

Electronic dipole transitions

$$\psi_{n\ell m} \rightarrow \psi_{n'\ell' m'} \quad (\text{initial} \rightarrow \text{final})$$

During transition, electron is in superposition state

$$\Psi \propto \psi_{n\ell m} e^{-i\frac{E_n}{\hbar}t} + \psi_{n'\ell' m'} e^{-i\frac{E_{n'}}{\hbar}t}$$

This has a dipole moment

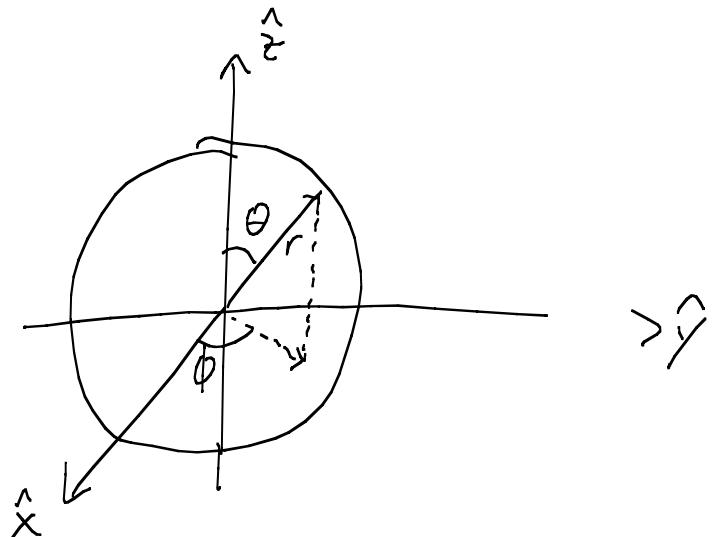
$$-e\langle \vec{r} \rangle = -e \langle \Psi | \vec{r} | \Psi \rangle$$

$$= -e \int \vec{r} \left\{ |\psi_{n\ell m}|^2 + |\psi_{n'\ell' m'}|^2 + \psi_{n'\ell' m'}^* \psi_{n\ell m} e^{-i\omega t} + \psi_{n\ell m}^* \psi_{n'\ell' m'} e^{+i\omega t} \right\} d^3 r$$

$$= -e \int \vec{r} \left\{ \psi_{n'\ell' m'}^* \psi_{n\ell m} e^{-i\omega t} + \psi_{n\ell m}^* \psi_{n'\ell' m'} e^{+i\omega t} \right\} d^3 r \quad \left(\omega = \frac{E_n - E_{n'}}{\hbar} \right)$$

Selection Rules

$$\vec{r} = \begin{cases} r \sin\theta \cos\phi \hat{x} \\ r \sin\theta \sin\phi \hat{y} \\ r \cos\theta \hat{z} \end{cases}$$



Vector components of ϕ integral:

$$\hat{x}, \hat{y} \propto \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-im'\phi} \left[e^{i\phi} \pm \frac{e^{-i\phi}}{2c_i} \right] e^{im\phi} d\phi \rightarrow \int_0^{2\pi} e^{i(-m' \pm 1 + m)\phi} d\phi = 0$$

