

Dynamics of the Ising model

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- So far we have only discussed the properties of the canonical (thermal) state of the Ising model
- here the probability to find the system in a microstate $\{S_i\} = S$ given by

$$p_{\text{th}}(S) = \frac{e^{-\beta E\{\Sigma S_i\}}}{Z} = \frac{e^{-\beta E(S)}}{Z}$$

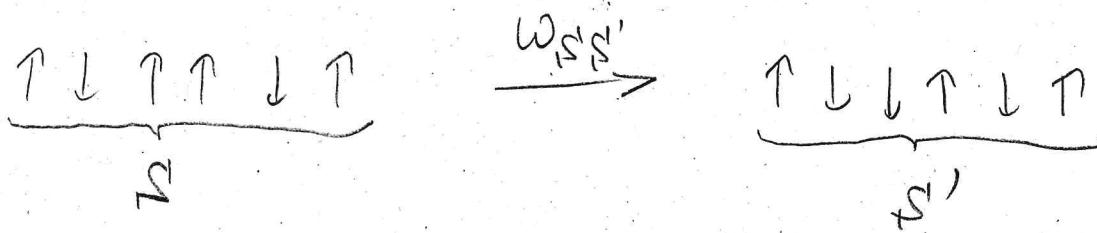
where $E\{\Sigma S_i\}$ is the energy of the microstate / spin configuration and Z the partition function

- Statistical mechanics does not have a prescription concerning the dynamics, unlike quantum mechanics, where the Hamiltonian determines both, the energetics and the temporal evolution

a way for modelling the dynamics (53) of the Ising model is through a rate equation of the form (so called Markovian master equation)

$$\frac{\partial p(s,t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{s'} \left[w_{ss'} p(s',t) - w_{s's} p(s,t) \right]$$

here $w_{ss'}$ is the transition rate between two microstates s and s' , e.g.



which corresponds to a single spin flip

the stationary state of the master equation is defined by $\frac{\partial p(s,t)}{\partial t} = 0$

$$\hookrightarrow \sum_{s'} [w_{ss'} p(s',t) - w_{s's} p(s,t)] = 0,$$

which needs to be satisfied for all microstates s

note, that stationarity merely requires (54)

the sum over all terms to be zero, i.e. the net flow of probability between each microstate $\$$ and all other states vanishes.

a particular solution is given by the case in which all terms of the sum exactly cancel

$$\hookrightarrow w_{\$\$'} p_{eq}(\$) = w_{\$'\$} p_{eq}(\$') \text{ for all } \$, \$'$$

this condition is called detailed balance, and a state (probability distribution) that satisfies

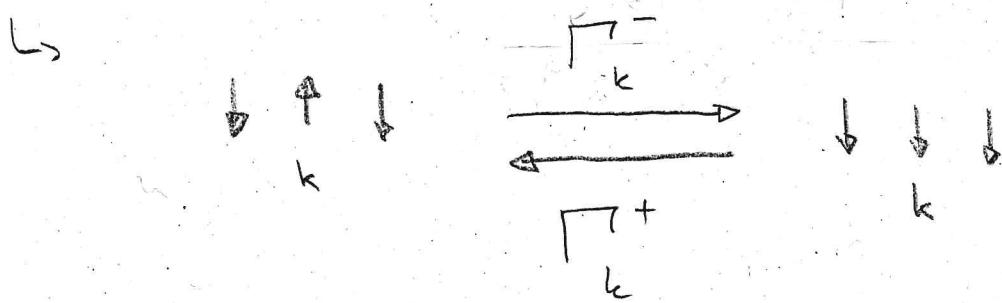
$$\frac{p_{eq}(\$)}{p_{eq}(\$')} = \frac{w_{\$\$'}}{w_{\$'\$}}$$

is called an equilibrium state

therefore, in order to obtain a stationary state, that is the canonical state, we have to choose the rates accordingly to

$$\frac{w_{\$\$'}}{w_{\$'\$}} = \frac{p_{th}(\$)}{p_{th}(\$')} = \frac{e^{-\beta E(\$)}}{e^{-\beta E(\$')}} = e^{-\beta(E(\$)-E(\$'))}$$

- this condition fixes only the ratio of the rates
- therefore, there is a lot of freedom in choosing the rates; e.g. we can multiply them by a constant or even a function of the spin configuration, and still the stationary state would remain (in principle) the same
- the simplest dynamics is the so-called Glauber dynamics which consists of single spin flips



with rates:

$$\Gamma^{\pm} = \frac{e^{\pm \beta E(S_{k-1} + S_{k+1})}}{e^{\beta E(S_{k-1} + S_{k+1})} - e^{-\beta E(S_{k-1} + S_{k+1})}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (1 \pm \tanh(\beta E(S_{k-1} + S_{k+1})))$$

possible, because

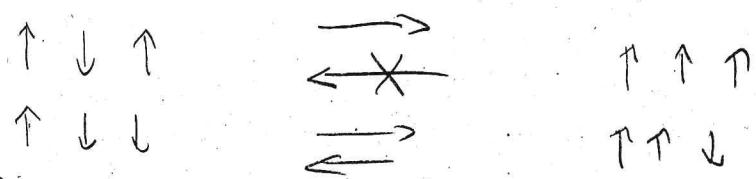
S_{k+1} only take values -1 and +1

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left(1 \pm \frac{1}{2} (S_{k-1} + S_{k+1}) \tanh(2\beta E) \right)$$

when $T \rightarrow 0$, i.e. $\beta \rightarrow \infty$ these rates become particularly simple:

$$\Gamma_k^\pm \xrightarrow{\beta \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{2} \left(1 \pm \frac{1}{2} (S_{k-1} + S_{k+1}) \right)$$

here only spin flips, that lower or conserve the energy can take place



let us now investigate, how the dynamics of observables, such as the magnetisation or correlation functions can be calculated with the help of the master equations

to this end it is actually convenient to introduce a bra-ket notation like usually in quantum mechanics

introducing the probability vector

$$|p\rangle = \sum_{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N} p_{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N} |s_1\rangle |s_2\rangle \dots |s_N\rangle, \text{ with } |s_j\rangle = \begin{cases} |1\rangle \\ |-1\rangle \end{cases}$$

allows us to write the master equations as

$\partial_t |\psi\rangle = W |\psi\rangle$, where W is the so-called dynamical or master operator

- an important role in this formulation plays the reference vector

$$|\Pi\rangle = \sum_{S_1, \dots, S_N = \pm 1} |S_1 \dots S_N\rangle = (|1\rangle + |-1\rangle) (|1\rangle + |-1\rangle) \dots (|1\rangle + |-1\rangle)$$

with the help of which we can write

The normalisation condition $\langle \Pi | \psi \rangle = 1$ (sum over all probabilities is one)

