

Project Report

Self-Organized Criticality in Sandpile Models



Xinyi Chen Artemi Egorov

> Zurich April 2012

Abstract

This paper describes the principles of self-organized criticallity and their validity in cellular automation models, in particular the sandpile model. The model, its diversity, its implementation in MATLAB/Octave with different parameters and its analysis are presented in detail. RESULTS ASDF?!?

Acknowledgements

The project group would like to thank the Chair of Sociology, in particular of Modeling and Simulation, for the chance to work on an interesting project and the possibility to apply simulation skills on extraordinary topics. Special thanks go to the assistants, namely Karsten Donnay and Stefano Balietti, for their all-time support during the project. Furthermore, the group would like to thank Pegah Kassraian Fard, who unfortunately had to quit the project, for her support in the early state of the project. Additional thanks go to the other groups of the class and of previous semesters.

Contents

Contents

\mathbf{A}	bstract	i
A	cknowledgements	iii
1	Introduction and Motivations	1
	1.1 Cellular Automation	1
	1.2 Self-Organized Criticality	1
	1.3 CA and SOC	2
2	The Sandpile Model	3
	2.1 Bak-Tang-Wiesenfeld Model	3
	2.2 Parameters	4
	2.3 Abelian Model	5
3	Model Implementation in MATLAB/Octave	7
	3.1 Basic Sandpile Code	7
	3.2 Simple Avalanche Code	8
	3.3 Optimization of Avalanche Code	8
	3.4 Statistics	10
4	Simulation Results and Discussion	12
	4.1 Fractals	12
5	Summary and Outlook	13
\mathbf{R}_{0}	eferences	14
\mathbf{A}	MATLAB/Octave-Code	17
	A.1 critical field	17
	A.2 sandpile	17
	A.3 avalanche distribution analysis	21
	A.4 test sandpile	

Introduction and Motivations

. . .

1.1 Cellular Automation

A cellular automation (CA) primarily consists of

- a finite regular d-dimensional field/lattice,
- a set of variables attached to each cell/site and
- a set of rules that specify the time evolution of the states.

A secondary property of a CA is the fact that the evolution rules are local, i.e. the updating of a certain cell only requires information about the cell itself and its finite, bounded and well defined neighbourhood.

Further analysis of the above definitions show that a CA is deterministic, i.e. a given initial configuration will always evolve the same way. *Probabilistic* cellular automata imply an external probability to drive the updating rule and therefore allow to introduce a sort of continuity, even though the automation is of discrete nature.

1.2 Self-Organized Criticality

The term self-organized criticality (SOC) basically consists of two properties:

- self-organization means that a non-equilibrium system is able to develop structures on its own, without external control or manipulation.
- criticality implies that a local disturbance not only influences the local neighbourhood, but the whole system. In other words, all the members

2 1.3. CA and SOC

of a system influence each other. This term originally comes from thermodynamics and describes a state at the phase transition, where a substance (e.g. water) resides between different phases. This concept is presented in [8].

1.3 CA and SOC

Generally it is difficult to determine whether a certain self-organized system exhibits self-organized criticality. One clue for a SOC-system is the existence of power-law distributions in both spacial and temporal fluctuations. Avalanche sizes (spacial) and lifetimes (temporal), as described later in section 3.4, can both show power-law behaviour of the form $f^{-a} \approx f^{-1}$.

Unfortunately, this type of correlation doesn't necesserily imply that the system is critical, i.e. non-critical systems can also show f^{-1} -behaviour. The key idea is that the power-law behaviour is one of the consequences of the scale-invariance of the system. The other consequence is the presence of spacial fractals, which is harder to identify in a dynamical system than the presence of power-law distributions.

The Sandpile Model

2.1 Bak-Tang-Wiesenfeld Model

The classical sandpile model represents a cellular automation describing a dynamical system following certain rules that can be described as follows.

The field/lattice, which is chosen to be two-dimensional, represents a sandpile. Each site on the lattice has a certain value z that intuitively represents the height or slope of the sandpile at certain position described with the coordinates x and y. At each time step, a number of grains of sand is placed on top of a random site, which increases its value by a given value, e.g. one. If the value of the site exceeds a critical value z_c (e.g. three), the site collapses/topples and its grains are evenly distributed to its neighbours.

