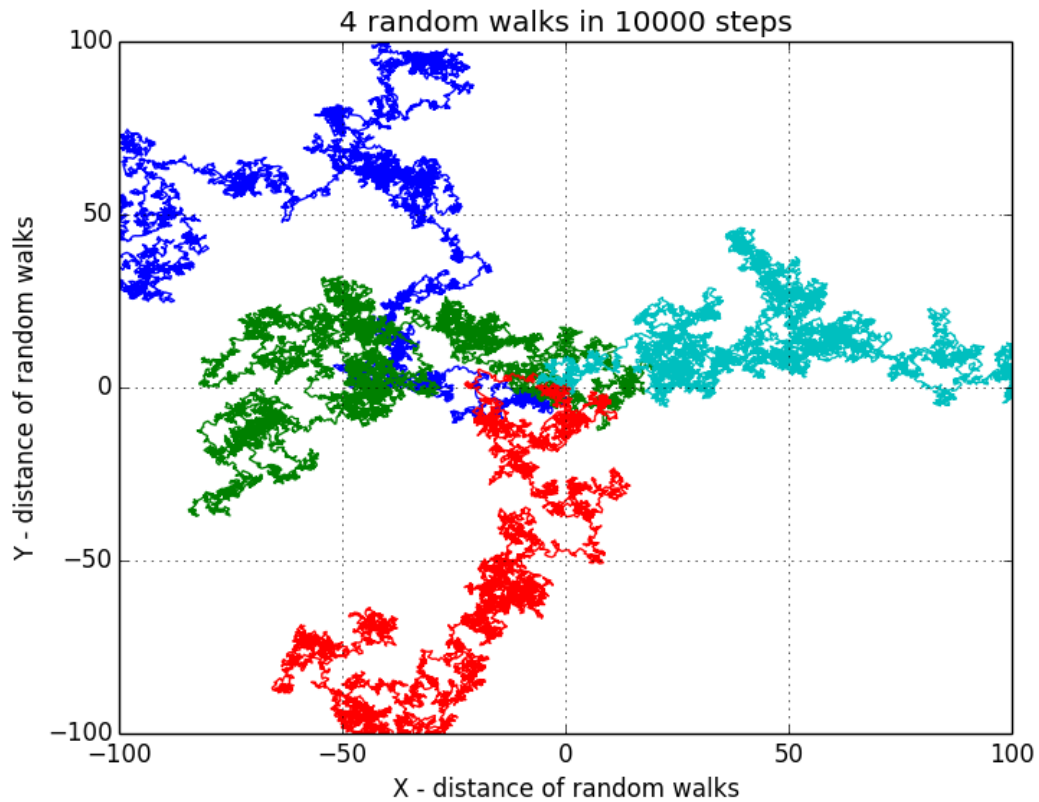


4.3 random walks

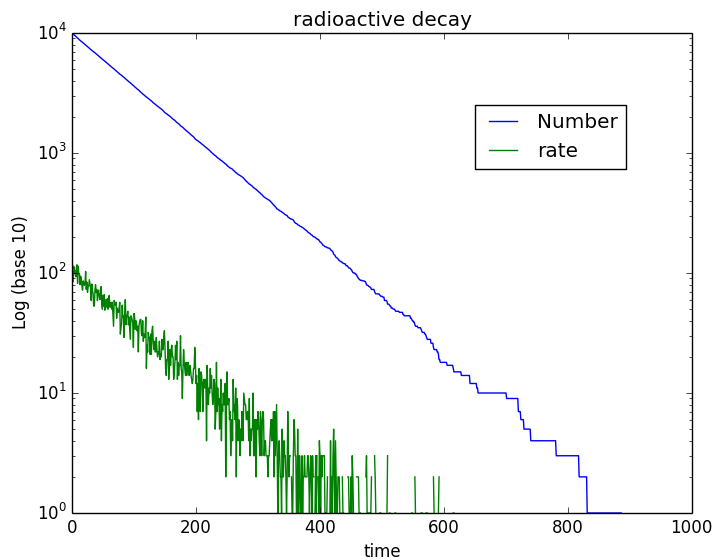
Random walks are a pretty simple model to make:



Essentially this takes a random walk for 1000 steps – the standard deviation of a random walk grows as \sqrt{N} and nearly the entire plot is contained within a circle with radius of 100 (3 standard deviations away).

