

## Molecular Geometry Optimization with a Genetic Algorithm

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We present a method for reliably determining the lowest energy structure of an atomic cluster in an arbitrary model potential. The method is based on a genetic algorithm, which operates on a population of candidate structures to produce new candidates with lower energies. Our method dramatically outperforms simulated annealing, which we demonstrate by applying the genetic algorithm to a tight-binding model potential for carbon. With this potential, the algorithm efficiently finds fullerene cluster structures up to  $C_{60}$  starting from random atomic coordinates.

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Advances in computer technology have made molecular dynamics simulations more and more popular in studying the behavior of complex systems. Even with modern-day computers, however, there are still two main limitations facing atomistic simulations: system size and simulation time. While recent developments in parallel computer design and algorithms have made considerable progress in enlarging the system size that can be accessed using atomistic simulations, methods for shortening the simulation time still remain relatively unexplored.

One example where such methods will be useful is in the determination of the lowest energy configurations of a collection of atoms. Because the number of candidate local energy minima grows exponentially with the number of atoms, the computational effort scales exponentially with problem size, making it a member of the *NP*-hard problem class [1]. In practice, realistic potentials describing covalently bonded materials possess significantly more rugged energy landscapes than the two-body potentials addressed by the authors of Ref. [1], further increasing the difficulty. Attempts to use simulated annealing to find the global energy minimum in these systems are frustrated by high-energy barriers which trap the simulation in one of the numerous metastable configurations. Thus an algorithm is needed which can “hop” from one minimum to another and permit an efficient sampling of phase space.

In this Letter, we will describe the application of such an algorithm to the concrete example of determining the ground state structure of small atomic clusters. The most interesting clusters are those which lie in the transition range between molecules and bulk matter. These are precisely the ones that can be expected to have unusual structures which are unrelated to either the bulk or molecular limits. For a few atoms, the ground state can sometimes be found by a brute force search of configuration space. For up to 10 or 20 atoms, depending upon the potential, simulated annealing may be employed to generate some candidate ground state configurations [2]. For more atoms than this, the simulation time required to find the minimum by simulated annealing is usually prohibitive, because evaluations of the potential

and forces are too expensive. In this regime one is left with judicious guessing of likely candidate ground state structures.

Our approach is based on the genetic algorithm (GA), an optimization strategy inspired by the Darwinian evolution process [3]. Starting with a population of candidate structures, we relax these candidates to the nearest local minimum. Using the relaxed energies as the criteria of fitness, a fraction of the population is selected as “parents.” The next generation of candidate structures is produced by “mating” these parents. The process is repeated until the ground state structure is located.

We have applied this algorithm to optimize the geometry of carbon clusters up to  $C_{60}$ . In all cases we studied, the algorithm efficiently finds the ground state structures starting from an unbiased population of random atomic coordinates. This performance is very impressive since carbon clusters are bound by strong directional bonds which result in large energy barriers between different isomers. Although there have been many previous attempts to generate the  $C_{60}$  buckyball structure from simulated annealing, none has yielded the ground state structure [4].

Before presenting our results, we will describe our genetic algorithm procedure in more detail. The choice of mating procedure is the central choice one must make in constructing a genetic algorithm. In an efficient algorithm, it should impart important properties of the parent clusters to the children. A common choice [5] is to first map the physical structure onto a binary number string, then use string recombination as a mating procedure. Such an approach has been applied to optimize the packing structure of small molecular clusters and the conformation of some molecules [6]. We found that it is not very efficient, however, when used to optimize the geometry of atomic clusters. This is because the mating operation does not preserve the characteristics of the parents.

In the present work, we represent an atomic cluster by the list of  $N$  atomic Cartesian coordinates  $\mathbf{x}_i$  in arbitrary order,

$$\mathcal{G} = \{\mathbf{x}_1, \mathbf{x}_2, \dots, \mathbf{x}_N\}. \quad (1)$$

Our mating operator  $P : P(\mathcal{G}, \mathcal{G}') \rightarrow \mathcal{G}''$  performs the following action upon two parent geometries  $\mathcal{G}$  and  $\mathcal{G}'$  to produce a child  $\mathcal{G}''$ . First, we choose a random plane passing through the center of mass of each parent cluster. We then cut the parent clusters in this plane, and assemble the child  $\mathcal{G}''$  from the atoms of  $\mathcal{G}$  which lie above the plane, and the atoms of  $\mathcal{G}'$  which lie below the plane. If the child generated in this manner does not contain the correct number of atoms, the parent clusters are translated an equal distance in opposing directions normal to the cut plane so as to produce a child  $\mathcal{G}''$  which contains the correct number of atoms.

