

On the infinite swapping limit for parallel tempering

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The problem

One is interested in computing the integral

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x)\pi(dx), \quad (1)$$

where π is some probability distribution that is infeasible to sample directly from.

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A standard method to deal with this kind of problem is via MCMC in which one constructs an ergodic Markov chain with π as its invariant distribution. If μ_T is the empirical measure, then under suitable ergodicity conditions (communicating, aperiodic)

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would converge to (1).

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If the underlying distribution π is unimodal, the sampling is straightforward and the associated numerical results are reliable.

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Let V denote the total potential energy of a statistical mechanical system.

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Let V denote the total potential energy of a statistical mechanical system. π is the Boltzmann distribution (canonical ensemble)

$$\pi(x) \doteq \frac{1}{Z(\tau)} e^{-V(x)/\tau},$$

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$$\pi(x) \doteq \frac{1}{Z(\tau)} e^{-V(x)/\tau},$$

where τ is the scaled temperature and $Z(\tau)$ is the partition function.

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One is interested in computing quantities such as the average potential.

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MCMC: Metropolis-Hastings type algorithm or stochastic dynamics method (based on a physical analogy, e.g. Andersen 1980).

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One is interested in computing quantities such as the average potential.

MCMC: Metropolis-Hastings type algorithm or stochastic dynamics method (based on a physical analogy, e.g. Andersen 1980).

Note that the higher the temperature, the "flatter" the distribution, the less likely for the Markov chain to get stuck at local minima of V .

Examples: 2. Bayesian statistics

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Given a prior distribution $p(\theta)$, a likelihood model $P(D|\theta)$ and data D .

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Given a prior distribution $p(\theta)$, a likelihood model $P(D|\theta)$ and data D . π is the posterior distribution

$$\pi(\theta|D) \propto P(D|\theta) p(\theta).$$

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MCMC: Metropolis-Hastings type algorithm.

Define

$$V(\theta) \doteq -\log P(D|\theta).$$

then $\pi(\theta|D) \propto e^{-V(\theta)}p(\theta)$. For $\tau \geq 1$ define

$$\pi_\tau(\theta|D) \propto e^{-V(\theta)/\tau}p(\theta) = P(D|\theta)^{1/\tau}p(\theta).$$

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MC for π_τ ($\tau > 1$) results in easier movement among local minima of $V(\theta)$.

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Minimize a function f over a set Ω . Construct a Markov chain using a Metropolis-Hastings type algorithm with π_τ as the invariant distribution:

$$\pi_\tau(x) = \frac{1}{Z(\tau)} e^{-f(x)/\tau}.$$

Here τ is chosen such that $\tau > 0$.

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$$\pi_\tau(x) = \frac{1}{Z(\tau)} e^{-f(x)/\tau}.$$

Here τ is chosen such that $\tau > 0$. Markov chain favors better minimization solutions of f . As $\tau \rightarrow 0$, π_τ sharply peaked around global minimum; as $\tau \rightarrow \infty$, π_τ approximate uniform distribution on Ω .

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Minimization algorithm: sample Markov chain under small τ .

Examples: 3. A minimization problem

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Minimize a function f over a set Ω . Construct a Markov chain using a Metropolis-Hastings type algorithm with π_τ as the invariant distribution:

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Here τ is chosen such that $\tau > 0$. Markov chain favors better minimization solutions of f . As $\tau \rightarrow 0$, π_τ sharply peaked around global minimum; as $\tau \rightarrow \infty$, π_τ approximate uniform distribution on Ω .

Minimization algorithm: sample Markov chain under small τ . However, small τ results in less mobility, the chain more easily get stuck in local minima of f .

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Use Gibbs distribution to illustrate. $\pi(x) \propto e^{-V(x)/\tau}$. When τ is small, the main contribution of

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When V has various deep local minima that are separated by steep "barriers", the underlying probability distribution π has multiple isolated parts that communicate poorly with each other, in which case the scheme can be extremely slow to converge (the rare event problem).

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An example of such is the Lennard-Jones cluster of 38 atoms. This potential has $\approx 10^{14}$ local minima.

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An example of such is the Lennard-Jones cluster of 38 atoms. This potential has $\approx 10^{14}$ local minima. The lowest 150 and their “connectivity” graph are as in the figure (taken from Doyle, Miller & Wales, JCP, 1999).

