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Useful Formulas, Constants, Units and Definitions Volume I - Mathematical Mansion Version 2.016

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Preface

This document is a compilation of useful formulas, definitions, constants, and general information used throughout my own schooling as a reference while furthering education. It's purpose is to provide a complete 'encyclopedia' per say of various mathematical and significant ideas used often. The idea and motivation behind it is to be a quick reference providing easily accessible access to necessary information for either double checking or recalling proper formula for use in various situations due to my own shortcomings in matters of memorization. All the material in this document was either directly copied from one of the references listed at the end or derived from scratch. On occasion typos may exist due to human error but will be corrected when discovered.

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Courses Covered In This Book

This document encompasses a large portion of formula used throughout specific courses at Michigan state University. The courses which have information pertaining to something in this book are more than just listed below; however, below is a list of classes that the author took whilst compiling the information in this book. All course numbers correspond to Michigan State University courses at the time of adding them.

- AST 207/208/304: Astrophysics I/II/III
- PHY 215: Thermodynamics & Modern Physics
- MTH 310: Abstract Algebra/Number Theory
- PHY 321: Classical Mechanics I
- PHY 410: Thermal & Statistical Physics

- PHY 415: Methods Of Theoretical Physics
- PHY 440: Electronics
- PHY 471/472: Quantum Physics I/II
- PHY 481/482: Electricity and Magnetism I/II
- PHY 492: Introduction to Nuclear Physics

The information in this book is in no way limited to the material used within the courses above. They serve as a simple guideline to what you will find within this document. For more information about this book or details about how to obtain your own copy please visit:

https://msu.edu/~torodean/AHandbook.html

Disclaimer

This book contains formulas, definitions, and theorems that by nature are very precise. Due to this, some of the material in this book was taken directly from other sources such as but not limited to Wolfram Mathworld. This is only such in cases where a change in wording could cause ambiguities or loss of information quality. Following this, all sources used are listed in the references section.

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Constants and units

1.1: Physical Constants

Constant	Symbol	Value	Units
Speed of light in a vacuum	$c \equiv 1/\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}$	2.99792458×10^{8}	m/s
Elementary charge	e	$1.602176565(35) \times 10^{-19}$	C
Gravitational constant	G	$6.67384(80) \times 10^{-11}$	$m^3 kg^{-1}s^{-2}$
Avagadro's number	N_a	$6.02214129(27) \times 10^{23}$	$\text{mol} \cdot s^{-1}$
Planck constant	h	$6.62606872(52) \times 10^{-34}$	$J \cdot s$
		4.135668×10^{-15}	eV·s
	hc	1239.84	eV·nm
Reduced planck constant	$\hbar \equiv h/2\pi$	1.05×10^{-34}	$J \cdot s$
Permittivity of the vacuum	ϵ_0	8.854×10^{-12}	$C^2N^{-1}m^{-2}$
Permeability of the vacuum	μ_0	$4\pi \times 10^{-7}$	N/A^2
Permeability of the vacuum	μ_0	$4\pi \times 10^{-7}$	N/A^2
Boltzmann constant	k_B	$1.38064852 \times 10^{-23}$	J/K
		8.61733×10^{-5}	eV/K
Stefan-Boltzmann constant	$\sigma_{ m B} \equiv rac{\pi^2 k_B^4}{60\hbar^3 c^3}$	$5.670367(13) \times 10^{-8}$	$ m W \cdot m^{-2} K^{-4}$
Thomson cross-section	σ_e	6.652×10^{-29}	m^2
The Bohr Magneton	$\mu_B \equiv \frac{e\hbar}{2m}$	5.788×10^{-5}	eV/T
	2110	9.274×10^{-24}	Am^2
Mass of an electron	m_e	$9.10938291(40) \times 10^{-31}$	kg
		510.9989	keV/c^2
Mass of a proton	m_p	$1.6726218 \times 10^{-27}$	kg
	-	938.27203	MeV/c^2
Mass of a neutron	m_n	$1.6749274 \times 10^{-27}$	kg
		939.56536	MeV/c^2
Unified amu	u	$1.660538782 \times 10^{-27}$	kg
		931.494028	${ m MeV/c^2}$

