Critical exponents of the three dimensional diluted Ising model

H. G. Ballesteros, L. A. Fernández,
V. Martín-Mayor, A. Muñoz Sudupe,
Departamento de Física Teórica I,
Universidad Complutense de Madrid,
28040 Madrid, Spain,
hector, laf, victor, sudupe@lattice.fis.ucm.es

G. Parisi and J. J. Ruiz-Lorenzo
Dipartimento di Fisica and INFN,
Università di Roma I, La Sapienza,
P. A. Moro 2, 00185 Roma, Italy,
giorgio.parisi@roma1.infn.it, ruiz@chimera.roma1.infn.it

February 25, 1998

Abstract

We study the phase diagram of the site-diluted Ising model in a wide dilution range, through Monte Carlo simulations and Finite-Size Scaling techniques. Our results for the critical exponents and universal cumulants turn out to be dilution-independent, but only after a proper infinite volume extrapolation, taking into account the leading corrections-to-scaling terms.

PACS: 75.50.Lk. 05.50.+q, 68.35.Rh, 75.40.Cx,
1 Introduction

The magnetic phase diagram and critical properties of many magnetic materials can be described by a simple model (the Heisenberg Hamiltonian):

\[ H = \sum_{i,j,\alpha,\beta} J_{ij}^{\alpha_\beta} S_i^\alpha S_j^\beta. \]  

(1)

Here \( S_i^\alpha \) is a spin operator (Latin indices refer to lattice sites, while Greek ones represent the spin components). \( J_{ij}^{\alpha_\beta} \) is a coupling matrix which is usually short-ranged and can represent either the Ising, XY or Heisenberg models by properly dealing with the spin index. One can understand eq. (1) on the basis of the exchange interaction between the electrons of the external shells of the atoms. This interaction, expressed as in eq. (1), is symmetric in the spin index. Nonetheless if one puts the atoms on a crystalline lattice, the material tends to magnetize in the so-called axes or planes of easy magnetization given by the symmetry of the crystal.

One typical example are the uniaxial crystals, as the hexagonal lattices, where the magnetization can choose as subspace of easy magnetization the \( c \) axis or its orthogonal plane. In the first case the system is well described assuming that the magnetic momenta point in the \( c \) direction and it should be described by the Ising model. In the second one, the material should be studied by means of the XY model.

However no pure material exists in Nature, and it is mandatory to consider the effects of non-magnetic impurities. The simplest way to do so, is by considering a modified version of (1)

\[ H = \sum_{i,j,\alpha,\beta} J_{ij}^{\alpha_\beta} \epsilon_i \epsilon_j S_i^\alpha S_j^\beta, \]  

(2)

where the \( \epsilon \)'s are quenched, uncorrelated random variables, chosen to be 1 with probability \( p \) (the spin concentration) or 0 with probability \( 1 - p \) (the impurity concentration, or spin dilution). The rationale for the quenched approximation is that usual relaxation times for the non-magnetic impurities are much longer than the corresponding for spin dynamics. For non-frustrated systems, the phase diagram of (2) in the temperature-dilution plane consists of a magnetically disordered (paramagnetic) region at high temperature, separated from an ordered (ferromagnetic) region at lower temperatures. The dilution dependent critical temperature, \( T_c(p) \), obviously equals the pure model value at \( p = 1 \). It lowers for larger dilution values, until the extreme case \( T_c(p_c) = 0 \) at the site percolation threshold for the concentration of the magnetic atoms.

Not many general results have been obtained for the Hamiltonian (2). The most popular one is doubtless the Harris criterion [1]. This criterion states that the critical behavior of (2) will be the same as for (1) if the specific-heat critical exponent, \( \alpha \), is negative, while a newUniversality class will appear if \( \alpha > 0 \). In the latter case its is possible to show [2] that \( \alpha \) for the diluted model is negative: one of the effects of the dilution is to smooth the critical behavior of the system.

The only one between the generic models for magnetism (Ising, XY, Heisenberg) displaying \( \alpha > 0 \) in three dimensions, is the Ising model.

There are other physical contexts in which the Hamiltonian (2) has been studied. For instance, its four dimensional Ising version has been recently investigated...
(see [3] and references therein) in connection with the puzzling problem of finding non asymptotically-free interacting theories in four dimensions. The two dimensional model is also interesting as a playground for exactly solvable field-theories, and has also been considered (see [4] and references therein).

As already stated, the materials displaying Ising-like behavior in very pure samples should behave differently when the impurities concentration increases. In fact, according to Harris, an infinitesimal impurity concentration should be enough to spoil the Ising behavior. However this will happen in very narrow intervals of temperatures, which may be unreachable experimentally.

