Complete Density Calculations of q-State Potts and Clock Models: Reentrance of Interface Densities under Symmetry Breaking

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All local bond-state densities are calculated for q-state Potts and clock models in three spatial dimensions, d = 3. The calculations are done by an exact renormalization group on a hierarchical lattice, including the density recursion relations, and simultaneously are the Migdal-Kadanoff approximation for the cubic lattice. Reentrant behavior is found in the interface densities under symmetry breaking, in the sense that upon lowering temperature the value of the density first increases, then decreases to its zero value at zero temperature. For this behavior, a physical mechanism is proposed. A contrast between the phase transition of the two models is found, and explained by alignment and entropy, as the number of states q goes to infinity. For the clock models, the renormalization-group flows of up to twenty energies are used.

I. INTRODUCTION: TOTAL RENORMALIZATION-GROUP SOLUTION OF TWO FAMILIES OF MODELS

Although originally introduced for critical phenomena, renormalization-group calculation gives the total thermodynamics of a system, at and away phase transitions. In order to effect this, the recursion relations of the local densities are needed, leading to calculation more complicated than that for phase boundaries and critical exponents. This calculation is carried out here for two families of models, namely Potts and clock, each with q states, on a hierarchical lattice in three spatial dimensions, d = 3. The calculation is exact for the hierarchical and is considered approximate for a cubic lattice. The temperature functions and symmetry-breaking behaviors of dozens local densities are derived and interesting behaviors are found, and explained, such as a reentrance behavior in the interface densities. The models are similarly defined, but exhibit different behaviors, such as the q saturation of the magnetization and the phase transitions as q goes to infinity, which is also explained.

II. POTTS AND CLOCK, AND DENSITIES CALCULATION

A. The q-State Models and Their Set of Densities

These general q-state models are simply defined by the Hamiltonians, for the Potts models,

\[-\beta H = \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} J \delta(s_is_j),\]

where \(\beta = 1/k_BT\), at site \(i\) the spin \(s_i = a, b, \ldots\), can be in \(q\) different states, the delta function \(\delta(s_is_j) = 1(0)\) for \(s_i = s_j(s_i \neq s_j)\), and \(\langle ij \rangle\) denotes summation over all nearest-neighbor pairs of sites. For the clock models,

\[-\beta H = \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} J \cos(\vec{s}_i \cdot \vec{s}_j),\]

where at site \(i\) the spin \(\vec{s}_i\) can point in \(q\) different directions \(\theta_i = 2\pi n_i/q\) in the \(xy\) plane, with \(n_i = 0, 1, \ldots, q - 1\) providing the \(q\) different possible states. The limit \(q \to \infty\) of the clock model gives the \(XY\) model, which we also explore here, with results (physically explainably) quite different from the \(q \to \infty\) limit of the Potts model (Fig. 1).

FIG. 1. Calculated critical temperatures \(J_c^{-1}\) of Potts and clock models as a function of number of states \(q\), in \(d = 3\). From this figure and from Table I, it is seen that the clock model quickly (at as low as \(q = 5\)) settles to its \(q = \infty\) (which is the \(XY\) model) value of \(J_c^{-1} = 7.4\). The dashed line for the Potts critical temperatures is \(J_c^{-1} = 7/\ln(q)\), derived here for strong coupling.

Our aim is to calculate all (there are \(q(q+1)/2\) of them) of the bond-state densities

\[U(n_in_j) = \langle \delta(s_in_i)\delta(s_jn_j) \rangle,\]

where \((i, j)\) are the sites on each end of the bond and \(n_i\) designates one of \(q\) possible states of the spin \(s_i\). These bond-state densities are obtained from the partition function \(Z\),

\[U(n_in_j) = \frac{1}{N} \frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial E(n_in_j)},\]
where $N$ is the number of nearest-neighbor pairs in the system and $E(n_{i,n_{j}})$ is the energy assigned to the bond when its sites are in states $(n_{i}, n_{j})$. Before any renormalization, these bond energies are given by Eqs. (1) and (2),

