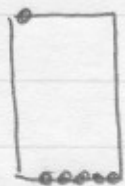


This was classical. What about quantum mechanical situations?

First assumption to go: indistinguishability



← is indistinguishable from any of the other 5 MAC's... counts 1 rather than 6.

Now there are 20 distinguishable states, all equally likely.

There is no limit on the # particles in each state, so these cannot be electrons. They are Bosons and it was shown by Satyendra N. Bose in 1924 - nice story - and also by Einstein.

Called Bose-Einstein statistics.

Now calculate the number of states with  $E=0$

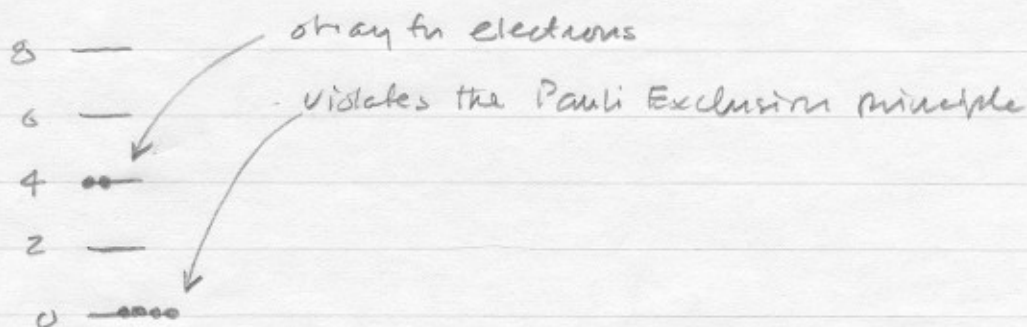
MAC<sub>1</sub> probability is  $\frac{1}{20}$  ← no microstates are distinguishable

$$\text{so, } n(E=0) = 5 \left( \frac{1}{20} \right) = 0.25$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{the other MAC states contribute} & \frac{(5 + 4 \times 4 + 5 \times 3 + 5 \times 2 + 3 \times 1)}{20} \\ & = 2.45 \end{aligned}$$

Finally...

The spin  $\frac{1}{2}$  distribution is quite different. Going back, what it would require is no state like



Still indistinguishable  $\Rightarrow$  start with 20

But PE means only 3 MAC work.



$$\text{Then } n_{FD}(E=0) = 2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + 2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) + 2\left(\frac{1}{3}\right) = 2.0$$

↑  
"Fermi-Dirac"

table on next page

E	$n_{MB}$	$n_{BE}$	$n_{FD}$	
0	2.31	2.45	2	not so different, but
1	1.54	1.55	1.67	generally more in the
2	0.98	0.90	1	lower E states.
3	0.59	0.45	1	
4	0.33	0.30	0.33	
5	0.16	0.15	0	
6	0.07	0.10	0	
7	0.02	0.05	0	
8	0.005	0.05	0	

Rethink our derivation of MB

Consider 2 energy states  $E_1$  and  $E_2$   
occupied by an average  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  particles.

Rate that  $n_1$ 's become  $n_2$ 's :  $R_{1 \rightarrow 2}$   
 $n_2$ 's :  $n_1$ 's :  $R_{2 \rightarrow 1}$

Both are rates per particle - probabilities per second  
per particle.

total rate of  $1 \rightarrow 2$  transitions:  $n_1 R_{1 \rightarrow 2}$

At Equilibrium

$$n_1 R_{1 \rightarrow 2} = n_2 R_{2 \rightarrow 1}$$

$$\frac{n_1}{n_2} = \frac{R_{2 \rightarrow 1}}{R_{1 \rightarrow 2}}$$

$$n_i = A e^{-E_i/kT} \quad \text{etc.} \quad \text{so,}$$

$$\frac{R_{2 \rightarrow 1}}{R_{1 \rightarrow 2}} = \frac{e^{-E_1/kT}}{e^{-E_2/kT}}$$

Now consider Bosons.

$$n_1 R_{1 \rightarrow 2}^B = n_2 R_{2 \rightarrow 1}^B$$

Recall the discussion of  $\psi_A$  and  $\psi_S$

↑  
appropriate for  
electrons - spin  $1/2$

$\psi_S$  is appropriate for the other kind of spin-objects,  
Bosons - spin 0, 1, 2 - etc.

