Computational Physics – Lecture 6: Monte Carlo methods I

Kristel Michielsen

Institute for Advanced Simulation
Jülich Supercomputing Centre
Forschungszentrum Jülich
k.michielsen@fz-juelich.de
http://www.fz-juelich.de/ias/jsc/qip



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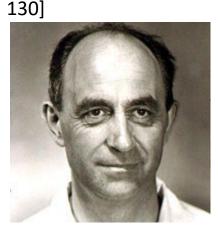


- Broad class of computational algorithms that rely on repeated random sampling to obtain numerical results
- Name refers to gambling casino in Monte Carlo (Monaco), because of the resemblance of the technique to the act of playing and recording results in a gambling game





 Designers of the modern Monte Carlo method in the late 1940's are Enrico Fermi, Stanislav Ulam, John von Neumann, Nicholas Metropolis, and others [N.G. Cooper (ed.), From Cardinals to Chaos, (Cambridge University Press, Cambridge 1989), N. Metropolis, "The beginning of the Monte Carlo method", Los Alamos Science (1987 Special Issue dedicated to Stanislaw Ulam), 125—



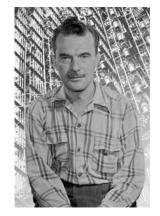
Enrico Fermi
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1901 - 1954



John von Neumann 1903 - 1957



Stanislav Ulam 1909 - 1984



Nicholas Metropolis 1915 - 1999



Principle:

- Consider a domain X of possible events x and a distribution p(x)over it
- Generate events x randomly from p(x)
- Perform a deterministic computation (evaluation) on the events
- Accumulate the results

Characteristics:

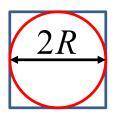
- Stochastic evolution, depending on the sequence of random numbers that has been generated
- Statistical results: A second, different sequence of random numbers will not give the same results as obtained by a first sequence of random numbers but will give results which agree with those obtained from the first sequence of random numbers within some statistical error.

- Stochastic method which is useful when it is difficult or impossible to obtain a closed-form expression, or difficult to apply a deterministic algorithm
- Applications in physics:
 - Simple sampling Monte Carlo methods
 - Numerical integration
 - Percolation
 - Fluid flow
 - Importance sampling Monte Carlo methods
 - (Quantum) statistical physics

Estimation of the value of π

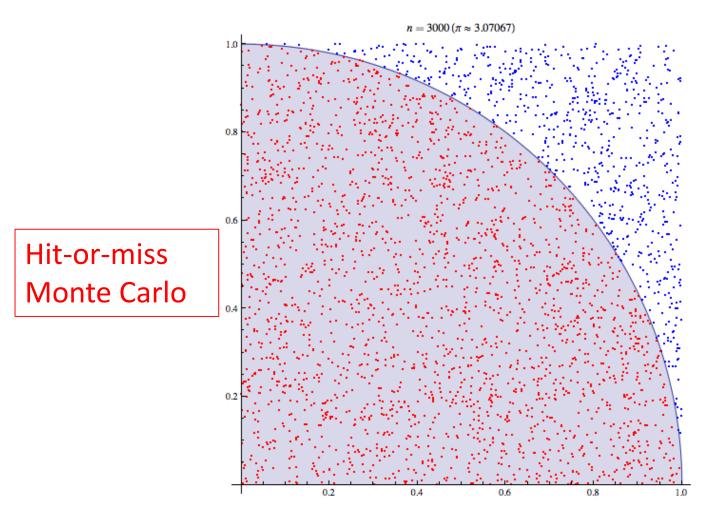
Draw a square with an inscribed circle

$$\frac{A_c}{A_s} = \frac{\pi R^2}{\left(2R\right)^2} = \frac{\pi}{4} \Rightarrow \pi = 4\frac{A_c}{A_s}$$



- Select uniformly distributed random points within the square
- Count the number of points N_c lying within the circle (distance between point and center of circle is $\leq R$) and the total number of points N
- To compute π use: $\pi = 4\frac{A_c}{A_s} \approx 4\frac{N_c}{N}$ Nhas to be sufficiently large!

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Estimation of the value of π



n =30000 random points \rightarrow estimate for π is within 0.07% of the actual value.

