A new algorithm is presented, which allows to calculate numerically the partition function $Z_q$ of the $d$-dimensional $q$-state Potts models for arbitrary real values $q > 0$ at any given temperature $T$ with high precision. The basic idea is to measure the distribution of the number of connected components in the corresponding Fortuin-Kasteleyn representation and to compare with the distribution of the case $q = 1$ (graph percolation), where the exact result $Z_1 = 1$ is known. As application, $d = 2$ and $d = 3$-dimensional ferromagnetic Potts models are studied, and the critical values $q_c$, where the transition changes from second to first order, are determined. Large systems of sizes $N = 1000^2$ respectively $N = 100^3$ are treated. The critical value $q_c(d = 2) = 4$ is confirmed and $q_c(d = 3) = 2.35(5)$ is found.

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The partition function is a quantity of fundamental importance, because it describes completely the behavior of any statistical physics model. Unfortunately, in finite-dimensions, only few models are analytically tractable \[1\]. Hence, Monte Carlo (MC) simulations \[2,3\] are usually applied. The standard approach to obtain the partition function is to measure the free energy by thermodynamic integration of the specific heat, i.e. the fluctuations of the energy. Since this approach is based on measuring fluctuations, it is not very efficient, hence limited to small sizes. One can speedup simulations for certain types of systems by applying cluster algorithms \[4,5,6\], multi-histogram methods \[7\], multicanonical simulations \[8,9\] or transition-matrix Monte Carlo \[10\], but the general problem of the strong fluctuations remains. To overcome this problem, recently Wang and Landau introduced \[11\] a simple yet very efficient method to obtain the partition function. The key idea is to measure the density of states by performing a biased random walk in energy space via spin flips. It works well for frustrated systems, e.g. the standard $q$-state Potts model \[12\], which has become a standard testing ground for Monte Carlo algorithms. The Potts model is of profound interest, because, for dimensions $d$ larger than one, it exhibits order-disorder phase transitions \[13\], which are of second order for $q$ smaller than a critical value $q_c(d)$, while they are of first order for $q > q_c(d)$. It is analytically proven \[14\] that $q_c(2) = 4$, but e.g. for $d = 3$, the exact value of $q_c$ is not known. From various analytical work \[15,16,17\] and simulations of moderate-size systems \[18,19,20\], $2 < q_c(3) < 3$ seems likely. Unfortunately, since the Wang-Landau method is based on spin flips, it works only for integer values of $q$, hence the partition function for $2 < q < 3$ cannot be obtained for large systems in this way.

In this letter, an algorithm is presented, which allows to calculate numerically the partition function $Z_q$ of the $d$-dimensional $q$-state Potts models for arbitrary real values $q > 0$ at any given temperature $T$ with high precision. The basic idea is to measure the distribution of the number of connected components in the corresponding Fortuin-Kasteleyn representation and to compare with the distribution of the case $q = 1$ (graph percolation), where the exact result $Z_1 = 1$ is known. As application, $d = 2$ and $d = 3$-dimensional ferromagnetic Potts models are studied, and the critical values $q_c$, where the transition changes from second to first order, are determined. Large systems of sizes $N = 1000^2$ respectively $N = 100^3$ are treated. The critical value $q_c(d = 2) = 4$ is confirmed and $q_c(d = 3) = 2.35(5)$ is found. The outline of the paper is as follows. Next, the model is defined. Then the algorithm for calculating the partition function is presented. In the main part, the results for the $d = 2$ and $d = 3$ Potts models are shown. Finally a summary is given.

The $q$-state Potts model \[12\] for integer values of $q$ consists of $N$ spins $\sigma_i \in \{1, \ldots, q\}$ living on the sites of an arbitrary graph or lattice $G$, with the Hamiltonian $H = - \sum_{(i,j)} \delta_{\sigma_i, \sigma_j}$, where the sum runs over the edges $(i,j)$ of $G$, and $\delta$ is the Kronecker delta. For $G$, here $d$-dimensional hypercubic lattices having periodic boundary conditions with nearest-neighbor interactions are considered. The partition function $Z_q = \sum_{(\sigma_i)} e^{-H/T}$, $T$ being the temperature, can be written in the FK representation \[21\] as

$$Z_q = \sum_{G' \subset G} W_q(G') = \sum_{G' \subset G} p^{N_s(G')} (1 - p)^{N_b(G') - N_s(G')} q^{N_c(G')} ,$$

where the sum runs over all subgraphs of $G$ having the same set of sites and any subset of edges, $W_q(G')$ is the weight of graph $G'$, $p = 1 - e^{-1/T}$, $N_s(G)$ resp. $N_b(G')$ are the number of edges in $G$ resp. $G'$ and $N_c(G')$ is the number of connected components in $G'$. The FK
representation allows for an extension of the model to arbitrary real values of \(q > 0\).

