

Strukturelle Modellierung  
(Masterstudiengang Bioinformatik)

## Moleküldynamiksimulation: Theorie

Sommersemester 2012

Peter Güntert

### Literatur

- Andrew R. Leach: *Molecular Modelling, Principles and Applications*, Prentice Hall, 2001.
- M. P. Allen & D. J. Tildesley: *Computer Simulation of Liquids*, Clarendon Press, 1987.
- Tamar Schlick: *Molecular Modeling and Simulation*, Springer, 2006.

# Computer- Simulation von Molekülen

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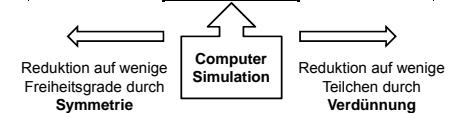
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### Computer-Simulation von Molekülen

- Modellierung: QM, klassisch, schematisch
- Klassische Mechanik: Newton, Lagrange, Hamilton Bewegungsgleichungen
- Kartesische Koordinaten, interne Koordinaten
- Statistische Mechanik
- Simulationsmethoden: Systematische Suche, Monte Carlo, MD, Stochastische Dynamik (Langevin), Energieminimierung, Normalmodenanalyse
- Annahmen, Näherungen und Grenzen: Klassische Mechanik, Zeitskala, Systemgrösse, Kraftfeld
- Geschichte der MD Simulation

### Vielteilchenproblem

	Kristalline Festkörper	Makromoleküle Flüssigkeit	Gasphase
Quantenmechanik ( $\sim N^4$ )	möglich	(noch?) nicht möglich	möglich
Klassische Mechanik ( $\sim N \log N$ )	einfach	essentielle Vielteilchensysteme	trivial



### Von mikroskopischen Details zu makroskopischen Größen: Statistische Mechanik

- Zustandssumme:  $Z = \frac{1}{h^{3N} N!} \int \int e^{-H(\vec{p}, \vec{q})/kT} d\vec{p} d\vec{q}$
- Hamilton-Funktion/Operator:  
 $H(\mathbf{p}, \mathbf{q})$  = kinetische Energie + potentielle Energie  
(Wechselwirkung)
- Erzeugung eines Ensembles von Konfigurationen durch Computersimulation
- Mittelung über Ensemble und Zeit liefert makroskopische Größen

### Erhaltungsgrößen

- Jeder kontinuierlichen Symmetrie eines mechanischen Systems entspricht eine Erhaltungsgröße.  
(Satz von Emmy Noether)

Invarianz bezüglich	Erhaltungsgröße
Zeitverschiebung	Energie
Translation	Impuls
Rotation	Drehimpuls

### Statistische Mechanik

- Grundprinzip:** Für ein thermodynamisches System im Gleichgewicht ist die Wahrscheinlichkeit, dass es einen Zustand der Energie  $E_i$  annimmt:
$$\text{Prob}(E_i) = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-E_i/kT}, \quad Z = \sum_{i=1}^N e^{-E_i/kT}$$

$k_B = 1.38065 \cdot 10^{-23}$  J/K: Boltzmann-Konstante  
 $T$ : absolute Temperatur  
 $Z$ : Zustandssumme

- Erwartungswert einer Observablen  $A$ :  $\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{i=1}^N A_i e^{-E_i/kT}$
- Thermodynamik: freie Energie  $F = -k_B T \log Z$

### Proteinsimulation: Stufen der Vereinfachung

Modell	Freiheitsgrade	Eliminierte Freiheitsgrade	Untersuchbare Phänomene (Beispiele)
Quantenmechanik	Kerne, Elektronen	Nukleonen	Chemische Reaktionen
Alle Atome, polarisierbar	Atompositionen Polarisation	Elektronen	Bindung geladener Liganden
Alle Atome	Atompositionen (Protein + Wasser)	Polarisation	Hydratisierung
Alle Proteinatome	Positionen der Proteinatome	Lösungsmittel (Wasser)	Konformation in Gasphase
Gittermodelle	Aminosäuren	Atome	Faltung?

### Simulation von Vieleilchensystemen

**System:**  $N$  Atome:  $i = 1, \dots, N$ , Koordinaten  $r_i$ , Massen  $m_i$ , Wechselwirkung ("Kraftfeld")  $V(r_1, \dots, r_N)$

#### Methoden:

- Systematische Suche → Ensemble
- Monte Carlo (MC) → Ensemble
- Moleküldynamik (MD) → Trajektorie
- Stochastische Dynamik (SD; Langevin) → Trajektorie
- Energieminimierung (EM) → 1 Konfiguration
- Normalmodenanalyse → 1 Konfiguration + harmonische Bewegung

### Vergleich Simulation - Experiment

- Atomare Eigenschaften**
  - Struktur: Positionen, Distanzen, H-Brücken
  - Mobilität: B-Faktoren, Populationen
  - Dynamik: Vibrationen, Relaxationsraten, Diffusion, Pfade
- Makroskopische Eigenschaften**
  - Thermodynamische Größen: Druck, Dichte, freie Energie, ...
  - Viskosität, Kompressibilität, Dielektrizitätskonstante

## Annahmen, Näherungen und Grenzen

- **Klassische Mechanik:**
  - keine tiefen Temperaturen ( $T \approx 300$  K)
  - Bewegung der Wasserstoffatome
  - keine chemischen Reaktionen
- **Zeitskala von Prozessen:** (im atomaren Bereich)
  - bis ca. 1  $\mu$ s
  - aktivierte Prozesse: möglich
  - essentiell langsame Prozesse: nicht möglich (z.B. Proteinfaltung)
- **Systemgröße:**
  - $N \leq 10^6$  Teilchen
  - keine essentiell makroskopischen Vorgänge (z.B. kritische Phänomene, Phasenübergänge)
- **Kraftfeld:**
  - Ist die atomare Wechselwirkungsfunktion genügend genau zur Vorhersage der gewünschten Eigenschaft?

