

Greek Alphabet

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

Important constants:

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

Planck constant: $h = 6.626 \cdot 10^{-34}$ J s; $\hbar = h / 2\pi = 1.0546 \cdot 10^{-34}$ J s

Fundamental charge unit: $e = 1.6022 \cdot 10^{-19}$ C

Coulomb's Law constant: $1/4\pi\epsilon_0 = 8.988 \cdot 10^9$ Nm²/C^{2s}

Gravitational constant: $G = 6.674 \cdot 10^{-11}$ Nm²/kg²

Avogadro constant: $N_A = 6.022 \cdot 10^{23}$ particles per mol; 1 mol = A gram (A = molecular mass)

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

Stefan-Boltzmann constant: $\sigma = 5.67 \cdot 10^{-8}$ W/m²K⁴

Thompson cross section: $\sigma_e = 6.65 \cdot 10^{-29}$ m²

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

Hydrogen atom (¹H) mass: $m_H = 1.6735 \cdot 10^{-27}$ kg (A = 1.0078)

Helium atom (⁴He) mass: $m_{He} = 6.6465 \cdot 10^{-27}$ kg (A = 4.0026)

Hubble constant: $H_0 = 68$ km/s / Mpc

$M_{Earth} = 5.97 \cdot 10^{24}$ kg ; $R_{Earth} = 6.371 \cdot 10^6$ m

$M_{sun} = 1.989 \cdot 10^{30}$ kg ; $R_{sun} = 6.955 \cdot 10^8$ m, $\Delta_{earth-sun} = 1$ A.U. = $1.496 \cdot 10^{11}$ m

$L_{sun} = 3.84 \cdot 10^{26}$ W (corresponds to black-body effective temperature $T = 5777$ K; $M = 4.83$)

Useful conversions:

1 A.U. = $1.496 \cdot 10^{11}$ m; 1 parsec = 1 pc = 206,265 A.U. = $3.086 \cdot 10^{16}$ m = 3.262 light years

Absolute magnitude: $M = m$ at 10 pc distance; $M_2 = M_1 + 2.5 \log_{10}(L_1/L_2)$

L = luminosity = light energy emitted/second; $M = 71.29 - 2.5 \lg(L/\text{Watt})$

Apparent magnitude: $m = M + 5 \log_{10}(d/10 \text{ pc})$; $m_2 = m_1 + 2.5 \log_{10}(F_1/F_2)$

F = brightness = light absorbed/second/m²; $F = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2}$; $m = 66.29 - 2.5 \lg\left(\frac{L}{1\text{W}}\right) + 5 \lg\left(\frac{d}{1 \text{ pc}}\right)$

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

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

1 keV = 1000 eV, 1 MeV = 10^6 eV, GeV = 10^9 eV, 1 TeV = 10^{12} eV

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

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

Planck constant: $\hbar c = 197.33$ eV nm (1 nm = 10^{-9} m); $\hbar = 6.582 \cdot 10^{-16}$ eVs = 0.658 eV/ PHz

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

Electron mass: $m_e = 510,999$ eV/ $c^2 \approx 0.511$ MeV/ c^2 ; Muon mass: $m_\mu = 105.658$ MeV/ $c^2 \approx 207 \cdot m_e$

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

Proton mass: $m_p = 938.272$ MeV/ $c^2 \approx 1836 \cdot m_e$; Neutron mass: $m_n = 939.565$ MeV/ $c^2 \approx 1839 \cdot m_e$

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

Atomic mass unit (1/12 of the mass of a ^{12}C atom, $\Leftrightarrow A \equiv 1$): $u = 931.494$ MeV/ $c^2 \approx 1823 \cdot m_e$

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

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

Planck Length: $l_p = \sqrt{G\hbar/c^3} = 1.616 \cdot 10^{-35}$ m. Planck Energy: $E_p = \hbar c / l_p = 1957$ MJ = $1.22 \cdot 10^{28}$ eV

Planck mass: $m_p = E_p/c^2 = 22$ μg . Planck time: $t_p = l_p/c = 5.39 \cdot 10^{-44}$ s.

