

Monte Carlo methods for magnetic systems

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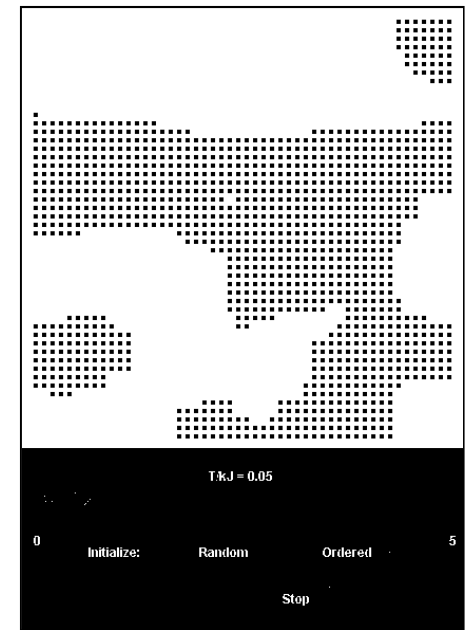
Cluj-Napoca, Romania

Main objective of the lecture:

To give an **introduction** for basic Monte Carlo methods in some simple models of magnetism.

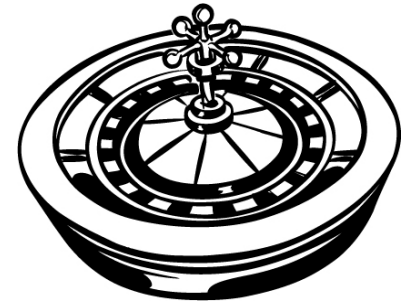
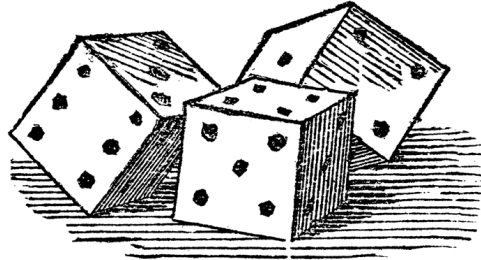
Syllabus

- About Monte Carlo methods
- Deterministic versus stochastic simulation methods
- Elements of Stochastic Processes (Markov chains)
- Monte Carlo integration
- Theoretical approach to magnetic models
- What we are interested in?
- The Metropolis MC method for magnetic systems
- Implementing the Metropolis MC method for the 2D Ising model
- Finite-size effects
- Efficient MC techniques



applet made by R. Sumi

What are Monte Carlo methods?



Computer simulation methods:

- **Molecular dynamics** (deterministic simulations, based on the integration of the equation of motion)
- **Monte Carlo methods** (Stochastic simulation techniques, where the random number generation plays a crucial role)

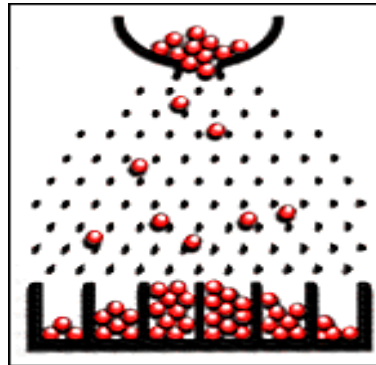
- In general we speak about Monte Carlo simulation methods whenever the use of the random numbers are crucial in the algorithm!

MC: the art of using pseudo random numbers

- **Monte Carlo techniques are widely used in studying models of:** statistical physics, soft condensed matter physics, material science, many-body problems, complex systems, fluid mechanics, biophysics, econo-physics, nonlinear phenomena, particle physics, heavy-ion physics, surface physics, neuroscience etc....

Deterministic versus stochastic simulations

the Galton table



- used to exemplify the normal distribution

Molecular dynamics approach: integrating in time the equation of motion of the particles.

advantage → the realistic dynamics

disadvantage → slow even on supercomputers, only short time-scales or small systems can be simulated

Monte Carlo approach: the result of many deterministic effects is handled as a stochastic (random) force.

