

Basic concepts and relations of statistical physics

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Lecture course 'Methods of statistical physics'

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topics:

- ▶ basic concepts and relations (~ 3 lectures, I.T.)
- ▶ mean-field approximation and classical Ising model (~ 3 lectures, I.T.)
- ▶ Kubo linear response and electron liquid (~ 3 lectures, I.T.)
- ▶ bosonic systems (Bose-Einstein condensation, magnons) (~ 3 lectures, B.V., R.K.)

excercise/classes:

- ▶ conducted by R.K.; the credit ('zápočet', issued by R.K.) is needed for admission to the (oral) examination

0 Statistical physics

- ▶ macroscopic systems with a large number of (interacting) particles
 - ▶ both classical and quantum systems
 - ▶ properties and quantities relevant for experiment
 - ▶ systems under time-independent external conditions (equilibrium properties)
 - ▶ systems under (well-defined) time-dependent perturbations (nonequilibrium properties)
- in this course:
focus on theoretical techniques and condensed systems

1 Thermodynamic equilibrium, classical phase space and distribution functions

1.1 Thermodynamic equilibrium and time averages

- the state of a classical N -particle system is represented by a point $(p, q) = (\{p_i\}_{i=1}^{3N}, \{q_i\}_{i=1}^{3N})$ in the $6N$ -dimensional phase space
- dynamics of the system is given by the Hamiltonian $H(p, q)$ (time-independent) and the equations of motion

$$\frac{dp_i(t)}{dt} = - \frac{\partial H(p, q)}{\partial q_i}, \quad \frac{dq_i(t)}{dt} = \frac{\partial H(p, q)}{\partial p_i} \quad (1)$$

- their solution for specified initial conditions yields the trajectory $(p(t), q(t))$ in the phase space

- for any observable quantity $A = A(p, q)$, one can then define its time average \bar{A} as

$$\bar{A} = \lim_{\tau \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\tau} \int_0^{\tau} A(p(t), q(t)) dt \quad (2)$$

- for interacting many-particle systems:
the time averages do not depend on the initial conditions
- assessment of the dependence of these time averages on the parameters (ξ) of the Hamiltonian represents one of the central problems of equilibrium statistical physics

$$H = H(p, q; \xi) \quad \Longrightarrow \quad \bar{A} = \bar{A}(\xi)$$

1.2 Distribution functions and statistical averages

- the time averages can be replaced by statistical averages defined as

$$\langle A \rangle \equiv \bar{A} = \int A(p, q) \rho(p, q) d\Gamma, \quad d\Gamma = \prod_{i=1}^{3N} dp_i dq_i, \quad (3)$$

where $\rho(p, q)$ is the distribution function

- according to a general theory, the distribution function should be a function of the Hamiltonian only,

$$\rho(p, q) = \varphi(H(p, q)), \quad (4)$$

where the function φ has to be specified

1.3 Microcanonical distribution and ergodicity

- for an isolated system with a prescribed total energy E , the microcanonical distribution is defined as

$$\rho(p, q; E) \sim \delta(H(p, q) - E), \quad (5)$$

which yields the statistical averages as functions of the total energy E (and of the other parameters ξ of the Hamiltonian):

$$\langle A \rangle(E) \equiv \bar{A}(E) = \frac{\int A(p, q) \delta(H(p, q) - E) d\Gamma}{\int \delta(H(p, q) - E) d\Gamma} \quad (6)$$

- the microcanonical distribution, Eq. (5), can be justified by the so-called ergodic hypothesis: each trajectory of the system scans the whole isoenergetic surface $H(p, q) = E$

2 Classical canonical distribution

2.1 Canonical distribution and partition function

- for a system with thermal contact with its surroundings at temperature T , the canonical distribution function (Boltzmann statistics) is appropriate, namely,

$$\rho(p, q; T) \sim \exp[-\beta H(p, q)], \quad \beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}, \quad (7)$$

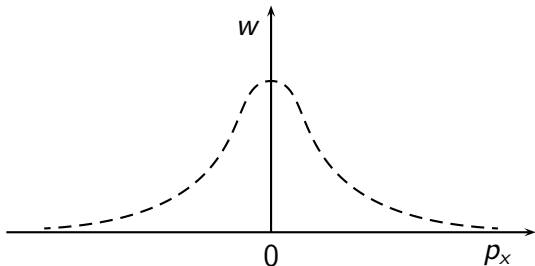
where k_B is the Boltzmann constant.

Here, we assume a fixed number of particles ($N = \text{const}$).

- the value of k_B : $1 \text{ eV} \approx 11600 \text{ K}$

- the simplest consequence is the Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution of velocities (or momenta) of individual particles (of mass m) in a gas (or a liquid or a solid):

$$w(p_x) \sim \exp\left(-\frac{p_x^2}{2mk_B T}\right)$$



- the normalized canonical distribution ($\int \rho \, d\Gamma = 1$) requires knowledge of the partition function ('Zustandssumme')

$$Z(T) = \int \exp[-\beta H(p, q)] \, d\Gamma, \quad (8)$$

which yields

$$\rho(p, q; T) = \frac{1}{Z(T)} \exp[-\beta H(p, q)] \quad (9)$$

and general temperature-dependent statistical averages

$$\bar{A}(T) = \frac{1}{Z(T)} \int A(p, q) \exp[-\beta H(p, q)] \, d\Gamma, \quad (10)$$

including, e.g., the internal energy of the system (for $A = H$)

$$U(T) = \bar{H}(T) = -\frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \ln[Z(T)] \quad (11)$$

