

Cluster dynamics for randomly frustrated systems with finite connectivity

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In simulations of some infinite-range spin-glass systems with finite connectivity, it is found that for any reasonable computational time, the saturated energy per spin that is achieved by a cluster algorithm is lowered in comparison to that achieved by Metropolis dynamics. The gap between the average energies obtained from these two dynamics is robust with respect to variations of the annealing schedule. For some probability distribution of the interactions the ground state energy is calculated analytically within the replica symmetry assumption and is found to be saturated by a cluster algorithm.

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Many systems composed of a macroscopic number of interacting elements share the property of being computationally difficult. By this we mean that their relaxation time, as well as the time scales related to the system investigation, grow very fast with the size of the system [1]. This concerns both the actual dynamics of the physical systems as well as pseudodynamics used in computer simulation [1]. Such systems appear in many physical fields, from statistical mechanics, to the study of quantum field theories (for review see [2,3]).

A typical example of such difficulties is the critical slowing down at second-order phase transitions. This phenomenon is simply the divergence of the relaxation time as the critical point is approached. Consequently, the typical time needed to produce a large Boltzmann set of decorrelated configurations diverges and the standard local Monte Carlo simulation methods become inefficient.

To solve such problems, multiscale-cluster-type algorithms were devised, and the entire subject of global collective dynamics attracted considerable attention. It is generally believed [3] that for several classes of systems, multiscale methods may overcome the slowing-down problems. Moreover, the multiscale algorithms are conceptually important insofar as they encode the understanding of the relevant large-scale physics. In particular, these procedures isolate the relevant degrees of freedom and act directly on them, in a manner consistent both with their effective macroscopic dynamics, and with the basic interactions that define the system at the microscopic scale (for a review see Ref. [2]). The cluster-multiscale methods have been applied successfully to many fields in physics (second-order phase transitions, disordered systems, quantum field theories, fermions in a gauge background, quantum gravity, and more [3]), and in many cases a dramatic acceleration of the numerical simulation was achieved.

However, the general applicability of the multiscale methods is in question. The situation is particularly unclear for models with complex energy landscape. Their physical properties are notoriously hard to investigate, especially in the low-temperature phase. Some of the most important families of systems presenting such difficulties are the randomly frustrated systems (RFS) and in particular spin glass (SG) systems.

The study of SG has attracted wide research activity over the last two decades (for review see [4,5]) and their theoretical understanding goes beyond its original scope of understanding experimental results of real physical systems [4]. The progress of the statistical mechanics methods related to SG contributed to the understanding of a wide variety of other disordered systems. One of the most promising directions is to apply the SG knowledge to the study of hard optimization problems belonging to the nondeterministic polynomial (NP) class [5]. This relationship goes beyond a mere analogy, and the task of determining the optima of a problem can be rigorously mapped in to finding the ground state (GS) of the analogous SG system. A typical SG system presents a complex energy landscape consisting of many local minima, separated by huge barriers that scale with the size of the system, and lead to an infinite hierarchy of exponentially divergent relaxation time scales [6]. Therefore, besides the problem of proper sampling in simulations at low temperatures, the system has a tendency to get stuck in local minima that prevent the measurement of equilibrium properties within a reasonable time. Furthermore, the simulated annealing technique that prevents some systems from getting stuck in local minima, failed to provide a complete solution in SG systems.

On the other hand, the *general* question of the existence of efficient cluster algorithms (CA's) for RFS is still an open problem even though a number of successes have been achieved for some particular systems. For instance, Kandel, Ben-Av, and Domany [7] found an efficient CA for a special case of a fully frustrated system on a square lattice, but with the lack of randomness. In the special case of two-dimensional (2D) Ising SG, in which its GS can be found in a polynomial time in contrast to the NP

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feature of the general SG, Swendsen and Wang [8] developed their “replica” algorithm. Nevertheless, in general, the cluster algorithms are unable to identify the important large-scale degrees of freedom in RFS, and therefore they show no improvement on simple local algorithms.