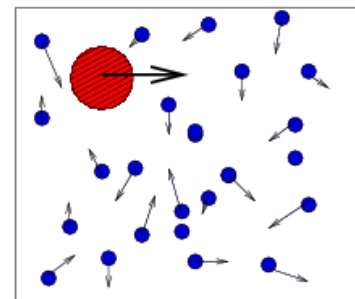
advantage → fast, easy to implement

disadvantage → less realistic, many elements of the real phenomena are not in the model

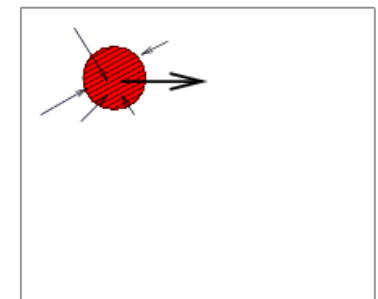


$$x(t) = x(t-1) + \boxed{}$$

Random number: 1 with $p=1/2$ and -1 with $p=1/2$



Molecular dynamics



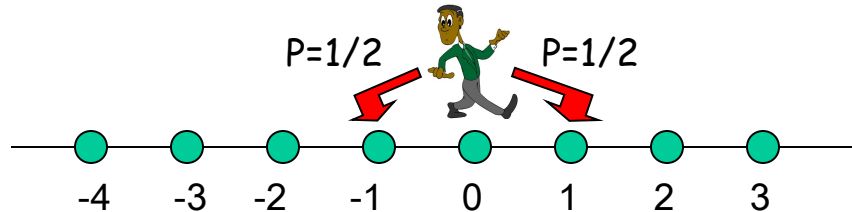
MC

Some necessary elements of Stochastic Processes

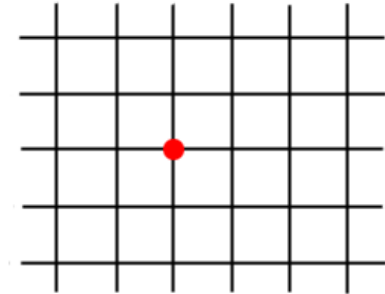
Markov processes/ Markov chains

Stochastic process: let \underline{x} label the element of any state-space. A process that randomly visits in time these possible \underline{x} states is a stochastic process:

Example the 1D random walk:



2D random walk:



Markov processes (chain) are characterized by a lack of memory (i.e. the statistical properties of the immediate future are uniquely determined from the present, regardless of the past)

Example: random walk \rightarrow Markov process; self-avoiding walk is NOT a Markov process

Let \underline{x}_i be the state of the stochastic system at step "i", a stochastic variable

The time- evolution of the system is described by a sequence of states: $\underline{x}_0, \underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_n, \dots$

The conditional probability that \underline{x}_n is realized if previously we had: $\underline{x}_0, \underline{x}_1, \dots, \underline{x}_{n-1}$: $P(\underline{x}_n | \underline{x}_{n-1}, \dots, \underline{x}_0)$

Definition: For a Markov process we have: $P(\underline{x}_n | \underline{x}_{n-1}, \underline{x}_{n-2}, \dots, \underline{x}_0) = P(\underline{x}_n | \underline{x}_{n-1})$

$$P(\underline{x}_0, \dots, \underline{x}_n) = P(\underline{x}_n | \underline{x}_{n-1}) \cdot P(\underline{x}_{n-1} | \underline{x}_{n-2}) \cdot \dots \cdot P(\underline{x}_1, \underline{x}_0) \cdot a_0$$

$$P(\underline{x}_m, \underline{x}_j) = P(\underline{x}_m \rightarrow \underline{x}_j) = P_{m,j}$$

one-step transition probabilities, elements of the **stochastic matrix**

Definition: A probability distribution over the possible states (w_k) is called **invariant** or stationary for a given Markov chain if satisfy:

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} w_m > 0; \\ \sum_m w_m = 1; \\ w_s = \sum_m w_m P_{ms} \end{array} \right.$$

$w_k \rightarrow$ The probability that $\underline{x}=k$ during an infinitely long process

- A Markov chain is **irreducible** if and only if every state can be reached from every state! (the stochastic matrix is irreducible)

- A Markov chain is **aperiodic**, if all states are **aperiodic**. A state \underline{x} has a period $T > 1$ if $P_{ii}^{(n)} = 0$ unless $n = zT$ (z : integer), and T is the smallest integer with this property. A state is aperiodic if no such $T > 1$ exist.