2.2 Free energy and its derivatives

- the partition function can also be used to calculate the free energy $F(T)$:

$$Z(T) = \exp[-\beta F(T)], \quad F(T) = -k_B T \ln[Z(T)], \quad (12)$$

from which various expressions for the entropy follow, namely,

$$S(T) = - \frac{\partial F(T)}{\partial T}, \quad (13)$$

$$S(T) = -k_B \int \rho(p, q; T) \ln[\rho(p, q; T)] d\Gamma \quad (14)$$

[analogy to the mathematical entropy $\sigma = -\sum_n w_n \ln(w_n)$
related to probabilities $w_n \geq 0$ such that $\sum_n w_n = 1$]

- $U(T)$, $F(T)$, and $S(T)$ satisfy the Helmholtz relation

$$U(T) = F(T) + TS(T) \quad (15)$$

and their derivatives define the heat capacity (specific heat)

$$C(T) = \frac{\partial U(T)}{\partial T} = T \frac{\partial S(T)}{\partial T} = -T \frac{\partial^2 F(T)}{\partial T^2} \quad (16)$$

- classical equipartition theorem \implies heat capacity for
 - ▶ ideal gases: $C(T) = (3/2)Nk_B$
 - ▶ solids (in harmonic approximation): $C(T) = 3Nk_B$
(the Dulong-Petit law)

- for an external parameter ξ entering the Hamiltonian, $H = H(p, q; \xi) \implies F = F(T; \xi)$, and one can prove

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \right\rangle (T) = \frac{\partial F(T; \xi)}{\partial \xi} \quad (17)$$

- for a special (linear) ξ -dependence of H , i.e.,

$$H(p, q; \xi) = H_0(p, q) + \xi B(p, q), \quad \xi \rightarrow 0, \quad (18)$$

where the second term defines a small perturbation added to the unperturbed Hamiltonian H_0 , we get

$$\langle B \rangle_0(T) = \partial F(T; \xi = 0) / \partial \xi, \quad (19)$$

where $\langle \dots \rangle_0$ – average with the unperturbed Hamiltonian H_0

- for a system in an applied magnetic field b :
the perturbed Hamiltonian is

$$H(b) = H_0 - bM,$$

where M is the total magnetic moment;
its value in zero field is ($B \equiv -M$, $\xi \equiv b \rightarrow 0$):

$$M_0(T) = - \frac{\partial F(T; b = 0)}{\partial b}$$

2.3 Linear response and fluctuations

- the standard measure of fluctuations of a random real quantity A around its average value $\bar{A} = \langle A \rangle$ is defined as

$$(\Delta A)^2 = \langle (A - \bar{A})^2 \rangle = \overline{A^2} - (\bar{A})^2, \quad (20)$$

$(\Delta A)^2$ – scatter of the quantity A ,
 $\sqrt{(\Delta A)^2}$ – root-mean-square (r.m.s.) deviation

- for the canonical distribution and $A = H$, one can prove

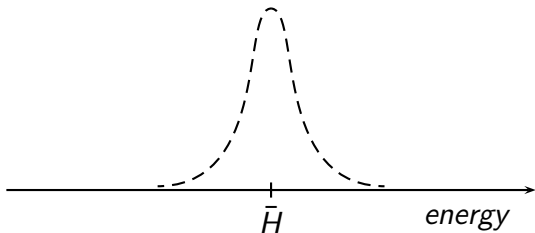
$$(\Delta H)^2(T) = k_B T^2 C(T), \quad (21)$$

where $C(T)$ is the heat capacity; this is a direct relation between a macroscopic quantity C and a microscopic feature of the system $(\Delta H)^2$ (energy fluctuations around $U = \bar{H}$)

- if we consider dependence of the quantities on the system size (number of particles N), we find $U(T) = \bar{H}(T)$ and $C(T)$ proportional to N (extensive quantities), which yields

$$\frac{\sqrt{(\Delta H)^2}}{\bar{H}} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{N}},$$

i.e., the energy fluctuations in large systems ($N \rightarrow \infty$) are negligible as compared to the internal energy (canonical distribution \sim microcanonical distribution)



- similarly, for correlation of fluctuations of two random quantities A and B (with respect to their average values \bar{A} and \bar{B}), we introduce the quantity

$$\langle (A - \bar{A}) (B - \bar{B}) \rangle = \overline{AB} - \bar{A}\bar{B} \quad (22)$$

- let us consider a perturbation B added to the Hamiltonian H_0 according to Eq. (18) [$H(\xi) = H_0 + \xi B$, $\xi \rightarrow 0$]; this perturbation induces a change in the statistical average of an observable A and it leads to the following linear-response coefficient

$$\kappa_{AB}(T) = \frac{\partial \bar{A}(T; \xi = 0)}{\partial \xi}, \quad (23)$$

the so-called isothermic susceptibility

- one can prove the relation

$$\begin{aligned}\kappa_{AB}(T) &= -\beta \langle (A - \bar{A})(B - \bar{B}) \rangle_0(T) \\ &= -\beta [\langle AB \rangle_0 - \langle A \rangle_0 \langle B \rangle_0](T),\end{aligned}\quad (24)$$

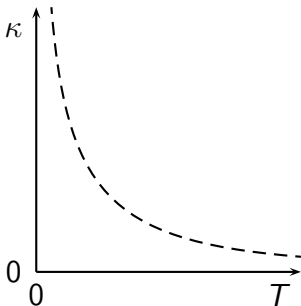
where all averages on the r.h.s. are taken in the unperturbed system

- this relation connects the linear-response coefficient $\kappa_{AB}(T)$ (a macroscopic property) with the correlation of fluctuations in the unperturbed system (a microscopic quantity)

- a special form of Eq. (24) for $B = -A$ yields

$$\kappa_{A,-A}(T) = \beta (\Delta A)_0^2(T) = \beta [\langle A^2 \rangle_0 - \langle A \rangle_0^2](T), \quad (25)$$

which explains, e.g., the Curie law for magnetic susceptibilities at low temperatures: $\kappa(T) \sim T^{-1}$



