

# 1 Integrals

**Bose and Fermi:**

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x}{e^x - 1} = \frac{\pi^2}{6} \quad (1)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^2}{e^x - 1} = 2\zeta(3) \simeq 2.404 \quad (2)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} = \frac{\pi^4}{15} \quad (3)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^4}{e^x - 1} = 24\zeta(5) \simeq 24.88 \quad (4)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^5}{e^x - 1} = \frac{8\pi^6}{63} \quad (5)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x}{e^x + 1} = \frac{\pi^2}{12} \quad (6)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^2}{e^x + 1} = \frac{3}{2}\zeta(3) \simeq 1.80309 \quad (7)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^3}{e^x + 1} = \frac{7\pi^4}{120} \quad (8)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^4}{e^x + 1} = \frac{45}{2}\zeta(5) \simeq 23.33 \quad (9)$$

$$\int_0^\infty dx \frac{x^5}{e^x + 1} = \frac{31\pi^6}{252} \quad (10)$$

**Gamma Function:**

$$\Gamma(z) \equiv \int_0^\infty x^{z-1} e^{-x} dx \quad (11)$$

with specific results

$$\Gamma(z+1) = z\Gamma(z) \quad \Gamma(n) = (n-1)! \quad \Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi} \quad (12)$$

**Gaussian Integrals:**

$$I_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^\infty dx e^{-x^2/2} x^n \quad (13)$$

with specific results

$$I_0 = 1 \quad I_2 = 0 \quad I_4 = 3 \quad I_6 = 15 \quad (14)$$

## Problem 1. A nucleus as a fermi gas

Large nuclei can be treated as approximately “infinite” in size. This means that density of protons and neutrons within the nucleus approaches a constant, and in first approximation edge effects can be neglected. In the infinite volume limit the material is known as nuclear matter, and the density of the protons and neutrons is known as nuclear matter density.

Treat a nucleus as a ball of radius  $R$  with  $A$  nucleons<sup>1</sup>. The radius of a ball grows with  $A^{1/3}$  as

$$R = (1.3 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}) A^{1/3} \quad (15)$$

Assume that the number of protons and the number of neutrons are equal.

- (a) Compute the density of protons and the density neutrons.
- (b) Show that the Fermi energy of protons is approximately 27 MeV.

Since we have assumed the number of protons and neutrons are equal, the Fermi energy of neutrons is also 27 MeV. In reality the number of neutrons is somewhat larger than the number of protons. Thus, the density of neutrons is higher, and the corresponding Fermi energy is somewhat higher.

- (c) Show that energy per nucleon inside a nucleus is approximately 16 MeV. This is a reasonable estimate for the kinetic energy per volume in a nucleus.

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<sup>1</sup>A nucleon is either a proton or neutron. Oxygen has eight protons and eight neutrons and has  $A = 16$ .

## Solution

(a) We note that  $1 \text{ fm} = 10^{-15} \text{ m}$  is a femptometer, which is a common distance in nuclear physics. The density of protons and neutron is

$$n_p = n_n = \frac{A/2}{\frac{4}{3}\pi R^3} = \frac{3}{8\pi} \frac{1}{1.3^3} \frac{1}{(\text{fm})^3} = 0.054 \text{ fm}^{-3} \quad (16)$$

(b) The fermi energy is related to the density. For a system of non-relativistic fermions with  $g = 2$  (spin up and spin down) we have

$$\epsilon_F = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (3\pi^2 n)^{2/3} \quad (17)$$

Lets evaluate a typical energy scale for a distance of  $r_0 = 1 \text{ fm}$ .

$$\frac{\hbar^2}{2mr_0^2} = \frac{(\hbar c)^2}{2(m_p c^2)r_0} = 20.7 \text{ MeV} \quad (18)$$

We used  $\hbar c = 197 \text{ MeV fm}$  and note that  $m_p c^2 = 938 \text{ MeV}$ . This  $\hbar^2/(2mr_0^2)$  sets an energy scale for nuclear physics. Then

$$\epsilon_F = 20.7 \text{ MeV} (3\pi^2 r_0^3/V)^{2/3} = 20.7 \text{ MeV} \times 1.3724 \simeq 28 \text{ MeV} \quad (19)$$

This is a little larger than the quoted result, but good enough to 4% accuracty.