(Here we denoted by $P_{ik}^{(n)}$ the probability to get from state i to state k through n steps)

Definition: An irreducible and aperiodic Markov chain is **ergodic**

The **basic theorem for Markov processes:**

An ergodic Markov chain posses an invariant distribution w_k over the possible states

One dimensional Monte Carlo integration

Problem: given a function $f(x)$, compute the integral: $I = \int_a^b f(x)dx$

The integral can be computed by choosing n points (x_i) randomly on the $[a,b]$ interval, and with a uniform distribution: $\rho(x) = 1/(b-a) = \text{Const}$

$\rho(x) \longrightarrow$ probability density: $P(x, x+dx) = \rho(x)dx$ normalization: $\int_a^b \rho(x)dx = 1$

Straightforward sampling	$\longrightarrow I = \langle f(x) \rangle \cdot (b-a) = \frac{b-a}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i)$
--------------------------	--

The **strong law of large numbers** guarantees us that for a sufficiently large sample one can come arbitrary close to the desired integral!

Let x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n be random numbers selected according $I = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)\rho(x)dx;$

to a normalized probability density $\rho(x)$, then:

(!) *the above affirmation is also true if the*

random numbers are correlated, or the interval is finite

$$P\left(\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n f(x_i) = I\right) = 1$$

How rapidly the sum converge? --> for $\rho(x) = \text{Const}$ very badly!!!

Central limit theorem \rightarrow the convergence improve if the shape of $\rho(x)$ approximates $f(x)$ \rightarrow we are sampling in the neighborhood where $f(x)$ is big

Important sampling

The important sampling MC method will calculate the I integral by sampling on random points on the $[a,b]$ interval according to a $\rho(x)$ distribution which approximates the shape of $|f(x)|$

If one generates n points, x_i , according to an arbitrary $\rho(x)$

$$I = \int_a^b f(x)dx = \int_a^b \frac{f(x)}{\rho(x)}\rho(x)dx = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^N \frac{f(x_i)}{\rho(x_i)}$$

the convergence is infinitely fast if $\rho(x) = |f(x)|$

Before getting to excited... \rightarrow one cannot simply choose $\rho(x) = |f(x)|$, since in this case one cannot normalize $\rho(x)$ (normalization of $\rho(x)$ is equivalent with the initial problem \rightarrow one cannot generate thus random numbers simply according to the desired $\rho(x) = |f(x)|$ distribution

Theoretical approach to a magnetic ordering

Usually canonic ensemble is used $\rightarrow T, N, h$ is fixed

($T \rightarrow$ temperature, $h \rightarrow$ external magnetic field, $N \rightarrow$ particle number)

relevant energies

[internal interactions + interaction with external magnetic field, h , +kinetic terms]

a deterministic effect \rightarrow could favor ordering

Hamiltonian, $H(\underline{x}_i, H) = E_i$
($\underline{x}_i \rightarrow$ labels the microstates)

heat bath

is a stochastic effect
 \rightarrow favor randomness

T or $\beta = 1/(kT)$

Statistical thermodynamics approach

$$Z = \sum_i \exp\left(-\frac{E_i}{kT}\right)$$

$$Z = \int_{\Omega} \exp\left(-\frac{H(x)}{kT}\right) dx$$

$$F = -kT \ln(Z)$$

$F \rightarrow$ the free energy; $k \rightarrow$ the Boltzmann constant

assuming that the density of state-space points is constant

What are we interested in ?