unless $m - m' = \pm 1$

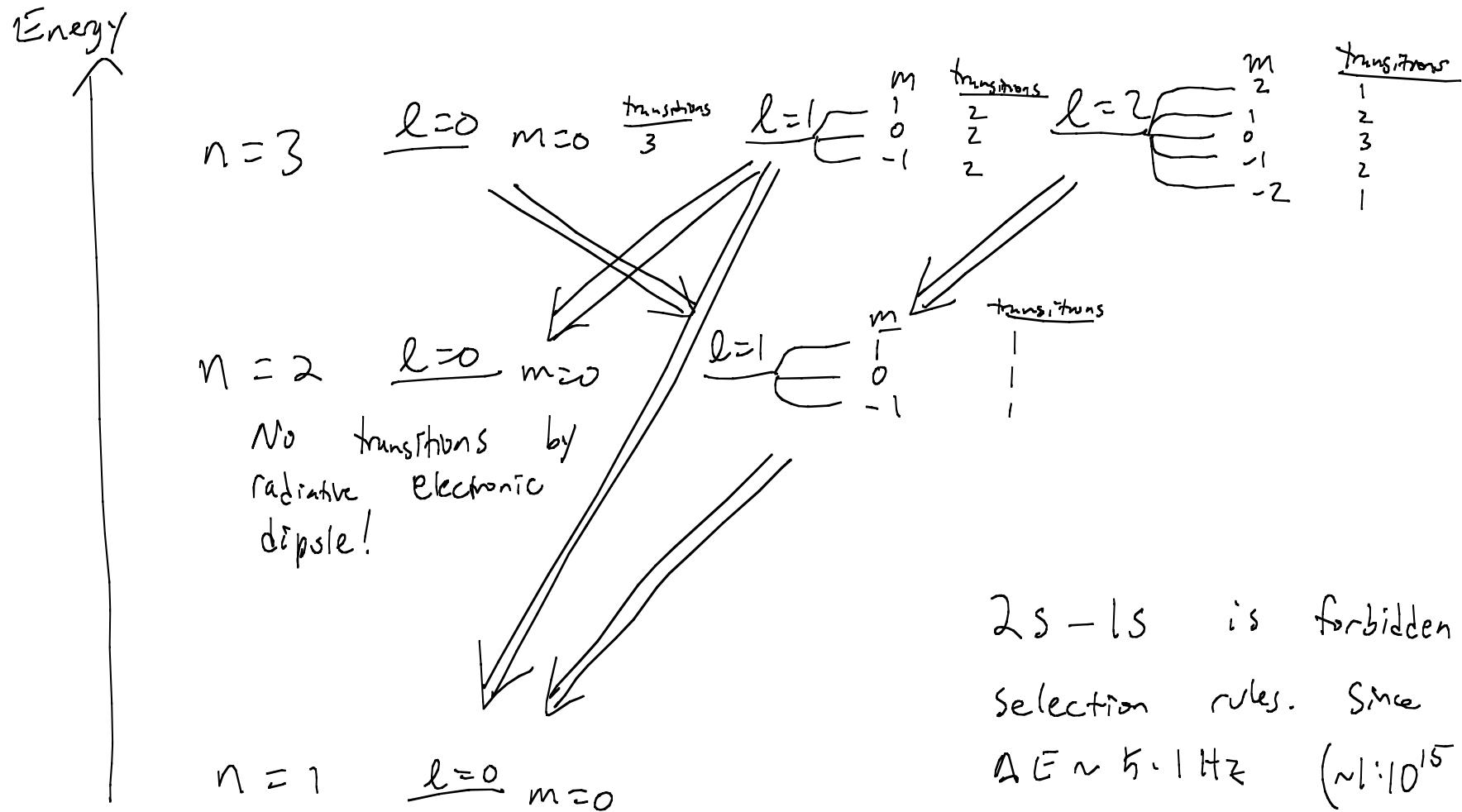
$$\hat{z} \propto \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-im'\phi} e^{im\phi} d\phi = 0 \quad \text{unless } m - m' = 0$$

