

993SM - Laboratory of Computational Physics week VIII November 11, 2024

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Metropolis Algorithm

by Metropolis, Rosenbluth, Rosenbluth, Teller and Teller (1953)

done, previous lecture

- I) to generate random points with a given distribution
- 2) to calculate averages with importance sampling
- 3) in particular: in the canonical ensemble

Metropolis Algorithm

I) to generate random points with a given distribution $p(x) \qquad \text{done, previous lecture}$

Idea: produce a random walk with points $\{x_i\}$ whose asymptotic probability distribution $p_N(x)$ of the occupied positions approaches p(x) after a large number N of steps

A **random walk** in general is defined by specifying a transition probability $T(x_i \to x_j)$ from one value x_i to another value x_j and the distribution of points x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots converges to a certain p(x)

The detailed balance

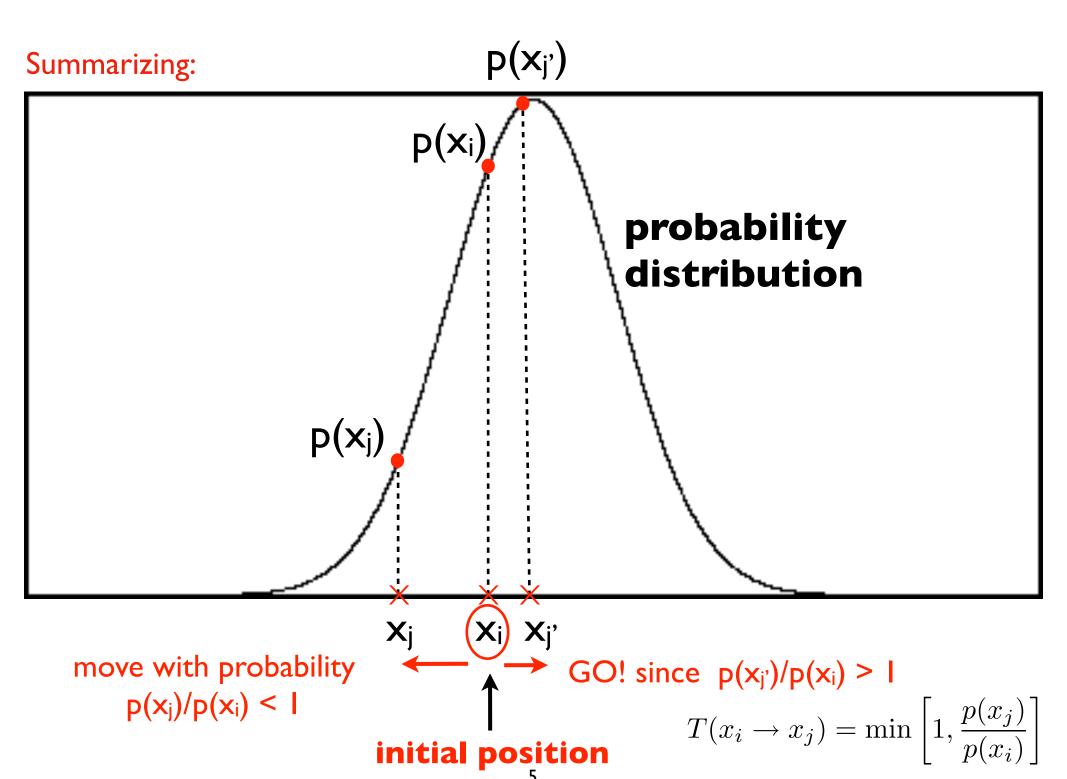
Choose a transition probability $T(x_i \rightarrow x_j)$ from one value x_i to another value x_j (from one configuration C_i to another one C_{i+1}) such that the distribution of points x_0, x_1, x_2, \ldots (of configurations) converges to the desired p(x).

