Funnels in Energy Landscapes

Konstantin Klemm\(^1\), Christoph Flamm\(^2\), and Peter F. Stadler\(^{1,3,4}\)

\(^1\)Bioinformatics Group, Department of Computer Science, and Interdisciplinary Center for Bioinformatics, University of Leipzig
\(^2\)Institute for Theoretical Chemistry, University of Vienna, Austria
\(^3\)fNomics Group, Fraunhofer Institute for Cell Therapy and Immunology, Leipzig, Germany
\(^4\)Santa Fe Institute, Santa Fe, New Mexico, USA

(klemm,stadler,xtof}@bioinf.uni-leipzig.de

Received: date / Revised version: date

Abstract. Local minima and the saddle points separating them in the energy landscape are known to dominate the dynamics of biopolymer folding. Here we introduce a notion of a “folding funnel” that is concisely defined in terms of energy minima and saddle points, while at the same time conforming to a notion of a “folding funnel” as it is discussed in the protein folding literature.

PACS. 87.10.+e General theory and mathematical aspects – 87.15.Cc Folding and sequence analysis – 89.75.Fb Structures and organization in complex systems

1 Introduction

The dynamics of structure formation (“folding”) of biopolymers, both protein and nucleic acids, can be understood in terms of their energy landscapes. Formally, a landscape is determined by a set \(X\) of conformations or states, a neighborhood structure of \(X\) that encodes which conformations can be reached from which other ones, and an energy function \(E : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}\) which assigns the folding energy to each state. In the case of nucleic acids it has been demonstrated that dynamics features of the folding process can be derived at least in a good approximation by replacing the full landscape by the collection of local minima and their connecting saddle points [1].

The notion of a “folding funnel” has a long history in the protein folding literature [2–8]. It arose from the observation that the folding process of naturally evolved proteins very often follows simple empirical rules that seem to bypass the complexity of the vast network of elementary steps that is required in general to describe the folding process on rugged energy landscapes. Traditionally, the funnel is depicted as a relation of folding energy and “conformational entropy”, alluding to the effect that the energy decreases, on average, as structures are formed that bypass the complexity of the vast network of elementary moves that inter-convert conformations. In the following we write \(M(x)\) for the set of conformations accessible from \(x\) in \(X\). For example, \(X = \{-1, +1\}^n\) in spin-glass setting, where flipping single spins is the natural definition of a move. In the case of RNA or protein folding, the breaking and formation of individual contacts between nucleotides or amino acids, resp., is the most natural type of move set [15].

2 Folding Dynamics as a Markov Chain

We consider here only finite discrete configuration spaces \(X\) with a prescribed set of elementary moves of transitions that inter-convert conformations. In the following we write \(M(x)\) for the set of conformations accessible from \(x\) in \(X\). For example, \(X = \{-1, +1\}^n\) in spin-glass setting, where flipping single spins is the natural definition of a move. In the case of RNA or protein folding, the breaking and formation of individual contacts between nucleotides or amino acids, resp., is the most natural type of move set [15].

The dynamics on \(X\) is modeled as usual by the 1st order Markov chain with Metropolis transition probabilities

\[
p(y|x) = \frac{1}{|M(x)|} \min\{1, \exp(-\beta (E_y - E_x))\}
\]

for \(y \in M(x)\)

\[
p(x|x) = 1 - \sum_{y \in M(x)} p(y|x)
\]

All other transition probabilities are zero.
We will be interested in the average time $\tau(x)$ the system takes to reach a pre-defined target state $0 \in X$ when starting at state $x \in X$, given by the recurrence
\begin{equation}
\tau(x) = 1 + \sum_{y \in M(x)} p(y|x)\tau(y) + p(x|x)\tau(x)
\end{equation}
with $\tau(0) = 0$ (starting from the target state itself).

In order to investigate the physical basis of the “funneling effect” we start with a simple 1-dimensional toy model with landscapes defined over the integers $\{0, \ldots, N\}$, see Table 1 and Figure 1. The time $\tau$ to target crucially depends on the ordering of barriers. The time to target is shortest when barriers are decreasing towards the ground state as in panel (c) of Fig. 1. At the same time, the property of decreasing barriers towards the ground state matches the intuition of folding funnels. We therefore generalize this picture to arbitrary landscapes.

