

COMPUTATIONAL PHYSICS (P452) PRESENTATION

# Markovian Agent Based Monte Carlo Simulations for reaction-diffusion models, population dynamics, and epidemic spreading

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① Introduction

② Applications

③ Conclusion

**1** Introduction

Theory of Stochastic reactions

2 Applications

3 Conclusion

## Why perform Monte-Carlo Simulations

- They are important in capturing unexpected macroscopic features which may include competing dynamical states with more ease than solving traditional differential equations.
- They can address features driven purely by random noise. Critical microscopic fluctuations can induce strong macroscopic features that cannot be described by deterministic rate equations.
- It allows us to study *structure formation*, as we can visualise spontaneous formation of spatially inhomogeneous structures.
- For complicated systems described by higher order differential equations, Monte-Carlo methods can capture the gross system behaviour with relatively less computational costs.



# Master equation

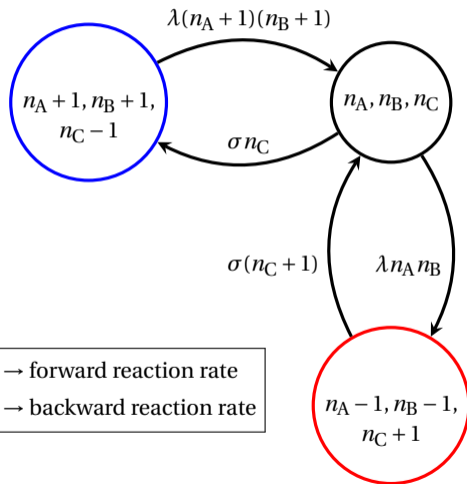
- The transition rates for a Markovian process is,

$$\frac{\partial P_n(t)}{\partial t} = \sum_{m \neq n} [P_m(t) w_{m \rightarrow n} - P_n(t) w_{n \rightarrow m}]$$

- Consider a reversible reaction:  $A + B \xrightleftharpoons[\sigma]{\lambda} C$
- We can construct the master equation as,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial P_{n_A, n_B, n_C}(t)}{\partial t} &= \lambda (n_A + 1) (n_B + 1) P_{n_A + 1, n_B + 1, n_C - 1}(t) \\ &\quad + \sigma (n_C + 1) P_{n_A - 1, n_B - 1, n_C + 1}(t) \\ &\quad - (\lambda n_A n_B + \sigma n_C) P_{n_A, n_B, n_C}(t) \\ &= \sum_m L_{mn} P_m(t) \end{aligned}$$

where  $L_{nm} = \delta_{nm} \sum_{m' \neq n} w_{n \rightarrow m'} - w_{m \rightarrow n} \longrightarrow$   
Reduces it to a linear algebra problem in infinitely many dimensions.



# Observables & Ensemble Averages

- Consider an arbitrary observable quantity  $f(n, t)$ . Then its time evolution will be given by the following. If  $f(n, t) = n_A(t)$ , mean particle number of species A, it will evolve as,

$$\frac{\partial \langle f(n, t) \rangle}{\partial t} = \sum_n f(n) \frac{\partial P_n(t)}{\partial t} \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\partial \langle n_A(t) \rangle}{\partial t} = \sum_{n_A, n_B, n_C=0}^{\infty} n_A \frac{\partial P_{n_A, n_B, n_C}(t)}{\partial t}}$$

- Simplifying, we get the Rate equation,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \langle n_A(t) \rangle}{\partial t} &= \sum_{n_A, n_B, n_C=0}^{\infty} n_A [\lambda (n_A + 1) (n_B + 1) P_{n_A+1, n_B+1, n_C-1}(t) + \sigma (n_C + 1) P_{n_A-1, n_B-1, n_C+1}(t)] \\ &\quad - \sum_{n_A, n_B, n_C=0}^{\infty} n_A [(\lambda n_A n_B + \sigma n_C)] P_{n_A, n_B, n_C}(t) \end{aligned}$$

In the first term, we can convert  $n_A \rightarrow n_A - 1, n_B \rightarrow n_B - 1, n_C \rightarrow n_C + 1$  and in the second term,  $n_A \rightarrow n_A + 1, n_B \rightarrow n_B + 1, n_C \rightarrow n_C - 1$

$$\frac{\partial \langle n_A(t) \rangle}{\partial t} = \sum_{n_A, n_B, n_C=0}^{\infty} \left[ \lambda (n_A - 1) n_A n_B + \sigma (n_A + 1) n_C - (\lambda n_A^2 n_B + \sigma n_A n_C) \right] P_{n_A, n_B, n_C}(t)$$

