

## Greek Alphabet

Capital	A	B	Γ	Δ	E	Z	H	Θ	I	K	Λ	M
Lowercase	α	β	γ	δ	ε	ζ	η	θ, ϑ	ι	κ	λ	μ
Name	alpha	beta	gamma	delta	epsilon	zeta	eta	theta	iota	kappa	lambda	mu
Capital	N	Ξ	O	Π	P	Σ	T	Υ	Φ	X	Ψ	Ω
Lowercase	ν	ξ	ο	π	ρ	σ	τ	υ	φ, ϕ	χ	ψ	ω
Name	nu	xi	omicron	pi	rho	sigma	tau	upsilon	phi	chi	psi	omega

## Fundamental constants:

Speed of light:  $c = 2.9979 \cdot 10^8$  m/s (roughly a foot per nanosecond)

Planck constant:  $h = 6.626 \cdot 10^{-34}$  J s;  $\hbar = h / 2\pi$

Fundamental charge unit:  $e = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19}$  C

Electron mass:  $m_e = 9.109 \cdot 10^{-31}$  kg

Coulomb's Law constant:  $k = 1 / 4\pi\epsilon_0 = 8.988 \cdot 10^9$  Nm<sup>2</sup>/C<sup>2</sup>

Gravitational constant:  $G = 6.674 \cdot 10^{-11}$  Nm<sup>2</sup>/kg<sup>2</sup>

Avogadro constant:  $N_A = 6.022 \cdot 10^{23}$  particles per mol

Boltzmann constant:  $k = 1.38 \cdot 10^{-23}$  J/K =  $8.617 \cdot 10^{-5}$  eV/K;  $R = N_A \cdot k = 8.314$  J/K/mol

## Useful conversions:

1 fm (= 1 "Fermi") =  $10^{-15}$  m, 1 nm =  $10^{-9}$  m = 10 Å; 1 PHz =  $10^{15}$  Hz ("Petahertz")

1 eV =  $e \cdot 1V = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19}$  J (Energy of elementary charge after 1 V potential difference)

1 keV = 1000 eV, 1 MeV =  $10^6$  eV, GeV =  $10^9$  eV, 1 TeV =  $10^{12}$  eV ("Tera-electronvolt")

New unit of mass  $m$ : 1 eV/ $c^2$  = mass equivalent of 1 eV (Relativity!) =  $1.78 \cdot 10^{-36}$  kg

Momentum  $p$ : 1 eV/ $c = 5.34 \cdot 10^{-28}$  kg m/s;  $p$  in eV/ $c =$  mass in eV/ $c^2$  times velocity in units of  $c$

Planck constant:  $\hbar = h/2\pi = 197.33$  eV/ $c \cdot$  nm =  $6.582 \cdot 10^{-16}$  eV  $\cdot$  s = 0.658 eV/PHz

Fine-structure constant:  $\alpha = e^2 / 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c = 1/137.036$

Electron mass:  $m_e = 510,999$  eV/ $c^2 \approx 0.511$  MeV/ $c^2$

Muon mass:  $m_\mu = 105.658$  MeV/ $c^2 \approx 207 \cdot m_e$

Proton mass:  $m_p = 938.272$  MeV/ $c^2 \approx 1836 \cdot m_e$

Neutron mass:  $m_n = 939.565$  MeV/ $c^2 \approx 1839 \cdot m_e$

Atomic mass unit (1/12 of the mass of a <sup>12</sup>C atom):  $u = 931.494$  MeV/ $c^2 \approx 1823 \cdot m_e$

Rydberg constant:  $Ry = m_e c^2 \alpha^2 / 2 = 13.606$  eV

Bohr Radius:  $a_0 = \hbar c / (m_e c^2 \alpha) = 0.0529$  nm (roughly  $\frac{1}{2}$  Å).

## Special Relativity:

For an inertial system S' moving along the x-axis of S with constant velocity  $v < c$ , and with all axes aligned and the same origin ( $x = y = z = ct = 0 \Leftrightarrow x' = y' = z' = ct' = 0$ ):

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}; x' = \gamma \left( x - \frac{v}{c} ct \right); ct' = \gamma \left( ct - \frac{v}{c} x \right); y = y'; z = z'$$

Clocks in S' appear to S as if they were going slow by factor  $1/\gamma$ , and vice versa.