In certain cases some of the adjascent sites will exceed the critical value too and the toppling process will continue until an equilibrium state is again reached. This series of collapsing sites is clasically described as an avalanche. The next grain is not placed until the equilibrium state is reached, meaning that the time scale of the random grain placement and of the development of avalanches are decoupled.

The classical model description can mathematically be represented as follows.

Initially, the lattice is empty:

$$z(x,y) = 0 \quad \forall x, y$$

Then, the value of a random site x, y is increased:

$$z(x,y) \rightarrow z(x_r,y_r) + 1$$

If its value exceeds the critical value $z_c = 3$, then it topples and distributes its grains to its neighbours:

$$z(x,y) \stackrel{?}{>} 3 \Rightarrow z(x,y) \rightarrow z(x,y) - 4$$
$$z(x \pm 1, y) \rightarrow z(x \pm 1, y) + 1$$
$$z(x, y \pm 1) \rightarrow z(x, y \pm 1) + 1$$

4 2.2. Parameters

Here, we use the so-called *Von-Neumann-Neighbourhood*, which consists of the four nearest neighbours. A possible alternative would be e.g. the *Moore-Neighbourhood*, which consists of all eight nearest neighbours on a square lattice. One could also think of weighting the four corner neighbours to be "further away" from the middle cell than the four direct (Von-Neumann) neighbours. These possibilities are not discussed in this paper.

Clearly, many variations of the described model can be considered and can produce different results. The classical sandpile model, as originally described by Per Bak, Chao Tang and Kurt Wiesenfeld, represents the starting point of any further investigations considered in this paper.

2.2 Parameters

The behavior of the model is analysed dependent on different parameters such as:

- lattice size
- number of dimensions of lattice
- mass conservation, i.e. if the number of grains removed from a collapsed site is equal to the sum of grains its neighbour sites received
- boundary conditions, see below
- etc.

Different types of boundary conditions can be thought of:

- open: If a site near the border topples, some of its grains leave the system (mass is lost).
- closed: Near-border site does not fully collapse, but keeps the grains that would fall off in an open case.
- periodic: The system has no boundaries, i.e. toppling near the border is "wrapped over".
- mixed: E.g. the lattice is periodic in one dimension and has open boundaries in another dimension.

Figure 2.1 illustrates the first three basic types of boundary conditions.

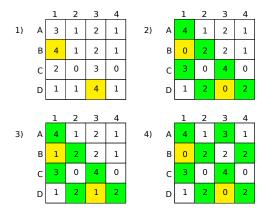


Figure 2.1: Effect of different types of boundary conditions on a sample lattice (1): open (2), closed (3) and periodic (4)

2.3 Abelian Model

One important property which can be used to categorize different sandpile models is whether they behave in a commutative or *abelian* way. In particular, this can be applied to the development of avalanches in the model described above: The question posed here is, whether an equilibrium state resulting from an avalanche depends on the way the avalanche is calculated. More precisely, it can be shown that any avalanche, being a sequence of topplings, always results in the same equilibrium state i.e. does not depend on the order, in which the topplings occur. The mathematical proof of this hypothesis is nicely presented in [9].

To illustrate this practical but not necessarily obvious fact, a sample 4x4-field with one active site is considered (see figure 2.2). At step (2), two different sites simultaneously become active, therefore creating a "choice", which site to topple first. Depending on such choices, different sequences of topplings occur, but all lead to the same equilibrium state.

