

XI. Ideal Fermi Gas

[Focus on 3D (Non-relativistic) Ideal Fermi Gas]

A. Governing Equations

$[g_s = 2 \cdot s + 1 = 2]$ $\leftarrow \frac{1}{2}$ (spin- $\frac{1}{2}$ for electrons)

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

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

$$pV = kT \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \epsilon^{1/2} \ln[1 + e^{-(\epsilon-\mu)/kT}] d\epsilon \quad (3)$$

An immediate general result from Eq. (3)

$$pV = kT \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \ln[1 + e^{-(\epsilon - \mu)/kT}] \overbrace{\left(\frac{d}{d\epsilon} \epsilon^{3/2}\right) \cdot \frac{2}{3}}^{\epsilon^{1/2}} d\epsilon$$

$$= \left[\text{surface term} \right] - \frac{2}{3} kT \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \epsilon^{3/2} \frac{d}{d\epsilon} \ln[1 + e^{-(\epsilon - \mu)/kT}] d\epsilon \quad \downarrow \text{by parts}$$

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

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

$$= \frac{2}{3} E$$

"getting something from nothing"

$$\therefore \boxed{pV = \frac{2}{3} E} \quad (4) \text{ for 3D Ideal Fermi Gas}$$

Ex: Does it work for 3D Ideal Bose Gas? Does it work for 3D Classical Ideal Gas?

We will look at

$$T \ll T_F$$

0 K

↑

a temperature implied by $T=0$ Physics

T_F (Fermi-Temperature)
(metals: $T_F \sim 10^4$ K)

→ temperature

Zero-Temperature Physics

↳ dominates Fermi Gas' Physics due to the Pauli Exclusion rule (or Fermi-Dirac distribution at $T=0$ K)

Low-Temperature Physics

$$T \ll T_F$$

(usually the case in physical systems)

B. Physical Contexts

Metals : Conduction electrons

ELEMENT	Z	n ($10^{22}/\text{cm}^3$)
Li (78 K)	1	4.70
Na (5 K)	1	2.65
K (5 K)	1	1.40
Rb (5 K)	1	1.15
Cs (5 K)	1	0.91
Cu	1	8.47
Ag	1	5.86
Au	1	5.90
Be	2	24.7
Mg	2	8.61
Ca	2	4.61
Sr	2	3.55
Ba	2	3.15
Nb	1	5.56
Fe	2	17.0
Mn (α)	2	16.5
Zn	2	13.2
Cd	2	9.27
Hg (78 K)	2	8.65
Al	3	18.1
Ga	3	15.4
In	3	11.5
Tl	3	10.5
Sn	4	14.8
Pb	4	13.2
Bi	5	14.1
Sb	5	16.5

^a At room temperature (about 300 K) and atmospheric pressure, unless otherwise noted.



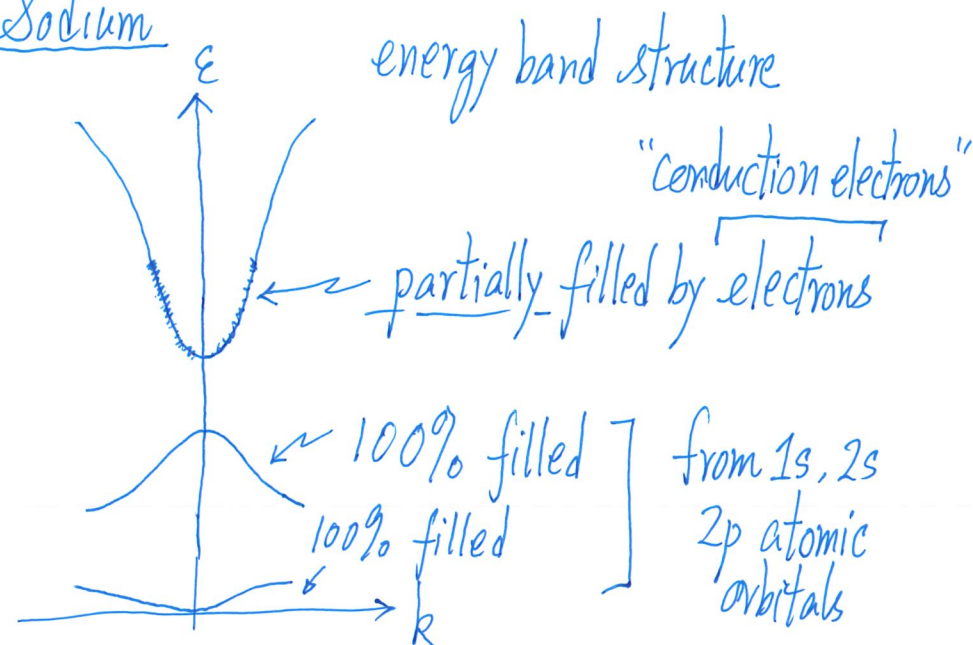
$$\frac{N}{V} = \# \text{ conduction electrons per unit volume} \equiv n$$

conduction electron
number density

$$n \sim 10^{22}/\text{cm}^3$$

$$\sim 10^{28}/\text{m}^3$$

Sodium



How do the different $n \equiv \frac{N}{V}$ in different metals affect their properties?

