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A continuous variable neighborhood search heuristic for finding the three-dimensional structure of a molecule

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Abstract

We develop a continuous variable neighborhood search heuristic for minimizing the potential energy function of a molecule. Computing the global minimum of this function is very difficult because it has a large number of local minimizers which grows exponentially with molecule size. Experimental evidence shows that in the great majority of cases the global minimum potential energy of a given molecule corresponds to its three-dimensional structure and this structure is important because it dictates most of the properties of the molecule. Computational results for problems with up to 200 degrees of freedom are presented and favourable compared with other two existing methods from the literature.

Keywords: Continuous variable neighborhood search; Molecular conformations; Global optimization

1. Introduction

The aim of this paper is to explore the capability of Variable Neighborhood Search (VNS for short) metaheuristic to yield novel insights on the problem of finding the three-dimensional structure of a molecule. This structure is of particular importance because it is essential for understanding its functional mechanism and it is strongly related to the properties of the molecule [9].

The determination of the three-dimensional structure of a molecule can be formulated as a continuous global minimization problem. In the great majority of cases, that structure corresponds to the one involving the global minimum of the molecular potential energy function. The problem is that the number of local minimizers of this function grows exponentially with molecule size. Many optimization methods have been developed for this problem. They include simulated annealing, genetic algorithms, diffusion equation method, α BB algorithm, etc. For a survey, see [3,13,15].

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VNS is a metaheuristic usually used for solving combinatorial optimization problems. Few works deal with its application to the global minimization of functions depending on continuous variables [11,7], and in particular, to the minimization of molecular potential energy functions.

VNS metaheuristic developed in this paper uses different metrics in defining neighborhoods of the current best solution. To test the proposed methods and compare the results, we use a scalable simplified molecular potential energy function with well known properties established in [8]. Computational results for problems with up to 200 degrees of freedom are presented.

The outline of the paper is as follows. Section 2 presents the general principles of the VNS metaheuristic and its adaptation to the continuous case. Section 3 describes the molecular potential energy function that will be used to test the method. Section 4 gives the computational results and details of implementation in solving problem defined in Section 3. Finally, we end with some conclusions.

2. Continuous VNS metaheuristic

The variable neighborhood search (VNS) metaheuristic is well-established in the literature. For an overview of the method and numerous applications, the reader is referred to [4,5,10]. Basic steps of the VNS metaheuristic as seen in discrete optimization problems are given in Fig. 1.

The idea of VNS is to define a set of neighborhood structures $\mathcal{N}_k$, $k = 1,\ldots,k_{\max}$, that can be used in a systematic way to conduct a search through the solution space. Whereas in local search for discrete problems a single neighborhood is typically defined ($k_{\max} = 1$), the VNS expands the search over an increasing radius to escape from a "local optimum trap".

To induce a set of neighborhoods $\mathcal{N}_k$ on the solution space S, we use a distance function ρ that specifies the distance between any two points, $x_1, x_2 \in S$. This may be done for example by comparing the attributes of the two solutions, and setting the distance equal to the number of attributes where x_1 and x_2 differ; that is, a Hamming distance is defined as

$$\rho(x_1, x_2) = |x_1 \Delta x_2| = |(x_1 \setminus x_2) \cup (x_2 \setminus x_1)|.$$

It is readily shown that ρ is a metric, and (S, ρ) a metric space. For the continuous global optimization problem, where $S \subseteq \mathbb{R}^n$, $\rho(x_1, x_2)$ may be any metric, i.e., Euclidean, rectangular, l_p norm, etc.

The neighborhood $\mathcal{N}_k(x)$ denotes the set of solutions in the kth neighborhood of x, and using the metric ρ, it is defined as balls

$$\mathcal{N}_k(x) = \{y \in S | \rho(x, y) \leqslant \rho_k\},$$

or shells

$$\mathcal{N}_k(x) = \{y \in S | \rho_{k-1} \leqslant \rho(x, y) \leqslant \rho_k\},$$

where ρ_k is the radius (size) of $\mathcal{N}_k(x)$ monotonically increasing with k.