3 Elementary quantum statistics

3.1 Quantum-mechanical and statistical averaging

- basic statements of the quantum theory:
 - ▶ the pure state of a quantum-mechanical system is defined by a state vector $|\Psi\rangle$ in the Hilbert space
 - ▶ a real physical observable is represented by a Hermitian operator A
 - ▶ the quantum-mechanical average of the quantity (operator) A in the state $|\Psi\rangle$ is given by

$$\bar{A}\{\Psi\} = \langle\Psi|A|\Psi\rangle, \quad (26)$$

where we assume the state vector normalized to unity,
 $\langle\Psi|\Psi\rangle = 1$

- if the system can be prepared in several states $|\Psi_i\rangle$ with probabilities p_i ($i = 1, 2, \dots$; $p_i \geq 0$, $\sum_i p_i = 1$), the quantum-mechanical and statistical average is given by

$$\begin{aligned}\langle A \rangle &= \bar{A} = \sum_i p_i \langle \Psi_i | A | \Psi_i \rangle = \sum_i p_i \text{Tr} \{ A | \Psi_i \rangle \langle \Psi_i | \} \\ &= \text{Tr} \left\{ A \left[\sum_i p_i | \Psi_i \rangle \langle \Psi_i | \right] \right\} = \text{Tr}(A\rho),\end{aligned}\quad (27)$$

where Tr denotes the trace and where we introduced the density matrix (statistical operator) ρ given by

$$\rho = \sum_i | \Psi_i \rangle p_i \langle \Psi_i |, \quad (28)$$

which is a positive-definite Hermitian operator

- (two technical notes)
- ▶ within the Dirac formalism, a ket-vector $|\phi\rangle$ and a bra-vector $\langle\chi|$ define a linear operator $|\phi\rangle\langle\chi|$; its action is given by $|\psi\rangle \mapsto |\phi\rangle\langle\chi|\psi\rangle$; its trace equals the scalar product of both vectors:

$$\text{Tr}(|\phi\rangle\langle\chi|) = \langle\chi|\phi\rangle$$

- ▶ for any operators X and Y : $\text{Tr}(XY) = \text{Tr}(YX)$

- the density matrix satisfies relations

$$\text{Tr}(\rho) = 1, \quad \text{Tr}(\rho^2) \leq 1, \quad (29)$$

where the former one is a direct consequence of $\langle\Psi_i|\Psi_i\rangle = 1$ and $\sum_i p_i = 1$; the equality sign in the latter relation is encountered only for pure states

3.2 Canonical distribution and partition function

- the canonical distribution (Boltzmann statistics) for a system with Hamiltonian H and at temperature T is defined as

$$\rho(T) = \frac{1}{Z(T)} \exp(-\beta H), \quad (30)$$

where the partition function $Z(T)$ is given by

$$Z(T) = \text{Tr}[\exp(-\beta H)] \quad (31)$$

- if the eigenvalues and normalized eigenvectors of H are denoted by E_n and $|n\rangle$ ($n = 1, 2, \dots$), we get for $Z(T)$

$$Z(T) = \sum_n \exp(-\beta E_n), \quad (32)$$

for the density matrix ρ and its matrix elements ρ_{mn}

$$\rho(T) = \sum_n |n\rangle w_n(T) \langle n|, \quad w_n(T) = \frac{\exp(-\beta E_n)}{Z(T)},$$
$$\rho_{mn}(T) = \langle m|\rho(T)|n\rangle = w_n(T) \delta_{mn}, \quad (33)$$

and for the general quantum-mechanical and statistical average (with matrix elements $A_{mn} = \langle m|A|n\rangle$)

$$\langle A \rangle(T) = \bar{A}(T) = \text{Tr}[A\rho(T)] = \sum_n w_n(T) \langle n|A|n\rangle$$
$$= \sum_n w_n(T) A_{nn} = \frac{1}{Z(T)} \sum_n \exp(-\beta E_n) A_{nn}, \quad (34)$$

which has the form of Eq. (27) [$\bar{A} = \sum_i p_i \langle \Psi_i | A | \Psi_i \rangle$]

- (a technical note)

if we know all eigenvalues E_n ($n = 1, 2, \dots$) and normalized eigenvectors $|n\rangle$ of the Hamiltonian H , we can write its spectral representation

$$H = \sum_n E_n |n\rangle\langle n| = \sum_n |n\rangle E_n \langle n|;$$

this representation enables one to extend an arbitrary function $f(\cdot)$ of a real variable to the same function of the operator H :

$$f(H) = \sum_n f(E_n) |n\rangle\langle n| = \sum_n |n\rangle f(E_n) \langle n|;$$

this definition can be used, e.g., for $f(H) = \exp(-\beta H)$

3.3 Free energy and its derivatives

- from the partition function $Z(T)$, the internal energy $U(T)$, the free energy $F(T)$, the entropy $S(T)$, and the heat capacity $C(T)$ can be obtained in the same way as in the classical case; this leads, e.g., to expressions

$$\begin{aligned} S(T) &= -k_B \operatorname{Tr}\{\rho(T) \ln[\rho(T)]\} \\ &= -k_B \sum_n w_n(T) \ln[w_n(T)] \end{aligned} \quad (35)$$

- the relations involving derivatives with respect to an external parameter ξ of the Hamiltonian $H(\xi)$ require more effort in the quantum case, since the operators $H(\xi)$ and $\partial H(\xi)/\partial \xi$ do not commute in general

