

Formal postulates

① \forall dynamical system \exists a state function from which all possible predictions of the physical properties of the system can be obtained.

↳ State functions are often expressed as wavefunctions $\psi(r, t)$

↳ NOT experimentally accessible

↳ continuous, square-integrable, single-valued function

+ vectors in Hilbert space

+ normalized: $\int_{\mathcal{E}} |\psi(r, t)|^2 dr = 1$

↳ Defn (inner product): $\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = \int_{\mathcal{E}} \psi_1^* \psi_2 dr$

↳ Defn: ψ_m, ψ_n orthonormal if $\langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle = \delta_{mn}$.

↳ Superposition principle:

linear combination of (usually) eigenstates of chosen operator.

② Observables are dynamical variables of a quantum system accessible to measurement.

Every observable is associated with an operator.

↳ In QM, operators associated with observables must be linear and Hermitian.

↳ Defn: Hermitian operator $\langle f | \hat{Q} g \rangle = \langle g^* | \hat{Q}^* f^* \rangle = \langle \hat{Q} f | g \rangle$

• Hermitian \Rightarrow real eigenvalues.

$$\hat{Q} \psi_n = q_n \psi_n \Rightarrow \begin{cases} \langle \psi_n | \hat{Q} \psi_n \rangle = q_n \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle = q_n \\ \langle \psi_n^* | \hat{Q}^* \psi_n^* \rangle = q_n^* \langle \psi_n^* | \psi_n^* \rangle = q_n^* \langle \psi_n | \psi_n \rangle = q_n^* \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{Q} \text{ Hermitian} \Rightarrow \langle \psi_n | \hat{Q} \psi_n \rangle = \langle \psi_n^* | \hat{Q}^* \psi_n^* \rangle \Rightarrow q_n = q_n^* \Rightarrow q_n \in \mathbb{R}. \quad \square$$

• Hermitian operators have orthonormal eigenfunctions.

$$\langle \psi_m | \hat{Q} \psi_n \rangle = \langle \psi_m^* | \hat{Q}^* \psi_n^* \rangle \Rightarrow q_n \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle = q_m \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \psi_m | \psi_n \rangle = \delta_{mn}. \quad \square$$

↳ Correspondence principle:

(i) QM predictions approach classical results at the classical limit.

(ii) We can construct operators based on relationships of corresponding classical dynamical variables (e.g. $E = T + V$, $T = P^2/2m$, $\hat{p} = -i\hbar \nabla \Rightarrow \hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V$)

↳ Defn: Commutator $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}$.

↳ $[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0 \Rightarrow$ operators commute \Rightarrow compatible \Rightarrow dynamical variables: \times uncertainty.

• Compatible operators share a common set of eigenfunctions.

(\Rightarrow) measure both \hat{A}, \hat{B} simultaneously to arbitrary precision $\Rightarrow \psi \downarrow \psi_A$ eigenfunction of \hat{B} .

$$(\Leftarrow) [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \psi_n = \hat{A}\hat{B}\psi_n - \hat{B}\hat{A}\psi_n = b_n \hat{A}\psi_n - a_n \hat{B}\psi_n = b_n a_n \psi_n - a_n b_n \psi_n = 0. \quad \square$$

(orbital)

↳ Angular momentum operators:

$$\begin{cases} \hat{L}_z = \hat{x}\hat{p}_y - \hat{y}\hat{p}_x \\ \hat{L}_x = \hat{y}\hat{p}_z - \hat{z}\hat{p}_y \\ \hat{L}_y = \hat{z}\hat{p}_x - \hat{x}\hat{p}_z \end{cases} \Rightarrow [\hat{L}_i, \hat{L}_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} \hat{L}_k, \text{ i.e. } \begin{cases} [\hat{L}_x, \hat{L}_y] = i\hbar \hat{L}_z \\ [\hat{L}_y, \hat{L}_z] = i\hbar \hat{L}_x \\ [\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_x] = i\hbar \hat{L}_y \end{cases}$$

$$\hat{L}_z = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \Rightarrow [\hat{L}_i, \hat{L}^2] = 0$$

