

מכניקה קלאסית וקוואנטית למתמטיקאים

האוניברסיטה העברית, אביב 1999

מס' הקורס: 80718.

המרצה: דרור בר-נתן, אינשטיין 309, 02-658-4187, drorbn@math.huji.ac.il.
שעות קבלה: בינתיים, ע"פ תיאום מראש. יתכן שתקבענה שעות קבועות בהמשך.

שעות הקורס: ימי ראשון 16:00-14:00, שפרינצק 25.

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

נושאים:

1. מבוא – מה קורה לחלקיק קוואנטי $\frac{\pi}{2}$ שניות לאחר שתלו אותו על מטוטלת? השאלה טכנית, אך הפתרון יפהפה.
2. חשבון ווריאציות ומשוואות אוילר-לגרנז' – הברכיסטוכרון, החוק השני של ניוטון ($F = ma$), קווי מתח גבוה והאי-שוויון האיזופרימטרי.
3. משפט נתר: סימטריות וחוקי שימור.
4. תבנית דיפרנציאליות, הפלנימטר, הלמה של פואנקרה.
5. תורת היחסות הפרטית. (מרצה אורח/ת).
6. משוואות מקסוול, גלים.
7. מכניקה המילטוניה וסוגרי פואסון.
8. קוואנטיזציה ומשפט היחידות של סטון-פון-נוימן.
9. משוואת שרדינגר, חלקיקים וגלים, ניסויי התאבכות ועקיפה.
10. הסתברות לא קומוטטיבית, עקרון אי-הוודאות של הייזנברג, הפרדוקס של אינשטיין פודולסקי ורוזן.
11. מחשבים קוואנטיים.
12. המתנד ההרמוני ואטום המימן.
13. הלוך וחזור אל האינטגרל של פיינמן.
14. תנועת בראון ונוסחת בלק-שולטס לתמחור אופציות או תורת הפרעות ודיאגרמות פיינמן.

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 Lester 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 Dirac and Enrico FERMI (Fermi-Dirac 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. (The Concise Columbia Encyclopedia is licensed from Columbia University Press. Copyright (c) 1995 by Columbia University Press. All rights Reserved).

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COURSE INTRODUCTION:
WHAT HAPPENS TO A QUANTUM PARTICLE ON A PENDULUM $\frac{\pi}{2}$
SECONDS AFTER IT IS TOSSED IN?

DROR BAR-NATAN

Follows a lecture given by the author in the "trivial notions" seminar in Harvard on April 29, 1989.

ABSTRACT. This subject is the best one-hour introduction I know for the mathematical techniques that appear in quantum mechanics — in one short lecture we start with a meaningful question, visit Schrödinger's equation, operators and exponentiation of operators, Fourier analysis, path integrals, the least action principle, and Gaussian integration, and at the end we land with a meaningful and interesting answer.

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1. The Question	1
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1. THE QUESTION

Let the complex valued function $\psi = \psi(t, x)$ be a solution of the Schrödinger equation

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -i \left(-\frac{1}{2} \Delta_x + \frac{1}{2} x^2 \right) \psi \quad \text{with} \quad \psi|_{t=0} = \psi_0.$$

What is $\psi|_{t=T=\frac{\pi}{2}}$?

In fact, the major part of our discussion will work just as well for the general Schrödinger equation,

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -iH\psi, \quad H = -\frac{1}{2}\Delta_x + V(x), \quad \psi|_{t=0} = \psi_0, \quad \text{arbitrary } T,$$

where:

- ψ is the "wave function", with $|\psi(t, x)|^2$ representing the probability of finding our particle at time t in position x .
- H is the "energy", or the "Hamiltonian".
- $-\frac{1}{2}\Delta_x$ is the "kinetic energy".
- $V(x)$ is the "potential energy at x ".

March 22, 1999

ESSAY / By WILLIAM SAFIRE

The Lagrangian Codes

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W

ASHINGTON -- Though dead for nearly two centuries, Joseph Louis Lagrange, the greatest French mathematician, is about to make news in the developing Chinese espionage scandal.

A book frequently checked out of the library at Los Alamos National Laboratory is a seminal 1970's work by David Pierre entitled "Mathematical Programming via Augmented Lagrangians: an Introduction to Computer Programs."

Reached in Montana, Dr. Pierre explained that Lagrange multipliers, weighted with algebraic constraint equations, form composite functions.

That didn't help, so I read off a question that investigators of China's penetration of our laboratories are now asking: "How can the Lagrangian codes be applied to the history of our nuclear tests to develop, with supercomputers, three-dimensional modeling that obviates the need for explosive tests?"

"You'd better check with a physicist," said Dr. Pierre, a mathematician unconnected with secrecy. "They can model dynamic systems -- like airplanes or missiles -- based on Lagrangian functions. If they have a big enough computer, and a good enough program -- and the benchmarks of previous tests -- they can mathematically simulate what you're after."

In so checking, I was able to get an idea of the New Nuclear Espionage, a spy system combining open dual-use purchasing with clandestine collection, both protected by politico-diplomatic enticements. This is a far cry from the simple stealing of specs for the Soviets by the Rosenbergs.

Thanks to the lax, sell-'em-anything decisions of the Clinton White House and Commerce Department, China bought advanced computers or their key components. That gave them the "big enough computer."

Then China's mathematicians and physicists were able to learn from their friendly associates in the U.S. what types of augmented Lagrangians were used in nuclear as well as missile programs, or "codes." That gave them the "good enough program."

Then into the Lagrangian-coded supercomputers went the "benchmarks" -- the experience of our tests as well as their own -- to give them the information on which to base their simulations. Feed the benchmarks into the codes on the supercomputer, and --

presto! -- the People's Liberation Army leaps a decade ahead in its the race to nuclear-weapon parity.

That's my theory, based not on leaks but on common sense. When the thousand-page Cox Committee investigative report is finally cleared by a nervous National Security Council; when the C.I.A.'s belated jeremiad assesses the damage caused by the derelict guardians of our security; when Senate and House intelligence committees issue reports, and when Piffiab conducts its usual internal whitewash absolving the Clinton White House of creating a culture of permissiveness to China's political, trade and scientific penetrations -- we'll see if my theory holds heavy water.

In the meantime, we can expect the President to continue his familiar legal obfuscations, where "to the best of my knowledge" he says he cannot be "sure" of any espionage at all. National political-security adviser Samuel Berger will tell different stories in public and in secret.

Secretary of Energy Bill Richardson will lock E-mail barn doors only after press pressure and will rely on misleading "lie detector" tests (that the spy Aldrich Ames showed lead to false security).

But little by little, the interrelated truth will out. Logic suggests that the theft of our W-88 MIRV'ed missile will be followed, as the night the day, by news of the loss of the secrets of our W-87 or W-89, whatever warhead technology that may be.

A word about the much-maligned media. A column here remembering the C.I.A. mole Larry Wu-tai Chin on Jan. 2, 1997, was a howl in the night, but shoe-leather reporting by Jeff Gerth in The Times on May 15 and 17, 1998, of Lieut. Col. Liu Chaoying's penetrations pushed the House into appointing the bipartisan Cox committee.

Cox's still-secret findings then energized the Reno-restrained F.B.I. and the moribund D.O.E.

Though The Washington Post is doing a fine job on local coverage, NBC's "Meet the Press" and ABC's "Nightline" -- with The Times's Gerth, James Risen and editor Stephen Engelberg in the lead -- have advanced this global story and help protect your safety.
Vive Lagrange!

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אנחנו שואלים: קבוצת הקואורנטים למרחב הילברט 24

הזוג λ : $\lambda = 3$ ו- $\lambda = 5$ הם הערכים האפשריים: $1 - e^{-(\frac{y}{\lambda} - 8.00)}$

"סימטריה" = $\lambda > \infty$ שמתנהגת כמו L חזקת λ .
 הסימטריה הקטנה - מתנהגת כמו L .

(Gelfand-Fomin) $y \mapsto J(y) = \int_a^b F(x, y, y') dx$

נניח $y(a)=A$ ו- $y(b)=B$ קבועים. $F = \int_a^b m y \sqrt{1+y'^2} dx$
 נניח $h(a)=h(b) = h$ ו- h קבוע.

