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Examining the Schelling Model Simulation through an Estimation of its Entropy

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Abstract: The Schelling model of segregation allows for a general description of residential movements in an environment modeled by a lattice. The key factor is that occupants change positions until they are surrounded by a designated minimum number of similarly labeled residents. An analogy to the Ising model has been made in previous research, primarily due the assumption of state changes being dependent upon the adjacent cell positions. This allows for concepts produced in statistical mechanics to be applied to the Schelling model. Here is presented a methodology to estimate the entropy of the model for different states of the simulation. A Monte Carlo estimate is obtained for the set of macrostates defined as the different aggregate homogeneity satisfaction values across all residents, which allows for the entropy value to be produced for each state. This produces a trace of the estimated entropy value for the states of the lattice configurations to be displayed with each iteration. The results show that the initial random placements of residents have larger entropy values than the final states of the simulation when the overall homogeneity of the residential locality is increased.

Keywords: Schelling Model; Spatial Analysis; Entropy

MSC: 91-08,62M30,91D10

16 1. Introduction

17 Human actors are very complex objects to model and the factors of the environment which affect
18 their behavioral state is a challenge to encapsulate in a mathematical framework. This difficulty is
19 further increased when long term macroscopic changes are taken into account. Modeling residential
20 patterns as they evolve is of great interest, as the housing market is a large part of the economy, and
21 the spatial arrangements shape the interactions among community members. The Schelling model
22 of segregation, [1], presents a model of residential movement dynamics based upon a homophilic
23 threshold of satisfaction (Appendix A) for the number of similarly labeled neighbors in a grid. The
24 model can be described as a set of hypothetically labeled residents in a grid allotment which, during
25 a simulation, proceeds to be given a random position allocation when there are not enough of their
26 adjacent neighbors sharing the same label. A simulation continues to allocate random position
27 reassignments until all residents have the required amount of identically labeled neighbors needed
28 to cease their movements. This results in an iterative procedure of spatially orienting residents to
29 be placed in a macroscopic set of similarly labeled clusters. In an random initial allocation on the
30 lattice a visual depiction is expected to look like 'noise' when different colors are provided for each
31 type of resident. In the final iteration when the homogeneity satisfactions are met, the grid will look
32 'organized' as groups of similarly labeled actors cluster together.

33 The work of [2] provides an analytical formulation of the main steps of the Schelling model
34 and reviews the variations possible. The variations are typically introduced in order to provide
35 different proposals for new locations of moving actors or for a modification on the determination of
36 homogeneity satisfaction. The set of equations provided allows for the parameterization to adapt
37 towards the different implementations without changing significant aspects of a program. This also
38 has a benefit in that the comparisons between different modeling approaches can be seen in a compact
39 form. The analysis of the states provided leads to a calculation of the 'density' of the homogeneity
40 of local actors across all the residents. Presented here in Subsection 2.1 is a concise mathematical
41 representation of the Schelling model which is formulated in such a way as to present a convenient
42 form to produce a set of states that can be analyzed in a manner which allows a quantification of the
43 entropy values of these states during the simulation.

44 A set of random initializations of the resident labels which appear 'organized' would be indicative
45 of a mistake in the implementation. The final 'organized' state (in that there clusters of cells
46 sharing a spatial arrangement of the same labels) could be considered to belong to a smaller class
47 of configurations than the ones which resemble 'noise' from which a simulation initially began. The
48 paper of [3], describes in general various class sizes of lattice state space models and provides insight
49 into the manner for the estimations of their values of entropy. By considering the Schelling model to
50 be a system analogous to that of an ideal gas permits a similar approach for the entropy estimation
51 between state transitions. The approach here aims to use an estimation of sizes of a definition for the
52 model macrostates along each time point to compute the entropy trace. The change in the entropy
53 values for the time ordered state transitions of the Schelling model aims to provide an estimate of the
54 uncertainty of the configurations of the spatial arrangements.

55 In terms of detecting segregation the cellular configurations can be observed as they change over
56 time and be interpreted by inspection but this does require qualitative descriptions which are hard
57 to compare between studies. Various quantitative approaches for analyzing the resulting residential
58 configurations of the simulation trajectory exist. These approaches generally involve a specification of
59 a functional form which captures a change in the homogeneity densities of the actor arrangements
60 over the iterations. The work of [4] develops a method based upon the cluster geometry to measure the
61 label segregation. Approaches to finding a spatial measure which captures obscure cases is an ongoing
62 area of research and can be relied upon for specified classes of patterns. From the methodology of [5]
63 a representation for certain 'patterns' (specific macroscopic configurations) are considered for their
64 size examining a range of predefined scenarios. The approach also employs a Markov chain with
65 Metropolis transition probabilities for the change of states between and although very interesting it
66 does deviate from the archetypical Schelling model paradigm.