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Numerical and Monte Carlo integration

- Numerical (deterministic) and Monte Carlo (stochastic) integration: evaluate integrals that cannot be solved analytically
- First consider elementary algorithms for onedimensional (1D) integrals of the form

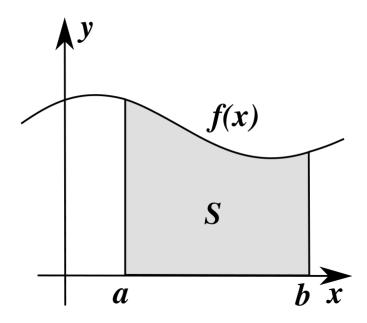
$$I = \int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx$$
 where $f(x)$ can be evaluated at all points in $[a,b]$

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Numerical and Monte Carlo integration

 Task is to compute an approximate solution to the definite integral to a given degree of accuracy

→ find numerical approximations for the

value S



Numerical integration

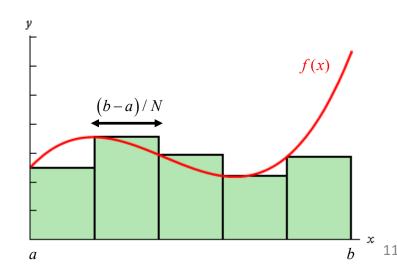
- Divide the domain b-a in N equally sized intervals (b-a)/N and apply the composite
 - Discrete sum (rectangular) rule

$$I \approx I_N = \frac{b-a}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f\left(a + n \frac{b-a}{N}\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{N}\right)$$

$$I = \lim_{N \to \infty} I_N$$

- Error: $O(N^{-1})$
- # function evaluations:

$$M = N$$



Numerical integration

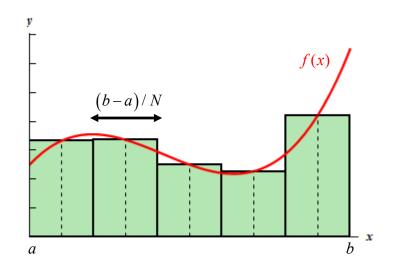
Midpoint rule

$$I \approx I_N = \frac{b - a}{N} \sum_{n=0}^{N-1} f\left(a + \frac{2n+1}{2} \frac{b - a}{N}\right) + O\left(\frac{1}{N^2}\right)$$

$$I = \lim_{N \to \infty} I_N$$

- Error: $O(N^{-2})$
- # function evaluations:

$$M = N$$



Numerical integration

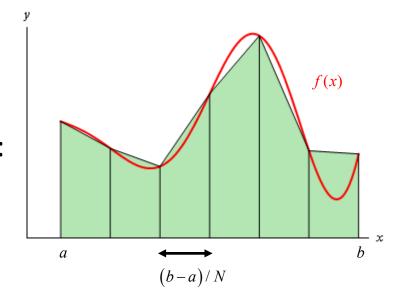
Trapezoidal rule

$$I \approx I_{N} = \frac{b - a}{N} \left(\frac{1}{2} f(a) + \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} f\left(a + n \frac{b - a}{N}\right) + \frac{1}{2} f(b) \right) + O\left(\frac{1}{N^{2}}\right)$$

$$I = \lim_{N \to \infty} I_N$$

- Error: $O(N^{-2})$
- # function evaluations:

$$M = N + 1$$



Numerical integration

Simpson's rule

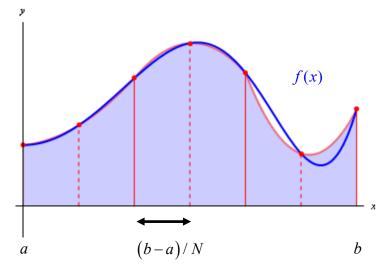
$$I \approx I_N = \frac{b - a}{3N} \left(f(a) + \sum_{n=1}^{N-1} \left(3 - (-1)^n \right) f\left(a + n \frac{b - a}{N} \right) + f(b) \right) + O\left(\frac{1}{N^4}\right)$$

with N even

$$I = \lim_{N \to \infty} I_N$$

- Error: $O(N^{-4})$
- # function evaluations:

$$M = N + 1$$



Numerical integration

- What about d dimensional integrals?
 - Algorithms for multi-dimensional integrals can be carried out "dimension-by-dimension" using one of the 1D formula's
 - Nested numerical integration, e.g. d = 2

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} dx_{1} \int_{c}^{d} dx_{2} f(x_{1}, x_{2}) \rightarrow I_{N} = \int_{a}^{b} dx_{1} F(x_{1})$$

