

Breaking through the Mermin-Wagner limit in 2D van der Waals magnets

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1 **Breaking through the Mermin-Wagner limit in 2D van der** 2 **Waals magnets**

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18 **The Mermin-Wagner theorem ¹ states that long-range magnetic order does not exist in one-**
19 **or two-dimensional (2D) isotropic magnets with short-ranged interactions. The theorem has**
20 **been a milestone on magnetism and has been driving the research of recently discovered 2D**

21 **van der Waals (vdW) magnetic materials^{2,3} from fundamentals up to potential applications⁴.**
22 **In such systems, the existence of magnetic ordering is typically attributed to the presence of a**
23 **significant magnetic anisotropy, which is known to introduce a spin-wave gap and circumvent**
24 **the core assumption of the theorem^{1,5,6}. Here we show that in finite-size 2D vdW magnets**
25 **typically found in lab setups (*e.g.*, within millimetres), short-range interactions can be large**
26 **enough to allow the stabilisation of magnetic order at finite temperatures without any mag-**
27 **netic anisotropy for practical implementations. We demonstrate that magnetic ordering can**
28 **be created in flakes of 2D materials independent of the lattice symmetry due to the intrinsic**
29 **nature of the spin exchange interactions and finite-size effects in two-dimensions. Surpris-**
30 **ingly we find that the crossover temperature, where the intrinsic magnetisation changes from**
31 **superparamagnetic to a completely disordered paramagnetic regime, is weakly dependent on**
32 **the system length, requiring giant sizes (*e.g.*, of the order of the observable universe $\sim 10^{26}$**
33 **m) in order to observe the vanishing of the magnetic order at cryogenic temperatures as ex-**
34 **pected from the Mermin-Wagner theorem. Our findings indicate exchange interactions as**
35 **the main driving force behind the stabilisation of short-range order in 2D magnetism and**
36 **broaden the horizons of possibilities for exploration of compounds with low anisotropy at an**
37 **atomically thin level.**

38 **Introduction**

39 The demand for computational power is increasing exponentially, following the amount of data
40 generated across different devices, applications and cloud platforms^{7,8}. To keep up with this trend,

41 smaller and increasingly energy-efficient devices must be developed which require the study of
42 compounds not yet explored in data-storage technologies. The discovery of magnetically stable 2D
43 vdW materials could allow for the development of spintronic devices with unprecedented power
44 efficiency and computing capabilities that would in principle address some of these challenges⁴.
45 Indeed, the magnetic stability of vdW layers has been one of the central limitations for finding
46 suitable candidates, given that strong thermal fluctuations are able to rule out any magnetism.
47 As it was initially pointed out by Hohenberg⁶ for a superfluid or a superconductor, and extended
48 by Mermin and Wagner¹ for spins on a lattice, long-range order should be suppressed at finite
49 temperatures in the 2D regime, when only short-range isotropic interactions exist. Importantly,
50 the theorem only excludes long-range magnetic order at finite temperature in the thermodynamic
51 limit¹, *i.e.*, for infinite system sizes. However, the common understanding is that the theorem also
52 excludes the alignment of spins in samples studied experimentally which are a few micrometers in
53 size^{9,10}, suggesting that such systems are indistinguishable from infinite.

54 The long-range order characterising infinite systems only becomes distinguishable from
55 short-range order describing the local alignment of the spins if the system size exceeds the cor-
56 relation length at a given temperature¹¹. Previous numerical studies and the scaling analysis of
57 2D Heisenberg magnets¹²⁻¹⁵ have established that although only short-range order is observable at
58 finite temperature, the spin correlation length can be larger than the system size below some finite
59 crossover temperatures. An intriguing question on this long-range limit is how can we understand
60 real-life materials, which routinely have a finite size L (Fig. 1a), in light of the Mermin-Wagner
61 theorem. It is known that thermal fluctuations will affect the emergence of a spontaneous mag-

62 netisation at low dimensionality. Nevertheless, it is unclear which kind of spin ordering can be
63 foreseen in thin vdW layered compounds when finite-size effects and exchange interactions play
64 together. With recent advances in computational power and parallelisation scalability, it is possible
65 to directly model magnetic ordering processes and dynamics of 2D materials on the micrometre
66 length-scale accessible experimentally. Here, we demonstrate that short-range order can exist in
67 systems with no anisotropy even down to the 2D limit using computer-intensive atomistic simula-
68 tions and analytical models.

69 **Results**

We start by defining the magnetization in our systems as:

$$\mathbf{m} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i \mathbf{S}_i, \quad (1)$$

70 where \mathbf{S}_i denotes the classical spin unit vector at lattice site i and N is the number of sites. In the
71 absence of external magnetic fields, the expectation value of the magnetization $\langle \mathbf{m} \rangle$ vanishes in
72 any finite-size system due to time-reversal invariance. Yet, 3D systems of only a few nanometres
73 in size that are far from infinite have been studied for decades and exhibit a clear crossover from a
74 magnetically ordered to a paramagnetic phase^{16,17}. The Mermin-Wagner theorem establishes that
75 $\langle \mathbf{m} \rangle$ must also be zero in infinite 2D systems with short-ranged isotropic interactions. However,
76 for practical implementations it is relevant to unveil whether the average magnetisation vanishes
77 because the spins are completely disordered at any point in time, or if they are still aligned on
78 short distances but the overall direction of the magnetisation \mathbf{m} strongly suffers time-dependent

79 variation. Short-range order may be characterised by the intrinsic magnetisation¹⁸:

$$\langle |\mathbf{m}| \rangle = \left\langle \sqrt{\left(\frac{1}{N} \sum_i \mathbf{S}_i \right)^2} \right\rangle, \quad (2)$$

80 which is always positive by definition. The intrinsic magnetisation is close to 1 ($\langle |\mathbf{m}| \rangle = 1$) in the
 81 short-range-ordered regime and converges to zero when the spins become completely disordered^{9,19,20}.

