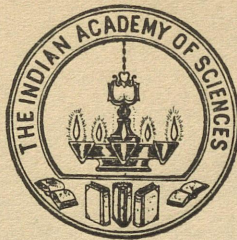


$q_{14} = 33461$
 $q_{14} = 80782, p_{14} = 114243$
 $q_{15} = 195025, p_{15} = 275807$
 $q_{16} = 470832, p_{16} = 665857$
 $q_{17} = 1136689, p_{17} = 1607521$
 $q_{18} = 2744210, p_{18} = 3880899$
 $q_{19} = 6625109, p_{19} = 9369319$
 $q_{21} = 15994428, p_{21} = 22619537$
 $q_{23} = 38613965, p_{23} = 54608393$

$q_{17} = 137 \times 8293$ (both ^{last} ~~quadrants~~ _{prime})
 $p_{17} = 103 \times 15607$ (")
 i.e. q_{17} and p_{17} are not ^{last} ~~primes~~

 $q_{19} = 37 \times 179057$ (both ^{last} ~~quadrants~~ _{prime})
 $p_{19} = 2 \times 4684659$ (prime)
 $q_{23} = 5 \times 7722793$ } both ^{last} ~~quadrants~~ _{prime}
 $p_{23} = 7 \times 7801199$ }

So it looks as if there are only the first three cases of $n=0, 1, 2$. This is to be proven



$$p^2 - 2q^2 = -1 \quad (2) \text{ (Sierpinski's problem)}$$

Are there infinitely of solutions in primes of this eqn?

$$\text{For } p^2 - 2q^2 = 1 \quad (1)$$

the only solution known and is $p=3, q=1$. This can be easily proved for solutions of (1) are given by the convergents (q_{2n}, p_{2n}) of the continued fraction for $\sqrt{2}$. and the even convergents $q_{2n} = 2q_n, p_{2n} = 2p_n$ hence not prime except for $n=1$ for which $q_2 = 2, p_2 = 3$.

For (2) solutions are given by the even odd convergents (because of multiple cycles in the continued fraction for $\sqrt{2}$) by (q_{2n+1}, p_{2n+1}) . The cases where $2n+1$ is not a prime can be discarded, for in these cases $q_{2n+1} = q_r q_s$ which is divisible by q_r, q_s & their product if r & s are relatively prime & hence (q_{2n+1}, p_{2n+1}) does not form a prime set. So we need consider only the cases where $(2n+1)$ is prime

(1) For $n=0, q_1=1, p_1=1$ is a prime set

(2) " $n=1, q_3=5, p_3=7$ "

(3) " $n=2, q_5=29, p_5=41$ "

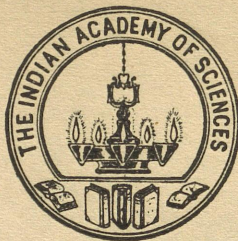
but for higher cases we have so far found

(4) $n=5, q_{11}=5741$ (prime), but $p_{11}=8119=23 \times 353$ (not a prime)

(5) $n=6, q_{13}=33461$ (prime), but $p_{13}=47321=79 \times 599$ (not a prime)

(6) $n=8, q_{17}=1136689=137 \times 8297$ (not prime) & $p_{17}=1607521=103 \times 15607$
(not prime)

Prof. Dr. B. S. MADHAVA RAO, D.Sc.
Secretary, Section A



Hebbal P.O., BANGALORE

(7) $n = 9$, $q_{19} = 6625109 = 37 \times 179057$ (not prime, but both equal to prime)

$\Delta p_{19} = 9369319$ which is prime.

(8) $n = 11$, $q_{23} = 38613965 = 5 \times 7722793$
 $p_{23} = 54608393 = 7 \times 7801199$ } both not prime.

(a) Angular momentum & spin.

Orbital A.M. - $M = r \times p \rightarrow [M_x, M_y] = i\hbar M_z, [M_y, M_z] = i\hbar M_x, [M_z, M_x] = i\hbar M_y$

Latter may be taken more general - M_x, M_y, M_z commute with M^2 . Representation

in which M_z and M^2 are diagonal - Putting $L = M_x \pm iM_y$ a way $M_x = \frac{1}{2}(L^+ + L^-), M_y = \frac{1}{2}i(L^+ - L^-)$

we can find reps of M_x & M_y if we know reps of L - General result that there are an infinite number of reps for M^2, M_z and L , each characterized by j or half-integer value j and has $2j+1$ rows & columns i.e. $j = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, \dots$ i.e. $2j$ is a +ve integer or 0. The eigenvalues

of M_z range from j to $-j$ by unit steps. Those of M^2 are given by $j(j+1)\hbar^2$. Those of L

are given by elements one step off the diagonal (a diagonal element = 0) - Matrices for different values of j (S. 10/166)

$$\left. \begin{aligned} M_x &= \frac{1}{2}\hbar \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ M_y &= \frac{1}{2}\hbar \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \\ M_z &= \frac{1}{2}\hbar \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

- Pauli matrices correspond to $j = \frac{1}{2}$ & are denoted by $\frac{1}{2}\hbar\sigma_x, \frac{1}{2}\hbar\sigma_y, \frac{1}{2}\hbar\sigma_z$ & we have

$\sigma_x\sigma_y - \sigma_y\sigma_x = 2i\sigma_z$ & also $\sigma_x\sigma_y + \sigma_y\sigma_x = 0, \sigma_x^2 = \sigma_y^2 = \sigma_z^2 = 1, \sigma^2 = 3$. So find eigenvalues of σ_x .

$\sigma_x \psi = \alpha \psi$ or $\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \alpha \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix}$ i.e. $c_2 = \alpha c_1, c_1 = \alpha c_2$

i.e. $\alpha^2 = 1$ or $\alpha = \pm 1$ & normalized wave fns are $(\psi_+)_x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ & $(\psi_-)_x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$

these are called spins (column vectors) or semi-vectors

For all integral j correspond orbital A.M. & the corresponding matrices satisfy $M = r \times p$

for half-odd integral j this is not true since corresponding matrices satisfy $[M_y, M_z] = i\hbar M_x$

etc, but not $M = r \times p$. These correspond to intrinsic A.M. of particles or spin A.M. or

merely spin. Experimentally it is found that electrons, protons, neutrons & μ -mesons

have spins $\frac{1}{2}$, while π -meson has spin 0.

(b) Identical particles and spin.

(1) $i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(1, 2, \dots, n, t) = H(1, 2, \dots, n) \Psi(1, 2, \dots, n, t)$ (H sym in $1, 2, \dots, n$)

Satisfied by symmetric & antisymmetric wave fns. Symmetry & antisymmetry invariant

with time for H if Ψ be symmetric so is $H\Psi$ & hence $i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t}$ but at time $t+dt, \Psi \rightarrow \Psi + \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} dt$

& hence also symmetric. Same argument holds for Ψ_A . Ψ_A cannot be constructed from a soln. unaltered by interchange of any pair.

(2) Since H is symmetric, $n!$ solns obtained by permutations of any general unsymmetrised soln

is also a soln - obtain Ψ_S & Ψ_A from these permutations - solns obtained by permutation

have exchanged sign i.e. $\Psi(1, 2, \dots, n; t) = u(1, 2, \dots, n) e^{-iEt/\hbar}$ is the stationary soln

with $[H(1, 2, \dots, n) - E]u(1, 2, \dots, n) = 0$ Cons of $n = 2$ & $n = 3$ give Ψ_S & Ψ_A - Case $n = 2$

$\Psi_S \pm \Psi_A = u(1, 2) \pm u(2, 1)$ for $n = 3, u(1, 2, 3), u(2, 3, 1), u(3, 1, 2)$ and $u(2, 1, 3), u(3, 2, 1)$

and $u(1, 3, 2)$ leading to $[u(1, 2, 3) + u(2, 3, 1) + u(3, 1, 2)] \pm [u(2, 1, 3) + u(3, 2, 1) + u(1, 3, 2)]$

$2^n - 1$ prime $\rightarrow 2^{n-1} (2^n - 1)$ is perfect. (6, 28, 496)

$n=2, 3 \rightarrow 2 \times 3 = 6 = 1+2+3$

$n=3, 7 \rightarrow 4 \times 7 = 28 = 1+2+4+7+14 = 28$

$n=4, \times$

$n=5, 31 \rightarrow 16 \times 31 = 496 = 1+2+4+8+16+31+62+124+248 = 496$

$n=6, \times$

$n=7, 127 \rightarrow 64 \times 127 = 1+2+4+8+16+32+64+127+254+508+1016$

$= 8128 + 2032 + 4064 + \cancel{8128} = 16256$
 $\left. \begin{array}{r} 8128 \\ 8128 \end{array} \right\}$

Do odd perfect numbers exist?

$$1+2+2^2+\dots+2^{n-1} + (2^n-1)(1+2+2^2+\dots+2^{n-2})$$

$$= (2^n-1) + (2^n-1)(2^{n-1}-1) = (2^n-1)(2^{n-1}+1)$$

$$= 2^{n-1}(2^n-1) \text{ trivial.}$$

$3^n + 2$ $3^m (3^n + 2)$

$$1+3+\dots+3^m + (3^n+2)(1+3+\dots+3^{m-1})$$

$$\frac{1}{2}(3^{m+1}-1) + (3^n+2) \cdot \frac{1}{2}(3^m-1)$$

$$\frac{1}{2} \left\{ (3^{m+1}-1) + (3^n+2)(3^m-1) \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 3^{m+1}-1 + 3^{m+n} + 2 \cdot 3^m - 3^n - 2 \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left\{ 3^{m+1} + 3^{m+n} + 2 \cdot 3^m - 3 \right\}$$

8191 prime?

- 7 117x
- 13 63x
- 17 48x
- 19 43x
- 23 35x
- 29 28x
- 31 26x
- 37 22x
- 41 19x
- 43 19x
- 47 17x
- 53 15x
- 59 13x
- 61 13x
- 67 12x
- 71 11x
- 73 11x
- 79 10x
- 83 9x
- 89 9x
- 97 8x

129
 229
 252
 199
 186
 131

79
 409
 349
 401

289
 265
 241

389
 387
 21

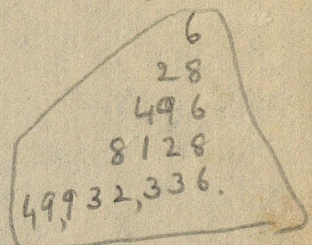
229
 177
 521

149
 134
 157

89
 73
 161

819
 747
 721
 51

9)8191(99
 187 | 919 Perfect no



349
 329
 201

209
 183
 261

109
 71
 381

291
 2

819
 801
 181

yes 8191 is prime ie $2^{13} - 1$ is prime

then $2^{12} (2^{13} - 1)$ is perfect.

$2^n - 1$ is prime for $n=2, 3, 5, 7, 13,$

$\rightarrow 8191 \times 4096$

$$\begin{array}{r} 49146 \\ 73719 \\ 0000 \\ 49146 \\ \hline 49932336 \end{array}$$

8192

There are four more independent eigenfunctions that can be formed out the two []'s for in case $n=3$ for eg with one $-$ spin in each & 2 minus spins in each. But they don't appear to describe any particles found in nature. (1)

~~(3) Probability density associated with ψ_S or ψ_A for two particles is sum of probability densities associated with individual particles if interference effects between exchange symmetric wave fns are neglected~~

~~$$|u(1,2) \pm u(2,1)|^2 = |u(1,2)|^2 + |u(2,1)|^2 + 2 \operatorname{Re}[u(1,2)u(2,1)]$$

$$= |u(1,2)|^2 + |u(2,1)|^2 \quad \text{if last term be neglected}$$~~

(1) Exclusion principle - Neglecting interactions between the particles of the system, unperturbed $H = H_0$ is

3/12/68

$$H_0(1, 2, \dots, n) = H_0'(1) + H_0'(2) + \dots + H_0'(n)$$

approximate energy eigenfunction

$$u(1, 2, \dots, n) = v_\alpha(1) v_\beta(2) \dots v_\gamma(n)$$

$$E = E_\alpha + E_\beta + \dots + E_\gamma$$

$$H_0'(1) v_\alpha(1) = E_\alpha v_\alpha(1), \text{ etc.} \quad (1)$$

For electrons (Spin 1/2)

$$u_A(1, 2, \dots, n) = \begin{vmatrix} v_\alpha(1) & v_\alpha(2) & \dots & v_\alpha(n) \\ v_\beta(1) & v_\beta(2) & \dots & v_\beta(n) \\ \dots & \dots & \dots & \dots \\ v_\gamma(1) & v_\gamma(2) & \dots & v_\gamma(n) \end{vmatrix}$$

[P.T.O]

u_A is a solution of the wave eqⁿ $(H_0 - E) u_A = 0$ as seen from (1). The determinant vanishes if two or more v 's are the same. Thus H_0 has no soln for which there is more than one electron in any one of the states $\alpha, \beta, \dots, \gamma$. This is Pauli's exclusion principle (for H-atom, statement is no two electrons have the same quantum numbers) $(H_0 - E) u_A = 0$.

(2) Connection with Statistical mechanics.

In addition to the above u_A we can form a u_S obtained from u by the sum of all different permutations of $1, 2, \dots, n$ among the one particle eigenfunction $v_\alpha, v_\beta, \dots, v_\gamma$. u_A is characterized by as a system (antisymmetric) in which no. of particles in each state is zero or 1 and is called a system obeying Fermi-Dirac Statistics & the particles are Fermions. Similarly the u_S obtained is characterized as a system (symmetric) in which the no. of particles in any state can be from $0, 1, 2, \dots, n$ & the system is said to be obey Bose-Einstein Statistics & particles are called Bosons.