It is sufficient (not necessary) to satisfy the condition:

$$p(x_i)T(x_i \to x_j) = p(x_j)T(x_j \to x_i)$$

A simple choice (not unique!) is:

$$T(x_i \to x_j) = \min \left[1, \frac{p(x_j)}{p(x_i)}\right]$$



The Metropolis algorithm

```
p(x) is given.
```

If the "walker" is at position x_i and we wish to generate x_{i+1} , we can implement this choice of $T(x_i \to x_j)$ by the following steps:

- 1. Choose a trial position $x_{\text{trial}} = x_i + \delta_i$, where δ_i is a random number in the interval $[-\delta, \delta]$.
- 2. Calculate $w = p(x_{\text{trial}})/p(x_i)$.
- 3. If $w \ge 1$, accept the change and let $x_{i+1} = x_{\text{trial}}$. else
- 4. If w < 1, generate a random number r.
- 5. If $r \leq w$, accept the change and let $x_{i+1} = x_{\text{trial}}$.
- 6. If the trial change is not accepted, then let $x_{i+1} = x_i$.

The algorithm from I) to 6) has to be repeated until the distribution p(x) of the points $\{x_i\}$ is reached.

example of application of the Metropolis algorithm

- I) to generate random points with a given distribution
- 2) to calculate averages with importance sampling
- 3) in particular: in the canonical ensemble

example of application of the Metropolis algorithm

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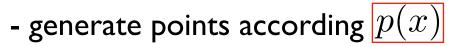
of the form
$$\langle f \rangle = \frac{\int p(x)f(x)\,dx}{\int p(x)\,dx}$$

where the probability distribution $\,p(x)\,$ does not need to be normalized

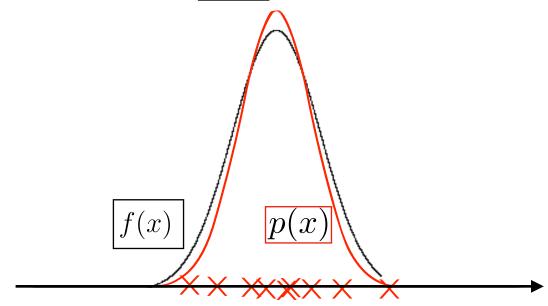
(here: ID, but generally useful also for multidimensional integrals)

example of application of the Metropolis algorithm

A special case of importance sampling where certain possible sampling attempts are rejected.







reminder from previous Lectures:

"importance sampling"

consider a distribution function p(x) easy to integrate and close to f(x):

$$\int_{a}^{b} f(x)dx = \int_{a}^{b} \left[\frac{f(x)}{p(x)} \right] p(x)dx = \left\langle \frac{f(x)}{p(x)} \right\rangle \int_{a}^{b} p(x)dx$$

where
$$\left\langle \frac{f(x)}{p(x)} \right\rangle \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \left[\frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)} \right]$$

with $\{x_i\}$ distributed according to p(x).

Here : substituting
$$\frac{f(x)}{p(x)} \Longrightarrow f(x)$$
 and rewriting, we have : $\langle f \rangle = \frac{\int p(x)f(x)\,dx}{\int p(x)\,dx}$

Some programs:

in moodle2.units.it:

gauss_metropolis.f90

metropolis_sampling.f90 direct_sampling.f90 boltzmann_metropolis.f90

Using a method to generate a distribution p(x), we can efficiently sample integrals of the form

$$\langle f \rangle = \frac{\int p(x)f(x) dx}{\int p(x) dx}$$

example of application:

See metropolis_sampling.f90 for Ex. I: example of estimate of average position, average kinetic, potential and total energies in the ground state of the harmonic oscillator:

$$f(x)$$
: physical quantity; $p(x) = |\psi(x)|^2$

$$\langle f \rangle = \frac{\int p(x)f(x) dx}{\int p(x) dx}$$

$$f(x)$$
: physical quantity; $p(x) = |\psi(x)|^2$

Consider the hamiltonian : $\mathcal{H} = -\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + \frac{1}{2}x^2$

σ here is a given input parameter

Consider the namiltonian . 7. — 2 — 2 — 2 — Consider a wavefunction (not necessarily the ground state) : $\psi(x) = \exp(-x^2/4\sigma^2)$ — $\frac{1}{4}$ is ok

Interesting physical quantities are related to E_{pot}, E_{kin}, E_{tot}

The potential energy can be considered as f(x) (it is a multiplicative operator); kinetic and total energy can not, but their expectation value can be related to the average value of x^2 :

$$\langle E_{pot} \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi | \frac{1}{2} x^2 | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle} = \frac{\int \frac{1}{2} x^2 |\psi(x)|^2 dx}{\int |\psi(x)|^2 dx}$$

$$\langle E_{kin} \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi | -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle} = \frac{\int \left(\frac{1}{4\sigma^2} - \frac{x^2}{8\sigma^4} \right) |\psi(x)|^2 dx}{\int |\psi(x)|^2 dx}$$

$$\langle f \rangle = \frac{\int p(x)f(x) \, dx}{\int p(x) \, dx}$$

$$f(x)$$
: physical quantity; $p(x) = |\psi(x)|^2$

Consider the hamiltonian : $\mathcal{H} = -\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 + \frac{1}{2}x^2$

