

1.2 Some Quantum Mechanics

1.2.1 The Interpretation of the Wave Function

Before, used $\rho(\underline{x}, t) d^3x = |\psi(\underline{x}, t)|^2 d^3x$ to get the probability of finding a particle in volume d^3x at \underline{x} at time t . (Assuming normalized ψ .) This requires:

1. $\rho(\underline{x}, t) = |\psi|^2 \geq 0$
2. For a single particle, $\int \rho(\underline{x}, t) d^3x = \int |\psi(\underline{x}, t)|^2 d^3x = 1$ at any time t , and hence $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int \rho(\underline{x}, t) d^3x = \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int |\psi(\underline{x}, t)|^2 d^3x = 0$ (1) to conserve probability.

Hence we need to show:

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \underline{\nabla} \cdot \underline{j} = 0$$

(Equation of continuity), where \underline{j} is a corresponding current density.

Consider the Schrödinger Equation.

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi + V(\underline{x}) \psi \quad (1)$$

Taking its conjugate:

$$-i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi^* + V(\underline{x}) \psi^* \quad (2)$$

Multiply (1) by ψ^* , and then subtract (2) multiplied by ψ .

$$i\hbar \left(\psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} \psi \right) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (\psi^* \nabla^2 \psi - \psi \nabla^2 \psi^*)$$

i.e.

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\psi^* \psi) = \frac{i\hbar}{2m} \underline{\nabla} \cdot (\psi^* \underline{\nabla} \psi - \psi \underline{\nabla} \psi^*)$$

which is of the desired form, where $\rho(\underline{x}, t) = |\psi(\underline{x}, t)|^2 \geq 0$ and

$$\underline{j} = \frac{i\hbar}{2m} (\psi \underline{\nabla} \psi^* - \psi^* \underline{\nabla} \psi).$$

The continuity equation implies that

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_{all\ space} |\psi(\underline{x}, t)|^2 d^3x = 0$$

So the conditions for the Born interpretation are satisfied.

1.2.2 Minimal EM Interactions

Point particle with mass m and charge q at position \underline{x} in an EM field (ϕ, \underline{A}) . We want to know what the QM equation of motion for this particle is.

Start from the classical Hamiltonian,

$$H(\underline{x}, \underline{p}) = \frac{1}{2m} \left(\underline{p} - \frac{q}{c} \underline{A} \right)^2 + q\phi \quad (1)$$

To verify this, check Hamilton's Equations of Motion (using equations for many particles in places).

$$1. \quad \dot{x}_i = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_i} = \frac{1}{2m} 2 \left(p_i - \frac{q}{c} A_i \right)$$

i.e. the conjugate momentum $p_i = m\dot{x}_i + \frac{q}{c} A_i$, i.e. $\underline{p} = m\underline{\dot{x}} + \frac{q}{c} \underline{A}$ (2)

$$2. \quad \dot{p}_i = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial x_i} \text{ (somewhat tricky derivation)}$$

$$m\ddot{x} = q\underline{E} + \frac{q}{c} \underline{v} \times \underline{B}$$

Note that (1) + (2) implies that the energy is

$$H(\underline{x}, \underline{p}) = E(\underline{x}, \dot{\underline{x}}) = \frac{1}{2} m \dot{\underline{x}}^2 + q\phi$$

Note that there is no contribution from the magnetic field, as it is at right angles to the particle and hence can't do any work on it.

Schrödinger Equation:

$$H(\underline{x}, \hat{\underline{p}})\psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

where $\underline{p} \rightarrow \hat{\underline{p}} = -i\hbar \underline{\nabla}$ (position operator is still \underline{x}).

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\underline{\nabla} - \frac{iq}{\hbar c} \underline{A} \right)^2 \psi(\underline{x}, t) = i\hbar \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{iq}{\hbar} \phi \right) \psi(\underline{x}, t)$$

which is related to the “free” equation

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

by the minimal substitution

$$\begin{aligned} \underline{\nabla} &\rightarrow \underline{\nabla} - \frac{iq}{\hbar c} \underline{A} \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial t} &\rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{iq}{\hbar} \phi. \end{aligned}$$

Or in 4D notation,

$$\partial_\mu \rightarrow \partial_\mu + \frac{iq}{\hbar c} A_\mu(x) \quad (3)$$

(This combines the two substitutions before.)

The same argument works in the relativistic case.

$$H = \sqrt{(c\underline{p} - q\underline{A})^2 + m^2 c^4} + q\phi$$

Hence the “Schrödinger equation” is

$$\left(\sqrt{-\hbar^2 c^2 \left(\underline{\nabla} - \frac{iq}{\hbar c} \underline{A} \right)^2 + m^2 c^4} \right) \psi(\underline{x}, t) = i\hbar \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{iq}{\hbar} \phi \right) \psi(\underline{x}, t)$$

Again this is obtained from the free particle case by (3). Note that in the non-EM case, the first bit would form $\sqrt{p^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4}$.

Problem:- how do we interpret $\sqrt{\quad}$, or in the free case $\sqrt{-\hbar^2 c^2 \nabla^2 + m^2 c^4}$?
We will come to this later.

1.3 Natural Units

Use natural units, such that $\hbar = c = 1$. So the unit of speed is the speed of light, and the unit of momentum is \hbar .

It's easy to put this in; the tricky bit is to get back to ordinary units. So use dimensions to restore \hbar , c , and then use

$$\begin{aligned}\hbar &= 6.582 \times 10^{-22} \text{ MeV sec} \\ \hbar c &= 1.973 \times 10^{-13} \text{ MeV m} .\end{aligned}$$

(See Martin & Shaw PP, section 1.5)

2. The Klein-Gordon Equation

Using free space, so $(\phi, \underline{A}) = 0$, and natural units. So the Schrödinger Equation is

$$H\phi(\underline{x}, t) = i \frac{\partial \phi(\underline{x}, t)}{\partial t} \quad (1)$$

where ϕ is now the wave function, and $H = \sqrt{-\nabla^2 + m^2}$ (2). What does this mean?

In the Klein-Gordon (KG) equation, we avoid the problem by noting that H is independent of t , so we can multiply the equation by H again.

$$H^2 \phi(\underline{x}, t) = i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} H\phi = -\frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2}$$

then using $H^2 = -\nabla^2 + m^2$,

$$\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - \nabla^2 + m^2 \right) \phi(\underline{x}, t) = 0 \quad (3a)$$

$$(\square + m^2) \phi(\underline{x}, t) = 0 \quad (3b)$$

where $\square = \partial_\mu \partial^\mu$. This is called the Klein-Gordon Equation. This is the correct equation, but what is its interpretation?

There are a whole series of problems.

2.1 Negative Energies

KG equation has solutions

$$\phi(\underline{x}, t) = e^{i(\underline{p} \cdot \underline{x} - Et)}$$

with $E^2 = \underline{p}^2 + m^2$, i.e. with energies $E = +\sqrt{\underline{p}^2 + m^2} \geq m > 0$, and

$$E = -\sqrt{\underline{p}^2 + m^2} \leq -m < 0 .$$

So we have a spectrum of energies available at $E > mc^2$ and $E < -mc^2$, with an energy gap in the middle. Classical particles can't jump this energy gap. Quantum mechanics say that interaction can cause quantum jumps releasing or absorbing quanta $\hbar\omega \geq 2mc^2$, either as radiation or as other particles.

So a particle can fall to negative energy states etc. releasing an infinite amount of energy. What stops it?