# GRE Physics: Comprehensive Notes



# <span id="page-1-0"></span>1 Classical Mechanics

## <span id="page-1-1"></span>1.1 Dynamics

- $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}} = m\mathbf{a}; F_{1-2} = F_{2-1} \rightarrow \text{for an object not to accelerate in direction } x$ , all forces on x sum up to zero
- think always of *limiting cases* (*e.g.* if I know  $F = 0$  at  $\theta = 0$  and  $F = 1$  at  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$  probably  $\propto \sin(\theta)$ )
- $F_s \leq \mu F_N$  (static friction)  $\rightarrow$  if body just moves the friction force is max and equals kinetic friction  $(F_s^{\max} = F_d)$
- if two objects are:
	- not distinct, they move with the same  $a(e,q)$  one on top of the other, even if attached by a massless spring in between there would be no tension)
	- independent, then consider the forces separately (if friction is involved this is always the case)
- projectile motion:  $x(t) = V_{0,x}t + x_0$  (no force acting so  $V_{0,x} = \text{cost}$ )
	- $-y(t) = y_0 + V_{0,y}t \frac{g}{2}t^2$  (since  $a = -g$ )
	- Recall! from kinematics  $v_f^2 v_i^2 = 2a\Delta s$  where  $\Delta s = s_f s_i$
- uniform circular motion  $\rightarrow a = \frac{v^2}{R}$  $\frac{\omega^2}{R}$ ;  $v = \omega r = \frac{2\pi R}{T}$ ;  $T = \frac{2\pi}{\omega}$ ;  $f = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = \frac{1}{T}$  (don't forget this! check units)
	- $-F = \frac{mv^2}{R} \rightarrow$  valid also if *not* uniform but only when all forces are *Radial*!
		- (*e.g.* pendulum at lowest point  $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}} = T mg = \frac{mv^2}{R}$ )
	- if body does not have constant tangential  $v \rightarrow a$  must have also a tangential component
- To compute terminal velocity  $F_g = F_d$  (where  $F_d$  is the drag force  $\propto v$ )
- $\Delta E = \Delta K + \Delta U = \Delta W_{\text{NC}}$  where  $W_{\text{NC}}$  is work done by non conservative forces
	- $\Delta E = 0$  if all forces are conservative
	- $\Delta W_{\text{tot}} = \Delta W_C + \Delta W_{\text{NC}} = \Delta K$
	- $-U_e = \frac{1}{2}k\Delta x^2$  (elastic potential energy)

-  $K = K_T + K_R$  where  $K_T = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$  (transational);  $K_R = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$  (rotational)

- $F = \dot{p}$  so if  $F<sup>ext</sup> = 0$ ; in collisions momentum is *conserved* ( $p = mv = \text{const}$ )
	- elastic: also conservation of total energy (never assume this unless stated!)
	- completely inelastic: both particles stick together post collision
	- $-\Delta p = F \cdot \Delta t = \mathbf{J}$  (impulse)
	- time avg. force:  $\bar{F}_t = \frac{1}{T} \int_{t_i}^{t_f} F dt = \frac{J}{T} = \frac{\Delta p}{T}$
	- distance avg. force:  $\bar{F}_d = \frac{1}{D} \int_{d_i}^{d_f} F dx = \frac{\Delta W}{D} = \frac{\Delta K}{D}$
- if you have two plots of  $v_x$  and  $v_y$  vs  $t \to$  to determine angle check ratio between  $v_x^0$  and  $v_y^0$ .
- minimum to complete 1 revolution is  $v = 0$  at peak (use energy conservation and recall that at peak  $E = U$ )
- to calculate deflection angle give eq. of motion in x, y we know  $\tan(\theta) \approx \frac{dy}{dx}$ .
- When changing reference frame think very carefully of where you will be and let intuition guide you
- to know how fast and how far: energy conservation; to know how much time: kinematics
- Rocket motion:  $m \frac{dv}{dt} + u \frac{dm}{dt} = F_{\text{tot}}^{\text{ext}}$  (if no ext. forces left side is *conserved*)
	- $-$  rocket exhaust velocity  $u$  is taken relative to the rocket

#### <span id="page-2-0"></span>1.2 Rotations

- Rolling without slipping:  $v = \omega R$ ;  $a = \alpha R$ ;  $K_{\text{tot}} = K_{\text{tr}} + K_{\text{rot}} = \gamma m v^2$ 
	- point of contact with surface has always zero relative velocity
	- $-$  friction is the cause but it does no work (with no friction bodies would just slide)
- moment of inertia  $I = \int r^2 dm = \int r^2 \rho dV \rightarrow$  Recall! r is distance from axis of rotation (not just origin)
	- $\frac{1}{12}Ml^2$  (rod);  $\frac{1}{2}MR^2$  (disk-cylinder);  $\frac{2}{5}MR^2$  (sphere)
	- $-I = I_{\text{CM}} + MR^2$  (parallel axis theorem)
	- if you have multiple objects attached to each other: sum individual Is as computed from the pivot
	- center of mass  $r_{\text{CM}} = \frac{1}{M} \int r dm = \frac{1}{M} \int r \rho dV$
- angular momentum  $\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p} = I\omega$  (if object is both rotating and translating then  $\mathbf{L}_{\text{tot}} = \mathbf{L}_{\text{tr}} + \mathbf{L}_{\text{rot}}$ 
	- $-\tau = \frac{d\mathbf{L}}{dt} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{F}$  (torque)  $\rightarrow$  if  $\tau_{\text{tot}}^{\text{ext}} = 0$  angular momentum is conserved
	- if tension acts radially  $L = \text{const}$ , so we can have instances where E changes (tension does work to decrease radius) and L is conserved
	- $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}} = 0$  does not imply that **L** is conserved; it only means  $\mathbf{a}_{\text{tot}} = 0!$
- if reference frame is rotating with constant angular velocity  $\Omega$  it's not inertial!
	- We must add to  $\mathbf{F}_{\text{tot}} = m\mathbf{a}$  two terms:  $\mathbf{F}_{\text{centrifugal}} = -m\Omega^2 \mathbf{r}$  (apparent force against centripetal)
	- $\mathbf{F}_{\text{coriolis}} = -m\mathbf{\Omega} \times \mathbf{v}$  (only exists if object is non-stationary in rotating frame)
- for merry-go arounds and spinning disks problems angular momentum conserved  $\rightarrow L_i = I_i \omega_i = I_f \omega_f = L_f$

#### <span id="page-2-1"></span>1.3 Lagrangians

- $\mathscr{L} = T U \rightarrow \text{most important step is to find coordinates that define movement of body the best}$
- $E L$  eqs:  $\frac{d}{dt} \left( \frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial \dot{q}} \right) = \frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial q}$  where  $p = \frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial \dot{q}}$  (momentum conjugate)
- if  $\frac{\partial \mathscr{L}}{\partial q} = 0 \to p$  is conserved.

•  $\mathscr{H} = \sum_i p_i q_i - \mathscr{L} = T + U$  (if U not explicitly dependent on  $\dot{q}_i$  and t);  $\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial \mathscr{H}}{\partial q}$ ;  $\dot{q} = \frac{\partial \mathscr{H}}{\partial p}$ 

## <span id="page-2-2"></span>1.4 Orbits

- With central forces  $\mathbf{L} = \text{const}$  so motion confined to a plane with  $l = mr^2\dot{\phi} \rightarrow \mathcal{L} = \frac{1}{2}$  $rac{1}{2}m\dot{r}^2 + \frac{l^2}{2m}$  $\frac{v}{2mr^2} - U(r)$
- $F_{\text{gr}} = -\frac{GMm}{r^2}$ ;  $U(r) = -\frac{GMm}{r}$ ;  $V_{\text{eff}} = \frac{l^2}{2mr^2} + U(r)$
- With two bodies we use the same  $\mathscr L$  with the  $m \to \mu$  where  $\mu$  is the reduced mass equal to  $\frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$
- with multiple gravitational masses  $F_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i F_i^{\text{gr}}$  and from there get effective mass!
- $E_{\text{tot}} > 0$  (hyperbola-open);  $E_{\text{tot}} = 0$  (parabola-open);  $E_{\text{tot}} < 0$  (ellipse-bounded);  $E_{\text{tot}} = V_{\text{min}}$  (circle-bounded)
- To find orbit radius set  $V_{\text{eff}}(r) = 0$  (stable equilibrium if  $V_{\text{eff}}(r) \geq 0$ )
	- stable non-circular orbits can only occur for simple harmonic potential and the inverse-square law force
	- − given  $F \propto r^{-n}$ : for  $n < 3$  a stable circular orbit *always* exists
	- bound orbits do not mean closed: they simply oscillate between two radii
	- distance of closest approach is when  $\dot{r} = 0$   $(E = V(r)) \rightarrow$  watch out for what a distance is: if Sun is at 1 focus,  $r \neq a$  which is the semi-major axis.
	- to determine shape of orbit compare its velocity to  $v_{\text{esc}} = \sqrt{\frac{2GM}{r}}$  and  $v_{\text{circ}} = \sqrt{\frac{GM}{r}}$

– for  $r \to \infty$   $E_{r\to\infty} = K$ ; at closest approach  $E_{r_{\min}} = V$  and since energy is conserved:  $E_{r\to\infty} = E_{r_{\min}}$ 

• Kepler's Laws are: (I) planets are on elliptical orbits with sun at 1 focus (assumption  $M_{\odot} \ggg m_p$ ); (II) orbits span equal areas in equal times  $\rightarrow \frac{l}{m}dt = r^2 d\phi = dA$ :  $\frac{dA}{dt} = \frac{l}{m}$ ;

(III)  $T = ka^{\frac{3}{2}}$  where a is semi-major axis of orbit and  $k = \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{2}}$  $\frac{2\pi}{G(m_p+M_\odot)}\approx \frac{2\pi}{\sqrt{G}\Lambda}$  $GM_{\odot}$ 

## <span id="page-3-0"></span>1.5 Springs

- $F_e = -kx \rightarrow \text{if springs connected } k_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i k_i \text{ (in parallel)}; 1/k_{\text{tot}} = \sum_i 1/k_i \text{ (in series)}$
- for spring problems always (I) try limit cases first (dimensional analysis/symmetry); (II) try conservation of energy and (III) as a last resort try to solve differential eq.
- S.H.0.:  $\omega = \frac{k}{m}$ ; damped oscillators have additional damping term  $F_{\text{damp}} = -b\dot{x}$  s.t.:  $\boxed{m\ddot{x} + b\dot{x} + kx = 0}$ .
	- underdamped: exponentially *decaying* oscillations  $\rightarrow \omega_1^2 = \omega_0^2 \beta^2$  with  $\omega_0^2 = k/m$ ;  $\beta = b/2m$ ;
	- overdamped: no oscillation, just exponential decay
- driven Oscillator: guess complex solution  $Ae^{i\omega t}$  where  $\omega$  is driven frequency  $\to A \propto 1/\sqrt{(\omega_0^2 \omega^2)^2 + 4\beta^2 \omega^2}$

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A^{\text{max}}
$$
 at  $\omega_R = \sqrt{\omega_0^2 - 2\beta^2}$  (resonance); with no damping  $A \propto 1/|\omega_0^2 - \omega^2|$ 

- For more than a spring, consider matrix of eqs. of motions from lagrangian analysis:  $\sum_{k}(A_{jk}q_k + m_{jk}\ddot{q}_k) = 0$ 
	- guess  $q_k = a_k e^{i\omega t}$  → solve det $(A_{jk} m_{jk}\omega^2) = 0$  (diagonalize the matrix) which gives the *n* frequencies  $\omega_i$ at which system oscillates
	- # of normal  $\omega_i = \#$  of independent variables needed to describe system
	- always ask yourself what are the simplest ways for a system to oscillate  $\rightarrow$  symmetric motion always lower frequency than antisymmetric motion
	- lowest collective motion has  $\omega^2 = k_{\text{eff}}/m_{\text{eff}}$ ; highest motion is all out of phase with  $\omega = \sum_i \omega_i$
- anything can be analyzed as an oscillation if we perturb system only slightly from its eq. of motion
- Recall for  $\theta \ll 1 \rightarrow [\sin \theta, \cos \theta, \tan \theta] \approx [\theta, 1 \theta^2/2, \theta].$