The primary goal of the MC type simulations in magnetic systems is to estimate some averages at various T, h and N values

- $\langle M \rangle$ → average magnetization
- $\langle E \rangle$ → average energy
- $\langle E^2 \rangle$ → average square energy
- $\langle M^2 \rangle$ → average square magnetization

in canonical ensemble

$$\langle X \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_i X_i \exp(-\beta E_i)$$

a sum with huge number of terms (number of terms increasing exponentially with system size...ex: 2^N)...or very high dimensional integrals

$$\langle X \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \int_{\Omega} X(x) \cdot \exp[-\beta H(x)] dx \quad X \rightarrow M; M^2; E; E^2$$

the problem is that these sums cannot be usually analytically calculated → MC methods !!

exact enumeration is possible for small N (not of thermodynamic interest)

we are also interested in measurable quantities like: $C_V ; \chi$

$$C_V = \left(\frac{\partial \langle E \rangle}{\partial T} \right)_{V,N} = \frac{1}{kT^2 N} (\langle E^2 \rangle - \langle E \rangle^2) \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{heat capacity at constant volume}$$

$$\chi = \left(\frac{\partial \langle M \rangle}{\partial h} \right)_{H \rightarrow 0} = \frac{1}{NkT} (\langle M^2 \rangle - \langle M \rangle^2) \quad \longrightarrow \quad \text{susceptibility}$$

The Metropolis MC method for magnetic systems

We want to compute integrals (sums) like:

x --> elements of the state-space

Ω --> the entire state-space

$H(x)$ --> the Hamiltonian of the system

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \int_{\Omega} A(x) u[H(x)] dx$$

$$Z = \int_{\Omega} u[H(x)] dx$$

$$u[H(x)] = \exp[-\beta H(x)]$$

Very high dimensional integral which is exactly computable only for a limited number of problems!!!

Basic idea: to use the **important sampling** for calculating these integrals

IF in the MC integration we choose the states with probability $\rho(x)$:

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{\int_{\Omega} A(x) \cdot \rho^{-1}(x) \cdot u[H(x)] \cdot \rho(x) \cdot dx}{\int_{\Omega} \rho^{-1}(x) \cdot u[H(x)] \cdot \rho(x) \cdot dx} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n A(x_i) \cdot \rho^{-1}(x_i) \cdot u[H(x_i)]}{\sum_{i=1}^n \rho^{-1}(x_i) \cdot u[H(x_i)]}$$

by choosing $\rho(x) = \frac{u[H(x)]}{Z}$ the sum converges rapidly and: $\langle A \rangle = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n A(x_i)$

Problem: we still don't know Z !

The Metropolis et al. idea...

N. Metropolis et. al; J. Chem. Phys., vol. 21, 1087 (1953)

an algorithm has to be derived that generates states according to the desired $\rho(x)$!

Basic idea: using a Markov chain, such that starting from an initial state x_0 further states are generated which are ultimately distributed according to $\rho(x)$

$\rho(x)$ is an invariant distribution over the possible states.
for this Markov chain need to specify the $P(x \rightarrow x')$ transition probabilities from state x to state x' . In order that the invariant limiting distribution be $\rho(x)$ we need:

• 1. The Markov chain should be ergodic (any state point should be reachable from any other state-point through the Markov chain)

• 2. For all possible x microstates: $\sum_{x' \in \Omega} P(x \rightarrow x') = 1$

• 3. For all possible x microstates: $\sum_{x' \in \Omega} P(x \rightarrow x')\rho(x') = \rho(x)$ (condition for the existence of the limiting distribution)

Instead of 2. and 3. a stronger but simpler condition can be used, the so called **detailed balance:**

$$P(x \rightarrow x')\rho(x) = P(x' \rightarrow x)\rho(x')$$

Result: We can construct Markov chains leading to the desired $\rho(x)$ distribution, without the prior knowledge of Z !!!