(3) Spin & Statistics

(1) Addition of A.M - one rep $\vec{M} = \vec{M}_1 + \vec{M}_2$ (i) one repⁿ in which $M_{11}, M_{22}, M_{12}, M_{21}$ are diagonal & is not of much physical significance (ii) 2nd repⁿ in which $M_{11}, M_{22}, M_{12}, M_{21}$ are diagonal. In this case, since $M_z = M_{1z} + M_{2z}$, we can show that values of M_z comparing to M_z ranges from $J_1 + J_2$ to $|J_1 - J_2|$. If an aggregate consists of n particles each of

$$H_0 u(1,2,m) = E u(1,2,n)$$

$$H_0 u_\alpha v_\beta \cdot v_\gamma = E u_\alpha v_\beta \cdot v_\gamma \quad (1)$$

$$\{H'_0(1) + H'_0(2) + \dots + H'_0(n)\} v_\alpha^{(1)} v_\beta^{(2)} \dots v_\gamma^{(n)}$$

$$= (E_\alpha + E_\beta + \dots + E_\gamma) v_\alpha v_\beta \dots v_\gamma \quad (2)$$

Since $H'_0(1) v_\alpha = E_\alpha v_\alpha$ while $H'_0(1) v_\beta = 0$, (2) reduces to

$$H_0 u_A = E u_A$$

$$\{H'_0(1) + \dots + H'_0(n)\} u_A = (E_\alpha + E_\beta + \dots + E_\gamma) u_A$$

$$H'_0(1) u_\alpha = E_\alpha u_\alpha$$

$$H'_0(2) v_\beta = E_\beta v_\beta$$

$$H'_0(n) v_\gamma = E_\gamma v_\gamma$$

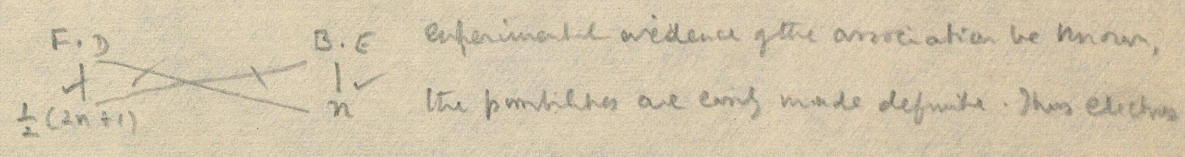
$$u_A = \sum v_\alpha^{(1)} v_\beta^{(2)} \dots v_\gamma^{(n)}$$

$$E_\alpha v_\alpha v_\beta \dots v_\gamma + E_\beta v_\alpha v_\beta \dots v_\gamma + \dots = E v_\alpha v_\beta \dots v_\gamma$$

$$\cancel{H'_0(1) v_\beta^{(2)} = 0}$$

which has spin $1/2$ & any no. of particles of spin 0 (ignoring internal orbital A.M.), the total spin can be any integer from 0 to $\frac{1}{2}n$ if n is even, or can vary by integer steps from $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{2}n$ if n is odd. If n is odd, no symmetric but only an antisymmetric ^{spin} wave fn can be constructed for the system i.e. particles with half-odd integral spin obey the Fermi-Dirac statistics. For n even ~~only~~ symmetric wave fns can be constructed & hence particles of integral spin obey Bose-Einstein statistics.

Thus all elementary particles (considered as aggregates of particles sufficiently tightly bound) are of integral or of half-odd integral spin (n or $\frac{2n+1}{2}$). Re. Statistics obeyed by particles of either type that are to be established viz as shown in the figure. Even if a single



of spin $\frac{1}{2} = \frac{1}{2}(0+1)$ satisfy the Exclusion Principle i.e. the F.D. statistics. Hence we conclude that particles of half-odd integral spin obey the F.D. & particles of integral spin the B.E. statistics respectively.

(4) The Klein-Gordon Equation: Relation $E^2 = c^2 p^2 + m^2 c^4$ between momentum & energy in special relativity - According to Pauli they 4-vector form a 4-vector given by

$(p_1, p_2, p_3) = c\vec{p}$, $p_4 = -iE$ i.e. $\sum_{i=1}^4 p_i^2 = c^2 p^2 - E^2$; as a special case $(0, 0, 0, -im_0 c)$ is also a four-vector i.e. $\sum p_i^2 = -m_0^2 c^4$ $\therefore c^2 p^2 - E^2 = -m_0^2 c^4$ i.e. $E^2 = c^2 p^2 + m_0^2 c^4$

Alternatively: $E = mc^2 = m_0 c^2 / \sqrt{1-v^2/c^2} = m_0 \gamma c^2$ & $\vec{p} = m\vec{v} = m_0 \vec{v} / \sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}$

$$E^2 - c^2 p^2 = \frac{m_0^2 c^4}{(1-v^2/c^2)} - \frac{m_0^2 v^2 c^2}{(1-v^2/c^2)} = \frac{m_0^2 c^2}{1-v^2/c^2} (c^2 - v^2) = m_0^2 c^4$$

i.e. $E^2 = c^2 p^2 + m^2 c^4$

Making the quantum operators for E & \vec{p} , $E \rightarrow i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}$, $\vec{p} \rightarrow -i\hbar \text{grad}$, the wave eqn

for a free particle becomes

$$-\hbar^2 \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial t^2} = -\hbar^2 c^2 \nabla^2 \Psi + m^2 c^4 \Psi \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \nabla^2 \Psi - \frac{m^2 c^4}{\hbar^2} \Psi \quad (1)$$

which is the Klein-Gordon eqn of the second order.

Ψ is a plane wave solution given by $\Psi = \exp(i(\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r} - Et))$ if

$$\hbar^2 E^2 = \hbar^2 c^2 p^2 + m^2 c^4 \quad \text{or} \quad E^2 = c^2 p^2 + m^2 c^4 / \hbar^2 \quad (2)$$

E and $\hbar\vec{p}$ being the eigenvalues of the eigenfns of the operators E & \vec{p} by (2).

$$E = \pm \sqrt{(c^2 p^2 + m^2 c^4 / \hbar^2)}^{1/2}$$

i.e. there are negative energy eigenvalues & there is seen to be no way of ^{explaining} removing them in the 2nd order eqn

$$M_x = y p_z - z p_y, M_y = z p_x - x p_z, M_z = x p_y - y p_x$$

$$[x_i, p_j] = i \hbar \delta_{ij}$$

$$[M_x, M_y] = (y p_z - z p_y)(z p_x - x p_z) - (z p_x - x p_z)(y p_z - z p_y)$$

$$= y p_z z p_x - y p_z x p_z - z p_y z p_x + z p_y x p_z - z p_x y p_z + z p_x z p_y + x p_z y p_z - x p_z z p_y$$

$$= z p_x (y p_z - z p_y) - y p_z (z p_x - x p_z) + x p_y (z p_x - x p_z)$$

$$= i \hbar (x p_y - y p_x) = i \hbar M_z$$

$$[M_x, M^2] = M_x (M_x^2 + M_y^2 + M_z^2) - (M_x^2 + M_y^2 + M_z^2) M_x$$

$$= M_x M_y^2 - M_y^2 M_x + M_x M_z^2 - M_z^2 M_x$$

$$i \hbar (M_y M_z + M_z M_y) = M_y (M_x M_y - M_y M_x) + M_z (M_z M_x - M_x M_z)$$

$$i \hbar (M_z M_y + M_y M_z) = M_z (M_z M_x - M_x M_z) + M_y (M_x M_y - M_y M_x)$$

Subtrahiert $0 = -M_y^2 M_x + M_z^2 M_x - M_z^2 M_x + M_y^2 M_x$

$$i \hbar (M_y M_z + M_z M_y) = M_y (M_x M_y - M_y M_x) + M_z (M_z M_x - M_x M_z)$$

$$i \hbar (M_z M_y + M_y M_z) = M_z (M_z M_x - M_x M_z) + M_y (M_x M_y - M_y M_x)$$

$$= (M_x M_y - M_y M_x) M_y + (M_z M_x - M_x M_z) M_z$$

Subtrahiert $-M_y^2 M_x$

Subtrahiert $0 = -M_y^2 M_x + M_z^2 M_x - M_x M_y^2 + M_x M_z^2$

$$i \hbar (M_z M_y + M_y M_z) = i \hbar M_z (M_z M_x - M_x M_z) +$$

$$= (M_x M_y - M_y M_x) M_y + (M_z M_x - M_x M_z) M_z$$

$$i \hbar (M_y M_z + M_z M_y) = (M_z M_x - M_x M_z) M_z + (M_x M_y - M_y M_x) M_y$$

$$= M_x M_y^2 - M_z M_z^2 + M_x M_z^2 + M_x M_y^2$$

$$i \hbar (M_y M_z + M_z M_y) = M_y (M_x M_y - M_y M_x) + M_z (M_z M_x - M_x M_z)$$

$$i \hbar (M_z M_y + M_y M_z) = (M_x M_y - M_y M_x) M_y + (M_z M_x - M_x M_z) M_z$$

Subtrahiert $-M_y^2 M_x$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} = \psi \cdot p_x$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} = \psi \cdot p_y$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial z} = \psi \cdot p_z$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = c^2 \nabla^2 \psi - \frac{m^2 c^4}{\hbar^2} \psi$$

$$E^2 = c^2 p^2 - \frac{m^2 c^4}{\hbar^2}$$

$$\psi = e^{i(\vec{p} \cdot \vec{r} - Et)}$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \psi (-E) \quad \nabla^2 \psi = -\psi p^2$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -i E \psi$$

Moreover, as shown by very sound arguments given by Dirac, every wave equation (3) must be linear in $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$, for only ^{to} such a real linear operator acting on ψ can a meaning be attached. But the Klein-Gordon eqⁿ is of second order in $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$.

Thirdly, this equation cannot represent a particle having a spin other than zero. For if spin be $\frac{1}{2}$, the Pauli matrices $\sigma_x, \sigma_y, \sigma_z$ cannot be included in the equation, since the Klein-Gordon eqⁿ, being relativistic, can only include four matrices. Also the wave eq^s spin-functions in this case are two in number viz ^{the two} spinors, while those the K-G eqⁿ is only one.

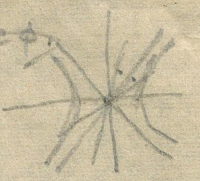
Hence an alternate wave function equation removing the above three difficulties had to ^{be} found, and this was done by Dirac.

(5) The Dirac wave equation:

$e^{ix} = \cos x + i \sin x$
 $e^{-ix} = \cos x - i \sin x$
 $\cos x = \frac{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}{2}$
 $\sin x = \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{2i}$
 $\tan x = \frac{\sin x}{\cos x} = \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{i(e^{ix} + e^{-ix})}$
 $\Rightarrow i \tan x = \frac{e^{ix} - e^{-ix}}{e^{ix} + e^{-ix}}$
 $\Rightarrow \tanh \psi = \beta$

$x'_1 = \frac{x_1 - ct \sinh \psi}{\sqrt{1 - \tanh^2 \psi}} = x_1 \cosh \psi - ct \sinh \psi$
 $x'_4 = -ct \sinh \psi + x_4 \cosh \psi$

$x_1^2 - x_4^2 = 1$



$\cosh \psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$
 $\sinh \psi = \frac{\beta}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$
 $l = l_0 / \cosh \psi, \tau = \tau_0 \cosh \psi$

$x^2 - y^2 = 1$
 $y = mx, y = m'x$ are conjugate if $mm' = 1$

Velocity Addition Theorem

$v_i = \frac{dx_i}{dt}$ defined $\beta = v/c$ or ic .

$\frac{dz}{dt} = \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}$

$v_x = \frac{v_x}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, v_y = \frac{ic}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$

$ic \frac{dt}{dc}$
 $x^4 = m'x^1$
 $x^4 = m^2 x^1$

$dz = dt \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}$
 $dt = \frac{dz}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$

$v_1 = \frac{dx_1}{dt} \frac{dt}{dz} = \frac{v_x}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, v_4 = \frac{dx_4}{dz} = \frac{ic}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$

$w = \frac{v_1 + v_2}{1 + v_1 v_2 / c^2}$

$v_1 = -ic \tan \phi_1$
 $v_2 = -ic \tan \phi_2$

$-ic(\tan \phi_1 + \tan \phi_2) = -ic \tan(\phi_1 + \phi_2)$
 $1 - \tan \phi_1 \tan \phi_2 = \frac{1 - \tan^2(\phi_1 + \phi_2)}{1 - \tan^2 \phi_1 - \tan^2 \phi_2}$

$\frac{dv_i}{dc} = \gamma \left(\frac{dx}{dc}, \gamma c \frac{d^2 t}{dc^2} \right)$

$v_1^2 = \frac{v_x^2 + v_y^2}{1 - \beta^2} = \frac{v_x^2 + v_y^2}{1 - v_x^2/c^2 - v_y^2/c^2}$
 $\frac{x_1^4}{x_1^1} \cdot \frac{x_2^4}{x_2^1} = 1$

$\frac{x_1^4 x_2^4}{x_1^1 x_2^1} = \frac{(-x_1^1 \sinh \psi + x_1^4 \cosh \psi)(-x_2^1 \sinh \psi + x_2^4 \cosh \psi)}{(x_1^1 \cosh \psi - x_1^4 \sinh \psi)(x_2^1 \cosh \psi - x_2^4 \sinh \psi)}$

$x_1^4 x_2^4 = x_1^1 x_2^1$

$(\cosh \psi, \sinh \psi)$

$\frac{\cosh \psi}{\sinh \psi} = \frac{\sinh \psi}{\cosh \psi} = 1$

$\begin{cases} x^1 \sinh \psi - x^4 \cosh \psi = 0 \\ x^1 \cosh \psi - x^4 \sinh \psi = 0 \end{cases}$ Conj. diam

$\frac{x_1^4}{x_1^1} = \frac{x_2^4}{x_2^1}$
 $x^1 \cosh \psi - y^1 \sinh \psi = 0$

$(-x^1 \sinh \psi + x^4 \cosh \psi)^2 - (-x^1 \sinh \psi + x^4 \cosh \psi)^2$
 $= x^1^2 (\cosh^2 \psi - \sinh^2 \psi) - x^4^2 (\cosh^2 \psi - \sinh^2 \psi)$
 $= (x^1)^2 - (x^4)^2$

