Global Optimization by Energy Landscape Paving

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Abstract

We introduce a novel heuristic global optimization method, energy landscape paving (ELP), which combines core ideas from energy surface deformation and tabu search. In appropriate limits, ELP reduces to existing techniques. The approach is very general and flexible and is illustrated here on two protein folding problems. For these examples, the technique gives faster convergence to the global minimum than previous approaches. 02.60.Pn,02.70Uu,05.10.Ln,87.15.-v

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Global optimization is one of the key issues in modern science, technology and economy. Typical examples are the problem of optimal transportation routes [\[1](#page-8-0)], finding molecular conformations [\[2](#page-8-0)–[4\]](#page-8-0) or fitting experimental spectra. [\[5](#page-8-0)] Consequently, much effort has been spent on designing methods to finding global optima. For this purpose, the system has to be described by an objective function, and optimality is achieved when this function reaches its global minimum. If the objective function is viewed as an 'energy' the optimal solution corresponds to the deepest minimum in the energy landscape. For most applications of practical interest, competing interactions and frustration in the system lead to an energy landscape with many local minima separated by high barriers. Since conventional minimization techniques tend to get trapped in whichever local minimum they encounter first it turns out to be extremely difficult to find the global minimum in such cases.

A general characteristic of successful optimization techniques is that they avoid entrapment in local minima and continue to explore the energy landscape for further solutions. For instance, in tabu search[[6,7\]](#page-8-0) the search is guided away from areas that have already been explored in an effort to cover all important regions of the solution space. The danger with such an approach is that it may result in slow convergence since it does not distinguish between important and less important regions of the landscape.

Entrapment in local minima can also be avoided if the search is performed in a deformed or smoothed energy landscape, for example by lowering diffusion barriers,[[8](#page-8-0)] in stochastic tunneling [\[9](#page-8-0)] or the various generalized ensemble approaches.[[3\]](#page-8-0) In the optimal case the original energy landscape is transformed in a funnel-landscape and convergence toward the global minimum is fast. Although they have been very successful, most of these methods require a considerable amount of fine-tuning or a priori information. Moreover, problems may exist when connecting back to the original landscape since minima on the deformed surface may have been displaced or merged.

Here we introduce a novel approach to the global optimization problem that combines ideas from tabu search and energy landscape deformation. The new method, energy landscape paving (ELP), avoids some of the pitfalls of the other two and has very general applicability. The central idea is to perform low-temperature Monte Carlo (MC) simulations, but with a modified energy expression designed to steer the search away from regions that have already been explored. To be specific, we choose as the statistical weight for a state

$$
w(\tilde{E}) = e^{-\tilde{E}/k_B T},\tag{1}
$$

where T is a (low) temperature and \tilde{E} the following replacement of the energy E:

$$
E \longrightarrow \tilde{E} = E + f(H(q, t)) . \tag{2}
$$

In this expression, $f(H(q, t))$ is a function of the histogram $H(q, t)$ in a pre-chosen "order parameter" q. The histogram is updated at each MC step, hence the "time" dependence of $H(q, t)$. As a result, the search process keeps track of the number of prior explorations of a particular region in order parameter space and biases against revisiting the same types of states. Rather than using the system states themselves in the histograms an appropriate order parameter is employed. This may be a "natural" quantity for the system under study (such as a spheroidal deformation for a cluster) or the energy itself may be taken as the order parameter.

In a regular low-temperature simulation the probability to escape a local minimum depends only on the height of the surrounding energy barriers. Within ELP the weight of a local minimum state decreases with the time the system stays in that minimum, and consequently the probability to escape the minimum increases. Hence, ELP utilizes the interplay of two factors. Given equal frequencies $H(q, t)$, the simulation will favor low energies, thus insuring that no unphysical high-energy conformations are sampled. However, soon the system will run into a local minimum. With time, ELP deforms the energy landscape locally in such way that the local minimum is no longer favored and the system will explore higher energies. It will then either fall in a new local minimum or walk through this high energy region till the corresponding histogram entries all have similar frequencies. At that point the original energy landscape is restored (that is, only shifted by a constant (and irrelevant) factor), and the system again has a bias toward low energies.

ELP bears some similarities to tabu search [\[6,7](#page-8-0)] in that recently visited regions are not likely to be revisited immediately. Revisitation moves are not completely forbidden, but are given an exponentially lower weight compared to moves that go to regions with a comparable energy that have been explored less. With a short-term memory in the histogram and infinite cost for 'forbidden' moves ELP becomes completely equivalent to tabu search. On the other hand, ELP is also akin to an energy deformation approach [\[3,8](#page-8-0)] in that the additional histogram parameter may be viewed as a (continuously changing) deformation of the energy landscape depending on the frequency with which a particular area (as characterized by its order parameter) has already been explored. Obviously for $f(H(q, t)) = f(H(q))$ the method reduces to the various generalized-ensemble methods.[[3\]](#page-8-0)

We have tested ELP in the context of protein folding, which involves the prediction of the biologically active conformation of a protein solely from the sequence of amino acids. Assuming that this structure is thermodynamically stable, it is reasonable to identify the global-minimum conformation in the *free* energy at $T \approx 300$ K with the lowest *potential* energy conformation and to choose the potential energy of the protein as an objective function. The complexity and importance of the problem make it an ideal target for a test of our new optimization technique.