- this also implies $\partial_t \underbrace{\langle \Pi | \psi \rangle}_0 = \langle \Pi | W | \psi \rangle \rightarrow \langle \Pi | W | \psi \rangle = 0$

and hence $\langle \Pi | W = 0$, i.e. $|\Pi\rangle$ is a left-eigenvector of W with eigenvalue 0 (all columns of W sum up to zero)

- the expectation value of a quantity X is calculated according to $\langle X \rangle = \langle \Pi | X | \psi \rangle$

- the dynamical operator of the 1d Ising model under Glauber dynamics is

$$\begin{aligned} W &= \sum_{k=1}^N \left[\Gamma_k^+ \begin{pmatrix} (00) \\ (01) \\ (10) \\ (11) \end{pmatrix} + \Gamma_k^- \begin{pmatrix} (00) \\ (10) \\ (01) \\ (11) \end{pmatrix} \right] \\ &= \sum_{k=1}^N \begin{pmatrix} -\Gamma_k^- \Gamma_k^+ \\ \Gamma_k^- - \Gamma_k^+ \end{pmatrix}_k, \text{ with } \Gamma_k^\pm = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 \pm \frac{1}{2} (\gamma_2^{k+1} \gamma_2^{k+1}) \tan(2\beta\epsilon) \right) \end{aligned}$$

- the time evolution of the expectation value of the magnetisation of the m -th Spur is then calculated according to

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \langle \mathbb{H} | \sigma_z^m \partial_t | p \rangle = \partial_t \langle \sigma_z^m \rangle = \partial_t M_m \\
 &= \langle \mathbb{H} | \sigma_z^m W | p \rangle \\
 &= \underbrace{\langle \mathbb{H} | \sigma_z^m \left(\begin{smallmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{smallmatrix} \right)_m \Gamma_m^+ | p \rangle}_{\langle \mathbb{H} | (1 - \sigma_z^m) } + \underbrace{\langle \mathbb{H} | \sigma_z^m \left(\begin{smallmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{smallmatrix} \right)_m \Gamma_m^- | p \rangle}_{- \langle \mathbb{H} | (1 + \sigma_z^m) } \\
 &= - \underbrace{\langle \sigma_z^m \rangle}_{M_m} + \frac{1}{2} \underbrace{\langle (\sigma_z^{m-1} + \sigma_z^{m+1}) \rangle}_{M_{m-1} + M_{m+1}} \tan(2\beta\epsilon)
 \end{aligned}$$

- at $T = 0$ this becomes

$$\partial_t M_m(t) = - M_m(t) + \frac{1}{2} (M_{m-1}(t) + M_{m+1}(t))$$

which describes the evolution of the magnetisation as a function of time

$$\langle \Pi | \sigma_z^m W | p \rangle = \sum_k \langle \Pi | \sigma_z^m \Gamma_k^+ (\sigma_k^+ - \sigma_k^- \sigma_k^+) | p \rangle + \sum_k \langle \Pi | \sigma_z^m \Gamma_k^- (\sigma_k^- - \sigma_k^+ \sigma_k^-) | p \rangle$$

$$= \sum_{k \neq m} \underbrace{\langle \Pi | \Gamma_k^+ (\sigma_k^+ - \sigma_k^- \sigma_k^+) \sigma_z^m | p \rangle}_{\text{O}} + \sum_{k \neq m} \langle \Pi | \Gamma_k^- (\sigma_k^- - \sigma_k^+ \sigma_k^-) \sigma_z^m | p \rangle$$

$$\left(\begin{matrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right)^T \otimes \cdots \otimes \left(\begin{matrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right)^T \underbrace{\left(\begin{matrix} 0 & \Gamma_k^+ \\ 0 & -\Gamma_k^+ \end{matrix} \right)_k}_{\text{O}} \otimes \left(\begin{matrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right)^T \sigma_z^m \otimes \cdots \otimes |p\rangle$$

$$+ \underbrace{\langle \Pi | \sigma_z^m \Gamma_m^+ (\sigma_m^+ - \sigma_m^- \sigma_m^+) | p \rangle}_{\left(\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{matrix} \right)} + \langle \Pi | \sigma_z^m \Gamma_m^- (\sigma_m^- - \sigma_m^+ \sigma_m^-) | p \rangle$$

$$\left(\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{matrix} \right) \left(\begin{matrix} 0 & \Gamma_m^+ \\ 0 & -\Gamma_m^+ \end{matrix} \right)$$

$$\left(\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{matrix} \right) \left(\begin{matrix} 0 & \Gamma_m^+ \\ 0 & -\Gamma_m^+ \end{matrix} \right) = \left(\begin{matrix} 0 & 0 \\ 2\Gamma_m^+ & 0 \end{matrix} \right) = \left(\begin{matrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 2\Gamma_m^+ \end{matrix} \right)$$

$$= \left(\begin{matrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{matrix} \right)^T (\mathbb{1} - \sigma_z^m) \Gamma_m^+$$

$$= \langle \Gamma_m^+ \rangle - \langle \sigma_z^m \Gamma_m^+ \rangle - \langle \Gamma_m^- \rangle - \langle \sigma_z^m \Gamma_m^- \rangle$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \langle \sigma_z^{m-1} + \sigma_z^{m+1} \rangle \tanh(z\beta\epsilon) - \frac{1}{2} \langle \sigma_z^m + \sigma_z^m \rangle$$

$$= -\langle \sigma_z^m \rangle + \frac{1}{2} (\langle \sigma_z^{m-1} \rangle + \langle \sigma_z^{m+1} \rangle) \tanh(z\beta\epsilon)$$

Coarsening in the Ising model

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- having access to the time dependence of observables of the Ising model allows to consider non-equilibrium situations
- interesting is for instance to understand the evolution of a paramagnet after the temperature is suddenly changed to below T_c (this is called a quench)
- the stationary state should be magnetised, but how this state is assumed from a paramagnetic initial condition is surprisingly interesting
- the phenomenon occurring here is called coarsening
- this means that after the quench, domains of locally uniform magnetisation are grown in a self-similar way
- the typical size of the magnetic domains, L , follows a power-law as a function of time, i.e. $L \propto t^n$ with the power n being dependent on the considered dynamics e.g. Glauber dynamics

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we study this phenomena using

$$\text{the correlation } C(|i-j|, t) = \langle \sigma_z^i \sigma_z^j \rangle(t)$$

this function follows the equation of motion

$$r \neq 0 : \frac{\partial}{\partial t} C(r, t) = C(r+1, t) - 2C(r, t) + C(r-1, t)$$

$$r=0 : C(0, t) = 1 \quad \text{for all times}$$

in order to solve this equation we consider the continuum limit, i.e. we assume, that the separation r between spins is a continuous variable

we can then approximate:

$$C(r \pm 1, t) \approx C(r, t) \pm \frac{\partial}{\partial r} C(r, t) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} C(r, t)$$

$$\hookrightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial t} C(r, t) = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} C(r, t)$$

