

Lecture - 1 (Introductory Class). ①

AIM 1-

- Random no's
- ↓
- ① Lies b/w 0-1 (sequence of numbers)
- ↓
- ② All numbers are independent of each other
- ↓
- ③ Equally Probable
- ↓
- ④ All Prob. Distribution uniform

3 main pts —

- ① Independence
- ② Uniformity
- ③ Sample space (All possible conformation) / Microstates.

Sample Space

Set of all possible events (A, B, \dots) .

Sample space, $S = \{A, B, C, \dots\}$.

Algebraic Operations

$\bar{A} \rightarrow$ Events doesn't occur.

$A \cup B \rightarrow$ Either A or B will occur.

$A \cap B \rightarrow$ Both A and B occur.

$A/B \rightarrow$ A occurs but B not.

$A \cap \bar{B}$

A, B exclusive event if $A \cap B = \phi$. (Null)

Let, Ω be a set

$B \rightarrow$ Family of subset of Ω .

Borel field

① $\{\phi, \Omega\} \in B$

② A and $\bar{A} \in B$

③ $\&$ $A_i^c \in B$

④ $\bigcup_{n=1}^{\infty} A_n \in B$.

(\bar{A} is (not A)/ A^c)

(where $\forall A_i, i = 1, 2, \dots, n$).

~~Algebra~~

Borel σ -Algebra

Smallest σ -algebra containing all open sets in \mathbb{R}

$B_1 \cap B_2 \cap \dots$

Probability Measure

Let, (Ω, \mathcal{B}) be a σ -algebra.

Then $p : \mathcal{B} \rightarrow [0, 1]$ st

$$p(\Omega) = 1 \quad (\text{where } \Omega \rightarrow \text{Set}).$$

$$p(\emptyset) = 0$$

i.e. ①. Positive probability is attached to an event. b/w $p \in [0, 1]$

②. Probability for the entire sample space = 1.

* If $A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n, \dots \in \mathcal{B}$.

st: $A_i \cap A_j = \emptyset \quad \forall i \neq j$ (i.e. A_i & A_j are Mutually Exclusive) $\forall i \neq j$.

then $p(A_i \cup A_j \dots) = \sum p(A_i)$.

$$p(A \cup \bar{A}) = p(A) + p(\bar{A})$$

$$1 = p(A) + p(\bar{A})$$

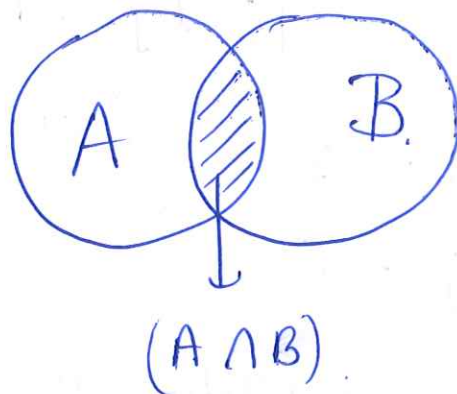
(since $A \cap \bar{A} = \emptyset$ & $A \cup \bar{A} = \Omega$ (full sample space)).

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{p(A) = 1 - p(\bar{A})}$$

In General:-

$$P(A \cup B) = P(A) + P(B) - P(A \cap B)$$

Venn's Diagram



Conditional Probability

Definition: Let A & B are 2 events in S,
& suppose $P(A) > 0$

The conditional probability of B given A is-

$$P(B|A) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(A)}$$

$$P(A \cap B) = P(A) P(B|A)$$

Properties :-

① Multiplicative Rule

$$P(A_1 \cap A_2 \cap \dots \cap A_n) = P(A_1) P(A_2|A_1) + P(A_3|A_1 \cap A_2) \dots P(A_n|A_1 \cap A_2 \dots A_{n-1})$$

②. $P(B) = P(A \cap B) + P(\bar{A} \cap B) = P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|\bar{A})P(\bar{A})$

③. Baye's Theorem

Rule to update an initial probability $P(A)$, known as Prior Probability into a revised probability, $P(A|B)$, called as Posterior Probability.

$$\begin{aligned}
 P(A|B) &= \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} \\
 &= \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B)} \\
 &= \frac{P(B|A)P(A)}{P(B|A)P(A) + P(B|\bar{A})P(\bar{A})}
 \end{aligned}$$

(using above property ii).

Random Variables

Suppose A_1, A_2, \dots, A_n forms a sample space S , hence $P(A_i) > 0$ & $\sum_{i=1}^n P(A_i) = 1$.

We can construct a variable which maps sample space into the integer no's $1, 2, \dots, n$.

Discrete Random Variable

We can associate each event A_i with the value of a discrete variable X , for eg.

$X = i$ if A_i occurs.

Example :-

① During an opinion poll, 2 events yes & no are possible.

Let, E be an event associated with yes.

Event	Random Variable (X)
Yes	1
No	0

② Tossing a coin N -times.

Event associated with $n(\text{Head})$ can be provided with a random variable.

6 Even though statement of Probability is an idiotic statement for a single event, yet this has a large precision for every large number of events.

Examples:- ①. N -independent toss

②. N -Gas Molecules in a container.

①. For N -independent toss (independent coins i.e. don't influence each other).

2^N = No of distinct sequences.

For Example, $N=2 \Rightarrow 2^2=4$ sequence possible
 $\{HH, HT, TH, TT\}$.

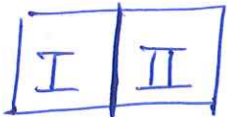
$\begin{matrix} 0 & 1 & 2 & \dots & n \\ \square & \square & \square & \dots & \square \\ \text{0 head} & \text{1 head} & & & \text{n-head.} \end{matrix}$

$\Rightarrow \hat{n}(n) = {}^N C_n$ (no of configuration for n -heads)

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

For $n = N/2$, $\hat{w}(n)$ is maximum.

or, can say,

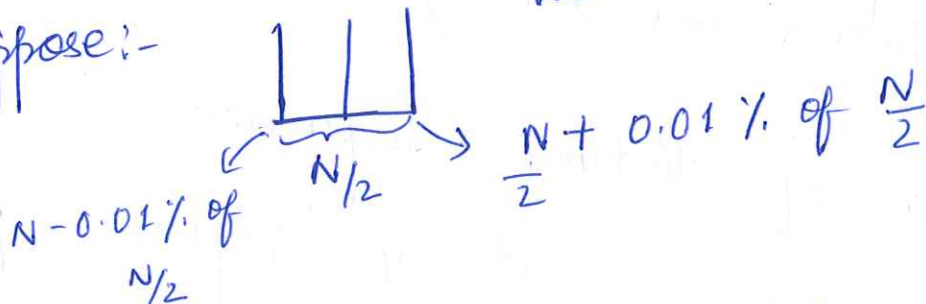


$$\Rightarrow \hat{w}\left(\frac{N}{2}\right) = \frac{N!}{\frac{N!}{2} \frac{N!}{2}}$$

i.e. No of Configurations with $\frac{N}{2}$ molecules in 1-part (I) and $\frac{N}{2}$ in 2-part (II)

Mean & Variance

Suppose:-



we consider nbd of $N/2$

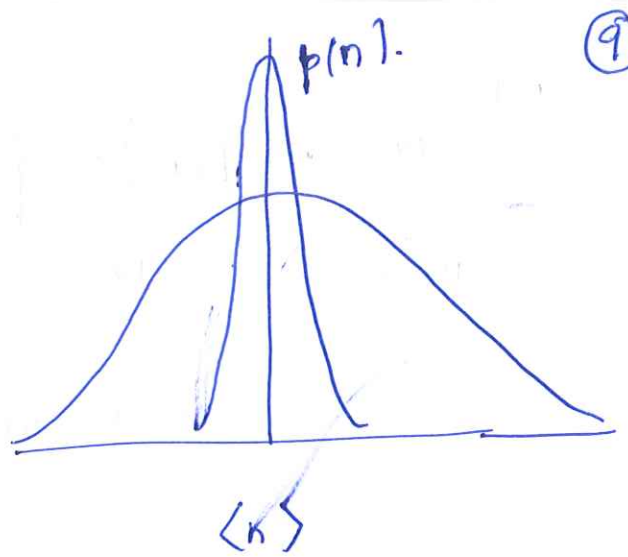
We need to see how much strings lie within this interval?

$$\langle n \rangle = \frac{N}{2} \rightarrow \text{Mean}$$

$\langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2 = \text{Variance}$ (It tells how much is the realization of random variable)

$$\langle n \rangle = \frac{2N}{2}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{2N}{4}$$



Binomial Distribution

$$p(n) = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{1}{2^N} \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} \quad (\text{for coin-toss } N\text{-times})$$

In General :-

$$P(n; N, p) = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^n (1-p)^{N-n}$$

$$= (p+q)^N$$

K^{th} Moment

$$\sum_{n=0} n^k P(n) = \langle n^k \rangle = M_k$$

Let,

$$\sum_{n=0}^N z^n P(n) = \phi(z)$$

$$= \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} (zp)^n q^{N-n} \quad (p+q=1)$$

$$= (q + zp)^N \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

(A) Taking derivative w.r.t z & multiply both sides with z , we get ---

$$\text{LHS :- } z \frac{d\phi}{dz} = \sum_{n=0}^N n z^n P(n). \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Repeat (A) on (2) ---

$$z^2 \frac{d^2\phi}{dz^2} = \sum_{n=0}^N n(n-1) z^n P(n) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

\Rightarrow

$$z \left. \frac{d\phi}{dz} \right|_{z=1} = \left. \frac{d\phi}{dz} \right|_{z=1} = \langle n \rangle \quad \text{--- (4a)}$$

$$z^2 \left. \frac{d^2\phi}{dz^2} \right|_{z=1} = \left. \frac{d^2\phi}{dz^2} \right|_{z=1} = \langle n(n-1) \rangle \quad \text{--- (5a)}$$

RHS of (1) —

$$\left. \frac{d}{dz} (q + zp)^N \right|_{z=1} = \underbrace{Np}_{1} (p+q)^{N-1} = Np \quad \text{--- (4b)}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{d^2}{dz^2} (q + zp)^N \right|_{z=1} &= N(N-1)p^2 (q + zp)^{N-2} \Big|_{z=1} \\ &= N(N-1)p^2 \quad \text{--- (5b)} \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow Equating (4a) = (4b) & (5a) = (5b),
we get :-

$\langle n \rangle = Np$ is the Mean — (*).

$$\langle n(n-1) \rangle = N(N-1)p^2$$

$$\langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle = N^2 p^2 - Np^2$$

$$\langle n^2 \rangle = N^2 p^2 - Np^2 + Np$$

Variance $\Rightarrow \sigma^2 = \langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2$

$$\begin{aligned} &= \cancel{N^2 p^2} - Np^2 + Np - \cancel{N^2 p^2} \\ &= Np(1-p) = Npq \end{aligned}$$

Error Estimate

$$\frac{\sigma}{\langle n \rangle} \approx \frac{\sqrt{N}}{N} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}}$$

For Gas Molecules,

$$N = 6.022 \times 10^{23} \sim 10^{24}$$

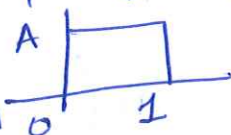
(avagadro number)

$$\sqrt{N} \sim 10^{12}$$

=> 10⁻¹² error bar. very small

Example :- Random Number lies b/w [0, 1].
Add pair wise numbers

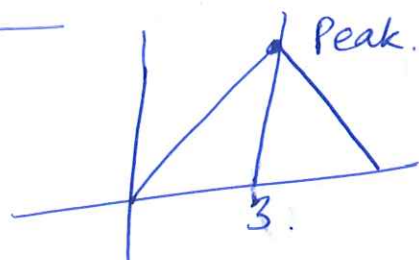
How would the prob. distribution look like? (Next notes)

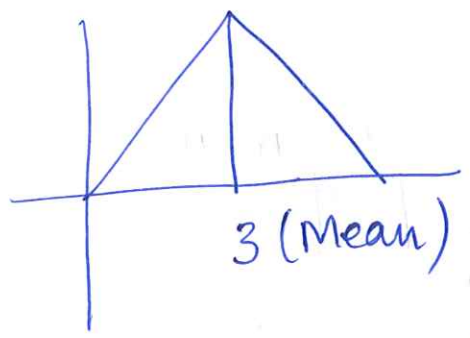


To support this, let consider dice rolled.
S = {1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6}.

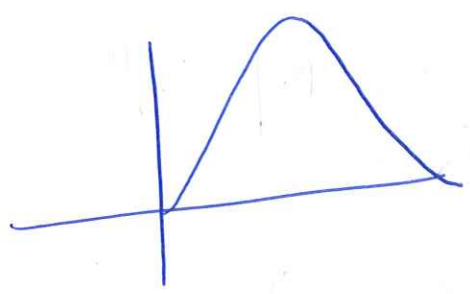
Add pair-wise & divide by 2

	1	2	3	4	5	6
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
2	3	4	5	6	7	8
3	4	5	6	7	8	9
4	5	6	7	8	9	10
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
6	7	8	9	10	11	12





⇓ N large.



$$y = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

(Central limit Theorem)

(*) Independence.

(*) Variance associated with each random variable.

- Notes
- ①. Individual loose their identity → Central limit theorem.
 - ②. Only if the phenomenon has large no. of particles → Statistical Mech.
 - ③. Newtonian or Schrodinger eqⁿ can't be used for large number of Particles in a room.

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Notes 3

Binomial Distribution :-

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

where $q = 1 - p$.

In the limit $\left. \begin{matrix} N \rightarrow \infty \\ p \rightarrow 0 \end{matrix} \right\} Np = \mu$.

$$P(n, N) \rightarrow \phi(n, \mu)$$

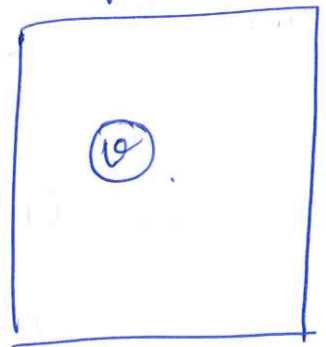
i.e.

Binomial Distribution reduces to

Poisson Distribution :

For Eg. let's consider a small volume element v in a large container of volume V .

then prob. $p = \frac{v}{V}$



$$Np = \left(\frac{N}{V} \right) v$$

Mean

$$\mu = pV$$

(In the limit ~~$N \rightarrow \infty$~~ ,
 $N \rightarrow \infty$, $p \rightarrow$ constant
 $V \rightarrow \infty$ density)

represent avg. no. of molecules. (constant)

Thermodynamic Limit

$$N \rightarrow \infty \quad \frac{N}{V} = \text{Constant} = \rho.$$

$V \rightarrow \infty$ where ρ is the no. density

$$P(n, N, p) \xrightarrow[Np \rightarrow \mu]{\substack{N \rightarrow \infty \\ p \rightarrow 0}} \phi(n, \mu)$$

$\phi(n, \mu) = \frac{\mu^n e^{-\mu}}{n!}$ is the Poisson Distribution

$$B.D : p(n, N, p) = \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^n q^{N-n}.$$

$$N \rightarrow \infty \quad \& \quad Np \rightarrow \mu.$$

$$p \rightarrow 0$$

Proof 1 :-

Use Stirling's Approx, i.e. in $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty}$,

$$N! = N^N e^{-N} \sqrt{2\pi N}$$

can be proved using Gamma Γ^n

$$n! = \Gamma(n+1) = \int_0^{\infty} e^{-x} x^n dx$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} e^{n \ln x - x} dx$$

$$= \frac{e^{n \ln n}}{n} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{n(\ln y - y)}{e^{ny - y}} dy$$

~~Put, $n \ln x - x = y$
 $\frac{n}{x} - 1 = y$~~

$$I = \int_0^{\infty} dx e^{-n \left(\frac{x}{n} - \ln x \right)}$$

Saddle pt. Method:-

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{x}{n} - \ln(x) \right) = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} - \frac{1}{x} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{n = x}$$

Expand abt $\boxed{x=n}$ -

$$\frac{x}{n} - \ln x = (1 - \ln(n)) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-n)^2}{n^2} + \dots$$

$$I = \int_0^{\infty} dx e^{-n \left(1 - \ln(n) - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-n)^2}{n^2} + \dots \right)}$$

$$= e^{-n + n \ln(n)} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(x-n)^2}{2n}} dx$$

$$= e^{-n + n \ln n} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy e^{-\frac{y^2}{2n}}$$

Gaussian Integral

Put,

$$x - n = y$$

$$dx = dy$$

$$\int_0^{\infty} \rightarrow \int_{-\infty}^{\infty}$$

& $n \rightarrow \infty$.

$$\boxed{n! \approx e^{-n + n \ln(n)} \sqrt{2\pi n}}$$

is the Stirling's approximation

$$(1-p)^{N-n} p^n \frac{N^N e^{-N} \sqrt{2\pi N}}{n! (N-n)^{(N-n)} e^{-(N-n)} \sqrt{2\pi(N-n)}}$$

Since $N \rightarrow \infty$

$$\binom{N-n}{n}^{N-n}$$

$$(1-p)^{N(1-\frac{n}{N})} p^n \frac{N^N e^{-N} \sqrt{2\pi N}}{n! N^{N(1-\frac{n}{N})} (1-\frac{n}{N})^{(N-n)-N(1-\frac{n}{N})} \sqrt{2\pi N}}$$

$$\frac{(1-p)^N p^n N^n}{e^{-pN}} \frac{e^{-N + N(1-\frac{n}{N})} e^{-N}}{n! e^{-N}}$$

$$\frac{n}{N} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } N \rightarrow \infty$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\mu} \mu^n}{n!} = \phi(\mu; n)$$

Hence in the lim $\left. \begin{matrix} N \rightarrow \infty \\ p \rightarrow 0 \end{matrix} \right\}$ but $Np = \mu$.