$$E(n_{i,n_{j}}) = J\delta(n_{i,n_{j}}) \quad \text{and} \quad J \cos(2\pi(n_{i} - n_{j})/q),$$  \hfill (5)

for Potts and clock models, respectively. The $E(n_{i,n_{j}})$ are the (large number of, see below) renormalization-group flow variables and Eqs. (5) give the initial conditions, parametrized by temperature $J^{-1}$, of the renormalization-group flows. The forms in Eqs. (5) are of course not conserved during the flows.

**B. Energy Recursion Relations of the Renormalization Group**

For our renormalization-group calculation, we use the Migdal-Kadanoff approximation, which, as shown in Fig. 2(a), consists in bond-moving followed by decimation \[\delta.\] This operation is equivalent to constructing the $q \times q$ transfer matrix $T(n_{i,n_{j}}) = \exp(E(n_{i,n_{j}}))$, taking the $b^{-d}$ th power of each element of the matrix (this is bond moving) and matrix multiplying the resulting matrix with itself (this is decimation). For numerical convenience at the low-temperature sink of the flows, after every decimation (and before first starting the first renormalization), we subtract $E(aa)$ (for Potts) or $E(00)$ (for clock) from all $E(n_{i,n_{j}})$, thus setting $E(aa) = 0$ or $E(00) = 0$ and introducing the additive constant $NG$ in the Hamiltonian, which has the renormalization-group recursion relation

$$G' = b^{-d}G + \tilde{G},$$  \hfill (6)

where, here and everywhere, prime refers to the renormalized system, the first term is the additive constants the renormalized bond inherits from the $b^{-d}$ bonds it replaces and the second term comes from compensating the subtraction of $E(aa)$ or $E(00)$. These recursion relations are then in terms of the elements (or equivalently their logarithms $E(n_{i,n_{j}}) = \ln(T(n_{i,n_{j}}))$) of the diagonal and upper left triangle of the transfer matrix (since this matrix is symmetrical). The number of these elements can be somewhat reduced by noting those identically equal by symmetry and not to be distinguished by possible spontaneous symmetry breaking, as is illustrated for the clock models below, but it will be seen that the number of the flow variables for the clock models rapidly increases with $q$. A large $q$ calculation, such as the one we do here for $q = 360$ to probe the $q \to \infty$ $XY$ model limit, is best effected by doing directly numerically the matrix operations described above on the $360 \times 360$ transfer matrix. By contrast, for any $q$, by using the (partially broken under ordering) permutation symmetry of the Potts variables, we can reduce the number of renormalization-group flow variables to 4, which makes it possible to treat any $q$, including $q = \infty$, as seen below. The recursion relations obtained by the Migdal-Kadanoff approximation are exactly applicable to the exact solution of the hierarchical lattice shown in Fig. 2(b) \[\delta.\] Thus, a “physically realizable”, therefore robust approximation is used. Physically realizable approximations have been used in polymers \[\delta.\] disordered alloys \[\delta.\] and turbulence \[\delta.\] Recent works using exactly soluble hierarchical lattices are in Refs. \[\delta.\]

**C. Density Recursion Relations of the Renormalization Group**

In each renormalization-group transformation, the densities obey the recursion relation

$$U = b^{-d}U' \cdot R,$$  \hfill (7)

