

Langevin Algorithm and Hybrid Monte Carlo

PHY989 Final Presentation

Giovanni Pederiva

11 December 2018

Michigan State University

Basics of Importance Sampling

The expectation value of a quantity A evaluated with path integrals is:

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \int \mathcal{D}[\phi] A[\phi] e^{-S[\phi]}$$

One can sample this with Monte Carlo integration by considering $e^{-S[\phi]}$ as a Boltzmann weight and use it as a *probability measure*. One then chooses a set of random configurations $\{\phi_i\}$ according to the probability distribution:

$$dP[\phi] = \frac{e^{-S[\phi]} \mathcal{D}[\phi]}{\int \mathcal{D}[\phi] e^{-S[\phi]}}$$

The expectation value is then approximated as:

$$\langle A \rangle \approx \frac{1}{N_{conf}} \sum_{i=1}^{N_{conf}} A[\phi_i]$$

- Markov processes satisfy the *balance equation*:

$$\sum_U T(U'|U)P(U) = \sum_{U'} T(U|U')P(U') \Rightarrow \sum_U T(U'|U)P(U) = P(U')$$

the equilibrium distribution is a fixed point of the Markov process.

- A more stringent requirement is that of *detailed balance*:

$$T(U'|U)P(U) = T(U|U')P(U')$$

Langevin Equation

The Langevin equation can be used to model *Brownian motion*. In its simplest form it reads:

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = -\frac{\partial V(x)}{\partial x} + \eta(t)$$

where $V(x)$ is some potential and $\eta(t)$ are random noise variables distributed according to a Gaussian PDF.

It generates a time-dependent probability distribution for the vector x , from which an observable $O[x]$ can be evaluated as:

$$\langle O[x(t)] \rangle = \int P(x, t) O(x) dx$$

Fokker-Planck Equation

The probability distribution of Langevin equation has an associated Fokker-Planck equation:

$$\frac{\partial P(x, t)}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left[\Omega \frac{\partial P}{\partial x_i} + V(x) P \right]$$

This is a deterministic equation for the time dependent $P(x, t)$. It is possible to relate this to the euclidean transporter in quantum mechanics.

Numerical Approach to Langevin Equation

Using the same trick for the HMC, see $S[\phi]$ as a potential of some fictitious hamiltonian, so that:

$$\frac{d\phi(x)}{dt} = -\frac{\partial S[\phi(x)]}{\partial x} + \eta(t)$$

Numerical algorithm is straightforward:

$$\phi_{t+1}(x) = \phi_t(x) - \epsilon \frac{\partial S[\phi_t(x)]}{\partial x} + \sqrt{2\epsilon} \eta(t)$$

Huge error in discretization. Can be improved with Metropolis Adjusted Langevin Dynamics (MALA), by adding some metropolis tests during the integration.

The HMC is based upon considering the Hamiltonian

$$H[\phi, \pi] = \frac{\pi^2}{2} + S[\phi]$$

and integrating numerically the equations of motion:

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = \pi, \quad \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial S[\phi]}{\partial \phi}$$

Then to correct for integration errors one performs metropolis tests using the weight $e^{-\Delta H}$ to fulfill ergodicity and make the algorithm exact.

Note that it is a reversible algorithm, satisfies detailed balance (we can use $\pi \rightarrow -\pi$ as it only comes squared in the hamiltonian)

Generalized HMC

We can extend the HMC algorithm by considering the stochastic evolution equations:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} &= \pi \\ \frac{\partial \pi}{\partial t} &= -\frac{\partial S[\phi]}{\partial \phi} - 2\mu_0 \pi + \eta(t)\end{aligned}$$

where $\eta(t)$ is again white noise and $\mu_0 > 0$ is a "mass term". This reduces to Stochastic Molecular Dynamics (a variation of HMC) for $\mu_0 \rightarrow 0$. In the second order form:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2} + 2\mu_0 \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\partial S[\phi]}{\partial \phi} + \eta(t)$$

for large μ_0 (after redefining time as $' = 2\mu_0 t$) this form recovers Langevin equation.

A Connection Between Algorithms

Why is this interesting?

- Langevin methods have been proven to be *renormalizable* a long time ago
- HMC has been proven to be *not renormalizable*, but SMD is.
- But the existence of a parameter μ_0 that interpolates between the two could suggest that they are in the *same universality class*, hence have similar behavior when approaching the continuum limit.