Initialization. Select the set of neighborhood structures $\mathcal{N}_k$, $k = 1,\ldots,k_{\max}$, that will be used in the search; find an initial solution x; choose a stopping condition;

Repeat the following sequence until the stopping condition is met:

(1) Set $k \leftarrow 1$;

(2) *Repeat* the following steps until $k = k_{\max}$:

(a) *Shaking.* Generate a point y at random from the k–th neighborhood of x ($y \in \mathcal{N}_k(x)$);

(b) *Local search.* Apply some local search method with y as initial solution to obtain a local optimum y';

(c) *Move or not.* If this local optimum is better than the current best, move there ($x \leftarrow y'$), and go to (1); otherwise, set $k \leftarrow k + 1$.

Fig. 1. Steps of the basic VNS.

The stopping condition may be, e.g., the predetermined maximal allowed CPU time ($t_{\max}$), the maximal number of iterations, or the maximal number of iterations between two improvements. Let us note that the point y is generated in Step 2(a) at random in order to avoid cycling which might occur if any deterministic rule was used.

In the recent work of Brimberg et al. [2], the global convergence of VNS is proved as well as its superiority over multistart local search (MLS) metaheuristic. In many continuous (as well as discrete) optimization problems, VNS performs better than genetic algorithm (GA) or tabu search (TS) metaheuristics [11,6,7].

Basic idea of VNS can be successfully applied to continuous global optimization problems:

$$\operatorname*{global\,min}_{x\in S} f(x), \quad S \subset R^n.$$

In continuous optimization, contrary to discrete optimization, solution space and neighborhoods $\mathcal{N}_k(x)$ are infinite sets. Therefore one cannot expect to fully explore any small neighborhood of a point in a local search, which is typical in discrete case. Nevertheless, we can apply some local minimization algorithm (steepest descent, Nelder–Mead, Newton, etc.) from starting point. Local minimum obtained by this minimizer can be far away from the starting point which we find to be a feature of the method because we are most of the time looking for a better solution lying in some distant part of a solution space.

For neighborhoods $\mathcal{N}_k(x)$ in continuous case we can use l_p metrics

$$\rho(x,y) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{n} |x_i - y_i|^p\right)^{1/p}, \quad 1 \leqslant p < \infty,$$

$$\rho(x,y) = \max_{1\leqslant i\leqslant n} |x_i - y_i|, \quad p = \infty.$$

These metrics lead to different geometric shapes of neighborhoods we explore.

In shaking step we generate a random point from $\mathcal{N}_k(x)$ as a starting point for the local search. Distribution of this random point is another parameter of choice for the method. Uniform distribution is an obvious choice but some others can speed up the whole process.

Geometric neighborhood shapes and random point distributions used in the minimizing process can be changed after a number of unsuccessful steps to increase a chance for finding a better solution. Incorporating previous specific points for continuous optimization into the basic VNS framework we get continuous VNS metaheuristic with basic steps given in Fig. 2.

The continuous VNS metaheuristic does not have many parameters to specify so it appears to be a robust in that sense. Beside the stopping condition parameters (maximal allowed CPU time $t_{\max}$, maximal number of

Initialization. Select the set of neighborhood structures $\mathcal{N}_k$, $k = 1, \ldots, k_{\max}$, that will be used in the search; choose a distribution for a random point; select a local minimizer; find an initial solution x; choose a stopping condition;

Repeat the following sequence until the stopping condition is met:

(1) Set $k \leftarrow 1$;

(2) *Repeat* the following steps until $k = k_{\max}$:

(a) *Shaking*. Generate a point y at random from the k–th neighborhood of x $(y \in \mathcal{N}_k(x))$;

(b) *Local search*. Apply local minimization method with y as initial solution to obtain a local optimum y';

(c) *Move or not*. If this local optimum is better than the current best, move there $(x \leftarrow y')$, and go to (1); otherwise, set $k \leftarrow k + 1$.