- it can be proved that [the quantum version of Eq. (17)]

$$\left\langle \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \right\rangle (T) = \frac{\partial F(T; \xi)}{\partial \xi},$$

while in the special case of a linear ξ -dependence

$$H(\xi) = H_0 + \xi B, \quad \xi \rightarrow 0, \quad (36)$$

we get [the quantum version of Eq. (19)]

$$\langle B \rangle_0(T) = \frac{\partial F(T; \xi = 0)}{\partial \xi}$$

- for the proof, we define $u(\beta, \xi) = \exp[-\beta H(\xi)]$, for which we get (the Bloch equation):

$$\frac{\partial u(\beta, \xi)}{\partial \beta} + H(\xi) u(\beta, \xi) = 0, \quad u(0, \xi) = 1, \quad (37)$$

and for $v(\beta, \xi) = \partial u(\beta, \xi) / \partial \xi$, we get:

$$\frac{\partial v(\beta, \xi)}{\partial \beta} + H(\xi) v(\beta, \xi) = -\frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} u(\beta, \xi), \quad v(0, \xi) = 0. \quad (38)$$

The last equation can be solved with an Ansatz

$$v(\beta, \xi) = u(\beta, \xi) c(\beta, \xi) = \exp[-\beta H(\xi)] c(\beta, \xi)$$

and with initial condition $c(\beta, \xi) = 0$:

$$\exp[-\beta H(\xi)] \frac{\partial c(\beta, \xi)}{\partial \beta} = -\frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \exp[-\beta H(\xi)],$$

$$\begin{aligned}
c(\beta, \xi) &= - \int_0^\beta \exp[\alpha H(\xi)] \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \exp[-\alpha H(\xi)] d\alpha, \\
v(\beta, \xi) &= - \exp[-\beta H(\xi)] \\
&\quad \times \int_0^\beta \exp[\alpha H(\xi)] \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \exp[-\alpha H(\xi)] d\alpha. \quad (39)
\end{aligned}$$

From this result, we get:

$$\begin{aligned}
- \frac{\partial Z(T, \xi)}{\partial \xi} &= - \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \text{Tr}[u(\beta, \xi)] = - \text{Tr}[v(\beta, \xi)] \\
&= \text{Tr} \left\{ \exp[-\beta H(\xi)] \right. \\
&\quad \left. \times \int_0^\beta \exp[\alpha H(\xi)] \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \exp[-\alpha H(\xi)] d\alpha \right\}
\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \int_0^\beta \text{Tr} \left\{ \exp[(\alpha - \beta)H(\xi)] \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \exp[-\alpha H(\xi)] \right\} d\alpha \\
&= \int_0^\beta \text{Tr} \left\{ \exp[-\beta H(\xi)] \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \right\} d\alpha \\
&= \beta \text{Tr} \left\{ \exp[-\beta H(\xi)] \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \right\} \\
&= \beta Z(T, \xi) \left\langle \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \right\rangle (T). \tag{40}
\end{aligned}$$

This means

$$-\frac{\partial Z(T, \xi)}{\partial \xi} = \beta Z(T, \xi) \left\langle \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \right\rangle (T),$$

from which the quantum version of Eq. (17) follows immediately.

3.4 Linear response and fluctuations

- the quantum version of the relation between the energy fluctuation $(\Delta H)^2(T)$ and the heat capacity $C(T)$ is the same as in the classical case, Eq. (21):

$$(\Delta H)^2(T) = k_B T^2 C(T)$$

- for a perturbation B added to the Hamiltonian H_0 [$H(\xi) = H_0 + \xi B$, $\xi \rightarrow 0$], the linear response of an observable A leads to the susceptibility defined by Eq. (23):

$$\kappa_{AB}(T) = \frac{\partial \bar{A}(T; \xi = 0)}{\partial \xi}$$

- the result can be written using the eigenvectors $|n\rangle$ and eigenvalues E_n of the Hamiltonian H_0 and with $A_{mn} = \langle m|A|n\rangle$, $B_{nm} = \langle n|B|m\rangle$ as

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_{AB}(T) = & \sum_{mn} A_{mn} B_{nm} \frac{w_m(T) - w_n(T)}{E_m - E_n} \\ & + \beta \langle A \rangle_0(T) \langle B \rangle_0(T), \end{aligned} \quad (41)$$

where in the first term, one has to use (L'Hospital's rule)

$$\frac{w_m(T) - w_n(T)}{E_m - E_n} = -\beta w_m(T) \quad \text{for } E_m = E_n. \quad (42)$$

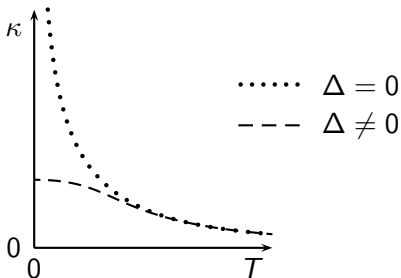
This proves the importance of the ground-state degeneracy for the Curie-like behavior of the low-temperature susceptibility
 $[\kappa(T) \sim T^{-1}]$

- (an example) for a 2-dimensional Hilbert space, we take $H_0 = \Delta\sigma_z$ with a real constant Δ , and $A = -B = \sigma_x$, where

$$\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix};$$

we get

$$\kappa(T) = \begin{cases} \tanh(\beta\Delta)/\Delta & \text{for } \Delta \neq 0 \\ \beta & \text{for } \Delta = 0 \end{cases}$$



