

מכניקה קלאסית וקוונטית למתמטיקאים

האוניברסיטה העברית, סתיו 1996

מס' הקורס: 80718. בינתיים זהו קורס שנתי, אולם אני מנסה לחלקו לשני קורסים סמסטריאליים.

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שעות קבלה: ימי שלישי 10:30-11:30.

שעות הקורס: ימי חמישי 9:45-10:00 (אף אחד לא יבכה אם ימצא זמן יותר מוצלח). מקום הקורס עדיין לא נקבע.

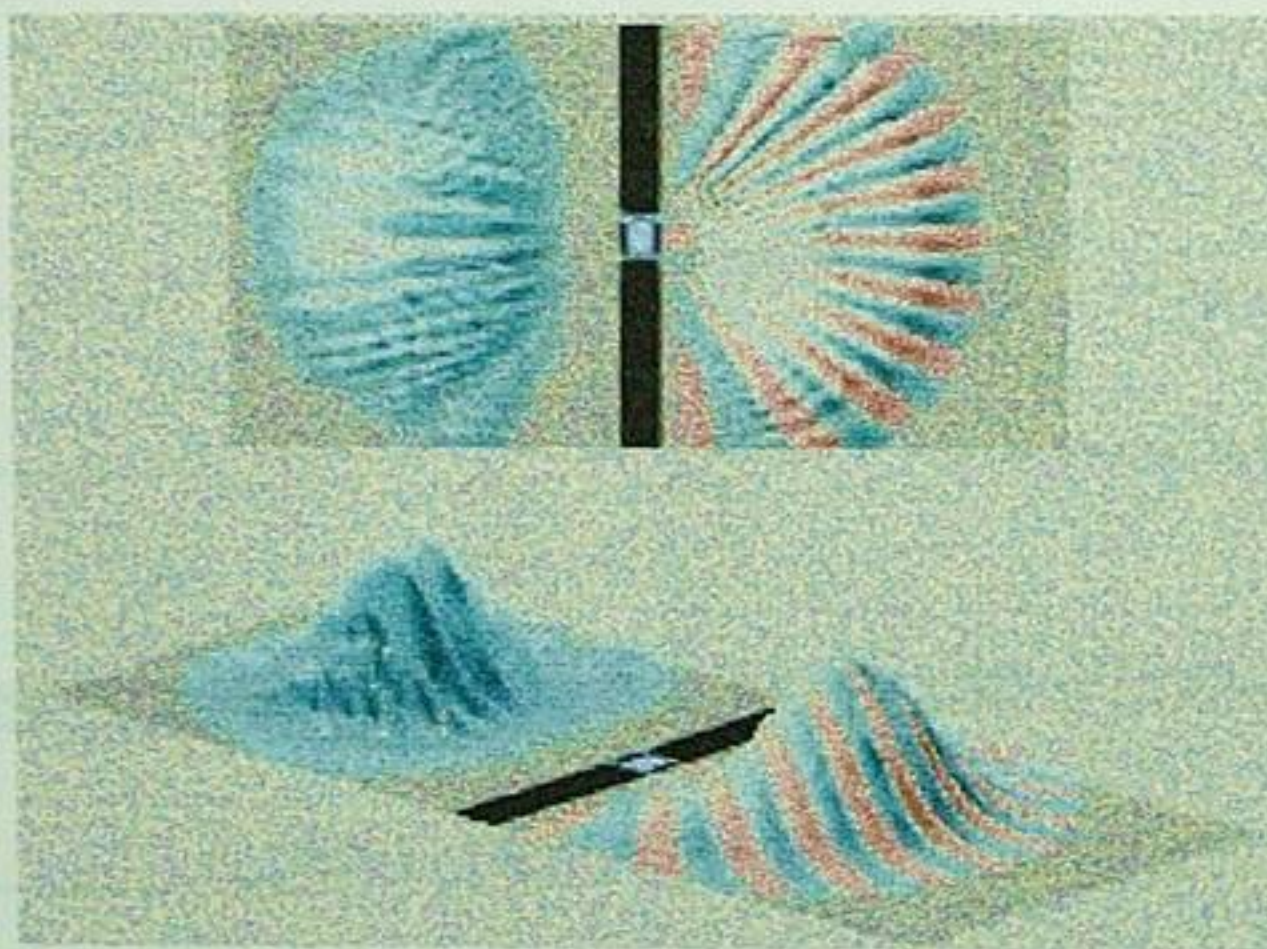
מטרת הקורס: לעזור למתמטיקאים להבין את העקרונות הבסיסיים (והחשובים) ביותר בפיסיקה. השפה תהיה נוחה למתמטיקאים, אולם לא אנסה לשמור על דיוק מתמטי מלא - זו אינה המטרה.

נושאי הלימוד בסמסטר א: (תכנית אופטימית) חשבון ווריאציות ומשוואות Euler-Lagrange בכמה הקשרים. סימטריות וחוקי שימור. הניסוח של Hamilton, סוגרי Poisson וטיפ-טיפה על גיאומטריה סימפלקטית. ניסויי התאבכות ועקיפה. קוואנטיזציה ע"י אינטגרציה על מסלולים וקוואנטיזציה קנונית. הסתברות קוונטית והפרדוקס של Bell. משפט Von-Neumann. האוסצילטור ההרמוני. הצגות של $SO(3)$ ו- $SU(2)$, אפקט Zeeman וספין. תבניות דיפרנציאליות ומשוואות Maxwell. מילים בודדות על תורת היחסות הפרטית והכללית ועל תורות שדה.

נושאי הלימוד בסמסטר ב: אללה אכבר. נבחר איזשהו נושא קצת יותר צר ונלמד אותו יותר לעומק. מה בדיוק זה יהיה? ראו בתחילת השורה הקודמת.

ספרות:

1. Gelfand&Fomin, Calculus of Variations.
2. J.J. Sakurai, Modern Quantum Mechanics.
3. Feynman&Hibbs, Quantum Mechanics and Path Integrals.
4. G. Mackey, Mathematical Foundation of Quantum Mechanics.
5. G. Mackey, Induced Representations of Groups and Quantum Mechanics.
6. Bamberg&Sternberg, A Course in Mathematics for Students of Physics.
7. ספרות נוספת ע"פ הצורך.



Quantum Mechanics or Quantum Theory, branch of mathematical physics that deals with the emission and absorption of energy by matter and with the motion of material particles. Because it holds that energy and matter exist in tiny, discrete amounts, quantum mechanics is particularly applicable to **ELEMENTARY PARTICLES** and the interactions between them. According to the older theories of classical physics, energy is treated solely as a continuous phenomenon (i.e., WAVES), and matter is assumed to occupy a very specific region of space and to move in a continuous manner. According to the quantum theory, energy is emitted and absorbed in a small packet called a quantum (pl. quanta), which in some situations behaves as particles of matter do; particles exhibit certain wavelike properties when in motion and are no longer viewed as localized in a given region but as spread out to some degree. The quantum theory thus proposes a dual nature for both waves and particles, with one aspect predominating in some situations and the other predominating in other situations. Quantum mechanics is needed to explain many properties of matter, such as the temperature dependence of the **SPECIFIC HEAT** of solids, as well as when very small quantities of matter or energy are involved, as in the interaction of elementary particles and fields, but the theory of **RELATIVITY** assumes importance in the special situation where very large speeds are involved. Together they form the theoretical basis of modern physics. (The results of classical physics approximate those of quantum mechanics for large scale events and those of relativity when ordinary speeds are involved.) Quantum theory was developed principally over a period of thirty years. The first contribution was the explanation of **BLACKBODY** radiation in 1900 by Max **PLANCK**, who proposed that the energies of any harmonic oscillator, such as the atoms of a blackbody radiator, are restricted to certain values, each of which is an integral (whole number) multiple of a basic minimum value. In 1905 **Albert EINSTEIN** proposed that the radiation itself is also quantized, and he used the new theory to explain the **PHOTOELECTRIC EFFECT**. Niels **BOHR** used the quantum theory in 1913 to explain both atomic structure and atomic spectra, showing the connection between the energy levels of an atom's electrons and the frequencies of light given off and absorbed by the atom. Quantum mechanics, the final mathematical formulation of the quantum theory, was developed during the 1920s. In 1924 **Louis de BROGLIE** proposed that particles exhibit wavelike properties. This hypothesis was confirmed experimentally in 1927 by **Clinton J. Davisson** and **Leita H. Germer**, who observed **DIFFRACTION** of a beam of electrons. Two different formulations of quantum mechanics were presented following de Broglie's suggestion. The wave mechanics of **Erwin SCHRODINGER** (1926) involves the use of a mathematical entity, the wave function, which is related to the probability of finding a particle at a given point in space. The matrix mechanics of **Werner HEISENBERG** (1925) makes no mention of wave functions or similar concepts but was shown to be mathematically equivalent to Schrodinger's theory. Quantum mechanics was combined with the theory of relativity in the formulation of **P.A.M. DIRAC** (1928), which also predicted the existence of **ANTIPARTICLES**. A particularly important discovery of the quantum theory is the **uncertainty principle**, enunciated by Heisenberg in 1927, which places an absolute theoretical limit on the accuracy of certain measurements; as a result the assumption by earlier scientists that the physical state of a system could be measured exactly and used to predict future states had to be abandoned. Other developments of the theory include quantum statistics, presented in one form by **Einstein** and **S.N. Bose** (**Bose-Einstein** statistics, which apply to **BOSONS**) and in another by **Dino** and **Enrico FERMI** (**Fermi-Dino** statistics, which apply to **FERMIONS**); quantum electronics, which deals with interactions involving quantum energy levels and resonance, as in **LASERS**; quantum gravitation, the quantum theory of gravitational fields; and quantum field theory. In quantum field theory, interactions between particles result from the exchange of quanta: electromagnetic forces arise from the exchange of **PHOTONS**, weak nuclear forces (see **WEAK INTERACTION**) from the exchange of **W AND Z PARTICLES**, strong nuclear forces (see **STRONG INTERACTION**) from the exchange of **gluons**, and **GRAVITATION** from the exchange of **gravitons**. See also **QUANTUM ELECTRODYNAMICS**; **QUANTUM CHROMODYNAMICS**.

מכניקה קלאסית וקוונטית - חלק ראשון - פתרון

1. ✓ גרסה חזקה של חוק גרביטציה ניוטונית

2. ✓ אורך לרנט, אולי חשבו, Brachistochrone, אולי חשבו

3. ✓ $F=ma$; חשבון דיפרנציאלי

4. ✓ מכניקה קלאסית, חשבון דיפרנציאלי

5. ✓ גיאומטריה סימפלקטית

6. מקוונטציה קלאסית, חשבון דיפרנציאלי, קלאסית

7. ✓ הסתברות קוונטית

8. חשבון וול-נימן

9. ✓ האנליזה של חוקי ניוטון

10. חזרה על $SO(3)$

11. חזרה על $SO(3)$, חשבון דיפרנציאלי

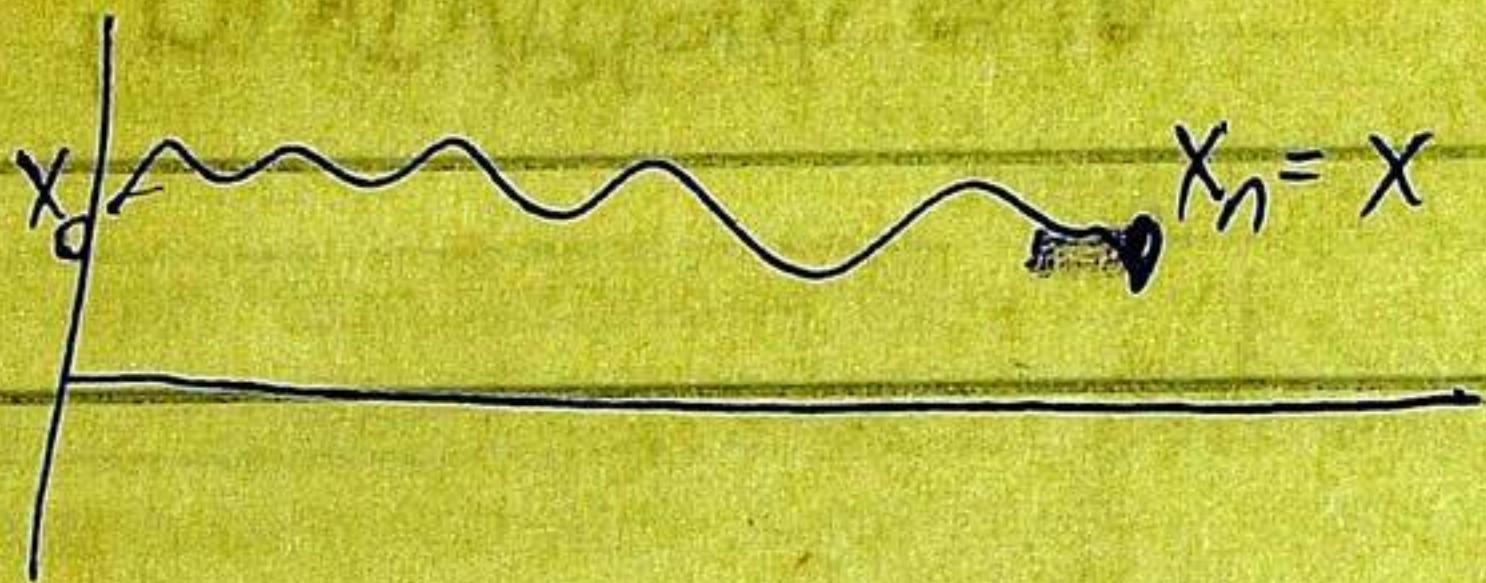
12. ✓ חזרה על חשבון דיפרנציאלי וסימולציות

13. חזרה על חשבון דיפרנציאלי

מסמך לפרוייקט פיזיקה 1661

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -iH\psi$$

$$H = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta + V$$



$$(e^{i\frac{t}{2}\Delta} \psi)_x = c \cdot \int dx' e^{i\frac{(x-x')^2}{2t}} \psi(x')$$

see

Disclaimer

Requiring the action to be stationary leads to the generalized Euler-Lagrange equations

*copied from
Itzykson-Zuber*

$$\frac{\delta I}{\delta \varphi_i(x)} \equiv \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(x)}{\partial \varphi_i(x)} - \partial_\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(x)}{\partial [\partial_\mu \varphi_i(x)]} = 0 \quad (1-44)$$

$$0 = 1 - \lambda \frac{d}{dx} \frac{y'}{\sqrt{1+y'^2}}$$

$$\frac{\lambda y'}{\sqrt{1+y'^2}} = x - C_1$$



$$y' = \frac{x - C_1}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - (x - C_1)^2}}$$

$$y = C_2 - \sqrt{\lambda^2 - (x - C_1)^2}$$

$$(x - C_1)^2 + (y - C_2)^2 = \lambda^2$$



מכניקה קלאסית וקוואנטית למתמטיקה, תרגיל מס' 1

24/10/96
28/3/99

1. $F_t: L^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R})$ אופרטור הולדרי \pm/\mathbb{C}^3 .
 וכן, $F_0 = I$, $F_{t_1+t_2} = F_{t_1} \circ F_{t_2}$

$F_{\frac{x}{2}} =$ אופרטור כרית

2. חקורו את האופרטורים הבאים (10³ N, 10³ s) (לקי אקסטרמום)

1. $y \mapsto \int_0^1 y' dx$ $y(0)=0, y(1)=1$

2. $y \mapsto \int_0^1 y y' dx$ $y(0)=0, y(1)=1$

3. $y \mapsto \int_0^1 x y y' dx$ $y(0)=0, y(1)=1$

4. $y \mapsto \int_a^b \frac{y'^2}{x^3} dx$

5. $y \mapsto \int_a^b (y^2 + y'^2 + 2ye^x) dx$

6. $y \mapsto \int_0^1 (y'^2 + x^2) dx$ $y(0)=0, y(1)=1$

3. בתורף את גזית קווי המינימום המקסימלי, אורך הכבל קלוס מינימום

4. (אופרטור פורט' דמי מ-מקום) יהי D^2 דיסק היחידה במישור

תהי S שפתו ויהי $R \rightarrow S: \gamma$ פונקציה חלקיה

מקין כל המשטחים \mathbb{R}^3 הנמנים γ האף $\gamma: D^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$

איסוף/אם השטח הקטן ביותר γ $\gamma|_S = \gamma$
 השוואת את המשוואה $S-\gamma$ צריכה לקיים, אולם אם
 משהו/בתור אמת

5. זהו גזית קלוס הסבון!

