

### Probability and Interference

April 13, 2023

### 1 Probability

#### 1.1 Exercise 1: Decay of a radioactive particle

We consider the decay of a radioactive particle, without knowing the underlying microscopic mechanisms. From experiments, we know that if the particle exists at time t, then the probability that the particle has decayed at time t+dt is  $\gamma dt$  where dt is infinitesimal. This process is called a Markovian Process because the probability to decay at every time-step is constant does not depend on the state or history of the system. This type of systems is much easier to study than Markovian systems.

- Q1 What must be the physical dimension of  $\gamma$ ?
- R1 As the probability has no dimensions,  $\gamma$  must be the inverse of a time.
- Q2 What is the probability  $P_s(t)$  that the particle has not yet decayed at time t? There are (at least) two ways to compute this quantity: working with discrete time-intervals or by immediately deriving the differential equation for  $P_s(t)$ 
  - Q2.1 What is the probability  $P_s(t)$  that the particle has not yet decayed after N time-intervals?
  - R2.1 The probability of not-decaying in a time-interval is  $1 \gamma dt$ . After N = t/dt timesteps, the product probability is  $P_s(t) = (1 \gamma dt)^N = (1 \gamma dt)^{\frac{t}{dt}}$ .
  - Q2.2 Assume that  $dt \to 0$ ; what is the probability  $P_s(t)$  in that case?
  - R2.1 By taking the exponential of the logarithm,  $P_s(t) = \exp\left[\frac{t}{dt}\log(1-\gamma dt)\right]$  and using the fact that  $\log(1-\gamma dt) \approx -\gamma dt + O(dt^2)$ , we get  $P_s(t) = \exp\left[-\frac{t}{dt}\gamma dt\right] = e^{-\gamma t}$
  - Q2.3 What is the physical dimension of  $P_s$ ?
  - R2.3 It's adimensional (it's a probability)
- Q3 What is the probability density p(t) that the particle, which has not decayed yet at time t = 0, decays exactly at time t? What is its physical dimension?
- R3 First, we need to find the probability density for a particle to decay at time t, which is given by  $\gamma$ .
  - With that, we use the composition of probabilities: the probability that the particle did not decay until time t is  $P_s(t)$ , and the probability density to decay is  $\gamma$  therefore  $p(t) = \gamma P_s(t) = \gamma e^{-\gamma t}$
- Q4 Show that p(t) is a valid probability density.

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R4  $p(t) \ge 0$  assuming that  $\gamma > 0$ . For the normalisation, you must compute the integral over all its domain, that is

$$\int_0^\infty p(t)dt = \int_0^\infty \gamma e^{-\gamma t} dt \tag{1}$$

$$= -\int_0^\infty \frac{d}{dt} \left( e^{-\gamma t} \right) dt \tag{2}$$

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$$= \int_{-\infty}^{0} \frac{d}{dt} \left( e^{-\gamma t} \right) dt \tag{3}$$

$$= \left[ \left( e^{-\gamma t} \right)_{\infty}^{0} = 1$$
 (4)

- Q5 What is the average life-time  $\langle t \rangle$  of our poor particle? What is the variance of the average life-time Var(t)?
- R5 Average life-time: we use the definition of an expectation value (first line) and then continue the calculation

$$\langle t \rangle = \int_0^\infty t p(t) dt \tag{5}$$

$$= \int_0^\infty t \gamma e^{-\gamma t} dt \tag{6}$$

$$=^{(\tau=t\gamma)} \frac{1}{\gamma} \int_0^\infty \tau e^{-\tau} d\tau \tag{7}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\gamma} \left\{ \left[ \tau e^{-\tau} \right]_{\infty}^{0} - \int_{0}^{\infty} (-e^{-\tau}) d\tau \right\} \tag{8}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\gamma} \{0+1\} \tag{9}$$

$$=\frac{1}{\gamma}\tag{10}$$

The variance, instead, is given by  $\mathbb{V}ar(t) = \langle t^2 \rangle - \langle t \rangle^2$ , so the first term is:

$$\left\langle t^2 \right\rangle = \int_0^\infty t^2 p(t) dt \tag{11}$$

$$= \int_0^\infty t^2 \gamma e^{-\gamma t} dt \tag{12}$$

$$=^{(\tau=t\gamma)} \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \int_0^\infty \tau^2 e^{-\tau} d\tau \tag{13}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\gamma^2} \left\{ \left[ (-\tau e^{-\tau} \Big|_{\infty}^0 - \int_0^\infty (-2\tau e^{-\tau}) d\tau \right] \right\}$$
 (14)

$$=\frac{1}{\gamma^2} \{0-2\} \tag{15}$$

$$=\frac{2}{\gamma^2}\tag{16}$$

So  $\mathbb{V}ar(t) = \langle t^2 \rangle - \langle t \rangle^2 = \frac{2}{\alpha^2} - \frac{1}{\alpha^2} = \frac{1}{\alpha^2}$ .