Length of object at rest in S' appears contracted by factor  $1/\gamma$  in S.

Velocity addition: 
$$\frac{u_x}{c} = \frac{\frac{u'_x}{c} + \frac{v}{c}}{1 + \frac{u'_x}{c} \frac{v}{c}}; \frac{u_y}{c} = \frac{\frac{1}{\gamma} \frac{u'_y}{c}}{1 + \frac{u'_x}{c} \frac{v}{c}}$$

Four-vectors:  $x^\mu = (ct, x, y, z); x_\mu = (ct, -x, -y, -z)$  ( $\mu=0,1,2,3$  for  $ct,x,y,z$ ).

**Invariant interval** between two events (=points in 4-dim. space-time):

$\Delta x^\mu = (\Delta ct, \Delta x, \Delta y, \Delta z) \Rightarrow \Delta s^2 = \Delta x^\mu \Delta x_\mu = \Delta ct^2 - \Delta x^2 - \Delta y^2 - \Delta z^2$  (same in all inertial systems.)

Positive  $\Delta s^2$ : "time-like separation",  $\Delta s^2 =$  square of elapsed eigentime  $c\tau$  in a system that travels from the start point (event) to the end point (event) of the interval.

Negative  $\Delta s^2$ : "space-like separation",  $-\Delta s^2 =$  square of distance between the two events in a system (which always exists!) where they occur simultaneously.

$\Delta s^2 = 0$ : "light-like separation"; a light ray could travel from one event to the other.

**Four-momentum:**  $P^\mu = (E/c, P_x, P_y, P_z) = (\Gamma mc, \Gamma m\vec{u}); \Gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \vec{u}^2/c^2}}$ . Sum of all

momenta is conserved in collisions, separately for each component. 0<sup>th</sup> component times  $c$  is total energy, including kinetic and rest mass energy ( $E_{\text{rest}} = mc^2$ ). Transformation of  $P^\mu$  to coordinate system S' is analog to  $x^\mu$  (see above).

**Invariant:**  $P^\mu P_\mu = \frac{E^2}{c^2} - \vec{P}^2 = m^2 c^2 \Rightarrow E = \sqrt{m^2 c^4 + \vec{P}^2 c^2}; \frac{\vec{u}}{c} = \frac{\vec{P}c}{E}$ .

## Quantum Mechanics:

**Formal/abstract:** All possible knowledge about a system is encoded in its state vector  $|\psi\rangle$

- often only probabilities can be predicted. State vectors are members of a (complex)

Hilbert space: they can be added, multiplied by a complex number (scalar), and we can

define a scalar product  $\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle$  (= some complex number  $c$ , with  $\langle \psi_2 | \psi_1 \rangle = c^*$ ). All state

vectors must be normalizable and by convention are normalized to 1:  $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$ .

**Example:** Motion in Motion in 1D => state vector represented by “wave function”  $\psi(x)$ .

Addition:  $[\psi_1 + \psi_2](x) = \psi_1(x) + \psi_2(x)$ . Multiplication with scalar:  $[c\psi_1](x) = c\psi_1(x)$ .

Scalar product:  $\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_1^*(x) \psi_2(x) dx$ . Normalizable:  $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi^*(x) \psi(x) dx < \infty$ .

Probability to find particle in interval  $x \dots x+dx$ :  $dPr(x \dots x+dx) = |\psi(x)|^2 dx = \psi(x)^* \psi(x) dx$  (assuming normalized state vector,  $\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1$ ).

