

I] Review of Quantum mechanics

① The basis of classical mechanics

a) Blackbody radiation = (1901) planck (Nobel 1918)

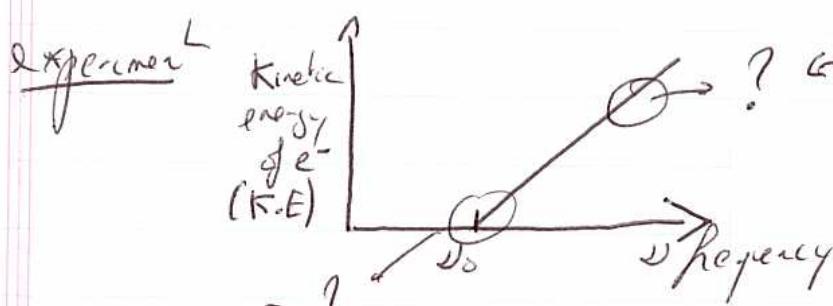
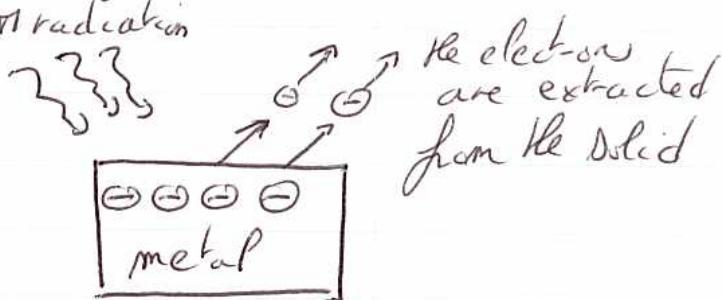
classical mechanics fail to explain the ~~spec~~ energy spectrum of a blackbody.

→ Electromagnetic energy could be emitted only in quantized form.

$$h: \text{planck constant} = 6.62618 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s}$$

$$E = h\nu \quad \nu: \text{frequency (s}^{-1}\text{)}$$

b) Photoelectric effect : hitting a solid with light incoming EM radiation



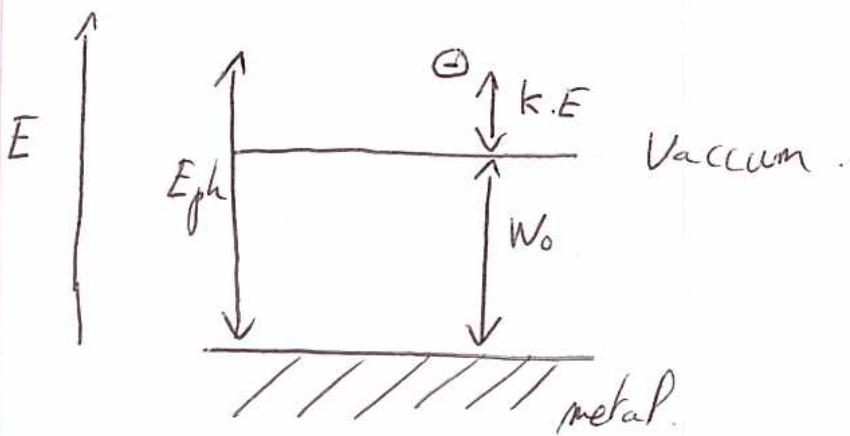
in EM theory, the energy should be proportional to the intensity of the light, it should not depend on the frequency (?)

nothing happen below a certain threshold (?)

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Einstein Explanation : (1905) (Nobel 1921).

$E = h\nu$ has a physical meaning, it is the energy of a 'light quanta' particle that is called "photon" ($E = E_{ph}$)
 \Rightarrow photoelectric effect can then be explained using inelastic collision.



So $E_{ph} = W_0 + KE$ where W_0 is the workfunction, the energy that is required by $1e^-$ to leave the metal.
 [potential barrier]

if comes $E_{ph} = h\nu = W_0 + KE$

for $K.E. = 0 \Rightarrow W_0 = W_0$

So $\boxed{KE = h(\nu - V_0)}$ It confirms the experimental data

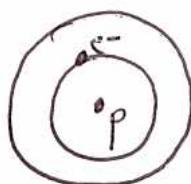
Q: Is light a wave or a particle?
A: Both (!!)