For \(q = 1\), \(W_1(G')\) is the probability of the subgraph \(G'\), if the graph is generated randomly by making every edge a member of the subgraph with probability \(p\). This allows for a very efficient generation of graphs distributed according to \(W_1\), i.e. by importance sampling. Since one generates each time with probability one some random subgraph in this way, one has trivially \(Z_1 = 1\).

This allows for a calculation of the partition function \(Z_q\) for any \(q > 0\) in the following way. Let \(P_q(c)\) the probability to have \(c\) connected components in a subgraph generated according to weight \(W_q\). Then we have by definition

\[
P_q(c) = \frac{1}{Z_q} \sum_{G' \subseteq G} W_q(G') \delta_{N_c(G'),c}
\]

\[
= \frac{1}{Z_q} \sum_{G' \subseteq G} W_1(G') q^{-N_c(G'),c}
\]

\[
= q^{-c} \frac{1}{Z_q} \sum_{G' \subseteq G} W_1(G') \delta_{N_c(G'),c}
\]

\[
= q^{-c} Z_1 P_1(c) = q^{-c} \frac{Z_1}{Z_q} P_1(c). \tag{2}
\]

Hence, we get

\[
Z_q = q^{-c} \frac{P_1(c)}{P_q(c)}. \tag{3}
\]

This means, by measuring the probability distributions of the number of connected components for random subgraphs \((q = 1)\) and for the target value \(q\), we can obtain \(Z_q\). Note that Eq. \(3\) holds for all values of \(c\) simultaneously. Therefore, by comparison of the full distributions, one has a mean to determine \(Z_q\) with very high precision.

Eq. \(3\) might be useful for analytical calculations, but for most interesting graphs \(G\), the distributions cannot be obtained in this way. Hence, one uses numerical simulations to obtain the distributions \(P_1(c)\) and \(P_q(c)\). In practice, one can generate random subgraphs according to \(W_1\) with importance sampling, as explained above, and according to \(W_q\) using the very efficient cluster algorithm of Chayes and Machta. This algorithm allows for simulation for arbitrary values of \(q\), similar to other approaches.

Nevertheless, for large values of \(q\) and finite statistics, \(P_1(c)\) and \(P_q(c)\) will not overlap, because deviations from the typical value are exponentially suppressed. In this case one has to study intermediate values \(q_1, \ldots, q_k \in [1, q]\), calculate each time \(P_q(c)\) and \(Z_{q_i}\). This allows to extend \(P_1(c)\) stepwise for larger values of \(c\), until \(P_1(c)\) and \(P_q(c)\) have sufficient overlap. In principle, it is a bit ugly, that one has to perform simulations at several values of \(q_i\), but on the other hand, one gets the partition function for all considered values, which will be useful in the following. Note that for the Wang-Landau algorithm, also one long run is sufficient only in theory, in practice, if the system size is larger than tiny, one has to divide the energy range into intervals, perform independent runs for each interval, and match the results of the different runs as well. Anyway, this is no problem for either method, because it can be done automatically by a program, no matter how many intervals have to be matched. The real advantage of the present approach is that it works for all values of \(q > 0\), since it does not rely on flips of spins.

To test the new approach, it is now applied to the two-dimensional Ising model \((q = 2)\), where exact results are available for finite system sizes \([22]\). In Fig. \(1\) the Gibbs free energy per spin \(F/N = -T \ln Z_q\) is shown in the Ising representation (i.e. for the Hamiltonian \(H = -\sum_{(i,j)}[2\delta_{\sigma_i \sigma_j} - 1]\)). The data of the simulation and the analytical result are given for a large system size \(N = 1000 \times 1000\). Thus, \(k = 110\) different values \(q_i\) are necessary for measuring \(P(c)\) over the desired range. Equilibration of the cluster MC simulation is determined by monitoring the number of connected components and the number of edges when starting with a full resp. empty subgraph. Equilibration is assumed, when the values for the different starting conditions agree within the range of fluctuations. Due to the global update nature of the Chayes-Machta algorithm, this is the case for typically few Monte Carlo sweeps. Hence, for each value of \(q_i\), \(5 \times 10^9\) steps where sufficient, to obtain a high accuracy, as shown in the inset of Fig. \(1\).
Since the aim is to determine $q_c$, the new approach is further tested by applying it to the two-dimensional Potts model, where $q_c = 4$ is known. In Fig. 2, the Gibbs free energy per spin is shown for values in the range $3 \leq q \leq 5$. Due to the large system size, in total $k = 261$ different values for $q \in [1, 5]$ are necessary. For $q > 4$ a kink at the transition temperatures is visible, as expected. One could in principle take derivatives of the free energy to obtain e.g. average energy and specific heat, e.g. to calculate critical exponents in the case of second order transitions. A better way is to calculate these derivatives analytically from Eq. (1), which allows to express the mean energy resp. the specific heat by the average number of edges $[9, 21]$, which are available directly from the simulation. Since this is a standard approach, it is not further pursued here.