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## MD Simulation: Geschichte

1957: Harte Scheiben (2D)	-
1964: Monoatomare Flüssigkeit	$10^{-11}$ s
1971: Molekulare Flüssigkeit	$5 \times 10^{-12}$ s
1971: Flüssiges Salz	$10^{-11}$ s
1975: Einfaches kleines Polymer	$10^{-11}$ s
1977: Protein im Vakuum	$2 \times 10^{-11}$ s
1982: Einfache Membran	$2 \times 10^{-10}$ s
1983: Protein in Lösung	$2 \times 10^{-11}$ s
1986: DNA in Lösung	$10^{-10}$ s
1989: Protein-DNA Komplex in Lösung	$10^{-10}$ s
1991: Protein-Protein Komplex in Lösung	$10^{-9}$ s
1998: 1 $\mu$ s Simulation eines Proteins in Lösung	$10^{-6}$ s

## MD Simulation: Personen und Programme



Martin Karplus  
(CHARMM)



Peter Kollman (†)  
(AMBER)



Herman Berendsen  
(GROMOS/GROMACS)

## Kraftfelder

## Strukturelle Modellierung (Masterstudiengang Bioinformatik)

### Kraftfelder

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### Molekülmodell und Kraftfelder

- Kraftfelder: CHARMM, AMBER, GROMACS,...
- Energiefunktion: kovalente Bindungen, Bindungswinkel, Diederwinkel, nichtbindende Wechselwirkung (van der Waals und elektrostatisch), H-Brücken
- Bestimmung von Kraftkonstanten
- Paarlisten und Cutoffs für nichtbindende Wechselwirkungen

### Classical force fields

- **AMBER** (Assisted Model Building and Energy Refinement) - widely used for proteins and DNA
- **CHARMM** (Chemistry at HARvard Molecular Mechanics) - originally developed at Harvard, widely used for both small molecules and macromolecules
- **GROMACS** - The force field optimized for the package of the same name
- **GROMOS** - A force field that comes as part of the GROMOS (GROningen MOlecular Simulation) package, a general-purpose MD package for the study of biomolecular systems
- **OPLS** (Optimized Potential for Liquid Simulations) developed by William L. Jorgensen at Yale University
- **ECEPP/2** - First force field for polypeptide molecules - developed by Harold Scheraga and colleagues

### AMBER Force Field

$$E_{\text{pair}} = \sum_{\text{bonds}} K_r(r - r_{\text{eq}})^2 + \sum_{\text{angles}} K_\theta(\theta - \theta_{\text{eq}})^2 + \sum_{\text{dihedrals}} \frac{V_n}{2} [1 + \cos(n\phi - \gamma)] + \sum_{i < j} \left[ \frac{A_{ij}}{R_{ij}^{12}} - \frac{B_{ij}}{R_{ij}^6} + \frac{q_i q_j}{\varepsilon R_{ij}} \right]$$

### Potenzial für kovalente Bindungen

$$\sum_{\text{bonds}} K_r(r - r_{\text{eq}})^2$$

- Summe über alle kovalenten Bindungen im Molekül
- Harmonisches Potential ("Bindung = Feder")
- Bindungen können nicht gebrochen werden  
→ keine chemischen Reaktionen
- Parameter, von den Typen der kovalent gebundenen Atome abhängig:
  - $K_r$  Kraftkonstante
  - $r_{\text{eq}}$  Gleichgewichtsbindungsgröße
- Rechenaufwand proportional zur Molekülgröße
- Bei Rechnung im Torsionswinkelraum nicht nötig

### Potenzial für Bindungswinkel

$$\sum_{\text{angles}} K_\theta(\theta - \theta_{\text{eq}})^2$$

- Summe über alle Bindungswinkel im Molekül
- Harmonisches Potential
- Parameter, vom Typ der involvierten Atome abhängig:
  - $K_\theta$  Kraftkonstante
  - $\theta_{\text{eq}}$  Gleichgewichtsbindungswinkel
- Rechenaufwand proportional zur Molekülgröße
- Bei Rechnung im Torsionswinkelraum nicht nötig

## Potenzial für Diederwinkel

$$\sum_{\text{dihedrals}} \frac{V_n}{2} [1 + \cos(n\phi - \gamma)]$$

- Summe über alle Diederwinkel im Molekül
  - Periodisches Potential
  - Parameter, vom Typ der involvierten Atome abhängig:
    - $V_n$  Kraftkonstante
    - $n$  Anzahl der Energiemaxima
    - $\gamma$  Position des ersten Energiemaximums
  - Rechenaufwand proportional zur Molekülgröße

## AMBER Atom Types

**Table 1.** List of Atom Types<sup>a</sup>

atom	type	description
carbon	C	any $\sigma$ -carbon
	C*	any carbonyl $\sigma^*$ carbon
	CA	any aromatic $\sigma^*$ carbon and (C or Ge)
	CM	any aromatic doublet bonded
	CY	any $\sigma^*$ aromatic in 5-membered ring with one lone pair nitrogen (e.g. C in $\text{HN}_3$ )
	CV	any $\sigma^*$ aromatic in 5-membered ring next to carbon and lone pair nitrogen (e.g. C in $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{NH}_2$ )
	CW	any $\sigma^*$ aromatic in 5-membered ring next to carbon and lone pair oxygen (e.g. C in $\text{H}_2\text{O}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{OH}$ )
	CP	any $\sigma^*$ aromatic in 5-membered ring next to two nitrogens (C in $\text{H}_2\text{N}-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{NH}_2$ )
	CB	any $\sigma^*$ aromatic at position 5- and 6-membered rings (C in $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ both junction atoms in Azo and Qua
	C*	any $\sigma^*$ aromatic in 5-membered ring next to two carbons (C in $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{C}_6\text{H}_5$ )
	CN	$\sigma^*$ junction between 5- and 6-membered rings and bonded to CI and NH (C in $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{NH}_2$ )
	CK	$\sigma^*$ carbon in 5-membered aromatic from N atom (C in $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5-\text{C}_6\text{H}_4-\text{NH}_2$ )
	CQ	$\sigma^*$ carbon in 6-membered ring between lone pair nitrogen (e.g. C in purine)

