Exact Optimization in Spin-Glass Physics

Frauke Liers

Department of Computer Science, University of Cologne

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1 Spin Glasses

- 2 Complexity Theory in a Nutshell
- 8 Branch-and-Bound
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- Branch-and-Cut for Potts Spin Glasses

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Spin Glasses Complexity Theory in a Nutshell Branch-and-Bound Branch-and-Cut for Ising Spin Glass Branch-and-Cut for Potts Spin Glass

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Spin Glasses

e.g. $Rb_2Cu_{1-x}Co_xF_4$ experiments (Cannella & Mydosh 1972) reveal: at low temperatures: \rightarrow phase transition spin glass state Edwards Anderson Model (1975)

- short-range model
- interactions randomly chosen
 - $J_{ij} \in \{+1,-1\}$ or
 - Gaussian distributed
- $H(S) = -\sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} J_{ij}S_iS_j$, with spin variables S_i



ground state: $\min\{H(\underline{S}) \mid \underline{S} \text{ is spin configuration}\}$

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Why Exact Ground States?

in contrast to Monte-Carlo Simulations or genetic algorithms: we want to compute **exact solutions** disadvantages of heuristic methods:

- might become stuck in local minima and do not know anything about the quality of the solution → physical analysis might be biased.
- configurations with almost the same energy might be very different → not clear whether results of spin-spin correlation functions can yield relevant information.

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Cologne Spin-Glass Ground-State Server

- An exact ground state can be computed via our server on the web
 www.informatik.uni-koeln.de
- submit jobs via a command-line client (or via www-interface) and get exact results via email. (will be extended in the future.)
- current focus: compute exact results for **hard** instances of the problem.

- 2d spin glasses
- 3d spin glasses
- SK spin glasses

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many problems can be formulated on **graphs** G = (V, E) with node set V and edge set E. Edge weights $c_e \in \mathcal{R}$ might be present. Examples (from ABC^2 's TSPbook):



Figure 1.3 The Commis-Voyageur tour in Germany.

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Figure 1.30 Continuous-line drawings via the TSP. Images courtesy of Robert Bosch and Craig Kaplan.



Figure 1.31 Portion of a million-city tour

research, providing a common textbed for both new and old solution approaches. Random Euclidean problems, with the locations of the clicks selected at random from a square, form an alternative class of geometric test instances. The case with which such accurately case in a central model that a common target in a computational nuclear, particularly before the availability of the TSPLIB. More recently, Hammersky [47] 175 Poromatin has driven the interest in the class of problems.

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Figure 1.47 Optimal tours.

many problems can be formulated on **graphs** G = (V, E) with node set V and edge set E. Edge weights $c_e \in \mathcal{R}$ might be present. Examples:

- shortest paths in networks
- shortest traveling salesman tour (TSP)
- etc.

Some of them are 'easy', some 'hard'. ...in more detail:

A problem \mathcal{P} is a **decision problem**, if the set of all instances $I_{\mathcal{P}}$ of \mathcal{P} is partitioned into the 'yes' and the 'no'-instances. For each instance we ask: Is it a 'yes'- or a 'no'-instance?

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Example

1 instance: $n \in \mathcal{N}$ question: ls *n* a prime number?

instance: graph G = (V, E) question: Is G connected?

A decision problem is solved by an algorithm A, if A for each instance terminates and gives the correct 'yes' or 'no' answer.

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A decision problem is solved by an algorithm \mathcal{A} , if \mathcal{A} for each instance terminates and gives the correct 'yes' or 'no' answer.

Contains all decision problems $\mathcal P$ for which there exists a solution algorithm that solves $\mathcal P$ within a time polynomially bounded in the size needed to store the input, i.e., number of bits.

polynomially bounded?

- assume: each elementary algorithmic step (summation, assignment, etc.) has cost 1.
- Let input for some problem be stored by m bits. (e.g., for $n \in \mathcal{N}, m = \log n$ bits are needed.)
- A decision problem is in P, if the number of steps in the solution algorithm asymptotically only grows as fast as m^k, with k ∈ N.

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NP: nondeterministic polynomial

A decision problem is in *NP*, if for an arbitrary instance and for a given (possible) solution it can be **verified** in polynomial time whether the solution yields a 'yes' or a 'no' answer.

- for boolean variables x₁,..., x_n: given a clause x₁ ∨ ¬x₂...x_k ∧ x₂ ∨ x₄...x_l. Is there a true/false assignment of values to the variables satisfying the clause? (SAT)
- given a graph G = (V, E) with edge weights c_e, and k ∈ N. Is there a tour that visits every node exactly once with length ≤ k? (TSP)

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Here, a candidate solution can be verified by insertion.

name NP: alternative classification can be given in which constructive nondetermininistic algorithms need to have polynomial running time. In the latter, guessing steps are allowed.