Consider 2 identical bosons. The symmetric wave function:

$$\psi_S = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [ \psi_\alpha(1) \psi_\beta(2) + \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\alpha(2) ]$$

(normalization, since  $\psi_\alpha$  and  $\psi_\beta$  are normalized.)  
 $\alpha, \beta$  summarize all identifiers for a "state"

Now... put both bosons into the same state,  $\alpha = \beta$

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_S &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [ \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\beta(2) + \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\beta(2) ] \\ &= \sqrt{2} \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\beta(2) \end{aligned}$$

So,  $\psi_S^* \psi_S = 2 \psi_\beta^*(1) \psi_\beta^*(2) \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\beta(2)$

Suppose the quantum requirement of indistinguishability had not been applied? We would have started with

$$\psi_T = \psi_\alpha(1) \psi_\beta(2) \quad \dots \text{already normalized.}$$

if same state:

$$\psi_T^* \psi_T = \psi_\alpha^*(1) \psi_\alpha^*(2) \psi_\alpha(1) \psi_\alpha(2)$$

$$P(\psi_s) = 2 P(\psi_T)$$

Probability of having 2 quantum mechanical bosons <sup>in same state</sup> is twice that for 2 classical bosons.

Suppose 3 particles?

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_s = \sqrt{1/6} [ & \psi_\alpha(1) \psi_\beta(2) \psi_\gamma(3) + \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\gamma(2) \psi_\alpha(3) \\ & + \psi_\gamma(1) \psi_\alpha(2) \psi_\beta(3) + \psi_\gamma(1) \psi_\beta(2) \psi_\alpha(3) \\ & + \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\alpha(2) \psi_\gamma(3) + \psi_\alpha(1) \psi_\gamma(2) \psi_\beta(3) ] \end{aligned}$$

6 terms. = 3! terms.

Setting same state:  $\alpha = \beta = \gamma$ :

$$\psi_s = \sqrt{1/3!} \cdot 3! \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\beta(2) \psi_\beta(3)$$

$$\psi_s^* \psi_s = \left( \frac{1}{3!} \right) (3!)^2 \underbrace{\psi_\alpha^*(1) \psi_\alpha^*(2) \psi_\beta^*(3) \psi_\beta(1) \psi_\beta(2) \psi_\beta(3)}_{\text{classical result}}$$

$$\psi_s^* \psi_s = 3! \psi_T^* \psi_T$$

classical result  
 $\psi_T^* \psi_T$

generalizable

→ an enhancement effect for bosons of  $n!$

Consider an empty state, add a boson  $\rightarrow$

$P_i$  = probability that the boson will land in that state.

adding additional bosons... each would have the

same probability - classically.

$$P_n^c = (P_i)^n$$

But, quantum mechanically, the enhancement

$$P_n^B = n! P_n^c = n! (P_i)^n$$

The probability that there would be  $n+1$

$$P_{n+1}^B = (n+1)! P_{n+1}$$

since

$$(n+1)! = (n+1)n! \Rightarrow P_{n+1}^B = (n+1)n! P_{n+1}$$

and

$$P_{n+1} = (P_i)^{n+1} = (P_i)^n P_i = P_n^c P_i$$

$$P_{n+1}^B = (n+1)n! P_n^c P_i$$

or.

$$P_{n+1}^B = (n+1) P_i P_n^B$$

$\uparrow$  prob of classical of adding 1

$\leftarrow$  prob that there are  $n$  B in state already

if there are already  $n$  bosons in a quantum state, the prob of one more joining them is  $(n+1) \times$  classical

now, rates for losses.

