

1 - 11 - 08

State of Classical particle completely specified by $\vec{r}(t)$. To get $\vec{r}(t)$

we solve $F = m\ddot{\vec{r}}$ subject to $\vec{r}(0) = \vec{r}_0$ $\dot{\vec{r}}(0) = \vec{v}_0$.



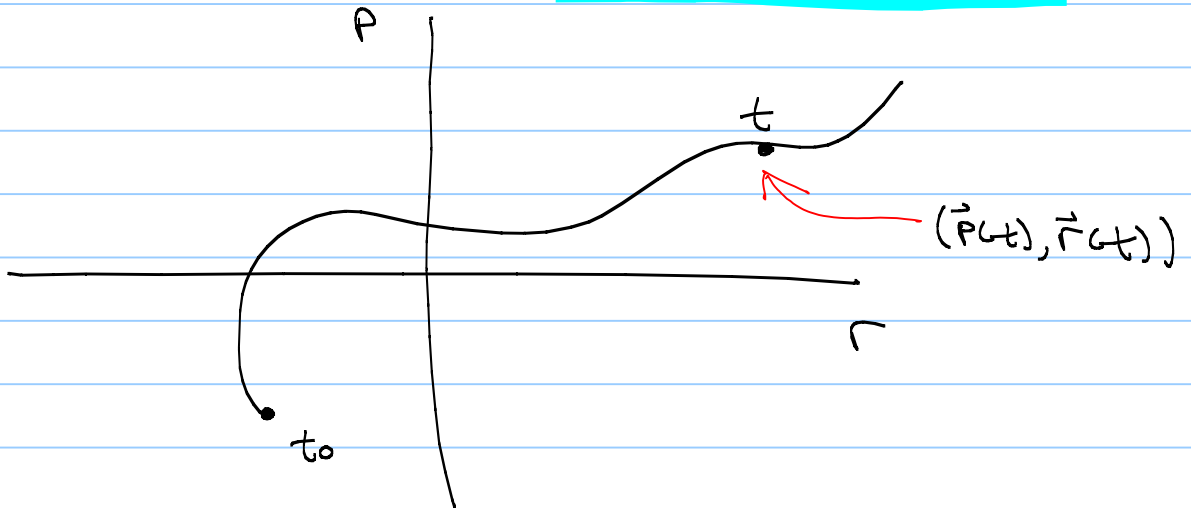
Equivalently we can write $F = m\ddot{\vec{r}}$ as:

$$\frac{d}{dt} \vec{p} = \vec{F} = \frac{d}{dt} \vec{p} = \frac{d}{dt} (m\dot{\vec{r}})$$

$$\vec{r}(0) = \vec{r}_0$$

$$\vec{p}(0) = \vec{p}_0$$

Now, \vec{p} & \vec{r} are not independent since $\vec{p} = m\dot{\vec{r}}$. BUT we can plot \vec{p} vs \vec{r} parametrically

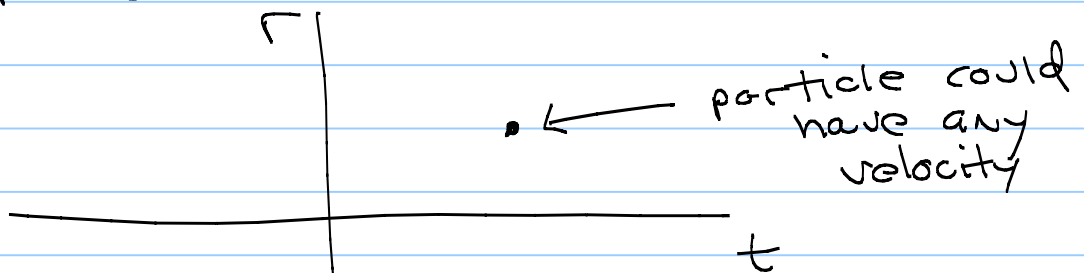


$\vec{r} - \vec{p}$ space is called phase space

At any time t the state of the particle is completely specified by a point in phase space