The Hamiltonian (2) can be studied in the low dilution regime by means of analytical perturbative renormalization-group methods [7, 8, 9]. They find a new fixed-point, thus implying that the critical exponents along the $T_c(p)$ line are dilution independent and different from their pure Ising value. The predicted correlation length exponent, $\nu$, ranges from 0.697 in ref. [7] to 0.67 in ref. [9]. This should be compared with the Ising model result, $\nu = 0.6300(15)$, given in ref. [10]. For the order parameter critical exponent, $\beta$, a value of 0.35 is obtained, contrasting with 0.3250(15) for pure Ising [10]. For the susceptibility exponent, the perturbative analysis predicts $\gamma = 1.32$ and the corresponding Ising one [10] is 1.241(2). This is maybe the quantity more easily comparable with experimental results, as the magnetic susceptibility can be very precisely measured.

The study of the Hamiltonian (2) beyond the low disorder regime, is restricted to the Monte Carlo (MC) method. Many simulations have been performed in the last seventeen years [11, 12, 13, 14, 15, 16]. The first study, on small lattices [11] was compatible with the new fixed point scenario. However further simulations [12] found results rather suggesting a continuously varying value of the critical exponents along the critical line. A Monte Carlo Renormalization Group study [14] found a value for the $\nu$ exponent consistent with the perturbative one at $p = 0.8$. However, for $p = 0.9$ their results did not differ from the pure Ising model, while for $p < 0.8$ they could not find meaningful results. More recent simulations [13] suggested a single fixed point scenario with $\nu = 0.77(4)$, confirmed in ref. [15] where $\nu = 0.78(1)$ was found at $p = 0.4$. This puzzle of mutually contradicting results started to make sense in ref. [16]. In this work, the crucial observation that the exponents measured in a finite lattice are transitory was made. Unfortunately the statistical errors at large dilution did not allow for a definite conclusion.

When writing this paper a new MC work on this model has appeared [17]. They obtain $\nu = 0.682(2)$ at $p = 0.8$ but a markedly different result ($\nu = 0.717(8)$) at $p = 0.6$.

In this paper we present the first sound numerical evidence for a random fixed point dominant along the whole critical line. This is achieved by means of a Finite-Size Scaling (FSS) analysis, in a wide dilution range ($0.4 \leq p \leq 0.9$, the percolation threshold being at $p_c \approx 0.31$ [18]). The investigation of very diluted samples is made possible by a $p$-rewriting method, which allows to extrapolate the simulation results obtained at $p$ to a close $p'$ value [19, 20, 21]. A careful consideration of the scaling corrections is needed, in order to get the right value in the infinite volume limit. In this system, the first corrections-to-scaling exponent, $\omega$, is very small ($\omega \approx 0.4$, see ref. [3]). Thus, the confusing results in previous MC studies can be understood as an unusually large contribution of the scaling corrections. After a proper consideration of this problem, we find dilution independent critical
exponents in quantitative agreement with perturbative calculations.

Other theoretical problem of interest is the absence of self-averaging at the critical point. This means that the disorder-realization variance of quantities such as the magnetic susceptibility or the specific-heat, at the critical point, is a fixed, non-zero fraction of their mean values even in the thermodynamical limit. It has been argued that this fixed fraction is an universal number. In ref. [3], this fraction for the susceptibility is calculated analytically and numerically in four dimensions. In this work, we numerically calculate this ratio, along the critical line $T_c(p)$. After the compulsory infinite volume extrapolation, an universal, dilution independent result is found. A very recent simulation [17] has questioned the universality of these ratios. However, these authors do not perform any infinite volume extrapolation, making their conclusions necessarily not definitive.

The experimental study is still not completed. For instance, indications of the expected new universality class were obtained in the Ising antiferromagnet $\text{Fe}_{1-x}\text{Zn}_x\text{F}_2$, studied in the reduced temperature range $10^{-3} \leq t \leq 10^{-1}$ [21, 22]. In this system the order parameter exponent was found to be $\beta = 0.36$ [21], while the obtained susceptibility exponent, $\gamma$, was $1.44(6)$ [21]. Also in ref. [22], a cusp-like behavior of the specific-heat was found, so no divergence was expected. This yields $\nu \geq 2/3$ through standard hyperscaling relations. Another system investigated was a dysprosium aluminum garnet doped with yttrium [24], for which $\beta = 0.385(25)$ was obtained at a 5% dilution. The results regarding the $\beta$ exponent have been questioned in ref. [24] where $\text{Mn}_{0.5}\text{Zn}_{0.5}\text{F}_2$ was studied by synchrotron magnetic X-rays scattering. These authors conclude that the experimental errors to date are too big to distinguish between the pure Ising and the diluted $\beta$ values. Maybe the strongest evidence found for a new Universality Class has been reported in ref. [25] studying $\text{Mn}_{1-x}\text{Zn}_x\text{F}_2$ by means of neutron scattering. Critical exponents $\nu = 0.70(2)$ and $\gamma = 1.37(4)$ were found.