For simplicity we first consider a 2D honeycomb lattice (Fig. 1a) to model the magnetic ordering process for a large flake of $1000 \times 1000 \text{ nm}^2$. Such a symmetry is very common in several vdW materials holding magnetic properties and interfaces⁴, such as $\text{Cr}_2\text{Ge}_2\text{Te}_6$ (CGT) or CrI_3 in which 2D magnetic ordering was first discovered^{2,3}. The system consists of 8 million atoms with nearest-neighbor Heisenberg exchange interactions ($J_{ij}/k_B = 70.8 \text{ K}$) and no magnetic anisotropy (K) using highly accurate Monte Carlo simulations (see Supplementary Sections 1-2 for details). The magnitude of J_{ij}/k_B is within the same range as those observed for CGT (with a critical temperature of 66 K)² where a negligible magnetic anisotropy ($< 1 \mu\text{eV}$) was observed for thin layers but a stable magnetic signal was still measured at finite temperatures ($\sim 4.7 \text{ K}$)². Indeed, as we show below, thermal fluctuations do not destroy the short-range magnetic order but rather induce the formation of strongly correlated spins at large spatial scale. We use an isotropic Heisenberg spin Hamiltonian $\mathcal{H} = -\sum_{i<j} J_{ij} \mathbf{S}_i \cdot \mathbf{S}_j$ as stated in the Mermin-Wagner theorem¹. We begin by assessing the existence of any magnetic order at non-zero temperatures by equilibrating the system for 39×10^6 Monte Carlo steps using a uniform sampling²¹ to avoid any potential bias before a final averaging at thermal equilibrium for a further 10^6 Monte Carlo

steps. Strikingly, a crossover between the low-temperature short-range-ordered regime and the completely disordered state ($\langle |\mathbf{m}| \rangle \approx 0$) is observed at nonzero temperatures (Fig. 1b) and zero magnetic anisotropy ($K = 0$). To estimate the crossover temperature (T_x), the simulation data was fitted by the Curie-Bloch equation in the classical limit⁹:

$$\langle |\mathbf{m}| \rangle(T) = \left(1 - \frac{T}{T_x}\right)^\beta, \quad (3)$$

82 where T is the temperature and β is the crossover magnetization exponent. From the fitting one
83 obtains $T_x = 23.342 \pm 0.237$ K ($\beta = 0.54 \pm 0.020$), which is about one third of the mean-field (MF)
84 critical temperature $T_c^{\text{MF}} = zJ_{ij}/(3k_B) = 70.8$ K (where $z = 3$ is the number of nearest neighbours)
85 even for this considerable system size. The simulations were then repeated including magnetic
86 anisotropy ($K = 1 \times 10^{-24}$ J/atom) which resulted in a slight increase in the crossover temperature
87 ($T_x = 26.543 \pm 0.320$ K, $\beta = 0.427 \pm 0.021$) (Fig. 1b). We observed that this difference in T_x be-
88 tween isotropic and anisotropic cases becomes negligible as the flake size is reduced (100×100
89 nm^2) with minor variations of the curvature of the magnetisation versus temperature (Supplemen-
90 tary Section 3 and Supplementary Figure 1). We also checked that different Monte Carlo sampling
91 algorithms (*i.e.*, adaptive) and starting spin configurations (*i.e.*, ordered, disordered) do not modify
92 the overall conclusions (Supplementary Section 4 and Supplementary Figure 2). Taking dipolar in-
93 teractions into account only has a minor effect on the intrinsic magnetization curve (Supplementary
94 Figure 3). Although the magnetocrystalline anisotropy K or the dipolar interactions circumvent the
95 Mermin-Wagner theorem and lead to a finite critical temperature, this indicates that systems up to
96 lateral sizes of $1 \mu\text{m}$ are not suitable for observing the critical behaviour. Instead the crossover in
97 the short-range order defined by the isotropic interactions dominates in this regime, regardless of

98 whether the anisotropy is present or absent. Previous studies on finite magnetic clusters on metallic
99 surfaces^{22,23} suggested that anisotropy is not the key factor in the stabilisation of magnetic prop-
100 erties at low dimensionality and finite temperatures, but rather it determines the orientation of the
101 magnetisation.

102 Even though short-range interactions can stabilise short-range magnetic order in 2D vdW
103 magnetic materials, this does not necessarily imply that the direction or the magnitude of the
104 magnetisation is stable over time. As thermally activated magnetisation dynamics may poten-
105 tially change spin directions²⁴, it is important to clarify whether angular variations of the spins
106 are present. Hence we compute the time evolution of the magnetisation along different directions
107 (x, y, z) and its angular dependence (Fig. 1c,d) through the numerical solution of the Landau-
108 Lifshitz-Gilbert equation (see Methods for details). Over the whole simulation (40 ns), all compo-
109 nents of the magnetisation assume approximately constant values which deviates by $\pm 5^\circ$ from the
110 mean direction θ_{av} . Similar analyses undertaken for different flake sizes ($L \times L$, $L = 50, 100, 500$
111 nm) show that the spin direction is very stable at each temperature considered (2.5 K, 10 K, 20 K,
112 30 K, 40 K) and follows a Boltzmann distribution (Supplementary Section 5 and Supplementary
113 Figure 4). These results show that the magnetisation in a 2D isotropic magnet is not only stable in
114 magnitude but its direction only negligibly varies over time.