$x^1 \sinh \psi + x^4 \cosh \psi = x^4$

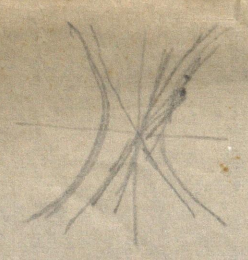
$x^1 \cosh \psi + x^4 \sinh \psi = x^1$

$\begin{cases} x^1 \sinh \psi' - x^4 \cosh \psi' = 0 \\ x^1 \cosh \psi' - x^4 \sinh \psi' = 0 \end{cases}$

$(x^1 \cosh \psi + x^4 \sinh \psi) \sinh \psi = (x^1 \sinh \psi + x^4 \cosh \psi) \cosh \psi$

$x^4 = 0 \wedge x^1 = 0$ (?)

$$\frac{y}{y_1} = \frac{x}{x_1}$$



$$\left. \begin{aligned} xx'' - yy'' &= 0 \\ xy' - yx' &= 0 \\ x_1^2 - y_1^2 &= 1 \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} y &= \frac{y_1}{x_1} x \\ y &= m \cdot x \\ m &= \frac{y_1}{x_1} \\ y &= \frac{y_1}{x_1} x \end{aligned}$$

$$x \cosh \psi - y \sinh \psi = 1 \quad y = x \cosh \psi$$

$$x^2(1 - \cosh^2 \psi) = 1 \quad x^2 = -x^2 = \sinh^2 \psi$$

$$x = i \sinh \psi, \quad y = i \cosh \psi$$

~~$$x'^1 \cosh \psi - x'^4 \sinh \psi$$

$$(x' \cosh \psi - x^4 \sinh \psi) \cosh \psi$$

$$- (x' \sinh \psi + x^4 \cosh \psi) \sinh \psi = 0$$

$$x' (\cosh^2 \psi + \sinh^2 \psi) - 2x^4 \sinh \psi \cosh \psi$$~~

~~$$(x' \cosh \psi - x^4 \sinh \psi) \cosh \psi'$$

$$- (-x' \sinh \psi + x^4 \cosh \psi) \sinh \psi' = 0$$~~

$$x' (\cosh \psi \cosh \psi' + \sinh \psi \sinh \psi') - x^4 (\sinh \psi \cosh \psi' + \cosh \psi \sinh \psi')$$

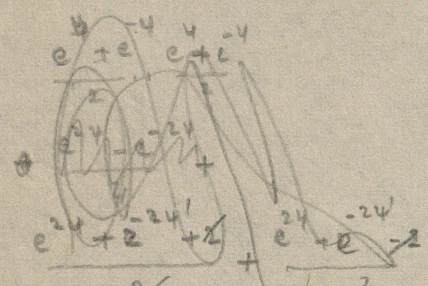
$$x' \cosh(\psi + \psi') - x^4 \sinh(\psi + \psi')$$

$$x'^1 \cosh \psi' - x'^4 \sinh \psi'$$

$$= (x' \cosh \psi - x^4 \sinh \psi) \sinh \psi' - (-x' \sinh \psi + x^4 \cosh \psi) \cosh \psi'$$

$$= x' (\cosh \psi \sinh \psi' + \sinh \psi \cosh \psi')$$

$$- x^4 (\sinh \psi \sinh \psi' + \cosh \psi \cosh \psi') = 0$$



$$\frac{e^{\psi+\psi'} + e^{-(\psi+\psi')}}{2} = \frac{e^{\psi} + e^{-\psi}}{2} \cdot \frac{e^{\psi'} + e^{-\psi'}}{2}$$

$$\frac{e^{\psi+\psi'} - e^{-(\psi+\psi')}}{2} = \frac{e^{\psi} - e^{-\psi}}{2} \cdot \frac{e^{\psi'} - e^{-\psi'}}{2}$$

4

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \sinh(x \pm y) &= \sinh x \cosh y \pm \cosh x \sinh y \\ \cosh(x \pm y) &= \cosh x \cosh y \pm \sinh x \sinh y \end{aligned} \right\}$$

$$x' \sinh(\psi + \psi') - x^4 \cosh(\psi + \psi') = 0$$

$$l = l_0 / \cosh \psi, \quad t = \tau \cosh \psi$$

Velocity

$$\text{sign } \lambda \text{ exp }^n \quad u^i = \frac{dx^i}{d\tau}$$

$$u^i = \frac{dx^i}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \frac{dx^i/dt}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}}, \quad (u^1, u^2, u^3) = \frac{\vec{u}}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}}$$

u^0/c

$$u^0 = \frac{dx^0}{dt} \cdot \frac{dt}{d\tau} = \frac{c}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}}$$

Transformation formulas

$$\left\{ \begin{aligned} u'^1 &= u^1 \cos \phi + u^0 \sin \phi \\ u'^0 &= -u^1 \sin \phi + u^0 \cos \phi \end{aligned} \right. \quad ; \quad u'^1 = \frac{u^1 + (u^0/c) u^0}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}}, \quad u'^0 = \dots$$

$$\left[\begin{aligned} \tan \phi &= i\beta \\ \tanh \psi &= \beta \\ \phi &= i\psi \end{aligned} \right]$$

Addition theorem for velocities in same direction

$$\vec{w} = \frac{v_1 + v_2}{1 + v_1 v_2 / c^2} \rightarrow \frac{-ic \tan \phi_1 - ic \tan \phi_2}{1 - \tan \phi_1 \tan \phi_2}$$

$$\left[\begin{aligned} \frac{v}{c} &= \tan \phi \\ v &= -ic \tanh \psi \\ w &= -ic \tanh(\phi_1 + \phi_2) \end{aligned} \right]$$

$$= -ic \frac{\tan \phi_1 + \tan \phi_2}{1 - \tan \phi_1 \tan \phi_2} \quad \cancel{\neq \tan(\phi_1 + \phi_2)}$$

$$\text{ie } w = \tan(\phi_1 + \phi_2)$$

∴ if velocities ϕ_1, ϕ_2 can be added & yield $\phi_1 + \phi_2$

(2).

$$= \frac{1}{c^2} \left\{ c^2 \left(1 + \frac{vv'}{c^2}\right)^2 - (v+v')^2 \right\} = \frac{1}{c^2} \left\{ c^2 + 2vv' + \frac{v^2 v'^2}{c^2} - v^2 - v'^2 \right\}$$

$$= \left\{ 1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2} - \frac{v'^2}{c^2} + \frac{2vv'}{c^2} \right\} = (1-\beta^2)(1-\beta'^2)$$

Beautiful job by me

$$t'' = \frac{t' - v'x'/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta'^2}} = \frac{t - vx/c^2 - v'(x-vt)/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2} \sqrt{1-\beta'^2}} = \frac{t(1+vv'/c^2) - (v+v')x/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2} \sqrt{1-\beta'^2}}$$

$$v'' = \frac{v+v'}{1+vv'/c^2}, \quad t'' = \frac{(1+vv'/c^2)(t-vx/c^2)}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2} \sqrt{1-\beta'^2}}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x' &= \frac{x-vx't}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \\ y' &= \frac{y-vy't}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \\ z' &= \frac{z-vz't}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \\ t' &= \frac{t-vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

(D) Rel. Kinematics

$x^i(x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3)$ or x_i
 $v \text{ et } dt = v \text{ et } dt' = \frac{dx^i}{dt}$
 $ds = c dt$

(D) Lorentz contraction & time dilatation

(C) $x'_2 - x'_1 = l_0$ (in moving system K')
 $x_2(t) - x_1(t) = L$ (in stationary system)
 $\frac{x_2(t) - vt}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} - \frac{x_1(t) - vt}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = l_0$

$x_2 - x_1 = l_0$
 $x'_2(t') - x'_1(t') = l$
 $l_0 = \frac{x_2 + vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} - \frac{x_1 + vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \frac{L}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$

$\frac{L}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = l_0 \quad \text{or } L = l_0 \sqrt{1-\beta^2}$ contraction

$\tau_0 = t'_2 - t'_1$ (in K')
 $\tau = t_2 - t_1$ (in K)
 $\tau = \frac{t'_2 + vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} - \frac{t'_1 + vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \frac{\tau_0}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ dilatation

(C) $\omega t = \frac{v}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \left(\frac{t_2 - t_1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} - \frac{v(x_2 - x_1)/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \right)$

(B) Space reflection, time reversal & total inversion P, T, PT are also L.T.'s, but of no importance since invariance under L_H is a minimal requirement. Hence consideration of subgroups $(L_H, PL_H), (L_H, TL_H), (L_H, PTL_H)$ of the full L.T. each containing L_H as a proper subgroup. These exist in theory of elementary particles.

(D) Rel. Kinematics:

(i) 4 dimensional representation of L.T.'s in terms of ϕ & ψ ($\phi = i\psi$) $\left. \begin{aligned} x^0 = x_0, x^1 = x_1, x^2 = x_2, x^3 = x_3 \\ x^4 = ict, x^5 = ct \end{aligned} \right\}$

$x' = \frac{x-vt}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}, \quad t' = \frac{t-vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \quad \left[\tan \phi = i\beta, \quad v = -ict \tan \phi, \quad \tan \psi = \beta \right]$

$\left. \begin{aligned} x' &= \frac{x + ict \tan \phi}{\sqrt{1 + \tan^2 \phi}} = x \cos \phi + ic \sin \phi t, & x'_1 &= x_1 \cos \phi + x_4 \sin \phi \\ & & x'_4 &= -x_1 \sin \phi + x_4 \cos \phi \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (x_4 = ict)$

(A)

$$x' = \frac{x-vt}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}, t' = \frac{t-vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$$

$v \rightarrow$ identity

$$x' \sqrt{1-\beta^2} = x - vt$$
$$t' \sqrt{1-\beta^2} = t - vx/c^2$$

$$\sqrt{1-\beta^2} \cdot vx'/c^2 + t' \sqrt{1-\beta^2} = t(1-\beta)$$

$$\sqrt{1-\beta^2} (x' + vt') = x(1-\beta^2) \Rightarrow x = \frac{x' + vt'}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}, t = \frac{t' + vx'/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$$

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - ct^2 = x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 - ct'^2$$

may be proved

$$x = \frac{x' + vt'}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}, t = \frac{t' + vx'/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$$

$$x'' = \frac{(x-vt) - v(t-vx/c^2)}{(1-\beta^2)}$$
$$x'' = \frac{x' + vt'}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}, t'' = \frac{t' + vx'/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$$

$$x'' = \frac{x - vt + v(t - vx/c^2)}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}, t'' = \frac{(t - vx/c^2) + v/c^2(x - vt)}{(1-\beta^2)}$$

$x' = x, t' = t$, beautiful given by Einstein

$s = ct$ or ice

$$x'' = \frac{x' - v't'}{\sqrt{1-\beta'^2}}, t'' = \frac{t' - v'x'/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta'^2}}$$

$$x_4 = ct$$
$$ds = c d\tau, u = \frac{dx}{d\tau}$$
$$\frac{dx}{dc} \frac{d\tau}{dt}$$
$$\frac{dx}{dc} \frac{d\tau}{ds}$$

$$x'' = \frac{x - vt - v'(t - vx/c^2)}{\sqrt{1-\beta'^2}}$$

$$= \frac{x(1 + vv'/c^2) - t(v + v')}{\sqrt{1-\beta'^2} \sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$$

Addition
velocities

$$\frac{v+v'}{1+vv'/c^2} = v''$$

$$= \frac{1 + vv'/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta'^2} \sqrt{1-\beta^2}} (x - v''t)$$

$$\frac{1 + vv'/c^2}{1-\beta^2} = \frac{1}{1-\beta'^2}$$

$$1 + vv'/c^2 = \frac{1-\beta^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta'^2}}$$

$$\frac{dx'}{dt'} = \frac{dx + v dt}{dt + v dx/c}$$
$$= \frac{v + v'}{1 + vv'/c^2}$$

$$1 - v''^2 = 1 - \frac{(v+v')^2}{(1+vv'/c^2)^2}$$
$$= \frac{(1+vv'/c^2)^2 - (v+v')^2}{(1+vv'/c^2)^2}$$
$$= \frac{1 + \frac{2vv'}{c^2} + \frac{v^2 v'^2}{c^4} - v^2 - 2vv' - v'^2}{(1+vv'/c^2)^2}$$
$$= \frac{(1 - v^2 - v'^2 + \frac{v^2 v'^2}{c^4})}{(1+vv'/c^2)^2}$$

$$\sqrt{(1-\beta'^2) (1+vv'/c^2)} = \sqrt{1-\beta^2}$$

$$1 + \frac{2vv'}{c^2} + \frac{v^2 v'^2}{c^4} - v^2 - 2vv' - v'^2$$

$$\frac{v''}{c^2} = \frac{(1 - v^2/c^2)^2}{(1 + vv'/c^2)^2}$$
$$x''_1 x''_4 = -x''^2 \cosh^2 \psi - x''^2 \cosh \psi \sinh \psi - 2x''^2 (\cosh^2 \psi + \sinh^2 \psi)$$

$$\frac{1-\beta^2}{1+vv'/c^2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta'^2}}$$
$$\sqrt{1-\beta^2} \sqrt{1-\beta'^2} = \sqrt{1-\beta'^2}$$

$$1 - \frac{(v+v')^2}{c^2} = 1 - \frac{(v+v')^2}{c^2 (1+vv'/c^2)^2}$$

$$= \frac{c^2 (1+vv'/c^2)^2 - (v+v')^2}{c^2 (1+vv'/c^2)^2} = \frac{c^2 + 2vv' + \frac{v^2 v'^2}{c^2} - v^2 - v'^2 - 2vv'}{c^2 (1+vv'/c^2)^2}$$

$$(1+vv'/c^2) (1-\beta'^2) = (1-\beta^2) (1-\beta'^2)$$

$$(1+vv'/c^2) \left\{ 1 - \frac{(v+v')^2}{c^2 (1+vv'/c^2)^2} \right\} = (1+vv'/c^2) \left\{ \frac{c^2 (1+vv'/c^2)^2 - (v+v')^2}{c^2 (1+vv'/c^2)^2} \right\}$$