Implication of Renormalizability

- For an algorithm to be renormalizable we mean that the autocorrelation function of the Markov Process has a finite scaling exponent when approaching the continuum theory (smaller lattice spacing).
- For example the Metropolis algorithm scales as d^2 (d is the dimensionality of the system, degrees of freedom), while Langevin as $d^{4/3}$.
- For very long trajectories the HMC scales as $d^{5/4}$, better than Langevin, but this is not true in general

Potentially renormalizable algorithms could be more efficient than the HMC near the continuum limit.

Some Real Data for Free-Theory

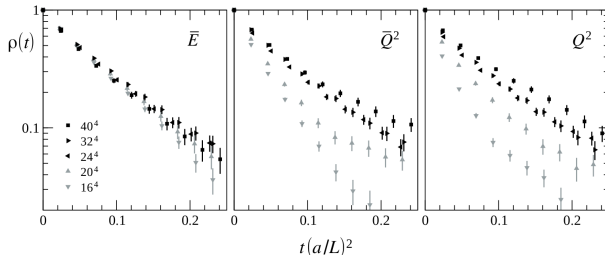


Fig. 2. Normalized autocorrelation functions of the observables $\bar{E}(L/2)$, $\bar{Q}(L/2)^2$ and Q^2 at flow time t_0 , plotted as a function of the simulation time lag t given in units of $(L/a)^2$. The SMD_{0.3} algorithm was used all cases shown here. For better legibility, the data points obtained on the coarsest lattices (16^4 and 20^4) are coloured in grey, while the black points are those from the other lattices (24^4 , 32^4 and 40^4).

Some Real Data for Free-Theory

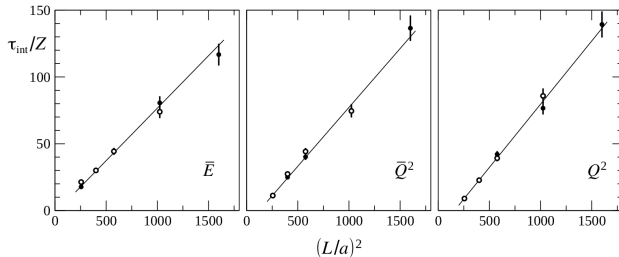


Fig. 3. Integrated autocorrelation times of the observables $\bar{E}(L/2)$, $\bar{Q}(L/2)^2$ and Q^2 at flow time t_0 , as obtained on the $(L/a)^4$ lattices using the HMC algorithm (open circles, scale factor $Z = 1.32$) and the SMD_{0.3} algorithm (full circles, $Z = 1$). Many HMC points lie on top of the SMD_{0.3} points and thus mask the latter. The curves are straight-line fits of the SMD_{0.3} data.

A Small Test

Let's consider the harmonic oscillator in one dimension with action:

$$S[x] = \sum_{i=1}^{N-1} \left[\frac{m}{2a} (x_i - x_{i+1})^2 + \frac{a}{2} (V(x_i) + V(x_{i+1})) \right]$$

and try to sample the ground state energy defined as $E = \langle x^2 \rangle$ using the Metropolis, the HMC and Langevin algorithms.

Metropolis Code

```
def update(x):
    x_new = x + np.random.uniform(-step_size, step_size, len(x))
    dS = action(x_new) - action(x)
    if np.exp(-dS) > np.random.random():
        x = x_new
        return x, 1
    return x, 0

def metropolis_sampling(x, N_conf, N_corr):
    acceptance = 0
    energy = np.zeros(N_conf)
    for i in trange(N_conf):
        for k in range(N_corr):
            x, accepted = update(x)
            acceptance += accepted
        energy[i] = np.average(x*x)
```

