

This is the accepted manuscript made available via CHORUS. The article has been published as:

## Generic, Hierarchical Framework for Massively Parallel Wang-Landau Sampling

Thomas Vogel, Ying Wai Li, Thomas Wüst, and David P. Landau

Phys. Rev. Lett. **110**, 210603 — Published 22 May 2013

DOI: [10.1103/PhysRevLett.110.210603](https://doi.org/10.1103/PhysRevLett.110.210603)

# A generic, hierarchical framework for massively parallel Wang–Landau sampling

Thomas Vogel,<sup>1,\*</sup> Ying Wai Li,<sup>1,2</sup> Thomas Wüst,<sup>3</sup> and David P. Landau<sup>1</sup>

<sup>1</sup>*Center for Simulational Physics, The University of Georgia, Athens, GA 30602, USA*

<sup>2</sup>*National Center for Computational Sciences, Oak Ridge National Laboratory, Oak Ridge, TN 37831, USA*

<sup>3</sup>*Swiss Federal Research Institute WSL, Zürcherstrasse 111, CH-8903 Birmensdorf, Switzerland*

We introduce a parallel Wang–Landau method based on the replica-exchange framework for Monte Carlo simulations. To demonstrate its advantages and general applicability for simulations of complex systems, we apply it to **different spin models including spin glasses, the Ising model and the Potts model, lattice protein adsorption, and the self-assembly process in amphiphilic solutions.** Without loss of accuracy, the method gives significant speed-up and potentially scales up to petaflop machines.

In Wang–Landau (WL) sampling, the *a priori* unknown density of states  $g(E)$  of a system is iteratively determined by performing a random walk in energy space ( $E$ ) seeking to sample configurations with probability  $1/g(E)$  (“flat histogram”) [1–3]. This procedure has proven very powerful in studying problems with complex free energy landscapes by overcoming the prohibitively long time scales typically encountered near phase transitions or at low temperatures. It also allows us to calculate thermodynamic quantities, including the free energy, at any temperature from a single simulation. Moreover, Wang–Landau sampling is a generic Monte Carlo procedure with only a minimal set of adjustable parameters and, thus, has been applied successfully to such diverse problems as spin glasses, polymers, protein folding, lattice gauge theory, etc., see [4–7] for examples. Various improvements have been proposed to the method, either by optimizing the “modification factor–flatness criterion” scheme [8–10] or by means of efficient Monte Carlo trial moves [11–13] (to name a few). Ultimately, however, parallelization is the only means to systematically sustain the performance for ever larger problems. Surprisingly, to date, only two directions have been taken in this regard:

Parallelization scheme (i): As already suggested [2, 3], it is possible to subdivide the total energy range into smaller sub-windows each sampled by an independent WL instance (random walker). The total simulation time is obviously limited by the convergence of the slowest walker and can be tuned by unequal distribution of energy space. However, an optimal load balancing is impossible due to the *a priori* unknown irregularities in the complex free energy landscape. Moreover, energy intervals cannot be reduced arbitrarily due to systematic errors introduced from “locked-out” configurational space.

Parallelization scheme (ii): Here, multiple random walkers work simultaneously on the *same* density of states (and histogram). Distributed memory (MPI [14]), shared memory (OpenMP [15]), and GPU [16] variants of this idea have been proposed; shared memory implementations have the advantage of not requiring periodic synchronization among the walkers and even allowing for “data race” when updating  $g(E)$  without noticeable loss

in accuracy [15]. Although this second approach seemingly avoids the problems of scheme (i), a recent, massively parallel implementation [16] has revealed that correlations among the walkers can systematically underestimate the DOS in hardly accessible energy regions. A remedy to the problem has been proposed in terms of a (heuristic) bias to the modification factor; but, overall, such inter-dependencies render this parallelization scheme highly problematic. Moreover, it is important to note that the effective round-trip times of the individual walkers are not improved by this concerted update.