(1) $x_2' - x_1' = l_0$ $\frac{x_2(t) - vt}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} - \frac{x_1(t) - vt}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = l_0$
 $x_2(t) - x_1(t) = l$

$\frac{l}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = l_0 \Rightarrow l = l_0 \sqrt{1-\beta^2}$ — Lorentz contraction

$t = \frac{t' + vx'/c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ $t' = \tau$ (proper time) at $x' = 0$, für $t = \frac{\tau}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ = dilatation in time

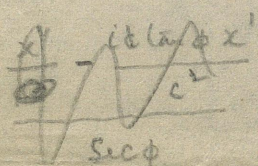
(2) Special L.T's in particular form

(1) $x^1 = x, x^2 = y, x^3 = z, x^4 = ict$ } Wiry $x^i x_i = s^2$, first set
 (2) $x^1 = x, x^2 = y, x^3 = z, x^4 = ct$ } has common a common metric
 the same, the second set has $x_4 = -ct$

Wiry $\tan \phi = i\beta$, the L.T eqns become for (1)

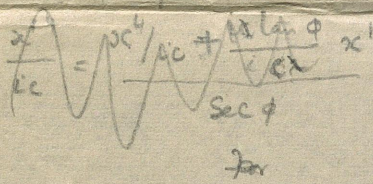
$v = -ictan\phi$
 $\beta^2 = -\tan^2 \phi$

$x'^1 = \frac{x^1 - vx^4/c}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}, x'^2 = x^2, x'^3 = x^3, x'^4 = \frac{x^4 + vx^1/c}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$



$= \frac{x^1 + x^4 \tan \phi}{\sec \phi}$

$= x^1 \cos \phi + x^4 \sin \phi, x'^2 = x^2, x'^3 = x^3, x'^4 = -x^1 \sin \phi + x^4 \cos \phi$



is a real rotation

for $\sec \phi = 1 + \tan^2 \phi = 1 + \frac{v^2}{c^2} = 1 - \beta^2$

$\cos \phi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$
 $\sin \phi = \frac{i\beta}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$

for (2) we $\tanh \psi = \beta$

$\tan i\psi = i \tanh \psi$

$x'^1 = x^1 \cosh \psi - x^4 \sinh \psi$
 $x'^4 = -x^1 \sinh \psi + x^4 \cosh \psi$

$\left[\begin{matrix} l = l_0 / \cosh \psi \\ t = \tau \cosh \psi \end{matrix} \right]$

$(x'^1)^2 - (x'^4)^2 = (x^1)^2 - (x^4)^2$

conjugate diameters \rightarrow conj. diam. on $(x^1)^2 - (x^4)^2 = 1$.

Addition of velocities $w = \frac{v_1 + v_2}{1 + v_1 v_2 / c^2}$ Δ Wiry $\phi_1 = -i \tan \phi \rightarrow i \tan \phi = i \tan(\phi_1 + \phi_2)$

$= \frac{\tan \phi_1 + \tan \phi_2}{1 - \tan \phi_1 \tan \phi_2}$

Sammensatz

Add. satzung

(3) Velocity: $u^i = \frac{dx^i}{d\tau}, (u^1, u^2, u^3) = \frac{\vec{u}}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}}, u^4 = \frac{ic}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}}$

Transformationsformeln $\left. \begin{matrix} u'^1 = u^1 \cos \phi + u^4 \sin \phi \\ u'^4 = -u^1 \sin \phi + u^4 \cos \phi \end{matrix} \right\}$

(D) \underline{Acor} $B^i = \frac{du^i}{d\tau} = \frac{d^2x^i}{d\tau^2}$

(2)

$u^i u_i = -c^2$, $u_i \frac{du^i}{d\tau} + u^i \frac{du_i}{d\tau} = 0$, $2u_i \frac{du^i}{d\tau} = 0$, $u_i B^i = 0$

$(B^1, B^2, B^3) = \frac{d\vec{u}}{d\tau} = \frac{\vec{u}}{1-\beta^2} + \frac{\vec{u}(\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u})}{c^2} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-\beta^2)^2}$ $[\beta = u/c]$

$B^4 = i \frac{\vec{u} \cdot \vec{u}}{c} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-\beta^2)^2}$

K' moving instantaneously with the medium is in K' ($B^1, B^2, B^3, B^4 = 0$) & ~~relative to~~
Relative to K moves with vel \vec{u} & taking this as x -other we have

$B^1 = \frac{\dot{u}_x}{(1-\beta^2)} + \frac{\beta}{c} B^4$, $B^2 = \frac{\dot{u}_y}{1-\beta^2}$, $B^3 = \frac{\dot{u}_z}{1-\beta^2}$ — (A)

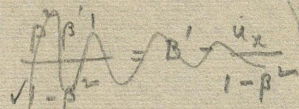
* Taking inverse of rotation, the corresponding components in K are

(XX) $B^1 = \frac{B'^1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$; $B^2 = B'^2$, $B^3 = B'^3$, $B^4 = \frac{i\beta B'^1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ — (B)

Comparing (A) & (B) $\left. \begin{aligned} \dot{u}_x &= \dot{u}'_x (1-\beta^2)^{3/2} \\ \dot{u}_y &= \dot{u}'_y (1-\beta^2) \\ \dot{u}_z &= \dot{u}'_z (1-\beta^2) \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} \frac{\dot{u}_x}{1-\beta^2} + \frac{\beta}{c} \frac{i\beta B'^1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} &= \frac{B'^1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} \\ \text{or } \frac{\dot{u}_x}{1-\beta^2} &= \frac{B'^1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} (1-\beta^2) = B'^1 \sqrt{1-\beta^2} \\ \text{or } \dot{u}_x &= \dot{u}'_x (1-\beta^2)^{3/2} \end{aligned}$

Constant acceleration $\dot{u}'_x = b$. Leads to $x^2 - c^2 t^2 = c^4/b^2$ is hyperbolic motion

$B^1 = \frac{\dot{u}_x}{1-\beta^2} + \frac{\beta}{c} \frac{i\beta B'^1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$



(A) $B^1 = \frac{\dot{u}_x}{(1-\beta^2)} + \frac{u^2 \cdot \dot{u}_x}{c^2 (1-\beta^2)^2}$

$B^4 = i \frac{u \cdot \dot{u}_x}{c} \cdot \frac{1}{(1-\beta^2)^2}$

$\frac{\beta}{c} B^4 = \frac{u^2}{c^2} \cdot \frac{\dot{u}_x}{(1-\beta^2)^2}$ $[\beta = u/c]$

Also $u_y = 0$ does not mean $\dot{u}_y = 0$.



* For axes also

$B^1 = B' \cos \phi + B^4 \sin \phi$
 $B^4 = -B' \sin \phi + B^4 \cos \phi$

& inverse is given by

$B^1 = B' \cos \phi - B^4 \sin \phi = (B' - i\beta B^4) / \sqrt{1-\beta^2}$ $\sin \phi = i\beta$

$B^4 = B' \sin \phi + B^4 \cos \phi = (i\beta B' + B^4) / \sqrt{1-\beta^2}$

(XX) with $B^4 = 0$ in the K' system

$B^1 = \frac{B'^1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$; $B^4 = \frac{i\beta B'^1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$, $B^2 = B'^2$, $B^3 = B'^3$

with $\dot{u}_x = b$, (C) is Einstein's accⁿ eqns give for the first one

$$\frac{\dot{u}_x}{(1 - u_x^2/c^2)^{3/2}} = b \quad \text{ie} \quad \frac{\dot{u}_x u_x}{c^2 (1 - u_x^2/c^2)} = \frac{b u_x}{c^2}$$

Integrating $(1 - u_x^2/c^2)^{-3/2} = b(x - x_0)/c^2$

$$\left[\frac{1}{2} (1 - u_x^2/c^2)^{-1/2} \cdot -2u_x \dot{u}_x / c^2 \right] \left(\frac{c^2 - u_x^2}{c^2} \right)^{-3/2} = b(x - x_0)/c^2$$

$$\frac{c^2}{c^2 - u_x^2} = b^2 (x - x_0)^2 / c^4 \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{c^2 - u_x^2}{c^2} = \frac{c^4}{b^2} \frac{1}{(x - x_0)^2}$$

$$\frac{a-b}{a}$$

$$1 - \frac{u_x^2}{c^2} = \frac{c^4}{b^2} \frac{1}{(x - x_0)^2}$$

$$\frac{u_x^2}{c^2} = 1 - \frac{c^4}{b^2 (x - x_0)^2} = \frac{b^2 (x - x_0)^2 - c^4}{b^2 (x - x_0)^2}$$

$$\frac{u_x}{c} = \frac{\sqrt{b^2 (x - x_0)^2 - c^4}}{b (x - x_0)} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{dx \cdot b (x - x_0)}{\sqrt{b^2 (x - x_0)^2 - c^4}} = c \cdot dt$$

Again integrating putting $\frac{dx \cdot (x - x_0)}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 - c^4/b^2}} = c dt$

Again integrating $\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 - c^4/b^2} = c(t - t_0) + k$

$$\int \frac{1}{\sqrt{(x - x_0)^2 - c^4/b^2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} (x - x_0) \cdot dx \quad \text{ie} \quad (x - x_0)^2 - \frac{c^4}{b^2} = \left[\frac{1}{2} c(t - t_0) + k \right]^2 = c^2 (t - t_0)^2 \quad \text{choosing } k \text{ properly.}$$

$$(x - x_0)^2 - c^2 (t - t_0)^2 = \frac{c^4}{b^2} = \text{const} = a^2 \quad \text{--- (D)}$$

$$\left[\frac{dx}{dt} = 0, x = x_0 \right]$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = 0, x = x_0 \quad \frac{d^2(x - x_0)}{dt^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = 0, t = t_0 \quad \frac{d^2(t - t_0)}{dx - x_0} = 0$$

$$t = 0, \frac{-c^2 t_0}{x - x_0} = 0 \quad \text{ie } t_0 = 0$$

$$\text{if } t_0 = 0, (x - x_0)^2 = \frac{c^4}{b^2}$$

$$\text{ie } x = \frac{c^2}{b}, \quad \frac{d^2 \left(\frac{c^2}{b} - x_0 \right)^2}{dt^2} = \frac{c^4}{b^2}$$

$$\text{ie } x_0 = 0$$

is a suitable choice to bring (D) to form

$$x^2 - c^2 t^2 = a^2 \quad \text{--- (E)}$$

is to choose origin of space & time - carefully

$$t = 0, \dot{x} = 0, x = \frac{c^2}{b}$$

Thus (E) shows that "uniform acceleration motion" in relativity corresponds to hyperbolic motion in contrast to parabolic motion in classical mechanics

Introduce parametrically $x^1 = a \cos \frac{s}{a}, x^4 = a \sin \frac{s}{a}$

$$(s = ict)$$

$$x^2 - x^4^2 = a^2 \cos^2 \frac{s}{a} - a^2 \sin^2 \frac{s}{a} = a^2$$

(1) Proof of $E = mc^2$.

(4)

using $f^i = \frac{d}{dt} (m_0 u^i)$

$$(f^1, f^2, f^3) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}} \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}} \vec{u} \right) = \frac{d}{dt} (m \vec{u})$$

Introducing the Minkowski force $(F_1, F_2, F_3) = \frac{\vec{K}}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$ (in contrast to Newtonian force)

These eqns can be written $\frac{d}{dt} (m \vec{u}) = \vec{K}$

$$f^4 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}} \cdot \frac{d}{dt} \left(\frac{m_0 ic}{\sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}} \right) = \frac{i}{c \sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}} \cdot \frac{d}{dt} (mc^2)$$

$$\frac{(\vec{f} \cdot \vec{u})}{c} = \frac{i}{c \sqrt{1-u^2/c^2}} \cdot \frac{d}{dt} (mc^2)$$

$$(\vec{f} \cdot \vec{u}) \sqrt{1-u^2/c^2} = \vec{K} \cdot \vec{u}$$

$\frac{d}{dt} (mc^2) = \vec{K} \cdot \vec{u}$ $\frac{d}{dt} (mc^2) = \vec{K} \cdot \vec{u} = \text{rate of work}$ using $f_K u^K = 0$ follows from $F_K u^K = 0$

$$\therefore \vec{f} \sqrt{1-u^2/c^2} = \vec{K}$$

$$E_{kin} = mc^2 + \text{const.} = \frac{m_0 c^2}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} + \text{const.}$$

$$f_4 = i \frac{(\vec{f} \cdot \vec{u})}{c}$$

$$f_i u^i = 0$$

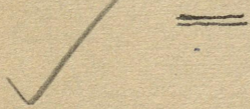
$$\frac{\vec{f} \cdot \vec{u}}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} + f_4 \frac{ic}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = 0$$

$$f_4 = \frac{(\vec{f} \cdot \vec{u}) \sqrt{1-\beta^2}}{ic}$$

$$f_4 = - \frac{(\vec{f} \cdot \vec{u})}{ic} = \frac{i}{c} (\vec{f} \cdot \vec{u})$$

Topics for 17/7/67 (Sq. matrices)
A)

- (1) $I \cdot A = A \cdot I$, A^2, \dots, A^T , $A^{x+y} = A^x \cdot A^y$.
- (2) $|A| \cdot |B| = |AB| = |B| \cdot |A| = \det |BA|$
 $|kA| = k^n |A|$
- (3) Singular & non-singular matrices - Law of division of matrices.
- (4) Transpose, adjoint and reciprocal matrices, - Reciprocal as inverse - Law of reversal for Transposes, and reciprocals - Commutative property of Transposes & reversal - Ex. for finding an inverse.
- (5) Diagonal, permutation and triangular matrices - Symmetric & skew-symmetric matrices - Splitting as ^{sum} Hermitian and unitary matrices, & orthogonal.
- (6) Characteristic eqn $|A - \lambda \cdot I| = 0$ or $(-1)^n (\lambda^n + p_1 \lambda^{n-1} + \dots + p_n) = 0$
- Cayley-Hamilton Theorem: $A^n + p_1 A^{n-1} + \dots + p_n = 0$
- $|g(A)| = g(\lambda_1) g(\lambda_2) \dots g(\lambda_n)$ - Eigenvalues
of Similar matrices - Diagonalisation leading to eigenvalue problem - reality of eigenvalues of a Hermitian matrix - Similar matrices have same eigenvalues.
- (7) Rank of a matrix - The three elementary transformations - Equivalent matrices and their having the same rank - Redn of matrix of rank r to normal form by elementary trans.