2.3. Abelian Model

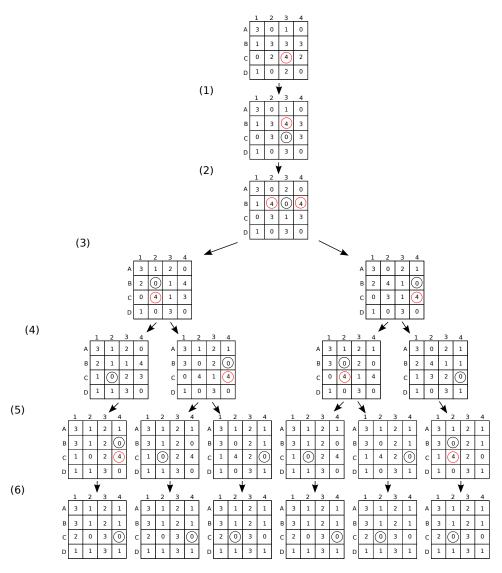


Figure 2.2: Demonstration of the abelian property: six different orders of topplings all lead to the same equilibrium state. The sites circled red indicate sites that have just become active, those circled black have just collapsed. Here, continuous boundary conditions have been used.

Model Implementation in MATLAB/Octave

Note on Code and Programming Sustainability

In order to produce "sustainable" code and to share the spirit of independency coming from the open-source community, the coded routines were tested in MATLAB and in Octave (one of its open-source clones). The source code can be found in Appendix A.

3.1 Basic Sandpile Code

First, a lattice/field is generated using uniformly distributed random numbers from 0 to z_c (critical_state). This is done in order to start with a potentially critical field and not to place single grains of sand until a site gets critical.

```
f = floor(unifrnd(0,critical_state+1,height,width));
```

Another interesting starting point is a *uniform* critical field, where every site is either 0 or z_c .

```
f = floor(unifrnd(0,2,height,width))*critical_state;
```

When the field is ready, a global loop runs through a defined number of timesteps, placing a grain on a random site, checking if the site becomes active and if so, computing the resulting avalanche.

```
% ...
end
end
```

3.2 Simple Avalanche Code

...ASDF...

3.3 Optimization of Avalanche Code

The simple avalanche code checks the whole field including the fields, that cannot possibly be affected by the avalanche. It can therefore be optimized, for example using a LIFO data structure – a *stack*. The coordinates of very site that needs to be checked are placed on the stack, so that the computation of the avalanche consists of working through the stack and toppling all the active sites in it. During their toppling, their neighbours are again put on the stack, which makes the procedure dynamical and not easily comprehensive. The algorithm is illustrated in figure 3.1.

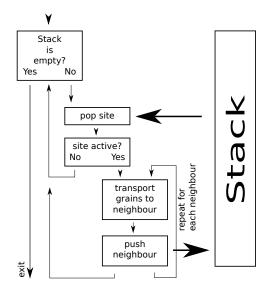


Figure 3.1: using a stack for avalanche calculation

Considering the example from figure 2.2, the stack algorithm results in the following sequence:

- 0. push C3
- 1. pop C3, topple, push its neighbours (C2,C4,B3 and D3) to stack
- 2. pop B3, topple, push B2, B4, A3 and C3 to stack

```
    3. pop B2, ...
    4. pop C2, ...
    5. pop B4, ...
    6. pop C4, ...
```

Figure 3.2 shows the states of the stack after each of these steps. To avoid confusion, only the active sites are shown here.

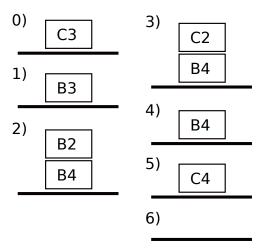


Figure 3.2: A sample sequence of stack states. The algorithm proceeds until the stack is empty.

The main loop including the stack feature looks like this:

```
for t=1:timesteps
    choose random site
  % place grain
% ...
  % push site to stack
stack_n = 1;
stack_x(1) = x;
  stack_y(1) = y;
  % avalanche — work through stack
  while (stack_n > 0)
     % pop from stack
x = stack_x(stack_n);
     y = stack_y(stack_n);
stack_n = stack_n - 1;
     % check if overcritical/active
     if (f(y,x) > critical_state)
% collapse/topple
        f(y,x) = f(y,x) - neighbours * collapse;
        % look at every neighbour
        for n=1:neighbours
            add/transport grain to neighbour
           f (y+neighbour_offset_y(n), x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) = ...
f (y+neighbour_offset_y(n), x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) + collapse;
```

