

Orbital Angular Momentum.

In classical mechanics, $\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$.

In QM, we take $\vec{L} = -i\hbar \vec{r} \times \vec{\nabla}$, using $\vec{p} = -i\hbar \vec{\nabla}$.

This implies the following commutators:

$$[\hat{L}_x, \hat{L}_y] = i\hbar \hat{L}_z, \quad [\hat{L}_y, \hat{L}_z] = i\hbar \hat{L}_x, \quad [\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_x] = i\hbar \hat{L}_y$$

These commutators say that we cannot determine more than one component of \vec{L} at any time.

For example, the U.C. says $\Delta L_x \Delta L_y \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \langle L_z \rangle$.

$$\Delta L_y \Delta L_z \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \langle L_x \rangle$$

$$\Delta L_z \Delta L_x \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \langle L_y \rangle$$

The only way we can know all three components is when $\vec{L} = 0 \Rightarrow$ Then $L_x = L_y = L_z = 0$.

On the other hand, we can determine L^2 and any one component of \vec{L} , because

$$[\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}^2] = 0, \quad [\hat{L}_x, \hat{L}^2] = 0, \quad [\hat{L}_y, \hat{L}^2] = 0$$

where $\hat{L}^2 = \hat{L}_x^2 + \hat{L}_y^2 + \hat{L}_z^2$

Because

Because these commutators are zero, \hat{L}^2 & \hat{L}_z have simultaneous eigenstates in common.

(Just like $[\hat{H}_{free}, \hat{p}] = 0$ implies that \hat{H}_{free} and \hat{p} have common eigenstates.)

Recall that with the SHO, the commutator relation for $[\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger]$ allowed us to determine the eigenvalues for \hat{H}_{SHO} without solving the Schrödinger Eq. (we found that

$$E_n = \hbar\omega_0 (n + \frac{1}{2}), n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\hat{a}|n\rangle = \sqrt{n}|n-1\rangle, \hat{a}^\dagger|n\rangle = \sqrt{n+1}|n+1\rangle$$

all came from $[\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger] = 1$ & $\hat{H}_{SHO} = \hbar\omega_0 (\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} + \frac{1}{2})$.

We can use a similar strategy to find the eigenvalues for L^2 & L_z .

First Define $\left. \begin{aligned} \hat{L}_+ &\equiv \hat{L}_x + i\hat{L}_y \\ \hat{L}_- &\equiv \hat{L}_x - i\hat{L}_y \end{aligned} \right\}$ these will turn out to be similar to \hat{a} & \hat{a}^\dagger .

We can calculate from the definitions:

$$[\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_+] = \hbar \hat{L}_+, [\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_-] = -\hbar \hat{L}_-$$

$$[\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_\pm] = 0, [\hat{L}_+, \hat{L}_-] = 2\hbar \hat{L}_z$$

One more useful expression: $\hat{L}^2 = \hat{L}_+ \hat{L}_- + \hat{L}_z^2 + \hbar \hat{L}_z$

We want to find the eigenvalues for \hat{L}^2 & \hat{L}_z , using the base states that they have in common.

Let $\{|l, m\rangle\}$ be the name for these common base states.
 a label for \hat{L}^2 eigenvalues \uparrow \uparrow a label for the L_z eigenvalues

Then $\hat{L}_z |lm\rangle = (\text{eigenvalue for } L_z) |lm\rangle$
 let the eigenvalue be called $\hbar m$, because \hbar has units of angular momentum. We know nothing about m except that it is unitless.

$$\hat{L}_z |lm\rangle \equiv \hbar m |lm\rangle \leftarrow \text{definition of } m.$$

We can show that m is either $\begin{cases} \text{an integer,} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{an odd multiple of } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$

Like this:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{L}_z (\hat{L}_+ |lm\rangle) &= (\hbar \hat{L}_+ + \hat{L}_+ \hat{L}_z) |lm\rangle \\ &\stackrel{\text{using } [L_z, L_+] = \hbar L_+}{=} (\hbar \hat{L}_+ + L_+ (\hbar m)) |lm\rangle \\ &= \hbar (m+1) (\hat{L}_+ |lm\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore \hat{L}_+ |lm\rangle$ is an unnormalized eigenstate of \hat{L}_z , with eigenvalue $\hbar(m+1)$.

\therefore

(It turns out that the normalization constant is

$$\hat{L}_\pm |lm\rangle = \hbar \sqrt{l(l+1) - m(m \pm 1)} |l, m \pm 1\rangle$$

Similarly, $\hat{L}_z (\hat{L}_- |lm\rangle) = \hbar (m-1) (\hat{L}_- |lm\rangle)$,

$\therefore \hat{L}_- |lm\rangle$ is an unnormalized eigenstate ^{of \hat{L}_z} with eigenvalue $\hbar(m-1)$.