**Formal/abstract:** Operators are linear functions turning vectors into other vectors:

$\mathbf{O}|\psi\rangle = |\varphi\rangle$ ;  $\mathbf{O}[c|\psi\rangle] = c|\varphi\rangle$ ;  $\mathbf{O}[|\psi_1\rangle + |\psi_2\rangle] = \mathbf{O}|\psi_1\rangle + \mathbf{O}|\psi_2\rangle$ . A vector  $|\varphi_\omega\rangle$  is called an eigenvector of an operator  $\mathbf{O}$  with eigenvalue  $\omega$  (=complex number) IF  $\mathbf{O}|\varphi_\omega\rangle = \omega|\varphi_\omega\rangle$ .

Observables are represented by (Hermitian) operators  $\mathbf{\Omega}$  with only **real** eigenvalues  $\omega_i$ .

Any measurement of the observable must give one of these eigenvalues as result. After we measure  $\omega_i$ , the system will be in the state described by vector  $|\varphi_{\omega_i}\rangle$  (“collapse of the wave function”).

The probability to measure this particular eigenvalue for a state described by  $|\psi\rangle$  is given by  $Pr(\omega_i) = |\langle \varphi_{\omega_i} | \psi \rangle|^2$ . The average (expectation value) for the observable over many independent trials with the same initial state  $|\psi\rangle$  is  $\langle \mathbf{\Omega} \rangle_\psi = \langle \psi | \mathbf{\Omega} | \psi \rangle$  with standard

deviation  $\sigma_\Omega = \sqrt{\langle \mathbf{\Omega}^2 \rangle - \langle \mathbf{\Omega} \rangle^2}$ .

**Example:** Motion in Motion in 1D => Important observables:

Position  $\mathbf{X}\psi(x) = x \cdot \psi(x) \rightarrow$  eigenvectors  $\psi_{x_0}(x) = \delta(x - x_0)$  w/ eigenvalue  $x_0$ ; Momentum

$\mathbf{P}\psi(x) = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi(x) \rightarrow$  eigenvectors  $\psi_{p_0}(x) = e^{ip_0x/\hbar}$  w/ eigenvalue  $p_0$ ; Hamiltonian (= total

energy, kinetic plus potential):  $\mathbf{H}\psi(x) = \left( \frac{\mathbf{P}^2}{2m} + V(X) \right) \psi(x) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi(x) + V(x)\psi(x)$ .

Heisenberg’s uncertainty principle: Position  $x$  and momentum  $p$  cannot be predicted with arbitrary precision simultaneously;  $\sigma_x \sigma_p \geq \hbar/2$ .

**Formal/abstract:** Time evolution (Schrödinger Equation): State vector becomes function

of time:  $|\psi\rangle(t)$ ;  $\frac{\partial}{\partial t} |\psi\rangle(t) = \frac{1}{i\hbar} \mathbf{H} |\psi\rangle(t)$  where  $\mathbf{H}$  is the Hamiltonian operator.

Eigenstates of  $\mathbf{H}$ :  $\mathbf{H}|\varphi_E\rangle = E|\varphi_E\rangle \Rightarrow$  “stationary” solutions of Schrödinger Equation:

$|\psi_E(t)\rangle = |\varphi_E\rangle e^{-iEt/\hbar}$  (no time dependence for any observable).

**Example:** Motion in 1D => Eigenvalue equation:  $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi(x) + V(x)\psi(x) = E\psi(x)$ .

Solution: “Stationary States”. Eigenstates of the free Hamiltonian ( $V(x) = 0$ ):

$\psi_p(x, t) = Ae^{\frac{i}{\hbar} px} e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \frac{p^2}{2m} t}$  (simultaneously eigenstates of momentum operator)

Gaussian Wave Package:

= Linear combination of “free Hamiltonian eigenstates” (but not an eigenstate itself), with Gaussian weighting over a range of momenta. At time  $t = 0$ :

$$\psi_{GWP}(x, t = 0) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_p}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\frac{(p-p_0)^2}{4\sigma_p^2}} e^{i\hbar^{-1}px} dp = \sqrt{\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_x}} e^{i\hbar^{-1}p_0x} e^{-\frac{x^2}{4\sigma_x^2}}; \sigma_x = \frac{\hbar}{2\sigma_p}$$

Average momentum  $p_0$ , with standard deviation  $\sigma_p$ . Average position  $x = 0$ ; standard deviation for position is  $\sigma_x = \frac{\hbar}{2\sigma_p}$  which is the smallest possible given Heisenberg’s

Uncertainty Relation. However,  $\sigma_x$  will increase with time while  $\sigma_p$  is constant.