- obviously: P ⊆ NP.
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A problem is NP-complete, if it belongs to the 'hardest' problems in NP. Knowing a polynomial-time algorithm for one NP-complete problem would immediately yield polynomial-time algorithms for **all** NP-complete problems.

- SAT was the first problem to be proven to be NP-complete (Cook (1971))
- For many other problems NP-completeness was proven since then by reduction to and from other NP-complete problems

Examples

{0,1}-integral solution for inequality system ($\exists 01IP$) instance: $A \in \mathbb{Z}^{m \times n}$, $b \in \mathbb{Z}^m$ question: Does there exist an $x \in \{0,1\}^n$ with $Ax \ge b$? $\exists 01IP$ is *NP*-complete.

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Optimization Problems

an optimization problem is characterized by

- the set of instances
- · information whether we should maximize or minimize
- the set of feasible solutions
- for each instance and each feasible solution, the objective function value of the solution

MINIMUM TRAVELING SALESMAN (TSP)

instance: set of cities $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$, distance matrix $D \in \mathbb{Z}_{+}^{n \times n}$ **solution:** permutation $\{i_1, i_2, ..., i_n\}$ of $\{1, 2, ..., n\}$ ('tour' through all cities)

objective function value: $\left(\sum_{k=1}^{n-1} d_{i_k,i_{k+1}}\right) + d_{i_n,i_1}$



optimal tour $\langle 1, 2, 4, 3 \rangle$, cost 6. The associated decision problems is *NP*-complete.

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An optimization problem is in *PO*, if there exists a polynomial-time algorithm that for each instance of the problem determines an optimum solution and returns its value. Example:

- shortest paths
- minimum spanning trees
- matching
- etc.

- the instances can be recognized in polynomial time
- for all instances the size of a feasible solution is polynomially bounded in the size of the input
- for all y that are polynomially bounded it can be verified in polynomial time whether y is a feasible solution

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Martin Weigel has already pointed you to several relevant polynomial optimization problems with applications in physics.

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In the following: we focus on the NP-hard variants.

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Exact Ground States of Hard Instances



Exact Ground States of Hard Instances



 $H = -\sum_{e \in E} J_{ij} S_i S_j$

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$$H(\underline{S}) + \sum_{(i,j)\in E} J_{ij} = \sum_{(i,j)\in E} J_{ij} \underbrace{(1 - S_i S_j)}_{= \begin{cases} 2 & \text{, if } S_i \neq S_j \\ 0 & \text{, otherwise} \end{cases}}_{= 2 \sum_{S_i \neq S_j} J_{ij}}$$

Computing Exact Ground States





 $H(\underline{S}) + \text{const}$ $= 2 \sum_{S_i \neq S_i} J_{ij}$

 $\mathsf{cut} = \{(i,j) \in E \mid (i,j) = \bullet \bullet \}$

its weight: $\sum_{(i,j)\in cut} c_{ij}$

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Computing Exact Ground States



NP-hard in general
























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- NP-hard for, e.g., 2*d* Ising spin glasses with an external field or 3*d* lattices. more general: on general graphs or on almost planar graphs
- 2d, no field, free boundaries: polynomial solvable (see M. Weigel's talk)
- Goemans und Williamson found a 0.878-approximation algorithm, i.e.,. a polynomial algorithm, in which the computed solution has a value of at least 0.878 times the value of an optimum cut. However: If P≠NP, there does not exist a polynomial algorithm that computes a solution with value at least 98% of the value of an maximum cut.

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• quadratic 0-1 optimization: Given $A \in \mathbb{R}^{n \times n}$ and $a \in \mathbb{R}^n$, compute min $\{x^T A x + a^T x \mid x \in \{0, 1\}^n\}$

- separation can also be used in practice for quadratic optimization with additional side constraints
- layout of electronic circuits
- scheduling of sports leagues
- etc.

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- **4** Branch-and-Cut for Ising Spin Glasses
- **6** Branch-and-Cut for Potts Spin Glasses

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- linear optimization problems can be solved within polynomial time (ellipsoid method)
- and fast in practice (simplex algorithm)
- software: CPLEX (ILOG, commercial) or CLP (open source)
- in the following we consider linear optimization problems as a black box

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- can be used for a wide class of problems
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- however: practical usefulness depends strongly on good data structures, clever implementation, etc.

known names for Branch & Bound:

- implicit enumeration
- divide & conquer
- backtracking

- strategy for dividing a problem into sub problems.
- method for calculating upper and lower bounds.

