

Exercise Sheet 6: Solutions

1. The quantized Klein-Gordon field

In this exercise we consider the quantized charged Klein-Gordon field.

(a) The charge operator is given by

$$\mathbf{Q} = iq \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d^3\vec{y} : \Phi^\dagger(\underline{y}) \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_{t_y} \Phi(\underline{y}). \quad (1)$$

Show that it generates the phase transformation, which is the symmetry corresponding to this conserved charge via No-ether's theorem,

$$\exp(i\mathbf{Q}\alpha)\Phi(\underline{x})\exp(-i\mathbf{Q}) = \exp(-i\alpha q)\Phi(\underline{x}). \quad (2)$$

To this end calculate

$$\Phi_\alpha(\underline{x}) = \exp(i\mathbf{Q}\alpha)\Phi(\underline{x})\exp(-i\mathbf{Q}). \quad (3)$$

Hint: Take the derivative of this wrt. α and derive a differential equation for $\Phi_\alpha(\underline{x})$ and then solve it with the initial condition $\Phi_{\alpha=0}(\underline{x}) = \Phi(\underline{x})$.

Solution:

$$\partial_\alpha \Phi_\alpha(\underline{x}) = i \exp(i\mathbf{Q}\alpha) [\mathbf{Q}, \Phi(\underline{x})] \exp(-i\mathbf{Q}\alpha).$$

Using the equal-time commutation relations of the field operators by using (1) with $t_y = t_x$:

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathbf{Q}, \Phi(\underline{x})] &= iq \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d^3\vec{y} \left[\Phi^\dagger(\underline{y}) \overleftrightarrow{\partial}_{t_y} \Phi(\underline{y}), \Phi(\underline{x}) \right] \\ &= -iq \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d^3\vec{y} \left[\partial_{t_y} \Phi^\dagger(\underline{y}), \Phi(\underline{x}) \right] \Phi(\underline{y}) \\ &= -iq \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d^3\vec{y} (-i) \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{y}) \Phi(\underline{y}) = -q\Phi(\underline{x}). \end{aligned} \quad (4)$$

Using this ins (1) we find the differential equation,

$$\partial_\alpha \Phi_\alpha(\underline{x}) = -iq\Phi_\alpha(\underline{x}). \quad (5)$$

The solution with the given initial condition indeed is

$$\Phi_\alpha(\underline{x}) = \exp(-iq\alpha)\Phi(\underline{x}). \quad (6)$$

(b) Calculate the commutator function

$$i\Delta(\underline{x} - \underline{y}) = [\Phi(\underline{x}), \Phi^\dagger(\underline{y})] \quad (7)$$

by using the mode decomposition of the field,

$$\Phi(\underline{x}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d^3\vec{p} \left[\mathbf{a}(\vec{p}) u_{\vec{p}}(\underline{x}) + \mathbf{b}^\dagger(\vec{p}) u_{\vec{p}}^*(\vec{p}) \right]. \quad (8)$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned}
i\Delta(\underline{x}-\underline{y}) &= [\Phi(\underline{x}), \Phi^\dagger(\underline{y})] = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d^3\vec{p} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d\vec{q} \left[[\mathbf{a}(\vec{p})u_{\vec{p}}(\underline{x}) + \mathbf{b}^\dagger u_{\vec{p}}^*(\underline{x})], [\mathbf{a}^\dagger(\vec{q})u_{\vec{q}}^*(\underline{y}) + \mathbf{b}(\vec{q})u_{\vec{q}}(\underline{y})] \right] \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d^3\vec{p} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d\vec{q} \delta^{(3)}(\vec{p}-\vec{q}) \left[u_{\vec{p}}(\underline{x})u_{\vec{q}}^*(\underline{y}) - u_{\vec{p}}^*(\underline{x})u_{\vec{q}}(\underline{y}) \right] \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} d^3\vec{p} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3 2E_p} \left\{ \exp[-i\underline{p} \cdot (\underline{x}-\underline{y})] - \exp[+i\underline{p} \cdot (\underline{x}-\underline{y})] \right\}_{p^0=E_p}.
\end{aligned} \tag{9}$$

(c) Show that $\Delta(\underline{x}-\underline{y})$ is a scalar field under proper orthochronous Lorentz transformations.

