

In this lecture we will continue our discussion of microstates and macrostates. The 2 state example can be described/generalized by use of the binomial distribution which will help us understand how to describe macroscopic systems.

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In the last lecture, we introduced the notion of microstates and macrostates, introducing the multiplicity distribution $\Omega(N,n)$. Here we will first focus on the example of a spin $\frac{1}{2}$ system where an example microstate may be

$\vec{B} \uparrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \downarrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \uparrow \uparrow \downarrow \downarrow \uparrow \downarrow$

Figure 2.1. A symbolic representation of a two-state paramagnet, in which each elementary dipole can point either parallel or antiparallel to the externally applied magnetic field. Copyright ©2000, Addison-Wesley.

Here N denotes the total number of spins with $n = N_{\uparrow}$ up spins and $N - n = N_{\downarrow}$ down spins.

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Example microstate

The multiplicity of this state of N total spins with n up spins:

$$\Omega(N,n) = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!}$$

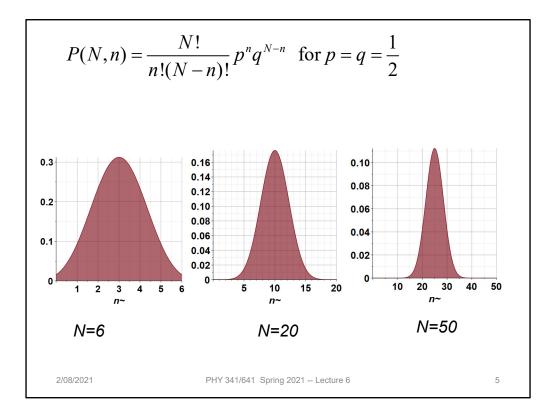
A related quantity is the probability of a finding among the macrostates, one that has n up spins when the probability of a single spin up state is p and q is the probability of a down spin.

$$P(N,n) = \Omega(N,n)p^{n}q^{N-n} = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!}p^{n}q^{N-n}$$

Note that $\sum_{n=1}^{N} P(N,n) = \sum_{n=1}^{N} \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!}p^{n}q^{N-n} = (p+q)^{N} = 1$

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More results for the binomial probability distribution

$$P(N,n) = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^n q^{N-n}$$

Average value of *n*:

$$\mu \equiv \left\langle n \right\rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{N} n P(N, n) = N p$$

Variance of *n*:

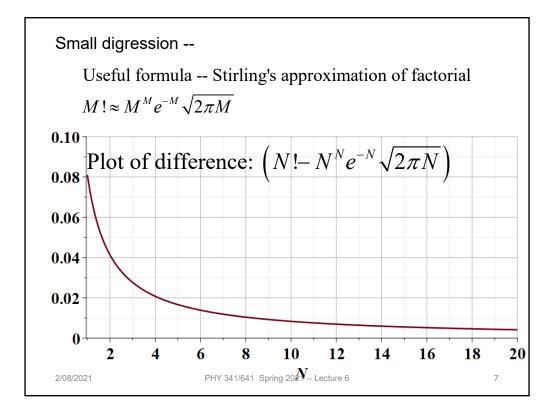
$$\sigma^2 \equiv \left\langle \left(n - \left\langle n \right\rangle \right)^2 \right\rangle = Npq$$

Useful formula -- Stirling's approximation of factorial

$$M! \approx M^M e^{-M} \sqrt{2\pi M}$$

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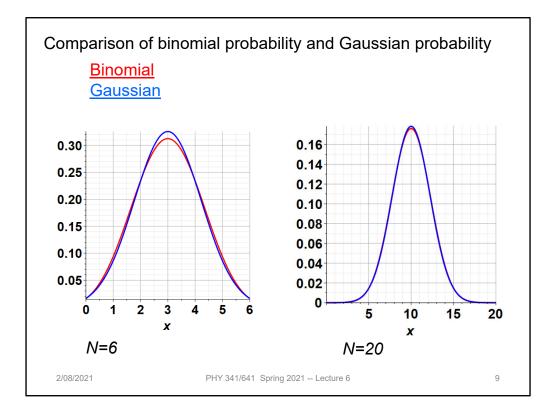
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Now consider a continuous probability function P(x)

for
$$-\infty \le x \le \infty$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x)dx = 1$$
Mean value: $\mu = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xP(x)dx$ Variance: $\sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\mu)^2 P(x)dx$
Example: Gaussian probability function
 $P_G(x;\mu,\sigma^2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} e^{-(x-\mu)^2/2\sigma^2}$
It can be shown that:
 $\langle x \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} xP_G(x;\mu,\sigma^2) = \mu$
 $\langle (x-\langle x \rangle)^2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x-\langle x \rangle)^2 P_G(x;\mu,\sigma^2) = \sigma^2$
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Is it an accident that for large samples the binomial distribution converges to the Gaussian distribution?

→It is possible to prove that the probability density of a collection of *N* independent random variables with finite variance, summed together, is a Gaussian distribution in the limit that N→infinity. This is called the "Central Limit Theorem".

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Some details of the central limit theorem as explained by <u>Essential Statistical Physics</u> by Malcolm P. Kennett, Cambridge U. Press, 2021

Suppose that we have *N* random variables s_i that can take on multiple different values. These variables have a mean $\langle s \rangle$ and a variance σ_s^2 . We then determine their sum *S* and examine the probability distribution for the value of *S*.

$$S \equiv \sum_{i=1}^{N} s_i$$

The central limit theorem says that for $N \rightarrow \infty$

$$P(S) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi \langle S \rangle}} e^{-(S - \langle S \rangle)^2 / 2\sigma_s^2} \quad \text{where} \quad \langle S \rangle = N \langle S \rangle \text{ and } \sigma_s^2 = N \sigma_s^2$$

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Recap --

Recall that the variances are defined to be

$$\sigma_s^2 = \left\langle \left(s - \langle s \rangle\right)^2 \right\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \sigma_s^2 = \left\langle \left(S - \langle S \rangle\right)^2 \right\rangle$$

The central limit theorem says that for $N \to \infty$
$$P(S) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi} \langle S \rangle} e^{-(S - \langle S \rangle)^2 / 2\sigma_s^2} \quad \text{where} \quad \langle S \rangle = N \langle s \rangle \text{ and } \sigma_s^2 = N \sigma_s^2$$
$$\Rightarrow \frac{\sigma_s}{\langle S \rangle} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}} \frac{\sigma_s}{\langle s \rangle}$$

As the sample becomes very large, independent of the details of the system, the probability distribution of the variables becomes increasing peaked about the mean value.

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Are these ideas generalizable to continuous variables such as found in the description of an ideal gas for example? This is the subject of Section 2.5 of your textbook which we will examine next time.

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