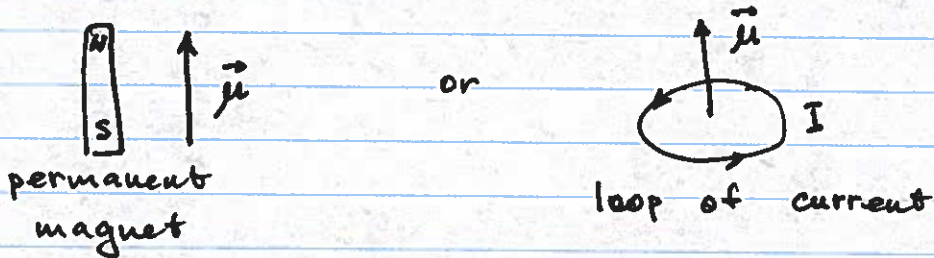


Quantum bit - qubit

A qubit is a quantum version of a bit, that can only have a value of 0 or 1.

In many computer systems bits are realized with small magnets



Potential energy in the magnetic field

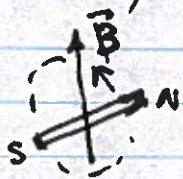
$$U = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}$$

$\uparrow \vec{\mu} \parallel \vec{B}$ - lowest energy configuration

$\downarrow \vec{\mu} \parallel \vec{B}$ - highest energy configuration

Magnetic torque $\vec{\tau} = \vec{\mu} \times \vec{B}$

If $\vec{\mu} \parallel \vec{B}$ - no torque



if $\vec{\mu} \perp \vec{B}$, the magnet will be rotating (precessing) around the \vec{B} vector

Magnetic force in an inhomogeneous magnetic field

$$U = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B} = -\mu_z \cdot B_z$$

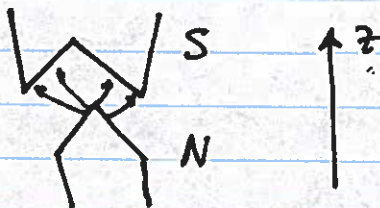
$$F_z = -\frac{dU}{dz} = -\frac{d}{dz}(-\mu_z B_z) = \mu_z \cdot \frac{dB_z}{dz}$$

magnetic field gradient

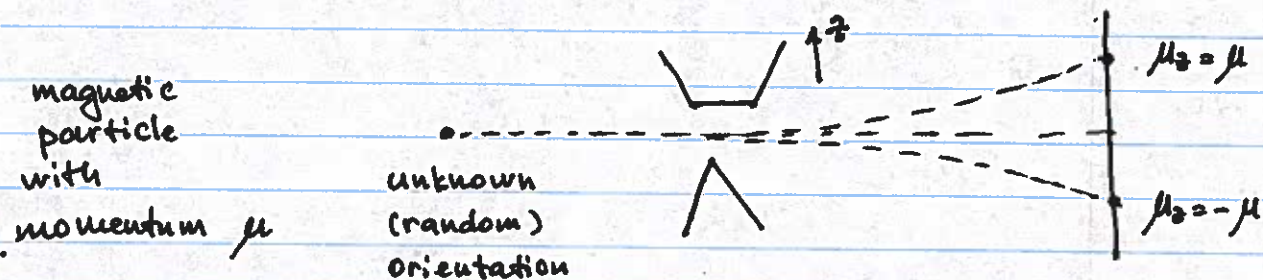
For a known gradient $F_z \propto \mu_z$

We can use this observation to build an experiment to measure μ_z

Stern - Gerlach apparatus: two magnets of a different shape



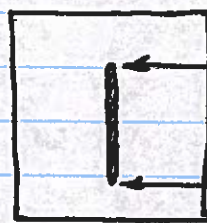
This shape creates strong gradient $\frac{dB_z}{dz}$ b/w the two magnets



Since $F_z \propto \mu_z$, each particle receives a "kick" proportional to its μ_z when passing through SG apparatus, and that kick will determine the amount of deviation up or down on the screen.