Solution: We can write (9) in the manifestly covariant form, setting $\underline{z} = \underline{x}-\underline{y}$,

$$i\Delta(\underline{z}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} d^4\underline{p} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \Theta(p^0) \delta(p^2 - m^2) \left[\exp(-i\underline{p} \cdot \underline{z}) - \exp[+i\underline{p} \cdot \underline{z}] \right]. \tag{10}$$

For $\hat{\Lambda} \in \text{SO}(1,3)^\uparrow$ we get

$$i\Delta(\hat{\Lambda}\underline{x}) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} d^4\underline{p} \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \Theta(p^0) \delta(p^2 - m^2) \left[\exp(-i\underline{p} \cdot \hat{\Lambda}\underline{z}) - \exp[+i\underline{p} \cdot \hat{\Lambda}\underline{z}] \right]. \tag{11}$$

Substitution of $\underline{p} = \hat{\Lambda}\underline{p}'$, $d^4\underline{p}' = d^4\underline{p}$, $\Theta(p'^0) = \Theta(p^0)$, leads to

$$\begin{aligned}
i\Delta(\hat{\Lambda}\underline{x}) &= \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} d^4\underline{p}' \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \Theta(p'^0) \delta(p'^2 - m^2) \left[\exp(-i\underline{\hat{\Lambda}} u_{vec} p' \cdot \hat{\Lambda}\underline{z}) - \exp[+i\underline{\hat{\Lambda}} p' \cdot \hat{\Lambda}\underline{z}] \right] \\
&= \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} d^4\underline{p}' \frac{1}{(2\pi)^3} \Theta(p'^0) \delta(p'^2 - m^2) \left[\exp(-i\underline{p}' \cdot \underline{z}) - \exp[+i\underline{p}' \cdot \underline{z}] \right] \\
&= i\Delta(\underline{x}).
\end{aligned} \tag{12}$$

(d) From the equal-time commutation relations of the field operators, it follows that $\Delta(x-y)|_{t_x=t_y} = 0$.

Use this to prove the **micro-causality property**

$$\Delta(\underline{z}) = 0 \quad \text{if} \quad \underline{z} \cdot \underline{z} < 0. \tag{13}$$

To this end show that you can always find an η in the Lorentz boost $\hat{\Lambda}(\vec{n}, \eta)$ with $\vec{n} = \vec{z}/|\vec{z}|$

$$\underline{z}' = \hat{\Lambda}(\vec{n}, \eta)\underline{z} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \vec{z}' \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \Delta(\underline{z}) = \Delta(\underline{z}') = 0. \tag{14}$$

Solution:

$$\underline{z}' = \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \eta & -\vec{n}^T \sinh \eta \\ \vec{n} \sinh \eta & (\cosh \eta - 1)\vec{n}\vec{n}^T + \mathbb{1} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} z^0 \\ \vec{z} \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} z^0 \cosh \eta - \vec{n} \cdot \vec{z} \sinh \eta \\ \dots \end{pmatrix}. \tag{15}$$

Now $\vec{n} \cdot \vec{z} = |\vec{z}| > |z^0|$ and thus we indeed can make the time component z'^0 vanish:

$$z^0 \cosh \eta - |\vec{z}| \sinh \eta = 0 \Rightarrow \eta = \text{artanh}(z^0/|\vec{z}|). \tag{16}$$

2. Ideal relativistic Bose gas

In this exercise we investigate an ideal relativistic Bose gas in the grand-canonical ensemble of quantum-statistical physics. To this end consider the finite-volume box regularization for the quantized charged Klein-Gordon field discussed in the lecture.