Relaxation to the nearest local minimum is performed with conjugate-gradient minimization or molecular dynamics quenching. Typically, about 16 conjugate-gradient steps or about 30 molecular dynamics steps are applied to a new geometry before a decision is made whether further optimization is warranted.

We preferentially select parents with lower energy from  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$ . The probability  $p(\mathcal{G})$  of an individual candidate  $\mathcal{G}$  to be selected for mating is given by the Boltzmann distribution

$$p(\mathcal{G}) \propto \exp[-E(\mathcal{G})/T_m], \quad (2)$$

where  $E(\mathcal{G})$  is the energy per atom of the candidate  $\mathcal{G}$ , and the mating "temperature"  $T_m$  is chosen to be roughly equal to the range of energies in  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$ .

In some cases, described below, we found it necessary to apply mutations to members of the population. We define a mutation operator  $M : M(\mathcal{G}) \rightarrow \mathcal{G}'$  which performs one of two functions with equal probability. The first mutation function moves the atoms in  $\mathcal{G}$  a random distance (of the same order as a bond length), in a random direction, a random number of times (between 5 and 50), while separating unphysically close atoms between each step. The second mutation function implements a simple search for an adjacent watershed in the potential energy hypersurface. We employ an algorithm [7] which takes a random number of steps in atomic coordinate space. At each step the algorithm changes direction so as to maintain travel along a direction slightly uphill to an equipotential line. The result of this is generally a high-energy cluster, but one which lies in an adjacent watershed region of  $E(\{\mathbf{x}\})$ .

We maintain a population  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$  of  $p$  candidates, and create subsequent generations as follows. Parents are continuously chosen from  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$  with probability given by Eq. (2) and mated using the mating procedure described above. A fraction  $\mu$  of the children generated in this way are mutated;  $\mu = 0$  means no mutation occurs. The (possibly mutated) child is relaxed to the nearest local minimum and selected for inclusion in the population if its energy is lower than another candidate in  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$ .

This procedure requires the algorithm to keep track of a large number of candidates in  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$ , since the population generally becomes filled with almost identical

low-energy candidates. These duplicated efforts reduce the algorithm's efficiency. To prevent this, we introduce an energy resolution  $\delta E$ , and allow new entries to  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$  only if there are no other candidates already in  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$  whose energy is within  $\delta E$  of the new entry's energy.

To illustrate the method, we use a tight-binding model for carbon, described elsewhere [8]. This potential accurately describes the energetics of fullerene structures.

Figure 1 shows the model potential energy of the lowest and highest energy  $C_{60}$  cluster in  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$  versus the number of genetic mating operations performed with no mutation ( $\mu = 0$ ) on a population of  $p = 4$  candidates, starting from coordinates chosen at random. We used a mating temperature  $T_m = 0.2$  eV/atom, and an energy resolution  $\delta E = 0.01$  eV/atom. This cluster is too large for unbiased simulated annealing [9] to arrive at the correct global minimum (the icosahedral buckminsterfullerene cage). As Fig. 1 illustrates, the genetic algorithm correctly generates the cage after roughly 5000 mating operations.

Figure 1 illustrates several generic features of the algorithm. During the initial few generations, the energy drops very quickly and the population soon consists of reasonable candidates, similar to what would be observed with simulated annealing. This initial period is usually a small fraction of the total time spent by the algorithm. The rest of the time is spent in an end game, where the remaining defects in the structure are removed [Figs. 1(a)–1(c)]. The general behavior of the genetic algorithm is

