# 8.08 Statistical Physics II — Spring 2019 Recitation Note 8

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## **Contents**



### <span id="page-1-0"></span>1 Non-interacting Bose Gas

In the last recitation and in the class, we have derived the grand partition function of non-interacting Bose gas:

$$
\Xi_{\mathbf{k}} = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta(\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)}},\tag{1}
$$

and  $\Xi = \prod_{\mathbf{k}} \Xi_{\mathbf{k}}$ . The Bose-Einstein distribution comes from

$$
\langle n_{\mathbf{k}} \rangle = \frac{\ln \Xi_{\mathbf{k}}}{\partial (\beta \mu)} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta (\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)} - 1},\tag{2}
$$

where  $\mu$  is determined from the total particle number constraint  $N = \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \langle n_{\mathbf{k}} \rangle$ .

We are going to study the property of non-interacting Bose gas in detail. First, we need to choose a dispersion relation for bosons. Here we use quadratic dispersion in three dimensions:  $E_{\bf k} = \hbar^2 k^2/2m$  and  $k = \sqrt{k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2}$ . It is straightforward to generalize the calculation to any dimensions with any dispersion relation, which you will do in the pset.

#### <span id="page-1-1"></span>1.1 Chemical Potential and Bose-Einstein Condensation

We first determine the  $\mu \sim N$  relation. It is often convenient to convert the momentum integral to the energy integral. Note that the energy only depends on the magnitude of the wavevector:

$$
\sum_{\mathbf{k}} = V \int \frac{d^3 \mathbf{k}}{(2\pi)^3} = V \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{4\pi k^2 dk}{(2\pi)^3} = V \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{k^2 dk}{2\pi^2}.
$$
 (3)

Combined with  $dE/dk = \hbar^2 k/m$ , we have

$$
\frac{k^2 dk}{2\pi^2} = \frac{m}{2\pi^2 \hbar^2} k dE = \underbrace{\frac{m}{2\pi^2 \hbar^2} \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}}_{g(E)} dE, \tag{4}
$$

where  $\sum_{\mathbf{k}} = V \int g(E) dE$  and  $g(E)$  is called the density of states. The particle number constraint becomes

$$
n = \frac{m^{3/2}}{\sqrt{2}\pi^2\hbar^3} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{\sqrt{E}dE}{e^{-\beta(E-\mu)} - 1} = \frac{m^{3/2}}{\sqrt{2}\pi^2\hbar^3\beta^3} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{\sqrt{x}dx}{e^x/z - 1},
$$
(5)

where we have changed the variable  $x = \beta E$  and denote  $z \equiv e^{\beta \mu}$ , which is the fugacity of the system. Note that the integral is dimensionless because both  $x$  and  $z$  are dimensionless. The above expression can be simplified further by introducing the thermal wavelength  $\lambda_T \equiv \sqrt{2\pi\hbar^2/mk_BT}$ .

<span id="page-1-3"></span><span id="page-1-2"></span>
$$
n\lambda_T^3 = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{\sqrt{x} dx}{e^x/z - 1} = g_{3/2}(z). \tag{6}
$$

The closed-form solution of the integral in general does not exist.

 $g_{\nu}(z)$  is often called the Bose-Einstein function by physicists and polylogarithm functions by mathematicians. It is often expressed as a series:

$$
g_{3/2}(z) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{\sqrt{x} dx}{e^x/z - 1} = \frac{2z}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{e^{-x}\sqrt{x}}{1 - ze^{-x}} dx
$$
  
=  $\frac{2z}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{+\infty} dx e^{-x} \sqrt{x} \sum_{p=0}^{\infty} z^p e^{-px} = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \sum_{p=1}^{\infty} z^p \int_0^{+\infty} dx \sqrt{x} e^{-px} = \sum_{p=1}^{\infty} \frac{z^p}{p^{3/2}}.$  (7)



Figure 1: Plot of  $g_{3/2}(z)$ ; Chemical potential  $\mu$  for fixed density as a function of temperature T; Number of bosons in the condensed phase  $N_0$  and in the normal phase  $N_n$  as functions of temperature T.

In general,  $g_{\nu}(z) \equiv \sum_{p=1}^{\infty} z^p/p^{\nu}$ .