# Observables & Ensemble Averages

- Opening up the brackets and cancelling terms,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \langle n_A(t) \rangle}{\partial t} &= \sum_{n_A, n_B, n_C=0}^{\infty} \left[ \cancel{\lambda n_A^2 n_B} - \lambda n_A n_B + \cancel{\sigma n_A n_C} + \sigma n_C - \cancel{\lambda n_A^2 n_B} - \cancel{\sigma n_A n_C} \right] P_{n_A, n_B, n_C}(t) \\ &= \sum_{n_A, n_B, n_C} [-\lambda n_A n_B + \sigma n_C] P_{n_A, n_B, n_C}(t) = \boxed{-\lambda \langle n_A n_B \rangle + \sigma \langle n_C \rangle = R(t)} \end{aligned}$$

- Here, the time-derivative of the second moment term introduces higher-order correlations. Thus, we are still stuck with an infinite set of linear coupled DEs for moments/correlations.
- Mean Field Approximation: Neglect all two-point/higher correlations, which means

$$\langle n_A n_B(t) \rangle \approx \langle n_A(t) \rangle \langle n_B(t) \rangle$$

which is reasonable for spatially well-mixed systems or for reactions with abundant reactants where all spatial and time correlations are small relative to the mean densities.

# Markovian Agent Based Monte-Carlo Simulations

- In agent-based Monte Carlo simulations, we implement the microscopic stochastic reaction processes as a Markov chain – the updated configurations depend only on the immediately past states, and transitions between them are governed by predefined probabilities.
- The underlying conceptual framework consists of stochastic master equations, – directly determining quantities such as particle numbers, their Fourier transforms, correlation functions etc.
- The goal is not to fully reflect a natural system's behavior on all scales, but to properly capture its *emergent qualitative features at sufficiently long times and distances*, including temporal oscillations or spatial structures.

# Simulation Setup

We first need to establish the rules of the world.

- Agents: Indistinguishable passive (or active) particles belonging to a species that are subject to certain reactive processes.
- Simulation space: Particles are allowed to move or hop between sites on a lattice – lattice sites may be constrained by a finite carrying capacity.
- Reactive process: Particles may interact with themselves or with other particles of their own species or another species.

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Now, once the initial setup is completed, we run the simulation.

- At each step, one particle is randomly selected from the space and subjected to reactive processes based on predefined probabilities.
- Time evolution: A Monte Carlo step (MCS) is complete when each particle that was present at the start of the step was selected once on average.
- Observables: We use Master equations to track observables as the simulation evolves.



1 Introduction

2 Applications

Diffusion-limited Annihilation Reactions

Prey-Predator Models

Epidemic Spreading

3 Conclusion

# Diffusion-limited Annihilation reactions

- These are the simplest forms of reaction-diffusion models
- For example, consider single-species coagulation reaction:  $2A \xrightarrow{\lambda} A$
- Solving for the number density,  $n_A$ ,

$$\frac{\partial \langle n_A(t) \rangle}{\partial t} = -\lambda \langle [n_A(n_A - 1)](t) \rangle \approx -\lambda \langle n_A^2(t) \rangle$$
$$\langle n_A(t) \rangle = At^{-\alpha} + \epsilon(t) \implies \boxed{\log \langle n_A(t) \rangle \propto -\log t}$$

# Diffusion-limited Annihilation reactions

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## Algorithm 1 Monte-Carlo algorithm for single species annihilation in 1D.

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**Input:** Initialize  $\text{WORLD}[0 : N - 1] = (1, \dots, 1)$

**Output:** WORLD

```
1: DIFFUSION = 0.25
2: for  $j = 1$  to  $N$  do
3:    $j = \text{RANDOMINT}(0, N - 1)$  s.t.  $\text{WORLD}[j] == 1$  // pick a random non-empty location
4:   if  $\text{rand}() < \text{DIFFUSION}$  then
5:     if  $\text{rand}() < 0.5$  then
6:        $\text{WORLD}[j - 1], \text{WORLD}[j] = 1, 0$  // go left
7:     else
8:        $j = -1$  if  $j == N - 1$  else  $j$ 
9:        $\text{WORLD}[j + 1], \text{WORLD}[j] = 1, 0$  // go right
10:    end if
11:  end if
12: end for
13: return WORLD
```

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# Single Species Annihilation in 1D

Monte-Carlo simulation of the one-dimensional binary-annihilation reaction with periodic boundary conditions. Hopping probability 25% in either direction. Every site in the initial lattice is occupied by a particle. **Note that the theoretical  $\langle n \rangle$  value goes to 0 here while the simulation does not, due to the formation of isolated islands where the particles can remain stable for a long time – more likely to happen in a realistic scenario.**

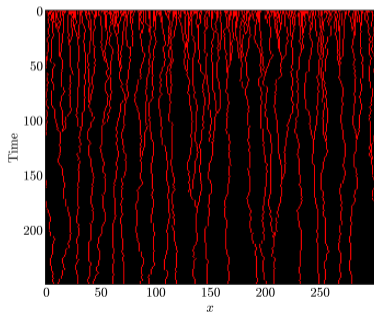


Figure 1: Snapshot of a single simulation run

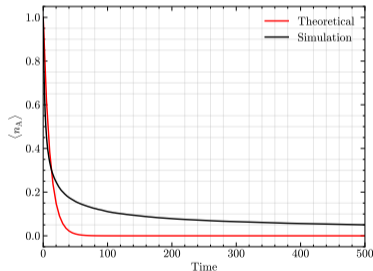


Figure 2: Plot of number density vs. time, averaged over 100 runs. Monte-Carlo error is  $\sim 10^{-3}$  is too small to be shown in the plot.