### 3 Geometric Funnels

A conformation $x \in X$ is a local minimum if $E_x \leq E_y$ for all $y \in M(x)$. Allowing equality is a mere mathematical convenience [16]. Let $P_{xy}$ be the set of all walks from $x$ to $y$. We say that $x$ and $y$ are mutually accessible at level $\eta$, in symbols
\begin{equation}
x \leftrightarrow_{\eta} y,
\end{equation}
if there is walk $p \in P_{xy}$ such that $E_z \leq \eta$ for all $z \in p$. The saddle height $\hat{f}(x, y)$ between two configurations $x, y \in X$ is the minimum height at which they are accessible from each other, i.e.,
\begin{equation}
\hat{f}(x, y) = \min_{p \in P_{xy}} \max_{z \in p} E_z = \min\{\eta|x \leftrightarrow_{\eta} y\}
\end{equation}

The saddles between $x$ and $y$ are exactly the maximal points along the minimal paths in the equation above. We say, furthermore, that a saddle point $s$ directly connects the local minima $x$ and $y$, if (i) $E_s = \hat{f}(x, y)$ and (ii) $s$ has neighbors $s', s'' \in M(s)$ such that there are gradient descent paths $p_{sx}$ and $p_{sy}$ starting from $s'$ and $s''$ that end in $x$ and $y$, respectively. Note that this includes the case that $s' = x$ and/or $s'' = y$.

For simplicity, we assume weak non-degeneracy for our energy landscape as follows. For every local minimum $x$ there is a unique saddle point $s_x$ of minimal height $h(x) = \min_z \hat{f}(x, z)$. Note that $s_x$ is necessarily a direct saddle between $x$ and some other local minimum $z$, which for simplicity we again assume to be uniquely determined. This condition is stronger than local non-degeneracy but weaker than global non-degeneracy in the sense of [16]. In particular, it implies that gradient descent paths are also uniquely defined for all initial conditions. In the degenerate case, we consider the set of all direct saddles and the set of the local minima directly connected to them.

With these preliminaries, we are now in the position to define the funnel of a landscape recursively as the following set $F$ of states:

| Table 1 | Definitions of the one-dimensional landscapes in Figure 1 (a)-(d). |
|-----------------|----------------------|
| Landscape | $E_x =$ |
| (a) | $x/(N-1)$ |
| (b) | $x/(N-1) + 0.35$ |
| (c) | $1.5x/(N-1)$ |
| (d) | $x/(2N-2) + 0.75$ |

**Fig. 1.** (a-d) Dynamics on the one-dimensional energy landscapes $E_\beta$ (thick curves) defined in Table 1. Thin curves show the average first passage time for the target state 0 when starting from given state $x$, for inverse temperatures $\beta = 0$ (circle), $\beta = 1$ (square), $\beta = 2$ (diamond), $\beta = 3$ (triangle up), $\beta = 4$ (triangle left). Bottom panel: temperature dependence of first passage times in the landscapes (a-d); $\tau_{\max} = \tau(19)$ is the average time to reach $x_0$ for the first time starting at the “rightmost” state $x = 19$. Slight changes in the slopes or other details of the landscapes $E_\beta$ do not change the qualitative behavior of $\tau_{\max}$ as long as the ordering of barrier heights is conserved.
Konstantin Klemm et al.: Funnels in Energy Landscapes

4 Algorithm

In practice, we compute this funnel decomposition using a modified version of the flooding algorithm [16], which is implemented in the program barriers\(^1\). This algorithm operates on an energy sorted list of the low-energy states. In the RNA examples, such a list can be generated efficiently by RNAsubopt [17], which first computed the exact ground state by dynamic programming energy minimization and subsequently back-traces all conformations within a prescribed energy interval above the ground state. For the NPP examples used here, we fully enumerate the energy landscape.

The “flooding” proceeds from the ground state to conformations with increasing energy and assigns the conformation to an initially empty list of “basins”. At each step, the set \(M(x)\) neighbors of the current conformation \(x\) is generated and the intersection \(Q = M(x) \cap L\) with the list \(L\) of previously encountered (lower energy) states is determined. Three cases can be distinguished:

1. \(Q = \emptyset\), then \(x\) is a local minimum, and belongs to its own new basin.
2. All conformations in \(Q\) belong to the same basin, then \(x\) is assigned to this basin as well.
3. \(Q\) contains members of two or more distinct basins.

Then \(x\) is a saddle connecting these basins. In this case the corresponding basis are combined to a single one.

Now \(x\) is added to the list \(L\) and the procedure is repeated until the input list is exhausted.

The barrier tree of the landscape is generated by simply keeping track of the merging steps (3). In the non-degenerate case the saddle points are unique, in general only a representative is obtained (or additional work is required to obtain complete lists [16]). Additional information can easily be computed and stored with each entry in \(L\). In particular, one can easily determine the gradient descent neighbor of \(x\) as \(\gamma(x) = \arg \min_{y \in Q} E_y\) as well as the local minimum \(\mu(x) = \mu(\gamma(x))\) in which the gradient descent paths ends (For local minima we initialize \(\mu(\gamma(x)) = \gamma(x)\)). It is also possible to compute transition rates between the gradient basins \(G(\tilde{x}) = \{ z | \gamma^\alpha(z) = \tilde{x} \}\) associated with local minima without substantial extra effort [1]. In practice, landscapes with \(10^7\) vertices can easily be analyzed in this way.