 $g_{3/2}(z)$  is plotted in Fig. [1,](#page-2-0) which increases monotonically with z and is finite only when  $|z| \leq 1$ .  $z = 1$ corresponds to  $\mu = 0$  and  $g_{3/2}(z) = \zeta(3/2) \approx 2.612$ . Since z increases monotonically with  $\mu$ , this is consistent with the fact that  $\mu \leq 0$  in non-interacting Bose gas (if you don't know why, check the last recitation note). However, this also sets an upper limit  $g_{3/2}(1)$  on  $n\lambda_T^3$ . What happens in reality if we have a system of Bose gas with density  $n\lambda_T^3 > g_{3/2}(1)$ , for example, by lowering the temperature under the critical temperature  $T_c$ ?

<span id="page-2-0"></span>
$$
k_B T_c = \frac{2\pi \hbar^2}{m} \left(\frac{n}{2.612}\right)^{2/3}.
$$
 (8)

At zero temperature, it is rather obvious all the particle will occupy the lowest energy state, which is the zero momentum  $k = 0$  state. On the other hand, since  $g(E) \propto \sqrt{E}$  and  $g(E = 0) = 0$ , the contribution from the zero momentum state is completely ignored in the continuity assumption. Therefore, we need to consider the  $k = 0$  state separately when  $T < T_c$ .

$$
N_0 = \frac{1}{e^{-\beta \mu} - 1},\tag{9}
$$

or

$$
\mu = -k_B T \ln \left( 1 + \frac{1}{N_0} \right) \sim -\frac{k_B T}{N_0}.
$$
\n(10)

In the thermodynamic limit, a finite fraction of the bosons are at the zero momentum state, and both  $N$  and  $N_0$  tends to infinity. Thus  $\mu = 0$ . The temperature dependence of  $\mu$  is plotted in Fig. [1.](#page-2-0)

The conservation of particle number is then

$$
N = N_0 + \sum_{\mathbf{k} \neq 0} \frac{1}{e^{\beta \varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}}} - 1},\tag{11}
$$

and replace the k summation by continuum integral

<span id="page-3-1"></span>
$$
n = n_0 + n_n = 2.612\lambda_T^{-3},\tag{12}
$$

where  $n_0$  is the condensate density and  $n_n$  is the normal density. With the help of Eq. [\(6\)](#page-1-2), Equation [\(12\)](#page-3-1) can also be rewritten as

$$
\frac{n_0}{n} = 1 - \left(\frac{T}{T_c}\right)^{3/2},\tag{13}
$$

which is plotted in Fig. [1.](#page-2-0) Note the similarity of the functional form to the magnetization of ferromagnetism transition near the critical point. There the critical exponent of magnetization is  $1/2$  instead of  $3/2$ .

It is often said a macroscopic number (i.e. proportional to system size) of bosons are condensed into the zero momentum state. This phenomenon is called the Bose-Einstein condensation (BEC).

One might question the validity of treating  $k = 0$  state separately while treating all  $k \neq 0$  states as a continuum. Suppose in a cubic box with side length L, the lowest excited state corresponds to the momentum state  $k = 2\pi/L$ . Therefore,  $\varepsilon_{\bf k} \sim h^2/mL^2 \sim V^{-2/3}h^2/m$ . It follows

$$
N_1 = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)} - 1} \sim \frac{1}{e^{\beta h^2 V^{-2/3}/m} - 1} = O(V^{2/3}),\tag{14}
$$

in the  $V \to \infty$  limit. On the other hand  $N_0 = O(V)$ . Therefore  $N_1/N_0 = O(V^{-1/3}) \to 0$  in the thermodynamic limit, i.e., the occupation of any individual single particle state with  $k \neq 0$  is negligible compared with the special  $k = 0$  state.

#### <span id="page-3-0"></span>1.2 Internal Energy and Heat Capacity

The internal energy of Bose gas can be computed directly by noting that condensed state does not contribute to the internal energy:

<span id="page-3-2"></span>
$$
U = V \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{E g(E) dE}{e^{\beta(E-\mu)} - 1} = \frac{3}{2} V k_B T \lambda_T^{-3} g_{5/2}(z). \tag{15}
$$

Therefore,

$$
u = \frac{U}{N} = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{2} k_B T \frac{g_{5/2}(z)}{g_{3/2}(z)}, & T \ge T_c, \\ \frac{3}{2} k_B \frac{T^{5/2}}{T_c^{3/2}} \frac{g_{5/2}(1)}{g_{3/2}(1)}, & T < T_c. \end{cases} \tag{16}
$$

When  $T \gg T_c$ , according to Eq. [\(7\)](#page-1-3), both  $g_{\nu}(z) \sim z$  when  $z \ll 1$ ,

$$
u \sim \frac{3}{2} k_B T,\tag{17}
$$

which reduces to the result of monoatomic classical ideal gas. This is consistent with the fact that at high temperature  $\mu \ll 0$  and  $e^{-\beta \mu} \gg 1$ , and the Bose-Einstein distribution reduces to the Boltzmann distribution

$$
\langle n_{\mathbf{k}} \rangle = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)} - 1} \sim e^{-\beta(\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)}.
$$
 (18)

When  $T \ll T_c$ , we have  $u \sim T^{5/2}$ , which is a power law dependence. This reflects the fact that there is no energy gap existing in the system.