⑤ Hydrogen atom ($1e^-$, $1p$)

Experimental Results: spectrum of EM radiation from an excited hydrogen gas is discrete (?)

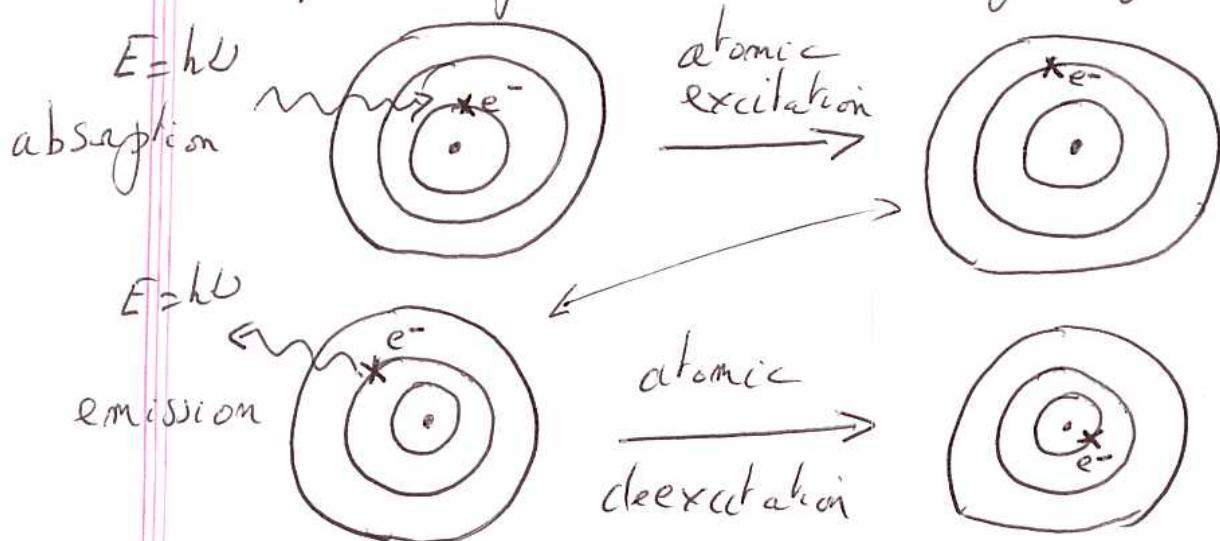
Bohr explanation (1913) (Nobel 1922).

starting point "Planetary model of the atom" of Rutherford



But now orbits are quantized!
(if not e^- should fall into the nucleus)

e^- can make transition between the orbits within excitation and deexcitation processes, resp. by absorption or emission of light (photon)



Bohr model provides the bound electron energies.

$$E_n (\text{eV}) = -\frac{Ry}{n^2}$$

$$Ry = \frac{m e^4}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 2\hbar^2}$$

$$m = 9.109 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$$

Ry is a Rydberg.

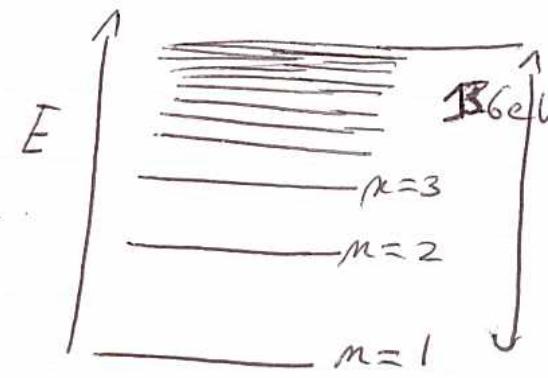
$$\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi} = 1.054 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J.s}$$

$$1 \text{ eV} \longleftrightarrow 1.602 \times 10^{19} (\equiv 9) \text{ Joules}$$

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we get $E_n(eV) = -\frac{13.6}{n^2}$

and a discrete spectrum.