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- Q6 Imagine that a new particle has recently been discovered as a by-product of a nuclear reaction, and you must design an experiment to measure its average life-time. The experiment consists in observing the particle and measuring how long it takes for it to decay. Compute how many times (on average)  $N_s(\epsilon_r)$  you should repeat the experiment to know the average life-time of the particle with a relative error  $\epsilon_r$ ?
  - Hint: Assuming that the average time is  $\langle t \rangle \pm \sigma_t$ , where  $\sigma_t$  is the standard error, the average relative error is  $\sigma_t / \langle t \rangle$ .
  - What is the dependency of  $N_s$  on  $\epsilon_r$ ? A power-law or an exponential?
  - For power-law dependencies, the exponenti is commonly known as *sample complexity*, and it's the equivalent of computational complexity for sampling problems.
- R6 The absolute error or standard error will be  $\sigma_r = \sqrt{\mathbb{V}ar(t)/N_s} = \frac{1}{\gamma\sqrt{N_s}}$ . The absolute error is  $\epsilon_r = \sigma_r/\langle t \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N_s}}$ .

So the number of experiments required to know the average life-time with absolute accuracy  $\sigma_r$  will be  $N_s(\sigma_r) = (\gamma \sigma_r)^{-2}$  while the number of experiments required to known the average life-time given a target relative accuracy is  $N_s(\epsilon_r) = (\epsilon_r)^{-2}$ . The sample complexity is therefore 2 and we have a power-law relationship.

#### 1.2 Exercise 2: Gaussians distribution

We consider the gaussian distribution, defined by the following probability density:

$$p(x) = Z \exp\left(-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right),\tag{17}$$

where  $(x, x_0, \sigma) \in \mathbb{R}$  are real numbers and  $\sigma$  should be assumed positive. Z is an unknown normalisation factor.

- Q1 Find the normalisation factor Z for which p(x) is a correctly-normalised probability density.
  - Hint: this formula might be handy...

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-az^2} = \sqrt{\pi/a} \tag{18}$$

R1 We compute the normalisation factor...

$$Z^{-1} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left[-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] dx$$
 (19)

We can make a substitution to simplify the integration. Let  $u = \frac{x - x_0}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}$ , so  $x = \sqrt{2}\sigma u + x_0$ . Then,  $\frac{dx}{du} = \sqrt{2}\sigma$ :

$$Z^{-1} = \sqrt{2}\sigma \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left[-u^2\right] du. \tag{20}$$

We know that the integral of the standard Gaussian function is given by:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp\left[-u^2\right] du = \sqrt{\pi}.\tag{21}$$



Substitute this result back into the equation for Z:

$$Z^{-1} = \sqrt{2\pi}\sigma\tag{22}$$

Q2 Assuming  $Z^{-1} = \sigma \sqrt{2\pi}$ , compute the average value  $\langle x \rangle$ 

R2 Using the definition of an expectation value...

$$\langle x \rangle = Z^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x \exp\left[-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] dx$$
 (23)

(24)

To solve this integral, we can make a substitution. Let  $u = \frac{x - x_0}{\sqrt{2}\sigma}$ , so  $x = \sqrt{2}\sigma u + x_0$ . Then,  $\frac{dx}{du} = \sqrt{2}\sigma$ :

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-u^2) (\sqrt{2}\sigma u + x_0) du.$$
 (25)

Now, we can separate the integral into two parts:

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{\sqrt{2}\sigma}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u \exp(-u^2) du + \frac{x_0}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-u^2) du.$$
 (26)

The first integral is an odd function, so its value will be 0. The second integral is just the standard Gaussian integral, which we already know has a value of  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \exp(-u^2) du = \sqrt{\pi}$ . Plugging these results back into the equation for  $\langle x \rangle$ , we get:

$$\langle x \rangle = x_0. \tag{27}$$

Therefore, the average value  $\langle x \rangle$  is equal to  $x_0$ .