- the proof of Eq. (41) starts from

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{A}(T; \xi) &= Z^{-1}(T, \xi) \text{Tr} \{A \exp[-\beta(H_0 + \xi B)]\} , \\ Z(T, \xi) &= \text{Tr} \{ \exp[-\beta(H_0 + \xi B)] \}\end{aligned}\quad (43)$$

and it employs

$$\begin{aligned}v(\beta) &= \left. \frac{\partial}{\partial \xi} \exp[-\beta(H_0 + \xi B)] \right|_{\xi=0} \\ &= - \exp(-\beta H_0) \int_0^\beta \exp(\alpha H_0) B \exp(-\alpha H_0) d\alpha ,\end{aligned}\quad (44)$$

which is a special case of Eq. (39). This yields:

$$- \frac{\partial Z(T, \xi = 0)}{\partial \xi} = \beta \text{Tr}[B \exp(-\beta H_0)] = \beta Z(T, 0) \langle B \rangle_0(T), \quad (45)$$

see also Eq. (40). The last two relations are used in calculation of the ξ -derivative of $\bar{A}(T; \xi)$, Eq. (43), which yields

$$\begin{aligned} \kappa_{AB}(T) = & -Z^{-1}(T, 0) \\ & \times \text{Tr} \left\{ A \int_0^\beta \exp[(\alpha - \beta)H_0] B \exp(-\alpha H_0) d\alpha \right\} \\ & + \beta \langle A \rangle_0(T) \langle B \rangle_0(T). \end{aligned} \quad (46)$$

The first term is evaluated in the orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of H_0 which leads to the final result, Eq. (41).

- in special cases, when A or B commutes with H_0 , Eq. (46) yields

$$\kappa_{AB}(T) = -\beta [\langle AB \rangle_0 - \langle A \rangle_0 \langle B \rangle_0](T),$$

which is the quantum version of the classical relation, Eq. (24)

- a direct relation between the linear-response coefficient $\kappa_{AB}(T)$ and the correlation of fluctuations cannot be given. In the special case of $B = -A$, one obtains

$$\begin{aligned}\kappa_{A,-A}(T) &= - \sum_{mn} |A_{mn}|^2 \frac{w_m(T) - w_n(T)}{E_m - E_n} \\ &\quad - \beta \langle A \rangle_0^2(T).\end{aligned}\tag{47}$$

For the fraction in the first term, one can use inequality [a consequence of $\tanh(x)/x \leq 1$ valid for arbitrary real x]

$$- \frac{w_m(T) - w_n(T)}{E_m - E_n} \leq \frac{\beta}{2} [w_m(T) + w_n(T)],\tag{48}$$

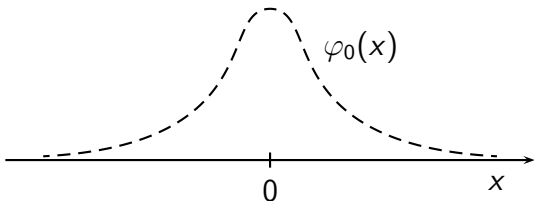
which yields

$$\kappa_{A,-A}(T) \leq \beta (\Delta A)_0^2(T) = \beta [\langle A^2 \rangle_0 - \langle A \rangle_0^2] (T) \quad (49)$$

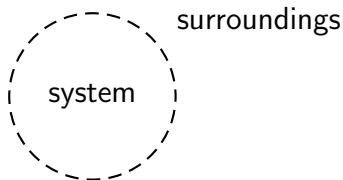
instead of the classical equality relation, Eq. (25).

The difference is due to quantum-mechanical fluctuations.

linear harmonic oscillator:
ground-state wavefunction



4 Systems with varying particle number



- exchange of particles between the studied system and its surroundings can be treated both within classical and quantum statistics by using the concept of chemical potential μ (in analogy to exchange of energy treated by means of temperature T); here we focus on the quantum case

4.1 Quantum grandcanonical distribution

- we consider systems with identical particles of one kind; basis vectors in the N -particle ($N \geq 1$) Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}^{(N)}$:

$$\mathcal{S} \{ |\lambda_1\rangle \otimes |\lambda_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |\lambda_N\rangle \}, \quad (50)$$

where $\lambda_1, \dots, \lambda_N$ run over values of an index λ labelling the orthogonal basis vectors $|\lambda\rangle$ in the one-particle Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}^{(1)}$ and where \mathcal{S} denotes a symmetrization (for bosons) or antisymmetrization (for fermions – 'Slater determinant'); the complete Hilbert space (Fock space) is

$$\mathcal{H} = \mathcal{H}^{(0)} \oplus \mathcal{H}^{(1)} \oplus \mathcal{H}^{(2)} \oplus \dots \equiv \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \mathcal{H}^{(N)}, \quad (51)$$

where $\mathcal{H}^{(0)}$ – the one-dimensional subspace of vacuum

- the identity operator I and the operator of the total number of particles N are given by

$$I = I^{(0)} \oplus I^{(1)} \oplus I^{(2)} \oplus I^{(3)} \oplus \dots \equiv \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus I^{(N)},$$

$$N = I^{(1)} \oplus 2I^{(2)} \oplus 3I^{(3)} \oplus \dots \equiv \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus N I^{(N)}, \quad (52)$$

where $I^{(N)}$ – the identity operator in the Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}^{(N)}$

- operators that do not change the number of particles have a similar structure. Here we confine ourselves only to such operators, i.e., the Hamiltonian is

$$H = H^{(0)} \oplus H^{(1)} \oplus H^{(2)} \oplus \dots \equiv \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus H^{(N)}, \quad (53)$$

and observables can be reduced to

$$A = A^{(0)} \oplus A^{(1)} \oplus A^{(2)} \oplus \dots \equiv \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus A^{(N)} \quad (54)$$

• (a comment)

by using the creation and annihilation operators (a_{λ}^{+} , a_{λ}), further operators conserving the number of particles are

$$M = \sum_{\lambda'\lambda} V_{\lambda'\lambda} a_{\lambda'}^{+} a_{\lambda} + \sum_{\lambda'\nu'\lambda\nu} W_{\lambda'\nu'\lambda\nu} a_{\lambda'}^{+} a_{\nu'}^{+} a_{\lambda} a_{\nu} + \dots$$

where $V_{\lambda'\lambda}$, $W_{\lambda'\nu'\lambda\nu}$, ... are some constants, i.e., no terms with different number of creation and annihilation operators are present (such as, e.g., a_{λ}^{+} , $a_{\lambda} a_{\nu}$, $a_{\kappa}^{+} a_{\lambda}^{+} a_{\nu}$, ...)

