

Energy in the degenerate limit $T=0$

$$\frac{E}{V} = \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) \epsilon$$

$$g(\epsilon) = C \sqrt{\epsilon}$$

$$\text{with } C = \left(\frac{2\pi m}{h^2} \right)^{3/2} \frac{2g_s}{\sqrt{\pi}}$$

$$n = \frac{N}{V} = \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon g(\epsilon)$$

density of states

$$\Rightarrow \frac{E}{V} = C \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon \epsilon^{3/2} = \frac{2}{5} C \epsilon_F^{5/2}$$

$$n = \frac{N}{V} = C \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon \epsilon^{1/2} = \frac{2}{3} C \epsilon_F^{3/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{E}{V} = \frac{3}{5} \frac{N}{V} \epsilon_F$$

$$\frac{E}{V} = \frac{3}{5} n \epsilon_F$$

or

$$\boxed{\frac{E}{N} = \frac{3}{5} \epsilon_F}$$

↑ energy per volume

↑ energy per particle

Above gives $T=0$ results. To get behavior at low $T>0$, or to get quantities such as $C_V = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial T} \right)_V$, we need to get the next order terms in a low temperature expansion.

In general we need to do integrals of the form

$$\int d\epsilon \frac{\tilde{\phi}(\epsilon)}{z^{-1} e^{\beta \epsilon} + 1} = \int d\epsilon \tilde{\phi}(\epsilon) n(\epsilon), \quad \tilde{\phi}(\epsilon) \text{ some function}$$

ex: to compute n , $\tilde{\phi}(\epsilon) = g(\epsilon)$; to compute $\frac{E}{V}$, $\tilde{\phi}(\epsilon) = g(\epsilon) \epsilon$

transform variables to $X = \beta \epsilon$.

then we want to do integrals of the form

$$\Phi \equiv \int_0^{\infty} dx \frac{\phi(x)}{z^{-1} e^x + 1}$$

$\phi(x)$ is any function of x .

For example, to get the "standard" function $f_n(z)$, we use $\phi(x) = \frac{1}{\Gamma(n)} x^{n-1}$

Define $\xi = \beta \mu = \ln z$

$$\Phi = \int_0^{\infty} dx \frac{\phi(x)}{e^{x-\xi} + 1}$$

Define $\psi(x) \equiv \int_0^x \phi(x') dx'$, $f(x) \equiv \frac{1}{[e^{x-\xi} + 1]}$ fermi function

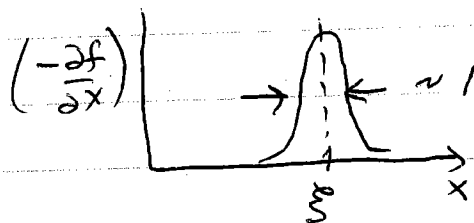
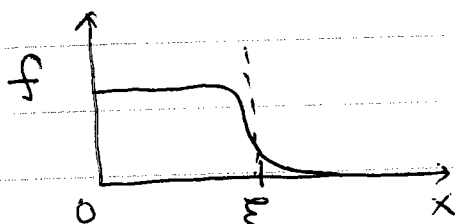
$$\Phi = \int_0^{\infty} dx \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right) f(x) \quad \text{integrate by parts}$$

$$= \psi(x) f(x) \Big|_0^{\infty} + \int_0^{\infty} dx \psi(x) \left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} dx \psi(x) \left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right) \quad \text{since } \psi(0) = 0 \text{ and } f(\infty) = 0$$

1st term vanishes

Now we use the fact that at low T , $\left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$ is strongly peaked about $x = \xi$



$\xi \gg 1$
 $\xi \sim \frac{\epsilon_F}{kT}$ large

expand $\psi(x)$ about $x=\xi$

$$\psi(x) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d^n \psi}{dx^n} \bigg|_{x=\xi} \frac{(x-\xi)^n}{n!}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Phi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{d^n \psi}{dx^n} \bigg|_{x=\xi} \int_0^{\infty} dx \frac{(x-\xi)^n}{n!} \left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$$

Since $\left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial x} \right)$ is zero except for a region of order 1

about $x=\xi \gg 1$, we can replace the lower limit of the integral by $-\infty$ without any noticeable change

Then we can make a change of variables $y = x - \xi$ and the integrals become

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \frac{y^n}{n!} \left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) \quad \text{where } f(y) = \frac{1}{e^y + 1}$$

$$\text{Now } -\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} = \frac{e^y}{(e^y + 1)^2} = \frac{e^{\frac{y}{2}}}{e^{2y} + 2e^y + 1} = \frac{1}{e^{\frac{y}{2}} + 2 + e^{-\frac{y}{2}}}$$

is symmetric about $y=0$.