1.2: Stellar Data

Spectral Type	T_{eff} (K)	M/M.	L/L.	R/R.	V_{mag}
O5	44,500	60	7.9×10^{5}	12	-5.7
B5	15,400	5.9	830	3.9	-1.2
A5	8,200	2.0	14	1.7	1.9
F5	6,440	1.4	3.2	1.3	3.4
G5	5,770	0.92	0.79	0.92	4.9
K5	4,350	0.67	0.15	0.72	6.7
M5	3,170	0.21	0.011	0.27	12.3

General Mathematics

Definitions

$$sin(x) = \frac{1}{2i}(e^{ix} - e^{-ix}) \qquad (2.0.1)
sinh(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{x} - e^{-x}) \qquad (2.0.2)
= -i sin(ix) \qquad (2.0.3)$$

$$cos(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{ix} + e^{-ix}) \qquad (2.0.4)
cosh(x) = \frac{1}{2}(e^{x} + e^{-x}) \qquad (2.0.5)
= cos(ix) \qquad (2.0.6)$$

Curl Theorem: A special case of Stokes' theorem in which \vec{F} is a vector field and M is an oriented, compact embedded 2-manifold with boundary in \mathbb{R}^3 , and a generalization of Green's theorem from the plane into three-dimensional space. The curl theorem states

$$\int_{S} (\nabla \times \vec{F}) \cdot d\vec{a} = \int_{\partial S} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s}$$
 (2.0.7)

Green's theorem is a vector identity which is equivalent to the curl theorem

$$\iint_{S} \left(\frac{\partial Q}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial P}{\partial y} \right) dx dy = \oint_{\partial S} P(x, y) dx + Q(x, y) dy$$
 (2.0.8)

The **divergence theorem** is also known as Gauss's theorem (e.g., Arfken 1985) or the Gauss-Ostrogradsky theorem. Let V be a region in space with boundary ∂V . Then the volume integral of the divergence $\nabla \cdot \vec{F}$ of \vec{F} over V and the surface integral of \vec{F} over the boundary ∂V of V are related by

$$\int_{V} (\nabla \cdot \vec{F}) dV = \int_{\partial V} \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{a}$$
 (2.0.9)

The **gradient theorem** (where the integral is a line integral) is

$$\int_{a}^{b} (\nabla f) \cdot d\vec{s} = f(b) - f(a) \tag{2.0.10}$$

The Gamma function Γ and the Riemann zeta function ζ are given by

$$\Gamma(z) \equiv \int_0^\infty t^{z-1} e^{-t} dt \tag{2.0.11}$$

$$\zeta(z) = \sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k^z} \implies \zeta'(z) = -\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} \frac{\ln(k)}{k^z}$$
(2.0.12)

$$\zeta(z)\Gamma(z) = \int_0^\infty \frac{u^{z-1}}{e^u - 1} du \tag{2.0.13}$$

The most general case of the **binomial theorem** is the binomial series identity

$$(x+y)^n = \sum_{i=1}^n \binom{n}{k} x^{n-k} y^k$$
 (2.0.14)

Complex Analysis

Complex Numbers

The set of complex numbers is defined such that

$$\mathbb{C} = \{ a + bi : a, b \in \mathbb{R} \}. \tag{3.1.1}$$

A complex number can be defined by its real part and it's imaginary part

$$i^2 = -1 \Longleftrightarrow i = \sqrt{-1} \Longleftrightarrow \frac{1}{i} = -i$$
 (3.1.2)

$$z = x + iy \Longleftrightarrow z^* = x - iy \tag{3.1.3}$$

We can express the real and imaginary parts of a complex number in terms of the number and its complex conjugate

$$\Re(z) = \frac{1}{2}(z + z^*) \tag{3.1.4}$$

$$\Im(z) = \frac{1}{2}i(z - z^*) \tag{3.1.5}$$

Just like a two-dimensional vector, a complex number has the magnitude |z| as well as an angle θ with respect to the horizontal axis of the complex plane.

$$|z|^2 = z^*z = x^2 + y^2 = |z|e^{-i\theta}|z|e^{i\theta}$$
 (3.1.6)

$$\tan(\theta) = \frac{\Im(z)}{\Re(z)} = \frac{y}{x} = \frac{i(z - z^*)}{(z + z^*)}$$
(3.1.7)

A complex number can thus be expressed in terms of magnitude and the phase angle

$$z = |z|(\cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)) \tag{3.1.8}$$

Euler's Identity/relation

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos(\theta) + i\sin(\theta)$$
 (3.1.9)