The layout of the paper is as follows. In section 2 we define the model and the observables to be measured in the numerical simulation. In section 3 we provide the necessary technical details about the MC methods. Section 4 is devoted to Finite Size Scaling techniques. After that, in section 5, we present our numerical results and discuss the need for an infinite-volume extrapolation. This is considered in section 6. We present our conclusions in section 7.

2 The Model

We have considered the site-diluted Ising model on the single-cubic lattice, with nearest neighbors interaction. We will work in a lattice of linear size $L$, with periodic boundary conditions. The Hamiltonian is

$$ H = -\beta \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} \epsilon_i \epsilon_j \sigma_i \sigma_j , \quad (3) $$

where $\sigma$ are the usual $\mathbb{Z}_2$ spin variables. The $\epsilon$’s are the quenched random variables introduced in [3]. We shall refer to an actual $\{\epsilon_i\}$ configuration as a sample. We study the so-called quenched disorder: that is, for every observable it is understood that we first calculate the average on the $\{\sigma_i\}$ variables with the Boltzmann weight given by $\exp(-H)$, the results on the different samples being later averaged.
To avoid confusions, we will denote the Ising average with brackets, while the subsequent sample average will be overlined. The observables will be denoted with calligraphic letters, i.e. $O$, and with italics the double average $\langle O \rangle$. The total nearest-neighbor energy is defined as

$$\mathcal{E} = \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle} \epsilon_i \sigma_i \epsilon_j \sigma_j.$$  

(4)

The energy is extensively used for extrapolating the results obtained for an observable, $O$, at coupling $\beta$ to a nearby $\beta'$ coupling [20] and for calculating $\beta$-derivatives through its connected correlation. For instance, one can define the specific-heat as

$$C = \partial_\beta \langle \mathcal{E} \rangle = \frac{1}{V} \left( \langle \mathcal{E}^2 \rangle - \langle \mathcal{E} \rangle^2 \right),$$  

(5)

$V$ being the total number of sites in the lattice, $L^3$.

The normalized magnetization is

$$\mathcal{M} = \frac{1}{V} \sum_i \epsilon_i \sigma_i.$$  

(6)

In terms of the magnetization we can give a convenient definition of the susceptibility as

$$\chi = V \langle \mathcal{M}^2 \rangle,$$  

(7)

its Binder parameter being

$$g_4 = \frac{3}{2} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{\langle \mathcal{M}^4 \rangle}{\langle \mathcal{M}^2 \rangle^2}.$$  

(8)

Another kind of cumulant, meaningless for the pure system, can be defined as

$$g_2 = \frac{\langle \mathcal{M}^2 \rangle^2 - \langle \mathcal{M}^4 \rangle}{\langle \mathcal{M}^2 \rangle^2}.$$  

(9)

This quantity would be zero in the thermodynamical limit if self-averaging is to be found. A very useful definition of the correlation length in a finite lattice, reads [27]

$$\xi = \left( \frac{\chi/F - 1}{4 \sin^2(\pi/L)} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}},$$  

(10)

where $F$ is defined in terms of the Fourier transform of the magnetization

$$\mathcal{G}(k) = \frac{1}{V} \sum_r e^{ik \cdot r} \epsilon_r \sigma_r,$$  

(11)

as

$$F = \frac{V}{3} \langle |\mathcal{G}(2\pi/L, 0, 0)|^2 + \text{permutations} \rangle.$$  

(12)

This definition is very well behaved for the FSS method we employ [28].
3 The Monte Carlo Update

The method of choice for an Ising model simulation is a cluster-method [29]. The most efficient variety for the pure model is the Wolff single-cluster update [30]. However, in diluted systems, very small (even individual) groups of nearly (or completely) isolated spins can appear. These groups are scarcely changed with a single cluster method. Thus we have constructed our elementary MC step (EMCS) as 250 cluster flips complemented with a Metropolis step. For the largest dilutions \((p = 0.4, 0.5)\) the presence of isolated intermediate-sized groups of spins makes the thermalization too slow. For these dilutions, in the EMCS we have carried out a standard Swendsen-Wang sweep every 200 single-cluster flips. We discard 100 EMCS for equilibration, then measuring after every EMCS. The autocorrelation times for all observables are very small (near 1 EMCS in the largest lattice), but we have also controlled that our update method correctly thermalizes, by comparing hot and cold starts.