This is the diffusion equation, which indeed has a so-called scaling solution, in which time and space are connected via a power law: $C(r, t) = f(\underbrace{rt^{-1/2}}_x)$

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- inserting the scaling ansatz into the differential equation leads to

$$\partial_x^2 f(x) = -\frac{x}{2} \partial_x f(x)$$

- integrating with the boundary conditions $f(0) = 1$ and $f(\infty) = 0$ leads to

$$C(r, t) = \text{erfc}\left(\frac{r}{2t^{1/2}}\right); \quad \text{erf}(x) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^x e^{-t^2} dt$$

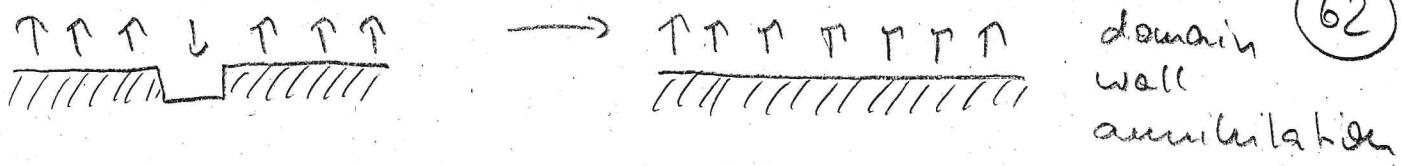
- this is the time dependence of the correlation function in the domain growth / coarsening regime.
- under the Glauber dynamics the typical domain size L therefore follows

$$L \propto t^{1/2}$$

- the same result can actually be found with the following simple considerations:
at $T=0$ only the following two processes have a non-zero rate

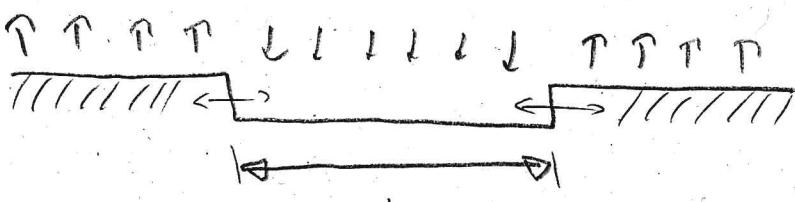


domain
wall
diffusion



domain
wall
annihilation

- the borders (walls) of a domain of length L



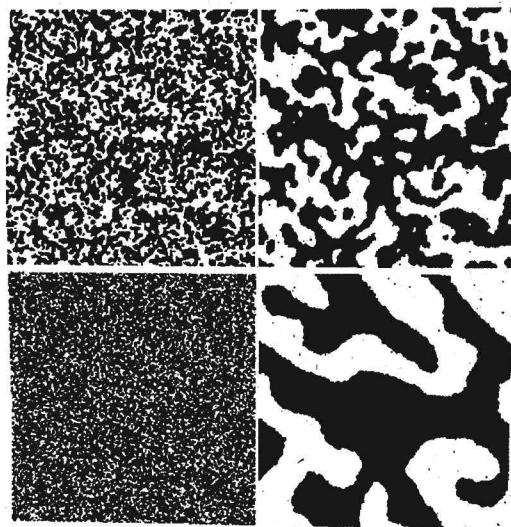
perform a random walk, and in order for both walls to meet and annihilate on average L^2 time steps (spin flips) are required

- therefore: $t_{\text{annihilation}} \propto L^2$, which confirms the previously found scaling

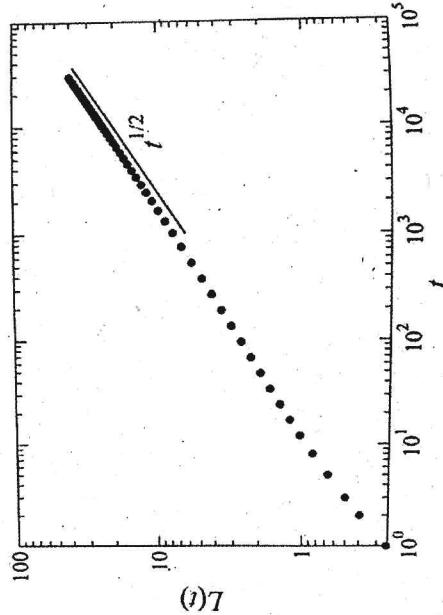
- this result is a direct consequence of the fact that at zero temperature the Glauber dynamics leads to domain wall diffusion

- so one would expect that a different type of dynamics could lead to different scaling behaviour

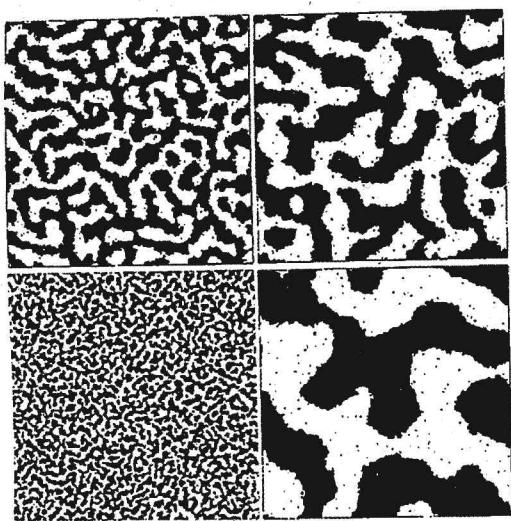
Glauber dynamics



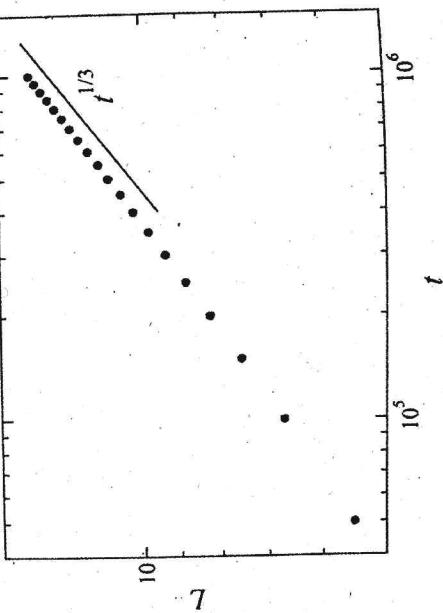
- 1000 x 1000 sites
- Quench from infinite T to $T=0.661 T_c$
- $T=10, 10^2, 10^3, 10^4$