In this Letter, we propose a *generic* parallel Wang–Landau scheme which combines the advantageous dynamics of Wang–Landau sampling with the idea of replica-exchange Monte Carlo [17, 18]. Similar to scheme (i), we start off by splitting up the total energy range into smaller sub-windows but with large overlap between adjacent windows. Each energy sub-window is sampled by multiple, *independent* WL walkers. The key to our approach is that configurational or replica exchanges are allowed among WL instances of overlapping energy windows during the course of the simulation, such that each replica can travel through the entire energy space. The replica exchange move does not bias the overall WL procedure and, thus, guarantees the flexibility to be applied to any valid WL update/convergence rule (e.g. the  $1/t$  algorithm [10]). Furthermore, our hierarchical parallelization approach does not impose any principal limitation to the number of WL instances used [contrary to scheme (i), see above]. Therefore, it is conceivable to design setups which scale up to thousands of CPUs.

The standard WL algorithm [1, 2] estimates the density of states,  $g(E)$ , in an energy range  $[E_{\min}, E_{\max}]$  using a single random walker. During the simulation, trial moves are accepted with a probability  $P = \min[1, g(E_{\text{old}})/g(E_{\text{new}})]$ , where  $E_{\text{old}}$  ( $E_{\text{new}}$ ) is the energy of the original (proposed) configuration. The estimation of  $g(E)$  is continuously adjusted and improved by a modification factor  $f$  (as  $g(E) \rightarrow f \times g(E)$ ) which gets progressively closer to unity as the simulation proceeds, while a histogram  $H(E)$  keeps track of the number of visits to each energy  $E$  during an iteration. When  $H(E)$

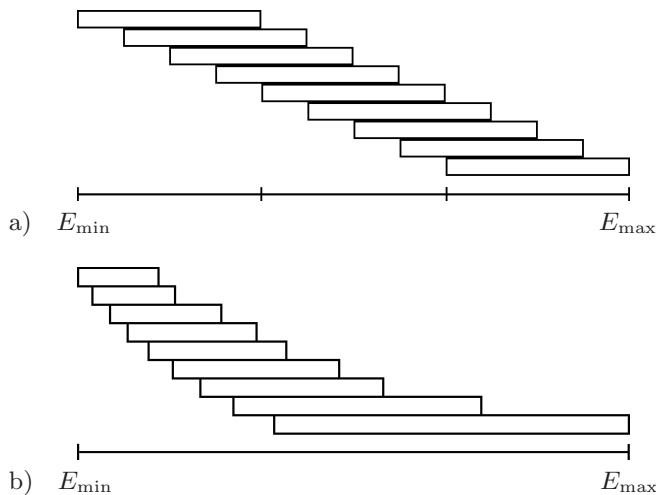


FIG. 1. a) Partition of the global energy range into nine equal-size intervals with overlap  $o = 75\%$ . b) Run-time balanced partition with overlap to the higher energy interval  $o \geq 75\%$ . Multiple WL walkers can be employed in each interval.

is sufficiently “flat”, the next iteration begins with  $H(E)$  reset to zero and  $f$  reduced by some predefined rule (e.g.  $f \rightarrow \sqrt{f}$ ). The simulation terminates when  $f$  reaches a small enough  $f_{\text{final}}$  at which point the accuracy of  $g(E)$  is proportional to  $\sqrt{f_{\text{final}}}$  for flat enough  $H(E)$  [8].

