Modern Physics. Phys 222

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Contents

LECTURE 1
Introduction. Geometry.

- Contact info.
- Grading.
- Homeworks (deadlines, collaborations, mistakes, etc.)
- Exams.
- Course content and philosophy. Questions: profound vs. stupid.

What do we know?

- Calculus (derivatives, integrals, partial derivatives, Taylor expansion, integration over a path, Fourier transformation.)
- Linear algebra (vectors, matrices, eigen values, eigen vectors.)
- Complex variables.
- Mechanics.
- Electrodynamics.
- Geometry.

Geometry

- What is the sum of all angles in a triangle? Why?
- What is distance?
- Metric tensor.
- A story of an ant on a sphere. Sum of the angles in a triangle. The number π.

What is a straight line?

- Length of a curve as a functional.
- Functional, variations, Extremum.
- Straight line in Euclidean space in Cartesian coordinates.

LECTURE 2
Mechanics.

- Calculus.
- Home work solutions
- Geometry
  - Metric tensor in polar coordinates $(dl)^2 = (dr)^2 + r^2(d\phi)^2$.
  - Straight line in Euclidean space in Polar coordinates $r = \frac{a}{\cos(\phi-\phi_0)}$.
  - Metric tensor on a sphere $(dl)^2 = R^2(d\theta)^2 + R^2(d\phi)^2 \sin^2\theta$.
  - "Straight" line on a sphere.
  - What is our space?
- Topology.
  - Number of vertices V, edges E, and faces F.
  - $V + F - E$ as invariant.
  - Compute $V + F - E$ for several polyhedral.
  - Continuum limit.
  - $V + F - E$ for torus.
  - $V + F - E = 2 - 2g$
  - A story of an ant.

LECTURE 3
Galilean invariance. Newton laws. Work. Conservative forces.

Mechanics

- Galilean invariance.
- Time reversal.
- Newton laws.
- Work.
- Conservative forces.

LECTURE 4
Conservation laws.

Mechanics

- Galilean invariance in increments.
- Conservative forces. Conservative forces in $1D$.
- Energy.
- Energy conservation. Motion in $1D$.
- Time translation invariance. Energy conservation.
- Translation invariance. Momentum conservation.

LECTURE 5
Homework. Hamiltonian.

- Homeworks.
- Hamiltonian (velocity).

LECTURE 6
Lagrangian. Oscillations. Oscillations with friction.

- Lagrangian.
- Euler-Lagrange equation.

Oscillators

- $$m\ddot{x} = -kx, \qquad ml\ddot{\phi} = -mg\sin\phi \approx -mg\phi, \qquad -L\ddot{Q} = \frac{Q}{C},$$
  All of these equation have the same form
  $$\ddot{x} = -\omega_0^2 x, \qquad \omega_0^2 = \begin{cases} k/m \\ g/l \\ 1/LC \end{cases}, \qquad x(t=0) = x_0, \quad v(t=0) = v_0.$$
- The solution
  $$x(t) = A\sin(\omega t) + B\cos(\omega t) = C\sin(\omega t + \phi), \qquad B = x_0, \qquad \omega A = v_0.$$
- Oscillates forever: $C = \sqrt{A^2 + B^2}$ — amplitude; $\phi = \tan^{-1}(A/B)$ — phase.

LECTURE 7
Oscillations with friction.

7.1. Euler formula

$$e^{i\phi} = \cos(\phi) + i\sin(\phi).$$

which also mean

$$\cos(\phi) = \frac{e^{i\phi} + e^{-i\phi}}{2}, \qquad \sin(\phi) = \frac{e^{i\phi} - e^{-i\phi}}{2i}$$

and

$$e^{i\pi} = -1.$$

7.2. Oscillations with friction.

- Oscillations with friction:

$$m\ddot{x} = -kx - 2\gamma\dot{x}, \qquad -L\ddot{Q} = \frac{Q}{C} + R\dot{Q},$$

- The sign of γ.
- Consider

$$\ddot{x} = -\omega_0^2 x - 2\gamma\dot{x}, \qquad x(t=0) = x_0, \quad v(t=0) = v_0.$$

This is a linear equation with constant coefficients. We look for the solution in the form $x = \Re C e^{i\omega t}$, where ω and C are complex constants.

$$\omega^2 - 2i\gamma\omega - \omega_0^2 = 0, \qquad \omega = i\gamma \pm \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}$$

- Two solutions, two independent constants.
- Two cases: $\gamma < \omega_0$ and $\gamma > \omega_0$.
- In the first case (underdamping):

$$x = e^{-\gamma t}\Re\left[C_1 e^{i\Omega t} + C_2 e^{-i\Omega t}\right] = Ce^{-\gamma t}\sin\left(\Omega t + \phi\right), \qquad \Omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}$$

Decaying oscillations. Shifted frequency.

- In the second case (overdamping):

$$x = Ae^{-\Gamma_- t} + Be^{-\Gamma_+ t}, \qquad \Gamma_\pm = \gamma \pm \sqrt{\gamma^2 - \omega_0^2} > 0$$

- For the initial conditions $x(t=0)=x_0$ and $v(t=0)=0$ we find $A = x_0\frac{\Gamma_+}{\Gamma_+-\Gamma_-}$, $B=-x_0\frac{\Gamma_-}{\Gamma_+-\Gamma_-}$. For $t\to\infty$ the B term can be dropped as $\Gamma_+>\Gamma_-$, then $x(t)\approx x_0\frac{\Gamma_+}{\Gamma_+-\Gamma_-}e^{-\Gamma_- t}$.
- At $\gamma\to\infty$, $\Gamma_-\to\frac{\omega_0^2}{2\gamma}\to 0$. The motion is arrested. The example is an oscillator in honey.

7.3. Comments on dissipation.

- Time reversibility. A need for a large subsystem.
- Locality in time.

LECTURE 8
Oscillations with external force. Resonance.

8.1. Resonance

- Let's add an external force:
$$\ddot{x} + 2\gamma\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = f(t), \qquad x(t=0) = x_0, \quad v(t=0) = v_0.$$
- The full solution is the sum of the solution of the homogeneous equation with any solution of the inhomogeneous one. This full solution will depend on two arbitrary constants. These constants are determined by the initial conditions.
- Let's assume, that $f(t)$ is not decaying with time. The solution of the inhomogeneous equation also will not decay in time, while any solution of the homogeneous equation will decay. So in a long time $t \gg 1/\gamma$ The solution of the homogeneous equation can be neglected. In particular this means that the asymptotic of the solution does not depend on the initial conditions.
- Let's now assume that the force $f(t)$ is periodic. with some period. It then can be represented by a Fourier series. As the equation is linear the solution will also be a series, where each term corresponds to a force with a single frequency. So we need to solve
$$\ddot{x} + 2\gamma\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = f\sin(\Omega_f t),$$
where f is the force's amplitude.
- Let's look at the solution in the form $x = f\Im C e^{i\Omega_f t}$, and use $\sin(\Omega_f t) = \Im e^{i\Omega_f t}$. We then get
$$C = \frac{1}{\omega_0^2 - \Omega_f^2 + 2i\gamma\Omega_f} = |C|e^{-i\phi},$$
$$|C| = \frac{1}{\left[(\Omega_f^2 - \omega_0^2)^2 + 4\gamma^2\Omega_f^2\right]^{1/2}}, \qquad \tan\phi = \frac{2\gamma\Omega_f}{\omega_0^2 - \Omega_f^2}$$
$$x(t) = f\Im|C|e^{i\Omega_f t + i\phi} = f|C|\sin\left(\Omega_f t - \phi\right),$$
- Resonance frequency:
$$\Omega_f^r = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - 2\gamma^2} = \sqrt{\Omega^2 - \gamma^2},$$
where $\Omega = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}$ is the frequency of the damped oscillator.