10 3.4. Statistics

```
% push neighbour to stack
    stack_n = stack_n + 1;
    stack_x(stack_n) = x + neighbour_offset_x(n);
    stack_y(stack_n) = y + neighbour_offset_y(n);
    end
    end
end
end
```

3.4 Statistics

Many different variables may be of interest for the statistical analysis of sandpile models. The easiest to implement is avalanche size:

% check if overcritical/active
if (f(y,x) > critical_state)
% collapse/topple
f(y,x) = f(y,x) - neighbours * collapse;
% record statistics
avalanche_sizes(t) = avalanche_sizes(t) + 1;

Here, the number of avalanches is recorded at every time step by increasing the counter after each toppling that happens during the avalanche. After the main loop, the data is sorted and the distribution is fitted into a power-law distribution given by

$$P(s) = a \cdot s^b$$

where P is the number of avalanches of size s. The coefficients a and b are determined using a simple solver that minimizes $a \cdot s^b - P(s)$.

```
% count avalanche sizes - calculate distribution
for s=1:max(avalanche.sizes)
    avalanche.count(s) = size(avalanche.sizes(avalanche.sizes==s),2);
end
% filter zero values
s = [1:max(avalanche.sizes)];
P = avalanche.count(1:end);
s = s(P>0);
P = P(P>0);
% fit into power—law
[c,fval,info,output]=fsolve(@(c)((c(1).*s.^c(2))-P),[100,1]);
a = c(1);
b = c(2);
```

In order to implement statistics of avalanche lifetime in the stack code, the number of additional (i.e. more than one) topplings per timestep must be counted. The reason for this is that the stack algorithm does not follow a timescale and therefore the number of timesteps taken by an avalanche cannot be counted directly. Therefore, the following equation is used:

$$s = \sum_{t} n = \underbrace{\sum_{t} (n-1)}_{s} + \sum_{t} \qquad \Rightarrow \sum_{t} = s - a$$

where s is the avalanche size, t is the avalanche lifetime, n is the number of topplings per timestep and a is the total number of additional topplings. The neighbour-checking part of the stack loop looks like this:

For each toppling, the number of further topplings is counted, summed up and subtracted by one. Then, the avalanche lifetime is calculated according to the formula $\sum_t = s - a$ as follows:

```
% return avalanche lifetimes
at = avalanche_sizes - avalanche_add;
```

Simulation Results and Discussion

4.1 Fractals

As discussed in section 1.3, in order to show that a dynamical system exhibits SOC, some fractal nature must be present. As done analytically for a 1-D-model in [6], we can plot the energy of a system over time according to the definition of normalized energy

$$E(t) = \int_{f} h(x, y, t)^{2} df$$

where hh is the height of a site at position (x, y) of the field f at time t. In MATLAB/Octave, at the end of every main loop iteration the energy is calculated:

```
ee(t) = sum(sum(f.^2));
```

Summary and Outlook

Bibliography 15

Bibliography

- [1] Alessandro Vespignani Alain Barrat and Stefano Zapperi. Fluctuations and correlations in sandpile models. September 1999.
- [2] Kim Christensen. Self-organization in models of sandpiles, earthquakes, and flashing fireflies. August 2002.
- [3] Michael Creutz. Cellular automata and self-organized criticality. November 1996.
- [4] Deepak Dhar. Studying self-organized criticality with exactly solved models.
- [5] Monwhea Jeng. The abelian sandpile model.
- [6] R. O. Dendy G. Rowlands P. Helander, S. C. Chapman and N. W. Watkins. Exactly solvable sandpile with fractal avalanching. October 1998.
- [7] Kurt Wiesenfeld Per Bak, Chao Tang. Self-organized criticality. August 1987.
- [8] Kurt Wiesenfeld Per Bak, Chao Tang. Self-organized criticality: An explanation of 1/f noise. July 1987.
- [9] Frank Redig Ronald Meester and Dmitri Znamenski. The abelian sandpile; a mathematical introduction. April 2001.
- [10] Alessandro Vespignani and Alessandro Vespignani. How self-organized criticality works: A unified mean-field picture. June 1998.