The grand-canonical statistical operator for the ideal gas is given by

$$\hat{\rho} = \frac{1}{Z} \exp(-\beta\mathbf{H} - \alpha\mathbf{Q}), \quad Z = \text{Tr} \exp(-\beta\mathbf{H} - \alpha\mathbf{Q}). \quad (17)$$

The Hamilton operator and conserved charge (with $q = 1$, i.e., the “net-particle number” $N_a - N_b$) is given in terms of the number operators

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{H} &= \sum_{\vec{p}} E_{\vec{p}} [\mathbf{N}_a(\vec{p}) + \mathbf{N}_b(\vec{p})], \\ \mathbf{Q} &= \sum_{\vec{p}} [\mathbf{N}_a(\vec{p}) - \mathbf{N}_b(\vec{p})]. \end{aligned} \quad (18)$$

The momenta run over $\vec{p} \in 2\pi\mathbb{Z}^3/L$. Note that the momenta depend on $L = V^{1/3}$, where V is the volume of the cubic box.

- (a) Calculate the partition sum, Z , as defined in (17). Use the occupation-number basis to take the trace, i.e., for an operator \mathbf{A}

$$\text{Tr} \mathbf{A} = \prod_{\vec{p}} \sum_{N_a(\vec{p})=0}^{\infty} \sum_{N_b(\vec{p})=0}^{\infty} \langle \{N_a(\vec{p}), N_b(\vec{p})\}_{\vec{p}} | \mathbf{A} | \{N_a(\vec{p}), N_b(\vec{p})\}_{\vec{p}} \rangle. \quad (19)$$

What are the physically meaningful ranges for the parameters β and α ?

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} Z &= \text{Tr} \exp(-\beta\mathbf{H} - \alpha\mathbf{Q}) \\ &= \prod_{\vec{p}} \sum_{N_a(\vec{p})=0}^{\infty} \exp[-N_a(\vec{p})(\beta E_p + \alpha)] \sum_{N_b(\vec{p})=0}^{\infty} \exp[-N_b(\vec{p})(\beta E_p - \alpha)] \\ &= \prod_{\vec{p}} \frac{1}{1 - \exp(-\beta E_p - \alpha)} \frac{1}{1 - \exp(-\beta E_p + \alpha)}. \end{aligned} \quad (20)$$

The sum over the geometric series only exists if both $-\beta E_p - \alpha < 0$ and $-\beta E_p + \alpha < 0$ for all \vec{p} . Because $E_p \geq m > 0$ this implies that $\beta > 0$ and $|\alpha| < m$.

- (b) Calculate the internal energy U and mean net-particle number Q by showing that with $\Omega(\beta, V, \alpha) = \ln Z(\beta, V, \alpha)$

$$U = -\partial_{\beta} \Omega(\beta, V, \alpha), \quad Q = -\partial_{\alpha} \Omega(\beta, V, \alpha). \quad (21)$$

Solution:

$$\begin{aligned} \partial_{\beta} \Omega &= \partial_{\beta} \ln Z = \frac{1}{Z} \partial_{\beta} Z = -\frac{1}{Z} \text{Tr}[\mathbf{H} \exp(-\beta\mathbf{H} - \alpha\mathbf{Q})] = -U, \\ \partial_{\alpha} \Omega &= \partial_{\alpha} \ln Z = \frac{1}{Z} \partial_{\alpha} Z = -\frac{1}{Z} \text{Tr}[\mathbf{Q} \exp(-\beta\mathbf{H} - \alpha\mathbf{Q})] = -Q. \end{aligned} \quad (22)$$

From (20) we get

$$\Omega = -\sum_{\vec{p}} \left\{ \ln \left[1 - \exp(-\beta E_p - \alpha) \right] + \ln \left[1 - \exp(-\beta E_p + \alpha) \right] \right\} \quad (23)$$

and from (22)

$$\begin{aligned} U &= \sum_{\vec{p}} E_p \left[\frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p + \alpha) - 1} + \frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p - \alpha) - 1} \right], \\ Q &= \sum_{\vec{p}} \left[\frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p + \alpha) - 1} - \frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p - \alpha) - 1} \right]. \end{aligned} \quad (24)$$

(c) Prove that the entropy (with $k_B = 1$) is given by

$$S = -\text{Tr}(\rho \ln \rho) = \Omega + \beta U + \alpha Q \quad (25)$$

Solution:

$$S = -\text{Tr}[\rho(-\ln Z - \beta \mathbf{H} - \alpha \mathbf{Q})] = \Omega + \beta U + \alpha Q. \quad (26)$$