- Phase changes sign at $\Omega_f^\phi = \omega_0 > \Omega_f^r$. Importance of the phase – phase shift.
- To analyze resonant response we analyze $|C|^2$.
- The most interesting case $\gamma \ll \omega_0$, then the response $|C|^2$ has a very sharp peak at $\Omega_f \approx \omega_0$:

$$|C|^2 = \frac{1}{(\Omega_f^2 - \omega_0^2)^2 + 4\gamma^2\Omega_f^2} \approx \frac{1}{4\omega_0^2}\frac{1}{(\Omega_f - \omega_0)^2 + \gamma^2},$$

so that the peak is very symmetric.
- $|C|^2_{\max} \approx \frac{1}{4\gamma^2\omega_0^2}$.
- to find HWHM we need to solve $(\Omega_f - \omega_0)^2 + \gamma^2 = 2\gamma^2$, so HWHM $= \gamma$, and FWHM $= 2\gamma$.
- Q factor (quality factor). The good measure of the quality of an oscillator is $Q = \omega_0/\text{FWHM} = \omega_0/2\gamma$. (decay time) $= 1/\gamma$, period $= 2\pi/\omega_0$, so $Q = \pi\frac{\text{decay time}}{\text{period}}$.
- For a grandfather's wall clock $Q \approx 100$, for the quartz watch $Q \sim 10^4$.

8.2. Response.

- Response. The main quantity of interest. What is "property"?
- The equation

$$\ddot{x} + 2\gamma\dot{x} + \omega_0^2 x = f(t).$$

The LHS is time translation invariant!
- Multiply by $e^{i\omega t}$ and integrate over time. Denote

$$x_\omega = \int x(t)e^{i\omega t}dt.$$

Then we have

$$\left(-\omega^2 - 2i\gamma\omega + \omega_0^2\right)x_\omega = \int f(t)e^{i\omega t}dt, \qquad x_\omega = -\frac{\int f(t')e^{i\omega t'}dt'}{\omega^2 + 2i\gamma\omega - \omega_0^2}$$

- The inverse Fourier transform gives

$$x(t) = \int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi}e^{-i\omega t}x_\omega = -\int f(t')dt' \int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi}\frac{e^{-i\omega(t-t')}}{\omega^2 + 2i\gamma\omega - \omega_0^2} = \int \chi(t-t')f(t')dt'.$$

- Where the response function is ($\gamma < \omega_0$)

$$\chi(t) = -\int \frac{d\omega}{2\pi}\frac{e^{-i\omega t}}{\omega^2 + 2i\gamma\omega - \omega_0^2} = \begin{cases} e^{-\gamma t}\frac{\sin(t\sqrt{\omega_0^2-\gamma^2})}{\sqrt{\omega_0^2-\gamma^2}} & , \quad t > 0 \\ 0 & , \quad t < 0 \end{cases}, \qquad \omega_\pm = -i\gamma \pm \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - \gamma^2}$$

- Causality principle. Poles in the lower half of the complex ω plane. True for any (linear) response function. The importance of $\gamma > 0$ condition.

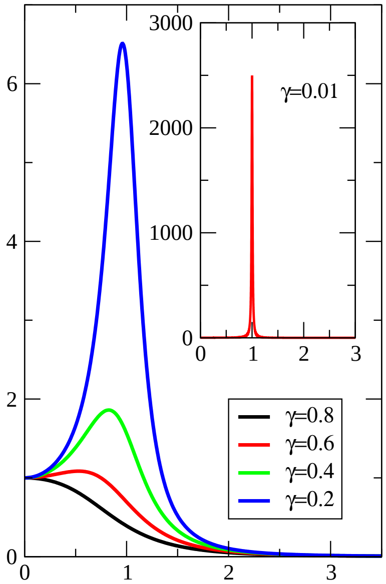

Figure 1. Resonant response. For insert $Q = 50$.

LECTURE 9
Spontaneous symmetry braking.

9.1. Spontaneous symmetry braking.

A bead on a vertical rotating hoop.

- Lagrangian.

$$L = \frac{m}{2}R^2\dot{\theta}^2 + \frac{m}{2}\Omega^2 R^2 \sin^2\theta - mgR(1-\cos\theta).$$

- Equation of motion.

$$R\ddot{\theta} = (\Omega^2 R\cos\theta - g)\sin\theta = -\frac{1}{mR}\frac{\partial U_{eff}(\theta)}{\partial\theta}.$$

  There are four equilibrium points

$$\sin\theta = 0, \qquad \text{or} \qquad \cos\theta = \frac{g}{\Omega^2 R}$$

- Critical Ω_c. The second two equilibriums are possible only if

$$\frac{g}{\Omega^2 R} < 1, \qquad \Omega > \Omega_c = \sqrt{g/R}.$$

- Effective potential energy for $\Omega \sim \Omega_c$. From the Lagrangian we can read the effective potential energy:

$$U_{eff}(\theta) = -\frac{m}{2}\Omega^2 R^2 \sin^2\theta + mgR(1-\cos\theta).$$

  Assuming $\Omega \sim \Omega_c$ we are interested only in small θ. So

$$U_{eff}(\theta) \approx \frac{1}{2}mR^2(\Omega_c^2 - \Omega^2)\theta^2 + \frac{3}{4!}mR^2\Omega_c^2\theta^4$$

$$U_{eff}(\theta) \approx mR^2\Omega_c(\Omega_c - \Omega)\theta^2 + \frac{3}{4!}mR^2\Omega_c^2\theta^4$$

- Spontaneous symmetry breaking. Plot the function $U_{eff}(\theta)$ for $\Omega < \Omega_c$, $\Omega = \Omega_c$, and $\Omega > \Omega_c$. Discuss universality.
- Small oscillations around $\theta = 0$, $\Omega < \Omega_c$

$$mR^2\ddot{\theta} = -mR^2(\Omega_c^2 - \Omega^2)\theta, \qquad \omega = \sqrt{\Omega_c^2 - \Omega^2}.$$

- Small oscillations around θ_0, $\Omega > \Omega_c$.