In our parallel WL scheme [19], the global energy range is first split into  $h$  smaller intervals (sub-windows), each of which contains  $m$  random walkers. Consecutive intervals must overlap each other to allow for configurational exchange, see Fig. 1 for examples. The overlap  $o$  should be neither too large nor too small so as to strike a balance between fast convergence of  $g(E)$  and a reasonable exchange acceptance rate. In fact, we find that a large overlap of  $o \approx 75\%$  is advantageous, but that number is flexible to a certain extent and one can also obtain excellent results with other choices [20]. Within an energy sub-window, each random walker performs standard WL sampling. After a certain number of Monte Carlo steps, a replica exchange is proposed between two random walkers,  $i$  and  $j$ , where walker  $i$  chooses swap partner  $j$  from a neighboring window at random. Let  $X$  and  $Y$  be the configurations that the random walkers  $i$  and  $j$  are carrying before the exchange;  $E(X)$  and  $E(Y)$  be their energies, respectively. From the detailed balance condition the acceptance probability  $P_{\text{acc}}$  for the exchange of configurations  $X$  and  $Y$  between walkers  $i$  and  $j$  is:

$$P_{\text{acc}} = \min \left[ 1, \frac{g_i(E(X)) g_j(E(Y))}{g_i(E(Y)) g_j(E(X))} \right], \quad (1)$$

where  $g_i(E(X))$  is the instantaneous estimator for the density of states of walker  $i$  at energy  $E(X)$ , cf. [21].

In contrast to parallelization scheme (ii) above, in our formalism, every walker is furnished with its own  $g(E)$  and  $H(E)$  which are updated independently. Also, every

walker has to fulfill the WL flatness criterion independently at each iteration, ensuring that systematic errors as found in [16] cannot occur. When all random walkers within an energy sub-window have individually attained flat histograms, their estimators for  $g(E)$  are averaged out and redistributed among themselves before simultaneously proceeding to the next iteration. This practice reduces the error during the simulation with  $\sqrt{m}$  [20], i.e. as for uncorrelated WL simulations. Furthermore, increasing  $m$  can improve the convergence of the WL procedure by reducing the risk of statistical outliers in  $g(E)$  resulting in slowing down subsequent iterations. (Alternatively, it allows us, in principle, to use a weaker flatness criterion [20], which is in the spirit of a concurrently proposed idea of merging histograms in multicanonical simulations [22].) The simulation is terminated when all the energy intervals have attained  $f_{\text{final}}$ . At the end of the simulation,  $h \times m$  pieces of  $g(E)$  fragments with overlapping energy intervals are used to calculate a single  $g(E)$  in the complete energy range. During that procedure, the joining point for any two overlapping density of states pieces is chosen where the inverse microcanonical temperatures  $\beta = d \log[g(E)]/dE$  best coincide, and statistical errors are determined by resampling techniques [20, 23].

In order to assess its general applicability, feasibility and performance, we applied this novel parallel WL scheme to multiple models in statistical mechanics. The first two are the well studied Ising model and 10-state Potts model in 2 dimensions, showing second-order and first-order transitions, respectively. We applied the parallel scheme to the 2D Ising model up to system sizes of  $256^2$  using up to the order of 2000 cores. The deviations from exact results were always of the same order as the statistical errors, which are  $< 0.01\%$  in the peak region of the density of states. For the 10-state Potts model, we extrapolated the critical temperature in the thermodynamic limit from results of system sizes up to  $300^2$ . Our estimate of  $T_c^\infty = 0.701234 \pm 0.000006$  is in excellent agreement with the exact value of 0.701232 [24]. While it still takes a few days for a single-walker WL run to converge for a  $100^2$  Potts system, we obtained all results, which will be shown in detail elsewhere [20], within hours. Besides this remarkable accuracy and absolute gain in timing, we will show below that our algorithm has almost perfect weak scaling behavior for these lattice models since their system sizes are scalable in a straightforward way. **For a final test, we applied the method to a  $12 \times 12 \times 12$  spin-glass system and reproduced results published earlier [2, 25] with speed-ups of the same order as reported below. In particular, low energy states are found much faster, while our estimate for  $e_0 = -1.787 \pm 0.005$  agrees perfectly with the earlier data [2].** To demonstrate the potential to obtain new physics results and strong scaling properties, we also apply the method to two very distinct and particularly challenging molecular problems: a coarse-grained continuum model for the self assembly