(d) Prove that the total differential of S is given by

$$dS = \beta dU + dV \partial_V \Omega(\beta, V, \alpha) + \alpha dQ. \quad (27)$$

Solution

$$\begin{aligned} dS &= d\Omega + d\beta U + \beta dU + d\alpha Q + \alpha dQ \\ &= d\beta \partial_\beta \Omega + dV \partial_V \Omega + d\alpha \partial_\alpha \Omega + d\beta U + \beta dU + d\alpha Q + \alpha dQ \\ &= -d\beta U + dV \partial_V \Omega - d\alpha Q + d\beta U + \beta dU + d\alpha Q + \alpha dQ \\ &= \beta dU + dV \partial_V \Omega + \alpha dQ. \end{aligned} \quad (28)$$

(e) Identify the quantities β , $\partial_V \Omega$, and α with the usual thermodynamic variables by comparing

$$dU = T dS - p dV + \mu dQ. \quad (29)$$

Solution: Solving (27) for dU gives

$$dU = \frac{1}{\beta}(dS - dV \partial_V \Omega - \alpha dQ) \Rightarrow T = \frac{1}{\beta}, \quad p = \frac{1}{\beta} \partial_V \Omega, \quad \mu = -\frac{\alpha}{\beta}. \quad (30)$$

(f) Calculate the pressure. NB: Of course, you can't calculate the sums over \vec{p} in closed form!

Solution: The dependence of Ω on V is due to the dependence of E_p on V :

$$\partial_V E_p = \partial_V \vec{p} \cdot \vec{\nabla}_p E_p. \quad (31)$$

Since $\vec{p} = 2\pi \vec{n} V^{-1/3}$ with $\vec{n} \in \mathbb{Z}^3$

$$\partial_V \vec{p} = -\frac{1}{3} V^{-4/3} 2\pi \vec{n} = -\frac{V}{3} \vec{p} \Rightarrow \partial_V E_p = -\frac{1}{3V} \frac{\vec{p}^2}{E_p}. \quad (32)$$

From this we get, using again (23)

$$P = \frac{1}{\beta} \partial_V \Omega = \frac{1}{3V} \sum_{\vec{p}} \frac{\vec{p}^2}{E_p} \left[\frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p + \alpha) - 1} + \frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p - \alpha) - 1} \right]. \quad (33)$$

We note that from (26) we get

$$\Omega = S - \beta U - \alpha Q, \quad (34)$$

which tells us that the somewhat unusual thermodynamic potential Ω is a Legendre transform of the entropy and thus known as a **Massieu function**. As shown above, it is pretty convenient to directly get the internal energy $U = \langle \mathbf{H} \rangle$ and conserved charge $Q = \langle \mathbf{Q} \rangle$ (net-particle number). The only drawback is that it is not so convenient to derive the zero-temperature limit, but this can be remedied by just setting $\alpha = -\beta \mu$ and then, after taking the thermodynamic limit, i.e., the infinite-volume limit $V \rightarrow \infty$ at some fixed finite inverse temperature β and then the limit $T \rightarrow 0^+$ at fixed charge density $q = Q/V$. This we shall do below, when discussing the additional puzzle problems.

A more common thermodynamical potential, closely related to the Massieu function $\Omega = \Omega(\beta, V, \alpha)$ is the **grand (canonical) potential** or **Landau potential**

$$\Phi(T, V, \mu) = -T\Omega(1/T, V, -\mu\beta) = U - TS - \mu N \quad (35)$$

Then

$$d\Phi = \underbrace{TdS - pdV + \mu dN}_{dU} - TdS - SdT - \mu dN - Nd\mu = -SdT - pdV - Nd\mu. \quad (36)$$

So the “natural independent thermodynamical variables” for the grand potential Φ are indeed T , V , and μ , and we get from the total differential (36)

$$S = -\partial_T \Phi(T, V, \mu), \quad p = -\partial_V \Phi(T, V, \mu), \quad N = -\partial_\mu \Phi(T, V, \mu). \quad (37)$$

Extra (pretty hard!) puzzles:

- Take the “thermodynamic limit”, i.e., $V \rightarrow \infty$. Consider without restriction of generality the case $\mu > 0$ (and thus $Q > 0$). Consider the limit at fixed $\beta = 1/T$ and be aware that you need to treat the contribution from the single-particle ground state $\vec{p} = 0$ separately. Show that taking the naive prescription

$$\sum_{\vec{p}} \xrightarrow{V \rightarrow \infty} V \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \quad (38)$$

provides only the contributions to the thermodynamic quantities for the “excited states” $\vec{p} \neq 0$ in the finite-box description.

