Relativistic and thermal effects on the magnon spectrum of a ferromagnetic monolayer

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Abstract

A spin model including magnetic anisotropy terms and Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions is studied for the case of a ferromagnetic monolayer with C2v symmetry like Fe/W(110). Using the quasiclassical stochastic Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equations, the magnon spectrum of the system is derived using linear response theory. The Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction leads to asymmetry in the spectrum, while the anisotropy terms induce a gap. It is shown that, in the presence of lattice defects, both the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions and the two-site anisotropy lead to a softening of the magnon energies. Two methods are developed to investigate the magnon spectrum at finite temperatures. The theoretical results are compared to atomistic spin dynamics simulations and good agreement is found between them.

(Some figures may appear in colour only in the online journal)

1. Introduction

Nanomagnetism has become one of the most intensively studied fields in solid state physics, promising many applications in the near future. Understanding magnetization dynamics in magnetic nanostructures has a key role in the development of magnetic devices. Nanosystems often exhibit different magnetic properties than bulk materials. It is now well established that the magnon spectrum of a thin magnetic film has some properties which may remarkably deviate from the bulk behaviour [1–3]. The dipolar coupling between spins influences both the magnon dispersion and the lineshape of the linear response, as studied theoretically [4–6] as well as experimentally [7–10].

In the case of ultrathin films the magnetic anisotropy and the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya (DM) interaction [11, 12] due to the spin–orbit coupling are more important than the magnetic dipole–dipole interaction. The magnetic anisotropy results in a gap in the magnon spectrum [13, 14] necessary to form long-range order in a two-dimensional (2D) system. Recently Zakeri et al [15, 16] have detected a so-called magnon Rashba effect [17] using spin-polarized electron energy loss spectroscopy for a two-atomic-layer thick Fe film grown on W(110). In the presence of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction, the energies of the magnons propagating in the [001] and [00\(\bar{1}\)] directions are different. This asymmetry has also been predicted theoretically and calculated from first principles for an Fe monolayer on W(110) [18]. Recently Cortês-Ortuño and Landeros [22] studied theoretically the influence of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions on thin films using a continuous model. Spin-polarized scanning tunnelling microscopy experiments revealed [23] that the characteristic length scale of magnetic patterns due to Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions is comparable with the lattice constant, where the application of atomistic models is more relevant than the methods based on the continuous medium model. The asymmetry of magnon energies propagating in opposite directions as a consequence of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction was also demonstrated earlier in the bulk system Cs2CuCl4 [24].
The aim of the present paper is to study the effect of the interplay between different types of interactions and the surface inhomogeneities as well as finite temperature on the linear response of the system using atomistic spin dynamics [19]. The system investigated throughout the paper is a model of an Fe monolayer on W(110). The model contains isotropic and anisotropic exchange between the nearest neighbours, Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions between the next-nearest-neighbour pairs and on-site anisotropy with easy axis parallel to the [110] direction. The calculated linear response functions may be comparable to Brillouin light scattering [20] and ferromagnetic resonance experiments [21].

The finite temperature phenomena of classical spin systems are usually described by the stochastic Landau– Lifshitz–Gilbert equations [25–28] treated in an atomistic approach [29]. The temperature dependence of the exchange stiffness has been calculated in [30] and, for FePt, an \( m^{1.76} \) scaling was found, where \( m \) is the average magnetization. In the case of lattice defects, this will lead to a description different from the continuum calculations proposed by Arias et al [4]. In recent papers [14, 31] numerical studies on the temperature dependence of magnetic excitations have been presented; however, the magnon softening as an effect of the dynamical equations was not discussed. There exist several methods for finding approximate analytical solutions of the Landau– Lifshitz–Gilbert equation [32–34]. The approach proposed by Raikher and Shliomis [35] to describe the linear response of noninteracting spins with on-site anisotropy to external excitations is extended in this paper by including exchange interactions between the spins. A variational approach based on the minimization of the free energy has been introduced to self-consistently renormalize the finite temperature magnon energies [36, 37]. Although this is a quantum theoretical treatment of the problem, its classical limit [38] may be compared to the solution of the Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equation. This method is extended here to treat a spin model with Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions. Finally the theoretical calculations will be compared to simulations where the stochastic Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equations were solved numerically.

2. Theory

2.1. The model

The magnetic properties of thin films are often described by a classical Heisenberg model, which turned out to be a very robust and successful scheme. In order to take relativistic effects into account, an extended Heisenberg Hamiltonian is used:

\[
H = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \neq j} \mathbf{\sigma}_i \cdot J_{ij} \cdot \mathbf{\sigma}_j + \sum_i \left( K_x \sigma_i^x \sigma_i^x + K_y \sigma_i^y \sigma_i^y + K_z \sigma_i^z \sigma_i^z \right) - \sum_i B_i M_i \sigma_i,
\]

where \( \mathbf{\sigma}_i \) denotes a unit vector parallel to the average of the magnetization within an atomic sphere at site \( i \) and \( M_i \) stands for the magnitude of the magnetic moment at the given lattice point. In the first term of the Hamiltonian (1) \( J_{ij} \) are the \( 3 \times 3 \) exchange interaction matrices, while the second term represents second order on-site anisotropies, where negative coefficients specify easy magnetization axes. Note that setting \( K_z \) to zero does not change the Hamiltonian apart from an additive constant. The last term describes the coupling of the spins to an external magnetic field, \( B_i \). The exchange tensor can be rewritten as

\[
J_{ij} = \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(J_{ij} \cdot I) + \left[ \frac{J_{ij} + J_{ij}^T}{2} - \frac{1}{3} \text{Tr}(J_{ij} \cdot I) \right] + \frac{J_{ij} - J_{ij}^T}{2},
\]

where \( \text{Tr} \) denotes the trace of a matrix, the superscript \( T \) labels the transposed matrix and \( I \) stands for the unit matrix. The first term corresponds to the isotropic exchange appearing in the usual scalar Heisenberg model. The second term, associated with two-site anisotropy, is a symmetric traceless matrix, similar to the dipolar coupling between the spins. The third term is an antisymmetric matrix, the three independent matrix elements of which are equivalent to the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya vector, \( D_{ij} \).

For our present investigations, a model for an Fe monolayer on the (110) surface of bcc \( W \) was chosen (see figure 1). Note that the \( x, y, z \) axes of the coordinate system are parallel to the [110], [001] and [110] directions, respectively. Both experimental [15] and theoretical [18] studies confirmed that the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction is present in the system. Only the strongest and most relevant interactions are included in our model that can reproduce the basic properties of the excitation spectrum: nearest-neighbour

![Figure 1](source-url)
2.2. The stochastic Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equation

In an adiabatic approach \[39\], the time evolution of the localized magnetic moments in a solid at finite temperature can be described by the stochastic Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equations:

\[
\frac{\partial \mathbf{M}_i}{\partial t} = -\gamma' M_i \times (\mathbf{B}^{\text{eff}}_i + \mathbf{B}^{\text{th}}_i) - \frac{\alpha \gamma'}{M_i} M_i \times [M_i \times (\mathbf{B}^{\text{eff}}_i + \mathbf{B}^{\text{th}}_i)],
\]

where \( M_i = M_0 \alpha \) stands for the localized magnetic moment at lattice point \( i \), with \( M_0 \) denoting its magnitude, \( \alpha \) is the Gilbert damping parameter and \( \gamma' = \gamma/(1 + \alpha^2) \) with the gyromagnetic ratio, \( \gamma = 2\mu_B / \hbar \). The magnetic field driving the motion of the spins contains two terms. The deterministic term, \( \mathbf{B}^{\text{eff}} \), can be obtained from the effective classical Hamiltonian (1)

\[
\mathbf{B}^{\text{eff}}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial M_i} = -\frac{1}{M_i} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{a}_i}.
\]

The thermal term, \( \mathbf{B}^{\text{th}} \), is proportional to the three-dimensional standard Gaussian white noise, \( \mathbf{\eta}_i \) \[40\]

\[
\mathbf{B}^{\text{th}}_i(t) = \sqrt{2D_i} \mathbf{\eta}_i(t), \quad D_i = \frac{\alpha}{1 + \alpha^2} \frac{k_B T}{M_i \gamma'}.
\]

