

PHYS201 SUMMARY

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Version 4

Definition

Theory

Misc.

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1/10 Q.M. FORMALISM

Hilbert space $\mathcal{H}$ in Q.M.

All *square-integrable* (L^2) functions on $\mathbb{R}$. In Q.M., all L^2 functions representing bound states approach 0 at $\pm\infty$.

Dirac Bra-ket notation

ket: $|v\rangle$ is a column vector in $\mathcal{H}$
bra: $\langle f|$ is a linear map $f: \mathcal{H} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$
 A bra acting on a ket is noted as $\langle f|v\rangle = \langle f|v\rangle \in \mathbb{C}$
 Bras are row vectors in *dual-space* of $\mathcal{H}$

Observable operators (in position space)

Name	General def.	Cartesian def.
Position	$\hat{\mathbf{r}} = \mathbf{r}$	$\hat{x} = x, \hat{y} = y, \hat{z} = z$
Momentum	$\hat{\mathbf{p}} = -i\hbar\nabla$	$\hat{p}_k = -i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial k}, \quad k = x, y, z$
Kinetic Energy	$\hat{T} = \frac{1}{2m}\hat{\mathbf{p}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{p}} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2$	$\hat{T}_k = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial k^2}, \quad k = x, y, z$
Potential Energy	$\hat{V} = V(\mathbf{r}, t) = V$	<i>Situation dependent</i>
Total Energy	<u>Time-dep. pot.:</u> $\hat{E} = i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}$ <u>Time-indep. pot.:</u> $\hat{E} = E$	<i>Situation dependent</i>
Hamiltonian	$\hat{H} = \hat{T} + \hat{V} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 + V$	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}\right) + V$
Angular Momentum	$\hat{\mathbf{L}} = \hat{\mathbf{r}} \times \hat{\mathbf{p}}$	$\hat{L}_x = -i\hbar\left(y\frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z\frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)$ $\hat{L}_y = -i\hbar\left(z\frac{\partial}{\partial x} - x\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)$ $\hat{L}_z = -i\hbar\left(x\frac{\partial}{\partial y} - y\frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)$
Spin-1/2 Angular Momentum	$\hat{\mathbf{S}} = \frac{\hbar}{2}\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ ($\boldsymbol{\sigma}$ = vector whose components are the Pauli matrices σ_k)	$\hat{S}_k = \frac{\hbar}{2}\sigma_k, \quad k = x, y, z$ where $\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}, \quad \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ $\sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$
Total Angular Momentum	$\hat{\mathbf{J}} = \hat{\mathbf{L}} + \hat{\mathbf{S}}$	$\hat{J}_k = \hat{L}_k + \hat{S}_k, \quad k = x, y, z$

Hermitian operators

An operator $\hat{Q}$ is Hermitian if and only if $\langle f \hat{Q}f\rangle = \langle \hat{Q}f f\rangle \forall f$ Same as $\langle f \hat{Q} f\rangle = \langle f \hat{Q}^\dagger f\rangle \forall f$	All operators representing observables are Hermitian, because $\langle Q\rangle \in \mathbb{R}$ $\Rightarrow \langle Q\rangle = \langle Q\rangle^*$ $\Rightarrow \langle f \hat{Q}f\rangle = \langle \hat{Q}f f\rangle$	A Hermitian operator is equal to its adjoint (self-adjoint) $\hat{Q} = \hat{Q}^\dagger$
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Inner product in $\mathcal{H}$

The inner product of $|f\rangle$ and $|g\rangle$ is $\langle f|g\rangle = \langle f|g\rangle \equiv \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(x)^*g(x)dx \in \mathbb{C}$
 where $\langle f| = |f\rangle^\dagger = |f\rangle^{*\top}$
 Note that $\langle f|g\rangle = \langle g|f\rangle^*$ and that $\langle f|f\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx \geq 0 \in \mathbb{R}$
 where $\langle f|f\rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow f(x) = 0$

f **normalized** IFF $\langle f|f\rangle = 1$
 f and g **orthogonal** IFF $\langle f|g\rangle = 0$
 $\{f_n\}$ **orthonormal** IFF $\langle f_n|f_n\rangle = 1$
and $\langle f_m|f_n\rangle = \delta_{mn}$

$\{f_n\}$ is **complete** if any other function g in $\mathcal{H}$ can be expressed as $g(x) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n f_n(x)$ where $c_n = \langle f_n|g\rangle$
 The **adjoint** $\dagger$ is the same as taking the transpose of the complex conjugate.