One can determine $q_c$ more precisely by considering the distribution of the number of edges $[13, 19, 28]$, see inset of Fig. 2. The distributions are obtained by performing several long simulations for $T \in [0.906, 0.907]$ resp. $T \in [0.9100, 0.9105]$, exhibiting a total of more than $2 \times 10^7$ MC sweeps for each value of $q$, and combining the results from different temperatures using the multi-histogram approach $[7]$, see also Ref. $[2]$. For $q = 4.05$ a two-peak structure is visible, while for $q = 4.00$ not. This confirms within the given numerical accuracy the known result $q_c = 4$.

For three dimensions, the situation is less clear, no exact analytic results are available. A value of $2 < q_c(3) < 3$ seems likely, see analytical work $[13, 16, 17]$ and simulations of moderate-size systems $[18, 19, 20]$. In the range where the transition is first order, the transition seems to be weak, i.e. making a direct numerical treatment difficult. This is confirmed by the results for the free energy calculated using the present approach for $N = 100^3$, see Fig. 3. The data is obtained by combining the results for $k = 212$ different values $q_i \in [1, 3]$. No clear kink in any of the functions is visible. Thus, to obtain a precise estimate for $q_c$, one has to study again the number of edges. The average, shown in the inset of Fig. 3 allows to see the transition point well, but to infer the order of the transition is still difficult because of finite-size rounding of the curves. The full distributions close to the phase transition are presented in Fig. 4. The distributions are obtained again by performing simulations for several temperatures close to $T_c(L, q)$, for each value of $q$ more than $2 \times 10^6$ MC sweeps, and combining the data using the multi-histogram approach $[7]$. For $q = 2.6, 2.5$ one can see a clear double-peak structure, while for $q = 2.4$ the distribution has only a faint double-peak structure. Clearly just one peak is present for $q = 2.3$. Since the depth of the minimum between the two peaks grows with system size $[28]$, it is still possible that $q_c$ is even below $q = 2.3$, but from the shape of the distribution at $q = 2.3$ this seems unlikely. This allows to conclude $q_c(d = 3) = 2.35(5)$ from the present results.

This result is smaller than the result $q_c = 2.620(5)$ obtained by Gliozzi. The deviation is probably due to the fact that in that work much smaller system sizes $N = 14^3$ where used, which shifts the value of $q_c$ up, as discussed above. The result $q_c = 2.45(10)$ obtained by Lee and Kosterlitz $[18]$ is compatible with our result, although is
even less reliable since small sizes were used and data obtained at \( q = 3 \) was extrapolated to values \( q \in [2.7, 3] \). Barkema and de Boer studied a model with integer \( q \), but mimicking the behavior of any \( q > 0 \), and got \( q_c = 2.21 \). The results of analytical studies are scattered around the result obtained here: Kogut and Sinclair found \( q_c = 2.55 \) in a \( 1/q \) expansion, Nienhuis et al. obtained \( q_c \sim 2.2 \) using a real-space renormalization approach, while Grollau et al. got \( q_c \sim 2.15 \) within a Ornstein-Zernicke Approximation.

To summarize, a new approach to calculate numerically the partition function of \( q \)-state Potts models for arbitrary values \( q > 0 \) is presented. Using a combination with a fast cluster algorithm large system sizes can be treated. The method is evaluated by performing a comparison with exact analytical results for two-dimensional Ising models of size \( N = 100^2 \), a very good agreement is found. For the \( d = 2 \) Potts model of the same size, the analytically obtained critical value \( q_c = 4 \) is confirmed. For the three-dimensional Potts model, due to the weakness of the first order transition, it is hard to infer \( q_c \) from the data (size \( N = 100^3 \) ) for the free energy. From the analysis of the distribution of the number of edges in the generated subgraphs, \( q_c = 2.35(5) \) is concluded.

The approach to obtain the free energy should be extendible beyond the standard \( q \)-state ferromagnetic Potts model, e.g. for random or diluted ferromagnets, other lattice types and/or higher dimensions. The method should work in principle also for frustrated systems, but here the efficient generation of the subgraphs remains an open problem.

FIG. 4: Distributions of the number of edges at temperature \( T \) close to the critical value \( T_c(L, q) \) for \( q = 2.3, 2.4, 2.5 \) and 2.6.

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