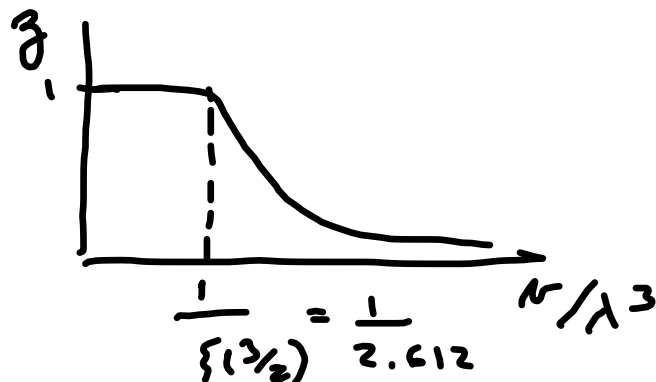


11/3

Last time:



$$T \leq T_c \Rightarrow \frac{N}{\lambda^3} = \frac{1}{g^{3/2}(\zeta)^{2.612}} < \frac{1}{g^{3/2}(\zeta)^{2.612}}$$

$$\text{For } \frac{N}{\lambda^3} \gg 1$$

$$g^{3/2}(\zeta) \ll 1 \Rightarrow \zeta \ll 1$$

$$g^{3/2}(\zeta) \sim \zeta \ll 1$$

Pressure in the Bose gas:

$$P(T) \propto 1/V$$

We found last time:

$$P = \frac{kT}{\lambda^3} g_{5/2}(\beta) = \frac{kTN}{V} \frac{g_{5/2}(\beta)}{g_{3/2}(\beta)} \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{N}{V} = \frac{g_{3/2}(\beta)}{\lambda^3} \Rightarrow \lambda^3 = g_{3/2}(\beta) \frac{V}{N}$$

$$\text{If } T < T_c \Rightarrow z \sim 1$$

$$P(T) = \frac{kT}{\lambda^3} g^{5/2}(z=1) = \frac{kT}{h^3} (20m kT)^{3/2}$$

$\propto T^{5/2}$ and independent of V .

$$\therefore K_T = -\frac{1}{N} \left. \frac{\partial N}{\partial P} \right|_T \rightarrow \infty \quad \text{incompressible.}$$

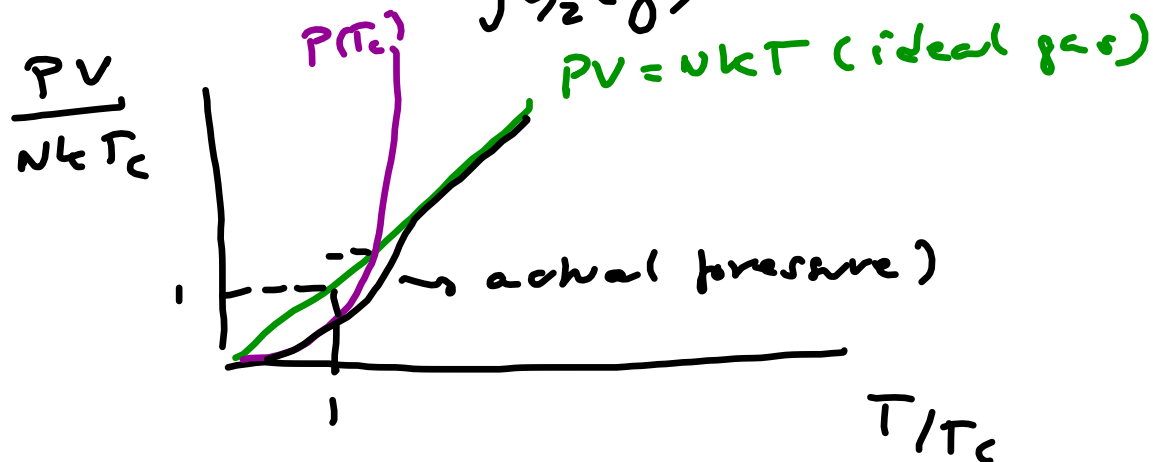
$$P(T_c) = \frac{kT_c}{\lambda^3} \zeta(5/2) \stackrel{\textcircled{1}}{=} \frac{\zeta(5/2)}{\zeta(3/2)} \frac{N}{V} kT_c \quad (\text{using that } z=1)$$

$$= 0.5134 \frac{NkT_c}{V} \quad \text{about } \frac{1}{2} P \text{ for ideal gas!}$$

The Bose-Einstein condensate gas makes a lower P than an ideal gas.

For $T > T_c$

$$P = \frac{N}{V} \frac{kT g_{5/2}(\beta)}{g_{3/2}(\beta)}$$



We found last time that

$$P = \frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{V}$$

$$\frac{PV}{NkT_c} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{VNkT_c}$$

$$= \frac{2}{3} \frac{U}{NkT_c}$$

Curve for $P \propto$
Curve for $U(T)$.