## <span id="page-3-1"></span>1.6 Fluid Mechanics

- $P = \frac{dF}{dA}$  (pressure)  $\rightarrow F = \int P dA$  where dA is the cross-sectional area
- given fluid at rest, pressure as function of height is  $p p_0 \rho_p = \rho_p h$  (height of fluid on top of reference point P)
- equipressure means at given height pressure is the same!
- Bernoulli's principle  $\frac{v^2}{2} + gz + \frac{p}{\rho} = \text{const}!$  (kind of conservation of energy eq.)
- fluid going through sectional area  $A_i$  with velocity  $v_i$  is conserved:  $\rho \Delta t A_i v_i = \text{const} \Rightarrow A_i v_i$  is conserved if  $\rho$  is uniform and equal time
- Boyant force:  $F_b = \rho V g$  ( $\uparrow$  upward direction) where  $\rho$  is the density of space where object is confined and V is the volume of the object:
	- if an object galleggia  $F_g = F_b$
	- to lift a body from water the force required is  $F_{\text{lift}} = F_g F_b$

# <span id="page-4-0"></span>2 Electricity & Magnetism

## <span id="page-4-1"></span>2.1 Electrostatics

- $\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho/\epsilon_0$ ;  $\nabla \times \vec{E} = 0 \rightarrow \vec{E} = -\nabla V$  with  $V = -\int_a^b \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l}$  (defined relative to some location)
	- V is usually set to zero at infinity; both  $\vec{E}$  and V are additive

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-\nabla^2 V = -\rho/\epsilon_0
$$
:  $V(r) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{\rho(r)}{|r-r'|} d^3r' \to \text{from here compute } \vec{E}$ 

- $-\vec{F} = q\vec{E}$ : per unit volume  $(\rho \vec{E})$ ; area  $(\sigma \vec{E})$
- to compute  $\rho$  use  $\nabla \cdot \vec{E} = \rho/\epsilon_0$  (specifically if  $\vec{E}$  is given in vector form)
- Gauss's law:  $\Big| q$ S  $\vec{E}(r) \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{Q_{\mathrm{enc}}}{r}$  $\frac{I_{\text{enc}}}{\epsilon_0}$   $\Rightarrow$  use for *spherical* ( $\sim \frac{1}{r^2}$ ); *cylindrical* ( $\sim \frac{1}{r}$ ); *planar* ( $\sim$  const) symmetries
- Recall: always start by *symmetry* considerations to limit computation:
	- point charges: just sum up potential from single configurations and take *derivative* to find  $\vec{E} \rightarrow \text{if point}$ charges vertices of polygon, then field and force at the center is zero
	- infinite plane with surface charge  $\sigma: \vec{E} = \frac{\sigma}{2\epsilon_0}\hat{n}$ ; infinite line/cylinder with charge per length  $\lambda: \vec{E} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi\epsilon_0 r}\hat{r}$

 $\epsilon_0$ 

- *V* is always *continuous*, derivatives of *V* too except at surface charges  $\rightarrow BC_s$ :  $\boxed{E_{\text{out}}^{\parallel} E_{\text{in}}^{\parallel} = 0; E_{\text{out}}^{\perp} E_{\text{in}}^{\perp} = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$
- $\bullet$  image method (to determine V): place image charge at point given by *reflection* about plane
	- with plane: on opposite side at same distance
	- charges add up to the right amount in each region where we compute potential  $\rightarrow$  Recall to compute E field directly from configuration (do not take derivative of potential)
	- Recall: force on a charge is the same as that given by image charges  $\rightarrow$  work is only done on real charges (no energy cost to move image charges)
- Conductors: *inside*  $\vec{E} = 0; \rho = 0; V = \text{const} \rightarrow \text{induce opposite charge}$  and leave all charges at surface  $\sigma = -\epsilon_0 \frac{\partial V}{\partial n}$

– resistivity:  $\rho = \rho_0(1 + \alpha \Delta T) \propto \Delta T$ ; conductivity:  $\sigma \propto 1/\Delta T$  (for  $T \uparrow \rightarrow \infty$ )

- Semiconductors: decreasing electrical resistivity with increasing temperature:  $\rho \downarrow$  continuously
	- $-$  current conduction via mobile electrons which are forbidden from being excited until they overcome band-gap
	- for  $T \uparrow$  electrons overcome band-gap and are free from constraints of exclusion principle
	- doped materials: excess of holes: p−type; of electrons: n−type
	- Diode is  $p n$  junction where I flows only if  $V_{\text{app}} > V_{\text{bias}}$  and is *independent* of  $V_{\text{app}}$ !  $\rightarrow$  Recall: a diode *blocks* the current in one direction and allows it in the other!
- $W = \frac{1}{2} \sum_i q_i V(r_i) = \frac{1}{2} \int \rho(r) V(r) d^3r$ : work required to put together n charges (negative!) → sometimes convenient to think of work to move charges as  $W = q\Delta V = q(V_f - V_i)$
- Energy stored in electric field is  $U_E = \frac{\epsilon}{2} \int |E|^2 d^3r$   $\to$  to find the work done to obtain a configuration  $W = U_E^1 U_E^2$ (always take difference and then perform integral!)
- Recall: superposition principle applies to  $\vec{F}$ ,  $\vec{E}$ ,  $V$ ,  $W$
- Capacitors:  $Q = CV$  where capacitance C depends on *geometry* of problem (for parallel plate capacitor  $C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$ )
	- $U_C = \frac{1}{2} \frac{Q^2}{C} = \frac{1}{2}CV^2$  (energy stored);
	- if two conductors touch, they become *equipotential* and if  $C_1 = C_2 = C$  then charge equally distributes
	- if capacitors are connected s.t. opposite plates face each other:  $Q_{\rm tot} = Q_1 Q_2 \neq Q_1 + Q_2$
- total flux given electric field is always by Gauss's Law  $Q_{\text{tot}}/\epsilon_0$  then think how many field lines hit the plane

#### <span id="page-5-0"></span>2.2 Magnetostatics

- $\nabla \cdot \vec{B} = 0$  (no magnetic monopoles);  $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} \rightarrow \vec{B} = \nabla \times \vec{A}$ 
	- $\vec{B}$  always *circles* around currents;  $\vec{B}\rightarrow 0$  far away from current sources
	- $-\vec{F} = q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$ ; on current  $I: d\vec{F} = Id\vec{l} \times \vec{B}$  s.t.  $\vec{F}_{1,2} = LI_2 \times \vec{B}_1$  (force on 2 by 1)
	- for cross products: cylindrical  $\left|\hat{z}\times\hat{r}=\hat{\phi}\right|$ ; spherical:  $\left|\hat{\phi}\times\hat{r}=\hat{\theta}\right|\Rightarrow$  other relations by cyclic permutations
	- $d\vec{K} = I d\vec{w}$  (surface current);  $d\vec{J} = I dA$  (volume current)
	- $-\vec{J} = \sigma \vec{E} = nqv$  and  $\sigma$  conductivity; v drift velocity; n charge density (concentration)
	- $\vec{B}~$  do no work since  $\vec{F} \perp \vec{v}$  (can only change direction of motion, not magnitude of velocity)  $\rightarrow$  energy still stored in  $\vec{B}$  field:  $U_B = \frac{1}{2\mu_0} \int |B|^2 d^3r$
- Ampere's law:  $\left| q\right|$  $\mathcal{C}_{0}^{(n)}$  $\vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I_{encl} \rightarrow \text{use if there are symmetries: plane (planar) } \sim \text{const}; B \parallel \text{to the plane}$ 
	- circumferential: straight wire  $\frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r}$  ∼  $\frac{1}{r}$ ; toroid  $\frac{\mu_0 NI}{2\pi r}$  ∼  $\frac{1}{r}$  (in) and 0 (out);
	- solenoid ∼ const (in) and 0 (out) →  $\vec{B} = \mu_0 nI\hat{z}$  where  $N = #$  turns and I is calculated per unit length
- when symmetries cannot help:  $\vec{B}(r) = \frac{\mu_0 I}{4\pi} \int \frac{d\vec{l} \times \hat{r'}}{r^2}$ ; r where field is evaluated; r' vector from line element to r
- Recall: usually  $I \parallel d\vec{l}$  and  $I \parallel \vec{A} \rightarrow BC_s$ :  $B_{\text{out}}^{\parallel} B_{\text{in}}^{\parallel} = \mu_0 \vec{K} \times \hat{n}$ ;  $B_{\text{out}}^{\perp} B_{\text{in}}^{\perp} = 0$
- cyclotron motion:  $qvB = \frac{mv^2}{R} \to \omega = \frac{qB}{m}$  (freq.);  $R = \frac{mv}{qB}$  (radius)
- diamagnetic materials have lower  $\vec{B}$  which does not change direction (opposite of ferromagnetic)
- Superconductors: outside surface  $\vec{B}^{\perp} = 0$  ( $\vec{B}$  only tangential!)
	- when cooled below certain temperature, materials have 0 resistance  $\rightarrow$  explained by presence of *cooper* pairs: 2 electrons weekly bound with energy below Fermi energy s.t. favorable to pair up

#### <span id="page-5-1"></span>2.3 Electrodynamics

- $\nabla \times \vec{E} = -\frac{\partial B}{\partial t} \Rightarrow \oint_C \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = -\frac{\partial \Phi_B}{\partial t} = \mathscr{E}$  (electromotive force): minus sign because by energy conservation induced currents must oppose magnetic flux (currents always reduced by induced  $\mathscr{E}$ !)
- $\nabla \times \vec{B} = \mu_0 \vec{J} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} \Rightarrow \oint_S \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{a} = \mu_0 I_{\text{enc}} + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{\partial \Phi_E}{\partial t}$  (e.g. charging capacitor involves *displacement* current)
- Recall when computing fluxes always use *cross-sectional* area  $\Rightarrow$  multiply by N turns when necessary
- mutual inductance  $M: \Phi_1 = M_{1,2}I_2$ ;  $\Phi_2 = M_{1,2}I_1$ ;  $\Rightarrow \Phi_2/I_1 = \Phi_1/I_2$  (depends purely on *geometry*)
- self inductance L:  $\Phi = LI$ ;  $\mathscr{E} = -L\frac{dI}{dt}$  (depends on geometry)  $\Rightarrow$  to evaluate: compute flux; plug in Lenz's law as capacitors, inductors store energy  $U_L = \frac{1}{2}LI^2 \Rightarrow$  for solenoid  $\left| L/l = \mu_0 N^2 A \right|$
- Recall: if a wire is being *wound* around: magnetic flux is changing!
- electric dipoles:  $\vec{p} = \sum_i q_i \vec{d}_i = \int \vec{r} \rho(r) d^3 \vec{r} \Rightarrow V(r) = \frac{\vec{p} \cdot \hat{r}}{4 \pi \epsilon_0 r^2} \sim \frac{1}{r^2}$  hence  $\vec{E} \sim \frac{1}{r^3}$ tend to align with  $\vec{E}$  field:  $\vec{N} = \vec{p} \times \vec{E}$  (torque);  $U = -\vec{p} \cdot \vec{E}$  (where  $F = -\nabla U$ )
- magnetic dipoles  $\vec{m} = I \vec{A}$  (vector pointing normal to surface)  $\Rightarrow \vec{B} = \frac{m_0}{4\pi r^3} (2 \cos \theta \hat{r} + \sin \theta \hat{\theta}) \sim \frac{1}{r^3}$ <br>  $\vec{N} = \vec{m} \times \vec{B}$  (torque);  $U = -\vec{m} \cdot \vec{B}$  (where  $F = -\nabla U$ )  $\Rightarrow$  field far from curre
- *Multipole* expansion: the  $n^{\text{th}}$  term  $\propto 1/r^{n+1}$  for  $n = \{0, 1, 2, ...\}$