If f and g are **discrete**, use sums.

Eigenvalue equation

$$\hat{Q}\Psi = q\Psi$$

Ψ is an eigenfunction of $\hat{Q}$, and q is the corresponding eigenvalue.

Observable operator

An operator whose eigenvalues represent outcomes of measurements

Completeness "axiom"

The eigenfunctions of an observable operator are complete; meaning any function in $\mathcal{H}$ can be expressed as a lin. comb. of them.

State of Q.M. system and the wave function

The state of a system $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ is a vector in $\mathcal{H}$, and can be expressed in different bases of eigenfunctions. The basis we almost always use is that of position:

$$\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \langle \mathbf{r}|\Psi(t)\rangle$$

where $|\mathbf{r}\rangle$ is the eigenfunction of $\hat{\mathbf{r}}$, with eigenvalue $\mathbf{r}$, and $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is the **wave function**.

The **commutator** of two operators $\hat{A}$ and $\hat{B}$ is the operator

$$\hat{C} = [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \equiv \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}$$

$\hat{A}$ and $\hat{B}$ **commute** IFF $\hat{C} = 0$

Notable commutators

$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar$	$[\hat{r}, \hat{p}] = 3i\hbar$	$[\hat{p}, \hat{T}] = 0$
$[\hat{L}_x, \hat{L}_y] = i\hbar\hat{L}_z$	$[\hat{S}_x, \hat{S}_y] = i\hbar\hat{S}_z$	
$[\hat{L}_y, \hat{L}_z] = i\hbar\hat{L}_x$	$[\hat{S}_y, \hat{S}_z] = i\hbar\hat{S}_x$	
$[\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_x] = i\hbar\hat{L}_y$	$[\hat{S}_z, \hat{S}_x] = i\hbar\hat{S}_y$	

Probability

X is a random variable

if X is <i>discrete</i>	if X is <i>continuous</i>
$\langle X\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n p_X(x_n)$	$\langle X\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x f_X(x) dx$
$\langle X^2\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} x_n^2 p_X(x_n)$	$\langle X^2\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 f_X(x) dx$
$\Pr(a \leq x \leq b)$ $= \sum_{a \leq x_n \leq b} p_X(x_n)$	$\Pr(a \leq x \leq b)$ $= \int_a^b f_X(x) dx$
$V[X] = \langle X^2\rangle - \langle X\rangle^2$	
$\sigma_X = \sqrt{V[X]} = \sqrt{\langle X^2\rangle - \langle X\rangle^2}$	

$p_X(x)$ is the **probability mass function (PMF)** of X ,
 $f_X(x)$ is the **probability density function (PDF)** of X ,
 $\langle X\rangle$ is the **expectation value** of X ,
 $V[X]$ is the **variance**, and σ_X the **standard deviation**.

Operator identities and properties

$\langle a \hat{A}^\dagger b\rangle = \langle b \hat{A} a\rangle^*$	$\hat{A} a\rangle = \langle a \hat{A}^\dagger$	
$(\hat{A}^\dagger)^\dagger = \hat{A}$	$(\alpha\hat{A})^\dagger = \alpha^*\hat{A}^\dagger$	$(\hat{A}\hat{B})^\dagger = \hat{B}^\dagger\hat{A}^\dagger$
$\hat{C} = \hat{A} + \hat{B} \Rightarrow \hat{C} \Psi\rangle = \hat{A} \Psi\rangle + \hat{B} \Psi\rangle$		
$\hat{C} = \hat{A}\hat{B} \Rightarrow \hat{C} \Psi\rangle = \hat{A}(\hat{B} \Psi\rangle)$		

2/10 WAVE FUNCTIONS

The **wave function** Ψ is the solution to the TDSE. It is the probability amplitude function of the system. We can derive the probability distribution of various observables from Ψ .