Hence, an efficient CA for RFS, if any, will enhance our understanding of the low-temperature physics of SG systems, and its consequences on related problems, such as efficient heuristics algorithms for solving NP problems. In particular, finite connectivity models at low temperatures are directly connected to graph partitioning [10,11]. This is the problem of dividing a given graph into sub-graphs, with minimum connections between them. Beside these applications, an efficient CA for SG may serve as a tool for the understanding of replica symmetry breaking (RSB) and its properties. Note that a quantitative fitting to Parisi’s picture, and the existence of RSB in finite connectivity models, are still open and controversial questions.

In this paper we present a step towards understanding the applicability and the limitation of CA for RFS. We consider an Ising system described by the Hamiltonian

$$H = -\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \neq j} J_{ij} S_i S_j, \quad (1)$$

where $S_i = \pm 1$ ($i = 1, \dots, N$) and the probability distribution of the links is

$$P(J_{ij}) = (1 - c/N)\delta(J_{ij}) + (c/N)f(J_{ij}). \quad (2)$$

This model is known as a highly diluted system with finite connectivity, since the probability for a spin with connectivity k follows the Poisson distribution: $c^k \exp(-c)/k!$ with average connectivity c , which is taken to be $O(1)$, and $f(J_{ij})$ is the distribution of the surviving links after the dilution. In the present work we would consider the following types of unbiased [$f(J_{ij}) = f(-J_{ij})$] distribution: (a) Gaussian distribution, (b) $J_{ij} = \pm 1$, and (c) a special case in which the links get four values: $J_{ij} = \pm 1, J_{ij} = \pm \epsilon$.

This model with $J_{ij} = \pm 1$ was systematically studied near the glass transition temperature by Viana and Bary [9], and at low temperatures by Kanter and Sompolinsky [10] and by Mezard and Parisi [11]. The self-consistent description of the low temperatures is based on the probability distribution of the local field defined by $h_i \equiv T \tanh^{-1} \langle S_i \rangle_T$. Physically, this field is the first excitation, namely, in the limit $T \rightarrow 0$, $|h_i|$ is the minimum energy cost for flipping the i th spin from its GS by the “best” reorganization of the system. This local field is in truth an oxymoron, since it depends on *global* properties of the cluster, the exchange field $\sum_j J_{ij} m_j$, on the other hand, is truly a *local* property depending on the local connectivity (note that $|h_i| \leq |\sum_j J_{ij} m_j|$). In a simple ferromagnetic case (that is $J = 1$) as $T \rightarrow 0$ the distribution of the local fields reduces to a discrete spectrum [10,11]

$$P_l = (cP)^l \exp(-cP)/l! \quad l = 0, \dots, \infty, \quad (3)$$

where P is the fraction of the spins belonging to the

macroscopic cluster. The quantities P_l , characterize global properties, for instance, in the ferromagnetic case P_0 is the fraction of spins belonging to the finite clusters and P_1 is the fraction of spins that can be disconnected from the infinite cluster by cutting only one link.

Many geometric properties of this system are well understood [10,11]. In particular, the system undergoes a percolation transition at $c = 1$. The maximal cluster is of $O(\log N)$ for $c < 1$, $O(N^{2/3})$ at $c = 1$, and of $O(N)$ for $c > 1$ where its size is explicitly given by $P = 1 - P_0 = 1 - \exp(-cP)$.

The topological structure of diluted models makes them good candidates for employing CA’s. CA’s usually consist of two main steps. First, blocks are constructed stochastically from many single elements where the links between them have been “frozen” according to their tendency to act coherently, and the other links deleted. Second, updates are performed in which entire blocks flip rigidly, in such a way that the Gibbs distribution is still fulfilled. Accordingly, the lattice splits into a set of clusters each formed by sites that can be linked by a chain of frozen links. For general SG systems this procedure fails because it freezes the entire lattice into a single block. However, for a highly dilute lattice the additional deletions may be just enough to actually split the lattice into disjointed blocks. In this way, the CA’s are effective in locating and acting upon large regions that interact weakly with the rest of the configuration. In addition, the CA’s may have an efficient way of pinning the frustration to weak links. The global decisions made by the CA on large-scale degrees of freedom are directly connected to the structure of the field that presents global features.