So the L_z eigenvalues are separated by one unit of \hbar : $\{ \dots |l, m-2\rangle, |l, m-1\rangle, |l, m\rangle, |l, m+1\rangle \}$

eigenvalues $\hbar(m-2), \hbar(m-1), \hbar m, \hbar(m+1), \dots$

Using the $[L^2, L^+]$ commutator, we can^{also} show that

- the eigenvalues for L^2 are $\hbar^2 l(l+1)$.

$$\Rightarrow L^2 |lm\rangle = \hbar^2 l(l+1) |lm\rangle \leftarrow \text{e.v. for } L^2$$

- The allowed values of m run from $-l$ to l :

$$m = \{-l, -l+1, \dots, l-1, l\}$$

- l is either $\begin{cases} \text{an integer } (l=0, 1, 2, 3, \dots) \\ \text{or half-integer } (l=\frac{1}{2}, \frac{3}{2}, \frac{5}{2}, \dots) \end{cases}$

\Rightarrow For orbital angular momentum, (Phys 401)
 l is an integer

\Rightarrow For spin angular momentum (Phys 402),
 l is half-integer.

So ^{orbital} angular momentum states are

$ state\rangle$	l	L^2	m	L_z
$ 00\rangle$	0	$\hbar^2 0$	0	
$ 1, -1\rangle, 1, 0\rangle, 1, 1\rangle$	1	$2\hbar^2$	-1, 0, 1	$-\hbar, 0, \hbar$
$ 2, -2\rangle, 2, -1\rangle, 2, 0\rangle, 2, 1\rangle, 2, 2\rangle$	2	$6\hbar^2$	-2, -1, 0, 1, 2	$-2\hbar, -\hbar, 0, \hbar, 2\hbar$

These states have a property we call degeneracy.

When multiple states have the same eigenvalue, we

say they are degenerate. For example, $|1, -1\rangle, |1, 0\rangle, |1, 1\rangle$ all have $L^2 = 2\hbar^2$. We say they are degenerate in L^2 .

They are not degenerate with respect to L_z , however.

L_z removes the degeneracy.

~~Rotations~~Orbital Angular MomentumStates are $\{|l, m\rangle\}$, $l = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$$m = \{-l, -l+1, \dots, 0, \dots, l-1, l\}$$

Eigenvalue Equations

$$\hat{L}^2 |l, m\rangle = \hbar^2 l(l+1) |l, m\rangle$$

$$\hat{L}_z |l, m\rangle = \hbar m |l, m\rangle$$

Ladder operators:

$$\hat{L}_{\pm} \equiv \hat{L}_x \pm i \hat{L}_y$$

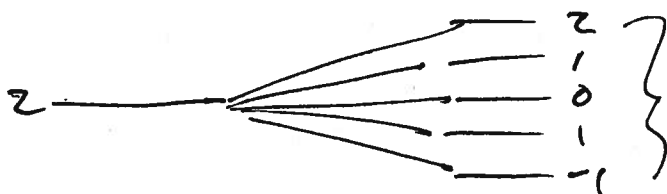
$$\hat{L}_{\pm} |l, m\rangle = \hbar \sqrt{l(l+1) - m(m \pm 1)} |l, m \pm 1\rangle$$

These states are "degenerate" with respect to $\hat{L}^2 \Rightarrow$ multiple states have the same value of L^2 :

\uparrow promote or demote the L_z eigen



} These three states all have the same L^2 .
"triple degeneracy"



} "quintuple degeneracy"

Once L_z is specified (m), then the degeneracy is removed.

However, even when L_z is specified, L_x & L_y are still not known with absolute certainty, because $L_x, L_y, & L_z$ do not commute. \Rightarrow Therefore if we are in an eigenstate of L_z , then L_x & L_y are uncertain:

$[\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_x] = i\hbar \hat{L}_y$ for example, so