$\Rightarrow$ all the integrals for n odd vanish!

To sum over only n even terms, let $n \rightarrow 2n$

$$\Phi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left. \frac{d^{2n} \psi}{dx^{2n}} \right|_{x=\xi} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \frac{y^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$\text{let } a_n \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \frac{y^{2n}}{(2n)!} \left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right), \quad a_0 = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dy \left(-\frac{\partial f}{\partial y} \right) = 1$$

The a_n are just numbers that be computed.
They contain no system parameters whatsoever

For $n \geq 1$ one can show

$$a_n = 2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{2^{2n}} + \frac{1}{3^{2n}} - \frac{1}{4^{2n}} + \frac{1}{5^{2n}} - \dots \right) \\ = \left(2 - \frac{1}{2^{2(n-1)}} \right) \zeta(2n)$$

where $\zeta(n) = 1 + \frac{1}{2^n} + \frac{1}{3^n} + \frac{1}{4^n} + \dots$ is the Riemann zeta function

$$\text{In particular } a_1 = \frac{\pi^2}{6}, \quad a_2 = \frac{7\pi^4}{360}$$

$$\Phi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \left. \frac{d^{2n} \psi}{dx^{2n}} \right|_{x=\xi} = \psi(\xi) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \left. \frac{d^{2n} \psi}{dx^{2n}} \right|_{x=\xi}$$

$$\text{use } \frac{d\psi}{dx} = \phi \text{ to finally get} \quad \psi(x) = \int_0^x dx' \phi(x')$$

$$\Phi = \int_0^{\xi} dx \phi(x) + \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} a_n \left. \frac{d^{2n-1} \phi}{dx^{2n-1}} \right|_{x=\xi}$$

$$= \int_0^{\xi} dx \phi(x) + \frac{\pi^2}{6} \left. \frac{d\phi}{dx} \right|_{x=\xi} + \frac{7\pi^4}{360} \left. \frac{d^3 \phi}{dx^3} \right|_{x=\xi} + \dots$$

This gives a power series in temperature.

To see this, transform back to the energy variable

$$x = \beta \epsilon, \quad \epsilon = k_B T x$$

$$\Phi \equiv \int_0^{\infty} d\epsilon \frac{\phi(\epsilon)}{z^{-1} e^{\beta \epsilon} + 1} = k_B T \left\{ \int_0^{\infty} dx \frac{\phi(k_B T x)}{z^{-1} e^x + 1} \right\}$$

$$\text{using } k_B T \int_0^{\hat{\epsilon} = \mu/k_B T} dx \phi(k_B T x) = \int_0^{\mu} d\epsilon \phi(\epsilon)$$

$$\text{and } \frac{d\phi}{dx} = \frac{d\phi}{d\epsilon} \frac{d\epsilon}{dx} = \frac{d\phi}{d\epsilon} k_B T$$

we get

$$\Phi = \int_0^{\infty} d\epsilon \phi(\epsilon) m(\epsilon)$$

$$\Phi = \int_0^{\mu} d\epsilon \phi(\epsilon) + \frac{\pi^2 (k_B T)^2}{6} \left. \frac{d\phi}{d\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=\mu} + \frac{7\pi^4}{360} (k_B T)^4 \left. \frac{d^3 \phi}{d\epsilon^3} \right|_{\epsilon=\mu} + \dots$$

Example

$$\textcircled{1} \text{ density } n = \frac{N}{V} = \int_0^{\infty} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) m(\epsilon) \quad \Rightarrow \phi(\epsilon) \equiv g(\epsilon)$$

$$n = \int_0^{\mu} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) + \frac{\pi^2 (k_B T)^2}{6} \left. \frac{dg}{d\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=\mu} + \dots$$

