<u>CLASSICAL LIMIT</u> (Review and free reading)

In classical mechanics we can specify simultaneously both q_i and p_i for a particle. In quantum mechanics the uncertainty principle prevents this. A classical description is a reasonable approximation only when the effect of h is negligible, i.e.

 $\Delta q \Delta p >> h$

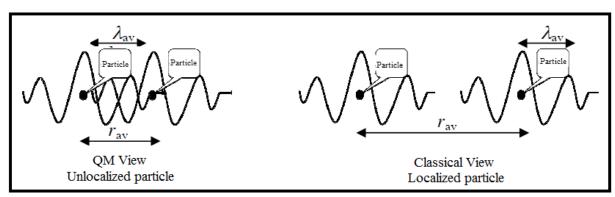
Consider the motion of a molecule in a gas. If p_{av} denotes the mean momentum and r_{av} its mean separation from other identical molecules, then a classical description is valid when

$$r_{\rm av}p_{\rm av} >> h$$

or, Using De Broglei wavelength, $p = h / \lambda$, when

$$\begin{array}{ll} r_{\rm av} >> \lambda_{\rm av} & ({\rm classical limit}); \\ r_{\rm av} << \lambda_{\rm av} & ({\rm quantum limit}); \end{array}$$

Since λ_{av} is a measure of the spread of molecule in space, it means that when $r_{av} \gg \lambda_{av}$ holds, the molecular wave functions do not overlap and therefore they are distinguished by their position.



To give a physical content to $r_{av} >> \lambda_{av}$, we imagine that each particle occupies a tiny cube of side r_{av} and these cubes fill the volume V,

$$r_{\rm av}^3 N = V$$
, $r_{\rm av} = \left(\frac{V}{N}\right)^{1/3}$

If we anticipate and relate the temperature T with the average energy $\overline{\varepsilon}$ by:

$$\frac{p_{\rm av}^2}{2\rm m} \approx \overline{\varepsilon} = \frac{3}{2} k_B T , \qquad p_{\rm av} \Box \left(3m k_B T \right)^{1/2}$$

Where k_{B} is the Boltzmaan constant, then

$$\lambda_{\mathrm{av}} \Box \frac{h}{\left(3mk_{B}T\right)^{1/2}}$$

Therefore, the classical condition becomes

$$\left(\frac{V}{N}\right)^{1/3} >> \frac{h}{\left(3mk_BT\right)^{1/2}}$$

This means the classical description is valid when:

- 1- *N* is small (dilute gas),
- 2- T is large, and
- 3- *m* is not too small.

For an ideal (Boltzmaan) gas consisting of N indistinguishable molecules of mass m, we have

$$E = \sum_{i=1}^{3N} \varepsilon_i, \qquad \varepsilon_i = \frac{p_i^2}{2m}$$

And

$$e^{-\beta E} = e^{-\beta \sum_{i=1}^{3N} \varepsilon_i} = e^{-\beta \varepsilon_1} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_2} e^{-\beta \varepsilon_3} \cdots = \prod_i e^{-\beta \varepsilon_i}$$

The single-particle partition function (for N = 1)is

$$Z_{\rm sp} = \sum_{i} e^{-\beta \frac{p_i^2}{2m}} = \frac{1}{h^3} \left[\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\beta E(p_i)} d\Gamma_i \right]^3 = V \left(\frac{2\pi m}{h^2 \beta} \right)^{3/2} = V n_{\mathcal{Q}} = \frac{n_{\mathcal{Q}}}{n}, \qquad d\Gamma_i = dp_i dq_i$$

where we replaced the sum over discrete states by an integral over the phase space. $n_Q = \frac{1}{\lambda^3} = \left(\frac{2\pi m}{h^2 \beta}\right)^{3/2}$ is

called the "quantum concentration" and $n = \frac{1}{V}$ is the concentration. The n_Q is the concentration associated with one particle in a cube of side $\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2\pi m k_B T}}$.

Examples:

(i)

Molecules in a gas at NTPUsing $\rho_{molecules} = 10^{25}$ molecules m⁻³,We have the available volume $V_{molecule} = 10^{-25} \,\mathrm{m}^3$,Using $r_{molecule} = 10^{-10} \,m$ We have the actual volume $V_{molecule} = 10^{-30} \,\mathrm{m}^3$

So, in gases, the volume of a molecule is usually being much smaller than the volume available to it, we can, in principle, identify each molecule in the gas. Therefore, the molecules are localized and distinguishable.

(iii)	Conduction electrons in metal	
	Using	$ \rho_{electrons} = 10^{28} \text{ electrons m}^{-3}, $
	We have the available volume	$V_{electron} = 10^{-28} \mathrm{m}^3,$
	Using	$r_{electron} = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mE(1\text{eV})}} = 10^{-9} \text{m}$
	We have the actual volume	$V_{electron} = 10^{-27} \mathrm{m}^3$
		AL AL 111 1 TT A

So, in metals, the volume of the electron is larger than the available volume. Hence the electron wave functions overlap considerably. We can not localize the electrons, they are indistinguishable, and quantum statistics must be applied.

(iii) We can also use the above analysis to estimate a transition temperature for the onset of quantum effects. For example we take He atoms in a <u>fluid</u> phase and conduction electrons in an alkali metal.

From
$$\left(\frac{V}{N}\right)^{1/3} \gg \frac{h}{(3mk_BT)^{1/2}}$$
 we get:

$$T = \left(\frac{h^2}{3mk_B}\right) \left(\frac{N}{V}\right)^{2/3}$$

$$= \begin{cases} 1.2 \times 10^{-14} (N/V)^{2/3} \text{ K m}^2, \text{ electrons} \\ 1.6 \times 10^{-18} (N/V)^{2/3} \text{ K m}^2, \text{ He atoms} \end{cases}$$
for He atoms $\frac{V}{N} \approx 5 \times 10^{-29} \text{ m}^3 \text{ atom}^{-1} \Rightarrow \underline{T} \approx 10 \text{ K}$
for electrons $\frac{V}{N} \approx 1 \times 10^{-29} \text{ m}^3 \text{ electron}^{-1} \Rightarrow \underline{T} \approx 3 \times 10^5 \text{ K}$

So we can see that at room temperature a classical treatment of atomic fluids is allowable whereas we must use a quantum description of electrons in a metal up to a very high temperature. Gases at room temperature have a density 1000 times less than a fluid and so will have a transition temperature even lower than 10 K. They can clearly be treated as classical under most conditions.