B.D \rightarrow P.D

Method 2 1 - Method of Generating fⁿ

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

$$\tilde{p}(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} z^n p(n)$$

$$= (q + zp)^N$$

$$= q^N \left(1 + \frac{zp}{q}\right)^N$$

$$= (1-p)^N \left(1 + \frac{z p N}{q N}\right)^N$$

$$= \left(1 - \frac{\mu}{N}\right)^N \left(1 + \frac{z \mu}{q N}\right)^N$$

$$= e^{-\mu} e^{\mu z}$$

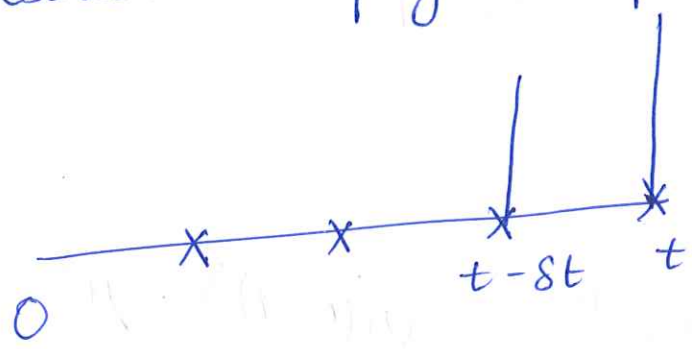
$$e^{\mu z} = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{\mu^n z^n}{n!}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{p}(z) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{e^{-\mu} \mu^n z^n}{n!}$$

$\Rightarrow \phi(n; \mu) = \frac{e^{-\mu} \mu^n}{n!}$ is the Poisson Distribution.

Poisson Distribution

Describes a physical phenomenon



Poisson Assumption: $\delta t \rightarrow 0$.

δt either 0 or 1.

Counting Process: (Eq. Number of Decays in a nucleus reactor)
For Poisson Distribution

Mean = Variance

So, Poisson Distribution is used for counting process.

$$\mu = \sigma^2$$

$$\phi(n) = \frac{\mu^n}{n!} e^{-\mu}$$

$$\langle n \rangle = \sum n \phi(n)$$

$$\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial z} = e^{-\mu} \mu e^{\mu z} \Big|_{z=1}$$

$$\boxed{\langle n \rangle = \mu}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial z^2} = e^{-\mu} \mu^2 e^{\mu z} \Rightarrow \langle n(n-1) \rangle = \mu^2$$
$$\langle n^2 \rangle = \mu^2 + \mu$$

$$\langle n^2 \rangle - \langle n \rangle^2 = \mu$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\sigma^2 = \mu}$$

$$\text{i.e. } \boxed{\text{Mean} = \text{Variance} = \mu}$$

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Notes - 4

(21)

$$p(n) = \sum_{n=0}^N \frac{N!}{n!(N-n)!} p^n q^{N-n} \quad \text{--- B.D.}$$

In limit: $N \rightarrow \infty, p \rightarrow 0$
 $Np = \mu.$

we get $p = \frac{\mu^n e^{-\mu}}{n!}$

Binomial \rightarrow Poisson Distribution
 $\phi(n; \mu) = \frac{\mu^n e^{-\mu}}{n!}$

Moment Generating f^n :-

$$\tilde{P}(z) = e^{-\mu} e^{\mu z}$$

$$z = e^{-ik}$$

$$P(k) = e^{-\mu} e^{\mu \exp(-ik)}$$

In limit $k \rightarrow 0,$

$$\phi(k) = \sum_n e^{-ikx} P(n) \rightarrow \text{Gaussian!}$$

Gaussian Distribution

Definitions
Density function

function \rightarrow Let $F_X(x)$ be a continuous satisfying the conditions ---

(a) $\lim_{x \rightarrow -\infty} F(x) = 0, \lim_{x \rightarrow \infty} F(x) = 1$

(b) $F(x)$ is a non-decreasing f^n of x .

The associated variable X is then called the ~~Gaussian~~ Continuous random variable.

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(t) dt \quad \text{is the density } f^n \text{ (d.f.)}$$

2 has properties —

① $f(x) \geq 0$ for all $x \in (-\infty, \infty)$

② Normalized $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$.

So, $X = x$ is the event that X takes value in the range x and $x + dx$ —

and $\int_x^{x+dx} f(x) dx$ is the probability.

→ Gaussian (Normal) Distribution

A random variable X is said to be normally distributed with mean μ and variance σ^2 if the probability density f^n is :-

$$f_X(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\sigma^2}} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right], \quad -\infty < x < \infty.$$

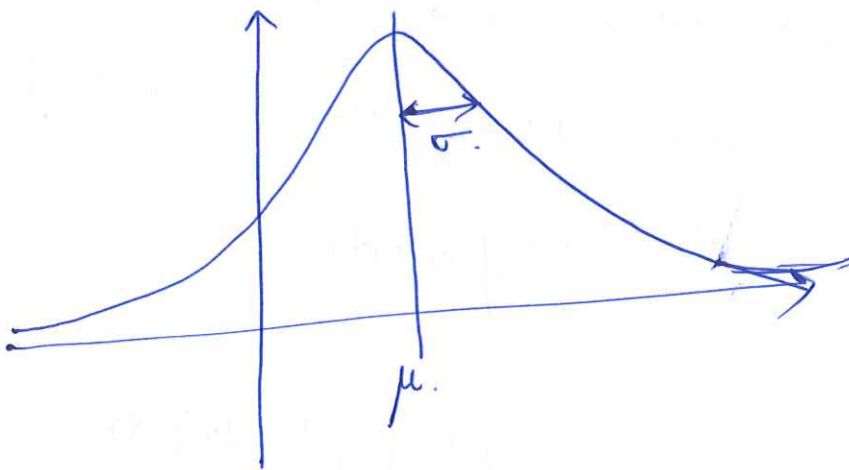
The normal or Gaussian distribution of X is usually represented by :-

$$X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$$

or,

$$X \sim N(x - \mu, \sigma^2)$$

Bell-shaped curve symmetric abt. μ & attains its max. value of $\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma}$ at $x = \mu$.

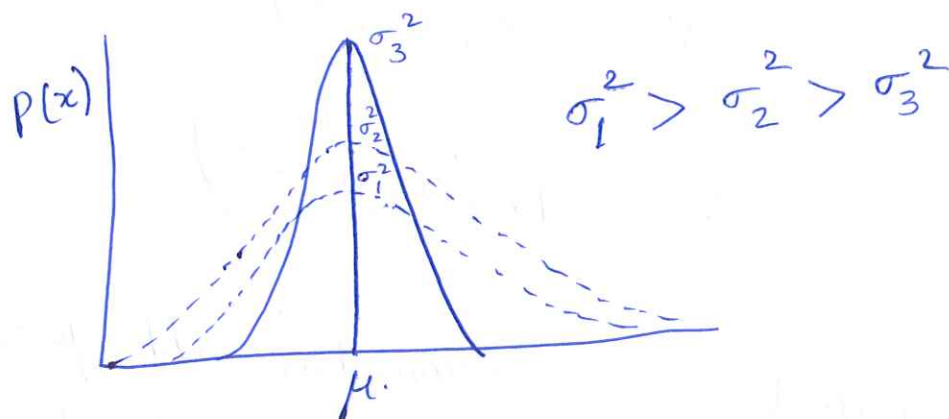


First & second order moments, are μ & σ^2 respectively,

$$\mu = E[X] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f(x) dx$$

$$\sigma^2 = E[(X - \mu)^2] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x - \mu)^2 f(x) dx$$

The variance σ^2 is a measure of the dispersion of random variable around the mean



σ : Standard Deviation.
 is the width of the Gaussian
 Area always integrate to 1 (under the bell curve)
 For Gaussian, Taking Fourier Transform -

$$\phi(k) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ikx} f(x) dx$$

$$\phi(k) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{(-ik)^n}{n!} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^n f(x) dx$$

$$\log \phi(k) = \psi(k)$$

$$\psi(k) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-ik)^n}{n!} \underbrace{\xi_n}_{\text{Cumulants}}$$

For Gaussian,

$$\phi(k) = e^{-ik\mu + \frac{(-ik)^2}{2!} \sigma^2}$$

$$\phi(k) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ikx} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} dx.$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ikx - \frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}} dx$$

Put,
 $\frac{x-\mu}{\sigma} = y$
 $dx = \sigma dy$

$e^{-b^2/4a}$.

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ik(\sigma y + \mu)} e^{-y^2/2} dy$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \sqrt{2\pi} e^{(ik)^2 \sigma^2 / 2} e^{-ik\mu}$$

$$= e^{-ik\mu + \frac{(-ik)^2}{2!} \sigma^2}$$

Using formula -

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ax^2 + bx} dx = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}} e^{-b^2/4a}$$

$$\log \phi(k) = \psi(k)$$

$$= -ik\mu + \frac{(-ik)^2}{2!} \sigma^2$$

are the remaining cumulants.

(Rest all cumulants are zero).

If X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n are Independent Random Variables.

$Y = X_1 + X_2 + \dots + X_n$.
& associated distribution f^n are
 $f_1(x_1), f_2(x_2), \dots, f_n(x_n)$.
Density f^n $P(y) = ?$.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-iky} P(y) dy$$

Example :- Let, $y = x_1 + x_2$
Cumulant Density f^n :-

$$P(Y \leq y) = P(x_1) P(x_2 < y - x_1).$$

For 2-dice throw,

$$P(\text{sum is } 5)$$

$$= \sum_{i,j} P(i) P(j) \delta(i+j=5).$$

similarly

$$P(y) = \int dx_1 \int dx_2 \dots \int dx_n f(x_1) f(x_2) \dots f(x_n) \delta\left(\sum_{i=1}^n x_i - y\right)$$

$$\int e^{-iky} P(y) dy = \int e^{-iky} \int dx_1 dx_2 \dots \delta\left(\sum x_i - y\right) \dots \text{--- (1)}$$

$$= \left[\int e^{-ik(y=x_1+x_2+\dots)} f(x_1) f(x_2) \dots dx_1 dx_2 \dots \right]$$

$$= \left[\int e^{-ikx} f(x) dx \right]^n$$

$$\phi_y(k) = [\phi_x(k)]^n$$

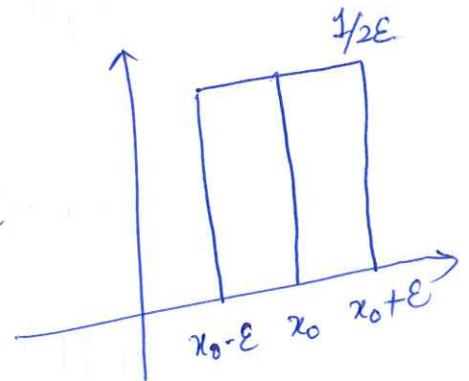
In step (1), we have used the property of Dirac Delta f^n i.e.

If $\delta(x-x_0) = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} \begin{cases} 0 & -\infty < x < x_0 - \epsilon \\ 1/2\epsilon & x_0 - \epsilon < x < x_0 + \epsilon \\ 0 & x_0 + \epsilon < x < \infty \end{cases}$

$$-\infty < x < x_0 - \epsilon$$

$$x_0 - \epsilon < x < x_0 + \epsilon$$

$$x_0 + \epsilon < x < \infty$$



$$\begin{aligned}
 & \int_{x_0-\varepsilon}^{x_0+\varepsilon} f(x) dx = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} \int_{x_0-\varepsilon}^{x_0+\varepsilon} g'(x) dx \\
 & = \frac{1}{2\varepsilon} [g(x_0+\varepsilon) - g(x_0-\varepsilon)] \\
 & = g'(x_0) = f(x_0)
 \end{aligned}$$

$$y = \sum x_i$$

$$\sum x_i, \quad i = 1, 2, \dots, N$$

$$\bar{\Phi}_y(k) = [\bar{\Phi}_x(k)]^N$$

Scaling :-

$$y = \frac{1}{N} (x_1 + x_2 + \dots + x_N)$$

$$\phi_y(k) = \left[\phi_x\left(k \rightarrow \frac{k}{N}\right) \right]^N$$

Cumulant Expansion for $\phi(k)$:-

$$\bar{\Phi}(k) = e^{\sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-ik)^n}{n!} \xi_n}$$

$$\ln \bar{\Phi}(k) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-ik)^n}{n!} \xi_n$$

$$\phi_y(k) = e^{N \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} \frac{(-ik)^n}{n! N^n} \xi_n}$$

$$= \exp \left[(-ik) \xi_1 + \frac{(-ik)^2}{2! N} \xi_2 + \frac{(-ik)^3}{3! N^2} \xi_3 \dots \right] \quad (29)$$

In limit $N \rightarrow \infty$,

Only first 2 terms remains.

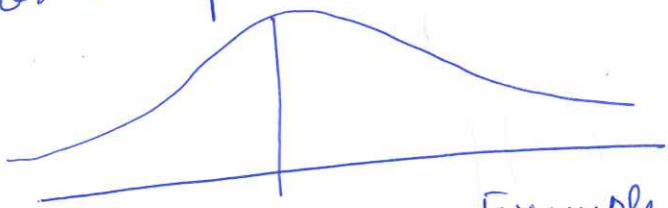
For Gas, $\sqrt{N} \sim 10^{-12}$ (Very small error)

Predictions Based on Probability Theory,

Central limit Theorem works.

Also variance should be finite in $N \rightarrow \infty$.

For Example :- For Cauchy Distribution -



Infinite variance.

So, error increase with N .

Example: Fractals

◀ Chebyshev Inequality

$$P(|x - \mu| \geq k\sigma) < \frac{1}{k^2}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1$$

For the existence of variance, density function goes to zero.

Proof :-

$$\sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (x' - \mu)^2 f(x') dx'$$

↓
Variance

$$\sigma^2 \geq \int_{-\infty}^{\mu - k\sigma} (t - \mu)^2 f(t) dt + \int_{\mu + k\sigma}^{\infty} (t - \mu)^2 f(t) dt$$

Put, $t - \mu = x$
 $dt = dx$

$$\geq k^2 \sigma^2 \int_{-\infty}^{-k\sigma} f(x) dx + k^2 \sigma^2 \int_{k\sigma}^{\infty} f(x) dx$$

$$\sigma^2 \geq k^2 \sigma^2 [P(|x| \geq k\sigma)]$$

$$P(|t - \mu| \geq k\sigma) \leq \frac{1}{k^2} \quad (k \geq 1)$$

Note (a)

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) dx = 1 \quad (\text{Normalization})$$

(b)

$$\sigma = \int x^2 f(x) dx < \infty \quad (\text{else Chebyshev inequality breaks}).$$

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Notes-5

Note :-

- ①. Random Numbers are used to solve differential equation
- ②. Monte Carlo is used to find inverse of a very large matrix. Error is linear in number of elements.
- ③. Large no. of random variables having finite variance $(x_1, x_2 \dots x_n)$ with any distribution -

$$y = \frac{\alpha_1 x_1 + \alpha_2 x_2 + \dots + \alpha_n x_n}{\sum_i \alpha_i}$$

Distribution for y is Gaussian (in limit $n \rightarrow \infty$)

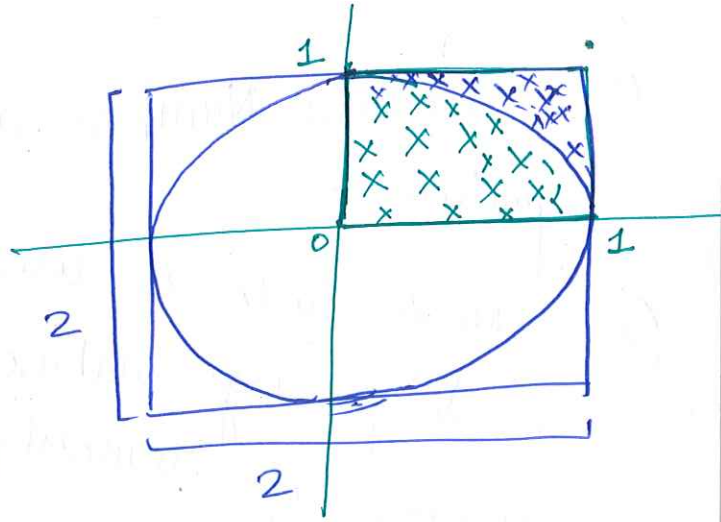
- ④. All Random number generator are deterministic (predictable).

