

# Molecular dynamics simulation

how to get things moving

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# Motivation

A (bio)molecule in aqueous solution at ambient conditions

- structure is varying
- energy is fluctuating
- representation with a single, static structure – meaningless
- an interesting process may be going on 😊

# State of the system

- (micro)state of a system:  
positions  $\vec{r}_i$  and momenta  $\vec{p}_i$  of all the atoms
- configuration space –  $3N$ -dimensional space of coordinates
- phase space –  $6N$ -dim. space of coords and momenta  $\{\vec{r}_i, \vec{p}_i\}$
- trajectory in phase space – sequence of points  $\{\vec{r}_i(t), \vec{p}_i(t)\}$   
passed by the system in course of time

# State of the system – example I

1D harmonic oscillator:

time course of coordinate and of velocity

$$r(t) = a \cdot \cos[\omega t]$$

$$v(t) = -a\omega \cdot \sin[\omega t]$$

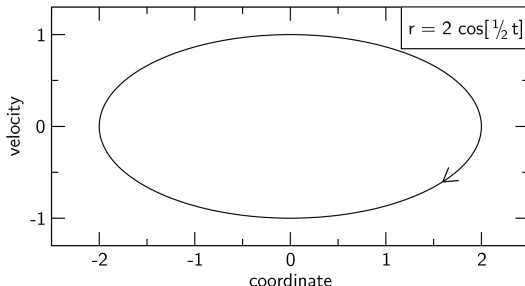
plot of velocity vs. coordinate – in 2D phase space:

elliptic trajectory

$$\left(\frac{x(t)}{a}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{v(t)}{a \cdot \omega}\right)^2 = 1$$

# State of the system – example I

1D harmonic oscillator:

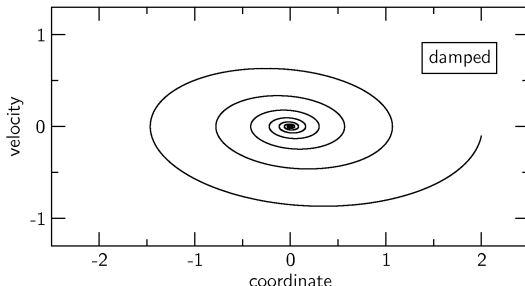


$$E_{\text{tot}} = E_{\text{kin}} + E_{\text{pot}} = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 a^2$$

**conservative system** – total energy remains conserved (constant)

# State of the system – example I

1D harmonic oscillator:



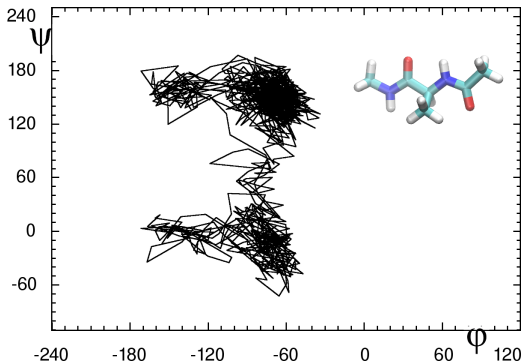
with **friction** or other **damping**

– the total energy of the system is decreasing

# State of the system – example II

alanine dipeptide in aqueous solution:

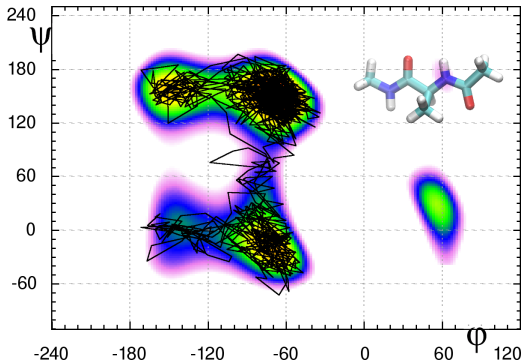
config. space of dihedral angles  $\varphi, \psi$  (Ramachandran plot)



# State of the system – example II

alanine dipeptide in aqueous solution:

config. space of dihedral angles  $\varphi, \psi$  (Ramachandran plot)





# Thermodynamic properties

MD simulation generates a **trajectory** in phase space

→ **snapshots**  $\{\vec{r}_i(t_k), \vec{p}_i(t_k)\}$  in time instants  $t_k$  ( $k = 1, \dots, M$ )

Generally – obtain the average value of a property of interest  
over all observed structures

For energy: evaluate  $E_k$  in every snapshot  
and calculate the average:

$$\langle E \rangle_t = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{k=1}^M E_k$$

# Thermodynamic properties

Still, there are issues:

- Do we have enough snapshots = all relevant conformations?
  - **convergence** of the simulation
- How do we consider experimental conditions – temperature?
- Suppose we know the structure of the reactant.
  - How do we get the structure of the product?
  - or even the whole reaction path?
- Does the average of energy provide useful information?
  - What about free energies / entropy?