HMC Code

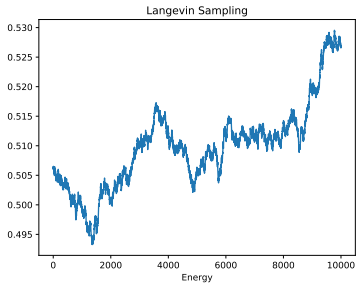
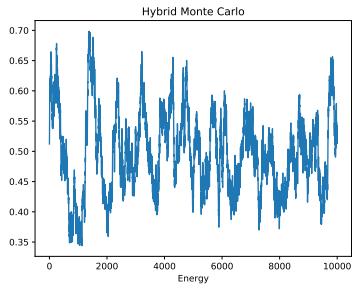
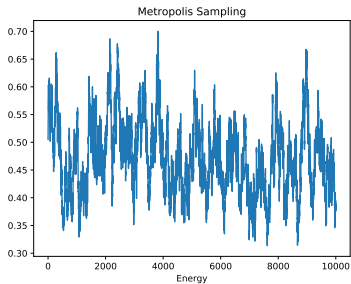
```
def leap_frog(x,p,n_step):
    p = p - step_size*0.5 * action_derivative(x)
    for i in range(1,n_step):
        x = x + step_size*p
        p = p - step_size * action_derivative(x)
    x = x + step_size*p
    p = p - step_size*0.5 * action_derivative(x)
    return x, p

def hmc(x, N_conf, N_corr):
    acceptance = 0
    energy = np.zeros(N_conf)
    for i in range(N_conf):
        for k in range(N_corr):
            p = np.random.normal(0, 1, N)
            x_new, p_new = leap_frog(x, p, n_step_traj)
            dK = np.sum(p_new*p_new)/2 - np.sum(p*p)/2
            dS = action(x_new) - action(x)
            if np.exp(-(dS+dK)) > np.random.random():
                x = x_new
                acceptance+=1
        energy[i] = np.average(x*x)
```

Langevin Code

```
def langevin(x, N_conf, N_corr):  
    acceptance = 0  
    energy = np.zeros(N_conf)  
    for i in range(N_conf):  
        for k in range(N_corr):  
            eta = np.random.normal(0, 1, len(x))  
            x += -action_derivative(x)*step_size + eta*np.sqrt(2*step_size)  
        energy[i] = np.average(x*x)
```


Sample Monte Carlo Histories



Estimation of τ_{int}

The autocorrelation function is defined as:

$$\Gamma(t) = \Gamma(-t) = \langle (x_i - \bar{x})(x_{i+t} - \bar{x}) \rangle \approx \frac{1}{N-t} \sum_{i=1}^{N-t} (x_i - \bar{x})(x_{i+t} - \bar{x}),$$

where t is the “lag” between two points. The integrated autocorrelation time is given by:

$$\tau_{int} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \frac{\Gamma(t)}{\Gamma(0)} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^{\infty} \rho(t).$$

In order to truncate the infinite summation one can look at the deviation squared of $\rho(t)$:

$$\langle \delta \rho(t)^2 \rangle \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} [\rho(k+t) + \rho(k-t) - 2\rho(k)\rho(t)]^2.$$

All these terms, for a sufficiently large value of k should all vanish, hence one can choose a cutoff Λ and truncate the sum up to $t + \Lambda$. The integrated autocorrelation time, if the deviations of $\rho(t)$ become small, plateaus.

Windowing Procedure for τ_{int}

We choose a cutoff W such that:

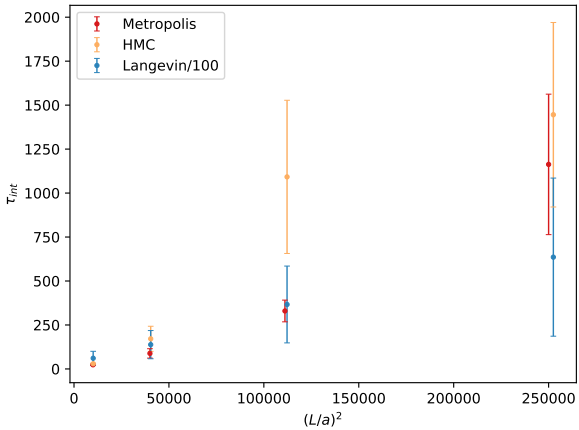
$$\tau_{int} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{t=1}^W \rho(t),$$

where W is the first lag t for which $\rho(t) < \sqrt{\langle \delta \rho(t)^2 \rangle}$, when the contribution to the integration of τ_{int} from that lag become smaller than the deviation of that same lag.






An approximate error estimate of the integrated autocorrelation time can be defined as:

$$\sigma^2(\tau_{int}) \approx \frac{2(2W+1)}{N} \tau_{int}^2$$

Results



Conclusions

-  M. Lüscher , S. Schaefer, *Non-renormalizability of the HMC algorithm*, (2011), Journal of High Energy Physics
-  M. Lüscher , S. Schaefer, *Lattice QCD without topology barriers*, (2011), Journal of High Energy Physics
-  J. Zinn-Justin, *Quantum Field Theory and Critical Phenomena*, (1996),
-  C.Gattringer, C.B. Lang, *Quantum Chromodynamics on the Lattice* (2010), Springer
-  R. M. Neal, *MCMC using Hamiltonian dynamics*, Chapter 5 of the "Handbook of Markov Chain Monte Carlo"