$F_y - \frac{d}{dx} F_{y'} = 0$

$F(y) = \frac{1}{2} m y'^2 - V(y)$

אם $F_y = 0$ אז $y' = 0$
 אם $F_{y'} = 0$ אז $y' = \infty$
 אם $F_{y''} = 0$ אז $y'' = 0$

$0 = F_y - (F_{y'})' = F_y - F_{yy} \cdot y' - F_{y'y'} \cdot y''$

$\frac{d}{dx} (F - y' F_{y'}) = y' F_y - F_{yy} y'^2 - F_{y'y'} y'' y' = 0$

$F - y' F_{y'} = 0$ קבוע קבוע C
 $y \sqrt{1+y'^2} - y' \frac{y y'}{\sqrt{1+y'^2}} = C$

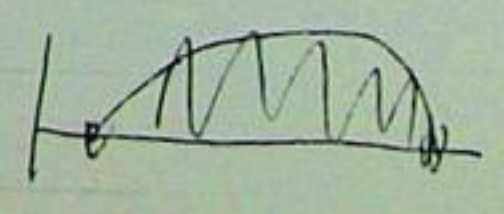
$y^2 = \frac{C^2}{(y')^2 - 1}$

$y = C \cdot \cosh \frac{x-C'}{C}$

כפי' לעיל: איננו מצויים מקום $F(x,y)$ ו- $g(x,y)=0$ וההיקף h

$\nabla h_\lambda = 0$ ו- $g(x,y)=0$
 $h_\lambda = F + \lambda g$

$F_\lambda = y + \lambda \sqrt{1+y'^2}$
 $0 = F_y - \frac{d}{dx} F_{y'} = 1 - \lambda \frac{y'}{\sqrt{1+y'^2}}$
 $J = \int_a^b y dx$
 $G = \int \sqrt{1+y'^2} dx = l$



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

$$\frac{\lambda y'}{\sqrt{1+y'^2}} = x - c_1$$

⇓

$$y' = \frac{x - c_1}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - (x - c_1)^2}}$$

$$y = c_2 - \sqrt{\lambda^2 - (x - c_1)^2}$$

$$(x - c_1)^2 + (y - c_2)^2 = \lambda^2$$

⇓
0

מכניקה קלאסית וקוואנטית למתמטיקה, תרגיל מס' 1 . 24/10/96

1. מכניקה קלאסית של חלקיקים $F_t: L^2(\mathbb{R}) \rightarrow L^2(\mathbb{R})$ המקיים $F_0 = I$ ו- $F_{t_1+t_2} = F_{t_1} \circ F_{t_2}$

$$F_{\frac{t}{2}} = \text{מכניקה קלאסית}$$

2. חקירת אופרטור הטרנספורמטציה הזרימה (1D, $\hbar=1$, $m=1$)

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

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

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

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

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

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

3. פתור ארבעה קווי המינימום המקסימום, אורך הכבל קבוע למעלה

4. (אינטגרל לפרנרטי) $\mathbb{R}^2 \rightarrow \mathbb{R}^3$ זינגר הידרה למעלה

תהי S שטח ותי $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow S$ פונקציה תלכית
מקין כל המשתחים \mathbb{R}^3 הנמנים י"י האף $y: D^2 \rightarrow S$
ה פונקציה $\mathbb{R} \rightarrow D^2$ המקיימת $y|_S = 0$
אינטרואל $[a,b]$ השטח הקטן קוטר 1
השטח S המשוואה $S = y$ צריכה לקיים אינטגרל
למשך $\frac{1}{2}$ פתור אמת

5. זיהוי בעזרת גורם הסבון

I

EULER LAGRANGE ACCORDING TO
ITZYKSON-ZUBER

$$\frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(x)}{\partial \varphi_i(x)} - \partial_\mu \frac{\partial \mathcal{L}(x)}{\partial [\partial_\mu \varphi_i(x)]} = 0$$

$$0 = \frac{[(x)^i \phi^n \varrho] \varrho^n \varrho}{(x) \mathcal{I} \varrho} - \frac{(x)^i \phi \varrho}{(x) \mathcal{I} \varrho}$$

ITZYKSON-ZUBER
EULER LAGRANGE ACCORDING TO

שבת, 11 במרץ 1999

$$L(q) = \int_a^b L(t, q, \dot{q}) \quad \text{ומכאן} \quad F(x+\delta x) = F(x) + \langle \nabla F, \delta x \rangle$$

$$\delta F = \langle \nabla F, \delta x \rangle$$

$$\delta L = \langle EL_q(L), \delta q \rangle \quad EL_q(L) = \frac{\partial L}{\partial q} - \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}} \right)$$

$0 = \delta L = \int_a^b C(t, x, \dot{x})$ הערות $L(q)$ הערות $EL_q(C) \neq 0$ הערות

$$EL_q(L) + \lambda EL_q(C) = 0$$

הערות λ הערות

$$L = \int \sqrt{1+y'^2} dx \quad L = \int_a^b y dx$$

הערות λ הערות

$$\frac{\lambda y'}{\sqrt{1+y'^2}} = x - c_1 \iff 1 - \lambda \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{y'}{\sqrt{1+y'^2}} \right) = 0$$

$$\iff y = c_2 - \sqrt{\lambda^2 - (x - c_1)^2} \iff y' = \frac{x - c_1}{\sqrt{\lambda^2 - (x - c_1)^2}}$$

$$(x - c_1)^2 + (y - c_2)^2 = \lambda^2$$

$$\frac{\partial L}{\partial q_i} - \frac{d}{dt} \frac{\partial L}{\partial \dot{q}_i} = 0 \quad \text{הערות; Itzjakson-Zuber} \quad \text{הערות}$$

שבת, 11 במרץ 1999

Special relativity

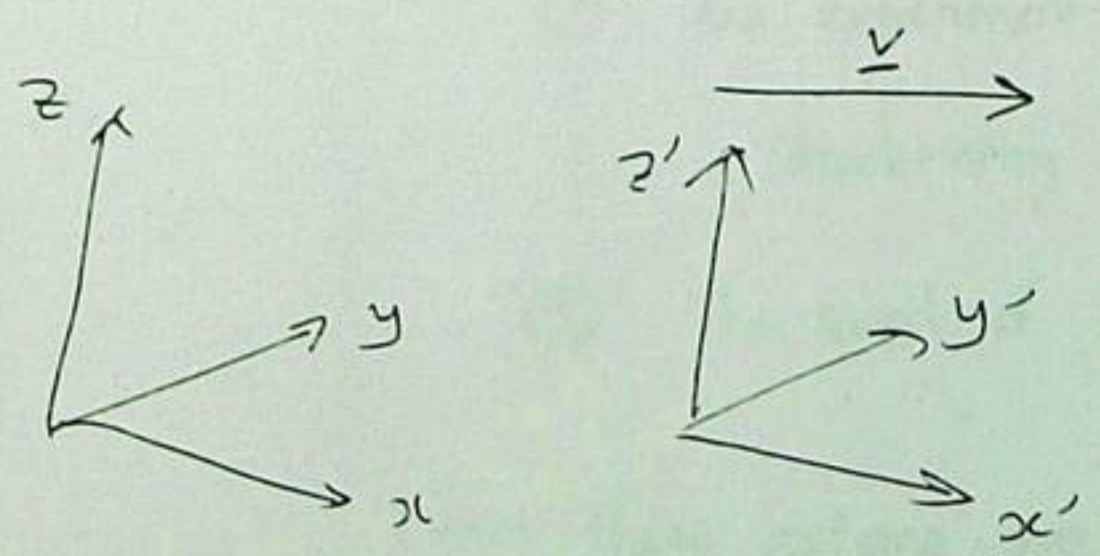
Arose from attempt to unify Newtonian mechanics with Maxwell's theory of electromagnetism.

Newtonian mechanics

1. Every body continues in its state of constant velocity motion unless acted upon by an external force.
2. $F = ma$
 $\frac{d}{dt}$ (momentum) = force
3. Every action has an equal and opposite reaction.

Galilean relativity

Experiments don't (can't) distinguish between different frames moving with constant velocity relative to each other.



$$\begin{cases} t' = t \\ x' = x - vt \end{cases}$$

Classical electromagnetism

$\underline{E}, \underline{B}$ electric, magnetic fields

$$\begin{cases} \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{E} = -\frac{\partial \underline{B}}{\partial t} \\ \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{E} = \frac{4\pi}{\epsilon} \rho \\ \underline{\nabla} \times \underline{B} = \epsilon\mu \frac{\partial \underline{E}}{\partial t} + 4\pi\mu \underline{j} \\ \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{B} = 0 \end{cases}$$

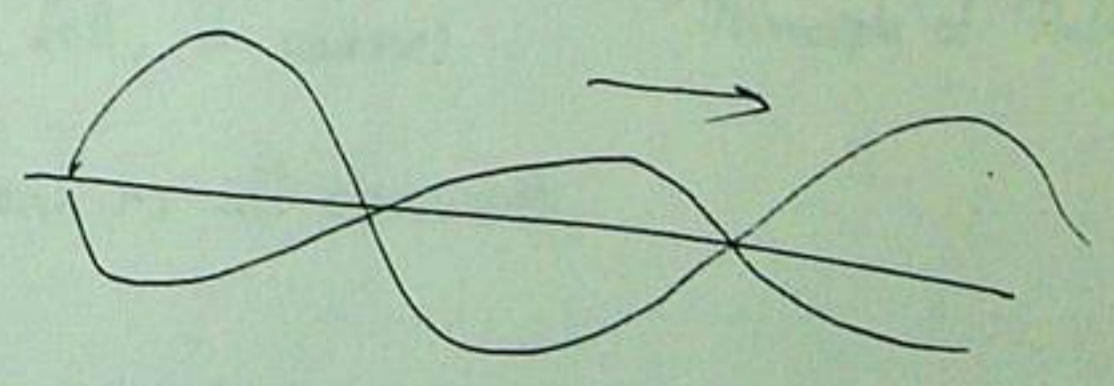
Without local charge & current densities,