What is the degenerate pressure of a collection of Fermions?

Why is the physics of metals "low-temperature" physics?

Why do the electrons contribute a term linear in T to the heat capacity[†]?

Why is the physics of neutron stars "low-temperature" physics?

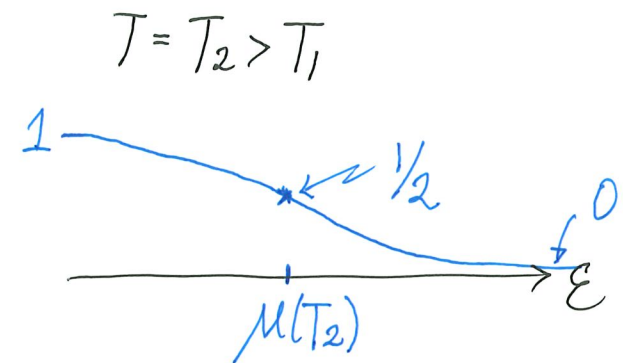
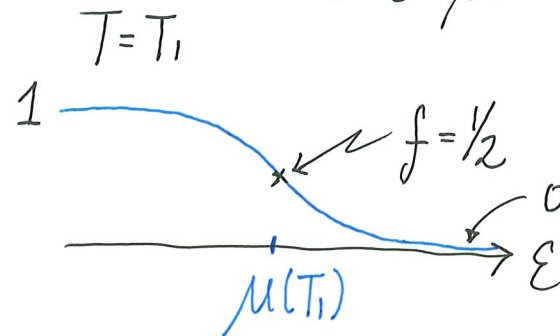
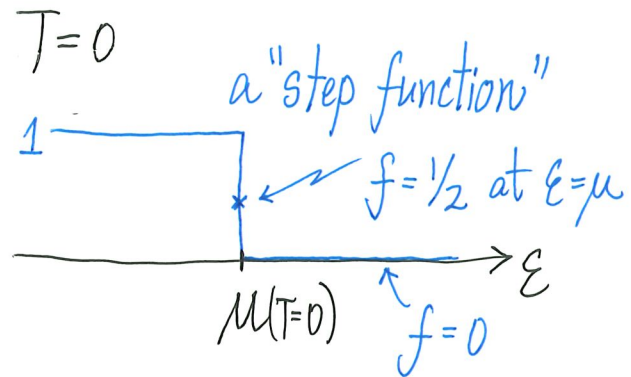
mass density $\sim 10^{17} \text{ Kg/m}^3$ [Earth $\rho \sim 10^3 \text{ Kg/m}^3$]
 $\Rightarrow$ neutron number density $\sim 10^{44}/\text{m}^3$

$$^{\dagger} C_v \sim \underbrace{\gamma T}_{\text{electrons' contribution}} + \underbrace{b T^3}_{\text{vibrations of atoms [Debye model]}}$$

C. The Fermi-Dirac Distribution

$$f_{FD}(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)/kT} + 1} \quad (5) \quad \# \text{ fermion per s.p. state at energy } \epsilon$$

Properties: $f_{FD}(\epsilon=\mu) = 1/2$ and graph of $f_{FD}(\epsilon)$ is "symmetric" (artistic sense) about $\epsilon=\mu$



Question Emerged: How to determine $\mu(T)$?

