Hysteresis is observed in any material which is driven by a cyclic force faster than it can equilibrate. It has practical importance, and old scientific interest renewed by present focus of statistical mechanics on nonequilibrium phenomena. There have been many theoretical studies of hysteresis recently, and also simulations and experiments. So far only exact calculations of hysteresis are limited to the random field Ising model (RFIM), in one dimension and on a Bethe lattice, at zero temperature, when the driving field changes infinitely slowly, and the system evolves from a saturated state. These limitations are forced by our analytical abilities, but make reasonable simplifications of physical systems in a regime where temperature effects on hysteresis are small. The ferromagnetic RFIM model with single spin flip dynamics at zero temperature has been proposed as a model of the Barkhausen noise by Sethna et al. It covers other phenomena as well including athermal martensitic transformations, fluid flow in porous media, and pinning of flux lines in superconductors. The difficulty (in one dimension!) of an exact solution of this model lies in the analytical treatment of quenched disorder. Even at a mean field level, the analysis of quenched disorder can involve a formalism (e.g. replica method) which belies the transparency of numerical simulations. We have used probabilistic methods to solve the antiferromagnetic RFIM in one dimension, and the ferromagnetic RFIM on a Bethe lattice as well. As indicated above, these solutions were restricted to the case where the system evolves from an initial state with all spins parallel to each other. In the present paper we are able to lift this restriction for the ferromagnetic RFIM in one dimension. We present exact solutions of return hysteresis loops starting anywhere on the parent loop. This brings the probabilistic method of solution to a level of maturity where its application to other problems appears plausible.

II. STARTING WITH A SATURATED STATE

The one dimensional random field Ising model is characterized by the Hamiltonian,

\[ H = -J \sum_{i} s_i s_{i+1} - \sum_{i} h_i s_i - h \sum_{i} s_i \]  

Here \( s_i = \pm 1 \) are the Ising spins, \( h_i \) is the quenched random field drawn from a continuous probability distribution \( p(h_i) \), and \( h \) is the external field. The zero temperature dynamics amounts to flipping a spin only if it lowers the energy of the system. It normally causes an avalanche, i.e. a large number of neighboring spins have to be flipped before the system comes to a stable state. We keep the applied field fixed during an avalanche, and raise it afterwards until the next avalanche occurs.

The ferromagnetic RFIM \((J \geq 0)\) has two important properties. It is abelian, i.e. the stable state after an avalanche does not depend upon the order in which the spins flip during an avalanche. And it has return point memory, i.e. the stable state in a slowly changing field \( h \) depends only on the state where this field was last reversed. In the special case when we start at \( h = -\infty \), and raise the field monotonically, the state at \( h \) does not depend on the rate of increase in \( h \). Large rates of increase result in fewer but larger avalanches, and small rates in more numerous but smaller avalanches. The final state remains the same. We exploit this property in determining the stable state at \( h \) through a single large avalanche from the initial state at \( h = -\infty \). The abelian property tells us that during this avalanche, whether a spin at site \( i \) flips or not depends on the quenched field \( h_i \) on the site and the number of nearest neighbors \( n \) \((n = 0,1,2)\) which have flipped up before \( i \), but not on the order in which the neighbors flipped. This probability is given by,

\[ p_n(h) = \text{prob}[h_i + 2(n-1)J + h \geq 0] = \int_{2(1-n)J}^{\infty} p(h_i) dh_i \]

We now need to calculate the probability that a nearest neighbor of a site \( i \) flips up before site \( i \). Let us denote the conditional probability that site \( i+1 \) (or site \( i-1 \)) flips up before site \( i \) by \( P^*(h_i) \). There are many ways in which the site \( i+1 \) could be up, and we must sum over all the possibilities to calculate \( P^*(h) \). If site \( i \) is down, and site \( i+1 \) is up, a spin at site \( i+m \) \((m \geq 1)\) must have flipped up before any of its neighbors were up, and then the spins from \( i+m \) to \( i+1 \) must have flipped up. Summing over these cases, we get...
\[ P^*(h) = \frac{p_0(h)}{1 - [p_1(h) - p_0(h)]} \]

The probability than an arbitrary site is up at field \( h \) is given by, \[ p(h) = \left[ P^*(h) \right]^2 p_2(h) + 2P^*(h)[1 - P^*(h)]p_1(h) + \left[1 - P^*(h)\right]^2 p_0(h) \quad (2) \]

The magnetization per spin \( m(h) \) is related to \( p(h) \) by the simple equation \( m(h) = 2p(h) - 1 \). The lower half of the large hysteresis loop shown in Figure 1 shows \( m(h) \) for a Gaussian distribution of the quenched field, and in Figure 2 for a rectangular distribution. The upper half of the main loop in each case has been obtained by symmetry \( m_u(h) = -m(-h) \).