$\Delta L_z \Delta L_x = \frac{\hbar}{2} \langle L_y \rangle$

$[\hat{L}_x, \hat{L}_y] = i\hbar \hat{L}_z$, for example, so

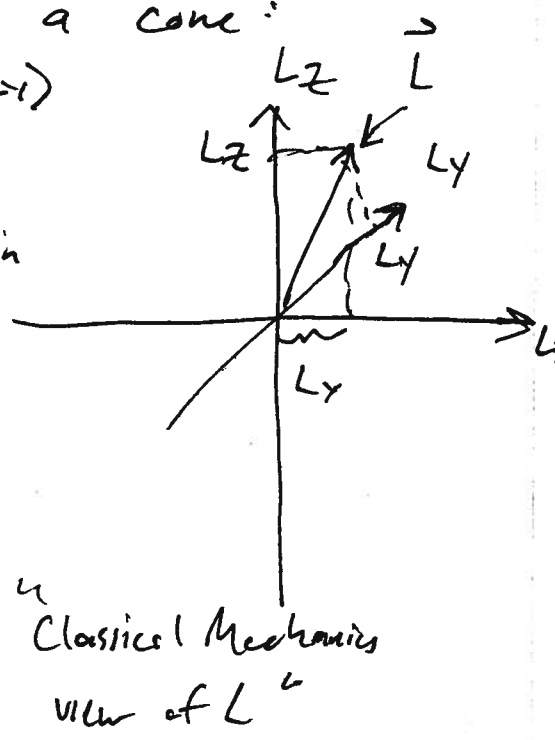
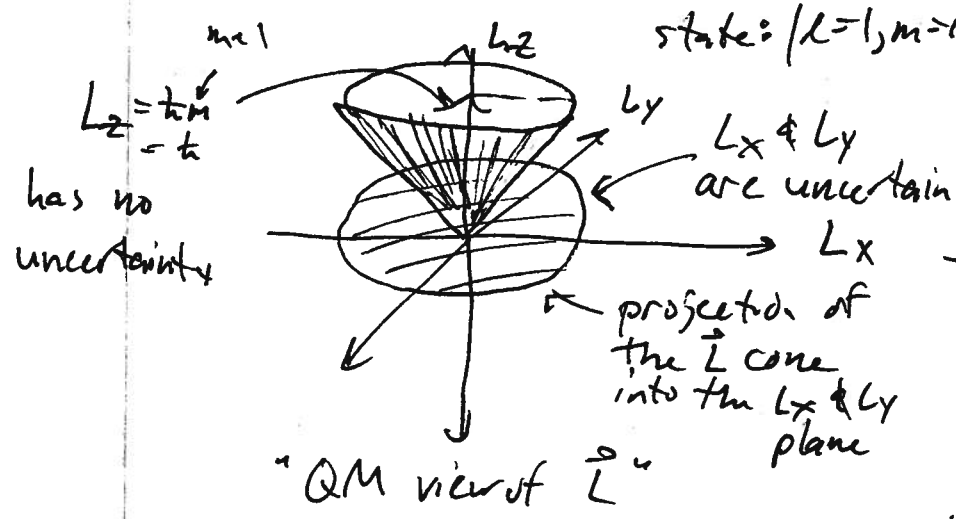
$\Delta L_x \Delta L_y \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} |\langle L_z \rangle|$ Uncertainty Relation for L_x & L_y .

Example
If

$|\psi\rangle = |l=1, m=-1\rangle$, then $\langle L_z \rangle = -\hbar$.

The $\Delta L_x \Delta L_y \geq \left| \frac{-\hbar^2}{2} \right| \geq \frac{\hbar^2}{2}$

We can "picture" these uncertainty relations by picturing the \vec{L} vector as a cone:

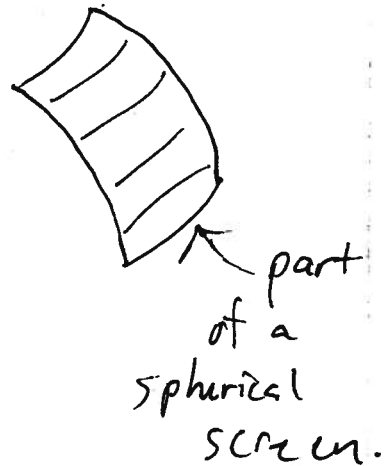


Spatial wavefunctions for the $\{|l, m\rangle\}$

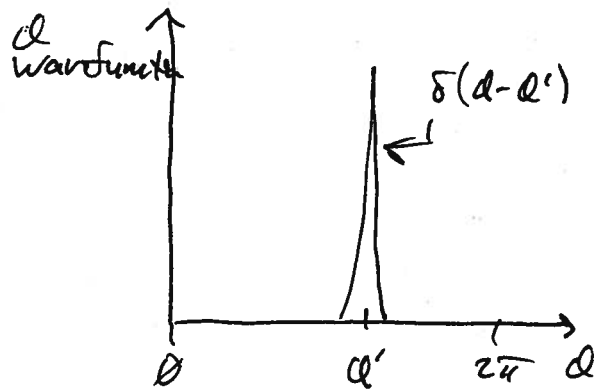
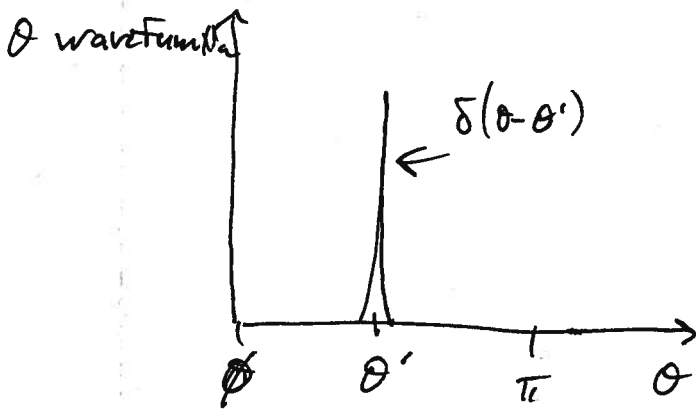
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Suppose I have a position measuring device, which measures the θ & ϕ coordinates for a particle. For example, maybe it is a spherical scintillating screen:

Suppose that a particle is known to be in a particular state $|l, m\rangle$. Where am I likely to find it on this screen? Where am I unlikely to find it?



We want the amplitude to ~~find~~ observe a particular θ & ϕ for the state $|l, m\rangle$. So let $|\theta, \phi\rangle$ represent a state 100% localized at θ & ϕ :



Then the amplitude to observe $|l, m\rangle$ at $|\theta, \phi\rangle$ is written $\langle \theta, \phi | l, m \rangle \leftarrow$ QM amplitude to observe θ, ϕ in state $|l, m\rangle$. Since θ & ϕ are continuous observables, this is a continuum of amplitudes.

$$\langle \theta, \phi | l, m \rangle = \text{continuum of amplitudes} = Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

same complex function \Rightarrow

This is analogous to $\langle x|n\rangle = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$ for the 1D particle-in-a-box.

So the $Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$ are the spatial wavefunctions for the $\{|l, m\rangle\}$. They tell us where we are likely to find the particle, and where we are unlikely.

The Y_l^m are not simple functions. Here is the complete expression:

"Spherical Harmonics"

$$\rightarrow Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = e^{im\phi} (-1)^m \sqrt{\frac{(2l+1)(l-|m|)!}{4\pi(l+|m|)!}} P_l^m(\cos\theta)$$

where $P_l^m(x) = (1-x^2)^{|m|/2} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^{|m|} P_l(x)$

"Associated Legendre Functions"

and $P_l(x) = \frac{1}{2^l l!} \left(\frac{d}{dx}\right)^l (x^2-1)^l$ "Legendre Functions"

Explicitly,

$$P_0(x) = 1$$

$$P_1(x) = x$$

$$P_2(x) = \frac{1}{2}(3x^2-1)$$

⋮

$$Y_0^0(\theta, \phi) = \left(\frac{1}{4\pi}\right)^{1/2}$$

$$Y_1^1(\theta, \phi) = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin\theta e^{i\phi}$$

$$Y_1^0(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{\pi}\right)^{1/2} \cos\theta$$

$$Y_1^{-1}(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{3}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin\theta e^{-i\phi}$$

$$Y_2^2(\theta, \phi) = \frac{1}{4} \left(\frac{15}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin^2\theta e^{2i\phi}$$

$$Y_2^1(\theta, \phi) = -\frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{15}{2\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin\theta \cos\theta e^{i\phi}$$

⋮

$\langle \theta, \phi | l, m \rangle \equiv Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$ = "Spherical Harmonics"
 QM amplitude to observe a particular θ & ϕ for a particle in state l, m
 a complex function = spatial wavefunction for state l, m .

Properties of the Y_l^m

- Normalized: $\langle l, m | l, m \rangle = 1$ in Dirac Notation
 or equivalently $\int_{4\pi} |Y_l^m|^2 d\Omega = 1$ in position space
 $\int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi |Y_l^m|^2 = 1$
- Orthogonal: $\langle l', m' | l, m \rangle = \delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'}$ in Dirac Notation
 or $\int (Y_{l'}^{m'})^* Y_l^m d\Omega = \delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'}$
 or $\int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi (Y_{l'}^{m'})^* Y_l^m = \delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'}$
- Complete: $\sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-l}^l |l, m\rangle \langle l, m| = 1$

Consequence: any reasonable function of θ, ϕ can be expanded in terms of the Y_l^m :

$$\psi(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-l}^l a_{lm} Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

any arbitrary function of θ, ϕ



↑ some appropriate set of coefficients $\{a_{lm}\}$.