Monte Carlo

Technique - 1

Rejection Technique

If a circle of Radius (say 1 unit) within a square of 2 unit, then the area of the circle is π and square is 4 unit^2 .



$$\text{So Ratio of } \frac{A(\text{Circle})}{A(\text{Square})} = \frac{\pi}{4}$$

So, \Rightarrow Picking N random points inside square, approx $\frac{N\pi}{4}$ pts should fall in circle.

Algorithm :-

Step 1:- Pick pts random within the square

i.e. Random no. $x \in [0, 1]$

Random no. $y \in [0, 1]$

Step 2:- $z^2 = x^2 + y^2$
Check if the point is inside the circle

For every x, y
Check If.

$$x^2 + y^2 \leq 1$$

Step 3:- Keep track of how many points fell inside the circle.

$$\text{Count} = \text{Count} + 1$$

So, π is then approx equal to

$$\pi = \frac{4 \times \text{Count}}{N}$$

where, $N = \text{Total points in the square.}$

As N increases, we get value of π more close to analytic value.

Technique - 2

Inversion Technique

If the desired probability density function is $f(y)$ on the range $-\infty < y < \infty$; its cumulative distribution function (for $y \leq x$), is given by

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(y) dy.$$

where, X is a random variable with cumulative distribution function F_x . Then, the integrated probability upto pt x is itself a random variable which will occur with uniform probability density on $[0, 1]$.

Let $a \leq x \leq b$.

$$F(x) = \int_a^x f(y) dy.$$

$$F(a) = 0, \quad F(b) = 1.$$

st $F(x) = \xi$, where, ξ is the random 35
number $\in (0, 1)$.

$$x = F^{-1}(\xi)$$

\Rightarrow Given a random variable $u \in [0, 1]$ & an invertible cumulative distribution function, the Random variable

$$x = F^{-1}(\xi)$$

has distribution described by F .

Example :-

Choose a random variable $u \in [0, 1]$

$$f(x) = e^{-x}$$

$$x = F^{-1}(u)$$

$$F(F^{-1}(u)) = u$$

$$\exp[-F^{-1}(u)] = u$$

$$F^{-1}(u) = -\log u$$

$$x = F^{-1}(u) = -\log u$$

$$x = -\log u$$

Algorithm :-

①. Generate a random number u from the standard uniform distribution in the interval $[0, 1]$.

②. Compute the value of x st. $F(x) = u$.

③. Take x to be the random number drawn from the distribution by F .

$$x = -\ln u \quad (\text{for the previous eg.})$$

$$u \in [0, 1]$$

$$\text{i.e. } x = F^{-1}[u]$$

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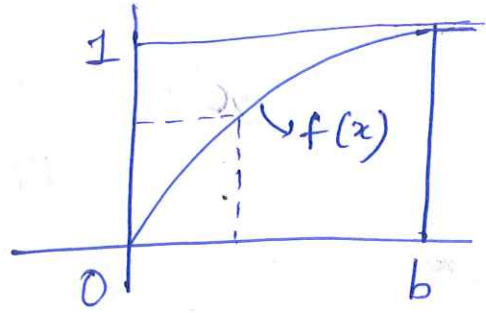
$$x = x(\omega)$$

$$0 \leq x \leq b.$$

$$F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x f(x') dx'$$

$$0 \leq F(x) \leq 1$$

↳ Cumulative density function.



$$F(x) = \xi$$

where, $\xi \in [0, 1]$.



$$x = F^{-1}(\xi)$$

Inversion & Rejection techniques are called sampling.

(*)

Ensembles

$$\langle x^n \rangle = \int x^n f(x) dx.$$

$$\langle h \rangle = \int h(x) f(x) dx.$$

Boltzmann was the first to use Probability theory for physical properties explanation of

Physicist notion of Average & Variance -

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum x_i$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i [x_i - \langle x \rangle]^2$$

Time Reversal Invariance (in Maxwell Eqⁿ,
Newton's Eqⁿ, Planet going round the sun etc.)

In Contrast, Thermodynamics phenomenon, there
is a clear direction of time (Entropic time).

Individual atoms obey Newton laws.

But, Large no of atoms ($\sim 10^{23}$) don't obey
~~the~~ Newton laws.

→ What is that, that is giving direction ??

→ At what stage, ~~to~~ disobedience to Newton's
equation arise ?

Boltzmann showed Newton's eqⁿ can be applied to
Entropy is a dynamical quantity. (determine
by Newton's eqⁿ)
Large no. of atoms.

Boltzmann showed using differential equation - (Transport Eqⁿ).

(3)

Rate of change of number of particles

= No of particles entering - No of particles exiting.

Guess a solution (Physical intuition). Obeys Thermodynamics.

Maxwell → Interpreted Boltzmann Ideas in Physical terms.

(*) Ensemble

E	P
H	3/4
T	1/4

Eg. {HHHT}

Ensemble contain information about both sample space & probability.

→ Ensemble Average $\langle h \rangle = \int h(x) f(x) dx$
 $= \frac{1}{N} \sum h(x_i)$

(*)

Technique - 3

Metropolis Rejection

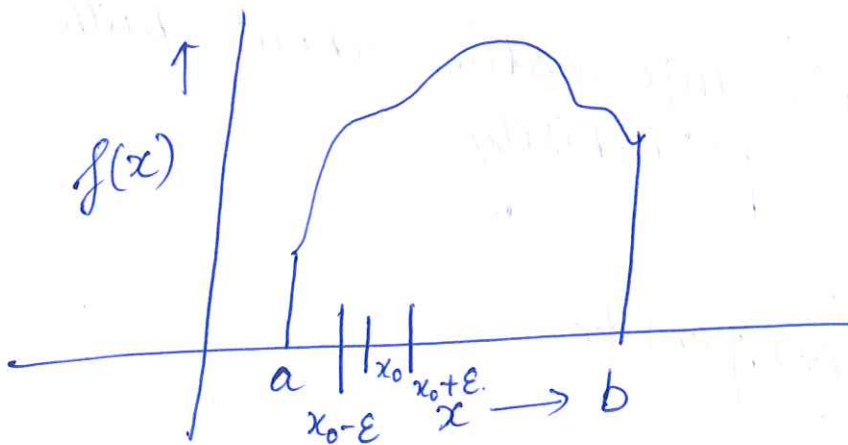
For a macroscopic system, Probability of Microstate -

$$P(c) \propto e^{-E(c)/k_B T}$$

Partition fⁿ:- $Q(\beta) = \sum_c e^{-\beta E(c)}$ where, $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$ is the

Boltzmann constant.

$$P(c) = \frac{e^{-E(c)/k_B T}}{Q}$$



$\{x_i, i=1, 2, \dots, N\}$.

Algorithm

- Start with arbitrary x_0 . Take a small interval around x_0 . $x_0 - \epsilon < x < x_0 + \epsilon$, where, ϵ is small (optimally small)

② Random Numbers

⑤

$\xi \in [0, 1]$ uniformly distributed.

$x_t = x_0 - \varepsilon + 2\varepsilon\xi$ is also uniformly distributed (linear related).

③ $x_t \rightarrow f(x_t)$
 $x_0 \rightarrow f(x_0)$

where, $f(x)$ is the given density function.

$$r = \frac{f(x_t)}{f(x_0)}$$

[Probability]

④ $p = \min(1, r)$

⑤ When $f(x_t) > f(x_0)$. Accept $f(x_t)$.

~~$f(x_t)$~~

$$x_1 = \begin{cases} x_t & p \\ x_0 & 1-p \end{cases}$$

⑥ *

Steps

Given $x = x(w)$ $f(x)$.

(a) Select x_0 (arbitrary b/w a and b)

(b) Construct an interval $(x_0 - \varepsilon, x_0 + \varepsilon)$ $\varepsilon = ?$

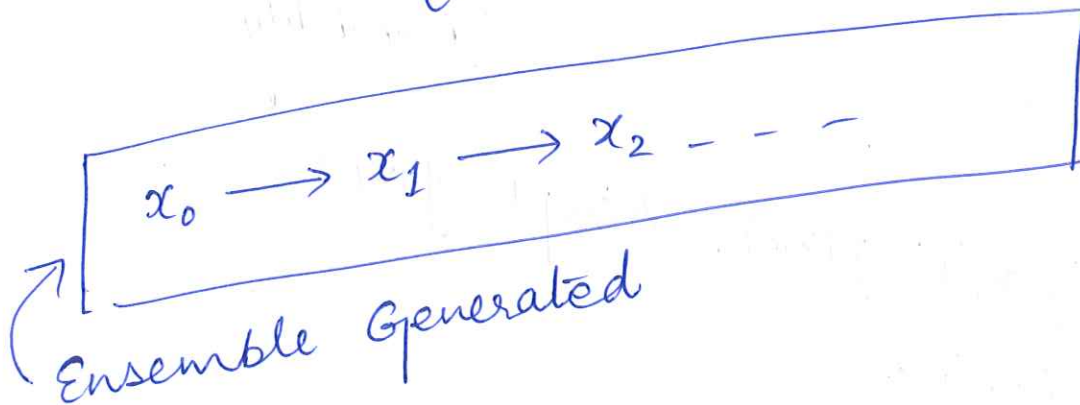
(c) Select x_t randomly (uniformly) in the interval.

$$x_t = x_0 - \epsilon + 2\epsilon\xi.$$

(d)
$$r = \frac{f(x_t)}{f(x_0)} \quad p = \min(1, r).$$

Accept x_t with a probability $\beta=r$ if $f(x_t) < f(x_0)$.

$$x_1 = \begin{cases} x_t & \text{with prob. } p. \\ x_0 & \text{with prob. } (1-p). \end{cases}$$



→ Markov Process :-

Present is independent of Past.

Example :- Random Walk.

Self-Avoiding Random Walk is an Example of Non-Markovian chain. (7)

→ Choice of ϵ :-

Small $\epsilon \Rightarrow$ Rejection Probability is very large
[no will be chosen] \rightarrow Not evolve

Large $\epsilon \Rightarrow$ Acceptance prob. is very large.
(otherwise there is no repetition)

Choose $\epsilon \sim$ such that acceptance is
b/w 30-70%

Equilibration \rightarrow

When the Markov chain become stationary,
(Initially Markov chain has memory)

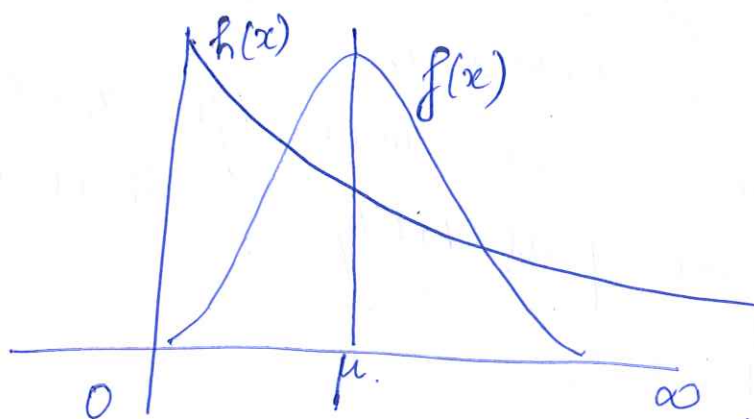
If the algorithm ~~chain~~ generate Markov
chain (with certain properties), then

Steady state is certain.

Asymptotic \rightarrow Microstates in equilibrium.

Let, $x = x(\omega)$
 $f(x)$ is the Probability density function which is
Gaussian

$$f(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{(x-\mu)^2}{\sigma^2}}$$



where

$$h(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & x < 0 \\ e^{-x} & 0 \leq x \leq \infty \end{cases}$$

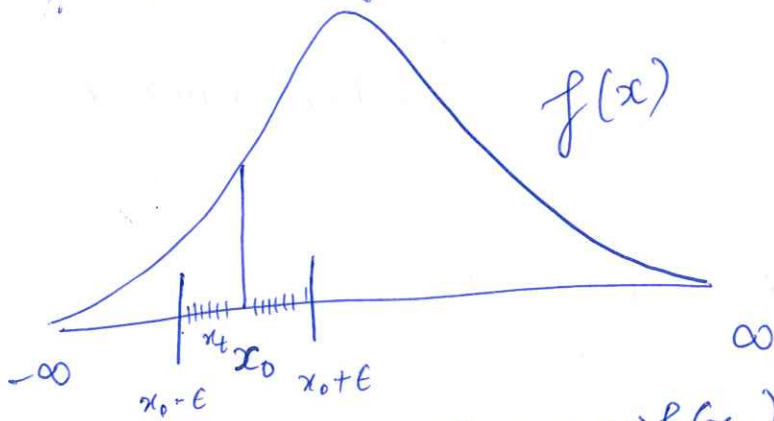
Generate an ensemble of n -realization -

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h(x) f(x) dx = \langle h \rangle = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_i h(x_i)$$

$\{x_i, i \in 1, 2, \dots, N\}$. Let, $\mu = 5, \sigma = 3$

where, x_i is sampled from a Gaussian.

Metropolis' Algorithm



- ①. Choose arbitrary $x_0 \rightarrow f(x_0)$
 - ②. Take an interval around x_0
Select randomly a real number b/w $x_0 - \epsilon$ & $x_0 + \epsilon$ with equal probability \rightarrow (Call it x_t).
 - ③. $x_t = x_0 - \epsilon + 2\epsilon \xi$
 - ④. Calculate $f(x_t)$.
 - ⑤. $r = \frac{f(x_t)}{f(x_0)}$ Define $p = \min(1, r)$.
- [r can be > 1 or < 1].
- ⑥. $x_1 = \begin{cases} x_t & \text{with probability } p \\ x_0 & \text{" " } 1-p. \end{cases}$

- ⑦. Chain of Microstates / Real Number
 $x_0 \rightarrow \textcircled{x_1} \rightarrow x_2 \rightarrow x_3 \rightarrow \dots$
 x_1 can be x_0 or x_t .
 (Ensemble is generated).

How to find ϵ ?

Ratio = $\frac{\text{Number of times accepted}}{\text{Total no. of attempts}}$

(not \rightarrow too large $\sim \infty$ or too small ~ 0)

Note : Its very important that Markovian chain is maintained.

Example :- Queuing system

Airport \rightarrow Only 1 Que & many servers.
Choose server randomly.

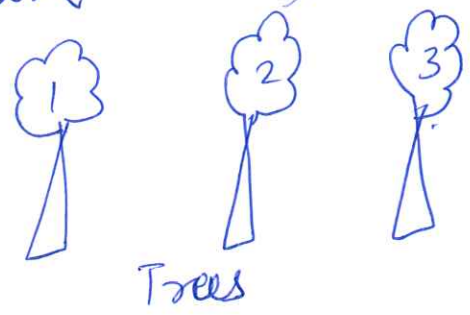
Using Metropolis algorithm find the distribution?

Markov chain attains a stationary state asymptotically.

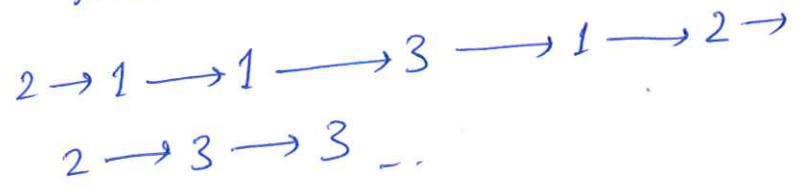
(*)

Markov Process

Imagine, having a finite no. of microstates (1 markov states).



(Markov) Monkey jumps from 1 tree to other.



Let, Chain is

$C_n, C_{n-1}, C_{n-2} \dots C_2, C_1, C_0$.

C_i is a member of Markov state
 $C_i = 1, 2, 3$.

