METROPOLIS ALGORITHM AND EQUIENERGY SAMPLING
FOR TWO MEAN FIELD SPIN SYSTEMS

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Abstract. In this paper we study the Metropolis algorithm in connection with two mean-field spin systems, the so called mean-field Ising model and the Blume-Emery-Griffiths model. In both these examples the naive choice of proposal chain gives rise, for some parameters, to a slowly mixing Metropolis chain, that is a chain whose spectral gap decreases exponentially fast (in the dimension $N$ of the problem). Here we show how a slight variant in the proposal chain can avoid this problem, keeping the mean computational cost similar to the cost of the usual Metropolis. More precisely we prove that, with a suitable variant in the proposal, the Metropolis chain has a spectral gap which decreases polynomially in $1/N$. Using some symmetry structure of the energy, the method rests on allowing appropriate jumps within the energy level of the starting state, and it is strictly connected to both the small world Markov chains of [15, 16] and to the equi-energy sampling of [22] and [26].

1. Introduction.

The Metropolis algorithm, introduced in [29] and later generalized in [18], is currently (together with other Monte Carlo Markov Chain methods) one of the most used simulation techniques both in statistics and in physics. See, among others, [33, 32, 39, 17, 35, 34, 25, 6].

In a finite setting the Metropolis algorithm can be described as follows. Suppose that, given a probability $\pi(x)$ on a finite set $\mathcal{X}$, want to approximate

\[
\mu = \sum_x f(x)\pi(x),
\]

for $f : \mathcal{X} \to \mathbb{R}$. As a first step, take a reversible Markov chain $K(x,y)$ (the proposal chain) on $\mathcal{X}$ and change its output in order to have a new chain with stationary distribution $\pi$. This can be achieved by constructing a new ($\pi$-reversible) chain

\[
M(x,y) = \begin{cases} 
K(x,y)A(x,y) & x \neq y \\
K(x,x) + \sum_{z \neq x} K(x,z)(1 - A(x,z)) & x = y
\end{cases}
\]

where $A(x,y) := \min\left(\frac{\pi(y)K(y,x)}{\pi(x)K(x,y)}, 1\right)$. Then, the metropolis estimate of $\mu$ is given by

\[
\hat{\mu}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} f(Y_i),
\]

where $Y_0$ is generated from some initial distribution $\pi_0$ and $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ from $M(x,y)$.

It is clear that, from a computational point of view, the speed of convergence to the stationary distribution and the (asymptotic) variance of the estimate are two very important features of the Markov chain $M$.

It is well-known that in some situation a Markov chain can converge very slowly to its stationary distribution and, moreover, that the asymptotic variance of the estimate (1.3) can be much bigger than the variance of $f$, i.e. $\text{Var}_{\pi}(f) := \sum_x (f(x) -$

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\[\mu^2 \pi(x),\] which is equal to the asymptotic variance of the crude Monte Carlo estimator. In these cases (1.3) turns out to be a very inefficient estimate of \(\mu\).

For the Metropolis chain a classical situation in which the convergence is slow (and the variance big) is when the target distribution \(\pi\) has many peaks and \(K\) is somehow too “local”.

This is well known in statistical physics, where, typically, a distribution of a system with energy function \(h\) and in thermal equilibrium at temperature \(T\) is described by the Gibbs distribution

\[\pi_{h,T}(x) = \exp\{-h(x)/T\}Z_T^{-1}\]

with \(Z_T = \sum_x \exp\{-h(x)/T\}\). In point of fact, the Metropolis algorithm has been proposed in [29] to compute average with respect to such distributions. Indeed, if \(h\) is nice, the Metropolis algorithm is very efficient, but it can perform very poorly if the energy has many local minima separated by high barriers that cannot be crossed by the proposal moves \(K\). This problem can be bypassed, for specific energy, designing appropriate moves that have higher chance to cut across the energy barrier (see, e.g., [4, 5]), or constructing clever alternative approaches to the problem, for instance using a reparametrization of the problem (see, e.g., [12, 13]) or using auxiliary variables (see, e.g., [40, 9, 1, 30]). A different kind of solution has been proposed in [14] and in [28] by introducing the so called simulated tempering, which essentially means that \(T\) is changed (stochastically or not) to flatten \(h\). A remarkable variant of these methods is the parallel tempering, see, for instance, [19].

More recently new algorithms based on the so called equi–energy levels sampling have been proposed (see [26] and [22]). In particular, the algorithm proposed in [22] relies on the so–called equi-energy jump, which enables the chain to reach regions of the sample space with energy close to the one of the starting state, but may be separated by steep energy barriers. In point of fact, even if, according to some simulations, the method seems to be efficient nothing has been formally proved.

Finally, let us mention a recent algorithm, called small world Markov chains (see [15, 16]), that combine a local chain with long jumps. In these papers, it has been shown that a simple modification of the proposal mechanism results in faster convergence of the chain. That mechanism, which is based on an idea from the field of small-world networks, amounts to adding occasional wild proposals to any local proposal scheme.

In the present paper we study two simple examples: the so called mean field Ising model and the mean field Blume–Emery–Griffiths model. As for the former, it is well-known that the usual choice of \(K\) gives rise, for low temperature, to a slowly mixing Metropolis chain (see, e.g., [26]). Here we show that a slight variant in the proposal chain can completely solve this problem, keeping the mean computational cost similar to the cost of the usual Metropolis. The idea again rests on allowing appropriate jumps in the same energy level of the starting state. As for the Blume–Emery–Griffyths mean-field model, we first show that there is a critical region of the parameters space for which the naive Metropolis chain is slowly mixing. Then we show how one can modify the proposal chain in order to obtain a better mixing for the Metropolis chain. The present paper should be intended as a further step in the direction of a better mathematical understanding of both small world Markov chains and equi-energy sampling.

The rest of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2 some general considerations are given. In Section 3 some basic tools concerning Markov chain, which will be used in the paper, are reviewed. Section 4 contains a warming up example. In Section 5 the mean field Ising model is treated, while Section 6 deals with the more complex case of the mean field Blume-Emery-Griffiths model. All the proofs are deferred to the Appendix.
2. A GENERAL STRATEGY

In an abstract setting, what we shall do in the next examples can be summarized as follows. Let $G$ be a group acting on $X$ for which

\[(2.1) \quad \pi(x) = \pi(g(x)) \quad \forall \ x \in X, \ \forall \ g \in G.\]

For every $x$ in $X$ let $O_x := \{ y = g(x) : g \in G \}$ be the orbit of $x$ (of course if $y$ belongs to $O_x$ then $O_x = O_y$).

Assume now that we have a reversible Markov chain $K_E(x, y)$ (the proposal) on $X$ and suppose that the Metropolis chain $M_E$ with proposal $K_E$ is slowly mixing (see next section for more details). To speed up the mixing one can try to exploit (2.1) by taking a proposal of the following form:

\[(2.2) \quad K_c(x, y) = \epsilon K_E(x, y) + (1 - \epsilon) K_G(x, y)\]

where

\[K_G(x, y) = \sum_{z \in O_x} q_z(z)\hat{z}(y),\]

\[0 < q_z(z) < 1 \text{ and } \sum_{z \in O_x} q_z(z) = 1.\]

In point of fact, usually $K_E$ is “local”; for instance frequently

\[K_E(x, y) = 0\]

whenever $y \neq x$ belongs to $O_x$, hence with $K_G$ we are adding “long” jumps to the chain. Moreover, note that if $K_E$ is such that $K_E(x, g(x)) = K_E(g(x), x)$, for every $x$ in $X$ and $g$ in $G$, then the Metropolis always accepts the move $x \rightarrow g(x)$ and

\[M(x, g(x)) = \epsilon K_E(x, g(x)) + (1 - \epsilon) q_z(g(x)).\]

In particular this holds when $K_E$ is symmetric.

The heuristics under (2.2) is to combining small world Markov chains and equienergy sampling.

Before presenting some examples in which one can actually improve the performances of the Metropolis chain using this idea, we collect in the next section some useful facts concerning Markov chains.

3. PRELIMINARIES

Let $P(x, y)$ be a reversible and ergodic Markov chain on the finite set $X$ with (unique) stationary distribution $\pi(x)$. Thus, $p(x)P(x, y) = p(y)P(y, x)$. Let $L^2(p) = \{ f : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R} \}$ with $< f, g >_p = E_p(fg) = \sum_x f(x)g(x)p(x)$. Reversibility is equivalent to $P : L^2 \rightarrow L^2$ being self-adjoint. Here $Pf(x) = \sum_y f(y)P(x, y)$. The spectral theorem implies that $P$ has real eigenvalues $1 = \lambda_0(P) > \lambda_1(P) \geq \lambda_2(P) \geq \cdots \geq \lambda_{|X|-1}(P) > -1$ with orthonormal basis of eigenfunctions $\psi_i : X \rightarrow \mathbb{R}$ ($P\psi_i(x) = \lambda_i\psi_i(x)$, $< \psi_i, \psi_j >_p = \delta_{ij}$).