(c) Then from class we have

$$\frac{U}{N} = \frac{3}{5} \epsilon_F \simeq 16.8 \text{ MeV} \quad (20)$$

## Problem 2. (Optional) 2D Fermi gas

Consider a fermi gas of electrons in two dimensions.

- (a) Show that the fermi momentum is

$$p_F = \hbar\sqrt{2\pi n} \quad (21)$$

- (b) Show that the mean value of the debroglie wavelength divided by  $2\pi$ , i.e.  $\lambda \equiv \hbar/p$ , is

$$\langle \lambda \rangle = \frac{2\hbar}{p_F} \quad (22)$$

## Solution

(a) In two dimensions we have

$$N = \sum_{\text{modes}} n_{FD}(\epsilon) = 2A \int_0^{p_F = \sqrt{2m\mu_0}} \frac{d^2p}{(2\pi\hbar)^2} \times 1 \quad (23)$$

We used that the Fermi-Dirac distribution  $n_{FD}(\epsilon)$  is unity up to a maximum energy  $\epsilon_F$  determined by the chemical potential. Above this energy distribution vanishes. We have

$$\epsilon_F = \frac{p_F^2}{2m} = \mu_0 \quad (24)$$

The integral is just that of a disk of radius  $p_F$

$$N = \frac{A}{\pi^2} \pi \frac{p_F^2}{\hbar^2} \quad (25)$$

So solving for  $p_F$  in terms of the density we have

$$p_F = \hbar \sqrt{\pi(N/A)} \quad (26)$$

We also note that the chemical potential is related to the density via:

$$\mu_0 = \frac{p_F^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \pi (N/A) \quad (27)$$

as claimed

(b) The average deBroglie wavelength is

$$\langle \lambda \rangle = \frac{\sum_{\text{modes}} n_{FD}(\epsilon) \frac{\hbar}{p}}{\sum_{\text{modes}} n_{FD}(\epsilon)} \quad (28)$$

Converting the sum to an integral, and noting that all constants cancel between the numerator and denominator, we find:

$$\langle \lambda \rangle = \frac{\int_0^{p_F} p dp \left( \frac{\hbar}{p} \right)}{\int_0^{p_F} p dp} = \frac{\hbar p_F}{\frac{1}{2} p_F^2} = \frac{2\hbar}{p_F} = \left( \frac{2}{\pi n} \right)^{1/2} \quad (29)$$

Thus  $\lambda$  is the same order of magnitude as the interparticle spacing  $\ell_0 = (A/N)^{1/2}$ .

$$\langle \lambda \rangle \simeq 0.8 \ell_0 \quad (30)$$

### Problem 3. Relativistic Degenerate Electron Gas

Consider an ultra-relativistic degenerate electron gas where  $\epsilon \simeq cp$ , and the electron mass can be neglected.

- (a) Show that the Fermi Energy is related density by

$$\epsilon_F = \hbar c (3\pi^2 n)^{1/3} \quad (31)$$

where  $n = N/V$ .

- (b) Compute the Fermi momentum  $p_F$ . Define the Fermi wavelength,  $\lambda_F \equiv \hbar/p_F$ . Explain qualitatively the dependence of  $\lambda_F$  on the density  $n = N/V$ .
- (c) Show that the total energy of the gas is

$$U = \frac{3}{4} N \epsilon_F \quad (32)$$

- (d) Show that the pressure of the the gas is

$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{U}{V} \quad (33)$$

and determine its dependence on density  $n = N/V$ . Compare your result to a classical ideal gas where  $\mathcal{P} \propto n$  and a non-relativistic degenerate Fermi gas where  $\mathcal{P} \propto n^{5/3}$