↳ share a set of eigenfunctions $Y_{l,m_l}(\theta, \phi)$

↳ (orbital angular momentum) ladder operators:

$$\hat{L}_+ = \hat{L}_x + i\hat{L}_y, \quad \hat{L}_- = \hat{L}_x - i\hat{L}_y$$

$$\Rightarrow [\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_\pm] = 0, \quad [\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_\pm] = \pm\hbar \hat{L}_\pm.$$

- ↳ \hat{L}_\pm leaves L unchanged ($\hat{L}_\pm \hat{L}^2 \psi_{\alpha\beta} = \alpha \hat{L}_\pm \psi_{\alpha\beta} \Rightarrow \hat{L}^2 (\hat{L}_\pm \psi_{\alpha\beta}) = \alpha (\hat{L}_\pm \psi_{\alpha\beta})$ ($[\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_\pm] = 0$)
and changes L_z by $\pm\hbar$ ($\hat{L}_\pm \hat{L}_z \psi_{\alpha\beta} = (\hat{L}_z \hat{L}_\pm \mp \hbar \hat{L}_\pm) \psi_{\alpha\beta} = \beta \hat{L}_\pm \psi_{\alpha\beta} \Rightarrow \hat{L}_z \hat{L}_\pm \psi_{\alpha\beta} = (\beta \pm \hbar) \hat{L}_\pm \psi_{\alpha\beta}$)
- ↳ eigenvalue spectrum found by solving $\hat{L}_- \hat{L}_+ \psi_{\alpha\beta_{\max}} = \hat{L}_+ \hat{L}_- \psi_{\alpha\beta_{\min}} = 0$.

(4) ③ The expectation value $\langle q \rangle$ of the observable represented by \hat{Q} is

$$\langle q \rangle = \int_{\mathcal{E}} \psi^* \hat{Q} \psi d\tau = \langle \psi | \hat{Q} | \psi \rangle.$$

This is the mean value of an observable measured over many experiments, all starting with the same quantum state.

↳ uncertainty = standard deviation $\sigma_q = \sqrt{\langle q^2 \rangle - \langle q \rangle^2}$

↳ generalized HUP:

(proof NE)

$$\sigma_q \sigma_r \geq \frac{1}{2} |\langle [\hat{Q}, \hat{R}] \rangle| = \frac{1}{2i} \langle [\hat{Q}, \hat{R}] \rangle$$

e.g. $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar \Rightarrow \sigma_x \sigma_{p_x} \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$ (HUP)

↳ Ehrenfest theorem:

(proof NE)

$$\frac{d\langle \hat{Q} \rangle}{dt} = \left\langle \frac{\partial \hat{Q}}{\partial t} \right\rangle + \frac{i}{\hbar} \langle [\hat{H}, \hat{Q}] \rangle.$$

i.e. \hat{Q} time-independent, compatible with $\hat{H} \Rightarrow$ dynamical variable conserved.(4) ④ When a measurement is made of a dynamical variable, represented by \hat{Q} , the result must be one of the eigenvalues of \hat{Q} .↳ The choice of eigenvalues obtained is probabilistic ($P(\psi \rightarrow \psi_n) \propto |c_n|^2$)⑤ The time dependence of the wavefunction ψ is determined by the time-dependent Schrödinger's equation

$$\hat{H}\psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \quad (\hat{H} = \text{Hamiltonian operator})$$

Density Functional Theory (DFT):

DFT reduces the complex many-electron problem of a material and the external influence from the static nuclei to a system of non-interacting electrons in effective fields.