Consider a wavefunction (not necessarily the ground state) : $\psi(x) = \exp(-x^2/4\sigma^2)$

In this exercise, the numerical results can be checked by calculating $\langle E_{pot} \rangle$ and $\langle E_{kin} \rangle$ also analytically:

$$\langle E_{pot} \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi | \frac{1}{2} x^2 | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle} = \frac{\int \frac{1}{2} x^2 | \psi(x) |^2 dx}{\int |\psi(x)|^2 dx} = \frac{1}{2} \sigma^2$$

$$\langle E_{kin} \rangle = \frac{\langle \psi | -\frac{1}{2} \nabla^2 | \psi \rangle}{\langle \psi | \psi \rangle} = \frac{\int \left(\frac{1}{4\sigma^2} - \frac{x^2}{8\sigma^4} \right) |\psi(x)|^2 dx}{\int |\psi(x)|^2 dx} = \frac{1}{8\sigma^2}$$

endif enddo

```
! metropolis sampling.f90
! METROPOLIS sampling of physical observables for the hamiltonian:
! h=-1/2 \cdot a^2 + x^2/2 on psi^2(x), with psi(x)=exp(-x^2/(4 \cdot a^2))
\dots start from a given x=x0\dots
do i=1,n
    ekin = ekin - 0.5 dp * ((x/(2*sigma**2))**2 - 1/(2*sigma**2))
    epot = epot + 0.5 dp * x**2
                              data accumulation on all points!
    etot = ekin + epot
    x1 = x1 + x
    x2 = x2 + x**2
    x3 = x3 + x**3
    x4 = x4 + x**4
    !ccccccccccccccccccccccc
    expx = -x**2 / (2*sigma**2)
    call random number(rnd)
    xp = x + delta * (rnd-0.5 dp)
    expxp = -xp**2 /(2*sigma**2) ! metropolis
                                    algorithm
    p = exp (expxp-expx)
    call random_number(rnd)
    if (p > rnd) then
      x = xp
    !ccccccccccccccccccccccccccc
       acc=acc+1.0 dp
    endif
 enddo
                                16
```

Correlations

Consider a random sequence of configurations.

How many Monte Carlo steps are required between two configurations to be considered uncorrelated? => study the autocorrelation function:

$$C(j) = \frac{\langle x_{i+j} x_i \rangle - \langle x_i \rangle^2}{\langle x_i^2 \rangle - \langle x_i \rangle^2}$$

where:

 $\langle \ldots \rangle$: average over the random sequence (index i)

$$C(j=0)=1$$

 $C(j \neq 0) = 0$ expected for totally uncorrelated points, since in that case $\langle x_i x_j \rangle = \langle x_i \rangle \langle x_j \rangle = \langle x_i \rangle^2$

Correlations

Consider a random sequence of configurations.

How many Monte Carlo steps are required between two configurations to be considered uncorrelated? => study the autocorrelation function:

$$C(j) = \frac{\langle x_{i+j} x_i \rangle - \langle x_i \rangle^2}{\langle x_i^2 \rangle - \langle x_i \rangle^2}$$

It is not always the case, but at least for *ergodic* simulations we should expect that the autocorrelation function approaches 0 as $j \to \infty$.

 $C(j \neq 0) = 0$ expected for totally uncorrelated points, since in that case $\langle x_i x_j \rangle = \langle x_i \rangle \langle x_j \rangle = \langle x_i \rangle^2$