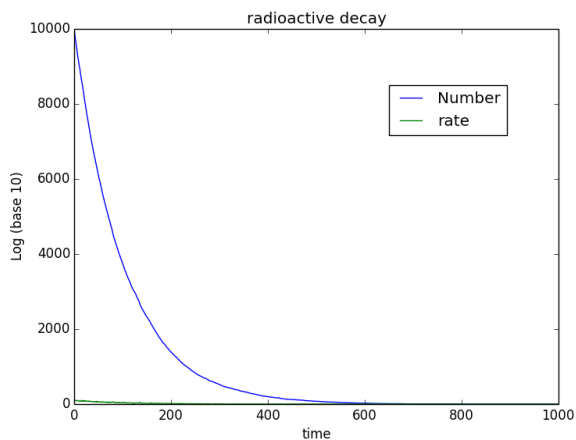
4.5 modelling radioactive decay

4.6 modelling radioactive decay



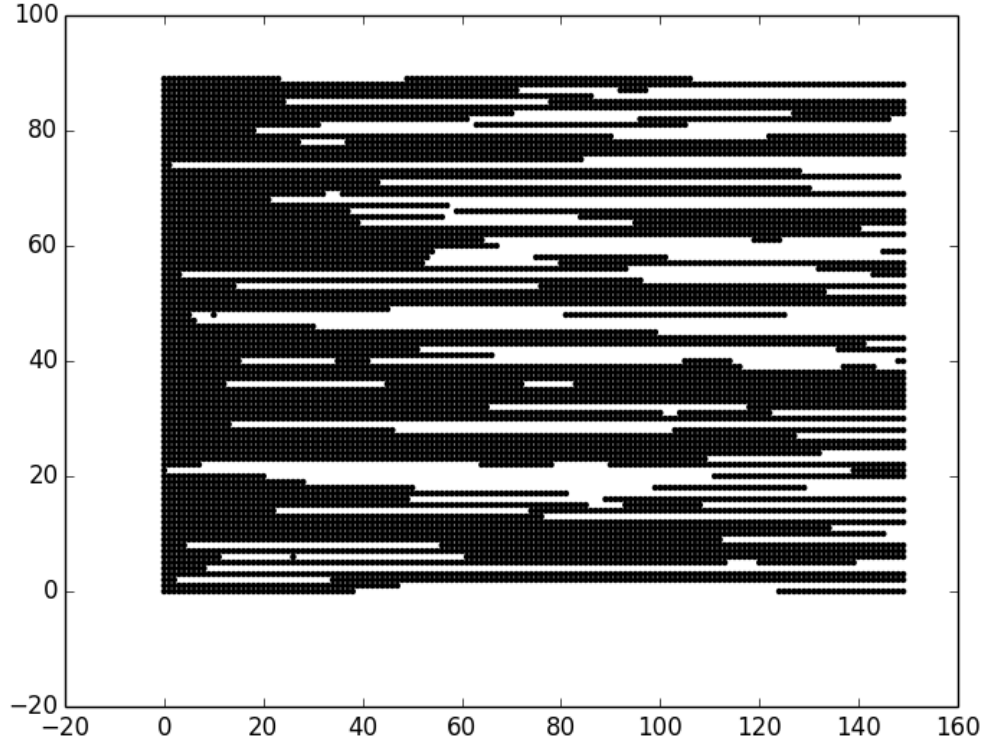
Here is a semi-log plot of radioactive decay, where we have superimposed the plots of the rate of decay ($R = -a N(t)$) versus the number ($N(t) = N_0 - a N(t-1)$). As you can see, they generally mirror each other and have the same slope (as they should).

Note the difference between a real radioactive decay, and a continuous function, namely in the more noticeable discretizations when the count of N grows low.



17.4 Metropolis

I made my own metropolis implementation of the 1-D ising model



Here is a plot of the standard numbers plugged in (from the text), for 100 time steps. Metropolis algorithm seems odd, in that it looks for local minima by changing one term (in a discrete set) at a time, and so it seems intrinsically slow.