## Solution

(a) We have to integrate

$$N = \sum_{\text{modes}} n_{FD}(\epsilon) \quad (34)$$

The fermi dirac distribution is unity until  $\epsilon = \mu$  or when  $cp = \mu$ . It is zero beyond this point

$$N = 2V \int_0^{p_F} \frac{4\pi p^2 dp}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} = \frac{V}{3\pi^2} \left(\frac{p_F}{\hbar}\right)^3 \quad (35)$$

where  $p_F = \mu/c = \epsilon_F/c$ . So the density is related to fermi-momentum

$$n = \frac{1}{3\pi^2} \left(\frac{p_F}{\hbar}\right)^3 \quad (36)$$

Solving for  $\epsilon_F$  we find

$$\epsilon_F = \hbar c (3\pi^2 n)^{1/3} \quad (37)$$

(b) We find

$$p_F = \frac{\epsilon_F}{c} \quad (38)$$

and

$$\lambda_F = \frac{\hbar}{p_F} = \left(3\pi^2 \frac{N}{V}\right)^{1/3} = 0.32 \ell_0 \quad (39)$$

where we have defined the spacing between particles  $\ell_0 = (V/N)^{1/3}$ . So we see that in the degenerate regime the de Broglie wavelength is the same size as the interparticle spacing.

(c) We find the the energy

$$U = 2V \int_0^{p_F} \frac{d^3 p}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} cp \quad (40)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\pi^2} c \int_0^{p_F} p^3 dp \quad (41)$$

$$= \frac{V}{4\pi^2} cp_F^4 \quad (42)$$

Since  $\epsilon_F = cp_F$  and since the number is given by Eq. (35), we find

$$U = \frac{3}{4} N \epsilon_F \quad (43)$$

(d) We should differentiate the energy since

$$dU = TdS - \mathcal{P}dV + \mu dN \quad (44)$$

and thus

$$\mathcal{P} = - \left( \frac{\partial U}{\partial V} \right)_S \quad (45)$$

The fixed  $S$  part can be dropped since we are at zero temperature. The dependence on volume is hidden in the definition of the  $\epsilon_F \propto (N/V)^{1/3}$ . Unravelling the definitions we have

$$U = \kappa N^{4/3} V^{-1/3} \quad (46)$$

where  $\kappa$  is a constant. Differentiating with respect to volume give

$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{1}{3} \kappa N^{4/3} V^{-4/3} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{\kappa N^{4/3} V^{-1/3}}{V} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{U}{V} \quad (47)$$

We note that

$$\mathcal{P} = \frac{1}{3} \kappa (N/V)^{4/3} \quad (48)$$

So we see that  $p \propto n^{4/3}$ . As we will discuss in class a consequence of this dependence is that white dwarf stars become unstable when they reach the ultrarelativistic regime.



## Problem 4. Inversion of Taylor series

Given a Taylor series of the form

$$y = a_0 + a_1x + a_2x^2 + a_3x^3 + \dots \quad (49)$$

we want to solve for  $x$  as a function of  $y$ .

(a) Show that

$$x \approx \frac{y - a_0}{a_1} \quad (50)$$

And that

$$u = x + \frac{a_2}{a_1}x^2 + \frac{a_3}{a_1}x^3 + \dots \quad (51)$$

where here and below

$$u \equiv \frac{y - a_0}{a_1} \quad (52)$$

Note: if  $x$  is close to zero, then  $y$  is close to  $a_0$ , and  $u$  is close to zero.  $x$  and  $u$  are the same order magnitude<sup>2</sup>.

(b) Show more generally that

$$x \simeq u - \left(\frac{a_2}{a_1}\right)u^2 \quad (53)$$

Hint: Assume a Taylor series

$$x = u + C_2u^2 + \mathcal{O}(u^3) \quad (54)$$

and substitute into Eq. (51) consistently keeping terms of order  $u^2$  and discarding terms of order  $u^3$  and higher. Then solve for  $C_2$  by demanding that the coefficient of  $u^2$  on the RHS of Eq. (51) vanishes as is required by the LHS of this equation.

**Remark:** The first term is very easy to obtain and is the most important in practice. Without approximation we have

$$u = x + \frac{a_2}{a_1}x^2 + \dots \quad (55)$$

Since  $x$  is almost  $u$  in a first approximation we can replace the  $x^2$  with  $u^2$  up to higher corrections

$$u \simeq x + \frac{a_2}{a_1}u^2 \quad (56)$$

(c) Use the methodology outlined above, especially the remark, to find an approximate expression for  $x$  as a function of  $y$ .

(i) Suppose that

$$y = \tan(x) \simeq x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \frac{2}{15}x^5 \quad (57)$$

Find  $x$  vs.  $y$  to order  $y^3$ . Assume that  $x$  is close to zero and include the first term beyond the leading term.