In the rest of the paper the following simplified notation will be used: \( \mathbf{B}^{\text{eff}} \) will stand for \( \gamma \mathbf{B}^{\text{eff}} \), that is it will be measured in the frequency dimension. Similarly, the temperature in the frequency dimension, \( \gamma k_B T / M \), will simply be denoted by \( T \), where it was used that in the case of a monolayer the magnetic moment has the same value at every lattice point, \( M_i = M \). The thermal field can be written as \( \mathbf{B}^{\text{th}}_i(t) = \Sigma \mathbf{\eta}_i(t) \) with \( \Sigma = \sqrt{2\alpha T} \). The terms \( \mathbf{J}^{\text{th}} / M \) and \( K_\alpha / M \) appearing in the effective field will be replaced with \( \mathbf{J}^{\text{th}} / M \) and \( K_\alpha \), respectively. Note that we are going to use different model values for these parameters in our calculations. The above definitions and simplifications make it possible to rewrite equation (3) in the form

\[\frac{\partial \mathbf{a}_i}{\partial t} = -\frac{1}{1 + \alpha^2} \mathbf{a}_i \times \left( \frac{1}{M} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{a}_i} + \Sigma \mathbf{\eta}_i \right) - \frac{\alpha}{1 + \alpha^2} \mathbf{a}_i \times \left[ \mathbf{a}_i \times \left( \frac{1}{M} \frac{\partial H}{\partial \mathbf{a}_i} + \Sigma \mathbf{\eta}_i \right) \right]. \tag{6}\]

2.3. The linear response of the system at zero temperature

The set of equation (6) is nonlinear, coupled between the lattice points, and contains multiplicative stochastic noise, all the above contributing to the fact that it is quite complicated to find analytic solutions. Firstly the equations shall be solved at zero temperature. The method presented here is a linear approximation, which describes the magnetic excitation of the system close to the ground state and the response to a small dynamic external magnetic field. New variables \( \beta_{1i} \) and \( \beta_{2i} \) are introduced corresponding to the rotation of the spin vector around the orthogonal vectors \( e_x \) and \( e_z \) transverse to the ground state ferromagnetic direction \( e_y \) as shown in figure 2. The \( \mathbf{a}_i \) vector is expanded in the \( \beta_{1i} \) and \( \beta_{2i} \) variables up to second order as

\[
\mathbf{a}_i = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \frac{\beta_{1i}^2}{2} - \frac{\beta_{2i}^2}{2} \\ \beta_{2i} \\ -\beta_{1i} \end{bmatrix}.
\]

Using the \( C_{2v} \) symmetry of the system and expanding around the ferromagnetic ground state up to second order in the \( \beta_{1i} \) and \( \beta_{2i} \) variables, the Hamiltonian (1) will take the form

\[
H = \sum_{i,j} \left[ J_{x} \left( 1 - \frac{\beta_{1i}^2}{2} - \frac{\beta_{2i}^2}{2} \right) + J_{yz} \beta_{2i} \beta_{2j} + J_{zc} \beta_{1i} \beta_{1j} \right] + \sum_{i,j} D_j \left( \beta_{1i} \beta_{2j} - \beta_{1j} \beta_{2i} \right).
\]
where \((i,j)\) denote summations over the first and second nearest-neighbour pairs, respectively. The Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equation can be reformulated using the identity

\[
\begin{align*}
\frac{\partial H}{\partial \sigma_{i \perp}} &= -\frac{\partial H}{\partial \beta_{2j}} e_y + \frac{\partial H}{\partial \beta_{1i}} e_x,
\end{align*}
\]

leading to the zero temperature expression

\[
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d}{dt} \beta_{2j} = \left[ -4J_{xx}\beta_{1j} + \sum_{j \neq 1} J_{zz}\beta_{1j} + \sum_{i \neq 1} J_{ij}\beta_{2j} \right] - 2K_s\beta_{1j} + B_{iz}\beta_{1j} + B_{iz}.
\]

\[
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d}{dt} \beta_{2j} = \left[ -4J_{xx}\beta_{1j} + \sum_{j \neq 1} J_{zz}\beta_{1j} + \sum_{i \neq 1} J_{ij}\beta_{2j} \right] - 2K_s\beta_{2j} + 2K_x\beta_{2j} + B_{iz}\beta_{2j} - B_{iy}.
\]

\[
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d}{dt} \beta_{1j} = \left[ -4J_{xx}\beta_{2j} + \sum_{j \neq 1} J_{yy}\beta_{2j} - \sum_{i \neq 1} J_{ij}\beta_{1j} \right] - 2K_s\beta_{2j} + 2K_x\beta_{2j} + B_{iz}\beta_{2j} - B_{iy},
\]

Note that according to figure 1, in the above equations \(D_{ij}\) takes the value of \(D\) or \(-D\).

To uncouple equations (10) and (11), we shall use the lattice Fourier transform of the variables and external field:

\[
\hat{\beta}_{1(2)}(k_j) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{R_i} e^{-i k_j \cdot R_i} \beta_{1(2)}(R_i),
\]

\[
\beta_{1(2)}(k_j) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum_{R_i} e^{-i k_j \cdot R_i} B_{0(2)}(R_i),
\]

where \(R_i\) and \(k_j\) denote real-space lattice vectors and reciprocal-space wavevectors in the first Brillouin zone, respectively, and \(n\) is the number of atoms in the 2D lattice. In the following a small amplitude, time-dependent external excitation \(B_t(k_j, t) = B_t(k_j) \cos \alpha t\) is considered, while, in order to simplify the calculations, \(B_t(k_j) = B_t(k_j) = 0\), \(J_{zz} = J_{yy}\), and \(K_x = 0\) were chosen. With these assumptions, equations (10) and (11) will be reduced to

\[
\frac{d}{dt} \hat{\beta}_{2j}(k_j) = \left[ \hat{J}(k_j) \hat{\beta}_1(k_j) + i\hat{D}(k_j) \hat{\beta}_2(k_j) - \alpha \hat{J}(k_j) \hat{\beta}_1(k_j) \right] + \alpha \hat{D}(k_j) \frac{B_t(k_j)}{1 + \alpha^2} \cos \alpha t,
\]

\[
\hat{J}(k_j) = \frac{1 + \alpha^2}{1 + \alpha^2} \left[ -4J_{xx} + 2J_{yy} \cos(k_j \cdot \delta_1) \right]
\]

\[
\hat{D}(k_j) = \frac{1 + \alpha^2}{1 + \alpha^2} \left[ -2D \sin(k_j \cdot \delta_3) \right].
\]

\[
\frac{d\hat{\beta}_1(k_j)}{dt} = \left[ -4J_{xx} \hat{\beta}_2(k_j) + 4J_{yy} \hat{\beta}_2(k_j) \right] + \frac{B_t(k_j)}{1 + \alpha^2} \cos \alpha t, \quad \alpha \approx 0.1. \quad \text{Note the asymmetry of the spectrum with respect to } k_j \to -k_j \text{ as a consequence of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction.}
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\hat{J}(k_j) &= \frac{1 + \alpha^2}{1 + \alpha^2} \left[ -4J_{xx} + 2J_{yy} \cos(k_j \cdot \delta_1) \right]
\end{align*}
\]

\[
\hat{D}(k_j) = \frac{1 + \alpha^2}{1 + \alpha^2} \left[ -2D \sin(k_j \cdot \delta_3) \right],
\]

where with the lattice vectors \(\delta_1, \delta_2 \) and \(\delta_3 \) as depicted in figure 1.