Origin of correlations

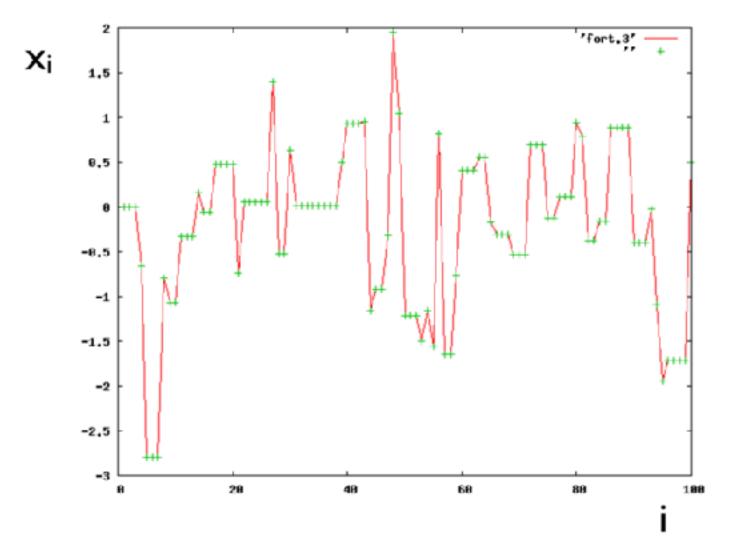
Metropolis algorithm:

necessarily the points of the walker are correlated
each other over a short "time" scale (measured in
terms of Monte Carlo steps; at least 1 time step!)

Correlation exponentially decaying with a certain characteristic "time" τ

Only points separated by 2τ or 3τ can be considered statistically independent

example of a sequence of points randomly (Gaussian) distributed generated according Metropolis



by its nature, Metropolis method introduces (at least short-range) correlations

Ex. 2 - Correlations

[a very simple calculation if the array points(n) is stored]

```
do j = 0, jmax
                                            C(j) = \frac{\langle x_{i+j} x_i \rangle - \langle x_i \rangle^2}{\langle x_i^2 \rangle - \langle x_i \rangle^2}
si=0._dp ; si2=0._dp ; sij=0._dp
  do i = 1, n-j
     si = si + points(i)
     si2 = si2 + points(i)**2
     sij = sij + points(i)*points(i+j)
  end do
     si = si/(n-j)
     si2 = si2/(n-j)
     sij = sij/(n-j)
write(2,*), j, (sij-si**2)/(si2-si**2)
end do
```

Calculation of correlations

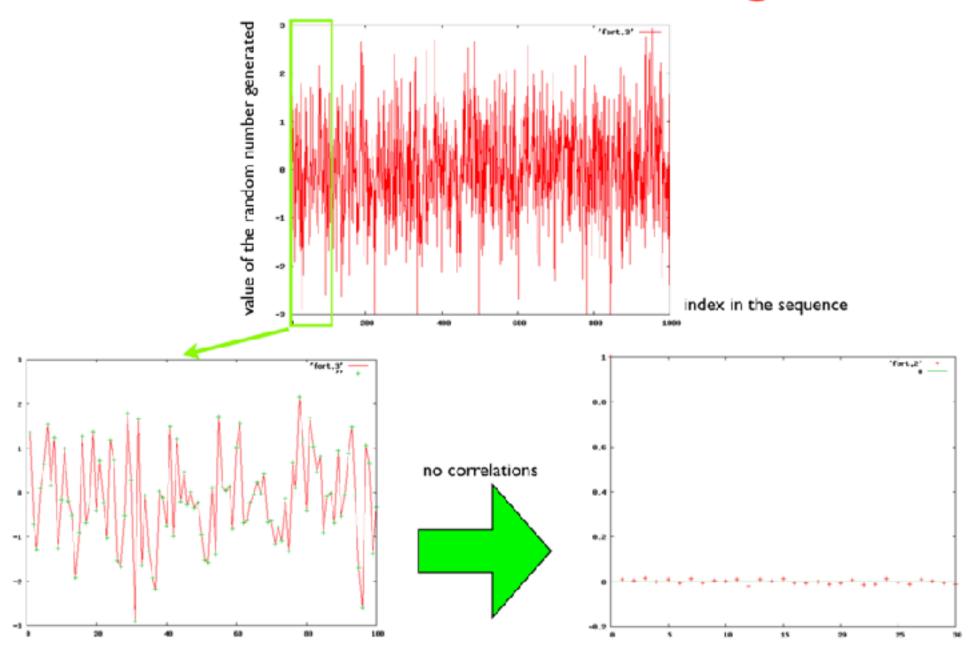
In Metropolis simulations, the autocorrelation time is often measured when the simulation is running:

- Create an array, say "corr" with j elements and initialize it to zero.
- Maintain a list of the j most recently computed values of the observable C. This can be an array of length j in which the value of C_n is stored at index "n mod j".
- At each step $n \ge j$ accumulate the values of $C_{n-j}C_{n-j+i}$ for i = 0, 1, ..., j-1 in the array elements corr[i].
- At the end of the run, divide each corr[i] by n j, subtract $\langle C \rangle^2$, and divide by corr[0] to normalize.

