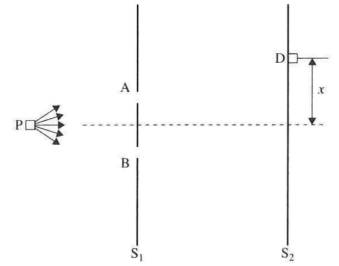


H2: the wave function and the uncertainty principle

2.1 wave particle duality

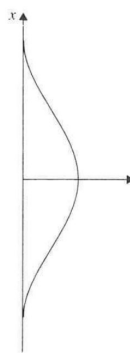
wave-particle: experiment

Source emits monoenergetic particles, ex: electrons
 > screen S_1 contains two slits A and B
 > detector screen S_2 behind S_1

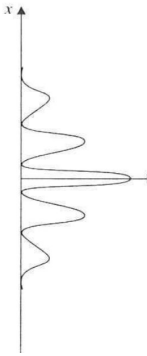


wave-particle: result

expectation:



reality:



wave-particle: explanation

When the particle goes through the slit, it behaves like a wave
 > interference with itself

When the particle is detected it behaves like a particle

> in one experiment we have both wave and particle behaviour

properties of wave particle

- if we put a detector at slit A, there is no diffraction pattern
 > the place of detection determines the outcome

- when we only shoot one e^- at a time, there is still diffraction
 > the particles interfere with themselves

- there is only wave or only particle behaviour at a certain time
 > states are complementary

- we cannot predict the outcome, since the place of detection changes the outcome
 > we can predict the probability
 > wave-particle is fundamentally statistical

- we can define a wave function for which:

$$P(x, y, z, t) \propto |\Psi(x, y, z, t)|^2.$$

superposition

let Ψ_A be the wavefunction for slit A, Ψ_B for slit B

> then: $P_A \propto |\Psi_A|^2$, $P_B \propto |\Psi_B|^2$.

and if both slits are open we find a wavefunction:

$$\Psi = \Psi_A + \Psi_B.$$

corresponding to a distribution:

$$P \propto |\Psi_A + \Psi_B|^2$$

2.2 interpretation of the wave function	
position probability density	<p>Consider an open space with particles > all identical, independent systems with an external force working on them > each particle can be described using a wave function Ψ for that particle > the probability of finding a particle within a volume $d\mathbf{r} = dx dy dz$:</p> $P(\mathbf{r}, t) d\mathbf{r} = \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) ^2 d\mathbf{r}$ <p>so that:</p> $P(\mathbf{r}, t) = \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) ^2 = \Psi^*(\mathbf{r}, t) \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ <p>the <i>position probability density</i></p> <p>(since $\Psi \in \mathbb{C}$, Ψ^* is the complex toegevoegde)</p>
normalisation of the probability	<p>the total probability should be 1:</p> $\int \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) ^2 d\mathbf{r} = 1$
2.2.1 the superposition principle	
superposition principle	<p>If there are multiple states then:</p> $\Psi = c_1 \Psi_1 + c_2 \Psi_2$ <p>where c_1 and c_2 are complex numbers</p> <p>We also find:</p> <p>Let us write the (complex) wave functions Ψ_1 and Ψ_2 in the form</p> $\Psi_1 = \Psi_1 e^{i\alpha_1}, \quad \Psi_2 = \Psi_2 e^{i\alpha_2}.$ <p>Using (2.8), we find that the square of the modulus of Ψ is given by</p> $ \Psi ^2 = c_1 \Psi_1 ^2 + c_2 \Psi_2 ^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}\{c_1 c_2^* \Psi_1 \Psi_2 \exp[i(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)]\}$ <p>so in general:</p> $ \Psi ^2 \neq c_1 \Psi_1 ^2 + c_2 \Psi_2 ^2.$
2.3 wave functions for particles having a definite momentum	
the wave function	<p>consider a free particle with mass m moving along the x-axis with momentum $\mathbf{p} = p_x \mathbf{e}_x$ > we can describe it with a regular plane wave:</p> $\Psi(x, t) = A \exp\{i[kx - \omega(k)t]\}$ <p>however we know the relations:</p> $E = h\nu, \quad p = \frac{h}{\lambda}.$ <p>which can be rewritten as:</p> $E = \hbar\omega, \quad p = \hbar k.$ <p>thus the wave function:</p> $\Psi(x, t) = A \exp\{i[p_x x - E(p_x)t]/\hbar\},$
differential wave equation	<p>We note that the wave function (2.13) satisfies the two relations</p> $-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \Psi = p_x \Psi$ <p>and</p> $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi = E \Psi$