With the aid of Eulers identity, we can write any complex number as

$$z = |z|e^{i\theta} \tag{3.1.10}$$

$$z^n = |z|^n e^{in\theta} \tag{3.1.11}$$

A useful property of conjugates is

$$a^* + b^* = (a+b)^* (3.1.12)$$

Powers and roots of a complex number can be determined from the exponential form of a complex number

$$z^n = (re^{i\theta})^n = r^n e^{in\theta} \tag{3.1.13}$$

$$(e^{i\theta})^n = e^{in\theta} = (\cos\theta + i\sin\theta)^n = \cos(n\theta) + i\sin(n\theta)$$
(3.1.14)

$$z^{1/n} = (re^{i\theta})^{1/n} = r^{1/n}e^{i\theta/n} = \sqrt[n]{r}\left(\cos\frac{\theta}{n} + i\sin\frac{\theta}{n}\right)$$
(3.1.15)

Much like in trigonometry, we can define complex numbers using trigonometric identities:

$$\sin z = \frac{e^{iz} - e^{-iz}}{2i}, \qquad \cos z = \frac{e^{iz} + e^{-iz}}{2}, \qquad \sinh z = \frac{e^z - e^{-z}}{2}, \qquad \cosh z = \frac{e^z + e^{-z}}{2}$$
(3.1.16)

The logarithm of a complex number can be manipulated as a normal log with

$$\ln(z) = \ln(re^{i\theta}) = \ln(r) + \ln(e^{i\theta}) = \ln(r) + i\theta$$
 (3.1.17)

A few Trigonometric identities follow as:

$$\arcsin z = -i\ln(iz \pm \sqrt{1-z^2}) \tag{3.1.18}$$

$$\arccos z = i \ln(z \pm \sqrt{z^2 - 1}) \tag{3.1.19}$$

$$\arctan z = \frac{1}{2i} \ln \left(\frac{1+iz}{1-iz} \right) \tag{3.1.20}$$

Abstract Algebra and Number Theory

Definition 5.1: Ring

A **ring** is a triple (R, \oplus, \odot) such that

- (i) R is a set.
- (ii) \oplus is a function (called ring addition) and $R \times R$ is a subset of the domain of \oplus . For $(a, b) \in R \times R$, $a \oplus b$ denotes the image of (a, b) under \oplus .
- (iii) \odot is a function (called ring multiplication) and $R \times R$ is a subset of the domain of \odot . For $(a,b) \in R \times R$, $a \odot b$ (and also ab) denotes the image of (a,b) under \odot .

and such that the following eight statements (axioms) hold:

- (1) [Closure of addition]: $a + b \in R$ for all $a, b \in R$.
- (2) [Associative addition]]: a + (b + c) = (a + b) + c for all $a, b, c \in R$.
- (3) [Commutative addition]: a + b = b + a for all $a, b \in R$.
- (4) [Additive identity]: There exists an element in R, denoted by 0_R and called 'zero R', such that $a = a + 0_R = a$ and $a = 0_R + a$ for all $a \in R$.
- (5) [Additive inverses]: For each $a \in R$ there exists an element in R, denoted by -a and called 'negative a', such that $a + (-a) = 0_R$.
- (6) [Closure for multiplication]: $ab \in R$ for all $a, b \in R$.
- (7) [Associative multiplication]: a(bc) = (ab)c for all $a, b, c \in R$.
- (8) [Distributive laws]: a(b+c) = ab + ac and (a+b)c = ac + bc for all $a,b,c \in R$.

Definition 5.2: Commutative Ring

Let R be a ring. Then R is called commutative if

(9) [Commutative multiplication]: ab = ba for all $a, b \in R$.

Definition 5.3: Ring With Identity

Let R be a ring. We say that R is a ring with identity if there exists an element, denoted by 1_R and called 'one R', such that

(10) [Multiplicative identity]: $a = 1_R \cdot a$ and $a = a \cdot 1_R$ for all $a \in R$.

