

Quantum Mechanics: a historical introduction

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Physics at the turn of the 19th century

At the end of the 19th century **Classical Mechanics** and **Classical Statistical Mechanics** are very well established:

- \rightsquigarrow Newton theory
- → Thermodynamics and kinetic theories
- \rightsquigarrow Electromagnetic theory and Maxwell equations
- → geometrical and physical optics understood in terms of electromagnetic waves

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However, Classical Physics is inadequate to describe some phenomena related to **emission and absorption of light**.

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Classical model: the atoms of the walls are described as charged harmonic oscillators in equilibrium with e.m. field. Electromagnetism and Statistical Mechanics predict that the energy/volume of the radiation satisfies $u(\nu, T) \propto \nu^2 T$.

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Planck (1900): the exchanged energy between e.m. wave and matter is $\Delta E = n h\nu$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\nu =$ frequency

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Planck (1900): the exchanged energy between e.m. wave and matter is $\Delta E = n h\nu$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$, $\nu =$ frequency

 $h = Planck constant \sim 10^{-27}$ Joule-seconds

Units: $[h] = \text{Energy} \times \text{Time}$ (Action) and $[\nu] = 1/\text{Time}$.

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Observations:

- i. e^- emitted only if the frequency is larger than a given value;
- ii. the kinetic energy of the e^- has a maximum;
- iii. number of e^{-} /second is proportional to the beam intensity.

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Emission and Absorption Spectra



Balmer formula: the frequencies λ_n of the emission and absorption spectra of the hydrogen atom are given by:

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_n} = R\left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{n^2}\right), \quad n = 3, 4, \dots$$

Rutherford (1911): the atom has lots of free space. Its mass is concentrated in a tiny nucleus $\sim 10^{-13}$ cm, surrounded by electrons moving far apart (atom radious $\sim 10^{-8}$ cm).



Main problem:

Electric charges in movement radiate according to Maxwell equations; how can the atom be stable? A new theory

Bohr model-atom (1913)

- 1. For most of the time no emission;
- 2. For a very short period of time there is emission of e.m. radiation with frequency $\nu_{ij} = |E_i E_i|/h$;
- **3.** The electron can have only discrete energies: $E_n = -\frac{1}{2}h\nu_e n$.



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Predictions: energy levels and amplitude of the e⁻ orbits

$$E_n = -\frac{2\pi^2}{h^2} \frac{e^4 m_e}{n^2}, \quad a_n = \frac{h^2 n^2}{4\pi^2 e^2 m_e} \qquad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

1913-24 The old quantum theory (Born, Sommerfeld)

Limitations: only bounded orbits, difficulties with multielectron atoms, lack of internal coherence

1925-26 The new theory

Matrix Mechanics: Heisenberg, Born, Jordan, Dirac Focus on the observables: e.g. amplitudes and frequencies of the emitted radiation (A_{nm}, ν_{nm}) Wave mechanics: De Broglie, Schrödinger Focus on the wave behaviour: the electron is described by a scalar function $\psi(x, t)$

A paradigmatic example

Davisson, Germer (1927): W is a source of electrons, H1 and H2 holes. On the photographic plate G scintillations are observed, which are interpreted as electron impacts on the plate.



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A typical output for small linear size of H2. The smaller is H2 the larger is the linear size of the region occupied by the spots.

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Actual pattern

Dynamics of the spot formation



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De Broglie '24: $\lambda_B = h/|p|$

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- In spite of an identical initial experimental preparation, impacts are distributed in a macroscopic region of the plate. As a result, only a statistical description of impact positions is possible → ontological probability
- The impact positions statistics differs qualitatively and quantitatively from the one observed when a single hole is open → effect of measurement in Quantum Mechanics

The Schrödinger equation

following the line of thought of Wave Mechanics

The wave equation in optics



Evolution of the generic component u of the electric field in the scalar optics approximation

$$\Delta u(x,t) - \frac{1}{v_f^2(x)} \partial_t^2 u(x,t) = 0, \qquad v_f = \lambda \nu.$$

where $v_f(x) = n(x)/c$ is the phase velocity, n(x) the refraction index of the medium, c the speed of sound.