Simulations on the model, Eqs. (1) and (2), and with a Gaussian distribution for the links, $f(J) \propto \exp(-J^2)$, were carried out using both local (Metropolis) and cluster (Wolff [12]) dynamics. The simulations were carried out for various connectivity values, and at temperatures below the glassy transition T_c . The size of the system was between 1000 and 5000, and the results were averaged over at least ten different samples. A typical result is presented in Fig. 1, and for all times monitored (up to 100 000 Monte Carlo steps per spin), one can clearly see a gap between the energies of the two dynamics. Clearly, in the limit of an extremely long time, this gap should vanish, but in practice it can be considered as two different energy levels.

An interesting question is whether this gap is robust even under an annealed schedule in which the temperature is gradually lowered. This is done to avoid being caught in “false minima,” which is typical for low-temperature simulations, and also enable the CA to act on clusters at various scales. Indeed, the results were improved for both dynamics, but the gap still exists [17]. On one hand it is clear that in practice at low temperature, the energy E_c reached by the CA is lower than that of the local algorithm E_l . However, on the other hand, this improvement should be evaluated with respect to the true equilibrium energy, E . Quantitatively, if $|E_c - E_l| \ll |E - E_l|$, then even after the improvement by the CA, the system is far from equilibrium. Hence, the calculation of the true GS is important in order to evalu-

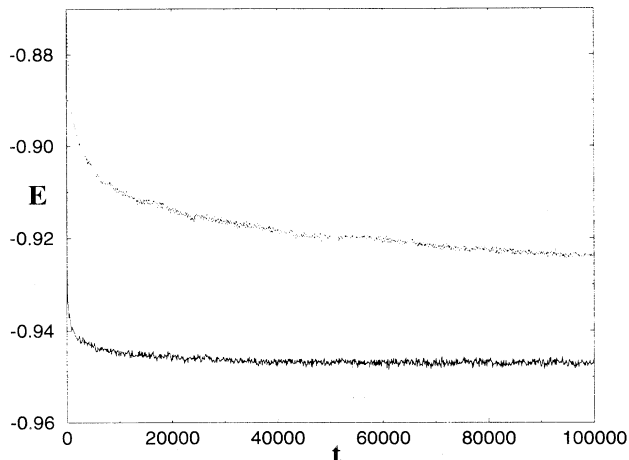


FIG. 1. $E(t)$ per spin for the Gaussian distribution with average $|J| = 1$, $c = 2$, $N = 5000$, and $T \sim 0.3T_c$. The solid and the dotted lines indicate Wolff and Metropolis dynamics, respectively. The time scale is in Monte Carlo steps per spin.

ate the improvement achieved by the CA. Unfortunately, the analytical calculation of the GS energy for the Gaussian distribution appears to be a very difficult task since the local field is a continuous variable [14]. We therefore need a model whose GS energy can be calculated analytically and where the difference between Metropolis and CA is enhanced. We find these two features in what we shall call the *weak-strong* (WS) model. In this model some of the links are much stronger (in their absolute value) than others, and explicitly the link distribution is given by

$$f(J) = \frac{a}{2}[\delta(J - \epsilon) + \delta(J + \epsilon)] + \frac{(1-a)}{2}[\delta(J - 1) + \delta(J + 1)].$$

In the first set of runs we chose the connectivity c and the fraction of the strong links $(1 - a)$, such that the density of the strong links by themselves is below the percolation threshold, $c_S = c(1 - a) < 1$. It is clear that in this situation all the strong links are unfrustrated, and the frustration is located only on the weak links. This framework simplifies the analytical treatment and only the energy of the weak links, E_W , is considered. In Fig. 2 one can see (up to our running time) a large steady difference (35%) in the energy between the local dynamics and that of the cluster dynamics. This difference is due to the fact that the local dynamics is totally stuck, since the probability of flipping a cluster consisting of strong links is practically zero for local algorithms. On the other hand, the CA “knows” how to deal with the strong link structures by considering them as only “one degree of freedom,” for each cluster. In other words, the CA is extremely efficient in the following problem: “How to arrange the weak links in the environment of strong links.” Note that the origin of this effect is the same as in the Gaussian case. In the WS case, however, it is amplified,