- the density matrix of the grandcanonical distribution for the Hamiltonian H , Eq. (53), is defined by

$$\rho(T, \mu) = \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu)} \exp[\beta(\mu N - H)], \quad (55)$$

where μ denotes the chemical potential and where the grandcanonical partition function is equal to

$$\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu) = \text{Tr} \{ \exp[\beta(\mu N - H)] \} \quad (56)$$

- the average value of the observable A , Eq. (54), is

$$\langle A \rangle(T, \mu) = \bar{A}(T, \mu) = \text{Tr} [A\rho(T, \mu)] \quad (57)$$

- in more details:

$$\begin{aligned}\rho(T, \mu) &= \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu)} \exp[\beta(\mu N - H)] = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus \rho^{(N)}(T, \mu) \\ &= \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu)} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus \exp(\beta\mu N) \exp[-\beta H^{(N)}],\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu) &= \text{Tr} \{ \exp[\beta(\mu N - H)] \} = \\ &= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \exp(\beta\mu N) \text{Tr}^{(N)} \{ \exp[-\beta H^{(N)}] \} \\ &= \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \exp(\beta\mu N) \sum_n \exp[-\beta E_n^{(N)}],\end{aligned}$$

where the trace $\text{Tr}^{(N)}$ refers to the subspace $\mathcal{H}^{(N)}$ and where $E_n^{(N)}$ denote eigenvalues of the Hamiltonian $H^{(N)}$,

and for the average of the observable A :

$$\begin{aligned}\bar{A}(T, \mu) &= \text{Tr} [A\rho(T, \mu)] = \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \text{Tr}^{(N)} \left[A^{(N)} \rho^{(N)}(T, \mu) \right] \\ &= \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu)} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \exp(\beta\mu N) \text{Tr}^{(N)} \left\{ A^{(N)} \exp \left[-\beta H^{(N)} \right] \right\} \\ &= \frac{1}{\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu)} \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \exp(\beta\mu N) \sum_n \exp \left[-\beta E_n^{(N)} \right] A_{nn}^{(N)},\end{aligned}$$

where $A_{nn}^{(N)}$ are diagonal matrix elements of $A^{(N)}$ between the normalized eigenvectors $|N, n\rangle$ of the eigenvalue $E_n^{(N)}$:

$$A_{nn}^{(N)} = \langle N, n | A^{(N)} | N, n \rangle$$

- in analogy to the canonical distribution, following relations are valid in the grandcanonical case [$U(T, \mu) = \bar{H}(T, \mu)$]:

$$U(T, \mu) - \mu \bar{N}(T, \mu) = - \frac{\partial}{\partial \beta} \ln[\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu)], \quad (58)$$

where $\bar{N}(T, \mu)$ denotes the average number of particles,

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{Z}(T, \mu) &= \exp[-\beta \Omega(T, \mu)], \\ \Omega(T, \mu) &= -k_B T \ln[\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu)], \end{aligned} \quad (59)$$

where $\Omega(T, \mu)$ denotes the grandcanonical potential,

$$S(T, \mu) = - \frac{\partial \Omega(T, \mu)}{\partial T}, \quad (60)$$

and

$$\bar{N}(T, \mu) = - \frac{\partial \Omega(T, \mu)}{\partial \mu}, \quad (61)$$

and a generalization of the Helmholtz relation, namely,

$$U(T, \mu) = \Omega(T, \mu) + TS(T, \mu) + \mu \bar{N}(T, \mu) \quad (62)$$

• for the Hamiltonian depending on an external parameter ξ , we get

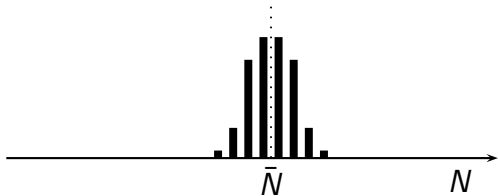
$$\left\langle \frac{\partial H(\xi)}{\partial \xi} \right\rangle (T, \mu) = \frac{\partial \Omega(T, \mu; \xi)}{\partial \xi} \quad (63)$$

as a counterpart of Eq. (17)

- for the fluctuation of the number of particles N , we get

$$(\Delta N)^2(T, \mu) = k_B T \frac{\partial \bar{N}(T, \mu)}{\partial \mu} \quad (64)$$

as a counterpart of Eq. (21)



for large systems:

grandcanonical distribution \sim canonical distribution

4.2 Systems of identical non-interacting particles

- ▶ systems of non-interacting particles: ideal gases
- ▶ in the quantum case:
 - identical particles are indistinguishable
- ▶ two different classes (according to symmetry of wave-function Ψ with respect to permutation of two particles)
- ▶ bosons: Ψ symmetric,
 - integer spin (photons, phonons, magnons, ...)
- ▶ fermions: Ψ antisymmetric (Pauli exclusion principle),
 - half-integer spin (electrons, protons, neutrons, ...)

4.2.1 One-particle Hamiltonians and occupation numbers

• let us consider all orthonormalized eigenvectors $|\lambda\rangle$ and eigenvalues E_λ , where $\lambda = 1, 2, \dots, \mathcal{M}$, of a one-particle Hamiltonian $H^{(1)}$, i.e.,

$$H^{(1)} = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} |\lambda\rangle E_\lambda \langle\lambda| \equiv H. \quad (65)$$

The individual contributions to the full Hamiltonian $[\sum_N \oplus H^{(N)}, \text{ Eq. (53)}]$ for a *non-interacting system* are

$$\begin{aligned} H^{(0)} &= 0, & H^{(1)} &= H, & H^{(2)} &= H \otimes I + I \otimes H, \\ H^{(3)} &= H \otimes I \otimes I + I \otimes H \otimes I + I \otimes I \otimes H, \dots \end{aligned} \quad (66)$$

where I denotes the one-particle identity operator.