67 In [6,7] the density function of energy differences ΔE and average magnetization $\langle M \rangle$ for different
68 time steps of the model is shown when the Schelling model is approached as a thermodynamic system.
69 These models provide a great deal of insight into the phase changes of the system which delivers a
70 potentially invaluable method to detect paradigm changes in the macrostates. An accurate application
71 to an actual sociological scenario could potentially divert large scale negative consequences. Their
72 main strength is in determining the changes in the value of the parameters of the model which can
73 affect the spatial arrangements under the premise that those values can be mapped to values observed
74 in a real world scenario (a task which is another challenge in itself). There are also measures to examine
75 the motifs of the spatial arrangements for clustering patterns that are then aggregated to assess the
76 degree that those features of interest have manifested themselves. An example of this approach is
77 in [8] that applies the community triads (3-cycle) analysis which is supported in social science. This
78 could be considered a mesoscopic feature of the state space over the homogeneity assignments and for
79 situations where these features are specifically important, provides a specific insight.

The Schelling model of the residential population movements can be considered as a system
analogous to a lattice gas [9]. This permits a similar manner of analysis in which there is a definition
of microstate configurations which are analyzed as being part of a macrostate for a thermodynamic

system, and therefore the entropy can be estimated for the macrostates. Given this framing of the Schelling model environment of the actors, the homogeneity threshold calculation as a discrete measure dependent upon the state values of its adjacency set can be developed to associate it with other physically focused models. The homogeneity aggregate in the Schelling lattice model has can be used to develop an analogy to the *Ising model* [10–12], and [13] provides a thorough formulation of the Schelling model in a manner where an evident extraction of a statistical mechanics treatment of the model simulation analysis is presented. In the Ising model, there are 2 states that represent spin, ‘up’/‘down’ ($\{+1, -1\}$). The vicinity of these states of spin alignments produces different aggregate forces for the system as do the homogeneous/heterogeneous neighbor associations in the Schelling model. The Ising model where on each location of the lattice (generalizable to d dimensions), it is occupied by an object with 2 states is:

$$H(\sigma) = - \sum_{i,j} \sigma_i \sigma_j.$$

80 This is the main starting point for the similarity of the comparisons of the Ising model with the Schelling
81 model. The work of [14–16] provide examples of methodological investigations of the Schelling model
82 with approaches derived for the Ising model. A definition for a macrostate of the Schelling model
83 allows for a set of configurations to be considered as microstates whose estimated set size provides for
84 a means to calculate the entropy along the iterations of the simulation.

85 A different operator than multiplication is in use for the lattice adjacency set to assess the equality
86 of state label assignments. It does not follow from the same motivation of the group equality test
87 as is described in the sociological research. Eq1 provides a functionally equivalent formulation for
88 the 2 dimensional lattice utilizing the Kronecker delta (testing for label equality). This can easily be
89 generalized to larger group sets without a ‘spin’ property being closely adhered to (similarly to the
90 general feature set homogeneity summation employed in [17]). As well, the approach taken here gives
91 an explicit representation for the empty cells which is required in the Schelling model and not the
92 Ising model. This extra state label is excluded from contributing in the macrostate assignment as a
93 resident lacking a threshold of satisfaction for homogeneity. A physics model interpretation is the
94 ‘3-state voter-type non-equilibrium model on a lattice’ as described in [18].

95 The *equal a priori probability postulate* [19], does not apply to systems operating with these
96 dynamics as the ergodic hypothesis does not necessarily apply. The configuration trajectory
97 allows for the systems to become fixed without movement for residents which have a sufficient
98 number of adjacent homogeneous members in their locality; which can extend to every non-empty
99 resident. Even with increasing the amount of time this will not change the probability for certain
100 configurations (microstates) to be explored during an simulation. There are cases to show that different
101 parameterizations can allow the model to be ergodic and in situations where it is not. An allowed
102 situation which is ergodic is if a limited number of residents, less than the remain threshold value
103 for each group so that they will be guaranteed movement in each iteration, and therefore be free to
104 explore every microstate configuration over enough time (random walk over the whole state space). A
105 situation where no movement from the first iteration onwards can be created, is in an arrangement
106 where all the residents have their local homogeneity constraint satisfied which designates that no
107 movements will take place and no exploration of the state space will occur; which would go against
108 the ergodic hypothesis.

109 2. Methodology

110 The two subsections here outline the Schelling model implementation/variant applied in this
111 work and the framework for the analysis of the Schelling model evolution as an entropy trace is
112 described.