115 An outstanding question raised by the modelling of the 2D finite flakes is whether other kind
116 of common lattice symmetries (*i.e.*, hexagonal, square), lower dimensions (*i.e.*, 1D) and different
117 sizes may follow similar behaviour to that found in the honeycomb lattice. Figure 2 shows that

118 the effect is universal regardless of the details of the lattice or the dimension considered. We find
119 persistent magnetic order for $T > 0$ K at zero magnetic anisotropy for the cases considered. There
120 is a consistent reduction in the crossover temperature as a function of the system size $L \rightarrow \infty$ in
121 agreement with the general trend of the temperature dependence of the correlation length discussed
122 above (Fig. 2**a-c**). The 1D model (atomic chain) displays a similar trend (Fig. 2**d**) although the
123 variation of $\langle |\mathbf{m}| \rangle$ with T is different due to the lower dimensionality.

124 To give an analytical description of these effects, we use the anisotropic spherical model
125 (ASM) for the calculation of the finite-size effects on the intrinsic magnetization^{18,25,26} (see Sup-
126plementary Section 7 for details). The ASM takes into account Goldstone modes in the system and
127 self-consistently generates a gap in the correlation functions which avoids infrared divergences re-
128 sponsible for the absence of long-range order for isotropic systems in dimensions $d \leq 2$ as $L \rightarrow \infty$
129 as per the Mermin-Wagner theorem. We applied the formalism to 1D and 2D systems for the
130 isotropic Heisenberg Hamiltonian in the absence of an external magnetic field¹⁸. The results of our
131 analytical calculations are shown as shaded regions in Fig. 2 (see Supplementary Section 7 for the
132 definition of the regions). At low temperatures both limits agree well with our Monte Carlo calcu-
133 lations within the statistical noise and clearly show the existence of a finite intrinsic magnetisation
134 at non-zero temperature for finite size. At higher temperatures there is a systematic difference be-
135 tween the degree of magnetic ordering between the simulations and the analytical calculations due
136 to the ASM only becoming exact in the limit of infinitely many spin components. The large num-
137 ber of Monte Carlo steps and strict convergence criteria to the same thermodynamic equilibrium
138 for ordered and disordered starting states (see Supplementary Section 4) rule out critical slowing

139 down²⁷ as a source of difference between the analytical calculations and the simulations.

140 One may also argue in terms of the correlation length ξ which is comparable to the sys-
141 tem size at the crossover temperature. It has been demonstrated¹³ that $\xi \propto \exp(cJ/T)$, where c
142 is a constant, meaning that the inverse crossover temperature T_x^{-1} only logarithmically increases
143 with the system size. Although our simulations are at the limit of the capabilities of current su-
144 percomputer features, this effect is expected to persist for larger sizes of 2–10 μm . These values
145 represent typical sizes of continuous 2D microflakes in experiments, and much larger than the ideal
146 nanoscale devices likely to be used in future 2D spintronic applications. Fitting a scaling function
147 to the crossover temperatures for different lattice symmetries (Fig. 2), we can plot the scaling of
148 the crossover temperature with size (Fig. 3a) which can then be extrapolated to larger scales.
149 The crossover temperature is still approximately 30 K for 2 – 10 μm flakes (Fig.3b). The graph
150 can be extrapolated to show that only at the $10^{15} - 10^{25}$ m range does the crossover temperature
151 become lower than ~ 1 K. To put these numbers in perspective to physical systems, these length
152 scales lie between the distance of the Earth to the Sun and the diameter of the observable universe.
153 Therefore, the often asserted notion⁴ that experimental 2D magnetic samples can be classified as
154 infinite and therefore display no net magnetic order at nonzero temperatures, as expected from the
155 Mermin-Wagner theorem, is not applicable.

156 The significance of the crossover temperature T_x in relation to the Curie temperature T_C is
157 particularly important when discussing the nature of the magnetic ordering in 2D magnets at zero
158 anisotropy for $T > 0$ K. We investigate this behaviour through colour maps of the spin ordering

159 after 40 million Monte Carlo steps comparing different system sizes and temperatures (Fig. 4).
160 At very low temperatures $T = 2.5$ K, where there is a high degree of order, the spin directions
161 are highly correlated, as indicated by a mostly uniform colouring. Although the temperatures are
162 near zero, the system is superparamagnetic indicating that over time the magnetization direction
163 fluctuates, and the effect is most apparent for the smallest sizes where the average direction has
164 moved significantly from the initial direction $\mathbf{S}||z$. At higher temperatures the deviation of the spin
165 directions within the sample increases as indicated by the more varied colouring. To quantitatively
166 assess the spin deviations we plot the statistical distribution of angle between the spin direction
167 and the mean direction for different temperatures for each size (Supplementary Figure 4). For an
168 isotropic distribution on the unit sphere there is a $\sin(\theta)$ weighting which is seen at the highest
169 temperature for all system sizes. For lower temperatures where the spin directions are more cor-
170 related, the distribution is biased towards lower angles. Qualitatively there is little difference in
171 the spin distributions for the different samples. At $T = 20$ K there is however a systematic trend
172 in the peak angle increasing from $\theta = 40^\circ$ for the 50×50 nm² flake (Supplementary Figure 4a)
173 to around $\theta = 60^\circ$ at 1000×1000 nm² (Supplementary Figure 4d) indicating an increased level
174 of disorder averaged over the whole sample. This effect is straightforwardly explained by the size
175 dependence of spin-spin correlations. At small sizes the spins are strongly exchange coupled, pre-
176 venting large local deviations of the spin directions. At longer length scales available for the larger
177 systems, the variations in the magnetisation direction are also larger. Surprisingly, our calculations
178 reveal that this effect is weak: even for very large flakes of a micrometre in size, only a small
179 increase can be observed in the position of the peak in the angle distribution at a fixed temperature.