Electricity and Magnetism

Maxwell's Equations: The system of partial differential equations describing classical electromagnetism. \vec{P} is the polarization field, \vec{D} is the electric displacement field, ρ is the charge density, \vec{E} is the electric field, \vec{B} is the magnetic field, and \vec{J} is the current density. In the so-called cgs system of units, the Maxwell equations are given by

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = 4\pi\rho \qquad (12.0.1) \qquad \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \qquad (12.0.3)$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = 4\pi\rho \qquad (12.0.1) \qquad \nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0 \qquad (12.0.3)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t} \qquad (12.0.2) \qquad \nabla \times \vec{B} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \vec{J} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \qquad (12.0.4)$$

In the MKS system of units (where ϵ_0 is the permittivity of free space and μ_0 is the permeability of free space), the equations are written

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} \tag{12.0.5}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial \vec{B}}{\partial t}$$

$$(12.0.5)$$

$$\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \epsilon_0 \mu_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t}$$

$$(12.0.8)$$

From the field tensor and dual tensors, Maxwell's equations (where J^{μ} is the current density 4-vector) are given by

$$\frac{\partial F^{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^{\nu}} = \mu_0 J^{\mu}, \qquad \frac{\partial G^{\mu\nu}}{\partial x^{\nu}} = 0 \qquad \text{with} \qquad J^{\mu} = (c\rho, J_x, J_y, J_z). \tag{12.0.9}$$

From Maxwell's equations, electric and magnetic fields can be shown to satisfy the wave equation in a vacuum allowing us to derive a speed for both fields which is equivalent to the speed of light (electromagnetic waves) in a vacuum.

$$\nabla^2 \vec{E} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{E}}{\partial t^2}$$
 and $\nabla^2 \vec{B} = \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial^2 \vec{B}}{\partial t^2} \implies c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$. (12.0.10)

In the special case of a steady state, known as **elec**trostatics, with stationary charges and currents,

$$\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0 \implies \oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{\ell} = 0 \qquad (12.0.11)$$

The dipole moment is defined by

$$\vec{p} \equiv \sum_{i} q_i \vec{r_i} \tag{12.0.12}$$

$$\vec{p} \equiv \int_{V} \rho(\vec{r}') \vec{r}' d\tau' \qquad (12.0.13)$$

If we consider both bound and free charges (where the free charges are the charges we place within a system), we have

$$\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0} = \frac{\rho_{bound} + \rho_{free}}{\epsilon_0}$$
 (12.0.14)

$$= \frac{-\nabla \cdot \vec{P}}{\epsilon_0} + \frac{\rho_{free}}{\epsilon_0} \tag{12.0.15}$$

$$\Longrightarrow \nabla \cdot \vec{D} = \rho_{free} \tag{12.0.16}$$

ent is defined by
$$\vec{p} \equiv \sum_{i} q_{i} \vec{r}_{i} \qquad (12.0.12)$$

$$\vec{p} \equiv \int_{V} \rho(\vec{r}') \vec{r}' d\tau' \qquad (12.0.13)$$

$$\vec{p} \equiv \int_{V} \rho(\vec{r}') \vec{r}' d\tau' \qquad (12.0.13)$$

$$\vec{r} \equiv \int_{V} \rho(\vec{r}') \vec{r}' d\tau' \qquad (12.0.13)$$

$$\vec{r} \equiv \int_{V} \rho(\vec{r}') \vec{r}' d\tau' \qquad (12.0.13)$$

The polarization field of a linearly polarized dielectric is characterized by its dipole moment per unit volume and can be defined by the susceptibility constant χ_e and the dielectric constant ϵ_R ,

$$\vec{P} = \lim \frac{\Delta \vec{p}}{\Delta v} = \frac{1}{\Delta v} \sum_{i} \vec{p}_{i} \equiv \epsilon_{0} \chi_{e} \vec{E} = \frac{\chi_{e}}{1 + \chi_{e}} \vec{D} = \frac{\chi_{e}}{\epsilon_{R}} \vec{D} \longrightarrow \begin{cases} \chi_{e} \to 0 & \Longrightarrow \vec{P} \text{ for a vacuum} \\ \chi_{e} \to \infty & \Longrightarrow \vec{P} \text{ for a metal} \end{cases}$$
(12.0.18)

Special Relativity

Relativistic time dilation and length contraction (where Δt_0 and $\Delta \ell_0$ are the proper time and length)

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_o}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} = \gamma \Delta t_0 \tag{14.0.1}$$

$$\Delta l = \Delta l_0 \sqrt{1 - \beta^2} = \frac{\Delta l_0}{\gamma} \tag{14.0.2}$$

$$\beta = \frac{v}{c} \tag{14.0.3}$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}\tag{14.0.4}$$

Lorentz Transformations for space and time coordinates for a frame moving at a constant velocity v in the \hat{x} direction.