QS examples

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Symmetry of wave functions: Matter waves are described by a complex valued wave function $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ obeying the Schrödinger equation

$$\hat{H}\Psi(\mathbf{r},t) = E\Psi(\mathbf{r},t),$$
 $\hat{H} = \left[-\frac{\hbar}{2m}\overline{\nabla}^2 + V(\mathbf{r})\right],$ $E = i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$

which is the fundamental equation in quantum mechanics. The simplest of N identical noninteracting particles could be described by the Schrödinger equation

$$\hat{H}\Psi' = E\Psi,$$
 $\hat{H} = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \frac{p_i^2}{2m},$ $\Psi = \Psi(r_1, r_2, ..., r_N)$ #

where $p_i^2 = \mathbf{p}_i \cdot \mathbf{p}_i$, and \mathbf{p}_i is the momentum operator of the *i*th particle. The Hamiltonian is independent of the positions of the particles or any other coordinates. e.g., spin, if any.

Introduce the *permutation operator* \hat{P} , which interchanges particle *i* with particle *j*, i.e. $r_i \leftrightarrow r_j$. For example:

$$\hat{P}_{12}\Psi_a(1)\Psi_b(2) = \Psi_a(2)\Psi_b(1)$$
 or $\hat{P}_{12}\Psi(1,2) = \Psi(2,1)$

The Hamiltonian \hat{H} is invariant under all permutation of the identical particles:

$$\hat{P}\hat{H}\hat{P}^{-1} = \hat{H} \implies \hat{P}\hat{H}\hat{P}^{-1}\hat{P} = \hat{H}\hat{P} \implies [\hat{H},\hat{P}] = 0$$

The eigenstates of \hat{H} should also be eigenstates of \hat{P} . In general, the single product wave function

$$\Psi = \Psi(r_1, r_2, ..., r_N) = \prod_i^N \Psi_k(r_i)$$

is not an eigenstate of \hat{P} . An eigenstate must satisfy

$$\hat{P}\Psi(r) = p\Psi(r) \Rightarrow \hat{P}^2\Psi(r) = p\hat{P}\Psi(r) = p^2\Psi(r)$$

 $\hat{P}^2 = \hat{1} \Rightarrow p^2 = 1 \Rightarrow p = \pm 1$

then

$$\hat{P}\Psi(r) = \Psi(r) \Rightarrow$$
 Symmetric wavefunction
 $\hat{P}\Psi(r) = -\Psi(r) \Rightarrow$ Antisymmetric wavefunction

It is a *law of nature* that the symmetry (S) or antisymmetric (A) under the interchange of two particles is a property of the particles themselves.

Example, for two-particle system we have

$$\Psi(1,2) = \Psi_a(1)\Psi_b(2) \qquad (classical) \qquad \#$$

$$\Psi^{(5)}(1,2) = \Psi^{(5)}(2,1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\Psi_a(1)\Psi_b(2) + \Psi_a(2)\Psi_b(1)] \quad (symmetric)$$
#

$$\Psi^{(\mathcal{A})}(1,2) = -\Psi^{(\mathcal{A})}(2,1) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\Psi_a(1)\Psi_b(2) - \Psi_a(2)\Psi_b(1)] \quad (\text{antisymmetric}) \quad \#$$

For N fermions, we have the Slater's determinant

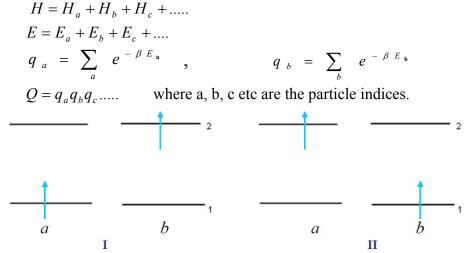
$$\Psi^{(\mathcal{A})}(1,2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{M!}} \begin{vmatrix} \Psi_a(1) & \Psi_a(2) & \cdots & \cdots & \Psi_a(N) \\ \Psi_b(1) & \Psi_b(2) & \cdots & \cdots & \Psi_b(N) \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \cdots \\ \Psi_z(1) & \Psi_z(2) & \cdots & \cdots & \Psi_z(N) \end{vmatrix} . \qquad \#$$

Due to Pauli, with interchanges all the coordinates of the particles, then identical particles could be divided into two groups, Bose gas and Fermi gas. The following table shows the main properties of each system plus the unnatural gas, Boltzmann gas.

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Quantum Statistics with examples

Let us consider a system consisting of non-interacting molecules, denoted by a, b, c, whose energy levels are given by E_a , E_b , E_c , ...In the classical statistical mechanical treatment of ideal gases, the particles/molecules/atoms are assumed to be *distinguishable*. Therefore, every possible occupation of energy levels by particles is admissible. Hence the following decomposition of the Hamiltonian, total energy and the partition function holds good.



Owing to the distinguishability of the particles 'a' and 'b', arrangements I and II are different and each should be counted separately.

However, when particles are *indistinguishable*, the arrangements I and II are one and the same and hence should be counted only as one arrangement. Evaluating the total partition function as

$$Q = q_a q_b q_c \dots$$

is incorrect as it has those extra terms.

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Justification:

I. Take five balls that are distinguishable.



The total number of ways in which the balls can be arranged in three levels such that

2 balls in level 1 2 balls in level 2

1 ball in level 3

are $\frac{5!}{2!2!!!} = 30$

Generically, $\frac{N!}{n_1!n_2!n_3!..}$ where $n_1, n_2, n_3...$ are the numbers of balls occupying levels 1, 2, 3.. etc respectively.

Prof. Dr. I. NasserPhys52QS_examplesII. Supposing the balls were indistinguishable,



Then the number of ways is which the above arrangement can be done is just 1!