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\nabla} \times (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{E}) &= -\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\underline{\nabla} \times \underline{B}) = -\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \underline{E}}{\partial t^2} \\ &\parallel \\ &-\underline{\nabla}^2 \underline{E} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{or } \left(\frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} - \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \underline{E} = 0$$

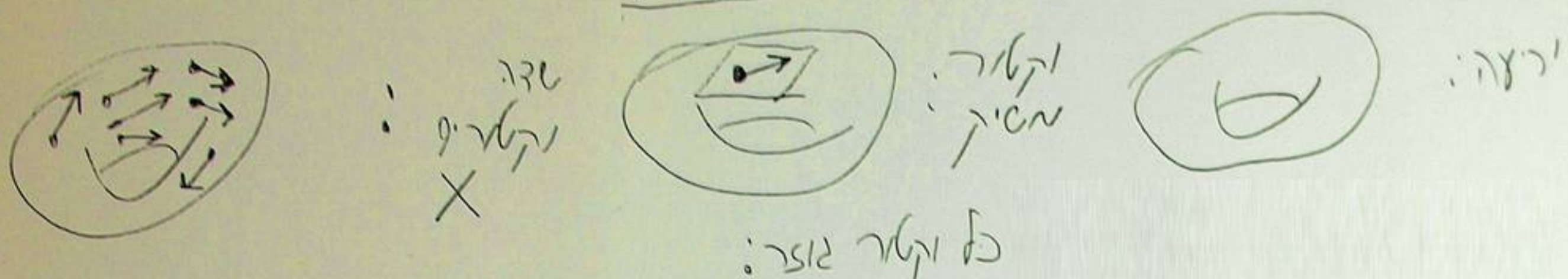
Light : instance of electromagnetic wave

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{E} &= \underline{E}_0 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (ct - x)\right) \\ \underline{B} &= \underline{B}_0 \cos\left(\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} (ct - x)\right) \end{aligned}$$



Speed in vacuum, $c \sim 3 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1}$

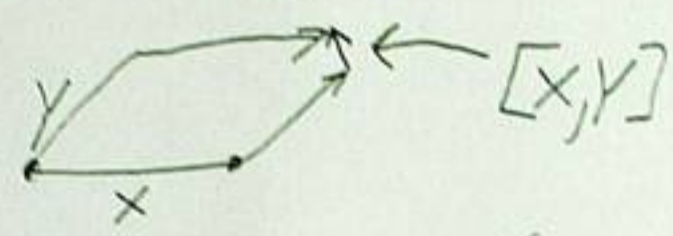
כדומה שמתוך רצף של H גבולות קבוצות
 ולכן היחס \mathbb{R}^3



כל וקטור גזור:

הנציגה הבינומית של F כפולין X $\rightarrow (X, F) \mapsto XF =$
 $X = \sum F_i \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i}$

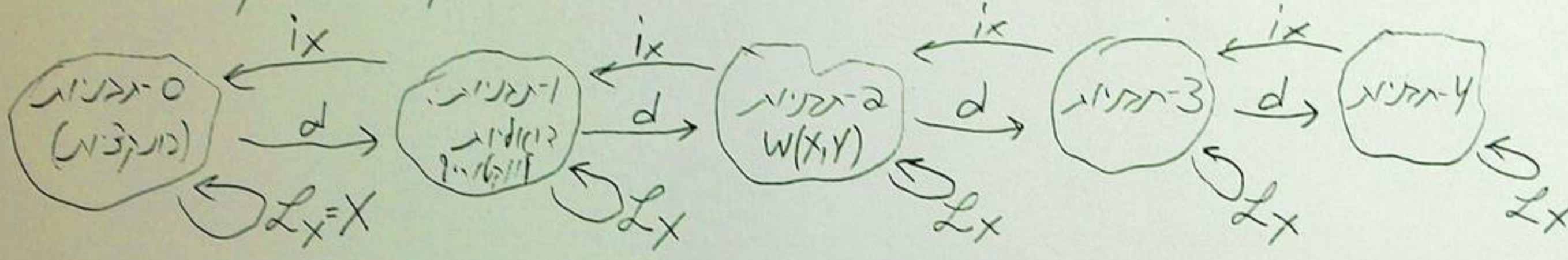
המשוואה $[X, Y] = XY - YX$: הסוגר Lie . איטורי אנטי-סמטרי, ומקיים יעקובי:



$[X, [Y, Z]] + [Y, [Z, X]] + [Z, [X, Y]] = 0$

לגזור וקטוריים מקבילים צריח, ולכן גזורי הפול. הסמל: L_X
 $L_X Y = [X, Y]$; $L_X f = Xf$

א-גבול: פונקציות מולטי-ליניאריות אנטי-סמטריה או א וקטוריים גנקודים אחר:



המכפלה הפנימית: $(i_X W)(Y_1, \dots, Y_{n-1}) = W(X, Y_1, \dots, Y_{n-1})$

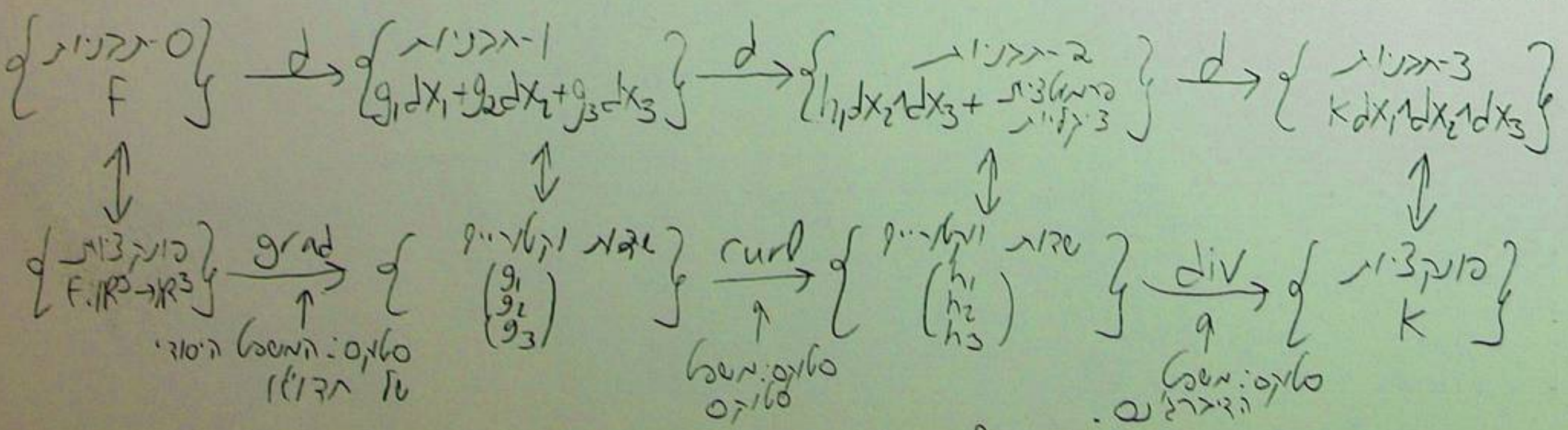
המכפלה הדיפרנציאלית: $(W \wedge \eta)(Y_1, \dots, Y_{m+n}) = \sum_{\sigma \in S_{m+n}} W(Y_{\sigma(1)}, \dots, Y_{\sigma(m)}) \eta(Y_{\sigma(m+1)}, \dots, Y_{\sigma(m+n)})$

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

אם הייצור של וקטורים הוא ליניאר, הייצור של גבולות הוא אנטי-ליניאר:

$\int_D dW = \int_{\partial D} W$ (משפט סטוקס) $\int_D W = \sum$

אנטי-ליניאריות:



והצורה - לא פברז כולם

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

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

מכניקה למתמטיקה 23 1999

$ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$
 $S = \int_{t_1}^{t_2} (mc \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} + eA) dt$

$\delta q = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ \delta x \\ \delta y \\ \delta z \end{pmatrix}$

היות שהכרמטר נפרד בין t לבין x, y, z

$\int_{t_1}^{t_2} \left(\frac{\dot{q}}{\sqrt{1 - v^2}} \right)' \delta q \pm \int_{t_1}^{t_2} F \left(\begin{pmatrix} \dot{q}_x \\ \dot{q}_y \\ \dot{q}_z \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} \delta q_x \\ \delta q_y \\ \delta q_z \end{pmatrix} \right) dt$

$A \mapsto A + d\psi \sim A, \quad *d*A = 0$

מכניקה קלאסית, חלקיקים, 21 בנובמבר 1996

3 צירים: x, y, z. קואורדינטות: $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = R^2$

1. משוואת סטוקס Stokes

2. $I = p_{od} + d_{op}$ (משוואת פולנדר)