Kawasaki dynamics



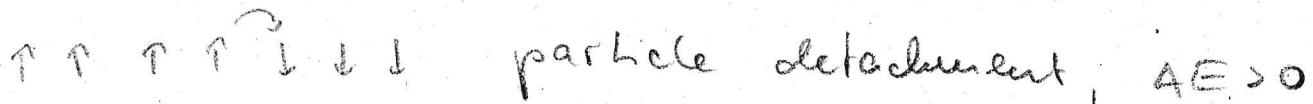
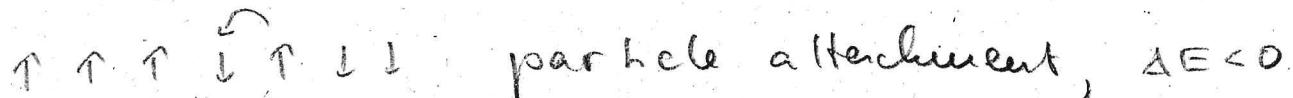
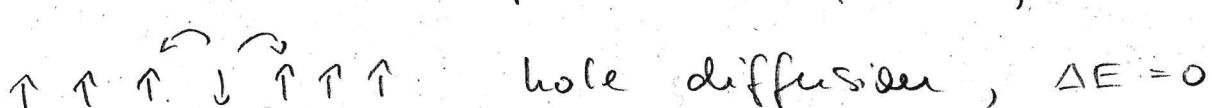
- 256 x 256 sites
- Quench from infinite T to $T=0.661 T_c$
- $T=10^2, 10^4, 10^5, 10^6$



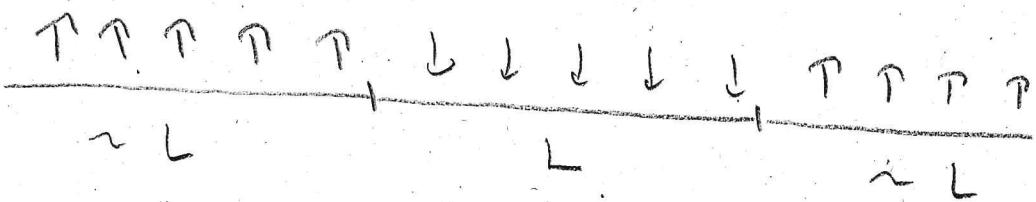
This is indeed the case, and we will study this using the so-called Kawasaki spin-exchange dynamics.

- This dynamics conserves the magnetisation, i.e. the number of up and down spins is not changed under the dynamics.

- The dynamical rules are as follows:



- Let us now consider the dynamics of a domain configuration of the following form:



- The first difference to the Glauber dynamics is that at $T=0$ nothing can move, i.e. we need a finite temperature, so that the first spin can detach: $\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \rightarrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \uparrow \downarrow$

- This is happening on a time scale $\tau_0 \sim e^{2\beta E}$, since the rate is $\sim e^{-2\beta E}$
- Suppose that such detachment is happening, then an up spin has to move by L sites in order to travel from one to the other domain of up-spins
- This happens with probability $p(L)$, and thus the time for one spin moving from one $\uparrow\uparrow$ -domain to the other is $\tau_0 \approx e^{2\beta E} / p(L)$
- to estimate the time at which one $\uparrow\uparrow$ -domain has completely moved over to the other $\uparrow\uparrow$ -domain one needs to realise that in fact the $\downarrow\downarrow$ -domain needs to move by L sites in order for that to happen
- This is a random walk which requires on average L^2 steps
- Hence the timescale for the merging of the $\uparrow\uparrow$ -domains is $t(L) \approx e^{\beta E_0} \frac{L^2}{p(L)}$

- The probability $p(L)$ can be calculated as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 p(L) &= p(L-1) \times \frac{1}{2} = (\text{probability of hopping } \\
 &\quad L-1 \text{ sites}) \times (\text{probability} \\
 &\quad \text{to hop to the final site}) \\
 &+ p(L-1) \times \frac{1}{2} \times (1-p(L-1)) \times \frac{1}{2} = (\text{prob. of hopping } \\
 &\quad L-1 \text{ sites}) \times \\
 &\quad (\text{prob. of not} \\
 &\quad \text{hopping to final} \\
 &\quad \text{site}) \times (\text{prob. of} \\
 &\quad \text{not hopping back} \\
 &\quad \text{to the other} \\
 &\quad \text{domain}) \times (\text{prob. of} \\
 &\quad \text{hopping to} \\
 &\quad \text{final site}) \\
 &+ p(L-1) \times \frac{1}{2} \times (1-p(L-1)) \times \frac{1}{2} \times (1-p(L-1)) \times \frac{1}{2} \\
 &+ \dots \\
 &= \frac{p(L-1)}{2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[\frac{1-p(L-1)}{2} \right]^n = \frac{p(L-1)}{1+p(L-1)}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\hookrightarrow p(L) = \frac{p(L-1)}{1+p(L-1)} \rightarrow p(L) = \frac{1}{L}$$

- hence, the time scale for the merging of the $\pi\pi$ -domains is

$$t(L) \approx e^{\beta \epsilon_0} L^3 \rightarrow L \sim t^{1/3}$$

- the power law for the scaling regime of the coarsening dynamics is different to the Glauber dynamics

- This difference in the scaling behaviour is in fact a consequence of the conservation law of the Kawasaki dynamics

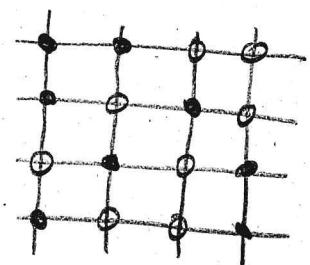
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Out-of-equilibrium processes and phase transitions

- we will now consider phase transitions in many-body systems which cannot be described within the framework of equilibrium statistical mechanics
- for these out-of-equilibrium processes we cannot formulate a canonical partition function
- they are described merely through their dynamics, which may be formulated by a Markovian master equation
- paradigmatic examples are given by dynamical processes that feature an absorbing state, for instance some cellular automata
- an absorbing state is a microstate that can be entered dynamically, but which cannot be left anymore
(This violates detailed balance)

- an example is given by the Contact process

- it is defined on a d-dimensional square lattice, whose sites are labelled by k
- each site can either be empty ($S_k = 0$; healthy) or occupied ($S_k = 1$; infected)
- the state of the lattice is updated, i.e. propagated in time, via the following rules:
 - probability for going from infected to healthy



- healthy
- infected

$$\omega(1 \rightarrow 0) = \Gamma \quad \bullet \rightarrow \circ$$

↳ an infected site can spontaneously heal

- probability for going from healthy to infected

$$\omega(0 \rightarrow 1) = \frac{\lambda}{2d} \times (\text{number of infected neighbors}) \quad \circ \circ \rightarrow \bullet \bullet$$