Appendix A

MATLAB/Octave-Code

A.1 critical field

A.2 sandpile

18 A.2. sandpile

```
1 - infinite/continuous, like pac-man
2 - energy loss at boundaries, table-like
3 - mixed. continuous in x-direction and
energy loss in y-direction
ictures draw and export all frames or not
>0 means save a pic for each t,
>1 means avalanches too
   make pictures
  >1 means avalanches too
silent produces no output (except time progress) if true
driving-plane-reduction percentage of field close to the boundary
not to be affected by driving (putting grains)
= 0 => use whole field (default)
= 0.2 => put grains at least 0.2*width
and 0.2*height far away from boundary
> 0.5 => invalid [!]
var_grain true/false - use random grain size [0...1]
% var_grain
% OUTPUTS
                  avalanche sizes (topplings count) for each timestep size at avalanche—starting—site for eacg t avalanche lifetime for each t final field array of energy states for each timestep
% as
% nc
% at
   final
% energy
% translate parameters
  width = size(f,2);
height = size(f,1);
neighbours = size(neighbour,2); %;
neighbour_offset_x = neighbour(1,:);
neighbour_offset_y = neighbour(2,:);
collapse = collapse_per_neighbour;
boundary = boundary_type;
                                                                 % number of neighbours to collapse to
   picture_counter = 0;
*******************
   % define stack for avalanches
   stack_x = 0;
stack_y = 0;
stack_n = 0;
   % avalanche statistics
   avalanche.sizes = zeros(1, timesteps);
av_begin_t = zeros(1, timesteps);
avalanche_add = zeros(1, timesteps); % = av_size - av_ltime
   ee = zeros(1,timesteps);
% show starting field
if (silent==false)
  disp('starting from this field:');
  disp(f);
   for t=1:timesteps
  % display time progress
  disp(['time: ' num2str(t) ' / ' num2str(timesteps)]);
          choose random site
          f (same_place)
x=floor(width/2);
y=floor(height/2);
           y=floor(unifrnd(1,height*(1-2*driving_plane_reduction)) + ...
           height*driving_plane_reduction); x=floor(unifrnd(1,width*(1-2*driving_plane_reduction)) + ... width*driving_plane_reduction); % uniform distribution rnd
       % place grain f(y,x) = f(y,x) + 1;
       % communicate
if (silent==false)
   disp(['new grain on x' num2str(x) ',y' num2str(y)]);
       % save picture of field before collapsing (incl. active field)
if (make.pictures>0)
   draw_field(f,2);
```

```
title(['random grain on x' num2str(x) ',y' num2str(y)]);
picture_counter=picture_counter+1;
print(['field' sprintf('%04.0f', picture_counter) '.png'],'-dpng');
% push site to stack
stack_n = 1;
stack_x(1) = x;
stack_y(1) = y;
% save avalanche starting site
av_begin.x = x;
av_begin.y = y;
av_begin.t(t) = 0; % # topplings at avalanche starting site
% avalanche — work through stack while (stack_n > 0)
  % pop from stack
x = stack.x(stack.n);
y = stack.y(stack.n);
stack.n = stack.n - 1;
     display current site
f (silent==false)
disp(['current site: x ' num2str(x) '; y ' num2str(y)]);
   % check if overcritical/active if (f(y,x) > critical.state)
      % communicate collapsing
if (silent==false)
  disp('collapse!');
      end
      % save avalanche size for statistics
      % collapse/topple f(y,x) = f(y,x) - neighbours * collapse;
      \$ count future topplings to be caused by this toppling future.topplings = 0;
       % look at every neighbour
      for n=1:neighbours
          % communicate
if (silent==false)
             disp(['neighbour ' num2str(n)]);
         %%%%% check boundary %%%%%%
             \$ 1) no-boundary conditions (continuous field, pack-man style) if (boundary == 1)
                % modify neighbour offsets
if (y+neighbour_offset_y(n) < 1)
    neighbour_offset_y(n) = neighbour_offset_y(n) + height;</pre>
                   (y+neighbour_offset_y(n) > height)
neighbour_offset_y(n) = neighbour_offset_y(n) - height;
                   nd
f (x+neighbour_offset_x(n) < 1)
neighbour_offset_x(n) = neighbour_offset_x(n) + width;
                end
if (x+neighbour_offset_x(n) > width)
  neighbour_offset_x(n) = neighbour_offset_x(n) - width;
                % add/transport grain to neighbour
f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) = ...
f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) + collapse;
                % push neighbour to stack
stack.n = stack.n + 1;
stack.x(stack.n) = x + neighbour_offset.x(n);
stack.y(stack.n) = y + neighbour_offset.y(n);
                 % count future topplings to be caused by this toppling
```

