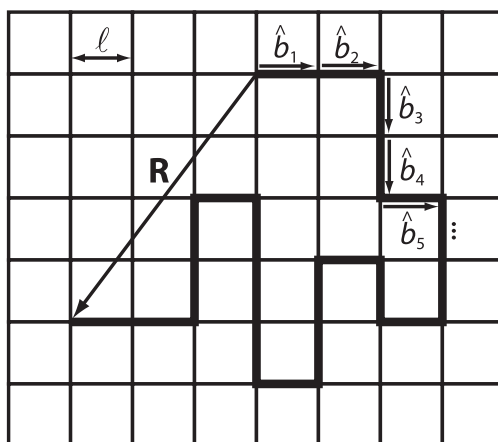


1. **A simple model of a polymer.** You're no doubt aware that the shape a protein folds up into is influenced by energetic interactions between amino acids. You may not have given as much thought to the influence of entropy on a protein's shape. To focus on that concept, we consider the simplest model for conformational fluctuations of a long chain molecule, formed from  $n$  polymer segments connected end to end. Each segment  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$  (perhaps comprising many chemical units) has a fixed length  $\ell$  and an orientation  $\hat{b}_i$  that is parallel to one of  $d$  Cartesian axes ( $\hat{x}$ ,  $\hat{y}$ , or  $\hat{z}$  in 3 dimensions). In other words, the molecular configuration traces a random walk on a  $d$ -dimensional cubic lattice:



Imagine that the orientations of different segments are statistically independent, and that there is no preferred orientation,  $\langle \hat{b}_i \rangle = 0$  and  $\langle \hat{b}_i \cdot \hat{b}_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$ , where  $\delta_{ij} = 1$  if  $i = j$  and vanishes otherwise.

(i) Show that the entropy of such an ideal chain molecule has the form  $S = k_B n \ln a$ . Determine the parameter  $a$  as a function of dimensionality  $d$ .

(ii) What is  $\langle \vec{R} \rangle$ , where  $\vec{R} = \ell \sum_{i=1}^n \hat{b}_i$  is the end-to-end vector corresponding to a single polymer configuration?

(iii) Given your response to part (ii), suggest a reason that the root mean squared end-to-end distance  $\sqrt{\langle R^2 \rangle}$ , where  $R^2 = \vec{R} \cdot \vec{R}$ , would be a better measure of the size of the polymer than the average displacement vector  $\langle \vec{R} \rangle$ .

(iv) Calculate the mean squared end-to-end distance of the chain molecule,  $\langle R^2 \rangle$ . Your result should indicate that the typical distance between ends of the molecule grows with chain length as  $\sqrt{\langle R^2 \rangle} \propto \sqrt{n}$ . How does your result depend on dimensionality  $d$ ?

2. **A Gaussian polymer.** Real polymers don't live on lattices, so you would be excused for thinking the model in the first problem would have some serious limitations. Perhaps a more realistic model for a classical polymer should consist of  $n + 1$  monomers connected together in a chain by  $n$  harmonic springs. We use  $\vec{R}_i$  to denote the position (in three-dimensional space) of the  $i^{\text{th}}$  monomer. The energy of the polymer has kinetic and potential energy contributions which depend on the positions and velocities of every monomer:

$$E(\vec{R}_0, \dots, \vec{R}_n, \dot{\vec{R}}_0, \dots, \dot{\vec{R}}_n) = \frac{k}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n (\vec{R}_i - \vec{R}_{i-1})^2 + \frac{m}{2} \sum_{i=0}^n \dot{\vec{R}}_i^2,$$

where  $m$  is the mass of a monomer,  $\vec{R}_i$  is the velocity of monomer  $i$ , and the strength of the spring connecting polymers is  $k$  with units of energy per length squared. The polymer is immersed in a solution which has temperature  $T$ , so the energy of the polymer can fluctuate.

(i) The potential energy in a single bond is  $\frac{k}{2}(\vec{R}_i - \vec{R}_{i-1})^2$ . Compute the average potential energy stored in the single bond as a function of  $k_B$ ,  $T$ , and  $n$ . Your final answer should not depend on  $k$  or on  $m$ . (The result is closely connected with the so-called equipartition theorem.) Should the velocities matter? Why or why not? Does your answer depend on the fact that the polymer is in three-dimensional space?