Eigenstates of a 1-dim. square well potential ( $V(x) = 0$  for  $0 \leq x \leq L$ , infinite elsewhere):

$$\varphi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right); E_n = \frac{n^2\pi^2\hbar^2}{2mL^2}, n = 1, 2, \dots$$

Eigenstates of Harmonic Oscillator:

$$\mathbf{H} = \frac{\mathbf{P}^2}{2m} + \frac{m\omega^2}{2} \mathbf{X}^2$$

$$\varphi_n(x) = AH_n\left(\sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}}x\right) e^{-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}x^2}; E_n = (n + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega, n = 0, 1, \dots$$

$$H_0(y) = 1, H_1(y) = 2y, H_2(y) = 4y^2 - 2;$$

$$A_0 = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4}, A_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4}, A_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}}\left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4}.$$

## Quantum Mechanics in 3D:

**Cartesian coordinates:**  $(x, y, z)$

$$\psi(x, y, z); \mathbf{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}\right) + V(x, y, z); \Delta \text{Pr}(\vec{r}, \Delta\tau) = |\psi(x, y, z)|^2 \Delta\tau$$

(Small volume  $\Delta\tau = \Delta x \Delta y \Delta z$  located at position  $(x, y, z)$ ).

Separation of variables: Look for solutions for the eigenvalue equation of the type

$$\psi(x, y, z) = \psi_1(x)\psi_2(y)\psi_3(z)$$

Example: Infinite square well in 3D:

$$\varphi_{njk}(x, y, z) = \sqrt{\frac{8}{L^3}} \sin\frac{n\pi x}{L} \sin\frac{j\pi y}{L} \sin\frac{k\pi z}{L}; E_{njk} = (n^2 + j^2 + k^2) \frac{\hbar^2\pi^2}{2mL^2}$$

**Spherical coordinates:**  $r, \theta, \phi$

Small volume for probability:  $\Delta\tau = r^2 \Delta r \sin\theta \Delta\theta \Delta\phi$

Hamiltonian in spherical coordinates:

$$\mathbf{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left( \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{1}{\sin \vartheta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \vartheta} \sin \vartheta \frac{\partial}{\partial \vartheta} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{1}{\sin^2 \vartheta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \varphi^2} \right) + V(r)$$

$$= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{2mr^2} \tilde{\mathbf{L}}^2 + V(r)$$

Here,  $\tilde{\mathbf{L}}^2$  is the squared orbital angular momentum operator with eigenfunctions

$$Y_{\ell m}(\vartheta, \varphi); \tilde{\mathbf{L}}^2 Y_{\ell m} = \hbar^2 \ell(\ell+1) Y_{\ell m}; \ell = 0, 1, 2, \dots; \mathbf{L}_z Y_{\ell m} = \hbar m Y_{\ell m}; m = -\ell, -\ell+1, \dots, \ell$$

( $\mathbf{L}_z$  is the z-component of the angular momentum operator). Examples:

$$Y_1^{-1}(\theta, \varphi) = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2\pi}} \cdot e^{-i\varphi} \cdot \sin \theta$$

$$Y_1^0(\theta, \varphi) = \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{3}{\pi}} \cdot \cos \theta =$$

$$Y_{00}(\vartheta, \varphi) = \sqrt{\frac{1}{4\pi}}; \quad Y_1^1(\theta, \varphi) = \frac{-1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{3}{2\pi}} \cdot e^{i\varphi} \cdot \sin \theta$$

Separation of variables: Look for eigenstates of the Hamiltonian of form

$$\psi_{E\ell m}(r, \vartheta, \varphi) = R_{E,\ell}(r) Y_{\ell m}(\vartheta, \varphi) \text{ with}$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} R_{E,\ell}(r) + \frac{\hbar^2 \ell(\ell+1)}{2mr^2} R_{E,\ell}(r) + V(r) R_{E,\ell}(r) = E \cdot R_{E,\ell}(r)$$