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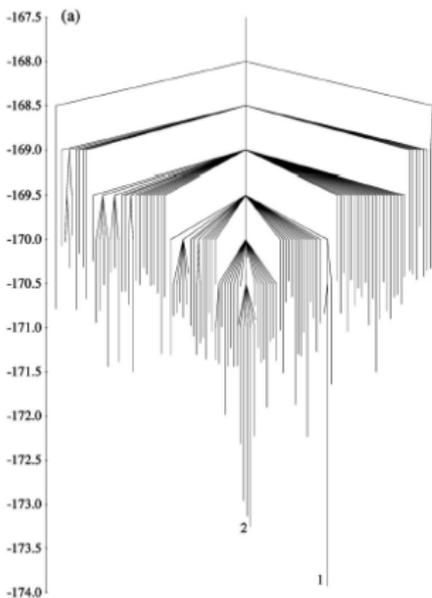
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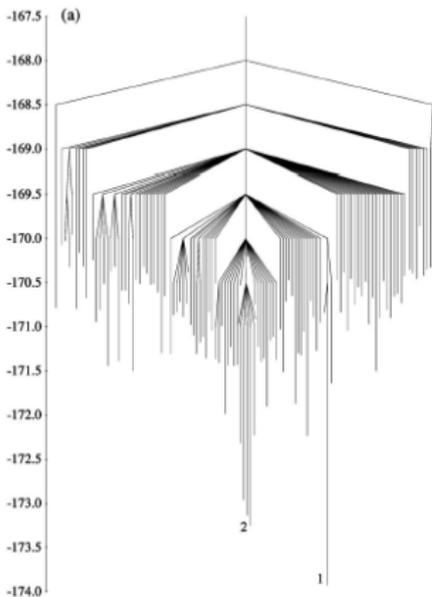
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Global minimum only discovered 10+ years ago.

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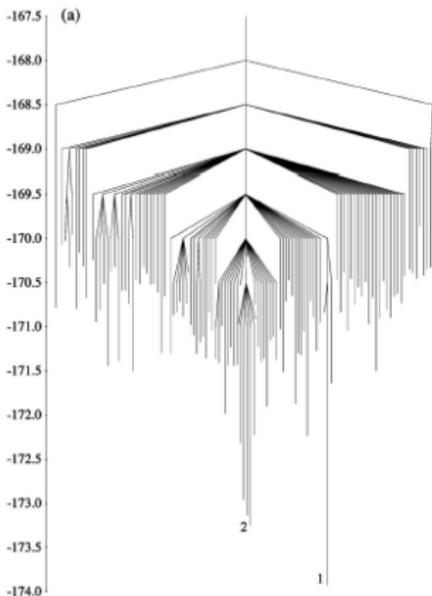
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Global minimum only discovered 10+ years ago. Focus on overcoming rare-event sampling issues.

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Standard measures of performance

How should one describe the rate of convergence

$$\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T f(X(t)) dt \rightarrow \int_{\mathbb{R}^d} f(x) \pi(dx)?$$

None of the standard descriptions work directly with convergence of the empirical measure.

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2nd eigenvalue. Consider the transition kernel

$$p(dx, T, x_0) = \mathbb{P} \{X(T) \in dx | X(0) = x_0\}.$$

Standard measures of performance

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2nd eigenvalue. Consider the transition kernel

$$p(dx, T, x_0) = \mathbb{P} \{X(T) \in dx | X(0) = x_0\}.$$

Under mild conditions the exponential rate of convergence

$$p(dx, T, x_0) \rightarrow \pi(dx)$$

is determined by the sub-dominant eigenvalue of the operator corresponding to X . Used to characterize “efficiency” of the corresponding Monte Carlo.

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Problem: Only indirectly related to problem of interest. Information on density, but not on empirical measure which depends on sample path; neglects potentially significant effect of *time averaging* in empirical measure (Rosenthal, Gubernatis).

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Asymptotic variance. Also a popular quantity for comparing efficiency of algorithms, but is a property of the algorithm once one is already at equilibrium. Also does not properly reflect the time averaging.