A disordered model simulation gets characterized by two parameters, the number of samples generated \((N_S)\), and the number of independent measures taken in each sample \((N_I)\). Previous works (for instance [14, 15, 16]) have chosen the \(N_I \gg N_S\) regime. However (see [3]), the optimal regime is

\[
N_I \sim \left( \frac{\sigma_I}{\sigma_S} \right)^2,
\]

where \(\sigma_I\) is the mean variance in a sample of the observable under consideration, while \(\sigma_S\) is the variance between different samples. Moreover, the non-vanishing value of \(g_2\) shows that the susceptibility is not a self-averaging quantity, thus making very dangerous the small \(N_S\) regime. In this work we have fixed \(N_I = 200\) and \(N_S = 20000\). For \(p = 0.9\) we performed \(N_S = 10000\).

In addition to the usual \(\beta\) extrapolation [26], in some cases it is useful to perform a \(p\) extrapolation. It can be done as we know the precise distribution of the densities of the actual configurations (binomial distribution). Details of the method can be found in ref. [3] for the same model in four dimensions.

We remark that the large number of samples used, combined with the relative small number of measures, makes the \(\beta\) extrapolations biased. A proper statistical procedure allows to cancel the bias. We address to ref. [3] for details about the method we follow.

4 Finite Size Scaling Methods

A very efficient way of measuring critical exponents [28] follows from this form of the FSS Ansatz

\[
O(L, \beta, p) = L^{x_O/\nu} \left( F_O(\xi(L, \beta, p)/L) + O(L^{-\omega}) \right),
\]

where a critical behavior \(t^{-x_O}\) is expected for the operator \(O\) and \(F_O\) is a (smooth) scaling function. From a Renormalization Group point of view, \(\omega\) is the eigenvalue corresponding to the leading irrelevant operator. It is very important that, in the above equation, only quantities measurable on a finite lattice appear. Notice that
terms of order $\xi_{L=\infty}^{-\omega}$ are dropped from eq. (14), so we assume that we are deep within the scaling region.

To eliminate the unknown scaling function, we measure the quotient

$$Q_O = O(sL, \beta, p)/O(L, \beta, p) ,$$

at the coupling value for which the correlation length in units of the lattice size is the same for both lattices. So we get

$$Q_O|_{Q_\xi=s} = s^{xO/\nu} + O(L^{-\omega}) .$$

Given the strong statistical correlation between $Q_O$ and $Q_\xi$, the above quotient can be obtained with great accuracy (in fact, in our opinion, this is the best method available to measure the usually tiny three-dimensional $\eta$ exponents [28]).

In many cases (high precision computations or small lattices), it is useful to parameterize the leading corrections-to-scaling, thus we need to consider in the analysis a behavior like

$$Q_O|_{Q_\xi=s} = s^{xO/\nu} + A_p L^{-\omega} + \cdots .$$

Here the dots stand for higher-order corrections, while $A_p$ is a dilution-dependent slope.

The most convenient observables to measure the two independent critical exponents, $\eta$ and $\nu$, are found to be

$$\partial_\beta \xi \rightarrow x = \nu + 1 ,$$

$$\chi \rightarrow x = \nu(2 - \eta).$$

5 Numerical results

The phase diagram of the model [3] is shown in figure 1. In this work we have simulated lattices $L = 8, 16, 32, 64$ and $128$, at dilutions $p = 0.9, 0.8, 0.65, 0.5$ and $0.4$. Our procedure has been the following. For $p = 0.9, 0.8, 0.65$, we have chosen a $\beta$ coupling value where the relation

$$\frac{\xi(L, \beta, p)}{L} = \frac{\xi(2L, \beta, p)}{2L}$$

approximately holds. Then, we have relied on standard reweighting methods, which allow to extrapolate the simulation results at coupling $\beta$ to a close $\beta'$, to precisely fulfill the matching condition (18). For very diluted systems, the transition line is almost horizontal (see figure 1), thus it is more convenient to use a $p$-rewetting method to extrapolate the simulation results to a nearby $p'$ value (see refs. [19, 20]). Therefore, we have first located the $\beta$ values for which eq. (18) holds at $p = 0.4, 0.5$, then we have fixed this $\beta$ value, and changed $p$ later on. In this way, the true critical dilutions for fixed $\beta$, $p_c(\beta)$, differ from 0.4 and 0.5 (in less than a 2%). Nevertheless, we shall keep referring to them as $p = 0.4, 0.5$ in tables and graphics, for the sake of clarity.