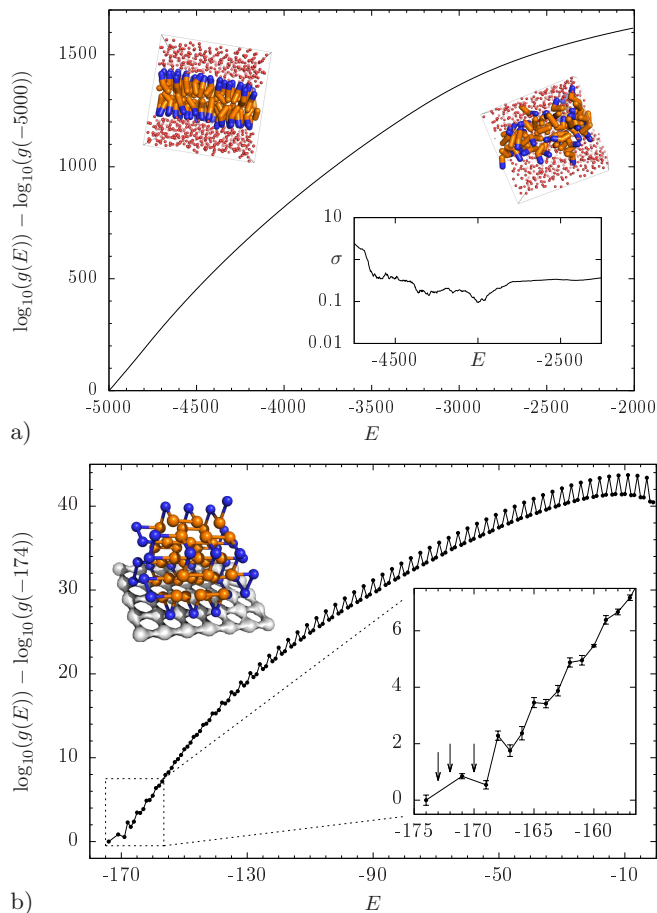


FIG. 2. Logarithm of density of states (DOS) obtained by our parallel WL scheme with the setup shown in Fig. 1 a. (Top) Amphiphilic system containing 75 lipid molecules and a total of 1000 particles. Error bars ( $\sigma$ ), obtained from multiple independent simulations, are smaller than the line thickness and shown in the inset. The pictures show a conformation where lipid molecules assemble and form a single cluster ( $E \approx -2100$ ) and a low-energy bilayer configuration ( $E \approx -4800$ ). (Bottom) DOS of the lattice HP 67mer, where only H-monomers are attracted by the substrate. The H-H interaction is 3 times stronger than the surface attraction leading to the unusual sawtooth like shape. The inset shows the error bars on the enlarged low-energy data. Note the two energy gaps, i.e. no conformations exist with  $E = -173$ ,  $-172$ , and  $-170$  (see arrows). The picture shows an adsorbed HP protein with energy  $E = -174$ .

of amphiphilic molecules (lipids) in explicit solution and a lattice model for the surface adsorption of proteins. In the first model, amphiphilic molecules, each of which composed of a polar (P) head and two hydrophobic (H) tail monomers (P-H-H), are surrounded by solvent particles (W). Interactions between H and W molecules, as well as those between H and P molecules, are purely repulsive. All other interactions between non-bonded particles are of Lennard-Jones type; bonded molecules are connected by a FENE potential, cf. [26, 27] for similar

models. The second model uses the hydrophobic-polar (HP) model [28] for protein surface adsorption. Here a protein is represented by a self-avoiding walk consisting of H and P monomers placed on a cubic lattice with an attractive substrate. Recent studies on this model and details can be found in [29, 30].