Special Relativity:

4-vector: Event $(ct, x, y, z) = (ct, \vec{r}) =: (x^0, x^1, x^2, x^3) = x^\mu, \mu = 0 \dots 3$

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

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

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

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

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

Doppler shift:
$$\frac{\lambda_{obs}}{\lambda_{emitted}} = (z + 1) = \frac{1 + v_{||}/c}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$
 (v is the **relative** velocity between emitter and

observer and $v_{||}$ is its component along the line of sight; $z > 0$ is redshift, $z < 0$ is blueshift)

Invariant interval between two events (points in 4-dim. space-time) separated by $\Delta x^\mu = (\Delta ct, \Delta \vec{r})$:

$$(\Delta s)^2 = (\Delta ct)^2 - (\Delta \vec{r})^2 = \sum_{\mu, \nu=0...3} \Delta x^\mu g_{\mu\nu} \Delta x^\nu = \begin{pmatrix} \Delta ct & \Delta x & \Delta y & \Delta z \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Delta ct \\ \Delta x \\ \Delta y \\ \Delta z \end{pmatrix}$$

The 4x4 matrix g is called the “metric” - it helps measure distances in terms of coordinates.

The invariant interval has the **same** magnitude in all inertial systems!

Positive $(\Delta s)^2$: “time-like separation” => elapsed “eigen” (proper) time $\Delta \tau = \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{(\Delta s)^2}$ in an inertial

system that travels from the start point (event) to the end point (event) of the interval. Negative

$(\Delta s)^2$: “space-like separation” (too far for any causal connection between the events).

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

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

$E = P^0 c$ is total energy of object = sum of rest mass energy ($E_{\text{rest}} = mc^2$) plus kinetic energy

$T_{\text{kin}} = (\Gamma - 1) mc^2 \approx \frac{1}{2} m u^2$ **only** if $u \ll c$. Sum of all momenta is conserved in collisions, separately for each component. Transformation of P^μ to coordinate system S' is analog to x^μ (see above).

Invariant Interval: $(P^0)^2 - \vec{P}^2 = \left(\frac{E}{c}\right)^2 - P_x^2 - P_y^2 - P_z^2 = m^2 c^2 \Rightarrow E = c \sqrt{m^2 c^2 + \vec{P}^2}$; $\frac{\vec{u}}{c} = \frac{\vec{P}c}{E}$.

Objects with no rest mass (e.g., photons): always $u = c$, $E = |P|c$.

Gravity:

Newtonian Gravity:

Relationship between distance a of two masses M and m and orbital period: $\omega^2 = \frac{G(M+m)}{a^3}$

Gravitational potential (=potential energy per unit mass) at a distance r from a spherical mass M :

$\Phi_{\text{grav}} = \frac{V_{\text{grav}}}{m} = -\frac{GM}{r}$. Gravitational potential energy of uniform sphere of mass M and radius R :

$V_{\text{grav}} = -\frac{3}{5} \frac{GM^2}{R}$. Virial Theorem: $T_{\text{kin}} = -E_{\text{tot}} = \frac{1}{2} |V_{\text{grav}}|$ for a system of masses in stable orbits.

General Relativity:

Freely falling reference frames are the new **local** inertial coordinate systems, where photons move with the speed of light in straight lines and a resting object stays at rest in the absence of external forces (**other** than gravity). Objects under the influence of only gravity (no other force) follow “geodesics” (best possible rendition of a “straight line”) which maximize the proper time elapsed between 2 points (analog to ordinary straight lines that correspond to the shortest distance between 2 points).

Time Dilation: The local time t_{local} near a massive object elapses more slowly than time t_∞ in the coordinate system of a fixed observer far away: $\Delta t_{local} = \sqrt{1 + \frac{2\Phi_{grav}}{c^2}} \Delta t_\infty$; $\Phi_{grav} = \frac{V_{pot}^{grav}}{m} \left(= -\frac{GM}{r} \right)$

(last expression is for spherical mass M)

Schwarzschild radius: $R_s = \frac{2GM}{c^2} \Rightarrow \Delta t_{local} = \sqrt{1 - \frac{R_s}{r}} \Delta t_\infty$. Local elapsed time near Schwarzschild radius (= event horizon) becomes zero for any finite remote elapsed time \rightarrow all motion appears to come to a standstill as seen from far away (∞ slow “ageing”). \Rightarrow **Schwarzschild metric:**

$$(\Delta s)^2 = \sum_{\mu, \nu=0 \dots 3} \Delta x^\mu g_{\mu\nu} \Delta x^\nu = \begin{pmatrix} \Delta ct & \Delta r & \Delta \theta & \Delta \varphi \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 - R_s/r & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & -1/(1 - R_s/r) & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & -r^2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & -r^2 \sin^2 \theta \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \Delta ct \\ \Delta r \\ \Delta \theta \\ \Delta \varphi \end{pmatrix}$$