$$U_{eff}(\theta) = -\frac{m}{2}\Omega^2 R^2 \sin^2\theta + mrR(1-\cos\theta),$$

$$\frac{\partial U_{eff}}{\partial\theta} = -mR(\Omega^2 R\cos\theta - g)\sin\theta, \qquad \frac{\partial^2 U_{eff}}{\partial\theta^2} = mR^2\Omega^2\sin^2\theta - mR\cos\theta(\Omega^2 R\cos\theta - g)$$

$$\left.\frac{\partial U_{eff}}{\partial\theta}\right|_{\theta=\theta_0} = 0, \qquad \left.\frac{\partial^2 U_{eff}}{\partial\theta^2}\right|_{\theta=\theta_0} = mR^2(\Omega^2 - \Omega_c^2)$$

So the Tylor expansion gives

$$U_{eff}(\theta\sim\theta_0) \approx \text{const} + \frac{1}{2}mR^2(\Omega^2-\Omega_c^2)(\theta-\theta_0)^2$$

The frequency of small oscillations then is

$$\omega = \sqrt{\Omega^2 - \Omega_c^2}.$$

- The effective potential energy for small θ and $|\Omega - \Omega_c|$

$$U_{eff}(\theta) = \frac{1}{2}a(\Omega_c - \Omega)\theta^2 + \frac{1}{4}b\theta^4.$$

- θ_0 for the stable equilibrium is given by $\partial U_{eff}/\partial\theta = 0$

$$\theta_0 = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for} \quad \Omega < \Omega_c \\ \sqrt{\frac{a}{b}(\Omega-\Omega_c)} & \text{for} \quad \Omega > \Omega_c \end{cases}$$

Plot $\theta_0(\Omega)$. Non-analytic behavior at Ω_c.

- Response: how θ_0 responses to a small change in Ω.

$$\frac{\partial\theta_0}{\partial\Omega} = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for} \quad \Omega < \Omega_c \\ \frac{1}{2}\sqrt{\frac{a}{b}}\frac{1}{\sqrt{(\Omega-\Omega_c)}} & \text{for} \quad \Omega > \Omega_c \end{cases}$$

Plot $\frac{\partial\theta_0}{\partial\Omega}$ vs Ω. The response *diverges* at Ω_c.

LECTURE 10
Oscillations with time dependent parameters. Waves.

10.1. Oscillations with time dependent parameters.

$$\ddot{x} = -\omega^2(t)x, \qquad \omega^2(t) = \omega_0^2(1 + a\cos(\Omega t)), \quad a \ll 1$$

- $\Omega \gg \omega_0$ — Kapitza pendulum. (demo)
- $\Omega \sim \omega_0$ — parametric resonance ($\Omega = 2\omega_0$)

Foucault pendulum as an example of slow change of the parameter $\Delta\phi$ =solid angle of the path.

10.2. Waves.

- Waves. Ripples. Sound waves. Light waves. Amplitude, phase.
- Linearity. Superposition.
- Interference.
- Wave front. Rays.

LECTURE 11
Homework. Waves.

- Homework
- Waves.
  - Green's picture.
  - Snail's Law.
  - Diffraction.
  - Resonator.
  - Wave in a loop.
  - Difference between waves and particles.
  - Doppler effect

LECTURE 12
Currents

- Current. Mass current. General current.
- Current density: vector.
- Charge/mass conservation:

$$\dot{\rho} + \nabla \vec{j} = 0$$

- Voltage. Current.
- Capacitor. Inductance.
- Resistor. Ohm's law.

$$V = IR, \qquad \vec{j} = \sigma \vec{E}.$$

- Kirchhoff's law.
- Phasor diagrams.

LECTURE 13
Anderson localization.Electrodynamics.

- Anderson localization.
- Electrodynamics.
  - Lorenz force. (problem with Lorenz force.)

    $$\vec{F} = q\vec{E} + q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}.$$

    Cyclotron radius, cyclotron frequency.
  - Gauss's Law, Flux of a vector field.

    $$\oint_{\partial\Omega} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0} \int_{\Omega} \rho dV$$

    Coulomb's law. Electric field of a charged wire.

Circulation of a vector field.

LECTURE 14
Electrodynamics.

- Homework.
- Gauss law for magnetic field.
- Faraday's Law, Circulation of Electric field. (zero in statics)

$$\oint_{\partial\Sigma} \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -\frac{d}{dt} \int_{\Sigma} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

- Ampere's Law, Circulation of Magnetic field.

$$\oint_{\partial\Sigma} \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 \int_{\Sigma} \vec{j} \cdot d\vec{S}$$

- Problem with the Ampere's Law.

For any static distribution of charges and currents we can find the electric and magnetic fields using the Coulomb and Biot-Savart laws

$$d\vec{E} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{\rho dV \vec{R}}{R^3}$$

$$d\vec{B} = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi} \frac{dV \vec{R} \times \vec{j}}{R^3}$$

LECTURE 15
Maxwell Equations, Gauge invariance

Gauss's law:	$\oint_{\partial\Omega} \vec{E}\cdot d\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\epsilon_0}\int_\Omega \rho dV,$	$\nabla\cdot\vec{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$
Gauss's law magnetic:	$\oint_{\partial\Omega} \vec{B}\cdot d\vec{S} = 0,$	$\nabla\cdot\vec{B} = 0$
Faraday's law:	$\oint_{\partial\Sigma} \vec{E}\cdot d\vec{l} = -\frac{d}{dt}\int_\Sigma \vec{B}\cdot d\vec{S},$	$\nabla\times\vec{E} + \frac{\partial\vec{B}}{\partial t} = 0$
Ampere's law:	$\oint_{\partial\Sigma} \vec{B}\cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0\int_\Sigma \vec{j}\cdot d\vec{S} + \mu_0\epsilon_0\frac{d}{dt}\int_\Sigma \vec{E}\cdot d\vec{S},$	$\nabla\times\vec{B} - \mu_0\epsilon_0\frac{\partial\vec{E}}{\partial t} = \mu_0\vec{j}$

In addition we should supply

- Initial conditions.
- Boundary conditions.
- "Material law". Plasmons.

Consequences:

- Coulomb law.
- Charge conservation.
- Gauge fields.

$$\vec{E} = -\nabla\phi - \frac{\partial\vec{A}}{\partial t}, \qquad B = \nabla\times\vec{A}$$

- Gauge transformation, for any $f(\vec{r},t)$ the transformation

$$\vec{A}\to\vec{A}+\nabla f, \qquad \phi\to\phi-\frac{\partial f}{\partial t}$$

does not change $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$.

