

I Diagrammatic Intro

II ~~Two~~ Two particles
identical particles

III Identical particles:
Bosons and fermions

throughout your entire study
of physics — keep them in
mind when you feel you've
hit a systematic barrier!

• Our (beautiful) result that
concluded last time is:

When you couple j_1 and j_2 to

Lect. 40

I. • I hope you
enjoyed our brief
tour of diagrammatic
techniques and tensors.

These tools are useful

get j_3 the possible
results are

$$|j_1 - j_2| \leq j_3 \leq j_1 + j_2$$

and

$$j_1 + j_2 + j_3 = n$$

with n an integer.

II Recently we have tackled the problem of two spins. How do their spins combine? What is their state space?

~~What~~ This leads to similar questions for two particles: how do we describe the wave function of a system consisting of two particles?

where

$$H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_1} \nabla_1^2 - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m_2} \nabla_2^2 + V(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, t)$$

(Recall $\vec{\nabla}_1 = \vec{\nabla}_{\vec{r}_1} = \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial y_1}, \frac{\partial}{\partial z_1} \right)$)

We have

$$|\Psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, t)|^2 \int d^3\vec{r}_1 \int d^3\vec{r}_2 =$$

Prob of finding particle 1 in vol $d^3\vec{r}_1$ and particle 2 in vol $d^3\vec{r}_2$.

Take \vec{r}_1 to describe the position of the 1st particle and \vec{r}_2 that of the 2nd.

Then $\Psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, t)$ is the wavefunction.

It solves $i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = H\Psi$

and $\int |\Psi|^2 d^3\vec{r}_1 d^3\vec{r}_2 = 1$

For time indep. potentials $V(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, t) = V(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2)$ we have

$$\Psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, t) = \psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) e^{-iEt/\hbar}$$

and

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_1} \nabla_1^2 \psi - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m_2} \nabla_2^2 \psi + V\psi = E\psi$$

III Identical particles: Bosons and Fermions:

Every electron ever observed has exactly the same mass, charge, and spin.

If you think about this it's really quite incredible. How?

and consider two distinguishable particles!
Ignore spin for a moment. Suppose that particle 1 has state $\psi_a(\vec{r})$

which, God doesn't know which is which ..."

Quantum mechanics has a neat way of incorporating this; there are two possibilities

$$\psi_{\pm}(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) = A [\overset{\text{Bosons}}{\psi_a(\vec{r}_1) \psi_b(\vec{r}_2) \pm \psi_b(\vec{r}_1) \psi_a(\vec{r}_2)}]$$

The \pm defines bosons and fermions.

$\psi_b(\vec{r})$ then we can write
~~distinguishable~~
 $\psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) = \psi_a(\vec{r}_1) \psi_b(\vec{r}_2)$

Note that this is a very special state

Griffiths says of indisting. particles: "It's not just that we don't happen to know which electron is

There is a stunning theorem of quantum field theory:

all particles with integer spin are bosons, and all particles with half integer spin are fermions
The spin ~~and~~ statistics theorem.

A wonderful consequence is that two identical fermions cannot occupy the same state because

$$\Psi_-(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) = A[\psi_a(\vec{r}_1)\psi_b(\vec{r}_2) - \psi_b(\vec{r}_1)\psi_a(\vec{r}_2)] = 0!$$

This is the Pauli exclusion principle.

In fact, the case we have been considering is a special case of a more

$$\text{eigenvalues are } \lambda_{\pm} = \pm 1,$$

If the two particles are identical

$$m_1 = m_2 \text{ and } V(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) = V(\vec{r}_2, \vec{r}_1)$$

and so P and H satisfy

$$[P, H] = 0$$

and are compatible observables.

Thus we can find solutions S.t.

Define the exchange operator P by

$$P \psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) = \psi(\vec{r}_2, \vec{r}_1).$$

We have,

$$P^2 = 1$$

and you will show on this that its two

$$\psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) = \pm \psi(\vec{r}_2, \vec{r}_1). (*)$$

If a state begins its life in such a state, the evolution doesn't disturb this property.

We have a new law, the

Symmetrization requirement,

is that for identical particles ψ

is required to satisfy $(*)$; $+ = \text{bosons}$; $- = \text{fermions}$

Example: Two particles in ∞ -square So, the ground state $E_0 = 5K/5$

Well, $\Psi_{11} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{a} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x_1}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi x_2}{a}\right), E_{11} = 2K$

while

$\Psi_{12} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{a} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x_1}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x_2}{a}\right), E_{12} = 5K$

$\Psi_{21} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{a} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x_1}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi x_2}{a}\right), E_{21} = 5K$

For bosons Ψ_{11} is same as above state,

Example: Two particles in ∞ -square $E_n = n^2 K$

$\Psi_0(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{a} x\right)$

with $K = \frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2ma^2}$

Distinguishable:

$\Psi_{n_1, n_2}(x_1, x_2) = \Psi_{n_1}(x_1) \Psi_{n_2}(x_2), E_{n_1, n_2} = (n_1^2 + n_2^2) K$

$\Psi_{1st \text{ excited}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{a} \left[\sin\left(\frac{\pi x_1}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x_2}{a}\right) + \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x_1}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi x_2}{a}\right) \right]$

still with $E = 5K$, but no degeneracy!

For fermions \rightarrow the ground state from above disappears!

$\Psi_{\text{ground}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{a} \left[\sin\left(\frac{\pi x_1}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x_2}{a}\right) - \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x_1}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi x_2}{a}\right) \right]$

with ground state $E = 5K$!