↳ a site can only be infected if at least one of its neighbors is infected

→ the state in which all sites are healthy is absorbing, i.e. once it is reached one cannot escape

- we can cast this dynamics into a master equation by introducing the operator

$$h_k = \langle 00 \rangle = \frac{S_k^k + 1}{2}, \text{ which projects on the infected state of site } k$$

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using furthermore the spin raising and lowering operators, σ_k^\pm , we find for the contact process in 1 dimension the following equation:

W (dynamical operator)

$$\partial_t |p\rangle = \sum_k \underbrace{[r[\sigma_k^- - n_k] + \frac{\lambda}{2} (n_{k-1} + n_{k+1}) [\sigma_k^+ - (1-n_k)]]}_{\begin{array}{l} \text{Spontaneous infection due to} \\ \text{healing} \end{array}} |p\rangle$$

we can now calculate the time evolution of the local density of infected sites

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_t \langle n_m \rangle &= \langle 1 | n_m \partial_t | p \rangle = -r \langle n_m \rangle \\ &\quad + \frac{\lambda}{2} \langle (n_{m-1} + n_{m+1}) (1 - n_m) \rangle \end{aligned}$$

This is not a closed equation, because the right-hand-side depends on the correlation functions $\langle n_{m-1} n_m \rangle$, which themselves are subjects to an equation of motion

$$\partial_t \langle n_{m-1} n_m \rangle = \langle 1 | n_{m-1} n_m W | p \rangle \propto \langle n_{m-1} n_m n_{m+1} \rangle + \dots$$

This hierarchy of coupled equations never closes

- for an approximate solution we employ a mean field approximation:

$$\langle n_{m+1} n_m \rangle \approx \langle n_{m+1} \rangle \langle n_m \rangle \quad \text{multi-site correlations are neglected}$$

$$\langle n_{m+1} \rangle \approx \langle n_m \rangle = g \quad \text{the density of infected sites is assumed to be homogeneous}$$

- this leads to the following mean field equation: $\partial_t g = \lambda g(1-g) - rg = (\lambda-r)g - \lambda g^2$

realising, that $\frac{dg}{\lambda g(\frac{\lambda-r}{\lambda}-g)} = \frac{dg}{(\lambda-r)g} + \frac{dg}{(\lambda-r)[\frac{\lambda-r}{\lambda}-g]}$

the mean field equation can be integrated

- using the initial condition $g(0) = 1$

initially the lattice is filled with infected sites, we find the solution

$$g(t) = \frac{\lambda-r}{\lambda - e^{-(\lambda-r)t}}$$

The density of infected sites

$$(\lambda - r)t = c + \log s - \log \left(\frac{\lambda - r}{\lambda} - s \right)$$

$$= c + \log \frac{s}{\frac{\lambda - r}{\lambda} - s}$$

$$\hookrightarrow c e^{(\lambda - r)t} = \frac{s}{\frac{\lambda - r}{\lambda} - s}$$

$$t=0 \rightarrow s=1$$

$$\hookrightarrow c = \frac{1}{\frac{\lambda - r}{\lambda} - 1} \rightarrow c = \frac{1}{-\frac{r}{\lambda}} = -\frac{\lambda}{r}$$

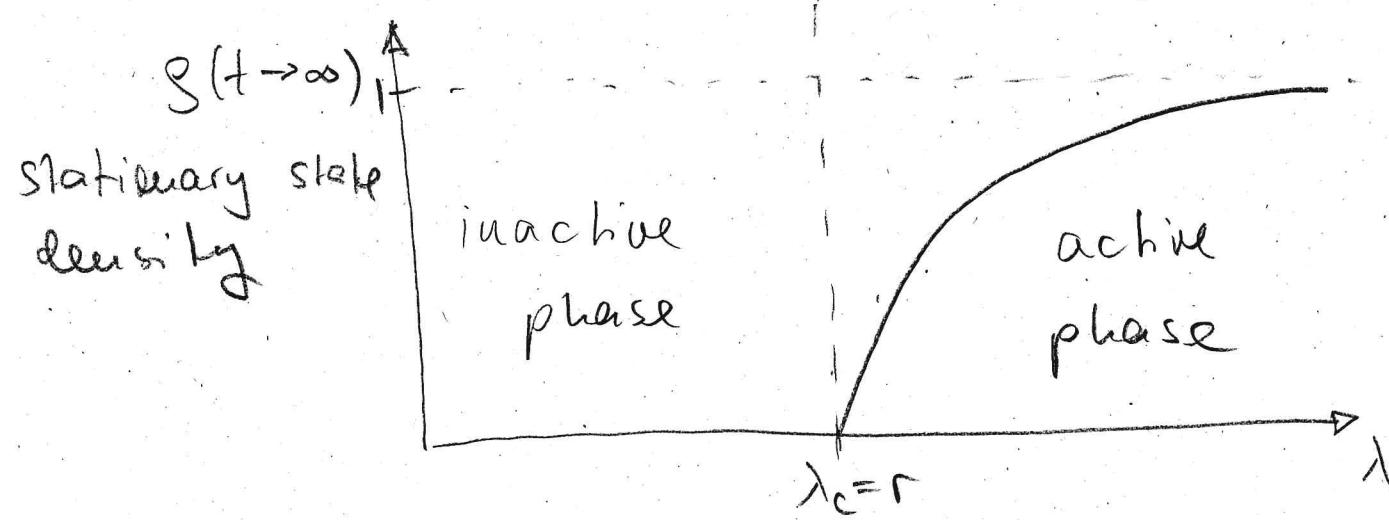
$$\hookrightarrow -\frac{\lambda}{r} e^{(\lambda - r)t} \left(\frac{\lambda - r}{\lambda} - s \right) = s$$

$$-\frac{\lambda - r}{r} e^{(\lambda - r)t} + \frac{\lambda}{r} s e^{(\lambda - r)t} = s$$

$$\frac{\lambda - r}{r} e^{(\lambda - r)t} = s \left(\frac{\lambda}{r} e^{(\lambda - r)t} - 1 \right)$$

$$\hookrightarrow s = \frac{\frac{\lambda - r}{r} e^{(\lambda - r)t}}{\frac{\lambda}{r} e^{(\lambda - r)t} - 1} = \frac{\lambda + r}{\lambda - r e^{-(\lambda - r)t}}$$

- if the infection rate λ is smaller than the recovery rate, we find that the density of infected sites tends to zero: $g(t \rightarrow \infty) = 0$, $\lambda < r$
- Conversely, when $\lambda > r$, we find that apparently, $\lambda_c = r$ marks a critical value of the infection rate, below which the system goes to the (inactive) absorbing state above λ_c the system is in the so-called active phase in which it maintains a finite density of infected sites



- the transition between the inactive and active phase is continuous.
- it can be characterised by a set of critical exponents, which define the so-called directed percolation universality class.
- one exponent is obtained by studying the stationary state density ρ , near stationarity.

$$\rho(t \rightarrow \infty) = \frac{1}{\lambda} (\lambda - r) = \frac{1}{\lambda} (\lambda - \lambda_c) \propto (\lambda - \lambda_c)^\beta$$

$$\hookrightarrow \beta = 1$$

- another exponent can be found by investigating the time dependence at criticality:

$$\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow r} \rho(t) = \frac{1}{1 + rt} \xrightarrow{t \gg 1} t^{-\delta}$$

$$\hookrightarrow \delta = 1$$

- furthermore, we can identify an exponent by analysing the correlation time in the inactive phase.