– in  $\vec{E}$  field with net charge: monopole term dominates; in  $\vec{B}$  field/ in  $\vec{E}$  with  $Q_{\text{tot}} = 0$  dipole term dominates

- in matter polarization **P** (electric dipole moment per unit vol.) causes bound charges:  $\sigma_b = \mathbf{P} \cdot \hat{n}$ ;  $\rho_b = -\nabla \cdot \mathbf{P}$  $\rightarrow$  to compute field just apply usual Gauss's law and other rules using these new charges
	- $-P = \epsilon_0 \chi_e \vec{E}; \ \vec{D} = \epsilon \vec{E} \text{ with } \epsilon = \epsilon_0 (1 + \chi_e) = \epsilon_0 \kappa \Rightarrow \text{new BC}_s: \left| \epsilon_1 E_1^{\perp} \epsilon_2 E_2^{\perp} = \sigma_f \right|$

- For simplest configurations  $\vec{E}$  transform by  $\epsilon_0 \to \epsilon$ : parallel plate capacitor  $C = \frac{\epsilon A}{d} = \kappa \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$ 

- if *dielectric* change ⊥  $\vec{E}$ :  $\vec{D}$  uniquely determined  $\vec{E}$  changes;  $\parallel \vec{E}$ :  $\vec{E}$  uniquely determined  $\vec{D}$  changes
- in matter magnetization M (magnetic dipole moment per unit vol.) causes bound current:  $\vec{K}_b = M \times \hat{n}$ ;  $\vec{J}_b = \nabla \times \mathbf{M} \rightarrow$  to compute field just apply usual Ampere's law and other rules using these new currents  $\mathbf{M} = \frac{\chi_m}{\mu} \vec{B};\, \vec{H} = \frac{\vec{B}}{\mu}$
- Recall: if  $\vec{E} \parallel \vec{B}~$  since  $\vec{v} \parallel \vec{E}~$  then  $\vec{v} \parallel \vec{B}~$  and hence  $\vec{F}_{\text{mag}} = 0$
- Recall: if charge *oscillates* back and forth, the field should be still maximized *near* particle

#### <span id="page-6-0"></span>2.4 E-M waves & Radiation

- in vacuum plane waves with speed  $c = 1/\sqrt{\epsilon_0\mu_0}$ :  $\tilde{E}(\vec{r}) = \tilde{E}_0 e^{i(\vec{k}\cdot\vec{r}-wt)}\hat{n}$ ;  $\tilde{B}(\vec{r}) = (\hat{k}\times\tilde{E})/c$
- the pointing vector:  $\vec{S} = \frac{1}{\mu_0} (\vec{E} \times \vec{B}) \rightarrow$  energy per unit area, per unit time/Power per unit area

- 
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P = \oint_S \vec{S} \cdot \vec{a}
$$
 (Power);  $I = \langle S \rangle = \frac{1}{2} c \epsilon_0 E_0^2$  (intensity)

- BC<sub>s</sub> at x-z plane: (i)  $\epsilon_1(\tilde{E}_{0,I} + \tilde{E}_{0,R})_z = \epsilon_2(\tilde{E}_{0,T})_z$ ; (ii)  $(\tilde{B}_{0,I} + \tilde{B}_{0,R})_z = (\tilde{B}_{0,T})_z$ ; (iii)  $(\tilde{E}_{0,I} + \tilde{E}_{0,R})_{xy} = (\tilde{E}_{0,T})_{xy}$ ; (iv)  $\frac{1}{\mu_1} (\tilde{B}_{0,I} + \tilde{B}_{0,R})_{xy} = \frac{1}{\mu_2} (\tilde{B}_{0,T})_{xy}$
- $B_R$  reflected always *opposite* sign w.r.t.  $B_T \to$  change also sign of k if wave goes opposite way
- perfect conductor:  $E_T = 0 \rightarrow E_{0,I} = -E_{0,R}$  (all fields to the left cancel; B fields same direction, sum up)
- accelerating electric charge (for  $v \ll c$ ) radiates s.t.  $P = \frac{\mu_0 q^2 a^2}{c}$  $\frac{dq}{d\sigma} \propto q^2 a^2$ ; a could depend on m (since  $a = \frac{F}{m}$ ):  $P \propto \frac{1}{m^2}$
- oscillating dipole with moment  $p = p_0 \cos(\omega t)$  radiates s.t.  $\langle S \rangle = \left(\frac{\mu_0 p_0^2 \omega^4}{12\pi c}\right) \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{r^2} \propto \frac{p_0^2 \omega^2}{r^2}$  $\frac{d^2\omega^2}{r^2}\sin^2\theta \to \text{no radiation}$ along dipole axis (recall: monopoles do not radiate!)

$$
\langle P \rangle_E = \frac{\mu_0 p_o^2 \omega^4}{12\pi c} \propto p_0^2 \omega^4; \langle P \rangle_B = \frac{\mu_0 m_o^2 \omega^4}{12\pi c^3} \propto \frac{m_0^2 \omega^4}{c^3} \ll \langle P \rangle_E
$$
 (electric radiation dominates)  
– a sphere of total charge Q that expands and contracts has total radiated power equal to zero

## <span id="page-6-1"></span>2.5 Circuits

- $V_R = IR$ ;  $V_C = \frac{Q}{C}$ ;  $V_L = -L\frac{dI}{dt} \rightarrow$  energy stored in capacitors  $(U_C = \frac{1}{2}CV^2)$  and inductors  $(U_L = \frac{1}{2}LI^2)$ ; dissipated in resistors  $(P_{\text{dis}} = IV = I^2 R)$  where  $\boxed{R = \rho l/A} \Rightarrow$  to relate it to force recall  $\vec{F} \cdot \vec{v} = P$
- if you have n resistors with equal  $R \Rightarrow$  in series: voltage multiplicator by n; in parallel: voltage divider by n
- loop rule:  $\sum_i V_i = 0$ ; junction rule:  $I_{\text{in}} = I_{\text{out}} \Rightarrow$  Theven in equivalent: any combination of voltage source/ currents/ resistors is equivalent to 1 voltage source + 1 resistor
- For AC circuits use *Impedance*:  $Z_R = R$ ;  $Z_C = \frac{1}{i\omega C}$ ;  $Z_L = i\omega L$  with  $Z_{\text{tot}} = |\sum_i Z_i|$ 
	- RC and RL circ.:  $\tau_{RC} = RC$  (discharging const.);  $\tau_{RL} = \frac{L}{R}$  (response time)  $\Rightarrow$  time to drop V by 1/e

- RLC circ.: 
$$
\omega_{\text{res}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}
$$
 where  $\langle P \rangle = I_{\text{rms}}^2 R$  with  $I_{\text{rms}} = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{2}I$  (like damped. harmonic oscillator)

- LC circ.:  $\omega = \frac{1}{\sqrt{LC}}$  (like simple harmonic oscillator)
- *resonance*: frequency where *imaginary* part of impedance Z goes to zero!
- for  $\omega \to \infty$  capacitors act like *short* circuit; inductors like *open* circuit; for  $\omega \to 0$  viceversa
- LP-filter: RC circ. with  $C$  on output (capacitor is  $low/$  connected to the ground)  $\Big|$  $\left| \frac{V_0}{V_i} \right| = 1/\sqrt{1 + (RC\omega)^2}$
- HP-filter: RC circ. with R on output (resistor is  $low/$  connected to the ground)  $\left|\frac{V_0}{V_i}\right| = RC\omega/\sqrt{1 + (RC\omega)^2};$ RL circ. with L on output (inductor is  $low/$  connected to the ground)  $\left. \frac{V_0}{V_i} \right| = R/[\omega L \sqrt{1 + (R/\omega L)^2}];$ generally for filters: compute impedance and check limit cases  $\omega \to \{0; +\infty\}$
- sudden switch can be thought as *ultra-high* frequency event ( $\omega = \infty$  at  $t = 0$ ) which gradually relax to small frequencies s.t.  $\omega = 0$  at  $t = \infty$   $\Rightarrow$  when switch is closed  $V_L$  is max since it's  $\propto \frac{dI}{dt}$
- Recall: never forget *internal* resistance, if it's mentioned it's important!
- to maximize power transmitted one needs *impedance* of source to be *equal* to that of output
- OP-AMP: gain  $\uparrow$ ; input impedance  $\uparrow$ ; output impedance  $\downarrow \Rightarrow$  use feedback circuit to control gain
- transformers consist of two coils with  $V_s/N_s = V_p/N_p$ , hence by energy cons.  $I_pV_p = I_sV_s \Rightarrow I_p = I_sN_s/N_p$
- The hall effect: used to determine *sign* of charge carriers according to  $R_H = -\frac{1}{nec}$
- Logic gates: elements take on *discrete* values  $\Rightarrow$  AND: *true* only if both A and B are true
	- OR: always true except if both A and B are false; NOT: returns opposite of A  $(\bar{A})$
	- NAND; NOR: just usual AND; OR for *inverted* inputs  $\Rightarrow \overline{A \cdot B} = \overline{A} + \overline{B}$ ;  $\overline{A + B} = \overline{A} \cdot \overline{B}$
	- a series of NAND or any other logical gate can be combined to create any sequence of logical gates



# <span id="page-8-0"></span>3 Waves

#### <span id="page-8-1"></span>3.1 Foundations

- $\frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial t^2} = v^2 \frac{\partial^2 f}{\partial x^2} \to$  for any f the related function  $f(x \pm vt)$  solves equation
	- linear solutions: if f, g solves equation also  $Af + Bg$  does!
	- wave travelling to the right: sign  $(x vt)$ ; left: + sign  $(x + vt)$
	- standing wave:  $f(x, t) = A(x)B(t) \rightarrow$  shape oscillates in time but doesn't go anywhere; can be rewritten as sum of left and right moving wave
	- Intensity:  $I \sim A^2$  (energy carried);  $\lambda = 2\pi/k$ ; → de-coupled waves add their intensities separately
	- $-T = 2\pi/\omega$ ;  $\omega = 2\pi f \Rightarrow k$  is wave-vector whose direction tells us where the wave propagates
- dispersion relation is  $\omega(k)$ : phase velocity  $v_p = \frac{w}{k}$  (velocity of individual crest)
	- group velocity  $v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk}$  (speed of wave packet/ at which information travel; must be less than c)  $v_p$  can be greater than  $v_g$  and even than  $c!$
	- classically  $\omega(k) = vk$ ; quantum particles  $\omega(k) = \frac{\hbar k^2}{2m}$ 2m
- wave examples:  $string: v = \sqrt{\frac{T}{\mu}}$  with T tension and  $\mu$  mass density; sound  $c_s = \frac{\kappa}{\rho}$  with  $\kappa$  measure of stiffness and  $\rho$  as density: ratio of change in pressure to fractional volume compressed
- in medium with index of refraction n:  $v_1 = v_0/n$ ;  $\lambda_1 = \lambda_0/n$ ;  $f_1 = f_0$  (freq. is const) minimum speed of particle in medium is just  $v = v_i/n$
- Polarization gives direction of wave  $\Rightarrow$  longitudinally pol. wave: same direction as displacement of wave medium
	- polarized in direction  $\hat{n}_0$ :  $I = I \cos^2 \theta$  with  $\hat{n} \cdot \hat{n}_0 = \cos \theta$
	- two polarizers at  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  no light transmitted; two at  $\frac{\pi}{2}$  and one in the middle at  $\frac{\pi}{4}$ : output is *not* zero!
	- if unpolarized (light in every direction) light shines on polarizer:  $I = \langle I \rangle = I_0/2$
	- Brewster angle  $\theta_B = \arctan\left(\frac{n_1}{n_2}\right)$ : light reflected off polarized  $\perp$  to plane formed by incident ray and normal to surface  $\Rightarrow$  if light polarized  $\parallel$  to incident plane: no reflection at all
- Doppler effect:  $f = \left(\frac{v + v_r}{v}\right)$  $v - v_s$  $f_0$  where  $v_r$  of receiver and  $v_s$  of source
	- if source moving *away*:  $v_s$  negative,  $f \downarrow$ ; *towards*:  $v_s$  positive,  $f \uparrow$
	- $-$  formula is only valid if receiver and source moving *directly* towards or away from each other
	- $f$  is *constant*: the falling freq. sound only given by varying angle
	- $-$  Be very careful with velocity of receiver and source: do not confuse with velocity of medium v
- Pipes: *open* end is a node (no change in pressure!); *closed* end is anti-node
	- lowest mode approach: open pipe  $\to \frac{\lambda}{2}$  so  $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 2L$ ; closed pipe  $\to \frac{\lambda}{4}$  so  $\lambda_{\text{max}} = 4L$  $\rightarrow$  fundamental harmonics are respectively  $f_m = \{\frac{mv}{2L}, \frac{mv}{4L}\}$
	- $-f_{\text{beat}} = f_1 f_2 \rightarrow \text{if I choose } f_0$  to be fundamental harmonics then the  $n^{\text{th}}$  harmonic has frequency  $f_n = nf_0$
- wavelengths orders of magnitude: *radio* (mm to km); *visible* (400nm to 700nm);  $x\text{-}rays$  (0.01nm to 10nm)