# Thermodynamic properties

Characteristics of (bio)molecular simulations:

- it is easy to derive the total energy – force field
- not so easy to make proper use of the energy function  
to get the **thermodynamic properties** right
- it is all about thermodynamics  
in possible contrast to quantum chemistry

# Thermodynamic properties

**time average** for energy and other properties of interest:

$$\langle A \rangle_t = \frac{1}{t_1 - t_0} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} A(t) dt$$

experimental sample – huge number of molecules,  
all relevant conformations of molecule/solvent are present  
– thermodynamic **ensemble**

How many molecules in the ensemble are found in  $\{\vec{r}_i, \vec{p}_i\}$ ?

→ **phase-space density** (per volume unit)  $\rho(\vec{r}, \vec{p})$

→ **ensemble average** can be calculated:

$$\langle A \rangle_e = \frac{\int A \cdot \rho(\vec{r}, \vec{p}) d\vec{r} d\vec{p}}{\int \rho(\vec{r}, \vec{p}) d\vec{r} d\vec{p}}$$

# Thermodynamic properties

experiment – ensemble average is always measured

simulation – a single molecule – time average available

simulation – system is considered **ergodic**

- passes through all points of phase space constituting the real ensemble, provided the simulation is long enough
- implies:

$$\langle A \rangle_t = \langle A \rangle_e$$

proper **sampling** × danger of undersampling / lack of convergence

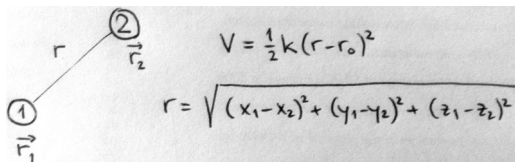
## Déjà vu – energy

$$\begin{aligned} E(R^N) = & \\ = & \frac{1}{2} \sum_i k_i (r_i - r_i^0)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_j k_j^\vartheta (\vartheta_j - \vartheta_j^0)^2 + \frac{1}{2} \sum_n V_n \cdot \cos[n\omega - \gamma_n] \\ + & \sum_i^N \sum_{j=i+1}^N \left\{ 4\varepsilon_{ij} \left( \left( \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^{12} - \left( \frac{\sigma_{ij}}{r_{ij}} \right)^6 \right) + \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \frac{q_i q_j}{r_{ij}} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

# Déjà vu – forces

$$V = V(r_{ij}) + V(r_{ik}) + V(r_{il}) + \dots$$

$$F_i^x = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial x_i} = -\frac{\partial V(r_{ij})}{\partial r_{ij}} \frac{\partial r_{ij}}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial V(r_{ik})}{\partial r_{ik}} \frac{\partial r_{ik}}{\partial x_i} - \frac{\partial V(r_{il})}{\partial r_{il}} \frac{\partial r_{il}}{\partial x_i} - \dots$$



$$\vec{F}_1 = -k(r_{12} - r_0) \cdot \frac{\vec{r}_{12}}{r_{12}}$$

# Equations of motion

total energy – **Hamilton function** (Hamiltonian):

$$H = T + V = \frac{1}{2} \frac{p^2}{m} + \frac{1}{2} k r^2$$

equations of motion in Hamilton's formalism:

$$\dot{r}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} \quad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial r_i}$$

leading to **ordinary differential eqn** (ODE) of 2nd order

$$\dot{r} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} = \frac{p}{m} \rightarrow p = m\dot{r} \rightarrow \dot{p} = m \cdot \ddot{r}$$

$$\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial r} = -\frac{\partial V}{\partial r} = F$$

$$m \cdot \ddot{r} = F$$



# Equations of motion

example – harmonic oscillator:  $H = \frac{1}{2} \frac{p^2}{m} + \frac{1}{2} k r^2$

$$\dot{r} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p} = \frac{p}{m}$$

$$\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial r} = F = -k \cdot r$$

equation of motion:  $m \cdot \ddot{r} = -k \cdot r$

- MD – similar concept: consider  $x, y, z$  of atoms instead of  $r$ , and take forces from the ‘long equation’
- Hamilton / Lagrange formalisms are more general
  - other coordinates than  $x, y, z$  of atoms may be used
  - internal coordinates ...

**MD:** very complex expression for the force

→ no analytical solution → **numerical solution** is necessary

# (Too) simple numerical solution

$$\ddot{r} = f(r, t)$$

common trick – Taylor expansion ( $\Delta t = t - t_0$ ):

$$r(t) = r(t_0) + \dot{r}(t_0) \cdot \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \ddot{r}(t_0) \cdot \Delta t^2 + \dots$$

**Euler method** – 1st-order approximation:

$$r(t) \approx r(t_0) + \dot{r}(t_0) \cdot \Delta t$$

Numerical integration starts at time  $t_0$  – we make a **step  $\Delta t$** :

$$a(t_0) = -\frac{F}{m}$$

$$r(t_0 + \Delta t) = r(t_0) + v(t_0) \cdot \Delta t$$

$$v(t_0 + \Delta t) = v(t_0) + a(t_0) \cdot \Delta t$$

# Verlet – normal form

Euler method – too large numerical error  $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^2)$   
more accurate integration is needed