Now as $T \rightarrow 0$, $\mu \rightarrow \epsilon_F$ the fermi energy

$$n = \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) + \int_{\epsilon_F}^{\mu} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \left. \frac{dg}{d\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=\mu}$$

But ϵ_F was determined by $n = \int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon g(\epsilon)$

$$\Rightarrow \int_{\epsilon_F}^{\mu} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) = -\frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \left. \frac{dg}{d\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=\mu}$$

Since left hand side is $o(kT)^2$ is small, we can approximate ~~the right hand side~~ as it as

$$\int_{\epsilon_F}^{\mu} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) \approx (\mu - \epsilon_F) g(\epsilon_F)$$

$$\Rightarrow (\mu - \epsilon_F) \approx -\frac{\pi^2}{6} \frac{(k_B T)^2}{g(\epsilon_F)} \left. \frac{dg}{d\epsilon} \right|_{\epsilon=\mu}$$

so $\mu - \epsilon_F \sim o(k_B T)^2$ is small, so to lowest order can evaluate $\frac{dg}{d\epsilon}$ on right hand side at $\epsilon = \epsilon_F$ instead of $\epsilon = \mu$

$$\boxed{\mu(T) \approx \epsilon_F - \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \frac{g'(\epsilon_F)}{g(\epsilon_F)}} \quad g' = \frac{dg}{d\epsilon}$$

Shows that chemical potential μ decreases from ϵ_F by $o(kT)^2$ at low T

For free electrons where $g(\epsilon) = C \sqrt{\epsilon}$
 $g'(\epsilon) = \frac{1}{2} C \frac{1}{\sqrt{\epsilon}}$

$$\mu(T) \approx \epsilon_F - \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \frac{1}{2\epsilon_F} = \epsilon_F - \frac{\pi^2}{12} \frac{(k_B T)^2}{\epsilon_F}$$

$$\mu(T) \approx \epsilon_F \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{\pi k_B T}{2\epsilon_F} \right)^2 \right) = \epsilon_F \left(1 - \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{\pi T}{2 T_F} \right)^2 \right)$$

Correction is small for metals at room temp as $T_F \sim 10,000^\circ K$

② energy $\frac{E}{V} = \int_0^\infty d\epsilon g(\epsilon) \epsilon n(\epsilon) \Rightarrow \phi(\epsilon) = g(\epsilon) \epsilon$

$$u = \frac{E}{V} = \int_0^\mu d\epsilon g(\epsilon) \epsilon + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 [g(\mu) + \mu g'(\mu)]$$

$$= \underbrace{\int_0^{\epsilon_F} d\epsilon g(\epsilon) \epsilon}_{= u(0) \text{ ground state energy density}} + \underbrace{\int_{\epsilon_F}^\mu d\epsilon g(\epsilon) \epsilon}_{\approx (\mu - \epsilon_F) g(\epsilon_F) \epsilon_F \text{ as before}} + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 [g(\mu) + \mu g'(\mu)]$$

$\uparrow$
 replace $\mu \approx \epsilon_F$
 as before

$$u(T) = u(0) + (\mu - \epsilon_F) g(\epsilon_F) \epsilon_F + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 [g(\epsilon_F) + \epsilon_F g'(\epsilon_F)]$$

$$= u(0) + \left[-\frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 \frac{g'(\epsilon_F)}{g(\epsilon_F)} \right] g(\epsilon_F) \epsilon_F + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 [g(\epsilon_F) + \epsilon_F g'(\epsilon_F)]$$

$$u(T) = u(0) + \frac{\pi^2}{6} (k_B T)^2 g(\epsilon_F)$$

specific heat per volume

$$C_V \equiv \frac{C_V}{V} = \frac{1}{V} \left(\frac{dE}{dT} \right)_V = \left(\frac{du}{dT} \right)_V$$