Solution: We start again with the Massieu function Ω , which at finite β is most convenient to derive U and Q . The naive infinite-Volume limit with the substitution (38) of (23) reads

$$\Omega_{\text{exc}} = -V \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \left\{ \ln \left[1 - \exp(-\beta E_p - \alpha) \right] + \ln \left[1 - \exp(-\beta E_p + \alpha) \right] \right\}. \quad (39)$$

Let us now consider the limiting case, $\mu = -\alpha T \rightarrow +m$ at fixed finite β . In the box-regularized version (23) this would make Ω divergent because of the contribution from the single-particle ground state $\vec{p} = 0$. This means for fixed temperature (no matter how small it might be!) you can always find a chemical potential μ to accomodate any net-particle number N . Now the corresponding contribution in (39) comes from the first term in the integrand, but now for $\vec{p} \rightarrow 0$ this part of the integrand is proportional to¹

$$p^2 \ln \left[1 - \exp[-\beta(E_p - \mu)] \right] \simeq p^2 \ln \left[\beta(m - \mu + p^2/(2m)) \right], \quad (40)$$

where we expanded the exponential function for $\beta(E_p - \mu) \ll 1$. Setting now $\mu = m$ we get

$$p^2 \ln \left[1 - \exp[-\beta(E_p - \mu)] \right] \simeq p^2 \ln \left[\beta p^2 / (2m) \right] \xrightarrow{p \rightarrow 0} 0 \quad (41)$$

i.e., in the limit $\mu \rightarrow m$ the contribution from the ground-state, i.e., in the infinite-volume limit from some region of small momenta is not contained in the naive substitution (39), i.e., it gives only the contribution from the single-particle excited states in this limit. That’s why we labeled this contribution as Ω_{exc} .

The same analysis holds, of course for the antiparticle contribution, which become relevant for $T \rightarrow 0$ for negative $\mu \rightarrow -m$.

¹Because the integrand depends only on $p = |\vec{p}|$, we can introduce spherical coordinates and take the trivial integral over the angles, leading to $d^3 \vec{p} \rightarrow 4\pi p^2 dp$.

The full Massieu function thus is

$$\begin{aligned}\Omega = \Omega_0 + \Omega_{\text{exc}} = & -\ln[1 - \exp[-\beta(m - \mu)]] - \ln[1 - \exp[-\beta(m + \mu)]] \\ & - V \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \left\{ \ln[1 - \exp[-\beta(E_p - \mu)]] + \ln[1 - \exp[-\beta(E_p + \mu)]] \right\}\end{aligned}\quad (42)$$

- The infinite-volume limit has to be taken such that the charge density $q = Q/V$ is kept fixed.
- In the so established “thermodynamic limit”. Discuss that for $T \rightarrow 0^+$ keeping the total charge density fixed, you always get Bose-Einstein condensation, i.e., all particles occupy the single-particle ground state. Which limit is implied for μ for $T \rightarrow 0$?
- How is the critical temperature determined, i.e., what is the temperature T_c such that a finite density of particles occupying the single-particle ground state $q_0 \neq 0$ is necessary for $T < T_c$. **Solution:** From (22) we get from (43)

$$\begin{aligned}q = -\frac{1}{V} \partial_\alpha \Omega = & \frac{1}{V} \frac{1}{\exp(\beta m + \alpha) - 1} - \frac{1}{V} \frac{1}{\exp(\beta m - \alpha) - 1} \\ & + \underbrace{\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \left[\frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p + \alpha) - 1} - \frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p - \alpha) - 1} \right]}_{q_{\text{exc}}}\end{aligned}\quad (43)$$