Introducing the variables \(\hat{\beta}_+(k_j) = \hat{\beta}_2(k_j) + i\hat{\beta}_1(k_j) \) and \(\hat{\beta}_-(k_j) = \hat{\beta}_2(k_j) - i\hat{\beta}_1(k_j) \), the solution of the differential equations (10) and (11) can easily be obtained:

\[
\hat{\beta}_+(k_j, t) = C_+ e^{\gamma_+(k_j) t} + \int_0^t \frac{1 - i \alpha}{1 + \alpha^2} B_t(k_j) e^{\gamma_+(k_j)(t-s)} \cos \alpha s \, ds,
\]

\[
\hat{\beta}_-(k_j, t) = C_- e^{\gamma_-(k_j) t} + \int_0^t \frac{1 + i \alpha}{1 + \alpha^2} B_t(k_j) e^{\gamma_-(k_j)(t-s)} \cos \alpha s \, ds,
\]

where \(C_+ \) and \(C_- \) are constants, and

\[
\gamma_+(k_j) = (-\alpha - i) \left[ \hat{J}(k_j) - \hat{D}(k_j) \right] = \frac{-\alpha - i}{1 + \alpha^2} \hat{\omega_0}(k_j), \quad \text{and}
\]

\[
\gamma_-(k_j) = (-\alpha + i) \left[ \hat{J}(k_j) + \hat{D}(k_j) \right] = \frac{-\alpha + i}{1 + \alpha^2} \hat{\omega_0}(k_j), \quad \text{with the characteristic magnon frequencies}
\]

\[
\hat{\omega_0}(k_j) = -4J_{xx} + 4J_{yy} + (-4J_{yy})
\]

\[
\times \left[ 1 - \cos \left( \frac{\sqrt{2} \alpha k_y}{2} \right) \cos \left( \frac{1}{2} \alpha k_y \right) \right] - 2D \sin(k_j \cdot \delta_3) - 2K_x. \quad \text{(22)}
\]

For a typical set of parameters, the spectrum along the \(y\) direction is depicted in figure 3. Two characteristic
features of the spectrum should be emphasized. Firstly, the spectrum is not symmetric relative to the Γ point in the Brillouin zone, \( \omega_0(k_i) \neq \omega_0(-k_i) \), since \( J(k_i) = J(-k_i) \) but \( D(k_i) = -D(-k_i) \). This has already been demonstrated in previous articles for similar materials, both on theoretical [18] and experimental [15] grounds. It is important to highlight that the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction has no effect on the magnon energy at the Γ point. Secondly, there is a gap in the spectrum due to the on-site and two-site anisotropy terms, the latter one corresponding to the difference between the diagonal elements of the coupling tensor. The value for the gap is \( \omega_0(k_i = 0) = -4(J_{xx} - J_{yy}) - 2K_s > 0 \), stabilizing the ferromagnetic ground state. If the magnetic anisotropy is sufficiently small, in the presence of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction the spectrum may contain excitations with negative energy. In this case, the ground state is usually some sort of chiral state [41, 23] instead of the ferromagnetic ordering described here. In the long-wavelength limit of the present model, the condition for a spin-spiral ground state is \( |D| > \sqrt{4J_{yy}(J_{xx} - J_{yy}) + 2J_{xx}K_s} \).

In the solutions (18) and (19), the \( C_+ \) and \( C_- \) coefficients serve only to fulfill the initial condition of the differential equations, that is the ferromagnetic ground state. The quantities \( z_+(k_i) \) and \( z_-(k_i) \) in the exponents have negative real part if the magnon frequencies are positive. In this case, the eigenmodes of the system, that is the first terms of the right-hand sides of (18) and (19), decay exponentially and only the response to the external excitation (second terms) survives on a long timescale. As discussed above, negative frequencies indicate that the ferromagnetic state is not stable.

The response of the system to the perturbing field is properly described by the variance of the angle variables which is the sum of four Lorentzian curves. At zero temperature and without damping (\( \alpha = 0 \)), the locations of the peaks correspond to the magnon energies at \( k_i \) and \( -k_i \) wavevectors. The first two terms have peaks at \( \omega < 0 \) values, because due to the form of the perturbing field the response of the system, \( S(k_i, \omega) \), will be an even function of \( \omega \). The other two peaks describe the physical behaviour of the system: if Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions are present, the energies of the \( k_i \) and \( -k_i \) magnons will differ; therefore, we will get two peaks instead of a single one. These peaks can be distinguished if the damping is not too large, that is the half-width of the peaks is smaller than the distance between them: \( 4D\sin(k_i \cdot \mathbf{b}_j) > 2\pi\omega_0(k_i) \). However, at \( k_i = 0 \), \( S(0, \omega) \) will only have a single peak, because the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction has no effect on the spectrum at the Γ point. Similar results for the resonance response of Fe/W(110) were obtained in [22], using a macroscopic model of the film. Note that the damping decreases the magnon energies. This effect is, however, negligible, since for ferromagnetic systems generally \( \alpha \ll 1 \).

2.4. Lattice defects

Ferromagnetic resonance is a standard method for studying the linear response to spatially uniform external excitations. In this case, the response of the system will only contain information about excitations with wavevector \( k_i = 0 \), the energy of which is, in principle, unaffected by the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions. However, if the lattice contains defects, the quasimomentum is not conserved in the system, therefore a spatially uniform external field may create finite wavevector magnons, which are affected by the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions.

In order to account for a vacancy or a non-magnetic atom replacing a magnetic atom, the value of the spin vector was simply set to zero at the corresponding lattice site. In the model the same simplifications were used as in (14) and (15), that is \( B_1(k_i) = B_2(k_i) = 0, J_{xx} = J_{yy}, \) and \( K_s = 0 \), while a homogeneous external magnetic field was considered, \( B_{ic} = B_{ic} \cos \omega t \). In the case of a perfect lattice, equations (10) and (11) have clearly the same form for every lattice point, that is the reason why the discrete Fourier transformation could be used to decouple these equations. However, if a vacancy is present in the system, these equations take a different form at lattice points neighbouring the defect, since one of the terms will be missing. Apart from these six lattice points, the four nearest-neighbour and the two next-nearest-neighbour sites around the vacancy, the equations again look the same for all the spins. Therefore in this model, only the six neighbours of the vacancy were considered and another ‘average’ lattice point, which does not miss a coupling due to the presence of the vacancy. All together, one can get a system of coupled equations listed in appendix A.1 which have to be solved simultaneously. By solving these equations, the response to the external excitation \( S(k_i = 0, \omega) \) was again calculated in terms of equation (23).

Figures 4(a) and 6(a) show the results of numerical calculations for \( S(k_i = 0, \omega) \). According to our previous
wavevector. In general, it can be concluded that lattice defects may be a source of magnon softening.

2.5. Finite temperature effects: linear response within a mean field approach

The stochastic Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equation (6) describes the time evolution of the spins at finite temperatures. Linearizing this set of equations is problematic due to the special properties of stochastic calculus. It is still possible to calculate response functions at finite temperatures by solving a system of deterministic differential equations for the first and second moments of the spin components. The method used in this paper to treat interacting particles in a mean field approach was originally applied by Raikher and Shliomis [35] for noninteracting magnetic particles possessing an easy orientation axis. The dynamical equations (6) can be rewritten in Cartesian indices as

\[(1 + \alpha^2)\frac{d}{dt}\langle\sigma_{ia}\rangle = -\epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma}\langle\sigma_{ib}\rangle B_{i\gamma}^{\text{eff}} dt + \alpha B_{i\alpha}^{\text{eff}} dt - \alpha \langle\sigma_{ia}\rangle B_{i\beta}^{\text{eff}} dt - \sigma_{ia} \phi_{\text{eff}}^{\alpha\beta\gamma} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} dt + \alpha \sigma_{i\alpha} dW_{i\alpha}, \tag{25}\]

which is more common in stochastic calculus. Note that in the above expressions a sum has to be taken over the Cartesian indices occurring twice. \(dW_{i\alpha}\) stands for the differential of the one-dimensional Wiener process, with the usual properties: an almost surely continuous Gaussian stochastic process starting from \(W_{i\alpha}(0) = 0\) with first and second moments \(\langle W_{i\alpha}(t) \rangle = 0\) and \(\langle W_{i\alpha}(t) W_{i\beta}(t') \rangle = \delta_{i\beta} \delta_{\alpha\beta} \min\{t, t'\}\), respectively. Remember that equation (6) must be interpreted in the Stratonovich sense of stochastic calculus to yield the correct thermal equilibrium properties [40]. In addition, here the equivalent Itô form [42] of the equation was used, hence the extra term \(-\sigma^2 \langle\sigma_{ia}\rangle dt\), which does not appear when simply calculating the vectorial products. It is straightforward to calculate the equations for the first and second moments, in the latter case using Itô’s formula