## Verlet method:

Taylor expansion up to 2nd order,  
derivation from two virtual steps, forwards and backwards:

$$r(t + \Delta t) = r(t) + \dot{r}(t) \cdot \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \ddot{r}(t) \cdot \Delta t^2$$

$$r(t - \Delta t) = r(t) - \dot{r}(t) \cdot \Delta t + \frac{1}{2} \ddot{r}(t) \cdot \Delta t^2$$

add both equations – eliminate the velocity  $\dot{r}$ :

$$r(t + \Delta t) = 2 \cdot r(t) - r(t - \Delta t) + \ddot{r}(t) \cdot \Delta t^2$$

$$\ddot{r}(t) = a(t) = \frac{F(t)}{m} = -\frac{1}{m} \frac{\partial V}{\partial r}(t)$$

# Verlet – normal form

$$r(t + \Delta t) = 2 \cdot r(t) - r(t - \Delta t) + \ddot{r}(t) \cdot \Delta t^2$$

$r(t - \Delta t)$ ? information equivalent to velocity,  
so that initial conditions may be converted:

$$r(t_0 - \Delta t) = r(t_0) - v(t_0) \cdot \Delta t$$

velocities – not in there explicitly, but may be obtained:

$$\dot{r}(t) = v(t) = \frac{r(t + \Delta t) - r(t - \Delta t)}{2 \cdot \Delta t}$$

(Verlet normal form)

## Verlet – normal form

program for 'astronomic' simulations: ( $\vec{F} = -1/r^2 \cdot \vec{r}/r$ )

```

/* initial "old" positions from initial velocities */
for (k=0; k<DIM; k++)
    r_old[k] = r[k] - v[k] * dt;

for (t=0.; t < CYCLES*PERIOD; t+=dt) {
    /* distance (from the Sun) */
    rnorm = sqrt(NORM2(r));
    /* gravitation force (on the comet)
     * f = -1 / r^2
     * multiply this by the unit vector in the direction of r
     * f = -1 / r^2 * vector(r) / r
     */
    for (k=0; k<DIM; k++)
        f[k] = - r[k] / CUB(rnorm);
    /* Verlet integrator */
    for (k=0; k<DIM; k++) {
        r_new = 2 * r[k] - r_old[k] + f[k] * SQR(dt);
        r_old[k] = r[k];
        r[k] = r_new;
    }
}

```

# Velocity Verlet

another, equivalent formulation

- positions calculated first using velocities

$$r(t + \Delta t) = r(t) + v(t) \cdot \Delta t + \frac{1}{2}a(t) \cdot \Delta t^2$$

- forces ( $\rightarrow$  accelerations) calculated in new positions, and new velocities obtained as

$$v(t + \Delta t) = v(t) + \frac{1}{2}(a(t) + a(t + \Delta t)) \cdot \Delta t$$

- next calculation of positions  $r \dots$

MD is started with  $r_0$  and  $v_0$ .

Then, in every step,  $r(t + \Delta t)$  is calculated first

so that  $a(t + \Delta t)$  can be updated, to get  $v(t + \Delta t)$

# Velocity Verlet

VV – better numerical precision than normal Verlet

numerical problem of normal Verlet:

- adding a small but important term  $\ddot{r}(t_0)\Delta t^2$  to a large term calculated as difference:  $2r(t) - r(t - \Delta t)$
- large relative uncertainty

desirable – use an algorithm that

- is mathematically equivalent, and
- does not involve potentially problematic calculations

# Leap-frog

yet another equivalent formulation, similar to VV:

$r$  and  $v$  are calculated in an alternating fashion:

$$r(t), v(t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t), r(t + \Delta t), v(t + \frac{3}{2}\Delta t), r(t + 2\Delta t) \dots$$

- velocities at  $t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t$  are obtained first:

$$v(t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t) = v(t - \frac{1}{2}\Delta t) + a(t) \cdot \Delta t$$

- then, positions are updated at  $t + \Delta t$ :

$$r(t + \Delta t) = r(t) + v(t + \frac{1}{2}\Delta t) \cdot \Delta t$$

So, accelerations have to be calculated at  $t, t + \Delta t, t + 2\Delta t \dots$   
from forces, and positions are needed to compute forces  
(note:  $a(t)$  can only be calculated whenever  $r(t)$  are known)



# Initial conditions

To start the MD

- the positions  $r_0$  and the velocities  $v_0$  have to be specified

First step – calculations of forces at  $r_0$  to get accelerations  $a_0$

Then – the integrator may provide  $r$  (and  $v$ ) at time  $t_0 + \Delta t$

To obtain a trajectory over a time interval  $T$ ,

we perform  $M$  steps

- we have to evaluate the forces on all atoms  $M = T/\Delta t$  times

Computational cost of the calculation of forces

determines how many steps we can afford to make

# $\Delta t$ – crucial parameter

Numerical issue:

- we neglect contributions in  $\Delta t^3$  and higher orders  
→ error per step in the order of  $\Delta t^3$  ( $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^3)$ )
- keep the step short → make the error small
- disadvantage: we may need too many steps to simulate certain time  $T$
- trade-off:  $\Delta t$  too long → too large error  
dynamics may deviate, momentum may not be conserved. . .