Then $c_v(T)$ is $\frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \Big|_V$ and from the figure $c_v \rightarrow 0$ for $T \rightarrow 0$ (good!)

For $T \ll T_c$ $\lambda^3 = \frac{h^3}{(2\pi m k T)^{3/2}}$

$$P(T) = \frac{kT}{\lambda^3} \zeta(5/2) = \frac{(kT)^{5/2}}{h^3} (2\pi m)^{3/2} \zeta(5/2)$$

$$\therefore U = \frac{3}{2} PV = \frac{3}{2} \frac{(2\pi m)^{3/2}}{h^3} V (kT)^{5/2} \zeta(5/2)$$

$$c_v = \frac{\partial U}{\partial T} \Big|_V = \frac{15}{4} \zeta(5/2) \frac{(2\pi m)^{3/2}}{h^3} V k^{5/2} T^{3/2} \propto T^{3/2}$$

$C_V \propto T^{3/2}$ goes to 0 as $T \rightarrow 0$.

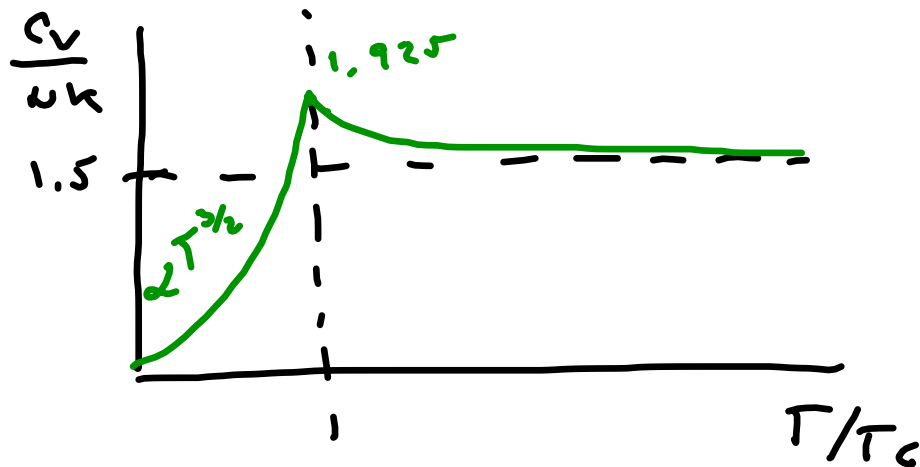
$\Delta + T = T_c$ using that $N = \frac{V(2\pi mkT)^{3/2} \zeta(3/2)}{h^3}$ from (2)

$$\frac{C_V}{Nk} = \frac{1.5}{4} \frac{\zeta(5/2)}{\zeta(3/2)} = 1.925 > 1.5 = \frac{3}{2}$$

Remember that for $T > T_c$ we found

classical
value.

$$\frac{C_V}{Nk} = \frac{3}{2} \left[1 + \underbrace{0.0884 \left(\frac{13}{4} \right) + \dots}_{\Delta_1} \right] \xrightarrow{T \rightarrow \infty} \frac{3}{2}$$



Δc had "non-interacting"
 B. E. condensation was
 observed in 1995 at
 $T \sim 10^{-9}$ K.

called " λ " behavior.

Similar to c_v vs T
 for He^4 which
 pointed towards the
 fact that B. E.

condensation occurs
 in He^4 . However,

the particles of

He^4 are interacting
 and more is
 needed to explain
 superfluidity

Black body radiation:

V	T
$\bar{E}(\bar{r}, t)$	
$\bar{B}(\bar{r}, t)$	

$$\nabla \cdot \bar{A} = 0 \quad \bar{E}, \bar{B}, \bar{A}$$

$$\bar{E} = -\frac{\partial \bar{A}}{\partial t} \quad \bar{B} = \nabla \times \bar{A}$$

$$\nabla^2 \bar{E} = \mu \epsilon \frac{\partial^2 \bar{E}}{\partial t^2} \quad \nabla^2 \bar{B} = \epsilon \mu \frac{\partial^2 \bar{B}}{\partial t^2}$$

$$\bar{A}(\bar{r}, t) = \sum_{\bar{k}, \mu} (\hat{e}^{(\mu)}(\bar{k}) a_{\bar{k}}^{(\mu)}(t) e^{i \bar{k} \cdot \bar{r}} + \hat{e}^{+(\mu)}(\bar{k}) a_{\bar{k}}^{+(\mu)}(t) e^{-i \bar{k} \cdot \bar{r}})$$