Probability to find particle in volume  $\Delta\tau$  at position  $(r, \theta, \phi)$ :  $|\psi_{E\ell m}(r, \vartheta, \varphi)|^2 \Delta\tau$

Radial probability distribution:  $\Delta\text{Pr}(r \dots r+\Delta r) = |R_{E,\ell}(r)|^2 r^2 \Delta r$

### Hydrogen-like atoms:

(Nucleus of mass  $m_2$  and charge  $Ze$ , bound particle of mass  $m_1$  and charge  $-e$ )

$$V(r) = -\frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} = -\frac{Z\alpha\hbar c}{r} \quad \alpha = e^2 / 4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c$$

Mass must be replaced by “reduced mass” of 2-body system with masses  $m_1$  and  $m_2$ :

$$\mu_r = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

Energy Eigenvalues:

$$E_{n\ell} = -\frac{\mu_r Z^2}{m_e} \text{Ry} \quad (n = 1, 2, \dots; \text{Ry} = m_e c^2 \alpha^2 / 2 = 13.6 \text{ eV}). \text{ Degenerate in } \ell \text{ and } m; \ell = 0,$$

$1, \dots, n-1, m_\ell = -\ell \dots +\ell$ ; also degenerate in electron spin  $m_s = \pm 1/2 \Rightarrow$  total degeneracy  $2n^2$ .

Characteristic radius:  $a = \frac{m_e}{\mu_r Z} a_0 \quad a_0 = \hbar c / (m_e c^2 \alpha) = 0.53 \text{ \AA} = 0.053 \text{ nm}$ .

Eigenstates:  $\psi_{n,\ell,m}(r, \vartheta, \varphi) = R_{n,\ell}(r) Y_{\ell m}(\vartheta, \varphi) \cdot R_{n,\ell}(r)$  (examples):

$$R_{1,0}(r) = \frac{2}{a^{3/2}} e^{-r/a}; R_{2,0}(r) = \frac{2-r/a}{\sqrt{8} a^{3/2}} e^{-r/2a}; R_{2,1}(r) = \frac{r/a}{\sqrt{24} a^{3/2}} e^{-r/2a}$$

**Energy of a photon:**  $E_\gamma = hf = hc/\lambda$

**Momentum of a photon:**  $p_\gamma = h/\lambda$

Light emitted or absorbed in transition with energy difference  $\Delta E = E_{\text{init}} - E_{\text{final}}$ :

$$f = \Delta E/h, \lambda = hc/\Delta E = 2\pi\hbar c/\Delta E$$

**Pauli principle:** No two identical Fermions (spin-1/2, 3/2, ... particles) can be in the same exact quantum state. (-> See Fermi-Dirac statistics)

## Nuclear Physics

**Mass-energy of an atom:** ( $Z$  protons,  $N$  neutrons,  $A = Z+N$ ):

$$M_A c^2 = Z M_p c^2 + N M_n c^2 + Z m_e c^2 - BE \text{ (Binding energy)}$$

typical binding energies  $BE = 7-8 \text{ MeV} \cdot A$  with a maximum for nuclei around iron ( $A=56$ ).

Light nuclei have significantly lower  $BE$  per nucleon; beyond iron, the  $BE$  per nucleon decreases slowly with  $A$  (due to Coulomb repulsion).

Energy liberated during a nuclear fusion reaction  $1 + 2 \rightarrow 3$ :  $\Delta E = M_1 c^2 + M_2 c^2 - M_3 c^2$

Energy liberated during a nuclear decay  $1 \rightarrow 2 + 3$ :  $\Delta E = M_1 c^2 - M_2 c^2 - M_3 c^2$

