

F. The Density of single-particle states $g(\epsilon)$

Motivation:

$$n_i = g_i \cdot \left(\begin{array}{l} \text{Fermi-Dirac} \\ \text{Bose-Einstein} \end{array} \right) \text{distribution}$$

Take energies as continuously spreading over the energy axis:

$$\underbrace{n(\epsilon)d\epsilon}_{\substack{\uparrow \\ \text{\# particles} \\ \text{having energies} \\ \text{in interval } \epsilon \rightarrow \epsilon+d\epsilon}} = \frac{\underbrace{g(\epsilon)d\epsilon}_{\substack{\leftarrow \text{\# single-particle states} \\ \text{(of the system) in the energy} \\ \text{interval } \epsilon \rightarrow \epsilon+d\epsilon}}}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)/kT} \pm 1}$$

$g(\epsilon)$ is called the Density of single-particle states in energy OR simply the Density of States

$g(\epsilon)d\epsilon$ is NOT related to temperature

it depends on whether the particles are in 3D, 2D, 1D (dimensionality)

- • • the particles are free or trapped in some one-particle potential
- • • the particles are non-relativistic or relativistic

[useful in solid state physics, astrophysics, materials science, statistical physics]

We will aim at getting $g(\epsilon)$ for 3D free non-relativistic particles

(but method is general)

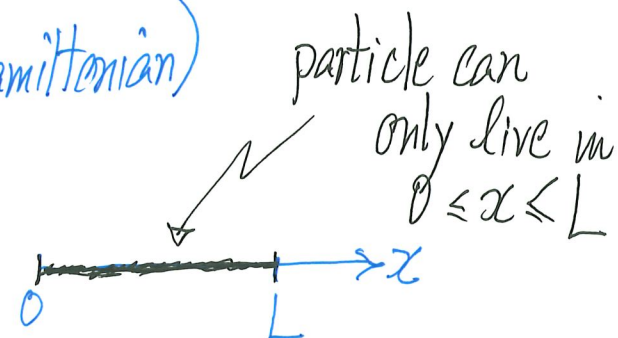
Key idea: It is a result of fitting waves subject to boundary conditions

Let's start with 1D

(a) Non-relativistic Free Particles in 1D

s.p. Hamiltonian $\rightarrow \hat{h} = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \underbrace{U(x)}_{0 \text{ (free)}}$ (single-particle Hamiltonian)

and particle can only live in a 1D space of length L



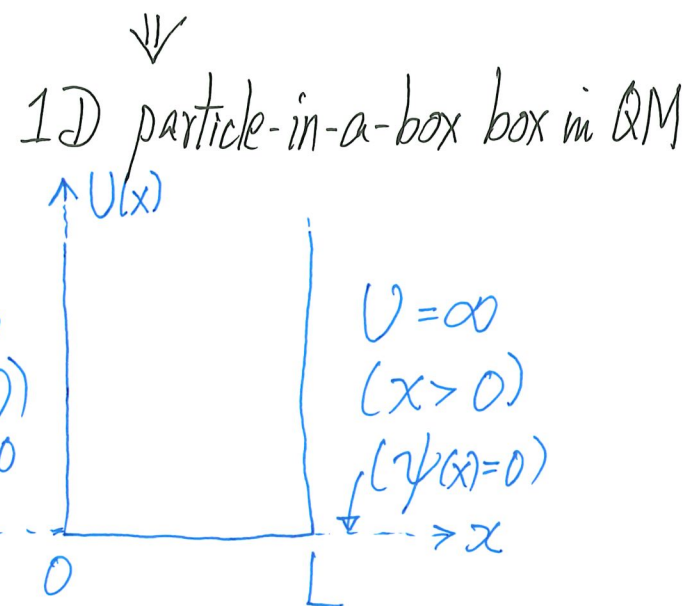
In box, Schrödinger Equation is

$$\frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} \psi = E \psi$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \psi(x) = E \psi(x), \quad 0 \leq x \leq L$$

But $\psi(x)=0$, $x < 0$ & $x > L$

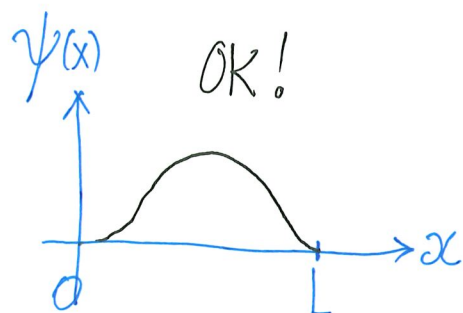
provide the B.C.'s (and size L enters into solutions)



$\psi(x) \sim \sin kx$ works for specific k -values $\left[k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \right]$
 $\nearrow$ wave number $\nwarrow$ wavelength

$x=0$ B.C. satisfied

but $x=L$ B.C. requires specific values of k [thus λ , fitting waves]