# $\Delta t$ – crucial parameter

Chemical issue:

- fastest motion – hydrogen atoms, period around 10 fs
- rule of thumb – stable integration with  $\Delta t \leq$  fastest period (much more relaxed than in ‘astronomic’ simulations ☺)
- practically,  $\Delta t$  of 1 fs is used (2 fs with special treatment)

→ 1M calculations of forces needed for a trajectory of 1 ns  
large systems – multi-ns simulations routinely,  $\mu$ s possible

# $\Delta t$ – astronomic test

static heavy object (star) + moving light object (comet)  
+ gravity ( $F = -1/r^2$ ) → dynamics with Verlet integrator

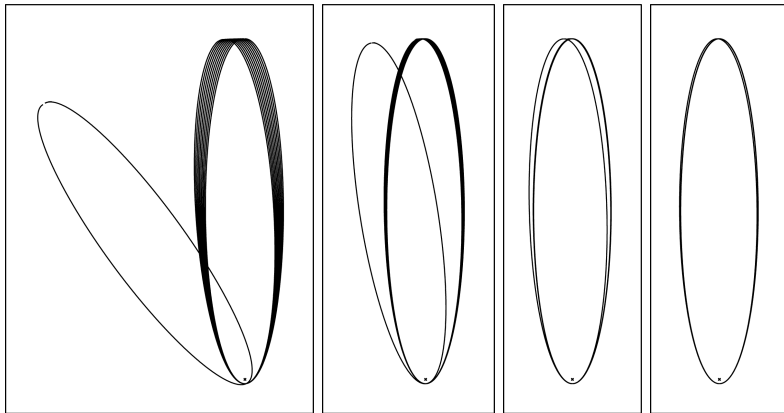
gravity – inverse-square law much like Coulomb between atoms  
exact trajectory – periodic along an ellipse with star in 1 focus

simulation – four different values of the time step:

$1 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $2 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $5 \times 10^{-5}$  and  $10 \times 10^{-5}$  of the orbital period  
→ 100k, 50k, 20k and 10k steps per period – mmore than in MD

# $\Delta t$ – astronomic test

first 10 orbits are shown, and then the 100th shown again



credit for the idea: Jiří Kolafa, Prague

## $\Delta t$ – astronomic test

shortest step – reasonable trajectory, small deviation

2nd-longest step – error becomes evident

longest step – large deviation

**important** – trajectory is precessing (ellipse is ‘rotating’),

but it remains elliptic whatever the time step is

**total energy** and **orbital period** remain constant, also

– consequence of **reversibility** of Verlet:

if we reverse the course of time ( $\Delta t \rightarrow -\Delta t$ ),

we will simulate towards initial conditions of the trajectory

generally – energy in Verlet fluctuates (with longer step),

but it does not **drift**

# Verlet or something better?

Verlet – very approximative yet still routinely used for MD

why? – because it is efficient – why?

- forces on atoms ( $\rightarrow$  accelerations) calculated only  $1\times$  per step
- no higher derivatives of positions are involved

more accurate methods to integrate ODEs are available, and are used in some applications, if improved accuracy is required

straightforward – involve extra terms from Taylor expansion  
– hardly ever done, there are other ways to improve accuracy...

## Gear integration: predictor–corrector

- provides solution correct to an order of choice
- new positions are calculated (**predicted**) from Taylor expansion using a certain number of previous steps
- then, forces ( $\rightarrow$  accelerations) are calculated in the predicted positions
- accelerations used to make **correction** of positions
- additional computational effort, decreased efficiency
- accuracy may be improved significantly, longer step possible
- still, only 1 calculation of forces per step



# Gear integration: predictor–corrector

$n$ th-order Gear integrator:

coords of all atoms  $\vec{r}$  and their derivatives up to the order of  $n - 1$ :

$$R = \begin{pmatrix} \vec{r} \\ \dot{\vec{r}} \cdot \Delta t \\ \ddot{\vec{r}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \Delta t^2 \\ \ddot{\vec{r}} \cdot \frac{1}{6} \Delta t^3 \end{pmatrix}$$

for the 4th-order method

initialization:  $\vec{r}$  and  $\dot{\vec{r}}$  from init. conditions,  $\ddot{\vec{r}}$  calculated from forces

– 1 calculation of forces required at start

higher derivatives may be set to zero

## Gear: 1: prediction

MD step at time  $t$  starts with **prediction**  
of coordinates+derivatives at time  $t + \Delta t$ :

$$R_p(t + \Delta t) = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 2 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 3 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \cdot R(t)$$

- the matrix contains binomial coefficients
- the calculation passes a polynomial of order  $n - 1$   
through the previous  $n$  points of the trajectory  
(at  $t, t - \Delta t, \dots, t - (n - 1)\Delta t$ )  
and generates a point on this polynomial after  $\Delta t$
- prediction may be good for continuous force functions
- no calculation of force up to this point!