#### <span id="page-8-2"></span>3.2 Interference patterns

- general interference pattern:  $\Delta \delta = 2m\pi$  (constructive);  $\Delta \delta = (2m+1)\pi$  (destructive) where  $\Delta \delta = k\Delta x$
- Double slit (separation d):  $|d \sin \theta = m\lambda|$  (constructive);  $|d \sin \theta = (m + 1/2)\lambda|$  (destructive) # of fringes given angular aperture  $\alpha = 2\theta \Rightarrow \# = 2m!$
- Single slit (large a):  $|a \sin \theta = m\lambda|$  (minima)  $\Rightarrow$  first minima gives width of central maximum:  $2L \tan \theta \approx 2L\theta$ to find *sharpest* image minimize first diffraction pattern according to eq. sin  $\theta \approx \theta = \frac{\lambda}{d}$
- Optical path length  $\Rightarrow$  wave travels different distances in different media:  $\Delta x = nd$  where  $\Delta \delta = k\Delta x$ 
	- for  $n \to \infty$  slows down so much that goes over infinitely many cycles
	- $-$  in thin film of thickness  $d$  there are two sources of phase-shift:
		- (1) going from medium  $n_1$  to  $n_2$ :  $\Delta \delta = \{0 \text{ if } n_2 < n_1 \text{ ,} \pi \text{ if } n_2 > n_1\}$  (corresponds to  $\Delta \lambda = \{0, \frac{\lambda}{2}\}\$ ) (2)  $\Delta x = 2dn_2$  (path length)  $\Rightarrow$  in tot. if  $n_2 > n_1$  constructive inter.:  $2dn_2 = (m + 1/2)\lambda$
- Bragg diffr.:  $d \sin \theta = \frac{n\lambda}{2}$  (constructive)  $\rightarrow$  from crystal lattice modelled as set of  $\parallel$  planes at distance d apart
- given number of slits per unit length *constructive* interference appear at  $\frac{L}{N} \sin \theta = m\lambda$
- Rayleigh criterion for *circular* apertures: first diffraction minimum at  $D \sin \theta = 1.22\lambda$ 
	- $-$  minimum angle for two images to be resolved:  $\theta \approx \frac{1.22\lambda}{D}$   $\rightarrow$  if they give you the frequency, recall that to get the wavelength it's simply  $\lambda f = c$
	- $-$  Rayleigh scattering (for λ ≫ a):  $I \propto I_0 \lambda^{-4} a^6$  ⇒ think of this formula when particle scattering is mentioned
- Interferometer: a fringe shift occurs every  $\frac{d}{\lambda}$  hence # of fringes is  $m = \frac{2d}{\lambda}$
- interference is produced if sources are *coherent*: 500Hz already much greater than max-freq. of human eye
- Resolving power of spectrometer is  $\Delta\lambda/\lambda$

#### <span id="page-9-0"></span>3.3 Optics

- Geometric optics (for  $\lambda \ll a$ ):  $n_1 \sin \theta_I = n_2 \sin \theta_T$ ;  $\theta_I = \theta_R$ total *internal* reflection is when  $\sin \theta_T > 1$  or  $\frac{n_1}{n_2} \sin \theta_I > 1$
- be always careful: angles w.r.t. the *horizon* are different than angles w.r.t. *normal*
- plane mirrors:  $p = -i$  with p object; i image  $\rightarrow$  if  $i < 0$  image to the left of mirror
- *spherical* mirrors:  $\left| \frac{1}{n} \right|$  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{i}$  $\frac{1}{i} = \frac{1}{f}$  $\frac{1}{f}$  with f as the distance to focus where all *parallel* rays converge
	- $-m = -\frac{i}{p}$  (magnification)  $\rightarrow$  sing determines orientation: + upright; inverted
	- $-$  for *idealized* spheres  $f = \frac{R}{2}$  (+ if center of curvature on *same* side of incoming light;  $-$  viceversa)
	- to draw image: 1 light ray  $\parallel$  and 1 going through *focus*
- Lenses are converging: 2 convex surfaces, f+; diverging: 2 concave surfaces, f−
	- $\left| \frac{1}{\cdot} \right|$  $\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{i}$  $\frac{1}{i} = \frac{1}{f}$  $\frac{f}{f}$   $\rightarrow$  Recall: distances are + when on the other side of lens and  $-$  if they return back
	- − in terms of radii of of curvature of two surfaces of lens:  $f = (n-1)\left(\frac{1}{R_1} \frac{1}{R_2}\right)$
	- $-$  when you have multiple lenses treat them  $\emph{independently}$
	- magnification of telescope made of *objective* and *eye-piece* is  $M = \frac{f_o}{f_e}$
	- to draw image for converging lens: rays through both focuses; diverging lens: 1 ray through focus and 1 through center  $\Rightarrow$  in general when rays *converge* image is *real*; when they *diverge* is *virtual!*

# <span id="page-10-0"></span>4 Thermo & Stat-Mech

#### <span id="page-10-1"></span>4.1 Microscopic Ensembles

• Canonical distribution  $\rightarrow$  an ensemble in contact with heat reservoir  $(T, V, \text{and } \# \text{ particles are fixed})$ 

$$
- P_r = \frac{e^{-\beta E_r}}{Z} \text{ where } Z = \sum_r e^{-\beta E_r} \text{ (partition function)}; \ \beta = \frac{1}{k_B T}
$$

$$
- \bar{y} = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_r y_r e^{-\beta E_r} \rightarrow \bar{E} = -\frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial \beta}; \ \Delta E^2 = -\frac{\partial \bar{E}}{\partial \beta} = -\frac{\partial^2 \ln Z}{\partial \beta^2}
$$

- $dW = \bar{X}dx$  where  $\bar{X} = -\frac{\partial \bar{E}}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\partial Z}{\partial x} \rightarrow$  implies  $\bar{p} = P = \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\partial \ln Z}{\partial V}$
- If there are N subsystems  $Z_{\text{tot}} = \prod_i Z_i \rightarrow$  if systems of *indistinguishable* particles  $Z_{\text{tot}} = \frac{1}{N!} \prod_i Z_i$
- I.M.G.:  $Z_i = \frac{V_0}{\hbar^3} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{\beta p^2}{2m}} d^3p = V_0 \left(\frac{2\pi m}{\hbar \beta}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} \propto \beta^{-\frac{3}{2}}$
- relativistic particles:  $Z_i = \frac{V_0}{\hbar^3} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\beta p c} 4\pi p^2 dp = \frac{8\pi V_0}{(\hbar \beta c)^3} \propto \beta^{-3}$
- microcanonical ensemple: *fixed* energy and temperature
- if we allow particles to be exchanged:  $\mathscr{Z} = \sum_{APS} e^{-\beta E_r \alpha N_r}$  (gran partition function);  $\alpha = -\mu\beta$  $−$  μ is the chemical potential (if  $\mu_A = \mu_B$  no particle flow)  $\rightarrow$ ;  $\bar{N} = -\frac{\partial \ln \mathscr{Z}}{\partial \alpha} = \frac{1}{\beta} \frac{\partial \ln \mathscr{Z}}{\partial \mu}$
- Entropy is a measure of uncertainty on state of system:  $S = k_B \ln \Omega$  where  $\Omega = \#$  of microstates

$$
- S = -k_B \sum_i p_i \ln p_i = \frac{\partial}{\partial T} (k_B T \ln Z)
$$

- at fixed temperature:  $S = k_B(\ln Z + \beta \bar{E})$ ; for I.M.G.:  $S = N k_B \ln \left(\frac{V T^{\frac{3}{2}}}{N}\right) + \text{const}$
- if types of particles are the same sum up individual entropies otherwise use the usual formula  $S = k_B \ln \Omega$
- Recall:  $\ln(n!) \approx n(\ln(n) 1);$   $\binom{N}{M} = \frac{N!}{M!(N-M)!}$  (ways of separating a group of M people from a pool of N)

#### <span id="page-10-2"></span>4.2 Thermodynamics

- Equipartition theorem: each d.o.f. (quadratic term) in Hamiltonian contributes  $\frac{1}{2}k_BT$  to internal energy
	- $#$  of transitional d.o.f.:  $#$  of dimensions;
	- # of rotational d.o.f.: # of dimensions -1 (linear mol.); # of dimensions (non-linear mol.)
	- # of vibrational d.o.f.:  $3N 6$  for  $N > 2$  (linear mol.)  $\rightarrow$  the only to depend on the # of particles
	- vibrational energies of diatomic molecule are approximately those of harmonic oscillator ( $k_BT \approx \hbar\omega = hf$ )  $\rightarrow$  these modes only become *frozen* at temperatures 1 order of magnitude larger than room-temp ( $\sim 10^3$ K)
	- $-$  generally the higher  $T$  the more modes are unfrozen for low  $T$ : only transitional (atoms as *rigid dumbells*) *rotational* freeze at  $T \sim 1$ K (they are *free* at room temp.) for  $T \gg 1$  all modes unlock (atoms become springy)
- Laws of thermodynamics: at equilibrium  $T_A = T_B$  (most probable system) with  $T = 1/\frac{\delta S}{\delta E} \to S$  is maximized
	- $\Delta U = Q W \rightarrow dE = dQ dW$  where  $dQ = T dS$ ;  $W = \overline{X}_{\alpha} dx_{\alpha} = P dV$
	- $\Delta S \ge \int \frac{dQ}{T}$  where  $\frac{dQ}{T} = S_{\text{rev}}$  (reversible process)  $\rightarrow \Delta S_{\text{univ}} \ge 0$
	- for reversible processes  $\Delta S_{\text{univ}} = 0 \rightarrow$  note on single interactions we can have  $\Delta S < 0$ .
	- Quasi-static (QS) processes correspond to infinitely slowly as a succession of thermodynamics equilibriums
	- $-S(T \to 0) = 0$  (not always if ground state is degenerate)
	- A cooler body can never just heat up a hotter body
- Heat capacities:  $c_y = T \left(\frac{dS}{dT}\right)_y = \left(\frac{dQ}{dT}\right)_y$  hence  $\rightarrow c_v = \left(\frac{dQ}{dT}\right)_V = \left(\frac{dE}{dT}\right)_V$ ;  $c_p = \left(\frac{dQ}{dT}\right)_P$ 
	- $-$  for conductors (*metals*)  $c_v \propto T^3$  → if material is superconductor  $c_v$  jumps up and then goes back down
	- for relativistic gases  $c_v = 3k_BT$
- Recall: spin always plays a role in determining the specific heat of an object
- Enthalpy:  $H = E + PV$  ( $dH = TdS + VdP$ ); Free energy:  $F = E TS$  ( $dF = -SdT PdV$ ); Gibbs free energy:  $G = F + PV$   $(dG = -SdT + VdP)$ 
	- $-$  Maxwell relations can be found by equating the *second* derivative of each potential in terms of their parameters (think of the parameters as partial derivatives of one of the functions)
	- $\tilde{\theta}$  when # of particles is not fixed, chemical potential becomes useful  $\mu = \left(\frac{\partial F}{\partial N}\right)_{T;V} = \left(\frac{\partial E}{\partial N}\right)_{S;V}$

$$
-T = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial S}\right)_V; P = \left(\frac{\partial U}{\partial V}\right)_S \rightarrow \left(\frac{\partial P}{\partial S}\right)_V = -\left(\frac{\partial T}{\partial V}\right)_S
$$

