

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So: } \int_0^\infty \langle n(\epsilon, T) \rangle \phi(\epsilon) d\epsilon &= \sum_{\substack{m \\ \text{even}}} \frac{1}{m!} \Psi^{(m)}(\mu) (k_B T)^m I_m \\ &= \Psi(\mu) + (k_B T)^2 \frac{\pi^2}{6} \Psi''(\mu) + \dots \end{aligned}$$

Recall that $\Psi(\epsilon) = \int_0^\epsilon \phi(\epsilon') d\epsilon'$

$$\therefore \boxed{\int_0^\infty \langle n(\epsilon, T) \rangle \phi(\epsilon) d\epsilon = \int_0^\mu \phi(\epsilon) d\epsilon + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \phi'(\mu) + \dots}$$

the Sommerfeld expansion!

Now consider first integral

$$N = \int_0^\infty \langle n(\epsilon, T) \rangle D(\epsilon) d\epsilon = \int_0^\mu D(\epsilon) d\epsilon + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 D'(\mu) + \dots$$

$$N \approx \underbrace{\int_0^{\epsilon_F} D(\epsilon) d\epsilon}_{T=0 \text{ term}} + \underbrace{\int_{\epsilon_F}^\mu D(\epsilon) d\epsilon}_{\approx D(\epsilon_F)(\mu - \epsilon_F)} + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 D'(\mu)$$

$$\begin{aligned} T=0 \text{ term} &\approx D(\epsilon_F)(\mu - \epsilon_F) \\ &= N \end{aligned}$$

expect $\mu(T) \approx \epsilon_F$

$$0 \approx D(\epsilon_F)(\mu - \epsilon_F) + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 D'(\epsilon_F)$$

Solve for $\mu(T)$:

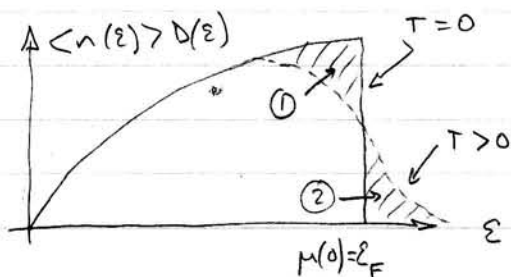
$$\mu(T) \approx \epsilon_F - \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \underbrace{\frac{D'(\epsilon_F)}{D(\epsilon_F)}}_{\frac{1}{2\epsilon_F}} = \epsilon_F - \frac{\pi^2}{12} \left(\frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_F} \right) k_B T$$

this is very small

So $\mu(T)$ decreases from $\mu(0) = \epsilon_F$ as T increases

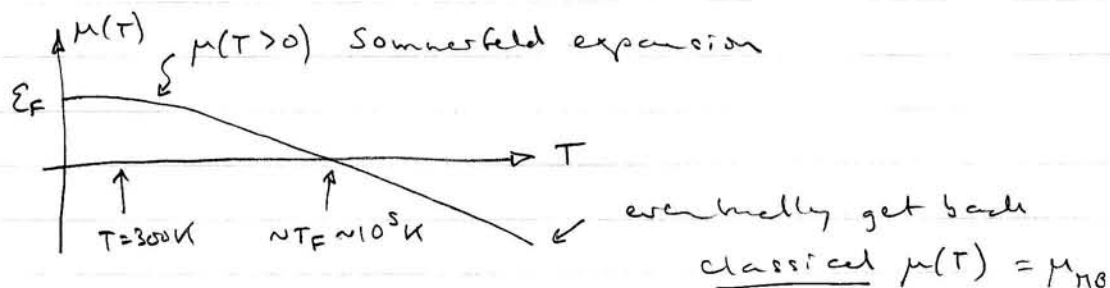
Another way to visualize this

$$N = \int_0^\infty \langle n(\epsilon, T) \rangle D(\epsilon) d\epsilon \quad \text{is true for all } T$$



Area under curve must always be $= N$

Suppose $\mu(T>0) = \mu(0)$ (shown above) then the area under that curve $= N$ too. However, area in ① $<$ area in ② and area under putative $\langle n(\epsilon, T>0) \rangle D(\epsilon) > \langle n(\epsilon, 0) \rangle D(\epsilon)$, which can't happen. The only way it can work is if $\mu(T>0) < \mu(0)$