## Gear: 2: error

next, we calculate the **error** of the prediction:

we obtain the force at the predicted position,

and compare it with the force predicted in step 1  $\rightarrow$  error

$$E = \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{\vec{f}(\vec{r}_p)}{m} - \ddot{\vec{r}}_p \right) \Delta t^2$$

$E$  – vector with as many components as the vector of coordinates  
(every coordinate with its derivatives has ‘its own’ error)

## Gear: 3: correction

Finally, using the error  $E$ , we calculate the **corrected** coordinates and derivatives as

$$R(t + \Delta t) = R_p(t + \Delta t) + E \cdot \begin{pmatrix} a_0 \\ a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \end{pmatrix}$$

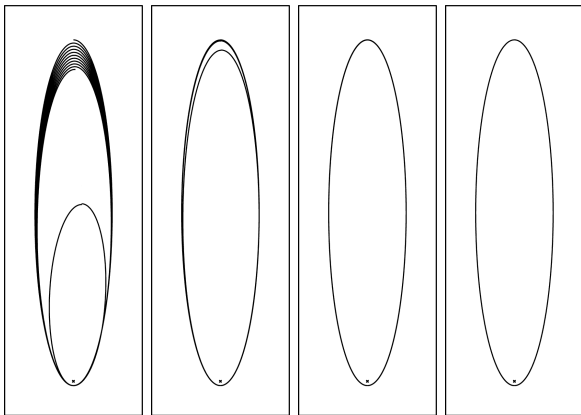
coefficients  $a_0, a_1 \dots a_{n-1}$

- estimated to prevent the accumulation of integration errors
- may be looked up in tables
- for 4th-order method for 2nd-order ODE  
and forces not depending on velocities:

$$a_0 = \frac{1}{6}, a_1 = \frac{5}{6}, a_2 = 1 \text{ and } a_3 = \frac{1}{3}$$

## Gear – astronomic test

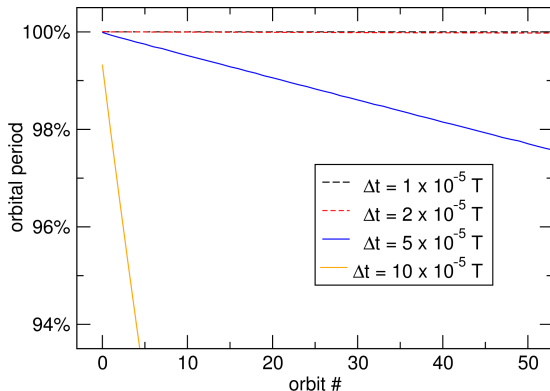
$\Delta t = 10 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $5 \times 10^{-5}$ ,  $2 \times 10^{-5}$  and  $1 \times 10^{-5}$  of correct period



## Gear – astronomic test

- Gear may provide more accurate trajectories than Verlet, with the same  $\Delta t$
- perfect trajectories with the two shortest time steps (Verlet showed deviations even with the shortest step)
- incorrect behavior with the second-largest step, just wrong with the longest one
- different **character of deviation** than with Verlet: the elliptic trajectory of the comet is getting ‘shorter’, rather than precessing
- important: the orbital **period** is becoming shorter, and total **energy is decreasing**

# Gear – astronomic test



general observation:

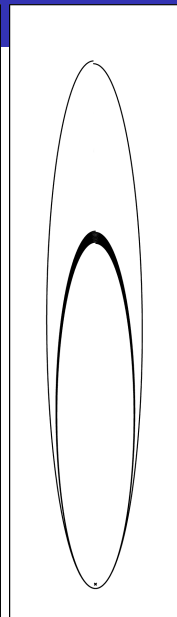
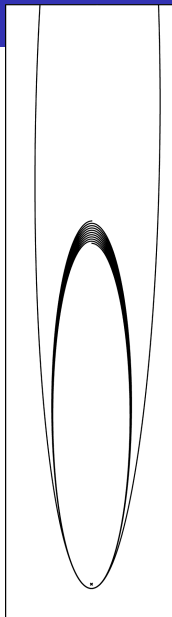
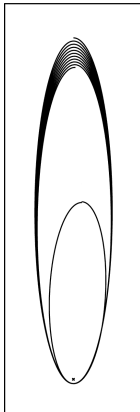
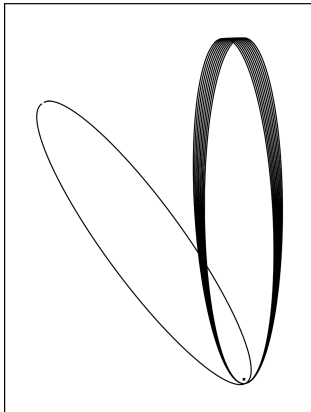
energy will decrease or increase (**drift**) in the simulation

this may be negligible with longer step / higher-order Gear

Gear: **not** reversible, does **not** conserve energy.