$g(t) \underset{t \gg 1}{\approx} (\Gamma - \lambda) \exp\left[-\frac{t}{\xi_{||}}\right]$, with $\xi_{||}$ being the correlation time

$$\hookrightarrow \xi_{||} \sim (\lambda - \lambda_c)^{\nu_{||}} \quad \text{with } \nu_{||} = 1$$

- the exponents we have obtained so far are mean field exponents
- the actual exponents have to be calculated numerically
- just like for the Ising model, they depend on dimensionality

	mean field	1d	2d	3d
β	1	0.276	0.584	0.81
δ	1	0.159	0.451	0.73
$\nu_{ }$	1	1.734	1.295	1.11
ν_{\perp}	$1/2$	1.097	0.451	0.73
ρ				

correlation length
in space

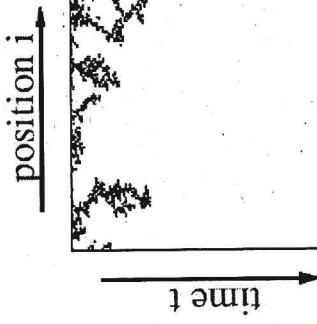
- the actual critical point in 1d is $\lambda_c = 3.298\Gamma$

• note, that in contrast to the Ising model there is a phase transition already in one dimension

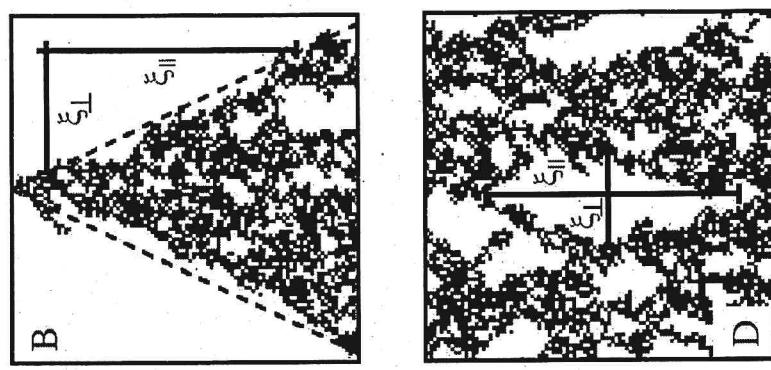
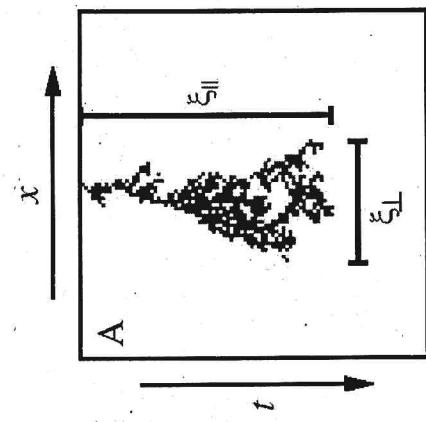
(74)

Phase transition in the contact process

- Inactive and active phase



- Correlation lengths



$$\lambda < \lambda_c$$

$$\lambda > \lambda_c$$

$$\lambda = \lambda_c$$

$$\lambda > \lambda_c$$

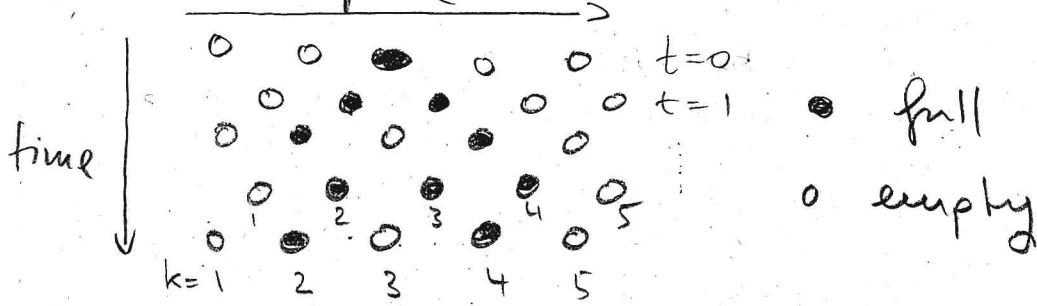
$$\lambda < \lambda_c$$

Derrida - Kintzel cellular automata

(75)

- Many basic models of non-equilibrium phase transitions can be formulated as dynamical processes of particles moving on a lattice
- Cellular automata are a particular class :
 - each lattice site can at most be occupied by a single particle (exclusion)
 - the dynamical rules are local, i.e. state changes of a particle depend only on particles in the direct neighbourhood
 - the dynamics is Markovian, i.e. the configuration at time $t+1$ depends only on configuration at time t
- Deterministic cellular automata were introduced at the beginning of the 20th century by John von Neumann
- Derrida and Kintzel introduced stochastic cellular automata in the 1980s, (probabilistic) which serve as an important paradigm for non-equilibrium processes

- DK models are defined on a tilted square lattice whose sites are either empty or full



- the horizontal / vertical directions are space / time
- all sites of the lattice are initially empty, except for the first line, which contains the initial state
- the propagation in time proceeds line by line, where the line corresponding to time t is updated depending on the state of line $t-1$
- the update rules are

configuration at $t-1$

fill site at time t with probability p

fill with probability p

fill with probability q

don't do anything if there are two empty sites at time t

- the DK models have (at least) one absorbing state, which is the empty state 0 0 0 0 0 0

(77)

Therefore, it is not really surprising that there is an extremely close link to the contact process and the directed percolation universality class.