אנליזה
I-28

מכניקה קלאסית וקוואנטית
1996
מטריקת המסה, מטריקת המומנטים, מטריקת המומנטים, מטריקת המומנטים

קואורדינטות סגורות, קואורדינטות סגורות, קואורדינטות סגורות

$x \rightarrow t$
 $y \rightarrow q_i$
 $\dot{y} \rightarrow \dot{q}_i$
 $E-L: F_{q_i} - \frac{d}{dt} F_{\dot{q}_i} = 0 \quad \forall i$
אם $H \sim H$ כמעט

$q_i \rightarrow q_i^* = Q_i(t^*, \dot{q}_i^*)$
 $t \rightarrow t^* = T(t, \dot{q}_i, \dot{q}_i, \dots)$
כאשר $q_i^* = q_i$ ו- $t^* = t$

הכלל S אמוראי, מתחילתם, ו- $H = \sum \dot{q}_i p_i - F$
 $p_i = F_{\dot{q}_i}$

"מרחב המרחב" $H \Leftarrow Q=q, T=t+\epsilon$
"חוק שימור המרחב" $p_i \Leftarrow Q=q, Q_i=q_i+\epsilon, T=t$
משוואת המרחב: $\frac{1}{2} m \dot{q}^2 - V(q)$
משוואת המרחב: $-p_1 \dot{q}_2 + p_2 \dot{q}_1$

הצגת המרחב:

$$0 = \frac{\partial S}{\partial \epsilon} = \frac{\partial}{\partial \epsilon} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} F(t, \tilde{q}_i^*, \dot{\tilde{q}}_i^*) dt =$$

$$= F(t_1, \tilde{q}_i^*(t_1), \dot{\tilde{q}}_i^*(t_1)) \frac{\partial T}{\partial \epsilon} \Big|_{t_0}^{t_1} + \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \sum_i (F_{q_i} \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_i^*}{\partial \epsilon} + F_{\dot{q}_i} (\frac{\partial \dot{\tilde{q}}_i^*}{\partial \epsilon})') =$$

$$= E-L + \left[F \frac{\partial T}{\partial \epsilon} + \sum_i F_{\dot{q}_i} \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_i^*}{\partial \epsilon} \right]_{t_0}^{t_1} =$$

משוואת המרחב:

$$q_i^* = \tilde{q}_i^*(t^*) \Rightarrow \frac{\partial q_i^*}{\partial \epsilon} = \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_i^*}{\partial \epsilon} + \dot{\tilde{q}}_i^* \frac{\partial T}{\partial \epsilon}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \tilde{q}_i^*}{\partial \epsilon} = \frac{\partial q_i^*}{\partial \epsilon} - \dot{\tilde{q}}_i^* \frac{\partial T}{\partial \epsilon}$$

$$= \left[(F - \sum p_i \dot{q}_i) \frac{\partial T}{\partial \epsilon} + \sum p_i \frac{\partial q_i^*}{\partial \epsilon} \right]_{t_0}^{t_1}$$

Q.E.D

מכניקה קלאסית וקוונטית 7 לטובה 1996

התנאי של שני המסלולים
 $r = x^2 + y^2$ $U(x,y)$: הפוטנציאל
 שני המסלולים הם זהים
 ורק: $r = x^2 + y^2$

q_i : המיקום של המסה
 $p_i = F \dot{q}_i$ (המיקום של המסה)
 $E = L$: המערכת היא קונזרבטיבית
 $\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}$ $\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}$

$H = \sum \dot{q}_i p_i - F$
 $\Leftrightarrow H = \frac{1}{2}(p^2 + \dot{q}^2) \Leftrightarrow p = m\dot{q} \Leftrightarrow F = \frac{1}{2}\dot{q}^2 - \frac{1}{2}q^2$ (מכניקה)

$\begin{pmatrix} q \\ p \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} \sin \\ \cos \end{pmatrix} \Leftrightarrow \begin{cases} \dot{q} = p \\ \dot{p} = -q \end{cases}$

התנאי של שני המסלולים : dF
 $dF = \sum \frac{\partial F}{\partial x_i} dx_i$

$\sum \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} dp_i + \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i} dq_i = dH = \sum \dot{q}_i dp_i + p_i dq_i - \frac{\partial F}{\partial q_i} dq_i - \frac{\partial F}{\partial p_i} dp_i$
 $= \sum \dot{q}_i dp_i - \frac{\partial F}{\partial q_i} dq_i$
 $-\dot{p}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial q_i}$ $\text{ או } \dot{q}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i}$

- 1. $\frac{dF}{dt} = \frac{dF}{dt}$
- 2. $\{q_i, p_j\} = \delta_{ij}$
- 3. $\{q_i, q_j\} = 0$
- 4. $\{p_i, p_j\} = 0$
- 5. $\{F, q_i\} = -\dot{q}_i$
- 6. $\{F, p_i\} = \dot{p}_i$

$\{F, q\} = \sum \frac{\partial F}{\partial q_i} \frac{\partial q}{\partial p_i} - \frac{\partial F}{\partial p_i} \frac{\partial q}{\partial q_i}$

התנאי של שני המסלולים : $dF = \frac{dF}{dt} + \{F, H\}$

$\{H, H\} = 0$
 $\{F, I\}, H\} = \{F, H\}, I\} \Leftrightarrow \{I, H\} = 0$

2-5 : תנאי של שני המסלולים

$\frac{1}{ik} [,] \leftarrow \{ , \}$ (הקומוטטור)
 $p = -ik \frac{d}{dx}$, $Q = x$, $dF = [,] \Leftrightarrow [QP] = ikI$
 $H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V(x)$

$ik \frac{dF}{dt} = [F, H] \Rightarrow F(t) = e^{-ikHt} F(0) e^{ikHt} \Rightarrow \psi_t = e^{-ikHt} \psi_0$
 $\frac{d\psi}{dt} = -ikH\psi$

2 on $\int \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \sqrt{1 + y'^2} dx$ - 1, 2, 3, 4
PROBLEMS

1. Use the canonical Euler equations to find the extremals of the functional

Siu
$$\int \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \sqrt{1 + y'^2} dx,$$

and verify that they agree with those found in Chap. 1, Prob. 22.

Hint. The Hamiltonian is

$$H(x, y, p) = -\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 - p^2},$$

and the corresponding canonical system

$$\frac{dp}{dx} = \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 - p^2}}, \quad \frac{dy}{dx} = \frac{p}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 - p^2}}$$

has the first integral

$$p^2 - y^2 = C^2,$$

where C is a constant.

2. Consider the action functional

Siu
$$J[x] = \frac{1}{2} \int_{t_0}^{t_1} (m\dot{x}^2 - \kappa x^2) dt$$

corresponding to a *simple harmonic oscillator*, i.e., a particle of mass m acted upon by a restoring force $-\kappa x$ (cf. Sec. 36.2). Write the canonical system of Euler equations corresponding to $J[x]$, and interpret them. Calculate the Poisson brackets $[x, p]$, $[x, H]$ and $[p, H]$. Is p a first integral of the canonical Euler equations?

- Siu 3. Use the principle of least action to give a variational formulation of the problem of the plane motion of a particle of mass m attracted to the origin of coordinates by a force inversely proportional to the square of its distance from the origin. Write the corresponding equations of motion, the Hamiltonian and the canonical system of Euler equations. Calculate the Poisson brackets $[r, p_r]$, $[\theta, p_\theta]$, $[p_r, H]$ and $[p_\theta, H]$, where

$$p_r = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{r}}, \quad p_\theta = \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{\theta}}.$$

Is p_θ a first integral of the canonical Euler equations?

Hint. The action functional is

$$J[r, \theta] = \int_{t_0}^{t_1} \left[\frac{m}{2} (\dot{r}^2 + r^2 \dot{\theta}^2) + \frac{k}{r} \right] dt,$$

where k is a constant, and r, θ are the polar coordinates of the particle.

5. Verify that the functional $J[r, \theta]$ of Prob. 3 is invariant under rotations, and use Noether's theorem (in polar coordinates) to find the corresponding conservation law. What geometric fact does this law express?

Ans. The line segment joining the particle to the origin sweeps out equal areas in equal times.

כל מה שמתקן רציף נכנס אל גבולות קוונטיזציה
ולכן הצגה אפילו



כל וקטור נורמלי:

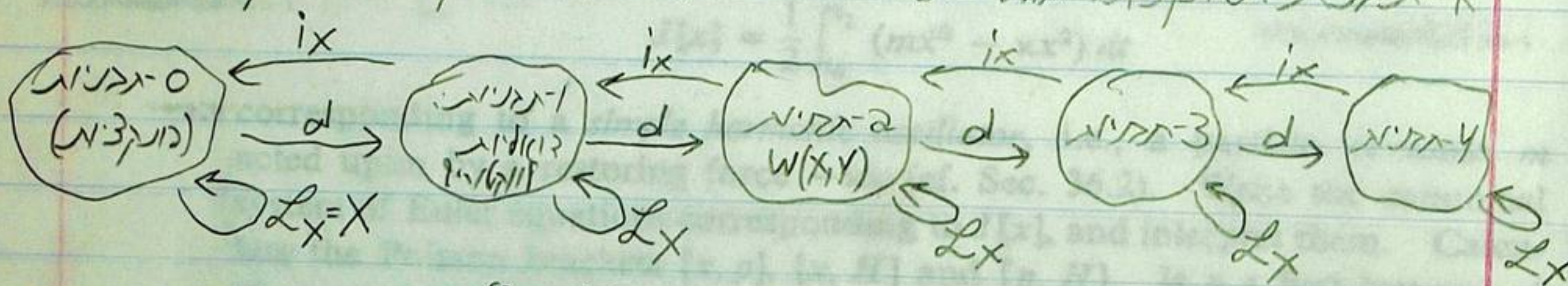
השדה הדיסקרטי $X \rightarrow F$
 $(X, F) \mapsto XF = \frac{\text{השדה הדיסקרטי}}{X}$
 $X = \sum F_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$

$[X, Y] = XY - YX$: הסוגר של Lie. איטורי, אנטי-סמטרי, וקטוריים יצוקי:

$[X, [Y, Z]] + \text{סימטריות} = 0$

שדה וקטוריים מנצחים, ולכן נוצרים ופול. הסמל: L_X
 $L_X Y = [X, Y]$; $L_X F = XF$

א-גבולות: פונקציות מולטי-ליניאריות אוטו-סמטריה או וקטוריים בקוונטה אלו:



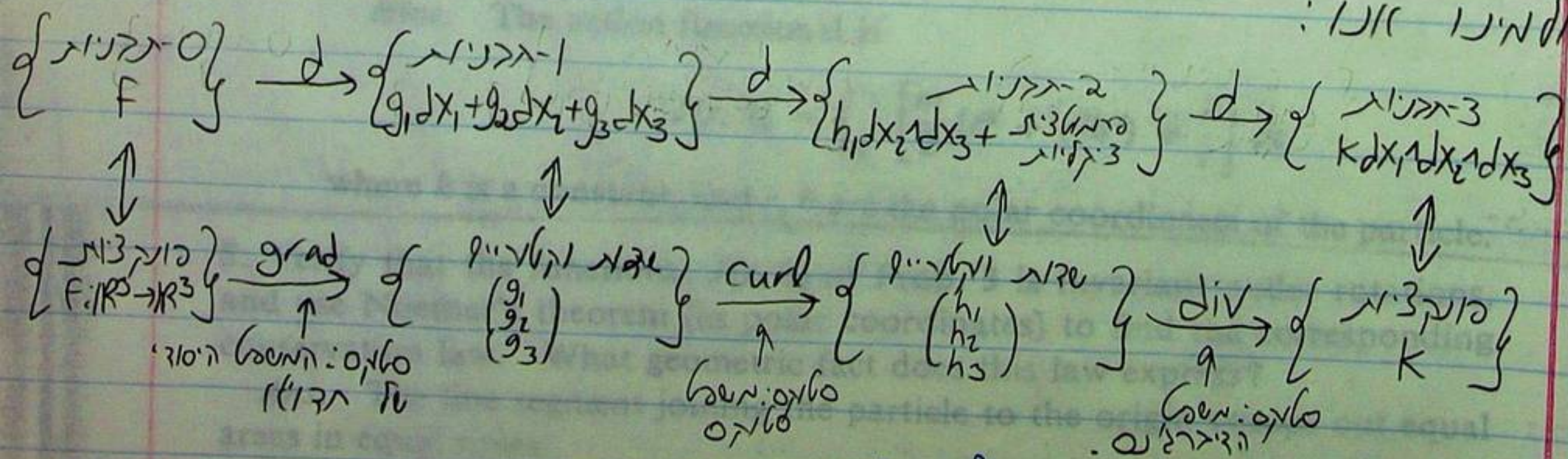
המכפלה הפנימית: $(\int_X W(Y_1, \dots, Y_{n-1})) = W(X, Y_1, \dots, Y_{n-1})$
 המכפלה הדיסקרטי: $(W^m)(Y_1, \dots, Y_{m+1}) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{m+1}} W(Y_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, Y_{\sigma(m+1)})$

הצורה הדיסקרטי: $dW = \sum \frac{\partial W}{\partial x_i} dx_i$; $d^2 = 0$

אם הייצור של וקטוריים הוא לפור, הייצור של גבולות הוא מומנטום:

$\int_D dW = \int_{\partial D} W$ (מכפלה סגורה) $\int_D W = \sum$ (מכפלה פתוחה)

ובגבולות אלו:



והצורה - לא נכנסת כלל

מבנה של מבנה דיפרנציאלי.

קואסי-וקוואליזציה:

W : מבנה סגור וחסום

1. וקטור \sum

2. כל מבנה חסום של S^2

3. קואסי-וקוואליזציה חסומה וקואסי-וקוואליזציה חסומה

$i_{X_F} W = -df$ $F \rightarrow X_F$

1. וקטור \sum

2. S^2

$-dz = i_{X_F} (z dx + x dz + y dy) = \begin{pmatrix} (y - \beta z) dx + x dz + \alpha dy \\ \alpha z - x dy + \beta (y - x) dz \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} +x dz \\ +y dy \\ - (1-z^2) dz \end{pmatrix}$

$v.p = 0 \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \\ \gamma \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} y \\ x \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$

$\{F, g\} = W(X_F, X_g) = X_F g$ הקשר

מבנה: 1. קואסי-וקוואליזציה חסומה וקואסי-וקוואליזציה חסומה.