3. $L_x = d_{oi} i_x + i_{od}$

4. $\int \omega_1 d\sigma = - \int \omega_2 d\sigma$

5. $\|d\omega\|^2 = d\omega \wedge *d\omega = \omega \wedge (*\omega)$

$\omega \wedge * \omega = \sigma$ (קבוע)

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

הקטור A הוא פונקציה מ- \mathbb{R}^4 ל- \mathbb{R}^4 .
 נדרש למצוא מינימום של $S(A)$.
 $dJ = 0 \iff d * dA = J$

$F = dA$ (פונקציה מ- \mathbb{R}^4 ל- \mathbb{R}^4)
 $d * F = J ; dF = 0$

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

$dF = \int dx^1 dy^1 dz^1 \begin{pmatrix} \partial_x B_x + \partial_y B_y + \partial_z B_z \\ \partial_y E_z - \partial_z E_y + \partial_t B_x \\ \dots \end{pmatrix}$
 $div B = 0 ; curl E = - \frac{\partial B}{\partial t}$

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

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

הקטור A הוא פונקציה מ- \mathbb{R}^4 ל- \mathbb{R}^4 .
 $S = \int_{\mathbb{R}^4} ds + eA = m \int \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2} dt + e(A_t + A_x \dot{x} + A_y \dot{y} + A_z \dot{z}) dt$
 $ds^2 = c^2 dt^2 - dx^2 - dy^2 - dz^2$

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

$E = L = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 + e(A_x \dot{x} + A_y \dot{y} + A_z \dot{z})$

1996

מכניקה קלאסית - מכניקה אנליטית

המרחב הפאזה הוא (q, p)
 $r = x^2 + y^2$ ו- $U(x, y) = V(r)$
 המרחב הפאזה הוא (q, p)
 המרחב הפאזה הוא (q, p)

$p_i = F \dot{q}_i$ (מכניקה קלאסית)
 $H = \sum \dot{q}_i p_i - F$
 $\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}$ $\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}$

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

$H = \frac{1}{2} p^2 \Leftrightarrow p = \sqrt{2H} \Leftrightarrow F = \frac{1}{2} \dot{q}^2 - \frac{1}{2} q^2$ (מכניקה)

המרחב הפאזה הוא (q, p)

$df = \sum \frac{\partial f}{\partial x_i} dx_i$

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

- 1. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = f, H$
- 2. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial q_i} = p_i$
- 3. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial p_i} = \dot{q}_i$
- 4. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial t} = H$
- 5. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial q_i} = p_i$
- 6. $\frac{\partial f}{\partial p_i} = \dot{q}_i$

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

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

המרחב הפאזה הוא (q, p)

$\frac{df}{dt} = \frac{\partial f}{\partial t} + \{f, H\}$

$\frac{dH}{dt} = 0$ (מכניקה קלאסית)
 המרחב הפאזה הוא (q, p)

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

2-5

המרחב הפאזה הוא (q, p)

$\frac{1}{i\hbar} [L, J] \Leftrightarrow \{L, J\}$ (מכניקה קלאסית)
 $p = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$, $Q = x$, $dP = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \Leftrightarrow [QP] = i\hbar I$

$i\hbar \frac{dF}{dt} = [F, H] \Rightarrow F(t) = e^{-i\hbar^{-1} H t} F(0) e^{i\hbar^{-1} H t} \Rightarrow \psi = e^{-i\hbar^{-1} H t} \psi_0$
 $\frac{d\psi}{dt} = -i\hbar^{-1} H \psi$