## Two-species Annihilation

- Consider  $A + B \rightarrow \emptyset$
- We need two particles of distinct species to meet for annihilation.
- This leads to slower density decay than the single species model.
- At large time steps, we are left with islands of each species where no reactions occur and all possible interactions are confined to the empty space between them.
- In differential equation form,

$$\frac{\partial \langle n_B(t) \rangle}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial \langle n_A(t) \rangle}{\partial t} = -\lambda \langle [n_A n_B](t) \rangle$$

$$\text{if } \langle n_A(0) \rangle = \langle n_B(0) \rangle \implies \langle n_A(t) \rangle, \langle n_B(t) \rangle \sim t^{-d/2}$$

$$\text{if } \langle n_A(0) \rangle > \langle n_B(0) \rangle \implies \langle n_B(t) \rangle \sim e^{-t}$$

- However, at higher dimensions, mean-field equations cannot correctly capture kinetics in inhomogenous systems. To fix this, we can reverse-engineer the rate equation from the known time-dependence of  $\langle n \rangle$ , obtaining an effective rate equation

$$\frac{d \langle n_A(t) \rangle}{dt} = -\langle \lambda(t) \rangle \langle n_A(t) \rangle .$$

## Two-species Annihilation

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### Algorithm 2 Monte-Carlo algorithm for two-species annihilation in 1D.

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**Input:**  $\text{WORLD}[0 : N - 1] = (a, b, a, b, \dots)$  // Initialise the world with species a & b randomly.

**Output:**  $\text{WORLD}$

```
1: DIFFUSION = 0.25
2: for  $j = 1$  to  $N$  do
3:    $j = \text{RANDOMINT}(0, N - 1)$  s.t.  $\text{WORLD}[j] \neq 0$  // pick a random non-empty location
4:   if  $\text{rand}() < \text{DIFFUSION}$  then
5:     if  $\text{rand}() < 0.5$  then
6:       If the element on the left ( $j - 1$ ) is of the opposite flavour, move and annihilate, else do nothing.
7:     else
8:       If the element on the right ( $j + 1$ ) is of the opposite flavour, move and annihilate, else do nothing.
9:     end if
10:  end if
11: end for
12: return  $\text{WORLD}$ 
```

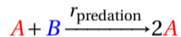
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# Lotka-Volterra Model

- We look at the dynamics of a **predator** and a **prey** species interacting on a two-dimensional lattice.
- We setup the world with two species, **predators** and **prey**.
- A **predator** can predate upon the **prey** and/or die. The **prey** can only reproduce.



For death and birth,  $A \xrightarrow{d_{\text{predator}}} \emptyset$  and,  $B \xrightarrow{b_{\text{prey}}} 2B$

- In differential equation form,

$$\frac{d(n_{\text{prey}})}{dt} = an_{\text{prey}} - bn_{\text{prey}}n_{\text{predator}}$$
$$\frac{d(n_{\text{predator}})}{dt} = cn_{\text{prey}}n_{\text{predator}} - dn_{\text{predator}}$$

# Lotka-Volterra Simulation

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**Algorithm 3** Pseudocode for the Monte-Carlo algorithm for 2D Lotka-Volterra Simulation, representing one MCS.

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**Input:** Let `WORLD` be a 2D array randomly populated with species **A** (predator) and **B** (prey) s.t. there are  $N$  total particles in the lattice.

**Output:** `WORLD`

- ① Select a particle  $P$  at random.  $P$  will be of species  $S_P$ .
- ② Let  $E_P$  be the lattice site of  $P$ .
- ③ **if**  $\text{rand}() < r_{\text{hopping}_S} \rightarrow$  Randomly hop onto one of the neighbouring sites.
- ④ **if**  $S_P = \text{B}$ 
  - ① **if**  $\text{rand}() < b_{\text{prey}} \rightarrow$  generate a new particle of species **B**.
- ⑤ **if**  $S_P = \text{A}$ 
  - ① Remove each particle of species **B** at  $E_P, b_i$  and generate a new particle of species **A** at  $E_P$  with probability  $r_{\text{predation}}$  each.
  - ② **if**  $\text{rand}() < d_{\text{prey}} \rightarrow$  remove particle  $P$  from  $E_P$ .