Both models bring about qualitatively different technical challenges, such as high energy and/or configurational barriers, and simulations of particular setups are *impossible* for all practical purposes using the traditional, single walker WL method due to unreasonable resource demands. For a demonstration, we choose two such systems. The first consists of 75 lipid molecules and 775 solution particles using the first model with a continuous energy domain. The density of states  $g(E)$  on an energy range covering the lipid bilayer formation spans more than 1600 orders of magnitude (cf. Fig. 2 a), which makes low temperature statistics extremely difficult to obtain. The second system is an HP lattice protein consisting of 67 monomers [31] interacting with a weakly attractive surface and with discrete energy levels, which gives rise to an unusually rugged density of states, see Fig. 2 b. Obtaining convergence for the entire energy range is an arduous task using a single walker.

Our parallel WL framework allows us to successfully simulate both, previously inaccessible, systems. The reasons are two-fold: first, each walker is now responsible for sampling a smaller configurational phase space, which contributes mainly to the faster convergence. Second, the replica exchange process revitalizes walkers from trapped states and avoids an erroneous bias in  $g(E)$  due to potential ergodicity breaking since replicas can access the *entire* conformational space by walking through all energy windows. A typical time-series of a replica performing round trips in the full energy range of the lipid system (cf. Fig. 2 a) is shown in Fig. 3. With these features combined, we obtain the entire  $g(E)$  with a noticeable speed-up and high accuracy, see [20] for more details.

To quantify the efficiency of the parallel WL scheme, we define the speed-up,  $s_o(h, m)$ , as the number of Monte Carlo steps taken by the slowest parallel WL walker ( $N_o^{\text{parallel}}(h, m)$ ), as compared to that taken by  $m$  single walkers ( $N^{\text{single}}$ ):

$$s_o(h, m) = \frac{N^{\text{single}}}{N_o^{\text{parallel}}(h, m)}. \quad (2)$$

For  $h \lesssim 20$  we have achieved strong scaling: the speed-up scales *linearly* with the increase in  $h$  as shown in Fig. 4 a for a fixed number  $m$  and both energy splittings shown in Fig. 1. While the equal-size energy range splitting (Fig. 1 a) is the most basic approach, the run-time balanced energy splitting (Fig. 1 b) is chosen such that walkers in different energy sub-windows complete the first WL iteration after the same number of sweeps (within statistical fluctuations). As the growth behavior of WL

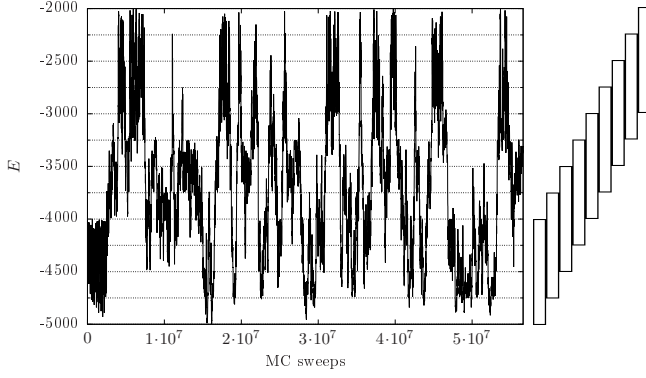


FIG. 3. Path of a single replica through energy space. Replica exchange between walkers is proposed every  $10^4$  sweeps (data also shown with that resolution), with acceptance rates between 30 and 55 %. Grid lines correspond to the borders of the individual energy windows, cf. sketch of parallel setup at right and Fig. 1 a.

