## 1. Quantum Mechanics of Ideal Gases

Further reading: M 9.1-9.2, B\&S 6.1-6.4, K\&K p152-153.
Consider the collision of two identical particles. Two particles (1 and 2) enter the interaction region, and two particles leave. The uncertainty principle prevents is from putting labels 1 and 2 on the outgoing particles. We cannot know the position and momentum of the particles accurately enough within the interaction region to distinguish the two possibilities.

This has a profound implication for the wave function of the two particles. We shall reach the conclusion that the particles of nature come in two types - bosons and fermions.

In quantum mechanics we have studied the wave function of a single particle $\Psi(x)$. $|\Psi(x)|^{2} d x$ is the probability of finding the particle between $x$ and $x+d x$. For two particles, the wave function is a function of two variables $x_{1}$ and $x_{2}$. Then $\left|\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right|^{2} d x_{1} d x_{2}$ is the probability of finding particle 1 between $x_{1}$ and $x_{1}+d x_{1}$, and particle 2 between $x_{2}$ and $x_{2}+d x_{2}$.
$\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$ is found from solving the Schrödinger equation

$$
\hat{H} \Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=E \Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)
$$

where $\hat{H}$ is the Hamilton operator

$$
\hat{H}=-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2 m} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{1}^{2}}-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2 m} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x_{2}^{2}}+V\left(x_{1}\right)+V\left(x_{2}\right)+V\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)
$$

where the first and second parts are the $E_{k}$ of the two particles, the third and fourth the $E_{P}$ of particles in an external field, and the last the $E_{P}$ of field interaction e.g.

$$
\frac{e^{2}}{4 \pi \varepsilon_{o}\left|x_{1}-x_{2}\right|} \text { for the Coulomb force. }
$$

Indistinguishability restricts the form of $\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$.

### 1.1 Symmetry of $\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$

$\Psi$ cannot be measured - only $|\Psi|^{2}$. If the particles 1 and 2 are indistinguishable,

$$
\left|\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right|^{2}=\left|\Psi\left(x_{2}, x_{1}\right)\right|^{2} .
$$

If this were not the case, then the particles could be identified. E.g. one could identify a particular region of space and say that particle 1 is the particle that has a $10 \%$ probability of being in the region, particle 2 has a $15 \%$ probability.

The above conclusion $\left|\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)\right|^{2}=\left|\Psi\left(x_{2}, x_{1}\right)\right|^{2}$ states that these probabilities are equal for any region of space.

Deduce
$\Psi\left(x_{2}, x_{1}\right)=e^{i \alpha} \Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$
But repeating the interchange must give back the original $\Psi$.
$\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=e^{2 i \alpha} \Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)$
Therefore $e^{2 i \alpha}=1$, and $e^{i \alpha}= \pm 1$
So $\alpha=0$ or $\alpha=\pi$.

$$
e^{i 0}=+1 ; e^{i \pi}=-1
$$

For $\alpha=0: \Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\psi\left(x_{2}, x_{1}\right)$ - Bosons.
$\Psi$ is symmetric under interchange of particles. Particles with this behavior are Bosons or Bose-Einstein Particles.

For $\alpha=\pi: \Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=-\Psi\left(x_{2}, x_{1}\right)$ - Fermions.
$\Psi$ is anti-symmetric under interchange of particles.
Particles with this behavior are called Fermions or Fermi-Dirac particles.

## 1.2 - Bosons and Fermions and Spin

Particles such as electrons, photons and neutrons have intrinsic angular momentum or spin. Whether a particle is a boson or fermion is determined by the magnitude of its' spin angular momentum.
$\underline{\hat{S}}$ is the operator for the spin angular momentum of the particle.
$\hat{S}^{2}$ has eigenvalues $S(S+1) \hbar^{2}$ where if $S=0,1,2,3, \ldots$ we have the case of integral spin, which are always bosons, or if $S=\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, \ldots$ we have the case of half-integral spin, which are always fermions.