- this can be seen by considering the evolution of the density of filled sites $\langle n_k^t \rangle$; $n_k^t = \prod_{k=1}^t X_k$

↳ the dynamical rules lead to the following equation:

$$\langle n_k^{t+1} \rangle = p \langle n_k^t (1-n_{k+1}^t) \rangle + p \langle (1-n_k^t) n_{k+1}^t \rangle + q \langle n_k^t n_{k+1}^t \rangle$$

- employing a mean field treatment as we have done already in case of the contact process, and denoting $s_t = \langle n_k^t \rangle = \langle n_{k+1}^t \rangle$, one finds for the density of filled sites the following difference equation:

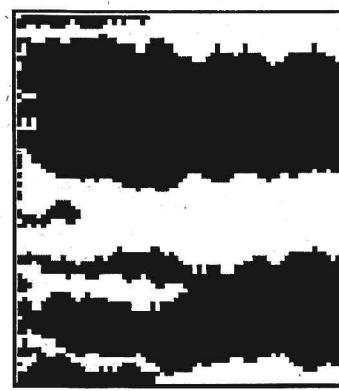
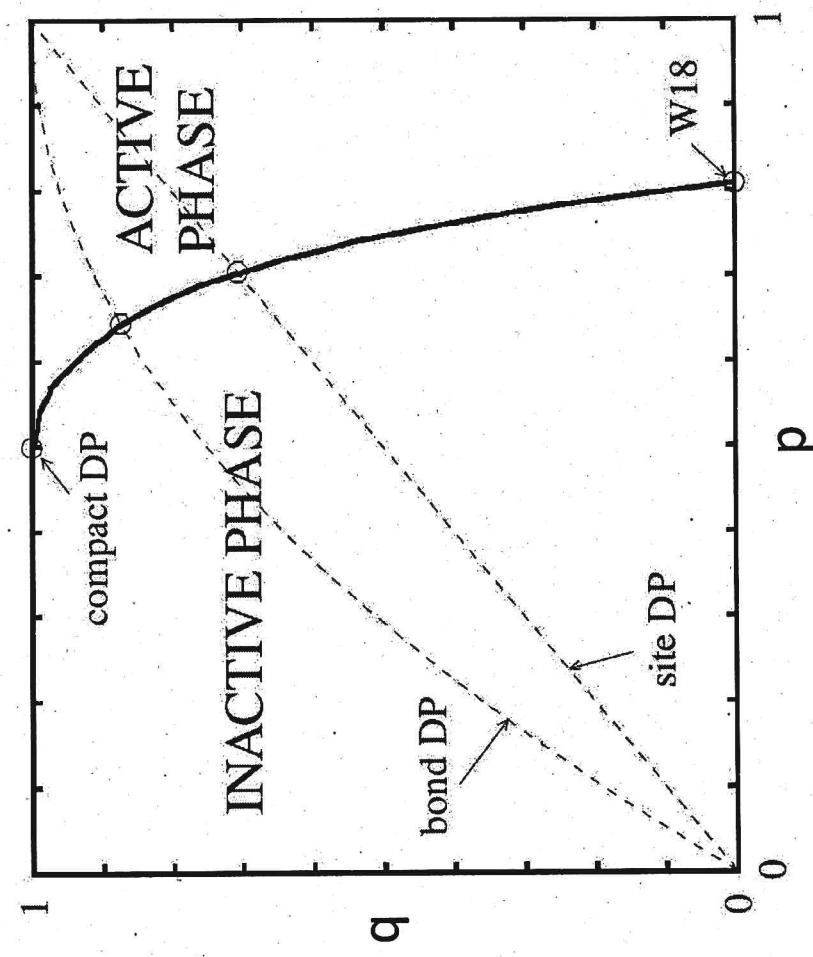
$$s_{t+1} - s_t = 2p s_t (1-s_t) + q s_t^2 - s_t$$

- turning this into a differential equation, using $S_{t+1} - S_t \approx \partial_t S$ and rearranging the terms, yields (78)

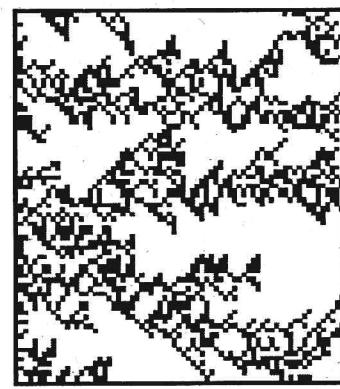
$$\partial_t g(t) = (2p-1)g(t) - (2p-q)g^2(t)$$
- this is precisely the same mean field equation that we obtained for the contact process
- in fact it turns out that also the DK cellular automata feature a phase transition between an absorbing state and an active phase which is in the directed percolation universality class, i.e. the critical exponents are the same
- except, when $q=1$!
- here the mean field equation becomes

$\partial_t g(t) = (2p-1)g(t)[1-g(t)]$ and apparently both, the empty state ($g=0$) and the completely filled state ($g=1$) are stationary states of the dynamics.

Phase diagram of the Domany-Kinzel cellular automaton



compact DP

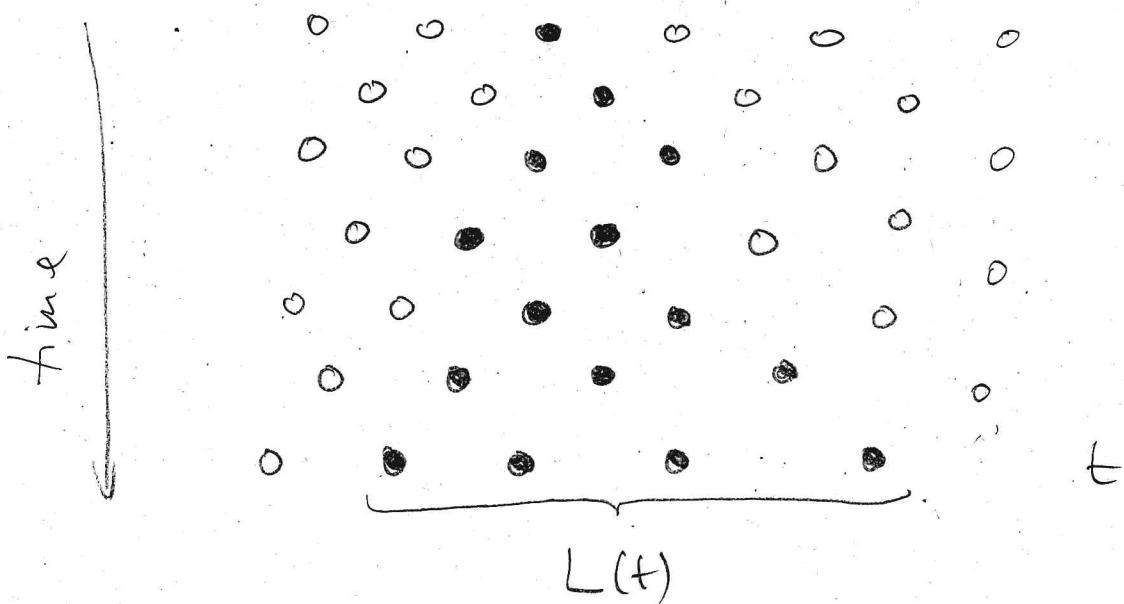


Wolfram rule 18



bond DP

- this dynamics has a higher symmetry than the contact process because it is invariant under the exchange of healthy and infected sites $\circ \leftrightarrow \bullet$
- this is a so-called particle-hole symmetry, which not only leads to two absorbing states (0000 and $\bullet\bullet\bullet\bullet$) but results also in different universal behaviour near the transition between the active and the inactive phase
- the universality class in this case goes under the name compact directed percolation
- the name stems from the fact that the dynamics creates compact clusters, i.e. clusters of infected sites without holes



