# One-Dimensional Ising Model and the Complete Devil's Staircase 

Per Bak<br>Institute for Theoretical Physics, University of California, Santa Barbara, California 93106, and H. C. Ørsted Institute, DK-2100 Copenhagen Ø, Denmark ${ }^{(\mathrm{a})}$<br>and<br>R. Bruinsma<br>Brookhaven National Laboratory, Upton, New York 11973<br>(Received 18 March 1982)

It is shown rigorously that the one-dimensional Ising model with long-range antiferromagnetic interactions exhibits a complete devil's staircase.
PACS numbers: $05.50 .+\mathrm{q}, 75.10 . \mathrm{Hk}$

Periodic modulated systems are quite common in solid-state physics. In general there is a tendency for the periodicity to lock into values which are commensurable with the lattice constant. ${ }^{1}$ As a parameter is changed, the system may pass through several commensurate phases which may or may not have incommensurate phases between them. In particular, Bak and von Boehm argued that the three-dimensional anisotropic Ising model with next-nearest-neighbor interactions has an infinity of commensurate phases. ${ }^{2}$ At high temperatures there are probably also incommensurate phases, ${ }^{3}$ but at low temperatures the commensurate phases are generally separated by firstorder transitions in this model. ${ }^{4}$

In principle the periodicity may assume every single commensurable value in an interval. Since the rational numbers are everywhere dense, two steps in the function showing the periodicity versus the parameter are then always separated by an infinity of more steps. This structure is called the devil's staircase. ${ }^{5}$ If the commensurate phases "fill up" the whole phase diagram the staircase is called complete. It has been speculated that the Frenkel-Kontorowa model (an array of classical particles, connected by springs, in a periodic potential) exhibits the complete devil's staircase, but until now only numerical arguments have been available. ${ }^{6}$ In this paper it is shown rigorously that the ground state of the one-dimensional Ising model with convex long-range antiferromagnetic interactions has a complete devil'sstaircase structure. To our knowledge, this constitutes the first proof of the existence of the complete devil's staircase in any model.

For simplicity we write the Hamiltonian in the following asymmetric form (which, of course, is completely general):

$$
\begin{equation*}
H=\sum_{i} H S_{i}+\frac{1}{2} \sum_{i j} J(i-j)\left(S_{i}+1\right)\left(S_{j}+1\right) \tag{1}
\end{equation*}
$$

where the summation is over the $N$ spins in the chain, and $S_{i}= \pm 1$. Only "up" spins ( $S=+1$ ) interact.
The model has some rather direct physical applications. Safran ${ }^{7}$ has applied the model to the phenomenon of "staging" in graphite intercalation compounds. $S_{i}=1$ indicates the existence of a layer of intercalated atoms at the $i$ th graphite layer and $S_{i}=-1$ indicates the absence of intercalated ions. $J(i-j)$ is thus essentially the interaction between intercalated layers, and $H$ is a chemical potential for the layers. Hubbard and Torrance ${ }^{8}$ suggested that the model may explain certain features of the "neutral-ionic" transitions observed in some mixed-stack organic charge transfer salts by Torrance et al. ${ }^{9} J(i-j)$ is then the Coulomb repulsion between ionic planes and $H$ is the difference $I-A$ between the donor ionization potential $I$ and the acceptor electron-affinity A. Both argue that an infinity of phases may occur, but the precise nature of the phases has not been specified.
For a given magnetization (number of "up" spins minus number of "down" spins) the problem of minimizing (1) is equivalent to the problem of arranging a number of charged particles on $N$ sites so as to minimize the Coulomb energy. This problem has been solved by Hubbard ${ }^{10}$ and by Pokrovsky and Uimin. ${ }^{11}$ Some simple properties of the stable configurations are important for our purpose. Let $X_{i}{ }^{0}$ denote the position of the $i$ th up spin, and let $X_{i}{ }^{1}$ be the distance to the next up spin. Similarly, $X_{i}{ }^{p}$ is the distance to the $p$ thnearest up spin, $X_{i}{ }^{p}=X_{i+p}{ }^{0}-X_{i}{ }^{0}$. If the fraction of up spin is $q=m / n$ it can be shown that the energy is minimized if for all sites, then

$$
\begin{equation*}
X_{i}^{p}=r_{p} \text { or } r_{p}+1 \tag{2}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $r_{p}<n p / m<r_{p}+1$. For $p / q=p n / m$ integer,