If we express $\vec{E}$ and $\vec{B}$ through the gauge fields $\vec{A}$ and ϕ the magnetic Gauss's law and the Faraday's law are automatically satisfied (notice, that these the laws that have zeros on RHS) The other two laws can be written as

$$-\Delta\phi - \frac{\partial \mathrm{div}\vec{A}}{\partial t} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$-\Delta\vec{A} + \vec{\nabla}\mathrm{div}\vec{A} + \mu_0\epsilon_0\vec{\nabla}\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \mu_0\epsilon_0\frac{\partial^2\vec{A}}{\partial t^2} = \mu_0\vec{j}$$

Gauge symmetry (gauge freedom) allows us to chose any gauge we want. There are many particularly useful gauges:

Coulomb gauge. This gauge is given by the following gauge fixing condition

$$\mathrm{div}\vec{A} = 0.$$

The Maxwell equations then become

$$-\Delta\phi = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$-\Delta\vec{A} + \mu_0\epsilon_0\vec{\nabla}\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} + \mu_0\epsilon_0\frac{\partial^2\vec{A}}{\partial t^2} = \mu_0\vec{j}$$

Lorenz gauge. This gauge is given by the following gauge fixing condition

$$\mathrm{div}\vec{A} + \frac{1}{\mu_0\epsilon_0}\frac{\partial\phi}{\partial t} = 0.$$

The Maxwell equations then become

$$-\Delta\phi + \frac{1}{\mu_0\epsilon_0}\frac{\partial^2\phi}{\partial t^2} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$-\Delta\vec{A} + \frac{1}{\mu_0\epsilon_0}\frac{\partial^2\vec{A}}{\partial t^2} = \mu_0\vec{j}$$

In particular, if we are looking for the static solutions, meaning that neither ρ nor $\vec{j}$ depend on time and there is no EM waves around then we can use the Coulomb gauge and write ($\partial_t\phi = 0$ and $\partial\vec{A} = 0$).

$$-\Delta\phi = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$
$$-\Delta\vec{A} = \mu_0\vec{j}$$

Notice, that the equations look exactly the same. We know that the solution of the first equation for the point like charge is given by the Coulomb potential

$$d\phi = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{\rho dV}{R}$$

So the solution of the second equation (for the "point like" current) must be

$$d\vec{A} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\frac{\vec{j}dV}{R} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\frac{\vec{j}dSdl}{R} = \frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\frac{Id\vec{l}}{R}$$

Taking the curl of this we find Biot-Savart law (named after Jean-Baptiste Biot and Félix Savart who discovered this relationship in 1820.)

$$d\vec{B} = -\frac{\mu_0}{4\pi}\frac{I\vec{R}\times d\vec{l}}{R^3}.$$

LECTURE 16
Electromagnetic waves. Speed of light.

- Maxwell equations in vacuum — no static solutions.
- Wave equation.
- General solution of the wave equation.
- Speed of light.
- Problem with the speed of light.
- Idea of Ether. Michelson-Morley experiment.
- Wave equation as a metric.
- Lorenz transformation.
$$dx = \frac{\gamma c dt'}{\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}} + \frac{dx'}{\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}}, \qquad cdt = \frac{cdt'}{\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}} + \frac{\gamma dx'}{\sqrt{1-\gamma^2}},$$
Comparing to the Galileo transformation we find that $\gamma = V/c$
$$dx = \frac{V dt'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}} + \frac{dx'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}}, \qquad cdt = \frac{cdt'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}} + \frac{V dx'/c}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}},$$
These transformations leave the interval $ds^2 = c^2dt^2 - dx^2$ invariant.
- GPS, LHC.
- These transformations tell us that our space-time has a very different structure than what was thought before.

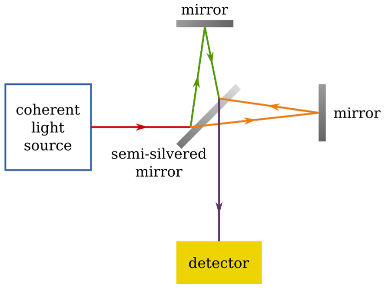

Figure 1. A Michelson interferometer uses the same in principle as the original experiment. But it uses a laser for a light source.

LECTURE 17
Special theory of relativity.

Lorenz transformation is the transformation that leaves the interval $ds^2 = c^2dt^2 - dx^2$ invariant.

$$dx = \frac{V\,dt'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}} + \frac{dx'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}}, \qquad cdt = \frac{cdt'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}} + \frac{V\,dx'/c}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}},$$

Event is a point of a space-time.

Lorenz transformation is a "rotation" of the space-time.

- Events that are simultaneous in one frame of reference are not necessarily simultaneous in another (In contrast to Galilean transformation.)
- Velocity transformation: $v' = dx'/dt'$, $v = dx/dt$.

  $$v = \frac{V + v'}{1 + \frac{Vv'}{c^2}}.$$

  if $v' = c$, then $v = c$.
- Time change. $dx' = 0$, so

  $$dt = \frac{dt'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}}$$

- Length change $dt = 0$, so $cdt' = -\frac{V}{c}dx'$, so

  $$dx = \frac{-V^2dx'/c^2 + 1}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}}dx' = dx'\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}$$

- Doppler effect. The light source S' moves with respect to the observer S with velocity V directly away. In the frame S' the distance between two wave fronts is $dx' = c/f'$, the time between them is $dt' = 1/f'$. In the frame S we then have

  $$dx = \frac{V/f'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}} + \frac{c/f'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}}, \qquad cdt = \frac{c/f'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}} + \frac{V/f'}{\sqrt{1-V^2/c^2}}.$$

  First we notice, that $cdt = dx$ as it must be – the speed of light is the same fir both observers. Second, we notice, that

  $$f = \frac{1}{dt} = \sqrt{\frac{c-v}{c+v}}f'.$$

  This is Doppler effect.

  - Red shift.
  - Blue shift.
  - Velocity of the stars in the galaxy
  - Hable constant.
  - Universe expansion.
  - Distance to the stars.
  - Look into the past.
- Twin's paradox.

LECTURE 18
Exam followup.

- Exam solutions.
- Homeworks solution.

LECTURE 19
Special theory of relativity. General theory of relativity.

- Energy and momentum.

$$dE = F dx, \quad dp = F dt, \quad ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dx^2 = (c^2 dp^2 - dE^2)/F$$

so $E^2 - c^2p^2 = \text{const}$ must be invariant under the Lorenz transformation. For small p compare to $E = p^2/2m_0$ we find

$$E^2 = c^2p^2 + m_0^2c^4,$$

where m_0 – mass at rest. In particular for $p = 0$ we have $E = m_0c^2$ – energy at rest.

- Momentum and velocity.

Energy as a function of momentum is Hamiltonian, so

$$\dot{x} = \frac{\partial E(p)}{\partial p}, \qquad \dot{p} = -\frac{\partial E(p)}{\partial x}$$

The first equation gives $v = \dot{x}$:

$$v = \frac{pc^2}{\sqrt{p^2c^2 + m_0^2c^4}}, \quad \text{or} \quad p = \frac{m_0 v}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}.$$

One can also say, that

$$p = mv, \qquad m = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}.$$

- Energy and velocity.

Using p in $E(p)$ we find

$$E = c^2p^2 + m_0^2c^4 = \frac{m_0c^2}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} = mc^2.$$

- Nuclear energy $E = mc^2$.
- Space-time metric.
- Black holes.
- Gravitational lensing.
- Gravitation waves.

LECTURE 20
Problems with classical theory.

