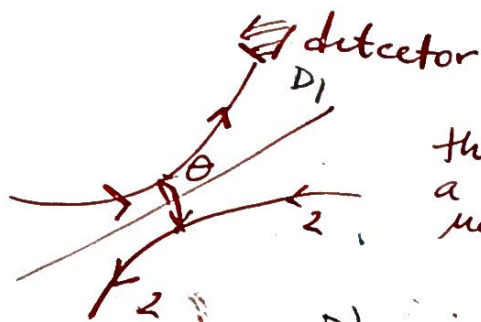
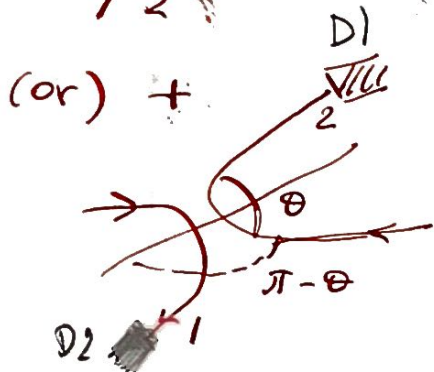


Collision between  $\sqrt{2}$  identical particles

Also read  
Feynman's  
Lectures  
Ch. 4-1



this is  
a center of  
mass picture.



Some have two independent channels. And we cannot decide which way we scatter particles 1 and 2, and we have to sum up the amplitudes for both events.

Note, classically we would have a differential cross-section which is the SUM of  $\sigma_i$  meaning we adding up probabilities and not amplitudes.

$$\frac{d\sigma_{cm}}{d\Omega} = |f(\theta, \phi)|^2 + |f(\frac{\theta-\pi}{\pi-\theta}, \phi+\pi)|^2$$

and  $f$  is defined from the scattered w.f.

$$\psi_{r \rightarrow +\infty} \rightarrow e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}} + f(\theta, \phi) \frac{e^{i\mathbf{k}\cdot\mathbf{r}}}{r}$$

Now recall the product for bosons and fermions is very different.

① Lets assume we scatter 2 spinless bosons

$$\mathbf{r}_1 \rightarrow \mathbf{r}_2 \rightarrow |\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2| \Rightarrow \mathbf{r} \rightarrow -\mathbf{r}$$

and in the polar coordinates means that  $r, \theta-\pi, \phi+\pi$

2 spinless bosons  
↓

$$\Psi_B(r \rightarrow +\infty) = e^{ikr} + e^{i\pi - kr} + [f(\theta, \phi) + f(\pi - \theta, \pi + \phi)] \frac{e^{ikr}}{r}$$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = |f(\theta, \phi) + f(\pi - \theta, \phi + \pi)|^2$$

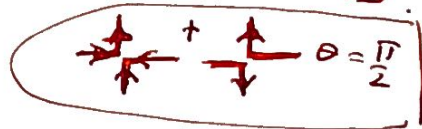
$$= |f(\theta, \pi)|^2 + |f(\pi - \theta, \phi + \pi)|^2 + \frac{2 \operatorname{Re} [f(\theta, \phi) \cdot f^*(\pi - \theta, \phi + \pi)]}{}$$

this is extra compared to classical scattering. = interference between scattering amplitudes

If the potential is independent of  $\phi$  (e.g. central potential)  $\Rightarrow$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = |f(\theta)|^2 + |f(\pi - \theta)|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re} [f(\theta) \cdot f(\pi - \theta)]$$

Note if  $\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} \rightarrow \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} = \underline{4} |f(\theta)|^2$



↑ the symmetry angle in the c.o.m.

↑ so  $1 + 1 = 4!$

in quantum mechanics

Moreover recall

$$f(\theta) \propto \frac{1}{k} \sum_{l=0}^{l_{\max}} (2l+1) P_l(\cos\theta) e^{i\delta_l} \sin\delta_l$$

to be symmetric  $\theta \rightarrow \pi - \theta$ , it can contain only even  $l$ s.

②

Scattering of 2 fermions spin =  $1/2$   
The total wave. func. must be antisymmetric.