• Evaluate the inner integral using one of the integration rules to obtain a function $F(x_1)$, then integrate this function over x_1 using the same integration rule

Numerical integration

- Overall error: same as for 1D integral, but # function evaluations: $M \approx N^d$
- \rightarrow Error in nested d-dimensional
 - Trapezoidal rule: $O(N^{-2}) = O(M^{-2/d})$
 - Simpson's rule: $O(N^{-4}) = O(M^{-4/d})$
- \rightarrow the number of function evaluations needed to achieve a given tolerance grows exponentially with d ("curse of dimensionality"): an order -n method in 1 dimension is an order -n/d method in d dimensions
- E.g. statistical mechanics: model with N particles has 6N integrals (3N position + 3N momentum)

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Monte Carlo integration

- Evaluation of definite integrals using random numbers
- Particularly useful for higher dimensional integrals
- Simplest case: Determine the integral of f(x) over some fixed interval

$$I = \int_{a}^{b} f(x) dx$$

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Monte Carlo integration

- Hit-or-miss (acceptance-rejection) method:
 - Draw a box extending from a to b and from 0 to y_0 where $y_0 > f(x)$ throughout this interval
 - Generate uniformly distributed random numbers within the box
 - Count the number of points N_0 lying below the curve f(x) and the total number of points N_0
 - Calculate

$$\frac{I}{A_{\text{box}}} = \frac{I}{y_0(b-a)} \approx \frac{N_0}{N} \Rightarrow I \approx \frac{N_0}{N} y_0(b-a)$$

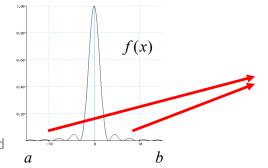


Monte Carlo integration

- Crude (sample-mean) method:
 - Choose N values of x randomly and evaluate f(x) at each value so that

$$I \approx I_N = \frac{(b-a)}{N} \sum_{n=1}^{N} f(x_n)$$

 Simple sampling Monte Carlo integration is not so efficient for sharply peaked functions



In these two regions sampling becomes time inefficient

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Statistical error

Monte Carlo data are reported in the form

$$E[X] = \overline{x} \pm \frac{s}{\sqrt{N}}$$

Graphically:

 $-x \rightarrow \text{symbol (e.g. circle)}$

 $-\frac{s}{\sqrt{N}}$ \rightarrow bar of length $s/2\sqrt{N}$ with x in the centre of the "error bar"

Numerical integration

• Error: $O(N^{-1/2})$ independent of d! (central limit theorem)

$$\left|I-I_N\right| \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \qquad \qquad I = \lim_{N \to \infty} I_N \qquad \qquad \text{Statistical error}$$

- →If d is small, then Monte Carlo has much larger integration errors than numerical integration
- \rightarrow Monte Carlo is as good as Simpson's rule for d = 8
- Note: MC sampling of sharply peaked functions may have a large sampling error since the variance may be larger

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Simulation of radioactive decay

- Consider a sample of N nuclei with decay rate $dN/dt = -\lambda N$ where λ is the decay constant.
- The resulting time dependence of the number of undecayed nuclei is $N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$, where N_0 is the initial number of nuclei.
- Monte Carlo approach:
 - For a given nucleus, the probability P that a nucleus decays in time dt is $P = \lambda dt \rightarrow$ calculate for each nucleus whether it decays or not for some small dt

Simulation of radioactive decay

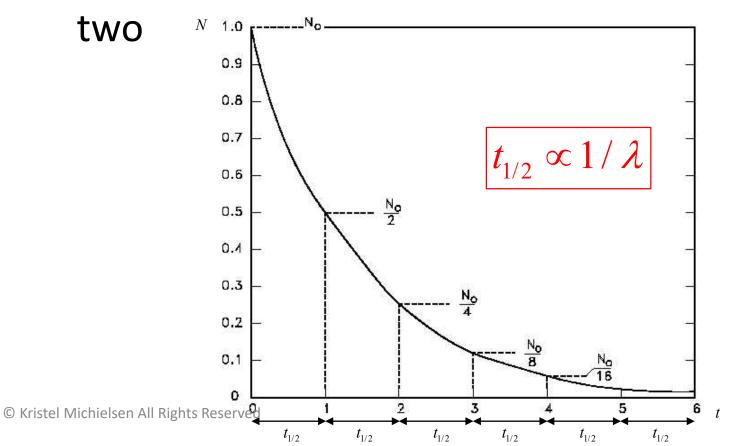
Pseudocode:

```
Input: N_0, \lambda, dt, M (M: number of time steps)
Loop 1: i = 1, M (loop over time)
N_i = N_{i-1}
Loop 2: j = 1, N_i (loop over undecayed nuclei)
Generate a random number 0 \le r \le 1
If r < \lambda * dt then N_i = N_i - 1
End loop2
Write i^*dt and N_i to a file
End loop1
Plot N_k versus k * dt for k = 0, M
Plot N = N_0 * \exp(-\lambda * dt)
```