$P(C_n, C_{n-1}, C_{n-2} \dots C_2, C_1, C_0) = ?$

$$\boxed{P(A, B) = P(A|B)P(B)} \rightarrow \text{Conditional Probability definition.}$$

$$P(C_n, C_{n-1}, C_{n-2} \dots C_2, C_1, C_0) = P(C_n | C_{n-1}, C_{n-2} \dots C_0) \\ \times P(C_{n-1} | C_{n-2}, C_{n-3} \dots C_2, C_1, C_0) \\ \times \dots \times P(C_1 | C_0) \times P(C_0).$$

Markov Assumption :-

$$P(C_{n-1} | C_{n-2} \dots C_2, C_1, C_0) = P(C_{n-1} | C_{n-2}).$$

$$P(C_n | C_{n-1} \dots C_2, C_1, C_0) = P(C_n | C_{n-1}).$$

Monkey (Eg. $1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow \dots$)
Irrelevant

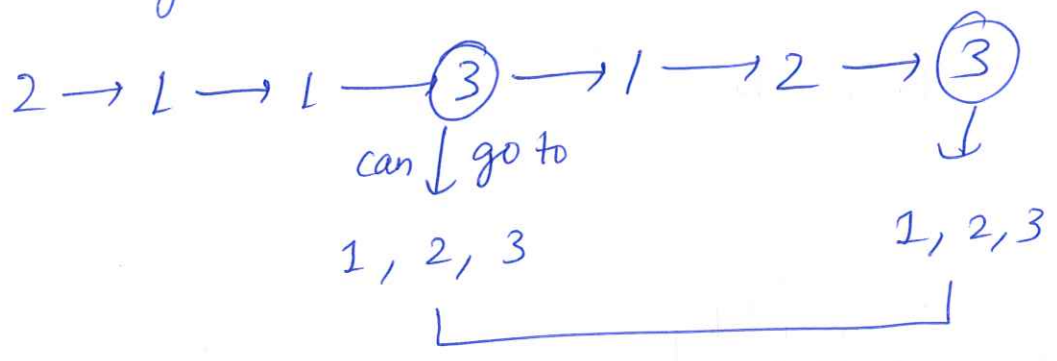
$$P(C_n, C_{n-2} \dots C_2, C_1, C_0)$$

$$= P(C_n | C_{n-1}) P(C_{n-1} | C_{n-2}) \dots \underbrace{P(C_1 | C_0)}_{\downarrow} \underbrace{P(C_0)}$$

Transition Probability

General Markov chain

→ Time In-Homogenous Markov chain.



Prob. needn't be same for these 2 cases.

Principle → Entropy Increases → Gas spread in room
 → Heat flows from higher to lower temp.
 whatever is the initial condition, system evolve into a unique equilibrium state.

W_{ij}

$$P(1/1) \quad P(2/1) \quad P(3/1)$$

$$P(1/2) \quad P(2/2) \quad P(3/2)$$

$$P(1/3) \quad P(2/3) \quad P(3/3)$$

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} W_{11} & W_{12} & W_{13} \\ W_{21} & W_{22} & W_{23} \\ W_{31} & W_{32} & W_{33} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$W_{ij} = P(i|j)$$

or, $W_{ij} = P(i \rightarrow j)$ also valid.

Properties of W —

①. Each column ~~adds~~ adds to ~~zero~~ 1.

②. Initial Probability vector

$$\left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \right]$$

If there are N -identical monkeys,
initial ensemble comes with probability vector

$$\begin{pmatrix} p_1 \\ p_2 \\ p_3 \end{pmatrix}.$$

(3). $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} W^n = W^*$.

Example :-

Let $W = \begin{pmatrix} 0.3 & 0.2 \\ 0.7 & 0.8 \end{pmatrix}.$

$$W |a_0\rangle = |a_1\rangle$$

$$W |a_1\rangle = |a_2\rangle$$

⋮

$$W |a_n\rangle = W |a_{n+1}\rangle = W |a_n\rangle$$

→ Largest eigenvalue has to be **1**.

→ Non-Degenerate.

Non-unique
eq^m state

$$\leftarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

~~state~~

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①

Notes - 8

Properties of W-Matrix

1. Square Matrix.
2. $0 \leq w_{ij} \leq 1 \quad \forall i, j$
3. $w_{ij} = P(c_i | c_j) \quad \& \quad \sum_i w_{ij} = 1 \quad \forall j$
 $= P_{j \rightarrow i}$

(Some choose the opposite convention).

4. $w|a\rangle = |a\rangle$ (largest Eigen value is 1).

5. Non-degenerate.

6. If $(a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3) = (a_1 \ a_2 \ a_3) \begin{pmatrix} w_{11} & w_{21} & w_{31} \\ w_{21} & w_{22} & w_{23} \\ w_{31} & w_{32} & w_{33} \end{pmatrix}$

Left eigenvector is a uniform matrix. All microstates are equally probable.

7. $w|a_1\rangle = |a_2\rangle$
 $w|a_2\rangle = |a_3\rangle$
 $\Rightarrow w^2|a_1\rangle = |a_3\rangle$
⋮

$$W^n |a_1\rangle = |\pi\rangle.$$

For some n , stationary state is obtained.

Additional Properties

① Start with i , after some steps (n) reach j
True for all i & j

\Rightarrow i communicates with j & vice-versa.

② Aperiodic. (No periodicity).

③ Markov chain should return to initial state (Transient)

\Rightarrow Prob (return to initial state) = 1

①, ②, ③ \Rightarrow ERGODICITY

Let, C_1, C_2, C_3 are 3 states

Probability,

$$P(C_1, n) = P(C_1, n-1) W_{11} + P(C_2, n-1) W_{12} + P(C_3, n-1) W_{13}.$$

\downarrow state \downarrow time

(2)

Using $\sum_i W_{ij} = 1 \quad \forall j$

$$W_{11} = 1 - (W_{21} + W_{31})$$

$$\Rightarrow P(C_1, n) = P(C_1, n-1) + P(C_2, n-1)W_{12} + P(C_3, n-1)W_{13} - P(C_2, n-1)W_{21} - P(C_3, n-1)W_{31} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Add & subtract $P(C_1, n-1)W_{11}$ in (1)

$$P(C_1, n) = P(C_1, n-1) + \sum_i P(C_i, n-1)W_{ij} - P(C_j, n-1)W_{j1}$$

In General, we can find the probability for any C_i in time n .

$$P(C_i, n) = \sum_{j \neq i} P(C_j, n-1)W_{ij} - \sum_{j \neq i} P(C_j, n-1)W_{ji} + P(C_i, n-1)$$

For n - adequately large -

$$P(C_i, n) = P(C_i, n-1) = \pi_i \quad (\text{Stationary state})$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_{j \neq i} [P(c_j, n-1) W_{ij} - P(c_i, n-1) W_{ji}] = 0$$

We can add & subtract $j=i$ term also.

$$\Rightarrow \sum_j [P(c_j, n-1) W_{ij} - P(c_i, n-1) W_{ji}] = 0.$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\sum_j [\pi_j W_{ij} - \pi_i W_{ji}] = 0} \quad \forall i$$

→ condition for Markov chain becoming stationary.

Additional constraint

$$\forall j \quad \boxed{\pi_j W_{ij} = \pi_i W_{ji}} \rightarrow \text{Detailed Balance.}$$

Metropolis's Algorithm :-

depends only on ratio of Probability

So, for Physicist, no need of normalization/
Partition function.

$$P(c_i) \propto \text{Quantity}$$

Note :- Markov chain is suited for system marching towards equilibrium. (3)

If $|\lambda_1\rangle, |\lambda_2\rangle, |\lambda_3\rangle$ are eigenvectors corresponding to C_1, C_2 and C_3 .

2 $\lambda_1 = 1$

$$|a\rangle = \alpha_1 |\lambda_1\rangle + \alpha_2 |\lambda_2\rangle + \alpha_3 |\lambda_3\rangle$$
$$W^n |a\rangle = \alpha_1 |\lambda_1\rangle + \alpha_2 \lambda_2^n |\lambda_2\rangle + \alpha_3 \lambda_3^n |\lambda_3\rangle$$

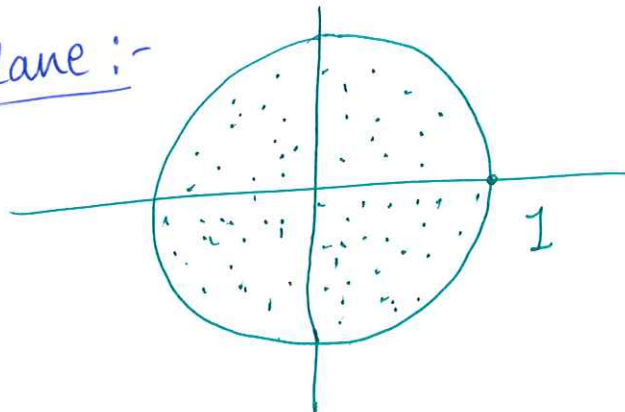
Large time $n \rightarrow$

$$W^n |a\rangle = \alpha_1 |\lambda_1\rangle$$

Note :-

- (a) large eigenvalue $\rightarrow \lambda = 1$, real & non-degenerate.
- (b) All other eigenvalues can be complex with norm less than 1.

Eigenvalue Plane :-



Example — Transition Matrix

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} 0.1 & 0.3 & 0.5 \\ 0.7 & 0.4 & 0.4 \\ 0.2 & 0.3 & 0.1 \end{pmatrix}$$

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Notes-9

(1)

Markov Chain (MC)

- ①. State space (Microstate space)
 $\{C_1, C_2 \dots C_k\} \rightarrow$ Discrete & finite
- ②. Time Homogeneous MC.
- ③. W-Matrix ($k \times k$ Matrix) & Initial state C_0

Properties: W Matrix

(a) All elements lies b/w 0 & 1.

(b) $W_{ij} = P(C_i | C_j) = P(C_j \rightarrow C_i)$

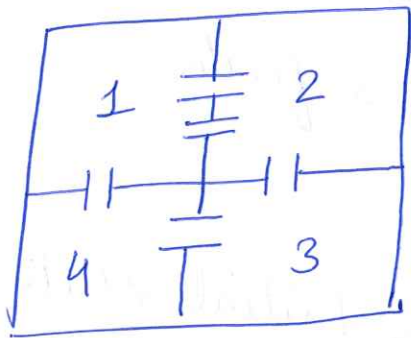
Each Column add to unity

(c). Same Probability distribution
Avg properties remain same
 \Rightarrow Stationarity

(d) Balanced Condition \Leftrightarrow Stationarity

Example :-

Rat Problem



Initial Condition — $(P_1 \ P_2 \ P_3 \ P_4)^T = |P_0\rangle$
Either uniform distribution $\begin{pmatrix} 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \\ 1/4 \end{pmatrix}$ or $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

or any other arbitrary I.C.

$$|P_0\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} P_1 \\ P_2 \\ P_3 \\ P_4 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\text{st } \sum P = 1 \\ W_{ii} = 0$$

$$W = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 2/3 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 2/3 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 1/3 & 0 & 1/2 \\ 1/3 & 0 & 1/2 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$W|P_0\rangle = |P_1\rangle$$

$$W^2|P_0\rangle = |P_2\rangle$$

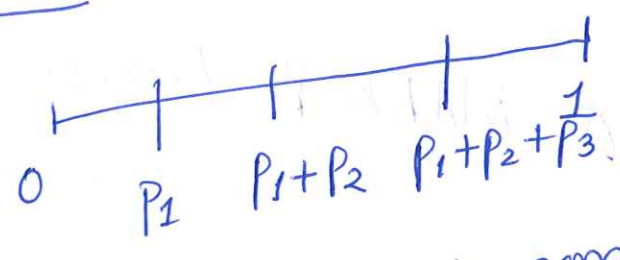
$$W^n|P_{n-1}\rangle = |\pi\rangle$$

$$W|\pi\rangle = |\pi\rangle$$

Stationarity

$W \rightarrow$ Stochastic / Markov Matrix

Simulation :-

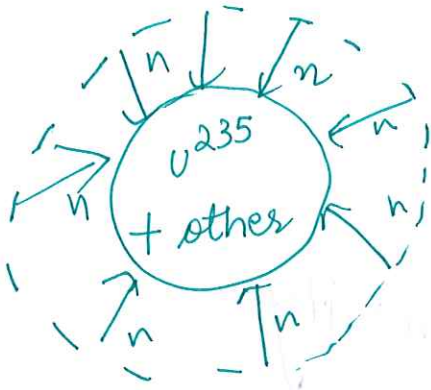


What fraction of rat comes in (1), (2), (3) & (4)?
(after a long time).

Note :- Time avg. of 1 event = Ensemble avg. of whole system.

Fission Process

2



neutron is reacted with U^{235} . One of the possible reaction is possible: -

1. Fission (Scattering elastic).
2. Non-Fission (like Absorption etc).

Thermal Neutrons (~ 0.05 eV)

→ Stop when reach super-critical fission - 10^{35} fission/sec.

→ Check fission → A MARKOV Process.

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Notes - 10

(1)

Time Reversal of Markov Chain is also Markov.

Finite collection of Markov Chain \rightarrow Microstate

$\{c_1, c_2, \dots\}$

$x_0 \Rightarrow x_1 \Rightarrow x_2 \Rightarrow \dots$

$$P[X_n = c_i] = \sum_{j \neq i} P[X_{n-1} = c_j] W_{ij} + P[X_{n-1} = c_i] W_{ji}$$

$$W_{ii} = 1 - \sum_{j \neq i} W_{ji}$$

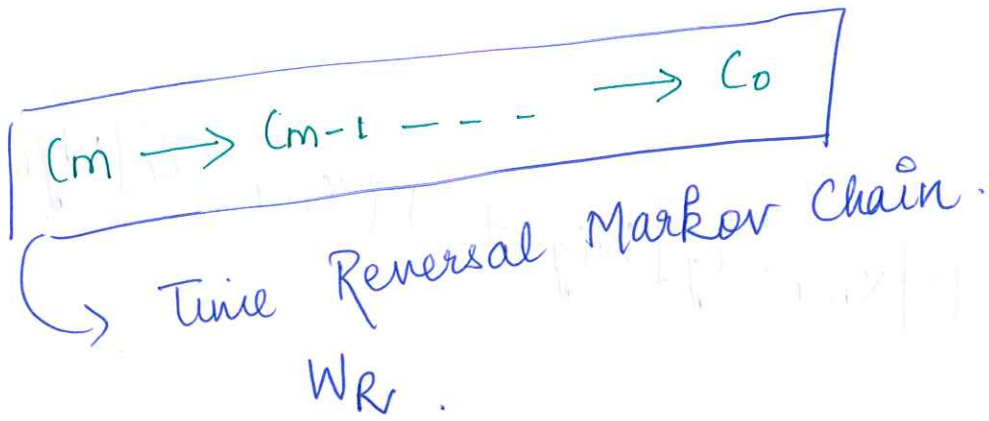
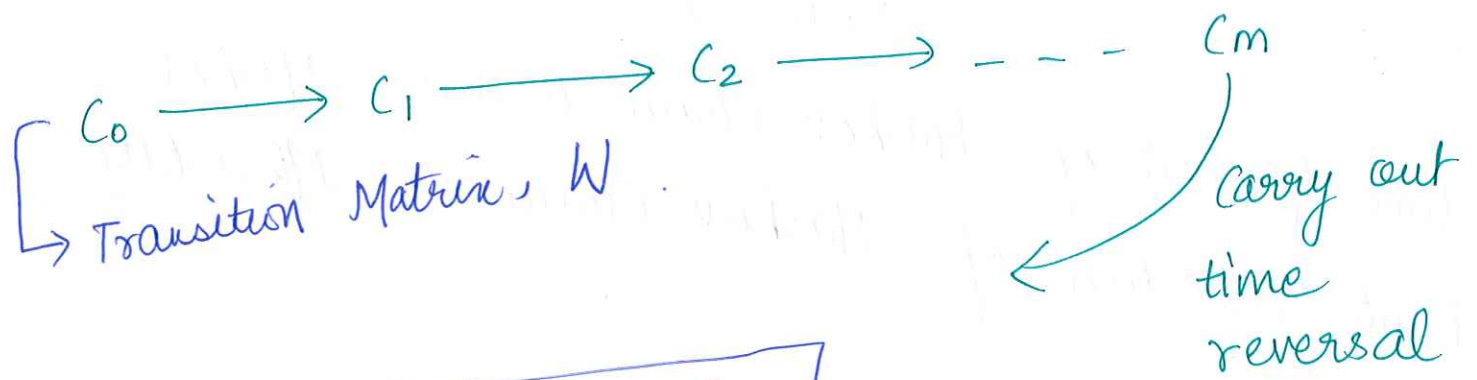
$$P(X_n = c_i) = P(X_{n-1} = c_i) + \sum_j [P(X_{n-1} = c_j) W_{ij}] + P(X_{n-1} = c_i) W_{ji}$$

For large time $t - \neq i$

$$0 = \sum_j \pi_j W_{ij} - \pi_i W_{ji} \rightarrow \text{Balanced Condition.}$$

If also true for all j —

$$\text{i.e. } \boxed{\pi_j W_{ij} = \pi_i W_{ji}} \rightarrow \text{Detailed Balance.}$$



$$(W_R)_{ij} = P(X_n = C_i \mid X_{n+j} = C_j)$$

Using Conditional Probability :-

$$P(A|B) = \frac{P(A \cap B)}{P(B)} = \frac{P(A, B)}{P(B)}$$

$$= \frac{P(X_n = C_i, X_{n+1} = C_j)}{P(X_n = C_j)}$$

$$(W_R)_{ij} = P(X_{n+1} = C_j \mid X_n = C_i) \frac{\pi_i}{\pi_j}$$

② Example :- Newtonian trajectory is time reversal invariant.