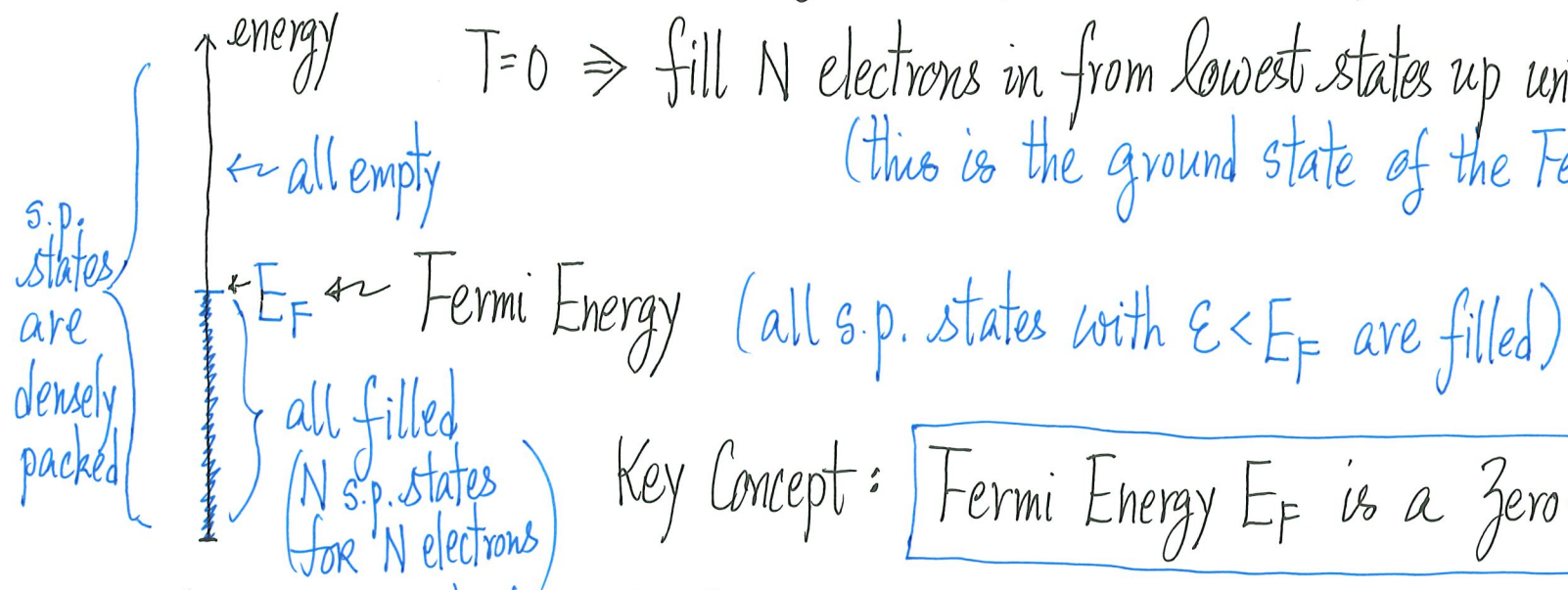
Key
Concept

$$N = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{1/2}}{e^{\frac{(\epsilon-\mu)}{kT}} + 1} d\epsilon \quad \text{is an equation that governs } \mu(T) \quad (6)$$

for a given $\frac{N}{V}$ (given a material)

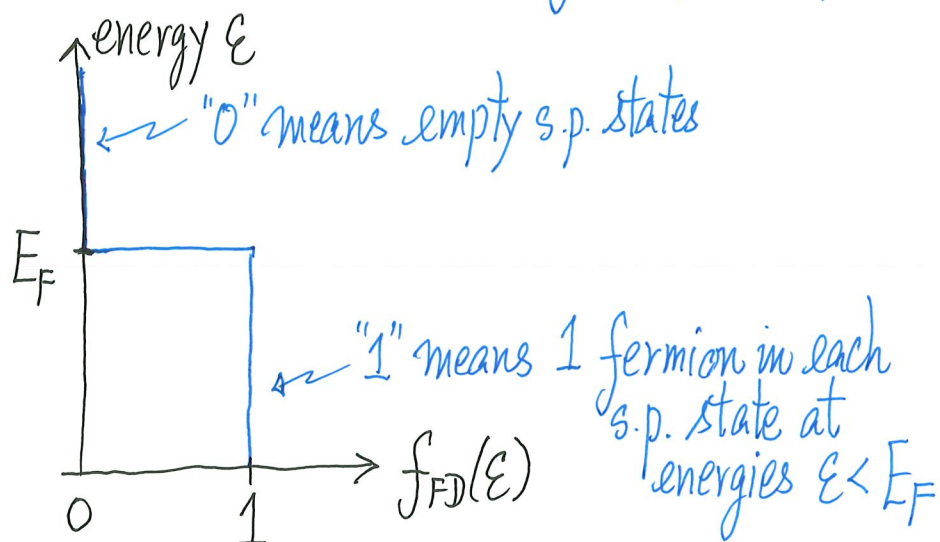
D. $T=0$ Physics : A big part of Fermi Gas Physics is $T=0$ Physics

$T=0 \Rightarrow$ fill N electrons in from lowest states up until run out of electrons
(this is the ground state of the Fermi Gas)