- the phase Beensilber point can be (80) directly inferred from the particle-hole symmetry

- we have $\begin{array}{cccccc} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ \cdot & & \cdot & \cdot & & \end{array}$
with probability $\begin{array}{ccccc} 1 & & p & p & 0 \end{array}$

- and $\begin{array}{ccccc} \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot & \cdot \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$
with probability $\begin{array}{ccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{array}$

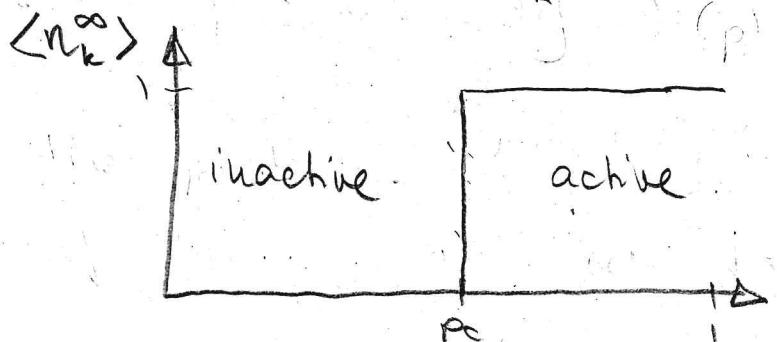
- however, we can exchange hole and particles, such that for the critical value of p it must hold that: $p_c = 1 - p_c$

$$\hookrightarrow p_c = \frac{1}{2}$$

- below the critical point the stationary state is the empty one: $\begin{array}{cccccc} 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array}$

- by symmetry, however, the stationary state must be the completely filled one: $\begin{array}{cccccc} 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 & 1 \end{array}$

- therefore, the stationary state density of occupied sites, $\langle n_k^\infty \rangle$, follows



This behaviour is markedly different with respect to the contact process

↳ near the critical point the density of filled sites behaves as

$$\langle n_k^\infty \rangle \propto (p - p_c)^\beta \quad \text{with } \beta = 0$$

this "critical exponent" is clearly different to that of the directed percolation universality class

we can find another critical exponent by studying the survival probability $P(p)$ of a seed;  as a function of p

in each time step the size $L(t)$ of the cluster of filled sites can either grow, shrink or remain constant:

$$L(t+1) = \begin{cases} L(t) + 1, & \text{with probability } p^2 \\ L(t), & \text{with probability } 2p(1-p) \\ L(t) - 1, & \text{with probability } (1-p)^2 \end{cases}$$

- hence, $L(t)$ performs an asymmetric random walk with a probability

$$r = \frac{p^2}{p^2 + (1-p)^2} \text{ to move to the right}$$

and probability $1-r$ to move to the left

(the probability for maintaining the length is not important here, as it merely changes the duration of an effective time step)

- in order to calculate $P(p)$ we need to compute the probability that $L(t=\infty) = \infty$, knowing that $L(0) = 1$ and that there is an absorbing barrier at $L=0$ (here the system enters the absorbing state 00000)
- this problem is actually known as the "Gambler's ruin": here, $L(t)$ is the amount of Euros the gambler possesses and in each time step he/she can win or lose 1 Euro
- bankruptcy therefore corresponds to $L=0$, and the survival probability $P(p)$ is thus just the probability winning w Euros with $w \rightarrow \infty$, starting with 1 Euro

(83)

the probability of winning w Euros, starting from n Euros shall be denoted by R_n

$\hookrightarrow R_0 = 0$, started with 0 Euros makes it impossible to win $R_w = 1$, having w Euros wins

the gambler starts with n Euros and wins the first bet with probability r . He/She then has $n+1$ Euros and thus the probability to reach w Euros is R_{n+1} .

conversely, if he/she loses with probability $1-r$, he/she remains with $n-1$ Euros and the probability to win w Euros is R_{n-1} .

\hookrightarrow this leads to the recurrence relation

$$R_n = r R_{n+1} + (1-r) R_{n-1} \quad (0 < n < w)$$

with boundary conditions

$$R_0 = 0 \quad \text{and} \quad R_w = 1$$

- The equation is solved with the ansatz $R_n = x^n$.

- This yields the so-called characteristic equation

$$rx^2 - x + (1-r) = 0$$

- its solutions are

$$x = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{1-r}{r}, \\ 1 \end{array} \right.$$

- The solution of the recurrence relation is thus $R_n = a \cdot \left(\frac{1-r}{r}\right)^n + b \cdot 1^n$,

where a and b have to be determined through the boundary conditions

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= a+b \\ 1 &= a\left(\frac{1-r}{r}\right)^0 + b \quad \rightarrow \quad a = \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1-r}{r}\right)^0 - 1} \\ &\qquad\qquad\qquad b = -a \end{aligned}$$

- Substituting back, this yields

$$R_n = \frac{\left(\frac{1-r}{r}\right)^n - 1}{\left(\frac{1-r}{r}\right)^0 - 1}$$

- we are now interested in the limit $w \rightarrow \infty$ (cluster grows to infinity) and $r \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$.

$$\hookrightarrow \lim_{w \rightarrow \infty} R_n = 1 - \left(\frac{1-r}{r}\right)^n + 1.$$

- the survival probability we are after is then given by R_1

$$\begin{aligned} \hookrightarrow P(p) &= \lim_{w \rightarrow \infty} R_1 = 1 - \left(\frac{1-r}{r}\right) \\ &= \frac{2}{p^2} \left(p - \frac{1}{2}\right) \end{aligned}$$

close to criticality, i.e. $p = p_c + \epsilon$, we thus find the scaling

$$P(p) \propto (p - p_c)^{\beta'} \text{ with } \beta' = 1$$

- the β' -exponent can also be determined for processes in the directed percolation universality class.
- here $\beta = \beta'$, which is the consequence of the so-called rapidity reversal symmetry

- for compact directed percolation, our exact solution shows that $\beta + \beta'$, and thus we find further confirmation that this universality class is different to directed percolation. (86)