For time reversal symmetry —

$$(W_{ij})_R = W_{ij}$$

$$\Rightarrow W_{ij} = W_{ji} \frac{\pi_i}{\pi_j}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{W_{ij} \pi_j = W_{ji} \pi_i}$$

So, Markov chain having time Reversal (TR) symmetry i.e. $(W_{ij})_R = W_{ij}$ obey detailed (DB) Balance & vice-versa.

$$\text{i.e. TR} \iff \text{DB}$$

Note :-

Not all thermodynamic phenomenon are time reversal symmetric.

Metropolis & Coworkers →

System has a tendency to go to lower energy.

- Boltzmann Weight $e^{-\beta E}$.
- Encourage higher probability Region.
- Markov Chain
- Time Homogeneous Transition Matrix
- Detailed Balance.
- Equilibrium Thermodynamic evolution has time Reversal symmetry.

Extra-Conditions

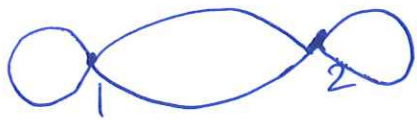
- ① Every state is reachable from other state in finite time i.e. $W_{ij} > 0 \forall i, j$.
This is called strong-ergodicity Condition.
- ② Glass (Non-Equilibrium)
Ergodicity is broken. But after long-time it become opaque.

or, Glass will have tendency to reach equilibrium_m
in infinite time
→ Metastable state.

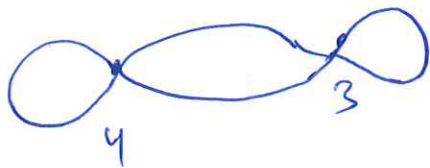
(b). $(W^n)_{ii} > 0$
Periodicity is the property of the state.
We want each state to be aperiodic.

(c). Irreducible :-
Eg. If $C = \{C_1, C_2, C_3, C_4\}$

Then,



(Not allowed)



10.10.17

Notes - II

①

Random Numbers & Test for Randomness

Consider the two sequence of binary random numbers :-

1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 1 0 - (A)

1 1 0 1 0 0 1 0 1 1 0 0 1 1 - (B)

It looks like (A) is not a random sequence because there is a pattern in it (repetition) and second (B) is perhaps a random sequence as there is no recognizable pattern.

But in general, we can recognize that tossing a fair coin fourteen times can generate both these sequences.

In fact, (A) & (B) have the same probability $1/2^{14}$, for an unbiased coin.

→ Test for Randomness

Test, in general sense consists of constructing a function $\varphi(x_1, x_2, \dots)$, where x_1, x_2, \dots are independent

Variables.

→ Calculate the value of the function for a sequence of Pseudo Random, by set $r_i = \xi_i \quad i=1, 2, \dots$

& are supposed to be generated by deterministic algorithm & uniformly in the range 0 to 1. $\rightarrow \{\xi_1, \xi_2, \dots\}$.

Eg.
$$\varphi(r_1, r_2, \dots) = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N r_i$$

defines the average of N -numbers.

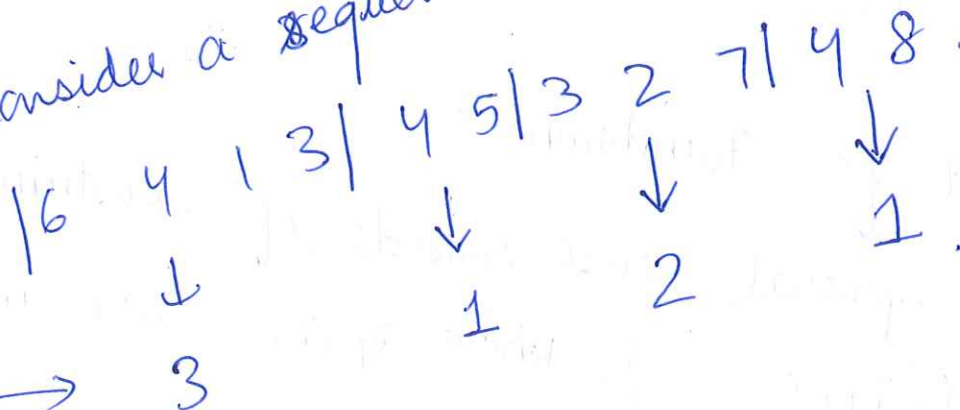
Run Tests

Run-up or Run-down Test

We say run-down length is l if we have a sequence of Random Numbers such that :-

$$\xi_{l+1} > \xi_l < \xi_{l-1} \dots \xi_1$$

Eg. Consider a sequence -



Run-down length \rightarrow

→ Probability distribution of Run-down length — (2)
Let $P(L \geq l)$ be the probability that the run-down length $L \geq l$.

For $P(L \geq l)$, consider a sequence of l distinct random numbers.

$l!$ ways of arranging
Only one of these sequences have the correct descending order

$$\Rightarrow P(L \geq l) = 1/l!$$

$$P(L = l) = P(L \geq l) - P(L \geq l+1) \\ = \frac{1}{l!} - \frac{1}{(l+1)!} \quad \checkmark$$

→ Pseudo Random Generators —
Linear Congruential Generator

$$R_{i+1} = aR_i + b \pmod{m}$$

where,

a, b, m are integers.

a is called Generator or Multiplier

b is the increment

m is the modulus.

Start with a seed R_i & generate successive R_{i+1}
 $\forall i = 1, 2, \dots$

$\{R_1, R_2, \dots, R_n\} \rightarrow$ sequence of integers.
(Random)

Also can be expressed as :-

$$R_{i+1} = (aR_i + b) - \left[\frac{aR_i + b}{m} \right] \times m \quad \checkmark$$

Eg. Let, $a = 5, b = 1, R_1 = 1, m = 100$

$$R_1 = 1$$

$$R_2 = (5 \times 1 + 1) \pmod{100} = 6 \pmod{100} = 6$$

$$R_3 = 31$$

$$R_4 = 56$$

$$R_5 = 81$$

$$R_6 = 6 = R_2$$

$$R_7 = R_3$$

!

cycle repeats

So, we just get four random integrals.

Note :-

→ Whatever the ~~sequence~~ choice of a, b & m , the sequence of random numbers generated will repeat after utmost m steps.

→ Periodic

→ Must ensure the no. of Random numbers required for any simulation much less than period

→ Take m very large.

Rules —

① m & b are relatively prime, i.e. $\gcd(m, b) = 1$

② $a = 1 \pmod{p}$ for every prime factor p of m

③ $a = 1 \pmod{4}$, if $m = 0 \pmod{4}$

③

Eg. $a = 7, b = 13, m = 18, R_1 = 1$

$$R_{i+1} = (a R_i + b) \pmod{m}$$

$$R_1 = 1$$

$$R_2 = 20 \pmod{18} = 2$$

$$R_3 = 27 \pmod{18} = 9$$

$$R_4 = 76 \pmod{18} = 4$$

$$R_5 = 5$$

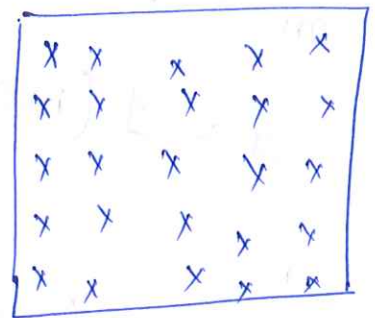
$$R_6 = 12, R_7 = 7, R_8 = 8, R_9 = 15,$$

$$R_{10} = 10 \quad \dots \quad R_{18} = 6$$

$$R_{19} = 1$$

Marzaglia Planes

Marzaglia structure is established the formation of lattice
 congruential is an inherent feature of linear
 → serious Generator (LCG) defect in (LCG).



17/10/17

Notes-12

①

Metropolis algorithm fails for collective phenomenon.

$$ds = \frac{dq_{rev}}{T} = \frac{Cv dT}{T} \rightarrow \text{measurable}$$

Importance Sampling

Importance sampling helps us sample from the important region of the sample space.

Sample $\{x_i ; i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$

Let, function, $h(x)$ and the associated probability density f^n $f(x)$ of the random variable X .

$h(x) \rightarrow$ called score function

$$\text{Expectation value, } \langle h \rangle = \int h(x) f(x) dx$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum h(x_i)$$

Modified score function $H(x)$ is defined as

$$H(x) = \frac{h(x) f(x)}{g(x)}$$

where, we sample $\{x_i\}$ from importance density $g(x)$ instead of $f(x)$.

Steps :-

$$\langle hf \rangle = \int h(x) f(x) dx$$

Divide & Multiply by $f(x)$ —

$$\langle hf \rangle = \int \left[h(x) \frac{1}{g(x)} f(x) g(x) \right] dx$$

$$= \int H(x) g(x) dx$$

$$\langle hf \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N H(x_i)$$

$$\boxed{\langle h \rangle_f = \langle H \rangle_g}$$

$\{x_i\}$ sample from f

$\{x_i\}$ sample from g

where, g is some auxiliary distribution

Weight function —

$w = 1$ (for $f(x)$ ensemble)

$$w_i = w \times \frac{1}{g(x_n)} f(x_n)$$

Error bar:-

$$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}$$

(2)

$$\bar{H}_N \left(\frac{h}{g} \right) = \frac{1}{N} \sum h(x_i) \frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i)}$$

\downarrow
 $\lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \rightarrow \langle h \rangle_f$

$\underbrace{\qquad\qquad\qquad}_{\text{weight } f^n}$

→ Also a variance reduction device

Statistical error 1-

Second Moment :-

$$M_2^B(H) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H^2(x) g(x) dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{h(x)f(x)}{g(x)} \frac{h(x)f(x)}{g(x)} g(x) dx$$

$$= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left[\frac{f(x)}{g(x)} \right]^2 h^2(x) g(x) dx$$

For, initial sampling $\{x_i\}$ from $h(x)$

$$M_2(h) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} h^2(x) g(x) dx$$

Thus, choosing properly the importance f^2
 $g(x)$ & ensure the ratio $\frac{f(x)}{g(x)}$ is less than unity,

$$M_2^B(H) < M_2(h)$$

So, the importance sampling serve as
 variance reduction technique!

Example :-

of a slab of material of thickness, T
 Particle incident normally on the left face
 The particle would penetrate a distance x
 into the shield with prob.

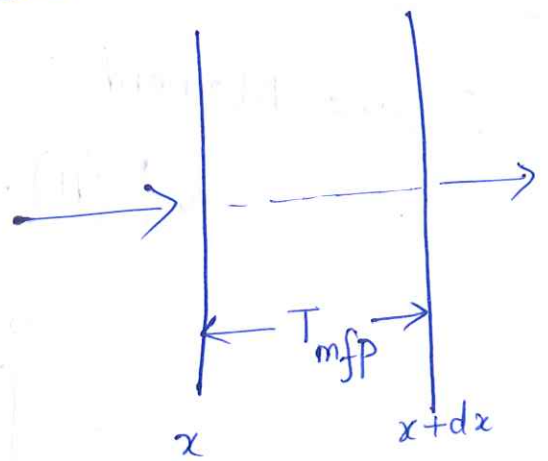
$$p(x) = \Sigma e^{-\Sigma x}$$

$$p(x) dx = \Sigma e^{-\Sigma x} dx$$

Σ^{-1} = Mean free path (mfp)

Note :- We can measure all distances in units of
 mfp & hence set $\Sigma = 1$.

→ What fraction of incident photons/particles comes
 out ?



Monte-Carlo rules —

(3)

① Generate x_i for $e^{-x} dx$

② Check $x_i > T$ or $x_i < T$

If $x_i > T$, store unity.
else score zero.

③ Collect the score from N histories.

$$\int_0^{\infty} h(x) f(x) dx = \int_T^{\infty} e^{-x} dx = \text{small.}$$

Let, $T = 10$ mfp

Auxiliary, $g(x) = b e^{-bx}$

① In the biased simulation, sample x_i from $b e^{-bx}$.

$b = \tilde{b}$ such that variance is minimum.

② If $x_i > T$, then score is $w_i = \frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i, \tilde{b})}$

$$= \exp[-x_i(1 - \tilde{b})] / \tilde{b}$$

else score is zero.

$$\mu = \int_0^{\infty} \exp(-x) h(x) dx$$

$$= \exp(-T)$$

$$\sigma^2 = (1-\mu)\mu \quad \text{---} \quad = \langle h^2 \rangle - \langle h \rangle^2$$

$$= \mu - \mu^2$$

$$\boxed{\sigma^2 = \mu(1-\mu)}$$

Take $T = 5 \text{ mfp}, 10 \text{ mfp}, 100 \text{ mfp},$
 Calculate μ, σ^2

→ Importance sampling, $g(x)$.

$$\sigma^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H^2(x) g(x) dx - \left(\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H(x) g(x) dx \right)^2$$

$$= \int_M^{\infty} \frac{\exp(-2x(1-b))}{b^2} \cdot b e^{-bx} dx - e^{-2T}$$

$$= \frac{1}{b} \left(+ \right) \frac{\exp(-2+b)x}{b(b-2)} \Bigg|_M^{\infty} - e^{-2T}$$

$$\sigma^2 = \frac{1}{b(2-b)} \exp(-T(2-b)) - e^{-2T}$$

Minimize σ^2 w.r.t b —

(4)

$$\left. \frac{\partial \sigma^2}{\partial b} \right|_{b=\tilde{b}} = 0 \quad \text{to obtain } \tilde{b}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{b} = ?$$

$$\frac{-1(2-2b)\exp(-T(2-b))}{b^2(2-b)^2} + \frac{T \exp(-T(2-b))}{b(2-b)} = 0$$

$$\frac{2(b-1)}{b(2-b)} + \frac{T}{1} = 0$$

$$\frac{2b-2}{b(2-b)} = -T$$

$$2b-2 = -2bT + Tb^2$$

$$b^2 - 2b\left(1 + \frac{T}{1}\right) + \frac{2}{T} = 0$$

$$\tilde{b}_{1,2} = \frac{2\left(1 + \frac{T}{1}\right) \pm \sqrt{4\left(1 + \frac{T}{1}\right)^2 - \frac{8}{T}}}{2}$$

$$\tilde{b}_{1,2} = \left(1 + \frac{T}{1}\right) \pm \sqrt{4\left(1 + \frac{T}{1}\right)^2 - \frac{8}{T}}$$

$$\frac{4}{T^2} - \frac{8}{T^2}$$

$$-\frac{4}{T^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{b}_{1,2} = 1 + \frac{1}{T} \pm \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{T^2}}$$

Choose -ve sign (for minimum variance)

$$\Rightarrow \tilde{b} = 1 + \frac{1}{T} - \sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{T^2}} \checkmark$$

So, \tilde{b} depends on thickness.

$$\text{For } T = 3, \quad \tilde{b} = 0.28$$

$$T = 10, \quad \tilde{b} = 0.09$$

Importance Sampling

①

23/10/17

Recap :-

Importance sampling helps us sample from the important regions of the sample space.

$x = x(w) \rightarrow$ sampled from $f(x)$

$$\langle h \rangle_f = \int h(x) f(x) dx$$

$$= \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^N h(x_i)$$

In the nbd of avg. of x , let $h(x) = 0$.
Suppose, we want to find probability that person will survive beyond 100 yrs?

For such situations, we can sample $\{x_i : i = 1, 2, \dots, N\}$ from an importance density $g(x)$ instead of analogous $f(x)$.

$$\langle h \rangle_g = \langle h \rangle_f$$

↓
weight function

$$= \int h(x) \underbrace{w(x)}_{\frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i)}} g(x) dx = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i h(x_i) \frac{f(x_i)}{g(x_i)}$$

$$= \int h(x) f(x) dx$$

Error Bar :- $\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}$

Binomial Distribution

N-fair coin

H $\rightarrow p = 1/2$

T $\rightarrow p = 1/2$

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

- ① Toss the coin
- ② Generate random no. x .
- ③ If $x < 0.5 \rightarrow$ Head.
else \rightarrow Tail
- ④ frequency distribution.