\[(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d}{dt}\langle\sigma_{ia}\rangle = -\epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma}\langle\sigma_{ib}\rangle B_{i\gamma}^{\text{eff}} dt + \alpha B_{i\alpha}^{\text{eff}} dt - \sigma_{ia} \phi_{\text{eff}}^{\alpha\beta\gamma} \epsilon_{\alpha\beta\gamma} dt + \alpha \sigma_{i\alpha} dW_{i\alpha}, \tag{26}\]

where \(\langle\rangle\) denotes the stochastic expectation value. In order to calculate the linear response, the effective field is divided into an unperturbed part and a perturbation, \(B_i^{\text{eff}} = B_i^{\text{eff,0}} + B_i^{\text{eff,perc}}\), and the perturbation will be a time-dependent external magnetic field as in the previous section. In the absence of the perturbing field, the equilibrium distribution of the spins corresponds to the Boltzmann distribution, as this is the property that determines the standard deviation
of the stochastic noise at finite temperatures (see [40]). The probability density function is then given by

$$P_0(\{\alpha_i\}) = \frac{1}{Z_0} e^{-\frac{1}{T} H_0(\{\alpha_i\})},$$

(28)

where $H_0(\{\alpha_i\})$ is the unperturbed Hamiltonian and $Z_0$ is the corresponding partition function. If the system is in equilibrium, the moments of the spins will be labelled by subscript 0. If the perturbation is present, the time-dependent probability density function can be approximated as

$$P^{\text{pert}}(\{\alpha_i\}) = (1 + \langle \sigma_k \rangle_0 \alpha_k(t)) P_0(\{\alpha_i\}),$$

(29)

where the time dependence only appears in the $\alpha_k(t)$ and $b_{kx,ly}(t)$ quantities, which are supposed to be linear in the perturbing field. Using this assumption, one can rewrite equations (26) and (27), which turn into a system of linear differential equations for the $a_k(t)$ and $b_{kx,ly}(t)$ functions.

To simplify the calculations, suppose that the unperturbed Hamiltonian has the form

$$H_0(\{\alpha_i\}) = \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} (J_{xx} \sigma_i \sigma_j + J_{yy} \sigma_i \sigma_j + J_{zz} \sigma_i \sigma_j) + K_z \sum_i \sigma_i^2,$$

(30)

that is we only consider diagonal coupling coefficients between the nearest-neighbour spins and easy-axis anisotropy. This system is time-reversal-invariant, therefore all expectation values will vanish which contain an odd number of spin components. Furthermore, it is easy to see that the energy of the system does not change if we replace $\sigma_k$ with $-\sigma_k$ at all lattice points, and the same holds for the $y$ and $z$ components. This leads to the property that only such expectation values are different from zero, which contain an even number of spin components separately for the $x$, $y$, and $z$ directions. Note that including an external magnetic field in the Hamiltonian would break time-reversal invariance, while including the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction would break the latter symmetry, making the calculations more complicated. As before, $J_{yy} = J_{zz}$ was assumed and a perturbing field pointing towards the $z$ axis, $B_z$. In this case, only the coefficients $a_k(t)$ and $b_{kx,ly}(t)$ differ from zero and they are determined by the following coupled equations:

$$(1 + \alpha^2 \langle \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0) \frac{d}{dt} a_k = (B_{xy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_x + B_{yz}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_z) 0 b_{kx,ly},$$

$$- (B_{xx}^0 \sigma_x \sigma_x + B_{yy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_y + \alpha (B_{xy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_x + B_{xz}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_z)) a_k,$$

$$- \alpha (B_{xx}^0 \sigma_x \sigma_x + B_{yy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_y) a_k = \Sigma^2 \langle \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0 a_k$$

$$+ \alpha \langle \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0 \sigma_k(t),$$

(31)

$$(1 + \alpha^2 \langle \sigma_x \sigma_y \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0) \frac{d}{dt} b_{kx,ly} = (B_{xx}^0 \sigma_x \sigma_x + B_{yy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_y) 0 b_{kx,ly},$$

$$- (B_{xx}^0 \sigma_x \sigma_x + B_{yy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_y + \alpha (B_{xy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_x + B_{xz}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_z)) a_k,$$

$$- \alpha (B_{xx}^0 \sigma_x \sigma_x + B_{yy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_y) a_k = \Sigma^2 \langle \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0 a_k$$

$$+ \alpha \langle \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0 \sigma_k(t),$$

(32)

where $b_{kx,ly} = b_{ly,ky}$ was assumed without loss of generality, since the antisymmetric part of this matrix does not contribute to the right-hand side of equation (29).

After solving the system of equations, the response of the system can be calculated as

$$\langle \sigma_x \rangle(t) = \langle \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0 a_k(t),$$

(33)

which, as $a_k(t)$, is linear in $B_z$. In the case of a periodic, finite wavevector external excitation, the lattice Fourier transform of the above quantity must be considered.

Next a mean field approach is introduced, where the unperturbed Hamiltonian $H^0(\{\alpha_i\})$ in (30) is replaced by

$$H^\text{MF}(\{\alpha_i\}) = 4J_{xx} m \sum_i \sigma_i + K_z \sum_i \sigma_i^2,$$

(34)

where $m = \langle \sigma_x \rangle_{0,\text{MF}}$ has to be determined self-consistently. One has to assume that there is a finite but small $B_z$ external magnetic field, which chooses one of the degenerate states ($m > 0$ or $m < 0$) at low temperatures due to spontaneous symmetry breaking. We will assume the $m > 0$ case, but omit the $B_z \rightarrow 0+$ field in further calculations. Note that, since $\langle \sigma_x \rangle_{0,\text{MF}} = \langle \sigma_y \rangle_{0,\text{MF}} = 0$ holds due to the cylindrical symmetry of the system, the couplings $J_{yy} = J_{zz}$ vanish from the mean field Hamiltonian. Monte Carlo simulations indicate that the anisotropy together with the exchange leads to ferromagnetic ordering below a critical temperature. With the model parameters $J_{xx} = J_{yy} = J_{zz} = -1$ and $K_z = -0.1$, the critical temperature is $T_c \approx 0.7$, and this is only slightly changed by introducing Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions of strength $D = 0.1$. Since the mean field approximation underestimates the correlations of the system, it may be a suitable description only well below this critical temperature.

Selecting a single Fourier component in space and time for the perturbing field, $B_{xy} = e^{i\omega t} \delta(k_x, k_y) B_z$, within the above mean field approximation, equations (31) and (32) become

$$(1 + \alpha^2) \omega c_{xx} a_k = 2B_x^0 \sigma_x \sigma_x b_{kx,ly} - \alpha (B_{xy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_x + B_{xz}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_z) a_k$$

$$+ \alpha \langle \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0 \sigma_k(t),$$

(35)

$$(1 + \alpha^2) \omega c_{yy} b_{kx,ly} = 2B_y^0 \sigma_y \sigma_y b_{kx,ly} + \alpha (B_{xy}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_x + B_{xz}^0 \sigma_y \sigma_z) a_k$$

$$- \alpha \langle \sigma_x \sigma_z \rangle_0 \sigma_k(t),$$

(36)

where, for brevity, the space and time Fourier components $a(k_x, \omega)$ and $b(k_x, \omega)$ are denoted by $a$ and $b$, respectively. Furthermore, the notations $B_{xy}^0 = -2K_z - 4J_{xx}, B_{xy}^0 = -2K_z - 4J_{xx}$.
the calculations must be repeated for \( B \) temperatures is a variational method based on a quantum
Another way of determining the magnon energies at finite
will be shown and compared to simulations in section 3.2.
and the linewidth at finite temperatures. Our numerical results
the square of the sum of the
value squared of the right-hand side of (40), in fact, a
doubled Lorentzian function, just as in equation (24) for
zero temperature. Calculating this expectation value makes it possible to determine the magnon energy (peak location) and the linewidth at finite temperatures. Our numerical results will be shown and compared to simulations in section 3.2.