Spin degeneracy $=2 S+1$. For an electron, spin degeneracy $=2 s+1=2 . \hat{S}_{z}$ eigenvalues $\pm \frac{\hbar}{2}$ - electron spin can be up or down.

Pauli confirmed this through relativistic formulation of quantum field theory, which provides a rigorous proof of the connection between the spin and the statistics.

| Fermions | Bosons |
| :--- | :--- |
| Electron, Quark and Neutrino all have <br> spin $1 / 2$ | Photon $S=1$ <br> Graviton $S=2$ |
| The above are all "really fundamental" particles. |  |
| Composite particles consist of even numbers of fermions have integral spin and <br> behave as bosons. <br> Composite particles consist of odd numbers of fermions have half-integral spin and |  |

behave as fermions.
Neutron, proton - $s=\frac{1}{2}$ each mode of 3 quarks.
${ }_{19}^{40} k(10 p+21 n+19 e)=59 \quad S=1 / 2$

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \pi \text { meson } S=0(2 \text { quarks }) \\
& \mathrm{H} \text { atom }(2 \text { fermions, } e+p) S=0 \\
& \alpha \text { particle }(2 n+2 p) S=0 \\
& H e^{4} \text { atom }(2 n+2 p+2 e) S=0 \\
& { }_{37}^{87} R b(37 p+50 n+37 e)=124 S=0 \\
& H_{2} 2 e+2 p S=0
\end{aligned}
$$

Why should the $\mathrm{H}_{2}$ molecule $(2 e+2 p)$ behave as a boson?

$$
\begin{aligned}
\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right) & =\Psi\left(\left[x_{e 1}, x_{p 1}\right],\left[x_{e 2}, x_{p 2}\right]\right) \\
& =-\Psi\left(\left[x_{e 1}, x_{p 2}\right],\left[x_{e 2}, x_{p 1}\right]\right) \\
& =\Psi\left(\left[x_{e 2}, x_{p 2}\right],\left[x_{e 1}, x_{p 1}\right]\right)=\Psi\left(x_{2}, x_{1}\right)
\end{aligned}
$$

Therefore symmetric under exchange of the atoms.

### 1.3 Fermions obey the Pauli Exclusion Principle

No two fermions in the same single particle states. Single particle states, $\phi_{a}(x)$, $\phi_{b}(x), \ldots$ with energies $E_{a}, E_{b}$, are solutions of TISE for one particle in the system.

If more than one particle in a system and particles do not interact too strongly - then states still useful.
For two non-interacting particles, $\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\phi_{a}\left(x_{1}\right) \phi_{b}\left(x_{2}\right)$ satisfies the TISE with $E=E_{a}+E_{b}$. However it is not correct for identical particles - it is not anti-symmetric or symmetric, under $x_{1} \Leftrightarrow x_{2}$. Could distinguish between the particles -1 is in state a , 2 is in state b.
Hence:
$\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\phi_{a}\left(x_{1}\right) \phi_{b}\left(x_{2}\right)+\phi_{a}\left(x_{2}\right) \phi_{b}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$ Bosons $\rightarrow$ symmetric under $x_{1} \Leftrightarrow x_{2}$.
$\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\phi_{a}\left(x_{1}\right) \phi_{b}\left(x_{2}\right)-\phi_{a}\left(x_{2}\right) \phi_{b}\left(x_{1}\right)\right)$ Fermions $\rightarrow$ anti-symmetric under $x_{1} \Leftrightarrow x_{2}$.
Now we cannot say which particle is in which state.
If both particles are in the same state, $a=b$, then;
$\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=\phi_{a}\left(x_{1}\right) \phi_{a}\left(x_{2}\right)$ for bosons.
$\Psi\left(x_{1}, x_{2}\right)=0$ for fermions. i.e. this is not possible $\rightarrow$ Pauli principles.
Many bosons can live in the same state - they prefer it as it lowers their energies.

