

§18. Degenerate Bose Gas.

18.1 Bose-Einstein Condensation

Recall that for bosons,

$$\bar{n}_i = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon_i - \mu)} - 1} \quad (1)$$

and multiple particles are welcome to occupy the same state!

Eq. (1) requires $\mu < \epsilon_i$ for all single-particle states i , otherwise we get an unphysical situation $\bar{n}_i < 0$.

Therefore $\mu < \min(\epsilon_i) = \epsilon_0 = 0$ lowest state let's ~~again~~ consider here just the cases when this is true

Clearly, as $T \rightarrow 0$ ($\beta \rightarrow \infty$), the lower the energy the larger the occupation # and so at $T = +0$, we expect them all to be in the ground state:

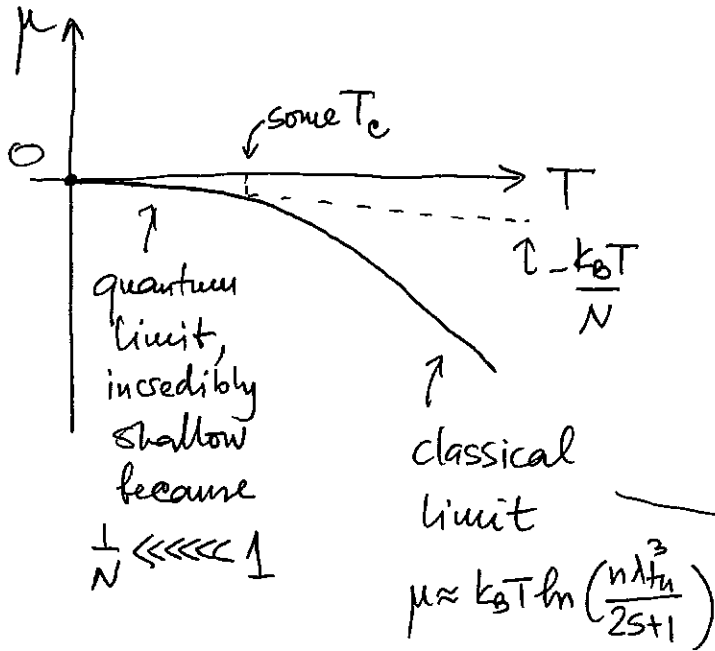
$$\bar{n}_0 = \frac{1}{e^{-\beta\mu} - 1} \rightarrow N \text{ as } \beta \rightarrow \infty \quad (2)$$

\Downarrow

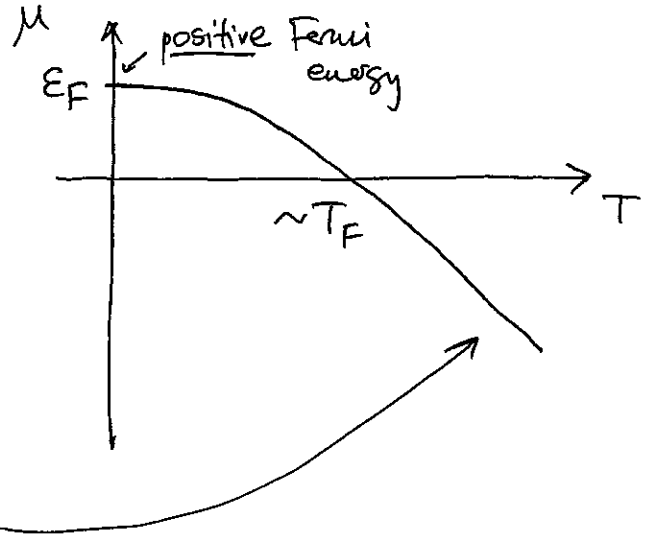
$$\mu(T \rightarrow +0) \approx -k_B T \ln\left(1 + \frac{1}{N}\right) \approx -\frac{k_B T}{N} \rightarrow 0 \text{ from below} \quad (3)$$

(for ideal gas, $\epsilon = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = 0$ for $k=0$)
but can generalise to $\epsilon_0 \neq 0$ (easy; applies, e.g. to magnetised Bose gas - see PS-8)

Thus, for Bose gas,



Cf., for Fermi gas (p. 189)



Thus, at low temperatures, the lowest-energy state becomes macroscopically occupied:

$\bar{n}_0(T=0) = N$ and clearly, $\bar{n}_0 \sim$ some significant fraction of N for T just above zero.

How does that square with our previous calculations in the continuous limit? We had [eq. (27), ~~175~~ 175]:

sum over states $\rightarrow \sum_i = \int_0^\infty dE g(E)$, $g(E) = \frac{2(2s+1)V}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{1}{\lambda_{th}^3} \sqrt{E} \beta^{3/2}$ (4)

Thus, the $E=0$ state gave us a vanishing contribution to the integral

But clearly, the continuous approximation of \sum_i was only justified provided the # of particles in each particular discrete state was small compared to the total # of particles N !