## AMBER Bond Parameters

$$\sum_{\text{bonds}} K_r(r - r_{\text{eq}})^2$$

BONDS		CB-N*	436.0	1.3740	OH-P	230.0	1.6100	
OW-HW	553.0	0.9572	CB-NB	414.0	1.3910	OS-P	230.0	1.6100
OW-HW	553.0	1.5139	CB-NB	436.0	1.3740	CB-C	230.0	1.6100
OT-HW	553.00	0.9572	CK-HS	367.0	1.0800	C-N	450.0	1.3550
OU-HU	553.00	0.9572	CK-N*	440.0	1.3710	*+CB	388.0	1.4590
HU-HU	553.00	1.5139	CK-NB	529.0	1.3040	*+CT	317.0	1.4950
HU-MU	553.00	0.9572	CM-CT	367.0	1.0800	CA-CN	469.0	1.4000
HU-MU	553.00	0.8735	CM-CT	337.0	1.1300	CB-CN	469.0	1.4000
OV-HV	553.00	1.0000	CH-MA	367.0	1.0800	CB-CN	447.0	1.4190
HW-HV	553.0	1.6330	CH-MA	367.0	1.0800	CC-CT	317.0	1.5040
C-CA	553.00	1.4040	CH-HS	367.0	1.0800	CC-CW	512.0	1.3700
C-CA	553.00	1.4570	CH-HS	367.0	1.0800	CC-CW	512.0	1.3700
C-CH	410.00	1.4440	CO-HS	367.0	1.0800	CC-NA	422.0	1.3850
C-CT	317.00	1.5220	CO-NC	502.0	1.3240	CC-NE	410.0	1.3940
C-NT	424.00	1.3830	CT-TD	310.0	1.5260	CN-NA	428.0	1.3800
C-NT	424.00	1.3830	CT-SD	340.0	1.5260	CN-NE	410.0	1.3800
C-NO	457.00	1.3580	CT-HI	340.0	1.0900	CR-NA	477.0	1.3430
C-O	570.00	1.2290	CT-HZ	340.0	1.0900	CR-NB	488.0	1.3350
C-O2	656.00	1.2500	CT-H3	340.0	1.0900	CT-N	337.0	1.4490
CA-CA	469.00	1.4000	CT-N*	337.0	1.4790	CT-S	227.0	1.8100
CA-CA	469.00	1.4040	CT-N2	337.0	1.4630	CT-SH	237.0	1.8100
CA-CH	427.00	1.4330	CT-OH	320.0	1.4100	CV-H4	367.0	1.0800
CA-CH	427.00	1.4330	CT-OH	320.0	1.4100	CV-HA	367.0	1.0800
CA-HA	367.00	1.0800	H-N2	434.0	1.0100	CW-HA	367.0	1.0800
CA-HA	367.00	1.0800	H-N*	434.0	1.0100	CW-NA	427.0	1.3810
CA-N2	481.00	1.3400	H-NA	434.0	1.0100	H-N	434.0	1.0100
CA-N2	481.00	1.3400	H-NA	553.0	1.0100	H-S	434.0	1.0100
CA-NC	483.00	1.3390	HO-DS	553.0	0.9600	HS-SH	274.0	1.3360
CB-CB	520.00	1.3700	O2-P	525.0	1.4800	S-S	156.0	2.0380

### Potenzial für uneigentliche (“improper”) Diederwinkel

$$\sum_{impropers} \frac{V_n}{2} [1 + \cos(n\phi - \gamma)]$$

- Halten planare Gruppen in einer Ebene  
(Peptidgruppe, aromatische Ringe usw.)
  - Für ausgewählte Quadrupel von Atomen
  - Parameter, vom Typ der involvierten Atome abhängig:
    - $V_n$  Kraftkonstante
    - $n$  Anzahl der Energiemaxima
    - $\gamma$  Position des ersten Energiemaximums
  - Rechenaufwand proportional zur Molekülgröße

## AMBER Atom Types

TYPE	C	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	HS	1.0080	0.6000	0.0157
C*	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	HW	1.0080	0.0000	0.0000	
C	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	HU	1.0080	0.0000	0.0000	
CB	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	HV	1.0080	0.0000	0.0000	
CC	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	N	14.0100	1.8240	0.1700	
CK	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	N*	14.0100	1.8240	0.1700	
CW	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	N2	14.0100	1.8240	0.1700	
CN	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	N3	14.0100	1.8240	0.1700	
CQ	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	NA	14.0100	1.8240	0.1700	
CR	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	NB	14.0100	1.8240	0.1700	
CT	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	NC	14.0100	1.8240	0.1700	
CV	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	O	16.0000	1.6612	0.2100	
CW	12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	O2	16.0000	1.6612	0.2100	
H	1.0080	0.6000	0.0157	OH	16.0000	1.7210	0.2104	
HL	1.0080	1.3870	0.0157	OS	16.0000	1.6837	0.1700	
H2	1.0080	1.2870	0.0157	OW	16.0000	1.7683	0.1520	
H3	1.0080	1.1870	0.0157	OT	16.0000	1.7683	0.1520	
H4	1.0080	1.4090	0.0150	OU	16.0000	1.7699	0.1550	
H5	1.0080	1.3590	0.0150	MU	1.0000	0.0000		
HA	1.0080	1.4590	0.0150	OV	16.0000	1.7766	0.1554	
HC	1.0080	1.4870	0.0157	P	30.9700	2.1000	0.2000	
HO	1.0080	0.0000	0.0000	S	32.0600	2.0000	0.2500	
HF	1.0080	1.1000	0.0157	SH	32.0600	2.0000	0.2500	

## AMBER Bond Angle Parameters

$$\sum_{\text{angles}} K_\theta(\theta - \theta_{\text{eq}})^2$$

## AMBER Dihedral Angle Parameters

DIHEDRALS	$\sum_{\text{dihedrals}} \frac{V_n}{2} [1 + \cos(n\phi - \gamma)]$
X-C-CA-X	4 14.500 180.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 14.500 180.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 8.700 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	4 5.800 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	4 5.800 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	2 8.000 180.00 2.00
X-C-CT-X	4 1.000 180.00 2.00
X-C-CT-X	4 0.000 180.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 14.500 180.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 10.200 180.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 9.600 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	4 6.000 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	4 5.900 180.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 21.800 180.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 5.100 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	2 8.300 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	4 4.000 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	2 20.000 180.00 2.00
X-C-N*-X	4 6.000 180.00 2.00
X-C-CT-X	6 0.000 0.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 7.400 180.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	9 1.400 0.00 3.00
X-C-CH-X	6 0.000 0.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	6 0.000 0.00 3.00
X-C-OS-X	3 1.150 0.00 3.00
X-C-OS-X	3 0.750 0.00 3.00
X-C-OS-X	4 10.000 180.00 2.00
X-C-S-X	9 1.000 0.00 3.00
X-C-CH-X	3 0.750 0.00 3.00
X-C-CH-X	6 0.000 0.00 2.00
X-C-CH-X	4 14.500 180.00 2.00

## AMBER Improper Dihedral Angle Parameters

IMPROPER DIHEDRALS	$\sum_{\text{dihedrals}} \frac{V_n}{2} [1 + \cos(n\phi - \gamma)]$
X-X-C-O	10.50 180.00 2.00
X-O2-C-O2	10.50 180.00 2.00
X-X-N-H	1.00 180.00 2.00
X-X-N2-H	1.00 180.00 2.00
X-X-NA-H	1.00 180.00 2.00
X-N2-CA-N2	10.50 180.00 2.00
X-CT-N-CT	1.00 180.00 2.00
X-X-CA-HA	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CW-H4	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CR-H5	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CV-H4	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CQ-H5	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CX-H5	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CM-H4	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CM-HA	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CA-C-OH	1.10 180.00 2.00
X-X-CA-CA-CT	1.10 180.00 2.00
C-CM-CM-CT	1.10 180.00 2.00
NC-CM-CA-N2	1.10 180.00 2.00
CB-NC-CA-N2	1.10 180.00 2.00
NA-NC-CA-N2	1.10 180.00 2.00
CA-CA-C-OH	1.10 180.00 2.00

## Nichtbindende Wechselwirkung

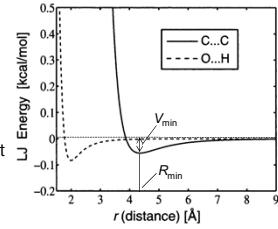
$$\sum_{i < j} \left[ \frac{A_{ij}}{R_{ij}^{12}} - \frac{B_{ij}}{R_{ij}^6} + \frac{q_i q_j}{\epsilon R_{ij}} \right]$$