(3) *Reshape* Optionally change the set of neighborhood structures $\mathcal{N}_k$ (geometry defined by metric) and random point distribution.

Fig. 2. Steps of the continuous VNS.

iterations, maximal number of iterations between two improvements), parameters that can influence the performance are:

- Number $k_{\max}$ of neighborhood structures $\mathcal{N}_k$.
- Values of radii $\rho_i, i = 1, \ldots, k_{\max}$. Those values may be defined by user or calculated automatically in minimizing process.
- Geometry of neighborhood structures $\mathcal{N}_k$, defined by the choice of metric $\rho(x, y)$. Usual choices in continuous optimization are l_1, l_2, and l_∞ metrics.
- Distribution used for obtaining the random point y from $\mathcal{N}_k$ in shaking step. Uniform distribution in $\mathcal{N}_k$ is the obvious choice, but other distributions may lead to much better performance on some problems.
- Local optimizer used in local search step. A lot of local optimization algorithms are available both for smooth and not differentiable functions.

3. The problem

The potential energy of a molecule will be derived from molecular mechanics, which describes molecular interactions based on the principles of Newtonian physics. An empirically derived set of potential energy contributions is used for approximating these molecular interactions. This set of potential energy contributions, called the force field, contains adjustable parameters that are selected in such a way as to provide the best possible agreement with experimental data. Our discussion will focus on energy functions which share the main features of general molecular force fields.

The molecular model considered here consists of a chain of N atoms centered at $x_1, \ldots, x_N \in \mathbb{R}^3$. For every pair of consecutive atoms x_i and x_{i+1}, let $r_{i,i+1}$ be the bond length which is the Euclidean distance between them. For every three consecutive atoms x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, let $\theta_{i,i+2}$ be the bond angle corresponding to the relative position of the third atom with respect to the line containing the previous two. Likewise, for every four consecutive atoms $x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, x_{i+3}$, let $\omega_{i,i+3}$ be the angle, called the torsion angle, between the normals through the planes determined by the atoms x_i, x_{i+1}, x_{i+2} and $x_{i+1}, x_{i+2}, x_{i+3}$.

The force field potentials corresponding to bond lengths, bond angles, and torsion angles will be defined respectively as

$$\begin{aligned} E_1 &= \sum_{(i,j)\in M_1} c_{ij}^1 (r_{ij} - r_{ij}^0)^2, \\ E_2 &= \sum_{(i,j)\in M_2} c_{ij}^2 (\theta_{ij} - \theta_{ij}^0)^2, \\ E_3 &= \sum_{(i,j)\in M_3} c_{ij}^3 (1 + \cos(3\omega_{ij} - \omega_{ij}^0)), \end{aligned} \tag{1}$$

where c_{ij}^1 is the bond stretching force constant, c_{ij}^2 is the angle bending force constant, and c_{ij}^3 is the torsion force constant. The constants r_{ij}^0 and θ_{ij}^0 represent the "preferred" bond length and bond angle, respectively, and the constant ω_{ij}^0 is the phase angle that defines the position of the minima. The set of pairs of atoms separated by k covalent bonds will be denoted by M_k for $k = 1, 2, 3$.

In addition to the above, there is a potential E_4 which characterizes the 2-body interactions between every pair of atoms separated by more than two covalent bonds along the chain. We use the following function to represent E_4:

$$E_4 = \sum_{(i,j)\in M_3} \left(\frac{(-1)^i}{r_{ij}} \right), \tag{2}$$

where r_{ij} is the Euclidean distance between atoms x_i and x_j.

The general problem is the minimization of the total molecular potential energy function, $E_1 + E_2 + E_3 + E_4$, leading to the optimal spatial positions of the atoms. To reduce the number of parameters involved in the potentials above, we will simplify the problem considering a chain of carbon atoms. In this case, it is known that the preferred bond lengths are $r_{ij}^0 = 1.526$ Å (for all $(i,j) \in M_1$) and that the bond angles

are $\theta^0_{ij} = 1.91$ rad (for all $(i,j) \in M_2$). We will consider also that $c^1_{ij} = 1$ (for all $(i,j) \in M_1$), $c^2_{ij} = 1$ (for all $(i,j) \in M_2$), $c^3_{ij} = 1$ (for all $(i,j) \in M_3$), and $\omega^0_{ij} = 0$ (for all $(i,j) \in M_3$). While this structure reflects great simplifications over the general problem, its complexity should not be underestimated, as we will see below.