Now calculate energy $U = \int_0^\infty \langle n(\epsilon, T) \rangle \underbrace{\epsilon D(\epsilon)}_{\phi(\epsilon)} d\epsilon$

Using Sommerfeld expansion:

$$\begin{aligned} U(T) &= \int_0^\mu \epsilon D(\epsilon) d\epsilon + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \frac{d}{d\epsilon} (\epsilon D(\epsilon)) \Big|_\mu \\ &= \underbrace{\int_0^{\epsilon_F} \epsilon D(\epsilon) d\epsilon}_{U(0)} + \underbrace{\int_{\epsilon_F}^\mu \epsilon D(\epsilon) d\epsilon}_{\approx (\mu - \epsilon_F) \epsilon_F D(\epsilon_F)} + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \underbrace{(D(\mu) + \mu D'(\mu))}_{\approx D(\epsilon_F) + \epsilon_F D'(\epsilon_F)} \end{aligned}$$

Since $\mu(T>0) \approx \epsilon_F$ to lowest order

$$D(\epsilon) = g_0 \epsilon^{1/2}$$

$$\therefore D'(\epsilon) = \frac{g_0}{2\epsilon^{1/2}} = \frac{D(\epsilon)}{2\epsilon}$$

$$g_0 = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2}$$

Plugging in for μ in second term

$$\begin{aligned} U(T) &= U(0) - \frac{\pi^2}{12} \frac{(k_B T)^2}{\epsilon_F} D(\epsilon_F) + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 D'(\epsilon_F) + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \epsilon_F \cdot \frac{D'(\epsilon_F)}{2\epsilon_F} \\ &= U(0) + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 D(\epsilon_F) \end{aligned}$$

Now can solve for $C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_V$

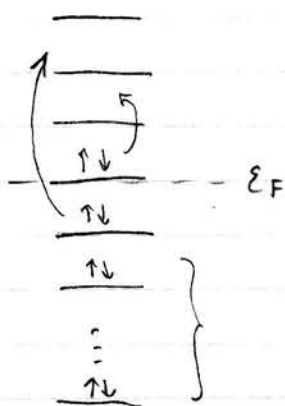
$$C_V = \frac{\pi^2}{3} k_B^2 T D(\epsilon_F) = \frac{\pi^2}{3} k_B^2 T \underbrace{g_0 \epsilon_F^{1/2}}_{\frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2}} = \frac{3}{2} N \epsilon_F^{-3/2}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{C_V = \frac{\pi^2}{2} N k_B \frac{T}{T_F}} \quad \text{so we get linear dependence seen in experiments}$$

For many metals (ex: alkali) $\gamma = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \frac{N k_B}{T_F}$ is accurate to $\sim 20-30\%$

Compare to classical result $C_V = \frac{3}{2} N k_B$

For degenerate Fermi gas, only particles near ϵ_F can be promoted to higher states



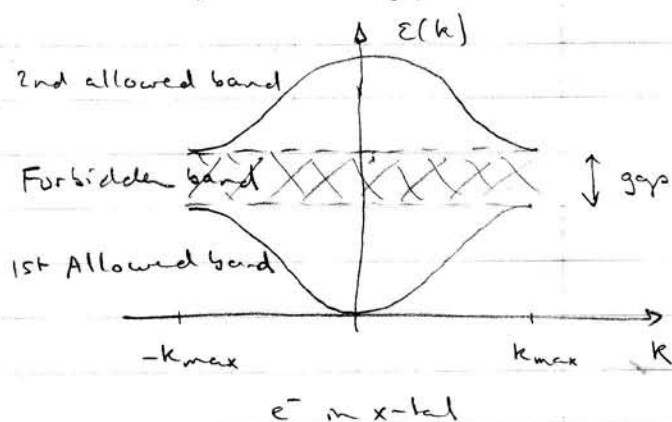
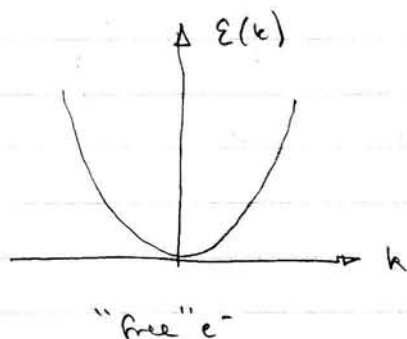
Only fraction $\sim N \frac{T}{T_F}$ contributes