### III. REVERSING THE APPLIED FIELD

Reversing the applied field from \( h = +\infty \) does not constitute a new problem because the upper half of the large hysteresis loop shown in Figure 1 can be obtained from the lower half by symmetry. However, reversing the applied field from any other point constitutes a new and somewhat more difficult problem. The reason is that in a starting state at a finite field \( h \), whether the spin at a site is flipped or not depends in a nontrivial way on the random field at that site as well as on neighboring sites. The state is thus “strongly correlated”, and it is difficult to do perturbation theory about this state.

For an arbitrary starting state on the lower hysteresis loop, the spins which can initiate a downward avalanche have to be separated into at least nine different categories; three categories depending on the number of nearest neighbors which are up in the starting state (\( n=0,1,2 \); these are the number of up neighbors of an up spin after the upward avalanche has settled at the point of return), and three categories depending on the number of up neighbors just before it flips up during an avalanche. The number of up neighbors before turning up in an avalanche remains important even after the avalanche because it determines the \textit{a posteriori} distribution of the quenched field on the up spins in the stable state at the point of return. We also use three more categories characterized by the number of up neighbors just before a spin turns down in a downward avalanche (this number is different from the one at the starting point of the reverse trajectory).

We start backtracking from an arbitrary applied field \( h \) on the lower loop, and come down to \( h' \) \((h' < h)\). We want the magnetization at \( h' \). Obviously, spins can only flip down on the reverse trajectory, and therefore we focus on spins which are up at \( h \) but turn down at \( h' \). We divide the up spins at \( h \) into three basic categories characterizing the range of their random field, and how they turned up on the lower hysteresis loop. Spins in category-0 have \( h_i \geq 2J - h \). These spins could turn up at \( h \) even if none of their neighbors were up to help them. Spins in category-1 have \(-h \leq h_i \leq 2J - h \), and spins in category-2 have \(-2J - h \leq h_i \leq -h \). No spin could be up at \( h \) if it has \( h_i \leq -2J - h \). How the spins turn down at \( h' \) on the reverse trajectory is determined by the random field on a spin and the number of up neighbors it has just before it turns down. The three basic categories listed above were determined by the number of up neighbors just before a spin turned up during an upward avalanche at \( h \). After that avalanche has settled, the number of up neighbors may increase. Thus each of the basic categories can be further divided into three subcategories characterized by the number of up neighbors after the avalanche. Some of these subcategories may be empty. For example, a spin of category-2 which is up at \( h \) necessarily has both neighbors up. Spins of category-1 could have one or both neighbors up. Spins of category-0 could have zero, one, or two neighbors up at \( h \). When the applied field is reversed, spins of category-2 with both neighbors up are as susceptible to turn down as spins of category-1 with one neighbor up because the net field in both cases lies in the same range.

In the first instance, we consider a restricted range of the reversed field: \( h - 2J \leq h' \leq h \). In this range, the only spins which could turn down are spins of category-2 with two neighbors up, spins of category-1 with one neighbor up, and spins of category-0 with zero neighbors up. We add the contributions from these three categories, and subtract the sum from the number of up spins at \( h \). This gives us the magnetization at \( h' \). Consider the spins of category-2 first; their fraction at \( h \) is equal to \( [P^*(h)]^2 [p_2(h) - p_1(h)] \). The factor \( [P^*(h)] \) gives the probability that a nearest neighbor spin is up, \( [p_2(h)] \) gives the probability that both neighbors of the spin are up, and \( [p_1(h)] \) gives the probability that the spin turns up if two neighbors are up but not if only one neighbor is up. Thus, the fraction of category-2 spins which turn down at \( h' \) on the return loop is given by \[ q_2(h,h') = [P^*(h)]^2 [p_2(h) - p_2(h')] \].