As with any optimization method, ELP requires the choice of an energy function by which the multitude of protein configurations can be discriminated. Here, we choose the ECEPP/2 force field, [\[11\]](#page-8-0) a commonly used energy function in protein simulations, as implemented in the computer code SMMP. [\[12](#page-8-0)]

In order to test and illustrate ELP, we concentrated on the structure prediction of two molecules. The first system is the pentapeptide Met-enkephalin, which has become a frequently used benchmark model to examine new algorithms. We know from previous work that the ground state of this peptide with the ECEPP/2 force field is given by $E_0 = -10.7$ kcal/mol, and that the next higher local minimum has an energy of $E_1 = -9.8 \;kcal/mol.$ [\[13\]](#page-8-0) Hence, we identify any configuration with energy below $E = -9.8 \;kcal/mol$ as a representative of the ground state.

In the ELP simulations of Met-enkephalin, we used the potential energy itself as an order parameter and thus the deformed energy landscape is generated by $\tilde{E} = E + H(E, t)$, where $H(E, t)$ is the histogram in energy at MC sweep t. We chose a bin size $E_{bin} = 0.25$ kcal/mol in the histogram, but checked our results also for $E_{bin} = 0.5$ kcal/mol and $E_{bin} = 1$ kcal/mol without finding noticeable differences in our results. Setting the temperature to $T = 50 K$, and with $\beta = 1/k_B T$ we find as a weight for the MC simulation:

$$
w(E, t) = e^{-\beta(E + H(E, T))}.
$$
\n(3)

The characteristic behavior of our ELP method is exemplified in Fig. 1 which shows for Met-enkephalin the time series of a simulation with 50,000 sweeps. The starting configuration has an energy of $E_{start} = -5.1 \; kcal/mol$ and was obtained from a random configuration through quenching in initial 100 sweeps. The simulation soon gets trapped in a local minimum of $E \approx -7.8 \;kcal/mol$ (after only 250 MC sweeps). Through the following MC sweeps entries in the corresponding histogram bin are accumulated and the energy landscape locally deformed, until after about 750 MC sweeps the simulation escapes this local minimum to find a lower local minimum after 2000 MC sweeps. This process is repeated till the simulation finds the global minimum conformation for the first time after 7260 sweeps. Within the 50,000 sweeps of our simulation the ground state region $(E < -9.8 \;kcal/mol)$ was visited 5 times, each visit separated by explorations in the high energy region.

Note that the range of energies covered increases with MC time: ELP starts with filling up the small 'potholes' in the energy landscape, but later in the simulation large valleys are also filled up. Hence, our algorithm is self-adjusting: with increasing length of the simulation it becomes possible to overcome higher and higher energy barriers. In that regard, ELP is more efficient than standard techniques such as simulated annealing[[10\]](#page-8-0) where the height of energy barriers that can be overcome shrinks with MC time. In order to test that conjecture we performed 20 independent runs of 50,000 MC sweeps with ELP and compared the results with 20 simulated annealing runs of equal statistics. In the simulated annealing runs the temperature was lowered exponentially in 50,000 sweeps from an initial temperature $T =$

1000 K to a final temperature $T = 50 K$. In Ref. [\[14\]](#page-8-0) this proved to be the optimal annealing schedule for Met-enkephalin. Even with this optimized annealing schedule, the ground state was found only in $8/20 = 40\%$ of the runs (in an average time of 43,000 MC sweeps) and the average value of the lowest energy conformation ($\langle E_{min}\rangle = -8.5$ kcal/mol) was above our threshold for ground state configurations $(-9.8 \; kcal/mol)$ and subject to large fluctuations (with standard deviation $\sigma = 2.1 \;kcal/mol$). Better results were obtained in 20 tabu search runs with same statistics. Here the ground state region was found in $10/20 = 50\%$ of the runs and the average value of the lowest energy conformations was $\langle E_{min}\rangle = -9.5kcal/mol$. On the other hand, with ELP we found the ground state in each of the 20 runs (in, on average, 12,700 MC sweeps) and the average of lowest energy states $\langle E_{min}\rangle = -10.3~kcal/mol$ was well below our threshold for ground state configuration, subject to only small fluctuations $(\sigma = 0.3 \; kcal/mol).$

In order to further evaluate the ELP approach we also studied the much larger villin headpiece subdomain, 36-residue peptide (HP-36) that is with 597 atoms about 8 times larger than Met-enkephalin (75 atoms). HP-36 is one of the smallest peptides that can fold autonomously and was chosen recently for a 1-microsecond molecular dynamics simulation of protein folding.[[15](#page-8-0)] The experimental structure was determined by NMR analyses.[[16](#page-8-0)] Since it is a solvated molecule we also had to take into account the interaction between protein and solvent. We have approximated this contribution to the overall energy by adding a solvent accessible surface term [\[19](#page-9-0)] to the energy function: $E = E_{\text{Ecepp/2}} + \sum_i \sigma_i A_i$. Here, the sum goes over all atoms and the A_i are the solvent accessible surface areas of the atoms. The parameters σ_i were chosen from Ref. [\[20](#page-9-0)].

