

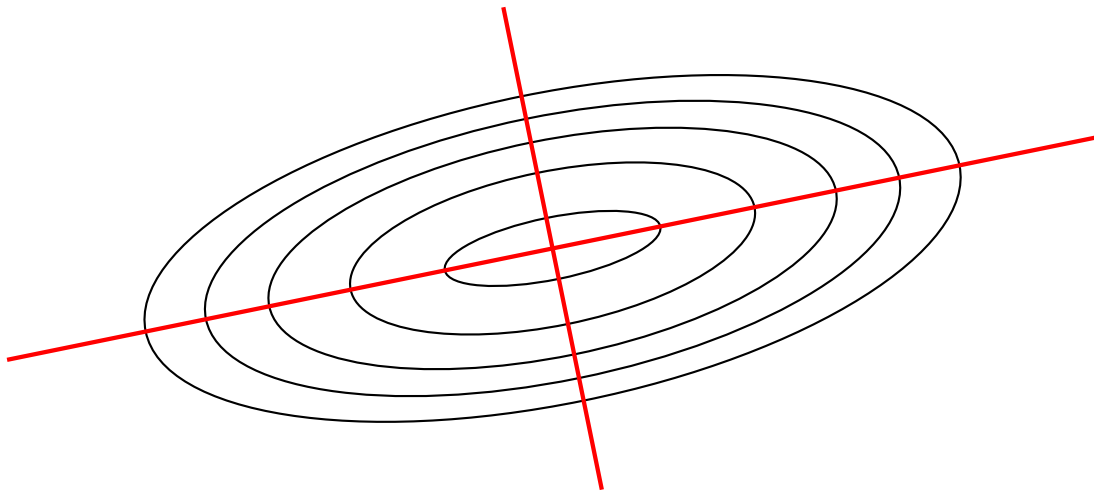
# **Normal mode analysis: Applications**

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# Normal modes

Harmonic potential



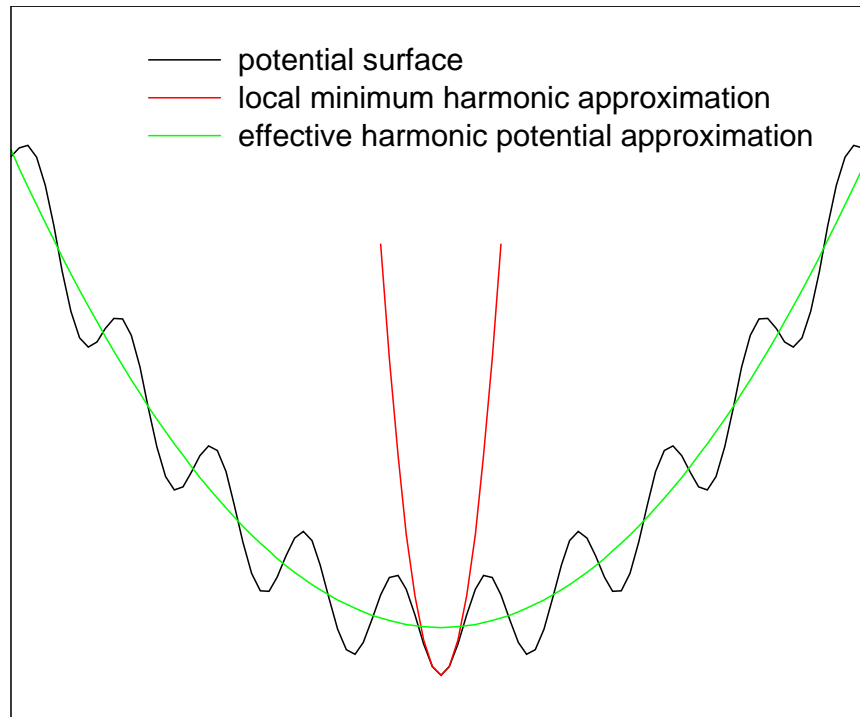
Normal modes = principal axes (mass-weighted)

Two classes of applications:

- Separation of frequencies
- Simple analytic description of the potential

**Major limitation:** harmonic potential

# Harmonic approximations



## Local minimum:

- derived from standard all-atom potentials by energy minimization
- vibrational motion
- time scale:  $<$  residence time in a minimum
- appropriate for studying fast motions