As we have just seen, this is patently wrong at low enough T , so we must adjust our theory. But in order to adjust it, let us see how, mathematically speaking, it breaks down as $T \rightarrow 0$:

[and break down it must, otherwise we'd be in trouble, with spurious results emerging!]

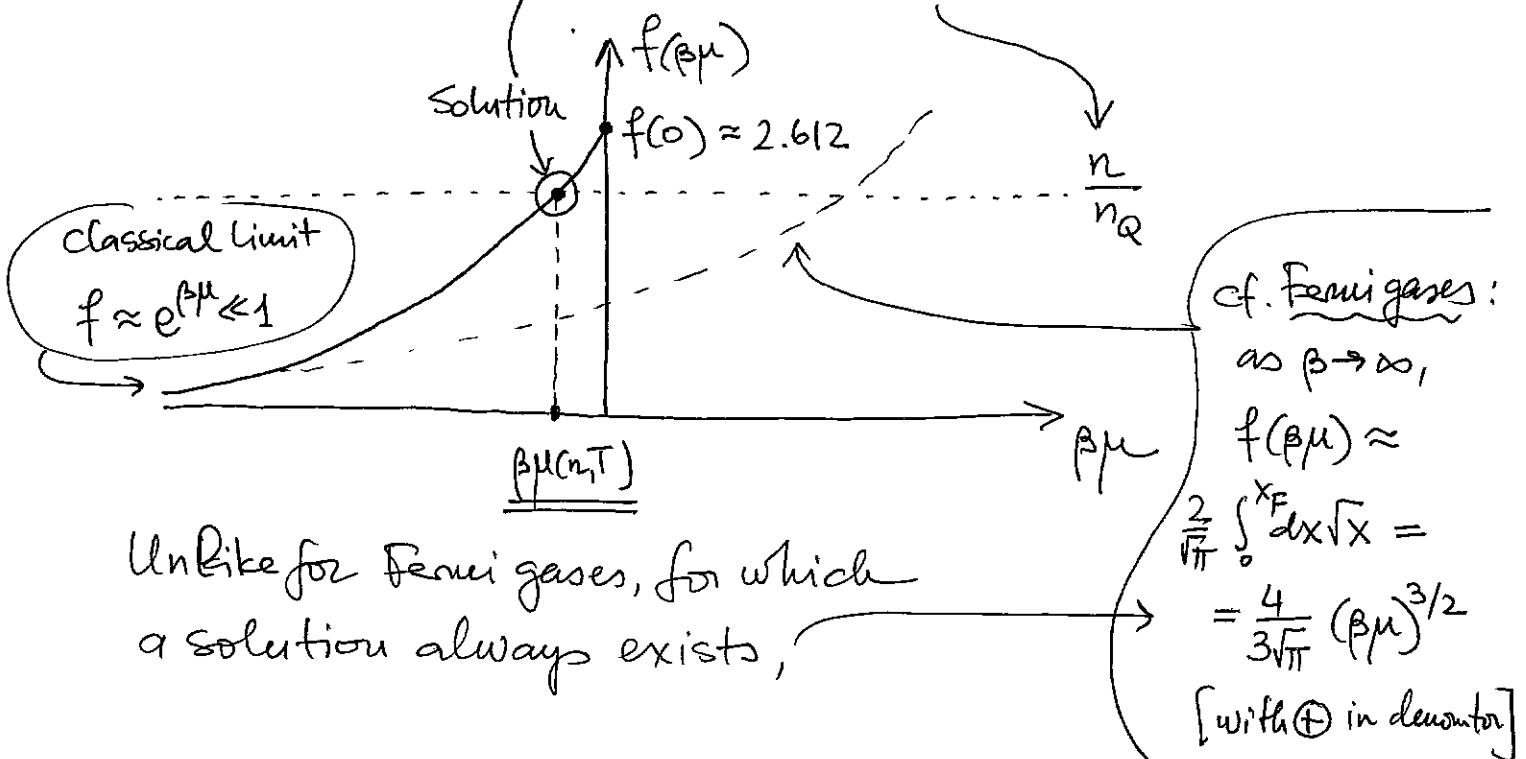
Recall that the first step in any treatment of a quantum gas is to calculate $\mu(n, T)$ from [eq. (28) p. 175]:

$$N = \cancel{(2S+1)} \frac{V}{\lambda_{th}^3} \underbrace{\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^\infty \frac{dx \sqrt{x}}{e^{x-\beta\mu} - 1}}_{\substack{\text{bosons!} \\ f(\beta\mu)}} \quad (5)$$