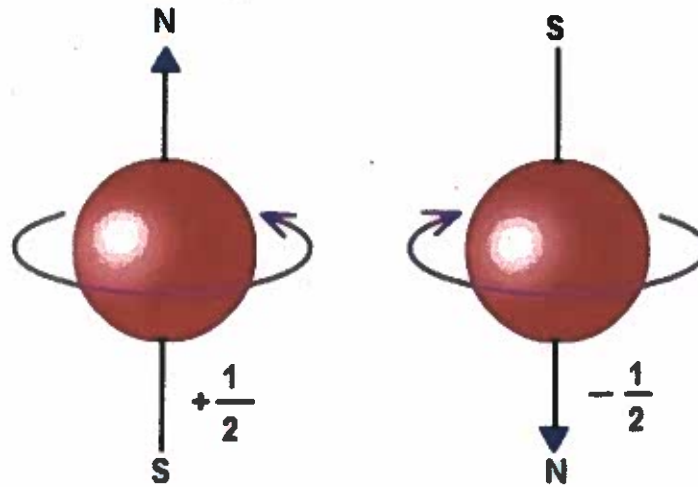
no SG apparatus



position for $\mu_z = \mu$

position for $\mu_z = -\mu$

Electron spin explained: imagine a ball that's rotating, except it's not a ball and it's not rotating



(and protons, neutrons, and many other particles)

Electrons are tiny magnets, since they have an intrinsic magnetic moment $\vec{\mu}_e$. This magnetic moment is associated with electron spin angular momentum (the word "spin" is historical, and does not involve any spinning)

$$\vec{\mu}_e = -g_s \mu_B \cdot \vec{S} / \hbar = \frac{(-e) \hbar}{2m_e c} \vec{S} \quad g_s \approx 2 \quad \text{for electron}$$

$\mu_B = \frac{e \hbar}{2m_e c}$ Bohr magneton

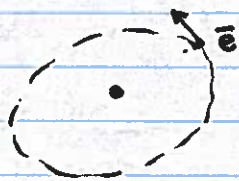
Important takeaway: $\vec{\mu}_e \propto \vec{S}$

$$\mu_B = 9.274 \cdot 10^{-24} \text{ J/T}$$

or $5.788 \cdot 10^{-5} \text{ eV/T}$

If we can measure μ_{ez} , we measure S_z

Electrons may also have contributions to their magnetic moment from their orbital motion. If an electron moves around an nucleus, it may have orbital angular momentum \vec{L}



$$\vec{\mu}_e = -g_L \mu_B \frac{\vec{L}}{\hbar} \quad (\text{no spin})$$

Total angular momentum $\vec{J} = \vec{L} + \vec{S}$

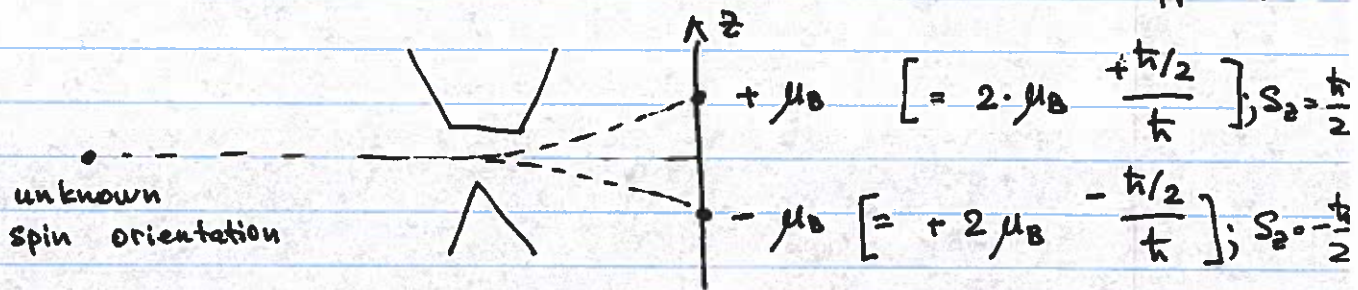
and $\vec{\mu}_e = -g_J \mu_B \frac{\vec{J}}{\hbar}$

In the first few chapters we do not consider orbital motion, so $\vec{L} \equiv 0$ and

$$\vec{S} = \vec{J}$$

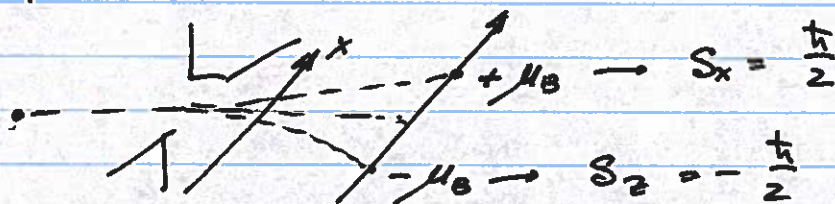
That is why the text book will use these terms intermittently. For free-moving electrons they are the same

An electron in a Stern-Gerlach apparatus



Considering that $\hbar/2$ is the highest value of spin electron can have, it appears that seemingly randomly oriented electrons have spins either perfectly aligned or perfectly anti-aligned with the magnetic field.

More bizarre: if we rotate the apparatus 90° (in x-direction), the outcome will be the same



To not stretch my artistic abilities too much, I will draw a box for a Stern Gerlach apparatus, showing its orientation