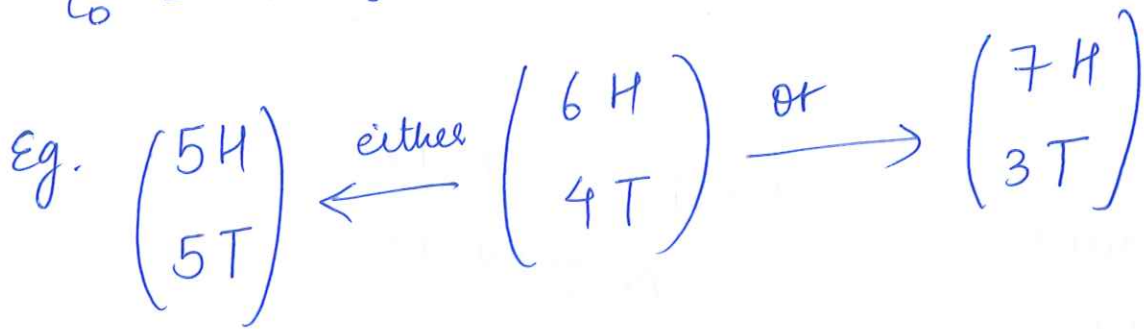
⑤. 1-Million time tossing 100 coins ②

⑥. See the estimate of Binomial distribution

Binomial distribution for 100 heads & 0 tail is very small

$$= 2^{-100} \text{ (very small but non-zero).}$$

*. $\overset{\text{Pick randomly.}}{\text{HHHT(H)HHTTH}} \rightarrow C_0 \text{ (Initial Conf.)}$
 $\downarrow \text{flip}$
 (T)



Another method — (denote no. of head (say))

Let $n_0 = 3$

$n_1 = 4$
 \downarrow
 $p = 0.7$

or $n_1 = 2$
 \downarrow
 $p = 0.3.$

$n_0 \rightarrow n_1 \rightarrow n_2 \rightarrow \dots$

If Head $\rightarrow 5$
Tail $\rightarrow 5$ } \rightarrow Equilibrium Configuration

HHHHH TTTT \rightarrow Ordered Conf.
(Not Equilibrium Microstates)

If $n = 50$, no. of underlying conf. are very large,

i.e. $\frac{100!}{50! 50!} \rightarrow$ Maximum Entropy.

Maximum Entropy \rightarrow Most Probable Configuration

Start β 30 H 70 T
0.3 0.7

Machinery

$\frac{50 H, 50 T}{\downarrow}$
Equilibrium.

Machinery -

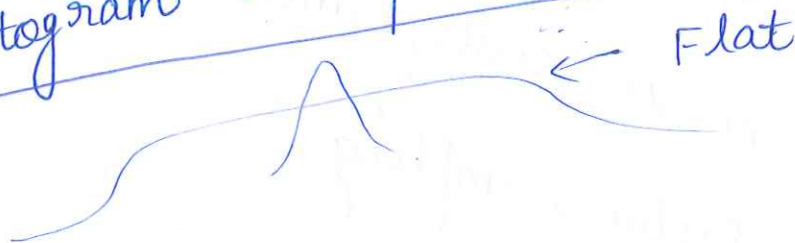
Modify the Markov chain. Reframe the problem to get same Binomial distribution.

Machinery → System away from equilibrium is allowed.

i.e. 30 H ↓ 29 H 70 T ↓ 71 T is also allowed!

→ Fluctuations are important. Encourage system away from equilibrium.

Flat histogram Technique / Umbrella Tech.



(A) Cheating way.

Let, C_i → Initial configuration
 C_t → Trial configuration

$$g(n_i) \rightarrow \frac{N!}{n_i! (N-n_i)!} \quad (\text{for initial})$$

$$g(n_t) \rightarrow \frac{N!}{n_t! (N-n_t)!} \quad (\text{for trial})$$

If $g(n_t) > g(n_i) \rightarrow$ Discourage
 $g(n_t) < g(n_i) \rightarrow$ Allow it to go.

\rightarrow Follow the histogram

$\rightarrow h_i = 0$

\rightarrow update the histogram

\rightarrow Equal no. of configurations in all boxes
(umbrella sampling)

30.10.17

Notes - 14

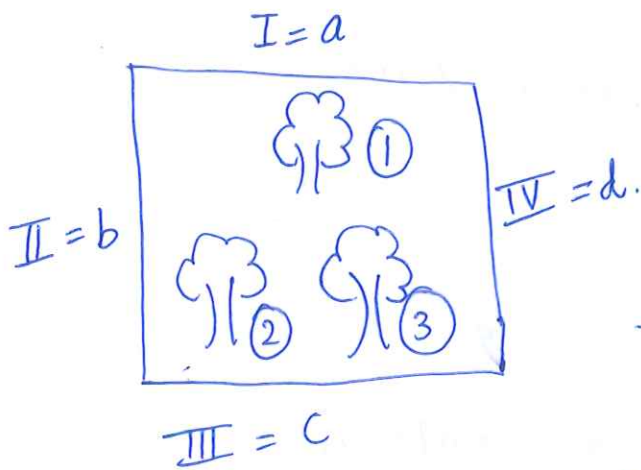
①

Russian Rolling

- Statistical Weight
- Splitting in combination with Russian Rolling (either terminate or continue) ✓

(1) Hidden Markov Model :-

Idea:-



Monkey jumps
→ Start

→ $W_{ij} \rightarrow 3 \times 3$

→ Inhomogeneous Markov chain.

Monkey pick a mango from the picked tree & throw in any of the four direction with some probability.

Observed state $\rightarrow a \rightarrow a \rightarrow b \rightarrow c \rightarrow d \rightarrow a \rightarrow c$

Hidden state $\rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1 \rightarrow 3 \rightarrow 2 \rightarrow 1$

Eg. ① Speech (Hear $\rightarrow (a, b, c, d)$, what person say $(1, 2, 3, \dots)$)

② Hand Writing Analyses

Observed \rightarrow Markov process of visible states.

Question:- if Mango is at 'a', what is the prob. that it comes from 1, 2 or 3.

Note:- Viterbi Algorithm for speech recognition Technique.

(2).

Gillespie Algorithm

Radio-active material, long lived simulate the Geiger Muller Counter and see the tick.

→ No interaction for longer time

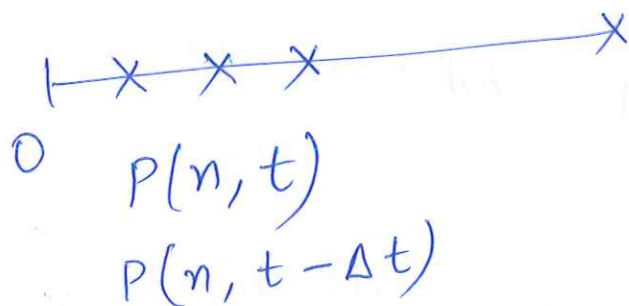
→ Neutrino Oscillation.

Event Based

→ Time at which decay happens.

Generate MC scheme. Time elapses b/w 2 events,

" τ ", $f(\tau) \rightarrow$ Poisson Distribution

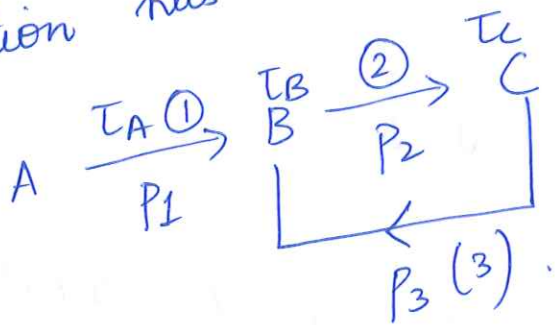


In small interval Δt , either one event occur or no event occur. (2)

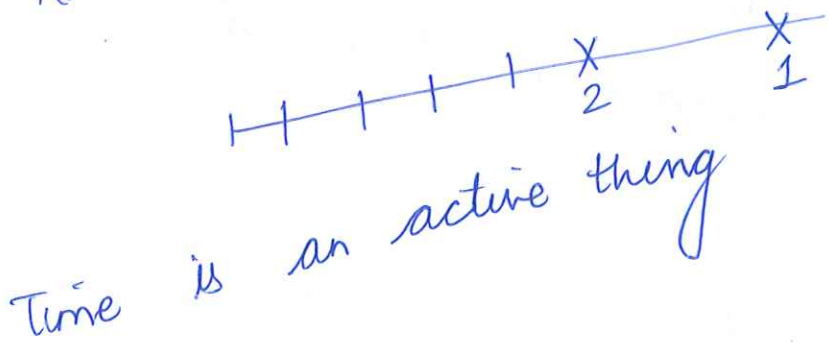
Poisson Distribution :- $\frac{e^{-\mu} \mu^n}{n!}$

This is event-based Monte Carlo.

Chemical Reaction :- Time constant, λ
 Each Reaction has distinct poisson decay constant.



Rate of decay?



Time is an active thing

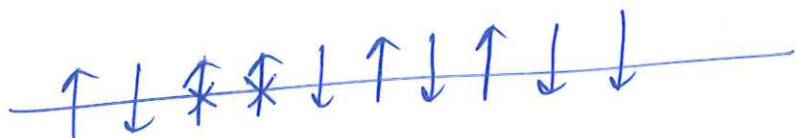
(3). Voter / Ising Model :-

Things only happen on a local scale.
 Array of atoms. Each atom is a spin.

(\uparrow/\downarrow). Each element only interact with neighbouring element.

"Local Interaction" is adequate to change the global property

Eg. Voter Model
Ising Model

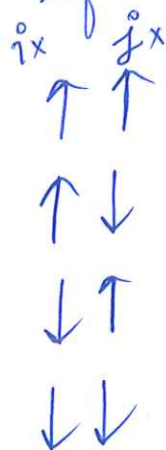


No order.

Only events happening in the nbd decides.

→ Disordering temperature.

→ State of lower energy is preferred.



$$\begin{array}{c}
 | \text{---} \times \text{---} \times \text{---} \times \text{---} \times \\
 \circ \\
 S_i = +1 \quad \uparrow \\
 = -1 \quad \downarrow
 \end{array}$$

$$E_{ij} = -S_i S_j$$

$$E = \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} J_{ij} S_i S_j$$

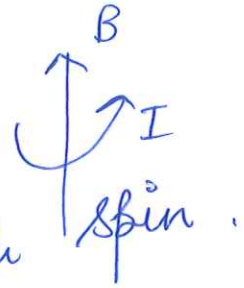
$$H = - \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} J_{ij} S_i S_j$$

$$- B \sum S_z$$

Prevaling influence / Magnetic field for ising model (lift the degeneracy) ✓

		E
↑	↑	-1
↑	↓	+1
↓	↑	+1
↓	↓	-1

Magnetic system :- Whenever there is a loop, magnetic moment (B) is generated when magnetic current (I) passes through the loop.



- Magnetic moment associated with spin.
- Piece of iron → cool
- Non Magnetic $\xrightarrow{T \downarrow}$ Magnetization.
- Paramagnetic (Disordered) → Ferromagnetic (Ordered).

Macroscopic order from Microscopic Interaction.

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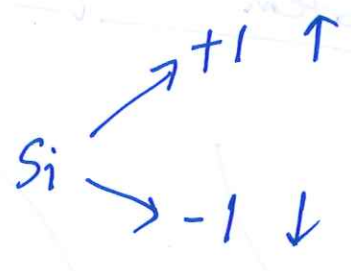
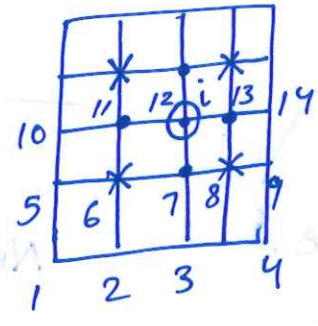
MC class - Notes 15.

(1)

Local interaction.

- 1d - 2 nb.
- 2d - 4 nb.
- 3d - 6 nb.
- ⋮

2d Lattice



For $T < T_c$, there is correlation (co-operation) globally.

which property of society lead to global behaviour?
Eg. Rumours spread within seconds!

i, j are nearest neighbour state

$$\epsilon_{ij} = -J_{ij} S_i S_j$$

If, $J_{ij} = J$

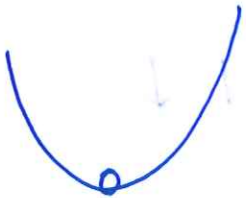
Aligned spins preferably
(State of low energy)

S_i	S_j	ϵ
+1	+1	-J
+1	-1	+J
-1	+1	+J
-1	-1	-J

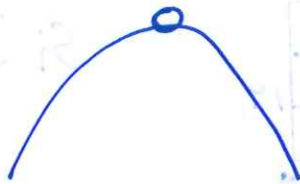
$$E = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} S_i S_j$$

Low energy state is either all the spins aligned up or aligned down.

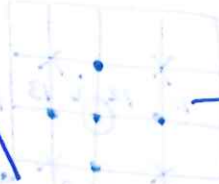
System Confused!



Stable
eq^m.



Unstable
eq^m
(Mech.)



Neutral.

Note:- In Thermody, this is not eq^m state! (Since fluctuations are always there).

→ Hoff bifurcation

Entropy → Macroscopic behaviour. Arrow of time.

At microscopic level, there is no preferred direction of time.

Symmetry Breaking → Time fluctuation ✓

There are 2 organizing principles — (2)

(1) System has tendency to form minimum energy state. ~~$(\frac{\partial E}{\partial S}) = Tds$~~

(2) Larger the energy, larger is entropy.

$$Tds = du - PdV$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S}\right) = T.$$

$$E(c) =$$

$$P(c) \propto e^{-\beta E(c)}$$

↓
Probability of the configuration

In Metropolis alg., we don't need proportional constant.

→ Problem can be reduced to Binomial distribution

→ Ghost Technique
large no. of degrees of freedom. Start with zero energy.

Eg. Bank.

External agent: B .

$$E = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} S_i S_j - B \sum_i S_i$$

$B \uparrow \rightarrow$ sym. breaking field.

Entropy :-

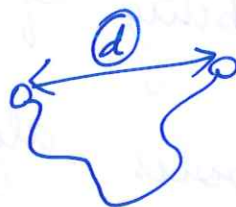
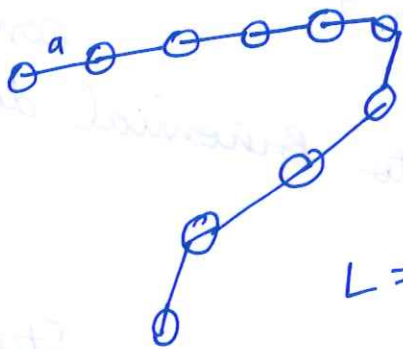
Suppose, there is no energy interaction at all.

$$E = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} S_i S_j - B \sum_i S_i$$

$$E = -TS$$

Maximize entropy

Rubber



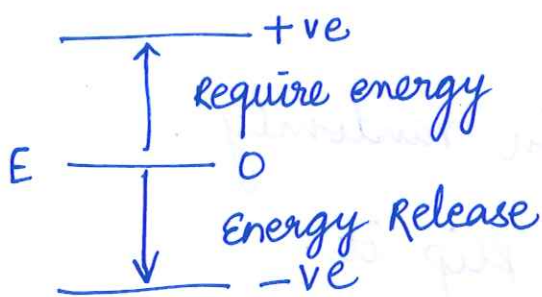
$$L = (n-1)a$$

$$d = L \rightarrow \text{Entropy} = 0$$

when $d \ll L$, Entropy max.

when $T \uparrow$, entropy increases \Rightarrow Shortening of length.

③



③

Simulating soft material :-

Eg. Tooth Paste, Gels etc.

Shear Modulus = 0

Rigidity & flow like liquid

Entropy dominating

Prediction of property of soft material ✓

Ghost Algorithm.

Boltzmann Weight :- $e^{-\beta E(c)}$.

Metropolis Algo.