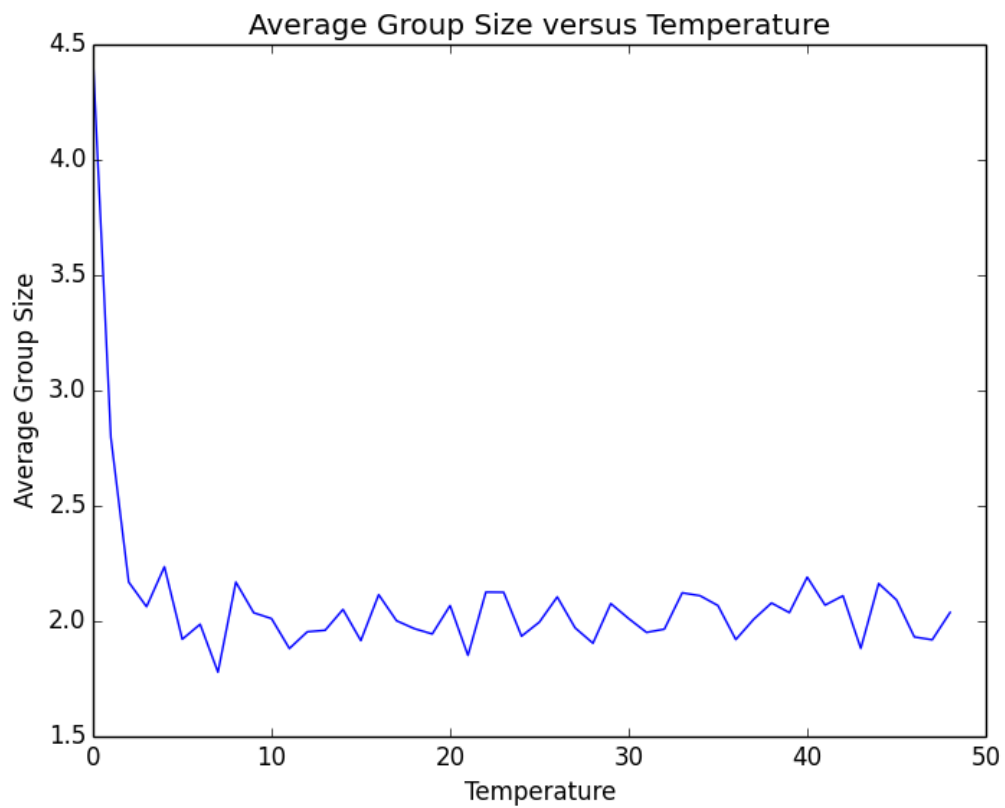
Metropolis works by changing 1 term, evaluating energy, and then if it is lower, then going down that path, otherwise keeping the old arrangement with some probability (as a function of temperature).

The explicit steps of the Metropolis algorithm are:

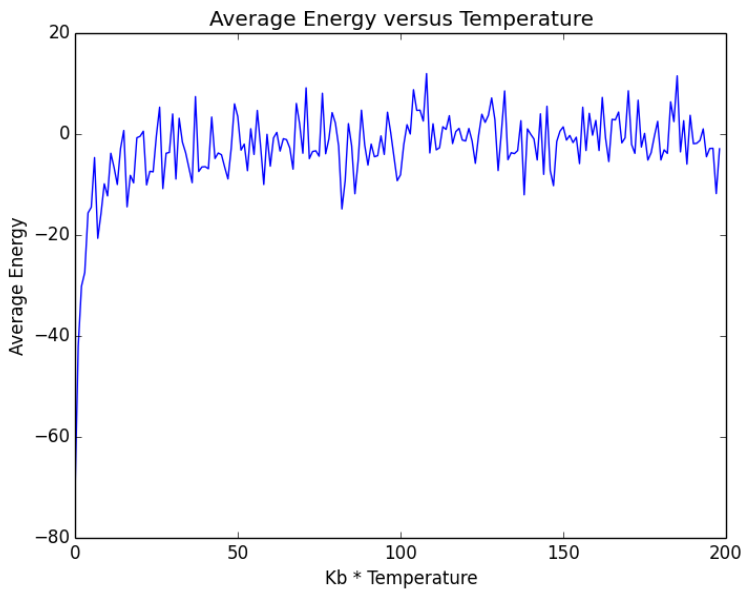
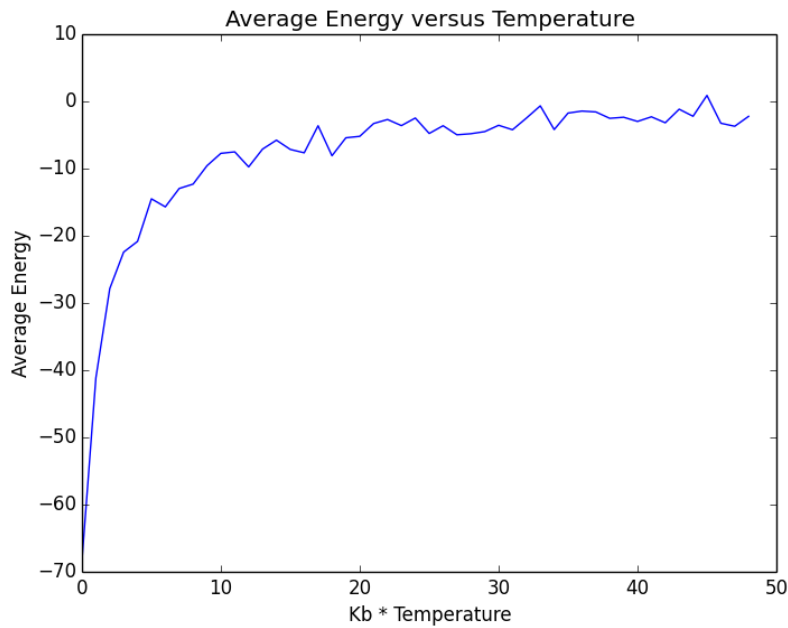
1. Start with an arbitrary spin configuration $\alpha_k = \{s_1, s_2, \dots, s_N\}$.
2. Generate a trial configuration α_{k+1} by
 - a) picking a particle i randomly and
 - b) flipping its spin.¹⁾
3. Calculate the energy $E_{\alpha_{tr}}$ of the trial configuration.
4. If $E_{\alpha_{tr}} \leq E_{\alpha_k}$, accept the trial by setting $\alpha_{k+1} = \alpha_{tr}$.
5. If $E_{\alpha_{tr}} > E_{\alpha_k}$, accept with relative probability $\mathcal{R} = \exp(-\Delta E/k_B T)$:
 - a) Choose a uniform random number $0 \leq r_i \leq 1$.
 - b) Set $\alpha_{k+1} = \begin{cases} \alpha_{tr}, & \text{if } \mathcal{R} \geq r_i \text{ (accept)} \\ \alpha_k, & \text{if } \mathcal{R} < r_i \text{ (reject)} \end{cases}$.