• Ideal Gases:  $\Omega(E, V) = BV^N E^{\frac{3N}{2}}$ ;  $\bar{p}V = PV = nRT = Nk_BT$ 

- $-E = \frac{3}{2} N k_B T$ ;  $c_p = c_v + N k_B$ ;  $c_v = \frac{\#d.o.f.}{2} N k_B$ ;  $\gamma = \frac{c_v}{c_p} \rightarrow \gamma = \frac{5}{3}$  (mono-atomic);  $\gamma = \frac{7}{5}$  (di-atomic);
- Isothermal (*T* = const): Δ*E* = 0; Δ*Q* = Δ*W* = *nRT* ln  $\frac{V_f}{V_i}$ ; Δ*S* = *nR* ln  $\frac{V_f}{V_i}$  → during isothermal exp. *F* ↓
- Isocoric (*V* = const): $\Delta E = \Delta Q = c_v \Delta T$ ;  $\Delta W = 0$ ;  $\Delta S = c_v \ln \frac{T_f}{T_i}$
- Isobaric (P = const): $\Delta E = c_v \Delta T$ ;  $\Delta Q = c_p \Delta T$ ;  $\Delta W = P \Delta V$ ;  $\Delta S = c_p \ln \frac{T_f}{T_i}$
- Adiabatic-isentropic ( $Q_{\text{in}} = Q_{\text{out}} = 0$ ):  $\Delta E = -\Delta W = c_v \Delta T$ ;  $\Delta S = \Delta Q = 0$  $PV^{\gamma} = \text{const}; V^{\gamma-1}T = \text{const}$
- given same fractional increases  $\Delta S_p > \Delta S_v > \Delta S_T > \Delta S_{\text{adiabatic}}$
- we can also write  $\Delta Q = cm\Delta T$  where c is the specific heat of a material  $(c_{\text{water}} = 418 \text{JK}^{-1}\text{g}^{-1})$
- Free Expansion:  $Q = 0$  (system adiabatically isolated);  $W = 0$  (no work in the process)  $\rightarrow \Delta E = 0$ 
	- if I.G. since  $E \propto T$ :  $\Delta T = 0$ ; if not I.G. for  $V_2 > V_1$ :  $T_2 < T_1$  (temperature decreases)
	- $-$  This is not QS/reversible process  $\Delta S \neq 0 = nR \ln \frac{V_f}{V_i}$  →  $\Delta S_{FE} = \Delta S_T$  so it corresponds to minimum entropy change for expansion (recall adiabatic does *not* mean  $\Delta S = 0$ )
- Heat engines:  $\Delta E_{\text{tot}} = 0$  (cycle);  $\Delta W = \Delta Q_{\text{in}} \Delta Q_{\text{out}} = \int T dS$

$$
- \eta = \frac{\Delta W}{\Delta Q_{\text{in}}} = 1 - \frac{\Delta Q_{\text{out}}}{\Delta Q_{\text{in}}} \text{ (efficiency)}
$$

- for reversible processes  $\Delta S_{\text{universe}} = 0$  so  $\Delta S_{\text{machine}} = \frac{\Delta Q}{T}$  which implies  $η = 1 \frac{T_{\text{out}}}{T_{\text{in}}}$
- Cornout Cycle: 2 adiabatic; 2 isothermal (rectangle in S-T space)
- $-$  *clockwise* paths (expansions) in P-V;S-T planes do *positive* work
- Van der Walls gases:  $\left(P + \frac{N^2 a}{V^2}\right)(V Nb) = Nk_B T \rightarrow a$ , b respectively measure *attraction*, size of particles
- Recall: if gases are identical and one removes partition *nothing* changes  $\rightarrow \Delta S = 0$  (no additional states)
- Never assume the gas is monotone unless it explicitly says it!

#### <span id="page-11-0"></span>4.3 Quantum Statistics

- Average energy:  $\langle \epsilon \rangle = \int_0^\infty \epsilon \bar{n}(\epsilon) \rho_{\epsilon} d\epsilon$ ; Average # of particles:  $\langle N \rangle = \int_0^\infty \bar{n}(\epsilon) \rho_{\epsilon} d\epsilon$
- to derive average occupation number at energy level  $r$ ,  $\hat{h}x$  energy and think in terms of number of particles
- $\rho$  is the density of states with  $\rho_k = \frac{gV k^2}{2\pi^2}$  and  $g = \#$  degeneracies (careful with what this number is)  $\rightarrow \rho_{\epsilon} = \rho_k \left(\frac{d\epsilon}{dk}\right)^{-1}$  with  $\epsilon = pc = \hbar ck$  (relativistic) and  $\epsilon = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$  (classical)
- Bosons are indistinguishable and as many as you want in 1 state
	- $-$  at energy  $\epsilon_r$ :  $\mathscr{Z}(\epsilon_r) = \sum_i e^{-\beta(\epsilon_r \mu) \cdot i}$  with  $i = \text{\# particles; occupation} \mid \bar{n}^{\text{BE}}(\epsilon_r) = 1/(e^{\beta(\epsilon_r \mu)} 1)$
	- for  $T \to 0$  collection of bosons in ground state approaches infinity
- Fermions are *indistinguishable* and at most 1 per state
- $-$  at energy  $\epsilon_r$ :  $\mathscr{Z}(\epsilon_r) = 1 + e^{-\beta(\epsilon_r \mu)\cdot}$ ; occupation  $\left| \bar{n}^{\text{FD}}(\epsilon_r) = 1/(e^{\beta(\epsilon_r \mu)} + 1) \right|$
- for  $T \to 0 \bar{n}^{\text{FD}}(\epsilon_r) = \{0 \text{ if } \epsilon_r > \mu; 1 \text{ if } \epsilon_r < \mu; \frac{1}{2} \text{ if } \epsilon_r = \mu = \epsilon_F \text{ (Fermi energy)}\}\$
- when there are only two states think of Fermi Dirac statistics
- free electrons only behave kinematically and by Pauli exclusion principle:  $E_F = \frac{\hbar^2 k_F^2}{2m}$  with  $k_F = (3\rho^2 \pi^2)^{\frac{1}{3}}$  $\rho =$  electron density;  $n = \frac{N}{V} \rightarrow \left| k_F \propto n^{\frac{1}{3}}$ ;  $E_F \propto n^{\frac{2}{3}}$
- velocity in materials is always  $v_{\text{ind}} = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha RT}{m}}$ : in I.G. for ind = {rms, mode, avg}  $\alpha = \{3, 2, 8\}$
- Recall: if Maxwell Boltzmann description  $\vec{v}_{\text{avg}} = 0$  (including direction)
- Debeye & Einstein models assumed 3N oscillator model  $\rightarrow$  Einstein: all with same frequency; Debeye: spectrum of frequencies
- Power emitted by blackbody is  $P = \sigma \epsilon A T^4 \propto T^4$

$$
- I = \frac{2\hbar\omega^3}{c^2} \cdot \frac{1}{e^{\frac{\hbar\omega}{k_B T}} - 1} \propto \omega^3
$$
 (intensity)

– The peak of the spectrum is at  $\boxed{\lambda_{\max} = 2.9 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{K} \cdot \text{m} / T \propto 1 / T}$ 

# <span id="page-13-0"></span>5 Quantum Mechanics

## <span id="page-13-1"></span>5.1 Foundations

 $\bullet \ \frac{\hbar^2}{2m}$  $\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V(x) \psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \rightarrow$  separation of variables: t)  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -i\frac{E}{\hbar} \psi$ ; x)  $H\psi = E\psi$  (T.I.S.E.)

- general solution  $\Psi(x,t) = \sum_n c_n \psi_n e^{-E_n t/\hbar}$  where  $c_n = \langle \psi_n | \psi \rangle$  and  $P_n = |c_n|^2$  $\langle \psi_n | \psi_m \rangle = \delta_{mn}$  (eigenfunctions are orthogonal)

- the observed quantities are the eigenvalues  $q_n$ ; while the expected value  $\langle Q \rangle = \sum_n q_n |c_n|^2$
- Hamiltonian eigenstates are *stationary*: expectation values are *constant*:  $\frac{d\langle \hat{Q} \rangle}{dt} = 0$ ;  $[\hat{Q}; H] = 0$  $\to$  if  $\Psi(x,0) = \Psi_n(x)$  (initial state= stationary); the probability of getting  $E_n$  at any other time is 1
- superposition of eigenstates are not stationary and introduce a factor  $\propto \sin \theta / \cos \theta$  where  $\theta \propto (E_1 E_2)t/\hbar$  $\rightarrow$  Recall: the energy eigenvalues and relative probabilities are still *constant* in time
- $\Psi$  needs to be normalizable s.t.  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi||^2 dx = 1 \to \text{recall } \Psi$  is just a wavefunction;  $|\Psi|^2$  is the probability distribution (*e.g.*  $\int_a^b |\Psi|^2 dx$  is probability to find particle in  $x \in (a, b)$ )
- if problem doesn't explicitly state  $\Psi$  is *normalized*, you should do it yourself before computing anything else
- $\Psi$  has dimensions  $d/2$  where  $d = \#$  spatial dimensions
- Hermitian operators:  $\langle f|\hat{Q}|f\rangle = \langle \hat{Q}f|f\rangle$  as  $\hat{Q} = \hat{Q}^{\dagger} \rightarrow$  Hermitian conjugate is transpose + conjugate:  $A^{\dagger} = (A^T)^*$ 
	- $-\hat{Q}\psi_n = q\psi_n$  where q is real (eigenvalues must be real and represent *observables*)
	- $-$  any operator involving 1 derivative *without* the factor of  $i$ , it cannot be hermitian
	- total energy operator is  $E = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$
- Recall: the expect. value of an imaginary number is zero (not observable)  $\rightarrow$  if  $\Psi$  real and  $\hat{Q}$  imaginary:  $\langle \hat{Q} \rangle = 0$
- Commutator  $[A, B] = AB BA \rightarrow$  when evaluating them always apply them to a *wavefunction* 
	- $[AB, C] = A[B, C] [A, C]B; [A; B] = –[B; A]$
	- if commutator is zero, operators are compatible and constitute complete set of simultaneous eigenfunctions  $\psi_n$
	- if operator  $\hat{O}$  commutes with Hamiltonian, the corresponding observable is *conserved*
	- uncertainty principle:  $\sigma_x \sigma_p \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$  $\frac{\hbar}{2}$  since  $[x, p] = i\hbar$  where  $p = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  (minimum corresponds to Gaussian wave-packet)
	- $\sigma_t \sigma_E \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \to$  to make computations approximate  $\Delta x \Delta p \approx \hbar$ ;  $\Delta t \Delta E \approx \hbar$
	- when they ask you for a lower bound (like minimum radius) think of uncertainty principle
- the wavefunction  $\psi$  is always *continuous*;  $\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}$  is only discontinuous where  $V(x) \to \pm \infty$ 
	- $-\psi_n$  has n nodes, so  $\psi_0$  (ground state) has no nodes (no points where particle is guaranteed not to be found)
	- − if they give you a wavefunction and ask for its respective potential compute  $\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}$  and compare it to T.I.S.E.
	- Always determine if  $\psi$  should be oscillating or decaying by looking at T.I.S.E. → recall it's  $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}$  $rac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$  so if  $E - V > 0$  oscillating; if  $E - V < 0$  decaying
	- if  $V(x)$  is even:  $\psi$  can be either even or odd  $\rightarrow$  parity alternates so that  $\psi_0$  is even;  $\psi_1$  is odd, etc... if  $\psi(x) = \psi(-x) \rightarrow \langle x \rangle = 0$ if wavefunction is even: always node in the middle
- the energy of quantum system made of only a *rod* connecting two point masses is given by the *rotational* degrees of freedom s.t. :  $T = L^2/2I = \hbar^2 n(n+1)/2I$  where  $n = l$