Now we take up the spins of category-1. In the initial state at \( h \), category-1 spins come in two subcategories; (i) spins with one neighbor up, and (ii) spins with two neighbors up. In the restricted range of the reversed field \((-2J \leq h' \leq h)\), spins in subcategory (i) cannot turn down spontaneously. However they can turn down in an avalanche, if the avalanche puts one of their neighbors in category (i) and it turns down. An avalanche can start with a category-1 spin which has one neighbor down in the starting state at \( h \). This occurs with the probability \( f(h) \) given by

\[ f(h) = \{1 - p_2(h)\} [P^*(h)] + \{1 - p_1(h)\} [1 - P^*(h)] \]

The above equation can be understood as follows. Suppose, the spin at site \( i \) is up, and \( f(h) \) denotes the probability that the spin at site \( i+1 \) is down. Before the
spin at site i+1 is relaxed, the spin at site i+2 is up with the probability \([P^*(h)]\), and down with the probability \([1 - P^*(h)]\). The probability that the spin stays down in the two cases even after it is relaxed is given by \(\{1 - p_2(h)\}\) and \(\{1 - p_1(h)\}\) respectively. The probability for the spin at i+1 to flip down at \(h'\) is equal to \([p_1(h) - p_1(h')]\). After it flips down, the spin at i-1 can also flip down with the same probability if it belongs to category-1 and the spin at i-2 is up. Thus an avalanche can start. The avalanche will go on till it meets a category-1 spin which does not flip down at \(h'\) or it meets a category-0 spin which has an up neighbor on the other side. The probability that a nearest neighbor of an up spin is down at \(h'\) is given by,

\[ q_a(h, h') = \frac{f(h)}{1 - [p_1(h) - p_1(h')] \} \]

Here, \(f(h)\) is the probability that the neighbor was already down in the initial state. The other factor is the sum of an infinite series which accounts for avalanches of various sizes which may bring the neighbor down.

An avalanche can also be started by a spin of category-2 flipping down. This gives another term,

\[ q_b(h, h') = \frac{[p_2(h) - p_2(h')] [P^*(h)]}{1 - [p_1(h) - p_1(h')] \} \]

The numerator in the above equation can be understood as follows. Suppose the spins at sites i, i+1, and i+2 are up and site i+1 belongs to category-2. \([P^*(h)]\) is the probability that site i+2 was up before site i+1 was relaxed at \(h\). The numerator gives the probability that the right side neighbor of the up spin at site i flips down at \(h'\). The denominator takes care of any possible avalanches started by the flipping down of a category-2 site. The total probability that a nearest neighbor of an up spin is down at \(h'\) is equal to \(q_a + q_b\). We also need the probability that the neighbor in question was up on the lower hysteresis loop before the site was relaxed at \(h\), i.e. it is equal to \(P^*(h)\). With this knowledge, we are now in a position to write the fraction of category-1 spins which turn down on the return loop at \(h'\).

\[ q_1(h, h') = 2[P^*(h)] [q_a(h, h') + q_b(h, h')] [p_1(h) - p_1(h')] \]

Spins of category-1 can not have both nearest neighbors down. The reason is that this class of spins are flipped up during an avalanche on the lower hysteresis loop. Therefore they must be connected by up spins to a spin of category-0 on one side at least. A spin of category-0 can not turn down if it has at least one neighbor up. However, if both neighbors of a spin of category-0 are down at \(h'\), it may turn down. The fraction of such spins is given by,

\[ q_0(h, h') = [q_a(h, h') + q_b(h, h')]^2 [p_0(h) - p_0(h')] \]

We are now in a position to write the magnetization on the return loop in range \([h - 2J \leq h' \leq h]\). We get,

\[ m'(h') = 2p'(h') - 1, \]

here,

\[ p'(h') = p(h) - q_2^2(h, h') - q_1^2(h, h') - q_0^2(h, h') \]  \( (3) \)

The key to getting the return magnetization beyond the range considered above is to note that the state of the system on the reverse trajectory at \(h' = h - 2J\) is the same as would be obtained from the initial state at \(h' = +\infty\). If the initial state at \(h' = \infty\) is exposed to an applied field \(h - 2J\), spins with \(h_i \leq -h\) will flip down spontaneously and start avalanches where the adjacent spins in the range \(-h \leq h_i \leq 2J - h\) will flip down. When this avalanche is finished, the remaining up spins will belong to three categories: (i) spins with \(h_i \geq 2J - h\) with one neighbor up, (ii) spins with \(h_i \geq 4J - h\) with no neighbors up, and (iii) spins with \(h_i \geq -h\) with two neighbors up. This is precisely the state obtained at the end of the reverse trajectory obtained above. Therefore, the reverse trajectory in the range \(h' \leq h - 2J\) merges with the upper half of the big hysteresis loop.