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Asymptotic variance. Also a popular quantity for comparing efficiency of algorithms, but is a property of the algorithm once one is already at equilibrium. Also does not properly reflect the time averaging.

Large deviation rate. We will use the LD rate I , where a larger rate implies faster convergence.

A representative example

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Compute the average potential energy and other functionals with respect to a Gibbs measure of the form

$$\pi_{\tau}(x) = \frac{1}{Z(\tau)} e^{-V(x)/\tau}$$

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Compute the average potential energy and other functionals with respect to a Gibbs measure of the form

$$\pi_{\tau}(x) = \frac{1}{Z(\tau)} e^{-V(x)/\tau}$$

A corresponding continuous time model is

$$dX = -\nabla V(X)dt + \sqrt{2\tau}dW, \quad X(0) = x_0,$$

where τ is a fixed temperature (properly scaled).

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- Simulations are done using a discrete time model.

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Besides $\tau_1 = \tau$, introduce higher temperature $\tau_2 > \tau_1$.

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Besides $\tau_1 = \tau$, introduce higher temperature $\tau_2 > \tau_1$. Thus

$$\begin{aligned}dX_1^a &= -\nabla V(X_1^a)dt + \sqrt{2\tau_1}dW_1 \\dX_2^a &= -\nabla V(X_2^a)dt + \sqrt{2\tau_2}dW_2,\end{aligned}$$

with W_1 and W_2 independent.

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with W_1 and W_2 independent. Now introduce *swaps* (Swendsen, Geyer), i.e., X_1^a and X_2^a *exchange locations* with state dependent intensity

$$ag(x_1, x_2) \doteq a \left(1 \wedge \frac{\pi_{\tau_1}(x_2) \pi_{\tau_2}(x_1)}{\pi_{\tau_1}(x_1) \pi_{\tau_2}(x_2)} \right),$$

with $a > 0$, as the “swap rate.”

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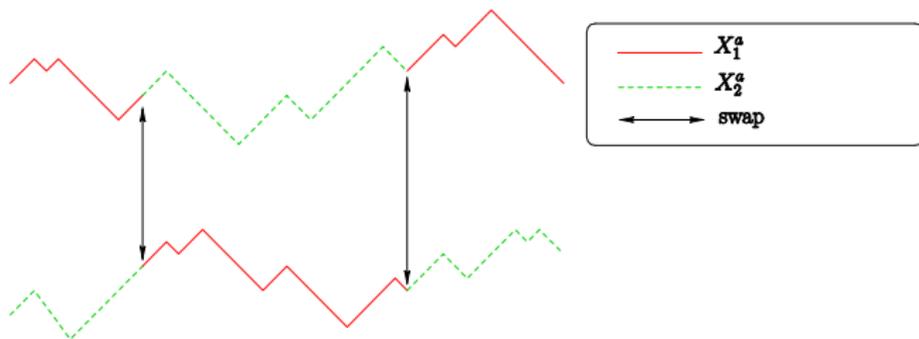
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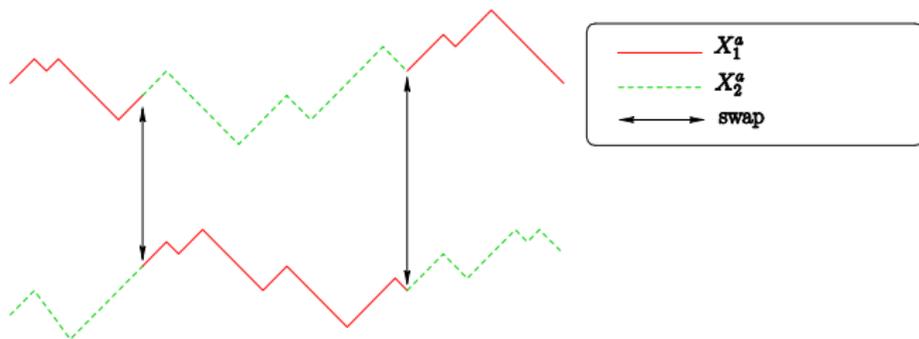
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One can check (detailed balance condition): with this swapping intensity, invariant distribution of the joint process