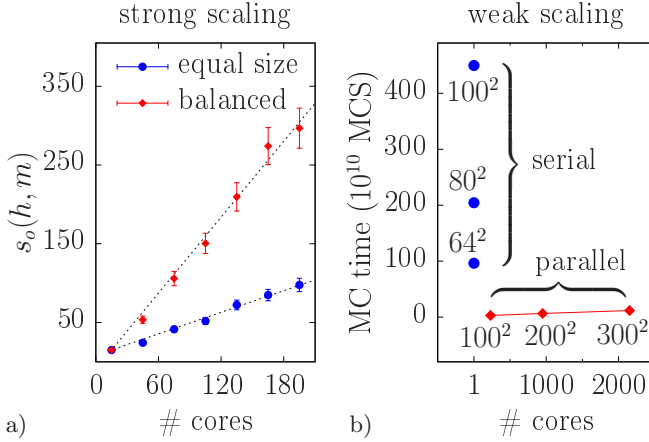


FIG. 4. a) Speed-up  $s_o(h, m)$  for different numbers of cores for equal-size energy windows and overlap  $o = 75\%$  (blue circles, cf. Fig. 1 a) and using a run-time balanced energy splitting (red diamonds, cf. Fig. 1 b). Here, the calculation of the speed-up is based on the MC steps (MCS) needed to complete the first WL iteration. b) MC time to terminate serial WL runs for different system sizes of the 2D Potts model (blue circles) vs. run time for parallel runs if the number of cores increases according to the increase in system size (red diamonds). The run time practically stays constant, proving the weak scaling property of our method.

histograms is in principle known [8], such an energy splitting can be estimated by analyzing the first-iteration histogram from a short pre-run with equal-size energy intervals. Using the lipid system as an example and considering a much smaller global energy range accessible for single-walker simulations, the slope of speed-up in completing the first WL iteration is  $\approx 0.5$  for the equal size energy splitting and  $\approx 1.6$  for the run-time balanced energy splitting, which is particularly remarkable as this indicates that the speed-up is *larger* than the number of

processors used. For the HP protein (cf. Fig. 2 b), single walker WL simulations did not reach convergence of the DOS over the entire energy range within a CPU year, yet all parallel runs finalized within a month already for equal-size energy splitting and with only a single walker per energy interval. We found that  $s_{o=75\%}(h=9) \approx 20$ ; again, we get a speed-up larger than the number of processors even in this basic set-up. To investigate the weak scaling properties, we simulate the 10-state Potts model for different system sizes. We increase the number of computing cores by the same amount as the system size increases and measure the total run time. The results are shown in Fig. 4 b), where these data are compared to the run time increase for serial, single walker WL simulations of the same model. Fig. 4 clearly shows that our method is able to achieve both, strong and weak scaling, i.e., by increasing the number of computing cores one can get results faster for the same system and/or simulate larger systems in the same time.

To conclude, we introduced a generic, hierarchical parallel framework for generalized ensemble WL simulations based on the concepts of energy range splitting, replica exchange Monte Carlo and multiple random walkers. The method is held as simple and general as possible and leads to significant advantages over traditional, single-walker WL sampling. In our complete formulation, we consider multiple WL walkers in independent parallelization directions and show that strong *and* weak scaling can be achieved. (Our formulation far surpasses a version with a single walker per equal-size energy sub-window and an *ad-hoc* overlap, which was used earlier to study evaporation and condensation in a spin lattice model [21]). With the ability to reach into previously inaccessible domains, highly accurate results, and proven scalability up to  $\sim 2000$  cores without introducing an erroneous bias, we provide a proof of concept that our novel parallel WL scheme has the potential for large scale parallel Monte Carlo simulations. Since the framework is complementary to other technical parallelization strategies, it is further extendible in a straightforward way. This facilitates efficient simulations of larger and more complex problems and thus provides a basis for many applications on petaflop machines.

This work is supported by the National Science Foundation under Grants DMR-0810223 and OCI-0904685. Y.W. Li was partly sponsored by the Office of Advanced Scientific Computing Research; U.S. Department of Energy. Part of the work was performed at the Oak Ridge Leadership Computing Facility at ORNL, which is managed by UT-Battelle, LLC under Contract No. De-AC05-00OR22725. Supercomputer time was provided by TACC under XSEDE grant PHY130009.