180 Above the crossover temperature the spin-spin correlation length becomes very small compared to
181 the system size with rapid local changes in the magnetisation direction, indicative of a completely
182 disordered paramagnetic state. Our analysis reveals that the spins in finite-sized 2D isotropic mag-
183 nets are strongly aligned due to short-range order at non-zero temperatures and up to the crossover
184 temperature.

185 **Discussion**

186 Mathematically a phase transition is defined as a non-analytic change in the state variable for the
187 system, such as the particle density or the magnetization in the case of spin systems. For any finite
188 system the state variable is continuous by definition due to a finite number of particles, forming
189 a continuous path of intermediate states between two distinct physical phases²⁸. The same is true
190 for a magnetic system, forming a continuous path between an ordered and a paramagnetic state. A
191 priori then, it is impossible to have a true phase transition for any finite magnetic samples which are
192 routinely implemented in device platforms. Yet, nanoscale magnets that are far from infinite have
193 been studied for decades and exhibit a clear crossover from magnetically ordered to paramagnetic
194 phases, occurring for systems only a few nanometres in size^{16,17}. The crossover temperature in a
195 finite-size system hence can be described as an inflection point in $M(T)$. The precise definition of
196 a phase transition is significant when considering the main conclusions of Mermin and Wagner¹,
197 which explicitly only apply in the case of an infinite system. As our results clearly show, sam-
198 ple sizes measured experimentally are not classifiable as infinite and therefore not subject to the
199 Mermin-Wagner theorem. It is noteworthy that 3D compounds have weak dependence of their

200 critical temperature on the magnetic anisotropy²⁹. Similar analysis performed for a finite 3D hon-
201 eycomb bulk system (Supplementary Figure 6a-b) show that the inclusion of anisotropy barely
202 change the results for T_c . This suggests that magnetism is an exchange-driven effect in both two
203 and three dimensions.

204 On the practical side, heterostructures with conventional metallic magnetic materials could
205 establish preferential directions of the magnetization through anisotropic exchange and dipolar
206 couplings. However, it is important to point out that the short-range order is enforced by the
207 isotropic exchange couplings and even a low anisotropy may suffice for stabilizing the direction of
208 the magnetization at the vdW layers, *i.e.*, from underlying magnetic substrates. We can imagine
209 micrometre-sized samples where all spins are still correlated at finite temperatures so it could
210 represent a single bit. However, for miniaturization purposes multiple nanometre-sized bits are
211 required on the same sample in order to be implemented in recording media. This is typically
212 achieved by magnetic domains, but there are no domains in an isotropic model since the domain
213 wall width is infinite. However, if vdW layers can be grown with grain boundaries, like in 2D
214 mosaics³⁰, which are large enough that each grain area would have a uniform magnetisation,
215 then a magnetic monolayer would have as many bits as available on the material surface. The
216 underlying substrate hence would set the magnetisation direction for further implementations. This
217 spin-interface engineering would be a considerable step towards on-demand magnetic properties
218 at the atomic level given the flexibility on the orientation of the magnetic moments without a
219 predefined direction at the layer. While the anisotropy circumvents the Mermin-Wagner theorem
220 and causes the critical temperature T_c to be nonzero in infinitely large systems, in finite samples

221 the short-range order persists up to much higher temperatures ($T_x > T_c$) since T_x is proportional to
222 the isotropic exchange rather than the anisotropy^{31,32}.

223 In conclusion, we presented large-scale spin dynamic simulations and analytical calculations
224 of the temperature dependence of the intrinsic magnetization in 2D magnetic materials described
225 by an isotropic Heisenberg model. We found that short-range magnetic order at non-zero temper-
226 ature is a robust feature of isotropic 2D magnets even at experimentally accessible length and time
227 scales. Our data show that the often asserted Mermin-Wagner limit¹ does not apply to 2D materi-
228 als on real laboratory sample sizes. Since the spins are aligned due to the exchange interactions
229 already in the isotropic model, the direction of the magnetization may be stabilized by geometrical
230 factors or finite-size effects. These findings open up possibilities for a wider range of 2D magnetic
231 materials in device applications than previously envisioned. Furthermore, the limited applicabil-
232 ity of the analytical Mermin-Wagner theorem opens similar possibilities in other fields such as
233 superconductivity and liquid crystal systems³³, where the relevant length scale of correlations is
234 known to be much greater than that required for experimental measurements and applications. Our
235 results suggest that if the magnetic anisotropy can be controlled to a certain degree³⁴ until it com-
236 pletely vanishes, new effects of strongly correlated spins or more unusual disordered states may be
237 observed.