3.1. Spectral gap, variance and speed of convergence. A very important quantity related to the eigenvalues is the spectral gap, defined by

\[\text{Gap}(P) = 1 - \max\{\lambda_1, |\lambda_{|X|-1}|\}.\]

It turns out that the spectral gap is a good index to measure the mixing of a chain. To better understand this point, assume that $f$ belongs to $L^2(p)$ and write $f(x) = \sum_{i \geq 0} a_i\psi_i(x)$ (with $a_i = < f, \psi_i >_p$). Now let $Y_0$ be chosen form some distribution $p_0$ and $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n$ be a realization of the $P(x, y)$ chain, then

\[\hat{\mu}_n = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(Y_i)\]
has asymptotic variance given by
\[ A\text{Var}(f, p, P) := \lim_{n \to +\infty} n \cdot \text{Var}(\hat{\mu}_n) = \sum_{k \geq 1} |a_k|^2 \frac{1 + \lambda_k}{1 - \lambda_k}. \]

See, for instance, Theorem 6.5 in Chapter 6 of [3]. From the last expression, the classical inequality
\[ (3.1) \quad A\text{Var}(f, p, P) \leq \frac{2}{1 - \lambda_1} \text{Var}_p(f), \]
follows easily. The last inequality is the usual way of relating spectral gap to asymptotic variance and, hence, to the efficiency of a chain.

The spectral gap is very important also to give bounds on the speed of convergence to the stationary distribution. For example, if \( \| \cdot \|_{TV} \) denotes the total variation norm, one has
\[ \| \delta_x P^k - p \|_{TV}^2 = \left( \sup_{A \subset X} |P^k(x, A) - p(x)| \right)^2 \leq \frac{1 - p(x)}{4p(x)} \left( \max\{\lambda_1, |\lambda_{|\lambda|-1}|\} \right)^2 k, \]
See, e.g., Proposition 3 in [7]. Another classical bound is
\[ \| p_0 P^k / p - 1 \|_{2,p} \leq \text{Gap}(p^k) \| p_0 / p - 1 \|_{2,p}, \]
valid for every probability \( p_0 \). See, for instance, [39].

Roughly speaking one can say that a sequence of Markov chains defined on a sequence of state space \( X_N \) is slowly mixing (in the dimension of the problem \( N \)) if the spectral gap decreases exponentially fast in \( N \).

3.2. Cheeger’s inequality. As already recalled, problems of slowly mixing typically occur when \( \pi \) has two or more peaks and the chain \( K \) can only move in a neighborhood of the starting peak. Usually this phenomenon is called bottleneck. A powerful tool to detect the presence of a bottleneck is the conductance and the related Cheeger’s inequality. Recall that the conductance of a chain \( P \) with stationary distribution \( p \) is defined by
\[ h = h(p, P) := \inf_{A : p(A) \leq \frac{1}{4}} \frac{1}{p(A)} \sum_{x \in A, y \in A^c} p(x)P(x, y), \]
and the well-known Cheeger’s inequality is
\[ (3.2) \quad 1 - 2h \leq \lambda_1(P) \leq 1 - \frac{h^2}{2}. \]
See, for instance, [3, 37, 7]. Note that, since \( P \) is reversible,
\[ (3.3) \quad h \leq \frac{1}{p(A)} \sum_{x \in A} \sum_{y \in A^c} p(x)P(x, y) = \frac{1}{p(A)} \sum_{x \in A} \sum_{y \in A^c} p(y)P(y, x) \]
for every \( A \) such that \( p(A) \leq 1/2. \)

3.3. Chain decomposition theorem. In this subsection we briefly describe a useful technique to obtain bounds on the spectral gap: the so called chain decomposition technique. Following [16] assume that \( A_1, \ldots, A_m \) is a partition of \( X \). Moreover, for each \( i = 1, \ldots, m \), define a new Markov chain on \( A_i \) by setting
\[ P_{A_i}(x, y) := P(x, y) + \mathbb{I}_x(y) \left( \sum_{z \in A_i^c} P(x, z) \right) \quad (x, y \in A_i). \]
\( P_{A_i} \) is a reversible chain on the state space \( A_i \) with respect to the probability measure
\[ p_i(x) := p(x) / p(A_i). \]
The movement of the original chain among the “pieces” \( A_1, \ldots, A_m \) can be described by a Markov chain with state space \( \{1, \ldots, m\} \) and transition probabilities

\[
P_H(i, j) := \frac{1}{2p(A_i)} \sum_{x \in A_i, y \in A_j} P(x, y)p(x)
\]

for \( i \neq j \) and

\[
P_H(i, i) := 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} P_H(i, j),
\]

which is reversible with stationary distribution \( \bar{p}(i) := p(A_i) \).

A variant of a result of Caracciolo, Pelisetto and Sokal (published in [27]), states that

\[
\text{Gap}(P) \geq \frac{1}{2} \text{Gap}(P_H) \left( \min_{i=1, \ldots, m} \text{Gap}(P_{A_i}) \right)
\]

holds true, see Theorem 2.2 in [16]. Other results about chain decompositions can be found, for instance, in [20].

In the next very simple example we shall show how this technique can be used, starting from a slowly mixing chain, to suggest how to modify the proposal chain in order to obtain a fast mixing chain.

4. Warming up example

Set \( \mathcal{X} = \{-N, -N+1, \ldots, 0, 1, \ldots, N\} \) and define a probability measure on \( \mathcal{X} \) by

\[
\pi(x) = \frac{(\theta - 1)\theta^{|x|}}{2\theta^N + 1 + 1 - \theta},
\]

\( \theta \) being a given parameter bigger than 1. Here we can consider \( G = \{+1, -1\} \) (with group operation given by the usual product) acting on \( \mathcal{X} \) by \( g(x) = gx \), hence \( O_x = \{x, -x\} \).

Now let \( K_E \) be a chain defined by

\[
K_E(x, x + 1) = 1/2 \quad x \neq N
\]
\[
K_E(x, x - 1) = 1/2 \quad x \neq -N
\]
\[
K_E(N, N) = K_E(-N, -N) = 1/2
\]
\[
K_E(x, y) = 0 \quad \text{otherwise}
\]

and denote by \( M_E \) the Metropolis chain with stationary distribution \( \pi \) derived by \( K_E \). It is clear that in this case \( K_E(x, y) = 0 \) whenever \( y \) belongs to \( O_x \).

In this example it is very easy to bound the conductance on \( M_E \), indeed, taking \( A = \{-N, \ldots, -1\} \), by (3.3), it follows that

\[
h(\pi, M_E) \leq \frac{\pi(0)}{1 - \pi(0)}.
\]

Hence,

\[
h(\pi, M_E) \leq C\theta^{-N},
\]

and then (3.2) yields

\[
1 - \lambda_1 \leq 2C\theta^{-N}.
\]

This means that, if \( f \) is such that \( a_1 \neq 0 \) and \( \theta > 1 \), then the asymptotic variance of \( f \) blows up exponentially fast, indeed

\[
\text{AVar}(f, \pi, M_E) \geq 2Ce^{\log(\theta)N}.
\]
Now, instead of \( K_E \) consider

\[
K_\epsilon(x,y) = (1 - \epsilon)K_E(x,y) + \epsilon \mathbb{1}_{\{-x\}}(y)
\]

and let \( M^{(\epsilon)} \) be the Metropolis chain derived by \( K_\epsilon \). Decompose \( \mathcal{X} \) as follows

\[
\mathcal{X} = A_1 \cup A_2 \cdots \cup A_N
\]

with \( A_1 = \{-1,0,1\} \) and \( A_i = \{x \in \mathcal{X} : |x| = i\} \), for \( i > 1 \). Moreover let

\[
\bar{\pi}(i) = \pi(A_i) = \begin{cases} \frac{(2\theta + 1)/Z}{2\theta/Z} & \text{for } i = 1 \\ \frac{2\theta/Z}{Z} & \text{for } i > 1 \end{cases}
\]

where

\[
Z = \frac{2\theta^{N+1} + 1 - \theta}{(\theta - 1)}
\]

and set

\[
M^{(\epsilon)}_H(i,j) = \frac{1}{2\pi(A_i)} \sum_{l \in A_i, m \in A_j} M^{(\epsilon)}(l,m)\pi(l), \quad M^{(\epsilon)}_H(i,i) = 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} M^{(\epsilon)}_H(i,j).
\]

For \( i \neq 1, N \), one has

\[
M^{(\epsilon)}_H(i,i + 1) = \frac{1}{2\pi(A_i)} [M^{(\epsilon)}(i,i + 1)\pi(i) + M^{(\epsilon)}(-i,-i - 1)\pi(-i)]
\]

and, since \( \pi(i) = \pi(-i) \) and \( \pi(i + 1) \geq \pi(i) \)

\[
M^{(\epsilon)}_H(i,i + 1) = \frac{1 - \epsilon}{4}.
\]

In the same way it is easy to see that

\[
M^{(\epsilon)}_H(i,i - 1) = \frac{1 - \epsilon}{4\theta}, \quad i \neq 1, N
\]

\[
M^{(\epsilon)}_H(i,i) = 1 - \frac{1 - \epsilon}{4}(1 + \theta^{-1}) \quad i \neq 1, N
\]

\[
M^{(\epsilon)}_H(N,N - 1) = \frac{1 - \epsilon}{4(1 + 1/(2\theta))} \quad M^{(\epsilon)}_H(N,N) = 1 - \frac{1 - \epsilon}{4\theta}
\]

\[
M^{(\epsilon)}_H(1,2) = \frac{1 - \epsilon}{4(1 + 1/(2\theta))} \quad M^{(\epsilon)}_H(1,1) = 1 - \frac{1 - \epsilon}{4(1 + 1/(2\theta))}
\]