where the densities $U \equiv [1, U(n_{i,n_{j}})]$ are conjugate to the fields $E \equiv [G, E(n_{i,n_{j}})]$ and the recursion matrix is $R = \partial E'/\partial E$. The exact Eq. (7) is obtained by using the derivative chain rule on $U = (1/N)\partial \ln Z/\partial E$, where $Z$ is the partition function and $N$ is the number of nearest-neighbor pairs of spins, and is used to calculate densities from renormalization-group theory \[\delta.\] In these defined vectors, the $E(aa)$ or $E(00)$ and $U(aa)$ or $U(00)$ are missing, since these energies are set to zero by the additive constant and therefore do not recur. $U(aa)$ and $U(00)$ are found from the sum rule $\Sigma_{n_{i,n_{j}}} U(n_{i,n_{j}}) = 1$. The other densities are calculated by iterating Eq. (7) until a stable fixed point (sink of the thermodynamic phase) is reached. The densities $U^*$ at the sink are the left eigenvectors of $R$ with eigenvalue $b^{-d}$ and conclude the calculation by insertion to the right-hand side of Eq. (7). These will be discussed below specifically for each model. The unstable fixed point dividing the renormalization-group flows to the phase sinks, parametrized by $J$, yields the phase transition temperatures given in Fig. 1 and Table I.

**FIG. 2.** (a) Migdal-Kadanoff approximate renormalization-group transformation for the $d = 3$ cubic lattice with the length-rescaling factor of $b = 2$. (b) Construction of the $d = 3, b = 2$ hierarchical lattice for which the Migdal-Kadanoff recursion relations are exact. The renormalization-group solution of a hierarchical lattice proceeds in the opposite direction of its construction.
FIG. 3. The calculated nearest-neighbor densities of the $q$-state Potts models in $d = 3$. The upper curve on the right is $U_{aa}$ and $U_{ab}$, which coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and split in the low-temperature phase where symmetry is spontaneously broken in favor of state $a$. The lower curve on the right is $U_{ab}$ and $U_{bc}$, also which coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and split in the symmetry-broken low-temperature phase. The interface density $U_{ab}$ exhibits reentrance as temperature is lowered in the ordered phase, first increasing in value and then receding to zero at zero temperature.

III. RESULTS: $q$-STATE POTTS MODELS

A. Potts Recursion Relations

Because of the permutation symmetry of the model, namely that given the $\delta$ function, with respect to a given state, all other states are equivalent (unlike the clock model involving the product of slightly or more aligned vectors) the $q \times q$ transfer matrix manipulations of the recursion relations given above can be reduced to four simple equations,

$$e^{E^{(a\bar{a})}+\tilde{G}} = x(a\bar{b}) + x(ab)x(\bar{b}b) + (q-2)x(ab)x(bc),$$

$$e^{E^{(\bar{b}b)}+\tilde{G}} = x(a\bar{b})^2 + x(ab)^2 + (q-2)x(ab)^2,$$

$$e^{E^{(bc)}+\tilde{G}} = x(a\bar{b})^2 + 2x(ab)x(bc) + (q-3)x(bc)^2,$$

$$e^{\tilde{G}} = 1 + (q-1)x(ab)^2,$$

where the Potts state $a$ has been singled out for possible spontaneous symmetry breaking, $\bar{b}$ represents any Potts state which is not $a$, and $\overrightarrow{b}$ represents any Potts state which is not $a$ or the state in $\overrightarrow{b}$, and $x(ab) \equiv e^{bd-1}E(ab)$, etc. In the latter equation, the factor $b^{d-1}$ represents bond moving and Eqs. (8) effect the decimation with the bond-moved energies. The recursion matrix $R$ is the $4 \times 4$ derivative matrix of Eqs. (8), and the density calcu-
FIG. 5. Comparison with respect to the number of states $q = 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 15, 20$ from top down in each panel, of the nearest-neighbor densities of the Potts models in $d = 3$. The right panel shows the curves for neighboring unlike states $U_{ab}$ and $U_{bc}$, which coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and split in the symmetry-broken low-temperature phase. The interface density $U_{ab}$ exhibits reentrance as temperature is lowered in the ordered phase, first increasing in value and then receding to zero at zero temperature. This reentrance is pronounced in the low $q$ states and decreases for high $q$. The left panel shows the curves for the like-state neighbors $U_{aa}$ and $U_{bb}$, which also coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and split in the low-temperature phase where symmetry is spontaneously broken in favor of state $a$.

lations can be done for any number of states $q$, including infinity. By derivative matrix, we mean the derivatives of the renormalized quantities with respect to the unrenormalized quantities.