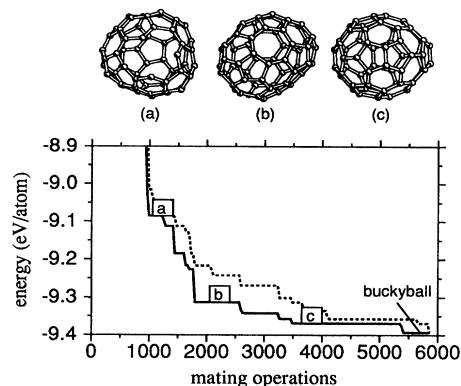


FIG. 1. Generation of the  $C_{60}$  molecule, starting from random coordinates, using the genetic algorithm described by the text with 4 candidates ( $p = 4$ ) and no mutation ( $\mu = 0$ ). The energy per atom is plotted for the lowest energy (solid line) and highest energy (dashed line) candidate structure in  $\{\mathcal{G}\}$  as a function of the number of genetic mating operations  $P$  (see text) that have been applied. Several of the intermediate structures which contain defects are illustrated at the top: (a) contains one 12-membered ring and two 7-membered rings, (b) contains a 7-membered ring, and (c) contains the correct distribution of pentagons and hexagons, but two pentagons are adjacent. The ideal icosahedral buckyball structure is achieved shortly after 5000 genetic operations.

remarkably resistant to changes in the details of the algorithm. The  $C_{60}$  cage is found reliably over a wide range of values of the mating temperature  $T_m$ , number of candidates  $p$ , and the number of conjugate-gradient optimizations performed upon each application of  $O$ . In addition, the use of schemes other than Eq. (2) for selecting parents from  $\{G\}$  also leads to the correct final answer. For example, we tried using equal mating probabilities  $p(G)$  for all candidates regardless of energy, as well as a probability linear in the energy. All of these variations produced genetic algorithms which worked satisfactorily.

In cases with several competing low-energy states, it is sometimes advantageous to investigate the minimization of a number of "ecologies," that is, to repeat the above process with different starting populations. For example, in smaller clusters of carbon atoms, a bimodal mass spectrum has been observed in laser vaporization experiments [10], and this has been interpreted [11] as evidence that two regimes of  $C_N$  cluster growth exist: for  $N \leq 25$ , monocyclic and polycyclic rings are formed, while for  $N \geq 25$ , fullerene cages are formed. Thus, for clusters around this size, there is a competition between cagelike, ringlike, and caplike structures. Searches for the global energy minimum must surmount the difficulty of becoming trapped in one of these structural classes.

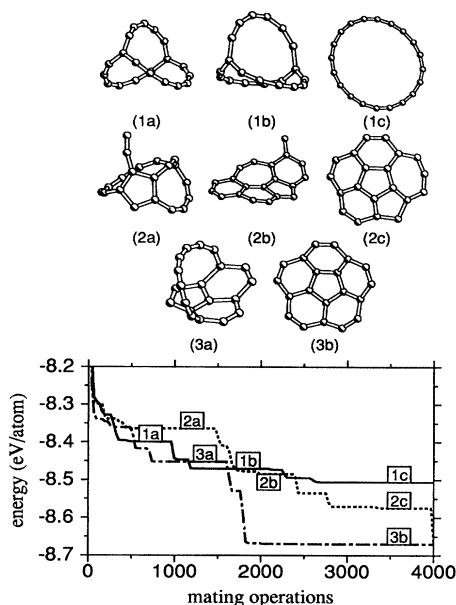


FIG. 2. Running the genetic algorithm on  $C_{20}$ . The solid line shows the generic lowest energy structure when the algorithm is run with no mutation ( $\mu = 0$ ); the structures (1a)–(1c) are present in the population at the times indicated. Essentially all ecologies get trapped in monocyclic rings (1c). The dashed line [structures (2a)–(2c)] and the dot-dashed line [structures (3a) and (3b)] illustrate the results when mutation ( $\mu = 0.05$ ).