Moreover, for every \( i \neq 1 \), \( M^{(\epsilon)}_A \) in matrix form is given by

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
1 - \epsilon & \epsilon \\
\epsilon & 1 - \epsilon
\end{pmatrix}
\]

and hence

\[
\text{Gap}(M^{(\epsilon)}_A) = 1 - |1 - 2\epsilon|.
\]

While \( M^{(\epsilon)}_{A_1} \) is given by

\[
\begin{pmatrix}
(2\theta - 1)(1 - \epsilon)/(2\theta) & (1 - \epsilon)/(2\theta) & \epsilon \\
(1 - \epsilon)/2 & \epsilon & (1 - \epsilon)/2 \\
\epsilon & (1 - \epsilon)/(2\theta) & \epsilon
\end{pmatrix}
\]

and hence

\[
\text{Gap}(M^{(\epsilon)}_{A_1}) = k(\theta, \epsilon) > -1.
\]

Moreover, since

\[
\min \left[ \min_{i \neq 1, N} (M^{(\epsilon)}_H(i,i + 1)), M^{(\epsilon)}_H(1,2), M^{(\epsilon)}_H(N,N - 1) \right] \\
\geq \min \left[ (1 - \epsilon)/(4\theta), \frac{1 - \epsilon}{4(1 + 1/(2\theta))} \right] =: m(\epsilon, \theta) > 0
\]
and \( \bar{\pi}(i) \leq 3\bar{\pi}(j) \) for every \( i < j \), Lemma A.1 in the appendix yields that
\[
1 - \lambda_1(M_H^{(\epsilon)}) \geq m(\epsilon, \theta) \frac{3N}{2N^2}.
\]
In the same way, since \( M_H^{(\epsilon)}(i, i+1) + M_H^{(\epsilon)}(i, i-1) \leq (1-\epsilon)M(\theta)/4 \), with \( M(\theta) = \max(1 + \theta^{-1}, \theta/(2\theta + 1)) \leq 2 \), inequality (A.1) in the Appendix yields that
\[
\lambda_{N-1}(M_H^{(\epsilon)}) \geq 1 - \frac{1 - \epsilon}{2} \geq \frac{1 + \epsilon}{2}.
\]
Hence
\[
\text{Gap}(M_H^{(\epsilon)}) \geq \frac{m(\epsilon, \theta)}{3N^2}
\]
and (3.4) yield
\[
\text{Gap}(M^{(\epsilon)}) \geq h(\theta, \epsilon) \frac{N}{N^2}
\]
for a suitable \( h \). This shows that \( M^{(\epsilon)} \) is fast mixing for every \( \epsilon > 0 \) and for every \( \theta > 1 \) while \( M_E \) is slowly mixing for every \( \theta > 1 \).

5. The Mean Field Ising Model

Let \( \mathcal{X} = \{-1, 1\}^N \), \( N \) being an even integer. For every \( \beta > 0 \) let \( \pi = \pi_{\beta, N} \) be a probability on \( \mathcal{X} \) defined by
\[
\pi(x) = \pi_{\beta, N}(x) := \exp \left\{ \beta \frac{S_N^2(x)}{2N} \right\} Z_N^{-1}(\beta) \quad (x \in \mathcal{X})
\]
where
\[
Z_N(\beta) = Z_N := \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}} \exp \left\{ \beta \frac{S_N^2(x)}{2N} \right\}
\]
is the normalization constant (“partition function”) and
\[
S_N(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i \quad x = (x_1, \ldots, x_N).
\]
This is the so called mean field Ising model, or Curie-Weiss model, in which every particle \( i \), with spin \( x_i \), interacts equally with every other particle. It is probably the simplest but also the most studied example of spin system on a complete graph. The usual Metropolis algorithm uses as proposal chain
\[
K_E(x, y) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} \mathbb{1}_{\{x^{(j)}\}}(y)
\]
where \( x^{(j)} \) denotes the vector \((x_1, \ldots, -x_j, \ldots, x_N)\). It has been proved in \[26\] that, whenever \( \beta > 1 \),
\[
1 - \lambda_1 \leq Ce^{-D^2N}
\]
where \( \lambda_1 \) is the first eigenvalues smaller than 1 of the Metropolis chain \( M_E \) derived \( K_E \). This yields that the variance of an estimator obtained from this Metropolis algorithm can blow up exponentially fast in \( N \).

The aim of this section is to show how one can construct a different Metropolis chain avoiding this problem. In the notation of Section \[2\] we consider
\[
\mathcal{G} = S_N \times \{+1, -1\}
\]
\((S_N\) being the symmetric group of order \( N \)) and we define the action of \( \mathcal{G} \) on \( \mathcal{X} = \{-1, 1\}^N \) by
\[
g(x) = (e \cdot x_{\sigma(1)}, \ldots, e \cdot x_{\sigma(N)}) \quad g = (\sigma, e).
\]
In order to introduce a new proposal, it is useful to write \( \mathcal{X} \) as the union of its “energy sets”, that is
\[
\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_0 \cup \mathcal{X}_2 \cup \mathcal{X}_4 \cup \cdots \cup \mathcal{X}_N
\]
where
\[
\mathcal{X}_i := \{ x \in \mathcal{X} : |S_N(x)| = i \} \quad (i = 0, 2, \ldots, N).
\]
Note that energy takes only even values and that \( O_x = \mathcal{X}_{|S_N(x)|} \). Moreover, for \( i \neq 0 \), set
\[
\mathcal{X}_i^+ := \{ x \in \mathcal{X} : S_N(x) = i \} \quad \text{and} \quad \mathcal{X}_i^- := \{ x \in \mathcal{X} : S_N(x) = -i \}.
\]
The new proposal chain will be
\[
K(x,y) = p_1 K_E(x,y) + (1-p_1)K_0(x,y) \quad \text{if } x \in \mathcal{X}_0
\]
\[
K(x,y) = p_1 K_E(x,y) + p_2 \delta_{(-x)}(y) + (1-p_1-p_2)K_i(x,y) \quad \text{if } x \in \mathcal{X}_i, i \neq 0
\]
where \( p_1, p_2 \) belong to \((0,1)\), \( p_1 + p_2 < 1 \), and
\[
K_i(x,y) = \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{X}_i^+} \{ x \} K_i^+(x,y) + \mathbb{1}_{\mathcal{X}_i^-} \{ x \} K_i^-(x,y) \quad (i \neq 0).
\]
We shall assume that \( K_i^\pm \) \((K_0, \text{respectively})\) are irreducible, symmetric and aperiodic chains on \( \mathcal{X}_i^\pm \) \((\mathcal{X}_0, \text{respectively})\).

As a leading example we shall take
\[
K_0(x,y) = \frac{1}{N/2} \quad y \in \mathcal{X}_0
\]
\[
K_i^\pm(x,y) = \frac{1}{(N-i)/2} \quad y \in \mathcal{X}_i^\pm,
\]
that is: a realization of a chain \( K_i^\pm \) \((K_0, \text{respectively})\) is simply a sequence of independent uniform random sampling from \( \mathcal{X}_i^\pm \) \((\mathcal{X}_0, \text{respectively})\).

**Remark 1.** Note that \( \mathcal{X}_i^\pm \) is the \((n,k)\)-Bose-Einstein distribution with \( n = (N+i)/2 \) and \( k = (N-i)/2 + 1 \) and recall that there is a very easy way to directly generate Bose-Einstein configurations. One may place \( n \) balls sequentially into \( k \) boxes, each time choosing a box with probability proportional to its current content plus one. Starting from the empty configuration this results in a Bose-Einstein distribution for every stage.

Now let \( M \) be the Metropolis chain defined by the transition kernel \([1,2]\) with \( K \) as in \([5,1]\), i.e. for every \( x \in \mathcal{X}_i^\pm \) \((i \neq 0)\)
\[
M(x,y) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{p_i}{N} \min \left( \frac{1}{\pi(x)}, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right) & \text{if } y = x^{(j)}, \ j = 1\ldots N \\
p_2 & \text{if } y = -x \\
(1-p_1-p_2)K_i^+(x,y) & \text{if } y \in \mathcal{X}_i^+, y \neq x \\
1 - \sum_{z \neq x} M(x,z) & \text{if } y = x
\end{cases}
\]
while for \( x \) in \( \mathcal{X}_0 \)
\[
M(x,y) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{p_i}{N} \min \left( \frac{1}{\pi(x)}, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right) & \text{if } y = x^{(j)}, \ j = 1\ldots N \\
(1-p_1)K_0(x,y) & \text{if } y \in \mathcal{X}_0, y \neq x \\
1 - \sum_{z \neq x} M(x,z) & \text{if } y = x.
\end{cases}
\]
By construction $M$ is an aperiodic, irreducible and reversible chain with stationary distribution $\pi$. Then, when (5.2) holds true,

$$
M(x, y) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{p_1}{N} \min \left(1, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right) & \text{if } y = x(j), \ j = 1...N \\
p_2 & \text{if } y = -x \\
(1 - p_1 - p_2) \frac{1}{(N-1)/2} & \text{if } y \in \mathcal{X}_i^\pm, y \neq x \\
1 - \sum_{z \neq x} M(x, z) & \text{if } y = x
\end{cases}
$$

for $x$ in $\mathcal{X}_i^\pm (i \neq 0)$, while if $x$ belongs to $\mathcal{X}_0$

$$
M(x, y) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{p_1}{N} \min \left(1, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right) & \text{if } y = x(j), \ j = 1...N \\
(1 - p_1) \frac{1}{(N/2)} & \text{if } y \in \mathcal{X}_0, y \neq x \\
1 - \sum_{z \neq x} M(x, z) & \text{if } y = x.
\end{cases}
$$