In most molecular conformational predictions, all covalent bond lengths and covalent bond angles are assumed to be fixed at their equilibrium values r^0_{ij} and θ^0_{ij}, respectively. Thus, the molecular potential energy function reduces to $E_3 + E_4$ and the first three atoms in the chain can be fixed. The first atom, x_1, is fixed at the origin, $(0,0,0)$; the second atom, x_2, is positioned at $(-r_{12},0,0)$; and the third atom, x_3, is fixed at $(r_{23}\cos(\theta_{13}) - r_{12}, r_{23}\sin(\theta_{13}), 0)$.

Using the parameters previously defined and Eqs. (1) and (2), we obtain

$$E = \sum_{(i,j)\in M_3} (1 + \cos(3\omega_{ij})) + \sum_{(i,j)\in M_3} \left(\frac{(-1)^i}{r_{ij}} \right). \tag{3}$$

Although the molecular potential energy function (3) does not actually model the real system, it allows one to understand the qualitative origin of the large number of local minimizers – the main computational difficulty of the problem [15] – and is likely to be realistic in this respect.

Note that E_3, Eq. (1), is expressed as a function of torsion angles and E_4, Eq. (2), is expressed as a function of Euclidean distances. To represent (3) as a function of torsion angles only, we can use the result established in [14, p. 278] and obtain

$$r^2_{il} = r^2_{ij} + r^2_{jl} - r_{ij}\left(\frac{r^2_{jl} + r^2_{jk} - r^2_{kl}}{r_{jk}} \right) \cos(\theta_{ik}) - r_{ij}\left(\frac{\sqrt{4r^2_{jl}r^2_{jk} - \left(r^2_{jl} + r^2_{jk} - r^2_{kl}\right)^2}}{r_{jk}} \right) \sin(\theta_{ik})\cos(\omega_{il}),$$

for every four consecutive atoms x_i, x_j, x_k, x_l. Using the parameters previously defined, we have

$$r_{ij} = \sqrt{10.60099896 - 4.141720682(\cos(\omega_{ij}))} \quad \text{for all } (i,j) \in M_3. \tag{4}$$

From (3) and (4), the expression for the potential energy as a function of the torsion angles takes the form

$$E = \sum_{(i,j)\in M_3} \left(1 + \cos(3\omega_{ij}) + \frac{(-1)^i}{\sqrt{10.60,099,896 - 4.141,720,682\cos(\omega_{ij})}} \right), \tag{5}$$

where $i = 1,\ldots,N-3$ and N is the number of atoms in the given system.

In [8], it is shown that the number of local minimizers of the function (5) is 2^{N-3}, where N is the number of atoms in the given system. Moreover, by imposing $\omega_{ij} \in [0,5]$ for all $(i,j) \in M_3$, the existence of only one global minimizer is guaranteed. Independent of the number of variables, the global minimizer is the alternate sequence of torsion angles given by $a,b,a,b,a,b,\ldots$, where $a = 1.039195303$ and $b = 3.141592654$, considering up to 10 digits.

The problem is then to find $\omega_{14}, \omega_{25}, \ldots, \omega_{(N-3)N}$, considering $\omega_{ij} \in [0,5]$, which correspond to the global minimum of the function E, Eq. (5). E is a nonconvex function involving numerous local minimizers even for small molecules. These local minimizers "correspond" to metastable states of the molecule chain and the single global minimizer defines the energetically most favorable molecular conformation.

Despite these simplifications, the problem remains very difficult. A molecule with as few as 30 atoms has $2^{27} = 134{,}217{,}728$ local minimizers. It can clearly be seen that finding the global minimum for chains of even moderate length is intractable via exhaustive methods [8].