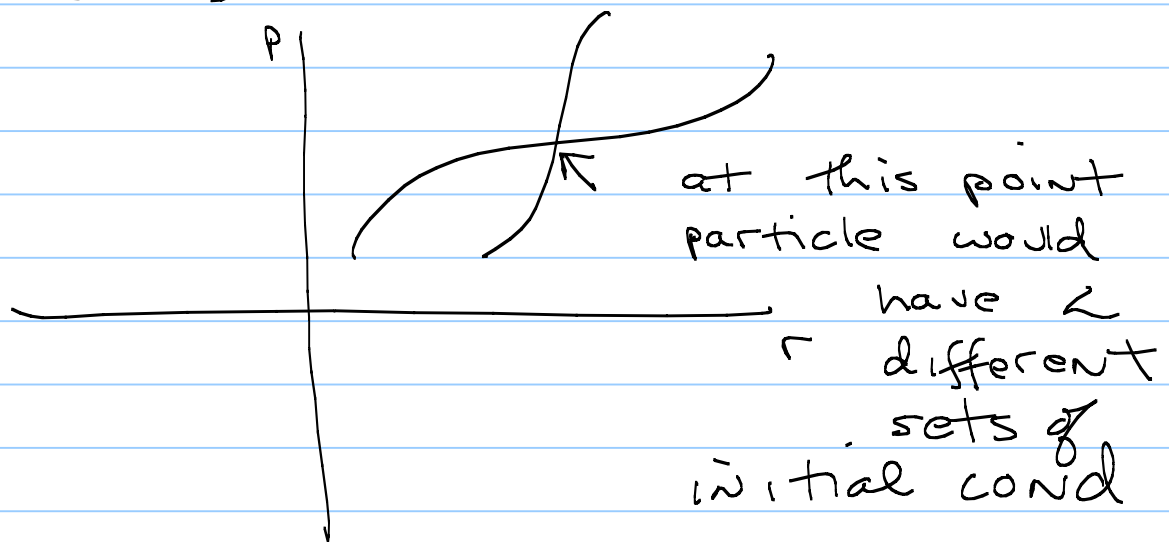
where as a point on the graph

of \vec{r} vs t is not a complete specification of the state of the particle



So this is not enough to predict the evolution. But if we know $\vec{r} + \vec{p}$ at a point we can.

Digression: A theorem from ODE's tells us that standard ODE's have unique solutions depending on initial conditions. This means that trajectories in phase space cannot cross.



Digression for conservative systems

$$F = -\nabla V = -\frac{dV}{dx} \quad \text{in 1D}$$

So

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = -\frac{dV}{dx}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = p/m$$

For a particle $K.E. = \frac{p^2}{2m}$

$$\text{so } \frac{p}{m} = \frac{d}{dp} [KE]$$

Assuming $V = V(x)$
 $KE = KE(p)$ then

Total energy looks like

$$H = V(x) + KE(p) \quad \text{So}$$

H a.k.a. The Hamiltonian

$$\frac{dp}{dt} = - \frac{dV}{dx} = - \frac{\partial H}{\partial x}$$
$$\frac{dx}{dt} = \frac{p}{m} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p}$$

$$p_{,t} = - H_{,x}$$
$$x_{,t} = H_{,p}$$

Let $Z = \begin{bmatrix} x \\ p \end{bmatrix}$

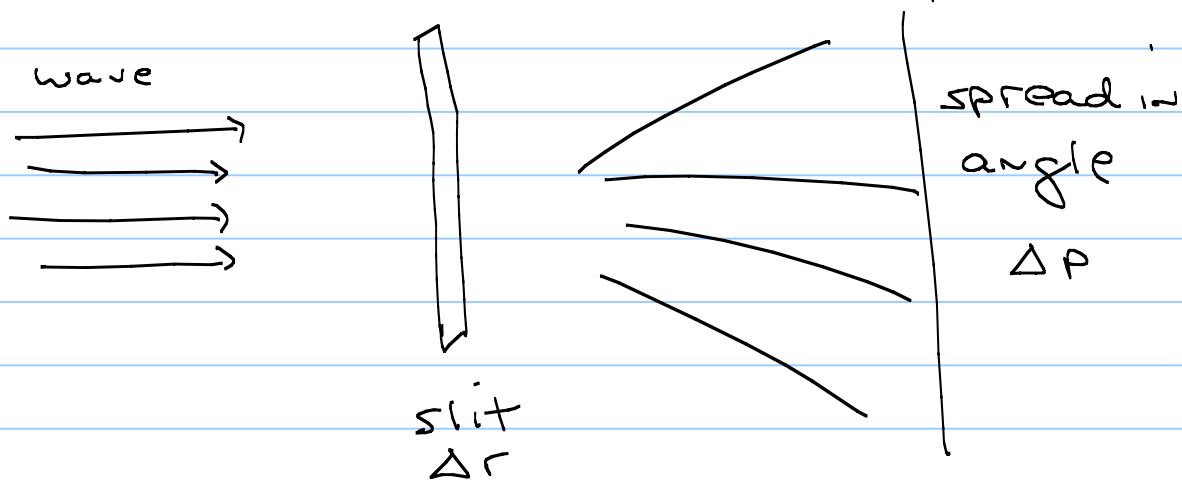
$$\begin{bmatrix} \dot{x} \\ \dot{p} \end{bmatrix} = \dot{Z} = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} H_{,x} \\ H_{,p} \end{bmatrix}$$