The recursion relations of Eqs. (8) flow to one of two phase sinks. On the high temperature side, the sink of the disordered phase is

$$E(aa)^* = E(ab)^* = E(bb)^* = E(bc)^* = 0,$$

where $*$ denotes the fixed point value. The left eigenvector, with eigenvalue $b^d$, of the recursion matrix $R$ at this sink is

$$U^* = [1, (a), (a), U(ab), U(bb), U(bc)]^* =
\begin{align*}
[1, \delta(s_i, a)\delta(s_j, b) + \delta(s_i, b)\delta(s_j, a)], \\
\delta(s_i, b)\delta(s_j, b) + \delta(s_i, b)\delta(s_j, c)] = \\
[1, 2(q - 1)/q^2, 2(q - 1)/q^2, 2(q - 1)(q - 2)/q^2].
\end{align*}
$$

(10)

Capping with Eq. (10) from left the repeated applications of Eq. (7), the densities $U(a\overline{a}), U(b\overline{b}), U(\overline{c})$ are obtained over the entire temperature range of the high-temperature disordered phase. Finally,

$$U(ab) = U(ab)/U^*(a\overline{a}),$$

(11)

etc. gives the density for a specific pair of states $(a, b)$.

On the low-temperature side, the sink of the ordered phase is

$$E(aa)^* = E(bb)^* = 0, \quad E(ab)^* = E(bc)^* \rightarrow -\infty.\quad (12)$$

A left eigenvector, with eigenvalue $b^d$, of the recursion matrix $R$ at this sink is

$$U^* = [1, 0, 0, 0].$$

(13)

Calculation, as described after Eq. (10) above, gives the densities over the entire temperature range of the low-temperature ordered phase, showing spontaneous symmetry-breaking in favor of state $a$. This result is described in detail in the next subsection.

Another left eigenvector, with eigenvalue $b^d$, of the recursion matrix $R$ at this sink is $[1, 1, 0, 0]$. This eigenvector gives symmetry breaking in favor of one of the states $b$, namely one of the states which is not $a$. This leads to results identical, with the permutation mapping of the Potts model, to the results involving symmetry breaking in favor of $a$. A linear combination of these two degenerate eigenvectors is of course also an eigenvector with the eigenvalue $b^d$, physically corresponding to the macroscopic coexistence of differently symmetry-broken phases.

It noteworthy that throughout the renormalization-group flows,

$$E(aa) = E(bb), \quad E(ab) = E(bc).$$

(14)

However, these interactions have to be distinguished in the recursion relations, enabling construction of the $4 \times 4$ recursion matrix $R$, to calculate distinctly $U(aa), U(bb)$,
and see the symmetry breaking. This calculation is also going to lead to the full determination of the magnetization, as seen below.

B. Potts Densities and Interface Density Reentrance

The calculated nearest-neighbor densities of the $q$-state Potts models in $d = 3$ are given, for $q = 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 15, 20$, in Fig. 3. (For easy comparison, the densities for the clock models are given in the adjoining Fig. 4.) The upper curve is $U(aa)$ and $U(bb)$, which coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and split in the low-temperature phase where symmetry is spontaneously broken in favor of state $a$. The lower curve is $U(ab)$ and $U(bc)$, also which coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and split in the symmetry-broken low-temperature phase. It is seen that the interface density $U(ab)$, between the symmetry-breaking and non-symmetry-breaking states, exhibits reentrance as temperature is lowered in the ordered phase, first increasing in value and then receding to zero at zero temperature. In Fig. 5, for comparison, the densities are plotted together for the different $q$ values (and similarly for the clock models in the adjoining Fig. 6). The interface density reentrance is pronounced in the low $q$ states, but continues for high $q$. As temperature is lowered through the phase transition, the reentrance relies on: (1) Due to the increase in the sizes of the domains of the favored stated $s_i = a$, the numbers increase for the $(s_i, s_j ≠ a)$ pairs at the boundaries of these domains. (2) As the sizes of the domains of the favored state $s_i = a$ further increase, upon further lowering the temperature, these domains merge, eliminating the boundaries. This reentrance is less pronounced for higher $q$, since the phase transition is at lower temperature and (2) sets in before (1) develops.