4. VNS for molecular potential energy function

For finding the global minimum of the molecular potential energy function E, Eq. (5), we developed a VNS based method for finding a global minimum:

$$\operatorname*{global\,min}_{x\in X} f(x),$$

in a hyperrectangle $X = \{(x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)\colon a_i \leqslant x_i \leqslant b_i\}$.

According to the previous section, we defined the function $f(x)$ and box constraints for the solution domain as

$$f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{n} \left(1 + \cos(3x_i) + \frac{(-1)^i}{\sqrt{10.60099896 - 4.141720682\cos(x_i)}} \right)$$

and

$$0 \leqslant x_i \leqslant 5, \quad i = 1, \ldots, n.$$

Three VNS heuristics are designed. They differ in the choice of random distributions used in the shaking step. For neighborhood structures $\mathcal{N}_k, k = 1, \ldots, k_{\max}$ we use shells $\mathcal{N}_k(x) = \{y \in X : R_{k-1} \leqslant \|y - x\|_\infty \leqslant R_k\}$. Radii $\rho_1 \leqslant \rho_2 \leqslant \cdots \leqslant \rho_{k_{\max}}$ are automatically computed so that the ball with the largest radius covers the whole region X. In all three heuristics a random point is generated in two steps: first, a random direction is obtained, and after that, the random radius is determined in order to get a point in $\mathcal{N}_k$.

(i) *VNS-1.* In the first heuristic a random direction is uniformly distributed in a unit ℓ_∞ ball. Random radius is chosen in such a way that the generated point is uniformly distributed in $\mathcal{N}_k$.
(ii) *VNS-2.* In the second heuristic a random direction is determined by a random point uniformly distributed on a ℓ_1 sphere.
(iii) *VNS-3.* In the third VNS based heuristic a random direction $x = (x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_n)$ is determined by a specially designed hypergeometric random point distribution on a unit ℓ_1 sphere as follows:
   (a) x_1 is taken uniformly on $[-1, 1]$, x_k is taken uniformly from $[-A_k, A_k]$, where $A_k = 1 - |x_1| - \ldots - |x_{k-1}|$, $k = 2, \ldots, n-1$, and the last x_n takes A_n with random sign.
   (b) coordinates of x are randomly permuted.

In order to diversify the search, we also implemented VNS heuristics that combine any two or all three basic heuristics. Namely, if no improvement in $k_{\max}$ neighborhoods of the current structure is made, then we automatically (cyclically) change their structures for following iterations. VNS-123 denotes the VNS heuristic with all three previously described heuristics VNS-1, VNS-2, and VNS-3, used in that order.

4.1. Computer results

The results of the experiments for $n = 50, 100, 150, 200$ with VNS-1, VNS-2, VNS-3, and VNS-123 in ten runs are summarized in Table 1. Experiments presented in Tables 1 and 2 were performed on AMD 2500+ based PC platform with 512 MB of RAM. In Table 1, time limit was the stopping criteria and its values were chosen to document the influence of $k_{\max}$ and various heuristics on overall performance. For each $k_{\max}$, average and best % error of the function value from f_{best} in ten runs are calculated as well as standard deviation of the % error, where % error of objective function value f from f_{best} is defined as $(f - f_{\text{best}})/f_{\text{best}} \times 100$. In all cases the local minimizer was steepest descent method with quadratic approximation method for one–dimensional optimization. Column f_{best} contains exact values of global minima.

It can be seen from Table 1 that the basic VNS parameter $k_{\max}$ has a strong influence on the quality of final results: the increase of $k_{\max}$ leads to better performance. This fact was also confirmed with other test functions (see [7,12]). In cases with $k_{\max} = 10$, VNS-1, $n = 150$ and $n = 200$, a local minimum (with $x_i = \pi$, $f = 0$) is quickly reached in all runs and better one was not found until $t_{\max}$ (it is found, however, after that time limit).