$$\therefore C_V \sim N k_B \frac{T}{T_F}$$

lower energy particles
can't move up

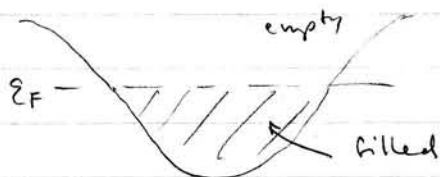
Realistic materials

We assumed e^- in metal were "free" with energy $\mathcal{E}(k) = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$.
When accounting for x-tal structure, e^- energy is more complicated:



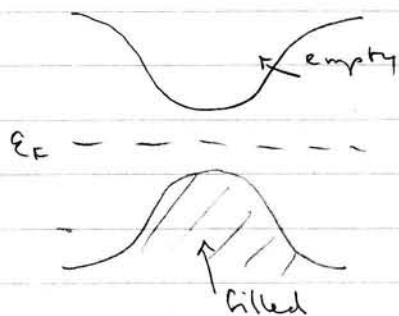
In real x-tal, there are allowed energy "bands" and forbidden "bands", that create energy gaps

For a metal - $\mathcal{E}_F$ is within one band



At $T > 0$, e^- near $\mathcal{E}_F$ can be excited. These contribute to conduction

For an insulator - $\mathcal{E}_F$ is in energy gap between two bands



Here, there are no empty states close to occupied states, e^- are "stuck" in place and cannot conduct electricity

In semiconductors, gap $\sim k_B T$ so a few e^- can jump across gap

Lecture 15

We'll consider a gas of bosons. Recall that bosons can occupy the same quantum state

$$\langle n(\epsilon, T) \rangle_{BE} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon - \mu)} - 1} \geq 0$$

$\therefore \mu < \epsilon$ For all orbitals, including ground state ϵ_0

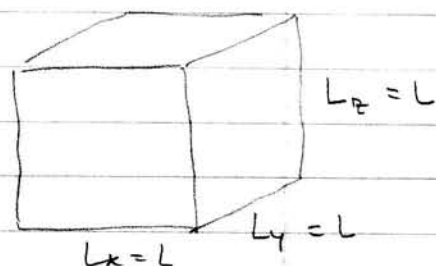
Let's estimate ϵ_0 , and μ

Consider a box of bosons (Ex: ^4He)

Again $\epsilon(k) = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$

$$k = \sqrt{k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2}$$

$$k_i = \frac{n_i \pi}{L} \quad n_i = 1, 2, \dots$$



For simplicity $L_x = L_y = L_z$

$\therefore$ Ground state ϵ_0 is

$$\epsilon_0 = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\pi}{L} \right)^2 (1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2) \quad n_x = n_y = n_z = 1$$

For $m = \text{mass of } ^4\text{He}$, $L = 1 \text{ cm}$
 $= 6.6 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$

$$\epsilon_0 \sim 10^{-37} \text{ J} \sim 5 \times 10^{-19} \text{ eV}$$

$$\epsilon_0/k_B \sim 10^{-14} \text{ K}$$

↑
Practically zero!

Now consider what μ must be as $T \rightarrow 0$

(2)

As $T \rightarrow 0$ we expect all the bosons to occupy the ground state
 If $N \sim 10^{22}$ and

$$N = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon_0 - \mu)} - 1} \gg 1$$

$\therefore$ Denominator must be very small $\Rightarrow$ i.e. $\beta(\epsilon_0 - \mu)$ must be very small

$$\text{As } T \rightarrow 0 \quad N \approx \frac{1}{1 + \beta(\epsilon_0 - \mu) - 1} = \frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_0 - \mu}$$

$$\therefore \mu(T \rightarrow 0) \approx \epsilon_0 - \frac{k_B T}{N}$$

so μ is less than ϵ_0 (as expected) but extremely close to ϵ_0 for sufficient small T and for $N \gg 1$

How small must T be for the ground state occupancy to be large? We'll figure this out soon.