Only transitions allowed have $\Delta m = 0, \pm 1$

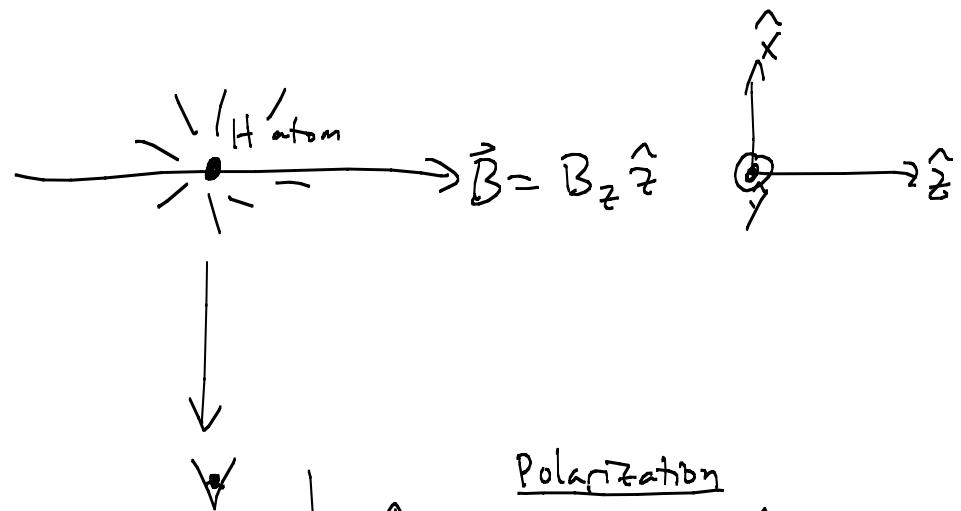
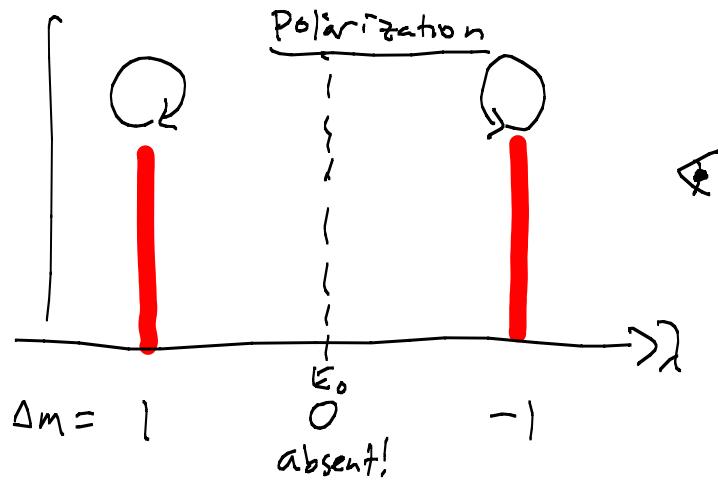
Also (without proof): $\Delta l = \pm 1$ (from θ integral)

"Normal Zeeman effect": Allowed transitions

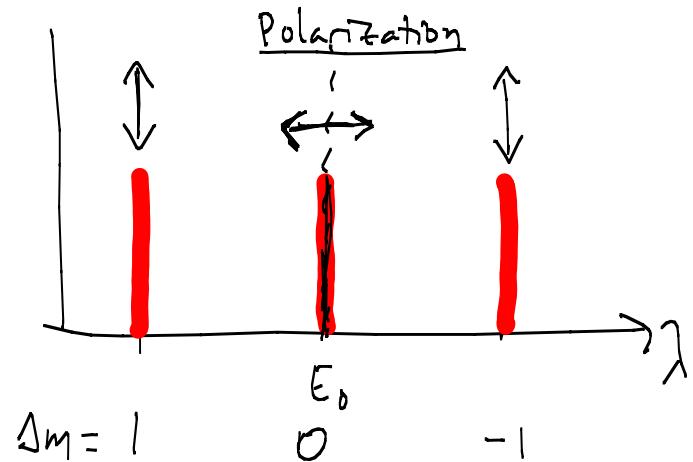
Only $\Delta l = \pm 1$, $\Delta m = 0, \pm 1$ \rightarrow each line splits into a triplet!



Polarization of Radiative transitions ("Normal" Zeeman Effect)



All properties can be derived from the electric dipole vector components but Lorentz used classical $E + M$, which nevertheless failed to explain "Anomalous" Zeeman Effect.



"Anomalous Zeeman effect"

More commonly, we see multiplets $\neq 3$!

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \Psi = i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} \Psi \quad (\text{free particle})$$

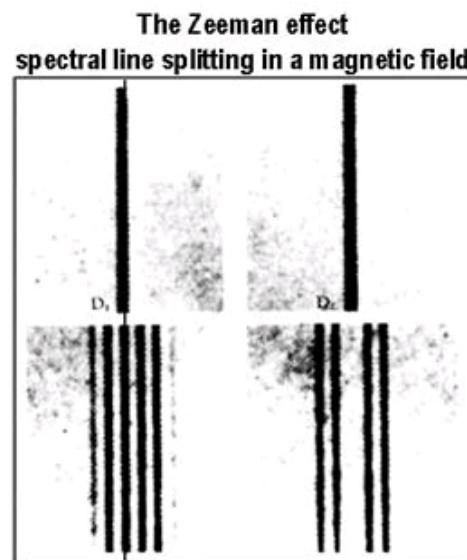
This uses $E = \frac{p^2}{2m}$

relativistic total energy

$$E = \sqrt{(mc^2)^2 + (pc)^2}$$

Note: $E = mc^2 \sqrt{1 + \left(\frac{pc}{mc^2}\right)^2} \approx mc^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{pc}{mc^2}\right)^2 + \dots\right)$

$$= mc^2 + \frac{p^2}{2m} + \text{relativistic corrections}$$



note that each line splits symmetrically about its fundamental wavelength

Relativistic Quantum Mechanics

$$\sqrt{(mc^2)^2 + (pc)^2} \Psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi \quad (\text{free particle})$$