It also appears that heuristic VNS-3 gives exceptionally good results, both alone or combined with other two. Namely, in all cases it reaches the optimal values. Due to the large values of n, the special distribution in VNS-3 generates random directions with only several coordinates significantly different from 0. Therefore, that special designed VNS heuristic for this class of problems pays off.

In order to confirm this last statement, more detailed results of VNS-123 and VNS-3, with $k_{\max} = 15$, are reported in Table 2. In the second column of Table 2, the exact minimum of the function is given. Next columns present values obtained until that exact optimum is reached, averaged from ten repeated experiments:

Table 1

n	t_{max} (seconds)	Heuristic	$k_{max} = 1$			$k_{max} = 5$			$k_{max} = 10$			$k_{max} = 15$			f_{best}
			Aver (%)	Best (%)	Dev	Aver (%)	Best (%)	Dev	Aver (%)	Best (%)	Dev	Aver (%)	Best (%)	Dev	
50	5	VNS-1	82.50	70.64	7.25	80.73	51.86	18.51	19.90	7.94	8.16	3.60	0.00	3.77	−2.0559
		VNS-2	23.09	11.97	5.86	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
		VNS-3	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
		VNS-123	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
100	10	VNS-1	115.50	104.49	6.23	95.76	89.99	4.41	97.79	87.97	4.45	14.79	4.00	7.10	−4.1118
		VNS-2	70.40	55.21	9.68	4.98	1.99	2.23	0.40	0.00	0.80	0.20	0.00	0.60	
		VNS-3	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
		VNS-123	0.20	0.00	0.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.00	0.60	0.00	0.00	0.00	
150	15	VNS-1	130.92	124.76	4.29	96.22	89.29	4.07	100.00	100.00	0.00	31.43	15.97	8.77	−6.1677
		VNS-2	97.78	85.24	6.41	14.87	9.28	3.01	2.65	0.00	1.97	0.93	0.00	0.85	
		VNS-3	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
		VNS-123	1.32	0.00	0.84	2.26	0.00	1.98	0.80	0.00	0.65	0.00	0.00	0.00	
200	20	VNS-1	138.60	130.12	4.17	95.95	90.96	3.28	100.00	100.00	0.00	45.47	29.98	8.76	−8.2237
		VNS-2	103.90	95.75	5.39	28.01	19.96	4.07	9.56	4.99	2.36	5.58	1.99	2.93	
		VNS-3	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	0.00	
		VNS-123	6.17	1.99	1.93	5.78	2.99	2.59	3.19	0.99	1.88	0.80	0.00	0.87	

Table 2

n	Minimum	VNS-123						VNS-3					
		Fun	Dev	Grad	Dev	Sec	Dev	Fun	Dev	Grad	Dev	Sec	Dev
20	−0.82237	23,381	6711	1709	491	0.064	0.019	9887	2912	682	200	0.024	0.010
30	−1.23355	48,237	8242	3612	624	0.203	0.036	16,448	5108	1117	351	0.064	0.023
40	−1.64473	57,681	15,692	4414	1244	0.321	0.089	25,723	9327	1743	632	0.139	0.051
50	−2.05592	102,104	42,867	8009	3344	0.708	0.298	38,285	11,650	2573	788	0.262	0.082
60	−2.46710	142,882	37,268	11,374	2983	1.184	0.312	39,315	7499	2621	502	0.322	0.061
70	−2.87828	172,091	68,178	13,979	5448	1.666	0.656	56,183	15,598	3723	1014	0.542	0.150
80	−3.28946	180,999	70,386	14,891	5724	2.003	0.775	74,328	21,772	4897	1426	0.818	0.236
90	−3.70065	211,160	46,778	17,766	3829	2.623	0.577	71,052	17,388	4689	1130	0.878	0.214
100	−4.11183	254,899	96,691	21,724	8230	3.517	1.330	79,263	19,650	5205	1264	1.087	0.268
120	−4.93420	375,970	103,186	33,035	9063	6.237	1.703	99,778	19,096	6466	1206	1.642	0.305
140	−5.75656	460,519	132,113	41,402	11,741	8.922	2.544	117,391	31,104	7569	1990	2.253	0.590
160	−6.57893	652,916	177,969	59,849	16,224	14.471	3.928	167,972	50,883	10,696	3204	3.668	1.102
180	−7.40129	663,722	176,733	62,030	16,508	16.572	4.399	173,513	37,356	10,945	2332	4.263	0.909
200	−8.22366	792,537	218,568	75,411	20,637	22.045	6.060	213,718	31,366	13,382	1917	5.815	0.841