Non-Commutative (Quantum) Probability
 Classical and Quantum Mechanics for Mathematicians, HUJI 1999
 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]= {-, -, -, 0}
          3 3 3
          4 4 4
```

More information can be found at N.D. Mermin, *Physics Today* **39(4)** 38 (1985) and D. Bar-Natan, *Foundations of Physics* **19(1)** 97 (1989).

Quantum Behavior

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.

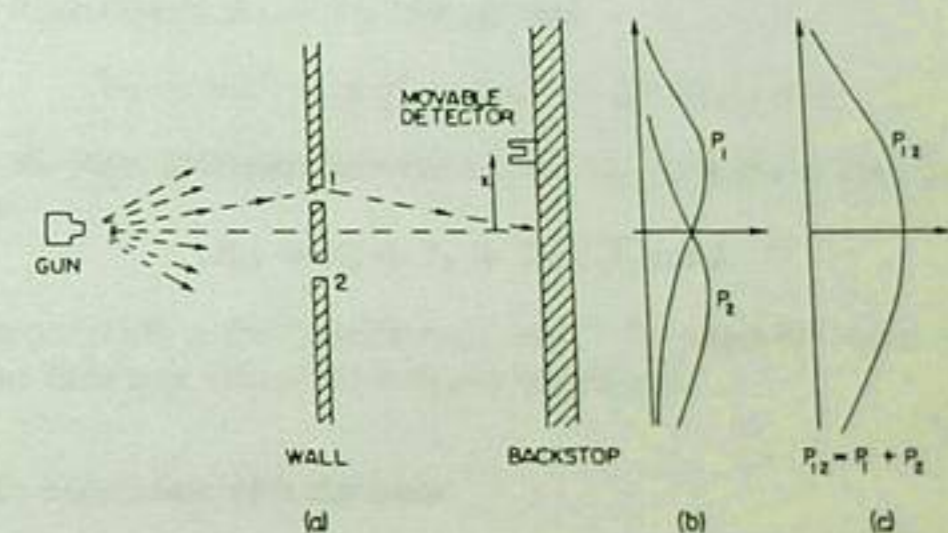


Fig. 1-1. Interference experiment with bullets.

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.

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

$$P_{12} = P_1 + P_2. \quad (1.1)$$

Is the moon there when nobody looks? Reality and the quantum theory

Einstein maintained that quantum metaphysics entails spooky actions at a distance; experiments have now shown that what bothered Einstein is not a debatable point but the observed behavior of the real world.

N. David Mermin

Quantum mechanics is magic¹

In May 1935, Albert Einstein, Boris Podolsky and Nathan Rosen published² an argument that quantum mechanics fails to provide a complete description of physical reality. Today, 50 years later, the EPR paper and the theoretical and experimental work it inspired remain remarkable for the vivid illustration they provide of one of the most bizarre aspects of the world revealed to us by the quantum theory.

Einstein's talent for saying memorable things did him a disservice when he declared "God does not play dice," for it has been held ever since that the basis for his opposition to quantum mechanics was the claim that a fundamental understanding of the world can only be statistical. But the EPR paper, his most powerful attack on the quantum theory, focuses on quite a different aspect: the doctrine that physical properties have in general no objective reality independent of the act of observation. As Pascual Jordan put it³

Observations not only disturb what has to be measured, they produce it. . . . We compel [the electron] to assume a definite position. . . . We ourselves produce the results of measurement.

Jordan's statement is something of a truism for contemporary physicists. Underlying it, we have all been taught, is the disruption of what is being measured by the act of measurement, made unavoidable by the existence of the quantum of action, which generally makes it impossible even in principle to construct probes that can yield the information classical intu-

ition expects to be there.

Einstein didn't like this. He wanted things out there to have properties, whether or not they were measured⁴:

We often discussed his notions on objective reality. I recall that during one walk Einstein suddenly stopped, turned to me and asked whether I really believed that the moon exists only when I look at it.

The EPR paper describes a situation ingeniously contrived to force the quantum theory into asserting that properties in a space-time region **B** are the result of an act of measurement in another space-time region **A**, so far from **B** that there is no possibility of the measurement in **A** exerting an influence on region **B** by any known dynamical mechanism. Under these conditions, Einstein maintained that the properties in **A** must have existed all along.

Spooky actions at a distance

Many of his simplest and most explicit statements of this position can be found in Einstein's correspondence with Max Born.⁵ Throughout the book (which sometimes reads like a Nabokov novel), Born, pained by Einstein's distaste for the statistical character of the quantum theory, repeatedly fails, both in his letters and in his later commentary on the correspondence, to understand what is really bothering Einstein. Einstein tries over and over again, without success, to make himself clear. In March 1948, for example, he writes:

That which really exists in **B** should. . . not depend on what kind of measurement is carried out

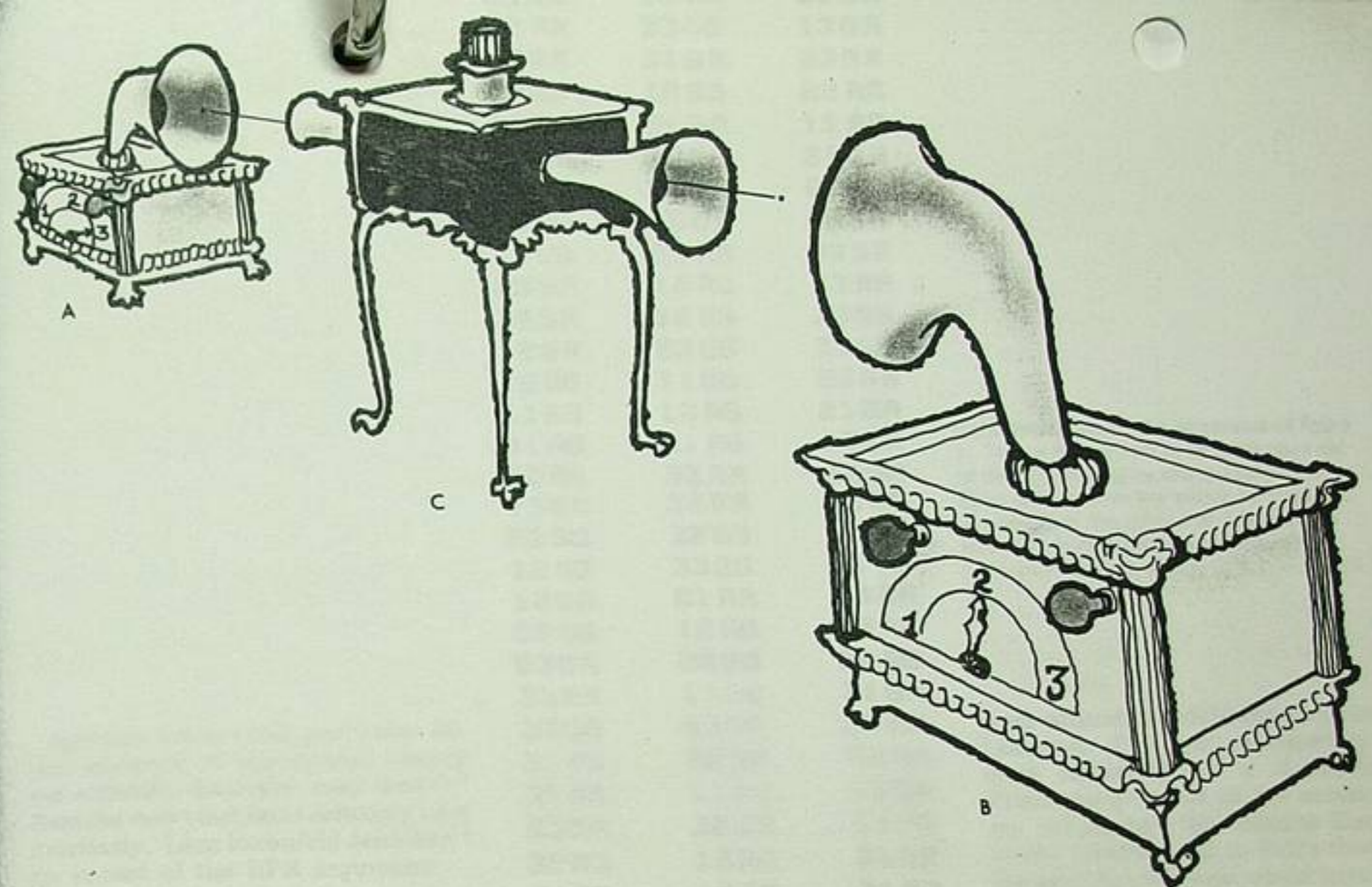
in part of space **A**; it should also be independent of whether or not any measurement at all is carried out in space **A**. If one adheres to this program, one can hardly consider the quantum-theoretical description as a complete representation of the physically real. If one tries to do so in spite of this, one has to assume that the physically real in **B** suffers a sudden change as a result of a measurement in **A**. My instinct for physics bristles at this.

Or, in March 1947,

I cannot seriously believe in [the quantum theory] because it cannot be reconciled with the idea that physics should represent a reality in time and space, free from spooky actions at a distance.

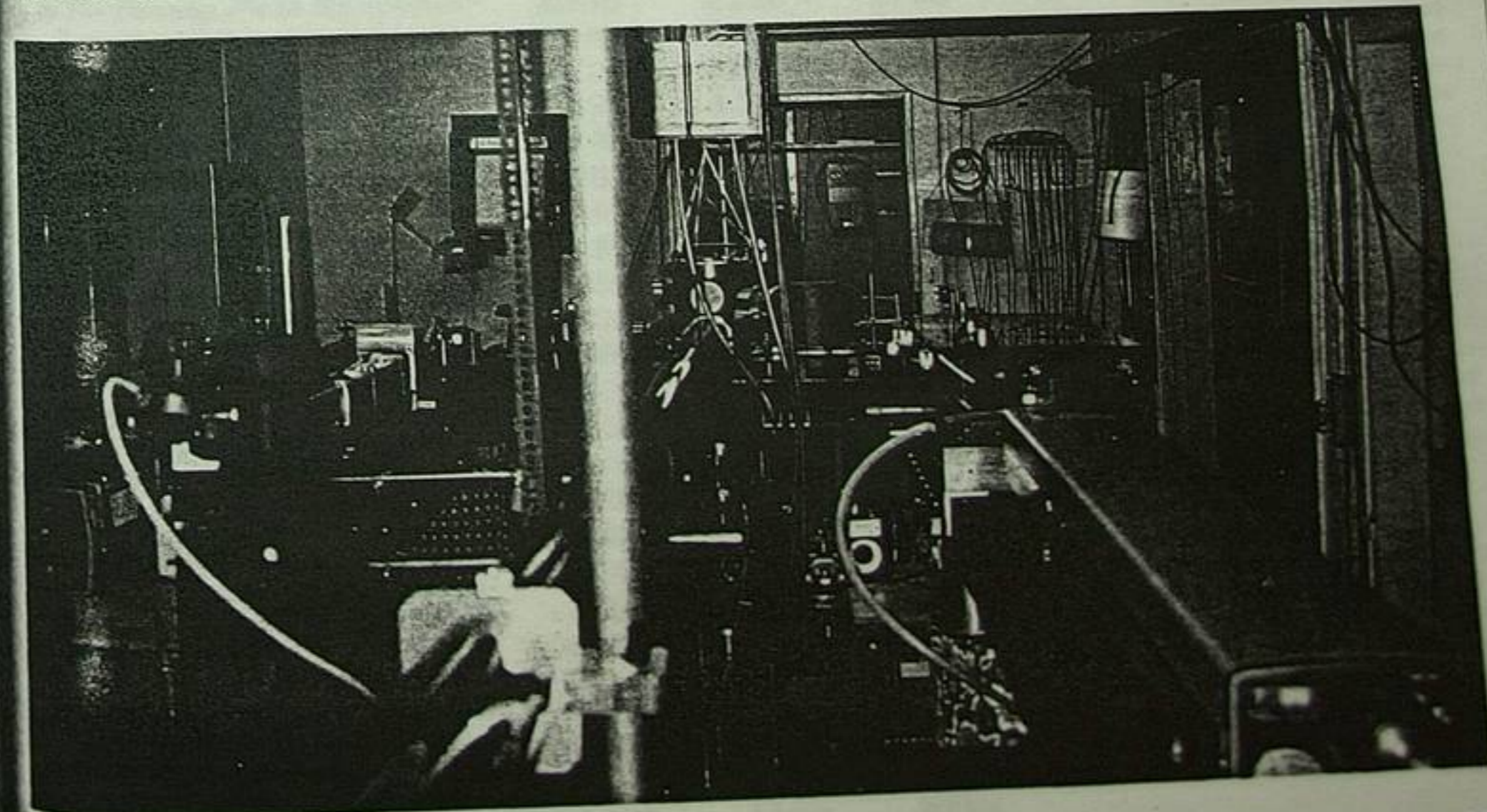
The "spooky actions at a distance" (*spukhafte Fernwirkungen*) are the acquisition of a definite value of a property by the system in region **B** by virtue of the measurement carried out in region **A**. The EPR paper presents a wavefunction that describes two correlated particles, localized in regions **A** and **B**, far apart. In this particular two-particle state one can learn (in the sense of being able to predict with certainty the

David Mermin is director of the Laboratory of Atomic and Solid State Physics at Cornell University. A solid-state theorist, he has recently come up with some quasithoughts about quasicrystals. He is known to PHYSICS TODAY readers as the person who made "boojum" an internationally accepted scientific term. With N. W. Ashcroft, he is about to start updating the world's funniest solid-state physics text. He says he is bothered by Bell's theorem, but may have rocks in his head anyway.