Free electron model of a metal

Defn: In a many-electron system, the energy of the highest occupied single particle state is the **Fermi energy** E_F , and its wavenumber is the **Fermi wavenumber** k_F . $\left(\frac{\pi N_F}{L} \right)$ ($N = 2N_F$)

$$\Rightarrow E_F = \frac{\hbar^2 k_F^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{N\pi}{2L} \right)^2 \Rightarrow N = \frac{2L}{\pi} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{1/2} \sqrt{E_F} = \int_0^{E_F} n(E) dE$$

\Rightarrow Total energy:

$$E_{tot} = \int_0^{E_F} E n(E) dE = \frac{2L}{3\pi} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{1/2} E_F^{3/2}$$

where $n(E)$ is the density of states

$$n(E) = \frac{dN}{dE} = \frac{L}{\pi} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{1/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}} \quad (n(E) \propto 1/\sqrt{E})$$

\Rightarrow Average energy per electron: $E_{tot}/N = E_F/3$

\hookrightarrow 3D: Fermi surface is a sphere \Rightarrow

$$N = \frac{2 \times \left(\frac{4\pi}{3} k_F^3 \right)}{(2\pi)^3/V} = \frac{V k_F^3}{3\pi^2} \quad (k_F = \text{radius})$$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{spin} \\ \text{volume of sphere} \end{array} \right.$

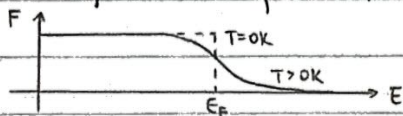
$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{volume per state} \end{array} \right.$

$$\Rightarrow E_{avg} = E_{tot}/N = \frac{3}{5} E_F$$

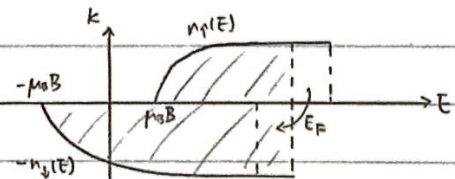
where $k_F = (3\pi^2 \rho)^{1/3}$ is the Fermi wavevector.

$$\Rightarrow n(E) = \frac{dN}{dE} = \frac{V}{2\pi^2} \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \sqrt{E} \quad (n(E) \propto \sqrt{E})$$

\hookrightarrow Distribution of states of e^- (fermions): Fermi-Dirac distribution



$$F(E, \mu, T) = \frac{1}{e^{(E-\mu)/k_B T} + 1}$$



Metal in a magnetic field

$$E_{\uparrow} = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} + \mu_B B, \quad E_{\downarrow} = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} - \mu_B B$$

NOTE: Fermi temperature:

$$T_F = E_F/k_B \quad (E_F = k_B T_F)$$

Fermi velocity:

$$v_F = \hbar k_F/m \quad (p = mv_F = \hbar k_F)$$

Electrons in crystalline structures

↳ A perfect crystal can be generated by decorating each point in a lattice with the same basis (atoms).

↳ In 3D: $\underline{R} = n_1 \underline{a} + n_2 \underline{b} + n_3 \underline{c}$, $\underline{a}, \underline{b}, \underline{c}$ are primitive vectors.

↳ Volume of unit cell = $V_c = |\underline{a} \cdot (\underline{b} \times \underline{c})|$

• Wigner-Seitz cells:

The cell constructed around a lattice point by planes that perpendicularly bisect the vectors connecting neighbouring points.



↳ Reciprocal lattice:

(FT) lattice with spacing $2\pi/a$. By periodicity, $e^{i\mathbf{G}_{h,k,l} \cdot \mathbf{R}_{n_1, n_2, n_3}} = 1$

$\Rightarrow \mathbf{G}_{h,k,l} = h\mathbf{A} + k\mathbf{B} + l\mathbf{C}$.

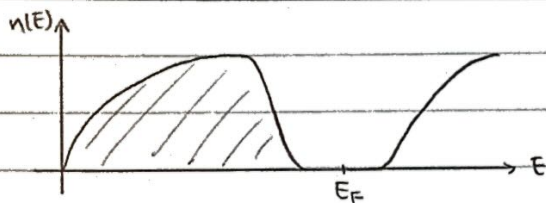
$\mathbf{A} = \frac{2\pi(\underline{b} \times \underline{c})}{\underline{a} \cdot (\underline{b} \times \underline{c})}$, $\mathbf{B} = \frac{2\pi(\underline{c} \times \underline{a})}{\underline{a} \cdot (\underline{b} \times \underline{c})}$, $\mathbf{C} = \frac{2\pi(\underline{a} \times \underline{b})}{\underline{a} \cdot (\underline{b} \times \underline{c})}$ are the primitive vectors (in reciprocal space)

↳ The reciprocal lattice is measured directly via x-ray diffraction.

