

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 $\begin{cases} \text{an integer,} \\ \text{or} \\ \text{an odd multiple} \\ \text{of } \frac{1}{2} \end{cases}$

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.

~~80 minutes~~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:

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

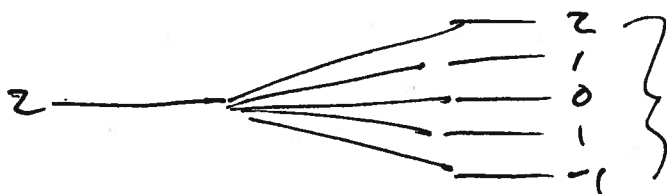
$$\hat{L}_{\pm} |l, m\rangle = \hbar \sqrt{l(l+1) - m(m \pm 1)} |l, m \pm 1\rangle$$

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

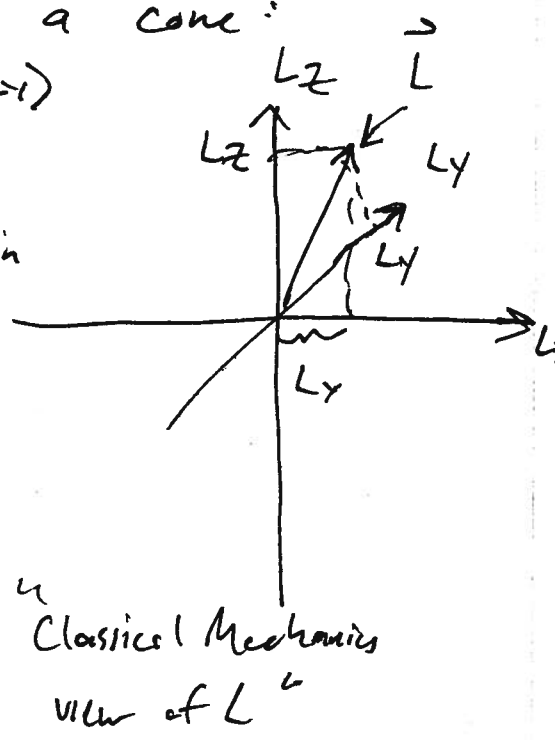
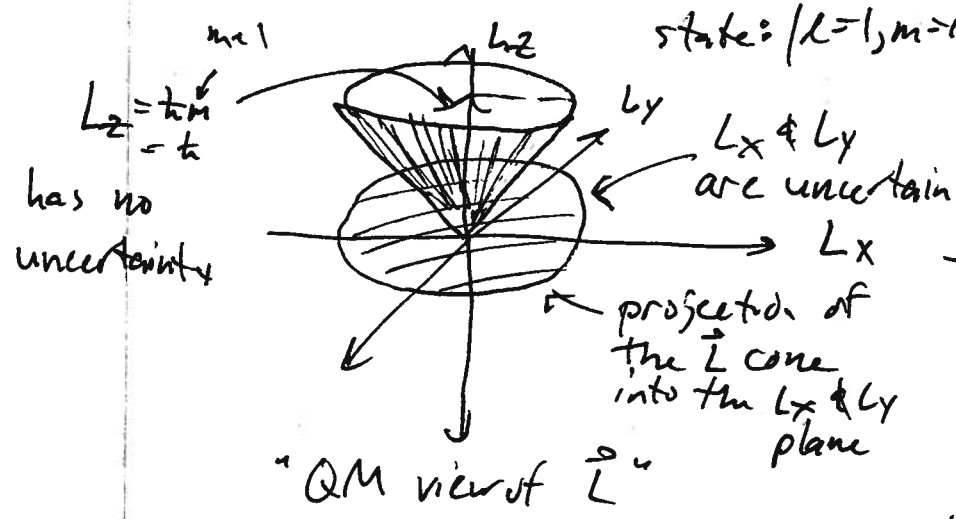
$\Delta L_x \Delta L_y \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} |\langle L_z \rangle|$ Uncertainty Relation for L_x & L_y .

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:

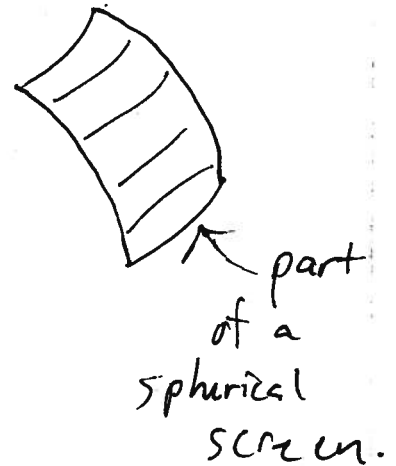


Spatial wavefunctions for the $\{|l, m\rangle\}$

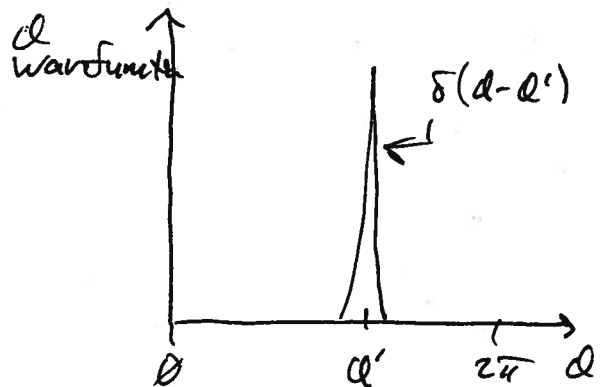
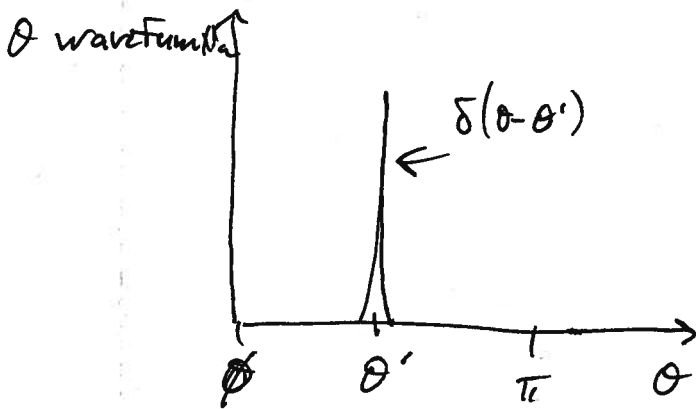
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Suppose I have a position measuring device, which measures the θ & ϕ coordinates for a particle. For example, maybe it is a spherical scintillating screen:

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,

$$P_0(x) = 1$$

$$P_1(x) = x$$

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

⋮

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

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

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

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

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

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

⋮