Thus, ~~the~~ $\mu(n, T)$ is the solution of the transcendental equation

$$\lambda_{th} = \frac{1}{h} \sqrt{\frac{2\pi}{m k_B T}}$$

$$f(\beta\mu) = \frac{n \lambda_{th}^3}{2S+1} \equiv \frac{n}{n_Q} \propto \frac{n}{T^{3/2}} \quad (6)$$



Unlike for Fermi gases, for which a solution always exists,

for Bose gases, $f(\beta\mu)$ tends to a finite upper

$$\text{limit: } f(0) = \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^{\infty} \frac{dx \sqrt{x}}{e^x - 1} = \zeta\left(\frac{3}{2}\right) \approx 2.612 \quad (7)$$

"Riemann zeta function"

Thus, if $\frac{n}{n_Q} > f(0)$, there is no longer a solution to eq. (6)! This happens at $T = T_c$ st.

$$\frac{n}{n_Q} = \frac{n \lambda_{th}^3}{2s+1} = f(0) \approx 2.612$$

and so
$$T_c = \frac{2\pi\hbar^2}{m k_B} \left[\frac{n}{2.612(2s+1)} \right]^{2/3} \quad (8)$$

For $T > T_c$, all is well and we can always find $\mu(n, T) \rightarrow -0$ as $T \rightarrow T_c + 0$

For $T < T_c$, we can just set $\mu = 0$

[from (3), we know it's a tiny bit below 0, but that is basically 0 in thermodynamic limit $N \rightarrow \infty$]

- but this means that now eq. (5) no longer determines μ but rather the # of particles in the excited states ($\epsilon \neq 0$):

$$N_{exc.} = (2s+1) \frac{V}{\lambda_{th}^3} \underbrace{f(0)}_{2.612} < N$$

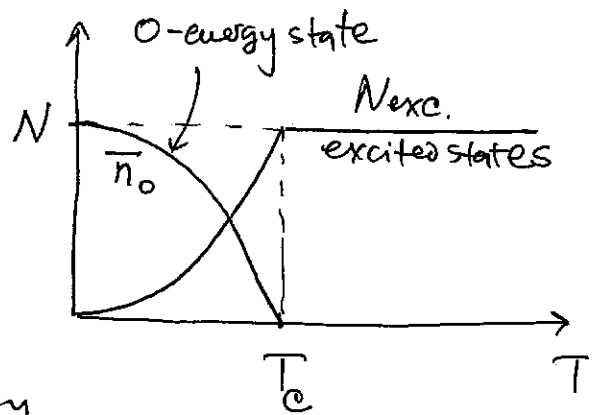
Equivalently,

$$\frac{N_{exc.}}{N} = \frac{2.612 (2s+1)}{n \lambda_{th}^3} = \left(\frac{T}{T_c}\right)^{3/2}, \quad (9)$$

Where the occupation # of the 0-energy state is ^{for $T < T_c$}

$$\bar{n}_0 = N \left[1 - \left(\frac{T}{T_c}\right)^{3/2} \right]$$

(10)



This phenomenon of a macroscopic # of particles collecting in the lowest-energy state is called Bose-Einstein condensation

(in k^3 space!)

When the condensate is present ($T < T_c$), Bose gas behaves as a system whose # of particles is not conserved at all because particles can always leave the excited population (N_{exc}) and drop into the condensate (\bar{n}_0) - c.f. photon gas (also $\mu=0$).

Cornell, Wieman & Ketterle got the 2001 Nobel Prize for the first experimental observation of Bose condensation.

(degeneration temperature (see §16.7))

Expectedly, $T_c \sim \frac{\hbar^2 n^{2/3}}{m k_B} \sim T_{deg} \sim$ a few K ^{under normal conditions}

(≈ 3 K for ^4He)

Note. You might wonder whether the lowest-energy state really is so special - might some energy levels above it also be macroscopically occupied?

Let us estimate whether they are.

The occupation # of the lowest non-zero level:

$$\bar{n}_1 = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon_1 - \mu)} - 1}, \quad (11)$$

where $\epsilon_1 = \frac{\hbar^2 k_{\min}^2}{2m}$, $k_{\min} = \frac{2\pi}{L} = \frac{2\pi}{V^{1/3}}$ (smallest possible $k \neq 0$)

\uparrow
size of the box

$$\epsilon_1 = \frac{2\pi^2 \hbar^2}{m V^{2/3}} = \frac{2\pi^2 \hbar^2 n^{2/3}}{m} \frac{1}{N^{2/3}} \sim \frac{k_B T_c}{N^{2/3}}$$

$$1 \Rightarrow \beta \epsilon_1 \sim \frac{T_c}{T} \frac{1}{N^{2/3}} \gg \beta \mu \sim -\frac{1}{N} \quad [\text{see eq. (3)}]$$

$$\text{Thus, } \bar{n}_1 \sim \frac{1}{e^{\beta \epsilon_1} - 1} \sim \frac{T}{T_c} N^{2/3} \quad (12)$$

This is very large, but in general still much smaller than either \bar{n}_0 or N_{exc} . (both $\sim N$):

$$\frac{\bar{n}_1}{\bar{n}_0} \sim \frac{\bar{n}_1}{N_{\text{exc}}} \sim \frac{1}{N^{1/3}} \ll \ll 1 \text{ in the thermodynamic limit.}$$

Thus, it was OK to only worry specifically about \bar{n}_0 - occupation #'s of all individual excited states are \ll the total N .