$$W = \frac{1}{2} \int_V (\epsilon_0 E^2 + \frac{B^2}{\mu_0}) dV =$$

$$= \frac{\epsilon_0 V}{16} \sum_{k, \mu} \left(\dot{a}^2_{k, \mu} + \frac{k^2}{\mu_0 \epsilon_0} a^2_{k, \mu} \right) \equiv H$$

$$\omega = c k \quad c: \text{speed of light}$$

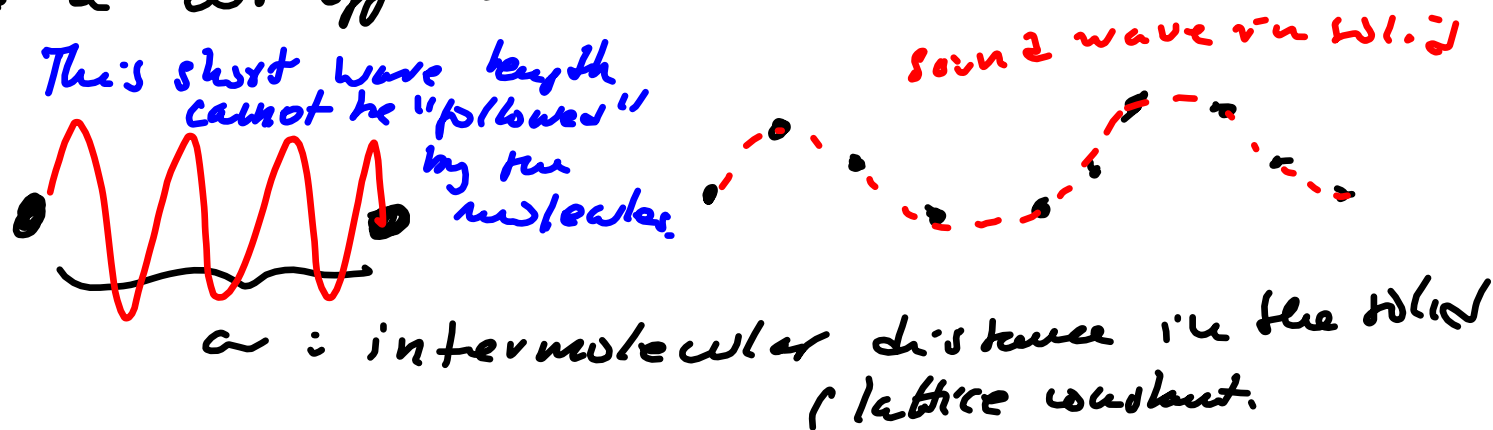
This was well known in the XIXth century.

However, using classical mechanics to solve the problem led to the "ultraviolet catastrophe".

The problem was that there was no reason to cut-off the possible values of

$$w. \quad E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{m\omega^2 x^2}{2} \quad \text{it could become infinitely large.}$$

No true that in solids it was simple to find a cut off because:



Then the total energy was bounded in solids but in the black body Rayleigh and Jeans obtained:



$$\int_0^{\infty} u(\omega) d\omega \rightarrow \infty$$

ultraviolet catastrophe.

Planck got the idea that the energy accessible to the harmonic oscillators was quantized so that

$$\epsilon_s = (n_s + \frac{1}{2}) h \omega_s$$

$$n_s = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

ω_s identifies the oscillators (M-B statistics).

(Planck did not know about the zero point energy).

Notice that classically:

$$Z_1^{\text{class.}}(V, T) = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\beta (\frac{1}{2} m \omega_s^2 q^2 + \frac{1}{2m} p^2)} \frac{dq dp}{h} =$$

$$= \frac{1}{h} \left(\frac{2\pi}{\beta m \omega} \right)^{1/2} \left(\frac{2\pi m}{\beta} \right)^{1/2} = \frac{kT}{h \omega_s}$$

$$\therefore Z_N^{\text{class}}(\beta) = \left(\frac{kT}{h \omega_s} \right)^N \quad \text{if all } N \text{ oscillators have } \omega_s = \omega.$$

Using Planck's proposal:

$$Z_1^{\text{q.m.}}(\beta, T) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta(n + \frac{1}{2}) h \omega_s} = \frac{e^{-\frac{1}{2} \beta h \omega_s}}{1 - e^{-\beta h \omega_s}}$$

$$= \frac{e^{-\frac{h \omega_s}{2 k T}}}{1 - e^{-h \omega_s / k T}}$$

and

$$Z_N^{q.m}(\beta) = \frac{e^{-\frac{N \hbar \omega_s}{kT}}}{\left(1 - e^{-\frac{\hbar \omega_s}{kT}}\right)^N}$$

(Notice that if $\hbar \omega_s \ll kT$

Then now

$$U_1 = - \frac{\partial \ln Z_1^{q.m}}{\partial \beta} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega_s}_{\text{0-point energy}} +$$

$$= \langle \epsilon_s \rangle$$

this was the "novelty" introduced by Planck.

$$Z_N^{q.m} \rightarrow \frac{1}{\left(1 - e^{-\frac{\hbar \omega_s}{kT}}\right)^N} = \left(\frac{kT}{\hbar \omega_s}\right)^N = Z_N^{cl}$$

$$= \frac{\hbar \omega_s e^{-\beta \hbar \omega_s}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar \omega_s}} =$$

β . & distribution.