(ii) Let us define  $\vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n}$  to be the vector from monomer 0 to monomer  $n$ . Owing to the harmonic form of the potential, the probability distribution  $\rho(\vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n})$  will be a three-dimensional Gaussian:

$$\rho(\vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n}) = \left( \frac{1}{2\pi \langle \delta R_{0 \rightarrow n}^2 \rangle} \right)^{3/2} \exp \left( - \frac{(\vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n} - \langle \vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n} \rangle)^2}{2 \langle \delta R_{0 \rightarrow n}^2 \rangle} \right),$$

in terms of the mean  $\langle \vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n} \rangle$  and the variance  $\langle \delta R_{0 \rightarrow n}^2 \rangle$ . As in Problem 1's polymer model, the second moment grows linearly with the number of monomers:  $\langle (\vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n})^2 \rangle = n \langle (\vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow 1})^2 \rangle$ . (In Problem 1, the length of a single bond was **always**  $\ell$ , but here it fluctuates.) Determine the normalized Gaussian distribution  $\rho(\vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n})$  in terms of  $\beta$ ,  $k$ , and  $n$ .

Depending on how big of a challenge you want, you could really *prove* this Gaussian form. To do so, you'd have to average over the position of all monomers other than the two endpoints. Those integrals could be performed one-by-one in a straightforward and tedious manner. Alternatively you could do the integrals inductively by first considering a two-bead polymer and thinking about what happens when you add one more bead. Another cute method I like involves doing a "decimation and renormalization" calculation. If you're feeling more ambitious/bored this week, you can learn more about that strategy at <http://gingrich.chem.northwestern.edu/teaching/348/2021/hws/ExtraChallenge.pdf>.

(iii) How much less likely is it to find the stretched out polymer than the compact one? To answer this, let's say the compact polymer has an end-to-end distance of zero and the stretched polymer is extended a distance  $L$  along the  $x$ -axis (meaning  $\vec{R}_{0 \rightarrow n} = L\hat{x}$ ). Express your answer in terms of  $L$ ,  $\beta$ , and  $n$ .

(iv) The polymer prefers to be folded up because there are fewer elongated configurations. Suppose the polymer starts out with both monomers 0 and  $n$  at the origin. If both monomers were attached to glass beads, laser tweezers could be used to hold one bead fixed at the origin while the other bead is moved a distance  $L$  away. What is the reversible work required to stretch the polymer?

### 3. Reversible work simulations.

I have written a simulation of the polymer in Problem 1 being pulled apart at a finite rate (so not necessarily reversibly). You can run the simulation on this website:

<http://gingrich.chem.northwestern.edu/teaching/polymer/gaussianchain.html>

Each time you run the simulation you get a trajectory of the polymer chain of harmonically bound nearest neighbors beads, with velocities of each bead assigned at the start of each trajectory from a Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution. Each bead of the polymer experiences forces from the neighboring

beads, trying to pull the neighbors closer together, but it also feels random “kicks” from the environment. These kicks are meant to mimic the forces from molecules in a fixed-temperature solvent colliding with the polymer. In the simulation, the solvent is not explicitly simulated, rather at each step of the polymer’s dynamics, a random Gaussian number is drawn by the computer to represent the extra force a monomer feels from the effect of the solvent. Finally, the endpoint of the polymer experiences an external force that we apply to force the polymer to spread out at a fixed stretching rate. This applied force is measured and plotted in the top right of the screen. When the applied force is integrated, we compute the total work exerted by the external force, and this accumulated work is plotted in the bottom right of the screen.

If you slow down the pulling rate, you will see that the total work to stretch out the chain matches the reversible work.

(i) First consider the case of an infinitesimally slow pulling rate. Compute the average force (averaged over fluctuations, **not** over the length of the polymer) that must be applied on the end monomer as a function of  $k$ ,  $L$ , and  $n$ . This should follow from your answer to Problem 2, Part (iv).

(ii) Use the provided simulation, starting with  $n = 20$  beads and a pulling rate of 0.1 (in reduced units where  $\beta = 1$ ,  $l = 1$ , and bead mass  $m = 1$ ). Then try a pulling rate of 0.01 and a pulling rate of 0.001. Observe that for very slow pulling the total work is very close to the reversible work. Notice also that the mean force fluctuates around the correct average value that you found in (i). But the fluctuations in the measured force are quite large, even at slow pulling rates. Explain why the force fluctuations do not decrease for slow pulling rates even though the work fluctuations do.