The Metropolis algorithm:

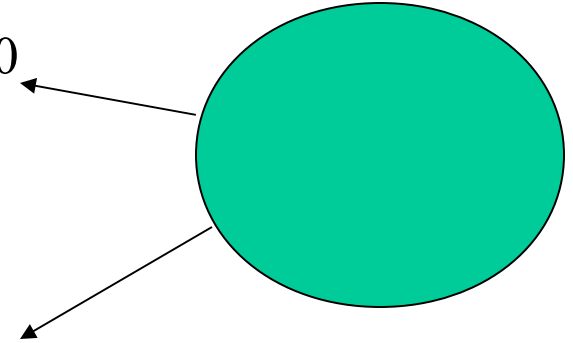
In the canonical ensemble: $u[H(x)] \propto \exp\left[-\frac{H(x)}{kT}\right]$

$$P(x \rightarrow x') = \begin{cases} \exp[-\beta\Delta E(x, x')] \cdots \text{for} \cdots \Delta E(x, x') > 0 \\ 1 \cdots \text{for} \cdots \Delta E(x, x') \leq 0 \end{cases}$$

$$\Delta E(x, x') = H(x') - H(x)$$

another possibility (Glauber algorithm):

$$P(x \rightarrow x') = \exp\left\{-\frac{\Delta E(x, x')}{kT}\right\} / \left\{1 + \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta E(x, x')}{kT}\right]\right\}$$



Algorithm for MC simulations:

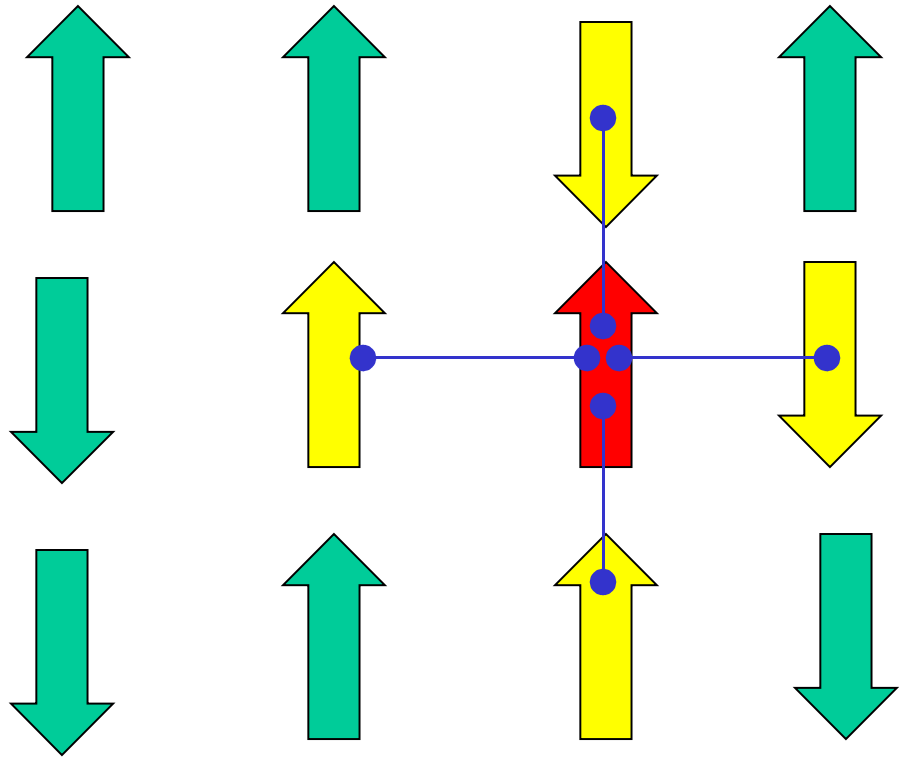
1. Design an ergodic Markov process on the possible microstates (each state should be reachable from each other)
2. Specify an initial x microstate for starting
3. Choose randomly a new x' microstate (preferably so that $P(x \rightarrow x') > 0$)
4. Compute the value of $P = P(x \rightarrow x')$
5. Generate a uniformly distributed random number r between $[0,1]$.
6. If $r \leq P$ --> jump to the new state, and return to 3.
If $r > P$ --> count the old state as new and return 3.
7. Average the quantity A for the generated states. Repeat steps 1-6 until the average converge