$$\bar{x} = \gamma(x - vt) \tag{14.0.5}$$

$$\bar{y} = y$$
 and $\bar{z} = z$ (14.0.6)

$$\bar{t} = \gamma (t - vx/c^2) \tag{14.0.7}$$

The relativistic velocity transformation is.

$$\bar{u}_x = \frac{u_x - v}{1 - v u_x / c^2} \iff u_x = \frac{\bar{u}_x + v}{1 + v \bar{u}_x / c^2}$$
 (14.0.8)

The rest energy of a particle

$$E_0 = mc^2 (14.0.9)$$

The lorentz transformation for momentum and energy is.

$$\bar{p}_x = \gamma (p_x - vE/c^2)$$
 (14.0.10)

$$\bar{p}_y = p_y$$
 and $\bar{p}_z = p_z$ (14.0.11)

$$\bar{E} = \gamma (E - v p_x) \tag{14.0.12}$$

Relativistic mass and momentum (where m is the rest mass of an object measured in its rest frame).

$$E = \gamma mc^2 = cp^0 (14.0.13)$$

$$p = \gamma mv \tag{14.0.14}$$

Combining the above equations give

$$\frac{E}{p} = \frac{c^2}{v} \implies E = \frac{pc^2}{v} \tag{14.0.15}$$

Mass-energy equivalence and kinetic energy (K_E) .

$$E^2 = (mc^2)^2 + (pc)^2 (14.0.16)$$

$$E = K_E + E_0 (14.0.17)$$

$$K_E = (\gamma - 1)mc^2 (14.0.18)$$

Combining the above equations gives

$$p = \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{K_E^2 + 2K_E E_0} \tag{14.0.19}$$

Invariant dot product in c=1 notation

$$A \cdot B = (E, \vec{p}) \cdot (U, \vec{q}) = EU - \vec{p} \cdot \vec{q}$$
 (14.0.20)

Relativistic frequency and wavelength shifts

$$f = f_0 \sqrt{\frac{c \pm v}{c \mp v}} \iff \pm v = \frac{f^2 - f_0^2}{f^2 + f_0^2}$$
 (14.0.21)

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \sqrt{\frac{c \mp v}{c \pm v}} \Longleftrightarrow \mp v = \frac{\lambda^2 - \lambda_0^2}{\lambda^2 + \lambda_0^2}$$
 (14.0.22)

Space-time equivalence (same in all reference frames)

$$S \equiv (c\Delta t)^2 - (\Delta x)^2 \equiv E^2 - (pc)^2$$
 (14.0.23)

Assuming a frame moving with a constant velocity to another, we can relate the accelerations observed between two frames by

$$\bar{a}_x = a_x \left(1 - \frac{u_x}{c}\beta\right)^{-3} \left(1 - \beta^2\right)^{3/2}$$
 (14.0.24)

$$\implies \bar{a}_x \approx a_x \left(1 + 3\beta \frac{u_x}{c} - \frac{3}{2}\beta^2 \right) \quad (14.0.25)$$

Einstein Notation

The Lorentz components can be defined by $X^0 \equiv ct$, $X^1 \equiv x$, $X^2 \equiv y$, and $X^3 \equiv z$, from which the Lorentz transformations follow as

$$\bar{X}^0 = \gamma (X^0 - \beta X^1) \tag{14.0.26}$$

$$\bar{X}^1 = \gamma (X^1 - \beta X^0) \tag{14.0.27}$$

$$\bar{X}^2 = X^2 \tag{14.0.28}$$

$$\bar{X}^3 = X^3 \tag{14.0.29}$$

Thermal & Statistical Physics

States of a Model System

The multiplicity function for a system of N magnets with a spin excess $2s = N_{\uparrow} - N_{\downarrow}$ is

$$g(N,s) = \frac{N!}{(\frac{N}{2} + s)!(\frac{N}{2} - s)!} = \frac{N!}{N_{\uparrow}! N_{\downarrow}!}.$$
 (17.1.1)

It is often useful to evaluate g(N,s) within a logarithm in which the **Stirling approximation** becomes useful.

$$N! \approx N^N \sqrt{2\pi N} \exp\left(-N + \frac{1}{12N} + \cdots\right). (17.1.2)$$

It is often useful to take the logarithm of this which gives

$$\log N! \cong \frac{\log 2\pi}{2} + \left(N + \frac{1}{2}\right) \log N - N. \quad (17.1.3)$$