The basic effect is that the magnon energy decreases with increasing temperature, while the linewidth increases.

2.6. Finite temperature effects: the variational method

Another way of determining the magnon energies at finite temperatures is a variational method based on a quantum mechanical treatment first described by Bloch [36] for an
isotropic Heisenberg model on a cubic lattice. The method was extended to include on-site and two-site anisotropies as well as different lattice types [37]. In this paper the method is extended to also include Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions. For the Hamiltonian again nearest-neighbour exchange interactions with \( J_{xy} = J_{yz} \) and next-nearest-neighbour Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions were assumed:

\[
H[\{\sigma_i\}] = J_{yy} \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle_1} \sigma_i \sigma_j + (J_{xx} - J_{yy}) \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle_1} \sigma_i x \sigma_j + K_1 \sum_i \sigma_i^2 + \sum_{\langle i,j \rangle_2} D^{ij}(\sigma_i \sigma_j - \sigma_i \sigma_j).
\]

(41)

Treating \( \sigma_{ia} \) as spin operators, a bosonic representation can be introduced in terms of the Dyson–Maleev transformation [43, 44]

\[
\sigma_{ix} = S - a_i^\dagger a_i,
\]

(42)

\[
\sigma_{iy}^+ = \sigma_{iy} + i\sigma_{iz} = \sqrt{2S} \left(1 - \frac{a_i^\dagger a_i}{2S}\right) a_i,
\]

(43)

\[
\sigma_{ix}^- = \sigma_{iy} - i\sigma_{iz} = \sqrt{2S} a_i^\dagger,
\]

(44)

where the \( x \) axis was used as the primary quantization axis; therefore the bosonic vacuum corresponds to the ground state of the spin system. It should be emphasized that only the physical part of the bosonic system, \( 0 \leq a_i^\dagger a_i \leq 2S \), has to be considered.

The Hamiltonian written in the bosonic operators describes an interacting system, as it contains terms including the products of two and four bosonic operators. The variational approach is based on calculating the free energy,

\[
F = \langle H \rangle - TS,
\]

(45)

where the expectation value is a thermal average taken with respect to the eigenstates of a suitable noninteracting model Hamiltonian

\[
H^0 = \sum_k \omega_k(T) a_k^\dagger a_k,
\]

(46)

with \( a_k = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \sum e^{i k \cdot \mathbf{R}_i} a_i \), the Fourier transform of the bosonic operators, and \( \omega_k(T) \) is a temperature-dependent quasiparticle energy, to be determined later by minimization of the free energy. In the classical limit, the expectation value of the original Hamiltonian takes the form

\[
\langle H \rangle = -4J_{yy} \sum_k (1 - y_k^{(1)} ) n_k(T) - 4(J_{xx} - J_{yy}) \sum_k n_k(T) - 2K_x \sum_k n_k(T) - 2D \sum_k y_k^{(2)} n_k(T) + 2J_{yy} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k,k'} (1 + y_k^{(1)} - 2y_{k-k'}^{(1)}) n_k(T) n_{k'}(T) + 2(J_{xx} - J_{yy}) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k,k'} (1 + y_k^{(1)}) n_k(T) n_{k'}(T)
\]
\begin{equation}
+ 2D \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k,k'} \gamma^{(2)}_{k}(T) n_k(T) n_k(T),
\end{equation}

where $D$ is the magnitude of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya vector, $\gamma^{(1)}_k = \cos(\frac{\pi}{2} k_x a) \cos(\frac{\pi}{2} k_y a)$ and $\gamma^{(2)}_k = \sin(k_x a)$ are geometrical factors characteristic for the lattice, and $n_k(T) = \langle c^\dagger_k c_k \rangle$ is the occupation number. Also in the classical limit the Boltzmann entropy

\begin{equation}
S = \sum_k \ln(n_k(T))
\end{equation}

is considered instead of the entropy of a noninteracting bosonic system. The quasiparticle energies and the occupation numbers are therefore related to each other through

\begin{equation}
\omega_k(T) = \frac{T}{n_k(T)}.
\end{equation}

Requiring that the occupation numbers $n_k(T)$ minimize the free energy $F$ leads to the set of equations

\begin{align}
\omega_k(T) &= -4J_{xx}(1 - \gamma^{(1)}_k) - 4(J_{xx} - J_{yy}) - 2K_x \\
&\quad - 2D\gamma^{(2)}_k + 4J_{yy} \frac{1}{N} \\
&\quad \times \sum_{k'} (1 + \gamma^{(1)}_{k-k'} - \gamma^{(1)}_{k'}) n_{k'}(T) \\
&\quad + 4(J_{xx} - J_{yy}) \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k'} (1 + \gamma^{(1)}_{k-k'}) n_{k'}(T) \\
&\quad + 4K_x \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k'} n_{k'}(T) \\
&\quad + 2D \frac{1}{N} \sum_{k'} (\gamma^{(2)}_{k'} - \gamma^{(2)}_k)n_k(T).
\end{align}

Equations (49) and (50) can be used to self-consistently determine the occupation numbers and the temperature-dependent magnon energies. It is easy to see that, at $T = 0$, (50) simplifies to the magnon spectrum in (22). The magnon energies decrease with increasing temperature since all the corrections from the interacting part of the Hamiltonian have a different sign compared to the noninteracting part. This method obviously does not take into account the phenomenological Gilbert damping, $\alpha$, which slightly modifies the magnon energies in (24) and (40), but this effect is small if $\alpha \ll 1$, which is usual for a ferromagnetic system. On the other hand, this approximation does not give any information on the linewidth of the response function. Although it is possible to determine this quantity using different quantum theoretical descriptions [45], we do not discuss such an approach here, since in the quasiclassical limit the Gilbert damping is responsible for the linewidth, similar to that given in (24) at $T = 0$ K. The numerical results from equations (49) and (50) will also be compared to simulations later on.

3. Atomistic spin dynamics simulations

3.1. Simulations at zero temperature

To confirm the theoretical results discussed in the above sections, atomistic spin dynamics simulations were carried out. The code we developed solves the stochastic Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equation (3) on a two-dimensional lattice, using the stochastic Heun method with the symmetry-preserving modifications described in [46]. According to the previous calculations, in the simulations the geometry of a (110) surface of a bcc lattice was considered and a ferromagnetic Heisenberg model with nearest-neighbour coupling of unit strength: $J = -1$. Choosing the energy scale also determines a timescale, but during a simulation where only the stationary properties of the system are examined, this timescale is only important to determine the length of the transients that should be omitted from the calculation of averages. An anisotropy constant $K_z < 0$ was also used that reinforced a ground state ferromagnetic order with all spins parallel to the x axis. This basic model was then extended by other coupling coefficients, namely, next-nearest-neighbour Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions ($D$) or different diagonal elements in the $J_{ij}$ tensor ($J_{xx}, J_{yy}, J_{zz}$) describing two-site anisotropy. The simulations were performed on a lattice of $32 \times 32$ atoms with periodic boundary conditions. As the starting configuration the ferromagnetic ground state was chosen.

A time-dependent, inhomogeneous field $2B_z \cos(k_z \cdot r)$ was chosen as the external excitation, where $k_z$ is a wavevector in the first Brillouin zone. The response of the system was calculated as $S(k_z, \omega) = \langle m_z(k_z) \rangle + \langle m_z(k_z) \rangle - \langle m_z(k_z) \rangle - \langle m_z(k_z) \rangle$, where $\langle m_z(k_z) \rangle = \langle \sum_i \cos(k_z \cdot \mathbf{R}_i) \rangle_j$ and $\langle \rangle$ stands for time averaging. The difference to the expression (23) is that the simulation code uses the Descartes components of the spins instead of the angle variables in the linearized equations (10) and (11), but close to the ground state these variables are basically identical ($\sigma_i \approx \beta_i, \sigma_i \approx -\beta_i$). In order to obtain a resonance curve, $S(k_z, \omega)$ was calculated for different values of the $\omega$ frequency. The value of the $B_z$ amplitude had to be chosen carefully, since at large values it may move the spins very far from the ferromagnetic ground state and the system may become disordered: however, for small values of $B_z$ the resonance curve is hardly noticeable over the thermal background.

