Random processes and Monte Carlo Simulation

- Monte Carlo integration.
- Non-uniform distributions.
- Random walk.

Mean value method

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■ A simple way to estimate $\langle f \rangle$ is to just measure f(x) at N points, x_1, x_2, \ldots, x_N chosen uniformly between a and b:

$$\langle f \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f(x_i)$$

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- Variance on the sum is N times the variance on a single term or N var f.
- Error/standard deviation on the integral:

$$\sigma = \frac{b - a}{N} \sqrt{N \operatorname{var} f} = (b - a) \frac{\sqrt{\operatorname{var} f}}{\sqrt{N}}$$

which goes as $1/\sqrt{N}$ but the variance is smaller!

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- Radioactive decay
- Experiments with different types of distributions

How does one generate non-uniform random number distributions with a uniform random number generators?

Generating a non-uniform distribution with a probability distribution w(x):

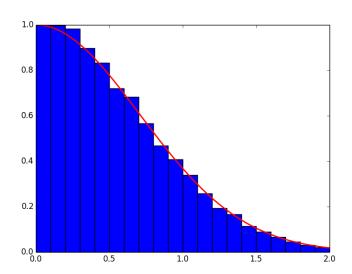
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- The x_i so accepted will have the weighting $w(x_i)$.

$$w(x) = e^{-x^2}$$
 $x \in [0, 2]$



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- If z is random, x(z) will also be random, with a different distribution p(x).
- Our goal is to choose the function x(z) such that x has the distribution we want.

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• If we can do the integral on the left and solve the equation, we will have the required x(z)!

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Thus if we feed the above equation uniformly distributed z in interval [0,1], it will generate the exponential distribution x for us.

A common problem in physics calculations is the generation of random numbers drawn from a Gaussian (or normal) distribution:

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- However, consider two independent random numbers x and y drawn from a Gaussian distribution with the same σ . The probability that a point (x,y) falls in an element dxdy of the xy plane:

$$p(x)dx \times p(y)dy = \frac{1}{2\pi\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2 + y^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dxdy$$

In polar coordinates:

$$p(r,\theta)drd\theta = \frac{r}{\sigma^2} \exp\left(-\frac{r^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dr \times \frac{d\theta}{2\pi} \equiv p(r)dr \times p(\theta)d\theta$$

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■ Then one can construct x and y as:

$$x = r\cos(\theta)$$
 $y = r\sin(\theta)$

Random Walk

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 - In three dimensions there are six possible neighbors.

■ Brownian motion (answer the question - how many collisions, on average, a particle must take to travel a distance R).

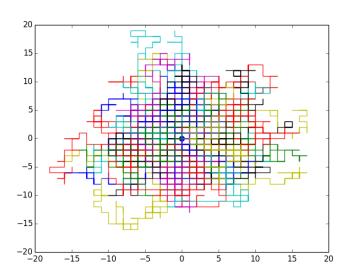
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Simple Random walk

In 100 steps, $\langle r \rangle \sim 8.9$



■ Persistent random walk

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Examples of applications:

Spread of inflectional diseases and effects of immunization Spreading of fire

A persistent random walk

■ A persistent random walk in 2 dimensions in a city with n*n blocks

A persistent random walk

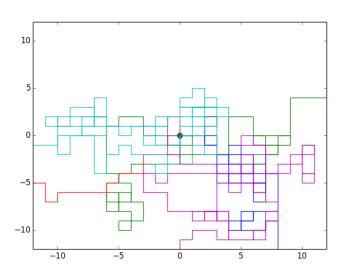
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- A persistent random walk in 2 dimensions in a city with n*n blocks
- Condition: the walker can not step back
- Goal: find average number of steps to get out the city

Persistent Random walk

To escape $24 \times 24, \langle n \rangle \sim 92$



Random processes and Monte Carlo Simulation

- Importance Sampling and Statistical mechanics.
- Markov Chain Monte Carlo.
- Simulated Annealing

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■ The average value of X:

$$\langle X \rangle = \sum_{i} X_{i} P(E_{i})$$

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- We can take the approach that we will calculate the sum via Monte Carlo (random sampling). In that case, we will chose N random states, $k=1\ldots N$ and calculate:

$$\langle X \rangle \simeq \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{N} X_k P(E_k)}{\sum_{k=1}^{N} P(E_k)}$$

The denominator is needed to normalize the weighted average correctly.

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- But this is ideally suited for importance sampling!

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■ Then:

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In this case, we get:

$$\langle X \rangle \simeq \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k=1}^{N} \frac{X_k P(E_k)}{w_k} \sum_i w_i$$

Note that the first sum is only over the states that we sample, but the second sum is over all states i and has to be calculated analytically!

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- In other words, we just choose N states in proportion to their Boltzmann probabilities and take the average of X over them..
- Unfortunately, we are not done yet The catch is that it is not easy to pick states with probability $P(E_i)$. This is because to calculate $P(E_i)$, we need to know the partition function, Z.

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- For the new state, instead of choosing randomly, we will make some change (usually small) to the state *i* so as to create a new state.
- The choice of the new state is determined probabilistically by a set of transition probabilities T_{ij} that give the probability of changing from state i to j.

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- When we take many steps and generate the entire chain, the complete set of states that we move through is a correct sample of the Boltzmann distribution and we can average any quantity we like over these states.

■ The trick lies in choosing T_{ij} :

$$\sum_{j} T_{ij} = 1$$

and also

$$\frac{T_{ij}}{T_{ji}} = \frac{P(E_j)}{P(E_i)} = \frac{e^{-\beta E_j}/Z}{e^{-\beta E_i}/Z} = e^{-\beta (E_j - E_i)}$$

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The Boltzmann distribution is a fixed point of the Markov chain.

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■ This scheme will satisfy all the criterion of the transition probability: $\frac{T_{ij}}{T_{ij}} = e^{-\beta(E_i - E_j)}$

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- **5** Measure the value of the quantity of interest and add it to the running sum.

- Choose a random starting state.
- 2 Choose a move uniformly at random from an allowed set of moves.
- \blacksquare Calculate the probability, P_a to accept or reject the move.
- 4 With probability P_a , accept the move ie system changes to the new state; OR reject the move ie system stays in the current state.
- Measure the value of the quantity of interest and add it to the running sum.
- **6** Go to step 2.

■ The steps where you reject the move that dont change the state of the system do count as steps.

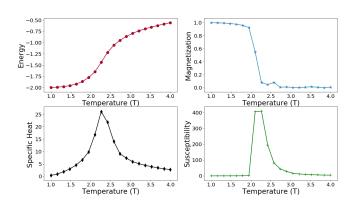
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- The number of moves that you chose to take you from i to j should be the same as from j to i.
- One has to choose a move set such that every possible state is reachable.
- That the Markov chain will go to Boltzmann distribution is proved but, how long will it to take to reach equillibrium is not known.

Ising Model

$$E = -\sum_{\langle ij\rangle} s_i s_j$$



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- This in this limit:

$$P(E_i) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{for } E_i = 0\\ 0 & \text{for } E_i > 0 \end{cases}$$

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- As one lowers the temperature, the system should land in the ground-state!