Supposing an arrangement with only one ball occupying each level is desired, then again there only one possible way to obtain it in the indistinguishable balls case. Whereas with distinguishable balls there are N! possible ways of obtaining this arrangement.

Therefore, classical statistics vastly over-estimates the number of configurations. In classical statistical mechanics, this is of course taken into account by the 1/N! terms (Boltzmann factor) in front of the partition function. This method does not work at low temperature where quantum nature of the particles become important that impose further restrictions on the occupancy of the energy levels of the system. In a system of Bose particles, any number of particles can occupy any given energy level. On the other hand, particles obeying Fermi-Dirac statistics, maxium of one particle can occupy a given energy level. That is, the occupation number of a given energy level can be 1 or 0.

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High Temperature Limit

When the temperature is high, a system has a large number of accessible energy states such as translational, rotational, electronic.... The number of states is much more than the number of atoms/molecules. At high temperatures, a large number of states become accessible, especially the translational states. In such a case, the possibility of multiple occupancy of a state will be greatly reduced. *Thus the occupied energy levels are mostly non-degenerate*. Thus, the occupation due to quantum statistics is not important and classical Boltzmann statistics works well. This is exactly like case **II** in justification. So the surplus contributions that will feature for the indistinguishable particles in the expression

$$Q = q_a q_b q_c \dots$$

N! compared to distinguishable particles.

For an ideal gas the atoms/molecules are independent (negligible intermolecular forces) and indistinguishable. In the expression

$$Q = q^N$$

there are N! surplus contributions in the thermodynamic limit for an ideal gas. Thus the exact partition function for an ideal gas in this limit is

$$Q = \frac{q^{N}}{N!} \longrightarrow (1)$$

In the thermodynamic limit, $n\lambda^3 \ll 1$ (where *n* is the number density, λ is the de-Broglie wavelength,

 $\lambda = \left(\frac{h^2}{2\pi m k_{\rm B}T}\right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$ and $n\lambda^3$ is a dimensionless quantity) because $m \gg 1$, $T \gg 1$ and $n \ll 1$. This is the classical

regime where Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics holds good and indistinguishability can be exactly accounted for. But as we go on to *low temperatures and high densities* multiple occupancy of states increases. $n\lambda^3 \approx 1$ is in this limit. Under such conditions, the indistinguishability of particles becomes much more significant. This is where the quantum effects creep in and there is need for a revised statistics.

-----(End the free reading)------

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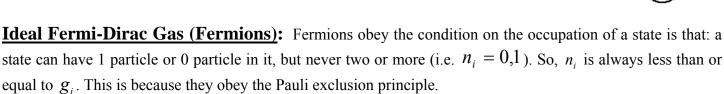
Quantum Statistics (Chapter 6_Pathria)

All known indistinguishable particles, fall in to the class of either *Fermions* or *Bosons*. These two statistics or distributions lay different constraints on the occupancy of a particular state but under the conservation of two quantities, the total number of particles and the total energy.

$$\sum_{i} n_i = N \quad , \qquad \sum_{i} n_i \varepsilon_i = E$$

These constraints become very significant when there is degenerate/multiple occupancy of energy levels.

To understand the effects of these statistics on the distribution of energy levels, we first group the energy levels with energy within a small interval together and assign a degeneracy factor to each group according to the number of energy levels in each group. Let us denote the energy and degeneracy of i-th group by ε_i and g_i , respectively. The picture aside illustrates the grouping.



$$n_i = 0,1$$

Let n_i be the number of particles occupying an energy level ε_i in a particular configuration. If g_i is the degeneracy of ε_i , ($g_i \ge n_i$), then the number of possible arrangements amongst the degenerate levels of ε_i is

$$w_{\rm FD}^{(i)} = \begin{pmatrix} g_i \\ n_i \end{pmatrix} = \frac{g_i!}{n_i!(g_i - n_i)!} \longrightarrow (2)$$

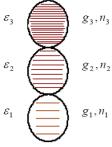
(This is exactly like picking 'n' white balls out of 'g' white balls.)

<u>Partition function</u>: That is, a particular possible state will be either occupied or unoccupied, so that $n_i = 0, 1$.

$$Z_{\text{Fermions}} = \sum_{n_1=0}^{1} \sum_{n_2=0}^{1} \cdots e^{-\beta \sum_{s}^{n_s \varepsilon_s}} = \sum_{n_1=0}^{1} \sum_{n_2=0}^{1} \cdots e^{-\beta (n_1 \varepsilon_1 + n_2 \varepsilon_2 + \cdots)}$$
$$= \left\{ \sum_{n_1=0}^{1} e^{-\beta N_1 \varepsilon_1} \right\} \left\{ \sum_{n_2=0}^{1} e^{-\beta N_2 \varepsilon_2} \right\} \cdots = \prod_{s=0}^{\infty} \left\{ 1 + e^{-\beta \varepsilon_s} \right\},$$
$$\ln Z = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \ln \left\{ 1 + e^{-\beta \varepsilon_s} \right\}$$

It follows that, the mean energy and the mean occupation number of a given state are:

$$\langle u \rangle = -\frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \beta} = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_s e^{-\beta \varepsilon_s}}{1 + e^{-\beta \varepsilon_s}}, \quad \langle n_s \rangle = -\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \varepsilon_s} = \frac{1}{e^{+\beta \varepsilon_s} + 1}$$



Ideal Bose-Einstein Gas (Bosons): Bosons obey this statistics. There is no constraint on the occupation of a particular state in an energy level as these particles do not obey the Pauli principle. Any number of particles can occupy a state in an energy level.

$$n_i = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

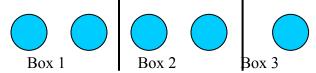
$$n_i^{\max} = \infty$$

Let n_i be the number of particles occupying an energy level ε_i in a particular configuration. If g_i is the degeneracy of ε_i , then the number of possible arrangements amongst the degenerate levels of ε_i are

$$w_{\rm BE}^{(i)} = \binom{n_i + g_i - 1}{n_i} = \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)!}{n_i ! (g_i - 1)!} \longrightarrow (3)$$

Justification:

Suppose we take five indistinguishable balls (bosons, n_i) and arrange them into three distinct boxes (degenerate levels, $g_i = 3$) with no restriction on the occupation numbers in each box.