In table 1 we present the results for exponents $\nu$ and $\eta$ and cumulants $g_4$ and $g_2$, using eq. (16) (neglecting scaling corrections). Beware that consecutive data in
the table are anticorrelated (the results of lattice $L$ are used once in the numerator and another time in the denominator in eq. (16)). For the error computation we have used a jack-knife method with 50 bins, ensuring a 10% of uncertainty in the error bars. Thus, we display 2 digits in these bars if the first one is smaller than 5.

Notice that the exponent $\eta$ and the cumulant $g_4$ are, before any infinite volume extrapolation, quite dilution independent. This can be understood because they show a very mild evolution with the lattice size. On the contrary, exponent $\nu$ and cumulant $g_2$ show a larger dependence on the lattice size and so, an infinite volume extrapolation is needed before one can extract definite conclusions. Nevertheless, one can already guess from the table that $\nu$ is surely different from the pure Ising value and the $g_2$ cumulant is different from zero (there is not self-averaging). The latter was also observed in the same model in four dimensions [3], where we found mean field results plus logarithmic corrections.

Another quantity of interest is the specific-heat. As stated in the introduction, $\alpha$ is negative and no divergences are expected. This is a quite difficult behavior to study, because FSS investigations in other models displaying $\alpha < 0$, show that the specific-heat at the critical point is a growing, though bounded, quantity [28]. For this reason we choose to study

$$\Delta C(L) = [C(2L) - C(L)]_{Q_x=2}.$$ 

This quantity diverges if $\alpha > 0$, tends to zero if $\alpha < 0$ and goes to a constant value.
Table 1: Critical quantities obtained from pairs \((L, 2L)\) using eq. (16) for all the dilutions simulated.

| \(L\) | \(p = 0.9\)  | \(p = 0.8\)  | \(p = 0.65\) | \(p = 0.5\)  | \(p = 0.4\)  |
|-------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| \(\eta\) | .0171(7)    | .0219(7)    | .0284(10)   | .0296(24)   | .0322(29)   |
|       | .0277(7)    | .0308(7)    | .0330(8)    | .0345(19)   | .0297(16)   |
|       | .0320(9)    | .0335(8)    | .0329(9)    | .0313(11)   | .0315(17)   |
|       | .0349(9)    | .0346(8)    | .0335(8)    | .0329(14)   | .0326(13)   |
| \(\nu\) | .6663(14)   | .6877(11)   | .7172(16)   | .7447(24)   | .7718(32)   |
|       | .6643(14)   | .6849(12)   | .7107(18)   | .7328(22)   | .7534(32)   |
|       | .6631(15)   | .6836(12)   | .7048(20)   | .7189(24)   | .7382(27)   |
|       | .6644(15)   | .6864(14)   | .6996(20)   | .7118(21)   | .7182(26)   |
| \(g_2\) | .0832(10)   | .1546(16)   | .2310(25)   | .2784(24)   | .3043(24)   |
|       | .0861(12)   | .1500(14)   | .2077(15)   | .2371(20)   | .2551(22)   |
|       | .0918(13)   | .1474(17)   | .1920(20)   | .2138(22)   | .2296(25)   |
|       | .0974(17)   | .1477(12)   | .1842(19)   | .1994(21)   | .2106(16)   |
| \(g_4\) | .7049(14)   | .6900(17)   | .6814(23)   | .6900(20)   | .6989(20)   |
|       | .6926(17)   | .6818(15)   | .6809(16)   | .6871(18)   | .6958(21)   |
|       | .6876(19)   | .6819(16)   | .6832(20)   | .6879(17)   | .6889(20)   |
|       | .6821(16)   | .6771(18)   | .6780(17)   | .6825(19)   | .6857(22)   |

if the specific-heat diverges logarithmically \((\alpha = 0)\). In addition, the (usually large) background term of the specific-heat disappears. It will be convenient to recall that deriving the FSS Ansatz from the Renormalization Group \([31]\), one finds a behavior for the specific-heat as \(L^{2\gamma_T-d}\) (where \(\gamma_T = 1/\nu\)). Therefore one should expect the fulfillment of hyperscaling relations for the transient exponents, \(\alpha(L)\) and \(\nu(L)\). In figure 2 we plot the \(\Delta C(L)\) values obtained. As a contrast we also plot the corresponding values for the pure Ising model which grow, as they should (the data are taken from ref. \([32]\)). We find a decreasing value of \(\Delta C(L)\) for \(p \leq 0.8\), as expected. Notice that the (transient) \(\nu \approx 2/3\) found for \(p = 0.9\) in table 1, implies \(\alpha = 0\) through hyperscaling relations. This is very nicely shown in the plot, where a constant value of \(\Delta C(L, p = 0.9)\) is seen. Plotting \(\Delta C(L)\) against \(L^{\alpha/\nu}\) would be useless, because the scaling corrections go approximately as \(L^{-0.4}\), that is, their lattice size evolution is much faster than that of the asymptotic term.