TDSE (Time dep. Schrödinger Equation)

$$\hat{H}\Psi = \hat{E}\Psi$$

which when written out becomes

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2\Psi + V\Psi = i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\Psi$$

with $\Psi = \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$, and $V = V(\mathbf{r}, t)$

TISE (Time indep. Schrödinger Equation)

If the *potential* is **not** a function of time, one can use **separation of variables** on Ψ :

$$\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \psi(\mathbf{r})\phi(t)$$

which, when put in the Schrödinger Equation, leads to the TISE:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2\psi + V\psi = E\psi \quad \text{same as:} \quad \hat{H}\Psi = E\Psi$$

and

$$\phi(t) = \exp(-iEt/\hbar)$$

General solution to TDSE (discrete sum)

Given V indep. of time, the general solution Ψ is a linear combination of separable solutions $\{\psi_n\}$

$$\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \psi_n(\mathbf{r}) e^{-iE_n t/\hbar}$$

where $|c_n|^2$ is the *probability* that the measured energy is E_n , thus $\sum_n |c_n|^2 = 1$

Finding c_n

Given initial wave function

$$\Psi(\mathbf{r}, 0) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \psi_n(\mathbf{r})$$

using Fourier's trick, we get

$$c_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \psi_n^*(\mathbf{r}) \Psi(\mathbf{r}, 0) d\mathbf{r}$$

Bound state

$$E < V(\pm\infty)$$

Unbound state

$$E > V(\pm\infty)$$

In real life, most V are 0 at $\pm\infty$

Requirements of Ψ

Ψ must be continuous and have a continuous derivative.

Ψ must be square-integrable.

The cumulative probability of Ψ must be 1 on its domain (normalized):

$$\langle \Psi(t) | \Psi(t) \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} |\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2 d\mathbf{r} = 1$$

If discrete: $\langle \Psi(t) | \Psi(t) \rangle = \sum_n |c_n|^2 = 1$

Properties of $\{\psi_n\}$

The infinite set of solutions to TISE $\{\psi_n\}$ has certain properties:

1. If V is symmetric, then the solutions are alternately **even** and **odd** with respect to the center of the well; ψ_1 is even, ψ_2 is odd and so on...

2. As you go up in energy, each successive state has one more **zero crossing**; ψ_1 has none, ψ_2 has one, ...

3. They are mutually **orthogonal**:

$$\int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \psi_m^* \psi_n d\mathbf{r} = \delta_{mn}$$

4. The set is **complete**, meaning any other function f can be expressed as a linear combination of $\{\psi_n\}$:

$$f(\mathbf{r}) = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \psi_n(\mathbf{r})$$

Using the completeness and orthogonality of $\{\psi_n\}$ we have

$$c_n = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \psi_n^*(\mathbf{r}) f(\mathbf{r}) d\mathbf{r}$$

Sometimes called "**Fourier's trick**"

Stationary state (separable solution)

State where all observables are indep. of time. This occurs when the **probability density** $|\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)|^2$ is indep. of time.

Eigenstates/Eigenfunctions and Eigenvalues

When an observable Q is measured, then the system "collapses" from being in a discrete or continuous superposition of eigenstates/eigenfunctions to ONE eigenstate/eigenfunction. The result of the measurement is the eigenvalue related to that eigenstate/eigenfunction. Eigenstates/eigenfunctions and eigenvalues for an observable Q are found using the eigenvalue equation $\hat{Q}\Psi = q\Psi$

Spectrum

Collection of all eigenvalues q of an operator $\hat{Q}$. If two or more linearly independent eigenfunctions Ψ share the same eigenvalue, the spectrum is **degenerate**.

Expectation value

For an operator $\hat{Q}$ representing an observable Q we have

$$\langle Q \rangle = \langle \Psi(t) | \hat{Q} | \Psi(t) \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)^* \hat{Q} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) d\mathbf{r}$$

Q.M. expectation values follow classical dynamics

Note that

$$\langle Q^2 \rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)^* \hat{Q}^2 \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) d\mathbf{r}$$

Expectation value trick

$$\langle \mathbf{p} \rangle = m \frac{d}{dt} \langle \mathbf{r} \rangle$$

Eulers formula

$$\begin{aligned} e^{i\varphi} &= \cos(\varphi) + i \sin(\varphi) \\ \cos(\varphi) &= \frac{1}{2}(e^{i\varphi} + e^{-i\varphi}) \\ \sin(\varphi) &= \frac{1}{2i}(e^{i\varphi} - e^{-i\varphi}) \\ |e^{i\varphi}| &= 1 \end{aligned}$$

Complex conjugate

$$\begin{aligned} (a + ib)^* &= (a - ib) \\ (e^{i\varphi})^* &= e^{-i\varphi} \end{aligned}$$

If the spectrum of $\hat{Q}$ is **discrete**, then its eigenfunctions Ψ lie in $\mathcal{H}$ and physically constitute realizable states. Its eigenvalues are real, and eigenfunctions belonging to distinct eigenvalues are orthonormal.