- Q3 Compute the variance Var(x).
- R3 As before, we need to compute  $\langle x^2 \rangle$ :

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = Z^{-1} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 \exp\left[-\frac{(x-x_0)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right] dx \tag{28}$$

(29)

and using the same change of variables, we obtain



$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-u^2} (\sqrt{2}\sigma u + x_0)^2 du \tag{30}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (2\sigma^2 u^2 + \sqrt{2}\sigma u x_0 + x_0^2) e^{-u^2} du$$
 (31)

$$=x_0^2 + \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u^2 e^{-u^2} du$$
 (32)

$$=x_0^2 + \frac{2\sigma^2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u^2 e^{-u^2} du$$
 (33)

(34)

And this last integral can be solved by parts and equals to  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u^2 e^{-u^2} du = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2}$ , therefore we obtain:

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = x_0^2 + \sigma^2 \tag{35}$$

Therefore the variance will be

$$Var(x) = \langle x^{2} \rangle - \langle x \rangle^{2} = x_{0}^{2} + \sigma^{2} - x_{0}^{2} = \sigma^{2}$$
(36)

- Q4 Assuming that x represents the position of a particle on a line, what is the physical interpretation of  $x_0$  and  $\sigma$ ?
- R4  $x_0$  is the average position of the particle, while  $\sigma$  is the variance of the resulting distribution. This means that if I measure N times the particle, I will find the average position N with uncertainty  $\sigma/\sqrt{N}$ .
- Q5 If I define the joint probability density for the position of two particles as  $\tilde{p}(x,y) = p(x)p(y)$  are the positions of the two variables independent? Why? How can I modify  $\tilde{p}(x,y)$  to correlate the two variables?
- R5 The two random variables are independent by definition, as the configuration of x does not affect y. I can add any function mixing x and y to correlate the two variables, for example  $\tilde{p}(x,y) = p(x)p(y)p(xy)$ .

#### 1.3 Exercise 3: Interference and Young's slit experiment

We consider the Double slit experiment of Young that was described in the main lecture. We consider a plane located at z=0 with two slits separated by a distance a along the axis  $\hat{x}$ . A plane wave with impulse  $p=\hbar/\lambda$  and energy  $E=\hbar\omega$  and travelling along the direction  $\hat{z}$  illuminates the plane. The slits diffract the fields, and for z>0 the field is determined by the linear combination of the two wavefronts. We place a screen along the axis of propagation at position  $D\gg a$  parallel to the plane with the slits.

We neglect the diffraction due to the particular shape of the slits, and assume that the field diffracted by every slit  $i = \{+, -\}$  has a spherical wave-front given by

$$\psi(r) = \psi_0 e^{ip_0 r/\hbar} \tag{37}$$

where r is the distance between the point considered and the source slit.



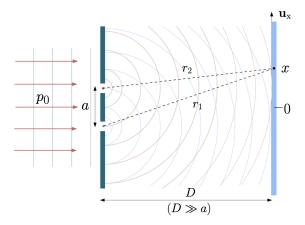


Figure 1: Schematic diagram of Young's double-slit experiment.

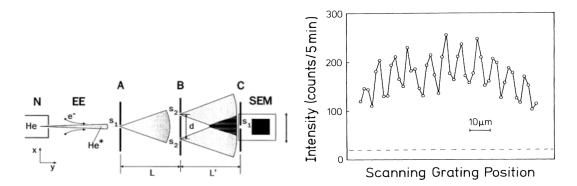


Figure 2: Schematic diagram of Young's double-slit experiment and measurement data (From PRL 66, 2689).

- Q1 Working in a 2D plane, the position of the slits is therefore  $\vec{a}_{\pm} = (0, \pm \frac{a}{2})$ . Compute the field  $\psi_{\pm}(x)$  diffracted by each slit arriving on the screen (D, x) and simplify the formula by using the fact that  $D \gg a, x$
- R1 Given the distance  $r_{\pm}$  between the screen and each slit,



$$r_{\pm} = \sqrt{D^2 + (x \mp \frac{a}{2})^2} \tag{38}$$

$$= D\sqrt{1 + \frac{1}{D^2}(x \mp \frac{a}{2})^2} \tag{39}$$

$$= D\left(1 + \frac{1}{D^2}(x \mp \frac{a}{2})^2 + O(D^{-4})\right) \tag{40}$$

$$= D\left(1 + \frac{1}{2D^2}(x \mp \frac{a}{2})^2 + O(D^{-4})\right) \tag{41}$$

$$=D + \frac{x^2}{2D} + \frac{a^2}{8D} \mp \frac{xa}{2D} + O(D^{-3})$$
 (42)