#### <span id="page-14-0"></span>5.2 1-particle systems

- S.H.O.:  $E_n = \hbar \omega (n + \frac{1}{2}); \psi_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$  $\frac{1}{n!}(a^{\dagger})^n \psi_0$  where  $a^{\dagger}|n\rangle = \sqrt{n+1}|n+1\rangle;$   $a|n\rangle = \sqrt{n}|n\rangle$ 
	- $-\langle T \rangle = \langle V \rangle = E_n/2 \rightarrow$  more generally for  $V(x) = \lambda x^n$ :  $\langle T \rangle / \langle V \rangle = n/2$
	- 3d:  $\psi_N = \psi_{n,x} \psi_{n,y} \psi_{n,z}$  with  $E_N = (n_x + n_y + n_z + \frac{3}{2}) \hbar \omega = (N + \frac{3}{2}) \hbar \omega$
	- if there is a wall on one side of S.H.O. potential all even states disappear
	- Recall: classical harmonic oscillator at ground state has energy zero (particle sitting at  $x = 0$ )
- eigenstates of x:  $\psi_a(x) = \delta(x-a)$ ; of p:  $\psi_a(x) = \frac{1}{\hbar\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{\frac{iax}{\hbar}} = \delta(p-a) \rightarrow$  for a particle to have a definite position/momentum they have to be in the respective eigenstates!
- free particles:  $\psi(x) = e^{\pm ikx}$ ;  $E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = \hbar \omega$  with  $\omega = \frac{\hbar k^2}{2m}$ 2m
	- can carry any positive energy: cannot exist in a *stationary* state and is not a normalizable solution
	- normalized wave-packet constructed by forming continuous superposition of  $\psi_k(x)$  for different values of k
- δ-function potential  $(V = -\alpha \delta(x))$ : like free particles with BC<sub>s</sub>:  $\Psi(0^-) = \Psi(0^+); \ \Delta\left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x}\right)_{x=0} = -\frac{2m\alpha}{\hbar^2}\Psi(0)$ 
	- only 1 bound state with  $E < 0 \rightarrow$  if  $V = \alpha \delta(x)$ : only scattering states since by tunneling it will pass through the barrier if it eventually must come back
- finite square well: since V is even then  $\psi_0$  is even  $\rightarrow$  outside well decaying exponentials  $\psi \propto e^{-kx}$ ; inside well oscillating solutions  $\propto \sin, \cos$  (as well gets shallower, excited states disappear until there is only 1 bound state)
- particle in a box: free particle with 1 BC:  $\psi(0) = \psi(L) = 0 \rightarrow \psi_n = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right); E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2m a^2}$  $_{2ma^2}$
- Bound states:  $v_{\min} < E < \min(V_{-\infty}, V_{+\infty}) \rightarrow discrete$  set of  $E_n$  and normalizable wavefunctions
- Scattering states:  $E > min(V_{-\infty}, V_{+\infty}) \rightarrow$  continuous set of  $E_n$  and not normalizable wavefunctions
	- if  $E > \max(V_{-\infty}, V_{+\infty})$  2 states per energy level, otherwise only 1 state per energy level
	- $-e^{ikx}$  for  $k > 0$ : plane wave moving to the *right*
	- reflection coefficient  $R = \frac{|B|^2}{|A|^2}$  $\frac{|B|^2}{|A|^2}$ ; transmission coefficient  $T = \frac{k_R}{k_L}$  $|C|^2$  $\frac{|C|}{|A|^2} \to R + T = 1$
	- if  $k_1 = k_2$  there is no reflection!; if  $k_1 = 0 \vee k_2 = 0$  there is no transmission
	- when  $E < V_{\text{max}}$  particle can still tunnel and be on other side but it has to come back eventually  $(R = 1)$
	- given de Broglie wavelength  $\lambda = \frac{\hbar}{n}$  $\frac{\hbar}{p}$ :  $E = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m\lambda}$  with  $\lambda = \frac{\hbar}{\sqrt{2mE}} \to$  for particles scattering think of  $T = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m}$  $\overline{2m\lambda}$

#### <span id="page-14-1"></span>5.3 Hydrogen atom & 3d-QM

- Bohr model: electrons in circular orbits with quantized values of angular momentum  $L = n\hbar \rightarrow$  electrons in a given shell do not radiate
- with radial potential  $V(r) \to \Psi = R(r)Y(\theta, \phi)$  where Y are spherical harmonics
	- angular momentum  $L = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$ :  $[L_x, L_y] = i\hbar L_z$  (with cyclic permutations)
	- $L_z = -i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$  →  $L^2ψ = \hbar^2 l(l+1)ψ$ ;  $L_zψ = \hbar m_lψ$  with  $m = \{-l, ..., l\}$
	- if angular part of  $\Psi$  is equal to a spherical harmonics then  $\Psi$  has definite  $L_z = m$  and  $L_{\text{tot}} = l$
	- if  $\psi \propto \cos(m\phi)$  possible eigenvalues are  $\pm m\hbar$  as  $\cos(m\phi) = \frac{e^{im\phi} + e^{-im\phi}}{2}$ 2
	- $L^2$  commutes with all  $L_i$
	- different coordinates commute with each other  $\rightarrow [x, y] = [x, z] = [x, p_y] = ... = 0!$
- Hydrogen atom has  $V = -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon}$  $\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$  and  $E_n = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu a^2 n^2}$  where  $a = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{\mu e^2}$  is the *Bohr* radius
	- $-E_n \propto \mu$  (reduced mass)  $\rightarrow$  if we have *positron* instead of proton then  $\mu' = \frac{\mu}{2}$  and hence  $E'_0 = \frac{E_0}{2}$  $-E_n \propto 1/n^2$ ;  $E_n \propto Z^2$  (# of protons);  $E_n \propto (q_1q_2)^2$  (not  $\propto$  (tot-charge)<sup>4</sup>)
- the ground state energy  $|E_0 = -13.6$ eV  $| \rightarrow$  for hydrogen like atoms the *binding* energy is  $E_B = Z^2 E_0$
- for each *n*:  $l = \{0, 1, ..., n-1\}$  → ground state has zero angular momentum
- $-l \leq k$  where k is the degree of polynomial  $\rightarrow$  *odd* l for *odd*  $\psi$  in r (valid for l even as well)
- $-l = 0$  when  $\psi$  is *symmetric* on every axis
- if two  $\Psi_s$  are *spherically* symmetric they have the same l
- for  $l \neq 0 \Psi = 0$  at origin  $\rightarrow$  states with  $l = 0$  have higher probability to be found near the origin

• in transitions from  $n_f$  to  $n_i$ :  $\Delta E = E_0(1/n_f^2 - 1/n_i^2)$ ;  $\lambda = \frac{hc}{\Delta E}$ ;  $f = \frac{E_0}{h}(1/n_f^2 - 1/n_i^2)$ 

- if electron bombard from *outside* of atom  $n_i \to \infty$
- Lyman series:  $n_f = 1$ ; Bolmer series  $n_f = 2$  (when looking for longst wavelength take  $n_i \to \infty$ )
- Selection rules: transition between states can only happen if:
	- $\Delta m_l = \pm 1$  or 0;  $\Delta l = \pm 1$  ( $\neq$  0);  $\Delta j \pm 1$  or 0;  $\Delta m_s = 0$

assume wavelength of electromagnetic radiation to be large compared to size of atom

- for a given *n* there are  $n^2$  possible combination of *l* and *m* 
	- $-2n^2$  possible orbitals (to account for spin up and down);  $2(2l + 1)$  possible states in each orbital
	- shells fill in order from *smaller* values of  $l: \{s, p, d\} = \{l = 0; l = 1; l = 2\}$
	- for a given spin: the *higher* L the smaller the energy  $\rightarrow$  state with *highest* total spin has lowest energy
- fine-structure constant: defines strength of electromagnetic interaction  $\alpha = \frac{\mu \hbar}{ac} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c} \approx \frac{1}{137}$
- ground state of Helium is *singlet*: spatially symmetric and antisymmetric in spin
- corrections to hydrogen energy in descendent order of magnitude:
	- fine structure ( $\sim \alpha^2 E_0$ ): spin-orbit coupling breaks degeneracy in l but keeps that in m → like Zeeman effect for internal  $\vec{B}$  where  $\Delta H = \frac{e}{2m}(\vec{L} + 2\vec{S}) \cdot \vec{B}$  with  $\frac{e}{2m}$  as the electron classic gyromagnetic ratio
	- $-$  Lamb shift ( $\sim \alpha^3 E_0$ ): splits 2s and 2p with  $j = 1/2 \to$  like Stark effect for internal  $\vec{E}$  filed where  $\Delta H = e \vec{E} \cdot \vec{r}$ (perturbation is *odd* so  $1<sup>st</sup>$  order effect on any *even* state is 0)
	- hyperfine structure ( $\sim \frac{m_e}{m_p} \alpha^2 E_0$ ): spin-spin coupling is given by tendency of spins to anti-align to  $\vec{B}$  field (energetically favorable) and splits ground state depending if spins are in *singlet* or *triplet* state  $\rightarrow$  triplet needs more energy caused spins are *aligned*; in this transition the famous 21cm line is produced ( $\sim 5.10^{-6}$ eV)

#### <span id="page-15-0"></span>5.4 Spin

- intrinsic angular momentum of particle:  $S_z \Psi = \hbar m_z \Psi$ ;  $S^2 \Psi = \hbar^2 s(s+1) \Psi$
- $S_{\pm} = S_x + iS_y \rightarrow$  raising/lowering spin operator which preserves s and reduce/increase  $m_s$  by one unit of  $\hbar$ (remember to normalize them after computations!)
- if two particles have spin s and s' then  $s^{\text{tot}} = \{s + s'; s + s' 1; ...; s s'\}, m^{\text{tot}} = m_s + m'_s$
- spin 1/2:  $S_i = \frac{\hbar}{2}$  $\frac{\hbar}{2}\sigma_i$  where  $\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ;  $\sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ ;  $\sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$

– eigenstates in  $\hat{S}_z$  basis:  $|\uparrow\rangle_x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$  $\frac{1}{2}\left(\begin{array}{c} 1\ 1 \end{array}\right); \ |\downarrow\rangle_x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  $\frac{1}{2}\Big(\begin{array}{c} 1 \ -1 \end{array} \Big); \: \vert \uparrow\rangle_y = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  $\frac{1}{2}\Big(\begin{array}{c} 1\ i \end{array} \Big);\,|\downarrow\rangle_y=\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  $\frac{1}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$ 

- 2 spin  $1/2$  in singlet (antisymmetric) config. with  $s = 0$  and triple (symmetric) config. with  $s = 1$
- $\vec{J} = \vec{S} + \vec{L}$ : all possible values are  $\{l + s; l + s 1; ...; l s\}$   $\rightarrow$  highest: parallel & aligned; lowest: antiparallel
- Recall: when you have  $S_1 \cdot S_2 / S \cdot L$  remember that:  $A_1 \cdot A_2 = \frac{(A_1 + A_2)^2 A_1^2 A_2^2}{2}$
- spectroscopic notation is given by  $^{2s+1}L_j$  where  $L \in \{S; P; D; F\}$  corresponding respectively to  $l = \{0; 1; 2; ...\}$
- spin and spatial operators always *commute*!