In order to bound the spectral gap of $M$ we shall use the decomposition theorem described in Subsection 3.3. To this end, for every $i = 0, 2, \ldots, N$ and every $j \neq i$ set

$$
\bar{P}(i, j) := \frac{1}{2\pi(\mathcal{X}_i)} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_i} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{X}_j} M(x, y)\pi(x)
$$

and

$$
\bar{P}(i, i) := 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} \bar{P}(i, j).
$$

As already noted, $\bar{P}$ is a reversible chain on $\{0, 2, \ldots, N\}$ with stationary distribution

$$
\bar{\pi}(i) := \pi(\mathcal{X}_i).
$$

Moreover define for every $i = 0, 2, \ldots, N$ a chain on $\mathcal{X}_i$ setting

$$
P_{\mathcal{X}_i}(x, y) := M(x, y) + \mathbb{1}_x(y) \left( \sum_{z \in \mathcal{X}_i^+} M(x, z) \right)
$$

where both $x$ and $y$ belong to $\mathcal{X}_i$. In the same way, define chains on $\mathcal{X}_i^+$ and $\mathcal{X}_i^-$ for $i = 2, \ldots, N$ setting

$$
P_{\mathcal{X}_i^+}(x, y) := P_{\mathcal{X}_i}(x, y) \quad (y \neq x, x, y \in \mathcal{X}_i^+)$$

and

$$
P_{\mathcal{X}_i^-}(x, x) := 1 - \sum_{y \in \mathcal{X}_i^-, y \neq x} P_{\mathcal{X}_i}(x, y).
$$

These chains are reversible on $\mathcal{X}_i$ ($\mathcal{X}_i^\pm$, respectively) and have as stationary distributions

$$
\pi_{\mathcal{X}_i} := \frac{\pi(x)}{\pi(\mathcal{X}_i)} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}_i|} \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_{\mathcal{X}_i^\pm} := \frac{\pi_{\mathcal{X}_i}(x)}{\pi_{\mathcal{X}_i}(\mathcal{X}_i^\pm)} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}_i^\pm|},
$$
respectively. Finally, for every \( i = 2, 4, \ldots, N \), define a chain on \( \{+, -\} \) setting

\[
P_i(+, -) := \frac{1}{2\pi X_i}(\lambda_{i}^+) \sum_{x \in X_i^+} \sum_{y \in X_i^-} P_{X_i}(x, y) \pi_{X_i}(x)
\]

\[
P_i(-, +) := \frac{1}{2\pi X_i}(\lambda_{i}^-) \sum_{x \in X_i^-} \sum_{y \in X_i^+} P_{X_i}(x, y) \pi_{X_i}(x).
\]

Now the lower bound (3.4), applied two times yields

\[
\text{Gap}(M) \geq \frac{1}{2} \text{Gap}(\tilde{P}) \min_{i=0, 2, \ldots, N} \{\text{Gap}(P_{X_i})\}
\]

\[
(5.3)
\]

Hence, to get a lower bound on \( \text{Gap}(M) \) it is enough to obtain bounds on the gaps of the chains \( \tilde{P}, P_{X_0}, P_i, P_{X_i^\pm} \).

The most important of these bounds is given by the following

**Proposition 5.1.** \( \tilde{P} \) is a birth and death chain on \( \{0, 2, \ldots, N\} \), more precisely

\[
\tilde{P}(0, 2) = \frac{p_1}{2}
\]

\[
\tilde{P}(i, i + 2) = \frac{p_1}{4} \frac{N - i}{N} \quad i \neq N, 0
\]

\[
\tilde{P}(i, i - 2) = \frac{p_1}{4} \frac{N + i}{N} \exp\{2\beta(1 - i)/N\} \quad i \neq 0.
\]

Moreover

\[
\lambda_1(\tilde{P}) \leq 1 - \frac{p_1}{16} \frac{1}{(N/2 + 1)^3},
\]

and

\[
\lambda_{N/2}(\tilde{P}) \geq 1 - p_1.
\]

The proof of the previous proposition is based on a bound for a birth and death chain, given in the Appendix, which can be of its own interest.

As for the others chains, we have the following

**Lemma 5.2.** For every \( i = 2, 4, \ldots, N \)

\[
\text{Gap}(P_{X_i^\pm}) \geq (1 - p_1 - p_2)\text{Gap}(K_i^\pm)
\]

\[
\text{Gap}(P_i) = p_2,
\]

moreover

\[
\text{Gap}(P_{X_0}) \geq (1 - p_1)\text{Gap}(K_0).
\]

In this way, using (5.3), we can prove the main result of this section.

**Proposition 5.3.** Let \( M \) be the Metropolis chain derived by the chain \( K \) defined as in (5.1) then

\[
\text{Gap}(M) \geq \frac{p_1 p_2}{32} \frac{1}{(N/2 + 1)^3} \min \left\{ \left[\frac{(1 - p_1)}{p_2} \text{Gap}(K_0), \frac{(1 - p_1 - p_2)}{2} \min_{i \neq 0} \{\text{Gap}(K_i^+), \text{Gap}(K_i^-)\}\right] \right\}
\]

If \( K_i^\pm \) and \( K_0 \) are defined as in (5.2) then

\[
\text{Gap}(M) \geq \frac{p_1 p_2}{32} \frac{1}{(N/2 + 1)^3} \min \left\{ \left[\frac{(1 - p_1 - p_2)}{2}, \frac{(1 - p_1)}{p_2}\right] \right\}
\]

for every \( \beta > 0 \) and \( N \geq N_0 \).
Proposition 5.3 shows that the gap is polynomial in $1/N$ independently of $\beta$. Hence, even when $\beta > 1$, the variance of the Metropolis estimate obtained with this proposal cannot grow up faster than a polynomial in $N$.

Note that if in Proposition 5.3 we choose

$$p_1 = 1 - a/(2N), \quad p_2 = a/N$$

we get

$$\text{Gap}(M) \geq \frac{C}{N^5}.$$ 

Hence, even with this choice, the Metropolis algorithm is still fast mixing for every $\beta$. It is worth noticing that the mean computational cost of this Metropolis does not change with respect to the Metropolis which uses the proposal $K_E$. Indeed, in the case of the usual Metropolis, the computational cost needed to go from $X_n$ to $X_{n+1}$ is $O(N)$, since it is essentially due to a sample of one number among $N$ numbers (we need to decide which coordinate to flip). In the case of the "modified" proposal, things are slightly more complex. In this case, at the beginning, we have an extra "toss". If with this first toss we decide to flip a random coordinate the cost is still $O(N)$ but if we need to sample from $K^\pm$ the cost is $O(N^2)$ (in this last case we need to pick a sample from a Bose-Einstein distribution). Hence, although our algorithm is "sometime" more expensive, if we take $p_1$ and $p_2$ as in (5.5), we get that the mean cost of our algorithm is still $O(N)$.

6. The mean–field Blume-Emery-Griffiths model

The Blume-Emery-Griffiths (BEG) model (see [2]) is an important lattice–spin model in statistical mechanics, it has been studied extensively as a model of many diverse systems, including $He^3 - He^4$ mixtures as well solid–liquid–gas systems, microemulsions, semiconductor alloys and electronic conduction models. See, for instance, [2, 38, 23, 24, 31, 36, 21]. We will focus our attention on a simplified mean-field version of the BEG model. For a mathematical treatment of this mean-field model see [10]. In what follows let $X := \{-1, 0, 1\}^N$, $N$ being an even integer, and for every $\beta > 0$ and $K > 0$ let $\pi_{\beta, K, N}$ be the probability defined by

$$\pi(x) = \pi_{\beta, K, N}(x) = \exp \{-\beta R_N(x) + \frac{K}{N} S^2_N(x)\} Z^{-1}_N(\beta, K) \quad (x \in X)$$

where

$$Z_N(\beta, K) = Z_N := \sum_{x \in X} \exp \left\{-\beta R_N(x) + \frac{K}{N} S^2_N(x)\right\}$$

is the normalization constant,

$$S_N(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i \quad \text{and} \quad R_N(x) := \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i^2 \quad x = (x_1, x_2, ..., x_N).$$

A natural Metropolis algorithm can be derived by using the proposal chain

$$K_E(x, y) = \frac{1}{2N} \sum_{j=1}^{N} [\mathbb{I}_{\{x(\pm j)\}}(y) + \mathbb{I}_{\{x(-\pm j)\}}(y)]$$

where $x(\pm j)$ denotes the vector $(x_1, ..., x_j \pm 1, ..., x_N)$, with the convention that $2 = -1$ and $-2 = 1$.