Here there are five balls and two sticks (the number of sticks will always be one lesser than the number of degenerate levels). The total number of possible arrangements for the balls in the boxes is

$$\frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)!}{n_i!(g_i - 1)!} = \frac{(5 + 3 - 1)!}{5!2!} = \frac{7!}{5!2!} = 21$$

We are justified in doing $(g_i - 1)!$ because only the boxes are distinct, the sticks are not. The sticks are indistinguishable.

Partition function: Consider the situation where the mean occupation number of a given state is independent on the mean occupation numbers of the other states. That is, each occupation number may range from zero to infinity, so that $N_s = 0, 1, 2,$

We have
$$E_N(n_1, n_2, n_2, n_3...) = \sum_i n_i \varepsilon_i$$

However, the normalisation, $N = \sum_{i} n_{i}$, is no longer required because the number of photons is fluctuating. The partition function can therefore be rewritten as:

$$Z_N = \sum_{n_1, n_2, n_3, \cdots} e^{-\beta \sum_i n_i \varepsilon_i} \equiv \sum_{n_1} \sum_{n_2} \sum_{n_3} \cdots e^{-\beta \sum_i n_i \varepsilon_i}$$

Where $n_i = 0, 1, 2, \dots \infty$. So,

$$Z_{\text{Bosons}} = \sum_{n_1=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n_2=0}^{\infty} \cdots e^{-\beta \sum_{s}^{\infty} n_s \varepsilon_s} = \sum_{n_1=0}^{\infty} \sum_{n_2=0}^{\infty} \cdots e^{-\beta (n_1 \varepsilon_1 + n_2 \varepsilon_2 + \cdots)}$$
$$= \left\{ \sum_{n_1=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta n_1 \varepsilon_1} \right\} \left\{ \sum_{n_2=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta n_2 \varepsilon_2} \right\} \cdots = \prod_{i=1}^{\infty} \sum_{n_{ij}=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta n_{ij} \varepsilon_i},$$

Now,

$$\sum_{n_{ij}=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta n_{ij}\varepsilon_i} \equiv e^0 + e^{-\beta\varepsilon_i} + e^{-2\beta\varepsilon_i} + \dots = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta\varepsilon_i}}$$

So,

$$Z_{\text{Bosons}} = \prod_{i=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta \varepsilon_i}}$$

and

$$\ln Z = -\sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \ln \left\{ 1 - e^{-\beta \varepsilon_s} \right\}$$

It follows that, the average occupation number

$$\langle n_i \rangle = -\frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{\partial \ln Z_N}{\partial \varepsilon_i} \right)_{T, \varepsilon_j \neq \varepsilon_i} = -\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varepsilon_i} \sum_r \ln \left(\frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta \varepsilon_r}} \right) = \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varepsilon_i} \sum_r \ln(1 - e^{-\beta \varepsilon_r})$$
$$= \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\beta e^{-\beta \varepsilon_i}}{1 - e^{-\beta \varepsilon_i}} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta \varepsilon_i} - 1}$$

the mean energy of a given state are:

$$\langle u \rangle = -\frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \beta} = \sum_{s=0}^{\infty} \frac{\varepsilon_s e^{-\beta \varepsilon_s}}{1 - e^{-\beta \varepsilon_s}},$$

the mean occupation number of a single-particle state with energy \mathcal{E}_s is given by

$$\langle n_s \rangle = -\frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \varepsilon_s} = \frac{1}{e^{+\beta \varepsilon_s} - 1}$$

Example: Compare the Maxwell-Boltzmann, Bose-Einstein, and Fermi-Dirac statistics when four particles are arranged in two energy levels. Three particles are at energy level ε_1 having a degeneracy $g_1 = 4$ and one particle at energy level ε_2 having a degeneracy $g_2 = 2$.

Solution:

Note that:
$$n_1 = 3$$
, $g_1 = 4$, $n_2 = 1$, $g_2 = 2$
 $W_{MB} = N! \prod_{i=1}^{m} \frac{g_i^{n_i}}{n_i!} = 4! \frac{4^3 \times 2^1}{3!1!} = 512$
 $W_{BE} = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)!}{n_i!(g_i - 1)!} = \frac{(3 + 4 - 1)!}{3!3!} \frac{(1 + 2 - 1)!}{1!1!} = 40$
 $W_{FD} = \prod_{i=1}^{m} \frac{g_i!}{n_i!(g_i - n_i)!} = \frac{4!}{3!1!} \frac{2!}{1!1!} = 4$

(sum of a geometric series)

Classification

<u>Maxewll-Boltzmann statistics</u> This is the classical statistics and is applicable for a system of independent, distinguishable (or indistinguishable) and identical particles. No restriction about the symmetry, spins, etc.

Bose-Einstein statistics is applicable for a system of independent, indistinguishable and identical particles of integral spin (like photons). There is no restriction on the number of particles present in any given quantum state.

<u>Fermi-Dirac statistics</u> is applicable for a system of independent, indistinguishable and identical particles of half-integral spin (like electrons). In this statistics, a given energy state can be occupied at best by one particle only.

	B.E. (Bosons)	F.D. (Fermions)	M.B
Particles	Indistinguishable	Indistinguishable	Distinguishable
Wave-	Symmetric	Antisymmetric	Any
functions			
Spin	$0,\hbar,2\hbar,\cdots$	$\frac{1}{2}\hbar, \frac{3}{2}\hbar, \cdots$	Any
Examples	photons, π -meson, ⁴ He	electron, proton, , ³ He	Any
n _i	0, 1, 2,	0, 1	0, 1, 2,
$\omega(i)$	$\omega_{BE} = \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)!}{n_i ! (g_i - 1)!}$	$\omega_{FD} = \frac{g_i!}{n_i!(g_i - n_i)!}$	$\omega_{MB} = \frac{g_i^{n_i}}{n_i!} (*)$
Ω	$\Omega_{BE} = \prod_{i=1}^{r} \omega_{BE}$	$\Omega_{FD} = \prod_{i=1}^{r} \omega_{FD}$	$\Omega_{_{MB}}=\prod_{i=1}^{r}\omega_{_{MB}}$
$f(\varepsilon_i) = \frac{N_i}{g_i}$	$\frac{1}{e^{-\alpha+\beta\varepsilon_i}-1}$	$\frac{1}{e^{-\alpha+\beta\varepsilon_i}+1}$	$e^{\alpha-\betaarepsilon_i}$
Applications	Photons of radiation,	Free electrons in metal and semi-	Gas molecules (except near 0
	gas molecules at very	conductor (except at very High	K), electrons at Extremely
	low temperature.)	temperature.)	High temperature.