- Atom stability.
- Rutherford experiment.
- Atomic spectra.
- Particles are waves.
- Black body radiation.

$$u(f,T) = \frac{8\pi h f^3}{c^3} \frac{1}{e^{hf/k_B T} - 1},$$

  where $h = 6.6 \times 10^{-34} J \cdot s$. Often used $\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$.
- Photo-electric effect.
- Compton scattering. θ is the angle of the scattered light ($p = h/\lambda$).

$$\lambda' - \lambda = \frac{h}{cm}(1 - \cos\theta)$$

- Waves are particles.

LECTURE 21
Beginnings of the Quantum Mechanics.

- Homework.
- Bohr atom.
  - According to Maxwell the frequency of light emitted by a hydrogen atom must equal to the frequency of the rotation of the electron.
  - The energy of the emitted "Einstein" photon $\hbar\omega$ must be the difference in the energies of the electron.
  - An electron on an orbit has an energy

$$E = \frac{mv^2}{2} - \frac{ke^2}{r}.$$

  - For a circular orbit we have

$$\frac{ke^2}{r^2} = \frac{mv^2}{r}$$

so that

$$\frac{mv^2}{2} = \frac{1}{2}\frac{ke^2}{r} \qquad \text{and} \qquad ke^2mr = m^2v^2r^2 = L^2 \qquad \text{and} \qquad v = \frac{ke^2}{L}$$

and

$$E = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{ke^2}{r} = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{k^2e^4m}{L^2} \qquad \text{and} \qquad \omega = \frac{v}{r} = \frac{mk^2e^4}{L^3}$$

  - Assume that the change of the electron's energy is small.

$$dE = \frac{dE}{dL}dL = \frac{k^2e^4m}{L^3}dL = \omega dL$$

(in fact $\omega = \dot{\phi} = \frac{\partial H(L,\phi)}{\partial L}$ – Hamiltonian equation.)

  - This change of energy dE must be equal to the energy of the emitted photon $\hbar\omega$. We then have

$$\hbar\omega = \omega dL, \qquad dL = \hbar.$$

  - Then

$$L = \hbar n, \qquad n = 1, 2 \ldots$$

and

$$E_n = -\frac{1}{2}\frac{k^2e^4m}{\hbar^2}\frac{1}{n^2} = -\frac{13.6}{n^2}\text{eV}, \qquad r_n = \frac{\hbar}{mke^2}n^2 = a_Bn^2, \quad a_0 = 0.0529\text{nm}.$$

- de Brolie's idea. According to Bohr
$$L = pr = n\hbar, \qquad \text{or} \qquad 2\pi r p = nh.$$
If we now assume that the electron is a wave with the wavelength $\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$, then the Bohr quantization rule becomes
$$\frac{2\pi r}{\lambda} = n,$$
which is the condition for the constructive interference.
- Particles as waves.
- Wave packet.
- Uncertainty for waves.
- Wave function as probability density amplitude.

LECTURE 22
Particles as waves.

de Brolie's idea was that a particle is a wave. Its propagation then should be described by a wave equation.

What does it mean to describe? Time evolution!

22.1. The wave equation.

An oscillator.

$$\ddot{f} + \omega^2 f = 0$$

There are two linearly independent solutions

$$f_1(t) = \cos(\omega t) \qquad \text{and} \qquad f(t)_2 = \sin(\omega t).$$

Any linear combination of these is also a solution. In particular

$$f(t) = \cos(\omega t) + i\sin(\omega t) = e^{i\omega t}$$

is a solution. This solution has the property that

$$|f|^2 = 1$$

at all times.

We can look at this oscillator as a zero dimensional wave. In $1D$ it will become

$$\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} - v^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} = 0$$

The simplest solutions are

$$f_\pm(x,t) = e^{i\omega t \pm i\omega x/v}$$

for any ω. Both solutions describe the waves propagating with the velocity v, f_+ propagates to the left, f_- propagates to the right. The velocity v is the same for all ωs.

Both solutions have the property that

$$|f_\pm|^2 = 1$$

at all times and everywhere in space.

The wave equation can be written as

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + v\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - v\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) f = 0$$

Looking at each factor separately we see that

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + v\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) f_- = 0$$
$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - v\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) f_+ = 0$$

So the equation

$$\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + v\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) f = 0$$

describes a wave propagating to the right only.

22.2. Schrödinger equation.

The propagation of the electromagnetic wave of frequency ω and wavelength λ is given by $e^{ikx-i\omega t} = e^{2\pi ix/\lambda - i\omega t}$. For the el.-m. wave the velocity is always c, so $\lambda\omega/2\pi = c$. For matter wave we do not have such restriction. However, for the both el.-m. and matter waves we have $p = 2\pi\hbar/\lambda$ and $E = \hbar\omega$, so we write

$$\Psi(x,t) = e^{ipx/\hbar - iEt/\hbar}$$

For a classical particle we must have $E = \frac{p^2}{2m}$, the wave ψ then must satisfy the following equation

$$\left[i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t} - \frac{1}{2m}\left(-i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)^2\right]\Psi = 0$$

Or

$$i\hbar\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t} = \frac{1}{2m}\left(-i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)^2\Psi.$$

Let's look at the operator $\hat{p} = -i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial x}$. if we act on a wave function by this operator we get $\hat{p}\Psi = p\Psi$. So this is an operator of momentum. Using this notation we get

$$i\hbar\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m}\Psi.$$

Comparing this to the Hamiltonian for the free moving particle $H = \frac{p^2}{2m}$, one can write

$$i\hbar\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t} = \hat{H}\Psi, \qquad \hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + U(x).$$

The operator $\hat{H}$ is called the Hamiltonian operator. The above equation is the Sródinger equation.

22.3. Wave function.

- Interpretation. Probability Density Amplitude.
- Normalization.
- Bra-Ket notations.

LECTURE 23
Wave function. Wave packet. Time independent Schrödinger equation.

23.1. Wave function.

- Bra-ket notations.
- Measurables as operator averages. Momentum, Energy.
- Linear combinations. Basis. Quantum numbers.

23.2. Evolution of a wave packet.

Let's assume that we know that at initial time $t = 0$ the wave function is given by $\Psi(x, 0)$, we want to know what will be the wave function at time t.

In order to do that we need to present $\Psi(x, 0)$ as a collection of a plane waves — the wave packet.

$$\Psi(x,0) = \int a_p e^{ipx/\hbar} \frac{dp}{2\pi\hbar}, \qquad a_p = \int \Psi(x,0) e^{-ipx/\hbar} dx$$

After a time t a wave $e^{ipx/\hbar}$ becomes $e^{ipx/\hbar - iE_p t/\hbar}$. So

$$\Psi(x,t) = \int a_p e^{ipx/\hbar - iE_p t/\hbar} \frac{dp}{2\pi\hbar}.$$

Let's see how it works for a free particle $E_p = \frac{p^2}{2m}$.