Proper time $\Delta \tau = \frac{1}{c} \sqrt{(\Delta s)^2}$ near spherical mass M : $d\tau = \left(\left[1 - \frac{R_s}{r} \right] dt_\infty^2 - \left[1 - \frac{R_s}{r} \right]^{-1} \frac{dr^2}{c^2} - \frac{r^2}{c^2} d\theta^2 - \frac{r^2 \sin^2 \theta}{c^2} d\varphi^2 \right)^{1/2}$

Curvature: No **global** inertial coordinate systems are possible in general, since the acceleration of gravity (“free fall”) has different magnitudes and different directions at different points in space. Consequence: “straight” lines (= geodesics) become curved (both in real space \rightarrow bending of light around massive objects, and in space-time \rightarrow different rates of falling at different radial distance); parallel straight lines (light rays) can converge in a single point (Gravitational lensing) etc. \Rightarrow space-time itself is curved! **Consequences:** Light rays bending near massive objects (stars etc.), time-dilation and red-shift of light emitted near massive objects, event horizons,...

Universe at large:

Co-moving coordinate system: $\vec{r}_c = const.$ for a point (object) locally at rest relative to “Hubble flow”; true distance from origin $D = a(t)r_c$. Scale factor $a(t)$ = Radius of curvature in a curved universe (otherwise arbitrary; r_c is meant to be dimensionless). Universal time t (same everywhere; defined through Hubble parameter $H(t)$ – see below). t_0 = present time:

Hubble law: $v_r = \frac{dD}{dt} = \dot{a}(t)r_c = \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)} D(t) =: H(t)D \Rightarrow H(t) = \frac{\dot{a}(t)}{a(t)}$ (Hubble parameter). At present:

$$H_0 = H(t_0) = \frac{68 - 70 \text{ km/s}}{1 \text{ Mpc}} \approx \frac{1}{14 \cdot 10^9 \text{ yr}}. \text{ Speed of light in co-moving coordinates: } \frac{dr_c}{dt} = \frac{c}{a(t)}$$

Redshift for light emitted at t and received at t_0 : $z = \frac{a(t_0)}{a(t)} - 1$. Invariant distance of object at time of

emission: $r_c(em.) = \int_{t_e}^{t_0} \frac{c}{a(t)} dt \Rightarrow D(em., t_e) = a(t_e)r_c(em.); D(em., t_0) = a(t_0)r_c(em.)$.

General (Walker-Robertson) metric: $ds^2 = dt^2 - a^2(t) \left[dr_c^2 + S_K^2(r_c) (d\theta^2 + \sin^2 \theta d\varphi^2) \right]$.

Critical density: $\rho_c(t) = \frac{3H^2(t)}{8\pi G}$.

Today: $\rho_c(t_0) = \frac{3H_0^2}{8\pi G} \approx 10^{-26} \text{ kg/m}^3 \approx 6 \text{ protons/m}^3 \approx 9 \cdot 10^{-10} \text{ J/m}^3$

Closed Universe (positive curvature): $\rho_{tot} = \rho_M + \rho_R + \rho_\Lambda > \rho_c \Rightarrow K = 1, S_K(r_c) = \sin(r_c)$.

Flat Universe (no curvature): $\rho_{tot} = \rho_c \Rightarrow K = 0, S_K(r_c) = r_c$.

Open Universe (negative curvature): $\rho_{tot} < \rho_c \Rightarrow K = -1, S_K(r_c) = \sinh(r_c)$.

Evolution:

$$H^2(t) = \frac{\dot{a}^2(t)}{a^2(t)} = \frac{8\pi}{3} G \rho_{tot}(t) - \frac{Kc^2}{a^2(t)} = H_0^2 \left(\frac{\rho_{tot}(t)}{\rho_c(t_0)} - \frac{Kc^2}{H_0^2 a^2(t)} \right) = H_0^2 (\Omega_M(t) + \Omega_R(t) + \Omega_\Lambda(t) + \Omega_K(t))$$

$$\Rightarrow \dot{a}(t) = a(t) H_0 \sqrt{\Omega_M(t) + \Omega_R(t) + \Omega_\Lambda(t) + \Omega_K(t)} \Rightarrow \frac{da}{a} = \sqrt{\Omega_M(t) + \Omega_R(t) + \Omega_\Lambda(t) + \Omega_K(t)} H_0 dt$$

with the following ingredients:

1) Matter (both baryonic and dark matter), non-relativistic, density due to mass:

$$\Omega_M(t) = \frac{\rho_M(t)}{\rho_c(t_0)} = \frac{\rho_M(t_0)}{\rho_c(t_0)} \frac{a_0^3}{a^3(t)} = \Omega_M^0 \frac{a_0^3}{a^3(t)}$$

(Note the “mixed definition” where ρ_c is always taken at today’s value). Today: $\Omega_M^0 \approx 0.3$, roughly 26% dark matter and 4% baryons.

