Energy-decreasing dynamics in mean-field spin models

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Received 7 November 2002, in final form 23 January 2003 Published 26 February 2003 Online at stacks.iop.org/JPhysA/36/2413

Abstract

We perform a statistical analysis of deterministic energy-decreasing algorithms on mean-field spin models with a complex energy landscape, such as the Sine model and the Sherrington–Kirkpatrick model. We specifically address the following question: in the search for low-energy configurations, which is more favorable (and in which sense)—a quick decrease along the gradient (greedy dynamics) or a slow decrease close to the level curves (reluctant dynamics)? Average time and wideness of the attraction basins are introduced for each algorithm, together with an interpolation among the two, and experimental results are presented for different system sizes. We found that while the reluctant algorithm performs better for a fixed number of trials, the two algorithms become basically equivalent for a given elapsed time due to the fact that the greedy algorithm has a shorter relaxation time which scales linearly with the system size compared to a quadratic dependence for the reluctant algorithm.

PACS numbers: 02.60.Pn, 05.10.Ln, 05.50.+q, 75.10.Nr

1. Introduction

The problem of finding the ground state of a frustrated spin model with a complex energy landscape is, in general, an NP-complete problem: the running time of exact algorithms increases at least exponentially with system size. There are, however, several new ground-state techniques devised for specific examples which are able to calculate exact ground state in a polynomial time using elementary algorithms in combinatorial optimization, in particular network flows [1, 2]. This opened the route to the numerical study of very large system sizes for different problems, such as spin glasses [3], the random field Ising model [4], the solid-on-solid model with a disordered substrate [5], superconducting flux line lattices [6] and many others. In the general case, where such particular algorithms are not known, one is forced to use approximated methods. These consist of some kind of dynamic in the space of spin configurations which explores different states looking for the lowest energy value. The simplest choice is to consider some kind of Monte Carlo simulation at zero temperature

(deep quench) which, starting from a random configuration, follows a random walk of decreasing energy until one ends up on a local energy minimum. One then repeats this procedure many times and takes as a better estimate of ground state the lowest energy found. Many variants and improvements have been proposed and among them the simulated annealing [7], which slowly cools the system from high temperature to zero temperature and parallel tempering, which uses several temperatures in parallel [8, 9]. Which algorithm is most suitable depends on the nature of the problem; for a recent paper, where the performances of these different Monte Carlo simulation techniques are compared, see [10].

Monte Carlo dynamics, of one type or another, is *stochastic*, i.e. for a given (random) initial configuration the trajectory is a random process. On the other hand, to find low-temperature states, one may also consider *deterministic* dynamics, which uniquely associates with a (random) initial spin configuration a final state according to some evolution rule.

A simple question which naturally arises is the following: what kind of deterministic dynamic is most effective in finding the configurations of the smallest energies? While stochastic dynamics has been widely studied in the literature, much less is known on statistical properties of deterministic dynamics.

In this paper, we focus our attention on two of them: *greedy* and *reluctant*: both of them follow a 1-spin-flip decreasing energy trajectory, the difference being that while in greedy dynamics the energy decreases by the largest possible amount, the reluctant algorithm makes moves corresponding to the smallest possible energy decrease. Some of the properties of these two minimization algorithms were studied in [11]. In this paper we push the analysis further addressing the following questions:

- For a given number of initial spin configurations which of the two dynamics is more efficient? Which one has the largest basin of attraction?
- For a given elapsed time which one is able to reach the lowest energy states?

In order to answer these questions we considered two different models. For the Sine model (section 3), where an analytical knowledge of the ground state for particular values of system sizes is available, we focus our attention on the capability of the two algorithms in detecting this ground state. For the Sherrington–Kirkpatrick model we present numerical results in section 4, where the lowest energy found is studied with different parameters in the simulations. The outcome of the analysis is that while for a fixed number of initial spin configurations the reluctant dynamics works better as was found in [11] (there is a higher probability of finding low-energy configurations), when the elapsed running time is fixed the two algorithms give basically the same results (the time used for a single run increases linearly for the greedy algorithm and quadratically for the reluctant). A final test is also performed in a stochastic convex combination of the two algorithms: at each step the motion is greedy with probability P and reluctant with probability P and reluctant with probability P and for fixed running times a substantial improvement is obtained with a P = 0.1.

2. Greedy and reluctant dynamics

We consider models defined by the Hamiltonian

$$H(J,\sigma) = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i,j=1}^{N} J_{ij} \sigma_i \sigma_j \tag{1}$$

where $\sigma_i = \pm 1$ for i = 1, ..., N are Ising spin variables and J_{ij} is an $N \times N$ symmetric matrix which specifies interaction between them.