An EPR apparatus. The experimental setup consists of two detectors, **A** and **B**, and a source of something ("particles" or whatever) **C**. To start a run, the experimenter pushes the button on **C**; something passes from **C** to both detectors. Shortly after the button is pushed each detector flashes one of its lights. Putting a brick between the source and one of the detectors prevents that detector from flashing, and moving the detectors farther away from the source increases the delay between when the button is pushed and when the lights flash. The switch settings on the detectors vary randomly from one run to another. Note that there are no connections between the three parts of the apparatus, other than via whatever it is that passes from **C** to **A** and **B**. The photo below shows a realization of such an experiment in the laboratory of Alain Aspect in Orsay, France. In the center of the lab is a vacuum chamber where individual calcium atoms are excited by the two lasers visible in the picture. The re-emitted photons travel 6 meters through the pipes to be detected by a two-channel polarizer.

Figure 1



יבנה קלסיד וקוונטום אנטנגלמאנטן שטודיום ל - 5-6/12/96

✓ * יטה אר וסגריה קוונטום

✓ * וסגריה קוונטום אנטנגלמאנטן שטודיום ל

✓ * קוונטום ציג קטני, רק צד קדמא יוס' התלות

✓ * עקאן א-הוואקואום אנטנגרע

* טיזא געבאן, הינדל הקלסיד.

✓ * שיטור טאן כול היטאן אנטנגלמאנטן שטודיום ל

* היציה אן צדד כול קוונטום ציג "הילדע"

* שטאן וואקואום וואקואום שטודיום

* אר צ'ר עיטאן

* אנטנגלמאנטן קצא אר EPR / Mermin

* קאטאליא אנטנגלמאנטן אר שטודיום

* אנטנגלמאנטן אר שטודיום קטני

מבנה קוואנטום וקוואנטום אינפיניטסימלי, 5. 333 בר 1996

תצורה: מתוך הסדרה קוואנטום: $\{ \alpha, p, v, \alpha \in \text{Op}(L^2) \}$; $P(A=\lambda) = \|\text{Proj}_{E_{\lambda}} V\|^2$; $E(F(A)) = \langle V, F(A)V \rangle$

תורה הקציה ה מעקר δ $\lim_{\delta \rightarrow 0} \dots$ $[A, B] = 0$ רק אם \dots $\psi(p) = \int |\psi(p)|^2 dp$ $\psi(q) = \int |\psi(q)|^2 dq$ $P\psi = p\psi$ $\psi(p) = \int |\psi(p)|^2 dp$ $Q = q$ $P = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dq}$ $\langle \psi, F(Q)\psi \rangle = \int F(q) |\psi(q)|^2 dq$ $\langle \psi, \theta(P)\psi \rangle = \int \theta(p) |\psi(p)|^2 dp$

מערוב מבנה הקציה ψ, ϕ, \dots $\frac{1}{i\hbar} [,] \leftarrow \psi, \phi$ $[Q, P] = i\hbar I \leftarrow \langle \psi, P\psi \rangle = 1$ $\langle \psi, A^2 \psi \rangle - \langle \psi, A \rangle^2 = \frac{1}{4} |E[A, B]|^2$ $V(A) V(B) \geq \frac{1}{4} |E[A, B]|^2$ $H = \frac{1}{2}(P^2 + Q^2)$ $[P, H] = -iQ$ $[Q, H] = +iP$ $[a, a^\dagger] = I$ $[H, a] = -a$ $[H, a^\dagger] = a^\dagger$ $N = a^\dagger a = H - \frac{1}{2}I$ $N \geq 0$ $\frac{1}{2} \leq \dots$ $a^\dagger \alpha_n \sim \alpha_{n+1}$ $a \alpha_n \sim \alpha_{n-1}$ $\|a^\dagger \psi_n\| = \sqrt{n+1} \|\psi_n\|$ $\|a \psi_n\| = \sqrt{n} \|\psi_n\|$ $\alpha_0 \xrightarrow{a^\dagger} \alpha_1 \xrightarrow{a^\dagger} \alpha_2$ $\alpha_1 \xrightarrow{a} \alpha_0$ $\alpha_2 \xrightarrow{a} \alpha_1$ $M_n(\psi) = \langle \psi, Q^n \psi \rangle = \dots$ $M_{2n} = \frac{(2n)!}{4^n n!} \dots$ $\psi_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$ $\psi_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} (2x)^n e^{-x^2/2}$ $M_n(\psi) = \dots$

תצורה: $H = \frac{1}{2}(P^2 + Q^2)$; $\hbar = 1$; $[P, Q] = -iI$ $[P, H] = -iQ$ $[Q, H] = +iP$ $[a, a^\dagger] = I$ $[H, a] = -a$ $[H, a^\dagger] = a^\dagger$ $N = a^\dagger a = H - \frac{1}{2}I$ $N \geq 0$ $\frac{1}{2} \leq \dots$ $a^\dagger \alpha_n \sim \alpha_{n+1}$ $a \alpha_n \sim \alpha_{n-1}$ $\|a^\dagger \psi_n\| = \sqrt{n+1} \|\psi_n\|$ $\|a \psi_n\| = \sqrt{n} \|\psi_n\|$ $\alpha_0 \xrightarrow{a^\dagger} \alpha_1 \xrightarrow{a^\dagger} \alpha_2$ $\alpha_1 \xrightarrow{a} \alpha_0$ $\alpha_2 \xrightarrow{a} \alpha_1$ $M_n(\psi) = \langle \psi, Q^n \psi \rangle = \dots$ $M_{2n} = \frac{(2n)!}{4^n n!} \dots$ $\psi_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$ $\psi_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} (2x)^n e^{-x^2/2}$ $M_n(\psi) = \dots$

תצורה: $H = \frac{1}{2}(P^2 + Q^2)$; $\hbar = 1$; $[P, Q] = -iI$ $[P, H] = -iQ$ $[Q, H] = +iP$ $[a, a^\dagger] = I$ $[H, a] = -a$ $[H, a^\dagger] = a^\dagger$ $N = a^\dagger a = H - \frac{1}{2}I$ $N \geq 0$ $\frac{1}{2} \leq \dots$ $a^\dagger \alpha_n \sim \alpha_{n+1}$ $a \alpha_n \sim \alpha_{n-1}$ $\|a^\dagger \psi_n\| = \sqrt{n+1} \|\psi_n\|$ $\|a \psi_n\| = \sqrt{n} \|\psi_n\|$ $\alpha_0 \xrightarrow{a^\dagger} \alpha_1 \xrightarrow{a^\dagger} \alpha_2$ $\alpha_1 \xrightarrow{a} \alpha_0$ $\alpha_2 \xrightarrow{a} \alpha_1$ $M_n(\psi) = \langle \psi, Q^n \psi \rangle = \dots$ $M_{2n} = \frac{(2n)!}{4^n n!} \dots$ $\psi_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$ $\psi_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} (2x)^n e^{-x^2/2}$ $M_n(\psi) = \dots$

תצורה: $H = \frac{1}{2}(P^2 + Q^2)$; $\hbar = 1$; $[P, Q] = -iI$ $[P, H] = -iQ$ $[Q, H] = +iP$ $[a, a^\dagger] = I$ $[H, a] = -a$ $[H, a^\dagger] = a^\dagger$ $N = a^\dagger a = H - \frac{1}{2}I$ $N \geq 0$ $\frac{1}{2} \leq \dots$ $a^\dagger \alpha_n \sim \alpha_{n+1}$ $a \alpha_n \sim \alpha_{n-1}$ $\|a^\dagger \psi_n\| = \sqrt{n+1} \|\psi_n\|$ $\|a \psi_n\| = \sqrt{n} \|\psi_n\|$ $\alpha_0 \xrightarrow{a^\dagger} \alpha_1 \xrightarrow{a^\dagger} \alpha_2$ $\alpha_1 \xrightarrow{a} \alpha_0$ $\alpha_2 \xrightarrow{a} \alpha_1$ $M_n(\psi) = \langle \psi, Q^n \psi \rangle = \dots$ $M_{2n} = \frac{(2n)!}{4^n n!} \dots$ $\psi_0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-x^2/2}$ $\psi_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} (2x)^n e^{-x^2/2}$ $M_n(\psi) = \dots$