First, let's compare how close $\mu(T \rightarrow 0)$ is to the first excited state:

$$\epsilon_1 = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\pi}{L} \right)^2 (2^2 + 1^2 + 1^2) = \epsilon_0 + \Delta\epsilon$$

$$\Delta\epsilon = 3 \cdot \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\pi}{L} \right)^2 = 2.5 \times 10^{-37} \text{ J} \sim 10^{-19} \text{ eV}$$

↑

Again, tiny

On the other hand, for a small $T = 1 \text{ mK}$

$$\mu(T) = \epsilon_0 - 1.4 \times 10^{-48} \text{ J} = \epsilon_0 - 10^{-30} \text{ eV}$$

↑

even tinier!

(3)

So, μ is closer to ϵ_0 than ϵ_1 is by orders of magnitude

$$\begin{array}{l} \epsilon_2 \text{ ---} \\ \epsilon_1 \text{ ---} \\ \epsilon_0 \text{ ===} \mu \end{array}$$

This means that

$$\frac{e^{\beta(\epsilon_0 - \mu)}}{e^{\beta(\epsilon_1 - \mu)}} \text{ is much closer to 1 than}$$

What are the consequences of this?

Compare the occupancies of ground state vs. excited state at $T = 1 \text{ mK}$

If bosons obeyed MB statistics, we would expect

$$\frac{\langle n(\epsilon_1, T) \rangle_{MB}}{\langle n(\epsilon_0, T) \rangle_{MB}} = \frac{e^{-\beta(\epsilon_1 - \mu)}}{e^{-\beta(\epsilon_0 - \mu)}} = e^{-\beta \Delta \epsilon} = e^{-1.8 \times 10^{-11}} \approx 1 - 1.8 \times 10^{-11} \approx 1$$

Basically no difference. Makes sense, spacing between levels $\Delta \epsilon = \epsilon_1 - \epsilon_0 \ll k_B T$ ($\sim 10^{-14} \text{ K}$ vs. 10^{-3} K)

Now, use correct BE statistics:

$$\langle n(\epsilon_0, T) \rangle_{BE} = N \approx 10^{22}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle n(\epsilon_1, T) \rangle_{BE} &= \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon_1 - \mu)} - 1} \approx \frac{1}{e^{\beta \Delta \epsilon} - 1} & \epsilon_1 - \mu &= \epsilon_1 - \epsilon_0 + \frac{k_B T}{N} \\ &\approx \frac{1}{1.8 \times 10^{-11}} \approx 5 \times 10^{10} & &\approx \Delta \epsilon \end{aligned}$$

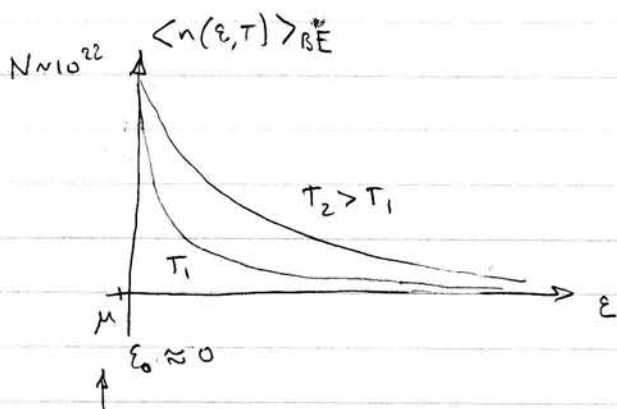
$$\therefore \frac{\langle n(\epsilon_1, T) \rangle_{BE}}{\langle n(\epsilon_0, T) \rangle_{BE}} \approx 5 \times 10^{-12} \quad !!$$

↑

Big difference

(4)

BE distribution is strange; it favors putting the great majority of the particles in the ground state at a sufficiently low temperature, much more than that expected from MB statistics.



This is called Bose-Einstein condensation

slightly offset μ for low T ensures that $\langle n(\epsilon, T) \rangle_{BE}$ doesn't blow up when $\epsilon = \epsilon_0$

Next step is figuring out temperature at which this starts to happen.

Total # of particles:

all excited states $i > 0$

$$N = \sum_i \langle n(\epsilon_i, T) \rangle_{BE} = N_0 + N_e$$

↑
treat ground state separately

Spacing between levels is still very small, so we can write

$$N_e = \int_0^\infty D(\epsilon) \langle n(\epsilon, T) \rangle_{BE} d\epsilon$$

technically should be ϵ_1 , but $\epsilon_1 \approx 0$