Overview of Slides 03

Monte Carlo integration

- Recap
- Importance sampling

2 Monte Carlo methods in statistical physics

3 Stochastic processes

- General Intro
- Markov processes
- Master equation; detailed balance



Monte Carlo integration – uniform sampling - recap

Monte Carlo integration with uniform sampling

$$I = \int_{\Omega} f(\vec{r}) dV \quad \approx \quad \frac{V}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i \quad \pm \quad \frac{V}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i^2} - \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} f_i\right]^2$$

with $f_i = f(\xi_i)$; ξ_i are uniformly sampled from Ω .

- Error scales as $1/\sqrt{N}$
- Error proportional to $\sqrt{variance}$ of function values
- Superior to fixed-grid and Gaussian quadrature in high dimensions
- Simple to deal with complicated boundaries

Monte Carlo integration – weights, importance sampling

Consider integral
$$I = \int_{\Omega} f(\vec{r}) dV = \int_{\Omega} p(\vec{r}) g(\vec{r}) dV$$

 $p(ec{r})
ightarrow$ a prob. dist. from which we know how to draw random numbers. Should be normalized: $\int_{\Omega} p(ec{r}) dV = 1.$

If $I_1 = \int_{\Omega} w(\vec{r})g(\vec{r})dV$ and $w(\vec{r})$ is not normalized, use appropriate factor:

$$h_1 = cI = c \int_{\Omega} p(\vec{r})g(\vec{r})dV$$
 with $p(\vec{r}) = \frac{w(\vec{r})}{c} = \frac{w(\vec{r})}{\int_{\Omega} w(\vec{r})}$

Monte Carlo integration - weights, importance sampling

If region is sampled according to distribution $p(\vec{r})$, expectation value of an observable $A(\vec{r})$ is

$$\langle A \rangle = \int_{\Omega} p(\vec{r}) A(\vec{r}) dV$$

 $\begin{cases} \text{Normalized } p(x): \\ \text{no volume factor} \end{cases}$

Thus

Monte Carlo integration with weighted sampling

$$I = \int_{\Omega} p(\vec{r}) g(\vec{r}) dV \quad \approx \quad \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g_{i}$$

with $g_i = g(\xi_i)$; ξ_i are sampled with probability p(x).

Error given by $\sqrt{\text{variance}}$ of g, not of integrand f = pg.

Monte Carlo integration – weights, importance sampling

Monte Carlo integration with weighted sampling

$$I = \int_{\Omega} p(\vec{r}) g(\vec{r}) dV \quad \approx \quad \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g_i \quad \pm \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sqrt{\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g_i^2 - \left[\frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g_i\right]^2}$$

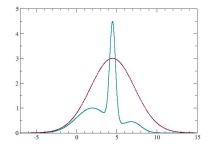
with $g_i = g(\xi_i)$; ξ_i are sampled with probability $p(x)$.

- Error still scales as $1/\sqrt{N}$
- When $g(\vec{r})$ has less variance than full integrand $f(\vec{r}) = p(\vec{r})g(\vec{r}) \rightarrow$ better than uniform sampling — focuses on important regions of Ω .

Importance sampling

If integrand is sharply peaked in some region, and small in others:

- Need high accuracy where f is big and varying
- Dont waste time where it is close to zero



Sample more points where f is greater. How? Choose x with probability p(x) so that $f(x)/p(x) \approx \text{constant}$.

$$I = \int f(x) dx = \int p(x) \left[\frac{f(x)}{p(x)} \right] dx \approx \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{f(x_i)}{p(x_i)}$$

 x_i 's sampled from probability distribution p(x).

Importance sampling — Example 1

$$V = \int_0^1 e^{-x} g(x) dx$$

Very tempting to use numpy.random.exponential().

Turn e^{-x} into a probability distribution:

$$I = c \int_0^1 \left[\frac{e^{-x}}{c} \right] g(x) dx = c \int_0^1 p(x) g(x) dx \quad \text{with } c = \int_0^1 e^{-x} dx = \frac{e-1}{e}$$

How to sample from $p(x) \propto e^{-x}$ with support (0, 1)? \rightarrow sample from exponential on $(0, \infty)$; reject values > 1.

$$I \approx c imes rac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} g(\xi_i)$$
 with ξ_i 's sampled from $p(x)$

Importance sampling — Example 2: variational approx.

