymbol{Q}_{J}|; \boldsymbol{\phi})}_{\text{pairwise-potential}} \\ V(r; \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \sum_{l=1}^{M} \phi_{i} \underbrace{\psi_{i}(r)}_{\text{known}} \\ \end{bmatrix} \rightarrow \hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q}; \boldsymbol{\phi}) = \sum_{l=1}^{M} \phi_{i} (\sum_{l < J} \psi_{i}(|\boldsymbol{Q}_{l} - \boldsymbol{Q}_{J}|)) \\ = \sum_{l=1}^{M} \phi_{i} K_{i}(\boldsymbol{Q})$$

• What is the optimal ϕ^{opt} ?

The Relative Entopy method

 $\phi^{opt} = \arg\min_{\phi} f(\phi) = KL(\rho_{eq}(\mathbf{Q})||\hat{\rho}(\mathbf{Q}))$

³Shell et al 2008, Bilionis et al. 2013



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Alternatives

- Inversion based methods. E.g. Boltzman Inversion (Tchöp et al. 1998), Iterative Boltzmann Inversion (Reith et al. (2003), Inverse Monte Carlo [Lyubartsev et al. 1995, Soper 1996).
- Variational methods. E.g. Force Matching (Ercolessi et al. 1994, Izvekov et al. 2005, Noid et al. 2007).



$$\begin{aligned} f(\phi) &= \mathsf{KL}(\rho_{eq}(\mathbf{Q}) || \hat{\rho}(\mathbf{Q})) \\ &= -\int \rho_{eq}(\mathbf{Q}) \log \frac{e^{-\beta \hat{\lambda}(\mathbf{Q};\phi)}/Z(\phi)}{\rho_{eq}(\mathbf{Q})} \\ &= \beta \int \hat{A}(\mathbf{Q};\phi) \rho_{eq}(\mathbf{Q}) \ d\mathbf{Q} + \log Z(\phi) + \dots \\ &= E_{\rho_{eq}}[\hat{A}(\mathbf{Q};\phi)] + \log Z(\phi) \end{aligned}$$

• Derivatives (If
$$\hat{A}(\boldsymbol{Q}; \phi) = \sum_{i=1}^{M} \phi_i K_i(\boldsymbol{Q})$$
):

$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \phi_i} = \beta (E_{\rho_{eq}}[K_i(\boldsymbol{Q})] - E_{\hat{\rho}}[K_i(\boldsymbol{Q})])^a$$

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^aThis is exactly what one would get with MAXENT



$$\frac{\partial f}{\partial \phi_i} = \beta(E_{\rho_{eq}}[K_i(\boldsymbol{Q})] - E_{\hat{\rho}}[K_i(\boldsymbol{Q})])$$

- Q: How can one estimate E_{peq}[K_i(Q)]?
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$$E_{
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• As we have seen this is not always straightforward.

A: With ones favorite MCMC sampler (sampling in the reduced coordinates)

Both estimates will be *noisy* \rightarrow Stochastic Approximations are needed.



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Example (Bilionis et al. 2013):

- Full-order system: 2180 water molecules (i.e. dim(q) > 19620)
- T = 300K, SPC/E water model (Kusalik et al. 1994)
- 220ns in total are simulated with a time step of 0.002ps (Gromacs)
- 5hrs on 240 CPUs!
- $N = 10^5$ samples are used to estimate expectations w.r.t $\rho_{eq}(q)$
- Coarse-grained model with $dim(\mathbf{Q}) = 6540$
- Cubic splines were used as the basis functions φ_i(r) in the pairwise coarse-grained potential





Example (Bilionis et al. 2013):



Learned pairwise coarse-grained potential (Bilionis et al. 2013)



- What is the best set of coarse-grained coordinates **Q**?
- How does this change depending on the prediction objectives?
- Is there a way to learn a hierarchy of coarse-grained coordinates $Q_1 = \xi_1(Q_2) = \xi_1 \circ \xi_2(Q_3) = \ldots = \xi_1 \circ \xi_2 \ldots \circ \xi_s(q)$?
- Is there a way to learn this exclusively from (short bursts of) simulation data?
- How can one learn free-energy surfaces in high-dimensions?
- Since we are learning from finite amounts of simulation data, what is the inferential uncertainty?
- Can we be *Bayesian* in our coarse-graining (e.g. Espa*n*ol et al 2011, Wright et al. 2013 ICES report 13-31)
- Non-equilibrium statistical mechanics?