In order to compute the funnel decomposition we first need to determine the pairs of local minima that are separated by a direct saddle point. In the non-degenerate case this is easy: For each pair of local minima \(\tilde{x}\) and \(\tilde{y}\), there is a unique saddle \(s_{\tilde{x}\tilde{y}}\). All we have to do, is to check whether there are \(y', y'' \in N(s_{\tilde{x}\tilde{y}})\) such that \(\mu(y') = \tilde{x}\) and \(\mu(y'') = \tilde{y}\). Clearly this can be done efficiently with the information stored in \(L\) during the flooding procedure. We remark that the barrier program also provides a function that computes a path between any two local minima such that the path consists of local minima, direct saddle points between to subsequent local minima, and segments of gradient descent paths between them.

\(^1\)http://www.tbi.univie.ac.at/~ivo/RNA/Barriers/

---

1. The ground state is contained in the funnel \(F\).
2. The local minimum \(x\) belongs to the funnel \(F\) if a minimum saddle \(s_x\) connects \(x\) directly to a local minimum in the funnel \(F\).
3. A state \(z\) belongs to the funnel if it is connected by a gradient descent path to a local minimum in \(F\).

Using the above definition, we can recursively partition the landscape into “local funnels”: Simply remove \(F\) from \(X\) and recompute the funnel of the residual landscape.
From the graph of local minima and their separating direct saddles, we obtain the funnel partitioning in two easy steps. First replace the path \( \hat{x} - s - \hat{y} \) by a directed edge between \( \hat{x} \) and \( \hat{y} \) that points towards the lower energy. Then remove all edges except those that cross the saddle point(s) of minimal energy. In the resulting graph, every vertex is in the funnel of the ground state, if and only if it is connected to the ground state by a directed path.

This procedure easily accommodates degeneracies in saddle heights (by allowing more than one out-arc) and degenerate local minima (by connecting them with arcs in both directions). In this case, all local minima that are connected by directed circles could be collapsed into a single state since they have the same energy and communicate via minimal barrier among them. An example is the triangle 6, 14, 16 in Fig. 4.

5 Examples

Random instances of rugged landscapes are obtained from the number partitioning problem (NPP) [18, 19]. An instance of size \( n \) is constructed by drawing positive random numbers \( a_1, \ldots, a_n \) and \( c \). The vertices of the landscape are the binary spin vectors with \( n \) components. The energy of a state \( (x_1, \ldots, x_n) \in \{-1, 1\}^n \) is given as

\[
E_x = \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i a_i + c.
\]

Hence the energy measures the deviation from a bipartition of the set \( \{a_1, \ldots, a_n\} \) into subsets with equal sums. The \( c \) represents an extra “clamped” degree of freedom to break the symmetry under reversal of all spins. This ensures that almost all instances have a unique ground state. A state \( y \) is a neighbor of state \( x \) (\( y \in M(x) \)), if \( y \) can be reached from \( x \) by a spin flip in exactly one component.

As one example of biopolymers we consider small artificial RNA sequences which have been designed either to fold into a single stable hairpin structure or to have two near-ground-state structures that have very few base pairs in common. In the first case we expect landscapes dominated by funnels because the \texttt{RAinverse} algorithm [20] tends to produce robustly folding sequences. In the second case we used the design procedure outlined in [21] to produce sequences that have decoy structures with moderate to large basins of attraction. The sequences we use here have a length of 30 nucleotides or less, shorter than most structured RNAs of biological importance.

Figure 2 shows the fraction of local minima contained in the funnels of several landscapes. The RNA folding landscapes have folding funnels comprising a large part of the landscape. The landscapes of RNA sequences forming hairpins have the largest funnels. For comparison, we plot the relative sizes of the ground state funnels for instances of the number partitioning problem. These artificial landscapes have significantly smaller funnels than the RNA folding landscapes. Thus the latter have folding funnels much larger than expected for random rugged landscapes. Through these large funnels the folding polymer may be “guided” towards the native state.

Figure 3 shows an example of an RNA sequence with a strong kinetic trap studied in detail in [1]. In this landscape, a suboptimal structure has a local funnel that covers most of the landscape, while the ground state is separated by comparably high barriers from almost all other local optima. For comparison, the funnel partitioning of an instance of the NPP is shown in Figure 4.