(*) corrected by "correct Boltzmaan counting" i.e. divided by *N*!. This correction does not correspond to any physical property of the particles in the system. It is just a rule that defines the mathematical model for Indistinguishable particles.

** Define the dilute gas, dilute means that for all energy levels, the occupation numbers are very small compared with the available number of quantum states (i.e. most quantum states are empty). We assume that

$$N_i \ll g_i$$
 for all j

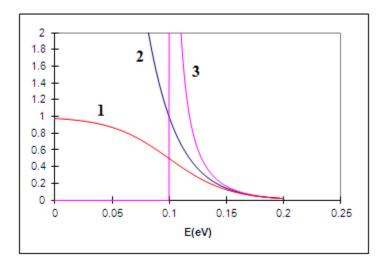
This condition holds for real gases except at very low temperatures. For dilute gas one finds

$$\omega_{FD} = \omega_{BE} = \omega_{MB} = \prod_{i=1}^{r} \frac{g_i^{N_i}}{N_i!}$$

Simply we can have

$$f_{j} \equiv \frac{n_{j}}{g_{j}} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\varepsilon_{j} - \mu)} + a}, \qquad a = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{for } FD \text{ statistics} \\ -1 & \text{for } BE \text{ statistics} \\ 0 & \text{for } MB \text{ statistics} \end{cases}$$

Three Distributions



The mean occupation number $\langle n_s \rangle$ of a single-particle energy state \mathcal{E}_s in a system of noninteracting particles: curve 1 is for fermions, curve 2 for bosons, and curve 3 for the Maxwell–Boltzmann particles.

See Partia Page 150 for the comments

- i- In the Fermi–Dirac case (a = 1), the mean occupation number never exceeds unity, for the variable n_s itself cannot have a value other than 0 or 1.
- ii- In the Bose–Einstein case (a = -1), the occupancy of that particular level becomes infinitely high. As in the case of Bose–Einstein *condensation*.

Example: Consider the case of N = 3, $n_1 = 2$ in ε_1 , $n_2 = 1$ in ε_2 , $g_1 = 2$ and $g_2 = 1$. Compare the Maxwell-Boltzmann, Bose-Einstein, and Fermi-Dirac statistics.

Solution:

$$w_{MB} = N! \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{g_i^{n_i}}{n_i} = 3! \frac{2^2 \times 1^1}{2! \times 1!} = 12 \qquad n_2 = 1 \qquad \varepsilon_2 = \Delta$$

$$w_{MB} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)!}{n_i!(g_i - 1)!} = \frac{(2 + 2 - 1)!}{2! \times 1!} \times \frac{(1 + 1 - 1)!}{1! \times 0!} = 3; \qquad n_1 = 2 \qquad \varepsilon_1 = 0$$

$$w_{FD} = \prod_{i=1}^{n} \frac{g_i!}{n_i!(g_i - n_i)!} = \frac{2!}{2! \times 0!} \times \frac{1!}{1! \times 0!} = 1;$$

Example: Consider a system of *two* non-interacting, and identical particles in a volume V. Each particle has three accessible energy levels $\varepsilon_1 = 0$, $\varepsilon_2 = 1\varepsilon$, and $\varepsilon_3 = 2\varepsilon$. The lowest energy level is doubly degenerate. Determine the partition function and the mean energy of the system if:

- A. the particles are distinguishable and obey the classical Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics.
- B. the particles obey Fermi-Dirac statistics.
- C. the particles obey Bose-Einstein statistics.
- D. Determine the high temperature limit of the mean energy of the above three cases. Comparing the results what can you conclude about the behavior of fermions and bosons in this limit?

Solution:

A- Maxwell-Boltzmann Statistics: We have the following distributions:

Energy	Macrostates				
	1	2	3	4	
2ε	0	0	0	0	
3	0	0	0	0	
0	ab 0	0 ab	a b	b a	
Total	0	0	0	0	
Total Energy =					

Energy	Macrostates				
	5 6		7	8	
2ε	0	0	0	0	
3	b	а	b	а	
0	a 0	b 0	0 a	0 b	
Total Energy =	3	3	3	3	
Energy =					

Energy	Macrostates				
	9	10	11	12	13
2ε	b	а	b	а	0
3	0	0	0	0	ab
0	a 0	b 0	0 a	0 b	0 0
Total Energy =	2ε	2ε	2ε	2ε	2ε
Energy =					

Energy	Macrostates			
	14 15		16	
2ε	b	а	ab	
3	а	b	0	
0	0 0	0 0	0 0	
Total	3ε	3ε	4ε	
Energy =				

The total number of macrostates = $g^{N}=4^{2}=16$. The partition function is:

$$Z_{MB} = \sum_{i} g_{i} e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{i}} = 4e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{o}} + 4e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{1}} + 5e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{2}} + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{3}} + e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{4}} = 4 + 4e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 5e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + 2e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}$$
$$U_{MB} = -\frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial \beta} = \frac{4\varepsilon e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 10\varepsilon e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + 6\varepsilon e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + 4\varepsilon e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}}{4 + 4e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 5e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + 2e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}} \rightarrow \frac{3}{2}\varepsilon \quad (as \ T \rightarrow \infty)$$

B- Fermi-Dirac Statistics: We have the following distributions:

Energy	Macrostates					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
2ε	0	0	0	а	a	а
3	0	а	а	0	0	а
0	a a	a 0	0 a	0 a	0 a	0 0
Total	0	3	3	2ε	2ε	3ε
Total Energy =						

The partition function is:

 $Z_{FD} = \sum_{i} g_{i} e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{i}} = e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{o}} + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{1}} + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{2}} + e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{3}} = 1 + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 2e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-3\beta\varepsilon}$ $U_{FD} = -\frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial \beta} = \frac{2\varepsilon e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 4\varepsilon e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + 3\varepsilon e^{-3\beta\varepsilon}}{1 + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 2e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-3\beta\varepsilon}} \rightarrow \frac{3}{2}\varepsilon \quad (as \ T \rightarrow \infty)$

C- Bose-Einstein Statistics: We have the following distributions:

		0			
Energy	Macrostates				
	1	2	3	4	5
2ε	0	0	0	0	0
3	0	0	0	a	а
0	aa 0	0 aa	a a	a 0	0 a
Total Energy =	0	0	0	3	3
Energy =					

Energy	Macrostates					
	6	7	8	9	10	
2ε	a 2		0	а	aa	
3	0	0	aa	а	0	
0	a 0	0 a	0 0	0 0	0 0	
Total	2ε	2ε	2ε	3ε	4ε	
Energy =						

The partition function is:

$$Z_{BE} = \sum_{i} g_{i} e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{i}} = 3e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{o}} + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{1}} + 3e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{2}} + e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{3}} + e^{-\beta\varepsilon_{4}} = 3 + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 3e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}$$
$$U_{BE} = -\frac{1}{Z} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial \beta} = \frac{2\varepsilon e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 6\varepsilon e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + 3\varepsilon e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + 4\varepsilon e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}}{3 + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 3e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}} \rightarrow \frac{3}{2}\varepsilon \quad (as \ T \rightarrow \infty)$$

d- In the high ($T \rightarrow \infty$, $\beta \rightarrow 0$) temperature limit fermions and bosons behave as classical Boltzmann particles.

Example: Consider a system of *two* particles in a volume V, each of which can be in any one of three quantum states of respective energy $\varepsilon_1 = 0$, $\varepsilon_2 = 1\varepsilon$, and $\varepsilon_3 = 3\varepsilon$. The system is in contact with a heat reservoir at temperature $T = (k\beta)^{-1}$. Write an expression for the **partition function** if the particles obey:

- 1- the classical Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics and are consider *distinguishable*.
- 2- the classical Maxwell-Boltzmann statistics and are consider *undistinguishable*.
- 3- the particles obey Fermi-Dirac statistics.
- 4- the particles obey Bose-Einstein statistics.

Solution:

Configuration				Num	ber of	states
0	1ε	3ε	total	MB	BE	FD
XX			0	1	1	
	XX		2ε	1	1	
		XX	6ε	1	1	
Х	X		1ε	2	1	1
Х		Х	3ε	2	1	1
	Х	Х	4ε	2	1	1

$$Z_{MB} = \sum_{\{n_i\}} e^{-\beta \sum_s n_s \varepsilon_s} = \sum_{i(energy \, levels)} g_i e^{-\beta \varepsilon_i}$$

= 1 + $e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-6\beta\varepsilon} + 2e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + 2e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + 2e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}$
$$Z_{BE} = \sum_i g_i e^{-\beta \varepsilon_i} = 1 + e^{-2\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-6\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}$$

$$Z_{FD} = \sum_i g_i e^{-\beta \varepsilon_i} = e^{-\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-3\beta\varepsilon} + e^{-4\beta\varepsilon}$$

The total number of arrangements possible for a particular configuration for both F-D as well as B-E are (this is over all the energy levels of a particular configuration)

$$W\{n_i\} = \prod_i w^{(i)}(n_i) \to \tag{4}$$

The total number of arrangements possible over all configurations is

$$\Omega(N,V,E) = \sum_{\{n_i\}} W(\{n_i\}) \to$$
(5)

where $\Omega(N, V, E)$ is the partition function in microcanonical ensemble. Thus the entropy is

$$S = k_B \ln \Omega \cong k_B \ln W(\{n_i^*\}) \to$$
(6)

Maximizing the entropy and finding out the maximum term by Lagrange's method of undetermined multipliers.

$$\delta \ln W(\{n_i\}) - \left[\alpha \sum_i \delta n_i - \beta \sum_i \varepsilon_i \delta n_i\right] = 0 \rightarrow$$

$$W\{n_i\} = \prod_i w^{(i)}(n_i)$$

$$\ln \left[W\{n_i\}\right] = \ln \left[\prod_i w^{(i)}(n_i)\right] = \sum_i \ln w^{(i)}(n_i)$$

$$\delta \ln W(\{n_i\}) = \sum_i \delta \ln w^{(i)}(n_i) \rightarrow$$
(8)

.

For F-D statistics,

$$w^{(i)} = \frac{g_i!}{n_i!(g_i - n_i)!}$$

$$\ln w^{(i)} = \ln g_i! - \ln n_i! - \ln(g_i - n_i)!$$

$$= g_i \ln g_i - g_i' - n_i \ln n_i + \mu_i' - (g_i - n_i) \ln(g_i - n_i) + g_i' - \mu_i'$$

$$= g_i \ln g_i - n_i \ln n_i - (g_i - n_i) \ln(g_i - n_i)$$

$$= g_i \ln \left(\frac{g_i}{g_i - n_i}\right) + n_i \left(\frac{g_i - n_i}{n_i}\right) = -g_i \ln \left(1 - \frac{n_i}{g_i}\right) + n_i \ln \left(\frac{g_i}{n_i} - 1\right) \to (9)$$