The field  $\psi_{\pm}(x)$  diffracted by each slit arriving on the screen (x, D) is:

$$\psi_{\pm}(x) = \psi_0 e^{i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}r_{\pm}} \tag{43}$$

$$\approx \psi_0 e^{ip_0 D/\hbar} exp \left[ i \frac{p_0}{\hbar} \left( \frac{x^2 \mp ax + \frac{a^2}{4}}{2D} \right) \right]$$
 (44)

Q2 Compute the total incident field on the screen  $\psi(x)$  using the same assumption as above. First we compute the difference in the fields:

$$\Delta r = r_+ - r_- = \frac{xa}{D} \tag{45}$$

$$\psi(x) = \psi_{+}(x) + \psi_{-}(x) \tag{46}$$

$$= \psi_0 e^{i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}r_+} + \psi_0 e^{i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}r_-} \tag{47}$$

$$= \psi_0 e^{i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}r_-} \left( 1 + \exp\left[i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}\Delta r\right] \right) \tag{48}$$

- Q3 Compute the probability density P(x) to find a particle on the point x of the screen. What is the distance  $\delta$  between the interference fringes?
- R3 The total density is:

$$P(x) = |\psi(x)|^2 \tag{49}$$

$$= \left|\psi_0\right|^2 \left(1 + \exp\left[i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}\Delta r\right]\right) \left(1 + \exp\left[-i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}\Delta r\right]\right) \tag{50}$$

$$= |\psi_0|^2 \left( 2 + \exp\left[i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}\Delta r\right] + \exp\left[-i\frac{p_0}{\hbar}\Delta r\right] \right) \tag{51}$$

$$=2|\psi_0|^2\left(1+\cos\left[\frac{p_0}{\hbar}\Delta r\right]\right) \tag{52}$$

$$=2|\psi_0|^2\left(1+\cos\left[\frac{p_0}{\hbar}\frac{xa}{D}\right]\right) \tag{53}$$

$$=2|\psi_0|^2 \left(1 + \cos[2\pi x \frac{p_0}{h} \frac{a}{D}]\right)$$
 (54)



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Which means that the amplitude is modulated by  $\cos[2\pi x \frac{p_0}{h} \frac{a}{D}] = \cos[2\pi \frac{x}{\delta}]$  which has a period of

$$\delta = \frac{\lambda D}{a} \tag{55}$$

where I used the De Broglie wavelength relationship  $p_0 = \frac{h}{\lambda}$ .

- Q4 What is the momentum along the x direction transmitted by a particle with wavelength  $\lambda$  to the screen under a classical assumption of the particle taking a single path? Assuming that the screen is mounted on a detector, what precision  $\delta p_x$  is needed to discriminate if the particle comes from one or the other slit?
- R4 The projection on the  $\hat{x}$  axis of the momentum  $\vec{p}$  of the photons hitting the screen at the point x is  $p_x(x) = p_0 \sin(\theta)$  (see Fig. 3). Assuming  $\theta_{\pm} \approx \frac{x \pm a/2}{D} + O(\frac{a}{D})$  we obtain:

$$p_x^{\pm}(x) = p_0 \sin\left(\frac{x \pm a/2}{D}\right) \approx p_0 \frac{x \pm a/2}{D} \tag{56}$$

which is valid to second order in  $\frac{a}{D}$ .

The momentum difference between  $p_x^+$  and  $p_x^-$  is then:

$$\Delta p_x = p_x^+ - p_x^- = p_0 \frac{a}{D} \tag{57}$$

and therefore our measurement apparatus will need a precision of  $\delta p_x < p_0 \frac{a}{D}$  to determine from which slit the photons came from.