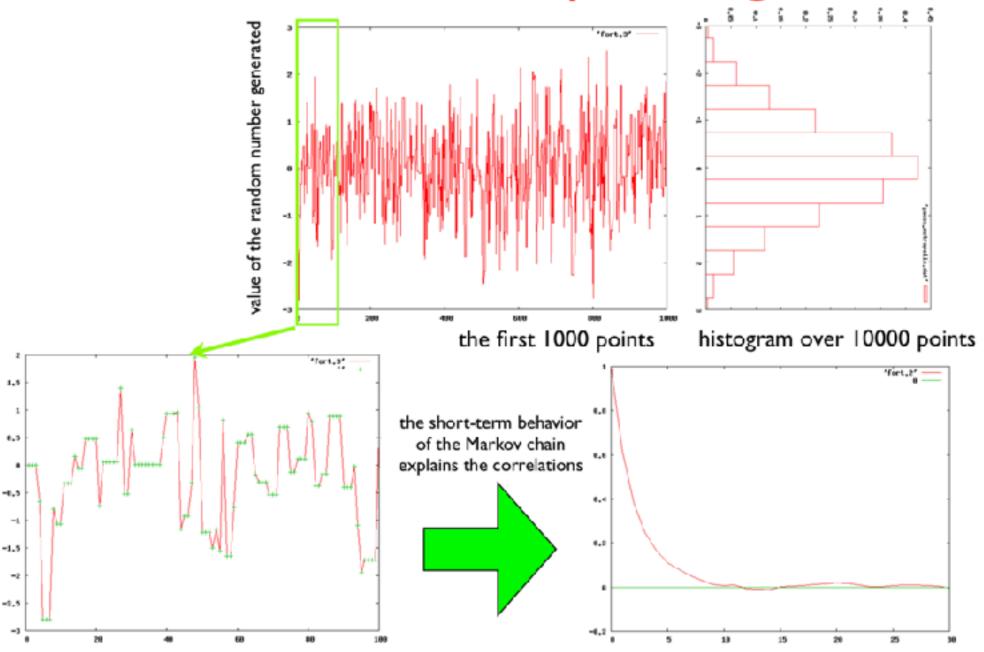
(do the code yourself!)

Calculate C(j) for different j and check when it approaches 0

Correlations - Box-Muller algorithm



Correlations - Metropolis algorithm



Correlations - Metropolis algorithm

Autocorrelazione al variare del rapporto δ/σ Random number δ/σ=1 sequence $\delta/\sigma=5$ δ/σ=10 generated with the 0.8 δ/σ=25 Metropolis δ/σ=50 algorithm and 0.6 different values of δ/σ 0.4 0.2 0

20

-0.2

Figura 11: Andamento della funzione di autocorrelazione tra i punti generati con l'algoritmo Metropolis al variare di alcuni valori del parametro δ/σ

60

80

100

40

for values of the parameter δ/σ that are too low (< 5) or too high (> 10) the autocorrelation function decays very slowly: to effectively generate random numbers that are not correlated with each other it is therefore necessary to choose a ratio δ/σ such that $5 \le \delta/\sigma \le 10$, which corresponds to the acceptance ratio range between $\approx 1/3$ and $\approx 1/3$

Notes - I

- * Correlation may cause fictitiously a variance of the averages much smaller than the actual error!
- * The relationship

$$\sigma_n/\sqrt{n} \approx \sigma_m \approx \sigma_s/\sqrt{s}$$

is based on the assumption of **uncorrelated** data (at least, for the block average, uncorrelated among different blocks)

Notes - II

Not good to use correlated points...

How to estimate correlations? How to estimate \mathcal{T} ? How to control the reliability of the statistical sampling?

Use **block averages** with different block size and compare the numerical error estimates σ_s/\sqrt{s} and $\sigma_{s'}/\sqrt{s'}$. If they coincides, the correlation time is smaller than the smallest block size used.

Suppose n=1000 data.

- I) do blocking of s=20 sets with 50 points and calculate averages and errors
- 2) do blocking of s'=10 sets of 100 points and calculate averages and errors 50 is therefore the smallest block size used.

