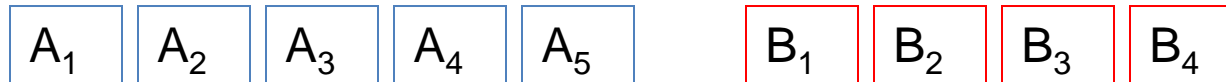


# Bose-Einstein Statistics

Consider a system of  $N$  identical and indistinguishable bosons of integral spin. They do not obey Pauli exclusion principle. At a particular time the particles are distributed among the different energy states, so that  $n_1$  particles have energy  $E_1$ ,  $n_2$  particles have energy  $E_2$  and so on.

Let us find out the total number of ways in which  $n_i$  particles can be distributed in  $g_i$  cells (or states) having the energy level  $E_i$ . We have  $g_i$  items of one kind and  $n_i$  items of another kind.

We know that if we have A items of one kind and B items of another kind. **How many ways you arrange this items?** Since A and B are identical and indistinguishable, A and B can be arranged by themselves.



$$p = \frac{(A + B)!}{A!B!}$$

We have  $g_i$  items of one kind and  $n_i$  items of another kind. Apparently, we can say it would be

$$p = \frac{(n_i + g_i)!}{n_i!g_i!}$$

**But not possible. Because particles can not be located outside the cells (or states)**



States  $g_i = 5$   
Partitions  $(g_i - 1) = 4$



Partitions  $(g_i - 1)$       Particles  $n_i$

The total number of possible distributions of the particles is given by the simultaneous permutations of  $n_i$  particles and  $(g_i-1)$  partitions and is given by  $(n_i+g_i-1)!$ . But this includes also the permutations of  $n_i$  particles among themselves as both these groups are internally indistinguishable. Thus the actual number of ways in which  $n_i$  particles can be distributed in  $g_i$  states is

$$= \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)!}{n_i! (g_i - 1)!} \quad (1)$$

Further, since the particles are taken to be indistinguishable, it will not be possible to detect a difference if the  $n_1$  particles are reshuffled into different states occupied by them in the energy level  $E_1$ . Therefore, the total number of distinguishable arrangement of  $n_1$  particles in  $g_1$  states is,

$$= \frac{(n_1 + g_1 - 1)!}{n_1! (g_1 - 1)!} \quad (2)$$

Therefore, the total number of different and distinguishable ways in which  $n_1, n_2, n_3$  etc particles can be distributed among the various energy levels  $E_1, E_2, E_3$  etc can be obtained by

$$P = \frac{(n_1 + g_1 - 1)!}{n_1!(g_1 - 1)!} \cdot \frac{(n_2 + g_2 - 1)!}{n_2!(g_2 - 1)!} \cdot \frac{(n_3 + g_3 - 1)!}{n_3!(g_3 - 1)!} \dots\dots\dots$$

$$= \prod_{i=1}^N \frac{(n_i + g_i - 1)!}{n_i!(g_i - 1)!} \quad (3)$$

$\prod_i$  is called the product.

When the particles is in equilibrium, the probability is maximum. When  $P$  is maximum  $\log P$  is maximum in eq(3). Hence, the most probable distribution can be obtained by evaluating the maximum value of  $\log P$ . This should also satisfy the two conditions that

$$N = \sum_i n_i = \text{Constant} \quad E = \sum_i n_i E_i = \text{Constant} \quad (4)$$

Taking logarithm of  $P$ ,  $\log P = \sum_i^N [\log_e (n_i + g_i - 1)! - \log_e n_i! - \log_e (g_i - 1)!]$

**By Stirling's theorem,  $\log x! = x \log x - x$**

$$\begin{aligned}\log P &= \sum_i^N [(n_i + g_i - 1) \log(n_i + g_i - 1) - (n_i + g_i - 1) - n_i \log_e n_i + n_i - (g_i - 1) \log_e (g_i - 1) + (g_i - 1)] \\ &= \sum_i^N [(n_i + g_i - 1) \log(n_i + g_i - 1) - n_i \log_e n_i - (g_i - 1) \log_e (g_i - 1)]\end{aligned}\quad (6)$$

**Differential form of eq. (6) as follows:**

$$\begin{aligned}d(\log P) &= \sum_i^N [d\{(n_i + g_i - 1) \log_e (n_i + g_i - 1)\} - d\{n_i \log_e n_i - 0\}] \\ &= \sum_i^N [\log_e (n_i + g_i - 1) dn_i - \log_e n_i dn_i] \\ -d(\log P) &= \sum_i^N [-\log_e (n_i + g_i - 1) + \log_e n_i] dn_i\end{aligned}$$