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Simulation of radioactive decay

• Half-life $t_{1/2}$: time taken for the radioactive activity of the sample to reduce by a factor of

two



Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Simulation of radioactive decay

Remarks:

- Time discretization must be such that a reasonable number of decays occur in each time step
 - if dt/M is too small too much CPU time is required
 - if dt/M is too large many decays occur during a given time interval and there is very poor time resolution
- Whole process may be repeated many times to get a series of independent experiments
 - Mean value of N and an error bar may be determined for each value of time.
- Since each experiment is independent of the others, measurements for each value of time are uncorrelated even though there may be correlations between different times for of Kristel Michielsen All Parsingle experiment.

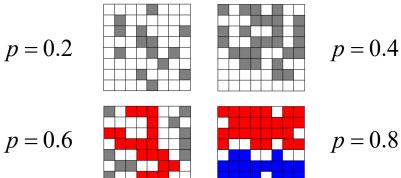
Percolation

D. Staufer, Introduction to percolation Theory (Taylor and Francis, London, 1985)

- Introduction
 - Geometric problem which has played a significant role in statistical mechanics
 - Percolation processes: processes in which objects are added randomly until an unbroken path spans the entire system (or vice versa)
- Percolation model: Site percolation
 - Consider a 2D square lattice (simplest kind of percolation problem)
 - Initially the lattice is empty

Percolation

- Sites are randomly occupied with probability p
- Clusters of occupied nearest neighbor sites are formed
 - Smallest possible cluster = 1 site
- Percolation occurs when a cluster extends from one side of the system to the other one
 - → spanning or infinite cluster



Percolation

- Critical probability
 - For each value of p the probability $P_{
 m span}$ of having a spanning cluster can be determined by generating many realizations of the lattice and counting the number of times a spanning cluster appears
 - In the limit of an infinite lattice there exists a critical probability p_c such that
 - For $p < p_c$, $P_{\text{span}} = 0$
 - For $p > p_c$, $P_{\text{span}} = 1$

2D square lattice: $p_c = 0.59$

 Bond percolation: bonds are randomly occupied with probability p

Percolation

- Percolation transition
 - Define M(p): fraction of occupied sites in the lattice which belong to the spanning cluster.
 - Small p (relatively sparsely occupied lattices): $M(p) \approx 0$
 - p \nearrow : p eventually reaches $p = p_c$, the percolation threshold for which M(p) > 0
 - $-p \nearrow \nearrow M(p) \nearrow$
 - Near the percolation threshold $(p \to p_c^-)$: $M(p) \sim (p p_c)^\beta$ with β the critical exponent. M is called the order parameter.

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Percolation

- Percolation transition = geometric phase transition
- Geometric phase transitions have a close analogy to real phase transitions which occur in various physical systems
- Implementation of Monte Carlo method
 - Start with an empty square lattice with linear dimension L
 - Go through the lattice, site by site, and fill each site with probability p. Count the number of filled sites.

Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Percolation

- At the end, the actual concentration of filled sites might be different from p. Randomly fill or empty a few sites so that the desired value of p is obtained.
- Clusters are found by searching for nearest neighbor occupied sites.
- Test for percolation by checking if any of the clusters reaches from one side of the lattice to the opposite side.
- Repeat the whole process many times to get an estimate of the probability of finding a spanning

Percolation

Cluster identification: Hoshen-Kopelman algorithm

(J. Hoshen and R. Kopelman, Phys. Rev. B 14,3438 (1976))