- Summe über alle Atompaaire  $(i,j)$ , die nicht über 1 oder 2 kovalente Bindungen verbunden sind
- Lennard-Jones Potenzial + elektrostatische Wechselwirkung
- Funktion der interatomaren Abstände  $R_{ij}$
- Parameter, von den Typen der Atome abhängig:
  - $A_{ij}, B_{ij}$  Parameter des Lennard-Jones Potenzials
  - $q_i, q_j$  Partialladungen
  - $\epsilon$  Dielektrizitätskonstante
- Ohne besondere Vorkehrungen wächst der Rechenaufwand mit dem Quadrat der Molekülgroße
- Auch im Torsionswinkelraum vorhanden

## Lennard-Jones Potenzial

$$\sum_{i < j} \left[ \frac{A_{ij}}{R_{ij}^{12}} - \frac{B_{ij}}{R_{ij}^6} \right]$$

- Schwacher anziehender Beitrag: Van der Waals Kraft
- Starke Abstoßung für kurze Abstände  $R_{ij}$  aufgrund des Pauli-Prinzips
- $A_{ij} = N_{ij,\min} R_{ij,\min}^{12}, B_{ij} = 2 V_{ij,\min} R_{ij,\min}^6$  mit
  - $V_{ij,\min} = (V_{i,\min} V_{j,\min})^{1/2}$  Potenzialminimum
  - $R_{ij,\min} = R_{i,\min} + R_{j,\min}$  energetisch günstiger Abstand
- Kurzreichweitig



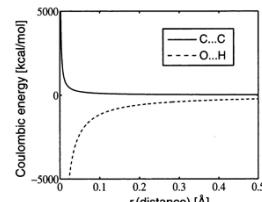
## AMBER Atom Types

TYPES	Mass	$R_{i,\min}$	$V_{i,\min}$
C 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	HS 1.0080 0.6000 0.0157
C* 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	HW 1.0080 0.0000 0.0000
CA 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	HU 1.0080 0.0000 0.0000
CB 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	HV 1.0080 0.0000 0.0000
CC 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	N 14.0100 1.8240 0.1700
CK 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	N* 14.0100 1.8240 0.1700
CM 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	N2 14.0100 1.8240 0.1700
CN 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	N3 14.0100 1.8240 0.1700
CQ 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	NA 14.0100 1.8240 0.1700
CR 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	NB 14.0100 1.8240 0.1700
CT 12.0100	1.9080	0.1094	NC 14.0100 1.8240 0.1700
CV 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	O 16.0000 1.6612 0.2100
CW 12.0100	1.9080	0.0860	O2 16.0000 1.6612 0.2100
H 1.0080	0.0000	0.0157	OH 1.7210 0.2104 0.2104
H1 1.0080	1.3970	0.0157	OS 16.0000 1.1737 0.1700
H2 1.0080	1.2970	0.0157	OW 16.0000 1.7683 0.1520
H3 1.0080	1.1870	0.0157	OT 16.0000 1.7683 0.1520
H4 1.0080	1.4590	0.0150	OU 16.0000 1.7699 0.1550
H5 1.0080	1.3590	0.0150	MU 1.0000 0.0000 0.0000
HA 1.0080	1.4590	0.0150	OV 16.0000 1.7766 0.1554
HC 1.0080	1.4570	0.0157	P 30.9700 2.1000 0.2000
HO 1.0080	0.0000	0.0000	S 32.0600 2.0000 0.2500
HP 1.0080	1.1000	0.0157	SH 32.0600 2.0000 0.2500

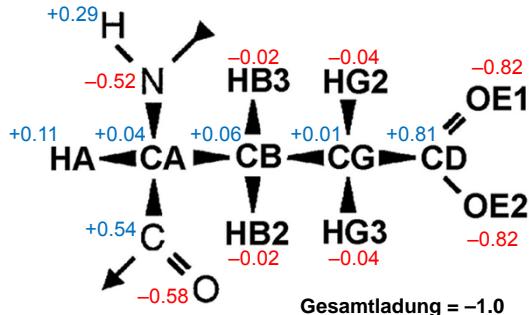
## Elektrostatisches (Coulomb) Potenzial

$$\sum_{i < j} \frac{q_i q_j}{\epsilon R_{ij}}$$

- Partialladungen  $q_i, q_j$
- Dielektrizitätskonstante  $\epsilon$  beschreibt (gemittelte) Polarisierbarkeit der Umgebung
- $\epsilon_{\text{Wasser}} \approx 80; \epsilon_{\text{polar}} \approx 2$ . Werden alle Ladungen explizit behandelt:  $\epsilon = 1$
- Langreichweitig!
- Stark!
- Wichtigster Energiebeitrag auch für Wasserstoffbrücken



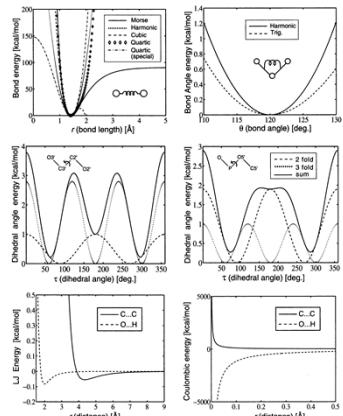
## Partialladungen (Glu, AMBER)



## Bestimmung von Kraftfeldparametern

- Fit der Energie zu quantenmechanischen *ab initio* Rechnungen**
  - z.B. Partialladungen
- Fit zu experimentellen Daten**
  - Infrarot-Spektroskopie (Vibrationen)
  - Röntgenkristallographie (Geometrie)
  - NMR Spektroskopie
  - Thermodynamische Eigenschaften
- Schwierigkeiten**
  - Exakte Beziehung molekulare Eigenschaft  $\Leftrightarrow$  Kraftfeldparameter
  - Konzeptionelle Einfachheit  $\Leftrightarrow$  Anzahl Parameter
  - Gegenseitige Abhängigkeit von Kraftfeldparametern
  - Widersprüchliche Anforderungen für Verbesserungen der Parameter
  - Einfluss von Näherungen
- Genauigkeit wird durch den ungenauen Term der Energiefunktion bestimmt.**

## Energieterme



## Kraftberechnung

- Kraft = -Gradient der potentiellen Energie
- Analytisch berechnete partielle Ableitungen der potentiellen Energie nach den Koordinaten aller Atome sind notwendig für klassische MD Simulation.
- MD im Torsionswinkelraum benötigt partielle Ableitungen der potentiellen Energie nach den Torsionswinkeln.