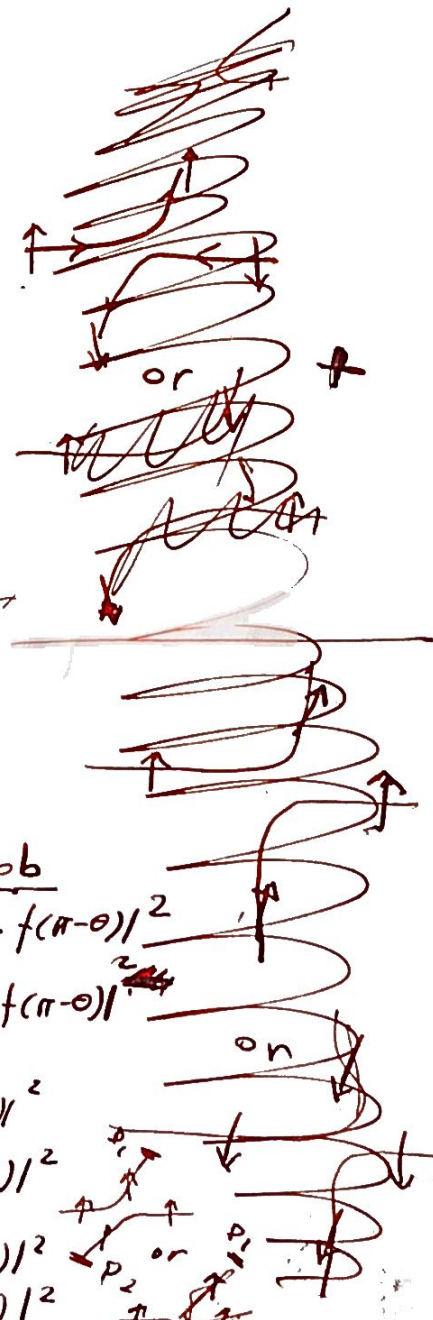
The spin part of the w.f. can be symmetric or antisymm., then the spatial part must be symm. for  $\uparrow\downarrow$  and antisymm. for  $\uparrow\uparrow$ . Assume the potential is central and spin independent.  $\Rightarrow$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} f_s &= f(\theta) + f(\theta - \pi) \\ f_a &= f(\theta) - f(\theta - \pi) \end{aligned} \right\} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \Big|_{\uparrow\downarrow} = |f(\theta)|^2 + |f(\pi - \theta)|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}[f(\theta) f^*(\pi - \theta)]$$

and

$$\left( \frac{d\sigma}{d\Omega} \right)_{\uparrow\uparrow} = |f(\theta)|^2 + |f(\pi - \theta)|^2 - 2 \operatorname{Re}[f(\theta) f^*(\pi - \theta)]$$



Assume that incoming fermions are up polarized. e.g.:

Fraction	S1	S2	Spin in D1	Spin in D2	Prob
1/4	↑	↑	↑	↑	$ f(\theta) - f(\pi - \theta) ^2$
1/4	↓	↓	↓	↓	$ f(\theta) - f(\pi - \theta) ^2$
1/4	↑	↓	↑	↓	$ f(\theta) ^2$
1/4	↓	↑	↓	↑	$ f(\theta - \pi) ^2$

Total:  $= \frac{1}{2} [ |f(\theta) + f(\pi - \theta)|^2 + |f(\theta) - f(\pi - \theta)|^2 ] + \frac{1}{2} |f(\theta)|^2 + \frac{1}{2} |f(\theta - \pi)|^2$

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$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total cross section} &= \\ &= |f(0)|^2 + |f(\frac{\pi}{2})|^2 - \frac{1}{2} |f(0) \cdot f(\frac{\pi}{2})| \end{aligned}$$

Compared to bosons the cross-section  
is a factor of  $\frac{1}{4}$  less.

Occupation number representation

This idea is very useful for many body theory or condensed matter

1. Particle in the box

lets set  $\hbar = 1$   $p = -i \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$  ;  $\psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} e^{ipx}$

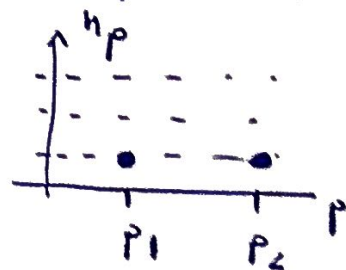
$p \psi(x) = -i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} = p \psi(x)$

if  $\psi(x) = \psi(x+L)$   $e^{ipx} = e^{ip(x+L)} \Rightarrow p_m = \frac{2\pi m}{L}$

out to a multi-particle state (e.g. bosons)