Knowing the internal energy, it is straightforward to compute the heat capacity from  $C_V = (\partial U/\partial T)_V$ . At low temperature  $T \ll T_c$ ,  $C_V \sim T^{3/2}$ ; at high temperature  $T \gg T_c$ ,  $C_V \sim 3k_B/2$ .



Figure 2: Internal energy per particle u and heat capacity  $C_V$  as functions of temperature T for Bose gas and classical ideal gas.

#### <span id="page-4-0"></span>1.3 Pressure and Equation of State

There exists a general relation between the pressure and the internal energy in non-interacting systems. Suppose the dispersion relation is  $\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} \sim k^{\alpha} \sim V^{-\alpha/d}$ ,

$$
p = -\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_S\tag{19}
$$

<span id="page-4-1"></span>
$$
= -\left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_{n_i, \forall i} \tag{20}
$$

<span id="page-4-3"></span><span id="page-4-2"></span>
$$
= -\sum_{i} n_{i} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{i}}{\partial V}
$$
 (21)

$$
=\frac{\alpha}{d}\sum_{i}n_{i}\varepsilon_{i}/V\tag{22}
$$

$$
=\frac{\alpha}{d}\frac{U}{V}.\tag{23}
$$

Equation [\(19\)](#page-4-1) is equivalent to [\(20\)](#page-4-2) because entropy is fully determined by the occupation of each state. This relation does not depend on the underlying statistics of the system, as long as the system is non-interacting such that  $U =$  $\sum_i n_i \varepsilon_i.$ 

As a consistency check, one can also derive the result using the grand partition function for Bose gas:

$$
\Omega = k_B T \sum_{\mathbf{k}} \ln(1 - e^{-\beta(\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)}).
$$
 (24)

It follows

$$
p = -\left(\frac{\partial \Omega}{\partial V}\right)_{T,\mu} = -\sum_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{\frac{\partial \varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}}}{\partial V} e^{-\beta(\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)}}{1 - e^{-\beta(\varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}} - \mu)}} = -\sum_{\mathbf{k}} n_{\mathbf{k}} \frac{\partial \varepsilon_{\mathbf{k}}}{\partial V},\tag{25}
$$

which reduces to Eq. [\(21\)](#page-4-3). Note that this derivation is only true for Bose gas.

In our particular example,  $\alpha = 2$  and  $d = 3$ , it follows

<span id="page-4-4"></span>
$$
pV = \frac{2}{3}U.\tag{26}
$$

One can check the validity of this formula for classical monoatomic ideal gas, where  $U = 3Nk_BT/2$ . Equation [\(26\)](#page-4-4) reduces to the familar equation of state  $pV = Nk_BT$ .

For non-interacting Bose gas, with Eq. [\(15\)](#page-3-2),

$$
p = \frac{3}{2}k_B T \lambda_T^{-3} g_{5/2}(z). \tag{27}
$$

#### <span id="page-5-0"></span>1.4 Entropty and BEC as Phase Transition

When  $0 \le T \le T_c$ , the entropy of the system can be computed as

$$
s(T) = \int_0^T \frac{C_V(T')}{T'} dT' = \frac{5}{2} k_B \frac{T^{3/2}}{T_c^{3/2}} \frac{g_{5/2}(1)}{g_{3/2}(1)}.
$$
 (28)

On the other hand, note that  $N_n \sim (T/T_c)^{3/2}$ ,  $s(T)$  can be rewritten as

<span id="page-5-1"></span>
$$
s(T) = N_n s(T_c) = N_0 s(0) + N_n s(T_c).
$$
\n(29)

The last equality is because  $s(0) = 0$ . Equation [\(29\)](#page-5-1) can be interpreted as that the system is a statistical mixture of the condensed phase and the normal phase.

The BEC for non-interacting bosons are usually regarded as a first-order phase transition. (Note that this is true only for non-interacting bosons. BEC of interacting bosons are more complicated. ) There are at least two evidences that suggest this interpretation:

- No discontinuity of specific heat;
- At any nonzero temperature below  $T_c$ , the full thermodynamic property of the system can be described as a two-phase mixture just like the mixture of vapor and liquid.