1996

מכנה קטנים וקוונטום
 אברהם אולבנר
 Read-Simon chap VIII
 $(e^{i\beta Q}\psi)(q) = \psi(q+\beta)$? $e^{i\beta Q}$ מהו $P = -i\frac{d}{dq}$

$e^{b\frac{d}{dq}} - e^{a\frac{d}{dx}}$
 $\frac{d}{dy} - 1$ $\frac{d}{dx}$
 $\Sigma = \{ \dots \}$
 $[P, Q] = -iI$

$V_\beta = e^{i\beta Q}$ $U_\alpha = e^{i\alpha P}$
 $U_\alpha V_\beta = e^{i\alpha\beta} V_\beta U_\alpha$
 $U_\alpha Q U_\alpha^{-1} = Q + \alpha I$

$U_\alpha V_\beta U_\alpha^{-1} = \exp(U_\alpha (i\beta Q) U_\alpha^{-1}) = \dots$
 $Q = X - i\frac{d}{dx}$ $P = -i\frac{d}{dx}$

$\frac{d}{dt} A = -i[A, H]$
 $A(t) = e^{+itH} A_0 e^{-itH}$

$\Psi_t = e^{-itH} \Psi_0$
 $(\alpha, \Psi_t, A, B, \dots)$

$\frac{d\Psi}{dt} = -iH\Psi$
 $\Psi_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} (q - \frac{d}{dq})^n e^{-q^2/2}$
 $\mathcal{F}\Psi_n = \mathcal{F}(q - \frac{d}{dq}) \mathcal{F}\Psi_{n-1} = -i(q - \frac{d}{dq}) \mathcal{F}\Psi_{n-1}$
 $t = \frac{\pi}{2}$ $e^{itH}\Psi_n = e^{-it(n+1/2)}\Psi_n$

Von-Neumann
 $(\alpha, U_\alpha, V_\beta)$
 $(\alpha, U_\alpha, V_\beta) = (U_\alpha V_\beta = e^{i\alpha\beta} V_\beta U_\alpha)$
 $(\alpha, U_\alpha, V_\beta) \cong \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} (\alpha, U_\alpha, V_\beta)$

Markus
 $E = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \int d\alpha d\beta e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\alpha^2 + \beta^2)} S(\alpha, \beta)$
 $\langle S(\alpha, \beta) \phi, S(\gamma, \delta) \psi \rangle = e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\alpha-\gamma)^2 - \frac{1}{2}(\beta-\delta)^2 + \frac{1}{2}(\beta\gamma - \alpha\delta)}$

$\alpha = \bigoplus \alpha_i$
 $\psi = \bigoplus \psi_i$
 $\langle \psi, \psi \rangle = \langle \bigoplus \psi_i, \bigoplus \psi_i \rangle = \sum \langle \psi_i, \psi_i \rangle$

מבני קוואנטום קלאסי - למינימום 2 לניסוח 1997

מ עשט 2 ותקיק סאוסללר הרמון / טאק אטלר ס ממה

2. אולר ארנע $F_y - (F_y)' = 0$ מולי מולי

3 סמלרונ \leftrightarrow אקל למור

4. מבני המלמל $\dot{q} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}$ $\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q}$; $F = \{E, H\}$; $\{F, G\} = \int \frac{\delta F \delta G}{\delta q \delta p}$

5. גאולרטי סמלרונ
6. סטוללר מולר

7. הסמלרונ: ארמון ארמון ממה מ מה מ מה מ מה מ מה

הסמלרונ קוואנטום: $E(F(p, q)) = \langle \psi, E(p, q) \psi \rangle$

8. קוואנטום צ'יר קוואנטום $[P, Q] = -i\hbar I$; $i\hbar \dot{A} = [A, H]$; $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -iH\psi$

עקרון אי-הווצואר

9. ניגור המרגז הרמון מים התולל גלגל סימולר

מה ממה 1. ממה הקוואנטום (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום) (קוואנטום)

2. אנטלרצ'א סמלרונ אקסרצ'א קוואנטום קוואנטום קוואנטום קוואנטום קוואנטום קוואנטום קוואנטום קוואנטום קוואנטום קוואנטום

3. הצמט מ $SO(3)$ - $SU(2)$ אולר ממה ממה ממה ממה ממה ממה ממה ממה ממה ממה

4. ת'ר' ור'ר

ומה מסמלר היבא: <http://tipesht.ma.huji.ac.il>

$$V_\beta = e^{i\beta Q} \quad ; \quad V_\alpha = e^{i\alpha P}$$

$$V_\alpha V_\beta = V_\beta V_\alpha \iff [P, Q] = -iI$$

ממה ממה: $(\mathcal{H}_0, V_\alpha, V_\beta) = \mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$; $(\mathcal{H}_n, V_\alpha, V_\beta) = \mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$; $(\mathcal{H}_n, V_\alpha, V_\beta) = \mathcal{L}^2(\mathbb{R})$

$$(\mathcal{H}_n, V_\alpha, V_\beta) \cong \bigoplus_{n=1}^{\infty} (\mathcal{H}_n, V_\alpha, V_\beta) \oplus \mathcal{H}_0$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int \mathcal{L}_{\alpha\beta} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\alpha^2 + \beta^2)} S(\alpha, \beta) ; S(\alpha, \beta) = e^{-\frac{i\alpha\beta}{2}} V_\alpha V_\beta$$

1. $E \neq 0$

2. $E \neq 0$

$$\langle S(\alpha, \beta) \phi, S(\alpha, \beta) \psi \rangle = e^{-\frac{1}{4}(\alpha^2 + \beta^2) - \frac{1}{2}|\alpha\beta|} \langle \phi, \psi \rangle \iff \phi, \psi \in \text{im } E$$

$$\text{im } E_0 = \langle \pi^{-1/4} e^{-q^2/2} \rangle$$

הוכח ממה ממה: $\mathcal{H} = \text{span}\{S(\alpha, \beta)\psi_i\}$; $E\mathcal{H} \subseteq \mathcal{H}$; $\psi_i \mapsto \psi_0$; $\mathcal{H}_i = \mathcal{H}_0$; $\mathcal{H} = \bigoplus \mathcal{H}_i$

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

0. ind
1. ind

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

$$\hat{a}(\alpha, \beta) = \frac{1}{N} \int a(\alpha', \beta') S(\alpha', \beta')^* S(\alpha, \beta) d\alpha' d\beta' \quad ; \quad S(r a) = r S(a), \quad S(a+b) = S(a) + S(b) \quad \underline{2. ind}$$

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

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

$$\int a = 0 \quad ; \quad S(a) = 0 \quad \underline{5. ind}$$

$$\Leftarrow S(-\gamma, -\delta) S(a) S(\gamma, \delta) = 0 \quad \Leftarrow S(a) = 0 \quad \underline{ind}$$

$$\int \int a(\alpha, \beta) S(\alpha, \beta) e^{i(\alpha\delta - \beta\gamma)} d\alpha d\beta = 0$$

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

$$\int a = 0 \quad \Leftarrow$$

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

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

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

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

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

שכונת קלואיס וקוואטל אינגליש, 13 ליני 1999.

1. תצורה של הסדרה קוואטל