113 2.1. Schelling Model outline

114 We consider a lattice Λ , of 2 dimensions ($d = 2$) to place the hypothetical residents within cells
 115 of the lattice. The number of cells which can be occupied for a square lattice is $N = |\Lambda|$ which is
 116 equal to the side length raised to the value of d . The lattice cells can be indexed as $n \in [1, 2, \dots, N]$
 117 without taking into account the prefix ordering. According to the application of this work, each cell is
 118 occupied by a 'resident' which is a member of a particular group. Each cell is allocated the state of
 119 one of 3 different categories, *group1*, *group2*, and *empty*. The membership for each cell, belongs to a
 120 unique element in the set $m_n \in \{m_{group1}, m_{group2}, m_{empty}\} \forall n$ and metrics of the model can condition
 121 upon these labels as needed. The use of the label for empty units of cells, $m_n \in \{m_{empty}\}$, allows for
 122 there to be movement of a single resident independently of the other residents in $\{m_{group1}, m_{group2}\}$.
 123 These are the only members that can affect the residency satisfaction thresholds, and whether other
 124 residents remain in the same position in the next iteration of the simulation. Simulation require that
 125 $\{m_{empty}\} \neq \emptyset$.

126 The mapping of a resident's position in the lattice is denoted as $m_n \leftrightarrow m_{(ni,nj)}$ when describing the
 127 position and placement amongst cell occupants in the space of d . The iterations of the simulation take
 128 place over a hypothetical unit of discrete time, t . Since the dynamics of the system do not parameterize
 129 upon the amount of time passed, the unit of time is a representation of the steps the residents have
 130 taken since the initialization. The cell occupation of a resident can include the time index to denote the
 131 temporal locations, $m_{n,t} \leftrightarrow m_{(ni,nj),t}$.

The basic premise of the Schelling simulation is that each cell resident performs a check for equality of group membership upon the adjacent cells. This affects the choice for a resident to remain in the same cell between iterations. While excluding for a check against the resident's self, it evaluates the membership of all the cells in the adjacency of a single unit. The aggregate of the equality checks can be found for m_n via:

$$l(m_n) = \sum_{i=-1}^1 \sum_{j=-1}^1 \left(\delta_{m_{(ni,nj)}, m_{(ni+i,nj+j)}} : i, j \neq 0 \right). \quad (1)$$

132 Here δ_{m_n, m'_n} is the Kronecker delta so that group membership equality is 1 and 0 otherwise. The
 133 examination of cell values outside of the lattice bounds are treated as m_{empty} making no contribution
 134 to the residential satisfaction as this function is not called on behalf of empty cells. This state
 135 determination for each cell based upon the adjacency of the grid is the main motivation for the
 136 comparison to the Ising model in the previous research [20,21].

The aggregate of the observed equality checks is then used to determine if a homogeneity threshold is satisfied. This value, h , is a homogeneity constraint upon the locality of the adjacent cells that determines whether the resident in a cell will remain in the same cell or attempt a move to another one in the subsequent iteration of the simulation. The threshold for whether the resident remains in the same cell is based upon the value of local homogeneity from eq 1:

$$r(m_n) = \begin{cases} (l(m_n) \geq h) & \text{if } m_n \notin \{m_{empty}\} \\ 0 & \text{if } m_n \in \{m_{empty}\} \end{cases}. \quad (2)$$

137 The value for threshold is set to $h = 6$ in this work (as in [20]), and it is typical for this to be adjusted to
 138 examine the sensitivity with the final $\{m_{group1}, m_{group2}\}$ (non-empty residents) spatial arrangements.
 139 This binary value represents the state for each of the non-empty occupants for which the movement is
 140 conditioned upon. The empty set of residents are considered to not have a value of residential choice
 141 as their 'displacement' between time units depends upon other group states.

If $r(m_n) = 1$, the resident remains in the same cell location between time steps, $m_{n,t}, m_{n,t+1} \rightarrow m_{(ni,nj)}$. In the situations where $r(m_n) = 0$, the occupant no longer remains in the same cell, there is a move to another cell location which is occupied by a resident who is a member of the 'empty' label,

m_{empty} . The consecutive lattice position is uniformly chosen from those which are occupied at t by an m_{empty} ,

$$m_{(ni',nj'),t+1} \leftarrow c(m_{n,t}) = \begin{cases} \mathcal{U}(m_{(ni',nj'),t+1} \in \{m_{empty,t+1}\}; r(m_{(ni',nj'),t+1}) = 1) & \text{if } r(m_{n,t}) = 0 \\ m_{(ni,nj),t} & \text{if } r(m_{n,t}) = 1. \end{cases} \quad (3)$$

This condition for the sampling requires that the proposed position replacement results in eq 2 satisfying the threshold. The update of the set of empty labeled positions for the following time step is associated with this allocation by adding this resident's m_n position to the empty occupation in $t + 1$ and removing the current position;

$$\{m_{empty,t+1}\} = \left\{ \left(\{m_{empty,t+1}\} \cup \{m_{(ni,nj),t}\} \right) \setminus \left(m_{(ni,nj),t+1} \right); \forall n \left(m_{(ni,nj),t} \neq m_{(ni,nj),t+1} \right) \right\}. \quad (4)$$

142 These updates to the locations of those non-empty residents with $r(m_n) = 0$, and not those of $r(m_n) = 1$
143 produces an iterative search for local homogenization of the lattice state space.