6 Infinite volume extrapolation

As shown in the previous section, with our statistical accuracy the values for the critical exponents are seen to depend on the lattice size, so an infinite volume extrapolation is required (see eq. (17)). However, one has to decide when the dots in eq. (17) can be neglected. Our criterion will be the following. We perform the fit for lattice sizes not smaller than a given \(L_{\text{min}}\). If the fit quality is reasonable (i.e., a not too large \(\chi^2/\text{d.o.f.}\) calculated with the full covariance matrix), we repeat it for lattices not smaller than \(2L_{\text{min}}\). If this last fit is also reasonable and the extrapolated values are compatible in both fits, we keep the central value from the \(L_{\text{min}}\) fit, but quote error bars from the \(2L_{\text{min}}\) one.
Therefore we need an estimate for \( \omega \). We shall obtain it from the lattice size evolution of the scaling functions:

\[
\left. \frac{\xi}{L} \right|_{Q_\xi = 2} = \left( \frac{\xi}{L} \right)_{\infty} + A_p \xi L^{-\omega} + \ldots,
\]

\[
g_4|_{Q_\xi = 2} = g_4^\infty + A_p^{g_4} L^{-\omega} + \ldots,
\]

\[
g_2|_{Q_\xi = 2} = g_2^\infty + A_p^{g_2} L^{-\omega} + \ldots.
\]

Then we shall use this \( \omega \) value to extrapolate the critical exponents \( \nu \) and \( \eta \). A reasonable value of \( \chi^2 / \text{d.o.f.} \) in these fits will be a consistency condition. A technical point of interest is that the single universality-class scenario requires the infinite volume extrapolation for \( s^{x\partial} / \nu \) to be dilution-independent. Therefore, we can include data of different dilutions and lattice sizes in the fit.

In fig. 3 we plot the minimum of \( \chi^2 / \text{d.o.f.} \) in a fit to eq. (19), as a function of \( \omega \). Several points become clear. It is obvious that \( g_4 \) is not useful at all in order to fix \( \omega \) (this is not surprising as it shows almost no scaling corrections, \( A_p^{g_4} \approx 0 \)). We see that including the \( p = 0.9 \) data yields an untenable fit with \( L_{\min} = 16 \). Moreover, when we study the extrapolation for \( Q_{\partial_\xi} = 2^{1 + 1 / \nu} \), we find an awful result. This could have been anticipated from figure 2, where a clearly

Figure 2: Normalized specific-heat difference at the point where \( Q_\xi = 2 \). The \( \omega \approx 0.4 \) value used in the plot is obtained in ref. [3].
Figure 3: Minimum of $\chi^2$ as a function of $\omega$, for the fits of eq. (19). We also plot with a dashed line the corresponding quantity for the $Q_{\beta\epsilon}$ fit.

non-asymptotic value for the specific-heat at $p = 0.9$ is seen. On the contrary, discarding the $p = 0.9$ data, reasonable fits are obtained. Thus, we conclude that the $p = 0.9$ system is still crossing-over from the pure Ising fixed point to the diluted one, even for lattices as large as $L = 128$. Finally, it is evident from the plot that the determination of $\omega$ can be greatly improved by means of a joint fit of the $g_2$ and $\xi/L$ scaling functions. The results for this fit are shown in table 2. According to our, conservative, dots-neglecting criterium, we find

$$\omega = 0.37(6).$$

(20)

Notice that the value obtained in [9], $\omega = 0.42$ (without error estimation), using the scaling-field method for momentum-space RG equations, is compatible with ours.

In table 3 we present the infinite volume extrapolation for $\nu$ and $\eta$ critical exponents and the $g_4$ cumulant. We see that $L_{\text{min}} = 16$ fulfills our dots-neglecting criterium for $g_4$ and $\eta$. For $\nu$, $L_{\text{min}} = 8$ is found to be enough. Our final values are

$$\nu = 0.6837(24)(29),$$
$$\eta = 0.0374(36)(9),$$
$$g_4 = 0.673(7)(2),$$

(21)

where the first error is statistical while the second is due to the uncertainty in $\omega$. 