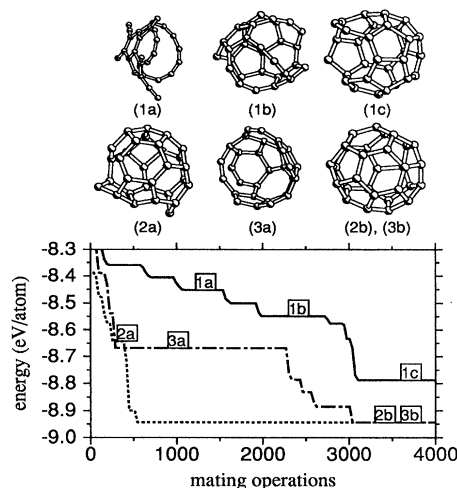


FIG. 3. Running the genetic algorithm on  $C_{30}$ . The solid line shows the lowest energy structure when the algorithm is run with no mutation ( $\mu = 0$ ) for an ecology that failed to find the minimum energy configuration (a fullerene cage) within 4000 genetic operations. The structures (1a)–(1c) are present in the population at the times indicated. The structure (1c) resulting after 4000 genetic operations is a cage, and is eventually reduced to the perfect fullerene cage even with  $\mu = 0$ . The broken lines illustrate two  $\mu = 0.05$  ecologies which arrive at the perfect cage (2b) via distinct routes (2a), (3a).

Figures 2 and 3 show the results of running the genetic algorithm on  $C_{20}$  and  $C_{30}$  clusters, using the same parameters  $p = 4$  and  $T_m = 0.2$  eV/atom that were used to generate the  $C_{60}$  cage. The solid line in Fig. 2 illustrates the generic result for  $C_{20}$  when no mutation is used ( $\mu = 0$ ). The lowest energy structure for  $C_{20}$  in the model potential is a polycyclic cap with energy  $-8.671$  eV/atom, and the fullerene cage structure is not far above, with energy  $-8.613$  eV/atom. Nevertheless, only a small fraction of the  $\mu = 0$  genetic algorithm ecologies find one of these structures within 4000 genetic operations. Instead, the ecologies get "trapped" in monocyclic rings with energy  $-8.503$  eV/atom [Fig. 2(1c)]. The cap and cage structures can be found for  $C_{20}$ , however, if we include mutations in our algorithm or, equivalently, by using molecular dynamics annealing for the relaxation process. For example, with  $\mu = 0.05$ , about 25% of the ecologies find the polycyclic cap (Fig. 2, broken lines).

In the case of  $C_{30}$ , the lowest energy structure in the model potential is a fullerene cage, and roughly 80% of the  $\mu = 0$  ecologies find it within 4000 genetic operations. The remaining 20% form cages, but not quickly enough to find the fullerene (Fig. 3, solid line). With mutations, convergence to the fullerene cage is greatly increased. Essentially all of the  $\mu = 0.05$  ecologies find the  $C_{30}$  cage within 4000 genetic operations (Fig. 3, broken lines). The role of mutation in the algorithm is to allow searches for alternate structural classes. Referring

to Fig. 2, one sees precipitous drops in energy when a new class of candidate is discovered. In the case of  $C_{30}$ , the cage structural class appears even with  $\mu = 0$  but is more efficiently reduced to the perfect structure when  $\mu \neq 0$ .

We emphasize that mutation by itself does not efficiently lower the energy of a population. We found that application of the mutation operator  $M$  in the absence of mating leads to a drastic decrease in the efficiency of the optimization process.

Like simulated annealing, the genetic algorithm requires repeated evaluation of the energy and forces within the model potential. The higher efficiency of the genetic algorithm, however, allows convergence to low-energy candidates in larger clusters than is possible with simulated annealing. We are currently applying the method to larger carbon clusters and will present those results elsewhere [7]. In addition, we have applied the algorithm to systems other than carbon clusters, and our preliminary findings indicate that the algorithm is efficient over a broad class of structural optimization problems. For example, we have successfully applied the method to bulk and surface geometries, with a suitably modified mating operator  $P$ .

The efficiency of the present algorithm may be increased in special cases when the class of desired structures is assumed, and a more complicated mapping between the genetic representation (genotype) and the cluster structure (phenotype) could be employed. For instance, in the case of the larger carbon fullerene clusters we expect that a representation in terms of a face-dual model [12] would lead to rapid convergence, since only cage structures would be investigated.

While the artificial dynamics of the genetic algorithm cannot be expected to reproduce the natural annealing process in which atomic clusters are formed, we found that the intermediate structures located by the genetic algorithm on its way to the ground state structure are very similar to the results of simulated annealing. Thus it appears that the same kinetic factors which influence the annealing process also affect the ease with which a particular candidate is generated by the genetic algorithm. If this is true, the genetic algorithm results presented here

can be viewed as analogous to those of greatly extended conventional simulated annealing runs. More work needs to be done to determine if this is indeed the case.

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