Allow entropy to play role in Generating the trial conf.

$$\pi_i W_{ji} = \pi_j W_{ij}$$

- Generate the conformation randomly.
- Pick state randomly & flip it.
- C_0 $P(C_0)$ If, $P(C_0) < P(C_t)$ (down the energy) ✓
- C_t $P(C_t)$ If, $P(C_0) > P(C_t)$
- Take the ratio & accept the prob.
- 10,000 Microstate.
- Equilibrate
- Canonical Ensemble (T fixed) ✓

Steps —

Fix Temp and get various Macroscopic properties

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i E(C_i)$$

$$\langle E^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum_i E^2(C_i)$$

$$\sigma^2 = \langle E^2 \rangle - \langle E \rangle^2$$

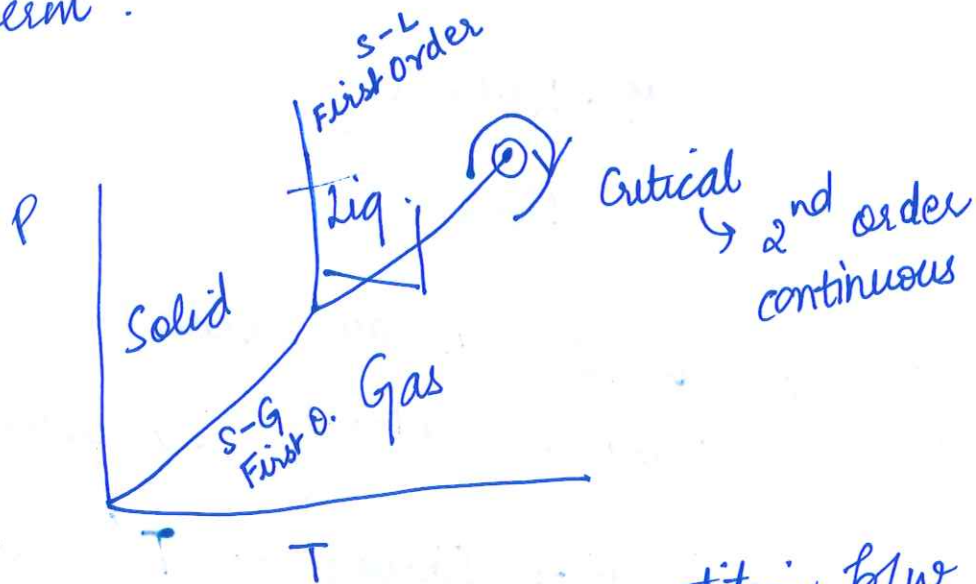
$$k_B T^2 C_V = \sigma^2$$

↓
Shots at phase transition.

Net Magnetization
Susceptibility

4

Isotherm



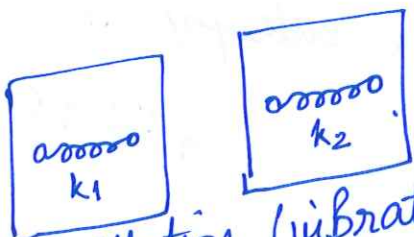
Transition :- occurs due to competition b/w entropy and energy.

Transition from paramagnetization to ferromag.
 → 2nd order / continuous phase transition.

Temp Induced 2nd order Phase Transition
 Heat Capacity :: Amt. of heat required to raise temp.
 by 1°C
 $C_v =$

2 kinds of Solids :-

How the incoming energy affects the



oscillation (vibration) of spring?

graphite

Carbon atom

(2)

↓
covalent Bonds

↓

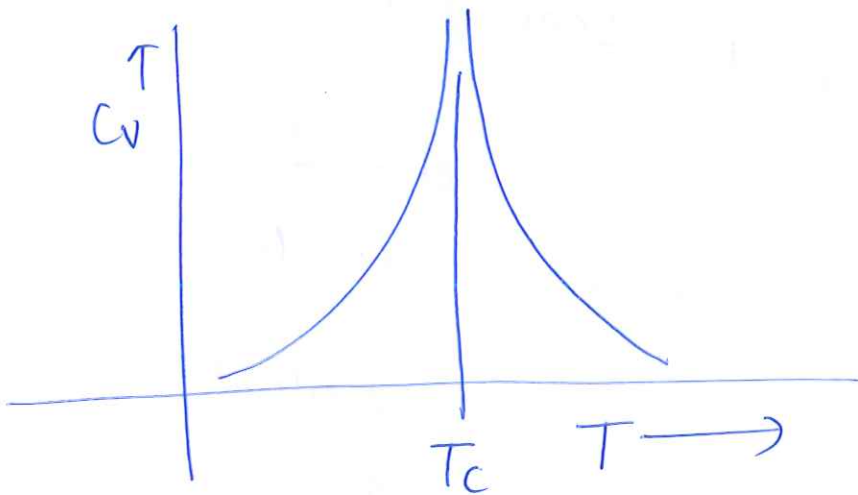
Diamond.

Heat capacity depends on Temperature (In principle)
 $C_v =$ Material Property.

$C_v(T)$

$$C_v = \frac{\Delta Q}{\Delta T} = \infty$$

$\Delta Q =$ Latent Heat.



Temperature can be scaled as

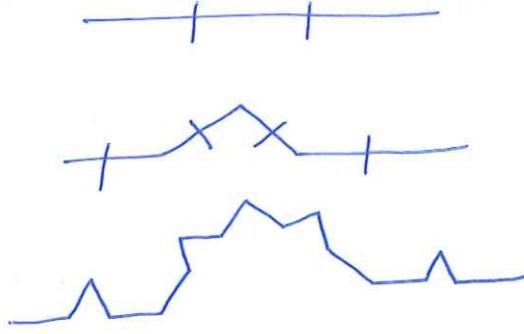
K, mK, μ K

(Power Law Behaviour)

Self-similarity \rightarrow Properly chosen part of a whole looks like "whole".

Scale free objects

- Fractals
- Euclidean



→ scale free

$$C_V \sim (T - T_c)^\alpha$$

(since divergence to infinity is scale free)

- Ability of nature
- Fractal dimension is scale-free.

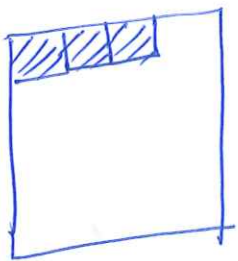
Line



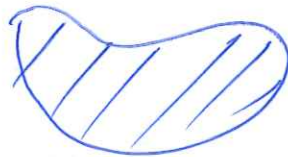
$$N(\epsilon) \epsilon = \lim_{\epsilon \rightarrow 0} N(\epsilon) \epsilon = \text{finite no} = 1$$

2d.

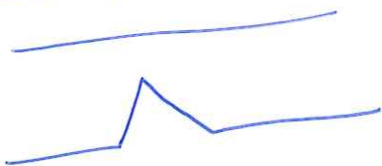
$$N(\epsilon) \epsilon^2$$



or



Topological Dimension $4^n \left(\frac{1}{3}\right)^n = 4^n \epsilon^d$



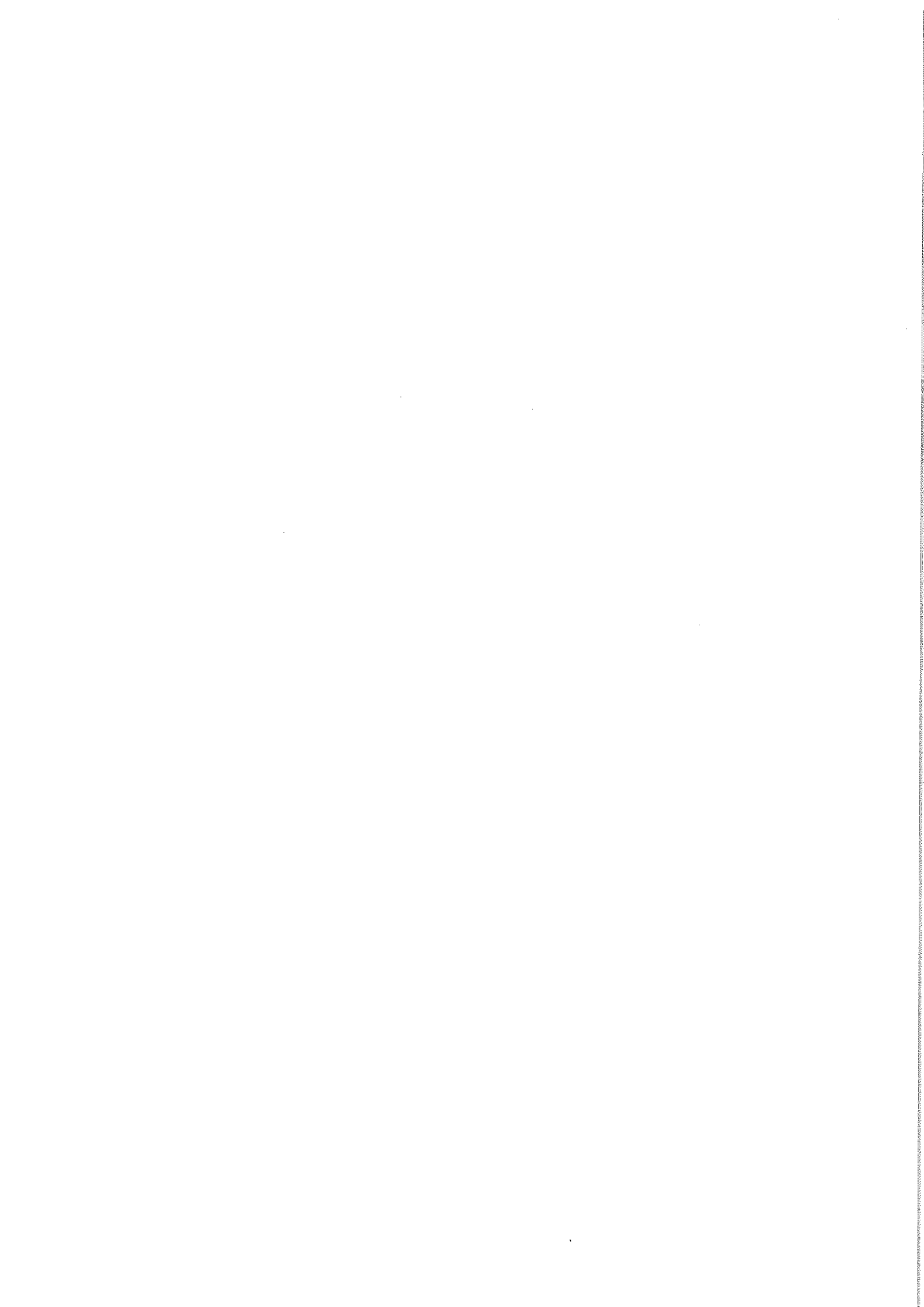
For what d , this is finite? $d = \log_3 4 \checkmark$

3

Phase Transition \rightarrow Self Similar

Nature's way of affecting infinity!

From the part, construct the whole --



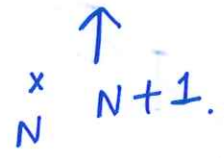
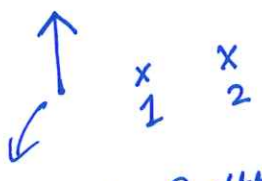
1d :- No Magnetization emerge.

For some co-operate phenomenon to happen, neighbours should be there.

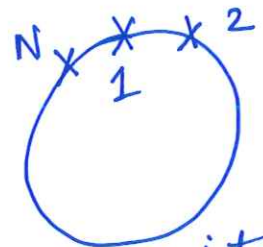
Long-Range behaviour should be emerged from local interaction.

Boundary Condⁿ

① Rigid Boundary Condⁿ.



② Periodic B.C

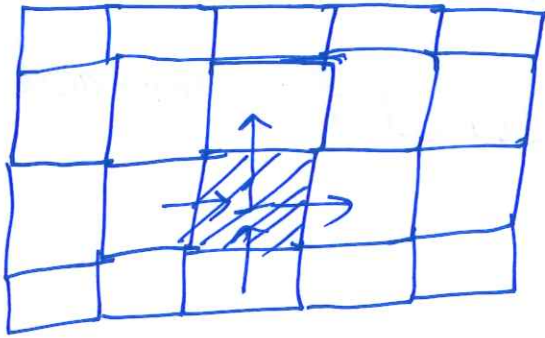


③ Random Boundary Condition.

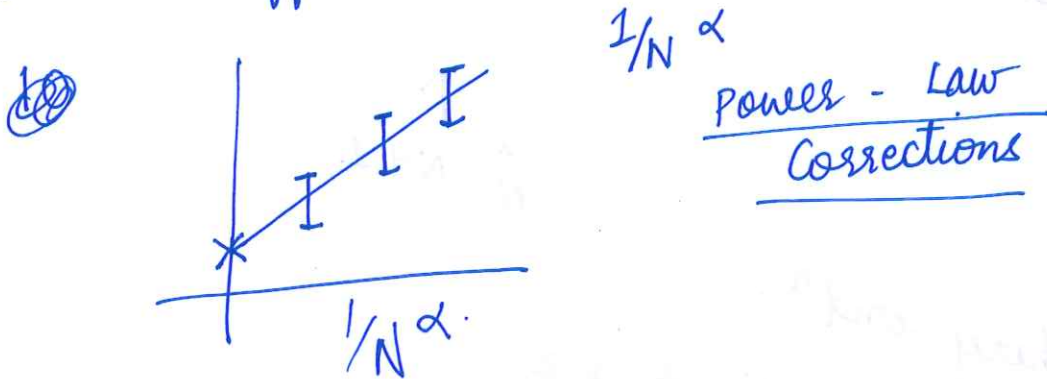
Finite size effect → Larger the system, small FSE.

FSE are least for periodic B.C.

2-d :-



Finite Size Effects



②

2-d Ising Model

Plot Energy v/s Temp.
Magnetization v/s Temp.

1 Monte Carlo Step

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{1}{10^6} \sum E(C_i)$$

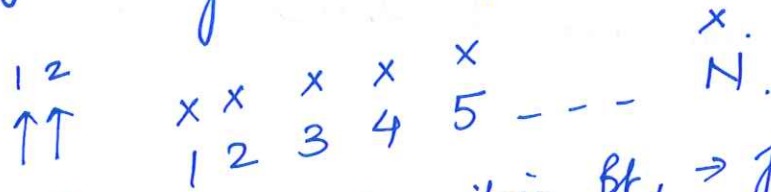
$$\langle E^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{10^6} \sum E^2(C_i)$$

①

$E(c)$

$\uparrow \downarrow$
 $i \quad j$

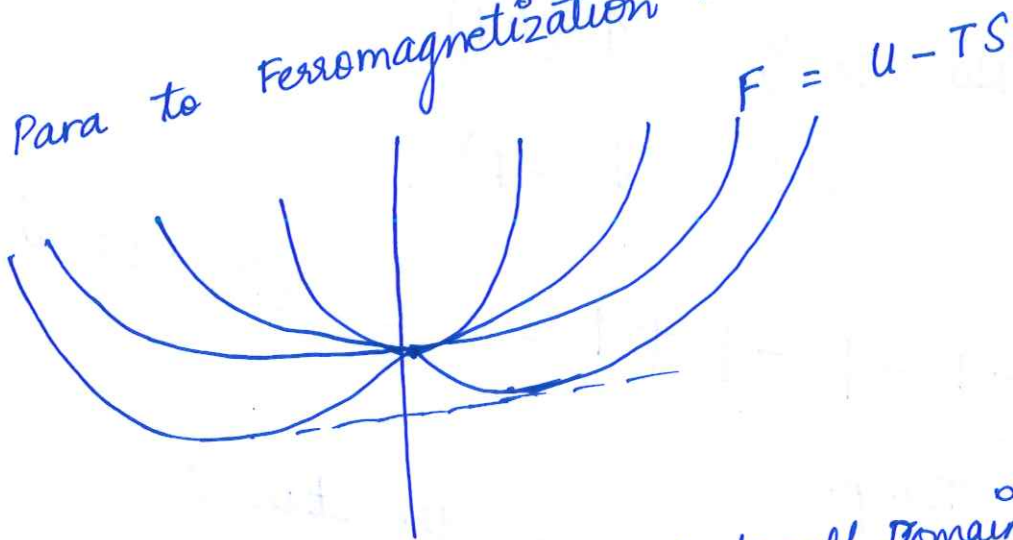
$$E_{ij} = -JS_i S_j$$



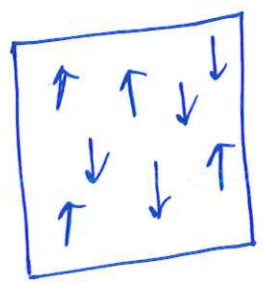
At the transition pt, \rightarrow jump in the transition - 1st Order Transition

Second Order \rightarrow Continuous
Fluctuations grow near the transition point.

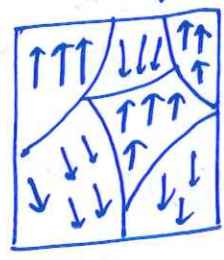
Para to Ferromagnetization \rightarrow 2nd order Transition



Kadanoff Domains.