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<sup>2</sup>We say that they are of the same order.

(ii) Consider

$$y = \cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} \quad (58)$$

Find  $x$  as a function of  $y$ .

*Hint:* If  $x$  is small then  $y \simeq 1$ . So, define a variable  $u \equiv (1 - y)$ , which is of order  $x^2$  at leading order. Start by finding  $x^2$  vs.  $u$ . Then by taking a square root show that

$$x \simeq \sqrt{2u} \left( 1 + \frac{u}{12} + O(u^2) \right) \quad (59)$$

(d) Show more generally that if  $y$  is given by the series expansion in Eq. (51) that

$$x = u - \left( \frac{a_2}{a_1} \right) u^2 + \left( 2 \left( \frac{a_2}{a_1} \right)^3 - \left( \frac{a_3}{a_1} \right) \right) u^3 + \dots \quad (60)$$

where  $u \equiv (y - a_0)/a_1$ .

(e) The following comes up when analyzing a fermi gas at small temperatures (see Eq. 30.39 and Eq. 30.40 of Blundell). At *large*  $x$  we have a series expansion expressing  $y$  as a function of  $x$

$$y = x^{3/2} \left[ 1 + C_1 \frac{1}{x} + \dots \right] \quad (61)$$

Show that  $x$  as a function of  $y$  reads

$$x = y^{2/3} \left[ 1 - \frac{2}{3} C_1 \frac{1}{y^{2/3}} + \dots \right] \quad (62)$$

In this case  $x$  is of order  $y^{2/3}$ , or equivalently,  $y$  is of order  $x^{3/2}$ .

*Hint:* Define a variable  $u \equiv y^{2/3}$  as motivated by the leading result, and then solve for  $x$  vs  $u$ . Note  $u$  and  $x$  are both large and the same order of magnitude.

**Solution:**

(a) This is clear

$$y \simeq a_0 + a_1 x \quad (1)$$

so

$$x \simeq \frac{y - a_0}{a_1} \equiv u \quad (2)$$

(b) (We will also answer part *d*.) We have

$$y = a_0 + a_1 x + a_2 x^2 + a_3 x^3 + \dots \quad (3)$$

So solving for  $x$  from the leading term

$$x = u - \frac{a_2}{a_1} x^2 - \frac{a_3}{a_1} x^3 + \dots \quad (4)$$

Since  $x \simeq u$  to lowest order we have

$$x = u - \frac{a_2}{a_1} u^2 + \mathcal{O}(u^3) \quad (5)$$

For a more general solution see part (d)

(c) (i) The

$$y = \tan(x) = x + \frac{x^3}{3} + \mathcal{O}(x^5) \quad (6)$$

So since  $x \simeq y$  we have at lowest order

$$y \simeq x - \frac{y^3}{3} \quad (7)$$

Thus

$$x = \tan^{-1}(y) \simeq y + \frac{y^3}{3} \quad (8)$$

A more formal procedure (which gives all higher orders) is given in part (d).

(ii) We have

$$y = \cos(x) = 1 - \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{x^4}{4!} \quad (9)$$

At lowest order we have

$$y = 1 \quad (10)$$

Then there are correction of order  $\mathcal{O}(x^2) \sim \mathcal{O}(1 - y)$  as can be seen from the subleading terms in the expansion. Writing

$$x^2 = C_0(1 - y) + C_1(1 - y)^2 + \mathcal{O}((1 - y)^3) \quad (11)$$

we have

$$1 - y = \frac{x^2}{2!} - \frac{x^4}{4!} + \mathcal{O}(x^6) \quad (12)$$

Substituting

$$1 - y = \frac{1}{2!} (C_0(1 - y) + C_1(1 - y)^2 + \mathcal{O}((1 - y)^3)) - \frac{1}{4!} (C_0(1 - y) + C_1(1 - y)^2 + \dots)^2 \quad (13)$$

$$= \left[ \frac{1}{2} C_0 \right] (1 - y) + \left[ \frac{1}{2} C_1(1 - y)^2 + \frac{1}{12} C_0^2 \right] (1 - y)^2 + \dots \quad (14)$$