2) Radiation (any relativistic particles, including photons, neutrinos in the early Universe and ultra-hot matter):

$$\Omega_R(t) = \frac{\rho_R(t)}{\rho_c(t_0)} = \frac{\varepsilon(t)/c^2}{\rho_c(t_0)} = \frac{\rho_R(t_0)}{\rho_c(t_0)} \frac{a_0^4}{a^4(t)} = \Omega_R^0 \frac{a_0^4}{a^4(t)}$$

$$\varepsilon(t) = \text{energy density} \propto T^4; T(t) = T(t_0) \frac{a_0}{a(t)}. \text{ Today: } \Omega_R^0 = 8.24 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ (mostly due to 2.7 K CMB)}$$

3) Dark energy (cosmological constant Λ): $\Omega_\Lambda(t) = \frac{\rho_\Lambda(t)}{\rho_c(t_0)} = \frac{\rho_\Lambda(t_0)}{\rho_c(t_0)}$ (const.) = Ω_Λ^0 . Today, $\Omega_\Lambda^0 \approx 0.7$.

4) Curvature: $\Omega_K(t) = -\frac{Kc^2}{H_0^2 a^2(t)} = \Omega_K^0 \frac{a_0^2}{a^2(t)}$. Note: By definition $\Omega_K^0 = 1 - \Omega_M^0 - \Omega_R^0 - \Omega_\Lambda^0$. In principle, can

be negative (open Universe) or positive (closed Universe). Today’s value unknown but very close to 0 (within 2%). Must have been extremely close to 0 in the early Universe (Inflation predicts 0).

General behavior of scale factor for different scenarios (dominance of one of the Ω terms):

Matter dominated Universe: $a(t) = a_0 (1 + \frac{3}{2} H_0 t)^{2/3}$ Radiation dominance: $a(t) = a_0 (1 + 2H_0 t)^{1/2}$

Dark energy/inflation dominance: $a(t) = a_0 e^{H_0 t}$. (Negative) curvature dominance: $a(t) = a_0 + ct$

Quantum Mechanics:

Formal/abstract (for experts only): All knowledge about a system is encoded in state vector $|\psi\rangle$. State vectors can be linearly combined, and we can define a scalar product $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle$ (complex number). By convention all state vectors are normalized to 1: $\langle\psi|\psi\rangle=1$.

Observables O are represented by operators Ω with eigenvectors $|\varphi_i\rangle$ and eigenvalues ω_i (real numbers): $\Omega|\varphi_i\rangle=\omega_i|\varphi_i\rangle$. Any measurement of O must give one of these eigenvalues as result. After we measure ω_i , the system will be in the state described by vector $|\varphi_i\rangle$ (“collapse of the state”). The probability to measure this particular eigenvalue is given by $\text{Pr}(\omega_i)=|\langle\varphi_i|\psi\rangle|^2$. The average (expectation value) for the observable over many independent trials is $\langle O\rangle=\langle\psi|\Omega|\psi\rangle$ with a standard deviation $\Delta O=\sqrt{\langle O^2\rangle-\langle O\rangle^2}$.

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

Time evolution (Schrödinger Equation): $|\psi\rangle(t)$; $\frac{\partial}{\partial t}|\psi\rangle(t)=\frac{1}{i\hbar}\mathbf{H}|\psi\rangle(t)$ where \mathbf{H} is the Hamiltonian operator that represents total mechanical energy (kinetic and potential). Eigenstates of \mathbf{H} : $\mathbf{H}|\varphi_E\rangle=E|\varphi_E\rangle$; $|\varphi_E\rangle(t)=|\varphi_E\rangle e^{-iEt/\hbar}$ represent bound (stationary) states

CONSEQUENCES:

- 1) In general, only probabilistic predictions can be made about measurements of observables
- 2) Quantization of light (in form of photons) and of energy levels in atoms, nuclei, molecules,...