## Effective potential well:

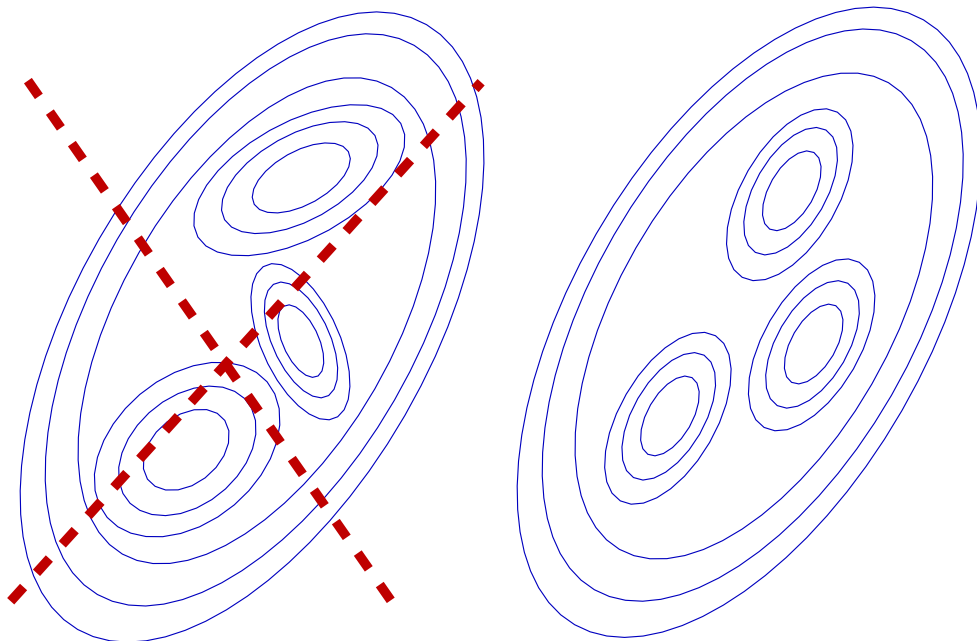
- derived from coarse-grained model
- diffusive motion (jumps between local minima)
- time scale:  $\gg$  residence time in a minimum
- appropriate for studying slow motions