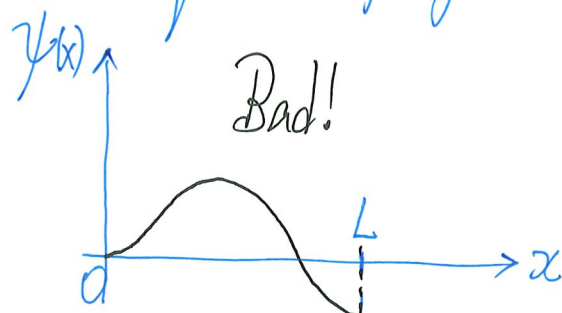
$$\lambda = 2L$$

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{\pi}{L}$$

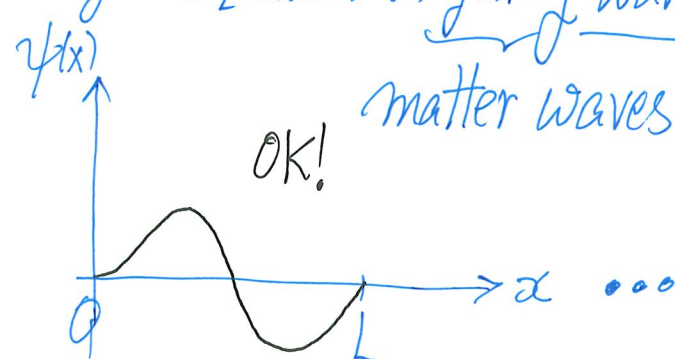
$$E_1 = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = \frac{(1^2) \hbar^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2}$$

$$\psi_1(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{L}\right), \quad 0 \leq x \leq L$$

QM normalization condition



this wavelength is Bad!
 (not allowed)



$$\lambda = L, \quad k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi}{L}$$

$$E_2 = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = \frac{(2^2) \hbar^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2}$$

$$\psi_2(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{L}\right); \quad 0 \leq x \leq L$$

$$\psi_{n_x}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n_x \pi x}{L}\right) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin(k_{x,n_x} x), \quad n_x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

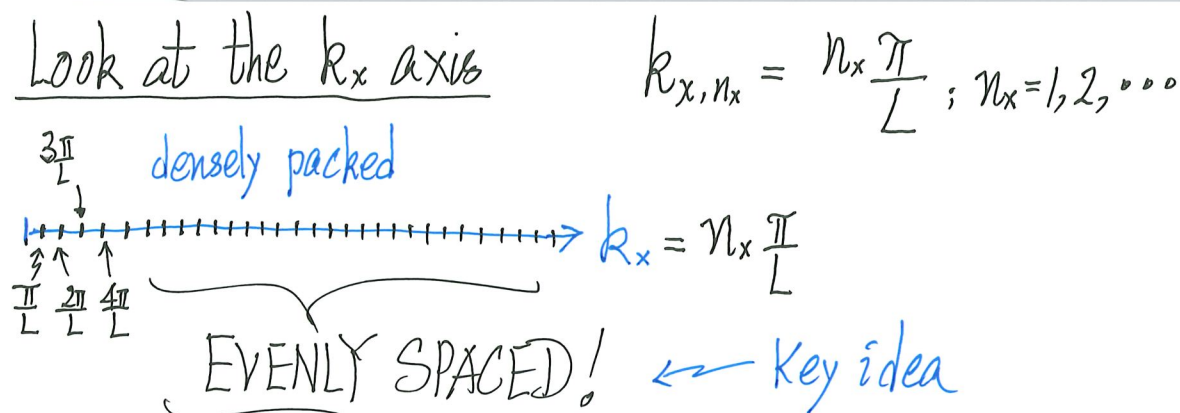
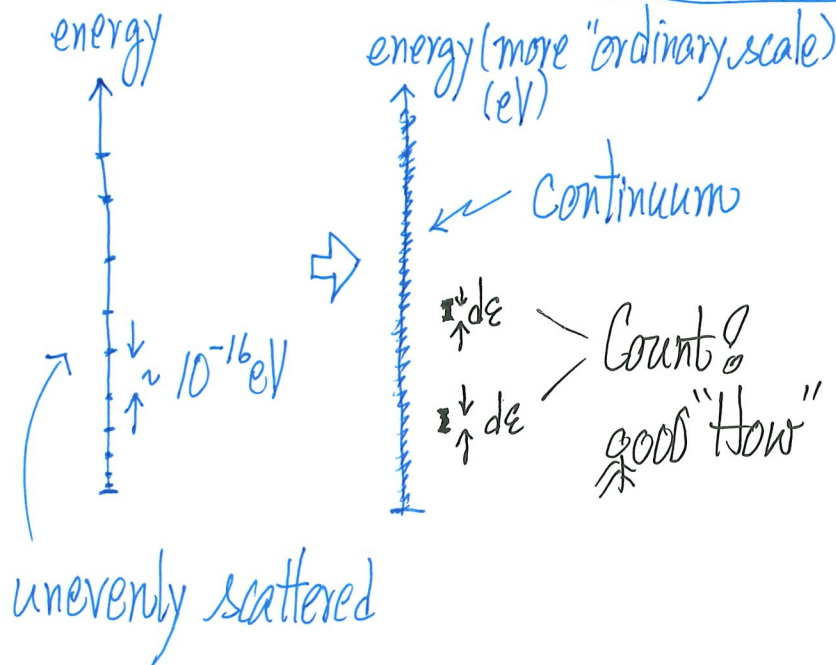
$\leftrightarrow$

$$E_{n_x} = \frac{n_x^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2} = \frac{\hbar^2 k_{x,n_x}^2}{2m}, \quad n_x = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

these are all the single-particle states (1D) (22)