• Brillouin zones:

Wigner-Seitz cells analogue in reciprocal space. (First Brillouin zone: $-\frac{\pi}{a} \leq k \leq \frac{\pi}{a}$)

Metals, insulators and semiconductors



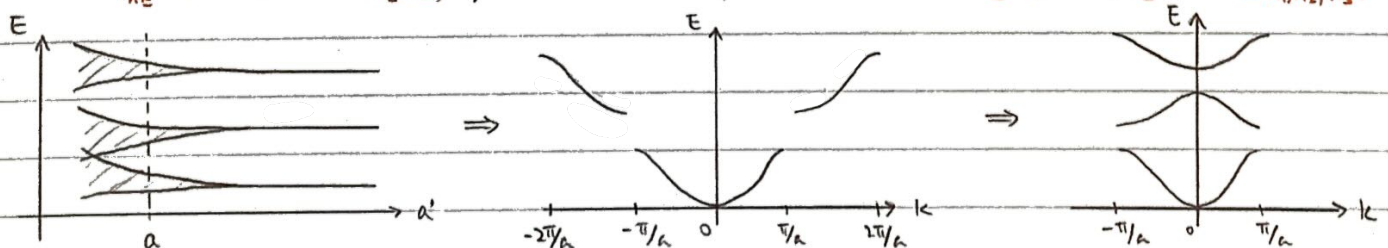
If the Fermi energy (E_F) lies in a gap (in the density of states), the material is an insulator. (no states near $E_F \Rightarrow$ no conduction)

If the energy gap is of order $0 < \Delta \leq 2\text{eV}$, the material is a semiconductor.

• Bloch's theorem:

Solutions to the Schrodinger eqn in a periodic potential are of the form

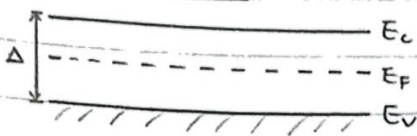
$\psi_{n\mathbf{k}}(\underline{r}) = e^{i\mathbf{k} \cdot \underline{r}} u_{n\mathbf{k}}(\underline{r})$, where u is periodic with $u_{n\mathbf{k}}(\underline{r}) = u_{n\mathbf{k}}(\underline{r} + \underline{R}_{n_1, n_2, n_3})$



1st Brillouin zone

$(\mathbf{k}' = \mathbf{k} - \mathbf{G}_{hkl})$

Semiconductors



At finite T , a small proportion of the electrons will be thermally excited from the valence band to the conduction band, allowing the semiconductor to conduct.

↳ Semiconductors (e.g. Si, Ge) are deliberately doped with a very low concentration of impurities ($\sim 1 \text{ in } 10^5$), which have either one more or one less valence electron per atom.

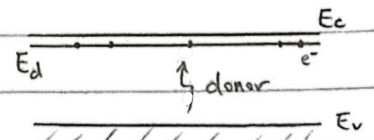
↳ donors: donate 1 electron, i.e. group V (e.g. P - $3s^2 3p^3$)

↳ acceptors: remove 1 electron, i.e. group III (e.g. Ga - $4s^2 4p^1$)

(-ve)

• n-type semiconductors:

The donor impurities introduces additional electronic states close to the bottom of the conduction band.

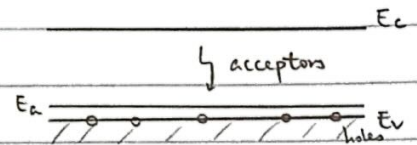


⇒ electrons are easily excited thermally into the conduction band from the new levels.