The next proposition shows that there exists a critical region of the parameters space in which the Metropolis chain is slowly mixing. More precisely, using some results of [10] it is quite straightforward to prove the following
Proposition 6.1. Let $M_E$ be the Metropolis chain (with stationary distribution $\pi$) with proposal chain $K_E$ defined in (6.1). Then, there exists a non decreasing function $\Gamma : (0, +\infty) \to (0, +\infty)$ with $\lim_{x \to 0} \Gamma(x) = +\infty$ and $\lim_{x \to +\infty} \Gamma(x) = \gamma_c \simeq 1.082$ such that for every couple of positive parameters $(\beta, K)$ with $K > \Gamma(\beta) \\frac{\text{Gap}(M_E)}{\Gamma(\beta)} \leq C e^{-\Delta N}$ for suitable constants $C = C(\gamma, K) > 0$ and $\Delta = \Delta(\gamma, K) > 0$.

As in the case of the mean–field Ising model, we intend to bypass the slowly mixing problem of this Metropolis chain by choosing a different proposal. To understand which kind of proposal is reasonable, here we choose $M(K)$ with proposal chain $K$.

At this stage, decompose $\mathcal{X}$ as the union of its "energy sets", that is

$$\mathcal{X} = \mathcal{X}_{0,0} \cup \mathcal{X}_{1,1} \cup \mathcal{X}_{0,2} \cup \mathcal{X}_{1,3} \cup ... \cup \mathcal{X}_{0,N} \cup \mathcal{X}_{2,N} \cup ... \mathcal{X}_{N,N}$$

where

$$\mathcal{X}_{s,r} := \{ x \in \mathcal{X} : |S_N| = s \text{ and } R_N(x) = r \}$$

$r = 0, 1, 2, ..., N$ and $s = 1, 3, ..., r$ if $r$ is odd and $s = 0, 2, ..., N$ if $r$ is even. Moreover, for $s = 1, 2, ..., N$, set

$$\mathcal{X}^+_{s,r} := \{ x \in \mathcal{X} : S_N = s \text{ and } R_N(x) = r \}$$

and

$$\mathcal{X}^-_{s,r} := \{ x \in \mathcal{X} : S_N = -s \text{ and } R_N(x) = r \}.$$

Note again that $O_x = \mathcal{X}_{s,r}$ with $s = S_N(x)$ and $r = R_N(x)$. The new proposal chain will be

$$K(x, y) = p_1 K_E(x, y) + (1 - p_1) K_{0,r}(x, y) \quad \text{if } x \in \mathcal{X}_{0,r}, \quad r = 0, 2, ..., N$$

(6.2) $$K(x, y) = p_1 K_E(x, y) + p_2 I_{\{-x\}}(y) + (1 - p_1 - p_2) K_{s,r}(x, y)$$

if $x \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}, s \neq 0$

where $p_1, p_2$ belong to $(0, 1)$, $p_1 + p_2 < 1$, and

$$K_{s,r}(x, y) = I_{\mathcal{X}^+_{s,r}} \{ x \} K^+_{s,r}(x, y) + I_{\mathcal{X}^-_{s,r}} \{ x \} K^-_{s,r}(x, y) \quad (s \neq 0)$$

with

$$K_{0,r}(x, y) = \frac{1}{\binom{N}{r} \binom{r}{r/2}} \quad y \in \mathcal{X}_{0,r}$$

(6.3) $$K_{s,r}^\pm(x, y) = \frac{1}{\binom{N}{r} \binom{r-\delta}{r/2}} \quad y \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}^\pm.$$

Now let $M$ be the Metropolis chain defined by the transition kernel (1.2) with $K$ as in (6.2), i.e. for every $x \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}^\pm$, ($s \neq 0$)

$$M(x, y) = \begin{cases} \frac{p_1}{2N} \min \left( 1, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right) & \text{if } y = x^{(\pm j)}, \quad j = 1...N \\ p_2 & \text{if } y = -x \\ (1 - p_1 - p_2) \frac{1}{\binom{N}{r} \binom{r-\delta}{r/2}} & \text{if } y \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}^\pm, y \neq x \\ 1 - \sum_{z \neq x} M(x, z) & \text{if } y = x, \end{cases}$$
while if $x$ belongs to $\mathcal{X}_{0,r}$

$$M(x, y) = \begin{cases} 
\frac{p_1}{N} \min \left( 1, \frac{\pi(y)}{\pi(x)} \right) & \text{if } y = x^{(\pm j)}, \ \ j = 1...N \\
(1 - p_1) \frac{1}{\bar{r}/r} & \text{if } y \in \mathcal{X}_{0,r}, y \neq x \\
1 - \sum_{z \neq x} M(x, z) & \text{if } y = x.
\end{cases}$$

By construction $M$ is an aperiodic, irreducible and reversible chain with stationary distribution $\pi$.

Moreover, for every $(s, r, \tilde{s}, \tilde{r})$ in $\mathbb{D}_N$ with $(s, r) \neq (\tilde{s}, \tilde{r})$, let

$$\bar{P}((s, r), (\tilde{s}, \tilde{r})) := \frac{1}{2\pi(\mathcal{X}_{s,r})} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{X}_{\tilde{s},\tilde{r}}} M(x, y)\pi(x)$$

and

$$\hat{P}((s, r), (s, r)) := 1 - \sum_{(\tilde{s}, \tilde{r}) \neq (s, r)} \bar{P}((s, r), (\tilde{s}, \tilde{r})).$$

Once again, note that $\bar{P}$ is a reversible chain on $\mathbb{D}_N$ with stationary distribution $\bar{\pi}(s, r) := \pi(\mathcal{X}_{s,r})$.

Moreover, for every $(s, r)$ in $\mathbb{D}_N$, define a chain on $\mathcal{X}_{s,r}$ setting

$$P_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x, y) := M(x, y) + \mathbb{I}_x(y) \left( \sum_{z \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}} M(x, z) \right)$$

where both $x$ and $y$ belong to $\mathcal{X}_{s,r}$. In the same way, define chains on $\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+$ and $\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^-$ for $(s, r)$ in $\mathbb{D}_N$, $s \neq 0$, setting

$$P_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+}(x, y) := P_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x, y) \quad (y \neq x, \ x, y \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+)$$

and

$$P_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^-}(x, x) := 1 - \sum_{y \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+, y \neq x} P_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x, y).$$

These chains are reversible on $\mathcal{X}_{s,r}$ ($\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+$, respectively) and have as stationary distributions

$$\pi_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x) := \frac{\pi(x)}{\pi(\mathcal{X}_{s,r})} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}_{s,r}|} \quad \text{and} \quad \pi_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+}(x) := \frac{\pi_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x)}{\pi_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+)} = \frac{1}{|\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+|},$$

respectively. Finally, for every $(s, r)$ in $\mathbb{D}_N$, $s \neq 0$, define a chain on $\{+, -\}$ setting

$$P_{s,r}(+, -) := \frac{1}{2\pi_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+)} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}^-} P_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x, y)\pi_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x)$$

and

$$P_{s,r}(-, +) := \frac{1}{2\pi_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(\mathcal{X}_{s,r}^-)} \sum_{x \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}} \sum_{y \in \mathcal{X}_{s,r}^+} P_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x, y)\pi_{\mathcal{X}_{s,r}}(x).$$
At this stage, the lower bound \((6.4)\), applied two times, yields

\[
\text{Gap}(M) \geq \frac{1}{2} \text{Gap}(\overline{P}) \min_{(s,r) \in \mathbb{D}_N} \left\{ \text{Gap}(P_{X,s,r}) \right\}
\]

\[
\geq \frac{1}{2} \text{Gap}(\overline{P}) \min_{r=0,2,\ldots,N} \left\{ \text{Gap}(P_{X_0,r}) \right\},
\]

\[
\min_{(s,r) \in \mathbb{D}_N, s \neq 0} \left\{ \frac{1}{2} \text{Gap}(P_{s,r}) \min \{ \text{Gap}(P_{X_{s,r}^+}), \text{Gap}(P_{X_{s,r}^-}) \} \right\}.
\]

To derive from the last bound a more explicit bound we need some preliminary work. The first result we need is exactly the analogous of Lemma 5.2.

**Lemma 6.2.** For every \(r = 1, \ldots, N\)

\[
\text{Gap}(P_{X_0,r}) \geq (1 - p_1) \text{Gap}(K_{0,r}) = (1 - p_1),
\]

moreover, for every \((s,r)\) in \(\mathbb{D}_N\) with \(s \neq 0\),

\[
\text{Gap}(P_{X_{s,r}^\pm}) \geq (1 - p_1 - p_2) \text{Gap}(K_{s,r}^\pm) = (1 - p_1 - p_2).
\]

Finally, for every \((s,r)\) in \(\mathbb{D}_N\),

\[
\text{Gap}(P_{s,r}) = p_2.
\]

Hence, \((6.4)\) can be rewritten as

\[
\text{Gap}(M) \geq \frac{1}{2} \text{Gap}(\overline{P}) \frac{p_2}{2} \min\{(1 - p_1)/2, (1 - p_1 - p_2)/2\}.
\]

It remains to bound \(\text{Gap}(\overline{P})\). Unfortunately the the analogous of Proposition 5.1 is not so simple, hence we shall require an additional hypothesis. In what follows let

\[
q_{\lceil N \rceil}(r) := \begin{cases}
\binom{N}{r} e^{-\beta r} \left[ \binom{r}{\frac{r}{2}} + 2 \sum_{i=0}^{\frac{r}{2} - 1} \binom{r}{i} e^{-\frac{r^2}{2}} \right] \quad & \text{if } r \text{ is even} \\
\binom{N}{r} e^{-\beta r} \left[ 2 \sum_{i=0}^{\frac{r-1}{2}} \binom{r}{i} e^{-\frac{(r-2i)^2}{2}} \right] \quad & \text{if } r \text{ is odd}
\end{cases}
\]

\(r = 0, 1, \ldots, N\) and set

\[
\mathcal{A} = \{ \beta > 0, K > 0 : \exists N_0 \text{ such that } \forall N \geq N_0, \quad q_{\lceil N \rceil} \text{ is unimodal} \}.
\]

**Lemma 6.3.** For every \((\beta, K)\) in \(\mathcal{A}\)

\[
\text{Gap}(\overline{P}) \geq \frac{C p_2^2}{N^6}
\]

for a suitable constant \(C = C(\beta, K)\).