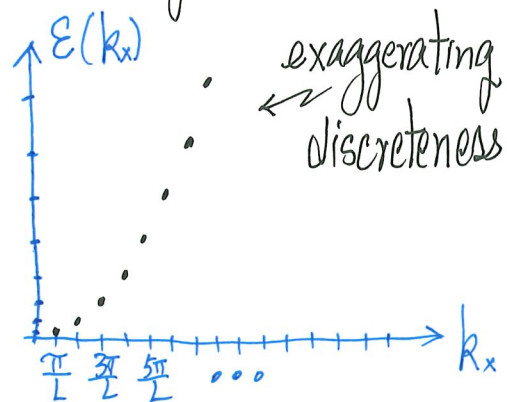
A number to remember: $\frac{\hbar^2}{m_e} \approx 7.62 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{\AA}^2$
electron mass $\rightarrow$ note the unit

(23) stat. mech. problems
Here $L \sim \text{cm}$
 $\sim 10^8 \text{\AA}$

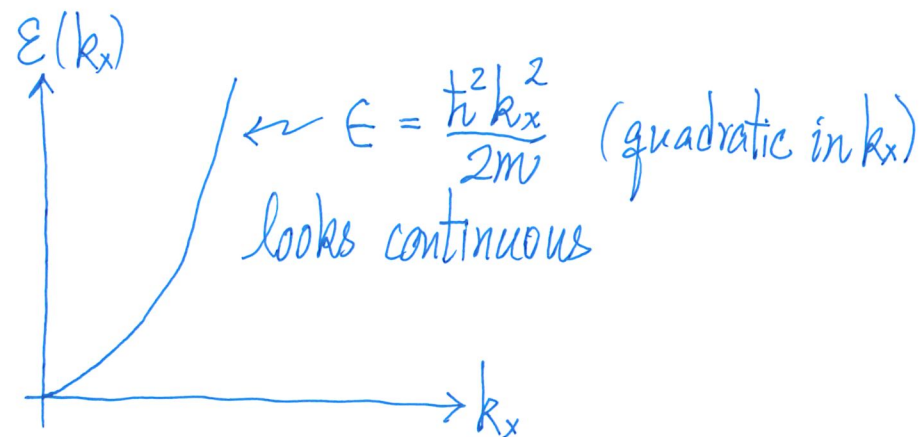


Easier to count in "k-axis" (k-space)!

Putting the two axes together



macroscopic L



This is called the Dispersion Relation in general

- how E varies with k_x (or k_y & k_z in 2D, 3D)
- how ω varies with k_x (or k_y, k_z)

e.g. EM waves, elastic waves (string)

In solid state physics, $E(k_x)$ or $E(\vec{k})$ is the band structure.

Note that: Each allowed "k-value" occupies $(\frac{\pi}{L})$ of k-space. (1D)

Strategy of getting $g(\epsilon)$

Let $g^<(\epsilon)$ (this is NOT $g(\epsilon)$ but related) be the number of s.p. states having energies less than or equal to ϵ (i.e. from energy zero to energy ϵ)

$$\begin{aligned} g^<(\epsilon + \Delta\epsilon) - g^<(\epsilon) &= \# \text{ s.p. states with energies in } \epsilon \rightarrow \epsilon + \Delta\epsilon \\ &= g(\epsilon) \Delta\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{g(\epsilon) = \frac{dg^<(\epsilon)}{d\epsilon}} \quad (24)$$

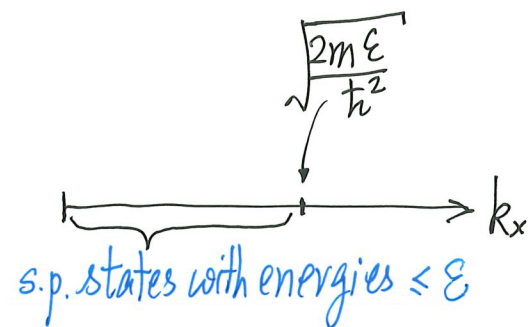
i.e. Find $g^<(\epsilon)$ first and then take derivative

$g^<(\epsilon)$ can readily be found by doing the counting in k -space.
This approach is good for any spatial dimension.

$$g_{1D}(\mathcal{E})$$

- For a given $\mathcal{E}$, it sets a value of k_x

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{\hbar^2 k_x^2}{2m} \Rightarrow k_x = \sqrt{\frac{2m\mathcal{E}}{\hbar^2}}$$