3D wavefunction	<p>Same, extended to 3D:</p> $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = A \exp\{i[\mathbf{k} \cdot \mathbf{r} - \omega(k)t]\}$ $= A \exp\{i[\mathbf{p} \cdot \mathbf{r} - E(p)t/\hbar]\}$ <p>With the differential equation:</p> $-i\hbar \nabla \Psi = \mathbf{p} \Psi$
normalisation of the wave function	<p>We need to satisfy:</p> $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \Psi(x, t) ^2 dx = 1.$ <p>however, plane waves cannot satisfy this expression, since:</p> $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \Psi(x, t) ^2 dx = A ^2 \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx$ <p>which cant be 1 > problem > solution: wave packets</p>
2.4 wave packets	
wave packet	<p>Consider a plane wave: $\Psi(x, t) = A \exp\{i[kx - \omega(k)t]\}$</p> <p>The most general superposition is given by:</p> $\Psi(x, t) = (2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{i[p_x x - E(p_x)t]/\hbar} \phi(p_x) dp_x$ <p>- where $(2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2}$ is for later convenience - where $\phi(p_x)$ is the amplitude of the wave corresponding to p_x</p> <p>assume $\phi(p_x)$ is sharply peaked around $p_x = p_0$ and falls to zero around $(p_0 - \Delta p_x, p_0 + \Delta p_x)$ > we can rewrite the wave as:</p> $\Psi(x, t) = (2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{i\beta(p_x)/\hbar} \phi(p_x) dp_x$ <p>where</p> $\beta(p_x) = p_x x - E(p_x)t$ <p>now Ψ is largest when $\beta(p_x)$ is constant > $\beta(p_x)$ should be constant at p_0 > thus: $\left[\frac{d\beta(p_x)}{dp_x} \right]_{p_x=p_0} = 0$</p> <p>is the condition for the <i>centre of the wave packet</i></p>
group velocity of the wave packet	<p>we know: $x = v_g t$</p> <p>where</p> $v_g = \left[\frac{dE(p_x)}{dp_x} \right]_{p_x=p_0}$ <p>> thus the centre of the wave packet travels at constant speed</p> <p>where the speed can be rewritten as:</p> $v_g = \left[\frac{d\omega(k)}{dk} \right]_{k=k_0}$ <p>since:</p> $E = \hbar\omega, \text{ and } p_x = \hbar k,$
phase velocity	<p>= velocity of propagation of the individual plane waves</p> $v_{ph} = \frac{\omega(k_0)}{k_0} = \frac{E(p_0)}{p_0}.$

link between v_g and v_{ph}	<p>Due to the correspondence principle, in the limit we know:</p> $v_g = v = \frac{p_0}{m}.$ <p>thus:</p> $\frac{dE(p_x)}{dp_x} = \frac{p_x}{m}$ <p>which gives the relation:</p> $E(p_x) = \frac{p_x^2}{2m}.$ <p>we can therefore find the link:</p> $v_{ph} = \frac{p_0^2/2m}{p_0} = \frac{p_0}{2m} = \frac{v_g}{2}.$
wave packet mathematically	<p>The energy can be written as:</p> $E(p_x) = \frac{p_0^2}{2m} + \frac{p_0}{m}(p_x - p_0) + \frac{(p_x - p_0)^2}{2m}$ $= E(p_0) + v_g(p_x - p_0) + \frac{(p_x - p_0)^2}{2m}.$ <p>but since $\phi(p_x)$ is negligible outside Δp_x, we can neglect the last term: > so for t small enough:</p> $\frac{1}{2m\hbar}(\Delta p_x)^2 t \ll 1.$ <p>We can use this approximation in the wave packet integral:</p> $\Psi(x, t) = (2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{i[p_x x - E(p_x)t]/\hbar} \phi(p_x) dp_x$ <p>Which reduces to:</p> $\Psi(x, t) = e^{i[p_0 x - E(p_0)t]/\hbar} F(x, t)$ <p>where</p> $F(x, t) = (2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{i(p_x - p_0)(x - v_g t)/\hbar} \phi(p_x) dp_x.$ <p>> The wave packet (2.37) is the product of a plane wave of wavelength $\lambda_0 = h/ p_0$ and angular frequency $\omega_0 = E(p_0)/\hbar$ times a <i>modulating</i> amplitude or <i>envelope</i> function $F(x, t)$ such that $\Psi(x, t) ^2 = F(x, t) ^2$. Since</p> $F(x, t = 0) = F(x + v_g t, t) \quad (2.39)$ <p>this envelope function propagates <i>without change of shape</i> with the group velocity v_g (see Fig. 2.4). It should be borne in mind that this is only true for times t satisfying the condition (2.36); at later times the shape of the wave packet will change as it propagates.</p>