Reentrance is the reversal of a thermodynamic trend as the system proceeds along one given thermodynamic direction. Since its observation in liquid crystals by Cladis [22], this at-first-glance strange phenomenon has attracted attention by the need for a physical mechanistic explanation, which has been disparate in disparate systems. Thus, in liquid crystals the explanation has been the relief of close-packed dipolar frustration by positional fluctuations (librations) [23, 24], in closed-loop binary liquid mixtures the explanation has been the asymmetric orientational degrees of freedom of the components [25], in surface adsorption the explanation has been the buffer effect of the second layer [26]. In spin-glasses, where there is orthogonally bidirectional reentrance, the effect of frustration in both disordering and changing the nature of ordering (to spin-glass order) is the cause [27]. In cosmology, reentrance is due to high-curvature (black hole) gravity [28, 29]. In the current case of Potts (and clock, see below) interfacial density, in lowering the temperature, when the system orders in favor state $a$, the preponderance of the latter also increases its interface with the other states. However, as this preponderance further increases and in fact takes over the system, the other states are eliminated and their interface with $a$ thus is also eliminated. This happens for all $q$-state Potts and clock models.

The calculated bond-state densities also readily yield magnetizations, which will be discussed in Sec. VI, as well as the different behaviors of the two models in the $q → ∞$ limit.

IV. RESULTS: $q$-STATE CLOCK MODELS

Clock models do not have permutational symmetry, so that the recursion relations for the diagonal and the top triangle of the $q × q$ energies cannot be reduced to four equations (as in Eqs. (8) above). Using the different symmetries for each $q$, the number of these energies that under renormalization group separately recur can be reduced, but still increases with $q$, eventually numerically burdening the algebra.

A. Renormalization-Group Calculation and Six-Energy Renormalization-Group Flows for $q = 4$

In the three-state clock model, since with respect to any one state, the other two states are equivalent, for $q = 3$ the clock and Potts models are identical, up to a factor of $1 − \cos(2\pi/3) = 3/2$ in the coupling constant $J$.

In the four-state clock model, the six energies that need to be separately recur under renormalization group are

$$E(11) = E(33), \ E(22), \ E(12) = E(23),$$
$$E(01) = E(03), \ E(02), \ E(13),$$

where $E(mn)$ is the energy of neighboring spins with angles $2\pi m/q$ and $2\pi n/q$. The equalities result from the
symmetries of the \( q = 4 \) state clock model, as the state with \( m = 0 \) is singled out for possible symmetry breaking. When, as we do here, the same energy label is assigned to different states that should have the same energy by symmetry, the derivative in Eq. (4) gives the sum of the densities of these states, as seen below.

The recursion relations are, similarly to Eqs. (8),

\[
e^{E'(mn)+\tilde{G}} = \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} e^{d_{E}(m(k)+b^{d-1}E(kn))},
\]

\[
e^{\tilde{G}} = \sum_{k=0}^{q-1} e^{d_{E}(0(k)+b^{d-1}E(k0))}.
\]

The renormalization-group flows and the calculation of the thermodynamic densities proceed as for the Potts models above. The recursion matrix is the \( 7 \times 7 \) derivative matrix of \( [G, E(mn)] \), where \( E(mn) \) are the six energies of Eq. (15) and \( G \) is the additive constant as in Eq. (6), a captive variable of the renormalization-group flows of the \( E(mn) \). By derivative matrix, we again mean the derivatives of the renormalized quantities with respect to the unrenormalized quantities.