Under the same assumptions of the previous Lemma we can state the main results of this section.

**Proposition 6.4.** For every \((\beta, K)\) in \(\mathcal{A}\)

\[
\text{Gap}(M) \geq \frac{\tilde{C} p_2^2}{N^6}
\]

for a suitable constant \(\tilde{C} = \tilde{C}(\beta, K)\).
We conjecture that $\text{Gap}(\bar{P})$ is polynomial in $N$ for every $(\beta, K)$ such that $\beta \neq \Gamma(K)$ (where $\Gamma$ is the function of Proposition 6.1), but we are not able to prove this conjecture. In point of fact we conjecture that $\mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{(\beta, K) : \Gamma(K) = \beta\} \subset A$. We plotted $q_{\left[N\right]}$ for different $N$, $\beta$ and $K$, and these plots seem, at least, to confirm that $\mathbb{R}^+ \times \mathbb{R}^+ \setminus \{(\beta, K) : |\Gamma(K) - \beta| \leq \epsilon\} \subset A$ for a suitable small $\epsilon$. In Figure 1 we show the graph of $q_{\left[N\right]}$ for few different $N$, $\beta$ and $K$.

**Appendix A. The Spectral Gap of a Birth and Death Chain**

We derive here some bounds on the eigenvalues of a birth and death chain that we shall use later. These bounds are obtained using the so called geometric techniques, see [7]. Let $P_n$ be a birth and death chain on $\Omega_n = \{1, \ldots, n\}$. Assume that $P_n$ is reversible with respect to a probability $p_n$, that is $p_n(i)P_n(i,j) = p_n(j)P_n(j,i)$. Moreover let

$$1 > \lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \ldots \lambda_{n-1} \geq -1$$

the eigenvalues of $P_n$.

We can now prove the following variant of Proposition 6.3 in [6].

**Lemma A.1.** If there exist positive constants $A$, $q$, $B$ and an integer $k$ such that

$$P_n(i,i \pm 1) \geq An^{-q} \quad (i \neq 1, n)$$

$$P_n(1,2) \geq An^{-q}$$

$$P_n(n,n-1) \geq An^{-q}$$

and

$$p_n(i) \leq Bp_n(j) \quad i \leq j \leq k$$

$$p_n(j) \leq Bp_n(i) \quad k \leq i \leq j$$

then

$$\lambda_1 \leq 1 - \frac{A}{Bnq + 2}.$$
Proof. We use the notation and the techniques of [7], see also [3] and [6]. Choose the set of paths
\[ \Gamma = \{ \gamma_{ij} = (i, i+1, \ldots, j); i \leq j; i, j \in \Omega_n \} \]
and for \( e = (i, i+1) \) \((i < n)\) let
\[ \psi(e) = \frac{1}{p_n(i, i+1)} \sum_{\gamma_{l,m} \supset e} |\gamma_{l,m}| \frac{p_n(l)p_n(m)}{p_n(i)} \]
where \(|\gamma|\) is the length of the path \(\gamma\). Setting \( K := \sup_e \psi(e) \) one has
\[ \lambda_1 \leq 1 - \frac{1}{K} \]
(see Proposition 1’ in [7], or Exercise 6.4 page 248 in [3]). So, for our purposes, it suffices to give an upper bound on \(K\). Assume first that \( e = (i, i+1) \) with \(i < k \leq n\), since \(|\gamma_{l,m}| \leq n\), it follows that
\[
\psi(e) \leq \frac{n^q}{A^q} \left( \sum_{r \geq i+1} p_n(r) p_n(s) \right) / p_n(i)
\]
\[
\leq \frac{n^{q+1}}{A} \left( \sum_{r \leq i} p_n(r) / p_n(i) \right) \left( \sum_{s \geq i+1} p_n(s) \right)
\]
\[
\leq \frac{n^{q+1}}{A} \left( \sum_{r \leq i} B \right) \left( \sum_{s=1}^n p_n(s) \right)
\]
\[
\leq \frac{n^{q+2} B}{A}.
\]
All the other cases can be treated in the same way. Hence,
\[ \sup_e \psi(e) \leq \frac{B}{A} n^{q+2} \]
and then
\[ \lambda_1 \leq 1 - \frac{A}{B} \frac{1}{n^{q+2}}. \]
\[ \square \]

As for the smaller eigenvalues, Gershgorin theorem yields that
\[ \lambda_{n-1} \geq -1 + 2 \min_i P(i, i). \]
See, for instance, Corollary 2.1 in the Appendix of [3]. Hence, if there exists a positive constant \(D\) such that
\[ P_n(i, i+1) + P_n(i, i-1) \leq D/2 \]
for every \(i\), then
\[ (A.1) \quad \lambda_{n-1} \geq 1 - D. \]
Appendix B. Proofs

To prove Proposition 5.1 we need first to show that \( \bar{\pi} \) is essentially unimodal.

Lemma B.1. Let 
\[
q_N(i) = \binom{N}{N-1} \exp \left\{ \frac{\beta}{2N} i^2 \right\} \quad i = 0, 2, 4, \ldots, N.
\]
For every \( \beta < 1 \) there exists an integer \( N_0 \) such that for every \( N \geq N_0 \)
\[
q_N(i) \leq q_N(j)
\]
whenever \( j \leq i \). For every \( \beta \geq 1 \) there exists an integer \( N_0 \) such that for every \( N \geq N_0 \)
\[
q_N(i) \leq q_N(j)
\]
whenever \( i \leq j \leq k_N \) and
\[
q_N(i) \geq q_N(j)
\]
whenever \( k_N \leq i \leq j \), \( k_N \) being a suitable integer.

Proof. Let \( \Delta_N(i) \) be the ratio
\[
\Delta_N(i) = \frac{q_N(i+2)}{q_N(i)} \quad i = 0, 2, 4, \ldots, N-2,
\]
so that
\[
\Delta_N(i) = \frac{\binom{N-1}{i+1}}{\binom{N-1}{i}} \exp \left\{ \frac{2\beta}{N} (1+i) \right\}
\]
\[
= \frac{N-i}{N+2+i} \exp \left\{ \frac{2\beta}{N} (1+i) \right\}.
\]
Setting \( \Delta_N(x) = \frac{N-x}{N+2+x} \exp \left\{ \frac{2\beta}{N} (1+x) \right\} \), \( x \in [0, N-2] \), it is enough to prove that \( x \mapsto \Delta_N(x) \) takes the value 1 at most once in \( [0, N-2] \), for sufficiently large \( N \). To prove this last claim first note that
\[
\Delta_N(0) = \frac{N}{N+2} \exp \left\{ \frac{2\beta}{N} \right\} = \frac{1}{1 + \frac{2}{N}} \exp \left\{ \frac{2\beta}{N} \right\}
\]
\[
= \left[ 1 - \frac{2}{N} + 2 \left( \frac{2}{N} \right)^2 + o \left( \frac{1}{N^2} \right) \right] \left[ 1 + \frac{2\beta}{N} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{2\beta}{N} \right)^2 + o \left( \frac{1}{N^2} \right) \right]
\]
\[
= 1 - \frac{2}{N}(1-\beta) + \left( \frac{2}{N} \right)^2 \left( \frac{\beta^2}{2} - \beta + 2 \right) + o \left( \frac{1}{N^2} \right).
\]
Hence, there exists \( N_0 \) in \( \mathbb{N} \) such that for \( N \geq N_0 \):
\[
\beta \geq 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Delta_N(0) > 1
\]
\[
\beta < 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad \Delta_N(0) < 1.
\]
As for the first derivative note that
\[
\Delta'_N(x) = \frac{-2(N+1) + 2\beta(N+2) - \frac{2\beta}{N}(x^2 + 2x)}{(N+x+2)^2} \exp \left\{ \frac{2\beta}{N} (1+x) \right\},
\]
hence \( \Delta'_N(x) = 0 \) if and only if
\[
-2(N+1) + 2\beta(N+2) - \frac{2\beta}{N}(x^2 + 2x) = 0.
\]
Rearranging the last equation as
\[-\frac{2\beta}{N}x^2 - \frac{4\beta}{N} + 2[\beta - 1]N + 2\beta - 1 = 0\]
one sees that the roots are
\[x_{1,2} = 1 \pm \sqrt{1 + \frac{2\beta - 1}{\beta}N + \frac{\beta - 1}{\beta}N^2}.\]
Hence, after setting
\[r := 1 + \sqrt{1 + \frac{2\beta - 1}{\beta}N + \frac{\beta - 1}{\beta}N^2}\]
one has
\[\beta < 1 \Rightarrow \Delta'_N(x) < 0 \quad \forall x \in [0, N - 2]\]
\[\beta > 1 \Rightarrow \Delta'_N(x) > 0 \quad \text{for } x \in [0, r)\]
\[\Delta'_N(x) < 0 \quad \text{for } x \in (r, N - 2]\]
\[\beta = 1 \Rightarrow \Delta'_N(x) < 0 \quad \text{for } x \in [0, \tau)\]
\[\Delta'_N(x) < 0 \quad \text{for } x \in (\tau, N - 2]\]
and this concludes the proof. \(\square\)

