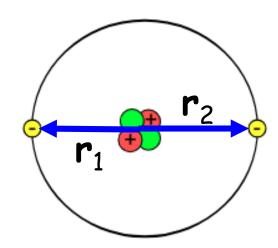
Chapter 5: Identical Particles

For one particle, like one electron in the H atom, we simply need the wave function $\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1,t)$ where \mathbf{r}_1 is the coordinate of electron "1".

Consider now two particles.

For two particles, e.g. two electrons in the He atom, in QM we need the wave function $\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2,t)$ where \mathbf{r}_1 and \mathbf{r}_2 are the coordinates of the two electrons.



Mathematically, the Sch. Eq. $i\hbar\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t}=H\Psi$ has a more complicated Hamiltonian.

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

The potential *V* typically includes e-proton attraction, but also e-e repulsion.

Example, for the He atom:

$$H = \left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_1^2 - \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{2e^2}{r_1} \right\} + \left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_2^2 - \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{2e^2}{r_2} \right\} + \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{|\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|}$$

$$p-e_1 \text{ attraction}$$

$$is \text{ called V}(\mathbf{r}_1)$$

$$p-e_2 \text{ attraction}$$

$$is \text{ V}(\mathbf{r}_2)$$

$$is \text{ V}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2)$$

If the particles do not interact with one another, e.g. if we drop the e-e repulsion, we call them "noninteracting".

In this case,
$$V(r_1,r_2,t)=V(r_1,t)+V(r_2,t)+V(r_2,t)$$

Example: two particles inside a capacitor, far from each other. Then, it is a good approx. that each electron is just immersed in the potential V of the capacitor.

Amazingly, "noninteracting", a CRUDE approx., is sometimes a GOOD approx. qualitatively even in atoms.

For non-interacting particles a wave function solution of the Sch. Eq. is just the product $\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2,t) = \Psi_a(\mathbf{r}_1,t)\Psi_b(\mathbf{r}_2,t)$ where a and b are quantum numbers, such as those of the H atom (n,l,m_l) or the square well. Check!

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E.g., in the H atom we could have, \Psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2,t)=\Psi_{100}(\mathbf{r}_1,t)\Psi_{21-1}(\mathbf{r}_2,t). Its energy is E = E<sub>100</sub> + E<sub>21-1</sub> (using -2e<sup>2</sup> as charge!)
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Another eigenstate: $\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2,t) = \Psi_{530}(\mathbf{r}_1,t)\Psi_{321}(\mathbf{r}_2,t)$. Its energy is $E = E_{530} + E_{321}$. Please check!

NOTE: Linear combinations can be made. E.g. consider $\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2,t) = (3/5) \Psi_{100}(\mathbf{r}_1,t)\Psi_{21-1}(\mathbf{r}_2,t) + (4/5) \Psi_{530}(\mathbf{r}_1,t)\Psi_{321}(\mathbf{r}_2,t)$. Normalized to one already. Quantum superposition!

But now the electrons are "quantum entangled" because if by measuring we find particle 1 is in 100, then particle 2 must be in 21-1. The electrons instantly know about what is happening to the other one. We can repeat the same discussion as last lecture for spins.

So far, all was for noninteracting electrons.

The e-e repulsion, makes everything far more "complicated" because it "correlates" the electrons: if one electrons is say on the left, by mere repulsion the other tends to be on the right. There is an entire field of ongoing research called "strongly correlated electrons".

Here, wave functions are not just linear combinations of products of H atom wavefunctions. We will return to this ...

Finally, as usual, in all cases we must **normalize** to 1 because of the probabilistic interpretation:

$$\int |\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, t)|^2 d^3 \mathbf{r}_1 d^3 \mathbf{r}_2 = 1$$

5.1.1 Bosons and Fermions

First, for simplicity, let us neglect the e-e repulsion. The energy levels are the same as in the H atom.

Assume one particle is in state "a" (e.g. 1s, spin up) and the other particle is in state "b" (e.g. 2s, spin down).

Then, in this particular case IF e-e is neglected, the wave function is the product:

$$\psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2)=\psi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_b(\mathbf{r}_2)$$

As already explained, to prove this, use as potential V simply the sum of two H-atom terms, one per particle i.e. just the $p-e_1$ and $p-e_2$ attractions.

However, the key new concept is that if electrons are identical, then we cannot say "electron 1 is in $(1s,\uparrow)$ ". We can only say "an electron is in $(1s,\uparrow)$ ".

In classical physics we can always "follow" particles and tell them apart, even if identical. READ discussion in book page 201.

In quantum physics we cannot follow particles. We only know probabilities.

Thus, if one electron is in state "a" and one electron in state "b", we must symmetrize the wave function to account for particles being identical.

One way to symmetrize is to add the two cases:

$$\psi_+(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2) = A[\psi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_b(\mathbf{r}_2) + \psi_b(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_a(\mathbf{r}_2)]$$

In what sense this has been "symmetrized"? When \mathbf{r}_1 and \mathbf{r}_2 are exchanged, the first term becomes the second, and the second the first.

Then:

$$\psi_{+}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2) = \psi_{+}(\mathbf{r}_2,\mathbf{r}_1)$$

This case "+" applies to elementary particles called bosons.

Because in QM we only care about the wave function in absolute value, there is another possible combination!

$$\psi_{-}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2) = A[\psi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_b(\mathbf{r}_2) - \psi_b(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_a(\mathbf{r}_2)]$$

In this case, when r_1 and r_2 are exchanged, we collect a minus sign in front:

$$\psi_{-}(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2) = -\psi_{-}(\mathbf{r}_2,\mathbf{r}_1)$$

Elementary particles where the "-" applies are called **fermions**.

In summary, we have to accept as another law of Nature that elementary particles are either bosons, for the + case, or fermions, for the - case.

Moreover, there is a link between the sign +- in the combination and the value of the spin. This can be shown within relativistic QM.

bosons <-> integer spin (examples: photon, phonon)

fermions <-> half-integer spin (example: electron).

If two electrons are in the same state, such as $(1s,\uparrow)$, i.e. including spin, then the "-" wave function cancels:

$$\psi_{-}(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = A[\psi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_a(\mathbf{r}_2) - \psi_a(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_a(\mathbf{r}_2)] = 0$$

Then, the famous Pauli principle can be deduced from the fact that electrons are fermions.

This is somewhat similar to the case when we deduced the uncertainty principle in QM411.

It is important to keep the number of arbitrary laws to a minimum!

Let us define the exchange operator \hat{P} .

$$\hat{P} \, \psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = \psi(\mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_1)$$
Applying \hat{P} twice:

$$\hat{P} \hat{P} \psi (\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = \hat{P} \psi (\mathbf{r}_2, \mathbf{r}_1) = \psi (\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2)$$

Because \hat{P}^2 = 1 as operator, then the eigenvalues are +1 and -1. Check!

Also
$$[\hat{H}, \hat{P}]=0$$
:

$$\hat{H} = \left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_1^2 - \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{2e^2}{r_1} \right\} + \left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_2^2 - \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{2e^2}{r_2} \right\} + \frac{1}{4\pi \epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{|\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|}$$