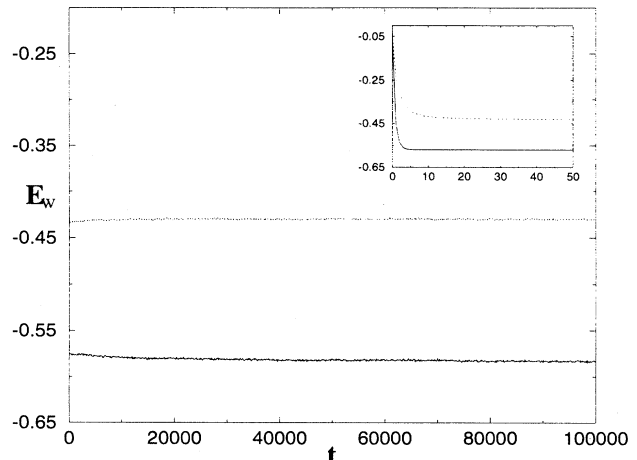


FIG. 2. $E_W(t)$ per spin for the WS case, $c = 2$, $a = 0.7$, $N = 5000$, $T = 0.5J_W$, the strong and the weak links was scaled to 100 and 1, respectively. The solid and the dotted lines indicate Wolff and Metropolis dynamics, respectively. Inset: The first 50 steps.

due to the special discrete link distribution. In order to emphasize the CA features, we performed measurements using simulated annealing for both dynamics. This was performed over a wide range of temperatures, enabling us to first arrange the strong links, and then lowered the temperature to the scale of the weak links.

Figure 3 demonstrates one of the examined schedules from which one can conclude that the “gap” (40%) is

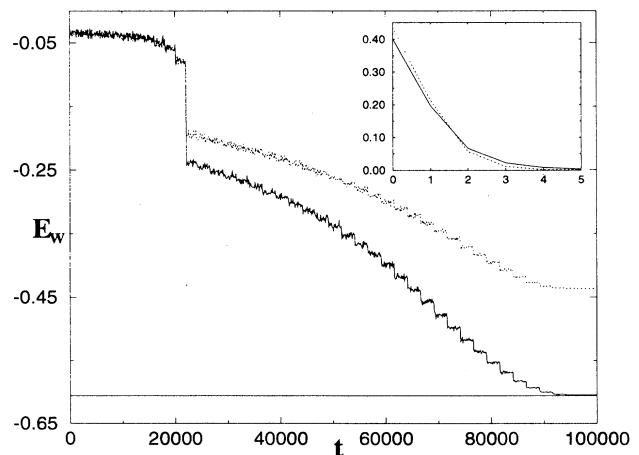


FIG. 3. $E_W(t)$ per spin for the WS case, $c = 2$ and $a = 0.7$. The annealing schedule range is $T \in 123 - 0$, with $\Delta T = 10$ for $T > 3$ and $\Delta T = 0.1$ for $T < 3$. The jump in E_W at $T = 3$ is observed since we are getting close to the scale of the weak link and NE_W become extensive. The solid and the dotted lines indicate Wolff and Metropolis dynamics, respectively. The horizontal line denotes the analytical GS in Eq. (4). Inset: P_i , for the WS case (solid), and $J = \pm 1$ case (dotted).

robust (or even increases) with respect to the annealing schedule. This provides strong evidence that the CA indeed do overcome the local difficulties. In order to put the CA improvement in the overall picture of the true equilibrium, one must calculate the GS energy. After some calculation, one can show that the GS energy of the weak links within the replica symmetry assumption is given by

$$E_W = -\frac{1}{2}caP_0^2\epsilon + \frac{1}{2}c(1-a) \left[\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} (1-4\sigma_k^2)\epsilon - \bar{h} \right], \quad (4)$$

where $\sigma_k = \frac{P_0}{2} + \sum_{l=1}^k P_l$, $\bar{h} = \sum_{h=-\infty}^{\infty} |h|P(h)$. Note that the energy of the strong links, $E_S = -\frac{1}{2}c(1-a)$, is eliminated from Eq. (4).