If the spectrum of $\hat{Q}$ is **continuous**, then its eigenfunctions Ψ are not normalizable, and thus not realizable states. Though a lin.comb. of them may be normalizable and thus physically realizable.

Probability density (in pos. space)

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Pr}(a \leq x \leq b) &= \int_a^b \Psi(x, t)^* \Psi(x, t) dx \\ &= \int_a^b |\Psi(x, t)|^2 dx \end{aligned}$$

where $\Psi(x, t)^* \Psi(x, t) = |\Psi(x, t)|^2$ is the PDF of Ψ

Momentum-space

Operators become:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{\mathbf{p}} &= \mathbf{p} \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{\mathbf{r}} = i\hbar \nabla_{\mathbf{p}} \\ \nabla_{\mathbf{p}} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial p_x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial p_y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial p_z} \end{aligned}$$

Momentum-space $\leftrightarrow$ Position-space

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) &= \langle \mathbf{r} | \Psi(t) \rangle = \int \langle \mathbf{r} | \mathbf{p} \rangle \langle \mathbf{p} | \Psi(t) \rangle d\mathbf{p} \\ \Psi(\mathbf{p}, t) &= \langle \mathbf{p} | \Psi(t) \rangle = \int \langle \mathbf{p} | \mathbf{r} \rangle \langle \mathbf{r} | \Psi(t) \rangle d\mathbf{r} \end{aligned}$$

Modulus of complex number

$$|a + bi| = \sqrt{a^2 + b^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Psi &= a + ib \Rightarrow |\Psi|^2 = a^2 + b^2 \\ \Psi &= re^{i\varphi} \Rightarrow |\Psi|^2 = r^2 \end{aligned}$$

Infinite square well (1D)

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \in [0, L] \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

TISE becomes:

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = -k^2\psi, \quad k \equiv \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$$

General solution to this is:

$$\psi(x) = A \sin kx + B \cos kx$$

Since ψ must be 0 outside the well, continuity of ψ means:

$$\psi(0) = \psi(a) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow B = 0 \text{ and } k = \frac{n\pi}{L}, \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}_+$$

Solving $\frac{n\pi}{L} = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$ gives

$$E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 k_n^2}{2m} = \frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2} n^2$$

A can be found by normalizing ψ

$$|A|^2 = 2/L \Rightarrow A = \sqrt{2/L}$$

$$\therefore \psi_n(x) = \sqrt{2/L} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

Ladder operators

$$\hat{a}_{\pm} \equiv \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar m\omega}} (\mp i\hat{p} + m\omega\hat{x})$$

The Hamiltonian can be written as

$$\hat{H} = \hbar\omega \left(\hat{a}_+ \hat{a}_- + \frac{1}{2} \right) = \hbar\omega \left(\hat{a}_- \hat{a}_+ - \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

$$[\hat{a}_+ \hat{a}_-] = -1 \quad [\hat{a}_- \hat{a}_+] = 1$$

Exact actions of ladder operators:

$$\hat{a}_+ \psi_n = \sqrt{n+1} \psi_{n+1}$$

$$\hat{a}_- \psi_n = \sqrt{n} \psi_{n-1}$$

Eigenvalue equations:

$$\hat{H} (\hat{a}_- \psi_n) = (E_n - \hbar\omega) (\hat{a}_- \psi_n)$$

$$\hat{H} (\hat{a}_+ \psi_n) = (E_n + \hbar\omega) (\hat{a}_+ \psi_n)$$

Harmonic Oscillator (1D)

$$V(x) = \frac{1}{2} kx^2 = \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 x^2 \quad \text{where } \omega^2 = k/m$$

Write TISE using the Hamiltonian expressed with the ladder operators:

$$\hbar\omega \left(\hat{a}_+ \hat{a}_- + \frac{1}{2} \right) \psi = E\psi$$

One cannot apply $\hat{a}_-$ forever. At the **ground state**, ψ_0 , we have $\hat{a}_- \psi_0 = 0$ which can be used to determine ψ_0 :

$$\psi_0 = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar} \right)^{1/4} \exp\left(-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar} x^2\right)$$

Which when plugged into TISE gives:

$$E_0 = \frac{1}{2} \hbar\omega$$

By continuous application of $\hat{a}_+$ one finds that

$$\psi_n(x) = A_n (\hat{a}_+)^n \psi_0(x)$$

with energy

$$E_n = \hbar\omega \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

One can use the exact action of the ladder operators to show that $A_n = 1/\sqrt{n!}$