- and (i) s.p. states with values of k_x smaller than this value have energies smaller than $\mathcal{E}$ [Key idea here!]
 (ii) each s.p. state occupies $(\frac{\pi}{L})$ of k -space (k_x axis in 1D case)

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore g_{1D}^<(\mathcal{E}) &= \frac{\sqrt{\frac{2m\mathcal{E}}{\hbar^2}}}{\left(\frac{\pi}{L}\right)} \quad \leftarrow \text{"k-space" length from } k_x=0 \text{ to } k_x=\sqrt{\frac{2m\mathcal{E}}{\hbar^2}} \\ &= \frac{L}{\pi} \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}} \sqrt{\mathcal{E}} \quad \leftarrow \text{"k-space" occupied by one s.p. state} \end{aligned}$$

$$(1D) \quad g_D(\epsilon) = \frac{dg_D^<(\epsilon)}{d\epsilon} = \frac{L}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \sim \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \quad (25a)$$

• Good for free particles (fermions, bosons, even "classical particles")

• For fermions, e.g. electrons, there is a SPIN factor not included

Recall: Schrödinger QM needs to introduce spin as an extra variable.

Each s.p. state can hold two electrons if their spins are opposite ($m_s = +1/2, -1/2$), there is a spin-degeneracy factor

$$g_s = 2$$

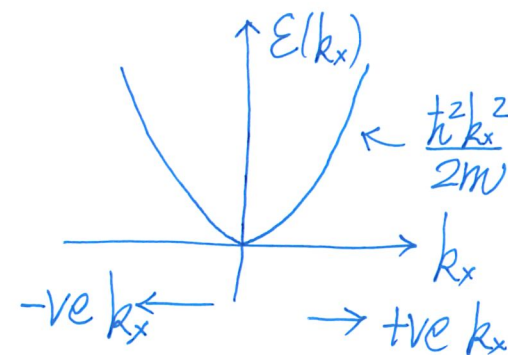
so that

$$g_D(\epsilon) = \frac{L}{2\pi} \cdot g_s \cdot \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \quad (25)$$

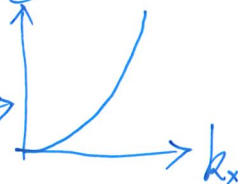
• For bosons of "spin-1", $g_s = 3$

Further Remark

- Very often, you see the $\epsilon(k_x)$ being drawn as with both +ve and -ve values of k_x



- But what we want to count is $\rightarrow$



- If you include negative k_x -values in counting, remember to divide number by 2

$$g_D(\epsilon) = \frac{\left[2 \sqrt{\frac{2m\epsilon}{\hbar^2}} \right]}{\left(\frac{\pi}{L} \right)} \times \frac{1}{2}$$

$\leftarrow$ "k-space" from $-\sqrt{\frac{2m\epsilon}{\hbar^2}}$ to $+\sqrt{\frac{2m\epsilon}{\hbar^2}}$

$\leftarrow$ divide number by 2

$$= \frac{L}{\pi} \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}} \sqrt{\epsilon} \quad (\text{same expression})$$

and $g_D(\epsilon) = \frac{L}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}} \quad (\text{same expression})$

(b) Non-relativistic Free Particles in 2DParticle-in-a-2D Box ($L \times L$ in size) $\left[\frac{\hat{p}_x^2}{2m} + \frac{\hat{p}_y^2}{2m} \right] \psi(x,y) = E \psi(x,y)$ in box

$$\begin{aligned} & \because U=0 \quad (\text{in box}) \\ & [\psi(x,y)=0 \quad \text{as } U=\infty \quad (\text{outside box})] \end{aligned}$$

$$\psi_{n_x, n_y}(x,y) = \frac{2}{L^2} \sin\left(\frac{n_x \pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_y \pi y}{L}\right) = \frac{2}{L^2} \sin(k_{x, n_x} x) \sin(k_{y, n_y} y) \quad \text{in box}$$



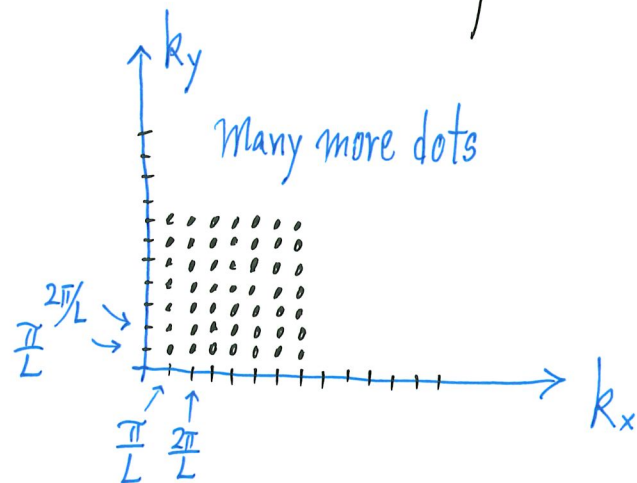
$$k_{x, n_x} = n_x \frac{\pi}{L} ; k_{y, n_y} = n_y \frac{\pi}{L}$$

$$n_x = 1, 2, \dots ; n_y = 1, 2, \dots \quad (26)$$

$$E_{n_x, n_y} = \frac{(n_x^2 + n_y^2) \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2m L^2} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (k_{x, n_x}^2 + k_{y, n_y}^2)$$