The explicit value of E_W depends on the local field, $P(h)$, which in general is difficult to calculate. Nevertheless, in the limit $c_S < 1$ and $\epsilon \ll \frac{1}{c}$, which implies $h \ll 1$ (there are no ‘‘order 1’’ local fields), the following distribution of local fields can be assumed:

$$P(h) = (1-Q)\delta(h) + \sum_{l \neq 0} P_l \delta(h-l\epsilon), \quad (5)$$

where $P_l = P_{-l}$, and $Q = 1 - P_0$ the fraction of the frozen (zero entropy at $T = 0$) spins. The quantitative form of $P(h)$ can be determined from the following self-consistent equation:

$$P(h) = e^{-cQ} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{dy}{2\pi} \exp \left[-iyh + \frac{cQa}{2} (e^{iy\epsilon} + e^{-iy\epsilon}) + c(1-a) \sum_{l=1}^{\infty} P_l (e^{iy l \epsilon} + e^{-iy l \epsilon}) \right]. \quad (6)$$

In principle, one must solve infinitely many coupled nonlinear equations, obtained from the expansion of Eq. (6). However, assuming that P_l decays with l , we assume $P_l = 0$ for $l > l'$, and then from the comparison of the expansion of Eq. (5) and Eq. (6) one can derive l' nonlinear equations. For the range of c and a in our simulations we take $l' = 8$, which gives a negligible error. For comparison we calculated P_l in the $J = \pm 1$ case in which we obtain

$$P_l = \exp(-cQ) I_{|l|}(cQ), \quad (7)$$

where $I_l(x)$ is the modified Bessel function. A graph of

P_l for the two cases is presented in the inset of Fig. 3.

One should note that after scaling ϵ to 1, the P_l for the two cases is very close. However, the *exchange field* is a different story. In the $J = \pm 1$ case the exchange field of a spin is usually not far from its local field (around the number of its neighbors), but for the WS case the local field is $O(\epsilon)$ while the exchange field may be $O(1)$. The fact that P_l is much smaller leads us to hope that the dynamics that prefer a global ‘‘decision’’ are indeed superior to the local one.

The type of the mean-field solution we derived is known to be unstable [13]. However, in Fig. 3 one can see that the analytical GS obtained from Eqs. (4) and (6) is in very good agreement with the averaged GS energy obtained by the CA.

The scope of our analytical calculation is for the $c_S < 1$ case (below the percolation threshold for the strong links). However, we also performed simulations for $c_S > 1$, and the results for $c \in (2, 5)$ show a similar picture. Thus, the superiority of CA over the local dynamics is shown clearly. However, *a priori*, one could gain the impression that this was achieved only by some simple geometrical reduction of the system. In order to check this point we performed another type of simulations (which will be reported in detail elsewhere [14]) in which the algorithm explicitly reduced all the trees, the linear chains, and the self-loops. This was carried out in a manner that is proved to be energetically optimal. Nevertheless, we show that the CA advantage goes beyond these simple reductions. This result completes the picture of CA superiority, within the scope of the present work. There are many questions that still remain open. First, what happens at high connectivity? It is clear that our CA superiority decreases as c grows. One can investigate this point further, and classify the relevant windows of parameters. Moreover, one can ask if it is possible to overcome this limitation by a new type of CA, namely, a CA that goes beyond the ability to act on blocks having a considerably weak interaction with the rest of the system. Second, an interesting question is whether CA can enter the RSB region. Our results do not clarify this point, and indeed our results are consistent with the RS GS energy. However, the existence of RSB in the examined systems is still in question.

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