The Ising spin system

$$H = -J \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} \sigma_i \sigma_j - \mu h \sum_{\{i\}} \sigma_i$$

$$\sigma_i = \pm 1$$

- spontaneous magnetization is possible ($M \neq 0$ for $h=0$)
- first model for understanding ferro- and anti-ferromagnetism for localized spins
- for $J > 0$ --> **ferromagnetic** order
- for $J < 0$ --> **anti-ferromagnetic** order
- no phase transition in 1D
- ferro-paramagnetic phase transition for $D > 1$
- second order phase transition (order-disorder)



- In 1D and 2D exactly solvable!
- Due to the local interactions calculating Z is difficult.
- exact solution very difficult in 2D
- no exact solution in 3D
- **Approximation methods:** mean-field theory, renormalization, high and low temperature expansion

Implementing the Metropolis MC for the 2D Ising model

Problem: Study $m(T)$, $\langle E(T) \rangle$, $C_v(T)$, $\chi(T)$ and T_c for 2D Ising model

We consider $\mathbf{h}=\mathbf{0}$, and fix $\mathbf{J}=\mathbf{1}$.

The temperature units are considered so that $k=1$.

Square lattice topology is considered

$$H = - \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} \sigma_i \sigma_j$$

-Let us assume a lattice $L \times L$ with **free** boundary conditions
 -We consider a canonical ensemble and fix thus \mathbf{N} and \mathbf{T}

$$\sigma_k = \pm 1$$

We plan to calculate:

$$\langle \frac{|M|}{N} \rangle = \left\langle \frac{\left| \sum_i \sigma_i \right|}{N} \right\rangle = \frac{\left\langle \left| \sum_i \sigma_i \right| \right\rangle}{N}$$

$$= \frac{1}{NkT} \left[\langle M^2(T) \rangle - \langle M(T) \rangle^2 \right]$$

$$\langle H(\{\sigma_i\}) \rangle = \left\langle - \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} \sigma_i \sigma_j \right\rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{Nk_B T^2} \left[\langle E^2(T) \rangle - \langle E(T) \rangle^2 \right]$$

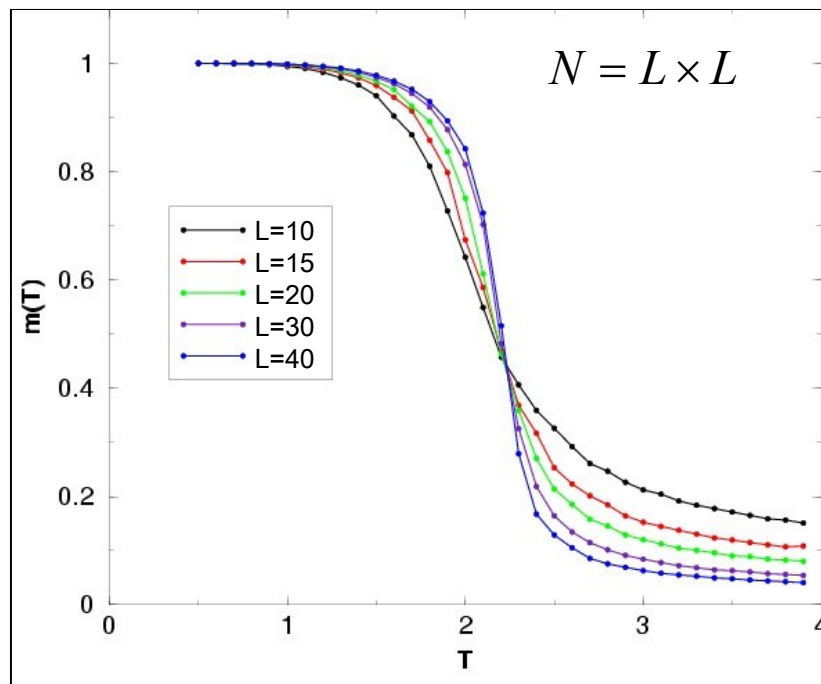
\rightarrow from the maxima of $C_v(T)$ and $\chi(T)$