Putting it all together:

$$\psi_n(x) = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar} \right)^{1/4} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n n!}} H_n(x\sqrt{m\omega/\hbar}) e^{-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar} x^2}$$

Physicist's Hermite polynomials

$$H_n(x) = (-1)^n e^{x^2} \frac{d^n}{dx^n} e^{-x^2}$$

Dirac delta function

$$\delta(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & x \neq 0 \\ 1, & x = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{and} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$$

Kronecker-delta

$$\delta_{mn} = \begin{cases} 0, & m \neq n \\ 1, & m = n \end{cases}$$

Dirac-orthonormality

$$\langle x'' | \hat{p} | x' \rangle = \hat{p} \delta(x'' - x')$$

x'' and x' are position eigenstates

Free particle (1D)

$$V(x) = 0$$

TISE becomes:

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = -k^2\psi, \quad k \equiv \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$$

General solution to this is

$$\psi(x) = A e^{ikx} + B e^{-ikx}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Psi(x, t) = A e^{ik(x - \frac{\hbar k}{2m}t)} + B e^{-ik(x + \frac{\hbar k}{2m}t)}$$

$$\text{Redefine } k \equiv \pm \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Psi(x, t) = A e^{i\left(kx - \frac{\hbar k^2}{2m}t\right)}$$

However, this is not correct. Because

$$\int \Psi_k^* \Psi_k dx = |A|^2 \cdot \infty$$

i.e. Ψ not normalizable.

This means separable solutions (stationary states) do not represent physical states of free particles. Meaning: free particles do not have definite energy.

General solution to TDSE is still a lin. comb. of separable solutions though, but it's an integral now, not a sum:

$$\Psi(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} f(k) e^{i\left(kx - \frac{\hbar k^2}{2m}t\right)} dk$$

Here the product $1/\sqrt{2\pi} f(k) dk$ take the role of c_n . One can find $f(k)$ by

$$f(k) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi(x, 0) e^{-ikx} dx$$

We say that Ψ carries a range of k and energy values. Calling it a **wave packet**.

Infinite cube (3D)

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \begin{cases} 0, & x, y, z \in [0, L] \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$\psi_{a,b,c}(\mathbf{r}) = \left(\frac{2}{L} \right)^{3/2} \sin\left(\frac{a\pi}{L}x\right) \sin\left(\frac{b\pi}{L}y\right) \sin\left(\frac{c\pi}{L}z\right)$$

$$E_{a,b,c} = \frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2} (a^2 + b^2 + c^2)$$

where $a, b, c \in 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Harmonic Oscillator (3D)

$$V(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{2} k\mathbf{r}^2 = \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 \mathbf{r}^2$$

$$\psi_{a,b,c}(\mathbf{r}) = \psi_a(x) \psi_b(y) \psi_c(z)$$

$$E_{a,b,c} = \hbar\omega (a + b + c + 3/2)$$

where $a, b, c = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$ and ψ_n is solutions to 1D H.O.

Degeneracy

How many states with the same energy. For Infinite Square well, and 1D-Harmonic Oscillator, a specific state is indicated by a specific value of n .

For example: $n = 1, 2, 3, 4$, etc.

For the 3D counterparts, a specific state is indicated by a specific (a, b, c) combination.

For example: $(a, b, c) = (1, 1, 2), (2, 1, 1), (1, 2, 3)$, etc.

4/10 SPHERICAL, HYDROGEN and HELIUM

Spherical ↔ Cartesian

$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi \quad y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi \quad z = r \cos \theta$$

$$dV = dx dy dz = r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$$

$$r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \quad \cos \theta = z/r \quad \tan \phi = y/x$$

r is distance to origin, $\theta \in [0, \pi]$ is **polar angle**, and $\phi \in [0, 2\pi]$ is **azimuth angle**.

Spherical Laplacian

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

Spherical TISE

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right) \right] + V\psi = E\psi$$

Radial and Angular equations

Assuming $\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r)Y(\theta, \phi)$, and $V = V(r)$, then from TISE we get

The **radial equation**:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} + \left[V + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2} \right] u = Eu$$

where $u(r) = rR(r)$, and $\ell(\ell+1)$ is a separation constant

And the **angular equation**:

$$\sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial Y}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{\partial^2 Y}{\partial \theta^2} = -\ell(\ell+1) \sin^2 \theta Y$$

Radial equation determines the dependence of ψ on r , and the angular equation determines the dependence of ψ on θ and ϕ .