238 **Methods**

We used atomistic simulations methods^{9,35} to compute the magnetic properties of 2D magnetic materials. The energy of our system is calculated using the spin Hamiltonian:

$$\mathcal{H} = - \sum_{i < j} J_{ij} \mathbf{S}_i \cdot \mathbf{S}_j - K \sum_i (S_i^z)^2, \quad (4)$$

239 where $\mathbf{S}_{i,j}$ are unit vectors describing the local spin directions on magnetic sites i, j , and J_{ij} is the
240 exchange constant between spins. An easy-axis magnetocrystalline anisotropy constant K can be
241 included as well, with negligible modifications of the results as described in the text. Simulations
242 were run for system sizes of 50 nm, 100 nm, 500 nm and 1000 nm laterally along the x and y
243 directions and 1 atomic layer thick along the z direction. For the honeycomb lattice, the simula-
244 tions were initialized in either a perfectly ordered state aligned along the z direction or a random
245 state corresponding to infinite temperature. For these simulations the final $\langle |\mathbf{m}| \rangle(T)$ curves were
246 identical to each other. However, at low temperatures it took ten times as many steps to reach
247 the final equilibrium state from the random state, so for the remaining structures only simulations
248 starting from the ordered states were run. The systems were integrated using a Monte Carlo inte-
249 grator using a uniform sampling algorithm³⁶ to remove any bias introduced from more advanced
250 algorithms²¹. To investigate the temperature dependence, the simulation temperature was varied
251 from 0 to 90 K in 2.5 K steps. 40×10^6 Monte Carlo steps were run for each temperature step.
252 This was split into 39×10^6 equilibration steps and then 10^6 time steps from which the statistics
253 were calculated. The Monte Carlo simulations use a pseudo-random number sequence generated
254 by the Mersenne Twister algorithm³⁷ due to its high quality, avoiding correlations in the generated

255 random numbers and with an exceptionally long period of $2^{19937} - 1 \sim 10^{6000}$. The parallel im-
 256 plementation generates different random seeds on each processor to ensure no correlation between
 257 the generated random numbers.

The time-dependent simulations in Fig. 1c,d were performed by solving the stochastic Landau-Lifshitz-Gilbert equation:

$$\frac{\partial \mathbf{S}_i}{\partial t} = -\frac{\gamma_e}{1 + \lambda^2} [\mathbf{S}_i \times \mathbf{B}_{\text{eff}} + \lambda \mathbf{S}_i (\mathbf{S}_i \times \mathbf{B}_{\text{eff}})], \quad (5)$$

which models the interaction of an atomic spin moment \mathbf{S}_i with an effective magnetic field $\mathbf{B}_{\text{eff}} = -\partial \mathcal{H} / \partial \mathbf{S}_i$. The effective field causes the atomic moments to precess around the field, where the frequency of precession is determined by the gyromagnetic ratio of an electron ($\gamma_e = 1.76 \times 10^{11}$ rad s⁻¹T⁻¹) and $\lambda = 1$ is the damping constant. The effect of temperature is taken into account using Langevin dynamics³⁸, where the thermal fluctuations are represented by a Gaussian white noise term. At each time step the instantaneous thermal field acting on each spin is given by

$$\mathbf{B}_{\text{th}}^i = \sqrt{\frac{2\lambda k_B T}{\gamma \mu_s \Delta t}} \mathbf{\Gamma}(t) \quad (6)$$

258 where k_B is the Boltzmann constant, T is the system temperature and $\mathbf{\Gamma}(t)$ is a vector of standard
 259 (mean 0, variance 1) normal variables which are independent in components and in time. The
 260 thermal field is added to the effective field in order to simulate a heat bath. The system was
 261 integrated using a Heun numerical scheme³⁶.

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270 **Supplementary Materials**

271 Supplementary Sections 1-7, Supplementary Figures 1-5, and Supplementary References.

272 **Data Availability**

273 The data that support the findings of this study are available within the paper and its Supplementary
274 Information.

275 **Competing interests**

276 The Authors declare no conflict of interests.

277 **Author Contributions**

278 EJGS conceived the idea and supervised the project. SJ performed the atomistic simulations with
279 inputs from EJGS and RFLE. LR and UA developed the semi-analytical model and undertook the
280 numerical simulations. EJGS wrote the paper with a draft initially prepared by SJ and RFLE and
281 also with inputs from KSN, UA and LR. All authors contributed to this work, read the manuscript,
282 discussed the results, and agreed on the included contents.