A simulation of the Schelling model is a trajectory of the position reassignments for the residents over the time units, which is defined by eqns 1-4. The updates are performed by the assignments in eqn 3 and 4. For the complete sequence per time step, a cycle through each node is required. Let \mathbf{o}_t be a random variable following the discrete uniform distribution over the set $[1, 2, \dots, N]$ sampled without replacement for each time point. The update is:

$$m_{\mathbf{o}_n,t,t+1} \leftarrow c(m_{\mathbf{o}_n,t,t} : \forall n \in [1, \dots, N] m_{\mathbf{o}_n,t,t} \notin \{m_{empty}\}), \quad (5)$$

and the remain state for residents over the course of the simulation can subsequently be given by:

$$\mathbf{r}_{t+1} = [r(m_{1,t+1}), \dots, r(m_{n,t+1}), \dots, r(m_{N,t+1})]. \quad (6)$$

144 This gives an expression for the state of every resident in the lattice and the coordinates that are
145 occupied for the indexed time unit. Given that the allocation of a position for which a resident can
146 change their state of 'remain', from 0 to 1, arises from this sampling procedure; this results in different
147 trajectories of the simulation upon multiple realizations.

148 2.2. Estimating the entropy of the Schelling model from the microstate and macrostate assignments

149 Using the formulation of the Schelling model in eqns 1-6 a representation of the model state space
150 as a closed thermodynamic system can be provided. The simulation is modeled as a *microcanonical*
151 *ensemble* where the microstates are the configurations of the binary valued entries of each resident's
152 'remain' value for the set of all lattice members in \mathbf{r}_t (eq 6).

The *macrostate*, denoted by R , of the Schelling model will be defined as the aggregate remain value over all the resident members:

$$R = \sum_{n=1}^N r(m_n). \quad (7)$$

153 This can be indexed to derive the macrostate value for each time point as $R_t = \sum_{n=1}^N r(m_{n,t})$. For the
154 different states of remain that the residents produce this macrostate effectively groups the microstates
155 by the local homogeneity satisfaction over all non-empty members. This aggregate can be satisfied by
156 multiple configurations and the size of the sets which satisfy different values of R will be estimated
157 via a sampling procedure. R represents an intuitive macrostate property that can be interpreted and
158 the number of corresponding microstates are of interest for modelers to examine the extent to which
159 the system follows various microstate explorations. The Schelling model phase space is therefore
160 described here as having this 1 degree of freedom.

The number of microstate configurations which corresponds to a particular macrostate, R , is represented as, $\Omega(R)$. It is assumed that each microstate $\mathbf{r}_t \in R$ has an equal probability of being selected in the macrostate; $\mathbf{r}_t = 1 / \Omega(R)$. The entropy of the macrostate can then be found via:

$$S = k_B \ln \Omega(R). \quad (8)$$

161 The value of Ω is found by enumerating all of the microstates which produces the same remain level
162 of R for the set of residents. For a particular time point, the entropy for the macrostate of the Schelling
163 model can be addressed as $S_t = k_B \ln \Omega(R_t)$.

Given that the enumeration for the microstate space of the ensemble is not analytically tractable, with the state positions depending upon discrete non-linear operations, $\Omega(R)$ will be sampled with Monte Carlo [22] (similar manner employed in [13,18], and thoroughly described in [23]). The Monte Carlo sampling scheme draws from the space of eq 6, $\mathcal{U}(\mathbf{r})$. The size of the collection of microstates for all macrostates, is equal to:

$$\sum_{R=R_{min}}^{R_{max}} \Omega(R) = \frac{N!}{\prod_{g=1}^{|group|} N_g!}. \quad (9)$$

164 $N! / (\prod_g^{group} N_g!)$, is the de-labeling factor, N the number of positions in the lattice and N_g the number
165 of agents (members) within each group. The lattice structure is represented as an adjacency list so that
166 the different microstates can be seen as a rearrangement upon an array which the delabelling factor
167 removes redundant permutations from as they do not change the macrostate assignment.