Requiring that the LHS and RHS match at each order in  $(1 - y)$  we find

$$1 = \frac{C_0}{2} \quad (15)$$

$$0 = \frac{C_1}{2} - \frac{1}{12} C_0^2 \quad (16)$$

So solving we find

$$C_0 = 2 \quad C_1 = \frac{1}{3} \quad (17)$$

Then

$$x^2 = 2(1 - y) + \frac{1}{3}(1 - y)^2 + \dots \quad (18)$$

$$= 2(1 - y) \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{6}(1 - y) + \dots \right] \quad (19)$$

Taking a square root we have

$$x = \sqrt{2(1 - y)} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{6}(1 - y) + \dots \right]^{1/2} \quad (20)$$

$$\simeq \sqrt{2(1 - y)} \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{12}(1 - y) + \dots \right] \quad (21)$$

(d) More generally we have solving for  $x$

$$x = u - \frac{a_2}{a_1} x^2 - \frac{a_3}{a_1} x^3 - \frac{a^4}{a_1} x^5 + \dots \quad (22)$$

We try a series

$$x = u + c_2 u^2 + c_3 u^3 + \dots \quad (23)$$

Then substitute into both sides of Eq. (22) we have

$$u + c_2 u^2 + c_3 u^3 + \dots = u - \frac{a_2}{a_1} (u + c_2 u^2 + \dots)^2 + \frac{-a_3}{a_1} (u + c_2 u^2)^3 \quad (24)$$

Collecting all terms to order  $u^3$  inclusive, and neglecting terms of order  $u^4$  we have

$$u + c_2 u^2 + c_3 u^3 + \dots = u - \frac{a_2}{a_1} u^2 + \left( -2 \frac{a_2}{a_1} c_2 - \frac{-a_3}{a_1} \right) u^3 \quad (25)$$

Comparing the quadratic orders we have

$$c_2 u^2 = -\frac{a_2}{a_1} u^2 \quad (26)$$

So

$$c_2 = -\frac{a_2}{a_1} \quad (27)$$

Comparing cubic order  $u^3$

$$c_3 u^3 = \left( -\frac{a_3}{a_1} + 2 \left( \frac{a_2}{a_1} \right)^2 \right) u^3 \quad (28)$$

where we used the lower order relation.

The process can be continued to any order, see [Series Reversion](#)

(e) We have at lowest order

$$x = y^{2/3} \quad (29)$$

There are percent corrections to this result of order  $1/x$  as is clear from the original series.  $1/x$  is of order  $y^{-2/3}$ . So we have

$$x = y^{2/3} \left[ 1 + \frac{B_1}{y^{2/3}} + \dots \right] \quad (30)$$

with  $B_1$  to be determined. We can also determine the expansions for  $1/x$  and  $x^{3/2}$  using this, which read:

$$\frac{1}{x} = y^{-2/3} \left[ 1 - \frac{B_1}{y^{2/3}} + \dots \right] \quad (31)$$

and

$$x^{3/2} = y \left[ 1 + \frac{3}{2} \frac{B_1}{y^{2/3}} + \dots \right] \quad (32)$$

Putting together these ingredients we substitute into the original series:

$$y = y \left[ 1 + \frac{3}{2} \frac{B_1}{y^{2/3}} + \dots \right] \times \left[ 1 + \frac{C_1}{y^{2/3}} + \dots \right] \quad (33)$$

Expanding and collecting terms we have

$$y = y \left[ 1 + \left( \frac{3}{2} B_1 + C_1 \right) \frac{1}{y^{2/3}} + \dots \right] \quad (34)$$

So we find

$$B_1 = -\frac{2}{3} C_1 \quad (35)$$

or

$$x = y^{2/3} \left[ 1 - \frac{2}{3} \frac{C_1}{y^{2/3}} + \dots \right] \quad (36)$$

## Problem 5. Almost Classical Gas

Recall that the Fermi-Dirac distribution is

$$n_{FD} = \frac{1}{e^{\beta(\epsilon(p)-\mu)} + 1} \quad (63)$$

and that the grand potential for one mode is

$$\Phi_G = -k_B T \ln(1 + e^{-\beta(\epsilon(p)-\mu)}) \quad (64)$$

As we discussed in class no two fermions can be in the same quantum state. This leads to a repulsion between fermions, increasing the pressure relative to the classical result. Conversely, two bosons can be in the same quantum state, and this reduces the pressure relative to the classical case.