Example:

| -1 | -1 | 0 | -1 | -1 | -1 | 0 |
|----|----|----|----|----|----|----|
| -1 | 0 | 0 | 0 | -1 | -1 | -1 |
| 0 | -1 | -1 | 0 | 0 | -1 | -1 |
| -1 | -1 | -1 | -1 | -1 | -1 | -1 |
| 0 | 0 | -1 | 0 | -1 | -1 | -1 |
| -1 | -1 | 0 | 0 | -1 | -1 | -1 |
| -1 | 0 | -1 | -1 | 0 | -1 | 0 |

| 7 | 7 | 0 | 9 | 3 | 3 | 0 |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 7 | 0 | 0 | 0 | 8 | 3 | 3 |
| 0 | 6 | 3 | 0 | 0 | 3 | 3 |
| 6 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 3 | 3 |
| 0 | 0 | 5 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| 1 | 1 | 0 | 0 | 4 | 3 | 3 |
| 1 | 0 | 2 | 2 | 0 | 3 | 0 |

$$np(1) = 1$$
, $np(2) = 2$, $np(3) = 3$
 $np(4) = 3$, $np(5) = 3$, $np(6) = 3$
 $np(7) = 7$, $np(8) = 3$, $np(9) = 3$

cluster 3 = spanning cluster

Percolation

- An (un)occupied site has initially value -1 (0)
- Start cluster labeling from left bottom corner and move in rows
- If a site is occupied, check the occupancy of its nearest neighbors in the previous row and column
 - neither neighbor occupied \rightarrow assign the next available proper cluster label m and set np(m) = m
 - 1 nearest neighbor site occupied with label $m_1 \rightarrow$ proper cluster label $m = m_1$
 - 2 nearest neighbors occupied with labels m_1 and $m_2 \rightarrow$ proper cluster label $m = \min(np(m_1), np(m_2))$ and set $np(\max(np(m_1), np(m_2))) = m$

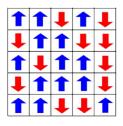
Percolation

- Here it becomes clear that the array np distinguishes proper and improper labels and provides their connections
 - » Note that instantly relabeling of the occupied neighbor with the highest cluster value would be inefficient
- At the end, relabel all improper cluster labels using the values in the array $\it np$
- Spanning cluster if two sides of the lattice contain a site with the same cluster number
- Efficient algorithm (although not the most general and efficient): it only sweeps once through the whole lattice

Find the ground state of a Hamiltonian

- If the ground state (minimum energy state) of a system is not known, then a simple Monte Carlo simulation can be used to find states of low energy, and hopefully that of lowest energy.
- Example: Ising model

$$H = -J \sum_{\langle n,m \rangle} S_n S_m - h \sum_{n=1}^{N} S_n \text{ where } S_n = \pm 1$$



- Mathematical model of ferromagnetism in statistical physics
- $-S_n$ represent magnetic dipole moments of atomic spins

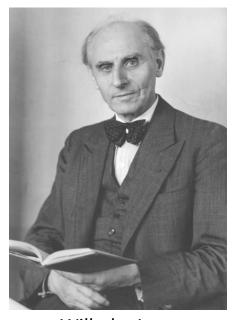
Simple sampling Monte Carlo: Ising model

- -J: spin-spin interaction
- -h: external magnetic field
- Minus signs in Hamiltonian: convention
- If, for all pairs i, j
 - $J_{i,j} > 0$: ferromagnetic interaction
 - $J_{i,j} < 0$: antiferromagnetic interaction
 - $J_{i,j} = 0$: the spins are noninteracting

otherwise the system is called nonferromagnetic

Ising model

- Ising model allows the identification of phase transitions, as a simplified model of reality
- Invented by Wilhelm Lenz (1920), who gave it as a problem to his student Ernst Ising (1925)





Ernst Ising 1900 - 1998

Find the ground state of a Hamiltonian

- Select a randomly chosen spin configuration
- Proceed through the lattice and determine the change in energy of the system if the spin is overturned
 - If the energy is lower, then turn the spin
 - If the energy is higher, then leave the spin unchanged
 - Move to the next lattice point
- Sweep through the system repeatedly until no spin-flip can be made anymore \rightarrow the system is in the ground state or in a metastable state
- Repeat the process starting from different initial spin configurations to test whether a lower energy state can be found.
- For systems with complex energy landscapes there may be many energy minima of approximately the same depth and then a more sophisticated strategy will have to be chosen.
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Simple sampling Monte Carlo method



Importance sampling Monte Carlo method