It is of particular interest to obtain the trace of the entropy values of the model during the time steps. These values S_t , depend upon $\Omega(R_t)$ which will be proportions of the overall count from all macrostate sizes in eq 9. This is because each non-redundant permutation of the labels will correspond to a particular value of R ,

$$\widetilde{\Omega}(R) = P(R) \times \frac{N!}{\prod_{g=1}^{|group|} N_g!}. \quad (10)$$

168 The Monte Carlo sample for the probability of a microstate belonging to a particular macrostate
169 is effectively the macrostate membership assignment ratio for a sample size k ; $|\{\mathbf{r} \in R\}|/k$. This
170 allows for an estimation of S and at every time point $\widetilde{S}_t = k_B \widetilde{\Omega}(R_t)$. The convergence of the sample
171 distribution over R (via Monte Carlo on the space of \mathbf{r}) is tested by examining the first half of the
172 samples against the second half and performing a K-S test. This allows for the Schelling model
173 trajectory to have every lattice configuration mapped to a macrostate value through eq 7 and the
174 corresponding entropy value to be produced based upon the estimate of the number of microstates.
175 Alongside the visual representations of the lattice configurations over time with color codings for the
176 different actors, an entropy trace can be produced.

177 3. Results and Discussion

178 This section explores the Schelling model in terms of the macrostate value at each iteration defined
179 in eq 7 and the entropy value estimated $\widetilde{S}_t = k_B \widetilde{\Omega}(R_t)$. In the examples used $N = 100$, and 2 types of
180 non-empty agents are considered m_{agent1} and m_{agent2} each set having 45 members. The members of the
181 empty set are allocation subsequently as a default allocation to those cells which a label is unassigned
182 so that m_{empty} has 10 members in these cases.

183 The Monte Carlo sampling scheme required for eq 10 is computationally demanding. It is possible
184 to obtain reliable convergence on the estimated macrostate densities given new processor speeds, and
185 the parallel processing capabilities readily available. The methodology is implemented in Julia-Lang
186 [24,25], which is a relatively new programming language designed for high performance computing in
187 mind. The computations were parallelized with minimal syntactic additions to the single threaded

188 implementation via the intuitive programming macros which can encapsulate regions that require
 189 parallel operations.

190 Figure 1 examines the value of the macrostate R at every time point (iteration) in the Schelling
 191 model. In Subfigure a) a single run of a simulation is presented where it can be seen that the aggregate
 192 value of R increasing until stabilization at the value drawn in 'green'. This green line component
 193 represents the time points where no movement of the agents can change their state of $l(m_n)$ (eq 1).
 194 The occasional increases and decreases emphasizes the aspect of the simulation dynamics of how
 195 the random uniform allocation of the new positions does not guarantee improvements upon the
 196 macroscopic state where the threshold satisfactions over the complete lattice are to be monotonically
 197 increasing. Subfigure b) presents the results from 1000 independent simulations of the model with
 198 box plots for the values encountered at every iteration. Towards the end of the simulation there
 199 independent simulations arrive at the same value. The dashed line represents the maximum value
 200 that could be achieved which is the total number of non-empty residents (90). It can be seen that
 201 as the simulation progresses the macrostate value of R also increases with the residents changing
 202 positions until a cell with h or more similarly labeled residents surround it. As R is the aggregate
 203 of these satisfactions across the lattice it can be expected that the dynamics provide an avenue to increase
 204 this macroscopic measure. In b) the spread between the maximum R values for the first iteration
 205 (initialization) does not surpass the median value of the 5th iteration. This highlights the effectiveness
 206 of the dynamics to search for large R values in contrast to a random sample and that large R contain
 fewer microstates \mathbf{r} .

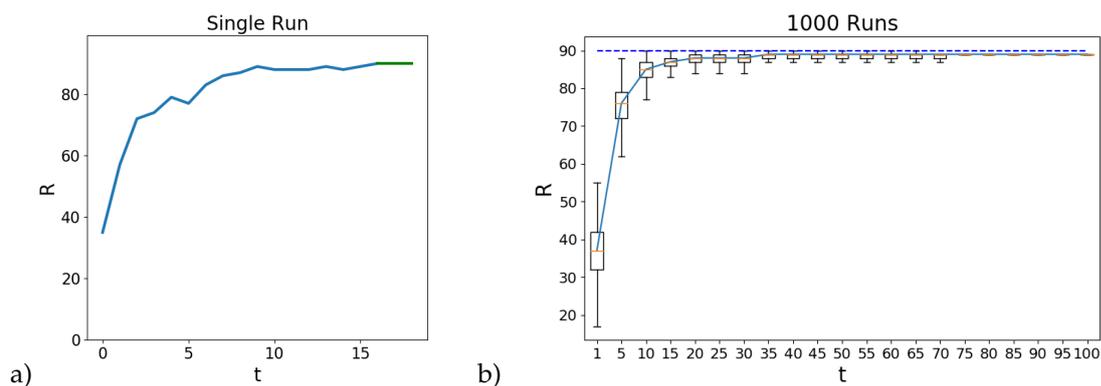


Figure 1. These figures examine the value of the macrostates R_t (eq 7) over the course of the Schelling model simulation. The time t is the number of iterations and the value of R is the total number of agents which have their locality homogeneity requirement satisfied at $h = 4$. Here $N = 100$, $|m_{agent1}| = 45$, $|m_{agent2}| = 45$ and $m_{empty} = 10$. Subfigure a) shows an example single run of the simulation macrostate, R_t , values over time. The green line denotes the region where there are not more changes to the R values. Subfigure b) shows the macrostate, R_t , values over a set of 1000 runs with box plots (5-point statistics). The dashed line shows the theoretical maximum value that could be achieved.