## <span id="page-16-0"></span>5.5 Approximation methods

- Variational principle: choose set of possible wavefunctions in terms of parameter  $k \to \min(E_k)$  is upper bound on  $E_0$  where  $\langle E_k \rangle = \langle \psi_k | H \psi_k \rangle$
- T.I.P.T.: given  $H = H^0 + \lambda H'$  to 1<sup>st</sup> order  $E'_n = \langle \psi_n^0 | H' \psi_n^0 \rangle$ ;  $\psi'_n = \sum_{n \neq m} \langle \psi_n^0 | H' \psi_n^0 \rangle / (E_n^0 E_m^0) \psi_m^0$ 
	- to 2<sup>nd</sup> order  $E'_n = \sum_{m \neq n} |\langle \psi_n^0 | H' \psi_n^0 \rangle|^2 / (E_n^0 E_m^0)$
	- if states are *degenerate* create matrix W where each element  $W_{ij} = \langle \psi_i^0 H' \psi_j^0 \rangle$ eigenvalues of  $W$  are  $E'_{s}$  corrections; eigenvectors are good linear combination of unperturbed states
- Adiabatic transformation (slowly change  $H$  to  $H'$ ): final energy determined by corresponding eigenstate of Hamiltonian with new parameter
- Sudden change: energy/wavefunction stays constant  $\Rightarrow$  for S.H.O. when  $\omega \to \alpha \omega$ :  $\{V, T\} \to \{\alpha^2 V, T(\text{kinetic})\}$

#### <span id="page-16-1"></span>5.6 Many particles systems

- distinguishable particles:  $\Psi = \Pi_i \psi_i$  with  $H\Psi = E\Psi$  and  $E = \sum_i E_i$
- *indistinguishable*: labels are not physical so swapping makes no difference
	- Bosons (symmetric solution): integer spins and as many as you want in one state
	- Fermions (antisymmetric solution): half-integer spins and only 1 per state
	- $-$  Recall the symmetry is given by *spatial*  $+spin$  wavefunction
	- when adding *n*-spins, the *highest* spin state  $(s = \frac{n}{2})$  is always *symmetric*

# <span id="page-17-0"></span>6 Special Relativity

## <span id="page-17-1"></span>6.1 Foundations

- In all inertial reference frames: speed of light is *constant*; laws of physics are *identical*
- for  $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2}$  with  $\beta = \frac{v}{c}$  then a S' frame that moves with relative speed v has coordinates:  $t' = \gamma(t - \frac{v}{c^2}x);$   $x' = \gamma(x - vt) \rightarrow$  inverse transformation is the same with the + sign for  $v \ll c \rightarrow \gamma \approx 1 + \frac{v^2}{2c^2}$  $\frac{v^2}{2c^2}$ ;  $\frac{1}{\gamma} \approx 1 - \frac{v^2}{2c^2}$  $2c^2$
- time dilation:  $\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t'$  (to derive this recall to fix x' and not x)  $\rightarrow$  time is slower in rest frame so if you are given the time in this frame in the lab more time has passed
- length contraction:  $L' = \gamma L$  (to derive this fix t and not t')  $\rightarrow$  objects moving are shortened by a factor  $\gamma$
- object moving relative to another with speed v in x- direction:  $u'_x = \frac{u_x + v}{1 + u_x v/c^2}$ ;  $u'_y = \frac{u_y}{\gamma (1 + u_x)}$  $\frac{u_y}{\gamma(1+u_xv/c^2)}$ ;  $u'_z = \frac{u_z}{\gamma(1+u_zv/c^2)}$
- Lorentz transformation for boost along x-axis (easily generalizable to any other axis):
- $p^{\mu} = (E/c; \vec{p})$  with  $\vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v}$  (energy-momentum vector);  $J^{\mu} = (c\rho; \vec{J})$  (current density vector);  $k^{\mu} = (\omega/c; \vec{k})$  (wave vector)
- $E = T + E_0 = \gamma mc^2$  where  $E_0 = mc^2$  (rest energy) and  $T = (\gamma 1)mc^2$  (kinetic energy)
- The relativistic product  $a \cdot b = a^0b^0 \sum_i^3 a_ib_i$  is *invariant* under Lorentz transformation (equal in all ref. frames)
- the invariant 4-vector displacement  $(\Delta x)^2 = (x_B^{\mu} x_A^{\mu})^2$ 
	- $(\Delta x)^2 > 0$  timelike: there exists an inertial frame where they both appear in the same place  $(v < c)$
	- $(\Delta x)^2$  < 0 spacelike: there exists an inertial frame where they both appear in the same time  $(v > c)$
	- $-(\Delta x)^2 = 0$  *lightlike*: trajectory going at speed of light  $(v = c)$
- relativistic Doppler shift only depends on *relative* velocity between source and observer  $v = \beta c$  such that:
	- $-\frac{\lambda'}{\lambda} = \sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1+\beta}}$ ;  $f' = \frac{c}{\lambda'} = c\sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1+\beta}}f \to +$  or in the numerator respectively tell us that the source is moving away and towards us
	- if speed of light is mentioned we are in the relativistic regime hence think of Doppler shift in these terms
- Lorentz transformations for  $E, B$  fields do not change their magnitude in the direction of motion of the particle
- when analyzing a system sometimes easier to take  $c = 1$

#### <span id="page-17-2"></span>6.2 Collisions

- $E^2 = \vec{p}^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4$  since  $p_{4d}^2 = m^2 c^2$  (4-vector  $p^{\mu}$  squared) in all inertial frames
- if no ext. force:  $\sum_i p_i^{\mu} = \sum_f p_f^{\mu}$  all the 4-energy momentum is conserved (recall this does not mean *invariant*!)
	- tot. momentum and tot. energy: conserved but not invariant
	- kinetic energy neither conserved nor invariant
- if two objects with *same* mass and speed collide against each other, resulting product has no speed and hence only rest energy
- pay careful attention when you change reference frame: if in one frame A moves with v and B is at rest; in the frame where A is at rest B moves with speed  $-v$
- if particle moves with  $\omega = \omega_0'$  on a circular orbit, then in its frame  $\omega_0' = \frac{2\pi}{\Delta t'} \to$  hence in frame at rest  $\omega_0 = \frac{\omega_0'}{\gamma}$
- just act *dumb*: just apply the rules of energy-momentum conservation and the relativistic invariants

# <span id="page-18-0"></span>7 Atomic Physics

#### <span id="page-18-1"></span>7.1 Photons interactions

- chemical potential of photons is  $\mu = 0$ : they can be created or destroyed in any process (no conservation law!)
- photoelectric effect (low energy):  $E_{\text{max}} = \hbar f \Phi$ 
	- $-$  Φ is work function (energy required to remove an electron from atom);  $E_{\text{max}}$  is the stopping energy
	- $-f_{\text{thr}} = \frac{\Phi}{\hbar}; T \propto f$  (kinetic prop. to frequency);  $P \propto Z^4$  (probability)
- Compton scattering with atomic electron (medium energy):  $\Delta \lambda = \frac{h}{mc}(1 \cos \theta)$ ;
	- $-\Delta E = h\Delta f = \frac{hc}{\Delta\lambda} = mc^2(1 \cos\theta) \rightarrow$  the *wider* angle the more energy *loses* electron
	- Compton wavelength is  $\lambda = \frac{h}{mc}$ : wavelength of photon whose energy is same as mass of particle
	- $-P \propto Z$  (probability)
- electron-positron pair production (high energy- $E_r > 2m_ec^2$ )  $\rightarrow \vec{E}$  near nucleus induces the process there is no *reverse* reaction and the probability  $P \propto Z^2$
- emission can be *spontaneous* (excited states *always* emit); *stimulated* (the more photons; the more are emitted at same frequency; polarization; phase)  $\rightarrow$  amplitude  $A^2 \propto (N+1)$  where  $N = \#$  photons;  $\omega = \frac{(E_2 - E_1)}{\hbar}$
- absorption has amplitude  $A^2 \propto N$  where  $N = \text{\# photons}; \omega = \frac{(E_2 E_1)}{\hbar}$
- $N = #$  photons= $E_{\text{tot}} / (\frac{hc}{\lambda})$  where  $E_{\text{tot}} = P\Delta t \rightarrow$  recall that  $p = \frac{h}{\lambda}$  then  $\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$  (in order to go from  $\lambda$  to v when you don't know the frequency)
- Lasers keep lots of electrons in excited state through an optical pump causing *population inversion* 
	- spontaneous + stimulated emission from atoms cause cascade of electrons which excite other atoms and cause exponential production of photons all coherent; monochromatic; high intensity
	- $-$  since excited state decays very fast: *metastable* state introduced between the two
	- Diode: medium p-n junction injected with current; Solid state: medium is crystal; Dye: medium is liquid
	- Gas: collisional (transitions from collision btw. atoms); molecular (transitions are vibrational energy levels)
	- free electrons: in ext.  $\vec{E}$  field they emit *bremsstrahlung* producing synchotron radiation in a sinusoidal path  $\rightarrow$  radiation produced from slowing down of electrons due to nuclear attraction
- Cherenkov radiation: results when charged particle (usually electron) travels through dielectric at speed *faster* than that at which light is propagating in the medium

#### <span id="page-18-2"></span>7.2 Nuclei properties

- masses of atoms  $\sim 10^{-31}$ kg ; nuclear size  $\sqrt{10^{-15}$ m
- Binding energy:  $BE = \sum_i m_i c^2 Mc^2$  (difference between mass of constituents and nucleus itself)
	- much larger than energy holding electrons together (per nucleon  $\sim$  a few MeV for most elements)
	- BE per nucleon steadily increases with  $Z$  and then decreases for radioactive atoms:  $Z = 26$  iron is most stable atom;  $Z > 82$  all nuclei will eventually decay
	- $-$  resulting *kinetic* energy given by *difference* in binding energy between initial and final state
- for light elements  $\#$  neutrons= $\#$ protons; for *heavier* elements  $\#$  neutrons> $\#$ protons
- fission & fusion: *spontaneous* if mass of reactants is *larger* than mass of products
	- enormous energy to overcome (electromagnetic repulsion between protons)
	- generates enormous amount of energy
- energy to remove one electron is *ionization* energy  $\rightarrow$  for hydrogenic atoms  $E = Z^2 E_0$ 
	- when last orbital is: full (noble gases) or almost full (alogens)  $high$ ; almost empty (alkali metals) low
	- when they ask for electron charge distribution they mean the *valance* band  $\rightarrow$  think of what its corresponding wavefunction looks like and its symmetries
	- energy scale of atomic processes is a few ∼ eV: use it to approximate ionization energies of hydrogenic atoms
- penetration depth is when  $\frac{1}{2}m\dot{r}^2 = V(r) = \frac{kZq^2}{r^2}$  where  $\rightarrow$  for two atoms with different  $Z: V(r) = \frac{kZ_1Z_2q^2}{r^2}$  $r^2$
- Recall: absorption and emission *lines* are always due to spin *splitting* (nothing to do with nuclear interactions)