# Harmonic approximations

## Standard normal mode analysis:

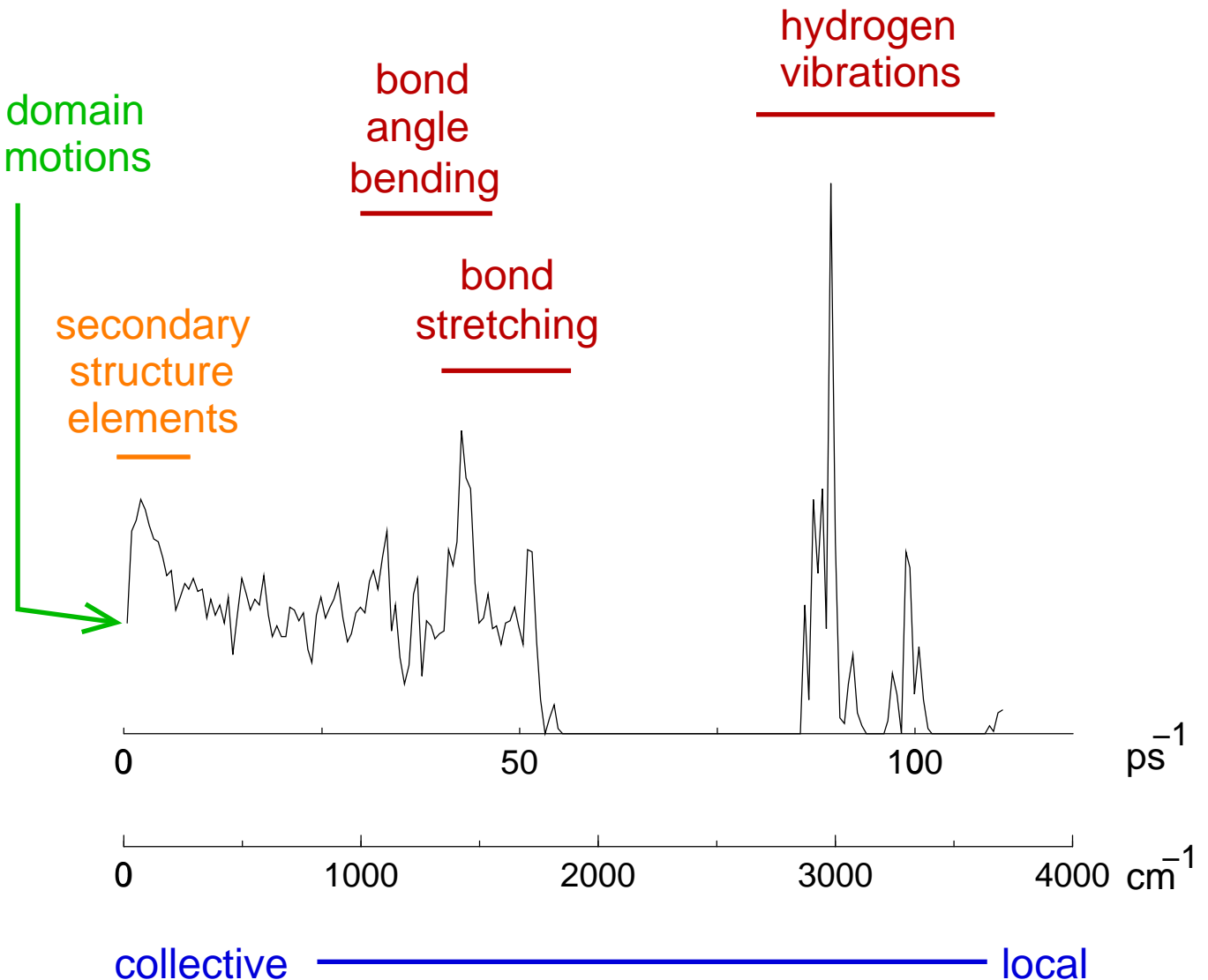
- local minimum
- correctly describes **fast vibrations**  
(→ infrared spectroscopy, Raman, ...)
- correctly identifies the **directions of slow motions**  
(→ domain motions, conformational changes)
- overestimates **time scales** and underestimates **amplitudes of slow motions**

**Conclusion:** the shapes of the local minima and the effective potential well must be similar.



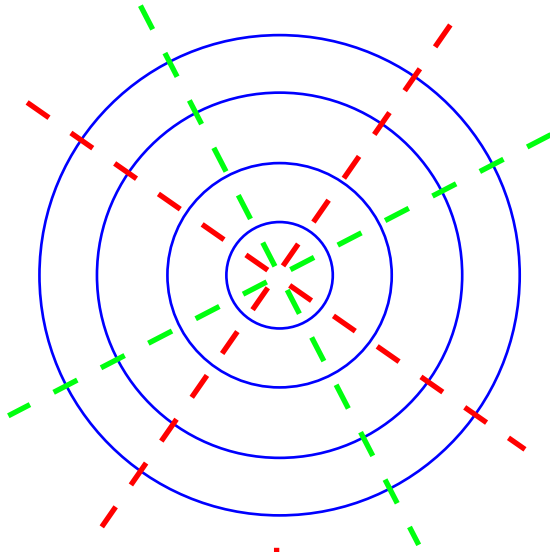
# Separating frequencies

Frequency spectrum of a protein:

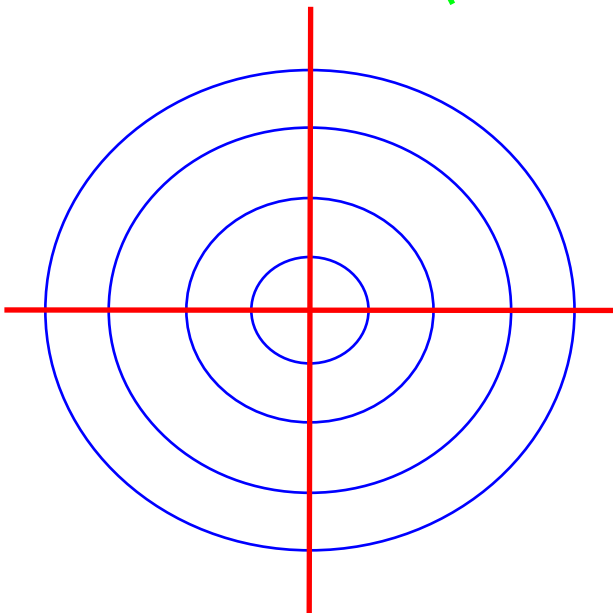


- Most modes describe **internal motions** of **individual residues**.
- Only very few modes (about 2%) describe