The Metropolis MC algorithm for the problem:

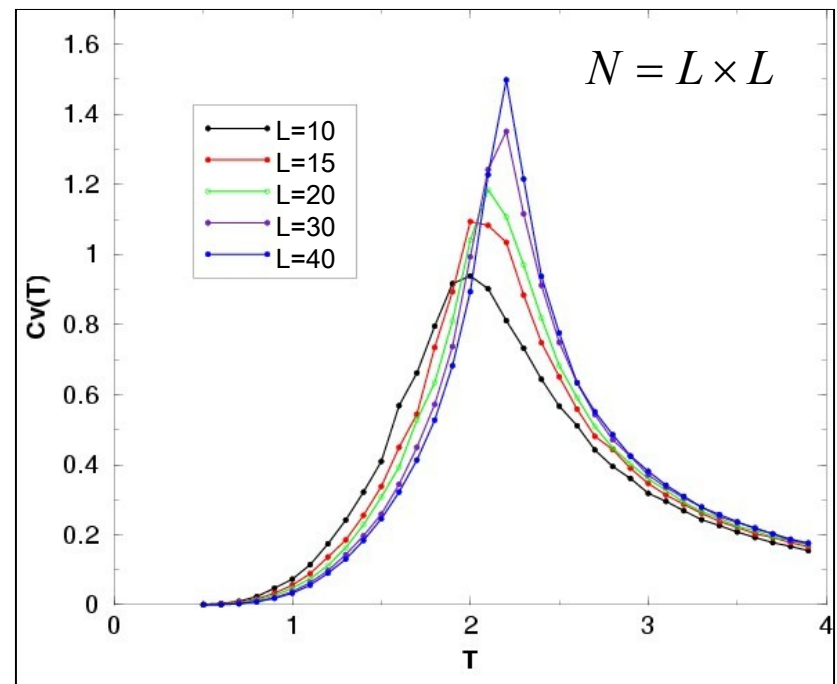
1. Fix a temperature (T)
2. Consider an initial spin configuration ($\{\sigma_i\}$). For example for all $i = 1, N \rightarrow \sigma_i = \pm 1$
3. Calculate the initial value of E and M
4. Consider a new spin configuration by virtually "flipping" one randomly selected spin
5. Calculate the energy E' of the new configuration, and the energy change ΔE due to this spin-flip
6. Calculate the Metropolis $P = P(x \rightarrow x')$ probabilities for this change
7. Generate a random number "r" between 0 and 1
8. If $r \leq P$ accept the flip and update the value of the energy to E' and magnetization to M'
If $r > P$ reject the spin flip and take again the initial E and M values in the needed averages
9. Repeat the steps 4 - 8 many times (drive the system to the desired canonical distribution of the states)
10. Repeat the steps 4 -8 by collecting the values of E, E^2 , M, M^2 , for the needed averages
11. Compute this average for a large number of microstates
12. Calculate the value of $m(T)$, $\langle E(T) \rangle$, $C_v(T)$ and $\chi(T)$ using the given formulas
13. Change the temperature and repeat the algorithm for the new temperatures as well.
14. Construct the desired $m(T)$, $\langle E(T) \rangle$, $C_v(T)$, $\chi(T)$ curves

Finite-size effects

- The biggest problem with computer simulations is that it can be performed for relatively small systems (far from the ones needed in thermodynamics) $N \ll N_A$
- Real phase-transition (real divergences in the thermodynamic quantities - derivatives of the thermodynamic potential) is possible only in infinite systems! In a finite-size system the correlation length cannot diverge and it is cut by the size of the system \rightarrow instead of divergences rounded maximum or continuous behavior is obtained.
- The results obtained by MC simulations for finite systems has to be carefully evaluated and extrapolated for infinite systems! \rightarrow finite size scaling is needed!
- Important quantities that have to be scaled: $m(T)$, $C_v(T)$, $\chi(T)$ curves and the value of T_c