I am confident that there have to be better algorithms to calculate local minima, but I don't know what they are.

Here is a plot of the average group size versus temperature – it looks exponential, and this aligns with what I would expect.

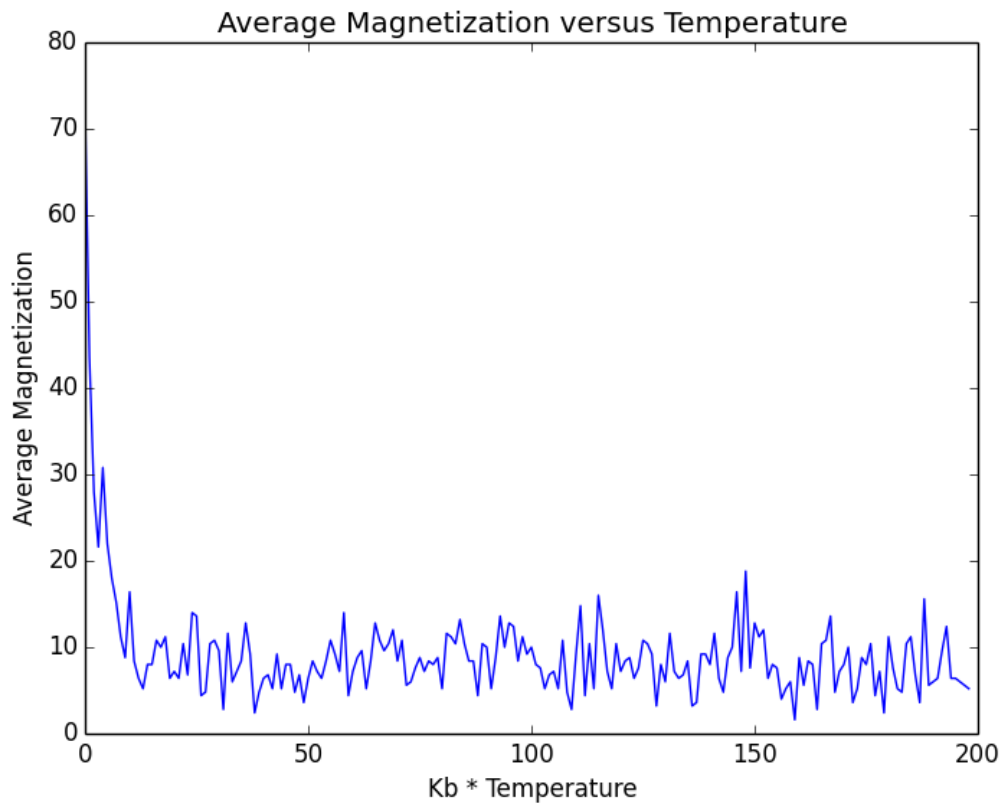


6. Make a plot of the internal energy U as a function of kBT and compare it to the analytic result (17.7).



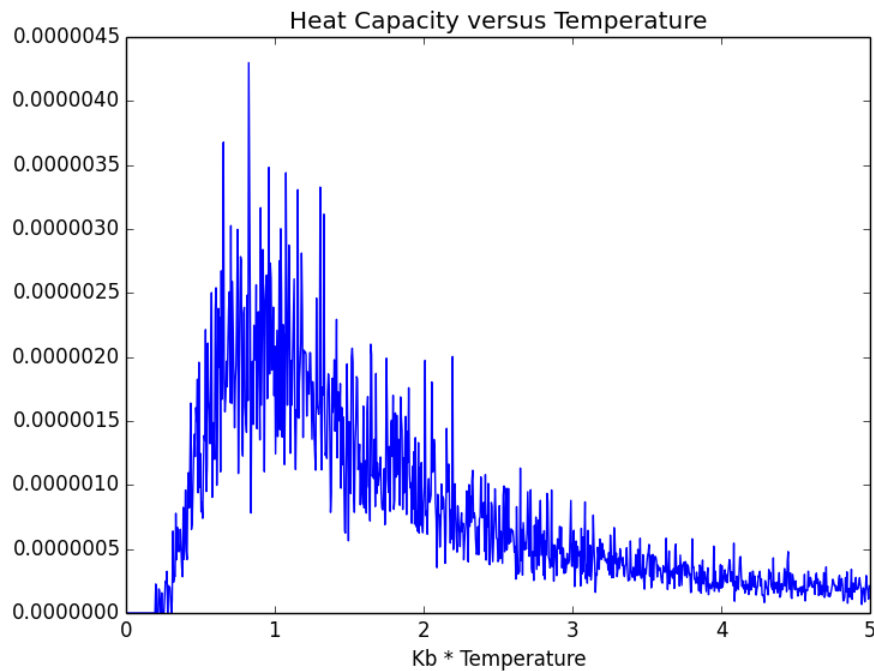
These two plots of energy versus temperature match the analytic function very well – and do so even better on larger time scales.

7. Make a plot of the magnetization \bar{M} as a function of kBT and compare it to the analytic result. Does this agree with how you expect a heated magnet to behave?

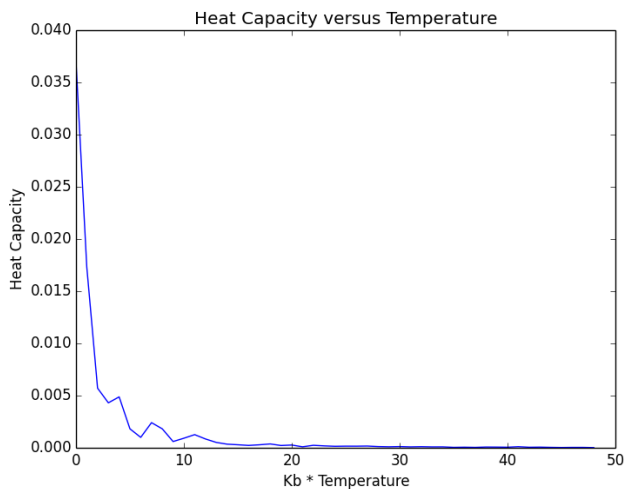


This looks very similar to the plot they showed of the Magnetization vs Temperature on page 419.

8. Compute the energy fluctuations U^2 (17.17) and the specific heat C (17.18). Compare the simulated specific heat to the analytic result (17.8).



This is the plot of the heat capacity versus temperature (I think the scale on the Y axis may be off, but the shape is correct). This plot took me a long time to be able to get accurately, because I was originally getting the following plot:



This is because I was essentially take a discrete derivative of the Energy as a function of temperature, but the dt of $kB \cdot T$ was actually larger than the evaluation for the energy, so it calculated that the derivative at the lowest energy was positive, instead of 0 (due to the fact that there is discrete number of particles that have energy, and so there is a region of $0 < t < T$, where the Energy does not change (it is locked in the lowest state). So the continuous derivative must start at 0.