Heisenberg uncertainty principle

$$\Delta x \Delta p_x \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$
$$\Delta E \Delta t \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

This means you can't simultaneously measure x and p<sub>x</sub> to an arbitrarily small precision

1

This also means you can't use classical physics because you can't specify (exactly) the initial conditions

#### Waves

The relations

 $\Delta x \Delta k > \frac{1}{2} \text{ and } \Delta \omega \Delta t > \frac{1}{2}$ 

are general properties of Fourier transforms

Quantum mechanics enters the picture because we associate

de Broglie waves with material particles via  $p = \hbar k$  and

$$E = \hbar \omega$$



- Consequences of the energy-time uncertainty relation are
  - A particle that decays does not have a well-defined mass
  - Atomic transitions do not have a welldefined energy

4

This is called their natural line width

Mass of the Z-boson particle



Consider an atomic de - excitation that occurs in 10<sup>-8</sup> s emitting radiation with  $\lambda = 300$  nm  $\Delta \mathbf{E} = h\Delta f = \frac{hc\Delta\lambda}{\lambda^2} = \frac{\hbar}{2}\frac{1}{\Lambda t}$  $\Delta \lambda = \frac{\hbar \lambda^2}{2hc\Delta t} = \frac{\lambda^2}{4\pi c\Delta t} = 2.4 \times 10^{-6} nm$  $\frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda} = 7.9 \times 10^{-9}$ this width is small but measurable

 $\rightarrow$  A useful relation is

$$\overline{(\Delta x)^2} = \overline{(x - \overline{x})^2} = \overline{(x^2 - 2x\overline{x} + \overline{x}^2)} = \overline{x^2} - \overline{x}^2$$

Sometimes the mean (x-bar) is 0 by symmetry

$$(\Delta x)^2 = \overline{x^2}$$

Hence in some cases the uncertainty in Δx can be used to measure the mean of x<sup>2</sup>

 $\succ$  Similar arguments apply to  $\Delta p$ ,  $\Delta E$ , and  $\Delta t$ 

Use the uncertainty principle to estimate the kinetic energy of an electron localized in a hydrogen atom  $\Delta x \Delta p = \frac{\hbar}{2}$  $\Delta p = \frac{\hbar}{2\Delta x} \approx \frac{\hbar}{2a_0}$  $T = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{\overline{p^2}}{2m} = \frac{(\Delta p)^2}{2m} = \frac{(\hbar c)^2}{8mc^2 a_0^2}$  $T = \frac{(197.3eVnm)^2}{(8)(0.511 \times 10^6 eV)(.053nm)^2} = 3.4eV$ Same order of magnitude as T in the Bohr model Recall T = -E = 13.6eV8



- What do we actually observe on the screen?
  - The light intensity I(x)
  - Clearly  $I(x) \neq I_1(x) + I_2(x)$
  - I(x) ~  $|E(x)|^2 = |E_1(x) + E_2(x)|^2$ I(x) ~  $|E_1|^2 + |E_1|^2 + 2Re|E_1^*E_2|$

The interference term, which depends on the phase difference between E<sub>1</sub> and E<sub>2</sub>, produces the interference pattern

- What happens if we close one or the other slits?
  - What happens if we send one photon at a time towards the two slits?
  - What happens if we monitor which slit the single photon entered?

11

What happens if we use electrons instead of photons?

#### > What happens if we close one of the slits?



No interference pattern. Just the diffraction pattern from the single open slit.

- What happens if we send one photon at a time towards the two slits?
- We see individual "hits" corresponding to each photon
- But as the photons arrive one by one over time, they build up an interference pattern



(a) 20 counts









(d) ~4000 counts

What happens if we monitor which slit the single photon entered?



#### What happens if we use electrons?



#### No difference in any of the preceding discussion

There is a lot going on here!

Consider the example where the photon or electron is measured in order to determine through which slit it passed

If the photon through slit 1 is detected with a photodetector it is removed (and equivalent to blocking slit 1)

 If an electron through slit 1 is measured using light (e.g. Compton scattering), again the interference pattern vanishes

The act of observing the electron has changed the experiment



Thus the photon momentum is at least as large as that of the electron and will change the direction of the electron (destroying the interference pattern)

#### We can also interpret this in terms of the Heisenberg uncertainty principle

To locate the electron's position we need

$$\Delta y < \frac{d}{2}$$

An uncertainty arises in the electron's momentum because

of scattering with the photon. The uncertainty is

$$\Delta p_y > \frac{\hbar}{d}$$

This gives rise to an uncertainty in the electron's angle

$$\Delta \theta \approx \frac{\Delta p_{y}}{p} = \frac{(\Delta p_{y})\lambda}{h} > \frac{\hbar \lambda}{hd} = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi d}$$

Interference maxima and minima are

$$\sin \theta_{\max} \approx \theta = \frac{\lambda}{d} \text{ and } \theta_{\min} = \frac{\lambda}{2d}$$

Since  $\Delta \theta \sim \theta_{\min}$  the inteference pattern is washed out

18

- When we treat the electron as a wave we observe an interference pattern (in the double slit experiment)
- When we treat the electron as a particle (in trying to localize it) we do not observe an interference pattern
- This is an example of Bohr's principle of complementarity
  - Wave and particle models are complementary. If a measurement proves the wave character of radiation or matter then it is impossible to prove the particle character in the same measurement. And vice-versa.

- Now consider the example where one photon passes through the slit at a time
  - Light acts as a particle since there is one "hit" on the screen for each particle
  - Light acts as a wave because if we accumulate hits the interference pattern appears
- Both particle and wave aspects are needed to explain the experiment
  - Neither particle nor wave theory can explain the observation alone
- This is called particle-wave duality

Einstein linked the wave and particle aspects of the photon by equating the square of the electric field strength (averaged over one cycle) with the radiant energy in a unit volume

$$=\frac{1}{\mu_0 c}\overline{E^2} = Nhf$$

where

*I* is the intensity of radiation

E is the electric field strength

N is the average number of photons per unit time crossing

a unit area perpendicular to the direction of propagation

Thus  $E^2$  (amplitude squared) is a probability measure of the photon density



- We see that each photon must be considered separately (since each photon obviously passed through one slit and produced a "hit")
- But how does the photon know where to go to produce an interference pattern (which is observed only after a sufficiently large number of hits)?
- And how does the photon know whether the other slit is open or closed?
- For a photon passing through one of the slits why should the state of the other slit matter at all?

Welcome to quantum mechanics

- The road out of this paradox is to realize
  - We cannot know through which slit the photon passed without destroying the interference pattern
    - There is nothing preventing us from saying the photon went through both slits and interfered with itself
  - We cannot know exactly where the photon is going; its direction is probabilistic and the probability is proportional to |E(x)|<sup>2</sup> = I(x)



- After the photon has passed the slits (region 3) we decide to use the screen or not
  - If we decide to use the screen we observe an interference problem and the photon passed through both slits
  - If we decide to not use the screen we observe a hit in one or the other telescopes and the photon passed through one or the other slits
- An equivalent experiment was carried out in the lab (1987) and gives the above results

- In the delayed choice experiment the photon seems to have responded instantly to our choice
  - Einstein commented quantum mechanics contains "spooky action-at-a-distance" phenomena
  - In the delayed choice experiment our observation (choice) brings about the results that have occurred and we have apparently determined what happened in the past
  - From Bohr through Johns the advice given is
    Don't think, calculate