Choosing the correct value for the Gilbert damping, $\alpha$, was also important. On the one hand, large damping increases the half-width of the resonance curve, meaning that the frequency can be changed in larger steps, and more importantly, making the transients decay faster so shorter simulation times will suffice. On the other hand, the magnon softening due to the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction and the different diagonal coupling coefficients is almost independent of the damping. This shift in the magnon energies can be easier detected in the case of sharper peaks that can be obtained with smaller $\alpha$.

In the case of lattice defects, the initial configuration of the simulation was changed by creating small connected
droplets of zero spins in the lattice. The method of the simulation was the same as in the case of the perfect lattice, namely, that a time-dependent $B_0$ field of $\omega$ angular frequency was used and the response of the system, $S(\omega, t) = \langle m_0^2 \rangle = (m_x^2) + (m_y^2) - (m_z^2)$, was calculated as a function of $\omega$. In this case ten droplets of zero spins were chosen in the $32 \times 32$ size lattice, each containing five sites, giving a total number of 50 vacancies. Of course, here only the nonzero spins are used in calculating the averages; the ones set to zero are omitted.

Figure 4 shows the results of the linear approximation as well as the simulations at $k_i = 0$. Without Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions, the response of the system can be modelled by a single resonance curve. The peak is located approximately at $2|K| = 0.2$, i.e. at the energy of the zero wavevector magnon as indicated by equation (22). Introducing different diagonal coupling coefficients increases this value by about $-4(J_{xx} - J_{yy}) = 0.12$. The simulations were carried out also for finite Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions ($D = 0.1$), but this caused no detectable difference in the obtained resonance curves, in agreement with the linear approximation (24). By adding lattice defects to the system, the magnon energy decreases if two-site anisotropy is present. If the Hamiltonian only contains on-site anisotropy, the results of the simulation show no difference compared to the case of the perfect lattice.

The results of the simulations for finite wavevector excitations can be seen in figure 5. Here the wavevector points in the $y$ direction, since (22) suggests that, in the presence of Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions, the degeneracy between the $k_i$ and $-k_i$ magnon energies is lifted for wavevectors along this direction. The value for $k_y$ is $\sqrt{\frac{2}{K}} = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{2}{16\alpha}}$, $\alpha$ being the lattice constant, since in a $32 \times 32$ lattice this is the smallest allowed wavevector. Figure 5(a) demonstrates that without Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions there remains a single peak; however, it is shifted to a higher energy for finite wavevector. The value of the shift is consistent with the linear approximation, $4|J_{yy}|(1 - \cos \frac{\sqrt{\frac{2}{K}}}{16\alpha}) = 4|J_{yy}|(1 - \cos \frac{\pi}{16\alpha}) \approx 0.077$. In the presence of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction, figure 5(b) shows the expected splitting of the peak, in agreement with (24). Even the value of the splitting is in good agreement with the result of the linear approximation, $4D\sin \frac{\pi}{16\alpha} \approx 0.153$.

Figure 6(b) justifies that, in a disordered system, the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction does indeed change the shape of the curve, while it has no effect in a perfect lattice at $k_i = 0$. Since this effect is expected to be smaller than the one due to the anisotropy of the diagonal coupling coefficients, here a smaller value of Gilbert damping constant, $\alpha = 0.02$, is used, instead of $\alpha = 0.05$, making the peaks sharper. It is observed that both the chiral interaction and the lattice defects are necessary to change the lineshape, just as in the theoretical calculations in section 2.4 and as seen in figure 6(a). The peak is shifted towards lower magnon energies in the simulation as well as in the calculation. This effect is, however, somewhat ambiguous for the latter case, since decreasing the Gilbert damping in the simulation makes the lineshape more asymmetric, whereas this feature is absent in the theoretical calculations. Nevertheless, the peak becomes wider with vacancies in the lattice and the maximum of the peak decreases. Importantly, this effect is practically unchanged when the spins are set to zero at different sets of lattice points.

In spin dynamics simulations it is useful to calculate the spin–spin correlation function [47]

$$C_\alpha(R_i - R_j, \tau) = \langle \sigma_{\alpha i}(\tau \omega_0)\sigma_{\alpha j}(0) \rangle - \langle \sigma_{\alpha i}(\tau \omega_0) \rangle \langle \sigma_{\alpha j}(0) \rangle, \quad (51)$$

where $\alpha = x, y, z$ and $l$ stands for ensemble average. Here it is denoted explicitly that the correlation function is only calculated at discrete time points $\tau \omega_0$, which will lead to a finite maximal frequency. This average is achieved by starting the simulation multiple times from the same initial configuration, but using different seeds of the random number generator, leading to different trajectories in the phase space.

The dynamic structure factor is defined as

$$S_\alpha(k_i, \omega) = \sum_{l,m,n} e^{ik_i(\mathbf{R}_l - \mathbf{R}_m)} e^{i\omega_0\tau} C_\alpha(R_l - R_m, \tau), \quad (52)$$

which is the Fourier transform of the correlation function, discretized in space and time, but also containing a double summation over the lattice points, which corresponds to a lattice averaging besides the Fourier transformation. Due to
the finite simulation time, we only get the value of the dynamic structure factor at discrete \( \omega \) frequencies, while the finite size of the lattice leads to a discretization in the momentum space. Using the space Fourier transform the finite size of the lattice leads to a discretization in \( \omega \). Using the space Fourier transform the finite simulation time, we only get the value of the lineshape of the simulated response functions. \( J \) (dashed line). The model parameters are \( J_x = J_y = J_z = -1 \), \( \alpha = 0.05 \), \( T = 0.01 \) and \( k = 0 \). The time delay for calculating the spin values was set to \( \Delta t = 1 \), corresponding to a maximal frequency of \( \omega_{\text{max}} = \pi \). The resolution in frequency is \( \Delta \omega = \frac{2 \pi}{t_{\text{max}}} \), because the length of the examined time interval was \( t_{\text{max}} = 1000 \). The values for the wavevector are \( k = j \frac{2 \pi}{L} \), where \( a \) is the lattice constant and \( j \) is an integer between \(-16\) and \(16\) because of the lattice size \( 32 \times 32 \). At high wavevectors, the magnon energies are higher than \( \omega = \pi \), but these values appear mirrored due to the discretization in time. The open circles represent the magnon spectrum calculated from the linear approximation at \( T = 0 \), equation (22).

For the case of isotropic coupling \( (J = -1) \) and the presence of on-site anisotropy \((K_z = -0.1)\) as well as of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction \((D = 0.1)\), figure 7 shows \( S(k_x, \omega) \) as a function of the wavevector along the \( y \) direction and the angular frequency. The magnon excitations correspond to peaks in the \( k_y - \omega \) plane. In these simulations no exciting external field was applied, since the excitations of the spin system can appear solely due to the finite temperature \( (T = 0.01) \). Importantly, the theoretically calculated magnon dispersion based on equation (22) is in fairly good agreement with the peaks of the dynamic structure factor obtained from simulations.

Figure 8 shows the effect of lattice defects on the dynamic structure factor. Here a homogeneous external excitation \( B \) was applied with an angular frequency \( \omega = 0.2 \), since it makes it easier to realize the difference between the contour diagram with and without lattice defects. Since the quasimomentum is not conserved, a zero wavevector excitation will be scattered and will appear at other wavevectors at the same frequency. This is indicated as a horizontal stripe in the figure at \( \omega = 0.2 \). As before, thermal excitations are also scattered to finite wavevectors, but the corresponding stripes (peak positions) are more difficult to notice since the original peaks are also smaller due to lattice defects.