the number of function and gradient calls (“fun” and “grad”, respectively) as well as average running time in seconds (“sec”) with the corresponding standard deviations (“dev”).

From Table 2, it clearly appears that VNS-3 found the optimal solutions with much less efforts than VNS-123. Also, the important conclusion is that there is no exponential explosion of computer efforts with the increase of the problem size.

The same problem had been treated by using genetic algorithms [1] and branch and bound approach [8]. We summarize in Tables 3 and 4 some computational results obtained in [1] and [8], respectively.

In Table 3, for each problem size “n”, “fmin” (“fmax”) is the minimum (maximum) number of function evaluations needed to reach 99% of the global minimum in the 30 runs performed. Additionally, “favg” is the average and “fsd” is the standard deviation computed considering the successful runs (“succ”). The

Table 3

n	favg	fmin	fmax	fsd	succ	sec
20	36,626	33,086	40,545	2057	30	28.01
40	133,581	120,643	139,857	4378	30	237.69
60	263,266	242,739	280,653	10,360	30	852.61
80	413,948	392,493	445,181	13,340	30	3250.53
100	588,827	565,793	614,362	13,057	30	4400.61

Table 4

n	Fun	Sec
20	174,857	10,126
21	253,358	19,480
22	385,745	34,657
23	662,161	62,730
24	1,019,868	123,232
25	1,779,637	297,100

CPU time "sec" (in seconds) is also given. The program was coded in FORTRAN 77 and executed on a Pentium III 996 MHz with 192 MBytes of RAM memory.

In Table 4, again for each problem size "n", "fun" is the number of function evaluations needed to reach the global minimum and "sec" is the CPU time in seconds (note the exponential increasing of the number of function evaluations with n and the time required to reach the global minimum for $n = 25$: 82.5 hours!). The program was coded in FORTRAN 90 and executed on a Pentium III 700 MHz with 256 MBytes of RAM memory.

From Tables 2–4, we can observe that all VNS versions perform much less computations than both genetic algorithm (GA) and branch and bound (B&B). Compare, e.g. for $n = 20$, the number of function evaluations obtained by VNS-3, GA and B&B, respectively: 10,569 (9887 + 682), 36,626, and 174,857. Also, because GA and B&B have bigger calculation overhead and use more memory than VNS, for the same time VNS can execute more function calls on the same computer. Note also that the codes for GA and B&B were run on slower computers.

5. Conclusions and research in progress

We developed VNS–based heuristics for minimization of a continuous function subject to box constraints. Moreover, for solving the molecular potential energy function, whose number of local minimizers exponentially grows with problem size, we suggest special VNS variant that appears to be very efficient. Results reported allow us to say that the ideas initially developed for discrete optimization successfully perform in case of continuous optimization problems.

Compared with the branch and bound scheme used for the same problem in [8] (see Tables 2 and 4), our VNS heuristics performed much better. Unlike exponential complexity of the first, our VNS based heuristics have approximately quadratic complexity on this minimization problem, as can be seen from the Table 2. Compared with genetic algorithms also used for the same problem in [1], VNS-123 and, particularly VNS-3, produced better results (see Tables 2 and 3).

Although VNS has only a few tuning parameters, their choice can increase the performance. Numerical experiments verify the conjecture that adding more neighborhood structures improves performance of the search. The choice of random point distribution in shaking step can also speed up the convergence significantly.

The future work will be focused on two directions: (i) extension of VNS to global optimization problems subject to general nonlinear constraints, and (ii) application of our VNS to more realistic molecular potential energy functions.

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