- the eigenstates of the full Hamiltonian are then given by Eq. (50); we rewrite them in terms of the so-called occupation numbers n_λ , so that

$$\mathcal{S} \{ |\lambda_1\rangle \otimes |\lambda_2\rangle \otimes \dots \otimes |\lambda_N\rangle \} = | \{n_\lambda\}_{\lambda=1}^M \rangle, \quad (67)$$

where the (anti)symmetrization \mathcal{S} includes normalization to unity and where

$$\begin{aligned} \text{for bosons :} & \quad n_\lambda \in \{0, 1, 2, \dots\} \\ \text{for fermions :} & \quad n_\lambda \in \{0, 1\} \end{aligned} \quad (68)$$

- the total number of particles in a particular eigenstate, Eq. (67), can be expressed as

$$N = \sum_{\lambda=1}^M n_\lambda, \quad (69)$$

and the corresponding eigenvalue of the full Hamiltonian is

$$E_{\{n_\lambda\}}^{(N)} = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} n_\lambda E_\lambda \quad (70)$$

• the occupation numbers n_λ can also be considered as operators; the full non-interacting Hamiltonian, Eq. (66), can be then written as

$$\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus H^{(N)} = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} E_\lambda n_\lambda, \quad (71)$$

and the operator of the total number of particles, Eq. (52), is given by Eq. (69) $[N = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} n_\lambda]$

- (a comment on second quantization)
in terms of the creation (a_λ^+) and annihilation (a_λ) operators,
the occupation numbers (as operators) are

$$n_\lambda = a_\lambda^+ a_\lambda,$$

the operator of the total number of particles is

$$N = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} n_\lambda = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} a_\lambda^+ a_\lambda,$$

and the full non-interacting Hamiltonian can be expressed as

$$\sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus H^{(N)} = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} E_\lambda n_\lambda = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} E_\lambda a_\lambda^+ a_\lambda$$

4.2.2 One-particle distribution functions

- the $\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu)$, Eq. (56), can be evaluated exactly due to the linear dependence of N , Eq. (69), and of energy eigenvalues, Eq. (70), on the occupation numbers n_λ ; this yields

$$\begin{aligned}\mathcal{Z}(T, \mu) &= \sum_{\{n_\lambda\}} \exp \left[\beta \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} n_\lambda (\mu - E_\lambda) \right] \\ &= \prod_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} \sum_{n_\lambda} \exp[\beta(\mu - E_\lambda)n_\lambda] \\ &= \prod_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} \{1 \mp \exp[\beta(\mu - E_\lambda)]\}^{\mp 1}, \quad (72)\end{aligned}$$

where the upper (lower) sign refers to bosons (fermions). Note that the bosonic case requires $\mu < E_\lambda$ for all λ .

- the grandcanonical potential is then

$$\Omega(T, \mu) = \pm k_B T \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} \ln\{1 \mp \exp[\beta(\mu - E_\lambda)]\}, \quad (73)$$

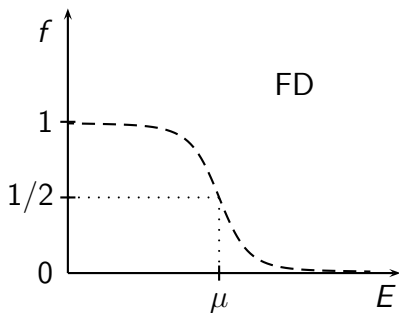
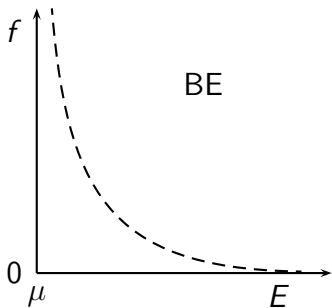
from which the *average values of the occupation numbers* can be obtained with use of Eq. (63) (ξ -derivative, $\xi = E_\lambda$):

$$\begin{aligned} \langle n_\lambda \rangle(T, \mu) &= \frac{\partial \Omega(T, \mu; \{E_\nu\})}{\partial E_\lambda} \\ &= \frac{1}{\exp[\beta(E_\lambda - \mu)] \mp 1} \equiv f_\lambda(T, \mu). \end{aligned} \quad (74)$$

This is the well-known Bose-Einstein or Fermi-Dirac distribution function.

- Bose-Einstein / Fermi-Dirac distribution functions

$$f(E; T, \mu) = \frac{1}{\exp[\beta(E - \mu)] \mp 1} \quad (75)$$



4.2.3 One-particle density matrix

- consider a one-particle operator A as an observable, so that

$$A^{(1)} = \sum_{\lambda, \nu=1}^{\mathcal{M}} |\lambda\rangle A_{\lambda\nu} \langle \nu| \equiv A, \quad A_{\lambda\nu} = \langle \lambda|A|\nu\rangle, \quad (76)$$

while the other terms $A^{(N)}$ in the full observable $[\sum_N \oplus A^{(N)}$, Eq. (54)] are constructed according to Eq. (66) for the Hamiltonian $[\sum_N \oplus A^{(N)} = \sum_{\lambda\nu} A_{\lambda\nu} a_{\lambda}^+ a_{\nu}]$