Also for $n=1$, the Bohr radius is

$$a_0 = \frac{4\pi E_0 h^2}{m q^2} \approx 0.529 \text{ Å} \left(\equiv 10^{-10} \text{ m} \right)$$

\Rightarrow The Bohr model leaves many unanswered questions and it does not provide a general framework for solving problem of this type.

② Quantum mechanics = fundamental

a) Generalization of duality wave-particle for all form of matter

De broglie (1924) (Nobel 1929).

\Rightarrow it was an assumption that was not based on experiments

For a given particle with momentum \vec{p} and energy E we associate a plane wave with wave vector \vec{k} and "angular" frequency $\omega (= 2\pi\nu)$
such as.

$$\boxed{\vec{p} = \hbar \vec{k}} \quad \boxed{E = \hbar \omega}$$

Also $\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$ (particle with mass m and velocity v)

$$\|\vec{k}\| = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \quad (\lambda \text{ is the wavelength}).$$

duality wave-particle $\boxed{\lambda = \frac{\hbar}{p}}$

we can write this wave under "a plane wave" form

$$\boxed{\Psi(\vec{r}, t) = A \exp i(\vec{k} \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$$

③ Schrödinger equation (1926) [Nobel 1933]

starting point: classical description of the energy E

$$E = \underbrace{T}_{\text{K.E.}} + \underbrace{U}_{\text{potential energy.}} = \frac{p^2}{2m} + U$$

Schrödinger converted this equation to a wave equation by defining a wavefunction Ψ such as.

$$\frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi + U \Psi = E \Psi$$

* If we suppose that $\Psi = A e^{i(k \cdot \vec{r} - \omega t)}$, we can show that

$$\vec{\nabla} \Psi = i \vec{k} \Psi \quad \vec{\nabla} = \begin{pmatrix} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \end{pmatrix}$$

using $p = \hbar \vec{k} \Rightarrow \vec{p} \Psi = -i \hbar \vec{\nabla} \Psi$

\vec{p} becomes the operator $-i \hbar \vec{\nabla}$
 Do $\boxed{p^2 \Psi = -\hbar^2 \Delta \Psi} \quad (\Delta = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2})$

* we can also show that $\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = -i \omega \Psi$

using $E = \hbar \omega \Rightarrow \boxed{E \Psi = i \hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t}}$

E is the operator $i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$

The Schrödinger equation finally becomes.

$$\boxed{H \Psi(\vec{r}, t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}}$$

where H is the operator Hamiltonian.

$$\boxed{H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta + U(\vec{r}, t).}$$

- if now we suppose that H is time independent $[U(\vec{r}, t) \equiv U(\vec{r})]$, we set $\Psi(\vec{r}, t) = \Phi(\vec{r}) e^{-i\omega t}$ and it comes the time independent Schrödinger equation

$$\boxed{H \Psi(\vec{r}) = E \Psi(\vec{r})}$$

* Physical meanings of Ψ

$$P(E, t) = |\Psi(\vec{r}, t)|^2 dr \quad \text{represents the probability density to find an electron in a volume } dr \text{ at time } t.$$

Remark:

(i) for time independent problem

$$|\Psi(\vec{r}, t)|^2 = |\Psi(\vec{r})|^2 \quad (\text{Rq: } |\alpha|^2 = \alpha \alpha^*)$$

(ii) $\Psi(\vec{r}) = A e^{i\varphi}$ only $|A|^2$ (amplitude) has a physical meaning, φ (phase) does not have one.

→ However the phase relative to the superposition of waves may affect the amplitude. Furthermore, a phase shift

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To obtain the energy spectrum of a system,
 In general, one must solve the following PDE (partial differential equation) :

$$\boxed{-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Delta \Psi(\vec{r}) + U(\vec{r}) \Psi(\vec{r}) = E \Psi(\vec{r}) \text{ for } \vec{r} \in \Omega}$$

[one needs to know $U(\vec{r})$ and the boundary condition of $\Psi(\vec{r})$ on the frontier $\partial\Omega$]

- analytical solution exists if $U(\vec{r})$ has simple forms =
 (does not depend on r , depends linearly on $r, r^2, \frac{1}{r}, \dots$)
- In realistic system, $U(\vec{r})$ has a very complex dependency on $\vec{r} \Rightarrow$ one needs to resort to numerical methods.