For B-E statistics,

$$w^{(i)} = \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)!}{n_i!(g_i - 1)!}$$

$$\ln w^{(i)} = \ln(n_i + g_i - 1)! - \ln n_i! - \ln(g_i - 1)!$$

$$= (n_i + g_i - 1)\ln(n_i + g_i - 1) - p_i' - g_i' + p_i' - n_i \ln n_i + p_i' - (g_i - 1)\ln(g_i - 1) + g_i' - p_i'$$

$$= (n_i + g_i - 1)\ln(n_i + g_i - 1) - n_i \ln n_i - (g_i - 1)\ln(g_i - 1)$$

$$= n_i \ln \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)}{n_i} + (g_i - 1)\ln \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)}{(g_i - 1)} \cong n_i \ln \left(1 + \frac{g_i}{n_i}\right) + g_i \ln \left(1 + \frac{n_i}{g_i}\right) \rightarrow$$
(10)

General form of $\ln w^{(i)}$ for F-D and B-E statistics is

$$\ln w^{(i)} = n_i \ln \left(\frac{g_i}{n_i} - a\right) - \frac{g_i}{a} \ln \left(1 - a \frac{n_i}{g_i}\right) \rightarrow$$
(11)

where
$$a = -1$$
 for BE
 $a = 1$ for FD (12)
 $a = 0$ for MB

$$\delta \ln w^{(i)} = \left[\ln \left(\frac{g_i}{n_i} - a \right) + n_i \frac{\left(\frac{-g_i}{n_i^2} \right)}{\left(\frac{g_i}{n_i} - a \right)} - \frac{g_i}{a} \left(\frac{-a}{g_i}{1 - a\frac{n_i}{g_i}} \right) \right] \delta n_i = \left[\ln \left(\frac{g_i}{n_i} - a \right) - \frac{g_i}{n_i} \left(\frac{1}{\frac{g_i}{n_i} - a} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{1 - a\frac{n_i}{g_i}} \right) \right] \delta n_i$$

$$= \left[\ln \left(\frac{g_i}{n_i} - a \right) - \left(\frac{1}{1 - a\frac{n_i}{g_i}} \right) + \left(\frac{1}{1 - a\frac{n_i}{g_i}} \right) \right] \delta n_i = \left[\ln \left(\frac{g_i}{n_i} - a \right) \right] \delta n_i \to (13)$$

From eqns (7) and (8),

$$\delta \ln W(\{n_i\}) - \left[\alpha \sum_i \delta n_i - \beta \sum_i \varepsilon_i \delta n_i\right] = 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \quad \delta \ln W(\{n_i\}) = \sum_i \delta \ln w^{(i)}(n_i)$$

Thus,

$$\sum_{i} \left[\ln \left(\frac{g_{i}}{n_{i}} - a \right) - \alpha - \beta \varepsilon_{i} \right] \delta n_{i} = 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \qquad \ln \left(\frac{g_{i}}{n_{i}^{*}} - a \right) - \alpha - \beta \varepsilon_{i} = 0$$

$$n_{i}^{*} = \frac{g_{i}}{e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_{i}} + a} \rightarrow \qquad (15)$$

 n_i^* is the distribution that maximizes the entropy. Hence

$$\frac{S}{k_B} \cong \ln W\left(\left\{n_i^*\right\}\right) = \sum_i \ln w^{(i)}(n_i^*)$$

From eqn (11)

$$\frac{S}{k_{B}} = \sum_{i} \left[n_{i}^{*} \ln \left(\frac{g_{i}}{n_{i}^{*}} - a \right) - \frac{g_{i}}{a} \ln \left(1 - a \frac{n_{i}^{*}}{g_{i}} \right) \right] = \sum_{i} \left[n_{i}^{*} \ln \left(\frac{g_{i}}{g_{i}/e^{\alpha + \beta\varepsilon_{i}}} \right) - \frac{g_{i}}{a} \ln \left(1 - a \frac{g_{i}/e^{\alpha + \beta\varepsilon_{i}}}{g_{i}} \right) \right] \\
= \frac{S}{k_{B}} = \sum_{i} \left[n_{i}^{*} (\alpha + \beta\varepsilon_{i}) + \frac{g_{i}}{a} \ln (1 + ae^{-\alpha - \beta\varepsilon_{i}}) \right] \rightarrow (15) \\
\sum_{i} n_{i}^{*} = N \quad ; \quad \sum_{i} n_{i}^{*} \varepsilon_{i} = E \\
= \frac{S}{k_{B}} - \alpha N - \beta E = \frac{1}{a} \sum_{i} g_{i} \ln (1 + ae^{-\alpha - \beta\varepsilon_{i}})$$

 $\alpha = -\frac{\mu}{k_B T} \quad ; \quad \beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}$

Thus,

$$\frac{S}{k_B} + \frac{\mu N}{k_B T} - \frac{E}{k_B T} = \frac{1}{a} \sum_{i} g_i \ln(1 + a e^{-\alpha - \beta \varepsilon_i})$$

From thermodynamics,

$$\frac{S}{k_B} + \frac{\mu N}{k_B T} - \frac{E}{k_B T} = \frac{G - (E - TS)}{k_B T} = \frac{PV}{k_B T} \rightarrow (16)$$

Equation of state for a quantum ideal gas is

$$PV = \frac{k_B T}{a} \sum_{i} g_i \ln(1 + a e^{-\alpha - \beta \varepsilon_i}) \rightarrow$$
(17)

In the high temperature limit,

 $\alpha, \beta \approx 0$

Hence Taylor expansion can be done, $\ln(1+x) \approx x$

$$\frac{PV}{k_BT} = \frac{1}{a} \sum_{i} g_i a e^{-\alpha - \beta \varepsilon_i} = \sum_{i} g_i e^{-\alpha - \beta \varepsilon_i} \to (18)$$

For an ideal gas with Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution, the equation of state is

$$\frac{PV}{k_BT} = \sum_{i} n_i^* = N \qquad \text{(Ideal gas law)}$$

But from eqn (14)

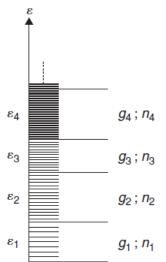
$$n_i^* = \frac{g_i}{e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_i}}$$

Thus,

$$\frac{PV}{k_BT} = \sum_i g_i e^{-\alpha - \beta \varepsilon_i} \to (19)$$

(Compare eqn (18) and (19)). Irrespective of whether it is a Bose gas or a Fermi gas, in the thermodynamic limit it goes over to Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution.