23.2.1. Wave packet spreading.

Let's assume, that we have started with the initial wave-function $\Psi(x, 0) = Ce^{-x^2/4\alpha^2}$, and $|\Psi(x, 0)| = C^2 e^{-x^2/2\alpha^2}$, so that $\Delta x = \alpha$ then

$$a_p = \int \Psi(x,0) e^{-ipx/\hbar} dx = C \int e^{-x^2/4\alpha^2 - ipx/\hbar} dx = C \int e^{-\frac{1}{4\alpha^2}\left(x^2 + 2ipx\frac{2\alpha^2}{\hbar} - p^2\frac{4\alpha^4}{\hbar^2}\right) - p^2\frac{\alpha^2}{\hbar^2}} dx =$$
$$Ce^{-p^2\frac{\alpha^2}{\hbar^2}} \int e^{-\frac{1}{4\alpha^2}\left(x + 2ip\frac{\alpha^2}{\hbar}\right)^2} dx = 2C\alpha\sqrt{\pi} e^{-p^2\frac{\alpha^2}{\hbar^2}}$$

So that according to the prescription

$$\Psi(x,t) = \int a_p e^{ipx/\hbar - E(p)t/\hbar} \frac{dp}{2\pi\hbar} = \int C\alpha\sqrt{2\pi} e^{-p^2\frac{\alpha^2}{\hbar^2} + ipx/\hbar - p^2\frac{it}{2m\hbar}} \frac{dp}{2\pi\hbar} =$$

$$\int C\alpha\sqrt{2\pi} e^{-p^2\left(\frac{\alpha^2}{\hbar^2} + it/2m\hbar\right) + ipx/\hbar} \frac{dp}{2\pi\hbar} = C\alpha\sqrt{2\pi} \int e^{-\frac{p^2}{4\left(\frac{4\alpha^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{2it}{m\hbar}\right)^{-1}} + ipx/\hbar} \frac{dp}{2\pi\hbar} =$$

$$2C\alpha\frac{1}{\hbar}\left(\frac{4\alpha^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{2it}{m\hbar}\right)^{-1/2} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4\hbar^2\left(\frac{\alpha^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{it}{2m\hbar}\right)}} = C\frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{it\hbar}{2m\alpha^2}}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4\left(\alpha^2 + \frac{it\hbar}{2m}\right)}}$$

So we see that

$$|\Psi(x,t)|^2 = \frac{C^2}{\sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{t\hbar}{2m\alpha^2}\right)^2}} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\left(\alpha^2 + \left(\frac{t\hbar}{2m\alpha}\right)^2\right)}}$$

So we see, that the particle is still at the center on average, but

$$\Delta x(t) = \sqrt{[\Delta x(0)]^2 + \left[\frac{t\hbar}{2m\Delta x(0)}\right]^2}$$

We now can compute how much time it would take for a $1g$ marble initially localized with a precision $0.1mm$ to disperse so that $\Delta x(t) = 10\Delta x(0)$. The answer is $t \approx 2 \times 10^{24}s$ – by far longer than the life-time of our Universe.

23.2.2. Group velocity.

Let's construct a wave packet with a momentum p_0 on average at $t = 0$. We want this packet to be very sharply peaked at p_0.

$$\Psi(x,0) = \int e^{-\frac{(p-p_0)^2}{4\alpha^2}} e^{ipx/\hbar} dp$$

where we assume that the $\alpha \sim \Delta p$ is small.

At time t the wave packet will be

$$\Psi(x,t) = \int e^{-\frac{(p-p_0)^2}{4\alpha^2}} e^{ipx/\hbar - iE_p t/\hbar} dp$$

As α is small, only $p \sim p_0$ contribute to the integral, so we can write

$$\Psi(x,t) \approx e^{ip_0x/\hbar - iE_{p_0}t/\hbar} \int e^{-(p-p_0)^2\left(\frac{1}{4\alpha^2} + i\frac{1}{\hbar}\frac{\partial^2 E_p}{\partial p_0^2}t\right) + \frac{i}{\hbar}(p-p_0)\left(x - \frac{\partial E}{\partial p_0}t\right)} dp$$

So we see, that

$$|\Psi(x,t)|^2 = f\left(x - \frac{\partial E}{\partial p_0}t, t\right)$$

So we see, that the wave packet is moving with the "group" velocity

$$v = \frac{\partial E}{\partial p_0},$$

as it should according to the Hamiltonian equations.

LECTURE 24
Wave function. Time independent Schrödinger equation.

- Particles as waves.
- Waves as particles: $e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}S}$.
- To classical.

24.1. Wave function.

- Interpretation. Probability Density Amplitude.
- Bra-ket notations.
- Measurables as operator averages. Momentum, Energy.

24.2. Time independent Schrödinger equation.

If the Hamiltonian does not depend on time, then we can look for the solution in the form

$$\Psi(x,t) = e^{-iEt/\hbar}\psi(x),$$

Then we have

$$\hat{H}\psi = E\psi.$$

This is a second order differential equation. For any E it has two linearly independent solutions. However, if we are looking for the solutions that satisfy the normalization condition $\int \psi^*\psi dx = 1$, then we find that such solutions exist only for real E and in many cases only for a discrete set of E.

- Energy as an eigen-value of the Hamiltonian.
- Quantum numbers = enumeration of the eigen values.
- Eigen functions = Basis in the space of functions. $\langle\psi_{n'}|\psi_n\rangle = \delta_{n,n'}$.

$$\hat{H}|\psi_n\rangle = E_n|\psi_n\rangle$$

If at initial time we have $\Psi(x,0)$, then we can write

$$\Psi(x,0) = \sum_n a_n\psi_n(x), \qquad \text{or} \qquad |\Psi(t=0)\rangle = \sum_n a_n|\psi_n\rangle, \qquad \text{or} \qquad a_n = \langle\psi_n|\Psi(t=0)\rangle$$

The time evolution of an eigen function is simple

$$|\psi_n\rangle \to |\psi_n\rangle e^{-iE_nt/\hbar}$$

so

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_n a_n e^{-iE_n t/\hbar}|\psi_n\rangle.$$

We see, that if the Hamiltonian does not depend on time the set of eigenvalues and eigenfunctions of the Hamiltonian operator solves the problem — we can compute the wave function at all times.

In order to compute a quantum mechanical average for some operator $\hat{\mathcal{O}}$ we can use

$$\langle\Psi|\hat{\mathcal{O}}|\Psi\rangle = \sum_n a_n^* \langle\psi_n|\hat{\mathcal{O}} \sum_m a_m|\psi_m\rangle = \sum_n \sum_m a_n^* \langle\psi_n|\hat{\mathcal{O}}|\psi_m\rangle a_m$$

Similar to the matrix manipulations. Numbers $\langle\psi_n|\hat{\mathcal{O}}|\psi_m\rangle$ are called matrix elements.

- Linear combinations. Basis. Quantum numbers.
- Spectrum. Discrete and continuous spectrum.
- Ground state, excited states. Transitions. Perturbations.

LECTURE 25
Time independent Schrödinger equation.