**Density:** roughly constant  $\rho = 0.16 \text{ Nucleons / fm}^3 = 2 \times 10^{17} \text{ kg/m}^3$

**Radioactive nuclei:**

alpha-decay:  $(Z,A) \rightarrow (Z-2,A-2) + {}^4\text{He} + \text{energy}$

beta-plus decay:  $(Z,A) \rightarrow (Z-1, A) + e^+ + \nu_e$

beta-minus decay:  $(Z,A) \rightarrow (Z+1, A) + e^- + \bar{\nu}_e$

Decay probability in time  $\Delta t$ :  $\Delta \text{Pr}(\Delta t) = \Delta t/\tau$  ( $\tau = \text{lifetime} = T_{1/2} / \ln 2$ )

Number of undecayed nuclei at time  $t$  (starting with  $N_0$ ):  $N(t) = N_0 e^{-t/\tau}$

## Particle Physics

**Fundamental Fermions** (spin-1/2 particles obeying Pauli Exclusion Principle):

quarks (up, down, charm, strange, top, bottom) and leptons (electron, muon, tau, electron-neutrino, muon-neutrino, tau-neutrino) and their antiparticles:

Name	Symbol	Mass (MeV/c <sup>2</sup> ) <sup>*</sup>	J	B	Q (e)	Particle/antiparticle name	Symbol	Q (e)
Up	u	2.3 <sup>+0.7</sup> <sub>-0.5</sub>	1/2	+1/3	+2/3	Electron / Positron <sup>[18]</sup>	e <sup>-</sup> / e <sup>+</sup>	-1 / +1
Down	d	4.8 <sup>+0.5</sup> <sub>-0.3</sub>	1/2	+1/3	-1/3	Muon / Antimuon <sup>[19]</sup>	$\mu^- / \mu^+$	-1 / +1
Charm	c	1275 ± 25	1/2	+1/3	+2/3	Tau / Antitau <sup>[21]</sup>	$\tau^- / \tau^+$	-1 / +1
Strange	s	95 ± 5	1/2	+1/3	-1/3	Electron neutrino / Electron antineutrino <sup>[34]</sup>	$\nu_e / \bar{\nu}_e$	0
Top	t	173 210 ± 510 ± 710	1/2	+1/3	+2/3	Muon neutrino / Muon antineutrino <sup>[34]</sup>	$\nu_\mu / \bar{\nu}_\mu$	0
Bottom	b	4180 ± 30	1/2	+1/3	-1/3	Tau neutrino / Tau antineutrino <sup>[34]</sup>	$\nu_\tau / \bar{\nu}_\tau$	0

**Force-mediating Gauge Bosons** (spin-1 particles obeying Bose-Einstein statistics):

Photon  $\gamma$  (electromagnetic interaction),  $W^+$ ,  $W^-$ ,  $Z^0$  (weak interaction), gluons (strong interaction) [graviton (gravity) only conjectured]. All except weak interaction bosons are massless; the latter gain mass (80-91 GeV/ $c^2$ ) through interaction with the Higgs field.

All interactions proceed via gauge bosons coupling to various charges:

- electromagnetic interaction: electric charge (+ or -) (all Fermions except neutrinos, plus  $W$  bosons)
- weak interaction: weak charges (“weak isospin and weak hypercharge”) – all particles except photons, gluons
- strong interaction: color charges (“red”, “green”, “blue”) – all quarks and gluons.

## Molecules and Condensed Matter

**Ionic Bond:** One atom gives up 1 (or more) electron(s), the other picks it (them) up; binding through electrostatic attraction.

**Covalent Bond:** Electron(s) shared between two atoms. Example: Let  $\psi_1(\vec{r}_e)$  = wave function for hydrogen ground state with proton at position 1, and  $\psi_2(\vec{r}_e)$  for proton at position 2. Symmetric superposition  $\psi_S(\vec{r}_e) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\psi_1(\vec{r}_e) + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\psi_2(\vec{r}_e)$  is attractive (net charge between protons), antisymmetric superposition  $\psi_A(\vec{r}_e) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\psi_1(\vec{r}_e) - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\psi_2(\vec{r}_e)$  is non-binding (zero net charge between protons).