The *greedy* and *reluctant* dynamics work as follows. The initial spin configuration at time t = 0 is chosen at random with uniform probability. Then the evolution rule is:

- 1. Let $\sigma(t) = (\sigma_1(t), \sigma_2(t), \dots, \sigma_N(t))$ be the spin configuration at time t.
- 2. Calculate the spectrum of energy change obtained by flipping the spin in position i, for i = 1, ..., N:

$$\Delta E_i = \sigma_i(t) \sum_{j \neq i} J_{ij} \sigma_j(t). \tag{2}$$

3. Select the site i^* associated with the lowest (resp. highest) of the *negative* energy change for the greedy (resp. reluctant) dynamics,

$$i_{\text{greed}}^{\star} = \left\{ i \in \{1, \dots, N\} : \Delta E_{i^{\star}} = \min_{i \in \{1, \dots, N\}} \{\Delta E_i < 0\} \right\}$$
 (3)

$$i_{\text{reluc}}^{\star} = \left\{ i \in \{1, \dots, N\} : \Delta E_{i^{\star}} = \max_{i \in \{1, \dots, N\}} \{\Delta E_i < 0\} \right\}.$$
 (4)

4. Flip the spin on site i^* :

$$\sigma_i(t+1) = \begin{cases} -\sigma_i(t) & \text{if } i = i^* \\ \sigma_i(t) & \text{if } i \neq i^*. \end{cases}$$
 (5)

Both the dynamics follow an energy descent trajectory till they arrive at a 1-spin-flip stable configuration, i.e. a configuration whose energy cannot be decreased by a single spin-flip. These represent local minima in energy landscape at zero temperature with respect to a 1-spin-flip dynamic. They are also the solutions of the mean-field TAP equations at zero temperature [18]:

$$\sigma_i = \operatorname{sign}\left(\sum_{j \neq i} J_{ij}\sigma_j\right). \tag{6}$$

3. Results for the Sine model

The first model we study is a mean-field system, having a very high degree of frustration even though the bonds between spins are non-random. It was introduced by Marinari *et al* in [12, 13]. The couplings are given by the orthogonal matrix associated with the discrete Fourier transform

$$J_{ij} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{2N+1}} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi i j}{2N+1}\right). \tag{7}$$

The ground state of the model is not known for general values of the system size. However, as already noted in [12, 13], for special values of N the ground state can be explicitly constructed using number theory. Indeed, for odd N such that p = 2N + 1 is prime of the form 4m + 3, where m is an integer, let σ^L be the state given by the sequence of Legendre symbols, i.e.

$$\sigma_i^L = \left(\frac{i}{p}\right) = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{if } i = k^2 \pmod{p} \\ -1 & \text{if } i \neq k^2 \pmod{p} \end{cases}$$
 (8)

with k = 1, 2, ..., p - 1. Then, it is easy to verify (see [14]) that

$$H(\sigma^L) = -\frac{N}{2} \tag{9}$$

which is, of course, the lowest value that energy can take due to the orthogonality of the interaction matrix.

The explicit knowledge of ground state for selected N is a valuable bonus, since it allows complete control of dynamical and statistical properties of the algorithms for quite large system sizes. In this section we restrict our analysis to such N values for which we have an exact expression of ground-state configuration as Legendre symbols. The natural unit of time is the 'spin-flip' time, i.e. the cycle during which the dynamic explores all the internal fields in such a way to decide which spin to flip. In this unit, the time t of a realization of the dynamic for a given initial condition is obtained by counting the number of 'spin flips' necessary to reach a metastable configuration.

We run greedy and reluctant dynamics for a large number M of initial conditions, keeping track of the number of times n_{GS} we found the ground state as the final configuration. We also measured the time of each realization t_i , $i=1,\ldots,M$. The number of trials M is an increasing function of the system size. For small sizes we stopped when we found the ground state $10\,000$ times. For the largest size (N=69) we used up to 10^9 initial configurations, so that the ground state had been found at least 100 times. We computed the following three quantities:

1. the average relaxation time of the dynamic

$$\tau = \frac{1}{M} \sum_{i=1}^{M} t_i \tag{10}$$

2. the estimated probability to find the ground state

$$p_{GS} = \frac{n_{GS}}{M} \tag{11}$$

3. the average time to find the ground state

$$T_{GS} = \frac{1}{n_{GS}} \sum_{i=1}^{M} t_i \tag{12}$$

which are obviously related by $T_{GS} = \tau/p_{GS}$.

In figure 1 we plot the average time of the dynamic to reach a metastable configuration. As one could expect the greedy dynamic is much faster, since it follows the most rapid path to decrease energy. The greedy average time is linear with the system size, while the reluctant dynamic has a characteristic time which increases as N^{α} with $\alpha \sim 1.90$.