FIG. 1. Typical stable spin configurations with $q$ the ratio of up spins over down spins.
$X_{i}^{p}=r_{p}=n p / m$. The sum of all $p$ th-nearestneighbor distances must fulfill the obvious relation

$$
\begin{equation*}
\sum_{i} X_{i}{ }^{p}=p N \tag{3}
\end{equation*}
$$

Figure 1 shows some typical configurations. The relations (2) and (3) are all we need to calculate exactly the stability intervals for all possible rational fractions of up spins.

Consider the situation where the chain is deformed into a loop of length $N$. The phase characterized by $q=m / n$ is stable as long as it costs


FIG. 2. The devil's staircase. The ratio of up spins over down spins $q$ is plotted vs the applied field $H$ for an interaction $J(i)=i^{-2}$. Inset: The area in the square magnified 10 times.
energy to flip one up spin down, or flip one down spin up, and rearrange the new configuration to minimize the energy.
We calculate first the cost of flipping one down spin. There is now one more $p$ th-nearest-neighbor interaction. Since (2) and (3) must still hold, $r_{p} p$ th-nearest-neighbor distances $r_{p}+1$ must be replaced by $r_{p}+1 p$ th-nearest-neighbor distances $X_{i}{ }^{p}=r_{p}$, and the total change in energy is

$$
\begin{array}{rl}
\Delta U(\downarrow \rightarrow \uparrow)=2 H+4\left(r_{1}+1\right) J & J\left(r_{1}\right)-4 r_{1} J\left(r_{1}+1\right)+4\left(r_{2}+1\right) J\left(r_{2}\right)-4 r_{2} J\left(r_{2}+1\right)+\ldots \\
& +4 n J(n-1)-4(n-1) J(n)+\ldots+8 n J(2 n-1)-4(2 n-1) J(2 n)+\ldots, \tag{4a}
\end{array}
$$

where $r_{m}=n, r_{2 m}=2 n, \ldots$, have been inserted. Similarly the energy cost of flipping one up spin is

$$
\begin{align*}
U(\uparrow \rightarrow \downarrow)=-2 H-4\left(r_{1}+1\right) & J\left(r_{1}\right)+4 r_{1} J\left(r_{1}+1\right)-4\left(r_{2}+1\right) J\left(r_{2}\right)+4 r_{2} J\left(r_{2}+1\right)-\ldots \\
& -4(n+1) J(n)+4 n J(n+1)-\ldots-4(2 n+1) J(2 n)+8 n J(2 n+1)-\ldots \tag{4b}
\end{align*}
$$

The interval in $H, \Delta \boldsymbol{H}(m / n)$, where the phase is stable is determined simply by setting (4a) and (4b) equal to zero, respectively:

$$
\begin{align*}
\frac{1}{2} \Delta H(q=m / n)=n J(n+1)+n J(n-1)-2 n J(n)+2 n J(2 n & +1)+2 n J(2 n-1)-4 n J(2 n)+\ldots \\
& +p n J(p n+1)+p n J(p n-1)-2 p n J(p n)+\ldots . \tag{5}
\end{align*}
$$

Note that $\Delta H$ is independent of the numerator $m$. If we make the assumption that the interaction $J$ is of infinite range and convex, $J(i+1)+J(i-1)$ $-2 J(i)>0$, then $\Delta H(m / n)$ is positive and finite for all values of $m$ and $n$. Also, it is easy to show that if $\Delta H$ is summed over all rational values the whole interval of $H$ is "filled up." We have thus proven the existence of the complete devil's staircase for a very general class of interactions, including the power-law interactions expected for the intercalation compounds, and the exponentially decaying Coulomb interactions expected for the neutral-ionic transition.

Figure 2 shows $q$ vs $H$. An interaction $J(i)$ $=i^{-2}$ was chosen. Only phases which are stable in an interval $\Delta H / J(1)>10^{-3}$ are shown. The curve has no finite jumps. To illustrate the selfsimilarity of the function a part of it has been magnified by a factor 10 in the inset.