Hydrogen-like atoms:

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

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

Strictly speaking, mass must be replaced by “reduced mass” of 2-body system with masses m_1

and m_2 : $\mu=\frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1+m_2}\approx m_1$ if $m_1\ll m_2$

Energy Eigenvalues = possible energy levels of “stationary bound states”:

$$E_n=-\frac{\mu}{m_e}\frac{Z^2}{n^2}Ry\approx-\frac{1}{n^2}Ry$$
 for hydrogen atom ($n=1, 2, \dots$; $Ry=m_e c^2 \alpha^2/2=13.6$ eV). Degenerate

in ℓ and m ; $\ell=0, 1, \dots, n-1$, $m_\ell=-\ell\dots+\ell$; also degenerate in electron spin $m_s=\pm 1/2\Rightarrow$ total degeneracy $g_n=2n^2$.

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

Light emitted or absorbed in transition with energy difference $\Delta E = E_{\text{init}} - E_{\text{final}}$:
 $f = \Delta E/h, \lambda = hc/\Delta E = 2\pi\hbar c/\Delta E$ (Photon energy $E_\gamma = hf$ and momentum $p_\gamma = h/\lambda$)

Pauli principle:

No two identical Fermions (spin-1/2, 3/2, ... particles) can be in the same exact quantum state. fit

Consequence: Only up to two spin-1/2 particles (one with spin “up”, one with spin “down”) can in a “phase-space volume” (= ordinary volume V times momentum-space volume $\frac{4\pi}{3} p_f^3$) of size h^3 (Planck’s constant cubed). Therefore, a “Fermi gas” (also called a “degenerate gas”) of spin-1/2 particles has to occupy available momentum states up to a maximum of the Fermi momentum $p_f = \hbar(3\pi^2)^{1/3} n^{1/3}$; $n = \frac{N_{\text{tot}}}{V}$ where N_{tot} is the total number of Fermions. As a consequence, the minimum total kinetic energy for a Fermi gas with N_{tot} identical fermions in a sphere of radius R is

$$E_{\text{tot}}^{\text{kin}} = \begin{cases} \frac{3}{5} N_{\text{tot}} \frac{p_f^2}{2m} = \frac{3\hbar^2}{10m} N_{\text{tot}} (3\pi^2)^{2/3} \left(\frac{N_{\text{tot}}}{V}\right)^{2/3} = \frac{3\hbar^2 \left(\frac{9\pi}{4}\right)^{2/3}}{10m} \frac{N_{\text{tot}}^{5/3}}{R^2}; \text{non-relativistic} \\ \frac{3}{4} N_{\text{tot}} c p_f = \frac{3}{4} \hbar c N_{\text{tot}} (3\pi^2)^{1/3} \left(\frac{N_{\text{tot}}}{V}\right)^{1/3} = \frac{3\hbar c \left(\frac{9\pi}{4}\right)^{1/3}}{4} \frac{N_{\text{tot}}^{4/3}}{R}; \text{ultra-relativistic} \end{cases}$$

Astrophysics:

For a white dwarf of mass M , equilibrium between gravity and “Fermi pressure” is reached when

$$R = \frac{\hbar^2 N_{\text{tot}}^{5/3}}{m_e G M^2} \left(\frac{9\pi}{4}\right)^{2/3} \text{ with } N_{\text{tot}} = \frac{M}{1.008 \text{ g}} \frac{N_A}{2}. \text{ (careful: 1 g = 0.001 kg!)}$$

For a neutron star, replace m_e with m_n and N_{tot} with $N_{\text{tot}} = \frac{M}{1.009 \text{ g}} N_A$.

Chandrasekar limit: White dwarfs become unstable beyond $M = 1.4 M_{\text{sun}}$; neutron stars become unstable beyond $2 M_{\text{sun}}$ (both due to relativistic effects: the kinetic energy goes up only like $1/R$ instead of $1/R^2$ as the Fermi momentum approaches the mass of the fermion in magnitude).

Nuclear Physics

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Radioactive nuclei:

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

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

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

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

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

Particle Physics

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

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

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

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

Photon γ (electromagnetic interaction), W^+ , W^- , Z^0 (weak interaction), gluons (strong interaction) [graviton (gravity) only conjectured]. All except weak interaction bosons are massless; the latter gain mass (80-91 GeV/c²) through interaction with the Higgs field.