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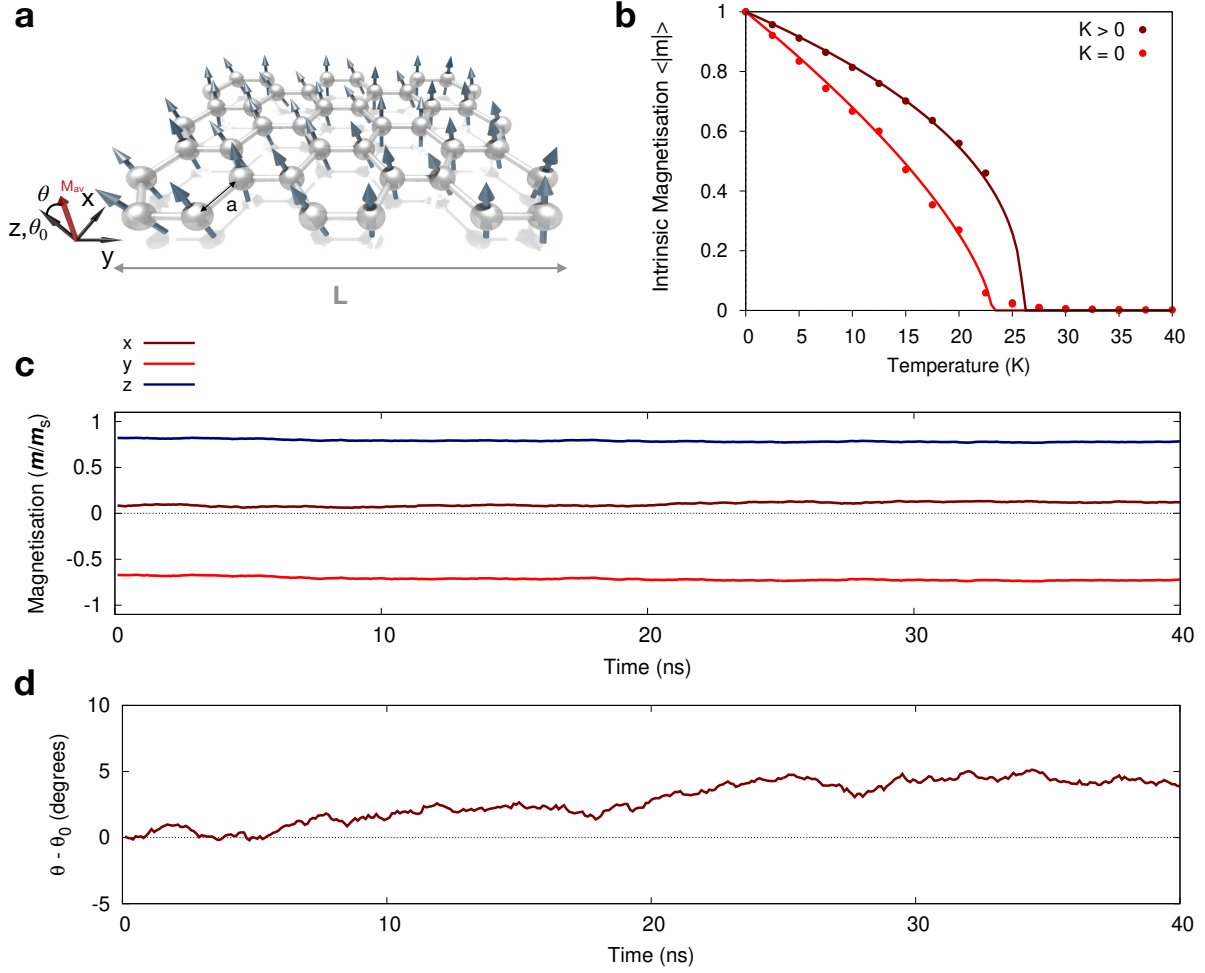


Figure 1: **Short-range magnetic ordering at finite temperatures in a 2D isotropic magnet.** **a**, Local view of the spin directions extracted from the atomistic simulations on a 2D honeycomb lattice. a is the atomic spacing ($a = 0.4$ nm), L is the length considered in the computations, and \mathbf{M}_{av} is the averaged magnetisation vector. θ corresponds to the angle between \mathbf{M}_{av} and the z -axis. $\theta_0 = 0$ denotes the initial configuration aligned with the z -axis. **b**, Temperature-dependent intrinsic magnetisation ($\langle |\mathbf{m}| \rangle$) with ($K = 1 \times 10^{-24}$ J/atom) and without ($K = 0$) anisotropy in a 1000×1000 nm² flake. Solid lines are the fit to Eq. (3). For $K = 0$, the fitting parameters are $\beta = 0.54 \pm 0.020$ and $T_x = 23.342 \pm 0.237$ K. For $K > 0$, $\beta = 0.427 \pm 0.021$ and $T_x = 26.543 \pm 0.320$ K. **c-d**, Temporal variation of the magnetisation (m/m_s) and angle $\theta - \theta_0$, respectively, at $T = 10$ K. All three spatial components (x, y, z) are considered in **c**. The dashed line in **d** shows the initial state in the simulations.