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ANNUAL REPORT 1977-78

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$$\left. \begin{aligned} \operatorname{div} \vec{E} &= 4\pi\rho; \quad \operatorname{div} \vec{H} = 0. \\ \operatorname{rot} \vec{E} + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{H}}{\partial t} &= 0, \quad \operatorname{rot} \vec{H} - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{4\pi}{c} \vec{j} \end{aligned} \right\} \text{Max. eqns}$$

(1) Derivation of $\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \operatorname{div} \vec{j} = 0$.

(2) Exprim of \vec{E} and \vec{H} in terms of (\vec{A}, ϕ) potentials.

$$\vec{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t} - \operatorname{grad} \phi, \quad \vec{H} = \operatorname{rot} \vec{A}$$

(3) Eqns two & three of Maxwell are identically satisfied by these expressions

(4) Gauge transf of \vec{A} and ϕ giving same \vec{E} and \vec{H} ; $\vec{A}' = \vec{A} - \operatorname{grad} \psi$
 $\phi' = \phi - \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$

(5) Exprim of Maxwell eqns in terms of \vec{A} and ϕ .

(6) Gauge transf such that $\operatorname{div} \vec{A}' + \frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \phi'}{\partial t} = 0$ (L.C. Cond)

(7) Exprim 5 \rightarrow

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \nabla^2 \vec{A}' - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \vec{A}'}{\partial t^2} &= -\frac{4\pi}{c} \vec{j} \\ \nabla^2 \phi' - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi'}{\partial t^2} &= -4\pi\rho \end{aligned} \right\}$$

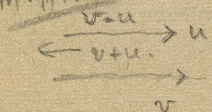
$$\frac{c}{4\pi} (\vec{E} \times \vec{H})$$

Logarithmic vector.

5/6/67

(1) Maxwell's eqns are covariant under $x' = x - vt, y' = y, z' = z, t' = t$ i.e Gal. transf of classical mechanics is proved by showing that the law of addition of velocities in classical mechanics is not valid in Classical Electrodynamics viz

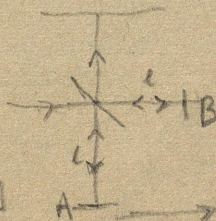
(2) M.M. Expt



$v' = v + u$. Surely, $c' = c + u$ should hold, but Michelson-Morley expt shows this is not true.

$$t_2 = \frac{2L}{\sqrt{c^2 - u^2}} = \frac{2L}{c} (1 - u^2/c^2)^{-1/2}$$

$t_1 \neq t_2$ $t_1 = t_2$ only if $u = 0$ or $c = \infty$
 [c may be Earth's motion]



$$t_1 = \frac{L}{c-u} + \frac{L}{c+u} = \frac{2Lc}{c^2 - u^2}$$

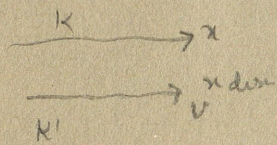
$$t_2 = \frac{2L}{c(1 - u^2/c^2)^{-1/2}} = \frac{2L}{c} (1 - u^2/c^2)^{-1/2}$$

but M.-M. conflict shows $t_1 = t_2$ without either $u = 0$ or $c = \infty$. - Attempts at explanation of this famous rift by using hypothetical ether as an elastic medium in

(3) which light travels all failed ~~to~~ - Einstein ^{created} the postulate of relativity. viz. phenomena in a system are independent of the uniform translatory motion of the system as a whole; or physical phenomena are the same in all general Galilean reference systems (i.e. relatively uniform translatory motion)

(4) Const. c ind. of vel. of source (2nd postulate or axiom?) or relativity of simultaneity [$c(t_1 - t_2) = AB$ has meaning if events of both clocks at A & B simultaneously are in the same prob.] - De Sitter's observations on double stars showing Σ ind. of vel. of source & vel. of observer & ind. of dir. [Light signals are propagated rectilinearly with the same constant velocity c at all times in all dir. in all gen. Gal. frames.]

(5) Derivation of L.T. from above two postulates.



- (i) K' moves rel. to K in x -dir. with vel. v
- (ii) K' should be linear since uniform rect. motion in K is also uniform & rect. in K'
- (iii) K' must count with K as fundamental for K'
- (iv) validity of Euclidean geometry & homogeneous nature of spacetime.

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - ct^2 = 0 \rightarrow x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 - c^2 t'^2 = 0$$

$$(x'^2 + \dots) = K(x^2 + \dots), \quad K \text{ depends on } v \text{ since } \text{rel.} \text{ motion}$$

$$\boxed{\begin{matrix} r = ct \\ r' = ct' \end{matrix}}$$

$$x'^2 - c^2 t'^2 = K(x^2 - c^2 t^2)$$

$$x' = K \frac{x - vt}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad y' = K y, \quad z' = K z, \quad t' = K \frac{t - (v/c^2)x}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \quad [\beta = v/c]$$

$$x'' = K(-v) \frac{x' + vt'}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad t'' = K(-v) t' + \dots$$

$$x'' = K(v)K(-v)x, \quad x'' = x, \quad K(v)K(-v) = 1 \quad \text{or } K(v) = K(-v) = 1$$

hence the L.T. - Inverse of L.T.

12/6/67 - (1) Group property of the Special L.T.'s $\dots z' = \frac{x - vt}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad t' = \frac{t - vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$

(i) unit element $\rightarrow v = 0$
 (ii) $x'' = \frac{x' - v't'}{\sqrt{1 - \beta'^2}}, \quad t'' = \frac{t' - v'x'/c^2}{\sqrt{1 - \beta'^2}}$

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{(x - vt)^2}{1 - \beta^2} + y^2 + z^2 = c^2 \left\{ \frac{(t - vx/c^2)^2}{1 - \beta^2} \right\} \\ & = \frac{1}{(1 - \beta^2)} \left\{ (x - vt)^2 + c^2 (t - vx/c^2)^2 \right\} + y^2 + z^2 \\ & = \frac{1}{(1 - \beta^2)} \left\{ x^2 + v^2 t^2 - 2xvt + c^2 \left(t^2 + \frac{v^2 x^2}{c^4} - \frac{2vx}{c^2} \right) \right\} + \\ & = \frac{1}{(1 - \beta^2)^2} \left\{ x^2 \left(1 + \frac{v^2}{c^2} \right) + t^2 (v^2 + c^2) \right\} = \frac{c^2}{c^2(1 - \beta^2)} \left\{ (c^2 - v^2) (x^2 - c^2 t^2) \right\} \end{aligned}$$

(ii) the special L.T. satisfies $x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - c^2 t^2 = x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 - c^2 t'^2$

$$\text{Hence } x''^2 + y''^2 + z''^2 - c^2 t''^2 = x'^2 + y'^2 + z'^2 - c^2 t'^2 \\ = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 - c^2 t^2$$

hence seems to hold for group theory

(iii) for the inverse

$$x' = \frac{x - vt}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad t' = \frac{t - vx/c^2}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} x - vt &= \sqrt{1 - \beta^2} x' \\ t - vx/c^2 &= \sqrt{1 - \beta^2} t' \end{aligned} \right\} \begin{aligned} & \text{Add } x + x \cdot v/c^2 = \sqrt{1 - \beta^2} (x' + vt') \\ & x(1 - \beta^2) = \dots \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Solving elements } x \rightarrow \left. \begin{aligned} & \text{or } x = \frac{x' + vt'}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \\ & t = \frac{t' + vx'/c^2}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \end{aligned} \right\}$$

Amount to changing v to $-v$ in the L.T.

(2) Addition of velocities $x' = x'(t')$, $x = x(t)$

$$\frac{dx'}{dt'} = u'_x = u' \cos \alpha', \quad \frac{dy'}{dt'} = u'_y, \quad \frac{dz'}{dt'} = u'_z, \quad u' = \sqrt{u_x'^2 + u_y'^2 + u_z'^2}$$

$$\frac{dx}{dt} = u_x = u \cos \alpha, \quad \frac{dy}{dt} = u_y, \quad \frac{dz}{dt} = u_z, \quad u = \sqrt{u_x^2 + u_y^2 + u_z^2}$$

$$x = \frac{x' + vt'}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad y = y', \quad z = z', \quad t = \frac{t' + vx'/c^2}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

$$dx = \frac{dx' + v dt'}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}, \quad dy = dy', \quad dz = dz', \quad dt = \frac{dt' + v dx'/c^2}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}} \quad \text{dividing by the last eqn}$$

19/2/67

(A)

(1) Critique of Bohr's theory (observable quantities like frequencies of spectral lines shall appear and not unobservables like posⁿ of electron in orbits, periods of revolution & so on)

* Hermitian
if real is
 $q_{nm} = q_{mn}^*$

(2) All dynamical variables in Q.M. are matrices. $[q = q_{mn} e^{2\pi i \nu_{mn} t}]$ $[v_{mn} \neq 0, m \neq n]$
 $v_{nn} = 0$

(3) Results from classical mechanics about P.B.'s are $[x, y] = \sum_{r=1}^n \left(\frac{\partial x}{\partial q_r} \frac{\partial y}{\partial p_r} - \frac{\partial x}{\partial p_r} \frac{\partial y}{\partial q_r} \right)$, $H = \sum p_r \dot{q}_r - L$
 $= 2T - (T - V)$
 $= T + V = E$

$$\dot{q}_r = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_r}; \dot{p}_r = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_r}$$

$$= -[H, q_r] = -[H, p_r]$$

invariance for canonical transform

$$\sum (P_r dq_r - p_r dq_r) = dW$$

$$[Q_i, Q_j] = [P_i, P_j] = 0, [Q_i, P_j] = \delta_{ij}$$

$$\frac{dF}{dt} = \frac{\partial F}{\partial t} + [F, H]$$

$$[x_1 x_2, y] = [x_1, y] x_2 + x_1 [x_2, y]$$

$$[x_1 y, y_2] = [x_1, y_2] y + x_1 [y, y_2]$$

order to be kept since for in Q.M. mat

$$[x, y_1 y_2] = [x, y_1] y_2 + y_1 [x, y_2]$$

for matrices $AB \neq BA$ in general.

(4) In quantum-mechanics of Heisenberg it is taken as an axiom that

$$xy - yx = \frac{i\hbar}{2\pi} [x, y] \quad [\because q(2)]$$

for $\hbar \rightarrow 0$, $xy = yx$ as in classical mechanics

(5) Quantum commutators - $q_m q_n - q_n q_m = p_m p_n - p_n p_m = 0$, $q_m p_n - p_m q_n = \frac{i\hbar}{2\pi} \delta_{mn}$

(6) Eqns of motion - Taken over from (3) as $\frac{i\hbar}{2\pi} \dot{q}_r = [q_r, H]$, $\dot{p}_r = [p_r, H]$ or

$$\frac{i\hbar}{2\pi} \dot{q}_r = q_r H - H q_r, \quad \frac{i\hbar}{2\pi} \dot{p}_r = p_r H - H p_r$$

$$[\dot{x}]_{mn} = (\dot{x}_{mn}) \text{ for time-derivative of a matrix}$$

[\dot{x}] $= [x, H]$ replacing x by t , we have $[t, H] = 1$ & is time & energy are canonical variables]

(7) Equation of energy & Bohr's frequency relation

(i) If x is constant in time, ~~then from (2), $\dot{x} = \frac{2\pi i \nu_{mn}}{mn} x e^{2\pi i \nu_{mn} t}$~~

$\dot{x} = 0$, $xH = Hx$ i.e. x is a diagonal matrix since in this case all the non-diagonal elements are zero, because $v_{mn} \neq 0, m \neq n$ & the diagonal elements are constant $v_{nn} = 0$. It is by defn of $\dot{x}, \dot{x} =$

Putting $x = H$ in $\dot{x} = [x, H]$, $\dot{H} = 0$ i.e. $H = \text{const}$ i.e. eqⁿ of energy.