$p |p_1 p_2\rangle = (p_1 + p_2) |p_1 p_2\rangle$

$H |p_1 p_2\rangle = (E_1 + E_2) |p_1 p_2\rangle$

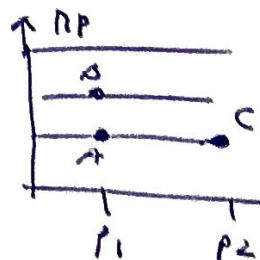


a two particle state  $|p_1 p_2\rangle$

What if I have 2 particles in  $p_3$ ?  $E_{p_3} = 2 \times E_{p_3}$  double of a single particle energy

$\sum_m n_{p_m} E_{p_m}$

$n_{p_m}$  is the total number of particles in the state  $p_m$



In QFT instead of listing what particle is in what state we can say

two particles are in  $p_1$ , 1 particle in  $p_2$  etc.

so we just specify how many in what state  $p_1 \dots p_N$

eg.  $|2100\dots\rangle$

↑  
number of particles in this momentum state.

is called occupation number representation

e.g.  $|9_1 9_1\rangle = |20\rangle$   $|9_2 9_2\rangle = |02\rangle$   $|9_1 9_1 9_1\rangle = |30\rangle$   
 $|9_1 9_2\rangle = |11\rangle$  etc.

Occupation number representation

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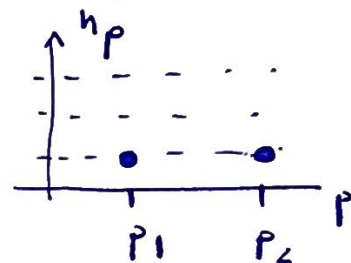
$p \psi(x) = -i \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} = p \psi(x)$

if  $\psi(x) = \psi(x+L)$   $e^{ipx} = e^{ip(x+L)} \Rightarrow p_m = \frac{2\pi m}{L}$

onto a multi-particle state (e.g. bosons)

$p |p_1 p_2\rangle = (p_1 + p_2) |p_1 p_2\rangle$

$H |p_1 p_2\rangle = (E_1 + E_2) |p_1 p_2\rangle$



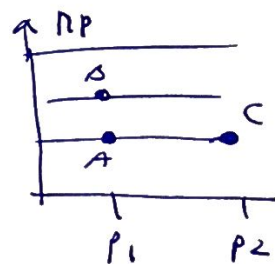
What if I have 2 particles

in  $p_3$ ?  $E_{p_3} = 2E_{p_3}$  double of a single particle energy

a two particle state  $|p_3 p_3\rangle$

$\sum_m n_{p_m} E_{p_m}$

$n_{p_m}$  is the total number of particles in the state  $p_m$



In QFT instead of listing what particle is in what state we can say

two particles are in  $p_1$ , 1 particle in  $p_2$  etc.

so we just specify how many in what state  $p_1 \dots p_N$

eg.  $|2100\dots\rangle$

↑  
number of particles in this momentum state.

is called occupation number representation

e.g.  $|9, 9, 1\rangle = |2, 0, 7\rangle$   $|9, 2, 9, 2\rangle = |0, 2, 7\rangle$   $|1, 9, 9, 9, 7\rangle = |1, 3, 0, 7\rangle$   
 $|9, 9, 2, 7\rangle = |1, 1, 1, 7\rangle$  etc.

L6  
happens when we  
What ~~act~~ ~~when~~ on this state by H

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$$H |n_1, n_2, \dots\rangle = \left[ \sum_m n_{p_m} E_{p_m} \right] |n_1, n_2, n_3, \dots\rangle$$

simply we find out how many particles  
in that state  $\times$  Energy of that state

Big Q: Why do we care?

Recall in harmonic oscillator

$$E_n = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega \quad \text{or} \quad E_n = n \hbar \omega$$

so in the oscillator we have  $n$  quanta,  
and the energy between states is equally  
spaced.

Now imagine  $N$  oscillators each labeled by  
 $k$  and the spacing is  $\hbar \omega_k$

$$\text{The total } E = \sum_{k=1}^N \hbar \omega_k \cdot n_k$$

e.g.  $k=3$   $\hbar \omega_3$  oscillator has  $n_3$  quanta in it  
and contributes to the energy  $\hbar \omega_3 \cdot n_3$

In general

$$E = \sum_m n_{p_m} E_{p_m}$$

momentum state  $p_m$  has  $n_{p_m}$  particles in it  
and contributes  $n_{p_m} E_{p_m}$  energy.

So it looks like we can think of a general  
system as analogous to oscillators.