2. X_F מורה את W וקואסי-וקוואליזציה חסומה $\Leftrightarrow X = X_F$

3. $X_{dF, g} = [X_F, X_g]$

מבנה של S^2 וקואסי-וקוואליזציה חסומה

2. הוכחה + המשפט, 1. אינדוקציה: קואסי-וקוואליזציה חסומה

2. אינדוקציה: \mathbb{R}^{2n}

מכניקה קלאסית, קוואנטום, תורת היחסות, 21

3 מסעי: 1. קוואנטום/ת"י, 2. מכניקה קוואנטית, 3. קוואנטום, 3. מכניקה + תורת היחסות

1. מכניקה: Stokes

(1/2) I = p od + d op

2. תורה ה בואוקמה

$L_x = d^0 i_x + i_x d^0$

דגו ומומס דגו

$\int w^1 d\sigma = -(-1)^{j+1} \int d w^1 \sigma$

4. אווילטציה: חלקים

$\|dw\|^2 dx^1 \dots dx^n = w^1 (*w)$

5. האובייקט *

$w^1 * \sigma = \sigma^1 w$

מקום

מרחב \mathbb{R}^4

$S(A) = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} \frac{1}{2} \|dA\|^2 + J \wedge A$

הערה: נמצא את המינימום של $J \wedge A$ יתכן שיהיה יציב

$dJ = 0 \iff d * dA = J$

$F = dA$

$d * F = J ; dF = 0$

$F = E_x dx^1 dt + E_y dy^1 dt + E_z dz^1 dt + B_x dy^1 dz + \dots$

$J = \rho dx^1 dy^1 dz - j_x dy^1 dz - \dots$

$dJ = 0 \iff \text{div } B = 0$

$dF = \int_{dx^1 dy^1 dz} \partial_x B_x + \partial_y B_y + \partial_z B_z - \int_{dy^1 dz^1 dt} \partial_y E_z - \partial_z E_y + \partial_t B_x$

$\text{curl } E = -\frac{\partial B}{\partial t}$

$*F = -B_x dx^1 dt - B_y dy^1 dt - E_x dy^1 dz + \dots$

$d * F = J \Rightarrow \begin{cases} -\text{div } E = \rho \\ \text{curl } B = -\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + j \end{cases}$

הערה: ρ ו- j הם פונקציות של x, y, z, t

$S = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} ds + eA = mc \int dt \sqrt{1-v^2/c^2} + e(A_x \dot{x} + A_y \dot{y} + A_z \dot{z}) dt$

$ds = c \cdot dt \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$

$E = mc^2 ; E = p \dot{q} - F = \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}} ; p = \frac{\partial F}{\partial \dot{x}} = \frac{m \dot{x}}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$

$E-L = \dots$

The Feynman Lectures on Physics, Vol II.

Table 18-1 Classical Physics

Maxwell's equations

$$\text{I. } \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = \frac{\rho}{\epsilon_0}$$

(Flux of \mathbf{E} through a closed surface) = (Charge inside)/ ϵ_0

$$\text{II. } \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = -\frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t}$$

(Line integral of \mathbf{E} around a loop) = $-\frac{d}{dt}$ (Flux of \mathbf{B} through the loop)

$$\text{III. } \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$$

(Flux of \mathbf{B} through a closed surface) = 0

$$\text{IV. } c^2 \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = \frac{\mathbf{j}}{\epsilon_0} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t}$$

c^2 (Integral of \mathbf{B} around a loop) = (Current through the loop)/ ϵ_0

+ $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ (Flux of \mathbf{E} through the loop)

Conservation of charge

$$\nabla \cdot \mathbf{j} = -\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t}$$

(Flux of current through a closed surface) = $-\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ (Charge inside)

Force law

$$\mathbf{F} = q(\mathbf{E} + \mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{B})$$

Law of motion

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{F},$$

where

$$\mathbf{p} = \frac{m\mathbf{v}}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

(Newton's law, with Einstein's modification)

Gravitation

$$\mathbf{F} = -G \frac{m_1 m_2}{r^2} \mathbf{e}_r$$

מכונת קלאסית קוונטית למינימום של 3

1. תהייה $\{x, y\}$, $\{y, z\}$, $\{z, x\}$ ו- S^2

2. תוכנית $\{x, y, z\}$ תהיה קבוצת אופרטורים מתקופה

$$L_x = i x \partial + \partial i x$$

3. תוכנית $\{x, y, z\}$ תהיה קבוצת אופרטורים סימפלקטיים מתקופה

א. $\{x, y, z\}$ ג'ורג'יני, אולי סימפלקטיים ומתקופה
בהינתן אופרטור L_x

ג. $\{x, y, z\}$ תהיה קבוצת אופרטורים סימפלקטיים ומתקופה
שהם הומוקלוריים והמשפט של פונקציה f של S^2
 $L_x W = 0$ וכן $L_x \frac{dW}{dt} = 0$

2. $\{x, y, z\}$ תהיה קבוצת אופרטורים סימפלקטיים ומתקופה
שהם הומוקלוריים והמשפט של פונקציה f של S^2
תהיה קבוצת אופרטורים סימפלקטיים ומתקופה
 $X = X_f$

$$X_{\{f, g\}} = [X_f, X_g]$$

(*) - ג'ורג'יני, אולי

מכניקה קלאסית וקוונטית למערכת קואורדינטות מ'ס' 4

1. לטרנספורמציה לורנץ היא טרנספורמציה ליניארית
 מ $\mathbb{R}^4_{t,x,y,z}$ ל $\mathbb{R}^4_{t',x',y',z'}$ שמומרת את המרחב $(x^2+y^2+z^2-t^2)$ ל $(x'^2+y'^2+z'^2-t'^2)$

$$\begin{pmatrix} t \\ x \\ y \\ z \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} \cosh \mu & \sinh \mu & 0 & 0 \\ \sinh \mu & \cosh \mu & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} t' \\ x' \\ y' \\ z' \end{pmatrix}$$

מ'ס' + א'ן לטרנספורמציה כזו מוגדרת הטרנספורמציה
 המשתנה E ו B הטרנספורמציה המוגדרת B .

2. דבר א'ן הטרנספורמציה $S = \int ||dA||^2$ גורמת הטרנספורמציה E, B

3. אדמירל גאורג הייזנברג ds מ'ק' $ds^2 = dx^2 + dy^2 + dz^2 - c^2 dt^2$

(ע'ן ע'ס'ן ע'ק'ט'ן $c=1$, מ'ק' v/c , ל'ן מ'ק'ן)

$$ds = c \cdot \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} dt$$

הטרנספורמציה המ'ק'ת'ית ל'ק'ק'ן מ'ק'ת'ית מ'ק'ת'ית \mathbb{R}^4 ג'נומ'ט'ר
 ל'ק'ק'ן מ'ק'ת'ית מ'ק'ת'ית

(ע'ן ע'ס'ן ע'ק'ט'ן
 מ'ק'ת'ית מ'ק'ת'ית)

$$S = mc \int ds + eA$$

$$p_x = \frac{m \dot{x}}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \quad (v=0 \text{ מ'ק'ת'ית})$$

$$\text{Energy} = H = \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \quad (v=0 \text{ מ'ק'ת'ית})$$

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = e(E + v \times B)$$

28/11/96
 מכתב קולוס וקוונטא לרוביקאוס
 שבעה חמש היו גורה הסגורה. חמש כתיב גזירא שעות הסגורה:
 ארבע: צדקו הסגורה:

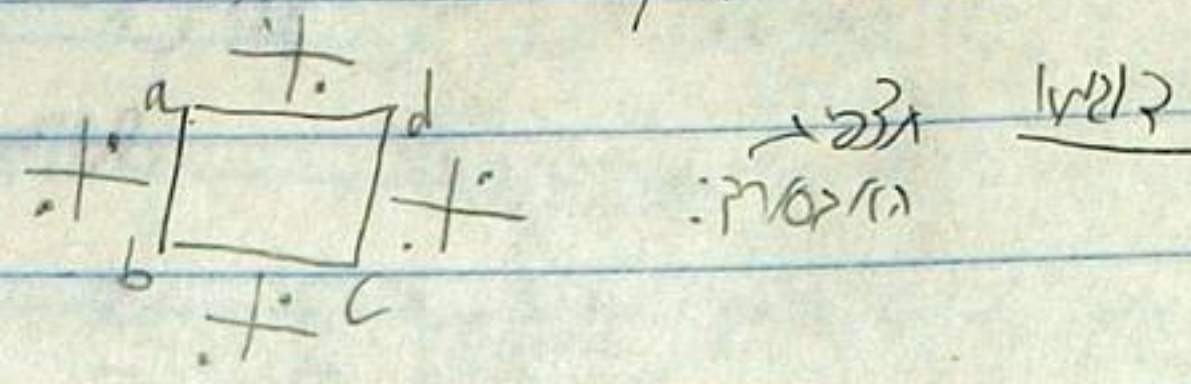
$(X, \mathcal{A}, \mu_A; A \in \mathcal{A})$ X קבוצה ("קבוצה הרצפית")

$\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{A}^*$ שכל זוג הסטילטאני ומנוטאני

$(A \in \mathcal{A} \Leftrightarrow A \in \mathcal{A}^*)$ (ניק לרצף ימין)

μ_A מידה הסגורה \mathcal{R}^A או הגבנה $\pi_B \mu_B = \mu_A$

חיה גוסטאניאלה: האקציה הזו הורדה
 מקבלת תכונה שגורה פסיקליה הזו אולם כל הגבנה
 שמשקלו אנו הנסיון.



צורה הסגורה הקלאסית: (\mathcal{R}, μ) ; $a \in X$ הוא יחיד $a: \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}$ וכן $A: \mathcal{L} \rightarrow \mathcal{R}^A$

$\mu_A = A\mu$

זה שקול לומר "קיימת הצפייה המתקנת את הצפייה שבה $X \in \mathcal{A}$ "

כיון שיש ניקח $\mathcal{L} = \mathcal{R}^X, \mu = \mu_X$. כיוון שיש: מוכן מאלי.

הצפייה הנוספת אינה צריכה להסביר

הוספת קואנטא סופית: (\mathcal{L}, μ, ν) ν היא אבולוציה $\mathcal{A} \rightarrow \mathcal{A}^*$ צמודה לרצף

אבל a שמאלית "מידה סטטיסטית" P_a שצפייה הלכה:

$P_a(I) = \left(\begin{matrix} \text{היחסים של היחידים הרצפיים} \\ \text{ל} a \text{ שצפייה הרצפית} \end{matrix} \right)$

כל $a \in \mathcal{A}$ שמתקן ν שבה $P_a(I) = P_a(J) - P_a(K)$

והקשרים $P_a(I \times J \times K) = P_a(I)P_a(J)P_a(K)$ מייצגים $\mathcal{R}^{a,b,c}$ שצפייה הלכה.

(החלוקה של היחידים הרצפיים המוגדרים $\mathcal{R}^{a,b,c} = \{u \in \mathcal{L} : au = \lambda u, bu = \mu u, cu = \eta u\}$ או $(\lambda, \mu, \eta) \in \mathcal{I} \times \mathcal{J} \times \mathcal{K}$)

לכנס מנגינת $\mathcal{R}^{a,b,c}(I \times J \times K) = \|P_{a,b,c}(I \times J \times K)\|$ שבה $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ מידה הסגורה

בצורה P פוליון $\mathcal{R}^{a,b,c}$ $P = \langle v, P(a,b,c)v \rangle$ $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{a,b,c}$

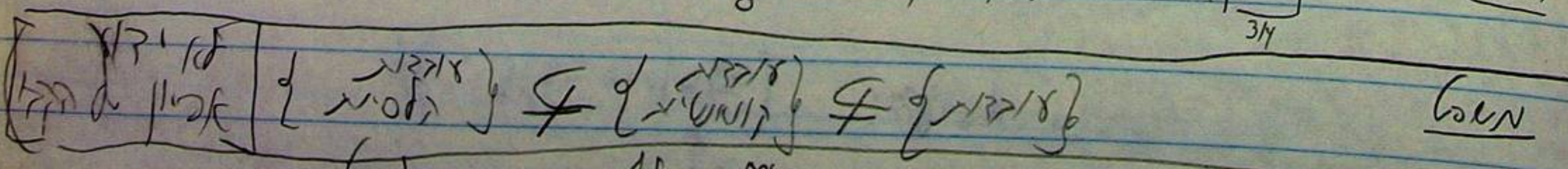
LHS = $\sum K v_i u_i$

RHS = same

$\mathcal{S} \mid \begin{matrix} au_i = \lambda u_i \\ bu_i = \mu u_i \\ cu_i = \eta u_i \end{matrix}$

הצפייה נגיד u_i גוסטאניאלה או

הוכחה: מאו $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{S}$ $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{a,b,c}$ $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$ $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{a,b,c}$ $\mathcal{S} \subseteq \mathcal{L}$



הוספת \mathcal{L} שבה קואנטא אינסופית: $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{a,b,c}$ שבה $\mathcal{L} \subseteq \mathcal{R}^{a,b,c}$

$\nu(a)\nu(b) \neq \nu([a,b])$

צדקו או הווקואטא \mathcal{L} היסודית:

Non-Commutative (Quantum) Probability
 Classical and Quantum Mechanics for Mathematicians, HUJI 1996
 Dror Bar-Natan

Claim: In the quantum probability space (\mathbf{R}^4, v) where v is the unit vector $v = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}(0 \ 1 \ -1 \ 0)^T$, one has $p(A = B) = p(B = C) = p(C = D) = \frac{3}{4}$ and $p(D = A) = 0$, where A, B, C , and D are the random variables corresponding to the matrices:

$$A = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} ; \quad B = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ 0 & 0 & \frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix}$$

$$C = \begin{pmatrix} -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{1}{2} & 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} \\ -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} & 0 \\ 0 & -\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2} & 0 & \frac{1}{2} \end{pmatrix} ; \quad D = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Mathematica 2.0 for SPARC

Copyright 1988-91 Wolfram Research, Inc.

-- Terminal graphics initialized --

In[1]:= v=1/2 Sqrt[2] {0, 1, -1, 0}; q=1/2 Sqrt[3];

In[2]:= A1=DiagonalMatrix[{1, 1, -1, -1}]; A4=DiagonalMatrix[{1, -1, 1, -1}];

In[3]:= A2={{-1/2, q, 0, 0}, {q, 1/2, 0, 0}, {0, 0, -1/2, q}, {0, 0, q, 1/2}};

In[4]:= A3={{-1/2, 0, -q, 0}, {0, -1/2, 0, -q}, {-q, 0, 1/2, 0}, {0, -q, 0, 1/2}};

In[5]:= {Eigenvalues[A1], Eigenvalues[A2], Eigenvalues[A3], Eigenvalues[A4]}

Out[5]= {{1, -1, 1, -1}, {1, -1, 1, -1}, {1, -1, 1, -1}, {1, -1, 1, -1}}

In[6]:= {A1.A2==A2.A1, A2.A3==A3.A2, A3.A4==A4.A3, A4.A1==A1.A4}

Out[6]= {True, True, True, True}

In[7]:= pequal[M1_, M2_] := 1 - v . (M1 - M2) . (M1 - M2) . v / 4

In[8]:= {pequal[A1, A2], pequal[A2, A3], pequal[A3, A4], pequal[A4, A1]}

Out[8]= {
 $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, $\frac{3}{4}$, 0}

מדינת קלסוד וקוונטום אנטנגלמאן געשויסן א - 5-6/12/96

✓ * יצורה א סאגראד קוואנטאם

✓ * סאגראד קוואנטאם אנסאבא אובאלאריס צימאריס ארצטעם אס אסאגא

✓ * קוואנטאציע קעניג, רוק צוק קלאג יוס' גחילאס

✓ * עקאן א-הוואקאט א גענערג

* געזאג געאלא, קלאסא קלאסא

✓ * שיצור אלא כאל היעק א מדינת קוואנטאם גלאס אטאס צימאריס געשט וואניאן

* היצור: אן קבר סא קוואנטאציע "מאסור"

* אטאס וואניאן אטאסא שרע

* ארצו צ"ב עיטאן

* אטאסא קצא א EPR / Mermin

* קאטאליא אטאסא אטאסא

* אטאסא אטאסא אטאסא

1-1 Atomic mechanics

"Quantum mechanics" is the description of the behavior of matter and light in all its details and, in particular, of the happenings on an atomic scale. Things on a very small scale behave like nothing that you have any direct experience about. They do not behave like waves, they do not behave like particles, they do not behave like clouds, or billiard balls, or weights on springs, or like anything that you have ever seen.