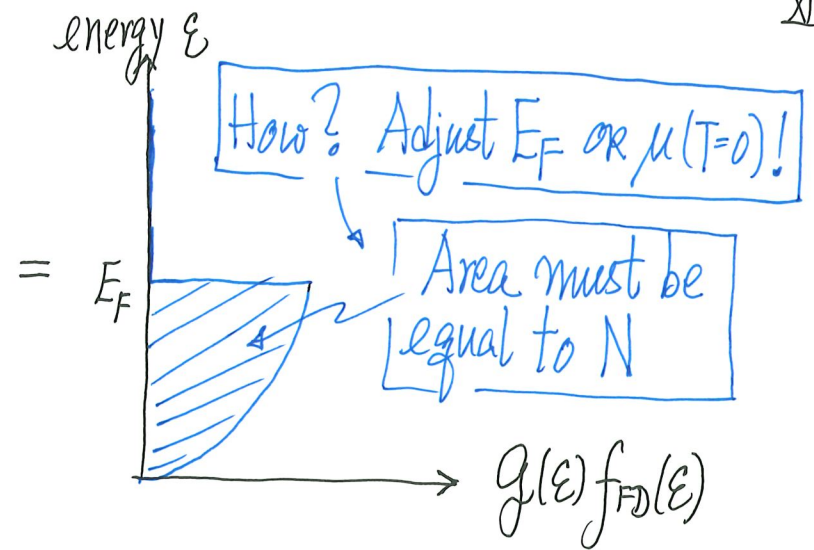
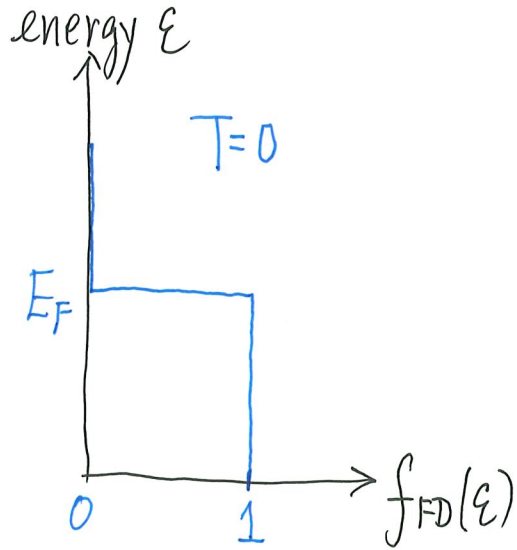
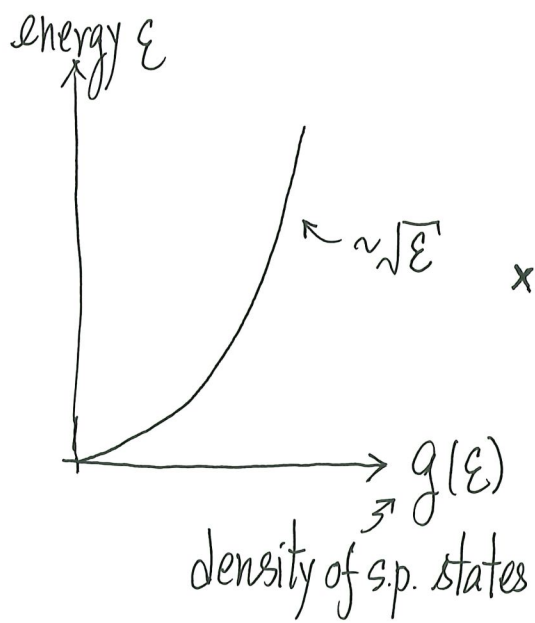


Key Concept: Fermi Energy E_F is a zero-temperature concept.

This is consistent with $f_{FD}(\epsilon)$ at $T=0$



$$E_F = \mu(T=0) \leftarrow \text{chemical potential at } T=0 \text{ K}$$

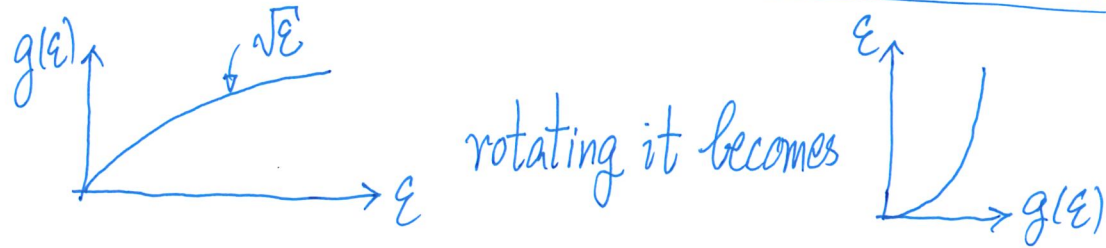


This is the Physical Picture behind $N = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{1/2}}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)/kT} + 1} d\epsilon$ at $T=0$.

$$N = \int_0^\infty g(\epsilon) f_{FD}(\epsilon) d\epsilon \quad (\text{true for any } T, \text{ equation fixes } \mu(T))$$