---

\* thomasvogel@physast.uga.edu

- [1] F. Wang and D. P. Landau, Phys. Rev. Lett. **86**, 2050 (2001).
- [2] F. Wang and D. P. Landau, Phys. Rev. E **64**, 056101 (2001).
- [3] D. P. Landau, S.-H. Tsai, and M. Exler, Am. J. Phys. **72**, 1294 (2004).
- [4] N. Rathore and J. J. de Pablo, J. Chem. Phys. **116**, 7225 (2002).
- [5] S. Alder, S. Trebst, A. K. Hartmann, and M. Troyer, J. Stat. Mech. **2004**, P07008 (2004).
- [6] M. P. Taylor, W. Paul, and K. Binder, J. Chem. Phys. **131**, 114907 (2009).
- [7] K. Langfeld, B. Lucini, and A. Rago, Phys. Rev. Lett. **109**, 111601 (2012).
- [8] C. Zhou and R. N. Bhatt, Phys. Rev. E **72**, 025701(R) (2005).
- [9] C. Zhou, T. C. Schulthess, S. Torbrügge, and D. P. Landau, Phys. Rev. Lett. **96**, 120201 (2006).
- [10] R. Belardinelli and V. Pereyra, Phys. Rev. E **75**, 046701 (2007).
- [11] T. Wüst and D. P. Landau, Phys. Rev. Lett. **102**, 178101 (2009).
- [12] C. Yamaguchi and N. Kawashima, Phys. Rev. E **65**, 056710 (2002).
- [13] Y. Wu, M. Körner, L. Colonna-Romano, S. Trebst, H. Gould, J. Machta, and M. Troyer, Phys. Rev. E **72**, 046704 (2005).
- [14] M. O. Khan, G. Kennedy, and D. Y. C. Chan, J. Comput. Chem. **26**, 72 (2005).
- [15] L. Zhan, Comp. Phys. Comm. **179**, 339 (2008).
- [16] J. Yin and D. P. Landau, Comp. Phys. Comm. **183**, 1568 (2012).
- [17] C. J. Geyer, in Computing Science and Statistics: Proceedings of the 23rd Symposium on the Interface, ed. by E. M. Keramidas (Interface Foundation, Fairfax Station, VA, 1991), p. 156.
- [18] K. Hukushima and K. Nemoto, J. Phys. Soc. Jpn. **65**, 1604 (1996).
- [19] See Supplemental Material at [URL will be inserted by publisher] for pseudo code.
- [20] T. Vogel, Y. W. Li, T. Wüst, and D. P. Landau, in preparation.
- [21] T. Nogawa, N. Ito, and H. Watanabe, Phys. Rev. E **84**, 061107 (2011); note the misprint in the corresponding equation though.
- [22] J. Zierenberg, M. Marenz, and W. Janke, Comp. Phys. Comm. **184**, 1155 (2013).
- [23] *M. E. J. Newman and G. T. Barkema, Monte Carlo methods in statistical physics. Oxford University Press (Oxford, New York, 1999).*
- [24] R. J. Baxter, J. Phys. C: Solid State Phys. **6**, L445 (1973).
- [25] *B. A. Berg, T. Celik, U. Hansmann, Europhys. Lett. **22**, 63 (1993).*
- [26] R. Goetz and R. Lipowsky, J. Chem. Phys. **108**, 7397 (1998).
- [27] S. Fujiwara, T. Itoh, M. Hashimoto, and R. Horiuchi, J. Chem. Phys. **130**, 144901 (2009).
- [28] K. A. Dill, Biochemistry **24**, 1501 (1985).
- [29] Y. W. Li, T. Wüst, and D. P. Landau, Comp. Phys. Comm. **182**, 1896 (2011).
- [30] Y. W. Li, T. Wüst, and D. P. Landau, Phys. Rev. E **87**, 012706 (2013).
- [31] K. Yue and K. A. Dill, Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. USA **92**, 146 (1995).