Newton thought that light was made up of particles, but then it was discovered that it behaves like a wave. Later, however (in the beginning of the twentieth century), it was found that light did indeed sometimes behave like a particle. Historically, the electron, for example, was thought to behave like a particle, and then it was found that in many respects it behaved like a wave. So it really behaves like neither. Now we have given up. We say: "It is like *neither*."

There is one lucky break, however—electrons behave just like light. The quantum behavior of atomic objects (electrons, protons, neutrons, photons, and so on) is the same for all, they are all "particle waves," or whatever you want to call them. So what we learn about the properties of electrons (which we shall use for our examples) will apply also to all "particles," including photons of light.

The gradual accumulation of information about atomic and small-scale behavior during the first quarter of this century, which gave some indications about how small things do behave, produced an increasing confusion which was finally resolved in 1926 and 1927 by Schrödinger, Heisenberg, and Born. They finally obtained a consistent description of the behavior of matter on a small scale. We take up the main features of that description in this chapter.

Because atomic behavior is so unlike ordinary experience, it is very difficult to get used to, and it appears peculiar and mysterious to everyone—both to the novice and to the experienced physicist. Even the experts do not understand it the way they would like to, and it is perfectly reasonable that they should not, because all of direct, human experience and of human intuition applies to large objects. We know how large objects will act, but things on a small scale just do not act that way. So we have to learn about them in a sort of abstract or imaginative fashion and not by connection with our direct experience.

In this chapter we shall tackle immediately the basic element of the mysterious behavior in its most strange form. We choose to examine a phenomenon which is impossible, *absolutely* impossible, to explain in any classical way, and which has in it the heart of quantum mechanics. In reality, it contains the *only* mystery. We cannot make the mystery go away by "explaining" how it works. We will just *tell* you how it works. In telling you how it works we will have told you about the basic peculiarities of all quantum mechanics.

1-2 An experiment with bullets

To try to understand the quantum behavior of electrons, we shall compare and contrast their behavior, in a particular experimental setup, with the more familiar behavior of particles like bullets, and with the behavior of waves like water waves. We consider first the behavior of bullets in the experimental setup shown diagrammatically in Fig. 1-1. We have a machine gun that shoots a stream of bullets. It is not a very good gun, in that it sprays the bullets (randomly) over a fairly large angular spread, as indicated in the figure. In front of the gun we have

- 1-1 Atomic mechanics
- 1-2 An experiment with bullets
- 1-3 An experiment with waves
- 1-4 An experiment with electrons
- 1-5 The interference of electron waves
- 1-6 Watching the electrons
- 1-7 First principles of quantum mechanics
- 1-8 The uncertainty principle

Note: This chapter is almost exactly the same as Chapter 37 of Volume I.

a wall (made of armor plate) that has in it two holes just about big enough to let a bullet through. Beyond the wall is a backstop (say a thick wall of wood) which will "absorb" the bullets when they hit it. In front of the wall we have an object which we shall call a "detector" of bullets. It might be a box containing sand. Any bullet that enters the detector will be stopped and accumulated. When we wish, we can empty the box and count the number of bullets that have been caught. The detector can be moved back and forth (in what we will call the x -direction). With this apparatus, we can find out experimentally the answer to the question: "What is the probability that a bullet which passes through the holes in the wall will arrive at the backstop at the distance x from the center?" First, you should realize that we should talk about probability, because we cannot say definitely where any particular bullet will go. A bullet which happens to hit one of the holes may bounce off the edges of the hole, and may end up anywhere at all. By "probability" we mean the chance that the bullet will arrive at the detector, which we can measure by counting the number which arrive at the detector in a certain time and then taking the ratio of this number to the *total* number that hit the backstop during that time. Or, if we assume that the gun always shoots at the same rate during the measurements, the probability we want is just proportional to the number that reach the detector in some standard time interval.

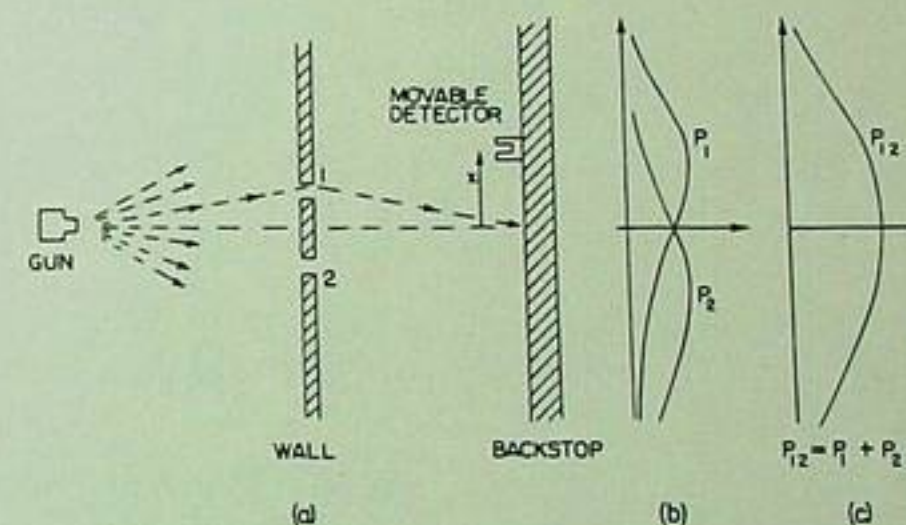


Fig. 1-1. Interference experiment with bullets.

For our present purposes we would like to imagine a somewhat idealized experiment in which the bullets are not real bullets, but are *indestructible* bullets—they cannot break in half. In our experiment we find that bullets always arrive in lumps, and when we find something in the detector, it is always one whole bullet. If the rate at which the machine gun fires is made very low, we find that at any given moment either nothing arrives, or one and only one—exactly one—bullet arrives at the backstop. Also, the size of the lump certainly does not depend on the rate of firing of the gun. We shall say: "Bullets *always* arrive in identical lumps." What we measure with our detector is the probability of arrival of a lump. And we measure the probability as a function of x . The result of such measurements with this apparatus (we have not yet done the experiment, so we are really imagining the result) are plotted in the graph drawn in part (c) of Fig. 1-1. In the graph we plot the probability to the right and x vertically, so that the x -scale fits the diagram of the apparatus. We call the probability P_{12} because the bullets may have come either through hole 1 or through hole 2. You will not be surprised that P_{12} is large near the middle of the graph but gets small if x is very large. You may wonder, however, why P_{12} has its maximum value at $x = 0$. We can understand this fact if we do our experiment again after covering up hole 2, and once more while covering up hole 1. When hole 2 is covered, bullets can pass only through hole 1, and we get the curve marked P_1 in part (b) of the figure. As you would expect, the maximum of P_1 occurs at the value of x which is on a straight line with the gun and hole 1. When hole 1 is closed, we get the symmetric curve P_2 drawn in the figure. P_2 is the probability distribution for bullets that pass through hole 2. Comparing parts (b) and (c) of Fig. 1-1, we find the important result that

$$P_{12} = P_1 + P_2. \tag{1.1}$$

$$S(\alpha, \beta) S(\gamma, \delta) = e^{i/2(\alpha\delta - \beta\gamma)} S(\alpha + \gamma, \beta + \delta)$$

0.1 and
1. and

$$S(a) = \int a(\alpha, \beta) S(\alpha, \beta) d\alpha d\beta$$

$$\hat{a}(\alpha, \beta) = \overline{a(-\alpha, -\beta)} \quad S(a)^* = S(\hat{a}) \quad ; \quad S(r a) = r S(a), \quad S(a+b) = S(a) + S(b) \quad \underline{2. and}$$

$$S(\gamma, \delta) S(a) = \int a(\alpha, \beta) e^{i/2(\alpha\delta - \beta\gamma)} S(\alpha - \gamma, \beta - \delta) d\alpha d\beta \quad \underline{3. and}$$

$$C(\gamma, \delta) = \int \int a(\alpha, \beta) b(\alpha, \beta) e^{i/2(\alpha\delta - \beta\gamma)} d\alpha d\beta \quad S(a) S(b) = S(c) \quad \underline{4. and}$$

$$\int a = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad S(a) = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \underline{5. and}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow S(-\gamma, -\delta) S(a) S(\gamma, \delta) = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow S(a) = 0 \quad \underline{1. and}$$

$$\int \int a(\alpha, \beta) S(\alpha, \beta) d\alpha d\beta = 0$$

$$\int a(\alpha, \beta) S(\alpha, \beta) = 0 \quad \text{! or } \underline{6. and}$$

$$\int a = 0 \quad \Leftrightarrow$$

$$E = E^* \neq 0 \quad \underline{6. and}$$

$$E S(\gamma, \delta) E = e^{-\frac{1}{4}(\gamma^2 + \delta^2)} E \quad \underline{7. and}$$

$$E^2 = E \quad \underline{8. and}$$

$$\text{...} \quad \underline{9. and}$$

$$\boxed{! \quad E_0 \quad \text{...}} \quad \underline{10. and}$$

מכניקת הקוואנטום - פרק 6 - אפריל 1997

גבית טיורי: אופרטור \hat{H} בסיסה האורטוגונלית $\{|i\rangle\}$ נקבעת על ידי $\hat{H}|i\rangle = E_i|i\rangle$.
 עקרון הייזנברג: $[\hat{H}, \hat{Q}] = 0$ כאשר \hat{Q} אופרטור המעביר בין בסיסים.

7. גיאור דויד - גיאור האלברט
 2. האברטסון - הניגוח מתוך שימוש ב-CCR

- 3. יחסי התנאים קומפטיבילים
- 3. טרנספורמציית פארהילר
- 4. אופרטור האופרטור
- 5. יחס התנאים

האברטסון: $\hat{P} = \frac{1}{i} \frac{d}{dx} (q - \mu)$ $\Leftrightarrow \int \frac{1}{2} (q - \mu)^2$
 $[\hat{Q}, \hat{Q}] = \sigma^2 I \Leftrightarrow [\hat{P}, \hat{Q}] = \frac{1}{i} I \Leftrightarrow \hat{P} = \frac{1}{i} \frac{d}{dx} (q - \mu)$
 $\int e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{p^2}{\sigma^2}} \mathcal{D}q$ \Leftrightarrow נקודת הווינר

שערי אופציות המעו"ף 6.11.95

סטיית תקן : 16.00%

שער ריבית : 15.00%

מדד מעו"ף : 191.79

אופציה	שער סגירה	שינוי בשער	שינוי ב%	שער גבה	שער נמוך	מחזור ביח	תמורה כספית	פתוחות פתוחות	שווי B&S	כספיה B&S	כספית תקן גלומה	DELTA	THETA	VEGA
נוב, C 001	19265	185	1.0	19300	19040	15	288,980	1081	19080	1.0%		100	0	0
נוב, C 120	7550	0	0.0			0	0	91	7267	*		100	-4	0
נוב, C 170	2880	0	0.0			0	0	79	2304	*		100	-7	0
נוב, P 170	18	-12	-40.0	18	18	5	90	1177	0	100.0%	31.9%	0	0	0
נוב, C 180	1500	136	10.0	1540	1360	194	282,510	1940	1317	13.9%	39.2%	98	-8	3
נוב, P 180	50	-19	-27.5	65	50	1165	65,333	5681	6	733.3%	25.1%	-2	-1	2
נוב, C 190	630	120	23.5	640	495	1740	987,170	10067	457	37.9%	27.0%	72	-12	15
נוב, P 190	165	-72	-30.4	230	160	3431	648,825	20798	138	19.6%	17.8%	-28	-4	15
נוב, C 200	140	15	12.0	150	115	3295	429,480	24573	62	125.8%	22.3%	19	-6	11
נוב, P 200	650	-164	-20.1	860	620	1597	1,120,410	17438	735	-11.6%	%	-81	2	11
נוב, C 210	44	0	0.0	45	39	1594	68,038	24171	2	>1000%	26.9%	2	0	2
נוב, P 210	1570	-213	-11.9	1740	1550	291	478,080	10206	1669	-5.9%	%	-99	7	1
נוב, C 220	20	4	25.0	20	15	403	6,665	23245	0	100.0%	32.1%	0	0	0
נוב, P 220	2520	-246	-8.9	2700	2520	83	214,060	4958	2659	-5.2%	%	-100	9	0
נוב, C 230	13	0	0.0	15	13	26	347	19051	0	100.0%	38.2%	0	0	0
נוב, P 230	3668	-111	-2.9	3680	3640	62	226,560	2371	3652	0.4%	39.8%	-100	9	0
ינו, C 001	19165	281	1.5	19180	19000	56	1,069,700	1256	19082	0.4%		100	0	0
ינו, C 120	0	0	****			0	0	0	7572	*		100	-5	0
ינו, C 190	1224	157	14.7	1270	1110	250	286,700	2775	1052	16.3%	21.5%	74	-8	30
ינו, P 190	330	-61	-15.6	390	300	397	130,830	6121	251	31.5%	18.6%	-26	-1	30
ינו, C 200	658	68	11.5	660	590	668	410,320	6484	501	31.3%	20.3%	49	-7	36
ינו, P 200	700	-160	-18.6	790	690	623	456,450	6983	668	4.8%	16.9%	-52	0	36
ינו, C 210	335	56	20.1	335	290	832	260,135	5956	192	74.5%	20.8%	25	-5	28
ינו, P 210	1424	-106	-6.9	1440	1410	92	130,500	2737	1325	7.5%	19.4%	-75	4	29
ינו, C 220	140	24	20.7	140	125	106	14,470	4480	59	137.3%	20.5%	9	-2	15
ינו, P 220	2158	-82	-3.7	2260	2100	158	341,420	816	2160	-0.1%	15.9%	-91	6	15
ינו, C 230	60	21	53.8	60	60	2	120	2675	14	328.6%	21.0%	3	0	7
ינו, P 230	3062	-158	-4.9	3180	3040	123	379,260	665	3082	-0.6%	%	-97	9	7

סקרא : P = PUT ; C = CALL

* - נתון לא רלוונטי

שווי B&S - נוסחה להערכת אופציות על בסיס חמישה משתנים: שער נכס הבסיס (מדד מערף), שער הריבית, מחיר המיסוס וסטיית התקן של התשואה. כל המשתנים מוצגים על בסיס שנתי.

סטיית תקן גלומה - סטיית התקן אשר בהצבתה בנוסחת B&S נקבל את מחיר הסגירה.

DELTA - שער השינוי בשווי האופציה העובע מעליית מדד המערף בנקודה - בהנחה ששאר המשתנים הקובעים את שווי האופציה נשארים קבועים.

THETA - שער השינוי בשווי האופציה העובע מקיצור החקופה לסיסוס ביום אחד - בהנחה ששאר המשתנים הקובעים את שווי האופציה נשארים קבועים.

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מכניקה קלאסית וקוונטית למתמטיקאים

האוניברסיטה העברית, אביב 1997

מס' הקורס: 80719.

המרצה: דרור בר-נתן, בנין אינשטיין חדר 309, טלפון 02-658-4187, דואר אלקטרוני drorbn@math.huji.ac.il.

שעות קבלה: כל יום, כל היום, אבל רק אם אני פנוי.