$$C_V = \frac{\pi^2}{3} k_B^2 T g(E_F)$$

for free electrons we can write $g(E) = C \sqrt{E}$

$$n = \int_0^{E_F} g(E) dE = \frac{2}{3} C E_F^{3/2} \Rightarrow C = \frac{3}{2} \frac{n}{E_F^{3/2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow g(E_F) = \frac{3}{2} \frac{n}{E_F^{3/2}} \cdot E_F^{1/2} = \frac{3}{2} \frac{n}{E_F} \quad \text{density of states at fermi energy}$$

$$C_V = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{E_F} \right) n k_B$$

or total specific heat $C_V = V C_V$ $nV = N$

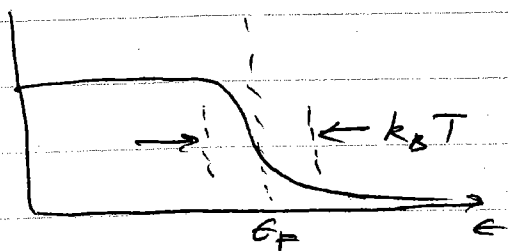
$$C_V = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{E_F} \right) N k_B$$

$\Rightarrow$ specific heat due to fermi gas of electrons in a conductor is $C_V \sim T$ at low temperatures

We already saw that specific heat due to ionic vibrations (phonons) in a solid went like $C_V \sim T^3$ at low temperatures (Debye model)

$\Rightarrow$ electronic contribution to C_V dominates at sufficiently low T .

Simple estimate of C_V



when increase temperature to $k_B T$, the electrons near the fermi energy ϵ_F will increase their energy by an amount $\sim k_B T$. The number of such electrons ~~is roughly~~ per unit volume is roughly

$g(\epsilon_F)(k_B T)$
 $\uparrow$ density of states at ϵ_F $\uparrow$ energy interval about ϵ_F of states which ~~increase~~ get excited

$\Rightarrow$ increase in energy per unit volume is

$$\Delta U \sim (g(\epsilon_F) k_B T) (k_B T) \sim g(\epsilon_F) (k_B T)^2$$

$\uparrow$ # electrons excited $\uparrow$ excitation energy per excited electron

$$\Rightarrow C_V = \frac{d\Delta U}{dT} \sim g(\epsilon_F) k_B^2 T$$

The previous calculation gives the precise numerical coefficient

electronic specific heat per volume

$$C_V^{\text{elec}} = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_F} \right) \frac{N k_B}{V} \left(1 + O \left(\frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_F} \right)^2 \right)$$

compare to classical result $C_V^{\text{classical}} = \frac{N k_B}{V}$

The correct result for degenerate fermi gas is a factor

$$\frac{\pi^2}{2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_F} \right) = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \left(\frac{T}{T_F} \right) \text{ smaller than classical result by factor } \sim \frac{10^2}{10^4} = 10^{-2} \text{ at room temperature}$$

also, classical C_V is indep of T , whereas fermi gas result is $\propto T$.

At low T , the ionic contribution to C_V is

$$C_V^{\text{ion}} = \frac{12\pi^4}{5} \left(\frac{T}{\theta_D} \right)^3 \frac{N k_B}{V}$$

$$\frac{C_V^{\text{elec}}}{C_V^{\text{ion}}} = \frac{\pi^2}{2} \left(\frac{k_B T}{\epsilon_F} \right) \frac{5}{12\pi^4} \left(\frac{\theta_D}{T} \right)^3 \approx \frac{5}{24\pi^2} \left(\frac{\theta_D}{T_F} \right) \left(\frac{\theta_D}{T} \right)^2$$

$$\approx 1 \text{ when } T^* = \sqrt{\frac{5}{24\pi^2} \left(\frac{\theta_D}{T_F} \right)} \theta_D \approx 0.15 \left(\frac{\theta_D}{T_F} \right)^{1/2} \theta_D$$

for metals, $T_F \sim 10^4 \text{ } ^\circ\text{K}$, $\theta_D \sim 10^2 \text{ } ^\circ\text{K}$

$$T^* = 0.15 \sqrt{10^{-2}} \theta_D \approx 0.015 \theta_D$$

So ionic contrib to C_V dominates over electronic contrib until $T \lesssim 0.01 \theta_D$ i.e. at $0(1) \text{ } ^\circ\text{K}$. The electronic contrib dominates at lower temperatures.