Variational principle:

apprxomiation (upper bound) to ground state energy of \hat{H} given by

 $E_{\mathbf{v}} = \frac{\langle \psi_{\mathbf{v}} | \hat{H} | \psi_{\mathbf{v}} \rangle}{\langle \psi_{\mathbf{v}} | \psi_{\mathbf{v}} \rangle} \qquad \begin{cases} \psi_{\mathbf{v}} \rightarrow \text{variational wavefunction (trial wavefn)} \\ E_{\mathbf{v}} \text{ to be minimized over class of trial wavefn's} \end{cases}$

Before minimizing, have to calculate E_v first

 $\rightarrow~$ can be a serious computational problem. E.g.,

$$E_{\nu} = \frac{1}{\langle \psi_{\nu} | \psi_{\nu} \rangle} \int d\vec{x} \; \psi_{\nu}^{*}(\vec{x}) \; \hat{H} \; \psi_{\nu}(\vec{x}) \qquad \begin{cases} \vec{x} \text{ could be, e.g.,} \\ 3N \text{-dimensional for } N \text{ particles} \end{cases}$$

Rewrite as

$$E_{\mathbf{v}} = \int d\vec{x} \; \frac{\left|\psi_{\mathbf{v}}(\vec{x})\right|^2}{\left\langle\psi_{\mathbf{v}}\right|\psi_{\mathbf{v}}\right\rangle} \; \frac{\hat{H} \; \psi_{\mathbf{v}}(\vec{x})}{\psi_{\mathbf{v}}(\vec{x})}$$

First factor is a probability dist. Sample from this using Markov chain MC.

Importance sampling — Example 2: variational approx.

Variational Quantum Monte Carlo

$$E_{\rm v} = \int d\vec{x} \; \frac{\left|\psi_{\rm v}(\vec{x})\right|^2}{\left\langle\psi_{\rm v}|\psi_{\rm v}\right\rangle} \; \frac{\hat{H} \; \psi_{\rm v}(\vec{x})}{\psi_{\rm v}(\vec{x})}$$

First factor is a probability dist. Sample from this using Markov chain MC.

One of several variants of Quantum Monte Carlo (QMC) techniques used in quantum many-body physics

Monte Carlo for classical statistical physics

Monte Carlo widely used to sample statistical distributions

e.g., thermodynamic properties of polymers, magnetic systems, proteins,

Sample the Boltzmann distribution $\frac{1}{Z}e^{-\beta E(X)}$, where X is system configuration, a many-dimensional variable

Classical statistical physics

Microscopically

Large number of individual degrees of freedom $\{p_i, q_i\}, H(p, q)$ Classical evolution is deterministic and reversible

Macroscopically

A few thermodynamical control variables: T, μ, V and bulk thermodynamical properties: $\varepsilon, P, S, \ldots$ Evolution is statistical and irreversible

Statistical physics: bridges micro \leftrightarrow macro Work with ensembles of microscopic configurations Probability of configuration $X = \{p_i, q_i\}$ is

$$P(X) \propto e^{-\beta H(X)} \equiv e^{-H(X)/k_BT}$$

 \longrightarrow 'definition' of temperature

Why Monte Carlo?

Only a few systems can be 'solved' analytically — simulation is an essential tool

Task

Generate configurations with probability weight $P(X) \propto e^{-\beta H(X)}$

Each value of X represents a state or configuration of the system. Ideal gas: $H = \sum_{i} \frac{p_i^2}{2m} \implies P(X) = \text{ product of gaussians} - \text{ easy}$ With interactions: not so easy

Common recipe

Construct a series of configurations via a stochastic process

Stochastic processes

This is itself a topic in statistical physics / mathematics / statistics

Unlike deterministic processes, not modelled by usual pde's

Main topic: probability of being in certain states at time t:

- What is $P(x)_t \equiv W_1(x, t)$ prob of state x at time t?
- What is $P(x_{t_1}, y_{t_2}) \equiv W_2(x, t_1, y, t_2)$ prob of x at t_1 and y at t_2 ?
- What is $P(x_{t_1}, y_{t_2}, z_{t_3}) \equiv W_3(x, t_1, y, t_2, z, t_3)$ etc?
- What is $P(y_{t_2}|x_{t_1})$ prob of getting from x at t_1 to y at t_2 ?

Stochastic processes

Examples

- Brownian motion
- Diffusion and drift
- Population dynamics

- Stock markets
- Many-particle systems e.g., lsing model

Types

- Poisson process
- Markov process
- Bernoulli process
- Wiener process

- Lévy process
- Martingale
- Discrete-time random walks

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Properties of stochastic processes

x, t can be discrete or continuous

$$\int W_1(x,t)dx = 1; \qquad \qquad W_n \ge 0 \,\forall n$$

$$\int W_2(x,t_1,y,t_2)dx = W_1(y,t_2); \quad \int W_2(x,t_1,y,t_2)dy = W_1(x,t_2)$$

x can be either a single number (discrete or continuous), or a collection of numbers representing a configuration.