Is LHS operator a perfect square?

$$m^2 c^4 + p^2 c^2 = \left(\alpha_0 m c^2 + \sum_{j=1}^3 \alpha_j p_j c \right)^2$$

Only if: $\alpha_i^2 = 1$, $\alpha_i \alpha_j + \alpha_j \alpha_i = \{\alpha_i, \alpha_j\} = 0$, $i \neq j$
(This defines a "Clifford Algebra")

$$\left[\alpha_0 m c^2 + \sum_{j=1}^3 \alpha_j p_j c \right] \Psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi \quad \text{"Dirac eqn"}$$

This puts space + time on same footing as required by relativity

"Irreducible representation" of "Clifford algebra"

4×4 matrices

$$\alpha_0 = \begin{bmatrix} \hat{\mathbb{I}}_2 & \hat{0} \\ \hat{0} & -\hat{\mathbb{I}}_2 \end{bmatrix}, \quad \alpha_j = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & \sigma_j \\ \tau_j & 0 \end{bmatrix}, \quad j=1, 2, 3$$

"Pauli matrices": $\sigma_1 = \sigma_x = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\sigma_2 = \sigma_y = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{bmatrix}$, $\sigma_3 = \sigma_z = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{bmatrix}$

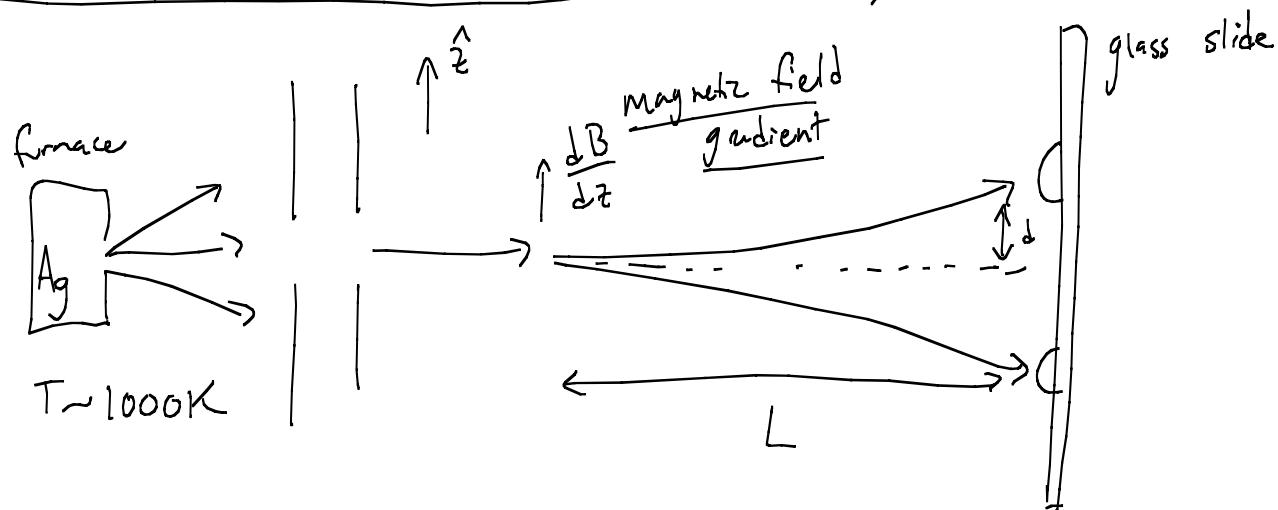
Dirac equation is then

$$\begin{bmatrix} mc^2 \cdot \hat{\mathbb{I}}_2 & (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p})c \\ (\vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{p})c & -mc^2 \cdot \hat{\mathbb{I}}_2 \end{bmatrix} \Psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi$$

when $p=0$, eigenvalues
of relativistic hamiltonian
are $+mc^2$ and $-mc^2$
electrons \uparrow \downarrow
positions

What do the two electron eigenvalues correspond to ??