These are all the 2D single-particle states (2D)

Look at the "k-space" (k_x and k_y axes)



- Evenly spaced!
- Easier to count in k-space

▪ Each s.p. state is specified by (n_x, n_y) and thus a (k_x, k_y) dot

▪ Each dot specifies a s.p. state

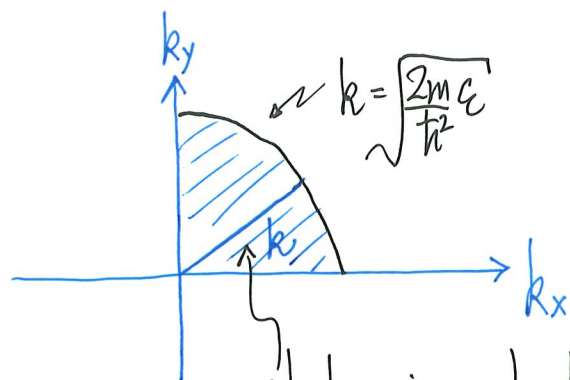
▪ Each s.p. state occupies a "k-space" of $\left(\frac{\pi}{L}\right)^2$ (27)

Key idea

For a given energy $\mathcal{E}$, it sets a value of $k = \sqrt{k_x^2 + k_y^2}$

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (k_x^2 + k_y^2) \Rightarrow k = \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \mathcal{E}}$$

and s.p. states of k -values smaller than this value have energies smaller than $\mathcal{E}$



Given ϵ , $k = \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \epsilon}$ sets boundary in k -space for s.p. states having energies smaller than ϵ

states in shaded region ($1/4$ of a circle of radius k) have energies less than ϵ

$$g_{2D}^<(\epsilon) = \frac{\pi \left(\sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \epsilon} \right)^2 \cdot \frac{1}{4}}{\left(\frac{\pi}{L} \right)^2} \quad \leftarrow \text{"k-space" of k-values less than } \sqrt{\frac{2m\epsilon}{\hbar^2}}$$

$\left(\frac{\pi}{L} \right)^2 \quad \leftarrow \text{"k-space" occupied by one s.p. state}$

$$= \frac{A}{4\pi} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right) \cdot \epsilon$$

$A = L \times L = \text{Area of 2D system}$

$$\therefore g_{2D}(\epsilon) = \frac{A}{4\pi} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)$$

(28) (doesn't depend on ϵ , or goes like ϵ^0)

Remark: Important in understanding the Quantum Hall effect in 2D electron gas.

(c) Non-relativistic Free Particles in 3DParticle-in-a-3D Box ($L \times L \times L \equiv V$ in size)

$$\frac{1}{2m} [\hat{p}_x^2 + \hat{p}_y^2 + \hat{p}_z^2] \psi(x, y, z) = E \psi(x, y, z) \text{ in box, } \psi=0 \text{ outside box}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_{n_x, n_y, n_z}(x, y, z) &= \left(\frac{2}{L}\right)^{3/2} \sin\left(\frac{n_x \pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_y \pi y}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n_z \pi z}{L}\right) && \text{in box} \\ &= \left(\frac{2}{L}\right)^{3/2} \sin(k_{x, n_x} x) \sin(k_{y, n_y} y) \sin(k_{z, n_z} z) && \text{in box} \end{aligned}$$

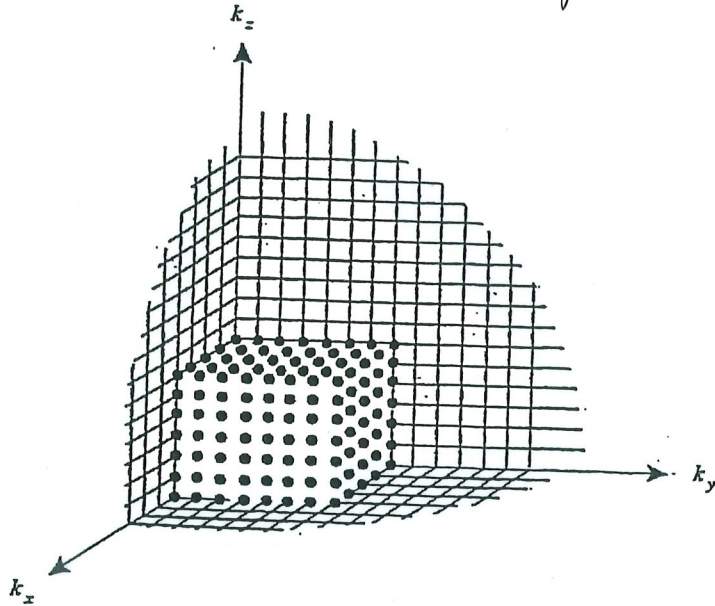
$$\text{with } k_{x, n_x} = n_x \frac{\pi}{L}; \quad k_{y, n_y} = n_y \frac{\pi}{L}; \quad k_{z, n_z} = n_z \frac{\pi}{L}, \quad \begin{array}{l} n_x = 1, 2, \dots \\ n_y = 1, 2, \dots \\ n_z = 1, 2, \dots \end{array}$$

$$E_{n_x, n_y, n_z} = \frac{(n_x^2 + n_y^2 + n_z^2) \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (k_{x, n_x}^2 + k_{y, n_y}^2 + k_{z, n_z}^2)$$