HP-36 allows in a simple way the definition of an order parameter to characterize configurations other than by their energy. This natural order parameter is the number n_H of residues in the peptide which are part of an α –helix. Following earlier work [\[17\]](#page-9-0) we define a residue as helical if the pair of backbone dihedral angles ϕ, ψ takes a value in the range $(-70\pm20, -37\pm20)$. Throughout the search process we tried now to deform the energy landscape by means of a histogram $H(E, n_H, t)$ in *both* helicity and energy: $\tilde{E} = E + H(E, n_H, t)$. Operating again at a temperature $T = 50$ K, we find as weights for the search algorithm

$$
w(E, n_H, t) = e^{-\beta(E + H(E, n_H, t))}.
$$
\n(4)

Using this weight we performed simulations with 50,000 MC sweeps (starting from random configurations) keeping track of the lowest energy configuration during the search process.

The structure of HP-36 as obtained from the Protein Data Bank (PDB code 1vii) is shown in Fig. 2. The structure consists of three helices between residues 4-8, 15-18, and 23- 32, respectively, which are connected by a loop and a turn. After regularizing this structure with the program FANTOM [\[18\]](#page-9-0) we obtained as its energy $(ECEPP/2 +$ solvation term) $E_{nat} = -276$ kcal/mol. Our new ELP method led after 25,712 MC sweeps to a configuration with lowest energy $E_{min} = -277 \text{ kcal/mol}$ which we show in Fig. 3. The above structure has a radius of gyration $R_{\gamma} = 10.1$ Å indicating that the numerically obtained structure is slightly less compact than the experimental structure $(R_{\gamma} = 9.6\text{\AA})$. It consists of three helices where the first helix stretches from residue 2 to residue 11 and is more elongated than the corresponding one in the native structure (residues 4-8). The second helix consist of residues 13-17 (compared to residue 15-18 in the native structure) and the third helix stretches from residue 23-33 (residues 23-32 in the PDB structure). The structure has 95% of the native helical content, that is 95% of all residues which are part of a helix in the experimental structure are also part of a helix in our structure. We also note that 65% of the native contacts were formed in our structure (two residues i and j $(j > i + 2)$) are taken to be in contact if their C_{α} atoms are closer than 8.5 Å). Both values are comparable withthe results in Ref. [[15](#page-8-0)] (but required orders of magnitude less computer time) where the optimal structure of a 1 μ s molecular dynamic folding simulation showed 80% of native helical content and 62 % of native contacts. Similarly comparable were the values of the rootmean-square deviation (RMSD) of both numerically determined conformers to the native structure: 5.8 Å versus 5.7 Å in Ref. [\[15](#page-8-0)] when all backbone atoms where counted.

We conclude that even for large peptides such as HP-36 our novel optimization method is able to find structures that are close to the experimentally determined ones. In passing,

we remark that an exploratory simulated annealing run of 100,000 sweeps did not lead to such structures. However, our ELP prediction of the HP-36 structure is limited to an RMSD of ≈ 6 Å. This points to a general problem in protein simulations: it is not clear whether the utilized cost function has indeed the biologically active structure of a given protein as its global minimum. In fact, our optimal structure has slightly lower energy than the native one. The problem becomes obvious when solvation effects are neglected. An ELP run of 50,000 sweeps relying only on the ECEPP/2 force field led to a lowest-energy structure with an ECEPP energy of $E_{GP} = -192 \text{ kcal/mol}$ (found after 25,712 sweeps). That structure, build out of two helices (between residues 2-16 and 23-33) connected by a loop, differs significantly from the regularized PDB-structure with the higher potential energy $E_{nat} = -176 \text{ kcal/mol}$. Hence, the native structure of the peptide HP-36 is not the global minimum configuration in ECEPP/2. Only the inclusion of the solvation term led to an essentially correct structure as global minimum configuration.

Summarizing, we have developed a new and general stochastic global optimization method that is easy to implement and combines energy landscape deformation ideas with elements of tabu search. The efficiency of ELP was compared with simulated annealing [\[10](#page-8-0)] and tabu search.[[6,7\]](#page-8-0) To illustrate the power of our novel approach, we applied it to the structure prediction of HP-36, a 36 residue peptide. For this large peptide an unbiased all-atom simulation using ELP led to a 3D structure very close to the experimentally determined one. In future work we want to extend application of our new approach to other optimization problems.[[21\]](#page-9-0)

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Figures:

- 1. Time series of a minimization run of 50,000 sweeps for the pentapeptide Metenkephalin.
- 2. NMR derived structure of the 36 residue peptide HP-36 as obtained from the PDB data base (1vii).
- 3. Lowest-energy structure of HP-36 as obtained with ELP.

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