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The monocromatic component of u satisfies

$$\Delta \tilde{u}(x,\nu) + \frac{4\pi^2\nu^2}{v_f^2(x)}\,\tilde{u}(x,\nu) = 0\,,$$

with $\tilde{u}(x,\nu) = \int dt \, e^{i2\pi\nu t} u(x,t)$.

Analogy between Geometrical Optics and Classical Mechanics: the trajectory of a **point particle** with mass m, energy E and subject to a potential V(x)

coincides

with the **trajectory of a light** propagating in a medium with phase velocity

$$v_f(x) = \frac{E}{\sqrt{2m(E-V(x))}}$$

Wave Optics (Maxwell)Wave Mechanics (Schrödinger) $\Delta \tilde{u}(x,\nu) + 4\pi^2 \frac{\nu^2}{v_f^2(x)} \tilde{u}(x,\nu) = 0$? $\downarrow \lambda \rightarrow 0$! $\downarrow \lambda \rightarrow 0$!Geometrical Optics (Fermat) \longleftrightarrow $v_f(x) = c/n(x)$ $v_f(x) = \frac{E}{\sqrt{2m(E-V(x))}}$ m, E, V(x)

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Idea: we associate to the microscopic particle a wave with

phase velocity: $v_f(x) = \frac{E}{\sqrt{2m(E - V(x))}}$ (optical analogy) frequence: $\nu = E/h$ (Planck-Einstein).

In particular: $\lambda(x) = \frac{v_f(x)}{\nu} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2m(E-V(x))}} = \frac{h}{|p|}$ (De Broglie).

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The stationary Schrödinger equation:

By analogy we assumed that $\tilde{\psi}(x,\nu) = \int dt \, e^{2\pi i\nu t} \psi(x,t)$ satisfies $\Delta \tilde{\psi}(x,\nu) + 4\pi^2 \, \frac{2m(E-V(x))}{h^2} \, \tilde{\psi}(x,\nu) = 0$

With $\hbar = h/2\pi$ we obtain the stationary Schrödinger equation

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By multiplying by $e^{-2\pi i\nu t}$, using $E = h\nu$ and integrating over ν :

$$\begin{aligned} &-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta\psi(x,t)+V(x)\psi(x,t)\\ &=\int e^{-2\pi i\nu t}h\nu\,\tilde{\psi}(x,\nu)d\nu=\frac{h}{-2\pi i}\int\frac{d}{dt}\Big(e^{-2\pi i\nu t}\Big)\tilde{\psi}(x,\nu)d\nu\\ &=i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\,\psi(x,t)\end{aligned}$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x,t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \psi(x,t) + V(x)\psi(x,t)$$
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- (*) is linear \rightarrow interference phenomena;
- $\psi(x, t)$ is complex valued: not direct physical meaning;
- Conservation law: for ψ regular enough and decaying for large x, we have $\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\psi(x,t)|^2 dx = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\psi(x,0)|^2 dx$.

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Statistical interpretation (Born, 1926)

 $|\psi(x,t)|^2 =$ probability density to find the microscopic particle in x at time t. For any measurable set A, $\int_A |\psi(x,t)|^2 dx =$ probability to find the particle in A at time t. Schrödinger: $\rho = e |\psi(x, t)|^2$ density of charge. But

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Statistical interpretation (Born, 1926)

 $|\psi(x,t)|^2 =$ probability density to find the microscopic particle in x at time t. For any measurable set A, $\int_A |\psi(x,t)|^2 dx =$ probability to find the particle in A at time t.

Suppose to perform N experiments in identical conditions, and denote with $N_{A,t}$ the number of times the particle is found in A at time t. Then: $\frac{N_{A,t}}{N} \xrightarrow[N \text{ large}]{} \int_A |\psi(x,t)|^2 dx$

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Is there a boundary among the classical and quantum description, and how to identify it?

- Free particle
- Harmonic Oscillator
- Hydrogen Atom

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 - \rightsquigarrow Double slit experiment
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We will apply the theory to **many-particle systems**, and we focus on macroscopic observables (density of particles, energy, pressure...) in the very spirit of Statistical Mechanics.

- Free particle
 - \rightsquigarrow Double slit experiment
- Harmonic Oscillator + Bose-Einstein Statistics
 → Black-body radiation
- Hydrogen Atom

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