We will compute this effect quantitatively when the gas is nearly classical. The pressure relative to the ideal gas pressure is shown in Fig. 1

- (a) Recall that in a classical limit it is very unlikely that there will be more one particle in a quantum state and that most quantum states are empty. Qualitatively explain why the classical limit means that

$$e^{-\beta(\epsilon(p)-\mu)} \ll 1. \quad (65)$$

and show that in the classical limit we have

$$n_{FD} = e^{-\beta(\epsilon-\mu)} (1 - e^{-\beta(\epsilon-\mu)} + \dots), \quad (66)$$

$$\Phi_G = -k_B T e^{-\beta(\epsilon-\mu)} (1 - \frac{1}{2} e^{-\beta(\epsilon-\mu)} + \dots), \quad (67)$$

where the second term in each case is the first quantum correction arising from forbidding two particles to be one quantum state.

- (b) For a gas of non-relativistic particles  $\epsilon(p) = p^2/2m$ , start from the Fermi-Dirac distribution and show that the density  $n = N/V$  of these particles in the classical limit is approximately

$$n = e^{\beta\mu} n_Q \left( 1 - \frac{e^{\beta\mu}}{2\sqrt{2}} \right) \quad (68)$$

where<sup>3</sup>  $n_Q = g/\lambda_{th}^3 = g(2\pi mk_B T)^{3/2}/h^3$ .

- (c) Show that the chemical potential is approximately determined by the density via the relation

$$e^{\beta\mu} \simeq \frac{n}{n_Q} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \frac{n}{n_Q} \right) \quad (69)$$

- (d) Write down for the pressure of non-relativistic fermionic particles  $\epsilon(p) = p^2/2m$ , discussed in class. Show that the pressure is

$$pV \simeq k_B T e^{\beta\mu} n_Q \left[ 1 - \frac{e^{\beta\mu}}{4\sqrt{2}} \right] \quad (70)$$

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<sup>3</sup>The factor of  $g = 2$  in this definition of  $n_Q$  accounts for the two spin states.

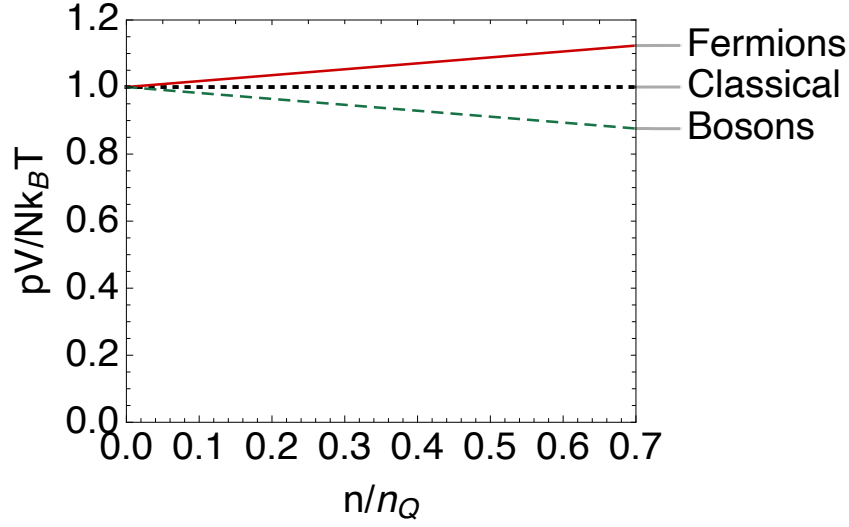


Figure 1: The pressure of a nearly classical gas as a function of density for fermions and bosons.

(e) Show that

$$pV \simeq Nk_B T \left[ 1 + \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}} \frac{n}{n_Q} \right] \quad (71)$$

Thus we have determined the first virial coefficient for an almost classical gas. Qualitatively explain why the first quantum correction increases the classical pressure.

(f) (Optional) Repeat this problem for a gas of Bosons close to the classical limit.

## Solution

(a) In the classical limit we have

$$e^{\beta\mu} = \frac{n}{n_Q} \ll 1 \quad (72)$$

where the “quantum concentration” is

$$n_Q = \frac{1}{\lambda^3} = g \int \frac{d^3p}{(2\pi\hbar)^3} e^{-\beta p^2/2m} = g(2\pi m kT)^{3/2}/h^3 \quad (73)$$

The interparticle spacing is  $n^{1/3} \equiv \ell_0$ , and we must have  $\lambda/\ell_0 \ll 1$  in the classical limit.