Properties of stochastic processes x, t can be discrete or continuous

$$\int W_1(x,t) dx = 1; \qquad \qquad W_n \ge 0 \,\forall n$$

$$\int W_2(x,t_1,y,t_2) dx = W_1(y,t_2); \quad \int W_2(x,t_1,y,t_2) dy = W_1(x,t_2)$$

Stationary processes

$$W_1(x,t) = W_1(x) = P(x)$$
 independent of t
 $W_2(x_1,t_1,x_t,t_2) = W_2(x_1,x_2;t_2-t_1)$

Ergodic processes

If ensemble mean equals time average then the process is ergodic The process will 'visit' all possible states of the system

- every state must be accessible from every other state
- no periodicity

Autocorrelations

Measure the 'memory' of the process:

$$\begin{split} \mathcal{R}_{\phi}(t_1, t_2) &\equiv \langle \Delta \phi(t_1) \Delta \phi(t_2) \rangle = \left\langle \left(\phi(t_1) - \langle \phi(t_1) \rangle \right) \left(\phi(t_2) - \langle \phi(t_2) \rangle \right) \right\rangle \\ &= \int (\phi(x_1, t_1) - \langle \phi(t_1) \rangle) \left(\phi(x_2, t_2) - \langle \phi(t_2) \rangle \right) \mathcal{W}_2(x_1, t_1, x_2, t_2) dx_1 dx_2 \end{split}$$

Here ϕ is a stochastic variable.

For stationary process: $\langle \phi(t_1)
angle = \langle \phi(t_2)
angle = {
m constant}$

$$R_{\phi}(t_2 - t_1) = R_{\phi}(\tau) = \left\langle \Delta \phi(0) \Delta \phi(\tau) \right
angle$$

Typically $R_{\phi}(\tau) \sim e^{-\tau/\tau_{\phi}}$, where τ_{ϕ} is the autocorrelation time.

Simple(st) stochastic process: uncorrelated random process

 $W_2(x_1, t_1, x_2, t_2) = W_1(x_1, t_1)W_2(x_2, t_2) \implies R(\tau) = c\delta(\tau)$

All information contained in W_1 's.

Next simplest: all information is in W_2 — Markov process

A Markov process is a random process in which the future is independent of the past, given the present.

Markov processes

Define transition probabilities

(for either discrete time and continuous time)

$$P(x_2t_2|x_1t_1) \equiv T(x_1, t_1 \to x_2, t_2) \int P(x_2t_2|x_1t_1)dx_2 = 1$$
$$W_2(x_1, t_1, x_2, t_2) = W_1(x_1, t_1)P(x_2t_2|x_1t_1)$$

All information about dynamics of the process is in T.

Where we go next is independent of how we got there.

We focus on discrete time:

$$P(x_n t_n | x_{n-1} t_{n-1} \dots x_1 t_1) = P(x_n t_n | x_{n-1} t_{n-1})$$

Only the most recent time counts!

Markov processes

Examples of Markov processes

- random walk
- population dynamics

Examples of non-Markov processes

- self-avoiding random walk
- stock markets

Markov chains

With discrete time steps: Markov chain

- need only look at transition probabilities from one time step to next

$$T(Xt_n \to Yt_{n+1}) \equiv T(X \to Y)$$

The Master Equation

Look at probability of being in state X at time t, P(X, t)

$$P(X, t_{n+1}) = \sum_{Y} P(Y, t_n) T(Y \to X)$$
$$P(X, t_n) = \sum_{Y} P(X, t_n) T(X \to Y)$$

Master equation, discrete time

$$P(X, t_{n+1}) - P(X, t_n) = \sum_{Y} \Big[P(Y, t_n) T(Y \to X) - P(X, t_n) T(X \to Y) \Big]$$

Continuous time:

$$\frac{\partial P(x,t)}{\partial t} = \int \Big[P(y,t)t(y \to x) - P(x,t)t(x \to y) \Big] dy$$

Detailed balance

For a stationary process $P(X, t_{n+1}) = P(X, t_n) = P(X)$ \implies rhs of Master Equation is 0.

Sufficient condition

 $P(X)T(X \rightarrow Y) = P(Y)T(Y \rightarrow X)$ Detailed balance

If detailed balance is satisfied: Markov chain will follow irreversible process towards stationary distribution (towards equilibrium)

Markov chain Monte Carlo

Use such a process to create configurations X with desired distribution P(X)

Design update rule/algorithm (transition probability T) satisfying detailed balance for desired distribution P(X)

Summary

Monte Carlo integration

- Via uniform or weighted sampling.
- Importance sampling can drastically improve performance

Markov processes

- A Markov process is a stochastic process with no memory
- Described by transition probabilities
- All Markov processes obey the master equation
- Detailed balance is a sufficient condition for a stationary process