Now for a given fixed temperature $T = 1/\beta$ and charge density $q > 0$ ² there are two possibilities

- (1) We can find an $\alpha = -\beta\mu$ with $\mu \in [0, m]$ such that $q = q_{\text{exc}}$. Then taking $V \rightarrow \infty$ we simply have

$$q = q_{\text{exc}} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \left[\frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p + \alpha) - 1} - \frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p - \alpha) - 1} \right].\quad (44)$$

- (2) For a given temperature we get the maximal possible value for $q_{\text{exc}} > 0$ by setting $\mu = m$, i.e.,

$$q_{\text{exc}}^{(\text{max})} = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \left[\frac{1}{\exp[\beta(E_p - m)] - 1} - \frac{1}{\exp[\beta(E_p + m) - 1]} \right].\quad (45)$$

Since this vanishes in the limit $T \rightarrow 0^+$, i.e., $\beta \rightarrow \infty$, inevitably for a given q there is some T_{crit} at which $q = q_{\text{exc}}^{(\text{max})}$. For all $0 < T < T_{\text{crit}}$ one then has $q > q_{\text{exc}}^{(\text{max})}$, and thus there must be a non-vanishing contribution $q_0 = q - q_{\text{exc}}^{(\text{max})}$ from a macroscopic number of particles all occupying the single-particle ground state. According to (43) this contribution is (still at a finite volume, V and $0 \leq \mu < m$!)

$$q_0 = \frac{1}{V} \frac{1}{\exp[\beta(m - \mu)] - 1}\quad (46)$$

In this case this means we have to take infinite-volume limit such that the chemical potential becomes volume dependent to enforce

$$\lim_{V \rightarrow \infty} \mu(V) = m\quad (47)$$

such that

$$q_0 = q - q_{\text{exc}}^{(\text{max})} = \lim_{V \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{V} \frac{1}{\exp[\beta(m - \mu)] - 1}.\quad (48)$$

²for $q < 0$ the analysis is completely analogous. One simply has to consider μ_0 .

This phenomenon is known as **Bose-Einstein condensation** and was predicted by Einstein in 1924 [Ein24, Ein25]. This is an example for a **phase transition**. The order parameter is the density in the single-particle ground state, q_0 , i.e., in the normal phase (case (1)) we have $q_0 = 0$. In the Bose-Einstein condensate (BEC) phase (case (2)) $q_0 \neq 0$. One also says the gas is in a **degenerate state**, i.e., its behavior drastically changes compared to the usual experience with dilute gases at not too low temperatures, where the gas is described by classical statistics, i.e., by a **Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution**. If the gas is dilute, then $\exp[\beta(E_p - \mu)] \gg 1$, and one can neglect the (-1) in the denominator of the Bose-Einstein distribution function,

$$f_B(E) = \frac{1}{\exp[\beta(E - \mu)] - 1} \simeq \exp[-\beta(E - \mu)] \quad (49)$$

In the relativistic context, where the relativistic energy-momentum relation $E = \sqrt{\vec{p}^2 + m^2}$ is used instead of the Newtonian one, $E = \vec{p}^2/(2m)$, one also calls it the **Maxwell-Jüttner distribution** [Jüt11].

Now we can consider the limit $T \rightarrow 0^+$. In this limit all gas particles occupy the single-particle ground state, i.e., to take the limit $T \rightarrow 0$ we first have to take the thermodynamic limit $V \rightarrow \infty$ as discussed above and then the zero-temperature limit $T \rightarrow 0^+$, i.e., $\beta \rightarrow \infty$.

Now we look at the zero-temperature limit of the various thermodynamic quantities. Particularly simple is the density, which simply is $q_0 = q$, $q_{\text{exc}} = 0$, by the very construction of these limits described above.