In figure 2 we compare the probabilities of finding the ground state for the two algorithms. These have been estimated empirically using formula (11). We always used a number of trials M large enough to ensure the robustness of the statistical properties, i.e. we increased M until the estimated probabilities relaxed to an asymptotic value with negligible fluctuations. We can see that, apart from finite-size effects for very small system sizes, both algorithms have an exponentially decreasing probability of finding the ground state. Nevertheless, the reluctant probability is a little bit larger which shows that, for a given number of initial conditions, the reluctant algorithm is more efficient in finding the ground state, i.e. it has a larger basin of attraction. This result agrees with the one in [11], which using both algorithms with the same number of initial conditions, obtained a better estimate of asymptotic value of energy ground state for the SK model in the case of reluctant dynamics.

On the other hand, if one measures the average time to find a ground state, equation (12), which takes into account both the average time of dynamic and the probability of finding the ground state, one can see from figure 3 that the greedy algorithm requires a smaller time on average. This means that, from a practical point of view, for a given elapsed time greedy dynamic is slightly more efficient.

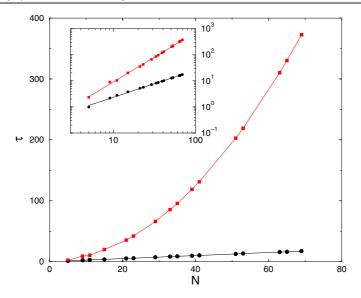


Figure 1. The average time to reach a metastable configuration for greedy (circle) and reluctant (squares) dynamics for the Sine model. The inset shows the data in log–log scale. The continuous lines are the numerical fits: $\tau_{\rm gre}(N) \sim 0.25 N$ and $\tau_{\rm rel}(N) \sim 0.10 N^{1.90}$.

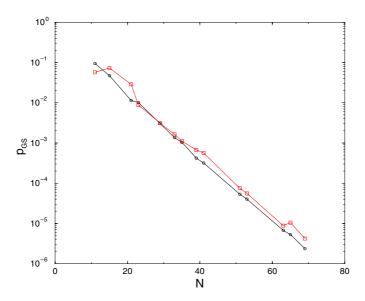


Figure 2. Probability of finding the ground state for greedy (circle) and reluctant (squares) dynamics for the Sine model.

4. Results for the Sherrington-Kirkpatrick model

The Sherrington-Kirkpatrick model is the infinite range case for spin glasses [15]. The couplings J_{ij} are independent, identically distributed symmetric gaussian random variables

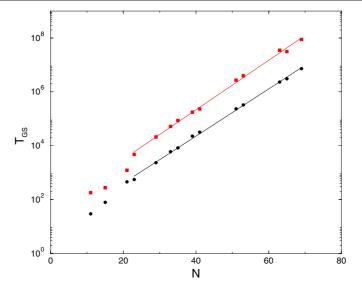


Figure 3. Average time to find the ground state for greedy (circle) and reluctant (squares) dynamics for the Sine model. The straight lines are fits to exponential law $T_{GS} \sim e^{0.20N}$.

 $(J_{ij} = J_{ji}, J_{ii} = 0)$ with zero mean and variance 1/N. Since this is a disordered model one is interested in the quenched average ground-state energy. For each N this is defined as

$$e_N^{GS} = \text{Av}\left(\frac{1}{N}\inf_{\sigma} H_N(J, \sigma)\right)$$
 (13)

where we denote by Av() the average over the couplings. Analytical knowledge of this quantity is available in the thermodynamical limit $N \to \infty$ using Parisi Ansatz for replica symmetry breaking theory: $e_{\infty}^{GS} = -0.7633$ [16], while numerical simulations obtained using finite-size scaling $e_{\infty}^{GS} = -0.76 \pm 0.01$ [17], $e_{\infty}^{GS} = -0.755 \pm 0.010$ [18], $e_{\infty}^{GS} = -0.775 \pm 0.010$ [19]. The statistical analysis on the Sine model revealed that, for a given number of initial

The statistical analysis on the Sine model revealed that, for a given number of initial conditions, reluctant dynamic works better than greedy to find the lower states in the energy landscape. On the other hand, since the reluctant path is much longer than the greedy, from a practical point of view, for a given elapsed time, it is slightly more efficient to make many quick greedy trials than a few slow reluctant runs. For the SK model it is not possible to perform the same analysis, because complete control of the ground state is lacking and also it fluctuates from sample to sample. To check the conclusion of the previous section we thus performed a series of numerical experiments varying control parameters.