(29)

These are all the 3D single-particle states (3D)

Look at the "k-space" (k_x, k_y, k_z axes)



Evenly spaced! Easier to count in k-space.

Each allowed (k_x, k_y, k_z) [a dot] is a s.p. state

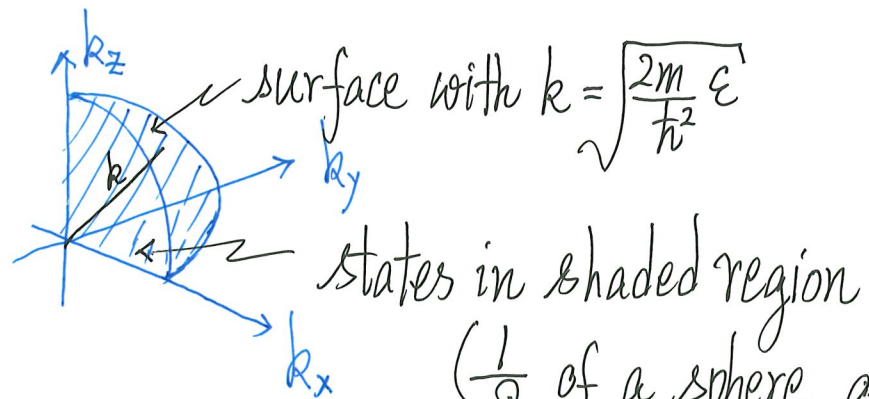
$$\text{Each s.p. state occupies a k-space of } \left(\frac{\pi}{L}\right)^3 = \frac{\pi^3}{V}$$

(Key idea) (30)

For a given energy $\mathcal{E}$, it sets a value of $k = \sqrt{k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2}$

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m}(k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2) \Rightarrow k = \sqrt{\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \mathcal{E}}$$

and s.p. states of k-values smaller than this value have energies smaller than $\mathcal{E}$.



($\frac{1}{8}$ of a sphere of radius k) have energies less than ϵ

$$g_{3D}^<(\epsilon) = \frac{\frac{4\pi}{3} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \epsilon^{3/2} \cdot \frac{1}{8}}{\left(\frac{\pi}{L}\right)^3} \quad \leftarrow \begin{array}{l} \text{k-space of k-values less than } \sqrt{\frac{2m\epsilon}{\hbar^2}} \\ \text{k-space occupied by one s.p. state} \end{array}$$

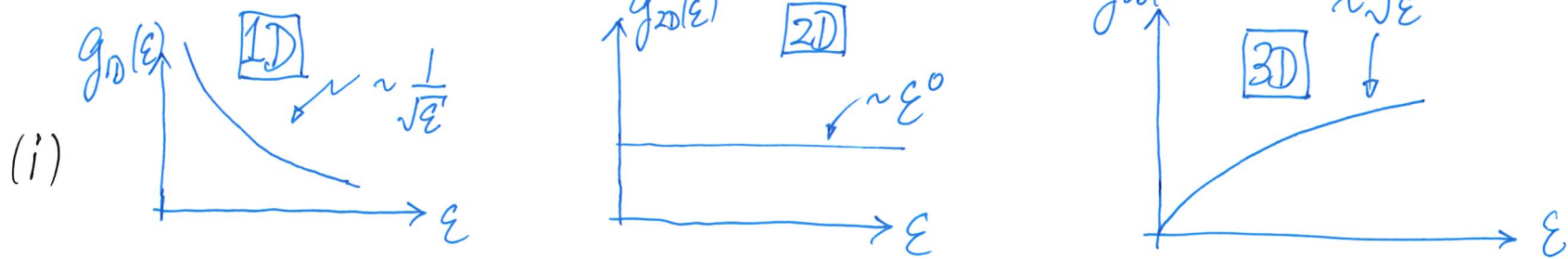
s.p. states with energies less than or equal to ϵ

$$= \frac{V}{6\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \cdot \epsilon^{3/2}$$

$$\therefore g_{3D}(\epsilon) = \frac{dg_{3D}^<(\epsilon)}{d\epsilon} = \frac{V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \cdot \epsilon^{1/2} = \frac{V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \cdot \sqrt{\epsilon} \quad (31)$$

most important result for discussing 3D ideal Fermi/Bose gas, and solid states

Remarks



Two factors: Dimension AND Dispersion Relation ($\epsilon = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$ here)

Exercises: How about d-dimension?