What's next: Can we remove the notion of state vectors at all?

$$|n_1, n_2, \dots\rangle = \prod_k \frac{1}{(n_k!)^{1/2}} (a_k^\dagger)^{n_k} |0\rangle$$

so we retain only one very special state  $|0\rangle$

$$\text{From } |n_1, n_2, \dots, n_N\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n_1! n_2! \dots n_N!}} (a_1^\dagger)^{n_1} (a_2^\dagger)^{n_2} \dots (a_N^\dagger)^{n_N} |0, 0, \dots\rangle$$

The general state of the harmonic oscillator:

$$\rightarrow |n_1, \dots, n_N\rangle = \prod_k | \dots \rangle$$

$$\text{e.g. } |21000\dots\rangle = \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2!}} (a_1^\dagger)^2 \right] \left[ \frac{1}{\sqrt{1!}} a_2^\dagger \right] |0\rangle$$

so we can think of this situation as

$a_{p_i}^\dagger$  creates a particle with momentum  $p_i$   
 $|p_i\rangle$

### Indistinguishability & symmetry

) What I want to do is repeat the same consideration about sym. and antisym. argument for bosons and fermions.

e.g. we have  $p_1$  and  $p_2$  to describe the occupation number  $|n_1, n_2\rangle$

$$a_{p_1}^\dagger |0\rangle = |10\rangle \quad a_{p_2}^\dagger |0\rangle = |01\rangle$$

lets add another particle in the vacuum:

$$a_{p_2}^\dagger a_{p_1}^\dagger |0\rangle \propto |11\rangle$$

$$a_{p_1}^\dagger a_{p_2}^\dagger |0\rangle \propto |11\rangle$$

$$a_{p_1}^\dagger a_{p_2}^\dagger = \lambda a_{p_2}^\dagger a_{p_1}^\dagger \Rightarrow \lambda = \pm 1$$



# L6

$\lambda = 1$  = bosons

$$a_{p_2}^+ a_{p_1}^+ = a_{p_1}^+ a_{p_2}^+ \rightarrow [ ] = 0$$

$$[a_i, a_j^+] = \delta_{ij}$$

those commutation rules are the same as for oscillators.

The many particle state of bosons:

$$|n_1, n_2, \dots\rangle = \prod_{\mu} \frac{1}{(n_{p\mu}!)^{1/2}} (a_{p\mu}^+)^{n_{p\mu}} |0\rangle$$

$$a_{p_1}^+ a_{p_2}^+ |0\rangle = a_{p_2}^+ a_{p_1}^+ |0\rangle = |1_{p_1} 1_{p_2}\rangle$$

in general

$$a_i^+ |n_1 \dots n_i \dots\rangle = \sqrt{n_i+1} |n_1 \dots n_i+1 \dots\rangle$$

$$a_i^- |n_1 \dots n_i \dots\rangle = \sqrt{n_i} |n_1 \dots n_i-1 \dots\rangle$$

Case 2:  $\lambda = -1 \Rightarrow$

$$\{c_i^+, c_j^+\} \equiv c_i^+ c_j^+ + c_j^+ c_i^+ = 0$$

↑ anticommutator

$$c_i^+ |n_1 \dots n_i \dots\rangle = (-1)^{\sum_{k < i} n_k} \sqrt{1-n_i} |n_1 \dots n_i+1 \dots\rangle$$

$$c_i^- |n_1 \dots n_i \dots\rangle = (-1)^{\sum_{k < i} n_k} \sqrt{n_i} |n_1 \dots n_i-1 \dots\rangle$$

$$(-1)^{\sum_{k < i} n_k} \equiv (-1)^{n_1 + n_2 + n_3 \dots n_{i-1}}$$

The continuous limit

$$1) \quad \delta_{ij} \rightarrow \delta^3(p)$$

As the size of the system goes up  
spacing in  $p$  goes very much down.

$$[a_p, a_q^\dagger] = \delta^3(p-q) \quad \text{and}$$

$$H = \int d^3p \, \epsilon_p a_p^\dagger a_p$$

e.g. For a single-particle state

$$\langle p | p' \rangle = \langle 0 | a_p a_p^\dagger | 0 \rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle p | p' \rangle &= \langle 0 | [\delta^3(p-p') + a_p^\dagger a_p] | 0 \rangle = \\ &= \langle 0 | \delta^3(p-p') | 0 \rangle = \delta^3(p-p') \end{aligned}$$

So it works and we can rewrite both  
operators and states in terms of the  
number of particles ~~is~~ with momentum  $p$   
and the very special state  $|0\rangle$ .