If
$$\sigma_{20}/\sqrt{20} \approx \sigma_{10}/\sqrt{10}$$
 , this means that $\tau << 50$

Using a method to generate a distribution p(x), we can efficiently sample integrals of the form

$$\langle f \rangle = \frac{\int p(x)f(x) dx}{\int p(x) dx}$$

Integrals (or averages) particularly useful are those related to **ensemble averages**

Metropolis algorithm

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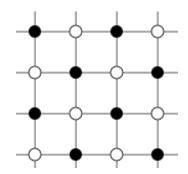
Review of some concepts of statistical mechanics

(microstate / macrostate / trajectory / statistical ensemble; statistical and temporal averages)

Microstates

- 1) Examples of a microstate: characterized by:
 - $|\Psi_{\nu}\rangle$ (ν index related to N particles) in the Hilbert space in Quantum Mechanics
 - a point in the phase space (large number of variables) in Classical Mechanics

examples of microstates (classical):



distribution of spins on a lattice (open circles: spin up; closed circles: spin down)

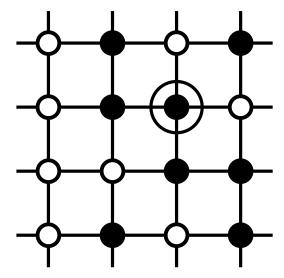
distribution of particles in a box (list of positions)

Macrostate and Trajectory

- 2) For a classical system, the temporal evolution (with possible changes of microstates) is a **trajectory** (a line) in the phase space:
- along the trajectory, some parameters or variables such as N, or V, or T are fixed (constraints macrostate)
- others do change

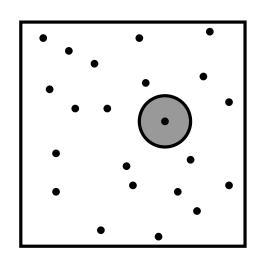
The trajectory is on a certain **surface** in the phase space (typically still high-dimensional), determined by the constraints

examples of changes of microstates:



flip of one spin in a lattice (open circles: spin up; closed circles: spin down)

(the macrostate here is characterized by the temperature T and by the total number of lattice sites)

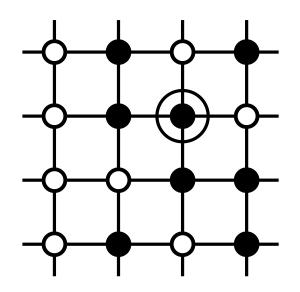


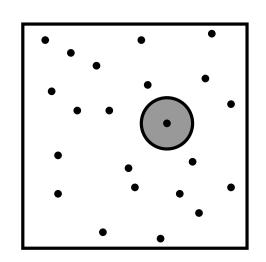
moving one particle in a box

(the <u>macrostate</u> here is characterized by the number of particles N)

(random choice of spin flip/particle move in case of Markov chain)

Stochastic processes and Markov chains





Stochastic process:

evolves through a series (a Markov chain) of well defined configurations (microstates in a given ensemble) $C=\{C_1, C_2, ... C_N\}$ stochastically generated, i.e. C_{k+1} is obtained from the previous one, C_k , by making some random changes on the former.

Statistical averages

3) which info from the trajectory in the phase space?

After a sufficiently long time, the system will assume all possible microstates compatible with the constraints i.e. with the macrostate: the ensemble of such microstates is a statistical ensemble

Suppose to make N independent measurements of an observable G:

$$G_{obs} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{a=1}^{N} G_a$$
 the measure is on a microstate
$$= \sum_{s} \left[\frac{1}{N} \cdot \binom{\text{\# of times in which the}}{\text{microstate s is observed}} \right] G_s$$

$$= \sum_{s=1}^{M} P_s G_s = < G > \text{or}$$
 ensemble average

(M is the number of the possible different microstates s)

(P_s depends of the microstate s but also on the macrostate)

statistical average = temporal average

is a fundamental assumption of the statistical mechanics; OK if:

- the system is **ergodic** (after a sufficient long time, the trajectory visits **all** the possible microstates)
- observation time is long $(T>> au_{relax\ or\ equil})$
- observations are independent $(d >> d_{correl})$

The canonical ensemble

(N,V,T) fixed. The probability that the system is in the microstate s with energy E_s is given by:

(here the energy identifies different microstates, it is not a characteristic of the macrostate)

$$P_s = \frac{1}{Z}e^{-\beta E_s}, (Boltzmann distribution)$$

where $\beta = 1/kT$, and Z is a normalization constant. Because $\sum P_s = 1$,

$$Z = \sum_{s=1}^{M} e^{-E_s/kT} \qquad partition function$$
(M: all accessible microstates of the system)

characterized by different E_s

Ensemble averages (e.g. for the energy):

$$\langle E \rangle = \sum_{s=1}^{M} E_s P_s = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{s=1}^{M} E_s e^{-\beta E_s}$$

Averages in the canonical ensemble

We can generate only a finite number m of the total number M of accessible microstates; we hope that:

$$\langle A \rangle pprox A_m = rac{\sum\limits_{s=1}^m A_s \, e^{-\beta E_s}}{\sum\limits_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}}$$
 (*)
$$\sum\limits_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}$$
 (Note: m, not M!)

A crude MonteCarlo procedure:

generate a microstate s at random, calculate E_s , A_s , and $e^{-\beta E_s}$, and evaluate (*)

Poorly efficient! P_s for the generated microstates could be rather small. An importance sampling method is better!

Importance sampling in the canonical ensemble

$$< A> \approx A_m = \frac{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m A_s e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with} \quad \pi_s = \frac{e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with uniform random distribution,} = \sum_{s=1}^m A_s \pi_s \quad \text{with$$

If we generate microstates according to π_s , the calculation of A_m reduces to:

$$A_m = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{s=1}^m A_s$$

with importance sampling

(generate m configurations with random distribution π_s , then make a simple average of A)

(much more efficient than (*))

Importance sampling in the canonical ensemble

Therefore, summarising: we aim at calculating

$$< A> \approx \frac{1}{m} \sum_{s=1}^{m} A_s$$
 with microstates s generated according to π_s

The transition matrix that generates microstates s according to π_s is:

$$T_{old,new} = min \left[1, \frac{\pi_{new}}{\pi_{old}} \right] = min \left[1, \frac{p_{new}}{p_{old}} \right] = min \left[1, \frac{e^{-\beta E_{new}}}{e^{-\beta E_{old}}} \right]$$

hence, using Metropolis, the procedure is as following:

Metropolis algorithm in the canonical ensemble

- 1. Establish an initial microstate.
- 2. Make a random trial change in the microstate. For example, choose a spin at random and flip it. Or choose a particle at random and displace it a random distance.
- 3. Compute $\Delta E \equiv E_{\text{trial}} E_{\text{old}}$, the change in the energy of the system due to the trial change.
- 4. If ΔE is less than or equal to zero, accept the new microstate and go to step 8.
- 5. If ΔE is positive, compute the quantity $w = e^{-\beta \Delta E}$.
- 6. Generate a random number r in the unit interval.
- 7. If $r \leq w$, accept the new microstate; otherwise retain the previous microstate.
- 8. Determine the value of the desired physical quantities.
- 9. Repeat steps (2) through (8) to obtain a sufficient number of microstates.
- 10. Periodically compute averages over microstates.

Metropolis algorithm in the canonical ensemble

Steps 2 to 7 give really the desired distribution using:

$$T(i \to j) = \min(1, e^{-\beta \Delta E})$$
 (Metropolis algorithm), where $\Delta E = E_j - E_i$.

A few remarks:

I) ERGODICITY implicitly assumed!

2) TEMPERATURE:

If $E_B > E_A$, accept the new (higher energy) configuration with probability $p = e^{-(E_B - E_A)/k_BT}$ This means that when the temperature is high, we don't mind taking steps in the "wrong" direction, but as the temperature is lowered, we are forced to settle into the lowest configuration we can find in our neighborhood.