$T \downarrow$



Microscopic Magnetization

$$E = -J \sum_{\langle ij \rangle} S_i S_j - B \sum_i S_i$$

$B =$ Symmetry Breaking field

\times \times \dots \times
 1 2 \dots $10,000$

$$E = -J \sum_1^{N-1} S_i S_{i+1} + S_N S_1 - B \sum S_i$$

\times \times
 1 2

Random No $> \frac{1}{2}$ $\uparrow (+1)$

$< \frac{1}{2}$ $\downarrow (-1)$

$C_0 = +1 -1 -1 +1 \dots$ (10,000 times)

Given $T = \text{Temp.}$

Random No :- Pick one of the spin & change its sign.

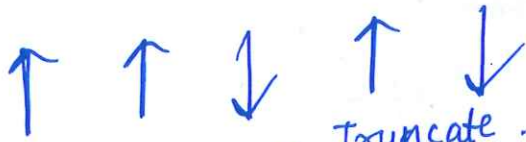
$\rightarrow E[C_t] \rightarrow$ Trial Conf.

If $E[C_t] < E[C_0] \rightarrow$ Accept C_t .

$$p \propto e^{-\beta E}$$

Eg.

C_0 :-



E
 ~~E~~ - 3

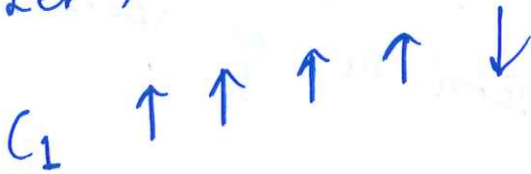
(2)

Choose

$$\frac{\text{Random No} \times 5}{\text{truncate}} + 1$$

lies b/w 1 & 5.

Let, we get 3.



- 2

C_0 $P(C_0)$

C_t $P(C_t)$

If $P(C_t) > P(C_0)$ $C_1 = C_t$.

$P(C_t) < P(C_0)$

$$r = \frac{P(C_t)}{P(C_0)}$$

if $R_n < r$ $C_1 = C_t$,
 $R_n > r$ $C_1 = C_0$

$C_0 \rightarrow C_1$

$$P(C) \propto e^{-\beta E(C)}$$

Higher Prob. Lower Energy

Repeat for 50,000 steps.

Equilibration run ✓ Step 1

Plot the avg. energy for 100 steps, 1000 steps, and check the fluctuations with steps.

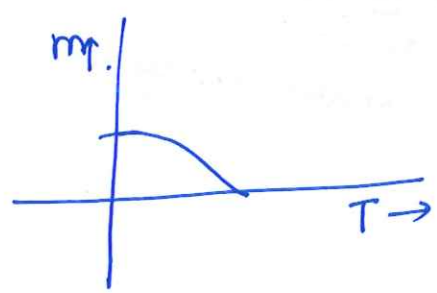
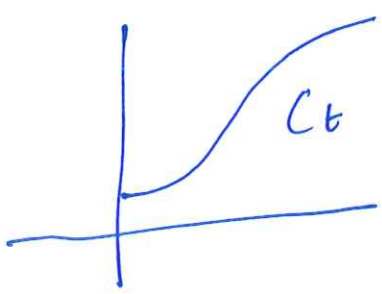
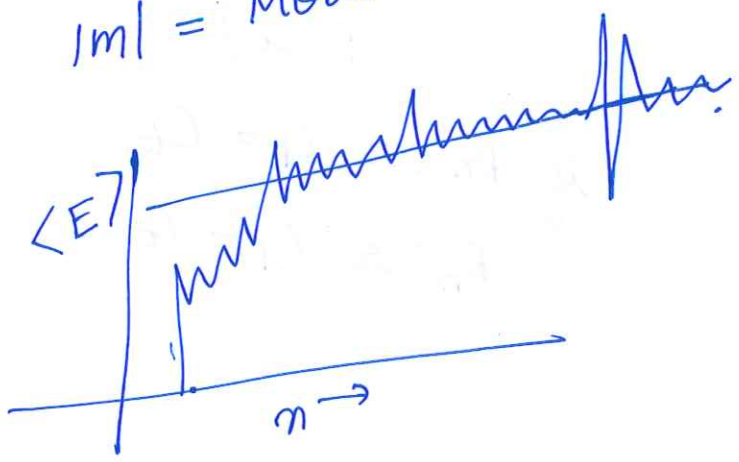
Magnetization \rightarrow sum of spins. = S

$$\langle m \rangle = \frac{S}{N}$$

N : Total no. of spins.

$$M = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^n S_i$$

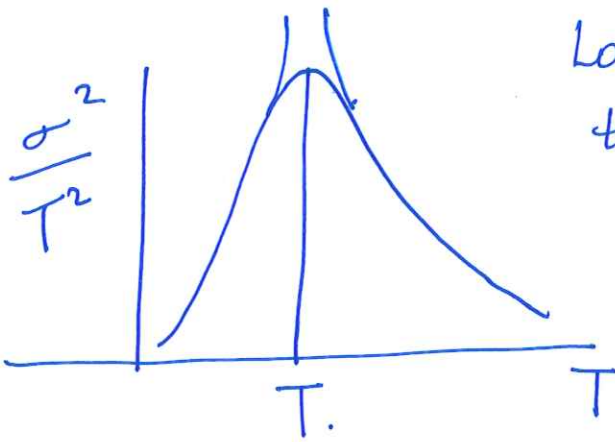
$|m|$ = Modulus.



$$k_B T^2 C_V = \sigma^2$$

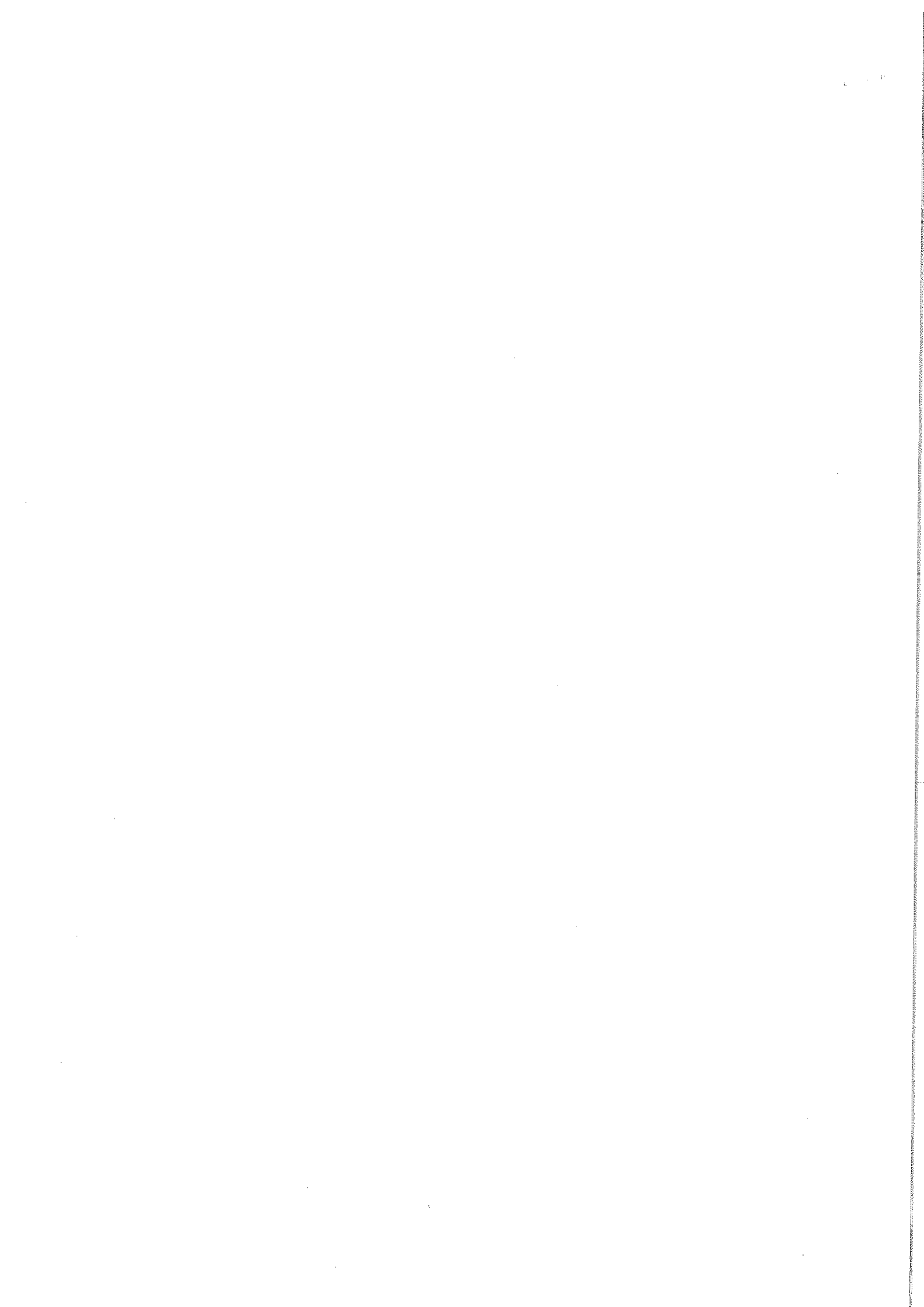
(3)

→ Fluctuation Dissipation Theorem.



Locate the transition temperature:

Finite → sample (Central Limit Theorem)
Finite size.



①

MC Methods

13/11/17

Notes - 18

Ising Model

Summary :- (Boltzmann Algorithm)

① C_0 (Initial Configuration)

② $E(C_0) \rightarrow$ Energy of Initial Conf. = E_0
 $- E(C_0)/k_B T.$

③ Probability $P(C_0) \propto e$

④ Construct a trial state C_t .

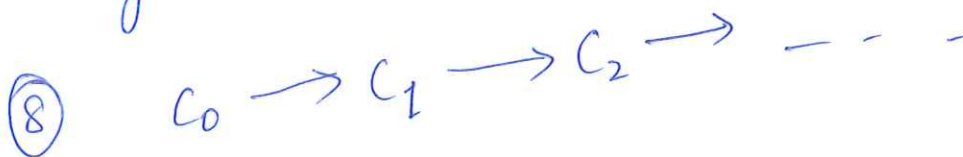
$$E(C_t) = E_t$$

$$r = \frac{E[C_t]}{E[C_0]}$$

$$p = \min(1, r).$$

⑥ Accept the trial state with prob. p .
(or, in other words, accept the trial state will have lower energy or higher probability).

⑦ Natural process of picking trial state respects higher entropy.



Any Property —

$$\langle Q(c) \rangle = \frac{1}{N} \sum Q(c_i)$$

$Q(c)$ can be ~~entire~~ energy, Magnetization, specific heat etc.

Such properties are defined by each Microstate

→ Mechanical Property. (Microstate Property)
Non-Boltzmann Algorithm (For Thermal Properties)

Entropy :- $S = -k_B \sum_i p_i \ln p_i$

(Collective Property)

Let, we toss the coin 10 times.

$$S(n) = \text{Entropy associated with } n$$

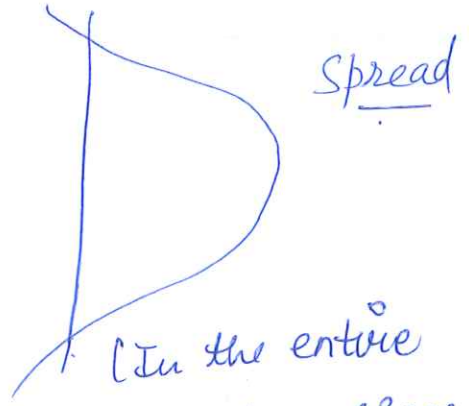
- n
- 0
- 1
- 2
- 3
- 4
- 5
- 6
- 7
- 8
- 9
- 10

(2)

Umbrella sampling

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

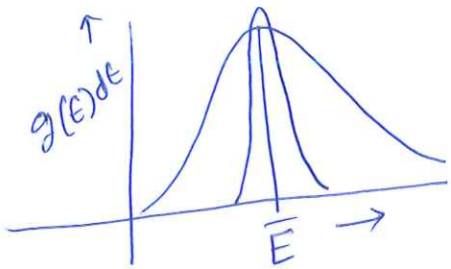
(Density of states)



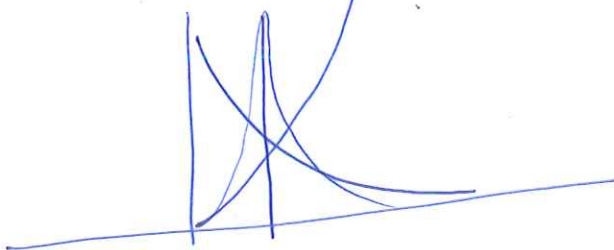
(In the entire parameter space, spreads) ✓

$\boxed{g(E)} dE =$ No of microstates having energy $(E, E+dE)$
 ↓
 Density of states.

$g(n) \rightarrow$ No of microstates corresponding to n .



$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{\int E P(E) dE}{\int P(E) dE} = \frac{\int E e^{-\beta E} g(E) dE}{\int e^{-\beta E} g(E) dE}$$



Entropy Sampling :-

Non-Boltzmann Algorithm

① C_0

② $E(C_0) = E_0$

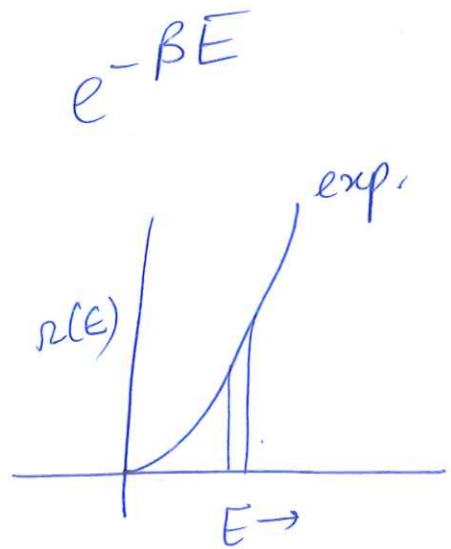
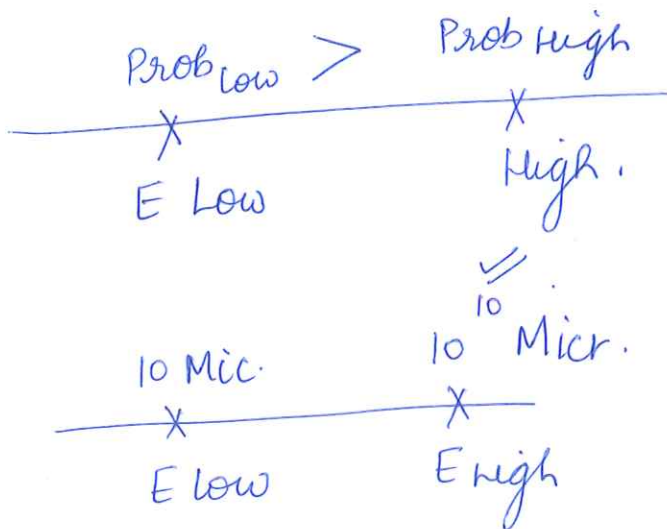
③ $P(C_0) = \frac{1}{g(E(C_0))}$ (Unphysical)

④ C_t

⑤ $r = \frac{P(C_t)}{P(C_0)} = \frac{g(E_0)}{g(E_t)}$

$p = \min(1, r)$

⑥ No of microstates in each region \rightarrow Flat Histogram Method.



(3)

Number of Microstate . (Exp.)

$$10^3 \longrightarrow 10^{20}$$

Entropy $3 \longrightarrow 20$. (Log)

$g(E)$ is unknown .
Old Technique.

$\rightarrow C_0 \rightarrow C_t \rightarrow \dots$ 1 Million
Histogram $h(E)$

\rightarrow Take Histogram as $g(E)$

Let, $g(E) = 1 \forall E$

$$g(E) = g(E) = h(E)$$

$$= 1 \text{ if } h(E) = 0$$

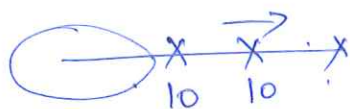
New Technique

$$g(E) = 1 \forall \text{ all } E .$$

$$C_0 \therefore g(E_0) = g(E_0) \times \alpha .$$

$$\alpha = 10 \text{ (let) or } \alpha = e^1 \checkmark$$

C_t :-



Repeat for $\sqrt{\alpha}$, --

→ If density of state

Concept of Scaling V. Imp.

G. I Taylor

End