# Separating frequencies



**Degenerate modes:**  
frequencies are equal,  
directions are arbitrary



**Almost degenerate modes:**  
frequency difference  
is not significant, but  
directions are unique

- Always analyze groups of modes with similar frequencies together.
- Do not analyze the differences between modes that are almost degenerate.

# Fluctuation amplitudes

Kinetic energy in each mode:

$$\frac{1}{2} \langle \dot{x}^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} k_B T$$

In an harmonic potential:

average potential energy = average kinetic energy

$$\frac{1}{2} \omega^2 \langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \langle \dot{x}^2 \rangle$$

It follows:

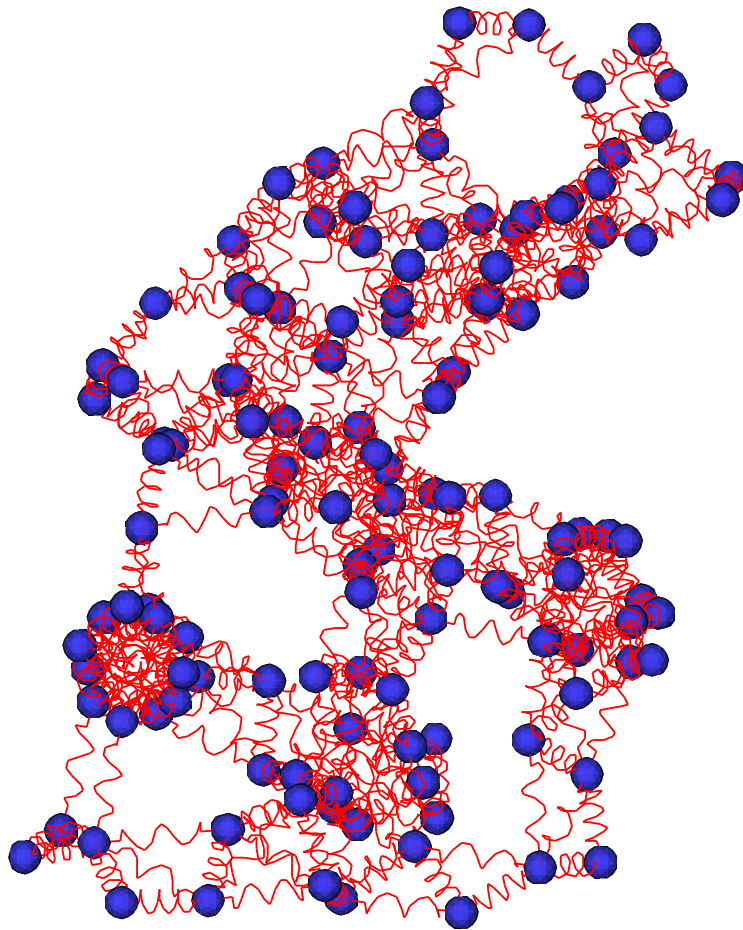
$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{k_B T}{\omega^2}$$

**Slow modes have large amplitudes.**

**Note:** Normal mode analysis in a *local* minimum underestimates the fluctuation amplitudes for slow modes.

# Collective motions

- Specific to a protein
- Usually related to its function
- Largest amplitudes
- Can be obtained from simplified models