The left eigenvector with eigenvalue \( b^{d} \) of the recursion matrix at the phase sinks has the form \( 1, U(mn) \), where \( U(mn) \) are the density sums conjugate to the recurring \( E(mn) \). At the high-temperature disordered phase sink, all energies equal \( E(00) \), namely zero, and \( U(mn) = z(mn)/q^{2} \), where \( z(mN) \) is the degeneracy of \( E(mn) \), namely \( z = 2, 1, 4, 4, 2, 2 \) for the energies in Eq. (15), also taking into account the degeneracy for label interchange when \( m \neq n \). Repeated application of Eq. (7) then yields the six density sums \( U(mn) \) in the entire temperature range of the disordered phase. The densities for individual states are obtained from the sums by \( \delta(mn) = U(mn) - U(00) \). For example,

\[
U(01)/z(01) = \langle \delta(01) + \delta(10) + \delta(03) + \delta(30) \rangle/4 = \langle \delta(01) \rangle = U(01).
\]

Thus, when we reduce the number of the recurring energies using symmetries as in Eq. (15) and label interchange symmetry, the renormalization-group calculation yields the density sum \( U(01) \), which is then subjected to Eq. (17). At the low-temperature sink, in the left eigenvector with eigenvalue \( b^{d} \), all \( U(mn) = 0 \) and therefore \( U(00) = 1 - \sum_{m} U(mn) = 1 \), symmetry is broken in favor of state 0. Repeated application of Eq. (7) then yields the six density sums \( U(mn) \) in the entire temperature range of the ordered phase. (The other left eigenvector with eigenvalue \( b^{d} \) is \( U(00) = 1 \), where 0 is a state other than 0, and all other recurring \( U(mn) = 0 \), giving an equivalent phase and completing the picture of phase coexistence, as for the Potts models above.)

The calculated nearest-neighbor densities of the four-state clock model in \( d = 3 \) are shown in Fig. 3. The densities \( U(00), U(11), U(33) \) coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and, in the low-temperature phase, \( U(00) \) splits from \( U(11), U(33) \) under the symmetry breaking favoring the state 0. Similarly, \( U(01), U(03), U(12), U(23) \) coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and, in the low-temperature phase, \( U(01), U(03) \) splits from \( U(12), U(23) \) under the symmetry breaking. Similarly, \( U(02), U(13) \) coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase and, in the low-temperature phase, \( U(02) \) splits from \( U(13) \) under the symmetry breaking. The densities involving the 0 state split from their symmetric counterparts in the low-temperature phase, increasing their values. This is spontaneous symmetry breaking. Furthermore, the interface densities involving the 0 state exhibit reentrance as temperature is lowered in the ordered phase, first increasing in value and then receding to zero at zero temperature.

### B. Renormalization-Group Flows of Eight, Twelve, Fifteen, Twenty Energies for \( q = 5, 6, 7, 8 \)

The calculations for \( q = 5, 6, 7, 8 \) are more extensive. Using symmetries grouping the same values of \( |n - m| \), but grouping separately for positioning with respect to state 0, for the possibility of spontaneous symmetry breaking, \( q = 5, 6, 7, 8 \) have renormalization-group flows in eight, twelve, fifteen, twenty energies, respectively. These constitute very extensive renormalization-group calculations.

The results are shown in Fig. 3. Direct comparison between different \( q \) are shown in Fig. 5, showing a striking evolution with respect to \( q \). The characteristic behavior is seen here as well. The curves are for \( U_{k,k-m} \), for \( k = 0, 1, ..., q-1 \) and \( m = 0, 1, ... \). Thus, \( m \) measures the angular difference \( \theta_{k} - \theta_{k+m} = 2n/m/q \) between the states of neighboring spins. For each \( m \), the curves for different \( k \) coincide in the disordered high-temperature phase.