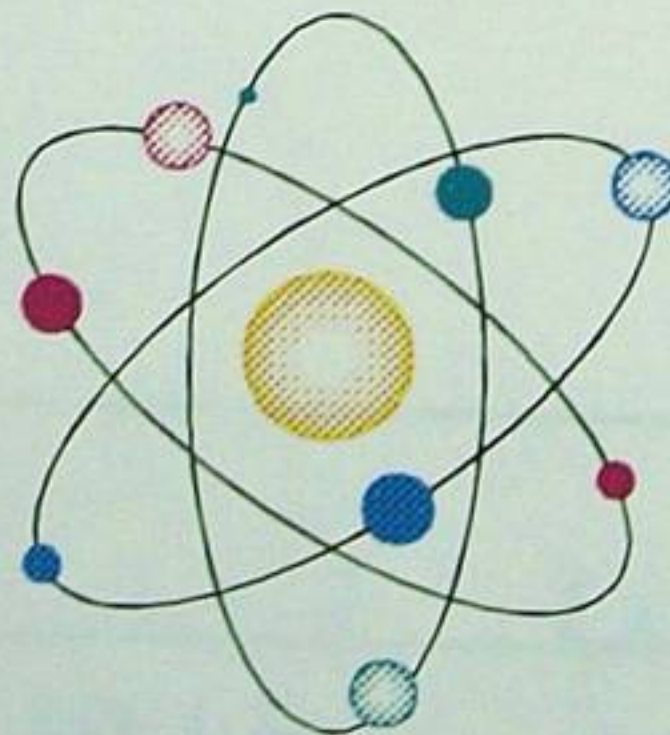
שעות הקורס: ימי רביעי 14:00-16:00 בינתיים. ננסה לשפר ע"פ דרישות הנוכחים ואולי גם לפצל לשתי פגישות שבועיות.

מטרת הקורס: לעזור למתמטיקאים להבין את העקרונות הבסיסיים (והחשובים) ביותר בפיסיקה. השפה תהיה נוחה למתמטיקאים, אולם לא אנסה לשמור על דיוק מתמטי מלא - זו אינה המטרה. הכלי: ננסה להבין עד כמה שניתן את הספקטרום של אטום המימן. אני מקווה שהנושא ישמור עלינו מרוכזים בכיוון אחד, אבל גם יחייב אותנו ללמוד ולהבין את הפיסיקה הרבה שמסביבו.

מטרה משנית: המרצה עצמו רוצה ללמוד את כל הנושאים האלו. חזית הידע שלו כרגע היא מקבילה לחומר הנדרש. אילו היא הייתה ניצבת, היינו במצב חסר סיכוי. אבל כך, כל שנדרש מהמרצה הוא מאמץ נוסף לאורך מספר רב של תחומים מפוזרים היטב בזמן, ויש תקווה.

השיטה: צירוף המטרה העיקרית והמטרה המשנית יחייב הרבה שיתוף פעולה מצד הסטודנטים! ננסה לעקוב ביחד אחרי המאמר *Everything You Always Wanted to Know About the Hydrogen Atom (But Were Afraid to Ask)* מאת Randal C. Telfer (ראי של אתר האינטרנט של המאמר נמצא ב- <http://tipesh.ma.huji.ac.il>) וללמוד לאורך הדרך את כל מה שנצטרך ללמוד.

נושאי הלימוד: (תכנית אופטימית) השלמת אינטגרציה על מסלולים מסמטר א', חשבונות קוואנטיים ישנים ע"פ Bohr, מרכז המסה, קרינה אלקטרומגנטית, פתרון משוואת Schrodinger והקשר עם הצגות של $SO(3)$, חשבונות ספין וחשבונות יחסותיים נאיוויים, משוואת Klein-Gordon ומשוואת Dirac, תורת הפרעות, דיאגרמות Feynman, תורת Chern-Simons ושמורות של יריעות וקשרים (אם כבר אנחנו כאן), נירמול מחדש, אלקטרודינמיקה קוואנטית, ההזזה של Lamb, אפקטים נוספים.



Hydrogen, (H), gaseous element, discovered by Henry CAVENDISH in 1766. The first element on the PERIODIC TABLE, hydrogen is colorless, odorless, tasteless, slightly soluble in water, and highly explosive. The hot flame produced by a mixture of oxygen and hydrogen is used in welding and in melting quartz and glass. Normal hydrogen is diatomic (see ALLOTROPY). The most abundant element in the universe, hydrogen is the major fuel in fusion reactions of the SUN and other STARS. Atmospheric hydrogen has three isotopes: protium (nucleus: one proton), the most common; deuterium, or heavy hydrogen (nucleus: one proton and one neutron), used in particle accelerators and as a tracer for studying chemical-reaction mechanisms; and tritium (nucleus: one proton and two neutrons), a radioactive gas used in the hydrogen bomb, in luminous paints, and as a tracer. Hydrogen use is in the synthesis of AMMONIA...

Everything You Always Wanted to Know About the Hydrogen Atom (But Were Afraid to Ask)

Randal C. Telfer
Johns Hopkins University

May 6, 1996

Abstract

A thorough review of the structure of the hydrogen atom will be presented with emphasis on the quantum-mechanical principles involved rather than calculational detail, which will be minimized. First, the relationship of the Heisenberg uncertainty principle to the hydrogen atom will be discussed briefly. This is followed by a discussion of the energy level structure of the hydrogen atom, including fine structure, in the context of the quantum-mechanical theories of Bohr, Schrödinger, and Dirac. Finally, smaller-order corrections to these theories will be discussed, including the Lamb shift, hyperfine structure, and the Zeeman effect.

1 The Uncertainty Principle

Before discussing specifics about the structure of the hydrogen atom, it is interesting to note what information about the hydrogen atom can be derived just from the Heisenberg uncertainty principle. A familiar form of the uncertainty principle looks like the following:

$$\Delta x \Delta p_x \sim \hbar, \quad (1)$$

where Δx and Δp_x are the uncertainty in the x -component of the position and momentum of a particle, respectively. Consider an electron in a classical circular orbit in the xy -plane. It is then reasonable to write $\Delta x \sim r$, where r is the radius of the orbit. Assuming a state of minimum uncertainty, Δp_x is then known from the uncertainty principle, and it should be roughly equal

הכנייה קלאסית וקוואנטית למגנטיות - מבנה מקודד:

1 המודל אטומי של Bohr ו-BS

2 זיקרון אי-הווקואל, גורם Bohr, קלוזיון וזיקרון

3 מודל מאסה, רזוקציה סימפלקטית, תנודת חלקיק מאסיבית גשמה א-מ

4 גורם ההזדווגות $S(3)$ ו- B/D

5 פתרון משוואת שרנדרג'ה אלוהי המיתון

6 סקן 1

7 סקן 2

8 משוואת זיקרון

9 זיקרון 2

10 דיאגנאליזציה פינמן

11 CS

12 E-M

13 Lamb 1

14 Lamb 2

TABLE 1

QUANTITY	NAME OF BASE SI UNIT	SYMBOL
Length	meter (or metre)	m
Mass	kilogram	kg
Time	second	s
Electric current	ampere	A
Thermodynamic temperature	kelvin	K
Amount of substance	mole	mol
Luminous intensity	candela	cd

TABLE 2

QUANTITY	NAME OF SUPPLEMENTARY SI UNIT	SYMBOL
Plane angle	radian	rad
Solid angle	steradian	sr

Microsoft Table

Tables 1 and 2: International System of Units (SI Units)

International System of Units (French *Le Syst0me International d'Unit's*), name adopted by the Eleventh General Conference on Weights and Measures, held in Paris in 1960, for a universal, unified, self-consistent system of measurement units based on the MKS (meter-kilogram-second) system. The international system is commonly referred to throughout the world as SI, after the initials of Syst0me International. The Metric Conversion Act of 1975 commits the U.S. to the increasing use of, and voluntary conversion to, the metric system of measurement, further defining metric system as the International System of Units as interpreted or modified for the U.S. by the secretary of commerce.

At the 1960 conference, standards were defined for six base units and for two supplementary units; a seventh base unit, the mole, was added in 1971. The seven base units are listed in Table 1, and the supplementary units are listed in Table 2. The symbols in the last column are not abbreviations (hence, no periods are used), and they are exactly the same in all languages.

Length

The meter and the kilogram had their origin in the metric system. By international agreement, the standard meter had been defined as the distance between two fine lines on a bar of platinum-iridium alloy. The 1960 conference redefined the meter as 1,650,763.73 wavelengths of the reddish-orange light emitted by the isotope krypton-86. The meter was again redefined in 1983 as the length of the path traveled by light in vacuum during a time interval of $1/299,792,458$ of a second.

Mass

When the metric system was created, the kilogram was defined as the mass of 1 cubic decimeter of pure water at the temperature of its maximum density ($4.0^\circ\text{C}/39.2^\circ\text{F}$). A solid cylinder of platinum was carefully made to match this quantity of water under the specified conditions. Later it was discovered that a quantity of water as pure or as stable as required could not be provided. Therefore the primary standard of mass became the platinum cylinder, which was replaced in 1889 by a platinum-iridium cylinder of similar mass. Today this cylinder still serves as the international kilogram, and the kilogram in SI is defined as a quantity of mass of the international prototype of the kilogram.

Time

For centuries, time has been universally measured in terms of the rotation of the earth. The second, the basic unit of time, was defined as $1/86,400$ of a mean solar day (see DAY) or one complete rotation of the earth on its

axis. Scientists discovered, however, that the rotation of the earth was not constant enough to serve as the basis of the time standard. As a result, the second was redefined in 1967 in terms of the resonant frequency of the cesium atom, that is, the frequency at which this atom absorbs energy: 9,192,631,770 Hz (cycles per second).

Temperature

The temperature scale adopted by the 1960 conference was based on a fixed temperature point, the triple point of water, at which the solid, liquid, and gas are in equilibrium. The temperature of 273.16 K was assigned to this point. The freezing point of water was designated as 273.15 K, equaling exactly 0° on the Celsius temperature scale. The Celsius scale, which is identical to the centigrade scale, is named for the 18th-century Swedish astronomer Anders Celsius, who first proposed the use of a scale in which the interval between the freezing and boiling points of water is divided into 100 degrees. By international agreement, the term Celsius has officially replaced centigrade.

Other Units

TABLE 3

QUANTITY	NAME OF DERIVED SI UNIT	SYMBOL
Area	square meter	m^2
Volume	cubic meter	m^3
Velocity	meter per second	m/s
Acceleration	meter per second squared	m/s^2
Density	kilogram per cubic meter	kg/m^3
Current density	ampere per square meter	A/m^2
Magnetic field strength	ampere per meter	A/m
Specific volume	cubic meter per kilogram	m^3/kg
Luminance	candela per square meter	cd/m^2

Microsoft Table

TABLE 4

VALUE IN TERMS OF BASE OR SUPPLEMENTARY SI UNITS OR IN TERMS OF OTHER DERIVED SI UNITS

QUANTITY	SPECIAL NAME OF DERIVED SI UNIT		
	SYMBOL	SYMBOL	SYMBOL
Frequency	hertz	Hz	$1/\text{s}$
Force	newton	N	$\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}/\text{s}^2$
Pressure, stress	pascal	Pa	N/m^2
Energy, work, quantity of heat	joule	J	$\text{N}\cdot\text{m}$
Power	watt	W	J/s
Quantity of electricity	coulomb	C	$\text{A}\cdot\text{s}$
Electric potential	volt	V	W/A
Capacitance	farad	F	C/V
Electric resistance	ohm	Ω	V/A
Conductance	siemens	S	A/V
Magnetic flux	weber	Wb	$\text{V}\cdot\text{s}$
Magnetic flux density	tesla	T	Wb/m^2
Inductance	henry	H	Wb/A
Luminous flux	lumen	lm	$\text{cd}\cdot\text{sr}$
Illuminance	lux	lx	lm/m^2
Activity (of radionuclides)	becquerel	Bq	$1/\text{s}$
Absorbed dose	gray	Gy	J/kg

Tables 3 and 4: Derived SI Units and Names

TABLE 5

MULTIPLICATION FACTOR	PREFIX	SYMBOL
1 000 000 000 000 000 000 = 10^{18}	exa	E
1 000 000 000 000 000 = 10^{15}	peta	P
1 000 000 000 000 = 10^{12}	tera	T
1 000 000 000 = 10^9	giga	G
1 000 000 = 10^6	mega	M
1 000 = 10^3	kilo	k
100 = 10^2	hecto	h
10 = 10^1	deka	da
0.1 = 10^{-1}	deci	d
0.01 = 10^{-2}	centi	c
0.001 = 10^{-3}	milli	m
0.000 001 = 10^{-6}	micro	μ
0.000 000 001 = 10^{-9}	nano	n
0.000 000 000 001 = 10^{-12}	pico	p
0.000 000 000 000 001 = 10^{-15}	femto	f
0.000 000 000 000 000 001 = 10^{-18}	atto	a

Microsoft Table

Table 5: Metric Prefixes

QUANTITY	NAME OF UNIT	UNIT SYMBOL	DEFINITION
Time	minute	min	1 min = 60 s
	hour	h	1 h = 60 min
	day	d	1 day = 24 h
Plane angle	degree	°	1° = ($\pi/180$) rad
	minute	'	1' = (1/60)°
	second	"	1" = (1/60)'
Volume	liter (or litre)	l	1 l = 1 dm ³
	metric ton	t	1 t = 10 ³ kg

Microsoft Table

Table 6: Standard Quantities and Units

In SI, the ampere was defined as the constant current that, flowing in two parallel conductors one meter apart in a vacuum, will produce a force between the conductors of 2×10^{-7} newtons per meter of length. In 1971 the mole was defined as the amount of substance of a system that contains as many elementary entities as there are atoms in 0.012 kilogram of carbon-12. The international unit of light intensity, the candela, was defined as 1/60 of the light radiated from a square centimeter of a blackbody, a perfect radiator that absorbs no light, held at the temperature of freezing platinum. The radian is the plane angle between two radii of a circle that cut off on the circumference an arc equal in length to the radius.

The steradian is defined as the solid angle that, having its vertex in the center of a sphere, cuts off an area of the surface of the sphere equal to that of a square with sides of length equal to the radius of the sphere.

The SI units for all other quantities are derived from the seven base units and the two supplementary units. Examples of some SI-derived units, expressed in terms of base units, are shown in Table 3. Some derived units are used so often that they have been assigned special names—usually those of scientists—as shown in Table 4. One feature of SI is that it is a coherent system; that is, derived units are expressed as products and ratios of the base, supplementary, and other derived units without numerical factors. This results in some units being too large for ordinary use and others too small. To compensate, the prefixes developed for the metric system have been borrowed and expanded. These prefixes, given in Table 5, are used with all three types of units: base, supplementary, and derived. Examples are millimeter (mm), kilometer/hour (km/h), megawatt (MW), and picofarad (pF). Because double prefixes are not used, and because the base unit kilogram already contains a prefix, prefixes are not used with kilogram, although they are used with gram. The prefixes hecto, deka, deci, and centi are used only rarely, and then usually with meter to express areas and volumes. Because of established usage, the centimeter is retained for body measurements and clothing.

Certain units that are not part of SI are used so widely that it is impractical to abandon them. The units that are accepted for continued use in the U.S. with SI are listed in Table 6.

In cases where their usage is already well established, certain other units are allowed for a limited time, subject to future review: nautical mile, knot, angstrom, standard atmosphere, hectare, and bar. See also METRIC SYSTEM; WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Further Reading

"International System of Units," Microsoft (R) Encarta. Copyright (c) 1994 Microsoft Corporation. Copyright (c) 1994 Funk & Wagnall's Corporation.

Electrical Units, units used to express quantitative measurements of all types of electrostatic and electromagnetic phenomena and of the electrical characteristics of components of electrical circuits. The basic electrical units are part of the centimeter-gram-second system, but because, in most cases, these units are either too large or too small for convenient measurement, a number of practical units have been adopted for use in engineering.

Basic Units
The elemental unit of electricity is the absolute charge on a single electron or proton. The symbol for this unit is e. The CGS unit of electrical charge is the electrostatic unit (esu), which is defined as the quantity of electricity that when concentrated at a point in a vacuum will repel a like charge 1 cm away with a force of 1 dyne. The esu equals the aggregate charge carried by 2,082,000,000 electrons or protons. The basic units of electrical current or flow is the statampere, which is defined as a current of 1 esu/sec. The statvolt, the basic unit of electromotive force, or potential difference, is the difference in potential that exists between two points when 1 erg of work is required to force 1 esu of electricity between those two points.