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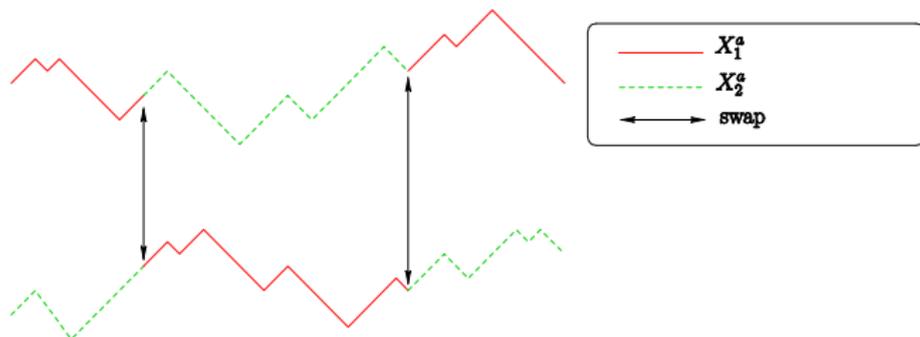
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Use the first marginal of the empirical measure.

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In practice, much more temperatures (30 – 50) are used.

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In practice, much more temperatures (30 – 50) are used. Bring in higher temperatures

- 1 Higher temperature simulations correspond to higher volatility.

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- 1 Higher temperature simulations correspond to higher volatility.
- 2 High-energy barriers are more easily crossed for simulations carried out in higher temperatures.

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- ① Higher temperature simulations correspond to higher volatility.
- ② High-energy barriers are more easily crossed for simulations carried out in higher temperatures.
- ③ Swapping enables information flow from high temperatures to low temperatures.

Donsker-Varadhan rate of decay

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Let S denote the state space, for any $\mu \in \mathcal{P}(S)$, if $N_\delta(\mu)$ is a δ -neighborhood of μ under weak topology

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Let S denote the state space, for any $\mu \in \mathcal{P}(S)$, if $N_\delta(\mu)$ is a δ -neighborhood of μ under weak topology

$$P(\mu_T \in N_\delta(\mu)) \approx e^{-T(I(\mu) + \varepsilon(\delta))}$$

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To achieve maximum rate of convergence, we choose a such that I^a is the largest possible.

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Under mild conditions on V , one can calculate I explicitly (Donser-Varadhan).

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$$\theta(x_1, x_2) = \frac{d\nu}{d\pi}(x_1, x_2).$$

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$$\theta(x_1, x_2) = \frac{d\nu}{d\pi}(x_1, x_2).$$

Then we have *monotonic* form

$$I^a(\nu) = J_0(\nu) + aJ_1(\nu)$$

where J_0 is the rate for “no swap” dynamics; J_1 is nonnegative and

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$$J_1(\nu) = 0 \text{ iff } \theta(x_2, x_1) = \theta(x_1, x_2) \text{ } \nu\text{-a.s.}$$

Limit of rate function

Thus for $I^a(\nu) \uparrow \infty$ as $a \uparrow \infty$ (ν is very unlikely) unless

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If we call measures that place precisely same relative weight on permutations (x_1, x_2) and (x_2, x_1) as π *symmetrized measures*, then

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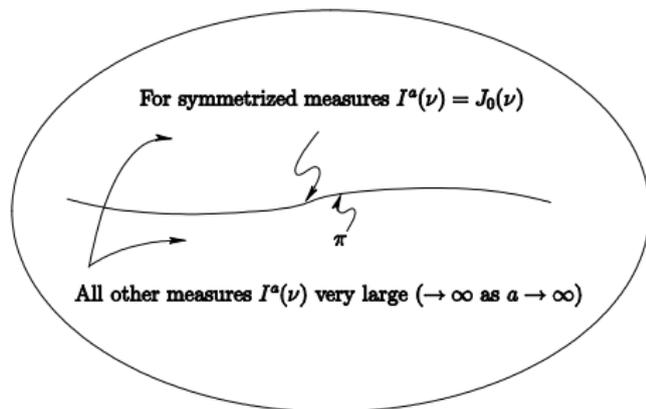
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Limit of rate function (cont'd)

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By contraction principle, for probability measure γ

$$I_1^a(\gamma) = \inf \{I^a(\nu) : \text{first marginal of } \nu \text{ is } \gamma\}.$$

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This suggests one consider the infinite swapping limit $a \uparrow \infty$.