Metropolis algorithm in the canonical ensemble: other remarks

I) Because it is necessary to evaluate only the ratio $P_j/P_i = e^{-\beta \Delta E}$, it is not necessary to normalize the probability.

$$(P_j/P_i = \pi_j/\pi_i)$$

2) Other choices of π_s are possible. Instead of writing:

$$< A > \approx A_m = \frac{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m A_s e^{-\beta E_s}}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m e^{-\beta E_s}} = \sum_{s=1}^m (A_s) \pi_s = \frac{1}{m} \sum_{s=1}^m A_s$$
 rewrite:
$$A_m = \frac{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m (A_s/\pi_s) e^{-\beta E_s} \pi_s}{\displaystyle\sum_{s=1}^m (1/\pi_s) e^{-\beta E_s} \pi_s}. \text{(no importance sampling)}$$
 If we generate microstates with probability π_{ε} , eq. becomes:

If we generate microstates with probability π_i , eq. becomes:

$$A_m = \frac{\sum_{s=1}^{m} (A_s/\pi_s) e^{-\beta E_s}}{\sum_{s=1}^{m} (1/\pi_s) e^{-\beta E_s}}.$$
 (importance sampling)

3) If $T(i \to j)e^{-\beta E_i} = T(j \to i)e^{-\beta E_j}$ (detailed balance), Metropolis algorithm generates states with Boltzmann distribution

(we will prove it empirically : see exercise)

Some programs:

in moodle2.units.it:

gauss_metropolis.f90

metropolis_sampling.f90 direct_sampling.f90 boltzmann_metropolis.f90

Boltzmann distribution in the canonical ensemble

The Metropolis algorithm really produces microstates with the Boltzmann distribution: application to ideal classical ID gas (exercise n. 4)

1 free particle: Energy: $E=\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ in this case, velocity or energy labels a microstate

(the energy with a factor of 2, due to \pm - sign of ι);

we generate different microstates by random variations of the velocity and we accept/reject with Metropolis

Important quantities are the probabilities:

P(v)dv that the system has a velocity between v and v+dv or P(E)dE that the system has an energy between E and E+dE

ideal classical ID gas

A particle moving randomly has in each direction a distribution of the component of the velocity:

$$f(v_x) = \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}\right)^{1/2} e^{-mv_x^2/2k_B T} \tag{1}$$

$$\langle v_x^2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} v_x^2 f(v_x) dv_x = \frac{k_B T}{m}$$
 (2)

In 1D:

$$f(v)2dv = P(E)dE$$

that gives:

$$P(E) = \frac{1}{(\pi k_B T)^{1/2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}} e^{-E/k_B T}$$

In 3D:

$$P(E) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{1}{(k_B T)^{3/2}} \sqrt{E} \exp\left(-\frac{E}{k_B T}\right)$$
 (3D)

Boltzmann distribution in the canonical ensemble

```
T = 1 \rightarrow \langle E \rangle (expected) = 0.5
                                                                                                  (m = 1)
         : 1.00000
 # <E0>
          : .000000
          : .000000
 # <v0>
 # dvmax
         : 2.00000
 # deltaE : 5.00000E-02
 # nbin
         : 79
==> boltzmann.1K <==
# nMCsteps: 1000
 # <F.>
          : .501263
 # <v>
          : 7.456664E-02
# accept. : .692000
                              \sigma/\sqrt{n} = 0.022 (\sigma is the variance of the energy)
 # sigma : .713780
==> boltzmann.10K <==
# nMCsteps: 10000
 # <E>
          : .507580
          : 3.366172E-02
 # <v>
 # accept. : .707700
                              \sigma / \sqrt{n} = 0.007
 # sigma : .726145
==> boltzmann.1M <==
 # nMCsteps: 1000000
 # <E>
          : .500138
 # <v>
          : 1.833840E-04
 # accept. : .693837
                              \sigma / \sqrt{n} = 0.0007
# sigma : .707472
NOTE:
- Accuracy of ~ 1% on <E> and 10% on <v> : NMCS=1000 is enough
- NOT ENOUGH to well reproduce the BOLTZMANN DISTRIBUTION! (1M needed!)
- ACCEPTANCE RATIO: constant, depends only on dymax
- SIGMA also
```

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Boltzmann distribution in the canonical ensemble

many particles: Energy: $E = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{1}{2} m_i v_i^2$ in this case, the energy is NOT a label of a microstate (there are several microstates with the same total energy)

Note: the energy histogram is NOT the distribution of microstates!

$$P(E) = \sum_{\substack{\text{states s} \\ \text{with } E_s = E}} P_s \text{ with } P_s = \frac{1}{Z} e^{-\beta E_s}$$

$$P(E) \propto = e^{\frac{-(E - \langle E \rangle)^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$
 with $\langle E \rangle$ average over all the microstates

What is P(E)? (exercise)

P(E), distribution of the kinetic energy of the system for different T