20 A.2. sandpile

```
(f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) == (critical_state+1))
future_topplings = future_topplings + 1;
    if
% 2) energy loss at boundary (table style) elseif (boundary == 2)
      keep offsets, but check if outside of boundary f ((y+neighbour_offset_y(n) < 1) || ...
          (y+neighbour.offset_x(n) > height) || ...
(x+neighbour.offset_x(n) < 1) || ...
(x+neighbour.offset_x(n) > width))
    % outside of boundary...do nothing =) else
        % add/transport grain to neighbour
f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) = ...
f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) + collapse;
        % push neighbour's neighbours to stack
stack.n = stack.n + 1;
stack.x(stack.n) = x + neighbour_offset.x(n);
stack.y(stack.n) = y + neighbour_offset.y(n);
           count future topplings to be caused by this toppling
f (f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) == (critical_state+1))
future_topplings = future_topplings + 1;
        end
    end
% 3) mixed (1 for x and 2 for y) elseif (boundary == 3)
    % for x-direction \rightarrow continuous boundary if (neighbour_offset_y(n) == 0)
          modify neighbour offsets
f (y+neighbour_offset_y(n) < 1)
neighbour_offset_y(n) = neighbour_offset_y(n) + height;</pre>
            (y+neighbour_offset_y(n) > height)
neighbour_offset_y(n) = neighbour_offset_y(n) - height;
            (x+neighbour_offset_x(n) < 1)

neighbour_offset_x(n) = neighbour_offset_x(n) + width;
             (x+neighbour_offset_x(n) > width)
        neighbour\_offset\_x(n) = neighbour\_offset\_x(n) - width;end
        % add/transport grain to neighbour
f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) = ...
f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) + collapse;
       % push neighbour to stack
stack.n = stack.n + 1;
stack.x(stack.n) = x + neighbour_offset_x(n);
stack.y(stack.n) = y + neighbour_offset_y(n);
            count future topplings to be caused by this toppling (f(y+neighbour\_offset\_y(n),x+neighbour\_offset\_x(n)) == (critical\_state+1))
            future_topplings = future_topplings + 1;
    \mbox{\%} for y-direction -\!\!> open boundary
        % keep offsets, but check if outside of boundary
if ((y+neighbour_offset_y(n) < 1) || ...
    (y+neighbour_offset_y(n) > height) || ...
    (x+neighbour_offset_x(n) < 1) || ...
    (x+neighbour_offset_x(n) > width))
% outside of boundary do nothing -)
               outside of boundary...do nothing =)
        else
            % add/transport grain to neighbour
f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) = ...
f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) + collapse;
            % push neighbour's neighbours to stack
stack.n = stack.n + 1;
stack.x(stack.n) = x + neighbour_offset_x(n);
stack.y(stack.n) = y + neighbour_offset_y(n);
                            future topplings to be caused by this toppling
                (f(y+neighbour_offset_y(n),x+neighbour_offset_x(n)) == (critical_state+1))
future_topplings = future_topplings + 1;
```

```
end
                   end
end
                % calculate additional topplings caused
if (future_topplings > 0)
  avalanche_add(t) = avalanche_add(t) + future_topplings - 1;
                % communicate additional topplings to come
if (silent==false)
  disp(['this collapse generates ' ...
    num2str(future_topplings - 1) ...
    ' additional toppling(s)']);
            % save picture of avalanche timestep
if (make_pictures>1)
  draw_field(f,2);
  title(['avalanche...']);
                picture_counter=picture_counter+1;
print(['field' sprintf('%04.0f', picture_counter) '.png'],'-dpng');
             end
      end
         end
        display field after collapsing
f (silent==false)
disp(f);
disp('');
nd
      % calculate energy
for fx=1:width
  for fy=1:height
   ee(t)=ee(t)+f(fy,fx)^2;
         end
      end
      ee(t) = sum(sum(f.^2));
   % return avalanche sizes
as = avalanche_sizes;
   % return number of topplings at avalanche starting site
   nc = av_begin_t;
   % return final state final = f;
   % return avalanche lifetimes
at = avalanche_sizes - avalanche_add;
   % return energy
energy = ee;
end
```