2. תצורה של קוואטל

3. א"ה גרנד

4. תצורה הימנית

5. ס"ח "קוואטל-3-ה"

6. תצורה אפסר להנדס אג 3/4 דלקתה הקוואטל?

28/11/96

מכניקת קוונטים וקוונטום אלקטרוניקס
שנייה קוונטום הוא גורם הסדרה...
הצורה: $\psi(x) = \int A e^{ikx} dx$

$(X, \mathcal{A}, \mu_A; A \in \mathcal{A})$ קבוצה (קבוצת המדידות)

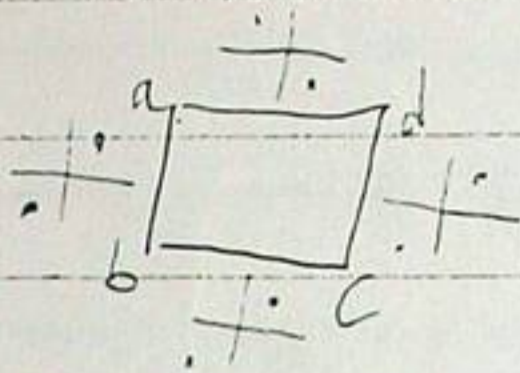
$\mathcal{A} \subset 2^X$ שבו $\emptyset \neq \mathcal{A}$ הסגורה תחת אינטרקשן ומאוניברסל

$(A \in \mathcal{A}) \Rightarrow A^c \in \mathcal{A}$ (אם A אז A^c גם)

μ_A מידת הסתברות על \mathcal{A} $\mu_A(A) = \int_A 1 d\mu$

היא גורם הסדרה μ המוגדרת על \mathcal{A}

שקבלים על ידי שילוב פונקציות f על \mathcal{A} עם גורמי הסתברות μ הנורמליים.



קבוצה \mathcal{A} מוגדרת:

גורם הסדרה הקלאסי: $(\Omega, \mathcal{M}, \mu)$ $\mathcal{A} \subset \mathcal{M}$ μ_A מוגדרת על \mathcal{A} על ידי $\mu_A(A) = \int_A 1 d\mu$

$$\mu_A = A \mu$$

זה שקול לומר "קיימת דאגרה המביאה את μ ל- μ_A עבור $X \in \mathcal{A}$ "

כיוון שיש ניקוד $\mu = \mu_X$ $\Omega = \mathbb{R}^X$. כיוון שיש: μ מוגדר על \mathcal{A}

גורם הסדרה הקלאסי μ מוגדר על \mathcal{A}

הסתברות קלאסית סופית: $(\Omega, \mathcal{A}, \mu)$ $\mu(\Omega) < \infty$ $\mathcal{A} \subset 2^\Omega$ μ מוגדרת על \mathcal{A}

אם a נמצא "מידת הסתברות" μ_a שגורם הסדרה

$$\mu_a(I) = \int_I a d\mu$$

אם a, b, c מוגדרים על Ω כך ש- $\mu_a(I) = \mu_b(I) + \mu_c(I)$ $\mu_a = \mu_b + \mu_c$

והקשרים: $\mu_a(I \times J \times K) = \mu_a(I) \mu_b(J) \mu_c(K)$ מוגדרת על $\mathbb{R}^{a,b,c}$ שגורם הסדרה

(ההכללה של הממד המרובע) $\mu_{a,b,c} = \int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$ $\mu_a = \int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$

לכאורה מוגדרת $\mu_{a,b,c}(I \times J \times K) = \mu_a(I) \mu_b(J) \mu_c(K)$ $\mu_{a,b,c}$ מוגדרת על $\mathbb{R}^{a,b,c}$

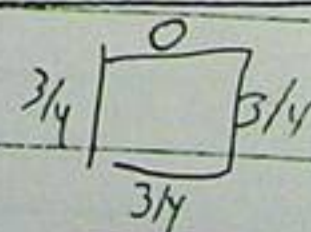
אם P הוא פונקציה על $\mathbb{R}^{a,b,c}$ $P = \langle v, P(a,b,c)v \rangle$ $\mu_{a,b,c}$ מוגדרת על $\mathbb{R}^{a,b,c}$

יש להגדרה אדמטיבית

הגורם: $\mu_a = \int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$ μ_a מוגדרת על $\mathbb{R}^{a,b,c}$

$$\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c = \int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$$

הוכחה: $\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c = \int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$ $\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$ מוגדרת על $\mathbb{R}^{a,b,c}$



קבוצה \mathcal{A}

$\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$	$\int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$	$\int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$	$\int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$
---------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------	--------------------------

אם $\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c = \int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$ $\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$ מוגדרת על $\mathbb{R}^{a,b,c}$

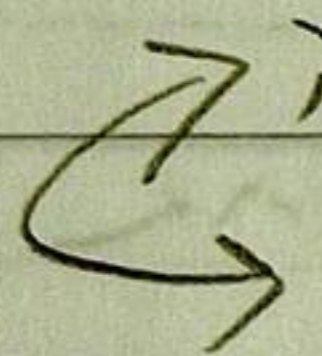
$$\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c = \int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$$

אם $\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c = \int \mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$ $\mu_a \mu_b \mu_c$ מוגדרת על $\mathbb{R}^{a,b,c}$

מבנית קלסיה וקולאז' לרבי משה קאז'ע, 20 יוני 1999.

1. קולאז' - תשובה.

2. היתרה ממוצא

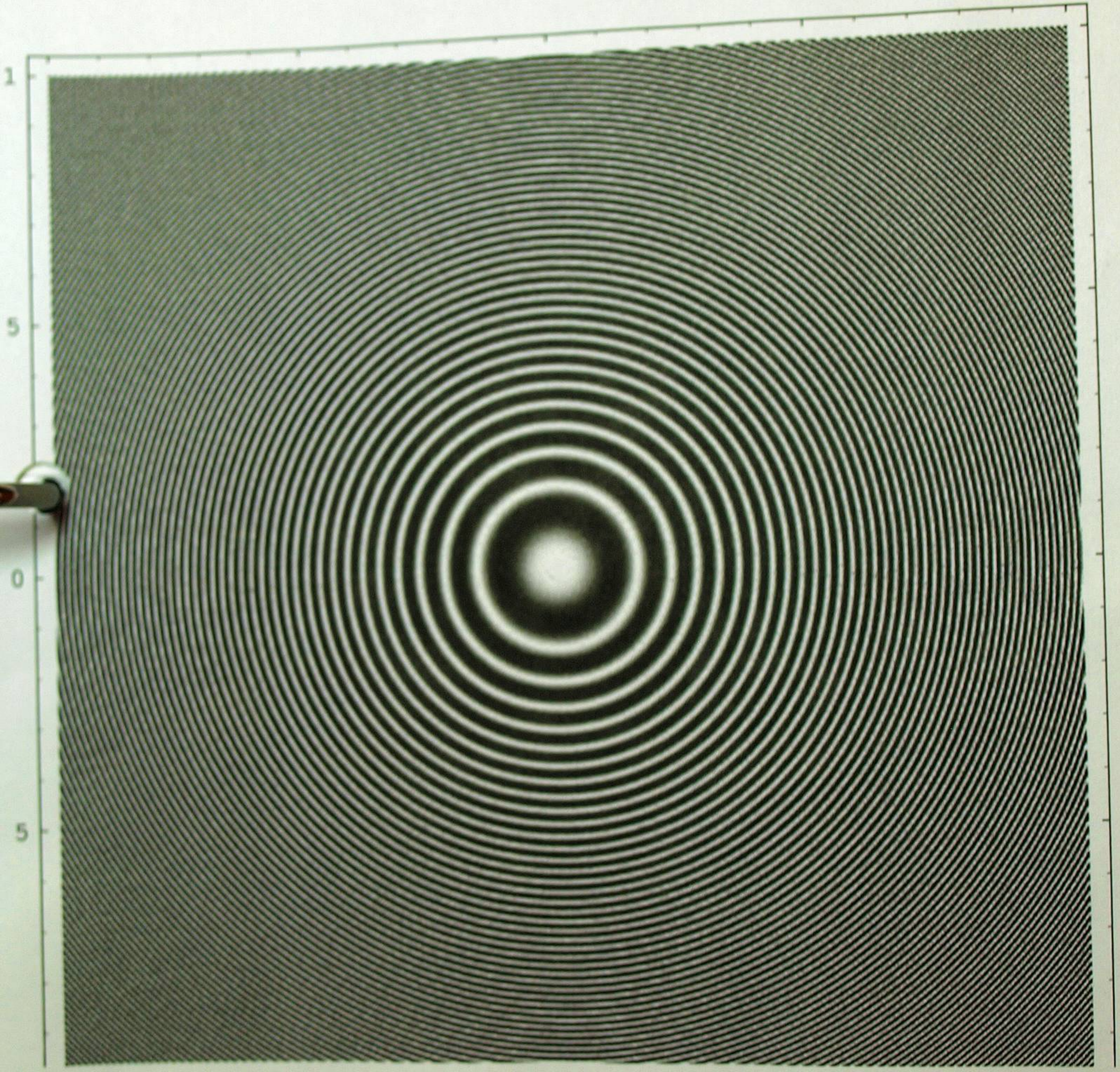
3. מומן אלף וטרנספור פיריה 

4. הדלת של

5. באינטרוואל של קומפוזיטן

6.





פוליטיקה קוואנטית

מכניקה קלאסית וקוואנטית למתמטיקאים, 27 ליוני 1999.

מתוך "כן, אדוני ראש הממשלה" מאת ג'ונתן לין ואנטוני ג'יי:

בימים ההם הייתי קצת נאיבי. לא הבנתי איך הבוחרים יכולים להיות גם בעד גיוס-חובה וגם נגדו. האמפרי החביב הראה לי איך עושים זאת.

הסוד הוא זה שכאשר גברת צעירה ומושכת עם לוח כתיבה ניגשת אל 'האיש ברחוב', היא מציגה לו סדרה של שאלות, ומטבע הדברים 'האיש ברחוב' רוצה לעשות רושם טוב ואינו רוצה להיראות כשוטה. חוקר השווקים מציג לו לפיכך שאלות המיועדות להפיק תשובות עקביות.

האמפרי הדגים את השיטה עלי. 'מר וולי, האם אתה מודאג מהעלייה בפשיעה בקרב בני העשרה? 'כן, אמרתי.

'האם אתה סבור שמורגש חוסר במשמעת ובחינוך תקיף בבתי-הספר המקיפים שלנו? 'כן.

'האם אתה סבור שצעירים זקוקים למסגרת ולמנהיגות? 'כן.

'האם הם מעוניינים באתגרים? 'כן.

אולי אתה בעד חידוש השירות הלאומי? 'כן.

...

האמפרי הציע שנזמין סקר חדש, לא בשביל המפלגה אלה בשביל משרד ההגנה. וכך עשינו. הוא המציא את השאלות בו במקום.

'מר וולי, האם סכנת המלחמה מדאיגה אותך? 'כן, אמרתי, בכנות גמורה.

'האם החימוש הגובר מעורר בך אי-שקט? 'כן.

'האם אתה סבור שמסוכן לתת לצעירים רובים וללמד אותם להרוג? 'כן.

'האם אתה סבור שאסור להכריח בני-אדם להתגייס לצבא נגד רצונם? 'כן.

'האם תתנגד לחידושו של גיוס-החובה? 'כן.

אמרתי 'כן' עוד בטרם נוכחתי שאמרתי זאת, מבינים?

האמפרי צהל מרוב נחת. 'אתה רואה, ברנרד, אמר לי, אתה המדגם הסטטיסטי המאוזן המושלם.'

$$\begin{array}{c}
 e \quad p \\
 + \quad 0 \\
 - \quad 0 \\
 + \quad 1 \\
 - \quad 1
 \end{array}
 \left(
 \begin{array}{c}
 \\
 \\
 \\
 \\
 \end{array}
 \right)$$

$$U: \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{array}{l}
 |0, - \rangle \rightarrow |0, - \rangle \\
 U: |0, + \rangle \rightarrow |1, + \rangle
 \end{array}$$

$$S; M \quad S |*, \pm \rangle = \pm |*, \pm \rangle$$

$$M |m, * \rangle = m |m, * \rangle$$

problem S, M

"S and M" $\psi = M\psi$

$\psi \in H$

M, S

מכניקה קלאסית וקוואנטית למתמטיקאים

מועד א, סמסטר ב, 1999

דרור בר-נתן

משך הבחינה: שעתיים.

חומר עזר מותר בשימוש: אין.

כתוב כהבנתך על אחד משני הנושאים הבאים:

1. משוואות מקסוול.

2. הסתברות קוואנטית.