207

208 Figure 2 shows the results of examining the macrostate values R (eq 7) from independent
 209 simulations of the Schelling model at the start (initialization) and at the end (final value). Subfigure a)
 210 shows the Monte Carlo sample distribution of the R values and also displays the maximum possible
 211 value $R = 90$ in the dashed vertical line. Each possible value that can be sampled is given an initial
 212 observation count of 1 so that comparisons with states the simulation enters that are rare to sample
 213 can still be compared. Each initialization is independent of the previous ones and aims to depict the
 214 relative size of the different macrostate values. It can be seen that sampling from the microstates
 215 the values close to the maximum can be expected to require a large number of draws. In terms of
 216 the Schelling model, and the interpretation of the R value, it can be said that there are more random

217 initializations (microstates) which have less than half of the agent thresholds satisfied. Subfigure b)
 218 presents the final R value at the end of a set of independent simulations. The final value is determined
 219 by a stretch of iterations in which the R value does not change or that the maximum possible value has
 220 been reached. Although the microstates which correspond to such large values of R are encountered
 221 in a small fraction of the Monte Carlo simulation, they are arrived at consistently, given the iterations
 222 of the simulation dynamics. The Schelling model is therefore effective in navigating the space to find
 microstates which correspond to large R values.

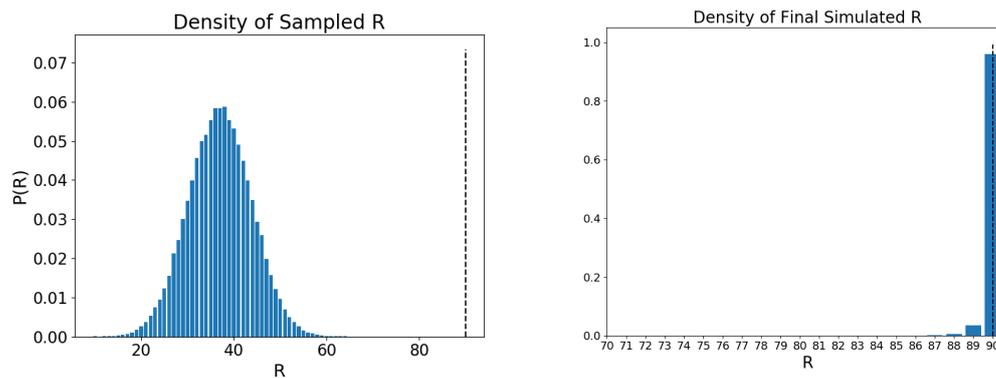


Figure 2. The Schelling model used here has a lattice size of $N = 100$ and non-empty agents of $|m_{agent1}| = 45$ and $|m_{agent2}| = 45$ with the empty being $m_{empty} = 10$. The simulations were run 10K times with independent initializations. Subfigure a) shows the results from a Monte Carlo sampling scheme for the values of the macrostate value R (eq 7), based upon independently drawn initial configurations of the residential actors of the Schelling model. The density of the different R values can be seen in the height of the bars proportional to the observations of that value. The dashed line represents the largest value of R obtainable for this simulation setup; 90. Subfigure b) shows the final values of R for a set of independent Schelling model simulations which have been allowed the necessary time steps until their configurations remain static. The dashed line represents the maximum possible R value in this setup. (Both simulations were run with 10K runs and tested for convergence)

223
 224 Figure 3 displays the placement of the residents in the lattice at 2 different time points in the
 225 simulation of the Schelling model. Subfigure a) shows the state at the initialization $t = 1$ where $R = 41$
 226 and the entropy calculated using eq 8 is $S_t = 1.207 \times 10^{-21}$. Subfigure b) shows the resulting state of
 227 the lattice after the R value no longer changes and in this case the maximum possible value has been
 228 reached for this model setup ($R = 90$). At $t = 18$ the entropy is found to be $S_{t=18} = 0$ which denotes
 229 that the number of microstates for this macrostate is 1. With no uncertainty about the microstate given
 230 the macrostate this number is understandable given that a number of 1 observation was provided for
 231 each possible observation in the Monte Carlo simulation. Since there were no microstates drawn for
 232 $R = 90$, the density remained at 1 which produces zero entropy.