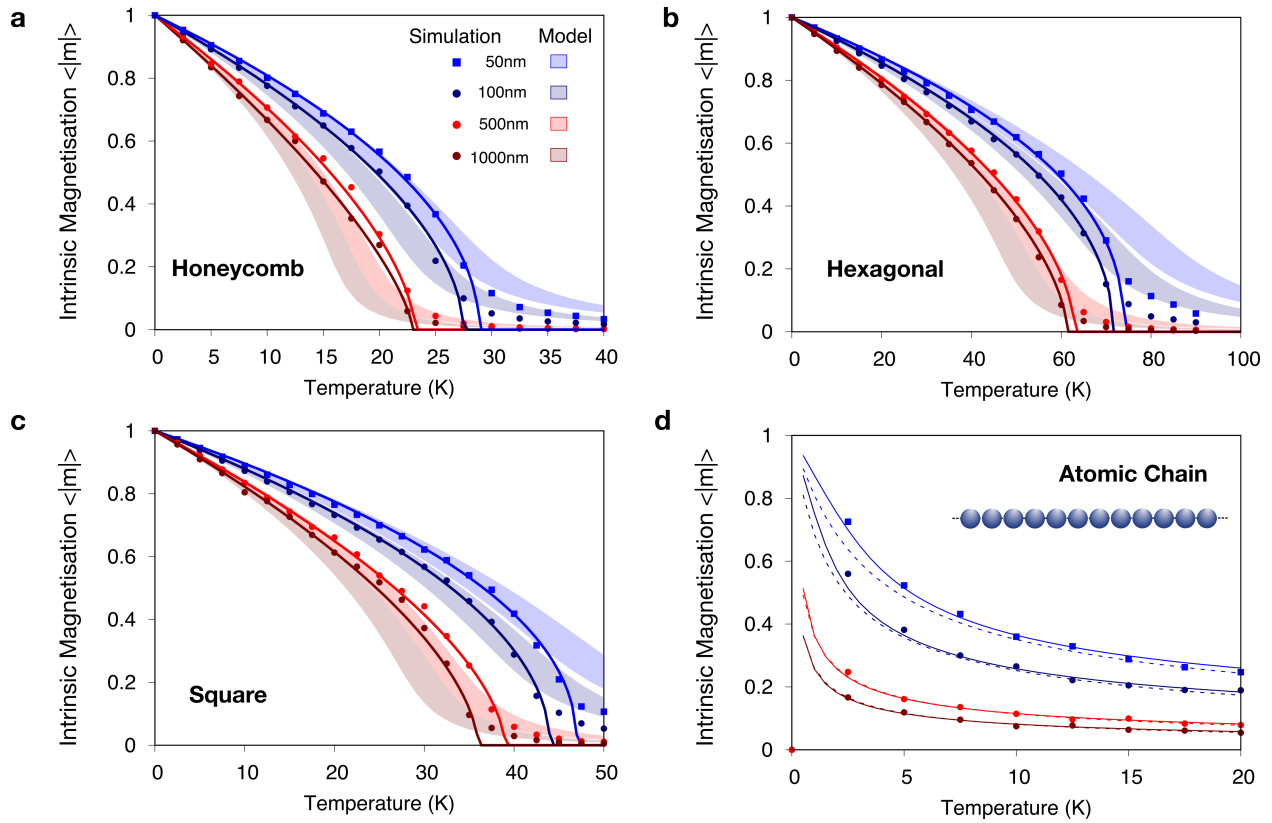


Figure 2: **Temperature- and size-dependent properties of isotropic 1D and 2D materials with different crystal structures.** **a-d** Comparative simulations of the temperature-dependent magnetisation for honeycomb, hexagonal, square lattices and an atomic chain (1D), respectively, for different system sizes. Points indicate the results of Monte Carlo simulations, the lines show fits to the Curie-Bloch Eq. (3) in the classical limit, and the shaded regions indicate the anisotropic spherical model calculations for different assumptions of the renormalisation factor for the Curie temperature arising from the mean-field approximation. See Supplementary Section 7 for details. The dashed and solid lines in **d** indicate the anisotropic spherical model calculations, and the exact solution, respectively. Both show a sound agreement with the atomistic simulations. The datasets in **a-c** clearly show the existence of short-range collinear magnetic order for all 2D lattices at the simulated sizes considered with nonzero crossover temperature. Zero magnetic anisotropy is included in all calculations.