#### <span id="page-19-0"></span>7.3 Interaction of charged particles

- cross section A defines effective collision probability:  $A = P\frac{V}{N}\frac{1}{\tau}$  where P is prob. of being scattered;  $\frac{V}{N}$  is concentration of targets and  $\tau$  is the thickness
	- can be also thought as area of the shadow (area of sphere from distance from the target)
	- usually just think of data provided and do dimensional analysis
- nuclei target almost *exclusively* atomic electrons  $\rightarrow$  energy loss: only through collisions in very small amount (continuous flow as they interact); path shape: *straight lines*; avg. path length:  $10^{-5}$ m
- electrons target both nuclei and electrons  $\rightarrow$  energy loss: through collisions/radiation; path shape: *scattered* at various angles; avg. path length:  $10^{-3}$ m
- Decays: Alpha  $(\alpha) \rightarrow$  spontaneous decay of 2 neutrons + 2 protons
	- Beta decay (weak-force decay):  $\beta^ \Rightarrow$  emits electron and antineutrino; produces proton  $(n \to p + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e)$  $\beta^+ \Rightarrow$  emits positron and neutrino; produces neutron  $(p \rightarrow n + e^+ + \nu_e)$ neutrino are responsible for broad energy spectrum
	- $-$  gamma  $(\gamma)$  radiation: emission of photons from excited state of nucleus which doesn't change proton/neutron composition
	- Internal conversion (IC): excited nucleus interacts with electron on lower atomic orbital causing its emission  $\rightarrow$  produces several x-rays
	- Radioactive: decays randomly independently of how long it's been around (Poisson distribution)

 $N = N_0 e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$  with  $t_{\frac{1}{2}} = \tau \ln 2$  and  $\tau = \text{mean life} \Rightarrow \text{prob. of seeing zero events is } P(0) = e^{-\frac{t}{\tau}}$ if substance can decays in many different ways tot. half time:  $1/t_{\frac{1}{2}}^{\text{tot}} = \sum_i 1/t_{\frac{1}{2}}^i$ 

# <span id="page-20-0"></span>8 Specialized & Miscellaneous Topics

# <span id="page-20-1"></span>8.1 The Standard model of particles

- Weak force:  $W^+$  and Z bosons (very heavy  $\sim 90x \, m_p$ ) mediate; Leptons (electron/neutrino) interact with force;  $\Rightarrow$  also interact with EM force quark interact also via weak force and can change flavor by emitting or absorbing  $W$ -boson decay time  $\sim 10^{-8}$ s ; signature is emission of neutrino
- EM force: photons (*massless* bosons with  $s = 1$ ) mediate; decay time  $\sim 10^{-17}$ s; signature emission of photon
- Strong force: gluons (massless bosons mediate)  $\rightarrow$  decay time  $\sim 10^{-23}$ s
	- Hadrons interact with force: bosons (composed by quark-antiquark pairs with  $s = \{0, 1\}$ ) are called mesons; fermions (composed by 3 quarks with  $s = \{\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}\}\)$  are called *baryons*
	- protons (2 quark up-1 quark down); neutron (2 quark down-1 quark up) are called nucleons
	- it involves *color* (corresponding charge of the force)  $\rightarrow$  this was able to explain existence of 3 up/down quarks together without violating the Pauli principle
	- blue, green, red: together they make the white which means the charge is 0 and particle is color neutral
	- given confinement property of strong force, free quarks cannot be seen in nature
- matter organized in 3 generations: each of them is *heavier* and less stable  $\Rightarrow 2^{\text{nd}}$ , 3<sup>rd</sup> gen. decay to 1<sup>st</sup>
	- − 1<sup>st</sup> gen.: up quark  $\left(\frac{2}{3}\right)$ ; down quark  $\left(-\frac{1}{3}\right)$ ; electron; electron neutrino
	- 1 st gen.: charm quark; strange quark; muon (∼ 200x electron); muon neutrino
	- 3 rd gen.: top quark; bottom quark; tau (∼ 20x muon); tau neutrino
- every particle has an *antiparticle* with equal mass and opposite charge  $\rightarrow$  photons are their own antiparticles with  $s = -1$ ; Z are their own antiparticles and  $W^+$  has antiparticle W<sup>-</sup>
- to determine which force is responsible for decay one must look at combination of life-time and decay products
- in particle physics anything that can happen will happen unless it's forbidden by a symmetry/ conservation law:
	- baryon and lepton number conserved (recall antiparticles have −1; particles +1)
	- CPT symmetry: charge conjugation  $(C) \Rightarrow$  switch particles with antiparticles and change sign of all charges time reversal  $(T) \Rightarrow t \rightarrow -t$

parity transformation  $(P) \Rightarrow$  reverses orientation in space

- supersymmetry: idea that particles have super-partners with exactly same charge and spin different by  $\frac{1}{2}$
- $-$  weak interaction is said to be *maximally* parity-violating
- Higgs boson (125GeV): responsible for giving mass to all elementary particles through mechanism of spontaneous symmetry breaking  $(SSB) \rightarrow$  when system moves to a vacuum solution that exhibits the same symmetry which is broken for perturbations around vacuum and preserved for the entire lagrangian
- Recall: a neutron has non-zero *magnetic-dipole* moment but no *electric-dipole* moment  $\rightarrow$  if it had it would corresponds to a parity violation
- Recall: a *freely* propagating neutrino is superposition of muon and tau neutrino

# <span id="page-20-2"></span>8.2 Crystal Structures

- infinite repetitions of identical structural units (*unit cells*)
- Simple cubic: atoms at every *vertex*  $(d = a)$ ; Body-centered cubic (BCC): also atom at the *center*  $(d = a\frac{\sqrt{3}}{2})$ ; Face-centered cubic (FCC): atoms at center of each *face*  $(d = a\frac{\sqrt{2}}{2})$
- the smallest pattern is called *primitive* unit cell (not necessarily equal to unit cell)
- BCC is octahedron with half volume of unit cell
- FCC is parallelepiped with quarter volume of unit cell
- Reciprocal (dual) lattice is the Fourier transform of the original lattice (in momentum space)
	- Simple cubic is its own reciprocal lattice with length  $d_p = 2\pi/a$
	- BCC and FCC are the dual lattices of each other
	- the dual of an *hexagonal* lattice is another hexagonal lattice *rotated* by  $30^{\circ}$

#### <span id="page-21-0"></span>8.3 Astrophysics

• scale factor  $a(t)$  measures expansion of universe  $\rightarrow$  this causes redshift of photons which is used as measure of time:  $a = 1/1 + z$ ;  $\frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_t} = \frac{a_0}{a_t} \rightarrow z(t) = \frac{\lambda_0}{\lambda_t} - 1$ 

• Hubble's law (HL): 
$$
v = H_0 d
$$

- $-$  due to expansion of space, distant objects seem to *recede* from us (think of *inflating* balloon)
- $-$  given Hubble constant and distance use HL to find receding speed  $v$  and compute typical relativistic effect
- if universe expands by factor  $n$ ; it cools down in temperature by factor  $n$
- Neutron stars are giant spheres of neutrons (fermions): cannot collapse to be in same position by Pauli exclusion principle

#### <span id="page-21-1"></span>8.4 Error Analysis

- The sample variance is  $\sigma_s^2 = \frac{1}{N-1} \sum_i (x_i \bar{x})^2 \rightarrow \text{if } sample: \frac{1}{N-1}$ ; if whole population:  $\frac{1}{N}$  (std. dev. is just  $\sigma_s$ )
- error propagation:  $f = aA$ :  $\sigma_f = a\sigma_A$ ;  $f = A \pm B$ :  $\sigma_f = \sqrt{\sigma_A^2 + \sigma_B^2}$ ;  $f = AB \vee f = \frac{A}{B}$ :  $\frac{\sigma_f}{f} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{\sigma_A}{A}\right)^2 + \left(\frac{\sigma_B}{B}\right)^2}$
- *independent* errors add in *quadrature*  $\sigma_{\text{tot}} = \sqrt{\sigma_1^2 + \sigma_2^2}$
- inverse variance weighting:  $x_{\text{avg}} = \sum_i w_i x_i / \sum_i w_i$  where  $w_i = 1/\sigma_i$  and  $\sigma_{\text{avg}} = 1/\sqrt{\sum_i w_i}$
- Poisson distribution:  $P(n) = \frac{\lambda^n e^{-\lambda}}{n!}$ n!
	- $\lambda = \exp$ . avg. number of counts in given time t and  $P(n)$  is probability to observe n counts in such time t  $\rightarrow \sigma \approx \sqrt{N}$  if  $N \ggg 1$ ;
	- $-\sigma_{\text{avg}} = \sqrt{\mu}$  where  $\mu$  is *mean* value (on tot. count, not on count rate)  $\Rightarrow$  after N measurements  $\sigma_N = \frac{\sigma_{\text{avg}}}{\sqrt{N}}$
	- if measurements are purely random always use Poisson
	- the time between two Poisson events follows exponential:  $P(t) = \lambda e^{-\lambda t}$
	- $-90\%$  confidence limit means we want to find rate that gives 0 with probability 0.1 (only 10% of the time):  $P(0) = e^{-\lambda t} = 0.1$
- Recall: *accuracy* means how far from true value ; *precision* means how *reproducible* the result is (variance)
- errors can be *systematic* (cannot be reduced); *statistical* (can be reduced by repeating experiments)

# <span id="page-22-0"></span>9 General Tips for the Exam

- Always be very careful with signs! $\rightarrow$  think about computing unsigned quantity and put sign just at the end.
- if a problem doesn't give you a quantity that you thought you would need: *think!* it's probably not useful (usually it means that some other quantity is conserved)
- Remember to *always* exhaust all limiting cases and dimensional analysis before doing any algebra
	- if you have choices with different dimensions always check them first, it may be enough!
	- look at orders of magnitude to build some intuition
	- use the units in the solutions to figure out if limiting cases can help remove possibilities
- answers that have numerical factors/ random numbers: slow down and work it out carefully!
- if the answer is *wrong*; it's just *wrong*!  $\rightarrow$  there are never *typos* in the exam!
- Recall generally *never* is too strong of a word to be favored by ETS: probably that choice is wrong!
- Always *guess*: there is no penalty for wrong answers!

#### <span id="page-22-1"></span>9.1 Useful Math

- log plots: check if one or both axes are in log. scale
	- check plots to see if: axis starts at 1 and not zero; squares that separate points are not equally spaced
	- straight line: on log-log  $y = ax^b$ ; on log-plot  $y = c \cdot 10^{bx}$  (here we assumed x-linear)
- Always read axis to verify if they carry *dimensions*
- $e^x \approx 1 + x$ ;  $(1+x)^n \approx 1 + nx$ ;  $\sum_{n=1}^{N} n = \frac{n(n+1)}{2}$  $\frac{n+1}{2}$ ;  $\sum_{n=1} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}$  for  $|x| < 1$
- Fourier transforms:  $\hat{f}(\omega) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$  $\frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(t)e^{-i\omega t}dt \to$  when asked about its coefficients think of symmetry of function: if even no sin terms (odd!); if odd no cos terms (even!)
- if an event occurs with probability P and I want to make sure it does not happen N times:  $\bar{P}_N = (1 P)^N$
- $\bullet$  Don't forget Stoke's theorem:  $\int_S \nabla \times \mathscr{U} \cdot d\vec{a} = \int_C \mathscr{U} \cdot d\vec{l}$

#### <span id="page-22-2"></span>9.2 Numbers to memorize

- 13.6eV  $(E_0 \text{ of hydrogen})$
- 511keV (electron mass): whenever you see this number think of electrons
- 1.22 (Rayleigh criterion coefficent)
- 2.9 ·  $10^{-3}$ m · K (proportionality factor between  $\lambda$  and T)
- 2.7K (CMB temperature)