## Paarlisten

- $N$  Atome  $\rightarrow$  ca.  $N(N - 1)/2$  Paarwechselwirkungen
- Berechnung der nichtbindenden Wechselwirkung ist aufwendigster Teil der Kraftberechnung
- Potenzial nimmt mit der Entfernung ab  $\rightarrow$  Vernachlässigung von kleinen Termen = langen Distanzen
- Kurze Distanzen  $R < R_{\max}$  werden periodisch in Paarliste gespeichert
- Wechselwirkungen werden nur für Atompaares mit Abstand  $R < R_{\text{cutoff}} < R_{\max}$  berechnet
- Langreichweitelektrostatische WW  $\rightarrow R_{\text{cutoff}} \approx 12 \text{ \AA}$
- Aktualisierung der Paarliste nach einer festen Anzahl Zeitschritten oder wenn sich ein Teilchen  $R_{\max} - R_{\text{cutoff}}$  weit bewegt hat.

## Paarliste und Cutoff

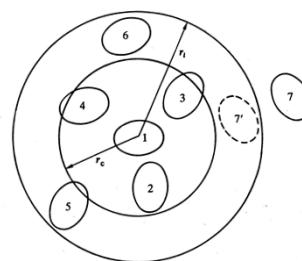
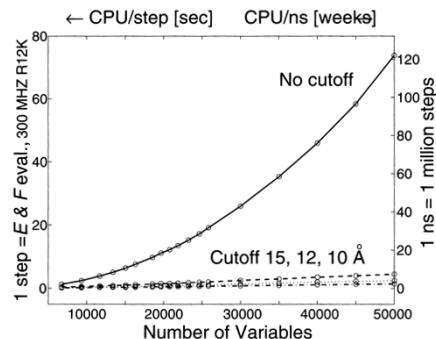


Fig. 5.4 The cutoff sphere, and its skin, around a molecule 1. Molecules 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6 are on the list of molecule 1; molecule 7 is not. Only molecules 2, 3, and 4 are within the range of the potential at the time the list is constructed.

### Rechenzeit mit und ohne Cutoff



## MD Algorithmen

Strukturelle Modellierung  
(Masterstudiengang Bioinformatik)

### MD Algorithmen

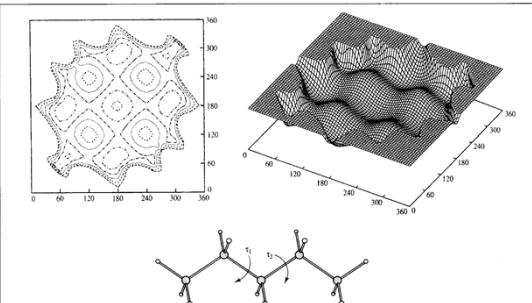
Sommersemester 2012

Peter Güntert

### MD Algorithmen

- Energieminimierung
- Integration der Bewegungsgleichungen
- Temperaturkontrolle
- Druckkontrolle
- Periodische Randbedingungen

### Energieflächen



### Lokale Minima, globales Minimum

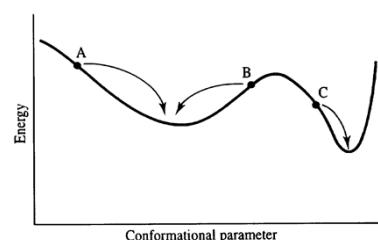


Fig. 5.3: A schematic one-dimensional energy surface. Minimisation methods move downhill to the nearest minimum. The statistical weight of the narrow, deep minimum may be less than a broad minimum which is higher in energy.

## Energieminimierungsalgorithmen

- Ohne Ableitungen
- Mit Gradienten:
  - Steilster Abstieg (steepest descent)
  - konjugierte Gradienten (conjugate gradients)
- Mit zweiter Ableitung: Newton-Raphson Methode

## Simplex Algorithmus

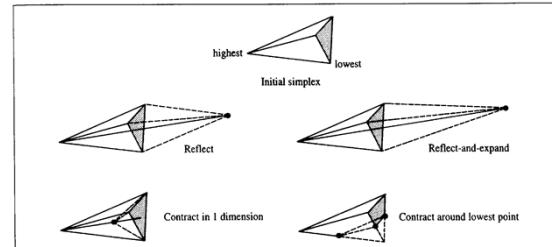


Fig. 5.4: The three basic moves permitted to the simplex algorithm (reflection, and its close relation reflect-and-expand; contract in one dimension and contract around the lowest point). (Figure adapted from Press W H, B P Flannery, S A Teukolsky and W T Vetterling 1992. Numerical Recipes in Fortran. Cambridge, Cambridge University Press.)

## Simplex Algorithmus

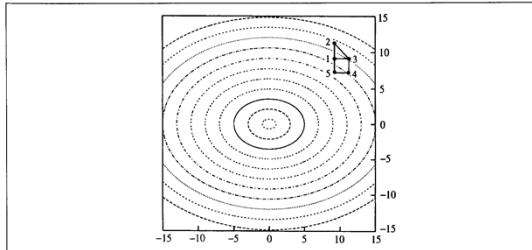


Fig. 5.5: The first few steps of the simplex algorithm with the function  $x^2 + 2y^2$ . The initial simplex corresponds to the triangle 123. Point 2 has the largest value of the function and the next simplex is the triangle 134. The simplex for the third step is 145.

## Eindimensionale Minimierung

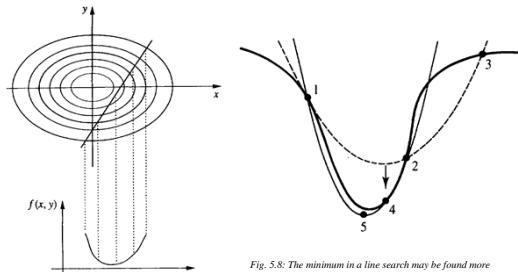


Fig. 5.7: A line search is used to locate the minimum in a line search may be found more effectively by fitting an analytical function such as a quadratic to the initial set of three points (1,2 and 3). A better estimate of the minimum can then be found by fitting a new function to the points 1, 2 and 4 and finding its minimum.

## Energieminimierung: Steepest descent

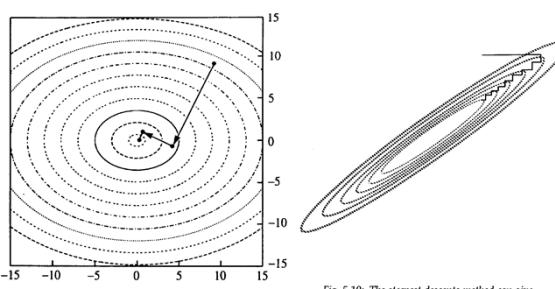


Fig. 5.9: Application of steepest descents to the function  $x^2 + 2y^2$ .

## Konjugierte Gradientenmethode

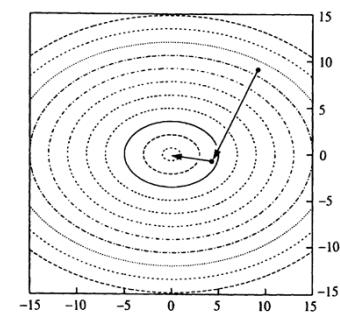


Fig. 5.11: Application of conjugate gradients method to the function  $x^2 + 2y^2$ .