(ii) $\dot{H} = 0$ means H diagonal & if $v_{mn} = T_m - T_n$ (T_{mn} diagonal), then H & T commute & $H - hT$ is also diagonal & commutes with any $x = (x_{mn} e^{2\pi i \nu_{mn} t})$

$$\sum_k [x_{mk} e^{2\pi i \nu_{mk} t} (H_{kn} - h T_{kn}) - (H_{mk} - h T_{mk}) x_{kn} e^{2\pi i \nu_{kn} t}] = 0$$

$$\text{or } a_{mn} (H_n - h\nu_n) - (H_m - h\nu_m) a_{mn} = 0 \quad \text{take } a_{mn} e^{2\pi i \nu_{mn} t}$$

$$H_m - H_n = h(\nu_m - \nu_n) = h\nu_{mn} \quad \text{or } \nu_{mn} = \frac{E_m - E_n}{h} \quad \text{ie Bohr's frequency rule}$$

(8) Linear harmonic oscillator (charge q , mass μ)

$$\mu \ddot{q} = -Kq \quad \text{or } \dot{p} = \mu \dot{q}, \quad T = \frac{1}{2} \mu \dot{q}^2 = \frac{p^2}{2\mu}, \quad V = \frac{1}{2} Kq^2$$

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2\mu} + \frac{1}{2} Kq^2; \quad \dot{q} = \frac{p}{\mu}, \quad \dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q} = -Kq$$

$$\ddot{q} = \frac{\dot{p}}{\mu} = -\frac{K}{\mu} q$$

If harmonic is electrically, then on its accelerated motion, it will emit radiation of frequency ν .
 & from classical electrodynamics $\frac{K}{\mu} = (2\pi\nu_0)^2$ ie eqn of motion is

$$\ddot{q} + (2\pi\nu_0)^2 q = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

(a) From (1) we can deduce $q_{mn} = 0$ when $n \neq m \pm 1$ & $q_{mn} \neq 0$, when $n = m \pm 1$

(b) $|q_{n, n-1}|^2 = \frac{nh}{8\pi^2 \mu \nu_0}$ [long discussion to prove (a) & (b)]

To find energy values associated with the stationary states, we take

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2\mu} + \frac{1}{2} Kq^2 = \frac{1}{2} \mu \left\{ \dot{q}^2 + (2\pi\nu_0)^2 q^2 \right\}$$

After a long calculation using matrix expⁿ for q , we can show that H is diagonal. And this also follows if we assume conservation of energy ie $\dot{H} = 0$.

$$H_{nn} = \frac{1}{2} \mu \left\{ \sum_m \dot{q}_{nm} \dot{q}_{mn} + (2\pi\nu_0)^2 \sum_m q_{nm} q_{mn} \right\}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \mu \left\{ \sum (2\pi i)^2 \nu_{nm} q_{nm} \nu_{mn} q_{mn} + (2\pi\nu_0)^2 \sum q_{nm} q_{mn} \right\}$$

$$= 2\pi^2 \mu \left\{ \sum_m (\nu_{nm}^2 + \nu_0^2) |q_{nm}|^2 \right\} \quad \nu_{mn} = -\nu_{nm} \quad q_{nm} q_{mn} = |q_{nm}|^2$$

(b) $\therefore q$ hermitian

\sum reduces to only 2 terms ie where $m = n-1$ & $m = n+1$.

$$\text{ie } H_{nn} = 4\pi^2 \mu \nu_0^2 \left\{ |q_{n, n-1}|^2 + |q_{n, n+1}|^2 \right\} \quad \text{why } \nu_{n, n-1} = +\nu_0, \nu_{n, n+1} = -\nu_0$$

$$= 4\pi^2 \mu \nu_0^2 \left\{ \frac{nh}{8\pi^2 \mu \nu_0} + \frac{(n+1)h}{8\pi^2 \mu \nu_0} \right\} = \frac{h\nu_0}{2} (n+n+1)$$

$$= (n+1/2) h\nu_0$$

while in Bohr's theory stationary states are given by $nh\nu_0$, a brilliant confirmation of Heisenberg's theory

(9) Theorems on matrices

defn (1) adjoint Hermitian $a_{mn}^\dagger = a_{nm}^*$

(2) Hermitian $a^\dagger = a$ (self adjoint)

(3) unitary if $u = (u^\dagger)^{-1}$ ie $uu^\dagger = u^\dagger u = 1$.

Theory (1) If a be Hermitian, then for any S , $b = S^\dagger a S$ is also Hermitian

(b) Product of two unitary matrices is unitary,

(c) If $b = u^{-1} a u$, then $b^\dagger = u^{-1} a^\dagger u$. If a is hermitian

(d) If a is hermitian & u unitary, $b = u^{-1} a u$ is also hermitian

(e) If a & b be hermitian, and S a matrix such that

$$b = S^{-1} a S, \text{ then } c = S S^\dagger a \text{ and } d = S^\dagger S b \text{ are also hermitian}$$

Matrix Analysis - Transformation to diagonal form - Canonical transformation matrices

preserving the quantum conditions are unitary matrices and hermitian characters are unitary matrices.

(f) (i) Let $Q_r = S^{-1} q_r S$, $P_r = S^{-1} p_r S$, then $f(Q_r, P_r) = S^{-1} f(q_r, p_r) S$

This ensures preservation of quantum conditions $q_r q_s - q_s q_r = \hbar \delta_{rs}$, $p_r p_s - p_s p_r = 0$, $q_r p_s - p_s q_r = \hbar \delta_{rs}$

(ii) Since $S^\dagger q_r S$ is hermitian if q_r is hermitian, & (i) we shall have

$$Q = S^{-1} q S$$

$$\text{and } Q = S^\dagger q S$$

ie S must be such that $S^\dagger = S^{-1}$ ie unitary

(B) Schrödinger's wave theory

classical wave eqn is $\nabla^2 \phi = \frac{1}{u^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2}$; put $\phi = \psi(x, y, z) e^{2\pi i v t}$

$$\nabla^2 \psi + 4\pi^2 \frac{v^2}{u^2} \psi = 0 \text{ or } \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{4\pi^2}{\lambda^2} \psi = 0; \text{ using de Broglie's reln } \lambda = \hbar/mv$$

and also $\frac{1}{2} m v^2 = T = E - V$. & combining $\frac{1}{\lambda^2} = \frac{2m(E-V)}{\hbar^2}$ & multiply by \hbar^2/λ^2 we

have $\nabla^2 \psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \psi = 0$ ie Schrödinger's eqn

(1) critique

(2) matrices (hermitian formal) $x_{mn} = x_{mn} e^{2\pi i \nu_{mn} t}$ $\nu_{mn} = T_m - T_n \neq 0$ if $m \neq n$
 $= 0$ if $m = n$.

(3) classical dynamics: $H \text{ def } \frac{dq_r}{dt} = \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_r} = \frac{\partial}{\partial p_r} [H, q_r]; \frac{dp_r}{dt} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_r} = -[H, p_r]$.

P.B. $[x, y] \neq 0$.

(4) matrices not necessarily commutative, $\frac{h}{2\pi} xy - yx = \frac{h}{2\pi} [x, y] \rightarrow 0$ as $h \rightarrow 0$

(5) quantum comm $[q_m, p_n] = i \frac{h}{2\pi} \delta_{mn}$

$$q_m q_n - q_n q_m = i, \quad p_m p_n - p_n p_m = i, \quad q_m p_n - p_n q_m = \frac{h}{2\pi} \delta_{mn} \rightarrow 0 \text{ as } h \rightarrow 0.$$

(6) Eqn of motions: taken directly from classical mechanics

ie $\dot{q}_r = [q_r, H]; \dot{p}_r = [p_r, H]$

$$\frac{h}{2\pi} \dot{q}_r = q_r H - H q_r; \quad \frac{h}{2\pi} \dot{p}_r = p_r H - H p_r$$

imposed $\dot{x} = [x, H]$. [defn of \dot{x} given by $(\dot{x})_{mn} = (\dot{x}_{mn})$]

$$[q, p] = i$$

but $x = t, [t, H] = 1$ ie t & H are canonical variables. (energy & time like coord & momenta)

(7) Eqn of energy & Bohr's frequency cond

$$\dot{H} = 0 \quad [q, \dot{x} = 0, x \text{ is a diagonal matrix}]$$

ie H diagonal with entries in diagonal constant ie $H = \text{const.}$

$H \neq T$ diagonal $H - hT$ diagonal, commutes with x

$$x(H - hT) - (H - hT)x = 0$$

$$\sum_k x_{mk} e^{2\pi i \nu_{mk} t} (H_{kn} - hT_{kn}) - (H_{mk} - hT_{mk}) x_{kn} e^{2\pi i \nu_{kn} t} = 0.$$

$$x_{mn} e^{2\pi i \nu_{mn} t} (H_n - hT_n) - (H_m - hT_m) x_{mn} e^{2\pi i \nu_{mn} t}$$

$$H_n - H_m = h(T_n - T_m) \text{ or } h\nu_n - h\nu_m = h(\nu_m - \nu_n)$$

$$\nu_{mn} = \frac{E_m - E_n}{h}$$

(8) L.H. oscillate:

$$M \ddot{q} = -kq$$

$$\ddot{q} = -\frac{k}{M} q$$

$$H = \frac{p^2}{2M} + \frac{1}{2} k q^2 \leftarrow T = \frac{1}{2} M \dot{q}^2 = \frac{p^2}{2M}, \quad V = \frac{1}{2} k q^2$$

$$(-\frac{\partial V}{\partial q} = F = -kq)$$

$$\dot{p} = -\frac{\partial H}{\partial q} = -kq \text{ ie } \mu \dot{q} = -kq$$

for Chagn's postulate $\frac{E}{h} = (2\pi \nu_0)^2$

$$\mu \ddot{q} + (2\pi \nu_0)^2 q = 0 \quad (\text{3 meters})$$

$$\nu_{mn} = 0 \text{ if } n \neq m \pm 1, \neq 0 \text{ if } n = m \pm 1$$

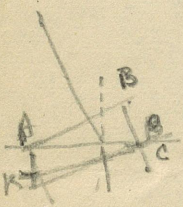
$$|\nu_{n, n \pm 1}|^2 = \frac{nh}{8\pi^2 \mu \nu_0}$$

Lecture on 12/12/67 - 1st Lecture on Quantum Mechanics - Historical review.

(1) (a) Newton's corpuscular & wave theories of light ~~of a particle nature~~ ~~and Huygens~~
 (17th Century)
Refraction - Explanation of refraction of light (Newton's theory wrong & Huygens correct since
 in latter refractive index (for eg. from Air into Glass) $v_{Ag} = \frac{v_A}{v_g} \geq \frac{\text{velocity of light in A}}{\text{in glass}} = \frac{\sin i}{\sin r} > 1$
 while in Newton's theory, forces pulling the light particles into denser materials would add to their
 velocity i.e. $v_g > v_A$

(b) Interference explainable only by wave theory & leading to Huygens Principle that
 "every point along a wave front serves as a source from which new waves spread out."

(c) Diffraction (Young 1803) explainable only by wave theory i.e. when light passes through an
 opening whose dimensions are comparable to the wave length of the light (≈ 0.001 mm), the
 light is scattered (or diffracted) & all that is seen on the screen behind will be a diffused
 luminous spot composed of concentric light & dark rings (unlike the case, where the
 opening $> \lambda$, when one has a spot of light of the same shape as the opening on the
 screen behind).



(d) Maxwell's theory (1864) predicting e.m. waves was proved in (1888) by Hertz & practical
 [importance realized by Marconi who established radio communication across British
 Channel in 1899 & in 1901 across Atlantic Channel] - Hertz showed that light waves
 are e.m. waves & differ from radio waves only by their very short wave lengths.

* Also Zeeman effect.

Discovery of electron by J.J. Thomson in 1897 convinced in showing that it behaved like a
 Newtonian particle - found e/m - determ. of e & m by Millikan - discovery of isotopes.

By strange irony, Hertz himself discovered the photo-electric effect in 1887 i.e. when a
 beam of ultra-violet rays fall on an uncharged conductor, it comes becomes +vely charged.
 After discovery in ~~(h)~~, this was ascribed to ejection of electrons from atoms of the conductor, but
 no correct theory was set up.

(e) Mendeleev's periodic table (1871) - use of Eka & Dvi (Sandwich words). - atomic number.

(f) Discovery of radioactivity (nature) (1896) by Becquerel & later study by Curie & others -
 α, β, γ rays.

Birth of quantum theory

(a) Black body radiation or heat radiation ($\lambda > \text{red light}$ i.e. infrared radiation) - ~~discovery~~ &
 Planck (1900) Wien's law (1896) shows that the frequency of radiation & dist. among various λ
 depended only on temp. T - Stefan-Boltzmann Law of total energy $W = \sigma T^4$ - Wien's law
 Wien's law of a particular λ , where E_λ is max. & the maximum \rightarrow corresp. λ becomes shorter as
 T is increased - To derive these laws Wien's law assumes $E_\lambda = \frac{1}{\lambda^5} f(\lambda, T)$ as derived by
 Thermodynamics confirm Wien's result - In particular he took $f(\lambda, T) = ae^{-b/\lambda T}$ i.e.

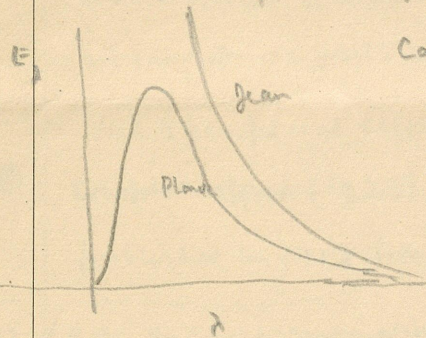


- 1 (a) Newton's Huygens on refraction (17th centry)
- (b) Interference & Huygens' Principle (1801)
- (c) Fraunhofer (1803)
- (d) Maxwell's laws & Hertz on e.m. waves light & heat (1861, 1868)
- (e) Mendeleev's periodic table (1871) aka - Duet - Atomic mass (18)
- (f) Photoelectric effect by Hertz (1857)
- (g) Natural radioactivity α, β, γ rays
- (h) Discovery of electron - $e/m, e/m$ - strikes

2. Old Quant. Theory

- (a) Blackbody radiation - K, Planck, St. Wien, Rayleigh - Planck (use of $E = h\nu$ (photons)
Eq. of 6 different among 6 people (14/12/1900)
- (b) Photoelectric effect explained by Einstein $h\nu - W = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 - W = h\nu_0, \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = h(\nu - \nu_0)$
(1905)
 ν max if $W = 0, \nu_0 = 0, \nu_{max}^2 = \frac{2h\nu}{m}$ - Duality
- (c) Bohr R-R. Combination Principle about wave numbers
- (d) Rutherford's model on atom

$E_\lambda = \frac{a}{\lambda^5} \cdot e^{-b/\lambda T}$, a formula giving good results only for short-wave lengths, but failed for long wave-lengths - Rayleigh-Jeans formula $f(\lambda, T) = C \lambda^{-4} T$ leads to $E_\lambda = \frac{C}{\lambda^5} \cdot \lambda T = \frac{CT}{\lambda^4}$ giving good results for long wave-lengths only but failed for short wave-lengths, leading to the ultraviolet



Catastrophe - Planck took $f(\lambda, T) = \frac{c_1}{e^{c_2/\lambda T} - 1}$ i.e.

$$E_\lambda = \frac{c_1}{\lambda^5} \cdot \frac{1}{e^{c_2/\lambda T} - 1}$$

If λ is small, then \rightarrow Wien's law

λ is large \rightarrow Rayleigh-Jeans formula.