# Gear – higher order?

Verlet and Gear 4th, 5th and 6th order ( $\Delta t = 10 \times 10^{-5} T$ )





## Gear – higher order?

note: Verlet corresponds to 3th-order Gear formally  
higher derivatives in calculation improve the results only slightly  
– the drift of energy is slower but still unsatisfactory

general observations:

- when making the step shorter,  
results of higher-order methods will improve faster
- when making the time step longer,  
higher-order methods are more prone to fail completely  
while lower-order methods are more robust
- higher-order integrators are a good choice  
if accurate trajectories are desired
- lower-order or Verlet integration is sufficient for applications  
with 'weaker' requirements – typically, MD

# Runge–Kutta integration

Runge–Kutta methods – numerical integrators of 1st-order ODEs  
classical 4th-order method **RK4**:

- 4 calculations of the derivative in every step
- points at which the derivative is calculated
  - chosen depending on the previous calculations,
  - the first is done at the start of the integration step

$$g_0 = \dot{r}(r(t))$$

$$g_1 = \dot{r}\left(r(t) + \frac{1}{2}g_0\Delta t\right)$$

$$g_2 = \dot{r}\left(r(t) + \frac{1}{2}g_1\Delta t\right)$$

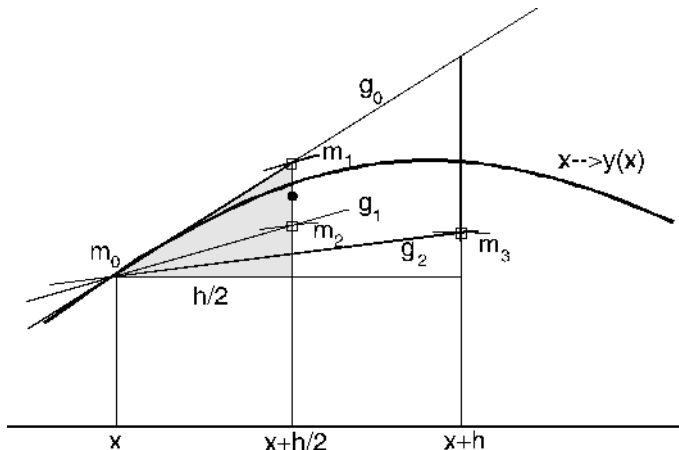
$$g_3 = \dot{r}\left(r(t) + g_2\Delta t\right)$$

We calculate the value of the function at time  $t + \Delta t$   
using a weighted average of the obtained derivative values:

$$r_{n+1} = r_n + \frac{1}{6}(g_0 + 2g_1 + 2g_2 + g_3) \cdot \Delta t$$

# the RK4 method

derivative of  $y$  is calculated at points  $m_0$ ,  $m_1$ ,  $m_2$  and  $m_3$   
calculated derivatives  $g_0, \dots, g_3$  are shown as arrows



# the RK4 method

- actually predictor–corrector with 4 predictions per step
- 4 calculations of the derivative needed per step
- error per step reduced to  $\mathcal{O}(\Delta t^5)$  – 4th-order method
- solves 1st-order ODEs much like the Euler method does
- to solve Newton eqns of motion (2nd-order ODEs)
  - eqns are converted to system of two 1st-order eqns
  - positions and velocities of atoms are propagated:

$$\begin{aligned}\dot{\vec{r}} &= \vec{v} \\ \dot{\vec{v}} &= \frac{\vec{f}}{m}\end{aligned}$$

# the RK4 method

Can RK4 be used directly somewhere in computational chemistry?

Yes! Let us propagate a time-dependent Schrödinger equation

– 1st-order ODE for the wave function  $\Psi$  of the system:

$$\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{H} \Psi$$

- we express  $\Psi$  as linear combination of suitable basis functions:

$$\Psi = \sum_m c_m \varphi_m$$

- Hamiltonian is a matrix of elements between basis functions:

$$H_{mn} = \langle \varphi_m | \hat{H} | \varphi_n \rangle$$

- we calculate the derivative with matrix multiplication as  $H \cdot \Psi$

# Constraints & restraints

## Constraint

- condition that the system is required to meet
- example: a bond has length of  $d$  **exactly**:  $|\vec{r}_{12}|^2 = d^2$
- the associated mode of motion does not contain any energy

## Restraint

- additional energy contribution in the force field
- example: using NMR-estimated distance of atoms  $j$  and  $k$ ,  
$$V_{\text{rest}} = \frac{1}{2} k_{\text{rest}} (r_{jk} - r_{\text{NMR}})^2$$
- imposes an energy penalty on any deviation,  
but still  $r_{jk}$  is allowed to deviate from  $r_{\text{NMR}}$
- the affected mode still contributes  $\frac{1}{2} kT$  to kinetic energy