18.2 Thermodynamics of degenerate Bose gas.

Our usual routine:

1) Energy [eq. (30) p. 176]: Since the condensate is in the 0-energy state, it does not contribute to mean energy, so we need not worry about n_0 and so, just from the excited states,

$$U = N k_B T \left(\frac{n_Q}{n} \right) \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^\infty dx x^{3/2} \frac{1}{e^x - 1}$$

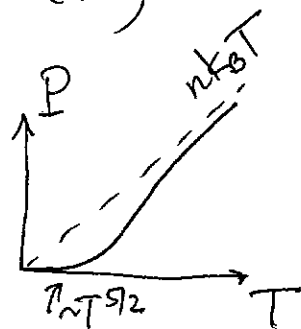
$\frac{1}{2.612} \left(\frac{T}{T_c} \right)^{3/2}$ [eq. (8)]

 for $T < T_c$

 $\frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_0^\infty \frac{dx x^{3/2}}{e^x - 1} = \frac{3}{2} \cdot 1.341 \cdot \frac{5}{2}$

$$\approx \frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{1.341}{2.612} \left(\frac{T}{T_c} \right)^{3/2} N k_B T$$

or $U \approx 0.77 N k_B T_c \left(\frac{T}{T_c} \right)^{5/2}$ (13)



2) Grand potential $\Phi = -\frac{2}{3} U = -P V$

Equ of state

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \cdot 0.77 n k_B T_c \left(\frac{T}{T_c} \right)^{5/2} \approx 0.085 (2s+1) \frac{m^{3/2} (k_B T)^{5/2}}{h^3}$$

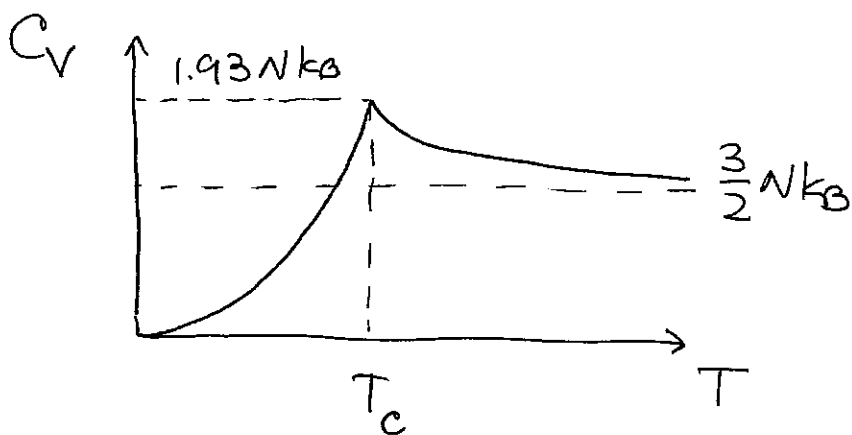
use eq. (8) (NB: $T_c \propto n^{2/3}$) (14)

Thus pressure (and energy density) is independent of either volume or the density of particles — this is because the # of particles with non-zero energy is not conserved, so P is a function only of T (just like for photon gas)

3) Heat capacity :

$$C_V = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \right)_V = \frac{5}{2} \frac{U}{T} \approx 1.93 N k_B \left(\frac{T}{T_c} \right)^{3/2} \quad (15)$$

Note that $1.93 > \frac{3}{2}$, so C_V at $T=T_c$ is larger than it is in the classical limit ($\frac{3}{2} N k_B$)



At $T=T_c$, C_V has a maximum and a discontinuous derivative. The jump in the derivative can be calculated by expanding around $T=T_c$.

This is done in, e.g., Landau & Lifshitz §62.

The answer is

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \left(\frac{\partial C_V}{\partial T} \right)_{T=T_c-0} &\approx 2.89 \frac{Nk_B}{T_c} \\ \left(\frac{\partial C_V}{\partial T} \right)_{T=T_c+0} &\approx -0.77 \frac{Nk_B}{T_c} \end{aligned} \right\} (16)$$

[3rd-order phase transition]

Such is the weird and wonderful quantum world. You'll learn more about it in the 3rd year and also in some homework problems that accompany these lectures.

Enjoy!