- Q5 Is it possible to measure at the same time the interference fringes and the slit that the particles came from?
- R5 To determine the slit we need a momentum resolution of

$$\delta p_x \ll p_0 \frac{a}{D} \tag{58}$$

from Heisenberg's uncertainty principle we know that

$$\delta p_x \delta x \ge \frac{\hbar}{2} \tag{59}$$

so assuming  $\delta p_x \ll p_0 \frac{a}{D}$  we have that

$$\delta x \gg \frac{\hbar}{2p_0} \frac{D}{a} \tag{60}$$

and using the fact that  $p_0 = \frac{h}{\lambda}$  we obtain

$$\delta x \gg \frac{\lambda}{\pi} \frac{D}{a} = \frac{\delta}{4\pi} \tag{61}$$

But if the fringes are separated by  $\delta = \frac{a}{\lambda D}$ , as we computed before, this means that  $\delta x > \delta$  and therefore according to the principle of Heisenberg's indetermination we will not be able to resolve the fringes.



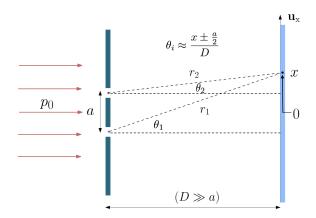


Figure 3: Incident angle of the photons on the screen.

Q6 In 1991, O. Carnal and J. Mlynek performed a Young experiment by accelerating helium atoms through two slits spaced by  $a=8\mu m$  (Phys. Rev. Lett. 66, 2689 (1991)). The helium atoms are then detected on a wall at a distance D=64cm from the slits. It is assumed that all helium atoms have the same velocity v=940m/s. Knowing that the mass of a helium atom is  $m=6.64\cdot 10^{-27}kg$ , what is their de Broglie wavelength? Is this value compatible with the results of fig. 2?

R6 We have

$$a = 8\mu m \tag{62}$$

$$D = 64cm (63)$$

$$\delta = \frac{\lambda D}{a} = 10\mu m \text{from the image} \tag{64}$$

So the De-Broglie wavelength is:

$$\lambda = \frac{\delta a}{D} = 0.12nm \tag{65}$$

Instead, knowing that the atoms have the properties:

$$v = 940m/s \tag{66}$$

$$m = 6.641 \cdot 10^{-27} kg \tag{67}$$

we find

$$p = mv = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \tag{68}$$

therefore

$$\lambda' = \frac{h}{mv} = 0.106nm \tag{69}$$

#### 1.4 Excercise 4: Photo-electric effect

In 1905 Einstein predicted the corpuscular nature of light (existence of quantas of lights, the photons) and stated that a purely wave-description could not explain the photo-electric effect, which was later

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experimentally observed by Millikan in 1906. The photo-electric effect predicts that when light with a sufficiently high energy hits a material, electrons are emitted with an energy proportional to the energy of the photons in the incoming light beam. The difference between the energy absorbed from a single photon and the emitted electron is equal to the binding energy of the electron. We consider here a similar experience: a Potassium cathode is illuminated with light of different wave-lengths:

- We consider incoming light with  $\lambda_1 = 253.7nm$ , and we observe emitted electrons with an energy of  $K_1 = 3.14eV$ .
- We consider incoming light with  $\lambda_1 = 589nm$ , and we observe emitted electrons with an energy of  $K_2 = 0.46eV$ .

Now answer the following questions, considering that the speed of light is  $c = 3.00 \cdot 10^8 m/s$  and that  $1eV = 1.6 \cdot 10^{-19} m/s$ :

- Q1 Compute the Planck's constant that gives the relation between wave-length and photon energy.
- R1 The energy of a single photon is

$$E_{ph} = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \tag{70}$$

and this must match the energy of the emitted electron which is

$$E_e = E_0 + K \tag{71}$$

where  $E_0$  is the binding energy and K is the kinetic energy. Then, we can build the system of equations

$$\begin{cases} \frac{hc}{\lambda_1} = E_0 + K_1\\ \frac{hc}{\lambda_2} = E_0 + K_2 \end{cases}$$
 (72)

obtaining

$$hc\left(\frac{1}{\lambda_1} - \frac{1}{\lambda_2}\right) = K_1 - K_2 \tag{73}$$

and therefore

$$h = \frac{1}{c}(K_1 - K_2) \left(\frac{1}{\lambda_1} - \frac{1}{\lambda_2}\right)^{-1} = 6.63 \cdot 10^{-34} Js \tag{74}$$

- Q2 Compute the binding energy of the electrons in Potassium,  $E_0$ .
- R2 Now that we know h, we can extract the binding energy which will be

$$E_0 = \frac{hc}{\lambda_1} - K_1 = 1.75eV \tag{75}$$

- Q3 Compute the maximum wave-length that is necessary to observe photo-electric effect for this material.
- R3  $\lambda_{max} = \frac{hc}{E_0} = 710nm$