The states formed by flipping one spin starting from a simple commensurate phase with $q=1 / m$ have a simple structure. Figures 3(a) and 3(b) show the $q=\frac{1}{3}$ phase and the configuration which has one more up spin. Three defects are formed (infinitely far apart for an infinite system) al-


FIG. 3. (a) The commensurate structure with $q=\frac{1}{3}$, and (b) the configuration with one more "up" spin (the lowest excited states for values of $H$ where the $q=\frac{1}{3}$ phase is stable). Note the formation of defects or "solitons" with fractional spin $S^{*}=\frac{1}{3}$, indicated by an arrow below the array. (c) The lowest excited state of the $q=\frac{1}{2}$ phase, with $S^{*}=\frac{1}{2}$ solitons.
though only one spin has been flipped. Hence, the spin of each defect is $S^{*}=\frac{1}{3}$. The nature of this fractional spin is very similar to the fractional charges discussed by Su , Schrieffer, and Heeger. ${ }^{12}$ The situation for $q=\frac{1}{2}$ is topologically equivalent with the situation for the antiferromagnetic Heisenberg model as worked out by Fadeev. ${ }^{13}$ Topological solitons with spin $S^{*}=\frac{1}{2}$ are expected in this case [Fig. 3(c)].

Until now, we have addressed only the problem of finding the ground state. What happens at nonzero temperature? A d-dimensional model can be constructed by adding ferromagnetic interactions in the $d-1$ perpendicular directions.

Drawing on the general insight achieved in Refs. 1-4 we expect that in three dimensions all commensurate phases extend to finite temperature, probably all the way to the transition temperature $T_{c}$ where the system becomes paramagnetic. At nonzero temperature, in particular near $T_{c}$, there may be incommensurate phases, of finite measure, between the $C$ phases.
Generalizing the results derived by Villain and Bak, ${ }^{14}$ we expect that in two dimensions the high-
order commensurate phases vanish at some temperature $T_{n} \sim 16 T_{c} / n^{2}$. At a given nonzero temperature there are thus only a finite number of phases. The high-order $C$ phases give way to a floating incommensurate phase. The phase with $q=\frac{1}{2}$ plays a special role: We expect a transition directly to a paramagnetic phase all the way down to $T=0$.

We would like to thank E. Domany for useful discussions. This work was supported in part by U. S. Department of Energy Contract No. DE-AC02-76CH00016.
(a) Permanent address.
${ }^{1}$ For a review see P. Bak, to be published.
${ }^{2}$ P. Bak and J. von Boehm, Phys. Rev. B 21, 5297
(1980).
${ }^{3}$ P. Bak, Phys. Rev. Lett. 46, 791 (1981); A. Aharony and P. Bak, Phys. Rev. B 23, 4770 (1981).
${ }^{4}$ M. E. Fisher and W. Selke, Phys. Rev. Lett. 44, 1502 (1980).
${ }^{5}$ B. Mandelbrot, Fractals: Form, Chance, and Dimension (Freeman, San Fransisco, 1977).
${ }^{6}$ S. Aubry, in Solitons and Condensed Matter Physics, edited by A. R. Bishop and T. Schneider (Springer, London, 1979), p. 264.
${ }^{7}$ S. Safran, Phys. Rev. Lett. 44, 937 (1980).
${ }^{8}$ J. Hubbard and J. B. Torrance, Phys. Rev. Lett. 47, 1750 (1981).
${ }^{9}$ J. B. Torrance, J. E. Vazquez, J. J. Mayerle, and V. Y. Lee, Phys. Rev. Lett. 46, 253 (1981).
${ }^{10}$ J. Hubbard, Phys. Rev. B 17, 494 (1978).
${ }^{11}$ V. L. Pokrovsky and G. V. Uimin, J. Phys. C 11, 3535 (1978).
${ }^{12}$ W. P. Su, J. R. Schrieffer, and A. J. Heeger, Phys. Rev. Lett. 42, 1698 (1978).
${ }^{13}$ L. D. Fadeev, Zap. Nauchn. Sem. Leningrad Otd. Mat. Inst. Steklov. 109, 1981.
${ }^{14} \mathrm{~J}$. Villain and P. Bak, J. Phys. (Paris) 42, 657
(1981). See also S. Ostlund Phys. Rev. B $\overline{24}, 398$ (1981).