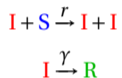






# SIR Modelling

- The susceptible-infectious-recovered (SIR) model is a simplified model for epidemic spreading with recovery/death.
- The population is divided into – **infected**, **susceptible** and **recovered** species, who are immune to re-infection. The dynamics of the world is represented by,



- The differential rate equations for the three species will be,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{d\langle n_S(t) \rangle}{dt} &= -r\langle n_I(t) \rangle \langle n_S(t) \rangle, \\ \frac{d\langle n_I(t) \rangle}{dt} &= r\langle n_I(t) \rangle \langle n_S(t) \rangle - \gamma\langle n_I(t) \rangle, \\ \frac{d\langle n_R(t) \rangle}{dt} &= \gamma\langle n_I(t) \rangle, \end{aligned}$$

- Detailed numerical analysis will be provided in the report.







## Caveats of Agent-based Monte Carlo Modelling

- Any quantity of interest should be computed for sufficiently many individual trajectories to ensure that the results are statistically significant and reach the desired accuracy.
- For correlation functions, we can utilise the spatial and temporal symmetries of the system to obtain local correlations by averaging over sufficiently disjoint regions.
- For systems where the lattice size is crucial (eg. ecological or biological systems), one has to trade computational time for more accurate portrayal of the problem in question.
- The models are also heavily dependent on the choice of implementation of the Monte-Carlo algorithm. (eg. multiple site occupancies for annihilation reactions can lead to exponential decay instead of coagulation as expected – as each particle always has another reactant available which removes the binary reaction condition that two particles need to meet).

However it is to note that **sometimes results obtained from Monte-Carlo methods do not always constitute unwanted artefacts, but instead may genuinely reflect model properties which can only be derived stochastically.**

# Summary

- We introduced the Master equation as the underlying framework for Markovian process driven Monte-Carlo Simulations and agent-based simulations of stochastic models that describe bio-chemical reactions, population dynamics, and epidemic spreading.
- The underlying assumption is that much of a complex system's features are irrelevant in capturing the essence of its gross dynamical properties. If necessary, additional complications can be reintroduced at the expense of increased computational costs.
- Monte-Carlo methods are useful in **visualising the dynamics of simulations** (eg: as we saw in the Lotka-Volterra snapshots) as well as tracking population sizes whereas differential equations only tell us about the evolution of quantities like population sizes – which is just a numerical value.
- Because of this, features like **structure formation**, which (we have seen in both Lotka-Volterra and reaction-diffusion here) can only be studied using Monte-Carlo simulations.
- Although it is conceptually easy to add more variables and additional dynamical features to a model system, it becomes quickly impractical to properly run parameter sweeps to adequately assess their characteristic regimes. This ultimately constrains the applicability of stochastic simulation models.

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Swailam, M., Dobramysl, U., Mukhamadiarov, R. I., & Täuber, U. C. (2025). Agent-based Monte Carlo simulations for reaction-diffusion models, population dynamics, and epidemic spreading. *American Journal of Physics*, 93(8), 659-681. <https://doi.org/10.1119/5.0282284>

*Thank You*

## Appendix: Stationarity

- In the stationary regime, the configurational probabilities become time-independent, which implies that the net global probability current across all connected configurations, vanishes.
- This detailed-balance condition relates the stationary configurational probabilities with the forward and backward transition rates.
- As  $t \rightarrow \infty$ , let's say we achieve stationarity. This means that

$$\frac{\partial P_n(\infty)}{\partial t} = \sum_{m \neq n} [P_m(\infty)w_{m \rightarrow n} - P_n(\infty)w_{n \rightarrow m}] = 0 \implies P_m(\infty)w_{m \rightarrow n} - P_n(\infty)w_{n \rightarrow m} = 0$$

$$\frac{P_n(\infty)}{P_m(\infty)} = \frac{w_{m \rightarrow n}}{w_{n \rightarrow m}}$$

This way, we can prove detailed balance.

- For an arbitrary configuration cycle  $n_1 \rightarrow n_2 \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow n_N = n_1$  of length  $N - 1$  and its reverse  $n_N = n_1 \rightarrow n_{N-1} \rightarrow \dots \rightarrow n_1$ , the product of stationary probabilities on the left-hand side cancels, and we obtain the equivalent Kolmogorov criterion, which states that detailed balance holds if and only if

$$w_{n_1 \rightarrow n_2} w_{n_2 \rightarrow n_3} \dots w_{n_{N-1} \rightarrow n_1} = w_{n_1 \rightarrow n_{N-1}} w_{n_{N-1} \rightarrow n_{N-2}} \dots w_{n_2 \rightarrow n_1}$$