- the quantum-mechanical average of the full observable $\sum_N \oplus A^{(N)}$ in a particular eigenvector, Eq. (67), is equal to

$$\langle \{n_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} | \sum_{N=0}^{\infty} \oplus A^{(N)} | \{n_{\lambda}\}_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} \rangle = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} n_{\lambda} A_{\lambda\lambda}, \quad (77)$$

and its quantum-mechanical and statistical average is

$$\bar{A}(T, \mu) = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} A_{\lambda\lambda} \langle n_{\lambda} \rangle(T, \mu) = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} A_{\lambda\lambda} f_{\lambda}(T, \mu), \quad (78)$$

with an obvious physical meaning

- the last result can be given another form, namely,

$$\bar{A}(T, \mu) = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} \langle \lambda | A | \lambda \rangle f_{\lambda}(T, \mu) = \text{Tr}[A f(T, \mu)], \quad (79)$$

where the trace refers to the *one-particle Hilbert space* and where we introduced a one-particle density matrix

$$f(T, \mu) = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} |\lambda\rangle f_{\lambda}(T, \mu) \langle \lambda| \quad (80)$$

4.2.4 One-particle linear response

• for a one-particle Hamiltonian H_0 , its perturbation B [$H(\xi) = H_0 + \xi B$], and an observable A , the linear response yields the susceptibility, defined with constant T and μ as

$$\kappa_{AB}(T, \mu) = \frac{\partial \bar{A}(T, \mu; \xi = 0)}{\partial \xi} \quad (81)$$

• its value, expressed in the basis defined by the eigenvectors and eigenvalues (E_λ) of the unperturbed Hamiltonian H_0 , is

$$\kappa_{AB}(T, \mu) = \sum_{\lambda, \nu=1}^{\mathcal{M}} A_{\lambda\nu} B_{\nu\lambda} \frac{f_\lambda(T, \mu) - f_\nu(T, \mu)}{E_\lambda - E_\nu}, \quad (82)$$

where for $E_\lambda = E_\nu$, one has to use (L'Hospital's rule)

$$\frac{f_\lambda(T, \mu) - f_\nu(T, \mu)}{E_\lambda - E_\nu} = \left. \frac{\partial f(E; T, \mu)}{\partial E} \right|_{E=E_\lambda} \quad (83)$$

- the proof of Eq. (82) is based on relation (T and μ omitted)

$$\bar{A} = \text{Tr}[Af(H)] = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \text{Tr}[A\delta(E - H)] f(E) dE, \quad (84)$$

on the well-known limit

$$\delta(x) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{i}{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{x + i\varepsilon} - \frac{1}{x - i\varepsilon} \right), \quad (85)$$

and on the resolvent $G(z)$ of a Hamiltonian H , defined for a complex energy variable z by

$$G(z) = (z - H)^{-1}. \quad (86)$$

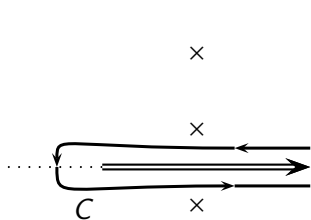
This yields

$$\delta(E - H) = \lim_{\varepsilon \rightarrow 0^+} \frac{i}{2\pi} [G(E + i\varepsilon) - G(E - i\varepsilon)], \quad (87)$$

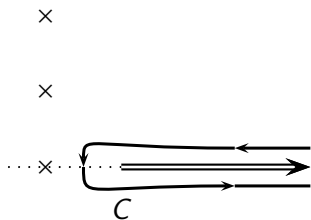
and [due to the analyticity of $G(z)$] \bar{A} as a complex integral

$$\bar{A} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \text{Tr}[AG(z)] f(z) dz, \quad (88)$$

where the complex integration path C is shown below
 [double line – one-particle spectrum, crosses – poles of $f(z)$]



fermions



bosons

- the resolvents $G(z)$ (of H) and $G_0(z)$ (of H_0) are related by the Dyson equation

$$G(z) = G_0(z) + G_0(z)\xi BG(z), \quad (89)$$

from which we get

$$\left. \frac{\partial G(z)}{\partial \xi} \right|_{\xi=0} = G_0(z)BG_0(z), \quad (90)$$

as well as a compact expression for the susceptibility

$$\kappa_{AB} = \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \text{Tr}[AG_0(z)BG_0(z)] f(z) dz \quad (91)$$

- the eigenvalues E_λ and eigenvectors $|\lambda\rangle$ of H_0 lead to

$$G_0(z) = \sum_{\lambda=1}^{\mathcal{M}} |\lambda\rangle \frac{1}{z - E_\lambda} \langle \lambda| \quad (92)$$

and

$$\kappa_{AB} = \sum_{\lambda, \nu=1}^{\mathcal{M}} A_{\lambda\nu} B_{\nu\lambda} \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - E_\lambda)(z - E_\nu)} dz. \quad (93)$$

The last complex integral can easily be evaluated:

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{1}{2\pi i} \int_C \frac{f(z)}{(z - E_\lambda)(z - E_\nu)} dz \\ &= \begin{cases} [f(E_\lambda) - f(E_\nu)] / (E_\lambda - E_\nu) & \text{for } E_\lambda \neq E_\nu, \\ \partial f(E) / \partial E |_{E=E_\lambda} & \text{for } E_\lambda = E_\nu, \end{cases} \end{aligned} \quad (94)$$

which completes the proof.

4.2.5 Ideal quantum gases – a summary

- ▶ the full Hamiltonian (the dynamics) of an ideal gas is specified by the one-particle Hamiltonian
- ▶ the basic statistical properties (thermodynamic potentials) within Boltzmann statistics (grandcanonical distribution) are given by the spectrum of the one-particle Hamiltonian
- ▶ the average occupation numbers of individual one-particle eigenstates are given by the corresponding one-particle eigenvalues and by the BE/FD distribution function
- ▶ the average value of a one-particle observable and its linear response to a one-particle perturbation of the Hamiltonian can be evaluated within the one-particle Hilbert space