233 Figure 4 presents the entropy values estimated for the time steps in the Schelling model
 234 simulations. Each run is began as an independent initialization of the grid for 2 groups of residential
 235 members with 45 residents and 10 empty in a 10×10 lattice. These figures provide insight into the
 236 entropy values the simulation produces by state changes between iterations. The entropy values, S_t ,
 237 are found from eq 8 and are computed for each simulation independently. Subfigure a) displays the
 238 trace of S_t values for a single simulation. The rise and then decrease shows that the random allocation
 239 of residents by uniformly allocating new positions for those with less than the threshold of necessary
 240 homogeneity does not guarantee a macroscopic aggregate state of entropy or R (as displayed in a) of
 241 Figure 1). The zero entropy state is what the simulation arrives to and remains at, as there is only a
 242 single microstate member counted for that value of R . From the progression of R in Figure 1 and the
 243 distribution of the sampled values of R in Figure 2, it can be seen that the larger R values the Schelling

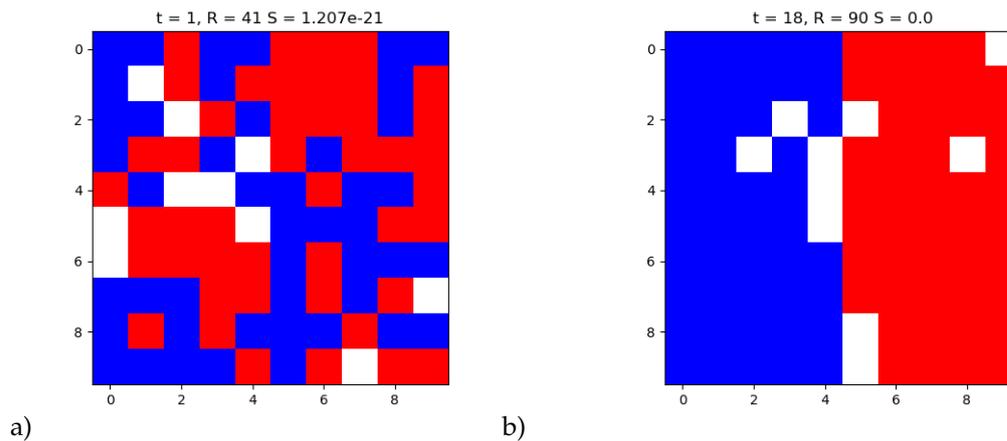


Figure 3. The Schelling model is simulated for a lattice size of $N = 100$, non-empty agents of 45 members each and 10 empty cells. Over the course of a simulation the lattice view is displayed at the initialization, $t = 1$ in Subfigure a), and the time point where the repositioning of the residents ceases, $t = 18$ in Subfigure b). The titles report the time point that the lattice depicted was taken from, the macrostate value R (aggregate number of homogeneity satisfied residents), and the entropy value S_t (eq 8). The Schelling model effectively manages to reduce the entropy of the macrostate R to zero by the end of the simulation.

244 dynamics produces are of a smaller ensemble which results in the decrease in entropy. Subfigure
 245 b) shows the results from 100 independent simulations where the maximum, mean and minimum
 246 values of the entropy S_t (eq 8) are drawn. All the simulations reach the zero entropy and it can be seen
 247 how some simulations arrive at that value requiring less or more time points. This can be due to the
 248 initializations and the sequence of random allocation of moving residents.

249 4. Discussion

250 The work presented here provides a formulation of the Schelling model of social segregation [1]
 251 and a manner in which the states of the simulation can be analyzed with the framework of statistical
 252 mechanics. From the concise set of equations for the dynamics of the Schelling model iterations it
 253 is seen that there is a resemblance with that of the Ising model [10] which is also noted in previous
 254 research [10–13,20]. This similarity rests predominantly upon the premise that both models utilize
 255 a lattice for the placement of cell occupants whose state depends exclusively upon the states of the
 256 occupants in the adjacent/neighboring cells. The states of the cells are updated based upon the
 257 satisfaction of the aggregate of similarity (homogeneity) counts for the 'values' of the occupants and
 258 the surrounding cells. In the Ising model these states are defined by 'spins' given binary values that are
 259 aggregated in order to define a state transition. For the Schelling model these states are represented by
 260 societal identifiers (categorical variables) which can possibly be extended to arbitrarily sized sets and it
 261 therefore is a more direct translation of the model motivation to employ the use of the Kronecker delta
 262 as shown in eq 1. This can be understood by the residential actors performing a label equality check
 263 whose satisfaction upon the adjacency set is compared to a threshold which determines the cell state.