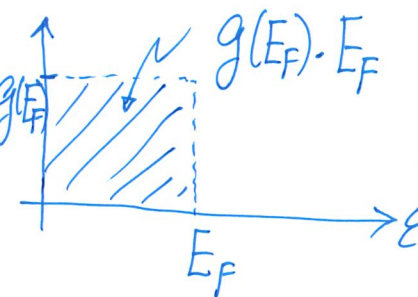
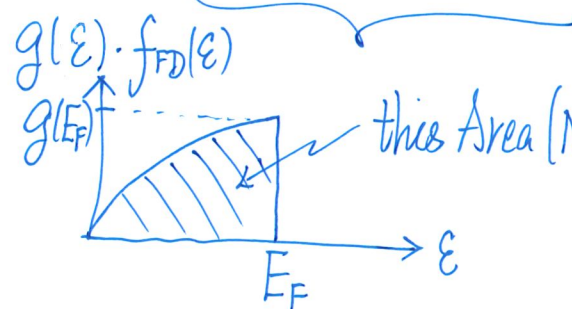
$$= \int_0^{E_F} g(\epsilon) d\epsilon \quad (7) \quad (T=0, f_{FD}(\epsilon) \text{ becomes a step function})$$

this is the Area in the figure, see " E_F " appears in upper limit to adjust for the given N



Writing $g(\epsilon) = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \epsilon^{1/2} = \mathcal{A} \epsilon^{1/2}$ $g(E_F) \leftarrow$ Density of s.p. states at $\epsilon = E_F$

$$N = \mathcal{A} \int_0^{E_F} \epsilon^{1/2} d\epsilon = \mathcal{A} \frac{2}{3} E_F^{3/2} = \frac{2}{3} (\mathcal{A} E_F^{1/2}) E_F \Rightarrow \text{Solve for } E_F$$



$$\therefore N = \mathcal{A} \frac{2}{3} E_F^{3/2} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} E_F^{3/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{E_F = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(3\pi^2 \frac{N}{V}\right)^{2/3} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (3\pi^2 n)^{2/3}} \quad (8) \quad \frac{N}{V} \text{ determines } E_F!$$

$E_F \sim \left(\frac{N}{V}\right)^{2/3} \sim n^{2/3} \Rightarrow$ different metals (different n) have different E_F

$\Rightarrow E_F$ of gold is a property of gold
(not related to the size of sample)

Typical E_F for metals

$$n \sim 10^{22}/\text{cm}^3, \quad (3\pi^2 n)^{1/3} \sim \frac{1}{\text{length}} \sim \text{order } \text{\AA}^{-1}$$

$$E_F = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (3\pi^2 n)^{2/3} \sim \text{a few eV} \quad \left[\frac{\hbar^2}{m} \sim 7.62 \text{ eV} \cdot \text{\AA}^2 \right]$$

Physics

- Although $T=0$, Pauli Exclusion Rule ($f_{FD}(E)$ at $T=0$) forces electrons to fill s.p. states up in energy to E_F
- $E_F \sim \text{few eV}$ [which is HIGH ENERGY compared with $\frac{1}{40} \text{ eV}$ (kT_{room})]
i.e. $T=0$ Physics sets an Energy Scale of order E_F ($\sim \text{eV}$) for metals
- Define $kT_F = E_F$, T_F = Fermi Temperature, $T_F \sim 10^4 \text{ K}$ (the physics is $T=0$)
i.e. $T=0$ Physics sets a temperature scale of order T_F ($\sim 10^4 \text{ K}$) for metals
[Therefore, 300 K metal physics is low-temperature physics!]

FERMI ENERGIES, FERMI TEMPERATURES, FERMI WAVE VECTORS, AND FERMI VELOCITIES FOR REPRESENTATIVE METALS^a

ELEMENT	E_F	T_F	k_F	v_F
Li	4.74 eV	5.51×10^4 K	1.12×10^8 cm ⁻¹	1.29×10^8 cm/sec
Na	3.24	3.77	0.92	1.07
K	2.12	2.46	0.75	0.86
Rb	1.85	2.15	0.70	0.81
Cs	1.59	1.84	0.65	0.75
Cu	7.00	8.16	1.36	1.57
Ag	5.49	6.38	1.20	1.39
Au	5.53	6.42	1.21	1.40
Be	14.3	16.6	1.94	2.25
Mg	7.08	8.23	1.36	1.58
Ca	4.69	5.44	1.11	1.28
Sr	3.93	4.57	1.02	1.18
Ba	3.64	4.23	0.98	1.13
Nb	5.32	6.18	1.18	1.37
Fe	11.1	13.0	1.71	1.98
Mn	10.9	12.7	1.70	1.96
Zn	9.47	11.0	1.58	1.83
Cd	7.47	8.68	1.40	1.62
Hg	7.13	8.29	1.37	1.58
Al	11.7	13.6	1.75	2.03
Ga	10.4	12.1	1.66	1.92
In	8.63	10.0	1.51	1.74
Tl	8.15	9.46	1.46	1.69
Sn	10.2	11.8	1.64	1.90
Pb	9.47	11.0	1.58	1.83
Bi	9.90	11.5	1.61	1.87
Sb	10.9	12.7	1.70	1.96