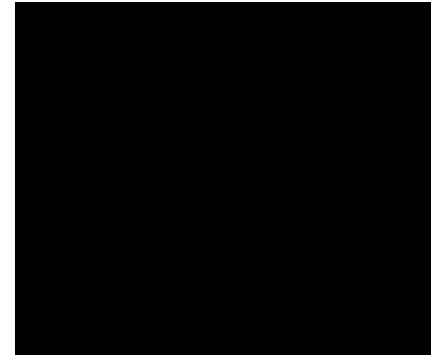
The order parameter $m(T)$ as a function of T for different system sizes



Specific heat $C_v(T)$ as a function of T for various system sizes

Observations and technical points:

- the considered $P(\underline{x} \rightarrow \underline{x}')$ transitions leads to an **ergodic Markov process**
- **one MC step** is defined as N spin flip trials !
- By applying the above algorithm for $T < T_c$ one can also follow how the order arises in the system. This dynamics might not necessarily be the "real one". **The Metropolis MC method is intended to yield equilibrium properties and not dynamical simulation of the system!**
- It is believed that the Glauber probabilities gives a realistic picture for the dynamics as well!
- One way of making the system quasi-infinite is to impose **periodic boundary conditions** (see the exercise in the computer codes!) \rightarrow however this cuts also the correlation length
- The simple Metropolis and Glauber algorithm can be further improved, designing more clever and faster methods



Efficient MC techniques

I. At low temperatures $T \ll T_c$ the Metropolis and Glauber algorithm is inefficient. After equilibrium is reached (spins are ordered) most of the spin-flips are rejected, and computer time is wasted \rightarrow very long simulations are needed to get a reasonable estimate for the averages. This drawback is eliminated by the BKL MC algorithm, see [A. B. Bortz, M.H. Kalos and J.L. Lebowitz, J. Comp. Phys. Vol. 17, 10 \(1975\)](#)

II. In the neighborhood of T_c the Metropolis and Glauber algorithm is inefficient due to the critical slowing down \rightarrow the relaxation time is linked to the correlation length by the **dynamical critical exponent, z** .

as $T \rightarrow T_c$ we have $\xi \rightarrow \infty$ and get that $\tau \rightarrow \infty$

The big problem: for the Metropolis or the Glauber algorithm $z=2$!!! \rightarrow There are many MC steps necessary to generate independent (uncorrelated configurations) \rightarrow the sampling is restricted only to a small part of the state-space (The system has a long memory). This problem is partially solved by flipping together clusters of correlated spins (cluster algorithms) see: [U. Wolff, PRL vol. 62, 361 \(1989\)](#); [R.H. Swendsen and J-S. Wang, PRL vol. 58, 86 \(1987\)](#)

III. Quantum-statistical models (Hubbard, Stoner, T-J, etc...) can be studied by Quantum MC methods, see: [J. Tobochnik, G. Batrouni and H. Gould, Computers in Physics, vol. 6, 673 \(1992\)](#)

IV. Frustrated, spin-glass type models (Edward-Anderson, Potts glass, etc...) can be studied also by MC methods. One of these is the simulated annealing method, see: [S. Kirkpatrick, G.D. Gelatt and M.P. Vecchi, Science vol. 220, 671 \(1983\)](#)

Conclusions

- MC methods are powerful tools for numerically studying various models of magnetism.
- MC methods can be implemented on normal PC type computers, no supercomputers are needed.
- MC methods are easy to learn ... however some basic programming experience is needed
- Mastering the MC method opens possibilities for studying many other models in solid-state physics, biophysics, ecology, economics, sociology, nuclear and medical physics, etc....
- The most cited paper in statistical physics is the paper of Metropolis et. al!