## Taylor Reihenentwicklung

$$f(x) = f(x_0) + f'(x_0)(x - x_0) + \frac{f''(x_0)}{2}(x - x_0)^2 + \frac{f'''(x_0)}{3!}(x - x_0)^3 + \dots$$

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t) + \frac{1}{6} \delta t^3 \mathbf{b}(t) + \frac{1}{24} \delta t^4 \mathbf{c}(t) + \dots$$

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{a}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t^2 \mathbf{b}(t) + \frac{1}{6} \delta t^3 \mathbf{c}(t) + \dots$$

$$\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{a}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{b}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t^2 \mathbf{c}(t) + \dots$$

$$\mathbf{b}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{b}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{c}(t) + \dots$$

## Verlet Algorithmus

The Verlet algorithm uses the positions and accelerations at time  $t$ , and the positions from the previous step,  $\mathbf{r}(t - \delta t)$ , to calculate the new positions at  $t + \delta t$ ,  $\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t)$ . We can write down the following relationships between these quantities and the velocities at time  $t$ :

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t) + \dots \quad (7.6)$$

$$\mathbf{r}(t - \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) - \delta t \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t) - \dots \quad (7.7)$$

Adding these two equations gives

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = 2\mathbf{r}(t) - \mathbf{r}(t - \delta t) + \delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t) \quad (7.8)$$

The velocities do not explicitly appear in the Verlet integration algorithm. The velocities can be calculated in a variety of ways; a simple approach is to divide the difference in positions at times  $t + \delta t$  and  $t - \delta t$  by  $2\delta t$ :

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = [\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t - \delta t)] / 2\delta t \quad (7.9)$$

Alternatively, the velocities can be estimated at the half-step,  $t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t$ :

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t) = [\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) - \mathbf{r}(t)] / \delta t \quad (7.10)$$

## Leap-frog Algorithmus

The leap-frog algorithm uses the following relationships:

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{v}(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t) \quad (7.11)$$

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t - \frac{1}{2}\delta t) + \delta t \mathbf{a}(t) \quad (7.12)$$

To implement the leap-frog algorithm, the velocities  $\mathbf{v}(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t)$  are first calculated from the velocities at time  $t - \frac{1}{2}\delta t$  and the accelerations at time  $t$ . The positions  $\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t)$  are then deduced from the velocities just calculated together with the positions at time  $\mathbf{r}(t)$  using Equation (7.11). The velocities at time  $t$  can be calculated from

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \frac{1}{2} [\mathbf{v}(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t) + \mathbf{v}(t - \frac{1}{2}\delta t)] \quad (7.13)$$

The velocities thus ‘leap-frog’ over the positions to give their values at  $t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t$  (hence the name). The positions then leap over the velocities to give their new values at  $t + \delta t$ , ready for the velocities at  $t + \frac{3}{2}\delta t$ , and so on. The leap-frog method has two advantages over the

## Velocity Verlet Algorithmus

The velocity Verlet method [Swope *et al.* 1982] gives positions, velocities and accelerations at the same time and does not compromise precision:

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t) \quad (7.14)$$

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t [\mathbf{a}(t) + \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)] \quad (7.15)$$

The velocity Verlet method is actually implemented as a three-stage procedure because, as can be seen from Equation (7.15), to calculate the new velocities requires the accelerations at both  $t$  and  $t + \delta t$ . Thus in the first step the positions at  $t + \delta t$  are calculated according to Equation (7.14) using the velocities and the accelerations at time  $t$ . The velocities at time  $t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t$  are then determined using:

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t) \quad (7.16)$$

New forces are next computed from the current positions, thus giving  $\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)$ . In the final step, the velocities at time  $t + \delta t$  are determined using:

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t + \frac{1}{2}\delta t) + \frac{1}{2} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \quad (7.17)$$

## Beemans Algorithmus

Beeman’s algorithm [Beeman 1976] is also related to the Verlet method:

$$\mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t) + \delta t \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{2}{3} \delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t) - \frac{1}{6} \delta t^2 \mathbf{a}(t - \delta t) \quad (7.18)$$

$$\mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t) + \frac{1}{3} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t) + \frac{5}{6} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t) - \frac{1}{6} \delta t \mathbf{a}(t - \delta t) \quad (7.19)$$

The Beeman integration scheme uses a more accurate expression for the velocity. As a consequence it often gives better energy conservation, because the kinetic energy is calculated directly from the velocities. However, the expressions used are more complex than those of the Verlet algorithm and so it is computationally more expensive.

## Gear Predictor-Corrector Algorithmen

The predictor–corrector methods [Gear 1971] form a general family of integration algorithms from which one can select a scheme that is correct to a given order. These methods have three basic steps. First, new positions, velocities, accelerations and higher-order terms are predicted according to the Taylor expansion, Equations (7.2)–(7.4). In the second stage, the forces are evaluated at the new positions to give accelerations  $\mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)$ . These accelerations are then compared with the accelerations that are predicted from the Taylor series expansion,  $\mathbf{a}^*(t + \delta t)$ . The difference between the predicted and calculated accelerations is then used to ‘correct’ the positions, velocities, etc., in the correction step:

$$\Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{a}^*(t + \delta t) - \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \quad (7.22)$$

Then

$$\mathbf{r}^*(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{r}(t + \delta t) + c_0 \Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \quad (7.23)$$

$$\mathbf{v}^*(t + \delta t) = \mathbf{v}(t + \delta t) + c_1 \Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \quad (7.24)$$

$$\mathbf{a}^*(t + \delta t)/2 = \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t)/2 + c_2 \Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \quad (7.25)$$

$$\mathbf{b}^*(t + \delta t)/6 = \mathbf{b}(t + \delta t)/6 + c_3 \Delta \mathbf{a}(t + \delta t) \quad (7.26)$$

Gear has suggested ‘best’ values of the coefficients  $c_0, c_1, \dots$ . The set of coefficients to use depends upon the order of the Taylor series expansion. In Equations (7.23)–(7.26) the expansion has been truncated after the third derivative of the positions (i.e.  $\mathbf{b}^*(t)$ ). The appropriate set of coefficients to use in this case is  $c_0 = \frac{1}{6}$ ,  $c_1 = \frac{5}{6}$ ,  $c_2 = 1$  and  $c_3 = \frac{1}{3}$ .