A.3 avalanche distribution analysis

```
% INPUTS
% avalanche_sizes array of avalanche size for each timestep
% avalanche_lifetimes same for av. lifetime
% OUTPUTS
% a,b coefficients of power law P(s) = a*s^b
% a2,b2 coefficients of power law P(t) = a2*t^b2
     % count avalanche sizes/lifetimes
avalanche_count = zeros(1,max(avalanche_sizes)); % init
for s=1:max(avalanche_sizes)
avalanche_count(s) = size(avalanche_sizes(avalanche_sizes==s),2);
     avalanche_count2 = zeros(1, max(avalanche_lifetimes)); % init
for t=1:max(avalanche_lifetimes)
   avalanche_count2(t) = size(avalanche_lifetimes(avalanche_lifetimes==t),2);
     % non-zero filter
     % non-zero fifter
xx = [1:max(avalanche_sizes)];
yy = avalanche_count(1:end);
xx = xx(yy>0);
yy = yy(yy>0);
     xx2 = [1:max(avalanche_lifetimes)];
yy2 = avalanche_count2(1:end);
xx2 = xx2(yy2>0);
yy2 = yy2(yy2>0);
     % plot avalanche count vs size
figure;
subplot(2,2,1);
plot(xx,yy,'marker','s');
     % fit the curve into power law distribution (f = c1*x^c2) [c,fval,info,output]=fsolve(@(c)((c(1).*xx.^c(2))-yy),[100,1]);
     plot(xx,c(1).*xx.^c(2),'r');
xlabel('avalanche size s');
ylabel('avalanche count P(s)');
title(['avalanche distribution and power-law-fit P(s)=' ...
num2str(c(1)) '*s^ ' num2str(c(2))]);
     % same on a log-log-scale plot
subplot(2,2,2);
loglog(xx,yy,'marker','s');
hold on;
     noid on;
loglog(xx,c(1).*xx.^c(2),'r');
xlabel('avalanche size s');
ylabel('avalanche count P(s)');
title(['avalanche distribution and power-law-fit P(s)=' ...
    num2str(c(1)) '*s^ ' num2str(c(2))]);
     % return coefficients
     a = c(1);

b = c(2);
     % plot avalanche count vs lifetime
subplot(2,2,3);
plot(xx2,yy2,'marker','s');
    % fit the curve into power law distribution (f = c1*x^c2)
[c,fval,info,output]=fsolve(@(c)((c(1).*xx2.^c(2))-yy2),[100,1]);
hold on;
plot(xx2,c(1).*xx2.^c(2),'r');
xlabel('avalanche lifetime t');
ylabel('avalanche count P(t)');
title(['avalanche distribution and power-law-fit P(t)=' ...
    num2str(c(1)) '*t^' ' num2str(c(2))]);
         same on a log-log-scale plot
    % same on a log-log-scale plot
subplot(2,2,4);
loglog(xx2,yy2,'marker','s');
hold on;
loglog(xx2,c(1).*xx2.^c(2),'r');
xlabel('avalanche lifetime t');
ylabel('avalanche count P(s)');
title(['avalanche distribution and power-law-fit P(t)=' ...
    num2str(c(1)) '*t^ ' num2str(c(2))]);
     % return coefficients
a2 = c(1);
b2 = c(2);
```

A.4 test sandpile