The Fermi-Dirac distribution can be written

$$n_{FD}(\epsilon) = \frac{e^{-\beta(\epsilon-\mu)}}{1 + e^{-\beta(\epsilon-\mu)}} = \frac{ze^{-\beta\epsilon}}{1 + ze^{-\beta\epsilon}} \quad (74)$$

Expanding the distribution at small  $z$  we have

$$n_{FD}(\epsilon) = ze^{-\beta\epsilon} (1 - ze^{-\beta\epsilon} + \dots) \quad (75)$$

Similarly we use the series expansion of  $\log(1+x)$

$$\log(1+x) = x - \frac{x^2}{2} + \dots \quad (76)$$

to expand the grand potential

$$\Phi_G = -kT \log(1 - ze^{-\beta\epsilon}) \simeq -kT ze^{-\beta\epsilon} \left(1 - \frac{1}{2}ze^{-\beta\epsilon} + \dots\right) \quad (77)$$

(b) The density is

$$N = g \int \frac{V d^3p}{h^3} n_{FD}(\epsilon) \quad (78)$$

So using Eq. (74) we find

$$n = g \int \frac{d^3p}{h^3} \left( ze^{-\beta p^2/2m} - z^2 e^{-2\beta p^2/2m} + \mathcal{O}(z^3) \right) \quad (79)$$

The integrals are Gaussian which have appeared throughout the course

$$I_0 = g \int \frac{d^3p}{h^3} ze^{-\beta p^2/2m} = n_Q \quad (80)$$

$$I_1 = g \int \frac{d^3p}{h^3} ze^{-2\beta p^2/2m} = \frac{n_Q}{2\sqrt{2}} \quad (81)$$

In the second integral  $I_1$  the argument of the exponential is

$$\exp(2\beta p^2/2m) = \exp(-\beta(p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2)/2(m/2)) \quad (82)$$

Thus  $I_1$  differs from  $I_0$  by the replacement  $m \rightarrow m/2$ . Thus we have

$$n = zn_Q \left(1 - \frac{z}{2\sqrt{2}} + \dots\right) \quad (83)$$



(c) Next we use series inversion. At lowest order  $z = n/n_Q$ . We have

$$\frac{n}{n_Q} = z \left( 1 - \frac{z}{2\sqrt{2}} + \dots \right) \quad (84)$$

Inverting as in the previous problem we have

$$z = \frac{n}{n_Q} \left( 1 + \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \frac{n}{n_Q} + \dots \right) \quad (85)$$

(d) We have  $\Phi_G = -pV$  so

$$pV = g \int \frac{V d^3p}{h^3} kT \ln(1 + ze^{-\beta\epsilon}) \quad (86)$$

Dividing by  $kT$  and using the expansion in previous parts

$$\frac{p}{kT} = g \int \frac{d^3p}{h^3} \left( ze^{-\beta\epsilon} - \frac{z^2}{2} e^{-2\beta\epsilon} + \mathcal{O}(z^3) \right) \quad (87)$$

Using the integrals  $I_0$  and  $I_1$

$$\frac{p}{kT} = zn_Q \left( 1 - \frac{z}{4\sqrt{2}} \right) \quad (88)$$

(e) Using the series expansion given in Eq. (85) we find

$$\frac{p}{kT} = n_Q \left[ \frac{n}{n_Q} \left( 1 + \frac{n}{n_Q} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}} \right) - \left( \frac{n}{n_Q} \right)^2 \frac{n_Q}{4\sqrt{2}} + \mathcal{O}((n/n_Q)^3) \right] \quad (89)$$

$$= n \left[ 1 + \frac{n}{n_Q} \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}} + O \left( \left( \frac{n}{n_Q} \right)^2 \right) \right] \quad (90)$$

(f) The only change is the sign of the correction to the pressure.

$$p = nkT \left[ 1 - \frac{n}{n_Q} \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}} + \mathcal{O} \left( \left( \frac{n}{n_Q} \right)^2 \right) \right] \quad (91)$$