Let's calculate the number of oscillators per unit volume in the cavity with frequency between ω and $\omega + d\omega$ (i.e. $g(\omega) d\omega$):

We know that:

$$\begin{aligned}
 du(k) d^3k &= \overset{\substack{\# \text{ of polarizations} \\ \uparrow}}{2} \frac{V}{(2\pi)^3} d^3k = \\
 \downarrow & \\
 \# \text{ of oscillators with } & \rightarrow k_i = \frac{2\pi}{L_i} n_i \therefore \# \frac{k_i^3}{(2\pi)^3 L^3} \\
 \bar{k} \in (\bar{k}, \bar{k} + d\bar{k}) & \\
 \begin{aligned}
 k &= \omega/c \\
 dk &= d\omega/c
 \end{aligned} & = \frac{2V}{(2\pi)^3} k^2 dk \underbrace{4\pi}_{\substack{\text{no angular} \\ \text{dependence}}} = \frac{V k^2 dk}{\pi^2} = \\
 = \frac{V}{\pi^2} \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} \frac{d\omega}{c} & = \frac{V \omega^2}{\pi^2 c^3} d\omega
 \end{aligned}$$

Then dividing by V we get

$$g(\omega) d\omega = \frac{\omega^2}{\pi^2 c^3} d\omega$$

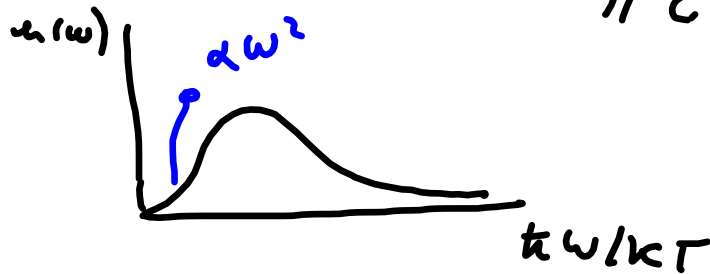
Then the energy density associated to the frequency range $(\omega, \omega + d\omega)$ is

$$u(\omega) d\omega = \frac{\hbar \omega \omega^2 d\omega}{\pi^2 c^3 (e^{\beta \hbar \omega} - 1)}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\hbar \omega \ll kT} \frac{\hbar \omega^3 d\omega}{\pi^2 c^3 (\beta \hbar \omega)}$$

$$\propto \omega^2 d\omega$$

leads to classical result at high T .



$\int_0^{\infty} u(\omega) d\omega$ is finite!

Bose's approach: he used q.m. and worked directly with "photons" the particles associated to the "quanta" of e.m. radiation. He distributed the photons over the available energy levels focusing on the probability that level ϵ_s is occupied by n_s photons at a time. He used H-B. statistics with q.m. oscillators and obtained:

$$\langle n_s \rangle = \frac{\sum_{n_s=0}^{\infty} n_s e^{-\frac{n_s \hbar \omega_s}{kT}}}{\sum_{n_s=0}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{n_s \hbar \omega_s}{kT}}} = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{\hbar \omega_s}{kT}} - 1}$$

$$\langle \mathcal{E}_s \rangle = \hbar \omega_s \langle n_s \rangle = \frac{\hbar \omega_s}{e^{\hbar \omega_s / kT} - 1}$$

identical
to
Planck's,

Einstein's approach:

he considered the statistics of the photons and the energy levels together. He considered the bosons indistinguishable (implicit Bose).

He used the same treatment that we did using Lagrange multipliers (we used α and β).

But because N is not fixed for photons
Einstein had $\alpha = 0$ (it means $\mu = 0$) and
then he obtained

$$\langle n_s \rangle = \frac{1}{e^{\beta \epsilon_s - 1}} = \frac{1}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1}$$

1 oscillator in eigenstate n_s with $\epsilon_s = (n_s + \frac{1}{2}) h\nu_s$
is equivalent to energy state $\epsilon_s = h\nu_s$ occupied
by n_s photons and it is equivalent to the
average energy $\langle \epsilon_s \rangle$ of an oscillator corresponds
to the mean occupation $\langle n_s \rangle$ of the corresponding
energy level.