# Constraint dynamics

Dynamics of large flexible (bio) molecules

- complex combination of different motions

High-frequency modes of motions – **bond stretch / angle bend**

- rather uninteresting, no need for exact description

Lower frequency modes – dihedrals and larger

- conformational changes, important, must be treated properly

Time step – directed by the highest-frequency modes involved

Idea – keep the bond lengths (or, additionally, angles) **fixed**,  
and leave other modes of motion untouched

- introduce **constraints**

# Constraint dynamics

Formally:

Introduce additional (artificial) forces  $\vec{G}$  on atoms,  
which keep the bond lengths and, optionally, angles fixed:

$$m_i \ddot{\vec{r}}_i = \vec{F}_i + \vec{G}_i$$

Technique:

- 1 integrate eqns of motion for one step with 'normal' forces  $\vec{F}$ ,  
without considering  $\vec{G}$  for now
- 2 determine the forces  $\vec{G}$  required to satisfy constraints
- 3 correct the new atom positions

The math is somewhat complex. . .



# Constraint dynamics – details 1

Example: 3-atomic molecule, bonds 1–2 and 2–3 fixed, angle is free

Eqns of motion:

$$m_1 \ddot{\vec{r}}_1 = \vec{F}_1 + \vec{G}_1$$

$$m_2 \ddot{\vec{r}}_2 = \vec{F}_2 + \vec{G}_2$$

$$m_3 \ddot{\vec{r}}_3 = \vec{F}_3 + \vec{G}_3$$

Constraints to be fulfilled:

$$\delta_{12} = r_{12}^2 - d_{12}^2 = 0$$

$$\delta_{23} = r_{23}^2 - d_{23}^2 = 0$$

## Constraint dynamics – details 2

Lagrangian mechanics provides the constraint forces, generally:

$$\vec{G}_a = \frac{1}{2} \lambda_{12} \nabla_a \delta_{12} + \frac{1}{2} \lambda_{23} \nabla_a \delta_{23}$$

with so-far undetermined Lagrange multipliers  $\lambda$

conditions for  $\vec{G}_a$ :

- must be directed along bonds (to only affect the bond length)
- must obey Newton's 3rd law

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{G}_1 &= \lambda_{12} \vec{r}_{12} \\ \vec{G}_2 &= -\lambda_{12} \vec{r}_{12} + \lambda_{23} \vec{r}_{23} \\ \vec{G}_3 &= -\lambda_{23} \vec{r}_{23}\end{aligned}$$

# Constraint dynamics – details 3

Modified eqn for the Verlet integrator:

$$\vec{r}_i(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}_i'(t + \Delta t) + \Delta t^2/m_i \cdot \vec{G}_i$$

Insert the previously obtained constraint forces

$$\begin{aligned}\vec{r}_1(t + \Delta t) &= \vec{r}_1'(t + \Delta t) + \Delta t^2/m_1 \cdot \lambda_{12}\vec{r}_{12} \\ \vec{r}_2(t + \Delta t) &= \vec{r}_2'(t + \Delta t) + \Delta t^2/m_2 \cdot (-\lambda_{12}\vec{r}_{12} + \lambda_{23}\vec{r}_{23}) \\ \vec{r}_3(t + \Delta t) &= \vec{r}_3'(t + \Delta t) + \Delta t^2/m_3 \cdot (-\lambda_{23}\vec{r}_{23})\end{aligned}$$

Subtract eqns I–II and II–III to obtain the lengths to be fixed

→ obtain 2 conditions, from which

2 unknowns  $\lambda_{12}$  and  $\lambda_{23}$  can be determined

# Constraint dynamics – details 4

$$\begin{aligned}
 \vec{r}_{12}(t + \Delta t) &= \vec{r}_{12}'(t + \Delta t) + \\
 &\quad + \Delta t^2(m_1^{-1} + m_2^{-1}) \cdot \lambda_{12} \vec{r}_{12} - \Delta t^2 m_2^{-1} \cdot \lambda_{23} \vec{r}_{23} \\
 \vec{r}_{23}(t + \Delta t) &= \vec{r}_{23}'(t + \Delta t) - \\
 &\quad - \Delta t^2 m_2^{-1} \cdot \lambda_{12} \vec{r}_{12} + \Delta t^2(m_2^{-1} + m_3^{-1}) \cdot \lambda_{23} \vec{r}_{23}
 \end{aligned}$$

- take square modulus of both sides of eqns ( $|\vec{r}_{12}|^2, \dots$ )
- apply constraints,  $|\vec{r}_{12}|^2 = d_{12}^2, \dots$
- obtain a set of quadratic eqns for  $\lambda_{12}$  and  $\lambda_{23}$
- solve, perhaps in a linearized form and iteratively
- obtain the final new coordinates from (previous slide)

$$\vec{r}_1(t + \Delta t) = \vec{r}_1'(t + \Delta t) + \Delta t^2/m_1 \cdot \lambda_{12} \vec{r}_{12}$$