$$v_F = \frac{\hbar k_F}{m}$$

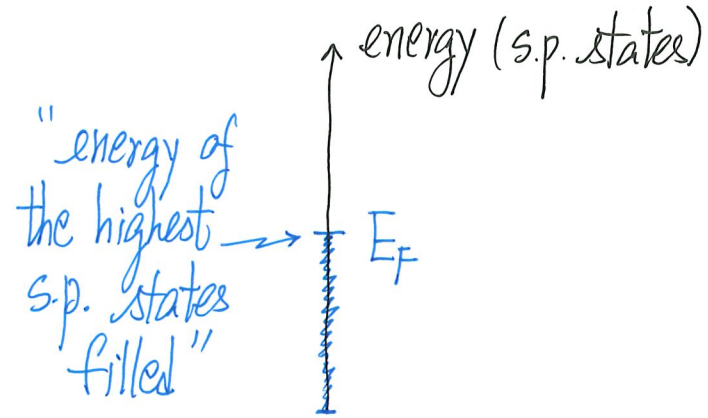
Experimentally, E_F is metal
can be measured by
X-ray spectroscopy.

[Kick out lower band electrons,
and let conduction electrons
fall into empty states
and emit X-ray in the
process.]

[Taken from "Solid State Physics" by Ashcroft and Mermin]

Discussion of $\mu(T=0)$ or E_F

- In metals (Ideal Fermi Gas), E_F or $\mu(T=0)$ is indeed the energy of the highest s.p. states filled

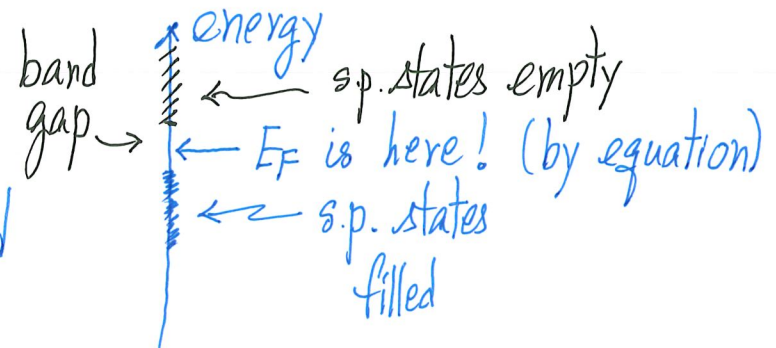
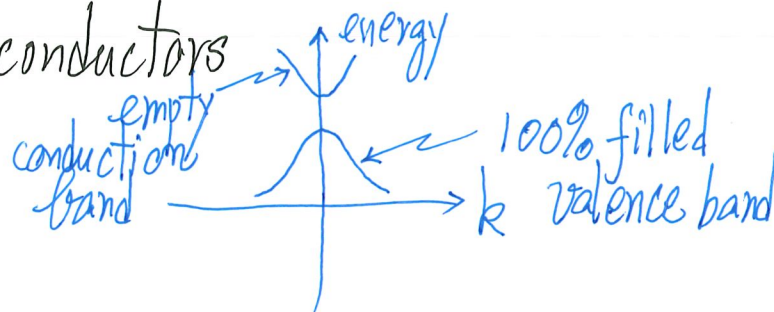


- But, always remember that $\mu(T=0) [E_F]$ or $\mu(T)$ at any temperature is determined by
$$N = \int_0^\infty g(\epsilon) \frac{1}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)/kT} + 1} d\epsilon \quad (1)$$

i.e. tune $\mu(T)$ for given T so that integral gives N

- Why bother with this reminder?

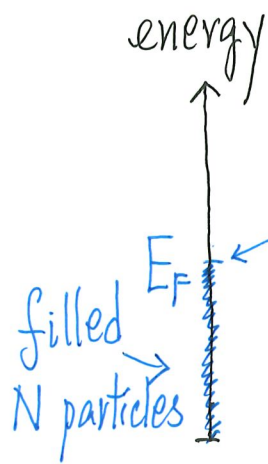
e.g. Semiconductors



Recall $\mu = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial N} \right)_{S,V}$ (central equation, i.e. 1st + 2nd laws)

Fermi Gas

slow motion: about adding 1 particle and how energy changes, under the condition of constant entropy