Electromagnetic Units
Besides the electrostatic units of charge, current, and potential difference, a parallel group of basic electromagnetic units exists. The basic magnetic unit, comparable to the elemental unit of electricity, is the unit magnetic pole, defined as a point magnetic pole that in a vacuum will act on a similar pole 1 cm away with a force of 1 dyne. The unit used to measure the strength of magnetic fields is the oersted. A field that acts on a unit magnetic pole with a force of 1 dyne has a strength of 1 oersted. The electromagnetic unit of electric current is called the abampere. If a current of 1 abampere flows in a wire 1 cm long, the wire is pushed sidewise with a force of 1 dyne by a magnetic field of 1 oersted acting at right angles to the wire. The abcoulomb is the quantity of electricity passing any point in a circuit in 1 sec when a current of 1 abampere is flowing in the circuit. The abvolt, the electromagnetic unit of potential difference, is the potential difference between two points when 1 erg of work is necessary to move 1 abcoulomb of electricity from one point to the other. See also POTENTIAL ENERGY. The mathematical relationships between the electrostatic and electromagnetic units are as follows: 1 esu equals 3.3356×10^{-11} abcoulombs; 1 statampere equals 3.3356×10^{-11} abamperes; and one statvolt equals 29,979,600,000 abvolts. This last figure is exactly equal to the velocity of light through a vacuum, which is expressed in centimeters per second, as predicted by the electromagnetic-wave theory developed by the British physicist James Clerk Maxwell. See ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION.

Practical Units
The unit of electrical current in common use is the ampere, which is defined as 0.1 abamperes. The practical unit of electrical quantity is the coulomb, the amount of electricity passing a given point in a circuit in 1 sec when a current of 1 amp is flowing. The volt is the practical unit of potential difference. It is equal to 100 million abvolts and can be defined as the potential difference existing between two points when 1 joule (10 million ergs) of work is required to move 1 coulomb of electricity from one of the points to the other. The unit of electrical work is the watt. It represents the generation or use of electrical energy at the rate of 1 J/sec. The kilowatt is equal to 1000 watts. Because of the difficulty of making measurements in terms of the absolute units, the practical units are also defined for purposes of practical standardization as follows: The ampere is the amount of current that will deposit 0.001118 g of silver per sec if passed through a silver nitrate solution; the ohm is the resistance of a column of mercury 106.3 cm in length and 1 sq mm in cross section at a temperature of 0° C (32° F); the volt is the electromotive force necessary to produce a current of 1 amp through a resistance of 1 ohm. The volt is also defined in terms of a standard voltaic cell, called the Weston cell, which has poles of cadmium amalgam and mercurous sulfate and an electrolyte of cadmium sulfate. A volt is defined as 0.98203 of the potential of this standard cell at 20° C (68° F). In all the practical electrical units the conventional prefixes of the metric system are used to indicate fractions and multiples of the basic units. Thus a micromicrofarad is a trillionth of a farad, a microampere is a millionth of an ampere, a millivolt is a thousandth of a volt, a millihenry is a thousandth of a henry, a kilowatt is 1000 watts, and a megohm is 1 million ohms.

Resistance, Capacitance, Inductance
All components in electrical circuits exhibit one or more of the characteristics of resistance, capacitance, and inductance. The commonly used unit of resistance is the ohm, which is the resistance of a conductor in which a potential difference of 1 V causes a current flow of 1 amp. The capacitance of a condenser is measured in farads. A condenser of 1 farad capacitance will exhibit a change in potential difference of 1 V between its plates when 1 coulomb of electricity is transferred from one plate to the other. The henry is the unit of inductance. A coil has a self-inductance of 1 H when a change in current of 1 amp/sec produces a countervoltage of 1/V. In a transformer, or in any two magnetically coupled circuits, a mutual induction of 1 H is that inductance which will induce a voltage of 1 V in the secondary when there is a change of 1 amp/sec in the primary. See also BATTERY; ELECTROCHEMISTRY.

"Electrical Units," Microsoft (R) Encarta. Copyright (c) 1994 Microsoft Corporation. Copyright (c) 1994 Funk & Wagnall's Corporation.

Planck's Constant, fundamental physical constant, symbol h . It was first discovered (1900) by the German physicist Max Planck. Until that year, light in all forms had been thought to consist of waves. Planck noticed certain deviations from the wave theory of light on the part of radiations emitted by so-called blackbodies, or perfect absorbers and emitters of radiation. He came to the conclusion that these radiations were emitted in discrete units of energy, called quanta. This conclusion was the first enunciation of the quantum theory. According to Planck, the energy of a quantum of light is equal to the frequency of the light multiplied by a constant. His original theory has since had abundant experimental verification, and the growth of the quantum theory has brought about a fundamental change in the physicist's concept of light and matter, both of which are now thought to combine the properties of waves and particles. Thus, Planck's constant has become as important to the investigation of particles of matter as to quanta of light, now called photons. The first successful measurement (1916) of Planck's constant was made by the American physicist Robert Millikan. The present accepted value of the constant is $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34}$ joule-second in the meter-kilogram-second system.

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Electron, a type of elementary particle that, along with protons and neutrons, make up atoms and molecules. Electrons play a role in a wide variety of phenomena. The flow of an electric current in a conductor is caused by the drifting of free electrons in the conductor. Heat conduction is also primarily a phenomenon of electron activity. In vacuum tubes a heated cathode emits a stream of electrons that can be used to amplify or rectify an electric current (see RECTIFICATION; VACUUM TUBES). If such a stream is focused into a well-defined beam, it is called a cathode-ray beam (see CATHODE RAY). Cathode rays directed against suitable targets produce X rays; directed against the fluorescent screen of a television tube, they produce visible images. Also, the negatively charged beta particles emitted by some radioactive substances are electrons. See RADIOACTIVITY; X RAY; ELECTRONICS; PARTICLE ACCELERATORS.

Electrons have a rest mass of 9.109×10^{-28} grams, and an electrical charge of negative 1.602×10^{-19} coulombs (see ELECTRICAL UNITS). The charge of the electron is the basic unit of electricity. Electrons are classified as fermions because they have half-integral spin; spin is a quantum mechanical property of subatomic particles that indicates the particle's angular momentum. The antimatter version of the electron is the positron.

Contributed by:
Richard Hofstadter

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In[1]:= << Miscellaneous`PhysicalConstants`

In[2]:= ElectronCharge

Out[2]= 1.60218×10^{-19} Coulomb

In[3]:= ElectronMass

Out[3]= 9.10939×10^{-31} Kilogram

In[4]:= PlanckConstantReduced

Out[4]= 1.05457×10^{-34} Joule Second

In[5]:= VacuumPermittivity

Out[5]= 8.85419×10^{-12} Ampere Second
Meter Volt

מבנה קלטות קוונטיות - קוונטיות 16 אינר 1996

בנייה השנייה: 1. אפואר ה מלוח אינרטי: מלוח 16 אינרטי קוונטיות קטנות

2. מבנה אינרטי: האם יג.

3. הבחנה: "כמה כחלק הדנק חר 2-N-3 הנשאן הבא יפני? הארץ?

4. יחס חילוף בקוונטיות

5. מקוד 5ה רלונטי f - BS?

7. מקוד 5ה רלונטי f - QP? גרזון, אוקי לא יוקל

8. אנרגיית נשאן: גיבך האזון ממשאר הדאטון

9. אנרגיית נשאן: חילוף הגרזן > צדד הגרזן

$$Q^n(t+\epsilon) - Q^n(t) = \sum_{j=1}^n Q^j(t) (Q(t+\epsilon) - Q(t)) Q^{n-j}(t+\epsilon) \quad :5 \quad (10)$$

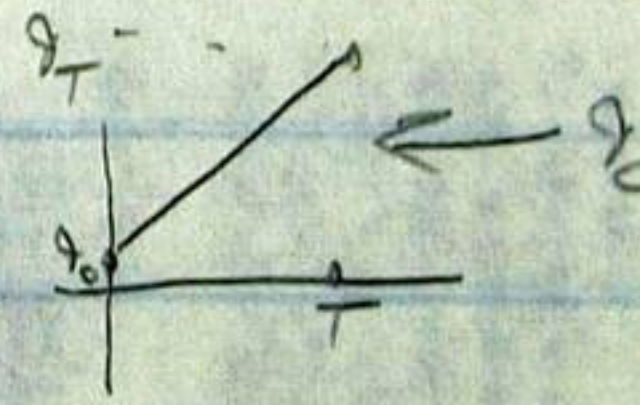
$$= \sum_{j=1}^n Q^{j-1}(t) [Q(t+\epsilon) - Q(t)] + \sigma^2(\dots)$$

10 ק: אלקין מובשי: $S = \int \frac{1}{2} \dot{q}^2 dt$

$$K(q_0, q_T) = \int_{q(0)=q_0}^{q(T)=q_T} \mathcal{D}q \ e^{-i \int \frac{1}{2} \dot{q}^2 dt} \ e^{-iS(q_0)}$$

דמיון

$$\Leftrightarrow \oint S(q_0) = \frac{(q_T - q_0)^2}{2T} \Leftrightarrow$$



$$(U_T \psi_0)(q_T) = \int dq_0 \ \psi_0(q_0) \ e^{-i \frac{(q_T - q_0)^2}{2T}} =$$

ניח T מסת, $q_T \approx \dots$, ψ_0 נשאן > 0

$$\frac{(q_T - q_0)^2}{2T} = \frac{(pT - q_0)^2}{2T} = \frac{p^2 T^2}{2T} - p q_0 + \frac{q_0^2}{2T}$$

↓ מנין

↓

$$\Leftrightarrow \int dq_0 \ e^{i p q_0} \psi(q_0) \Rightarrow$$

משהו

סגור

1997 ~~1919~~ \hbar $\Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$ \leftarrow $\Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$ \leftarrow $\Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$

$\rho = \frac{\hbar}{r}$ $\leftarrow \Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$

From diff $E = \frac{p^2}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{r} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2mr^2} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$

~~17-18~~ $E = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{me^4}{\hbar^2 (4\pi\epsilon_0)^2}$; $r = \frac{\hbar^2}{me^2}$

$m = 9.109 \cdot 10^{-31}$ kg $\hbar = 1.055 \cdot 10^{-34}$ Joule sec

13-14 $e = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19}$ coul. $\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12}$ $\frac{\text{Amp. Sec}}{\text{Met. Volt}}$

$\pi = \frac{22}{7}$

$r = 5.292 \cdot 10^{-11} \frac{\text{Amp. Joule}^2 \text{ sec}^3}{\text{coul}^2 \text{ kg Met. Volt}}$

(Joule = $\text{kg} \frac{\text{Met}^2}{\text{sec}^2}$) \hbar $\Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$ \leftarrow $\Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$

$\text{kg} \frac{\text{Met}}{\text{sec}^2} = \frac{\text{Volt}}{\text{Met}} \cdot \text{coul} \leftarrow ma = F = \frac{V}{L} \cdot C$

$\text{Volt} = \text{kg} \frac{\text{Met}^2}{\text{sec}^2 \text{ coul}}$

$\text{coul} = \text{Amp} \cdot \text{sec} \leftarrow I = C = i \cdot t$

$\text{Amp} = \frac{\text{coul}}{\text{sec}}$

$r = 5.292 \cdot 10^{-11}$ Meter = 0.5292 Å

$E = -2.18 \frac{\text{coul}^4 \text{ kg Met}^2 \text{ Volt}^2}{\text{Amp}^2 \text{ Joule}^2 \text{ sec}^4} \cdot 10^{-18}$

השדה: eV \leftarrow $\Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$ \leftarrow $\Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$

= $1.602 \cdot 10^{-19}$ Joule

$E = -13.606$ eV

$\lambda_{\text{deB}} = 1.5188 \cdot 10^{-14} \frac{\text{kg Met}^3}{\text{sec}^2}^{1/2}$ \leftarrow $\Delta p \Delta q \sim \hbar$

23/2/97

3/2

$$F = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - U(r)$$

קוויב' קוויב' >

$$v^2 = \dot{r}^2 + r^2\dot{\theta}^2$$

$$F = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + \dot{\theta}^2 r^2) - U(r)$$

משהו נאר = משהו

$$p_{\theta} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial \dot{\theta}} = m r^2 \dot{\theta}$$

$$p_r = \frac{\partial F}{\partial \dot{r}}$$

משהו משהו

$$H = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + U$$

E משהו

$$E = \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + \dot{\theta}^2 r^2) + U(r) =$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}m(\dot{r}^2 + \frac{J^2}{m^2 r^2}) + U(r)$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{r}^2 = \frac{2E}{m} - \frac{J^2}{m^2 r^2} - \frac{2U(r)}{m}$$

$$dt = \frac{dr}{\sqrt{\frac{2E}{m} - \frac{2U(r)}{m} - \frac{J^2}{m^2 r^2}}}$$

$$\frac{d\theta}{dt} = \frac{J}{mr^2} \Rightarrow d\theta = \frac{J dt}{mr^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d\theta}{dr} = \frac{dr/r^2}{\sqrt{\frac{2mE}{J^2} - \frac{2mU(r)}{J^2} - \frac{1}{r^2}}}$$

*

$$U(r) = \frac{k}{r}$$

משהו משהו

$$d\theta = \frac{du}{\sqrt{a-bu-u^2}}$$

מכאן \rightarrow v_{rel}
 $u = \frac{v}{c}$

$$d\theta = \frac{d(u + \frac{b}{2})}{\sqrt{1 + \frac{b^2}{4} - (u + \frac{b}{2})^2}} = \frac{dz}{\sqrt{a^2 - z^2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = \cos^{-1} \frac{z}{a} + \theta_0$$

$$= \cos^{-1} \left(\frac{a + \frac{b}{2}}{\sqrt{a + \frac{b^2}{4}}} \right) + \theta_0$$

$$\Rightarrow \cos(\theta - \theta_0) = \frac{u + \frac{b}{2}}{\sqrt{a + \frac{b^2}{4}}}$$

מכאן * \rightarrow $u = \frac{1}{\gamma} \rightarrow$ $\gamma = \frac{1}{u}$
 \rightarrow $\gamma = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{\gamma}} = \gamma^2$

$$-\theta = \cos^{-1} \frac{\frac{1}{\gamma} + \frac{mk}{J^2}}{\sqrt{\frac{2mE}{J^2} + \left(\frac{mk}{J^2}\right)^2}} - \theta_0$$