Thermal/Statistical Physics

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

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

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

(C is a normalization constant; μ is the “chemical potential”)

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

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

State density for simple monatomic gas:

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

Consequences: Ideal gas law $PV = nRT = n N_A kT$, (n = number of mols; $N = n N_A$); average energy per degree of freedom (dimension of motion) = $\frac{1}{2} kT \Rightarrow$ total kinetic energy of a monatomic gas = $\frac{3}{2} kT$ per atom or $E_{\text{tot}} = \frac{3}{2} n N_A kT = \frac{3}{2} nRT$

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

Energy density (= energy contained in electromagnetic radiation of wave length λ , per unit volume V) for black-body radiation (i.e., Bose-Einstein Distribution for a photon gas):

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

(Planck's Law); Maximum for $\lambda = \frac{hc}{4.9663kT} = \frac{2.9 \text{ mm}}{T[K]}$. Total over all wave lengths: σT^4

Propagation of electromagnetic waves

Energy per volume dV in wave length interval $d\lambda$:

$$\frac{dE(\lambda \dots \lambda + d\lambda)}{dV} = u_\lambda d\lambda ; u_\lambda = \text{specific energy density.}$$

Example: black-body $u_\lambda = \frac{dn_\gamma}{d\lambda} \frac{hc}{\lambda} = \frac{8\pi hc}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1}$

Total (integral over all wave lengths): $dE_{tot}/dV = 4\sigma/c T^4$

Maximum intensity per unit wave length interval for $\lambda = 2.9 \text{ mm} / T [\text{K}]$

(Wien displacement law)

Total power emitted (intensity integrated over all wave lengths) $I = \sigma T^4$

(Stefan-Boltzmann equation)

Total luminosity of spherical black-body of radius R : $L = 4\pi R^2 \sigma T^4$

Apparent brightness (flux density) at distance d : $F = \frac{L}{4\pi d^2}$

Power emitted per area dA into solid angle $d\Omega$ in wave length interval $d\lambda$:

$$\frac{dE(\lambda \dots \lambda + d\lambda)}{dt dA d\Omega} = \cos\theta \cdot I_\lambda(\theta, \varphi) d\lambda ; I_\lambda = \text{specific intensity.}$$

Average: $\langle I_\lambda \rangle = \frac{1}{4\pi} \iint I_\lambda(\theta, \varphi) d\Omega = \frac{c}{4\pi} u_\lambda$. Ex.: black-body: $\langle I_\lambda \rangle = \frac{2hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{d\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1}$

Power emitted in positive (neg.) z -direction per area dA perpendicular to z and per $d\lambda$:

$$\text{Radiation flux density } F_\lambda = \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos\theta \cdot I_\lambda(\theta, \varphi) \sin\theta d\theta$$

For isotropic specific intensity (for top hemisphere): $\Rightarrow F_\lambda = \pi \langle I_\lambda \rangle$

Black-body radiation: $F_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{2\pi hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{d\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1} = 2\pi hc \frac{f^3}{c^3} \frac{df}{e^{hf/kT} - 1}$

Radiation pressure in z -direction: $dP_\lambda^z = \frac{2}{c} d\lambda \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \int_0^{\pi/2} \cos^2\theta \cdot I_\lambda(\theta, \varphi) \sin\theta d\theta$

For isotropic specific intensity in top hemisphere: $\Rightarrow dP_\lambda^z = \frac{4\pi}{3c} \langle I_\lambda \rangle d\lambda = \frac{1}{3} u_\lambda d\lambda \Rightarrow P_{tot} = \frac{1}{3} \frac{E_{tot}}{V}$

Scattering probability: $dPr = \frac{N_{atoms}}{V} \sigma ds = \frac{\rho}{m_{Atom}} \sigma ds = \rho \kappa ds ; \sigma = \text{cross section, } \rho = \text{density.}$

$\kappa = \sigma/m_{Atom}$ = opacity. Mean free path $\ell = 1/\kappa\sigma$. $\tau = D/\ell$ = optical depth. Total pathlength = $D\tau$. For ionized star atmospheres (70% H), Rosseland opacity $\bar{\kappa} \approx 0.034 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg}$. For fully ionized hydrogen,

$$\bar{\kappa} = \frac{\sigma_e}{m_H} = 0.042 \text{ m}^2/\text{kg} \Rightarrow L_{\max} = \frac{4\pi GMc}{\bar{\kappa}} = (3.3 - 3.8) \cdot 10^4 \frac{L_{sun} M}{M_{sun}} \text{ (Eddington Luminosity Limit).}$$