(ii) Spin-degeneracy factor $g_s = (2s+1)$

spin- $\frac{1}{2}$: $g_s=2$; spin-1: $g_s=3$

$$g_{3D}(\epsilon) = g_s \cdot \frac{V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \cdot \epsilon^{1/2}$$

(32)

(iii) $g_{3D}(\epsilon) \propto V$ makes sense!

V increases $\rightarrow$ bigger box $\rightarrow \epsilon \sim \frac{1}{L^2} \Rightarrow$ energies more closely spaced $\Rightarrow g(\epsilon)$ increases

(iv) Buy one get one free!

[This discussion requires the physics of waves]

Debye Model: $D(\omega) \sim \omega^2$ for low normal-mode frequencies' oscillators

Here is why! low $\omega \rightarrow$ long wavelengths

Lattice vibrations & long wavelengths $\sim$ sound waves[†] $\omega = v_s \cdot k$ wave number
↓
 k

Given ω , it sets a $k = \omega/v_s$ that normal modes dispersion relation
with k -values less than k have angular frequencies less than ω

$$D_{3D}(\omega) = \frac{\frac{4\pi}{3} \frac{\omega^3}{v_s^3} \cdot \frac{1}{8}}{\pi^3/V} \sim \frac{V}{v_s^3} \frac{1}{\pi^2} \cdot \omega^3$$

$$D_{3D}(\omega) \sim \frac{V}{v_s^3} \cdot \frac{1}{\pi^2} \cdot \omega^2$$

(this is what actual $D(\omega)$ shows in 3D)

[†] If you are not happy with this hand-waving argument, consult a solid state physics book.

(v) Buy one get another free!

We saw $Z = \frac{1}{N!} z^N$ in classical ideal gas with $z = \frac{1}{h^3} \int d\vec{x} \int d\vec{p} e^{-\vec{p}^2/2mkT}$

$$= \frac{V}{h^3} \int d\vec{p} e^{-\vec{p}^2/2mkT}$$

For classical ideal gas, the particles are Non-interacting.

Expect $z = \text{s.p. partition function} = \sum_{\text{all s.p. states } i} e^{-\epsilon_i/kT}$

Treating s.p. energies as continuous:

$$z = \int_0^\infty g(\epsilon) e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon = \underbrace{\frac{V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{h^2}\right)^{3/2}}_{\text{same as } \frac{V}{h^3} \int d\vec{p}} \int_0^\infty \epsilon^{1/2} e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon \quad \left(= \frac{V}{h^3} \left(\sqrt{2\pi mkT}\right)^3 \right)$$

Is this the same as $\frac{V}{h^3} \int d\vec{p} e^{-\vec{p}^2/2m}$?

$$Z = \frac{V}{h^3} \int d\vec{p} e^{-\vec{p}^2/2mkT} = \frac{V}{h^3} \int_0^\infty 4\pi p^2 e^{-p^2/2mkT} dp \quad (\text{use spherical coordinates})$$

$$[\text{free particle} \Rightarrow \epsilon = p^2/2m \Rightarrow d\epsilon = \frac{2p}{2m} dp \text{ and } p = \sqrt{2m\epsilon}]$$

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \frac{V}{h^3} 2\pi \int_0^\infty p e^{-\epsilon/kT} 2p dp = \frac{V}{h^3} 2\pi \int_0^\infty \sqrt{2m\epsilon} e^{-\epsilon/kT} 2m d\epsilon \\ &= V \cdot \frac{2\pi}{h^3} (2m)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \epsilon^{1/2} e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon \\ &= \frac{V}{4\pi^2} \cdot \frac{8\pi^3}{h^3} (2m)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \epsilon^{1/2} e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon \\ &= \frac{V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \epsilon^{1/2} e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon + \int_0^\infty g(\epsilon) e^{-\epsilon/kT} d\epsilon \end{aligned}$$

This also justifies the factor $\frac{1}{h^{3N}}$ in evaluating Z by integrating $6N$ -dim. phase space!

⁺ The integral can be readily done by using Gamma Function (see Essential Math Skills).

G. Equations for the Physics of Ideal Quantum Gases

Putting together $g(\epsilon)d\epsilon$ and $f_{FD}(\epsilon)$ [$f_{BE}(\epsilon)$]

Using Ideal Fermi Gas in 3D as an example

$$\begin{aligned}
 N &= \sum_{\text{cells } i} n_i = \sum_{\text{cells } i} g_i \cdot f_{FD}(\epsilon_i) \quad [\text{general, any dimensions}] \\
 E &= \sum_{\text{cells } i} \epsilon_i n_i = \sum_{\text{cells } i} \epsilon_i g_i f_{FD}(\epsilon_i) \quad [\text{general, any dimensions}]
 \end{aligned} \tag{33}$$

$f_{FD}(\epsilon)$ contains the thermodynamic factors (T, μ , fermionic nature)

$g(\epsilon)$ contains dimensionality and dispersion relation

$$\text{3D non-relativistic particles: } g_{3D}(\epsilon) = g_s \frac{V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \epsilon^{1/2} \tag{32}$$

$$N = g_s \frac{V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{1/2}}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)/kT} + 1} d\epsilon \quad (34)$$

$$E = g_s \frac{V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{3/2}}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)/kT} + 1} d\epsilon \quad (35)$$

The equations that govern the Physics of a 3D Ideal Fermi Gas

sodium 

$$\frac{N}{V} = 2.65 \times 10^{22} / \text{cm}^3$$

conduction electrons
per unit volume of solid

gold 

$$\frac{N}{V} = 5.90 \times 10^{22} / \text{cm}^3$$

electron physics is governed by the same eqns!