Solving radial equation

The radial equation is identical to TISE in 1D, with **effective potential**

$$V_{\text{eff}} = V + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2}$$

To solve the radial equation for R , we need an expression for V

Solution to angular equation

$$Y_\ell^m = \sqrt{\frac{(2\ell+1)(\ell-m)!}{4\pi(\ell+m)!}} e^{im\phi} P_\ell^m(\cos \theta)$$

where $Y_\ell^m = Y_\ell^m(\theta, \phi)$. This is called the **spherical harmonics**.

This is assuming we can write $Y(\theta, \phi) = \Theta(\theta)\Phi(\phi)$

Legendre Polynomial

$$P_\ell(x) = \frac{1}{2^\ell \ell!} \left(\frac{d}{dx} \right)^\ell (x^2 - 1)^\ell$$

Bohr radius

$$a_\mu = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{\mu e^2}$$

Coulomb's Law

$$V(r) = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Ze^2}{r}$$

Associated Legendre Function ($m \geq 0$)

$$P_\ell^m(x) = (-1)^m (1-x^2)^{m/2} \left(\frac{d}{dx} \right)^m P_\ell(x)$$

Associated Laguerre Polynomials

$$L_q^p(x) = \frac{x^{-p} e^x}{q!} \left(\frac{d}{dx} \right)^q (e^{-x} x^{p+q})$$

Associated Legendre Function ($m < 0$)

$$P_\ell^{-m}(x) = (-1)^m \frac{(\ell-m)!}{(\ell+m)!} P_\ell^m(x)$$

The Bohr Formula (allowed energies of Hydrogen-like atom)

$$E_n = - \left[\frac{Z^2 \mu e^4}{32\pi^2 \epsilon_0^2 \hbar^2} \right] \frac{1}{n^2} \approx -13.6 \text{eV} \cdot \frac{Z^2}{n^2}$$

Hydrogen-like atoms

Systems consisting of ONE electron and Z protons centered at the origin. Allowed energies follow the Bohr formula, and the potential of the electron is given by Coulomb's law.

The **wave function**

$$\psi_{n,\ell,m}(r, \theta, \phi) = R_{n,\ell}(r) Y_\ell^m(\theta, \phi)$$

where $R_{n,\ell}(r)$ is the **radial wave function** (solution to radial equation with Coulomb's potential)

$$R_{n,\ell}(r) = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2Z}{na_\mu} \right)^3 \frac{(n-\ell-1)!}{2n(n+\ell)!}} \left(\frac{2Zr}{na_\mu} \right)^\ell e^{-\frac{Zr}{na_\mu}} L_{n-\ell-1}^{2\ell+1} \left(\frac{2Z}{na_\mu} r \right)$$

Physical interpretations of ℓ , n , and m (not the mass)

$\ell \in [0, n-1]$ is the angular momentum, and $m \in [-\ell, \ell]$ is the magnetic quantum number. The principal quantum number $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$ represents the energy level. Note $\Delta\ell = \pm 1$ and $\Delta m = -1, 0, 1$. $\ell(\ell+1)$ and m^2 appear as separation constants when solving radial and angular eqs.

Hamiltonian for Helium-like atoms

Two-electron Hamiltonian for helium-like atoms is

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_1 + \hat{H}_2 + V_{ee}$$

where:

$$\hat{H}_1 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_{\mathbf{r}_1}^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_1} \quad \hat{H}_2 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_{\mathbf{r}_2}^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_2}$$

$$V_{ee} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|}$$

Where $\mathbf{r}_1$ and $\mathbf{r}_2$ is the distance vectors of electron 1 and 2 with respect to the nucleus (static at origin), and V_{ee} is the electron-electron repulsion.

5/10 OPERATOR MATRICIES and VECTOR REPRESENTATION

Wavefunction as a column vector

The wavefunction $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ is the same as a column-vector $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ in $\mathcal{H}$ in the position basis

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \int_{\mathbb{R}^3} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) |\mathbf{r}\rangle d\mathbf{r}$$

Where $\{|\mathbf{r}\rangle\}$ is the position basis spanning $\mathcal{H}$.