## Energiefluktuation

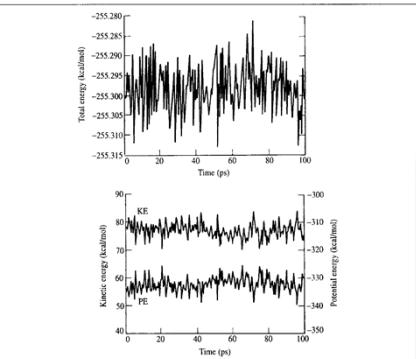


Fig. 7.3: Variation in total energy versus time for the production phase of a molecular dynamics simulation of 256 argon atoms at a temperature of 300 K and a density of  $1.396 \text{ g cm}^{-3}$  (top). The time step was 10 fs and the equations of motion were integrated using the velocity Verlet algorithm. The variations in the kinetic and potential energies are also shown (bottom). The graphs have different scales.

## Zeitschrittänge

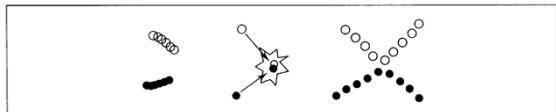


Fig. 7.4: With a very small time step (left) phase space is covered very slowly; a large time step (middle) gives instabilities. With an appropriate time step (right) phase space is covered efficiently and collisions occur smoothly.

System	Types of motion present	Suggested time step (s)
Atoms	Translation	$10^{-14}$
Rigid molecules	Translation and rotation	$5 \times 10^{-15}$
Flexible molecules, rigid bonds	Translation, rotation, torsion	$2 \times 10^{-15}$
Flexible molecules, flexible bonds	Translation, rotation, torsion, vibration	$10^{-15}$ or $5 \times 10^{-16}$

Table 7.1 The different types of motion present in various systems together with suggested time steps.

## Energieerhaltung

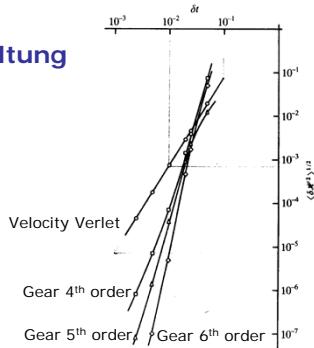


Fig. 3.3 Energy conservation of various algorithms. The system studied is as for Fig. 3.1. We calculate RMS energy fluctuations  $\langle \delta E^2 \rangle^{1/2}$  for various runs starting from the same initial conditions, and proceeding for the same total simulation time  $t_{\text{run}}$  but using different time steps  $\delta t$  and corresponding numbers of steps  $n_{\text{step}} = t_{\text{run}}/\delta t$ . The plot uses log-log scales. The curves correspond to Velocity Verlet (circle), Gear fourth-order (squares), Gear fifth-order (triangles), and Gear sixth-order (diamonds) algorithms.

## Temperatur

Momentane Temperatur  $T(t)$ :

$$\frac{1}{2} N k_B T(t) = E_{\text{kin}}(t) = \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{1}{2} m_i v_i^2$$

$N$  = Anzahl Freiheitsgrade ( $N = 3n$ ),  $n$  = Anzahl Atome

### Methoden für MD Simulation bei konstanter Temperatur:

- (strikt) konstante kinetische Energie und Temperatur
- erweitertes System mit zusätzlichem Freiheitsgrad
- schwache Kopplung an ein Wärmebad

## Druck

Druck = Kraft pro Flächeneinheit auf die Wände des Systems  
Aber: bei periodischen Randbedingungen keine Wand vorhanden

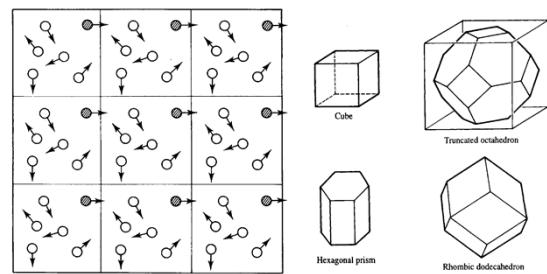
$$\text{Virialsatz: } P = \frac{2}{3V} \left[ E_{\text{kin}} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^n \vec{r}_{ij} \cdot \vec{F}_{ij} \right]$$

$P$  = Druck,  $V$  = Volumen

### Methoden für MD Simulation bei konstantem Druck:

- (strikt) konstanter Druck
- erweitertes System mit zusätzlichem Freiheitsgrad
- schwache Kopplung

## Periodische Randbedingungen



## Periodische Randbedingungen

Rectangular box, side  $2a$  ( $x$ ) by  $2b$  ( $y$ ) by  $2c$  ( $z$ )



Truncated octahedron derived from cube of side  $2a$



Hexagonal prism of length  $2a$  (in  $z$  direction) and distance between opposite faces of the hexagon  $2b$



$x = x - 2 \times a \times \text{INT}(x/a)$

$y = y - 2 \times b \times \text{INT}(y/b)$

$z = z - 2 \times c \times \text{INT}(z/c)$

A common alternative is:

$x = x - a \times \text{ANINT}(x/a)$

$y = y - b \times \text{ANINT}(y/b)$

$z = z - c \times \text{ANINT}(z/c)$

$x = x - 2 \times a \times \text{INT}(x/a)$

$y = y - 2 \times b \times \text{INT}(y/b)$

$z = z - 2 \times c \times \text{INT}(z/c)$

if  $(\text{ABS}(x) + \text{ABS}(y) + \text{ABS}(z)) \geq 1.5 \times A$

then

$x = x - \text{SIGN}(a, x)$

$y = y - \text{SIGN}(a, y)$

$z = z - \text{SIGN}(a, z)$

endif

$x = x - 2 \times a \times \text{INT}(x/a)$

$x = x - 2 \times b \times \text{INT}(x/b)$

if  $(\text{ABS}(x) + \sqrt{3} \times \text{ABS}(y)) \geq 2 \times B$  then

$x = x - \text{SIGN}(b, x)$

$y = y - \text{SIGN}(\sqrt{3} \times b, y)$

endif

## Zeit- und Ensemblemittel

- Experimentelle Messgrößen sind Mittel über Raum und Zeit.
- Zeitmittel einer Messgröße  $A$ , die von den Positionen  $r$  und Impulsen  $p$  der  $N$  Teilchen im System abhängt:

$$A_{\text{ave}} = \lim_{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T A(r(t), p(t)) dt$$

- Ensemblemittel:

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \iint A(r, p) e^{-\frac{E(r, p)}{k_B T}} d^N r d^N p$$

$Z = \iint e^{-\frac{E(r, p)}{k_B T}} d^N r d^N p$  Zustandssumme

$E(r, p)$  Gesamtenergie des Systems

$k_B = 1.38 \cdot 10^{-23}$  J/K Boltzmannkonstante

$T$  absolute Temperatur

- Berechnung durch Mittelung über die Zeitschritte  $t_1, \dots, t_M$  einer MD Trajektorie:

$$\langle A \rangle \approx \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^M A(r(t_i), p(t_i))$$

## Zeit- und Ensemblemittel

Experimentelle Messgrößen sind Mittel über Raum und Zeit

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## MD Simulation im Torsionswinkelraum