Pauli paramagnetism of electron gas

$$\vec{S} = \frac{1}{2} \hbar \vec{\sigma}$$

electron has intrinsic spin $\vec{\sigma}$ with intrinsic magnetic moment $\vec{\mu} = -\mu_B \vec{\sigma}$ $\mu_B = \frac{e\hbar}{2mc}$ is Bohr magneton

In an external magnetic field $\vec{B}$, there is an interaction energy $-\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B} = \mu_B \sigma B$ where $\sigma = \pm 1$ for spins parallel and antiparallel to $\vec{B}$. The energy spectra for up and down electron spins becomes

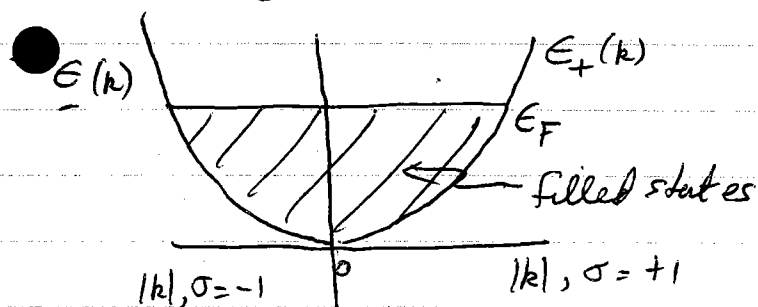
$$E_{\pm}(\vec{k}) = E(\vec{k}) \pm \mu_B B \quad \text{where } E(\vec{k}) \text{ is spectrum at } \vec{B} = 0$$

Since $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ electrons now have different energy spectra, we should treat them as two different populations of particles $\Rightarrow$ they will be in equilibrium when their chemical potentials are equal, i.e. $\mu_+ = \mu_-$

this will induce a net magnetization in the system.

To see this, consider free electrons at $T=0$

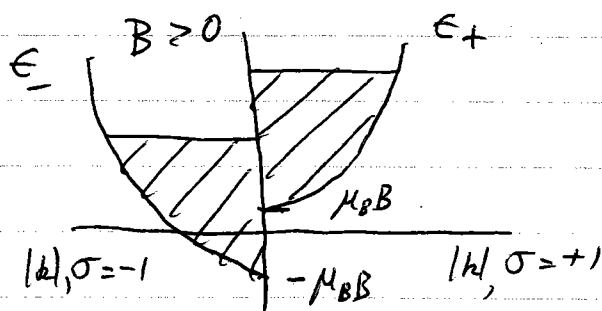
$$\vec{B} = 0$$



$$\text{when } \vec{B} = 0, E_+(\vec{k}) = E_-(\vec{k})$$

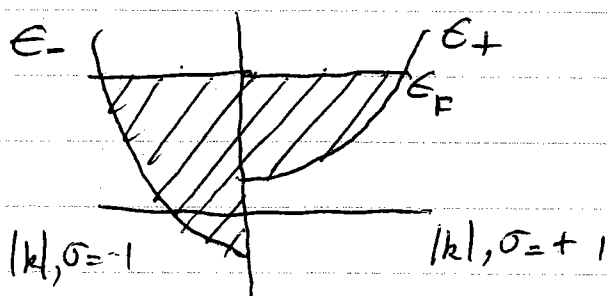
ground state occupations look as shown on the left. Equal numbers of $\uparrow$ and $\downarrow$ electrons
 $m_+ = m_-$

When $\vec{B}$ is turned on, if there were no redistribution of electron spins, the situation would look like



Clearly the system can lower its energy by transferring $\uparrow$ electrons to $\downarrow$ electrons.

At equilibrium the system will look like



again the two populations have the same max energy E_F .

But there are now more $\downarrow$ electrons than $\uparrow$ electrons

magnetization
$$\frac{M}{V} = -\mu_B (m_+ - m_-) > 0$$

$\frac{\vec{M}}{V}$ is parallel to $\vec{B} \Rightarrow$ paramagnetic effect