**Metallic Bond:** Many electrons (one or more per atom) shared between a large number  $N$  of atoms  $\rightarrow$  positively charged “rest atoms” in “Fermi gas” of electrons. Electron energy eigenstates are clustered in “bands”; highest (partially or totally unoccupied) band = conduction band, next lower (filled) band = valence band. Each band contains of order  $N$  eigenstates. Interaction between electron gas and oscillation modes (=phonons) of the “rest atoms” gives rise to conductive heating,  $V = RI$ , and superconductivity (Bose-Einstein condensation of “Cooper pairs” of electrons).

*Conductors:* partially filled conduction band and/or overlapping conduction and valence bands.

*Isolators:* Completely empty conduction band, completely filled valence band, large band gap.

*Semi-conductors:* Similar to isolators, but with smaller band gap. Can conduct at finite temperatures (see Fermi-Dirac distribution below). Conductivity increased through electron donor (n-doped) or electron acceptor (p-doped) impurities. pn-junction = diode.

## Thermal/Statistical Physics

Boltzmann Distribution: number  $n(E)$  of atoms (molecules, ...) out of an ensemble with a total of  $N$  atoms (...) with given energy  $E$  in a system with absolute temperature  $T$  (in K).

Discrete energy levels  $E_i$  (e.g., quantum systems) with degeneracy  $g_i$  (= number of eigenstates of the Hamiltonian with energy eigenvalue  $E_i$ ):

$$n(E_i) = C g_i e^{-E_i/kT} = \frac{g_i}{e^{(E_i-\mu)/kT}}; C = e^{\mu/kT} = N / \sum g_i e^{-E_i/kT}$$

( $C$  is a normalization constant;  $\mu$  is the “chemical potential”)

Continuous energy levels  $E$  (classical system, e.g. monatomic gas) with state density  $g(E)dE$  (= volume in “phase space” between energy  $E$  and energy  $E + dE$ ):

$$dn(E \dots E + dE) = C g(E)dE e^{-E/kT}; C = N / \int g(E)dE e^{-E/kT}$$

State density for simple monatomic gas:

$$g(E)dE = 4\pi p^2 dp = 4\pi m \sqrt{2mE} dE$$

Consequences: Ideal gas law  $PV = nRT = n N_A kT$ , ( $n$  = number of mols;  $N = n N_A$ );

average energy per degree of freedom (dimension of motion) =  $\frac{1}{2} kT \Rightarrow$  total kinetic energy of a monatomic gas =  $\frac{3}{2} kT$  per atom or  $E_{\text{tot}} = \frac{3}{2} n N_A kT = \frac{3}{2} nRT$

Fermi-Dirac Distribution (for a system of indistinguishable Fermions):

$$n(E_i) = N \frac{g_i}{e^{(E_i-\mu)/kT} + 1}; \mu \text{ here is right above the Fermi energy = the highest filled}$$

energy level necessary to accommodate all  $N$  fermions, where all lower energy levels are filled with as many Fermions as the Pauli principle allows

(= the state of a (degenerate) Fermi gas at (close to) zero temperature).

Bose-Einstein Distribution (for a system of indistinguishable bosons):

$$n(E_i) = N \frac{g_i}{e^{(E_i-\mu)/kT} - 1}; \mu \text{ here is right below the ground state energy (the lowest}$$

available energy level). If  $T$  goes to zero, all levels but that lowest energy level are empty = Bose-Einstein condensation.

Photon density for black-body radiation:  $\frac{dn_\gamma(\lambda \dots \lambda + d\lambda)}{dV} = \frac{8\pi}{\lambda^4} \frac{d\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1} = 8\pi \frac{f^2}{c^3} \frac{df}{e^{hf/kT} - 1}$

Energy density (= energy contained in electromagnetic radiation of frequency  $f$  or wave length  $\lambda$ , per unit volume  $V$ ) for black-body radiation (i.e., Bose-Einstein Distribution for a photon gas - Planck's Law):

$$\frac{dE}{V} = 8\pi h \frac{f^3}{c^3} \frac{df}{e^{hf/kT} - 1} = \frac{8\pi hc}{\lambda^5} \frac{d\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1}; \text{Energy flux/surface area } \frac{dE}{dAdt} = \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{d\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1}$$