3.2. Simulations at finite temperature

We determined the linear response of the system, \( S(k_x, \omega) \), from simulations at finite temperatures as well. Lorentzian

\[
S(k_x, \omega) = \frac{S_0(k_x, \omega)}{1 + \omega^2 / \omega_0^2},
\]

where \( \omega_0 \) is the half-width at half-maximum of the Lorentzian line shape. The integral in equation (40) can be approximated as a sum over the discrete \( \omega \) values obtained from simulations. Thus, \( S(k_x, \omega) \) at finite temperature can be calculated as a sum over the discrete \( \omega \) values obtained from simulations. The finite size of the lattice leads to a discretization in \( \omega \). The finite simulation time, we only get the value of the lineshape of the simulated response functions. \( J \) (dashed line). The model parameters are \( J_x = J_y = J_z = -1 \), \( \alpha = 0.05 \), \( T = 0.01 \) and \( k = 0 \). The time delay for calculating the spin values was set to \( \Delta t = 1 \), corresponding to a maximal frequency of \( \omega_{\text{max}} = \pi \). The resolution in frequency is \( \Delta \omega = \frac{2 \pi}{t_{\text{max}}} \), because the length of the examined time interval was \( t_{\text{max}} = 1000 \). The values for the wavevector are \( k = j \frac{2 \pi}{L} \), where \( a \) is the lattice constant and \( j \) is an integer between \(-16\) and \(16\) because of the lattice size \( 32 \times 32 \). At high wavevectors, the magnon energies are higher than \( \omega = \pi \), but these values appear mirrored due to the discretization in time. The open circles represent the magnon spectrum calculated from the linear approximation at \( T = 0 \), equation (22).

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functions were fitted to the resonance curves and the fitting parameters for the location and the half-width of the peaks were compared to the theoretical predictions from the mean field approach (40) and the variational method (49) and (50).

Figure 9 depicts the magnon frequency as a function of temperature at a given wavevector. Both the mean field and the variational methods are in good qualitative agreement with the simulations, as they reproduce the decrease of the magnon frequency with increasing temperature. Due to the missing Gilbert damping, in the case of the variational method, a seemingly constant shift compared to the values from the simulations can be inferred from the figure. In the mean field approximation, the slope of the curve is slightly different from that of the simulations. The decreasing energy of the magnons may be explained by the decreasing magnetization, which is also a linear function of the temperature in the classical Heisenberg model at low temperatures.

Figures 10 and 11 show the results for finite wavevectors. At $T = 0$, both theoretical methods give the same magnon spectrum apart from a factor of $(1 + \alpha^2)^{-1}$, and this is in relatively good agreement with the simulations. At $T = 0.2$, the variational method again recovers the results of the simulations with a high accuracy. The mean field approach reproduces qualitatively well the decrease of the magnon dispersion as compared to $T = 0$, but overestimates the magnon frequencies at low wavenumbers and underestimates them at high wavenumbers. According to the results depicted in figure 11 the variational method is suitable for describing the magnon spectrum at finite temperatures also in the presence of Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interactions.
The present results on the temperature dependence of the magnon dispersion make it possible to quantitatively revise the spin-wave spectra of Fe/W(110) obtained from \textit{ab initio} calculations \cite{17, 18} as compared to the experiments performed at $T = 120$ K \cite{13, 15}. Recalling the Curie temperature $T_C = 223$ K, this implies a ratio of $T/T_C \simeq 0.54$. As mentioned earlier, Monte Carlo simulations resulted in $T_C \simeq 0.7|J|$ for the present model; thus the temperature of the experiment corresponds to $T \simeq 0.38$ on our temperature scale. From figure 9 one can then easily extrapolate a value of $\omega \simeq 0.2$ at this temperature, which means a relative decrease of 0.3 for the magnon frequency. Since the energy scale of \textit{ab initio} magnon spectra corresponding to $T = 0$ was typically twice as large as that in the experiment, we can conclude that a large part—at least 60%—of the difference can be accounted for by the direct effect of finite temperature transversal spin fluctuations on the magnon spectrum. The rest of the difference might be attributed to changes of the spin-Hamiltonian parameters, mainly due to longitudinal spin fluctuations \cite{14}.

Finally, the half-width $w$ of the resonance curves is investigated as a function of the temperature. In figure 12 two distinct regions are apparent: the half-width decreases almost linearly up to $T = 0.3$, then it rapidly increases. To explain this behaviour, we recall expression (24) indicating that, at $T = 0$, $w \simeq 2/\omega_0$, where $\omega_0$ is the resonance frequency. Supposing a similar relationship at low temperatures, the decrease of $\omega_0(T)$ with increasing $T$, see figure 9, implies a decrease of the half-width, with an almost strict proportionality with $T$. This effect is present in the linear response theory based on the stochastic Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equations \cite{35}, but only in the noninteracting case. Within our mean field treatment for an interacting spin model, see (40), the half-width always increases with increasing temperature, which is reflected in the simulations only at higher temperatures. Note that, in a quantum theoretical description \cite{6, 45}, this widening corresponds to the decrease of the magnon lifetime due to increased magnon–magnon scattering.

4. Summary and conclusions

A model Hamiltonian of a ferromagnetic thin film was examined using the quasiclassical stochastic Landau–Lifshitz–Gilbert equation (3). The model included the exchange interaction and Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction as well as on-site and two-site anisotropy terms. It was found that, at zero temperature and close to the ground state, the linear response of the system to periodic external excitation can be described by a resonance curve (24), and the locations of the peaks on this curve can be interpreted as magnon energies. The expression (22) for the magnon dispersion relation at zero temperature unambiguously confirms that the anisotropy terms induce a gap, while the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction leads to an asymmetry in the spectrum.

The effect of lattice defects was also investigated for the zero wavevector excitation in an approximation of the dynamical equations. It was found that the presence of defects leads to the softening of the magnon energy if two-site anisotropy or Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction is present in the system, but the lineshape does not change if only on-site anisotropy is considered. Since the chiral interaction has no effect on the magnon energy in the $I'$ point in a perfect lattice, this decrease of the magnon energy must be a consequence of magnon scattering at lattice defects.

Two models were discussed for finite temperature effects. The mean field result (40) was based on the solution of the moment equations calculated from the dynamical equations. For simplicity, we solved the equations for the case when the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction was absent. The solution indicated that the magnon energy decreases with increasing temperature, while the linewidth of the resonance curve increases. The variational method (49) and (50) was based on a quantum theoretical treatment: here we included the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction but obtained information only for the magnon energies which, in correspondence with the mean field result, also indicated a decreasing behaviour with increasing temperature.

The theoretical calculations were then compared to numerical spin dynamics simulations, where the linear response of the system was calculated as a function of the frequency of an external excitation field perpendicular to the magnetization. The dynamic structure factor was also calculated, providing information about the magnon spectrum in the whole Brillouin zone. The simulations were in generally good agreement with the theoretical results, although it was found that the lineshape of the linear response curve becomes asymmetric by decreasing the damping parameter. For the finite temperature magnon energies, both theoretical methods and the simulations provided consistent results. The mean field approach showed increasing deviations at higher temperatures and higher wavevectors as compared to the other method. The results were used to provide a quantitative correction to the \textit{ab initio} spin-wave spectrum on Fe/W(110) related to finite temperature effects that made possible a better
Therefore, the following ten linear differential equations are presented here in Appendix A.1, it can be seen that out of the six lattice points next to the vacancy, only four of them lead to different equations. For this ‘average’ angle variable, one has to sum up the linearized equations (10) and (11) for all lattice points and divide them by the number of lattice points. Here the effect of the vacancy is that a term must be subtracted from the original equations, corresponding to the nearest-neighbour and next-nearest-neighbour lattice sites contain a spin. Of course these points are not exactly equivalent, since a lattice point that is two lattice vectors far from the defect has a common neighbour with the vacancy, while this is not true for lattice points further away. This difference is only noticeable in higher order calculations.

For this ‘average’ angle variable, one has to consider the angle variables at the four nearest-neighbour and the two next-nearest-neighbour sites of a vacancy separately from the others, since when one writes down equations (10) and (11) for these lattice points, some terms will be missing. Lattice points further away from the vacancy will be described by an ‘average’ angle variable, since all of their nearest-neighbour and next-nearest-neighbour sites contain a spin. Of these lattice points, some terms will be missing. Lattice points further away from the vacancy will be described by an ‘average’ angle variable, since all of their nearest-neighbour and next-nearest-neighbour sites contain a spin. Of course these points are not exactly equivalent, since a lattice point that is two lattice vectors far from the defect has a common neighbour with the vacancy, while this is not true for lattice points further away. This difference is only noticeable in higher order calculations.