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- start solving the original problem
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 - ① determination of an optimum solution, or
 - proof of its infeasibility, or
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associate to the solution process in a natural way a branch & bound-tree:



- the root is the original problem
- a node represents some sub problem
- a direct child of a node u represents a sub problem of u
- tree leafs represent 'solved' problems

BRANCH & BOUND(A, b, c, N₁) (Dakin) for MIP

Input:

mixed-integer problem (MIP) with rational data

$$(MIP^{=}) \begin{array}{ccc} \max & c^{T} \\ Ax & = & b \\ x & \geq & 0 \\ x_{i} & \text{integer } \forall i \in N_{1} \end{array}$$

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Output: solution of the problem or proof of infeasibility.

BRANCH & BOUND(A, b, c, N₁) (Dakin) for (MIP)

- 1 initialize the list of active sub problems with the original problem. opt = $-\infty$
- While list of active sub problems not empty do begin
- **3** choose from the list of active problems one. 'Solve' it by:
 - **1** find optimal solution for the sub problem, or
 - 2 prove that the sub problem does not have a feasible solution, or
 - (3) prove by using a relaxation (bound) that there does not exist a feasible solution for the sub problem with a higher objective function value than the up to now best known solution (fathoming)
 - ④ if above not possible: branch, i.e., divide the problem into further sub problems, add them to list of active problems. end
- (d) if (opt $> -\infty$) return best known feasible solution as optimum. otherwise: return 'problem infeasible' $z \to z \to \infty$

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- important: keep the size of the tree 'small' \Rightarrow need good bounds.
- to 3 (2): if a relaxation of a sub problem is infeasible \rightarrow sub problem itself is infeasible.
- For fathoming a sub problem in 3 (3): need good upper and lower bounds. Lower bounds: given by feasible solutions calculated by heuristics, or by an optimal solution of a sub problem.
- easiest branching: choose some x_e that needs to be integer, however the optimum in the LP is x_e^{*} ∉ Z. Replace the current sub problem by two, in one of which one adds the inequality x_e ≤ [x_e^{*}], and in the other x_e ≥ [x_e^{*}].
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Consider

LP-Optimum

$$x_3 = x_4 = x_5 = 0$$
, $x_1 = \frac{2}{5}$, $x_2 = \frac{19}{5}$

value $c^* = -\frac{71}{5}$ (= -14.2). upper bound: -15 branch on x_2

$$P_1 = P_0 \cap \{x \mid x_2 \le 3\}$$
$$P_2 = P_0 \cap \{x \mid x_2 \ge 4\}$$

choose P_1 as next problem.

optimum solution of LP-relaxation LP_1 is

$$x_4 = x_5 = 0$$
, $x_1 = \frac{1}{2}$, $x_2 = 2$, $x_3 = \frac{1}{2}$

and $c^* = -\frac{29}{2}$ (upper bound -15). subdivide P_1 , get:

$$P_3 = P_1 \cap \{x \mid x_1 \le 0\}$$
$$P_4 = P_1 \cap \{x \mid x_1 \ge 1\}$$

active problems are $K = \{P_2, P_3, P_4\}$. solving LP_3 gives

$$x_1 = x_5 = 0$$
, $x_2 = 3$, $x_3 = 2$, $x_4 = 4$

and $c^* = -17$. then P_3 is solved , best solution (global lower bound) has value -17.

solve P_4 , get:

$$x_4 = 0$$
, $x_1 = 1$, $x_2 = 3$, $x_3 = \frac{1}{3}$, $x_5 = \frac{4}{3}$

and $c^* = -\frac{52}{3} = -17\frac{1}{3}$. The found upper bound -18 is worse than best solution, and P_4 is fathomed. Need to solve P_2 . We get as a solution of the LP-relaxation

$$x_3 = x_5 = 0$$
, $x_1 = \frac{1}{3}$, $x_2 = 4$, $x_4 = \frac{1}{3}$

and $c^* = -\frac{43}{3}$. P_2 is not yet solved. Branch on x_1

$$P_5 = P_2 \cap \{x \mid x_1 \le 0\}$$
$$P_6 = P_2 \cap \{x \mid x_1 \ge 1\}$$

solving LP_5 yields

$$x_1 = x_3 = x_5 = 0$$
, $x_2 = 5$, $x_4 = 2$

and $c^* = -15$. This is the new best solution with value -15. P_5 is then solved.

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No need to consider P_6 further, as because of LP_2 no better solution is possible.



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- Exploit logical implications. E.g. for constraints
 ∑_{i∈S} x_i = 1, x_i ∈ {0,1}: If some x_j = 1 → all other
 variables in S have value 0. ⇒ branch with ∑_{i∈S1} x_i = 0
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- primal heuristics: sometimes it takes long until good feasible solutions are found. → additional heuristics
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