- Residues are **point masses**
- **Springs** between nearby points

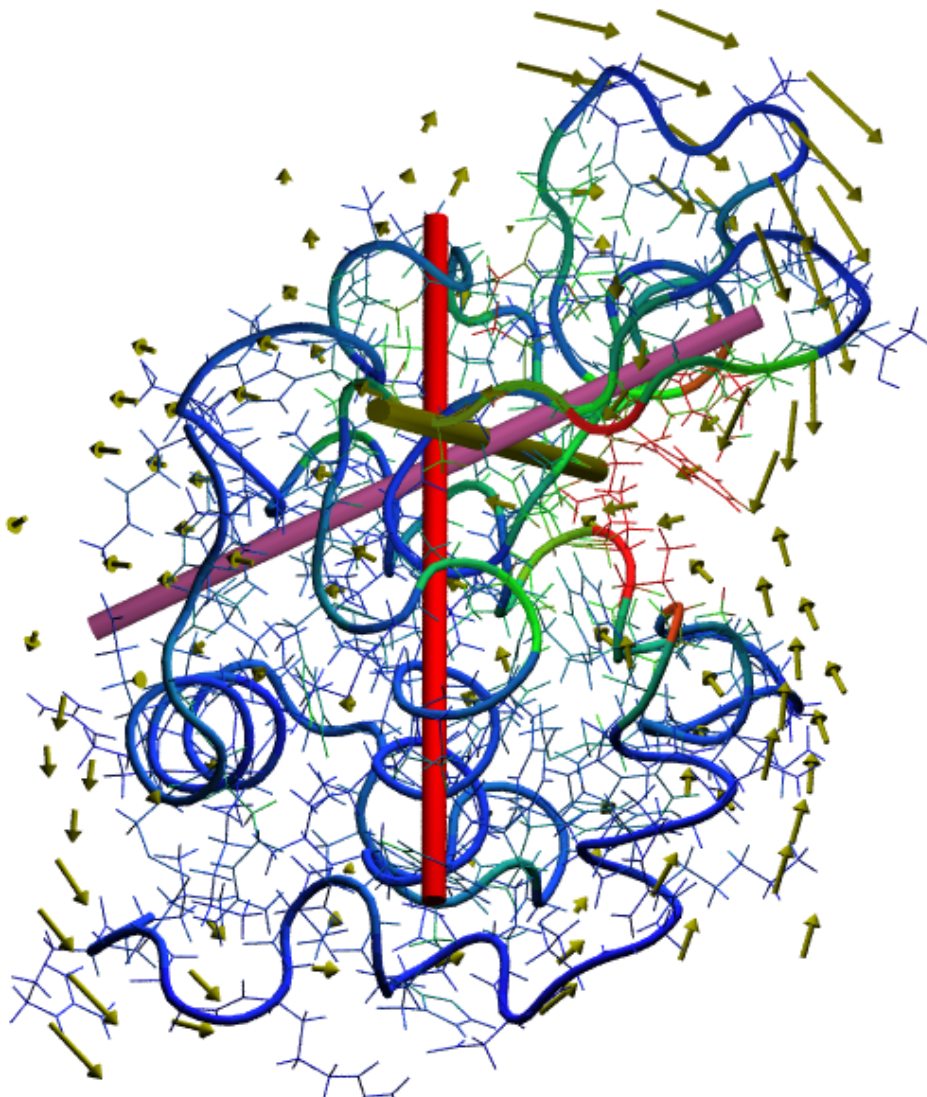


# Domain motions

**Domains:** quasi-rigid regions in a protein, separated by more flexible inter-domain regions.

Domain motions are

- a useful concept to describe slow dynamics
- not unique – several definitions exist
- an approximation – nothing is really rigid in a protein



# Domain motions

## 1. Identify the most rigid parts.

Local deformation energy for atom  $i$ :

$$E_i = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^N k(|\mathbf{R}_i - \mathbf{R}_j|) \times \\ \times [|\mathbf{R}_i - \mathbf{R}_j + \mathbf{d}_i - \mathbf{d}_j| - |\mathbf{R}_i - \mathbf{R}_j|]^2$$

with

$$k(r) = c \cdot \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{r_0^2}\right)$$

Keep atoms for which  $E_i < E_{\text{limit}}$  in *all* selected modes.

## 2. Determine the rigid-body motion in small subregions of the rigid parts for each mode:

$$\mathbf{d}_i = \mathbf{T}_j + \mathbf{D}(\mathbf{n}_j, \phi_j) \cdot \mathbf{R}_i.$$

$\mathbf{T}_j$ : rigid-body translation of subregion  $j$

$\mathbf{D}(\mathbf{n}, \phi)$ : rotation matrix

$\mathbf{n}_j, \phi_j$ : rigid-body rotation (axis and angle) of subregion  $j$

In total: 6 parameters *per mode*.