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Unfortunately, limit process is not well defined (no tightness).

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$$I_1^a(\gamma) \uparrow \text{ as } a \uparrow.$$

This suggests one consider the infinite swapping limit $a \uparrow \infty$. Unfortunately, limit process is not well defined (no tightness). **An alternative perspective:** rather than swap particles, swap temperatures, and use “weighted” empirical measure.

"Temperature swapping" process

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Temperature swapping process:

$$dY_1^a = -\nabla V(Y_1^a)dt + \sqrt{2\tau_1 \mathbf{1}(Z^a = 1) + 2\tau_2 \mathbf{1}(Z^a = 2)}dW_1$$

$$dY_2^a = -\nabla V(Y_2^a)dt + \sqrt{2\tau_2 \mathbf{1}(Z^a = 1) + 2\tau_1 \mathbf{1}(Z^a = 2)}dW_2,$$

where $Z^a(t)$ jumps from $1 \rightarrow 2$ with intensity $ag(Y_1^a(t), Y_2^a(t))$
and from $2 \rightarrow 1$ with intensity $ag(Y_2^a(t), Y_1^a(t))$.

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Instead of using ordinary empirical measure

$$\mu_T^a(\cdot) = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \delta_{(X_1^a, X_2^a)}(\cdot) dt,$$

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Instead of using ordinary empirical measure

$$\mu_T^a(\cdot) = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \delta_{(X_1^a, X_2^a)}(\cdot) dt,$$

use weighted empirical measure η_T^a :

$$\frac{1}{T} \int_0^T \left[\mathbf{1}(Z^a = 1) \delta_{(Y_1^a, Y_2^a)}(\cdot) + \mathbf{1}(Z^a = 2) \delta_{(Y_2^a, Y_1^a)}(\cdot) \right] dt.$$

Ergodic theory $\eta_T^a \rightarrow \pi$. (Y_1^a, Y_2^a, η_T^a) admits a well defined weak limit $a \rightarrow \infty$.

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Ergodic theory $\eta_T^a \rightarrow \pi$. (Y_1^a, Y_2^a, η_T^a) admits a well defined weak limit $a \rightarrow \infty$. Define state dependent weight

$$\rho_1(x_1, x_2) \doteq \frac{\pi_{\tau_1}(x_1) \pi_{\tau_2}(x_2)}{\pi_{\tau_1}(x_1) \pi_{\tau_2}(x_2) + \pi_{\tau_1}(x_2) \pi_{\tau_2}(x_1)},$$

$$\rho_2(x_1, x_2) \doteq \frac{\pi_{\tau_1}(x_2) \pi_{\tau_2}(x_1)}{\pi_{\tau_1}(x_1) \pi_{\tau_2}(x_2) + \pi_{\tau_1}(x_1) \pi_{\tau_2}(x_2)}.$$

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The triple has following weak limit

$$dY_1 = -\nabla V(Y_1)dt + \sqrt{2\tau_1\rho_1(Y_1, Y_2) + 2\tau_2\rho_2(Y_1, Y_2)}dW_1$$

$$dY_2 = -\nabla V(Y_2)dt + \sqrt{2\tau_2\rho_1(Y_1, Y_2) + 2\tau_1\rho_2(Y_1, Y_2)}dW_2,$$

$$\eta_T(dx) = \frac{1}{T} \int_0^T [\rho_1(Y_1, Y_2)\delta_{(Y_1, Y_2)} + \rho_2(Y_1, Y_2)\delta_{(Y_2, Y_1)}] dt,$$

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Theorem: for any sequence $a_T \uparrow \infty$, $\{\eta_T^{a_T}\}$ satisfies the uniform large deviations principle (in T) with rate I^∞

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Theorem: for any sequence $a_T \uparrow \infty$, $\{\eta_T^{a_T}\}$ satisfies the uniform large deviations principle (in T) with rate I^∞

$$\lim_{a \rightarrow \infty} I^a(\nu) = I^\infty(\nu) \doteq \begin{cases} J_0(\nu) & \text{if } \theta(x_1, x_2) = \theta(x_2, x_1) \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Implementation issues

- Applications of parallel tempering use many temperatures (e.g., $K = 30$ to 50) when V is complicated to overcome barriers of all different heights.