11
Table 2: Results of the infinite volume extrapolation of $g_2$ and $\xi/L$, including data from $L \geq L_{\min}$, at $p = 0.4, 0.5, 0.65$ and 0.8. $Q(\chi^2, \text{d.o.f.})$ is the probability of getting a larger $\chi^2$ in the fit.

| $L_{\min}$ | $\chi^2$/d.o.f. | $Q$ | $\omega$ | $\xi/L$ | $g_2$ |
|------------|-----------------|-----|----------|---------|------|
| 8          | 46.2/21         | 0.0012 | 0.430(15) | 0.5890(17) | 0.1458(17) |
| 16         | 15.0/13         | 0.31  | 0.37(2)  | 0.598(4)  | 0.145(3)   |
| 32         | 1.95/5          | 0.86  | 0.38(6)  | 0.587(7)  | 0.150(7)   |

Table 3: Infinite volume extrapolation and fit qualities for the critical exponents, including data from $L \geq L_{\min}$, at $p = 0.4, 0.5, 0.65$ and 0.8 using eq. (17). The second error is due to the indetermination in $\omega = 0.37(6)$.

| $L_{\min}$ | Extrapolation | $\chi^2$/d.o.f. | $Q$ |
|------------|---------------|-----------------|-----|
| $\nu$      | 8             | 0.6837(10)(29)  | 14.0/11 | 0.24 |
|            | 16            | 0.6838(24)(33)  | 6.26/7 | 0.51 |
|            | 32            | 0.687(6)(2)     | 4.14/3 | 0.25 |
| $\eta$     | 8             | 0.0419(8)(20)   | 96.4/11 | $< 10^{-15}$ |
|            | 16            | 0.0374(12)(9)   | 8.92/7 | 0.26 |
|            | 32            | 0.0374(36)(8)   | 0.18/3 | 0.98 |
| $g_4$      | 8             | 0.6726(21)(25)  | 31.5/11 | .0001 |
|            | 16            | 0.6734(28)(21)  | 7.95/7 | 0.34 |
|            | 32            | 0.665(7)(3)     | 1.08/3 | 0.78 |

From (21) we obtain

\[
\begin{align*}
\alpha &= -0.05\varepsilon(7)(9), \\
\beta &= 0.3546(18)(10), \\
\gamma &= 1.342(5)(5).
\end{align*}
\]

For the computation of the statistical error in $\beta$ and $\gamma$ we take into account that the statistical correlation between $\nu$ and $\eta$ has turned out to be negligible.

In figure 4 we show $Q_{\nu,\xi}$ as a function of $\omega$ for all the dilutions. We also plot the corresponding values for the pure Ising model. The solid lines correspond to the joint fit for $L_{\min} = 8$ using the data from $p \leq 0.8$. Notice that the data are strongly anticorrelated, therefore the apparent $\chi^2$ on the plot is larger that the real one, computed with the full covariance matrix. An analogous fit for $g_2$ is shown in figure 5. We remark that the $p = 0.9$ data point to a maybe too low value. This is another signature of the crossover from the Ising fixed point ($g_2 = 0$) to the diluted one.

It is interesting to compare the values for $g_4$ and $g_2$ with those obtained in four dimensions [3].

\[
\begin{align*}
\nu &= 0.32455, \\
g_2 &= 0.31024.
\end{align*}
\]
Figure 4: $Q_{\beta\xi} = 2^{1+1/\nu}$ for the different dilutions. The solid lines correspond to a fit enforced to yield the same infinite volume extrapolation for $p \leq 0.8$. The smallest lattice in the fit is $L = 8$ and we use $\omega = 0.37$. The Ising data have been taken from [32].

Finally, we can compute the infinite volume critical couplings by studying the crossing points of scaling functions (as $\xi/L$ and $g_4$) measured in lattices of sizes $L$ and $sL$. Let $\Delta \beta^L_c$, $\Delta p^L_c$ be the deviation of these crossing point from the infinite-volume critical couplings. The expected scaling behavior is [33]:

$$
\Delta \beta^L_c, \Delta p^L_c \propto \frac{1 - s^{-\omega}}{s^{1/\nu} - 1} L^{-\omega - 1/\nu} \quad (23)
$$

In table 4 we present the crossing points of $\xi/L$ and $g_4$ for the $(L, 2L)$ pair for all the dilutions simulated. We find again that an infinite volume extrapolation is needed in order to extract the critical couplings.

Using eq. (23) for $s = 2$ we perform a joint fit for both scaling functions $g_4$ and $\xi/L$. For this fit we take $\omega + 1/\nu = 1.83(6)$. The final results for the different dilutions studied are shown in table 4, where two values for $L_{min}$ are used. Let us remark that our critical couplings are compatible with the results in [10] ($\beta_p^{0.8} = 0.28578(4)$, $\beta_p^{0.9} = 0.24933(3)$). But we definitely do not agree with the value $\beta_p^{0.8} = 0.2857609(4)$ quoted in ref. [17]. This is not surprising as in this work the corrections-to-scaling are not considered.
Figure 5: Cumulant $g_2$ as a function of $L^{-\omega}$. The solid lines correspond to a fit enforced to yield the same infinite volume extrapolation for $p \leq 0.8$. The smallest lattice in the fit is $L = 16$ and we use $\omega = 0.37$.