- Particle in the infinite square well potential. (Boundary conditions)
- Particle in the finite square well potential.
  - Consider a potential

$$U(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } |x| < L \\ U_0 & \text{for } |x| > L \end{cases}$$

  - The time independent Schrödinger equation is

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\psi'' + U(x)\psi = E\psi.$$

    The wave function ψ must be continuous. In addition, let's integrate the above equation over x from $L-\epsilon$ to $L+\epsilon$. We have

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left(\psi'(L+\epsilon) - \psi'(L-\epsilon)\right) + \int_{L-\epsilon}^{L+\epsilon} U(x)\psi(x)dx = E\int_{L-\epsilon}^{L+\epsilon}\psi(x)dx.$$

    Taking a limit $\epsilon \to 0$ we have

$$\psi'(L+0) = \psi'(L-0)$$

    So ψ' must also be continuous at the points $x = \pm L$ (and thus everywhere).
  - In this case the Schrödinger equation has the purely real solutions.
  - I am interested only in solutions for $E < U_0$.
  - As the Hamiltonian is symmetric with respect to $x \to -x$ the solutions are either symmetric $\psi(-x) = \psi(x)$ or antisymmetric $\psi(-x) = -\psi(x)$.
  - In order for the solutions ψ to be normalizable it must decay for $|x| \to \infty$.
  - The solutions are

$$\psi_s(x) = \begin{cases} Ae^{\kappa x} & \text{for } x < -L \\ \cos(kx) & \text{for } -L < x < L \\ Ae^{-\kappa x} & \text{for } x > L \end{cases}, \qquad \psi_a(x) = \begin{cases} -Ae^{\kappa x} & \text{for } x < -L \\ \sin(kx) & \text{for } -L < x < L \\ Ae^{-\kappa x} & \text{for } x > L \end{cases},$$

    where

$$k = \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}, \qquad \kappa = \sqrt{\frac{2m(U_0 - E)}{\hbar^2}} = \sqrt{k_u^2 - k^2}, \qquad k_u = \sqrt{\frac{2mU_0}{\hbar^2}}.$$

- Now we need to match the value of ψ and ψ' from both sides for $x = L$, so we have (left column for the symmetric, right for antisymmetric)

$$Ae^{-\kappa L} = \cos(kL) \qquad Ae^{-\kappa L} = \sin(kL)$$
$$-\kappa Ae^{-\kappa L} = -k\sin(kL) \qquad -\kappa Ae^{-\kappa L} = k\cos(kL)$$

Dividing the equation we get

$$k\tan(kL) = \kappa \qquad k\cot(kL) = -\kappa,$$

which can be written as

$$\cos(kL) = \frac{k}{k_u}, \qquad \sin(kL) = -\frac{k}{k_u}$$

These equations have a discrete set of solutions. No matter how small U_0 is there is always at least one localized solution!

- Particle in the δ-function attractive potential.
  - I want to consider a potential

$$U(x) = -U_0\delta(x).$$

  - I am interested only in localized state, so $E < 0$.
  - The Schrödinger equation is

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\psi'' - U_0\delta(x)\psi = -|E|\psi$$

  - Let's integrate this equation over x from $-\epsilon$ to ϵ, we get

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left(\psi'(\epsilon) - \psi'(-\epsilon)\right) - U_0\psi(0) = -|E|\int_\epsilon^\epsilon \psi(x)dx.$$

Taking the limit $\epsilon \to 0$ we see that

$$\psi'(+0) - \psi'(-0) = -\frac{2mU_0}{\hbar^2}\psi(0)$$

So the function ψ' must have a jump (discontinuity at $x = 0$)

  - The solutions are

$$\psi = \begin{cases} Ae^{\kappa x} & \text{for } x < 0 \\ Ae^{-\kappa x} & \text{for } x > 0 \end{cases}, \tag{25.1}$$

where

$$\kappa = \sqrt{\frac{2m|E|}{\hbar^2}}$$

  - Then

$$\psi(+0) = -\kappa A, \qquad \psi(-0) = \kappa A, \qquad \psi(0) = A$$

  - Using the condition for matching the derivatives we get

$$2\kappa = \frac{2mU_0}{\hbar^2}, \qquad |E| = \frac{U_0^2}{2m\hbar^2}$$

LECTURE 26
Bloch theorem. Density of states. Tunneling.

- Particle in two far away Dirac potentials.
  - The Hamiltonian is
  $$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + U_L(x) + U_R(x), \qquad U_{L,R} = -U_0\delta(x \pm l/2), \qquad l \gg \frac{\hbar^2}{mU_0}$$
  - If the two δ-functions are far away from each other, then the overlap of the wave functions is small.
  - Let's define two functions $|\psi_L\rangle$ and $|\psi_R\rangle$
  $$\left(\frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + U_L\right)|\psi_L\rangle = E_0|\psi_L\rangle, \qquad \langle\psi_L|\psi_L\rangle = 1$$
  $$\left(\frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + U_R\right)|\psi_R\rangle = E_0|\psi_R\rangle, \qquad \langle\psi_R|\psi_R\rangle = 1$$
  We also notice, that
  $$|\langle\psi_R|\psi_L\rangle| \ll 1.$$
  - Let's look for the solution in the form
  $$|\psi\rangle = a_L|\psi_L\rangle + a_R|\psi_R\rangle.$$
  - The Schrödinger equation now reads.
  $$a_L E|\psi_L\rangle + a_R E|\psi_R\rangle = a_L\hat{H}|\psi_L\rangle + a_R\hat{H}|\psi_R\rangle.$$
  - We expect $E \approx E_0$.
  - Multiplying this equation by $\langle\psi_L|$ and $\langle\psi_R|$ we get
  $$Ea_L = (E_0 + \langle\psi_L|U_R|\psi_L\rangle)\, a_L + \langle\psi_L|U_L|\psi_R\rangle a_R$$
  $$Ea_R = (E_0 + \langle\psi_R|U_L|\psi_R\rangle)\, a_R + \langle\psi_R|U_R|\psi_L\rangle a_L.$$
  - Introducing $\tilde{E}_0 = E_0 + \langle\psi_L|U_R|\psi_L\rangle$, $-\Delta = \langle\psi_R|U_R|\psi_L\rangle$, and a vector $\begin{pmatrix} a_L \\ a_R \end{pmatrix}$ we have
  $$E\begin{pmatrix} a_L \\ a_R \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \tilde{E}_0 & -\Delta \\ -\Delta & \tilde{E}_0 \end{pmatrix}\begin{pmatrix} a_L \\ a_R \end{pmatrix}.$$
  - So E is just an eigenvalue of the simple 2×2 matrix. The result is
  $$E_\pm = \tilde{E}_0 \pm \Delta.$$