(+ve)

• p-type semiconductors:

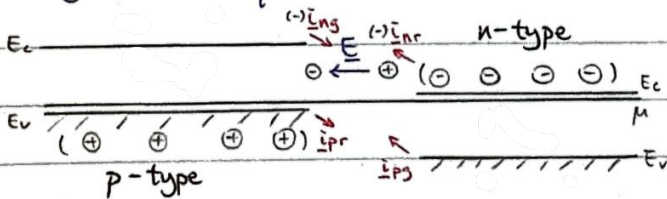
The acceptors introduces 'holes' in the valence band, which are unfilled states just above the valence band.



⇒ electrons are easily excited thermally into these levels and leave behind holes, which are positively charged current carriers.

The p-n junction

Regions in equilibrium must have the same chemical potential μ . ($\mu \leq E_a$, $\mu \geq E_d$)



At equilibrium (zero bias),

$$\begin{cases} \dot{i}_{pr} + \dot{i}_{pg} = 0 \Rightarrow |\dot{i}_{pr}| = |\dot{i}_{pg}| \\ \dot{i}_{nr} + \dot{i}_{ng} = 0 \Rightarrow |\dot{i}_{nr}| = |\dot{i}_{ng}| \end{cases}$$

NOTE: $\dot{i}_{ng} \propto e^{-\Delta/k_B T}$ ($\Delta/k_B T \gg 1$), i.e. $\dot{i}_{ng} \propto$ probability of exciting a minority carrier, e^- , in the p-type region.
(similarly, $\dot{i}_{pg} \propto e^{-\Delta/k_B T}$)

↳ Apply a forward bias $\Rightarrow \underline{E} \downarrow = \Delta E = -eV_{app}$.

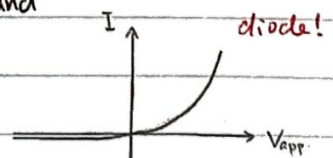
⇒ \dot{i}_{nr} , \dot{i}_{pr} (recombination currents) increased by a factor of $e^{eV_{app}/k_B T}$ and

\dot{i}_{ng} , \dot{i}_{pg} (generation currents) are left unchanged.

⇒ net hole current: $|\dot{i}_p| = |\dot{i}_{pr} + \dot{i}_{pg}| = |\dot{i}_{pg}| (\exp(eV_{app}/k_B T) - 1)$

net electron current: $|\dot{i}_n| = |\dot{i}_{nr} + \dot{i}_{ng}| = |\dot{i}_{ng}| (\exp(eV_{app}/k_B T) - 1)$

⇒ Total current: $I = \dot{i}_p + \dot{i}_n = \dot{i}_s (\exp(eV_{app}/k_B T) - 1)$ ($\dot{i}_s = |\dot{i}_{ng}| + |\dot{i}_{pg}|$)



Pauli spin matrices

$$\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

↳ Properties:

- $\sigma_i^2 = I$ $(\hat{S}_i = \frac{\hbar}{2}\sigma_i \Rightarrow [\hat{S}_i, \hat{S}_j] = i\hbar\epsilon_{ijk}\hat{S}_k)$
- $[\sigma_i, \sigma_j] = 2i\epsilon_{ijk}\sigma_k \Rightarrow [\sigma_x, \sigma_y] = 2i\sigma_z, [\sigma_y, \sigma_z] = 2i\sigma_x, [\sigma_z, \sigma_x] = 2i\sigma_y$
- **anticommutativity:** $\sigma_i\sigma_j + \sigma_j\sigma_i = 0 \quad (i \neq j) \leftarrow \text{OR } \{\sigma_i, \sigma_j\} = 2\delta_{ij}I$

Relativistic QM

↳ Relativity: $E^2 = p^2c^2 + m^2c^4$, correspondence principle: $E \mapsto i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$, $p \mapsto -i\hbar\nabla$.

$$\Rightarrow -\hbar^2\frac{\partial^2\psi}{\partial t^2} = -\hbar^2c^2\nabla^2\psi + m^2c^4\psi \quad (\text{Klein-Gordon equation})$$

Problem: $E = \pm\sqrt{p^2c^2 + m^2c^4}$. In QM, we need all solns for a complete set of solns.