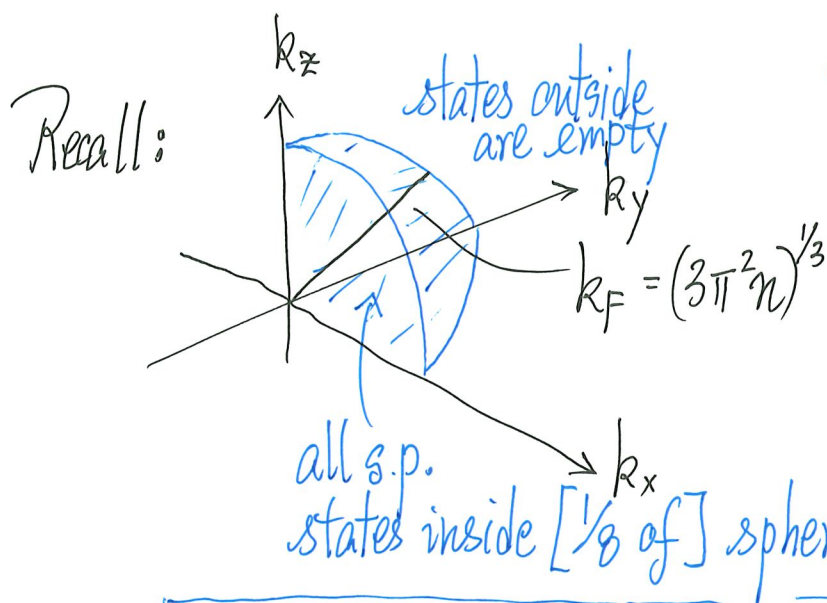


Add in the $(N+1)^{\text{th}}$ particle

- (a) there are s.p. states infinitesimally closed to $\epsilon = E_F$ for particle to go in
- (b) it is still the ground ($T=0$) state, thus S is kept zero by adding the particle to a state at $\epsilon = E_F$
- (c) $\mu(T=0) = E_F$ makes sense

Meaning of $k_F = (3\pi^2 n)^{1/3}$ and the "Fermi Sphere"

$$E_F = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (3\pi^2 n)^{2/3} = \frac{\hbar^2 k_F^2}{2m} ; k_F = (3\pi^2 n)^{1/3} \sim \text{order } \text{\AA}^{-1} \text{ for metals}$$



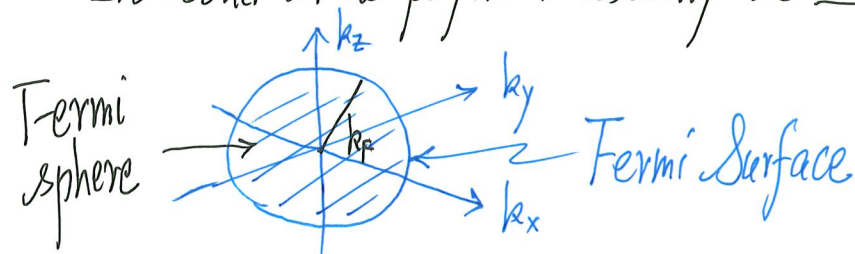
defines a radius in k -space with all s.p. states inside "sphere" being occupied

This is the Fermi Sphere

k_F is the Fermi Wavevector

The surface [spherical surface of radius k_F] is the Fermi Surface

In solid state physics, usually the whole sphere is used



$E_F = \mu(T=0)$ is fixed by $N = \int_0^\infty g(\epsilon) f_{FD}(\epsilon) d\epsilon$

What does $E = \int_0^\infty \epsilon f_{FD}(\epsilon) g(\epsilon) d\epsilon = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \int_0^\infty \frac{\epsilon^{3/2}}{e^{(\epsilon-\mu)/kT} + 1} d\epsilon$ do?

Plug $\mu(T)$ in, the equation gives $E(T)$ (9)

Energy of Fermi Gas at $T=0$

From Eq.(2): $E(T=0) = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \int_0^{E_F \leftarrow \text{now known}} \epsilon^{3/2} d\epsilon = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} \frac{2}{5} E_F^{5/2} = \frac{3}{5} \left[\frac{2}{3} \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2}\right)^{3/2} E_F^{3/2} \right] \cdot E_F$

this is N

$E(T=0) = \frac{3}{5} N E_F$ (10) or

total energy at $T=0$
of Fermi Gas

$\frac{E(T=0)}{N} = \frac{3}{5} E_F$ (11)

energy per
particle
at $T=0$

60% of Fermi Energy

(quite high, due to Pauli Exclusion rule)

The third equation gives $pV = \frac{2}{3} E$

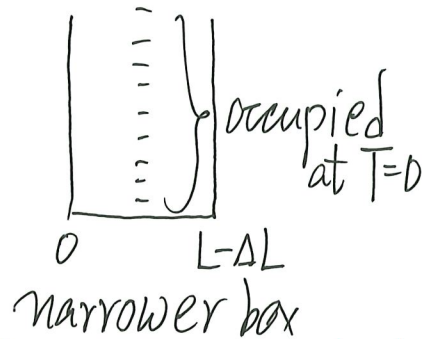
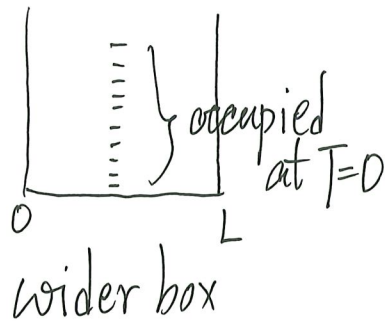
Pressure of Fermi Gas at $T=0K$

pressure at $T=0 \rightarrow P_{T=0} = \frac{2}{3} \left(\frac{E}{V} \right) \leftarrow \text{"energy density"} = \frac{2}{3} \cdot \frac{3}{5} \frac{N}{V} E_F = \frac{2}{5} \frac{N}{V} \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(3\pi^2 \frac{N}{V} \right)^{2/3} \sim \left(\frac{N}{V} \right)^{5/3}$

$$P_{T=0} \sim \left(\frac{N}{V} \right)^{5/3} \sim n^{5/3}$$

↑
there is a Pressure even at $T=0$

this pressure (degenerate pressure) works to oppose gravitation pull (collapse) in dying stars[†]