2.4.1 Fourier transforms and momentum space wave function

Wave function in momentum space

Define $\psi(x) \equiv \Psi(x, t = 0)$

We find mathematically:

$$\psi(x) = (2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2} \int e^{ip_x x/\hbar} \phi(p_x) dp_x$$

For which the Fourier-coefficients are:

$$\phi(p_x) = (2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2} \int e^{-ip_x x/\hbar} \psi(x) dx$$

>> if we include time this concludes:

$$\Psi(x, t) = (2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{ip_x x/\hbar} \Phi(p_x, t) dp_x \quad \text{in space}$$

and

$$\Phi(p_x, t) = (2\pi\hbar)^{-1/2} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-ip_x x/\hbar} \Psi(x, t) dx \quad \text{in momentum space}$$

normalisation of the wave function

If the wave function $\phi(p_x)$ is normalised to unity:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\phi(p_x)|^2 dp_x = 1$$

then the wave function $\psi(x)$ is also normalised to unity:

2.4.2 Gaussian wave packet

properties of Gaussian wave packet

Consider the momentum wave function :

$$\phi(p_x) = C \exp\left[-\frac{(p_x - p_0)^2}{2(\Delta p_x)^2}\right]$$

- peaked around p_0

- Δp_x is the width of the distribution

- $|\phi(p_x)|^2$ drops to 1/e of its maximum at $p_x = p_0 \pm \Delta p_x$

> normalizing the wave function

we know:

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\alpha u^2} e^{-\beta u} du = \left(\frac{\pi}{\alpha}\right)^{1/2} e^{\beta^2/4\alpha}$$

with $u = p_x - p_0$, $\alpha = (\Delta p_x)^{-2}$ and $\beta = 0$, we have

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\phi(p_x)|^2 dp_x = |C|^2 \pi^{1/2} \Delta p_x.$$

The normalisation condition (2.44) is therefore fulfilled by taking

$$|C|^2 = \pi^{-1/2} (\Delta p_x)^{-1},$$

thus: $C = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Delta p_x \sqrt{\pi}}}$

which gives

$$\phi(p)_x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\Delta p_x \sqrt{\pi}}} \exp\left(-\frac{(p_x - p_0)^2}{2(\Delta p_x)^2}\right)$$

wave function in space

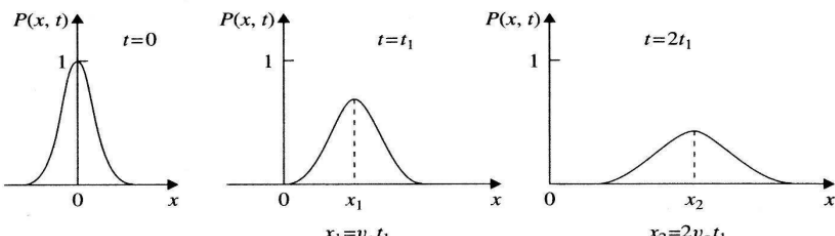
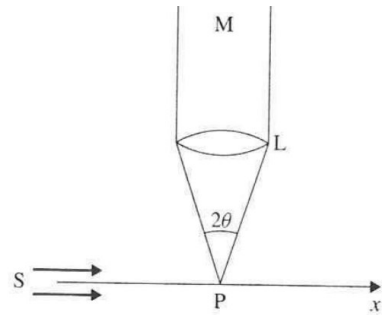
We can find the wave function in space $\psi(x)$ using Fourier analysis
> we will find once again a gaussian wave with the properties:

- maximum at $x=0$

- falls to 1/e of its maximum at $x=\pm\Delta x$

- Δx the width of the wave

> thus: $\Delta x \Delta p_x = \hbar$

<p>evolution of the wave over time</p>	<p>we can find an expression for the wave and thus the probability density:</p> $P(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{\Delta p_x / \hbar}{\sqrt{1 + (\Delta p_x)^4 t^2 / (m^2 \hbar^2)}} \exp \left[-\frac{(\Delta p_x / \hbar)^2 (x - v_g t)^2}{1 + (\Delta p_x)^4 t^2 / (m^2 \hbar^2)} \right]$ <p>with $v_g = p_0/m$</p> <p>We can see that the width Δx of the wave packet changes over time:</p> $\Delta x(t) \equiv \frac{\hbar}{\Delta p_x} \left[1 + \frac{(\Delta p_x)^4}{m^2 \hbar^2} t^2 \right]^{1/2}$ <p>> the wave becomes more delocalised over time</p> 
<h3>2.5 The Heisenberg uncertainty principle</h3>	
<p>Heisenberg uncertainty principle</p>	<p>the width Δx of the space-distribution is linked to the width Δp_x of the momentum-distr.:</p> $\Delta x \Delta p_x \geq \hbar$ <p>> certainty in x-position means uncertainty in x-momentum</p>
<h4>2.5.1 the γ-ray microscope</h4>	
<p>γ-ray microscope</p>	<p>Consider a microscope that radiates waves with wavelength λ</p> <p>> position of particle can be determined to an error:</p> $\Delta x = \frac{\lambda}{\sin \theta}$ <p>in order to measure the position of a particle, a photon needs to Compton-scatter on the particle and re-enter the microscope</p> <p>> the photon gets recoil-momentum: $p_\gamma = h/\lambda$.</p> <p>> we can never know the momentum for the particle, since we only know the angle θ at which the photon got scattered</p> <p>> uncertainty in the momentum:</p> $\Delta p_x \simeq \frac{h}{\lambda} \sin \theta$ <p>thus we find:</p> $\Delta x \Delta p_x \simeq h$ 

2.5.2 stability of atoms

Bohr radius

= radius for which an e^- is in its ground energy state

In classical energy the energy of a e^- in orbit with radius r is given by:

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)r}$$

> where r can be any radius

> e^- can have any energy-level

however in quantum, the energy levels are quantised, not continuous

> say p is the average momentum of the e^-

> momentum is defined within a range Δp of p

> this implies there is a smallest value of uncertainty Δr for the radius: \hbar/p

> say r is the average radius, we have $rp \simeq \hbar$ and thus:

$$E(r) \approx \frac{\hbar^2}{2mr^2} - \frac{e^2}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)r}$$

There is a minimum value E_0 for E at $r = r_0$ such that $dE/dr = 0$:

$$r_0 = \frac{(4\pi\epsilon_0)\hbar^2}{me^2} = a_0 : \text{de Bohr straal}$$

and thus we find:

$$E(r = r_0) = -\frac{m}{2\hbar^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)} \right)^2$$

>> lowest value of E compatible with the uncertainty principle

2.5.3 the uncertainty relation for time and energy

time-energy uncertainty

let $\psi(t) = \psi(r=r_0, t)$ be the time-wave function for a fixed $r=r_0$

> can be expressed with superposition of waves with different angular frequencies:

$$\Psi(t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int G(\omega) e^{-i\omega t} d\omega$$

Where the $G(\omega)$ can be found with Fourier-analysis:

$$G(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int \Psi(t) e^{i\omega t} dt$$

we thus find the relation:

$$\Delta\omega\Delta t \gtrsim 1.$$

and since $E = \hbar\omega$ we find:

$$\Delta E\Delta t \gtrsim \hbar.$$

interpretation of t-E uncertainty

Since t is a parameter, not a variable, we cannot use the same interpretation as x - p unc.

However $\Delta E\Delta t$ implies that if a state exists for only a time Δt

> then the energy can only be defined to a precision $\hbar/\Delta t$

2.5.4 Energy width and natural lifetime of excited states of atoms

energy an lifetime of a state

consider an excited state in an atom with energy E_b

> define the lifetime τ_b of the state as the average duration of the state

ie: after a time τ_b , half of the atoms have emitted a photon

> the energy of the state can be found in the interval:

$$\Delta E_b = \frac{\hbar}{\tau_b}$$

the natural energy width of state b

energy of ground state

The ground state should be stable

> $\tau_a = \infty$ and thus the energy is sharply defined, $\Delta E_a = 0$

natural linewidth of a frequency	<p>there is a uncertainty in energy > energy emitted between states a and b is not sharply defined ie: there is an interval of energies:</p> $\Delta E_{ab} = \Delta E_a + \Delta E_b = \hbar \left(\frac{1}{\tau_a} + \frac{1}{\tau_b} \right)$ <p>the natural linewidth is defined as <i>the interval of frequencies of emitted photons</i>:</p> $\Delta \nu_{ab} = \Delta E_{ab} / h.$
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