∴ We can set up the equations for studying 3D, 2D, 1D ideal Fermi (Bose) Gases

Ex: Write down the general Equations (c.f. Eq. (33)) for Ideal Bose Gas

Ex: Write down the governing equations (c.f. Eq. (34), Eq. (35)) for 3D Ideal Bose Gas

H. Ideal Quantum Gases AIN'T Classical Ideal Gas

Classical Ideal Gas (non-interacting particles) $pV = NkT$

Ideal Fermi/Bose Gas (also non-interacting particles) $pV \neq NkT$ or NOT?

- Look at Ideal Fermi Gas as an example

We derived the optimal (most probable) $(n_1, n_2, \dots, n_i, \dots)$ as

$$\frac{n_i}{g_i} = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT} + 1} \quad (\text{should say } \frac{n_i^{\text{op}}}{g_i})$$

Follow the microcanonical ensemble approach, the Entropy of the ideal Fermi Gas is

$$\begin{aligned} S_F &= k \ln W_{FD}(\{n_i^{\text{op}}\}) = k \sum_{\text{cells } i} \ln \frac{g_i!}{n_i! (g_i - n_i)!} \\ &= k \sum_i [g_i \ln g_i - n_i \ln n_i - (g_i - n_i) \ln (g_i - n_i)] \quad (\text{Stirling Formula}) \end{aligned}$$

$$S_F = k \sum_i \left[g_i \ln \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{n_i}{g_i}} \right) + n_i \ln \left(\frac{g_i}{n_i} - 1 \right) \right]$$

(we know $\frac{n_i}{g_i}$)

$$= k \sum_i \left[g_i \ln \left(\frac{1}{1 - \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT} + 1}} \right) + n_i \ln \left(e^{(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT} \right) \right]$$

$$= k \sum_i g_i \ln(1 + e^{-(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT}) + k \sum_i \frac{n_i(\epsilon_i - \mu)}{kT}$$

$$= k \sum_i g_i \ln(1 + e^{-(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT}) + \frac{E - \mu N}{T} \quad (36)$$

$$\begin{cases} \sum_i n_i \epsilon_i = E \\ \sum_i n_i \mu = \mu \sum_i n_i = \mu N \end{cases}$$

← Good for 1D, 2D, 3D
(Fermi Gas Entropy)

$$\therefore E - TS_F - \mu N = -kT \sum_i g_i \ln(1 + e^{-(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT})$$

Recall Euler Equation (Ch. VII) in thermodynamics $E = TS - pV + \mu N$
 $\Rightarrow E - TS - \mu N = -pV$

$$\therefore F = E - TS_F = \mu N - kT \sum_{\text{cells } i} g_i \ln(1 + e^{-(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT}) \quad (37)$$

Helmholtz free energy (Fermi Gas)

and

$$pV = kT \sum_{\text{cells } i} g_i \ln(1 + e^{-(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT}) \quad (38)$$

1D, 2D, 3D
Fermi GasKey Points

- The result says that $pV \neq kTN$ for ideal Fermi Gas
- Instead, we have

$$pV = kT \left(\sum_{\text{cells } i} g_i \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT} + 1} \right) \cdot \frac{\sum_{\text{cells } i} g_i \ln(1 + e^{-(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT})}{\sum_{\text{cells } i} g_i \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT} + 1}}$$

$$\Rightarrow pV = kT N \cdot \left[\frac{\sum_{\text{cells } i} g_i \ln(1 + e^{-(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT})}{\sum_{\text{cells } i} g_i \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon_i - \mu)/kT} + 1}} \right] = kTN \cdot \left[\begin{array}{c} \text{correction} \\ \text{terms} \end{array} \right] \quad (39)$$

- Due to the Pauli Exclusion rule [used in counting $W_{FD}(\{n_i\})$], a collection of non-interacting fermions behave in a way different from a classical non-interacting (ideal) gas!

The 3D version of Eq.(38) is $pV = kT \int_0^\infty \frac{g_s V}{4\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \epsilon^{1/2} \ln(1 + e^{-(\epsilon - \mu)/kT}) d\epsilon$ (40)

Eqs. (34), (35), (40) cover all 3D Ideal Fermi Gas Physics!

Eqs. (33), (38) cover all Ideal Fermi Gas Physics (any dimension)!

Exercise: Derive the analogous equations (see Eqs. (38), (39)) for ideal Bose Gas