7 Conclusions

We have shown, beyond the low-disorder limit, that the diluted Ising model is in the basin of attraction of a single fixed point. Therefore, if randomness is to be modeled with eq. (2), the critical exponents of an Ising system are not those of the pure Ising model, but those of the random fixed-point (although this may be fairly hard to show in a very pure sample). To establish this result we have simulated in a very wide dilution range, finding a consistent picture only after an infinite volume extrapolation. The $p = 0.9$ data seem, however, to be still crossing-over from the pure Ising fixed-point to the diluted one in lattices as large as $L = 128$.

We obtain the values of the critical exponents and universal cumulants eliminating the systematic errors coming from the leading corrections-to-scaling terms. The previous computations did not consider these terms and were not able to control the corresponding systematic effects. Incidentally, most of the computations have been carried out at $p = 0.8$ as in this case the scaling corrections are very small, and the results in small lattices seem stable. However, even in this case the lack of an extrapolation produces an underestimation of the errors.

The (dilution-independent) critical exponents are shown to be in good agreement with the series estimates [7, 8, 9]. The corrections-to-scaling exponent, $\omega$, is measured with a 16% error and is found to be in quantitative agreement with the perturbative estimate [10]. The smallness of this exponent explains why this problem is so hard to attack numerically. In fact, the total computer time devoted
Table 4: Crossing points of scaling functions $\xi/L$ and $g_4$ for pairs $L$ and $2L$ for the different dilutions.

|     | $L = 0.9$     | $L = 0.8$     | $L = 0.65$    | $L = 0.5$     | $L = 0.4$     |
|-----|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|---------------|
| $g_4$ |              |               |               |               |               |
| 8   | $2.49583(30)$ | $2.80002(48)$ | $3.70251(13)$ | $4.9996(27)$  | $3.9577(28)$  |
| 16  | $2.49340(15)$ | $2.85765(18)$ | $3.70185(36)$ | $4.9949(6)$   | $3.9512(8)$   |
| 32  | $2.492901(13)$| $2.85758(7)$  | $3.70208(16)$ | $4.99485(30)$ | $3.9495(33)$  |
| 64  | $2.492924(15)$| $2.857417(25)$| $3.701649(48)$| $4.99409(11)$ | $3.94840(13)$ |
| $\xi/L$ |              |               |               |               |               |
| 8   | $2.49299(26)$ | $2.85690(49)$ | $3.69611(10)$ | $4.9814(17)$  | $3.9342(19)$  |
| 16  | $2.492991(12)$| $2.85708(15)$ | $3.69986(31)$ | $4.9806(5)$   | $3.9441(6)$   |
| 32  | $2.492957(44)$| $2.85745(6)$  | $3.70147(13)$ | $4.99326(21)$ | $3.94694(23)$ |
| 64  | $2.492901(13)$| $2.857394(23)$| $3.701540(44)$| $4.99374(9)$  | $3.94785(10)$ |

Table 5: Infinite volume critical couplings estimations for the studied dilutions. The first error bar corresponds to the statistical fit error, the second one (almost negligible) is due to the uncertainty in $\omega + 1/\nu$ exponent. For this table we use $\omega + 1/\nu = 1.83(6)$.

| $L_{\min}$ | $\chi^2$/d.o.f. | $p_c$          | $\beta_c$      |
|------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|
| 16         | 0.04/1          | 0.394821(22)(7)| 0.852          |
| 32         | 0.78/1          | 0.499394(17)(4)| 0.543          |
| 16         | 2.93/3          | 0.499413(9)(1) | 0.543          |
| 32         | 5.27/3          | 0.499394(17)(4)| 0.543          |
| 16         | 1.53/1          | 0.370156(8)(0) | 0.570166(5)(1) |
| 32         | 5.41/3          | 0.2857368(47)(5)| 0.370156(8)(0) |
| 16         | 8.45/3          | 0.2492905(19)(0)| 0.2857368(47)(5)|
| 32         | 0.03/1          | 0.2492880(30)(5)| 0.2492905(19)(0)|

Acknowledgments

The computations have been carried out using the RTNN machines at Universidad de Zaragoza and Universidad Complutense de Madrid. We acknowledge CICyT for partial financial support (AEN97-1708 and AEN97-1693). JJRL is granted by EC HMC (ERBFMBICT950429).
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