$\therefore -\Delta L$ leads to $+\Delta E$
(analogous $-\Delta V$ leads to $+\Delta U$)

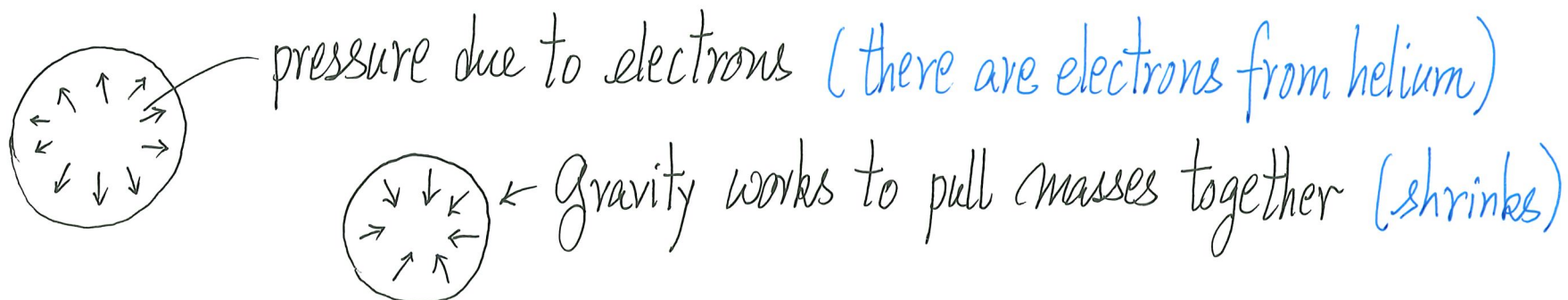
[s.p. energies are higher, $\because \sim \frac{n_x^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2}$]

$$p = - \frac{\partial U}{\partial V}$$

[†] In astrophysics, one may need to consider relativistic particles, which will alter the $g(\epsilon)$. There is still $P_{T=0}$, but the dependence on n will be different.

Aside: Astrophysical Applications

Would a star (out of fuel) become a white dwarf, or collapse and shrink into a neutron star or a black hole?



Question is whether the quantum (Fermi Gas) pressure is sufficient to oppose the gravitational pull and maintain a stable white dwarf?

Answer: It depends! If Mass of Star $M > M_0 \approx 2.76 \times 10^{30} \text{ Kg} \approx 1.44 M_{\text{sun}}$, then gravity will win and star will collapse.

If $M < M_0$, then white dwarf.

M_0 is called the Chandrasekhar Limit (1983 Nobel Physics Prize)

Ex: Should use relativistic version, i.e. $\mathcal{E} = \sqrt{m^2 c^4 + c^2 p^2}$ to get $g(\mathcal{E})$, it is hard and so try ultra-relativistic case, i.e. $\mathcal{E} = cp = c\hbar k$ and get $g(\mathcal{E})$. Hence, find $P_{T=0}$.

After collapse, conditions allow nuclear process of electron capture
_{in nuclei} $(p + e \rightarrow n + \nu_e)$ to occur, and a neutron star is formed.

Neutrons are spin- $1/2$ (so fermions). They also provide a Fermi Gas pressure to oppose the gravitational pull ($\rho_{\text{neutron star}} \sim 10^{17} \text{ Kg/m}^3$) in neutron stars.

Ex: When there are electrons and neutrons, pressure due to electrons is more important. Why?

Summary: You need essential Fermi Gas physics to study Astrophysics.

Summary

- A big part ($> 50\%$) of Fermi Gas Physics is Zero-Temperature Physics
- 3D Ideal Fermi Gas: $E_F = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (3\pi^2 \frac{N}{V})^{2/3}$, T_F , k_F
- $\mu(T=0) = E_F$ fixed by "N-equation"
- $E_{T=0} = \frac{3}{5} N E_F$ fixed by "E-equation", using E_F fixed by "N-equation"
- $pV = \frac{2}{3} E \Rightarrow P_{T=0} \propto \left(\frac{N}{V}\right)^{5/3}$
- E_F sets a high energy scale ($T=0$ physics), making $T \neq 0$ physics "low-energy physics" (low-temperature physics)

[In contrast, $T=0$ Bose Gas is boring, all particles go into s.p. $\epsilon=0$ state, $E(T=0)=0$,
 $P=0$. Done!]