To derive this Planck took away from classical physics & on 14/12/67 announced his assumption about light quanta (i.e. energy quanta just like matter quanta or atoms. It is just as absurd to talk of $3/4$ th of a quantum of free light as it is to talk of $3/4$ th of an atom of copper) viz the amount of energy of a light quantum is inversely \propto to the wave length of the radiation or directly \propto to the frequency (vibrations/sec) ν i.e. $E = h\nu$, h being known as Planck's constant $\approx 6.62 \times 10^{-27}$ erg-sec [h a most fundamental constant of Physics like c & e & m] - [Example of divisibility 6 dollars among 6 persons].

$$\nu = \frac{v}{\lambda}$$

$$\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda}$$

(b)

Explanation of the photoelectric effect by Einstein (1905) using Copernican theory of light & Planck's light quanta theory that interchanges of energy between atom & radiation can only occur discontinuously by quanta & not continuously as assumed in the classical theory (when struck by ultraviolet radiation, a zinc plate loses electrons). Emits electrons called photo-electrons; no emission if $\nu <$ a certain ν_0 ; energy of emitted photoelectrons depends only on ν (not on intensity or temperature) & velocity increases with ν . Einstein assumed that light of frequency ν consists of particles having energy $E = h\nu$ and momentum $p = \frac{h\nu}{c}$. If W be energy required to remove an electron from the substance, + $\frac{1}{2} m v^2$ the K.E of electron as it leaves the surface, then

$$h\nu = W + \frac{1}{2} m v^2$$

threshold frequency is given by $\nu = \nu_0 = \frac{W}{h}$ i.e. $\frac{1}{2} m v^2 = h(\nu - \nu_0)$. ν is max when

$W = 0$ i.e. $\nu_0 = 0$. & $\nu_{\max} = \sqrt{\frac{2h\nu}{m}}$, also in terms of potential difference V , $\frac{1}{2} m v^2 = eV$

so that $\frac{1}{2} m v^2 = h\nu - W = eV$ (Einstein's eqn verified exply by Millikan later)

Photoelectric effect brings out nature of ^{duality} complementary of wave & Copernican aspects of light if both used (if quanta are assumed) as for eg. interference & diffraction can be explained only on wave aspect & photoelectric effect only on quantum-Copernican aspect

(d) Rutherford's experiments on atoms using α particles (R knew no mathematics & did not know what a hyperbole was) showing that atom had a nucleus (1911) of very small dimensions with +ve charge Ne (N an integer) and is surrounded by N electrons - N exactly equal to the atomic number is serial number of the elements when arranged in Mendeleev's table of increasing atomic weights - Rutherford's model of a nucleus with Z protons & $(Z-N)$ electrons and N peripheral electrons prevailed almost till 1932.

(e) ~~Compton effect~~ (1923) Bohr's (Bohr a student of Rutherford) epoch-making paper published in 1913 formulating that Planck's h is fundamental not only for radiation but matter

(c) Ritz-Rydberg combination principle (1908), Existence theory of spectra (1907) \rightarrow Debye (1912)
 [wave no. of any spectral line is the difference of the wave numbers ($1/\lambda$) of two other lines]

also. He put forward the following postulates.

- (1) An atomic system has only a discrete set of energy values i.e. E_1, E_2, \dots, E_n in stationary states & the atom is stable in any one of the states, or emission or absorption of energy can take place in a transition from one stationary state to another.
- (2) Classical laws hold as long as the system is one of the stationary states, but not in a transition.
- (3) $E_2 - E_1 = h\nu$ for transition i.e. Bohr's frequency relation
- (4) For H-like atoms i.e. an electron rotating round a nucleus, different stationary states are orbits for which $A.M = \frac{nh}{2\pi} = n\hbar$ ($n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$) or Bohr's quantum condition

Successes of Bohr's theory (i) Hydrogen atom, $\nu = \frac{2\pi^2 m e^4}{h^3} \left(\frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{n'^2} \right)$ or finally $\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda}$ ($n =$ principal quantum)

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{n'^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right) \text{ proving combination principle + giving correct value for } R - \text{Rydberg constant.}$$

Putting $n' = 2, n = 3, 4, 5, 6, \dots$ we get the Balmer lines of hydrogen & other values to n' & n give

other lines in the spectrum (ii) Singly ionized He⁺ & doubly ionized Li⁺⁺ & their spectra

- (iii) Justification of quantum numbers by adiabatic invariants by Ehrenfest (1924),
- (iv) Correspondence Principle i.e. classical theory as limiting case of quantum theory for large $q.n$'s.
- (v) Relativity theory of the fine-structure of spectral lines (each spectral line divides into several components if observed by spectrographs of high resolving power for e.g. the H α -Balmer line breaks into 3 components) - introduction of another quantum number l (azimuthal)
- (vi) Explanation of normal Zeeman effect (due to external mag. field)
- (vii) Stark effect (due to external electric field)
- (viii) atomic magnetism - $M = m \cdot \frac{eh}{4\pi m_0 c}$ (Bohr magneton) ($m_0 =$ mass of electron)
 $M =$ magnetic moment
 new quantum number m (magnetic quantum)
- (ix) Spectra of heavier atoms - Paschen Back effect for strong magnetic fields requires a fourth quantum number (spin quantum number) $s = \text{up/down} \rightarrow$ Goudsmit & Uhlenbeck's spinning electron theory of electron having spin $A.M = s \cdot \frac{h}{2\pi}$ ($s = +\frac{1}{2}$ or $-\frac{1}{2}$) (1925)

$$\frac{\partial H}{\partial y} = -[H, q]$$

$$-R.H.S = \sum_{\Delta} \left(\frac{\partial H}{\partial q_{\Delta}} \frac{\partial q_{\Delta}}{\partial y} - \frac{\partial H}{\partial p_{\Delta}} \frac{\partial p_{\Delta}}{\partial y} \right)$$

$$= - \frac{\partial H}{\partial y}$$

Mathematics II: Geometries

NOTE.—

- (X) Structure of atoms & explanation of periodic table of elements based on Pauli's exclusion Principle (Pauli-Verbot)
(1925) i.e. each stationary state of the quantum theory is defined completely & uniquely by a given set of values of s, l, m, s — Shells K, L, M, N, O, P, Q of electrons & nos. in each shell ~~in atom~~
- Thus Bohr's theory reigned supreme till 1925 or so.
- (f) Compton effect (1923) — ^{collision} Scattering of ~~elect~~ (almost) free electrons by X-rays & in the process the quanta of X-rays deflected by large angles will have a smaller amount of energy and consequently a smaller ^{frequency} ~~wavelength~~ — giving additional support to the hypothesis of quantum nature of radiation
- (g) de Broglie (1924) hypothesized that matter must also have a dual (particle-like & wave-like) character & if momentum of particle be p , the wave length of corresponding wave length λ is given by $\lambda = h/p$. [Later confirmed by Davisson & Germer (1927) & independently by G.P. Thomson (1928) by observing the diffraction of electrons by crystals.]
3. New quantum Heisenberg's Quantum Mechanics (1925).
- (a) Critique of Bohr's theory — Requirement of a rational & unified reformulation is that only experimentally observable quantities like frequencies & intensities of spectra should come in the theory and not position of electron in orbit, period of revolution etc which are not observable — leading to matrix mechanics
- (b) Poisson brackets — Quantum P.O's ($x_2 - y_2$) = $\frac{ih}{2\pi} [x, y]$ as an axiom
- (c) Quantum commutators & eqns of motion: $q_m q_n - q_n q_m = 0$, $p_m p_n - p_n p_m = 0$, $q_m p_n - p_n q_m = \frac{ih}{2\pi} \delta_{mn}$
are q-comm — Eqns of motion are $\frac{d}{dt} q_r = [q_r, H]$; $\frac{d}{dt} p_r = [p_r, H]$
 $= \delta_{mn}$
- (d) Linear harmonic oscillator — Bohr's theory gives for energy $H = n(h\nu_0)$ which is not experimentally correct, but Heisenberg's theory gives $H = (n + \frac{1}{2}) h\nu_0$ which is correct.
- (e) Further successes with A.M, selection & transition probs etc.
4. Schrodinger's wave mechanics (Jan 1926) based on de Broglie's concept of matter waves, de Broglie's wavefn $\psi = \psi_0 \cdot e^{2\pi i/\lambda (px - Et)}$ for one dimension — Schrodinger:
- (a) Schrodinger's wave eqn based on classical wave eqn $\nabla^2 \phi = \frac{1}{u^2} \frac{\partial^2 \phi}{\partial t^2}$. Put $\phi = \Psi(x, y, z) e^{2\pi i \nu t}$
we get $\nabla^2 \Psi + 4\pi^2 \frac{\nu^2}{u^2} \Psi = 0 \approx \nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{4\pi^2}{\lambda^2} \Psi = 0$, $\lambda = h/mv$. Also $\frac{1}{2} m v^2 = T = E - V$.
- Constituting $\frac{1}{\lambda^2} = \frac{2m(E-V)}{h^2}$ & we get the famous Schrodinger wave eqn
 $\nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} (E - V) \Psi = 0$

19/12/67

V.

Time—3 hours
Max. Marks—100

(5)

Mathematics III: Theory of Functions of a Complex Variable

NOTE.—

- (f) Eigenvalues & eigenfun in wave mechanics — polynomial method of finding eigenvalues
(c) apply to linear harmonic oscillator — identical results with matrix mech
(d) " to hydrogen like atoms — Superior to Bohr's theory in connecting the continuous spectrum by a uniform analytic process ^{with} the line spectrum of Hydrogen
(e) Equivalence of matrix & wave mechanics — Derivⁿ of matrix elements from exper — fun — Transformation theory.
- (5) Statistical
(5) Physical interpretations
(a) Born's interpretation in terms of probability (1927) \mathbb{P}
(b) uncertainty relations $\Delta p \cdot \Delta q \geq \hbar/4\pi i$, $\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \geq \frac{\hbar}{4\pi}$
(c) Principle of indeterminacy & concept of causality — Bohr, Heisenberg, Born, Eddington & Dirac follow principle of indeterminacy i.e. physical laws are statistical laws.
(6) Dirac's relativistic quantum theory (1928)
(a) Earlier 2nd order wave eq^s unsatisfactory
(b) Dirac's linear eq^m with Dirac matrices showing (invariant under A.T.)
(i) existence of magnetic moment of electron, (ii) existence of spin A.M of electron
(iii) Fine structure of spectral lines (iv) Zeeman effect (H-line split up into 3 comps when viewed at rt. to an external field mag. field of intensity H & into 2 comps when viewed along the field dir of their frequencies be ν_0 , $\nu_0 + \Delta\nu$ & $\nu_0 - \Delta\nu$, $\Delta\nu = eH/4\pi m_0 c$ ($m_0 = \text{mass of electr}$)
(c) Negative energy states not circard in a linear theory but holes associated as "holes" in -ve energy states — Proof of existence of positron — Experimentally demonstrated by Carl Anderson in 1932.
(7) Statistical Phys Quantum Statistics — Spin & Statistics — F-D & B-E Statistics.
(8) Elementary Particles — Discovery of Neutron by Chadwick in 1932 modified Rutherford's & Bohr's theories — [P.T.O.]
(9) Nuclear Physics
(10) Recent Quantum Theory

Anti-protons, Anti-neutrons (mutual annihilation with neutrons), neutrinos (ν)
 eg. $4\text{Be}^7 \rightarrow 2\text{Li}^7 + e^+ + \nu - (p + \nu \rightarrow n + e^+) - \pi$ mesons & μ -mesons.

$\pi^\pm \rightarrow \mu^\pm + \nu, \mu^\pm \rightarrow e^\pm + 2\nu, \pi^0 \rightarrow \gamma + \gamma'$ (photon)

K-mesons (mass between electrons & nucleus) - Λ, Σ, Ξ baryons (hyperons)

- $\Xi (\Xi)^\pm$
- Σ^\pm
- Λ^0
- Neutron n^\pm
- Proton p^\pm
- K-meson k^\pm
- " k'
- Pion π^\pm
- " π^0
- Muon μ^\pm
- electron e^\pm
- Neutrino ν
- (anti-neutrino?)
- opposite

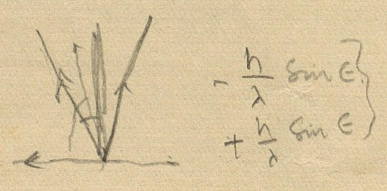
Are all elementary?

$\nabla^2 \psi = -k^2 \psi$

$$\frac{\hbar^2}{8\pi^2 m} \nabla^2 \psi + (E - V)\psi = 0$$

$$E\psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{8\pi^2 m} \nabla^2 \psi + V\psi$$

$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} =$



(A) (1) Permutation groups, or substitution groups or Symmetric groups S_n (order $n!$ degree n)

Proof that S_n forms a group - illustration by $s = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 4 & 3 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$ & $t = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 \\ 2 & 1 & 4 & 3 \end{pmatrix}$

(2) Even and odd permutations via $\prod_{i < j} (x_i - x_j) = P \cdot A_n$ also a normal subgroup.

(2') Sym. poly - Elem. Sym. poly $\sum x_i, \sum x_i x_j, \dots, \sigma_n = x_1 \dots x_n$ (order $\frac{n!}{2}$, degree n)

(3) cyclic permutation of n symbols has order n . (length n) $[r^n = 1]$

$$E_5 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \text{ or } \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 2 & 3 & 4 & 5 \\ 2 & 3 & 1 & 5 & 4 \end{pmatrix} = (123)(45)$$

(4) Any permutation = product of disjoint cycles $[a_1 \phi = a_2, \dots \text{ until } a_n \phi = a_1], (\phi^1), (\phi^n)$.