\leftarrow מכאן

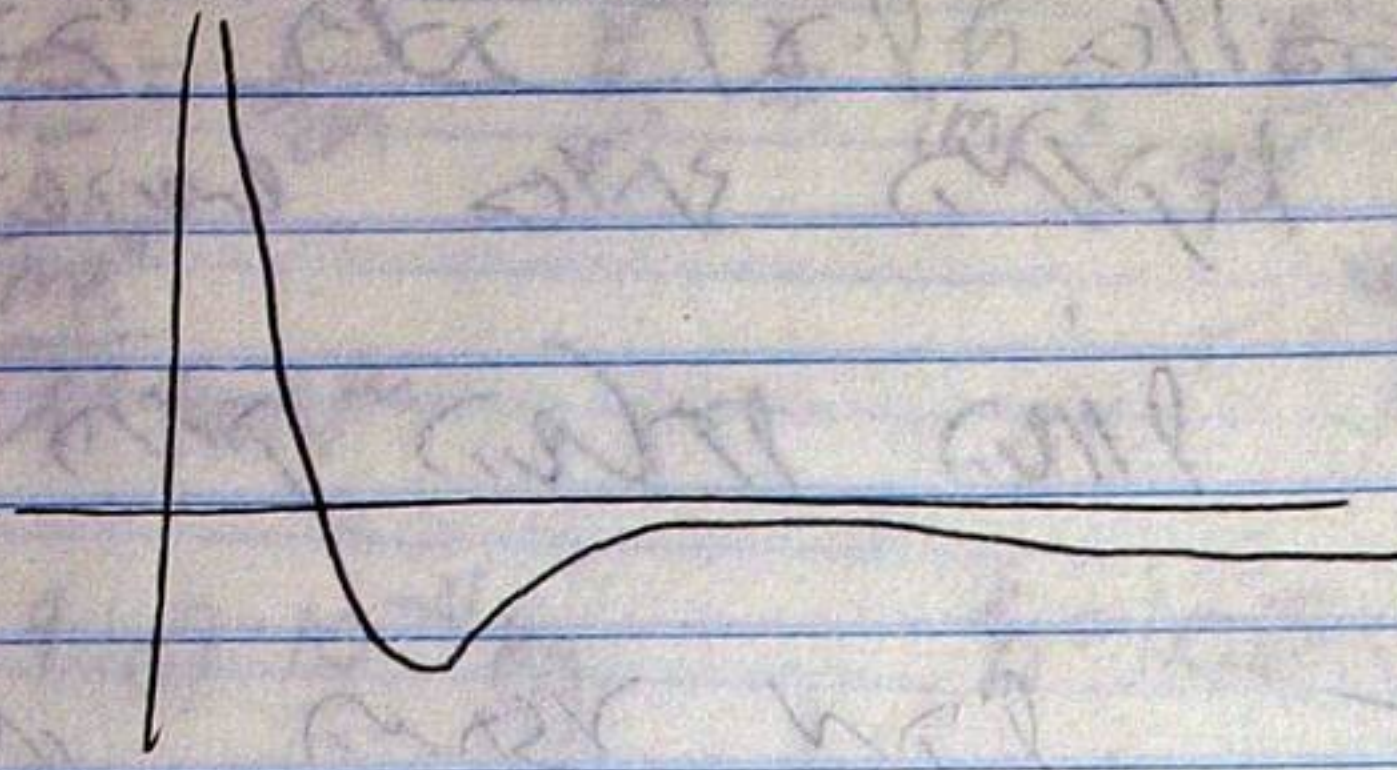
$$\cos(\theta_0 - \theta) = \frac{\frac{J^2}{mk\gamma} + 1}{\sqrt{\frac{2J^2 E}{mk^2} + 1}}$$

$$E = \sqrt{\frac{J^2 E}{mk^2} + 1}$$

$$p = \frac{J^2}{mk}$$

$$= \frac{p+1}{E}$$

האנרגיה הזו היא $E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$ וכן $v = \frac{h}{m\lambda}$ $\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$



הערה:

$$\frac{E \cos \theta - 1}{B} = \frac{1}{r}$$

הערה $x = r \cos \theta$

$$Ex - r = B$$

$$-r = B - Ex$$

$$\Rightarrow x^2 + y^2 = B^2 - 2EBx + E^2 x^2$$

! האנרגיה הזו היא $E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$

$E > 0$ $E > 1$ האנרגיה הזו:

$E = 0$ $E = 1$ האנרגיה הזו

האנרגיה הזו היא $E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$ $\alpha \leq 1$ האנרגיה הזו

$E = \min$ $E = 0$ האנרגיה הזו

דוק' (דוק' -)

1. בלבד' הלבד' וצד' האלכס' כג' הלבד'
כמה' כמה' כמה'

2. מה' מה' מה' מה'

3. מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה'
מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה'
מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה' מה'

$$L^2 = \frac{L^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} = X \frac{\text{volt}^2 \text{met}^3 \text{volt} \text{kg}}{\text{Amp}^2 \text{sec}^2} = \text{kg} \frac{\text{met}^3}{\text{sec}^2}$$

מכניקה קלאסית / קוואנטית
 Bohr's model of the atom
 1997

$$L = n\hbar$$

דוגמה: "אנחנו קולטים את הקלאסיקה"
 $\frac{J^2}{mr^3} = m\frac{v^2}{r}$ (כאן $v = \frac{J}{mr}$)

$$\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} = m\frac{v^2}{r} \quad ; \quad mvr = n\hbar$$

$$v = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 n\hbar} = \frac{\alpha}{n} c \quad ; \quad r = n^2 \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{me^2}$$

הקבוע $\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar c} = \frac{1}{137.036}$

$$E = K + V = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} = -\frac{me^4}{32\pi^2\hbar^2 n^2} = \frac{-13.606 \text{ eV}}{n^2}$$

$M = 1.6726231 \cdot 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$ (מסה)
 $3 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ s}$ (זמן)

$$m_1 \rightarrow \mu = \frac{mM}{m+M}$$

$$\frac{-13.5983 \text{ eV}}{n^2}$$

$$\frac{p_x^2}{2m} + \frac{p_y^2}{2m} - U(x,y) = E$$

$$\frac{p_x^2}{2\mu} - U(x)$$

האם המערכת גדולה או קטנה?
 מה קורה: קרינה

המרחק: היה נראה לו היינו מקבלים הכל $\sim E \sim m$
 תוצאה:

$$S(A) = \int_{R^4} \left(\frac{1}{2} \|dA\|_{g(A)}^2 + J^1 A \right)$$

$$\delta J = 0 \Rightarrow \delta F = 0$$

$$F = E_x dx + B_y dy + B_z dz \quad ; \quad J = \rho dx dy dz - j_x dy dz - j_y dx dz - j_z dx dy$$

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \text{div } j = 0 \quad ; \quad \text{div } B = 0$$

$$\text{curl } E = -\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} \quad ; \quad -\text{div } E = \rho$$

$$\text{curl } B = -\frac{\partial E}{\partial t} + j$$

התחילת $J \rightarrow J^1 A$, E (הכוח) $\rightarrow -\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2}$
 $E = \frac{e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} \hat{r}$; $\rho = e\delta_0(x)$; $j = 0$

$$ds = c dt \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$$

$$S(q) = mc \int_{t_1}^{t_2} ds - \int_{t_1}^{t_2} eA$$

$$L = c^2 dt^2 (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)$$

$$E = mc^2 \quad ; \quad E = \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \quad ; \quad p_x = \frac{\partial F}{\partial x} = \frac{mv}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

$$m \dot{q} = \left(\frac{m \dot{q}}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \right) \hat{q} = e(E + \dot{q} \times B)$$

מכירת קלסון וקוואנטר - פורמולות
6 בספט 1997

המשך שדקנע דמקור הסמל - ארבע
כבשור אוהר הקורס.

50/3) כ - Math 117 - אה 27
1994 פורמולות

Math 117, April 27 1994

Just a little on Rotations & spin

$$\{P_i, Q_j\} = \delta_{ij} \longrightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \oplus \dots; L^2(\mathbb{R}^3) \longrightarrow \mathcal{L}^n$$

How does one quantize angular momenta?

$$L_x = Q_y P_z - Q_z P_y$$

$$L_y = Q_z P_x - Q_x P_z$$

$$L_z = Q_x P_y - Q_y P_x$$

$$L = Q \times P$$

$$\{L_x, L_y\} = \{Q_y P_z - Q_z P_y, Q_z P_x - Q_x P_z\} = Q_y P_x - Q_x P_y = Q_z$$

$$\{L_y, L_z\} = Q_x$$

$$\{L_z, L_x\} = Q_y$$

$$\{Q_i, P_j\} = \dots$$

$$\{Q_j, P_i\} = \dots$$

easy quantization:

$$L_i \longmapsto Q_j P_k - Q_k P_j \quad (\text{with } Q_i)$$

~~non-unique!~~

$$\text{Get } [Q_i', Q_j'] = Q_k'$$

Prob: classify reps of $[Q_i', Q_j'] = Q_k'$ in \mathcal{L}^n by anti-self-adjoint matrices.

Sol'n: One in each dim; (+ direct sums)

1 spin 0

2 spin-1/2 electrons, ?

3 spin 1

cont. on
other side.

$$H = j\omega_3 \quad X^+ = \omega_1 + j\omega_2 \quad X^- = \omega_1 - j\omega_2$$

$$[H, X^+] = 2X^+ \quad [H, X^-] = -2X^-$$

$$[X^+, X^-] = -H$$

$$\Rightarrow v_0 \text{ max vector } v_j; \quad v_j = \frac{(-1)^j}{j!} (X^-)^j v_0$$

$$H v_j = (2j) v_j$$

$$X^- v_j = -v_{j+1}$$

$$X^+ v_j = v_{j-1}$$

$$j = 0 \dots l$$

$$v_j = 0 \text{ for } j = l+1 \text{ or } j = -1$$

$$\langle X^- v_l, X^- v_0 \rangle = \langle v_l, X^+ X^- v_0 \rangle = 0$$

... ..

מספרים קומפליקס, המיוצגים במישור המרוכב, $z = x_1 + ix_2$

(so(3)) $[L'_i, L'_j] = L'_k$: המטריצה היא

$H = 2iL'_3 \quad X^\pm = L'_1 \pm iL'_2$

$[H, X^+] = 2X^+ \quad [H, X^-] = -2X^-$

$[X^+, X^-] = -H$

$Hv_0 = \ell v_0 \quad v_j = \frac{\ell(\ell-1)\dots(\ell-j+1)}{j!} (X^-)^j v_0 \quad \forall j$

$Hv_j = (\ell - 2j)X^j v_0$

$X^- v_j = -(\ell + 1) v_{j+1}$

$X^+ v_j = (\ell - j + 1) v_{j-1}$

$v_{\ell+1} = 0$ נורמל
 $v_0 = 1$ נורמל

$\Delta = -\sum L_i^2 \quad L_i = -i(x_k \partial_j - x_j \partial_k)$ נורמל

so(3) \mathfrak{h} : המרחב \mathfrak{h} המשותף של המרחב \mathfrak{h} והמרחב \mathfrak{h} : המרחב \mathfrak{h} והמרחב \mathfrak{h}

$\dim \mathfrak{h} = 2\ell + 1$

$\dim \mathfrak{h} = \binom{\ell+2}{2}$

$H = (x_1 + ix_2)^\ell = \ell(\dots)$ נורמל $\mathfrak{h} = \mathbb{R}^{2\ell+1}$ נורמל

$v_{\ell-j} = (iX^-)^j v_\ell \quad v_\ell = (x_1 + ix_2)^\ell$ נורמל

$Y_m(\theta, \phi) = e^{im\phi} P_m(\cos\theta)$

$z = r \cos\theta$
 $x = r \sin\theta \cos\phi$
 $y = r \sin\theta \sin\phi$

$P_m(s) = (1-s^2)^{-\frac{m}{2}} \frac{d^m}{ds^m} (1-s^2)^\ell$ נורמל

$P_\ell(t) = \frac{1}{2^\ell \ell!} \frac{d^\ell}{dt^\ell} (t^2 - 1)^\ell$

המרחב \mathfrak{h} המשותף

1997 שנת 13, פירוק המילר - וקטוריות קוונטום

$[L'_i, L'_j] = L'_k$ L'_k L'_i, L'_j, L'_k L'_i, L'_j, L'_k L'_i, L'_j, L'_k
 $H = 2iL'_3$ $X^\pm = L'_1 \pm iL'_2$

$Hv_0 = \hbar\omega_0 v_0$
 $v_j = \frac{(-1)^j}{j!} (X^-)^j v_0$ $Hv_j = (l-2j)\hbar\omega_0 v_j$ $v_l : l+1$
 $X^- v_j = -(j+1)v_{j+1}$
 $X^+ v_j = (l-j+1)v_{j-1}$

$v_0 = (x_1 + ix_2)^l$
 $X^+ v_0 = 0$
 $Hv_0 = \hbar\omega_0 v_0$
 $\dim P_l = \binom{l+2}{2}$ \mathbb{R}^3 P_l
 $\dim \mathcal{H}_l = 2l+1$ $\mathcal{H}_l = \text{span}\{v_j\}$ $\Delta = -\sum L_i'^2$

$C = -\sum L_i'^2 = \left(\frac{\hbar}{2a}\right)^2 \frac{1}{2} (X^+ X^- + X^- X^+)$ מרחב

$\frac{1}{4}(l-2j)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(j+1)(l-j) + (l-j+1)j =$
 $= \frac{1}{4}l^2 + l(-j + \frac{j+1}{2} + \frac{j}{2}) + j^2 - \frac{1}{2}(j(j+1) + j(j-1))$
 $= \frac{1}{4}l(l+2)$

$-l(l+1)$ \rightarrow $\Delta v = -l(l+1)v$

$\psi = R(r)Y(\theta, \phi)$ $\Delta \psi = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} (r\psi) + \frac{1}{r^2} \Delta_{\Omega} \psi$

$\frac{1}{r} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} (rR) = -\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left(E + \frac{e^2}{r} - \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2} \right) R$

$l^2 = -E$ $g = e^{i\phi} F$ $F = PR$ $r = \frac{\hbar^2}{me^2} \rho$ $E = \frac{me^4}{2\hbar^2} \epsilon$

$a_{k+1} = \frac{2(k-1)}{k(k+1) - l(l+1)} a_k$

$\forall l \leq n$ $\epsilon = -\frac{1}{n^2}$ ϵ ϵ

$\epsilon = -\frac{1}{n^2}$ ϵ ϵ ϵ ϵ

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מכניקת קוואנטום קלאסית - 1997

$\psi \in \mathcal{H}_l$; $\psi = R(r) \cdot Y(\theta, \phi)$ נטור, R נדרש לעמוד

$$\frac{1}{r} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} (rR) = -\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left(E + \frac{e^2}{r} - \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2} \right) R$$

$\alpha^2 = -E$ $g = e^{\alpha r}$; $F = \rho R$; $r = \frac{\hbar^2}{me^2} \rho$ (התבונן מרובי)
 $E = \frac{me^4}{2\hbar^2} \epsilon$

$a_1 = 0$ $a_{k+1} = \frac{2(k-1)}{k(k+1) - l(l+1)} a_k$ (התבונן)

$\nabla^2 \psi = 0$ $E = -\frac{1}{n^2}$ n קבוע

מכניקת קוואנטום קלאסית
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 ו-1 ו-1 ו-1 ו-1 ו-1

$(\dots)_{k=0} a_{k+1} = (\dots)_{k=n} a_k$

זכור! מונח זכור! נכון!

$\left(\frac{1}{2} p^2 - \frac{1}{q^2} \right) \psi(r) = \int dp 4\pi p^2 \cdot \frac{4}{3} \pi \left(\frac{1}{2} p^2 \right) \sim \frac{1}{\epsilon^{3/2}}$ \int_C

$\frac{1}{2} p^2 + E \leq \frac{1}{q^2}$
 $\frac{1}{2} p^2 \geq \frac{1}{q^2} - E$

האם יש כל כך הרבה פתרונות?
 נכון! כל כך הרבה פתרונות?
 נכון! כל כך הרבה פתרונות?