The grouping of the single-particle energy levels into "cells."

At energy ε_j there are N_j particles divided among g_i states. How many ways can they be distributed? Consider N_j particles and g_j –1 barriers between states, a total of $N_j + g_j$ –1 objects to be arranged. How many arrangements?

Bose-Einstein

$$w_{j} = \frac{(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1)!}{N_{j}!(g_{j} - 1)!}$$

$$w_{BE}(N_{1}, N_{2}, \dots N_{n}) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \frac{(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1)!}{N_{j}!(g_{j} - 1)!}$$

$$\ln w_{BE} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \ln(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1)! - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \ln N_{j}! - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \ln(g_{j} - 1)!$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} [(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1) \ln(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1) - (N_{j} + g_{j} - 1)] - \sum_{j=1}^{n} [N_{j} \ln N_{j} - N_{j}]$$

$$- \sum_{j=1}^{n} [(g_{j} - 1) \ln(g_{j} - 1) - (g_{j} - 1)]$$

$$\ln w_{BE} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} [(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1) \ln(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1) - N_{j} \ln N_{j} - (g_{j} - 1) \ln(g_{j} - 1)]$$

$$\delta \ln w_{BE} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \delta N_{j} \left[\ln(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1) + \frac{(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1)}{(N_{j} + g_{j} - 1)} - \ln N_{j} - \frac{N_{j}}{N_{j}} \right]$$

$$\delta \ln w_{BE} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \delta N_{j} \left[\ln \left(\frac{N_{j} + g_{j}}{N_{j}} \right) \right]$$

Constraints (Lagrange Multipliers)

$$\delta \left(\ln w_{BE} - \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{n} N_j - \beta \sum_{j=1}^{n} \varepsilon_j N_j \right) = 0$$
$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \delta N_j \left[\ln \left(\frac{N_j + g_j}{N_j} \right) - \alpha - \beta \varepsilon_j \right] = 0$$
$$\ln \left(1 + \frac{g_j}{N_j} \right) - \alpha - \beta \varepsilon_j = 0$$
$$1 + \frac{g_j}{N_j} = e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j} \quad \frac{g_j}{N_j} = e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j} - 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_j = \frac{N_j}{g_j} = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j} - 1}$$

Boltzmann Distribution

$$\ln\left(\frac{N_j}{g_j}\right) = -\alpha - \beta \varepsilon_j \quad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{N_j}{g_j} = e^{-\alpha - \beta \varepsilon_j} = f_j = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j}}$$

Fermi-Dirac

At energy ε_j there are N_j particles divided among g_i states, but only one per state. $g_j \ge N_j$. How many ways can the N_j occupied states be selected from the g_j states?

$$w_{j} = \frac{g_{j}!}{N_{j}!(g_{j} - N_{j})!}$$

$$w_{FD}(N_{1}, N_{2}, \dots N_{n}) = \prod_{j=1}^{n} \frac{g_{j}!}{N_{j}!(g_{j} - N_{j})!}$$

$$\ln w_{FD} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \ln g_{j}! - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \ln N_{j}! - \sum_{j=1}^{n} \ln(g_{j} - N_{j})!$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} [g_{j} \ln g_{j} - g_{j} - N_{j} \ln N_{j} + N_{j} - (g_{j} - N_{j}) \ln(g_{j} - N_{j}) + (g_{j} - N_{j})]$$

$$= \sum_{j=1}^{n} [g_{j} \ln g_{j} - N_{j} \ln N_{j} - (g_{j} - N_{j}) \ln(g_{j} - N_{j})]$$

$$\delta \ln w_{FD} = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \delta N_{j} \left[-\ln N_{j} - \frac{N_{j}}{N_{j}} + \ln(g_{j} - N_{j}) + \frac{(g_{j} - N_{j})}{(g_{j} - N_{j})} \right] = \sum_{j=1}^{n} \delta N_{j} \left[\ln \left(\frac{g_{j} - N_{j}}{N_{j}} \right) \right]$$

$$\delta \left(\ln w_{FD} - \alpha \sum_{j=1}^{n} N_j - \beta \sum_{j=1}^{n} \varepsilon_j N_j \right) = 0$$

$$\sum_{j=1}^{n} \delta N_j \left[\ln \left(\frac{g_j - N_j}{N_j} \right) - \alpha - \beta \varepsilon_j \right] = 0 \qquad \Rightarrow \quad \frac{g_j}{N_j} - 1 = e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j} \quad \frac{g_j}{N_j} = e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j} + 1 \quad \Rightarrow \quad f_j = \frac{N_j}{g_j} = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j} + 1}$$

$$\ln \left(\frac{g_j}{N_j} - 1 \right) - \alpha - \beta \varepsilon_j = 0$$

Distributions

$$f_j \equiv \frac{n_j}{g_j} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\varepsilon_j - \mu)} + a}, \qquad a = \begin{cases} +1 & \text{for FD statistics} \\ -1 & \text{for BE statistics} \\ 0 & \text{for MB statistics} \end{cases}$$

3-Oct-17

Prof. Dr. I. Nasser QS_examples

Quantum Statistics

When taken to classical limit quantum results must agree with classical. B-E and F-D must approach Boltzmann in classical limit. What is that limit?

Low particle density! Then distinguishability is not a factor.

Classical limit

$$\frac{N_j}{g_j} = f_j = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j} \pm 1}, \qquad \beta = \frac{1}{kT}$$

For
$$f_i \ll 1$$
, $e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_i} \gg 1$

 $f_j \cong \frac{1}{e^{\alpha + \beta \varepsilon_j}}$ Same as Boltzmann

Quantum Results

$$\frac{N_j}{g_j} = f_j = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} e^{\frac{\varepsilon_j}{kT}} \pm 1}$$

- Bose-Einstein
- + Fermi-Dirac

Chemical Potential

$$\frac{N_j}{g_j} = f_j = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} e^{\frac{\varepsilon_j}{kT}} \pm 1} = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{\varepsilon_j - \mu}{kT}} \pm 1}, \qquad \alpha = -\frac{\mu}{kT}$$

- Bose-Einstein
- + Fermi-Dirac