Moreover, we investigate the efficiency of a stochastic convex combination of the two algorithms: with probability $0 \leqslant P \leqslant 1$ we perform a greedy move and with probability 1-P the corresponding reluctant move. The deterministic dynamics are obtained at P=1 (greedy) and P=0 (reluctant) respectively. Intermediate values of P are stochastic dynamics where the greedy and reluctant moves are weighted by the probability P. First of all we probed the average time of the dynamic for different values of P using formula (10), which is easily accessible to measurements and has good self-averaging properties. Results are shown in figure 4, together with the best numerical fits. Note the progressive increase of the slope in log-log scale from an almost linear law for greedy (bottom) $\tau_{\{P=1\}}(N) \sim N^{1.04}$ to an almost quadratic law for reluctant (top) $\tau_{\{P=0\}}(N) \sim N^{2.07}$. However, an interesting result is that

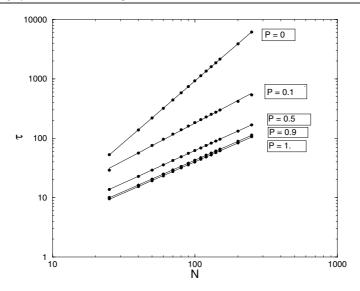


Figure 4. The average time to reach a metastable configuration for the SK model for different values of P. Top to bottom: P=0 (reluctant), P=0.1, P=0.5, P=0.9, P=1 (greedy). The continuous lines are the numerical fits to power law: $\tau(N) \sim N^{\alpha}$, with $\alpha=2.07, 1.26, 1.08, 1.05, 1.04$ from top to bottom.

for P=0.1 we still have $\tau_{\{P=0.1\}}(N)\sim N^{1.26}$, i.e. a stochastic algorithm, which makes on average one greedy move (and nine reluctant moves) out of ten, has a much smaller average time than the deterministic reluctant algorithm P=0. We note that the exponents for the greedy (resp. reluctant) algorithm are very close to the integers 1 (resp. 2) with an observed slow crossover between the two for intermediate p. It would be interesting to have a theoretical understanding of this phenomenon even if only at a heuristic level. We plan to return to this problem in a future work.

Next we measured the lowest energy value found for a given number of initial conditions for different probability P. One has to choose a protocol to fix the number of initial conditions. Obviously, the larger the system size the bigger the number of trials must be. We tried different choices obtaining similar results. For the sake of space we show in figure 5 the results of the run where we choose N initial conditions for a system of size N. The data have been averaged on 1000 disorder realizations. We see that the smaller the probability of making greedy moves, the lower the energy found. The best results are obtained for P=0, which corresponds to deterministic reluctant dynamics. This confirms that, ignoring the total amount of time and imposing constraint only on the number of initial conditions, reluctant dynamics is the most efficient in reaching low-energy states.

Finally, we compared results of different probabilities in the case one considers a fixed elapsed time. As an example, we present results for an elapsed time of 100 h of CPU on a CRAY SP3 for N in the range [50, 300]. We considered 1000 disorder realizations again and assigned the same time length to each sample (6 min). Obviously, in this way the reluctant dynamic starts from a smaller number of initial conditions than the greedy, because its relaxation time is longer. In figure 6 we plot the values of the lowest energy state as a function of N. We can see from the data that, for a fixed elapsed time, greedy dynamic (P = 1) finds lower energy states than reluctant (P = 0). Moreover, we observe that the best result is obtained for P = 0.1. Thus we suggest that the more powerful strategy to find low-energy

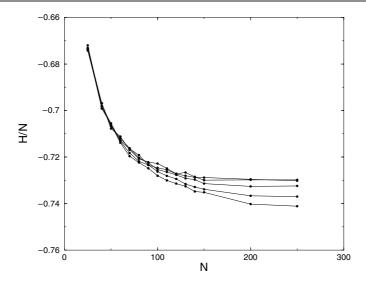


Figure 5. Lowest energy value using a protocol of choosing N initial condition for the SK model for different values of P. Bottom to top: P=0 (reluctant), P=0.1, P=0.5, P=0.9, P=1 (greedy).

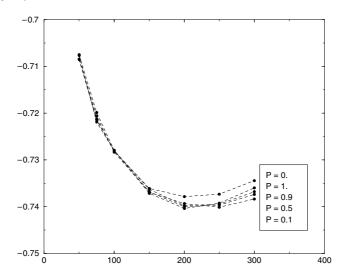


Figure 6. Lowest energy value for a fixed elapsed time of 100 h on a CRAY SP3 for the SK model for different values of *P* (see the legend).

state using greedy and reluctant dynamics is a combination of them, where for most of the steps the move is reluctant and for a small fraction of steps (say 0.1) the move is greedy.

Acknowledgments

We would like to thank CINECA for the computation grant on the CRAY SP3 and Professor I Galligani for his encouragement and support. We thank the referees for their suggestions and comments.

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