How do we find the $\{a_{lm}\}$ for a particular $\psi(\theta, \phi)$?

Answer: As always, a_{lm} = overlap of Y_l^m with ψ :

$$a_{lm} = \langle lm | \psi \rangle = \int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi (Y_l^m)^* \psi$$

Proof: As always, use orthogonality:

$$|\psi\rangle \equiv \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-l}^l a_{lm} |lm\rangle \leftarrow \text{by definition of } \{a_{lm}\}.$$

Then multiply with $\langle l'm' |$:

$$\langle l'm' | \psi \rangle = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-l}^l a_{lm} \underbrace{\langle l'm' | lm \rangle}_{\delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'}} = a_{l'm'}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{a_{lm} = \langle lm | \psi \rangle}$$

What is the meaning of the $\{a_{lm}\}$?

As always, ~~$\langle l'm' | \psi \rangle = a_{l'm'}$~~ $\langle lm | \psi \rangle = a_{lm}$ is the amplitude to measure l & m from an arbitrary state ψ :

$$\text{Prob}(l, m) = |a_{lm}|^2$$

Probability to measure $L^2 = \hbar^2 l(l+1)$ and $L_z = m\hbar$

Example Suppose a particle is in state $|l, m\rangle$.

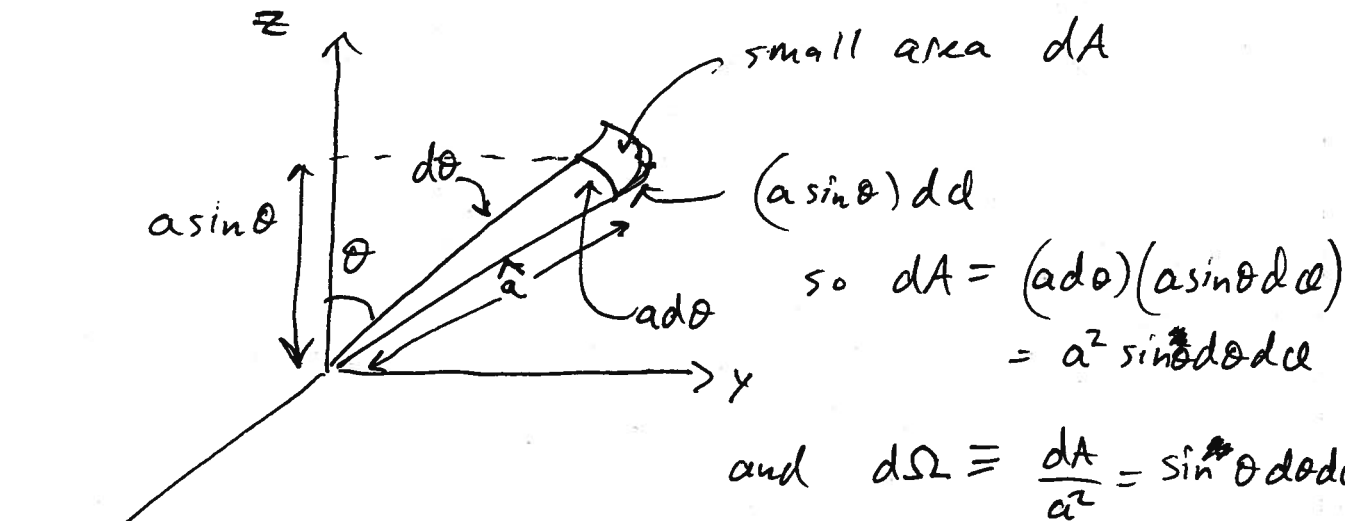
What is the probability to find it near a particular θ & ϕ ?

Answer:
$$P(\theta, \phi) d\Omega = |Y_{l,m}(\theta, \phi)|^2 d\Omega$$

probability density \uparrow small solid angle near θ, ϕ \uparrow QM amplitude

(Just like $P(x)dx = |f(x)|^2 dx$.)

What is $d\Omega$? \Rightarrow Recall definition of solid angle:



If we integrate $\int d\Omega = 4\pi$

\uparrow area of a unit sphere.