**For most probable distribution (for maximum value):  $d \log P = 0$**

$$\sum_i^N [-\log_e (n_i + g_i - 1) + \log_e n_i] dn_i = 0 \quad (7)$$

$$N = \sum_i n_i = \text{Constant} \Rightarrow \sum_i dn_i = 0 \quad (8)$$

$$E = \sum_i n_i E_i = \text{Constant} \Rightarrow \sum_i E_i dn_i = 0 \quad (9)$$

Eq. (8) and (9) can be incorporated into eq (7) by making use of Lagrange's method of undetermined multipliers. Multiplying eq (8) by  $\alpha$  and eq (9) by  $\beta$  and adding to eq (7), we get

$$\begin{aligned} \sum_i^N [-\log(n_i + g_i - 1) + \log n_i + \alpha + \beta E_i] dn_i &= 0 \\ \Rightarrow [-\log(n_i + g_i - 1) + \log n_i + \alpha + \beta E_i] dn_i &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

**After integration with integrating cons. 0 (let).**

$$[-\log(n_i + g_i - 1) + \log n_i + \alpha + \beta E_i] = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow [-\log(n_i + g_i) + \log n_i + \alpha + \beta E_i] \quad n_i + g_i \text{ is } \gg 1, \text{ so we neglect } 1.$$

$$\Rightarrow \log \frac{n_i}{(n_i + g_i)} = -\alpha - \beta E_i$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 + \frac{g_i}{n_i} = e^{\alpha + \beta E_i} \Rightarrow n_i = \frac{g_i}{e^{\alpha + \beta E_i} - 1} \quad (10)$$

**Eg. (10) is known as Bose-Einstein Distribution law.**

**Substituting**  $\beta = \frac{1}{kT}$   **$k$ : Boltzmann constant**  
 **$T$ : Temperature**

$$n_i = \frac{g_i}{e^{(\alpha + E_i / kT)} - 1} \quad (11)$$

**B-E distribution law in terms of temperature**

# Bose-Einstein Condensation (BEC)

According to the Bose-Einstein statistics particles are distributed at several states in the system. At the temperature drops below  $T_c$ , a larger fraction “condenses” into the ground state. As the temperature approaches absolute zero, all the particles condense into the ground state. This phenomenon, which occur even in the absence of direct interaction between the bosons, is called Bose-Einstein condensation.

Note that the fraction of particles that are condensing into the ground state are all in the same quantum state.

This state was first predicted, generally, in 1924–25 by Satyendra Nath Bose and Albert Einstein.

Experimentally proved in 1995 by Cornell and Wieman (University of Colorado)



[Satyendra Nath Bose](#) first sent a paper to Einstein on the [quantum statistics](#) of light quanta (now called [photons](#)), in which he derived [Planck's quantum radiation law](#) without any reference to classical physics. Einstein was impressed, translated the paper himself from English to German and submitted it for Bose to the [Zeitschrift für Physik](#), which published it in 1924. Einstein then extended Bose's ideas to matter in two other papers. The result of their efforts is the concept of a [Bose gas](#), governed by [Bose–Einstein statistics](#), which describes the statistical distribution of [identical particles](#) with [integer spin](#), now called [bosons](#). Bosons, which include the photon as well as atoms such as [helium-4](#) ( $^4\text{He}$ ), are allowed to share a quantum state. Einstein proposed that cooling bosonic atoms to a very low temperature would cause them to fall (or "condense") into the lowest accessible [quantum state](#), resulting in a new form of matter.

In 1938 [Fritz London](#) proposed BEC as a mechanism for [superfluidity](#) in  $^4\text{He}$  and [superconductivity](#). On June 5, 1995 the first gaseous condensate was produced by [Eric Cornell](#) and [Carl Wieman](#) at the [University of Colorado at BoulderNIST–JILA](#) lab, in a gas of [rubidium](#) atoms cooled to 170 [nanokelvins](#) (nK). Shortly thereafter, [Wolfgang Ketterle](#) at [MIT](#) demonstrated important BEC properties. For their achievements Cornell, Wieman, and Ketterle received the 2001 [Nobel Prize in Physics](#). Many isotopes were soon condensed, then molecules, quasi-particles, and photons in 2010.

Dr. Sayem