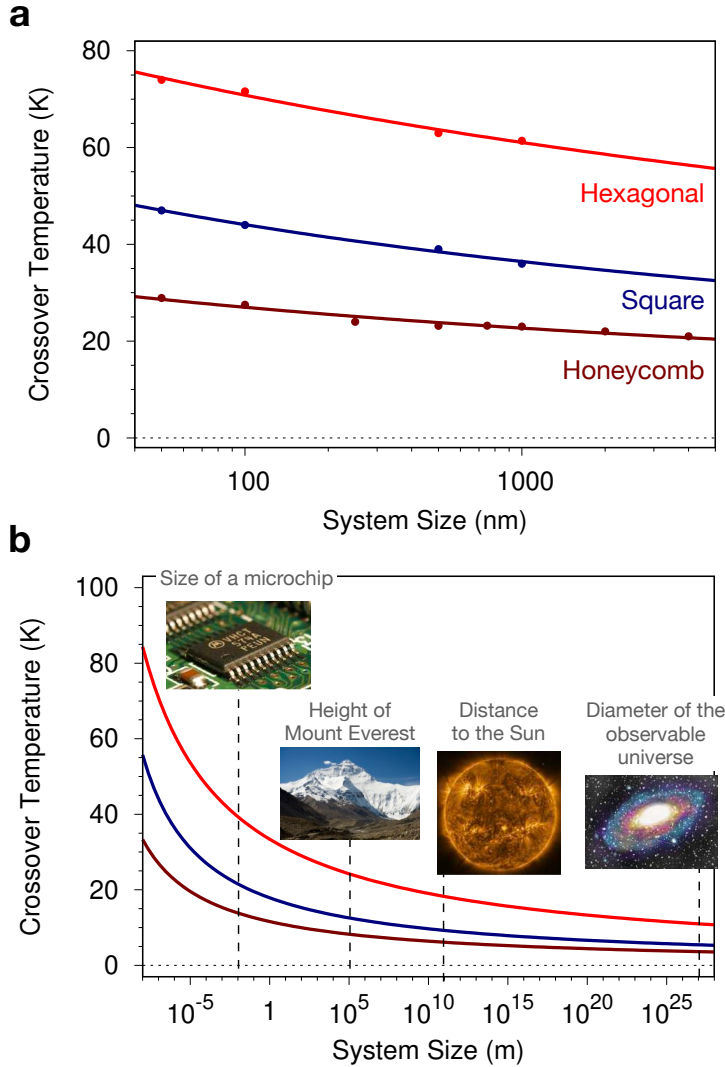


Figure 3: **Size scaling of the simulated crossover temperature for the different 2D lattices** **a**, Variation of the crossover temperature T_x with system size for different symmetries (Hexagonal, Square, Honeycomb) on a log-scale. The curves are a fit using $T_x = A/\log(L/B)$, where A and B are fitting constants and L is the system size. A and B are 327.28 K and 0.000542 nm, 484.96 K and 0.00166 nm and 1018.50 K and 5.7×10^{-5} nm for honeycomb, square and hexagonal lattices, respectively. **b**, Extrapolation of the exponential fits in **a** to larger sizes on all studied symmetries. The crossover temperature remains finite (>4 K) for systems as large as $\sim 10^{25}$ m indicating no dependence of the magnetic anisotropy for stabilisation of magnetic ordering. Insets provide comparison with physical distances observed in different systems. Figures in **b** are adapted with permission under a Creative Commons CC BY license from Wiki Commons. Microchip: Integrated circuit on microchip by Jon Sullivan, 2006. Sun: inset is from ESA & NASA/Solar Orbiter/EUI team, 2022. Data processing by E. Kraaikamp. Everest: Mount Everest North Face as seen from the path to the base camp by Luca Galuzzi, 2006. Galaxy: artist view by Sarah Anthony, 2019.

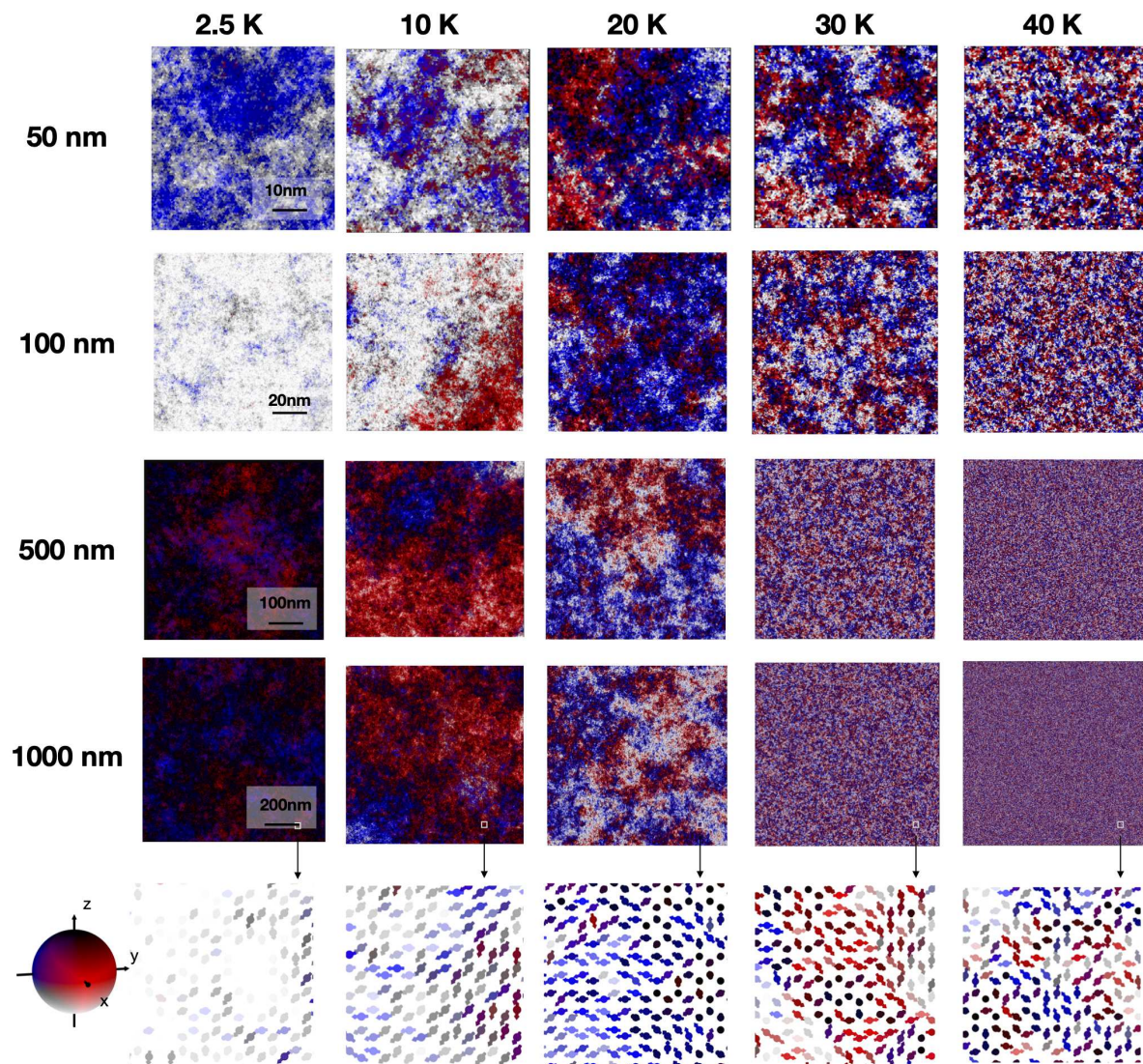


Figure 4: **Temperature-dependent magnetic order.** Visualisations of the magnetic spin configurations for the honeycomb lattice starting from an ordered state as a function of system size (vertical row) and temperature (horizontal row). The spins are projected following the color scale shown in the sphere on the left. The bottom row shows a local view of the spins inside a $5 \text{ nm} \times 5 \text{ nm}$ area at the location outlined by the small boxes in the $1000 \times 1000 \text{ nm}^2$ snapshots.

Supplementary Files

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