CSMPDAD

Finding the Y_l^m functions

(4)

The Y_l^m are the solutions to

$$\hat{L}^2 Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = \hbar^2 l(l+1) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

$$\hat{L}_z Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = \hbar m Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

In spherical coordinates,

$$\hat{L}_z = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \quad \& \quad \hat{L}^2 = -\hbar^2 \left[\frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \right]$$

The Y_l^m are the solutions to the two eigenvalue equations:

$$\hat{L}^2 \text{ eq} \rightarrow -\hbar^2 \left[\frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} \right] Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = \hbar^2 l(l+1) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

$$\hat{L}_z \text{ eq} \rightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = \hbar m Y_l^m(\theta, \phi).$$

The \hat{L}^2 equation is tricky to solve, but the \hat{L}_z equation is simple. Assume separation of variables:

$$Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) \equiv \Phi(\phi) \Theta(\theta)$$

The \hat{L}_z equation says, $\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \Phi(\phi) = m i \Phi(\phi)$

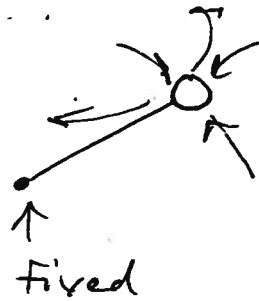
$\therefore \Phi(\phi) = e^{im\phi}$ since \leftarrow Every spherical harmonic has this factor (when $m \neq 0$).

Also, we can see that m should be an integer so that the wavefunction is single valued when $\phi \rightarrow \phi + 2\pi$.

We already concluded that m is an integer based on the operator algebra.

What can the angular momentum states describe?

An artificial example: Particle fixed to a rotating rod:



particle free to move in θ & ϕ , but fixed in r .

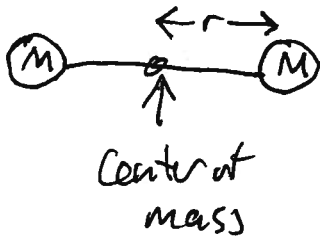
$$\psi(\theta, \phi) = \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} \sum_{m=-l}^l a_{lm} Y_l^m$$

because Y_l^m are

complete on the sphere, we can always find a set of $\{a_{lm}\}$ that satisfies this.

A more physical, realistic example: Diatomic molecule

Example: H_2



Molecule can:

- ① Vibrate \Rightarrow Approximately SHO
- ② Translate its center of mass \Rightarrow free particle, plane wave
- ③ Rotate about center of mass

Ignore ① & ② for the moment, and consider ③.

Classically, the KE will be $KE = \frac{L^2}{2I}$, $I = 2Mr^2$
 I = moment of inertia about the center of mass
 L = angular momentum.

So we might guess $\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{L}^2}{2I}$, for a region where $V(\vec{r}) = 0$.

Obviously, $[\hat{H}, \hat{L}] = 0$ for this system, so the stationary states and angular momentum states are in common.

$$\hat{H} \psi_{lm} = E_{lm} \psi_{lm}, \quad \psi_{lm} = \text{stationary state} = Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

$$\frac{1}{2I} \hat{L}^2 \psi_{lm} = E_{lm} \psi_{lm}$$

$$\frac{1}{2I} \hbar^2 l(l+1) = E_{lm} \psi_{lm}$$

$$E_{lm} = \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2I}$$

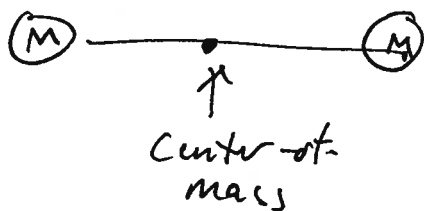
actually, E only depends on l :

$$E_l = \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2I}$$

What's the degeneracy? Every l state has $2l+1$ m states, so degeneracy is $2l+1$.

Rotational spectroscopy:

l	"spectroscopic notation"	Energy	Degeneracy
0	= "s"	0	1
1	= "p"	$2\hbar^2/2I$	3
2	= "d"	$6\hbar^2/2I$	5
3	= "f"	$12\hbar^2/2I$	7
4	= "g"	$20\hbar^2/2I$	9
⋮	⋮		

Diatom Molecule

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{L}^2}{2I}, \quad I = \text{moment of inertia}$$

← from classical mechanics

Since $[\hat{H}, \hat{L}] = 0$, the energy eigenstates are the same as the angular momentum states.