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- Applications of parallel tempering use many temperatures (e.g., $K = 30$ to 50) when V is complicated to overcome barriers of all different heights.
- Straightforward extension of infinite swapping to K temperatures $\tau_1 < \tau_2 < \dots < \tau_K$. Benefits of symmetrization even greater.

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- But, coefficients become complex, e.g., $K!$ weights, and each involves many calculations.

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- But, coefficients become complex, e.g., $K!$ weights, and each involves many calculations.
- Need for computational feasibility leads to *partial infinite swapping*.

Partial infinite swapping

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Partial infinite swapping. Instead of instantly symmetrizing all permutations, pick subgroups of the set of permutations (that can generate the whole permutation set) and construct corresponding *partial infinite swapping* dynamics within each group. Then alternate among each dynamics (need certain handoff rule, use proper weight).

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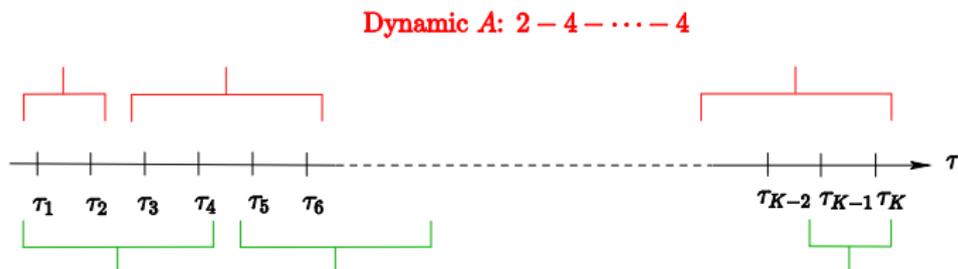
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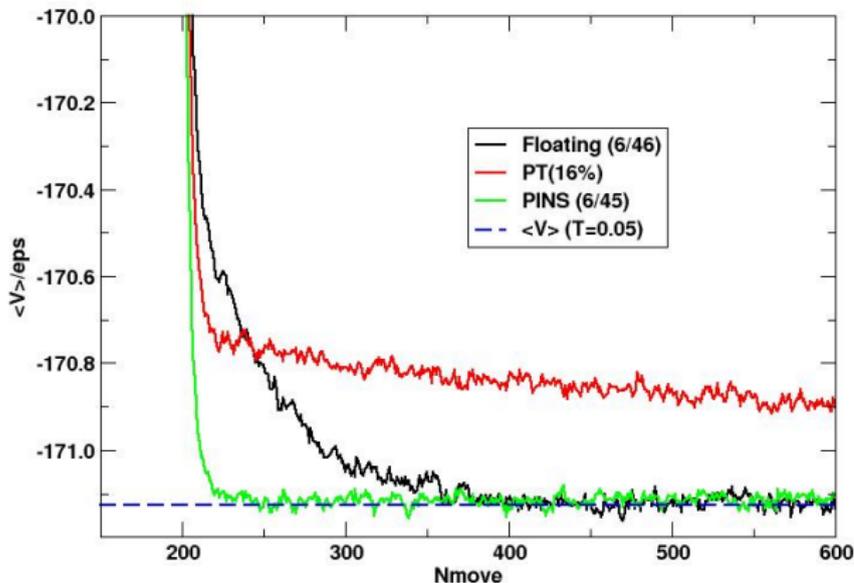
Examples are Dynamics *A* and *B* in figure:



Dynamic B: 4 - ... - 4 - 2

Comparison of PINS and PT

Relaxation study of convergence to equilibrium for LJ-38:
parallel tempering versus partial infinite swapping, only lowest temperature illustrated.



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- Mathematical paper: “On the infinite swapping limit for parallel tempering”, Dupuis, Liu, Plattner and Doll, to be appeared in SIAM J. on MMS
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Many open questions.

- Selection of set of temperatures.

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- Better quantitative understanding of rate of marginals such as $I_1^\infty(\gamma)$

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Many open questions.

- Selection of set of temperatures.
- Selection of “best” subgroups for partial infinite swapping approximations.
- Better quantitative understanding of rate of marginals such as $I_1^\infty(\gamma)$
- Application to other problems such as function minimization.