Equilibrium says,

$$n_1 R_{1 \rightarrow 2}^B = n_2 R_{2 \rightarrow 1}^B$$

relate to the classical case.

$$R_{1 \rightarrow 2}^B = (1+n_2) R_{1 \rightarrow 2}$$

already assuming that there are  $n_2$  in 2

$$R_{2 \rightarrow 1}^B = (1+n_1) R_{2 \rightarrow 1}$$

so,

$$n_1 (1+n_2) R_{1 \rightarrow 2} = n_2 (1+n_1) R_{2 \rightarrow 1}$$

$$\frac{n_1 (1+n_2)}{n_2 (1+n_1)} = \frac{R_{2 \rightarrow 1}}{R_{1 \rightarrow 2}} = \frac{e^{-E_1/kT}}{e^{-E_2/kT}}$$

$$\frac{n_1}{1+n_1} e^{E_1/kT} = \frac{n_2}{1+n_2} e^{-E_2/kT} = f(T)$$

$$\frac{n_1}{1+n_1} e^{E_1/kT} = f$$

$$\frac{n_1}{1+n_1} = f \cdot e^{-E_1/kT}$$

$$\text{let } f = e^{-\alpha} \quad \alpha(T)$$

$$= e^{-\alpha} e^{-E_1/kT}$$

$$n_1 = n_1 e^{-(\alpha + E_1/kT)} + e^{-(\alpha + E_1/kT)}$$



$$n_1 \left[ 1 - e^{-(\alpha + E_1/kT)} \right] = e^{-(\alpha + E_1/kT)}$$

$$\text{so } n_1 = \frac{e^{-(\alpha + E_1/kT)}}{1 - e^{-(\alpha + E_1/kT)}}$$

$$n_1 = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} e^{E_1/kT} - 1}$$

same result

for  $n_2$

$$n_B(E) = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} e^{E/kT} - 1} = \frac{1}{B_2 e^{E/kT} - 1} = F_{BE}$$

↑  
Bose

notice

Bose-Einstein  
Distribution.

$$F_{MB} = A e^{-E/kT} = \frac{1}{A' e^{E/kT}}$$

For electrons... the Pauli Exclusion Principle introduces an inhibition factor

$$R_{1 \rightarrow 2}^F = (1 - n_2) R_{1 \rightarrow 2}$$

$$R_{2 \rightarrow 1}^F = (1 - n_1) R_{2 \rightarrow 1}$$

... same calculation

$$n_F(E) = \frac{1}{e^{\alpha} e^{E/kT} + 1}$$

or 
$$F_{FD} = \frac{1}{B_1 e^{E/kT} + 1}$$

Fermi-Dirac Distribution

So, here we see - probability distributions -

LIMITING cases

$$F_{MB} = \frac{1}{A' e^{E/kT}}$$

$E/kT$  tiny

$E/kT$  large

constant

tiny

$$F_{BE} = \frac{1}{B_2 e^{E/kT} - 1}$$

$\infty$

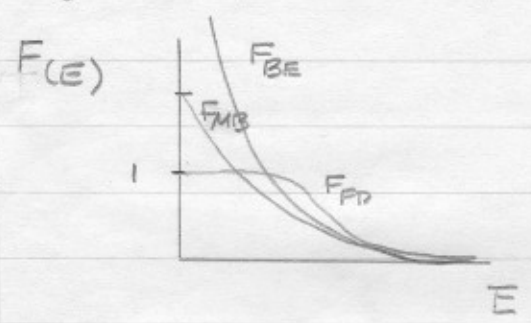
tiny  $\rightarrow F_{MB}$

$$F_{FD} = \frac{1}{B_1 e^{E/kT} + 1}$$

smaller constant

tiny

They have the following relative shapes at some high temperature



like the little  $\epsilon$  particle example

Remember what these mean

$$n(E) dE = g(E) F_x(E) dE$$

can determine  $B_1$  and  $B_2$  by

$$\left(\frac{N}{V}\right)_B = \int_0^{\infty} g(E) F_{FE}(E) dE$$

$$\left(\frac{N}{V}\right)_F = \int_0^{\infty} g(E) F_{FD}(E) dE$$