4. **A perpetual motion machine?!** Your friend at the University of Chicago has come up with a brilliant idea. When he played with the simulation, he set  $n = 15$  and pulled with a rate of 0.1 (in the reduced units). He observed that sometimes he gets negative work by stretching the polymer out. In other words, he expected to have to do work to pull the polymer apart, but sometimes the polymer did work on him. Your friend is super excited because he thinks he can build some sort of DNA/laser tweezer machine that stretches and unstretches a strand of DNA and gets work out in the process. Use the simulation posted at:

<http://gingrich.chem.northwestern.edu/teaching/polymer/cyclicworkdistribution.html>

to help you evaluate his plan.

(i) During a single cycle, will the UChicago scientist ever extract work from the system (the measured work is negative)?

(ii) Will the average extracted work ever be negative? To answer, compute the average work  $\langle W \rangle$  for pulling rates of 0.05, 0.1, and 0.2. You will want to check “Repeat Pulling to Collect Work Statistics” then click restart to automatically generate statistics of the pulling experiments. Make sure you run the program long enough for the values of  $\langle W \rangle$  to converge. What do you notice about how the distribution of measured work values depends on the pulling rate? Will there be a pulling rate so that your friend’s machine will reliably extract work and make him billions of dollars?

(iii) Based upon the time-reversibility of dynamics (i.e., Newton’s laws look the same forward as they do backwards), it can be shown that the probability of observing a value of work,  $W$ , over one of the cycles is related to the probability of measuring  $-W$  by

$$\frac{\rho(W)}{\rho(-W)} = e^{\beta W}, \quad (1)$$

where  $\beta = 1/k_B T$  is the inverse temperature. (This formula is a special case of the Crooks fluctuation theorem, which we will discuss further in the next problem.) At a single pulling rate, run the

simulation long enough to generate a smooth work probability distribution. Once the distribution has converged use the raw data provided below the plot to confirm that the probability of positive and negative values of work are related as predicted by Equation (1). (Agreement will be good but not perfect only because of finite statistics and because histogram bin sizes analyzed in the applet are fairly wide.)  $\beta = 1$  in the reduced units of the simulations.

(iv) The average work from Part (ii) can be considered to be an average over the work distribution function,  $\rho(W)$ , as

$$\langle W \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dW W \rho(W).$$

Show that Equation (1) implies that your answer to Part (ii) must be positive.

(v) We could find the average value of any observable in the same way we did in Part (iii). For example, the average value of some function of work,  $f(W)$  is given by

$$\langle f(W) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dW f(W) \rho(W).$$

With this formula, show that

$$1 = \langle e^{-\beta W} \rangle.$$

The average in this equation is over all possible values of work, which means averaging over all of the possible non-equilibrium pulling experiments.

(vi) This average of the exponential is computed in the simulation and reported on the screen. Note that it converges to one, but the convergence is slow. Comment on why convergence is so slow. [Hint: Think about how probable it is to observe measurements that contribute the most to the average.]

5. **(OPTIONAL) Equilibrium free energies from nonequilibrium measurements.** In the previous problem, you considered a cyclic process in which the polymer endpoints returned to their original positions at the end of each run. If the reversible work between the starting and ending configurations is not zero, the general form of the Crooks fluctuation theorem applies:

$$\rho_F(W_d) = \rho_R(-W_d) e^{\beta W_d}. \quad (2)$$

Here,  $W_d = W - W_{\text{rev}}$  is the extra work we do on top of the reversible work.  $\rho_F(W_d)$  refers to the probability density of measuring a value  $W_d$  when pulling the polymer.  $\rho_R(-W_d)$  is the probability density of measuring a value of  $-W_d$  when *pushing* the endpoints of the polymer back to where they started. (F stands for forward process, R for reversed.) In experiments with DNA folding it is important to know the reversible work for unfolding a piece of DNA, but we cannot pull the DNA slowly enough to unfold the polymer reversibly. Averaging the work performed during a laser tweezer experiment is a bad estimate for  $W_{\text{rev}}$  because  $\langle W \rangle \neq W_{\text{rev}}$ . Notice that the Crooks fluctuation theorem establishes that the difference in statistics between forward and backward processes—the nature of time's arrow—is determined entirely by value of the dissipated work,  $W_d$ .

Repeat the logic of Problem 4(v) to write down an expression for  $W_{\text{rev}}$  in terms of the average of some quantity you could measure in the pulling experiments.

You can check that this gives a good estimate for  $W_{\text{rev}}$  with using the simulation posted at:

<http://gingrich.chem.northwestern.edu/teaching/polymer/workdistribution.html>.

With the Crooks fluctuation theorem, therefore, you have a way to extract measurements that tell us about equilibrium systems ( $W_{\text{rev}}$ ) from experiments that are not even close to equilibrium!