↳ Probability density $\rho = \psi^*\psi$ is proportional to $E \Rightarrow$ non-physical -ve probabilities.

↳ K-G eq is second-order (∂_t^2), while TDSE is first order (∂_t)

$$(i\hbar\partial_t\psi - mc^2\psi = (i\hbar\partial_t - m)\psi = 0)$$

↳ Dirac equation: $(\alpha \cdot p + \beta mc^2)\psi(r, t) = i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi(r, t)$

$$\text{OR } (-i\hbar\alpha \cdot \nabla + \beta mc^2)\psi(r, t) = i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\psi(r, t)$$

where $\alpha_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_x \\ \sigma_x & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \alpha_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_y \\ \sigma_y & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \alpha_z = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sigma_z \\ \sigma_z & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \beta = \begin{pmatrix} I_2 & 0 \\ 0 & -I_2 \end{pmatrix}$

Successes:

- In the non-relativistic limit, the Dirac eq reduces to the TDSE with particle spins \Rightarrow spins (and SOC) explained!
- Its interpretation (Dirac Sea interpretation) of negative energy states led to predictions of anti-particles (e.g. positron). \sim later improved upon in QFT.

Nuclear matter

A nucleus can be modelled roughly as a sphere of radius

$$R = R_0 A^{1/3}$$

where $R_0 \approx 1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$, A is the mass number $A = Z + N$ ← atomic no. Z , no. of neutrons N

↳ NOTATION: ${}^A_Z X$

↳ NOTE: All atomic masses are less than the sum of their parts owing to the forces keeping the nucleons together, i.e. $M < Zm_p + Zm_e + Nm_n$

Defn: The binding energy of a nucleus is the minimum energy required to separate it into its protons and neutrons, and is given by

$$E_B = (Zm_p + Nm_n)c^2 - {}^A_Z M c^2$$

- NOTE: neutrons and protons are also fermions (both with spin $\hbar/2$). ← against electrostatic repulsion

↳ Protons and neutrons are bound together in nuclei by the strong interaction ←

↳ Properties of the strong interaction:

- independent of electric charge

- short-ranged ($\sim 10^{-15} \text{ m}$)

- nuclear matter has near-constant density and near-constant binding energy per nucleon E_B/A .

↳ $E_B/A = 7-9 \text{ MeV}$ for stable nuclei

The liquid drop model

$$E_B = C_1 A - C_2 A^{2/3} - C_3 \frac{Z(Z-1)}{A^{1/3}} - C_4 \frac{(A-2Z)^2}{A} + C_5 A^{-4/3}$$

NOTE: $N = A - Z \neq A!$

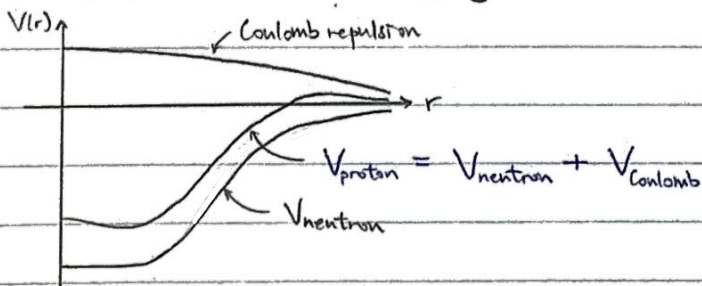
}

⊕ if $Z, N \in 2N$

⊖ if $Z, N \in 2N + 1$

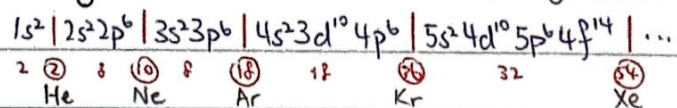
0 otherwise.

The shell model (spherically symmetric)



Analogous to electrons:

(noble gases)



↓

Nuclei with magic numbers of neutrons and protons are very stable.

↳ 2, 8, 20, 28, 50, 82, 126