In the limit $s/N \ll 1$, with $N \gg 1$, we have the Gaussian approximation

$$g(N,s) \cong g(N,0) \exp\left(\frac{-2s^2}{N}\right)$$
 (17.1.4)

$$g(N,0) \simeq 2^N \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi N}}.$$
 (17.1.5)

The exact value of g(N,0) is given by

$$g(N,0) = \frac{N!}{(N/2)!(N/2)!}.$$
 (17.1.6)

The average value, or mean value, of a function f(s) taken over a probability distribution P(s) is defined as

$$\langle f \rangle = \sum f(s)P(s),$$
 (17.1.7)

$$1 = \sum_{s} P(s). \tag{17.1.8}$$

The binomial distribution has the property

$$\sum_{s} g(N, s) = 2^{N}.$$
 (17.1.9)

If all states of the model spin system are equally likely, the average value of s^2 is

$$\langle s^2 \rangle = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} s^2 g(N, s) ds}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} g(N, s) ds} = \frac{N}{4}$$
 (17.1.10)

The energy interaction of a single magnetic moment \vec{m} with a fixed external magnetic field \vec{B} is

$$U = -\vec{m} \cdot \vec{B}. \tag{17.1.11}$$

For a model system of N elementary magnets, each with two allowed orientations in a uniform magnetic field \vec{B} , the total potential energy U is

$$U = \sum_{i=0}^{N} U_i = -\vec{B} \cdot \sum_{i=0}^{N} m_i$$
 (17.1.12)

$$= -2smB = -MB. (17.1.13)$$

Entropy And Temperature

If P(s) is the probability that a system is in the state X, the average value of a quantity X is

$$\langle X \rangle = \sum_{s} X(s)P(s).$$
 (17.2.1)

The number of combined systems 1 and 2 (with $s = s_1 + s_2$) is

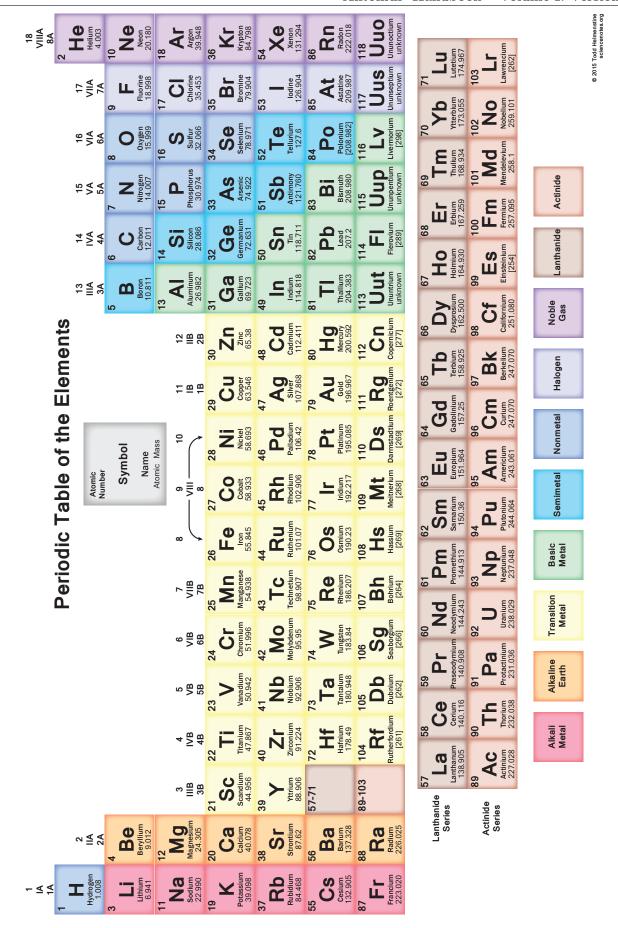
$$g(s) = \sum_{s} g_1(s_1)g_2(s - s_1). \tag{17.2.2}$$

The relation $s = k_B \sigma$ connects the conventional entropy S with the fundamental entropy σ . The **entropy** $\sigma(N, U)$ is given by

$$\sigma(N, U) = \log g(N, U). \tag{17.2.3}$$

The fundamental temperature τ is defined by the relation

$$\frac{1}{\tau} = \left(\frac{\partial \sigma}{\partial U}\right)_{NV}.\tag{17.2.4}$$



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