$A + \epsilon B$ $A \psi = \lambda \psi$ $\lambda \epsilon = \lambda + \epsilon \langle V, B \psi \rangle$

$\lambda \epsilon = \lambda + \epsilon \langle V, B \psi \rangle$

1. אנרגיה ומסלול
 2. אנרגיה ומסלול
 1. אנרגיה ומסלול

$E = c \sqrt{m^2 c^2 + p^2}$ $E = \frac{mc^2}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} = mc^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{v^2}{c^2} + \dots \right)$

$= mc^2 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{p}{mc} \right)^2}$ $p = \frac{mv}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \Rightarrow v = \frac{p}{\sqrt{m^2 + p^2/c^2}}$

$= mc^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{p}{mc} \right)^2 - \frac{1}{8} \left(\frac{p}{mc} \right)^4 + \dots \right) = mc^2 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{p^2}{m} - \frac{1}{8} \frac{p^4}{m^3 c^2} + \dots$

$\Delta E = \langle \psi, -\frac{1}{8} \frac{p^4}{m^3 c^2} \psi \rangle = -\frac{1}{2m^2 c^2} \langle \psi, (E^2 - 2EV + V^2) \psi \rangle =$
 $\frac{p^2}{2m} \psi = (E - V) \psi = \alpha^4 mc^2 \frac{1}{4m^2} \left[\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \right) - \frac{3}{4m} \right]$
 $\alpha = \frac{e^2}{\hbar c} = \frac{1}{137}$

$$\lambda_E = \lambda_0 + \epsilon \lambda_1 + \dots$$
$$V_E = V_0 + \epsilon V_1 + \dots$$

SA.

$$(A + \epsilon B) V_E = \lambda_E V_E$$

$$\|V_E\|^2 = 1$$

$$A V_0 = \lambda_0 V_0$$

$$0 = \langle B V_0 + A V_1 - \lambda_0 V_1 - \lambda_1 V_0, V_0 \rangle$$

$$= \langle B V_0, V_0 \rangle = \lambda_1 \|V_0\|^2$$

שבת קודש, חג חמשה עשר, 2007, 1997

יש שתי דרכים:

1. אנרגיה היא יחסית:
2. האנרגיה היא ממשלית גשם ציבורי ממשל.

הערה: כפי שרואים, הקורס
 אנרגיה יחסית כפי שרואים, הקורס.

2. אינטגרציה סבן-מסוף: $\Delta H_{50} = \frac{\rho^2}{2m^2 r^3} L \cdot S$

$L_{ii}^t = L_i + S_i$ $(L^t)^2 = L^2 + 2L \cdot S + S^2$

$(L \cdot S) \Psi = \frac{1}{2} \hbar^2 (\ell^t(\ell^t+1) - \ell(\ell+1) - s(s+1)) \Psi$

הערה: $SU(2) \rightarrow SO(3)$; $SO(3)$ הוא המרחב האנטי-סימטרי
 2. פירוק אנרגיה הוא ממשלית אנטי-סימטרי.

1997 1997 שנת 30, תאריך הלימודים, תאריך הלימודים

$$m^2 c^4 = E^2 - c^2 p^2 \quad E = c \sqrt{m^2 c^2 + p^2} \leftarrow \text{אנרגיה}$$

$$m^2 c^4 \psi = \hbar^2 \left(-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} + c^2 \Delta \right) \psi \leftarrow E \mapsto i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}, \quad p_i \mapsto -i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \text{ : תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$\square = \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \Delta$$

$$\left(\square + \frac{m^2 c^2}{\hbar^2} \right) \psi = 0$$

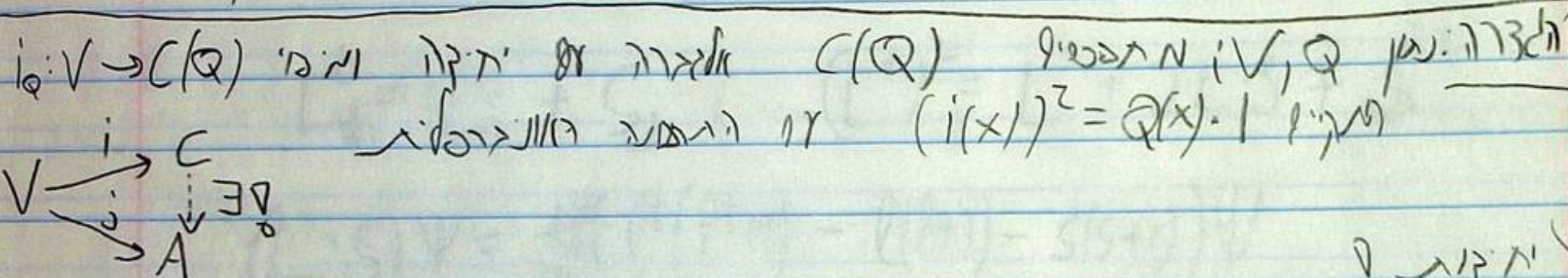
... תנאי שטריינברג וזהו תנאי שטריינברג

$$\int_0 \quad i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi = c \sqrt{m^2 c^2 + \hbar^2 \Delta} \psi \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$\left(\sum e_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right)^2 = \square$$

תנאי שטריינברג

$$\left(\sum e_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right)^2 = \square \quad e_i e_j + e_j e_i = 0; \quad e_i^2 = -1; \quad e_0^2 = 1/c^2$$



$$C(\mathbb{Q}) = T(V) / \langle x \otimes x - \mathbb{Q}(x) \rangle \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$C_{0,1,2} = \mathbb{R}, \quad \mathbb{R} \otimes \mathbb{R} = \mathbb{R}(2) \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$C_{0,1,1,2} = \mathbb{R}, \mathbb{C}, \mathbb{H} \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$\mathbb{H} = \{1, i, j, k\} = \left\{ \begin{pmatrix} a & b \\ -b & a \end{pmatrix} \right\} \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$C(P \otimes Q) = C(P) \hat{\otimes} C(Q) \subseteq (V(P); (W, Q) \text{ : תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$F: V \otimes W \rightarrow C(P) \hat{\otimes} C(Q)$$

$$F(v, w) = i_P(v) \otimes 1 + 1 \otimes i_Q(w) \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$C(\mathbb{Q})$ תנאי שטריינברג $\{e_i: i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ תנאי שטריינברג $\{e_i: i \in \mathbb{N}\}$ תנאי שטריינברג

$$e_i e_j + e_j e_i = \mathbb{Q}(e_i + e_j) - \mathbb{Q}(e_i) - \mathbb{Q}(e_j) \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$\psi(e_i) = \begin{cases} e_{i-2} \otimes e'_1 e'_2 & i \geq 2 \\ 1 \otimes e'_i & i \leq 2 \end{cases} \quad \psi: V_{n+2} \rightarrow C_n \otimes C'_2 \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$C_n \otimes C'_2 \cong C_{n+2} \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$C'_n \otimes C'_2 \cong C_{n+2} \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

תנאי שטריינברג

$$\mathbb{R}(n) \otimes K = K(n) \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$\mathbb{R}(n) \otimes \mathbb{R}(m) = \mathbb{R}(nm) \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$\mathbb{C} \otimes \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C} \oplus \mathbb{C} \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$\mathbb{H} \otimes \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C}(2) \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

$$\mathbb{H} \otimes \mathbb{H} = \mathbb{R}(4) \quad \text{: תנאי שטריינברג}$$

1997 סדרה 6, פירוק למרכיבים ראשוניים - תורת המספרים

n	C_n	base $e_i \in C_n$	C_n'	$e_i \in C_n'$
0	\mathbb{R}	-	\mathbb{R}	-
1	\mathbb{C}	$e_1 = i$	$\mathbb{R} \oplus \mathbb{R}$	$e_1 = (1, -1)$
2	\mathbb{H}	$e_1 = i$ $e_2 = j$	$\mathbb{R}(2)$	$e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ $e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
3	$\mathbb{H} \oplus \mathbb{H}$	$e_1 = (i, -i)$ $e_2 = (j, j)$ $e_3 = (k, -k)$	$\mathbb{C}(2)$	$e_1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ $e_2 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $e_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
4	$\mathbb{H}(2)$	$e_1 = 1 \otimes i = \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix}$ $e_2 = 1 \otimes j = \begin{pmatrix} j & 0 \\ 0 & j \end{pmatrix}$ $e_3 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes k = \begin{pmatrix} k & 0 \\ 0 & -k \end{pmatrix}$ $e_4 = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes j = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & k \\ k & 0 \end{pmatrix}$	$\mathbb{H}(2)$	$e_1 = 1 \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$ $e_2 = 1 \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $e_3 = i \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}$ $e_4 = \dots = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & j \\ -j & 0 \end{pmatrix}$
5	$\mathbb{C}(4)$		$\mathbb{H}(2) \oplus \mathbb{H}(2)$	
6	$\mathbb{R}(8)$		$\mathbb{H}(4)$	
7	$\mathbb{R}(8) \oplus \mathbb{R}(8)$		$\mathbb{C}(8)$	
8	$\mathbb{R}(16)$		$\mathbb{R}(8)$	

:השמה פשוטה

$$\mathbb{H}(2) \otimes \mathbb{C} = \mathbb{C}(4)$$

$$i \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix} \quad j \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad k \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$e_1 \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & i \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} i & -i & & \\ & i & -i & \\ & & i & -i \\ & & & i \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 & & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$e_2 \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} j & 0 \\ 0 & j \end{pmatrix} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ -1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$e_3 \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} k & 0 \\ 0 & -k \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \\ 0 & -i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & i & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -i \\ -i & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & i & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$e_4 \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & k \\ k & 0 \end{pmatrix} \mapsto \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & i \\ 0 & 0 & i & 0 \\ 0 & i & 0 & 0 \\ i & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightsquigarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 & & \\ & -1 & & \\ & & -1 & \\ & & & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

מכונה קדם יוקוטינג - וקוטינג - פורמליזם 10 פרק 1997

1. גיוס נוסף.

2. Dirac מילר :

$$i\hbar \not{\partial} \Psi = mc^2 \Psi \quad i\hbar \left(\sum_{i=0}^3 e_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \right) \Psi = mc^2 \Psi$$

~~0~~

$$\Psi = mc^2 \Psi \quad \sum e_i p_i \Psi = mc^2 \Psi$$

3. גיוס נוסף :

$$p_i \longrightarrow p_i - e A_i$$

השדה (ה) - נוסף

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$$\cancel{H} \psi = mc^2 \psi \quad \text{גורם} \quad \cancel{H} = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} - eA_x$$

$$\text{גורם} \quad \cancel{H} : \quad \sigma_i = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_{i-} \\ \sigma_{i+} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_0 = \frac{1}{c} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$(-i\hbar \partial_t - eA_0) \psi_+ = c \sum_{i=1}^3 \sigma_{i-} (i\hbar \partial_{x_i} + eA_i) \psi_- + mc^2 \psi_+$$

$$(i\hbar \partial_t + eA_0) \psi_- = c \sum_{i=1}^3 \sigma_{i+} (i\hbar \partial_{x_i} + eA_i) \psi_+ + mc^2 \psi_-$$

$$(-i\hbar \partial_t - eA_0) \tilde{\psi}_+ = c \sum_{i=1}^3 \sigma_{i-} (i\hbar \partial_{x_i} + eA_i) \tilde{\psi}_- \quad \psi = e^{\frac{imc^2 t}{\hbar}} \tilde{\psi}$$

$$(i\hbar \partial_t + eA_0) \tilde{\psi}_- = c \sum_{i=1}^3 \sigma_{i+} (i\hbar \partial_{x_i} + eA_i) \tilde{\psi}_+ + 2mc^2 \tilde{\psi}_-$$

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מס' תשנ"ז 4

$$\cancel{H} \psi = mc \psi$$

$$\pi_\alpha = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (-eA_\alpha) = \dots$$

$$(c_0 p_0 + \sum e_i p_i) \psi = mc \psi$$

$$\frac{1}{c} p_0 \psi = mc \psi - \sum \underbrace{c_0 e_i p_i}_{F_i} \psi = mc \psi - \sum F_i p_i \psi$$

$$c_0 F_i = \frac{1}{c} e_i \quad F_i c_0 = -\frac{1}{c} e_i \quad \Rightarrow \quad \{c_0, F_i\} = 0$$

$$e^{iS} (mc c_0 + \sum p_i F_i) e^{-iS} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -e p_i \\ & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \lambda c_0$$

Bjorken & Drell
 "Relativistic Quantum Mechanics"
 Section 1 & 4

1.1 Formulation of a Relativistic Quantum Theory

Since the principles of special relativity are generally accepted at this time, a correct quantum theory should satisfy the requirement of relativity: laws of motion valid in one inertial system must be true in all inertial systems. Stated mathematically, relativistic quantum theory must be formulated in a Lorentz covariant form.

In making the transition from nonrelativistic to relativistic quantum mechanics, we shall endeavor to retain the principles underlying the nonrelativistic theory. We review them briefly:¹

1. For a given physical system there exists a state function Φ that summarizes all that we can know about the system. In our initial development of the relativistic one-particle theory, we usually deal directly with a coordinate realization of the state function, the wave function $\psi(q_1 \dots, s_1 \dots, t)$. $\psi(q, s, t)$ is a complex function of all the classical degrees of freedom, $q_1 \dots q_n$, of the time t and of any additional degrees of freedom, such as spin s_i , which are intrinsically quantum-mechanical. The wave function has no direct physical interpretation; however, $|\psi(q_1 \dots q_n, s_1 \dots s_n, t)|^2 \geq 0$ is interpreted as the probability of the system having values $(q_1 \dots s_n)$ at time t . Evidently this probability interpretation requires that the sum of positive contributions $|\psi|^2$ for all values of $q_1 \dots s_n$ at time t be finite for all physically acceptable wave functions ψ .

2. Every physical observable is represented by a linear hermitian operator. In particular, for the canonical momentum p_i the operator correspondence in a coordinate realization is

$$p_i \rightarrow \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial q_i}$$

3. A physical system is in an eigenstate of the operator Ω if

$$\Omega \Phi_n = \omega_n \Phi_n \quad (1.1)$$

where Φ_n is the n th eigenstate corresponding to the eigenvalue ω_n . For a hermitian operator, ω_n is real. In a coordinate realization the equation corresponding to (1.1) is

$$\Omega(q, s, t) \psi_n(q, s, t) = \omega_n \psi_n(q, s, t)$$

¹ See, for example, W. Pauli, "Handbuch der Physik," 2d ed., vol. 24, p. 1, J. Springer, Berlin, 1933. L. I. Schiff, "Quantum Mechanics," 2d ed., McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., New York, 1955. P. A. M. Dirac, "The Principles of Quantum Mechanics," 4th ed., Oxford University Press, London, 1958.

4. The expansion postulate states that an arbitrary wave function, or state function, for a physical system can be expanded in a complete orthonormal set of eigenfunctions ψ_n of a complete set of commuting operators (Ω_n) . We write, then,

$$\psi = \sum_n a_n \psi_n$$

where the statement of orthonormality is

$$\int (dq_1 \dots) \psi_n^*(q_1 \dots, s \dots, t) \psi_m(q_1 \dots, s \dots, t) = \delta_{nm}$$

$|a_n|^2$ records the probability that the system is in the n th eigenstate.

5. The result of a measurement of a physical observable is any one of its eigenvalues. In particular, for a physical system described by the wave function $\psi = \sum a_n \psi_n$, with $\Omega \psi_n = \omega_n \psi_n$, measurement of a physical observable Ω results in the eigenvalue ω_n with a probability $|a_n|^2$. The average of many measurements of the observable Ω on identically prepared systems is given by

$$\langle \Omega \rangle_\psi \equiv \int \psi^*(q_1 \dots, s \dots, t) \Omega \psi(q_1 \dots, s \dots, t) (dq_1 \dots) = \sum_n |a_n|^2 \omega_n$$

6. The time development of a physical system is expressed by the Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = H\psi \quad (1.2)$$

where the hamiltonian H is a linear hermitian operator. It has no explicit time dependence for a closed physical system, that is, $\partial H / \partial t = 0$, in which case its eigenvalues are the possible stationary states of the system. A superposition principle follows from the linearity of H and a statement of conservation of probability from the hermitian property of H :

$$\frac{d}{dt} \int \psi^* \psi (dq_1 \dots) = \frac{i}{\hbar} \int (dq_1 \dots) [(H\psi)^* \psi - \psi^* (H\psi)] = 0 \quad (1.3)$$

We strive to maintain these familiar six principles as underpinnings of a relativistic quantum theory.