6 Continuous Landscapes

The definition of a funnel, which we have introduced above in a discrete setting, easily carries over to the continuous case. We only discuss the simplest case of a smooth energy function \( E: \mathbb{R}^n \to \mathbb{R} \) for finite \( n \), with isolated hyperbolic critical points \( \nabla E(\hat{x}) = 0 \). Recall that \( \hat{x} \) is a local minimum if the real parts of all eigenvalues of \( \Delta E(\hat{x}) \) are positive, and \( \hat{x} \) is a saddle point (in the sense of differential geometry) if exactly one eigenvalue is negative. Equation (4) still makes sense (at least under suitable compactness assumptions) and defines those points \( \hat{s} \) that separate local minima from each other. All of them are are saddle points (in the sense of differential geometry). Note that the converse it not true: there are differential-geometric saddle points that do not separate two local minima. For our purposes only the local minima and the separating saddle points are of interest. As in the discrete case, we can define \( \hat{s} \) to be a direct saddle between two minima \( \hat{x} \) and \( \hat{y} \) if within every \( \varepsilon \)-neighborhood of \( \hat{s} \) there are points \( x_\varepsilon \) and \( y_\varepsilon \) from which \( \hat{x} \) and \( \hat{y} \) are reachable via a gradient-descent path. It follows that the energy function \( E \) on \( \mathbb{R}^n \) defines a graph whose vertices are the local minima and their connecting saddles. From this graph, the funnel is obtained just as in the continuous case.

\[\text{Fig. 4. Funnel partitioning for one instance of the number partitioning problem of size } n = 8. \text{ State } 1 \text{ is the unique ground state.}\]
7 Concluding Remarks

In summary, we have introduced here a rigorous definition of a folding funnel that is tractable computationally for arbitrary energy landscapes. In the case of RNA, where the lower fraction of the landscape can be generated without the need for exhaustively enumerating all configurations [17], funnels can be computed explicitly even for sequences that are of immediate biological interest. Our first computational results show that the energy landscapes of RNAs typically differ from the rugged landscapes of spinglass-style combinatorial optimization problems by exhibiting significantly larger funnels for the ground state. It remains to be investigated in future work whether this is also true e.g. for lattice protein models. A second important topic of ongoing research is the question which and to what extent evolutionary processes select molecules with funnel-like landscapes.

Acknowledgments. This work was supported in part by the European Commission through the EMBIO project in FP-6 (http://www-embio.ch.cam.ac.uk/).

References

1. M.T. Wolfinger, W.A. Svreck-Seiler, C. Flamm, I.L. Hofacker, P.F. Stadler, J. Phys. A: Math. Gen. 37, 4731 (2004)
2. J.D. Bryngelson, P.G. Wolynes, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 84, 7524 (1987)
3. P.E. Leopold, M. Montal, J.N. Onuchic, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 89, 8721 (1992)
4. J.N. Onuchic, Z. Luthey-Schulten, P.G. Wolynes, Annu. Rev. Phys. Chem. 48, 545 (1997)
5. O.V. Galzitskaya, A.V. Finkelstein, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 96, 11299 (1999)
6. J.N. Onuchic, H. Nymeyer, A.E. Garcia, J. Chahine, N.D. Socci, Adv. Protein Chem. 53, 87 (2000)
7. B. Fain, M. Levitt, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 100, 10700 (2003)
8. K. Okazaki, N. Koga, S. Takada, J.N. Onuchic, P.G. Wolynes, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA 103, 11844 (2006)
9. J.N. Onuchic, P.G. Wolynes, Curr. Opinion Struct. Biol. 14, 70 (2004)
10. T. Klotz, S. Kobe, J. Phys. A: Math. Gen 27, L95 (1994)
11. O.M. Becker, M. Karplus, J. Chem. Phys. 106, 1495 (1997)
12. P. Garstecki, T.X. Hoang, M. Cieplak, Phys. Rev. E 60, 3219 (1999)
13. D.J. Wales, M.A. Miller, T.R. Walsh, Nature 394, 758 (1998)
14. J.P. Doye, M.A. Miller, D.J. Walsh, J. Chem. Phys. 111, 8417 (1999)
15. C. Flamm, W. Fontana, I. Hofacker, P. Schuster, RNA 6, 325 (2000)
16. C. Flamm, I.L. Hofacker, P.F. Stadler, M.T. Wolfinger, Z. Phys. Chem. 216, 155 (2002)
17. S. Wuchty, W. Fontana, I.L. Hofacker, P. Schuster, Biopolymers 49, 145 (1999)
18. M.R. Garey, D.S. Johnson, Computers and intractability (Freeman, 1979)
19. S. Mertens, Theor. Comp. Sci. 265(1-2), 79 (2001)
20. I.L. Hofacker, W. Fontana, P.F. Stadler, L.S. Bonhoeffer, M. Tacker, P. Schuster, Monatsh. Chem. 125, 167 (1994)
21. C. Flamm, I.L. Hofacker, S. Maurer-Stroh, P.F. Stadler, M. Zehl, RNA 7, 254 (2000)