~~$$\hat{H} \psi_{lm} = E_{lm} \psi_{lm}$$~~

$$E_{lm} = \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2I}$$

$$\frac{1}{2I} \hat{L}^2 \psi_{lm} = E_{lm} \psi_{lm}$$

$$\frac{1}{2I} \hbar^2 l(l+1) = E_{lm} \psi_{lm}$$

$$E_l = \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2I}$$

← Energy eigenvalues depend on l , but not on m

Degeneracy

l	"spectroscopic notation"	Energy	Degeneracy
0	"s" ← a name for $l=0$	0	1
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⋮	⋮	⋮	⋮

Central Potential

Suppose a particle moves in 3 dimension in a potential field which depends only on r :

$$\vec{V}(\vec{r}) = V(r)$$

The Hamiltonian is

$$\hat{H} = \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(r)$$

In Spherical Coordinates,

$$\nabla^2 = \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r + \frac{1}{r^2} \left[\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \right]$$

$$= \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r + \frac{\hat{L}^2}{\hbar^2 r^2}$$

Since \hat{H} commutes

Question: ~~What is~~ Does \hat{H} commute with \hat{L}^2 ?

Answer: \hat{L}^2 depends only on θ & ϕ , therefore

$$\left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r, \hat{L}^2 \right] = 0, \quad \left[\frac{\hat{L}^2}{r^2}, \hat{L}^2 \right] = 0 \quad \& \quad [V(r), \hat{L}^2] = 0$$

$\therefore [\hat{H}, \hat{L}^2] = 0$ for as a central potential $V(r)$.

Consequences

- The stationary states will be in common with the angular momentum states.
- Angular momentum will be conserved:

$$\frac{d\langle \hat{L}^2 \rangle}{dt} = \frac{i}{\hbar} \langle [\hat{H}, \hat{L}^2] \rangle = 0.$$

In position space, this means that we can use separation of variables:

$$\text{If } \hat{H} = \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r \right] + \frac{1}{2mr^2} \hat{L}^2 + V(r)$$

then $\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r) \underbrace{Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)}_{\substack{\text{Angular momentum} \\ \text{states}}} \leftarrow \text{Separation of } r \text{ from } \theta, \phi$

where $\hat{H}\psi = E\psi$

$$\left\{ \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r \right] + \frac{1}{2mr^2} \hat{L}^2 + V(r) \right\} R(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = E R(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

= Spherical Harmonics

Now $\hat{L}^2 R(r) Y_l^m = R(r) \hbar^2 l(l+1) Y_l^m$

$$\text{So } \left\{ \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r \right] + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2} + V(r) \right\} R(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = E R(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$$

Note that these operators act on $Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$, so it divides out:

"Radial Equation for $R(r)$ "

$$\left(\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r \right) + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2} + V(r) \right) R(r) = E R(r)$$

To solve any central potential problem, we solve this equation for $R(r)$, then the full solution is $\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$.

Simplify by changing variables: $u(r) \equiv r R(r)$.

$$\text{Then } \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 u(r)}{dr^2} + \left[V(r) + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2} \right] u(r) = E u(r) \right]$$

This equation has the same form as the usual 1D-Schrodinger Eq, if we consider $V(r) + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2}$ to be an effective potential.

Simplest potential: ~~spherical well~~ $V(r) = 0 =$ free particle

$$V(r) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{for } r \leq a \\ \infty & \text{for } r > a \end{cases}$$

~~Then $u(r) = 0$ for $r > a \Rightarrow R(r) = 0$ for $r > a$~~
~~for $r \leq a$ we have~~

$$\frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} = \left(\frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} - k^2 \right) u, \quad k^2 \equiv \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}$$

Solutions are $u(r) = A r j_l(kr)$, where

$$j_l(x) = \text{spherical Bessel function of order } l \\ = (-x)^l \left(\frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dx} \right)^l \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right)$$

$$j_0(kr) = \frac{\sin kr}{kr}, \quad j_1(kr) = \frac{\sin(kr)}{(kr)^2} - \frac{\cos(kr)}{kr}$$

\uparrow $l=0$ value \uparrow $l=1$ value

$$\text{Then } R(r) = \frac{u}{r} = A j_l(kr)$$

Complete Solution is $\psi_{k\ell m}(r, \theta, \phi) = j_\ell(kr) Y_\ell^m(\theta, \phi)$

Energy eigenvalues are a continuum $E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$

In Dirac notation we could say

let $\{|k\ell m\rangle\}$ be free particle states in spherical coordinates

The measurement of E^2 gives $\frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}$

$$\hat{H} |k\ell m\rangle = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} |k\ell m\rangle$$

$$\hat{L}^2 |k\ell m\rangle = \hbar^2 \ell(\ell+1) |k\ell m\rangle$$

$$\hat{L}_z |k\ell m\rangle = m\hbar |k\ell m\rangle$$

The spatial wavefunction is the overlap of this state with an eigenstate of r, θ, ϕ :

$$\langle r\theta\phi | k\ell m \rangle = A j_\ell(kr) Y_\ell^m(\theta, \phi)$$

Generalized Time Dependent Schrödinger Eq:

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} |\psi\rangle = \hat{H} |\psi\rangle \leftarrow \text{Equation of motion for QM.}$$

In a continuous basis, this equation takes the form of a partial differential equation:

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(x,t)}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \Psi(x,t) \text{ in the position basis}$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi(k,t)}{\partial t} = \hat{H} \Phi(k,t) \text{ in the momentum basis}$$

In a discrete basis, the equation is a matrix equation:

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} c_i(t) = \sum_j H_{ij} c_j(t) \leftarrow \text{Matrix Mechanics}$$

where $c_i(t) = \langle i | \psi \rangle$, $H_{ij} = \langle i | \hat{H} | j \rangle$

Examples of Discrete bases:

- energy, for bound states $\{ |n\rangle \}$
- two state systems (NH₃): $|up\rangle, |down\rangle$
- Angular momentum: $\{ |l, m\rangle \}$

In a discrete basis, the state is represented explicitly as a column vector or row vector:

$$|\psi\rangle \sim \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \\ a_3 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \quad \langle \psi | \sim (a_1^*, a_2^*, a_3^*, \dots)$$

Each component is the overlap of the state with

a basis particle. \dots $a_i = \langle i | \psi \rangle$. For example

Interpretation: a_n is a QM amplitude: $P(E_n) = |a_n|^2$

or, if $b_n = \langle u_p | \psi \rangle$ then $P(u_p) = |b_n|^2$

or, if $c_n = \langle l_m | \psi \rangle$ then $P(l_m) = |c_n|^2$.

In Matrix mechanics, the operators are matrices.

$\langle i | \hat{A} | j \rangle = A_{ij}$ matrix element in $\{|i\rangle\}$ basis

we can transform from one basis to another:

Let $U_{mi} = \langle m | i \rangle$, $\{|i\rangle\}$ is one basis
 $\{|m\rangle\}$ is another basis.

Then we can transform a state vector:

$$|\psi'\rangle = U |\psi\rangle \text{ or } b_m = \sum_i a_i U_{mi}$$

we can transform a matrix:

$$F' = U F U^{-1} \text{ or } F_{mn} = \sum_{ij} U_{mi} F_{ij} U_{jn}^{-1}$$

An operator is a diagonal matrix when written in its own eigenbasis. Ex: Hamiltonian is diagonal in the energy basis:

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} E_1 & & & \\ & E_2 & & \\ & & E_3 & \\ \phi & & & \ddots \end{pmatrix} \text{ in energy basis}$$

but ~~the~~ H is non-diagonal in ~~the~~ other basis:

$$\text{Ex } H = \begin{pmatrix} E_0 & -A \\ -A & \bar{E}_0 \end{pmatrix} \leftarrow \text{two state Hermitian in up, down basis.}$$

Rules for 1D wave mechanics:

- Where $E > V(x)$, ψ oscillates $\Rightarrow \psi = Ae^{ikx} + Be^{-ikx}$
- Where $E < V(x)$, ψ decays $\Rightarrow \psi = Ae^{\kappa x} + Be^{-\kappa x}$
- $k = \frac{\sqrt{2m(E - V(x))}}{\hbar}$, $\kappa = \frac{\sqrt{-2m(E - V(x))}}{\hbar}$
- ψ & ψ' are continuous where V is finite
- For bound states we look for normalizable wavefunctions
- For scattering states (continuous), we "live with" unnormalizable states.
- We calculate probability current with $J \equiv \frac{\hbar}{2mi} (\psi^* \psi' - \psi \psi'^*)$
- Ground states have a minimal number of wiggles
- If $V(x)$ is an even function of x , we look for even & odd wavefunctions.
- Each excited state generally has one more x -axis crossing than the previous

SAMPAD

Orbital Angular Momentum

$[L_x, L_y] = i\hbar L_z$, etc. but $[L_z, L^2] = 0$

$L_{\pm} \equiv L_x \pm iL_y$, then $L_{\pm} |l, m\rangle = \hbar \sqrt{l(l+1) - m(m \pm 1)} |l, m \pm 1\rangle$
 $l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$
 $m = -l, -l+1, \dots, l-1, l.$

$L^2 |l, m\rangle = \hbar^2 l(l+1) |l, m\rangle$ & $L_z |l, m\rangle = m\hbar |l, m\rangle$

$\langle \theta, \phi | l, m \rangle = Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$

$\langle l, m | l', m' \rangle = \delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'}$ or $\int_{4\pi} (Y_l^{m'})^* (Y_l^m)^* d\Omega = \delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'}$