J

$$\dot{z} = \bar{F} \nabla_z H$$

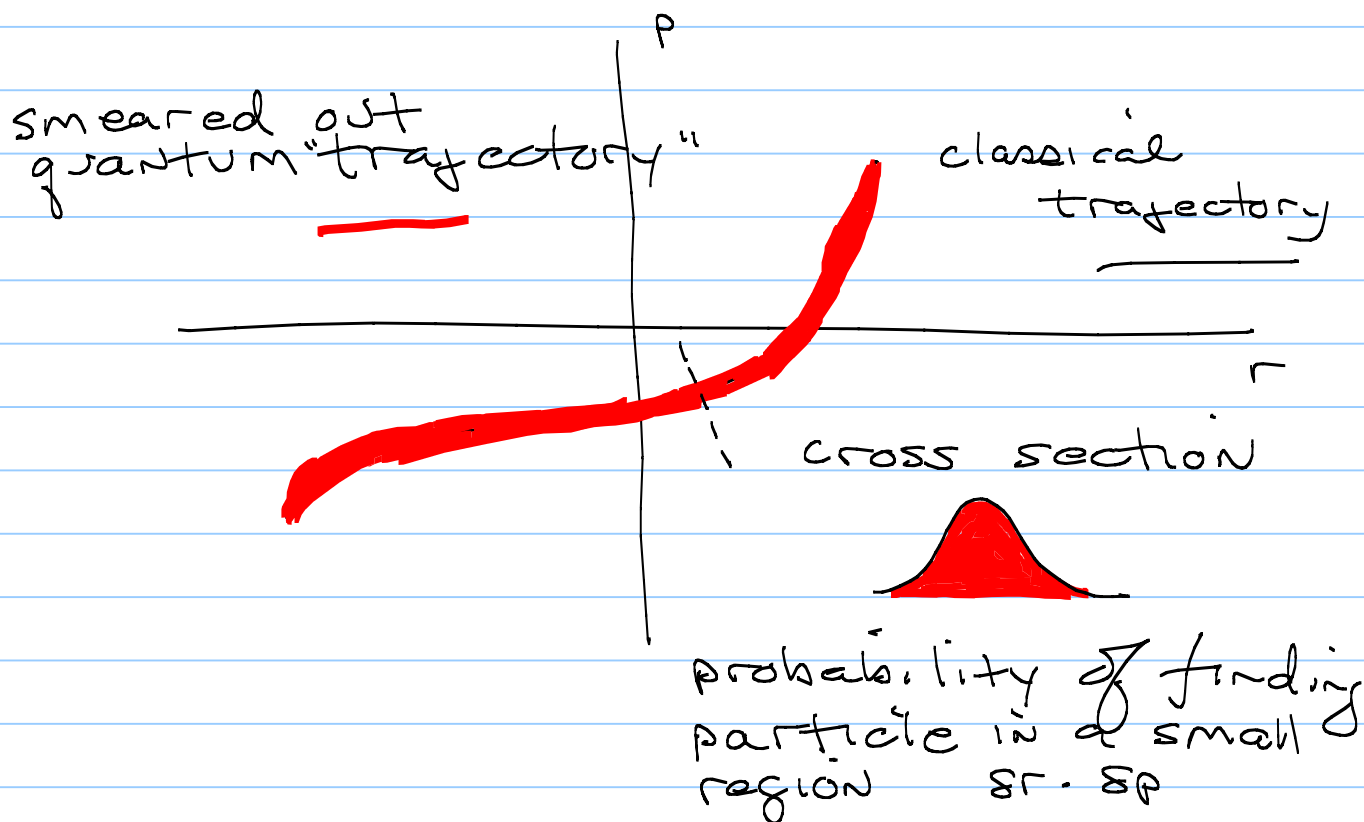
Now, in QM we cannot specify both p and \vec{r} with complete accuracy. If we make \vec{r} more & more precise, then p becomes less and less well known:

wave diffraction analogy



the smaller Δr the bigger Δp

$$\Rightarrow \Delta r \Delta p \geq \text{some const.}$$



This probability is given by the following expression

$$\underline{|\psi(\vec{r}, t)|^2}$$

modulus of complex function

$|\psi|^2$ is a probability

ψ is a probability amplitude

ψ is called the wave function and satisfies

$$i \hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi$$

Schrodinger Equation



$$i \hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V \psi$$

must mean that

$$H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V$$



Q.M. kinetic
energy of
particle

Probability Review

coin flip: 2 possible outcomes

die toss: 6 possible outcomes

6-digit lottery: 10^6 possible outcomes

The set of possible outcomes is called the sample description space. Call this Ω

for coin toss	$N(\Omega) = 2$
die	$N(\Omega) = 6$
lottery	$N(\Omega) = 10^6$

Probability of a random event is # of ways of getting that event divided by $N(\Omega)$

$$P[\text{rolling a 5}] = \frac{N(5)}{N(\Omega)} = \frac{1}{6}$$

$$P[\text{rolling } < 5] = \frac{4}{6}$$

So if i is an event in Ω (e.g. heads or tails), then

$$P[i] = \frac{N(i)}{N(\Omega)}$$

1.5 in book

sum over
all poss. events

$$\sum_i P(i) = \frac{\sum_i N(i)}{N(\Omega)} = \frac{N(\Omega)}{N(\Omega)} = 1$$

Example: Box with 5 coins in it
2 pennies, 2 nickles, 1 dime

Select a coin at random

There are 5 possible coins I
could select

$$P[\text{penny}] = \frac{2}{5}$$

$$P[\text{nickle}] = \frac{2}{5}$$

$$P[\text{dime}] = \frac{1}{5}$$

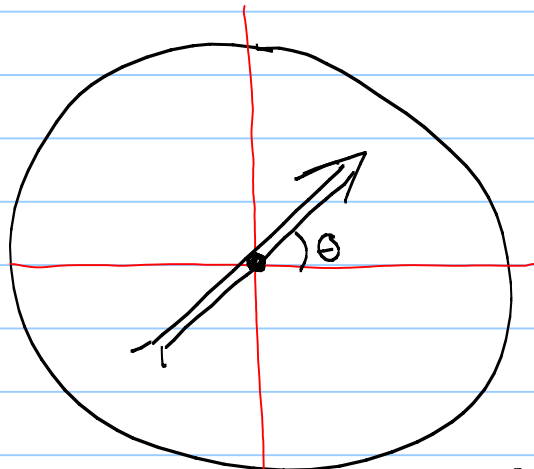
$$\frac{2}{5} + \frac{2}{5} + \frac{1}{5} = 1$$

numerically valued random events
have numbers as outcomes

Parzen's Theory of Probability

A random (or chance) phenomenon is an empirical phenomenon characterized by the property that its observation under a given set of circumstances does not always lead to the same observed outcomes (so that there is no deterministic regularity) but rather to different outcomes in such a way that there is statistical regularity. By this is meant that numbers exist between 0 and 1 that represent the relative frequency with which the different possible outcomes may be observed in a series of observations of independent occurrences of the phenomenon. ... A random event is one whose relative frequency of occurrence, in a very long sequence of observations of randomly selected situations in which the event may occur, approaches a stable limit value as the number of observations is increased to infinity; the limit value of the relative frequency is called the probability of the random event.

The coin, die, lotto examples are "discrete" phenomena; the outcomes can be mapped into the integers.



spin the arrow. The

outcome is measured by the angle θ .

θ can be any (real) number between $[0, 2\pi]$

what's the probability that, after spinning, θ will be exactly, say, π ? 0.

$$P[\pi/2 \leq \theta \leq \pi] = \frac{\pi/2}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{4}$$

$$P(\theta) d\theta = \frac{d\theta}{2\pi}$$

$$\text{mean}[\theta] = \int_0^{2\pi} \theta P(\theta) d\theta$$

$$= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} \theta d\theta = \pi \equiv \bar{\theta}$$

we also call this the expectation of θ w.r.t. $P(\theta)$

$$\text{variance} \equiv E[(\theta - \bar{\theta})^2]$$

$$= E(\theta^2) - \bar{\theta}^2$$

Book

(1.12)

for the spinner

$$\text{variance}(\theta) = \frac{\pi^2}{3}$$

ID For now

$p(x)$ is a prob. density function \Leftrightarrow

1) $p(x) \geq 0 \quad \forall x$

Positive

2) $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} p(x) dx = 1$

normalized

In this course we will write the expectation with $\langle \rangle$

E.g. $\bar{x} = E[x] = \langle x \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x p(x) dx$

$$\langle f(x) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x) p(x) dx$$

$$\text{variance} \equiv \sigma^2 = \langle (x - \bar{x})^2 \rangle = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$$