The **energy density** in the thermodynamic limit is given by (24)

$$u = \frac{U}{V} = u_0 + u_{\text{exc}} = \frac{m}{V} \left[\frac{1}{\exp[\beta(m - \mu)] - 1} + \frac{1}{\exp[\beta(E_p + \mu)] - 1} \right] + \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} E_p \left[\frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p + \alpha) - 1} + \frac{1}{\exp(\beta E_p - \alpha) - 1} \right] \quad (50)$$

For the same reason discussed above for the Massieu function the above integral u_{exc} is convergent for all $\mu \in [-m, m]$ and vanishes in the limit $T \rightarrow 0^+$, and the same arguments as for the Massieu function applies here too, i.e., for $T > T_c$ the condensate contribution vanishes and the energy density $u = u_{\text{exc}}$. With our detailed analysis above also the case $T < T_c$, when Bose-Einstein condensation occurs, it is easy to see that

$$u_0 = m q_0. \quad (51)$$

This is also intuitively clear: each boson “condensed” in the single-particle ground state, $\vec{p} = 0$, contributes its rest energy $m(c^2)$ to the internal energy (density). That’s different from the non-relativistic case, where one counts only the kinetic energy $\vec{p}^2/(2m)$, i.e., the condensate does not contribute to the energy in that case.

Particularly simple is the pressure. Here a glance at (33) shows that at any temperature and particle density the ground-state contribution from the $\vec{p} = 0$ modes vanishes, and the pressure thus is only due to the contribution from the excited single-particle states, i.e.,

$$P = P_{\text{exc}} = \frac{1}{3} \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \frac{d^3 \vec{p}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{\vec{p}^2}{E_p} \left[\frac{1}{\exp[\beta(E_p - \mu)] - 1} + \frac{1}{\exp[\beta(E_p + \mu)] - 1} \right]. \quad (52)$$

For $T \rightarrow 0^+$ the pressure vanishes, as to be expected since then all particles are in the BEC.

Finally we address the **entropy**. Particularly for the entropy it’s crucial to *first* take the infinite-volume limit. Here only the condensate contribution is non-trivial. The contribution from the excited states is

given by the naive sum-to-integral prescription, i.e., for the corresponding contribution to the entropy density,

$$s_{\text{exc}} = \Omega_{\text{exc}} + \beta u_{\text{exc}} + \mu q_{\text{exc}} \quad (53)$$

The limit $T \rightarrow 0^+$, i.e., $\beta \rightarrow \infty$ is unproblematic, even for the 2nd term, because the Bose distribution goes exponentially to 0 compensating the explicit factor β .

Now we have to consider the infinite-volume limit for the condensate contribution to the entropy density (again at fixed temperature $T > 0$)

$$s_0 = \frac{1}{V} \Omega_0 + \beta u_0 - \beta \mu q_0 \quad (54)$$

For the last two contributions the infinite-volume limit is simple. We have to make $\mu \rightarrow \mu(V)$ as discussed above, and $\mu(V) \rightarrow m$ for $V \rightarrow \infty$ and according to (51) $u_0 = q_0 m$, so that this contribution vanishes in the infinite-volume limit. So only the first term is left, and we need to consider only the contribution from the particles,

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{V} \Omega_0 &= -\frac{1}{V} \ln [1 - \exp[-\beta(m - \mu)]] \\ &= -\frac{1}{V} \ln \{ \exp[-\beta(m - \mu)] [\exp[\beta(m - \mu)] - 1] \} \\ &= \frac{\beta(m - \mu)}{V} + \frac{1}{V} \ln(q_0 V) \xrightarrow{V \rightarrow \infty} 0. \end{aligned} \quad (55)$$

So the contribution of the condensate to the entropy density vanishes in the infinite-volume limit, and we have simply $s = s_{\text{exc}}$ for $T > 0$, no matter whether in the normal or the BEC phase. For $T \rightarrow 0^+$ also this contribution vanishes. Thus in accordance with Nernst's Third Law of Thermodynamics, in the zero-temperature limit the entropy vanishes. This is also clear by counting the microstates for $T \rightarrow 0^+$. Since then all gas particles are in the single-particle ground state, i.e., the ground state is simply the pure Fock state $|N_a(\vec{p} = 0) = Q\rangle$, but a pure state means "complete information" about the quantum state of the gas, and thus $S = 0$ for this state.

References

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