# SHAKE

Large (bio)molecule – large number of constraints  $n_c$

Set of eqns – solution requires inversion of an  $n_c \times n_c$  matrix  
– possibly time-consuming

SHAKE – an alternative algorithm:

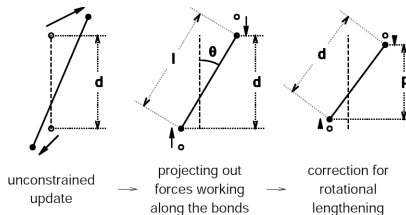
- process the constraints one by one
- satisfying one constraint may violate another  
→ iterative procedure necessary
- run until all constraints are met within a preset tolerance
- angle constraints – re-formulate as bond constraints (rigid  $\Delta$ )

Similar algorithms exist for other integrators,  
e.g. RATTLE for velocity Verlet, to treat velocities

# LINCS

yet another constraint algorithm

- resets bond lengths after an unconstrained integration step
- non-iterative – always 2 steps:

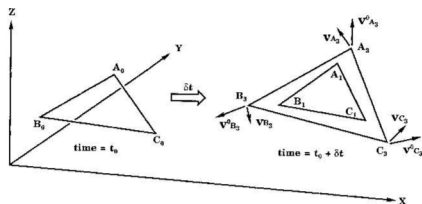


- no expensive matrix operations
- faster and more stable than SHAKE
- available for bond constraints and isolated angle constraints

# SETTLE

specialized algorithm for rigid triangles –  $\text{H}_2\text{O}$

- 3 bond constraints for a molecule with 3 atoms
- analytical, non-iterative solution of SHAKE+RATTLE
- fulfills constraints exactly ( $\rightarrow$  no tolerance values needed)
- faster than SHAKE  $\rightarrow$  useful for molecules in aqueous solution



# Constraint dynamics

## Condition

- no coupling between the constrained and unconstrained modes of motion

## Usual choices

- bonds with hydrogen
  - $\Delta t$  may be increased from 1 to 2 fs
- all bonds
- all bonds + all angles
  - may look absurd, but is often a good idea for proteins



# Restrained molecular dynamics

Additional contributions in the eqn for total (potential) energy

- 'penalty' for deviation from a desired value of a coordinate
- generates additional force
- still, the coordinate *may* deviate from the reference value, and fluctuate

position restraints, angle restraints, distance restraints,  
orientation restraints and dihedral restraints

# Position restraints

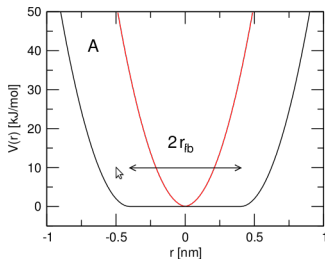
distance of an atom from a fixed reference position  $\vec{R}_i$ :

$$V_{\text{posres}} = \frac{1}{2} k_{\text{posres}} |\vec{r}_i - \vec{R}_i|^2$$

- to restrain e.g. the protein during equilibration while the solvent is free to move
  - prevent any unwanted drastic rearrangements
- to restrain the surroundings of a region of interest whenever there is not enough info on the surroundings
  - the region of interest is simulated without restrains

# Flat-bottomed position restraints

- no energy penalty up to a certain distance  $r_{fb}$  from the reference position
- restraints the atom to a volume rather than to a point

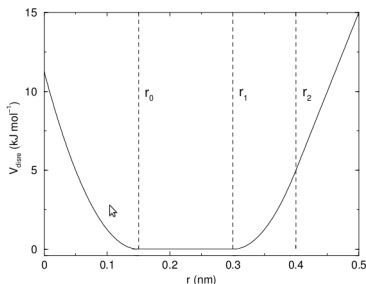


$$r = \left| \vec{r}_i - \vec{R}_i \right|$$

$$V_{fb} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} k_{fbpr} (r - r_{fb})^2 & \text{if } r > r_{fb} \\ 0 & \text{if } r < r_{fb} \end{cases}$$

# Distance restraints

- penalty according to the distance between two atoms
- often – impose experimental restraints on molecular motion  
e.g. from NMR or diffraction experiments
- MD – tool for structure refinement using NMR data
- optionally time- or ensemble-averaging



$$r = |\vec{r}_i - \vec{r}_j|$$

$$V_{dr} = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{2} k_{dr} (r_0 - r)^2 & \text{if } r < r_0 \\ 0 & \text{if } r_0 < r < r_1 \\ \frac{1}{2} k_{dr} (r - r_1)^2 & \text{if } r_1 < r < r_2 \\ \frac{1}{2} k_{dr} r (r_2 - r_1) + c & \text{if } r > r_2 \end{cases}$$

# Restraints – further ideas

- angle restraints – angle between two bonds
- dihedral restraints
- orientation restraints – angle of two vectors
- time averaging for distance restraints
  - so that fluctuations are not damped
- averaging over multiple pairs of atoms
  - due to the nature of NMR data