Stern - Gerlach experiment (1922)



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

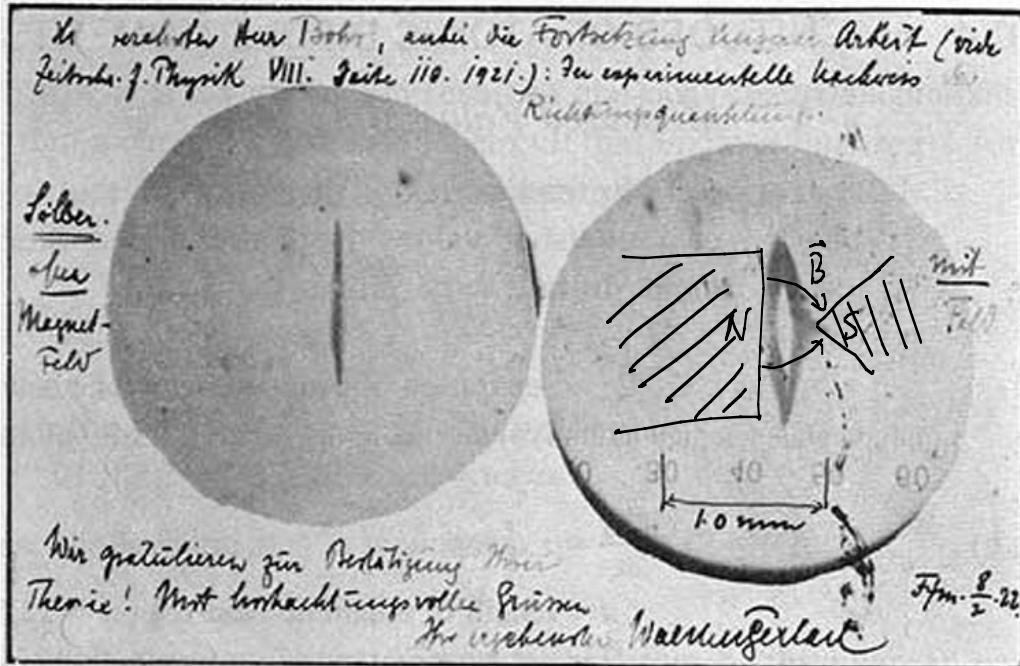
$$F = -\frac{dE}{dz} = \vec{\mu} \cdot \frac{d\vec{B}}{dz} = \langle \mu_z \rangle \frac{dB}{dz}$$

$$d = \frac{1}{2} a t^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{F}{m} \left(\frac{L}{v} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\langle \mu_z \rangle \frac{dB}{dz}}{m} \frac{L^2}{v^2} = \frac{1}{6} \frac{\langle \mu_z \rangle \frac{dB}{dz} L^2}{\frac{1}{3} m v^2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{6} \frac{\langle \mu_z \rangle \frac{dB}{dz} L^2}{k_B T} = \frac{1}{6} \frac{(5.8 \times 10^{-5} \frac{eV}{T})(\frac{1.0 T}{cm})(3.5 cm)^2}{10^{-1} eV}$$

$$= 10^{-2} \text{ cm} = 10^0 \mu\text{m}$$

Experimental Results



Gerlach's postcard, dated 8 February 1922, to Niels Bohr. It shows a photograph of the beam splitting, with the message, in translation: "Attached [is] the experimental proof of directional quantization. We congratulate [you] on the confirmation of your theory." (Physics Today December 2003)

Since this was done before the QM, S+G didn't know that the total orbital angular momentum of electrons in Ag is ZERO! The two-fold splitting is therefore due to magnetic moment associated with intrinsic electron angular momentum, for which there is NO classical analogue! For historical reasons this is called "spin", \vec{S} .

So, $\langle M_z \rangle = \frac{\mu_B}{\hbar} \langle S_z \rangle$, $S_z = +\frac{\hbar}{2}, -\frac{\hbar}{2} = \hbar m_s$ and $m_s = \frac{+1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$. These correspond to the two components in the Dirac wavefunction! By convention, these states are often called "spin up" and "spin down" — the vector components are the amplitudes of these two states!