- In the symmetric potential the ground state is always symmetric.
- Particle in a Dirac comb potential. (Bloch theorem.)
  - The potential is
$$U(x) = -U_0 \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x - nl).$$
  - We look at the solution in the form
$$|\psi\rangle = \sum_{n=-\infty}^{\infty} a_n |\psi(x - nl)\rangle$$
  - We then have
$$\begin{pmatrix} . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . \\ . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . \\ . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . \\ . & 0 & -\Delta & E_0 & -\Delta & 0 & 0 & 0 & . \\ . & 0 & 0 & -\Delta & E_0 & -\Delta & 0 & 0 & . \\ . & 0 & 0 & 0 & -\Delta & E_0 & -\Delta & 0 & . \\ . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . \\ . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . \\ . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . & . \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} . \\ a_{n-3} \\ a_{n-2} \\ a_{n-1} \\ a_n \\ a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \\ a_{n+3} \\ . \end{pmatrix} = E \begin{pmatrix} . \\ a_{n-3} \\ a_{n-2} \\ a_{n-1} \\ a_n \\ a_{n+1} \\ a_{n+2} \\ a_{n+3} \\ . \end{pmatrix}.$$
    or
$$-\Delta a_{n-1} + E_0 a_n - \Delta a_{n+1} = E a_n$$
  - We look for the solution in the form $a_n = ae^{ikln/\hbar}$, so
$$-\Delta e^{ikl(n-1)/\hbar} + E_0 e^{ikln/\hbar} - \Delta e^{ikl(n-1)/\hbar} = E e^{ikln/\hbar},$$
    which gives
$$E(k) = E_0 - 2\Delta \cos(kl/\hbar), \qquad -\pi\hbar/l < k < \pi\hbar/l.$$
    So a single energy level is split into a bend.
  - k is quasi-momentum. In particular, for small k
$$E(k) \approx E_0 - 2\Delta + \frac{k^2}{2(\hbar^2/2l^2\Delta)}.$$
    So in behaves as a normal particle with the "effective" mass $m = \hbar^2/2l^2\Delta$.
- Density of states.
- Tunneling.
  - Transition trough a square potential bump.
$$U(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } x < 0 \\ U_0 & \text{for } 0 < x < L \\ 0 & \text{for } x > L \end{cases}.$$
  - We look for the solution at energy $E < U_0$ in the form
$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} e^{ipx/\hbar} + Re^{-ipx/\hbar} & \text{for } x < 0 \\ Ae^{\kappa x/\hbar} + Be^{-\kappa x/\hbar} & \text{for } 0 < x < L \\ Te^{ipx/\hbar} & \text{for } x > L \end{cases},$$

where R and T are reflection and transition amplitudes respectively and

$$\frac{p^2}{2m} = E, \qquad \frac{\kappa^2}{2m} = U_0 - E$$

– At the points $x = 0$ and $x = L$ we must match the value of the wave function and its derivatives from the left and the right.
– The answer is

$$|T|^2 = \frac{4p^2}{(p^2+\kappa^2)^2 \sinh^2(\kappa L/\hbar) + 4p^2}, \qquad |R|^2 = 1 - |T|^2$$

– Limits of large $L \gg \hbar/\kappa$ and $\kappa \gg p$ (or $U_0 \ll E$).

- Tunneling current as a measure of the density of states (STM).

LECTURE 27
Commutators. Quantum harmonic oscillator.

- x as an operator.
- $[\hat{p}, \hat{x}] = -i\hbar$.
- Hamiltonian for a harmonic oscillator $\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + \frac{k\hat{x}^2}{2} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + m\omega^2\frac{\hat{x}^2}{2}$.
- Operators $\hat{a} = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}}\left(\hat{x} + \frac{i}{m\omega}\hat{p}\right)$ and $\hat{a}^\dagger = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}}\left(\hat{x} - \frac{i}{m\omega}\hat{p}\right)$.
- $[\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger] = 1$, and $\hat{H} = \hbar\omega\left(\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a} + 1/2\right)$.
- The Schrödinger equation $\hat{H}|\psi\rangle = E|\psi\rangle$ becomes

$$\hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}|\psi\rangle = (E - \hbar\omega/2)\,|\psi\rangle$$

- A function $|0\rangle$ such that $\hat{a}|0\rangle = 0$ and $\langle 0|0\rangle = 1$ exists.

$$|0\rangle = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)e^{-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}x^2}, \qquad E_0 = \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega$$

- Consider a function/state $|1\rangle = \hat{a}^\dagger|0\rangle$. Let's act on it by an operator $\hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}$

$$\hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}|1\rangle = \hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}\hat{a}^\dagger|0\rangle = \hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger\left(\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a} + 1\right)|0\rangle = \hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}|0\rangle + \hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger|0\rangle = \hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger|0\rangle = \hbar\omega|1\rangle.$$

  So we see, that the function $|1\rangle$ is an eigen function of our Hamiltonian and

$$E_1 = \hbar\omega + \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega.$$

- Normalization

$$\langle 1|1\rangle = \langle 0|\hat{a}\hat{a}^\dagger|0\rangle = \langle 0|1 + \hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}|0\rangle = \langle 0|0\rangle = 1$$

- For a state $|n\rangle = \frac{\left(\hat{a}^\dagger\right)^n}{\sqrt{n!}}|0\rangle$ we have

$$\hbar\omega\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}|n\rangle = n\hbar\omega|n\rangle, \qquad \langle n|n\rangle = 1,$$

  so

$$E_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)\hbar\omega.$$

- Also $\langle n|m\rangle = 0$, for $n \neq m$, and

$$\hat{a}^\dagger|n\rangle = \sqrt{n+1}|n+1\rangle, \qquad \hat{a}|n\rangle = \sqrt{n}|n-1\rangle$$

- $\hat{x} = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}}\left(\hat{a} + \hat{a}^\dagger\right)$, and $\hat{p} = i\sqrt{\frac{m\omega\hbar}{2}}\left(\hat{a}^\dagger - \hat{a}\right)$, so
$$\langle n|\hat{x}|n\rangle = 0, \qquad \langle n|\hat{p}|n\rangle = 0$$
and
$$\langle n|\hat{x}^2|n\rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}\langle n|\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}+\hat{a}\hat{a}^\dagger|n\rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}\langle n|2\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}+1|n\rangle = (n+1/2)\frac{\hbar}{m\omega}, \qquad \langle n|\hat{p}^2|n\rangle = (n+1/2)m\omega\hbar$$
- Coherent states. For any α we construct a state:
$$|\alpha\rangle = e^{-|\alpha|^2/2}e^{\alpha\hat{a}^\dagger}|0\rangle, \qquad \langle\alpha|\alpha\rangle = 1, \qquad \langle\alpha|\hat{a}^\dagger\hat{a}|\alpha\rangle = |\alpha|^2.$$
This set of such states is overcomplete $\langle\alpha|\alpha'\rangle \neq 0$, for $\alpha \neq \alpha'$. The time evolution of these states describes the motion of a particle.

LECTURE 28
Quantum mechanics in $3D$. Many-particle states. Identical particles.

- Quantum mechanics in $3D$.
- Many-particle states.
- Identical particles.
- Bose-Einstein condensate, superfluidity.
- Fermi-surface. Superconductivity.
- Closing remarks.
- `https://youtu.be/FzcTgrxMzZk`