(5) order of any permutation = l.c.m of lengths of disjoint cycles

$$[\phi = r_1 \dots r_r \quad \phi^n = r_1^n \dots r_r^n \quad \phi^n = 1 \text{ only if every } r_i^n = 1]$$

(6) if ϕ be any permutation & $r = (a_1, \dots, a_m)$, & $r' = (a_1 \phi, \dots, a_m \phi)$, then $\phi^{-1} r \phi = r'$

(7) Any permutation = product of transpositions

$$a_1 a_2 \dots a_n = (a_1 a_2)(a_1 a_3) \dots (a_1 a_n) \text{ [illustrate with } 2431]$$

Every +ve permutation = products of abc $[=(ab)(ac)]$

-ve " " " " abca $[(ab)(ac)(ad)]$

Symmetric group S_n generated by $(12), (13), (14) \dots (1n)$

Alternating group A_n " $(123), (124) \dots (12n)$

(8) Simple group - Every alternating group A_n ($n \neq 4$) is simple.

(9) Examples of special permutation groups & their subgroups.

(a) S_3 generated by $(1), (12), (13), (2,3), (123), (132)$

Subgroups: A_3 by $1, (123), (132)$

S_2 by $1, (12), S_2'$ by $1, (13), S_2'' = 1, (23)$

and (1)

S_3 has class no = 3. and ~~from~~ A_3 also has class number = 3.

A_3 has no normal subgroup
 A_4 contains $(12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)$ as normal subgroup.
 $\hookrightarrow 4$ -group.

(b) S_4 has besides itself and unity only the two following normal subgroups

(i) A_4 and (ii) V_4 Klein's four group $1, (12)(34), (13)(24), (14)(23)$

S_4 has class no = 5, V_4 has class no = 3. [only up to $n=16$ have
or for subgroups etc. form]

A_4 " = 4

(10) Quaternion group Q_8 - Algebra of quaternions $1, i, j, k$ with $i^2 = j^2 = k^2 = -1$

$ij = -ji = k$, etc. - $\pm 1, \pm i, \pm j, \pm k$ form a multiplicative group of order 8.

This group has class no = 5. - also defined by $j^4 = 1, k^2 = j^2, kj = j^3k$. The

normal subgroup $(1, j^2)$ has the 4-group as factor group - class no of Q_8

group = 5. ~~matrix rep~~ $\begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}$

(B) Representation of groups by matrices: Completely reducible representations not of interest

(1) Defn: Rep n of a group G by linear trans in a field K such that to each element a of G corresponds a linear transformation A with coefficients in K .
is a group homomorphism
Since linear trans \rightarrow matrices, we have rep n by matrices

(2) (i) can there are completely reducible rep n which means that there are no. matrix rep n

(ii) Theorem about irreducible rep n (a) No. of irreducible rep n = no. of classes of conjugate elements, (b) $\eta_1, \eta_2, \dots, \eta_s$ be orders of these rep n

$$\eta_1^2 + \eta_2^2 + \dots + \eta_s^2 = h \quad (h = \text{order of group}).$$

(3) The several representations already matrices

(4) Rep n for case (9) & (10) in (A)

(a) for S_3 , $\eta_1^2 + \eta_2^2 + \eta_3^2 = 6$ & $\eta_1 = \eta_2 = 1, \eta_3 = 2$ & this is the rep n in (3) by matrices

A_3 , $\eta_1^2 + \eta_2^2 + \eta_3^2 = 3$, $\eta_1 = \eta_2 = \eta_3 = 1$ & hence no additional matrix rep n except those in S_3

(b) S_4 : $\eta_1^2 + \eta_2^2 + \eta_3^2 + \eta_4^2 + \eta_5^2 = 24$

Since V_4 has 3 irreducible rep n of order 1, 1, 2 (See (3) for this). If there be denoted by η_1, η_2, η_3 , $\eta_1^2 + \eta_2^2 + \eta_3^2 = 6$, so that $\eta_4^2 + \eta_5^2 = 18$

(3)

A_4 has class no. 4 & has 4 reps of order 1, 1, 1, 3 so that $1^2 + 1^2 + 1^2 + 3^2 = 12 = (24/2)$

& we might take the last one as the n_4 of S_4 . Hence n_5 also = 3.

(10) for quaternion group Q_8 class no = 5 i.e.

$$n_1^2 + n_2^2 + n_3^2 + n_4^2 + n_5^2 = 8$$

i.e. $n_1 = n_2 = n_3 = n_4 = 1, n_5 = 2$ & this fact is given by

$$i = \begin{pmatrix} i & 0 \\ 0 & -i \end{pmatrix}, j = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, k = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

Groups represented by matrices

$$(i) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

and $1, abc, acb, ab, ac, bc$ can be put in 1-1 correspondence
is isomorphic as regards multiplication [mention isomorphism]

$$(ii) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

not isomorphic to S_6 but is cyclic.

$$(iii) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

1 a b c

isomorphic to a non-cyclic group of order 4 under multiplication. is four-group:

$$(iv) \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ -1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

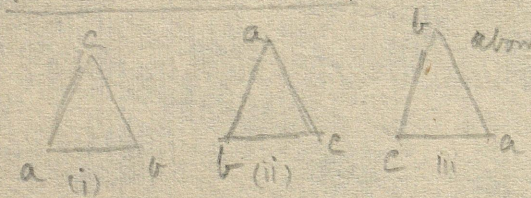
isomorphic to a cyclic group of order 4.

$$R(iii) \quad a^2 = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = 1, \text{ and } b^2 = c^2 = 1.$$

$$bc = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} -1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} = a, \text{ and } ca = b, ab = c$$

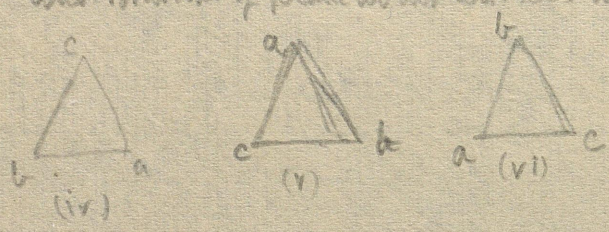
is (iii) is the 4-group.

Symmetric group of order 6 - For set of $\Delta^{\circ} abc$, rotations thru $0^\circ, 120^\circ, 240^\circ$



about centre give in \mathbb{C}_3 give (i), (ii) & (iii)

and rotation of plane about altitudes thru a, b, c give (iv), (v), (vi)



or denoted by

$$\begin{pmatrix} abc \\ abc \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} abc \\ bca \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} abc \\ cab \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} abc \\ bac \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} abc \\ cba \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} abc \\ acb \end{pmatrix}$$

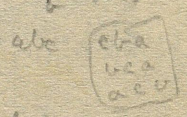
or 1, abc, acb, ab, ca, bc (all possible permutations of 6 in number order 6, degree 3)

multiplication: $ab \cdot ac \Rightarrow bac \cdot abc \Rightarrow bca$

$$ie abc \rightarrow bac \rightarrow bca = abc \quad ie a \rightarrow b, b \rightarrow c, c \rightarrow a$$

$$ac \cdot ab \Rightarrow abc \rightarrow cba \rightarrow cab = acb \quad ie a \rightarrow c, c \rightarrow b, b \rightarrow a$$

ie non-commutative multiplication



Subgroups: (1) 1, abc, acb. of order 3 (forming themselves a group of order $m 0^\circ, 120^\circ, 240^\circ$)

(2), (3) & (4) of order two are 1, ab; 1, ac; 1, bc.

ie Symmetric group of order 6 has 4 subgroups besides the identity (Mention Lagrange's theorem)

(1) General considerations. (a) Modification of Newton's law of gravitation of instantaneous action, which is incompatible with special relativity, by Poincaré, Minkowski, Sommerfeld & Lorentz, not satisfactory because not based on Einstein's modifying the fundamental Poisson's field eqns viz

$$\nabla^2 \phi = 4\pi K \rho_0 \quad \text{a eqn of motion } \frac{d^2 \vec{r}}{dt^2} = -\text{grad } \phi.$$

(b) Einstein's attempt to extend the relativity principle to reference systems in non-uniform motion is the postulate of equivalence of physical laws even in systems other than Galilean.

(c) Principle of equivalence - Generalisation of Newton's theory of equivalence of homogeneous gravitational field with a uniformly accelerated reference system viz that all other processes should take place in the same way in both systems - the principle makes it possible to calculate effect of a homogeneous gravitational field on arbitrary processes - eg (i) rate of clocks slower at points of lower ϕ_{gr} than at higher ϕ_{gr} , leading to shift towards the red of spectra emitted by the Sun, (ii) c not constant in a gr. field so that light rays become curves leading to displacement of the fixed stars seen at the edge of the Sun which is calculated as $0.83''$, (iii) not only an inertial mass, but also a gravitational mass $m = E/c^2$ has to be ascribed to an energy in all cases, (iv) Special relativity not valid in gr. fields & d.T loses all meaning &

(d) Spt. rel. can only be correct in absence of gr. fields.

(d) Covariant form of physical laws based on principle of equivalence & also valid for non-hom. gr. fields to be formulated - Several unsuccessful attempts - Einstein's 1st attempt to determine the gravitational field by the 10-component tensor g_{ik} in $ds^2 = g_{ik} dx^i dx^k$ without setting up generally covariant eqns for the g_{ik} 's also - He did these but made use of Riemann's theory of curvature - this enabled him to explain the perihelion displacement of mercury & bending of light rays in Sun's gravitational field gravitationally obtaining the size of this deflection as twice the original value obtained on earlier theory

(2) General formulation of principle of equivalence - Connection between gravitation & metric.

(a) Transforming away gravitation in an infinitesimally small world region $K_0 (x_1, x_2, x_3, x_4)$ is possible because of equality of gravitational & inertial mass - Result of Einstein - to each form of energy, aut. has also to be attached - special relativity valid in K_0

(b) Transformation from the X_i to general x_i leads from $ds^2 = dx_1^2 + \dots + dx_4^2$ to $ds^2 = g_{ik} dx^i dx^k$ (G-field of the g_{ik} 's) & world line of a particle subject to no force other than gravity becomes a geodesic - line $\delta \int ds = 0$ or $\frac{d^2 x^i}{ds^2} + \Gamma^i_{jk} \frac{dx^j}{ds} \frac{dx^k}{ds} = 0$. The ten tensor components in Einstein's theory take the place of the Newtonian potential ϕ & compo of Γ^i_{jk} determine magnitude of the gravitational force - for light rays which are null lines in K_0 not become geodesic null lines in general i.e. above eqns for particle plus $ds^2 = g_{ik} dx^i dx^k = 0$.

(c) Galilean principle of inertia is here replaced by $\delta \int ds = 0$ - Connection between geometry & space, Gen. Relativity shows that geometry of space is not given a priori but determined is only determined by matter.

(3) Formulate of general covariance of physical laws

(a) General physical laws are to be brought to such a form that they must be covariant in invariance coord. systems transformation. This covariance is made possible by incorporating the g_{ik} into the physical laws. Covariance by itself does not make any assertion about the content of physical laws, but has only a heuristic aspect. Covariance + principle of equivalence makes up the physical content of general relativity.

(4) Simple deductions from principle of equivalence:

(a) Egns of motion of a point mass for small velocities & weak gravitational fields

$$\text{Egn of motion is } \frac{d^2 x^i}{ds^2} + \Gamma^i_{jk} \frac{dx^j}{ds} \frac{dx^k}{ds} = 0$$

Can be written for small velocities (neglect v^2/c^2) as

$$\frac{d^2 x^i}{dt^2} + \Gamma^i_{jk} \frac{dx^j}{dt} \frac{dx^k}{dt} = 0$$

Weak gravitational field means $g_{ik} = +1$ (for $i=k=1, 2, 3$)
 $g_{i \neq k} = 0$, $g_{44} = -1$

$$\text{then } \frac{d^2 x^i}{dt^2} = -c^2 \Gamma^i_{44} \quad (x_4 = ct) \quad (i=1, 2, 3)$$

Also neglect time derivatives of g_{ik} (static field), $\Gamma^i_{44} = \Gamma^i_{,44}$ i.e. $-\frac{1}{2} \partial g_{44} / \partial x^i$ of eqns of motion

reduce to Newton's eqns of motion

$$\frac{d^2 x^i}{dt^2} = -\frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x^i}, \text{ where } \phi = -\frac{1}{2} c^2 (g_{44} + 1) \text{ or } g_{44} = -1 - \frac{2\phi}{c^2}$$

possibility of describing grav. fields approximated by scalar potential.

(b) Red shift of spectral lines

In general $t = x^4/c$ will be different from the normal proper time τ of a clock at rest.

For the world line of a clock at rest is $ds^2 = g_{44} (dx^4)^2$

$$\text{and since } s = ic\tau, t = \frac{\tau}{\sqrt{-g_{44}}} = \frac{\tau}{\sqrt{\{1 + \frac{2\phi}{c^2}\}}} \approx \tau (1 - \frac{\phi}{c^2}) \text{ i.e. } \frac{\Delta t}{\tau} = -\frac{\phi}{c^2}$$

i.e. if two originally synchronous clocks at rest, if one is placed in a grav. field for a certain length of time, it will have lost.

Referring vibration process of light as a clock, frequency measured by t will be same as two different points P & P' , but measured by τ will be different. The above can be interpreted as saying that if a spectral line produced on the earth can be observed on the earth, its

frequency will be shifted towards the red end compared with the corresponding

terrestrial frequency & this amount is given by $\left[\begin{array}{l} \text{wave emitted at } S \text{ will have } \text{freq } (2\pi i t / T_S) \\ \text{'' } E \text{ '' } \text{ will have } \text{freq } (2\pi i t / T_E) \end{array} \right]$

$$\frac{\Delta \nu}{\nu} = \frac{\phi_E - \phi_S}{c^2}$$

Numerical calculation gives $\frac{\Delta \nu}{\nu} = 2.12 \times 10^{-6}$ - Recently for the comparison of Sirius (a star dense star) $\phi > 30 \phi_S$ & has been detected by experiment.

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} dt = d\tau (1 - \phi/c^2) \\ T_S = T_0 (1 - \frac{\phi_S}{c^2}) \\ T_E = T_0 (1 - \frac{\phi_E}{c^2}) \\ \frac{T_E - T_S}{T_0} = \frac{\phi_S - \phi_E}{c^2} \\ \frac{\Delta \nu}{\nu} = \text{''} \end{array} \right]$$