Figure A.1. Similar to figure 1 with the notation used in appendix A.1 to describe the spins at the nearest neighbours and next-nearest neighbours of a lattice vacancy, \( J \uparrow, J \downarrow, D \uparrow \) and \( D \downarrow \). To be solved simultaneously:

\[
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\beta_{11}}{dt} = -3J_{xx}\beta_{11} + 2J_{zz}\hat{\beta}_1 + J_{zz}\beta_{1D} + D\hat{\beta}_2 - D\hat{\beta}_1 - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{11} - \alpha(-3J_{xx}\beta_{2J1} + 2J_{yy}\beta_2 - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{2J1} + D\hat{\beta}_1 - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{2J1}) + B_c \cos \omega t, \tag{A.1}
\]

\[
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\beta_{1J1}}{dt} = -3J_{xx}\beta_{1J1} + 2J_{yy}\hat{\beta}_2 + J_{yy}\beta_{2D} - D\hat{\beta}_1 + 2J_{zz}\beta_1 + J_{zz}\beta_{2D} + D\hat{\beta}_2 - D\hat{\beta}_{1J1} - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{1J1} - \alpha(-3J_{xx}\beta_{2J1} + 2J_{yy}\beta_2 - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{2J1} + D\hat{\beta}_1 - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{2J1}) - B_c \cos \omega t, \tag{A.2}
\]

\[
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\beta_{2J1}}{dt} = -3J_{xx}\beta_{2J1} + 2J_{yy}\hat{\beta}_1 + J_{yy}\beta_{2D} - D\hat{\beta}_2 + D\hat{\beta}_1 - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{2J1} - \alpha(-3J_{xx}\beta_{2J1} + 2J_{yy}\beta_2 - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{2J1} + D\hat{\beta}_1 - 2K_{\beta}\beta_{2J1}) + B_c \cos \omega t, \tag{A.3}
\]
\begin{align*}
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\hat{P}_{1\uparrow}}{dt} &= -(3J_{xx}\beta_{2\downarrow} + 2J_{yy}\beta_1 \\
&+ J_{xy}\beta_{2\uparrow} + D\hat{\beta}_1 - D\beta_{1\uparrow} \\
&- 2K_{\alpha}\beta_{1\downarrow} - \alpha(-3J_{xx}\beta_{1\uparrow} + 2J_{zz}\beta_1 \\
&+ J_{zz}\beta_{2\downarrow} - D\beta_{2\uparrow} \\
&+ D\beta_{2\downarrow} - 2K_{\alpha}\beta_{1\downarrow}) \\
&- \alpha B_z \cos \omega t, \quad (A.4)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\hat{P}_{2\downarrow}}{dt} &= -4J_{xx}\beta_{1\uparrow} + 2J_{zz}\beta_1 \\
&+ 2J_{yy}\beta_{2\uparrow} + D\hat{\beta}_1 \\
&- 2K_{\alpha}\beta_{1\downarrow} - \alpha(-4J_{xx}\beta_{2\uparrow} \\
&+ 2J_{yy}\beta_{2\downarrow} + 2J_{zz}\beta_{1\downarrow} \\
&+ D\beta_{2\downarrow} - 2K_{\alpha}\beta_{1\downarrow}) - \alpha B_z \cos \omega t, \quad (A.5)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\hat{P}_{1\downarrow}}{dt} &= -(-4J_{xx}\beta_{2\uparrow} \\
&+ 2J_{yy}\beta_{2\downarrow} + D\hat{\beta}_1 \\
&- 2K_{\alpha}\beta_{1\downarrow} - \alpha(-4J_{xx}\beta_{2\downarrow} \\
&+ 2J_{yy}\beta_{2\uparrow} + 2J_{zz}\beta_{1\downarrow} \\
&+ D\beta_{2\downarrow} - 2K_{\alpha}\beta_{1\downarrow}) + B_z \cos \omega t, \quad (A.6)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\hat{P}_{2\uparrow}}{dt} &= -(-4J_{xx}\beta_{2\downarrow} \\
&+ 2J_{yy}\beta_{2\uparrow} + D\hat{\beta}_1 \\
&- 2K_{\alpha}\beta_{1\downarrow} - \alpha(-4J_{xx}\beta_{2\uparrow} \\
&+ 2J_{yy}\beta_{2\downarrow} + 2J_{zz}\beta_{1\downarrow} \\
&+ D\beta_{2\downarrow} - 2K_{\alpha}\beta_{1\downarrow}) - \alpha B_z \cos \omega t, \quad (A.7)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\hat{P}_{\uparrow}}{dt} &= [-4(J_{xx} - J_{zz}) - 2K_{\alpha} + B_z] \hat{\beta}_1 \\
&- \alpha(-4J_{xx} - J_{yy}) - 2K_{\alpha} \hat{\beta}_2 \\
&= -\frac{m}{n-m}[-2(J_{xx} - J_{zz}) \\
&\times (\beta_{1\uparrow} + \beta_{1\downarrow}) + D(\beta_{2\uparrow} - \beta_{2\downarrow}) \\
&- \alpha(-2(J_{xx} - J_{yy}) \beta_{2\uparrow} + \beta_{2\downarrow}) \\
&- D(\beta_{1\downarrow} - \beta_{1\uparrow})\{|\beta_{1\downarrow} - \beta_{1\uparrow}| + B_z \cos \omega t, \quad (A.8)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\hat{P}_{\downarrow}}{dt} &= [-4(J_{xx} - J_{zz}) - 2K_{\alpha}] \hat{\beta}_2 \\
&- \alpha(-4J_{xx} - J_{zz}) - 2K_{\alpha} \hat{\beta}_1 \\
&= -\frac{m}{n-m}[-2(J_{xx} - J_{zz}) \\
&\times (\beta_{2\uparrow} + \beta_{2\downarrow}) + D(\beta_{1\uparrow} - \beta_{1\downarrow}) \\
&- \alpha(-2(J_{xx} - J_{zz}) \beta_{1\uparrow} + \beta_{1\downarrow}) \\
&+ D(\beta_{2\downarrow} - \beta_{2\uparrow})\{|\beta_{2\downarrow} - \beta_{2\uparrow}| + B_z \cos \omega t, \quad (A.9)
\end{align*}

\begin{align*}
(1 + \alpha^2) \frac{d\hat{\beta}_1}{dt} &= -[-4(J_{xx} - J_{zz}) - 2K_{\alpha}] \hat{\beta}_2 \\
&- \alpha(-4J_{xx} - J_{zz}) - 2K_{\alpha} \hat{\beta}_1 \\
&= -\frac{m}{n-m}[-2(J_{xx} - J_{zz}) \\
&\times (\beta_{2\uparrow} + \beta_{2\downarrow}) + D(\beta_{1\uparrow} - \beta_{1\downarrow}) \\
&- \alpha(-2(J_{xx} - J_{zz}) \beta_{1\uparrow} + \beta_{1\downarrow}) \\
&+ D(\beta_{2\downarrow} - \beta_{2\uparrow})\{|\beta_{2\downarrow} - \beta_{2\uparrow}| + B_z \cos \omega t. \quad (A.10)
\end{align*}

Similar to expression (23), the linear response of the system at $k_i = 0$ is now defined as

\begin{equation}
S(\omega) = \langle \hat{P}_1^2 \rangle + \langle \hat{P}_2^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{P}_1 \rangle^2 - \langle \hat{P}_2 \rangle^2. \quad (A.11)
\end{equation}

Equations (A.1)–(A.10) are equivalent to a system of linear algebraic equations through Fourier transformation in time, which can be easily solved numerically. It is important to note that, in the absence of the Dzyaloshinsky–Moriya interaction ($D = 0$) and two-site anisotropy ($J_{xx} = J_{yy} = J_{zz}$), equations (A.9) and (A.10) are uncoupled from the first eight ones, and with the applied normalization they do not depend on the number of atoms in the lattice. Therefore it can be concluded that $S(\omega)$ is not affected by lattice defects if only isotropic exchange interactions and on-site anisotropy are present in the system.

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