Proof of Proposition 5.1. By direct computations it is easy to prove (5.4). Hence
\[\bar{\pi}(0) = 1\]
\[\bar{\pi}(i) = 2 \quad \text{for } i \neq 0.\]
Hence, by Lemma B.1 if \(\beta < 1\)
\[\bar{\pi}(i) \leq 2\bar{\pi}(j)\]
whenever \(j \leq i\) and \(N\) is large enough. While for \(\beta > 1\)
\[\bar{\pi}(i) \leq \bar{\pi}(j)\]
whenever \(i \leq j \leq k_N\) and
\[\bar{\pi}(i) \geq \bar{\pi}(j)\]
whenever \(k_N \leq i \leq j\). The thesis follows now by Lemma A.1 and by (A.1). \(\square\)

In order to prove Lemma 5.2 we recall that by Rayleigh’s theorem
\[(B.1) \quad 1 - \lambda_1(P) = \inf \left\{ \frac{\mathcal{E}_p(f,f)}{\text{Var}_p(f)} : f \text{ nonconstant} \right\}\]
where
\[\mathcal{E}_p(f,f) := \langle (I - P)f, f \rangle_p = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{x,y} (f(x) - f(y))^2 P(x,y)p(x),\]
\( P \) being a reversible chain w.r.t. \( p \), moreover

\[
(B.2) \quad 1 - |\lambda_{N-1}| = \inf \left\{ \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x,y} (f(x) + f(y))^2 P(x,y)p(x)}{\text{Var}_p(f)} : f \text{ nonconstant} \right\}
\]

(see, for instance, Theorem 2.3 in Chapter 6 of [3] and Section 2.1 of [8]). At this stage set

\[
P_i(x,y) := (1 - \epsilon)P(x,y) + \epsilon \delta_z(y).
\]

Hence, (B.3) yields

\[
1 - \lambda_1(P_\epsilon) = \inf_{f \in L^2_\epsilon / f \neq \text{const}} \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x,y} (f(x) - f(y))^2 P_i(x,y)p(x)}{\text{Var}_p(f)}
\]

\[
= \inf_{f \in L^2_\epsilon / f \neq \text{const}} (1 - \epsilon) \frac{\frac{1}{2} \sum_{x,y} (f(x) - f(y))^2 P(x,y)p(x)}{\text{Var}_p(f)}
\]

\[
= (1 - \epsilon)(1 - \lambda_1(P)).
\]

Arguing in the same way and using (B.2) we get

\[
1 - |\lambda_{| \epsilon | - 1}(P_\epsilon)| \geq (1 - \epsilon)(1 - |\lambda_{| \epsilon | - 1}(P)|).
\]

Hence,

\[
(B.3) \quad \text{Gap}(P_\epsilon) \geq (1 - \epsilon)\text{Gap}(P).
\]

**Proof of Lemma** [7.2] Note that

\[
P_{X^\pm_i}(x,y) = (1 - p_1 - p_2)K^\pm_i(x,y) + (p_1 + p_2)\delta_z(y)
\]

and, analogously,

\[
P_{X_0}(x,y) = (1 - p_1)K_0(x,y) + p_1\delta_z(y).
\]

Hence, by (B.3),

\[
\text{Gap}(P_{X^\pm_i}) \geq (1 - p_1 - p_2)\text{Gap}(K^\pm_i)
\]

as well

\[
\text{Gap}(P_{X_0}) \geq (1 - p_1)\text{Gap}(K_0).
\]

Finally note that \( P_i \) is given by

\[
\left( 1 - \frac{p_1}{2} \frac{p_2}{2} \right)
\]

for every \( i \), hence \( \text{Gap}(P_i) = p_2 \). \( \square \)

**Proof of Proposition** [6.1] To prove the first part of the proposition it is enough to combine Lemma [7.2] Proposition [5.1] and [7.3]. To complete the proof observe that

\[
\text{Gap}(K^\pm_i) = \text{Gap}(K_0) = 1, \text{ when } K^\pm_i \text{ and } K_0 \text{ are given by (5.2).} \quad \square
\]

In order to prove Proposition [6.1] we need some results obtained in [10].

**Theorem B.2** (Ellis-Otto-Touchette). Let \( \rho_N \) be the distribution of \( S_N(x)/N \) under \( \pi_{\beta,K,N} \), then \( \rho_N \) satisfies a large deviation principle on \([-1,1]\) with rate function

\[
\tilde{I}_{\beta,K}(z) = J_\beta(z) - \beta K z^2 - \inf_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \{ J_{\beta}(t) - \beta K t^2 \}
\]

with

\[
J_\beta(z) = \sup_{t \in \mathbb{R}} \left\{ tz - \log \left[ \frac{1 + e^{-\beta} (e^t + e^{-t})}{1 + 2e^{-\beta}} \right] \right\}.
\]

Moreover, if \( \tilde{\epsilon}_{\beta,K} := \arg \min \tilde{I}_{\beta,K} \), then there exists a non decreasing function \( \Gamma : (0, +\infty) \to (0, +\infty) \) with \( \lim_{x \to 0} \Gamma(x) = +\infty \) and \( \lim_{x \to \infty} \Gamma(x) = \gamma_c \simeq 1.082 \) such that for every \( (\beta, K) \) with \( K > \Gamma(\beta) \) then

\[
\tilde{\epsilon}_{\beta,K} = \{ z : (\beta, K) \neq 0 \}.
\]


In particular, for such \((\beta, K)\) and for every \(0 < \epsilon < |z(\beta, K)|\) there exists a constant \(C_1 = C_1(\epsilon, \beta, K)\) such that
\[
\rho([0, \epsilon]) \leq C_1 \exp\left\{-\frac{N}{2} \gamma_{\epsilon, \beta, K}\right\}
\]
with
\[
\gamma_{\epsilon, \beta, K} = \inf_{z \in [0, \epsilon]} \tilde{I}_{\beta, K}(z) > 0.
\]

**Proof.** For the first part see Theorems 3.3, 3.6 and 3.8 in \([11]\). As for (B.4)-(B.5), they are standard consequences of the theory of the large deviations and of the first part of the proposition, see, e.g., Proposition 6.4 of \([11]\). \(\square\)

**Proof of Proposition 6.4.** We intend to use the Cheeger’s inequality. To do this, let
\[A := \{x : S_N(x) < 0\}, \quad B := \{x : S_N(x) > 0\}, \quad C := \{S_N(x) = 0\}.\]
First of all note that, by symmetry, \(\pi(A) = \pi(B) = (1 - \pi(C))/2 \leq 1/2\). The main task is to bound
\[
\phi(A) = \sum_{x \in A} \sum_{y \in A^c} \pi(x) M_E(x, y) = \sum_{y \in A^c} \sum_{x \in A} \pi(y) M_E(y, x).
\]
Now, observe that if \(S_N(y) > 1\) then \(M_E(y, x) = 0\) for every \(x \in A\), hence
\[
\phi(A) = \sum_{y : S_N(y) = 0} \pi(y) \sum_{x \in A} M_E(y, x) + \sum_{y : S_N(y) = 1} \pi(y) \sum_{x \in A} M_E(y, x)
\leq \pi \{y : S_N(y) \in \{0, 1\}\}.
\]
This yields a bound on the conductance
\[
h = h(\pi, M_E) \leq \phi(A)/\pi(A) \leq \frac{2\pi \{y : S_N(y) \in \{0, 1\}\}}{1 - \pi \{y : S_N(y) = 0\}}.
\]
Now by Proposition B.2 we get
\[h(\pi, M_E) \leq C_2 e^{-\Delta N}\]
for suitable constants \(C_2\) and \(\Delta > 0\). The thesis follows by Cheeger inequality (B.2). \(\square\)

**Proof of Lemma 6.3.** The proof is exactly the same as the proof of Lemma 5.2. \(\square\)

In order to prove Lemma 6.3 it is convenient to fix some simple properties of the chain \(\tilde{P}\).

**Lemma B.3.** \(\tilde{P}\) is a random walk on \(\mathbb{D}_N\). If \(\tilde{P}((s, r), (\tilde{s}, \tilde{r})) \neq 0\),
\[
\tilde{P}((s, r), (\tilde{s}, \tilde{r})) \geq \frac{p_1 C_3}{N}
\]
for a suitable constant \(C_3 = C_3(\beta, K)\), moreover
\[
\tilde{P}((s, r), (\tilde{s}, \tilde{r})) \leq \frac{p_1}{4}
\]
for every \((s, r), (\tilde{s}, \tilde{r}) \neq ((0, 0), (1, 1))\).