In the low-temperature phase, for each \( m \), the densities involving \( k = 0 \) and the densities involving \( k > 0 \) split under the spontaneous symmetry breaking favoring the state 0. The interface densities involving \( k = 0 \) exhibit reentrance as temperature is lowered in the ordered phase, first increasing in value and then receding to zero at zero temperature.

### V. Magnetizations and Infinite \( q \) (Non-)Saturation of the Critical Temperature

The magnetizations \( M \) are directly obtained from the nearest-neighbor densities. For the Potts models,

\[
M = \langle s_{i}a \rangle = \sum_{m=0,n=0}^{q-1,q-1} U(mn) \delta(ma).
\]
For the clock models, 

\[ M = \langle \cos(\theta_i) \rangle = \sum_{m=0}^{q-1} \sum_{n=0}^{q-1} U(mn) \cos(2\pi mn/q). \]  

These equations are obtained by including a magnetic field term (to be taken to zero after differentiating) in the \( E(mn) \), differentiating \( \ln(Z) \) with respect to the magnetic field, and using the chain rule with \( E(mn) \) as intermediary.

The results for the magnetizations and the critical temperatures are given in Figs. 1, 7 and Table I. It should be noted that these results are exact for the \( d = 3 \) hierarchical lattice. They are approximate for the cubic lattice. Specifically, by allowing effective vacancies to be generated by the renormalization-group transformation, the Potts model transition correctly becomes first order for \( q > 2 \).

It is of interest to see the magnetization curves for the clock models in Fig. 7 settle to their \( q \to \infty \) value for as low as \( q = 5 \). This is of course reflected in the essentially constant value of the clock critical temperatures as \( q \) is increased.

Such is not the case for the Potts models. Directly writing down the recursion relation for \( J \) in Eq. (1),

\[ J' = \ln[e^{2d-1} + (q - 1)] - \ln[2e^{bd-1} + (q - 2)], \]

setting the fixed point condition \( J' = J = J_c \), and expanding for large \( J \) and \( q \), we find the critical temperatures

\[ J_c^{-1} = 7/\ln(q). \]  

This curve is plotted as a dashed curve in Fig. 1 and gives a good fit even for finite \( q \). As \( q \to \infty \) the critical temperature goes to zero.

There is a physical explanation to the contrast between Potts and clock. In the Potts models, the states neighboring \( s_i = a \) do not contribute to the magnetization and are entropically favored as \( q \) is increased. (In fact, in the permutationally symmetric Potts models, the concept of “neighboring” state has no meaning: every state is equally positioned with respect to a chosen state.) By contrast, in the clock models, the states neighboring \( \theta_i = 0 \) give almost a full contribution, namely \( \langle \cos(2\pi n_i/q) \rangle > \) to the magnetization where \( n_i << q \) for large \( q \). Thus, in all spatial dimensions \( d \), the critical temperature for Potts models should go to zero inverse logarithmically as \( q \to \infty \).

VI. CONCLUSION

In this study, we have calculated all of the bond-state densities of the \( q \)-state Potts and clock models in \( d = 3 \). This was done for all \( q \) for the Potts models, by reducing the recursion relations to four, using symmetries, modulo singling out one state for possible spontaneous symmetry breaking, which happens for both models. Although the number of recursion relations in clock models can be reduced by symmetry, their number grows, for example to twenty different energies for our treated eight-state clock model. However, we have presented a robust method which would make the calculation for any number of states \( q \) feasible.

A reentrant behavior of all of the symmetry-broken interface densities was found for both models, and physically explained. A surprising saturation with increasing \( q \) was found in the clock models, but not in the Potts models. We also found qualitatively different phase transition behaviors in the \( q \to \infty \) limit, which was physically explained by entropy and alignment arguments.

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