## Domain motions

3. **Group the subregions into clusters** of similar rigid-body motion parameters in *all* selected modes.

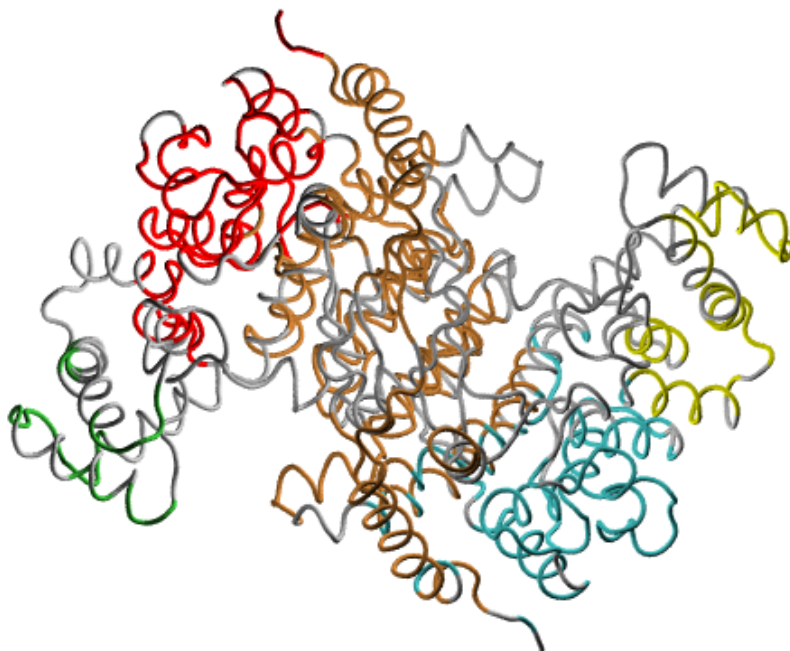
Similarity measure (empirical):

$$S_{ij} = 3 \frac{|\phi_i \mathbf{n}_i + \phi_j \mathbf{n}_j|}{|\phi_i \mathbf{n}_i - \phi_j \mathbf{n}_j|} + \frac{|\mathbf{T}_i + \mathbf{T}_j|}{|\mathbf{T}_i - \mathbf{T}_j|}$$

*Similarity threshold*  $S_{\min}$  determines cluster size

### Result:

- Flexible regions
- Domains
- Semi-flexible inter-domain regions



# Monte-Carlo integration

Equilibrium average of a quantity  $A(\mathbf{r})$ :

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \int \cdots \int d^{3N} r A(\mathbf{r}) \exp \left[ -\frac{\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{K} \cdot \mathbf{r}}{2k_B T} \right]$$

Normal mode decomposition:

$$\mathbf{K} = \sum_{i=1}^{3N} \omega_i^2 \mathbf{u}_i \mathbf{u}_i$$

Yields:

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \int \cdots \int d^{3N} x A\left(\sum_i x_i \mathbf{u}_i\right) \prod_j \exp \left[ -\frac{\omega_j^2 x_j^2}{2k_B T} \right]$$

The normal mode decomposition permits

- sometimes the analytical evaluation
- easy Monte-Carlo integration using a standard Gaussian random number generator
- improving efficiency by eliminating fast small-amplitude modes

# Other applications

## **Prediction of large-scale motions:**

- in minimization algorithms
- in sampling algorithms (scaled-variable Monte-Carlo)
- for verifying sampling quality

**Modelling atomic fluctuations** in structure refinement

**Analysing changes in higher-frequency motions** due to different environments  
(analysis of spectroscopic data)

**Slow dynamics** of proteins using Brownian Modes

**System-specific analysis:** fluctuations, correlations, ...

# Normal modes in comparison

## Main advantages:

- no sampling problem
- computational efficiency, especially for coarse-grained models
- simplicity in application

## Main limitations:

- single-well potentials, thus no possibility to study conformational changes
- vibrational normal modes do not describe the diffusive motion that dominates slow dynamics (→ Brownian modes)