**Proof of Lemma B.3.** Easy but tedious computations show that
\[
\tilde{P}((0, 0), (1, 1)) = \frac{p_1}{2} \min\left\{1, \exp\left(\frac{K\beta}{N} - \beta\right)\right\}
\]
\[
\tilde{P}((0, N), (1, N - 1)) = \frac{p_1}{4}
\]
\[
\tilde{P}((0, N), (2, N)) = \frac{p_1}{4}
\]
The proof of Lemma 6.3. At this stage the statement follows easily.

Let $\mathcal{D}_N = \bar{X}_1 \cup \bar{X}_2 \cup \bar{X}_3 \cup \ldots \cup \bar{X}_N$, where

$$\bar{X}_1 = \{(0,0),(1,1)\} \quad \bar{X}_r = \{(u_1,u_2) \in \mathcal{D}_n : u_2 = r\}.$$

On $[N] := \{1,\ldots,N\}$ define a chain $P_{[N]}$ setting

$$P_{[N]}(i,j) := \frac{1}{2\pi(\bar{X}_i)} \sum_{a \in \bar{X}_i} \sum_{b \in \bar{X}_j} \bar{P}(a,b)\pi(a)$$

and

$$P_{[N]}(i,i) := 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} P_{[N]}(i,j).$$

Again $P_{[N]}$ is a reversible chain on $[N]$ with stationary distribution

$$\bar{\pi}_{[N]}(i) := \pi(\bar{X}_i).$$

Finally for every $r = 1,2,\ldots,N$ we define a chain on $\bar{X}_r$ by setting

$$P_{\bar{X}_r}(a,b) := \bar{P}(a,b) + I_{a,b} \left( \sum_{z \in \bar{X}_r} \bar{P}(a,z) \right)$$

where both $a$ and $b$ belong to $\bar{X}_r$. Now note that for every $r = 2,3,\ldots,N$ $P_{\bar{X}_r}$ is a birth and death chain on the state space $\{(1,r),(3,r),\ldots,(r,r)\}$ for $r$ odd and

$$\bar{P}((0,r),(2,r)) = \frac{p_1}{4N} \quad r = 0,2,4,\ldots,N-2$$

$$\bar{P}((0,r),(1,r-1)) = \frac{p_1}{4N} \quad r = 0,2,4,\ldots,N-2$$

$$\bar{P}((0,r),(1,r+1)) = \frac{p_1}{2N} \min\left( 1, \exp\left( \frac{K\beta}{N} - \beta \right) \right) \quad r = 0,2,4,\ldots,N-2$$

$$\bar{P}((s,r),(s+2,r)) = \frac{p_1}{8N} (r-s)$$

$$(s,r) \in \mathcal{D}_N, 0 < s \leq N-2, r \leq N$$

$$\bar{P}((s,r),(s-2,r)) = \frac{p_1}{8N} (r+s) \exp\left( 4\frac{K\beta}{N}(1-s) \right)$$

$$(s,r) \in \mathcal{D}_N, 0 < s \leq N, r \leq N$$

$$\bar{P}((s,r),(s+1,r+1)) = \frac{p_1}{4N} (N-r) \min\left( 1, \exp\left( \frac{K\beta}{N} (2s+1) - \beta \right) \right)$$

$$(s,r) \in \mathcal{D}_N, 0 < s \leq N-1,$$

$$\bar{P}((s,r),(s-1,r+1)) = \frac{p_1}{4N} (N-r) \exp\left( \frac{K\beta}{N} (-2s+1) - \beta \right)$$

$$(s,r) \in \mathcal{D}_N, 0 < s \leq N-1,$$

$$\bar{P}((s,r),(s+1,r-1)) = \frac{p_1}{8N} (r-s)$$

$$(s,r) \in \mathcal{D}_N, 0 < r \leq N, 0 < s \leq N-2$$

$$\bar{P}((s,r),(s-1,r-1)) = \frac{p_1}{8N} (r+s) \min\left( 1, \exp\left( \frac{K\beta}{N} (2s+1) - \beta \right) \right)$$

$$(s,r) \in \mathcal{D}_N, 0 < r \leq N, 0 < s \leq r.$$

At this stage the statement follows easily. \qed
\{(0, r), (2, r), \ldots, (r, r)\} for \(r\) even. Let

\[ q_r(s) := \left( \frac{r}{r-s} \right) e^{\frac{2K_1 s^2}{r}} \]

and, for \(r\) even,

\[ q_r(0) := 2 \left( \frac{r}{r/2} \right). \]

Now observe that \(P_{\bar{x}_r}\) has stationary distribution

\[ \pi_r(s) \propto q_r(s) \]

with \(s = 0, 2, \ldots, r\) if \(r\) is even and \(s = 1, 3, \ldots, r\) if \(r\) is odd. First of all let \(r \neq 1\), by Lemma B.3 and Lemma B.1 it is easy to check that \((P_{\bar{x}_r}, \pi_r)\) meets the condition of Lemma A.1 with

\[ B = 2, \quad n = [(r + 2)/2], \quad A = C_3p_1[(r + 2)/2]N^{-1} \]

([x] being the integer part of x) and then

\[ 1 - \lambda_1(P_{\bar{x}_r}) \geq \frac{C_3p_1[(r + 2)/2]}{2N[(r + 2)/2]^3} \geq \frac{C_3p_1}{2N^3}. \]

Finally, Lemma B.3 with A.1 yields

\[ \lambda_{|\bar{x}_r| - 1}(P_{\bar{x}_r}) \geq 1 - p_1. \]

Hence, for every \(r \neq 1\), we have proved that

\[ \text{Gap}(P_{\bar{x}_r}) \geq C_3/2p_1N^{-3}. \]

For \(r = 1\)

\[ P_{\bar{x}_1} = \left( 1 - \frac{\alpha_1}{2} \quad \frac{\alpha_1}{2} \right) \left( \frac{\alpha_1}{2} \quad 1 - \frac{\alpha_2}{2} \right) \]

where

\[ \alpha_1 := \frac{p_1}{2N} \min \left( 1, \exp \left( \frac{3K_1}{N} - \beta \right) \right) \]

\[ \alpha_2 := p_1 \min \left( 1, \exp \left( \frac{K_1}{N} - \beta \right) \right) \]

So

\[ \text{Gap}(P_{\bar{x}_1}) \geq 1 - \frac{2 - \alpha_1 - \alpha_2}{2} = \frac{\alpha_1 + \alpha_2}{2}, \]

where the last equality follows from the fact that \(\frac{\alpha_1}{2} \leq \frac{1}{2}\) and \(\frac{\alpha_2}{2} \leq \frac{1}{2}\). Hence, for sufficiently large \(N\), it’s easy to see that

\[ \text{Gap}(P_{\bar{x}_1}) \geq C_4p_1N^{-3} \]

with \(C_4 = C_4(\beta, K)\). At this stage (B.6) with (B.7) gives

\[ \text{Gap}(P_{\bar{x}_r}) \geq C_5p_1N^{-3} \]

for all \(r \in [N]\). As for the gap of \(P_{[N]}\), first of all note that \(P_{[N]}\) is a birth and death chain on \([N]\). From Lemma B.3

\[ P_{[N]}(i, i+1) := \frac{1}{2\pi(X_i)} \sum_{a \in X_i} \sum_{b \in X_{i+1}} P(a, b)\tilde{\pi}(a) \geq \frac{p_1C_3}{N} \frac{1}{2\pi(X_i)} \sum_{a \in X_i} \sum_{b \in X_{i+1}} \tilde{\pi}(a) \geq \frac{p_1C_3}{2N} \]

and analogously,

\[ P_{[N]}(i, i-1) \geq \frac{p_1C_4}{2N}. \]

Now, for \(r \neq 1\)

\[ \tilde{\pi}_{[N]}(r) = q_{[N]}(r) / \left( \sum_{i=0}^{N} q_{[N]}(i) \right) \]
While

\[ \tilde{\pi}_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}(1) = \frac{(q_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}(1) + q_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}(0))/(\sum_{i=0}^{N} q_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}(i))}{(q_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}(1) + q_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}(0))}. \]

So, using the unimodality of \( q_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}} \), we can apply Lemma B.3 with

\[ A = \frac{p_1 C_3}{2} \quad B = e^{-2\beta} \]

which gives

\[ \lambda_1 (P_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}) \leq 1 - \frac{p_1 C_3}{e^{-2\beta} N^3} \leq 1 - \frac{p_1 C_3}{N^3}. \]

Using another time Lemma B.3 by (A.1), we get

\[ \lambda_N (P_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}) \geq 1 - p_1. \]

Combining this two bounds we have

\[ \text{(B.9)} \quad \text{Gap}(P_{\text{\tiny \text{N}}}) \geq C_3 p_1 N^3 \]

and so from (3.4)

\[ \text{Gap}(\bar{P}) \geq C_3 p_1^2 N^6, \]

\( C \) being a suitable constant that depends by \( \beta, K, C_3, C_4, C_5 \).

\( \square \)

**Proof of Proposition 6.4.** Combine Lemma 6.3 with 6.5.\( \square \)

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