**IV. REVERSING THE FIELD AGAIN**

The magnetization in reversed field merges with the upper half of the big hysteresis loop when the field falls below \(h - 2J\). Pulling up the field from below \(h - 2J\) can be related by symmetry to the problem of the return loop analyzed in the previous section. We need not repeat this calculation. However, if the reversed field is re-reversed before it reaches \(h - 2J\), we have a new problem on our hands which we now analyze.

We turn back the field at \(h'\). Our object is to obtain the magnetization at an arbitrary value \(h'' (h' \leq h'' \leq h)\) on the lower half of the return loop. Essentially, we are looking at the same strings of spins which turned down in the previous section, but now they turn up from the other end. If a spin is down on the lower half of the return loop, it must have been down at end of the upper half as well. The reason is that on the lower half, spins can only flip up, none can flip down. Thus the probability that a nearest neighbor of a down spin is down on the lower return loop is equal to \(q_a(h, h') + q_b(h, h')\). The probability that the nearest neighbor is up increases steadily as more spins flip up on the lower half. First, let us look at the probability of an up neighbor at the start of the lower return loop. Consider three adjacent sites: i-1, i, and i+1. Given that site i+1 is down, we want the probability that site i is up. It follows from the previous section that if site i is up at \(h'\), it must be a spin of category-0, or there must be a string of up spins to the left of i containing a spin of category-0. Spins of category-0 are up with probability unity if they are adjacent to an up spin, otherwise they have to have a quenched field in excess of \(4J - h\). Thus the probability that site i is up and is a spin of category-0 is equal to
\[1 - (q_a + q_b)p_0(h) + (q_a + q_b)p_0(h'')\]. The probability that site \(i\) is up and not a spin of category-0 is equal to \([P^*(h)][p_1(h') - p_0(h)]\). Putting it together, the probability that a nearest neighbor of a down spin is up on the lower return loop before that neighbor is relaxed is given by:

\[
p_{rr}(h, h', h'') = \frac{a}{1 - [p_1(h'') - p_1(h')]}
\]

where,

\[
a = [p_1(h') - p_0(h)]P^*(h) + [1 - (q_a + q_b)p_0(h) + (q_a + q_b)p_0(h'')
\]

The magnetization on the lower return loop is given by \(m''(h'') = 2p''(h'') - 1\), where

\[
p''(h'') = p'(h') + (q_a + q_b)[p_0(h'') - p_0(h')] + 2(q_a + q_b)p_{rr}(h, h', h'')p_1(h'') - p_1(h')
\]

\[
+ p_{rr}^2(h, h', h'')p_2(h'') - p_0(h')
\]

As may be expected, the analytical results agree quite well with numerical simulations of the model. Figure 1 shows a comparison for a Gaussian distribution of the random field, and Figure 2 for a rectangular distribution. Analytical expressions are shown by continuous lines. Simulations for a chain of 1000 spins (averaged over 1000 different realizations of the random field distribution) are indistinguishable from the analytical expressions, but these are shown by large symbols at sparse intervals for visual convenience.

V. CONCLUDING REMARKS

The nonequilibrium response of RFIM at zero temperature is related to experimentally measurable quantities in several diverse systems. It has been calculated analytically in one dimension using probabilistic methods, and checked against numerical simulations of the model. It remains for the future to apply the present method in higher dimensions, although it should be qualitatively similar.

I thank Deepak Dhar for critical reading of the manuscript.

Caption Figure 1: Hysteresis loop (filled squares) between two saturated states for a Gaussian random field (mean=0, variance=1, \(J=1\)). Two excursions from the lower half are shown; \(h = 1\) to \(h' = -1\) and back (open squares), and \(h = 1\) to \(h' = -0.6\) and back (open circles).

Caption Figure 2: Hysteresis loop (filled squares) for a rectangular distribution of the random field of width 6 (\(J=1\)). Return loop (open squares) shows an excursion from the lower half (\(h = 1.5\) to \(h' = -0.5\) and back).