264 Eqns 1- 5 are the equations for the states of the lattice which governs the residential system state
 265 changes between time points (iterations). Each time point the lattice has a particular state defined by
 266 eq 6, that produces a r_t , which is the set of the homogeneity satisfactions for all the residential members
 267 of the lattice. These configurations can be treated as 'microstates' which change according the dynamics
 268 of the Schelling model. A 'macrostate' for the state of system is defined upon the microstates in eq 7
 269 producing a phase space with a single degree of freedom R . The macrostate value is the aggregate
 270 homogeneity satisfaction within the lattice and provides insight into a valuable macroscopic aspect of

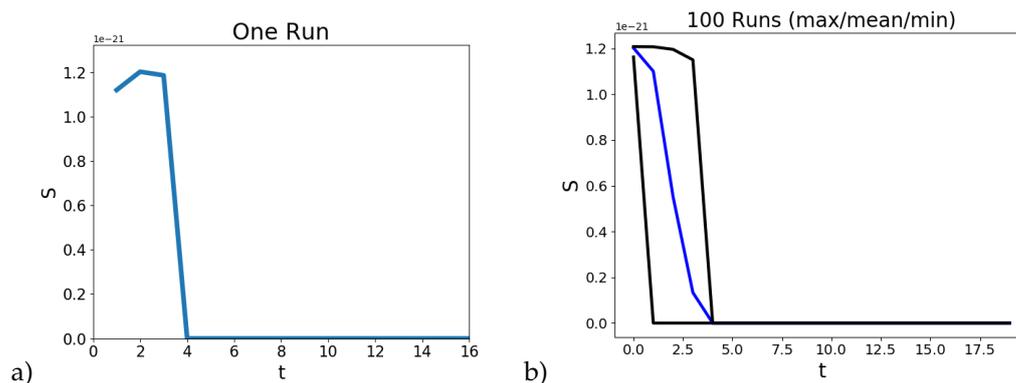


Figure 4. The plots show the trace of the estimated entropy values across time (S_t eq 8) for random initializations of the Schelling model of a 10×10 lattice. There are 2 groups of residential occupants of cells with 45 members each and the remaining 10 are occupied by a group categorized as 'empty'. Subfigure a) shows the entropy trace of a single randomly initialized Schelling model. The simulation has reached a configuration of the residents where there is no subsequent movement, after $t = 4$. The value of the entropy drops to zero and remains at that value. Subfigure b) shows the maximum (black), mean (blue) and minimum (black) values of the entropy over 100 independent simulations. It can be seen how there is a spread over the entropy values for each time point although the model simulation successfully finds the minimum entropy value.

271 the system. Eqns 10- 9 describe the approach to estimating the entropy values for the simulation along
 272 the time points based upon the macrostates R .

273 Figure 4 shows that the Schelling simulation upon randomly initialized residential placements
 274 upon the lattice acts to reduce the entropy value over time. These expected transitions into smaller
 275 ensembles, based upon the simulations, show that although there are sporadic deviations from the
 276 decrease in entropy; the dynamics of the system reliably reduce the entropy. From Figure 3 the initial
 277 time point and a latter time point provide an intuitive interpretation for this by the noticing the increase
 278 in R along with the organization of the 2 residential groups. To see how the simple dynamics of the
 279 model are able to navigate the space and obtain with consistently low density high values of R , Figure 2
 280 shows the distribution of R from the initializations and the R values at the end of the simulation. It
 281 is intriguing how the model dynamics, representative of residential movement patterns, produces a
 282 trajectory that goes against the arrow of time.

283 Future work would entail expanding upon the model to take into account the cost/energy
 284 required to perform actions such as change position or assess the aggregate value of the homophily in
 285 a cell's locality.

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294 Appendix Note on the use of the terminology for the agent satisfaction

295 It should be noted that there are alternative rephrasings for the underpinning interpretation
 296 of the model outcomes, especially to highlight the phobias the agents can be acting out upon as an
 297 explanation for their decision to change position. As most models describe the dynamics of residents
 298 reaching stationarity as the sufficient aggregate of their locality for *homophilic* label assignments is

299 discovered; this is a maximization process. This could be rewritten as minimization of a cost associated
300 with heterogeneity label assignments where the remain decision (eq ??) has the comparator facing
301 in the other direction to be based upon a *heterophobic* threshold. Although this may not appear to
302 be an error the that comparator threshold is written for a maximization and the language alludes
303 to a minimization, it is misleading. This can be seen as justifiable in the effort to attract attention
304 towards this area of research by choosing sensitive language. The degree to which it is an actual error
305 is equivalent to referring to an application of Reinforcement Learning (RL), that searches to maximize
306 a reward function, but actually emphasizing that the state sequences are optimally reducing a utility
307 cost. For this reason it is considered that there is a set of dynamics which the agents follow as a search
308 mechanism for a satisfaction of this homophilic dependency.

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