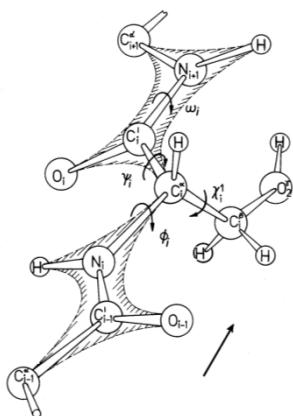
Strukturelle Modellierung  
(Masterstudiengang Bioinformatik)

## MD Simulation im Torsionswinkelraum

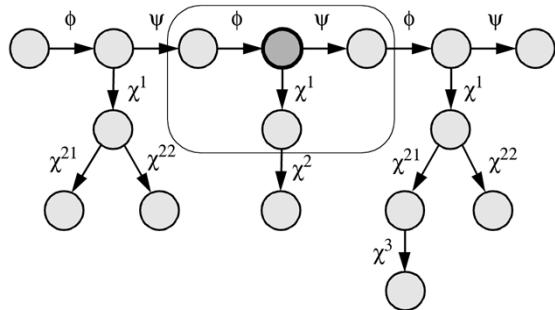
Sommersemester 2012

Peter Güntert

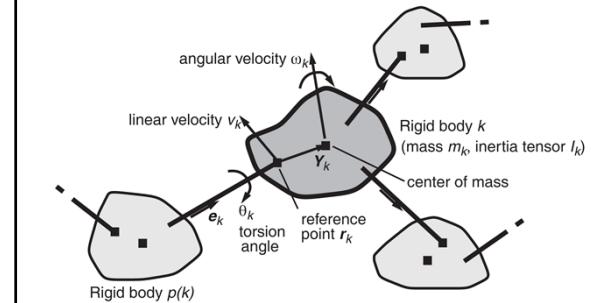
Diederwinkel in Polypeptiden



## Tree structure of torsion angles



## Tree structure with rigid bodies

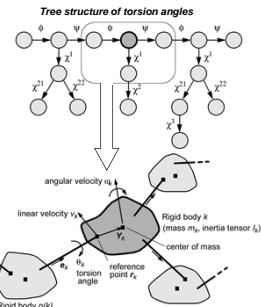


## Torsion angle dynamics algorithm

- Classical mechanical equations of motion are solved for a system with torsion angles as the only degrees of freedom.
- About 10 times less degrees of freedom than in conventional Cartesian space MD.
- Fixed bond lengths and bond angles:  
→ no high frequency motions  
→ longer integration time-steps
- Efficient algorithm required!
- Amount of computation proportional to system size

Programs DYANA, CYANA

Jain, Vaidehi, Rodriguez, J. Comp. Phys. 106, 258–268 (1993)  
Güntert, Mumenthaler, Wüthrich, J. Mol. Biol. 273, 283–298 (1997)



## Molecular Dynamics

### Cartesian space

$$E_{\text{kin}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i=1}^N m_i \dot{x}_i^2$$

diagonal, constant (elements  $m_i$ )

$$\ddot{x}_i = -\frac{1}{m_i} \frac{\partial E_{\text{pot}}}{\partial x_i}$$

proportional to  $N$

Computational complexity

### Torsion angle space

$$E_{\text{kin}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k,l=1}^n M(\theta_{kl}) \dot{\theta}_k \dot{\theta}_l$$

Mass matrix  $M$

$$\ddot{\theta}_k = C(\theta, \dot{\theta})$$

solving linear system of equations:  $\sim n^3$

exploiting tree structure of the molecule:  $\sim n$

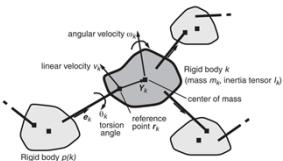
## Computation of the kinetic energy

The angular velocity vector  $\omega_k$  and the linear velocity  $v_k$  of the reference point of the rigid body  $k$  are calculated recursively from the corresponding quantities of the preceding rigid body  $p(k)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} \omega_k &= \omega_{p(k)} + e_k \dot{\theta}_k, \\ v_k &= v_{p(k)} - (r_k - r_{p(k)}) \wedge \omega_{p(k)}. \end{aligned}$$

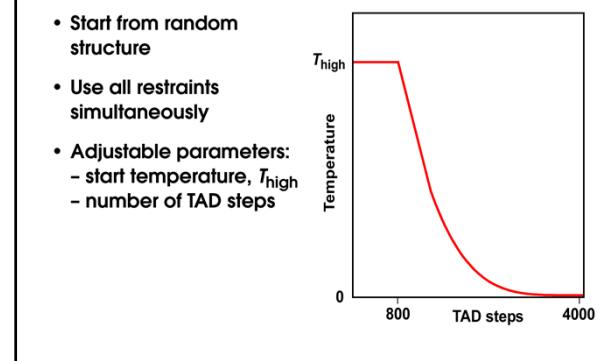
The kinetic energy can then be computed in a linear loop over all rigid bodies:

$$E_{\text{kin}} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{k=0}^n [m_k Y_k^2 + \omega_k \cdot I_k \omega_k + 2v_k \cdot (\omega_k \wedge m_k Y_k)]. \quad [1]$$



## Simulated annealing protocol

- Start from random structure
- Use all restraints simultaneously
- Adjustable parameters:  
– start temperature,  $T_{\text{high}}$   
– number of TAD steps



## Temperature control

Weak coupling to a heat bath is used to control the temperature:

$$\dot{\theta} \leftarrow \dot{\theta} \sqrt{1 + \frac{T^{\text{ref}} - T}{\tau T}}$$

$\dot{\theta}$  torsional velocities  
 $T$  instantaneous temperature,  $T = \frac{2E_{\text{kin}}}{nk_B}$   
coupling constant

(Berendsen et al., J. Chem. Phys. 81, 3684–3690, 1984)

## Time-step adaption

The same idea is used to adapt the integration time-step,  $\Delta t$ , such as to maintain a user-defined accuracy of energy conservation:

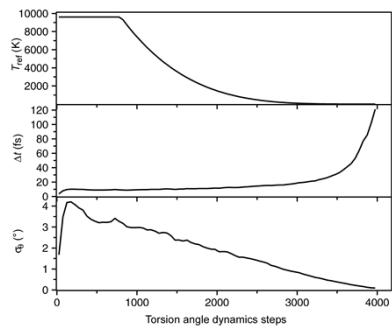
$$\Delta t \leftarrow \Delta t \sqrt{1 + \frac{\varepsilon^{\text{ref}} - \varepsilon}{\tau \varepsilon}}$$

$\varepsilon$  is the relative change of the total energy,  $E = E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{pot}}$ :

$$\varepsilon = \left| \frac{E(t - \Delta t) - E(t)}{E(t)} \right|$$

Standard protocol:  $\varepsilon^{\text{ref}} = 0.005 \dots 0.0001$ ,  $\tau = 20$

## Simulated annealing with torsion angle dynamics



## CYANA Computation Time