Another basis is that of energy, which unlike position is discrete

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n(t) |E_n\rangle$$

Where $\{|E_n\rangle\}$ is the energy basis spanning $\mathcal{H}$.

Visualizing function as a column vector

This is not completely mathematically rigorous, but gives an idea of how a function can be represented as a vector

$$\Psi(x, t) \text{ represented as } \begin{pmatrix} \vdots \\ \Psi(-2\epsilon, t) \\ \Psi(-\epsilon, t) \\ \Psi(0, t) \\ \Psi(\epsilon, t) \\ \Psi(2\epsilon, t) \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} \text{ where } \epsilon \rightarrow 0$$

In other words, you can think of the ket $|\Psi(t)\rangle$ as holding all possible values of Ψ through time, and which can be represented in a certain basis.

Operator as matrix

An operator $\hat{Q}$ acting on a wave function $\Psi(x, t)$, is the same as that operator's matrix representation $\mathbf{Q}$ (in the position basis in this case), acting on the vector $|\Psi(t)\rangle$

Common eigenfunctions

$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 0 \Leftrightarrow$ they have common eigenfunctions:

$$\hat{A}f_n = a_n f_n$$

$$\hat{B}f_n = b_n f_n$$

Ladder operator matrices (H.O.)

$$\hat{a}_+ |n\rangle = \sqrt{n+1} |n+1\rangle \Rightarrow \langle m | \hat{a}_+ | n \rangle = \sqrt{n+1} \delta_{m, n+1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{a}_+ \rightarrow \mathbf{a}_+ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ \sqrt{1} & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\hat{a}_- |n\rangle = \sqrt{n} |n-1\rangle \Rightarrow \langle m | \hat{a}_- | n \rangle = \sqrt{n} \delta_{m, n-1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{a}_- \rightarrow \mathbf{a}_- = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \sqrt{1} & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & \sqrt{2} & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & \sqrt{3} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

Where the basis $\{|n\rangle\}$ is such that

$$|1\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \quad |2\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \quad |3\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix}, \text{ etc.}$$

and $\langle m | = |n\rangle^\dagger \Rightarrow \langle m | n \rangle = \delta_{mn}$

Hamiltonian operator matrix (H.O.)

$$\hat{H} = \hbar\omega \left(\hat{a}_+ \hat{a}_- + \frac{1}{2} \right) \Rightarrow \mathbf{H} = \langle m | \hbar\omega \left(\hat{a}_+ \hat{a}_- + \frac{1}{2} \right) | n \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{H} \rightarrow \mathbf{H} = \hbar\omega \begin{pmatrix} 1/2 & 0 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 3/2 & 0 & \dots \\ 0 & 0 & 5/2 & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{pmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of a diagonal matrix are the values along the diagonal, which in this case we see matches the eigen energies for the 1D H.O.

Of course, using the same basis $\{|n\rangle\}$ as above

Four ways to attack a Q.M problem

1. Choose a space, like the position space ($\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = \langle \mathbf{r} | \Psi(t) \rangle$), and solve TDSE
2. Define operators which allow to take or add energy (such as the ladder operators in H.O.)
3. Chose basis vectors, and compute the eigenvalues of the $\mathbf{H}$ matrix (Hamiltonian matrix)
4. Use an approximation method.

UNCERTAINTY

Variance

$$\sigma_Q^2 = \langle Q^2 \rangle - \langle Q \rangle^2 = \langle (\hat{Q} - \langle Q \rangle)^2 \rangle$$

Standard deviation

$$\sigma_Q = \sqrt{\langle Q^2 \rangle - \langle Q \rangle^2}$$

Generalized uncertainty principle

$$\sigma_A \sigma_B \geq 1/2 \cdot |\langle \Psi | [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] | \Psi \rangle|$$

The uncertainty principle

$$\sigma_x \sigma_p \geq \hbar/2$$

Energy-time uncertainty principle

$$\Delta E \Delta t \geq \hbar/2$$

Where $\Delta E \equiv \sigma_H$ and $\Delta t \equiv \sigma_Q / \left| \frac{d}{dt} \langle Q \rangle \right|$.

Δt represents the amount of time it takes the expectation value of Q to change by one standard deviation. *There is no time operator.*

Generalized Ehrenfest theorem

$$\frac{d}{dt} \langle Q \rangle = \frac{i}{\hbar} \langle \Psi | [\hat{H}, \hat{Q}] | \Psi \rangle + \left\langle \frac{\partial \hat{Q}}{\partial t} \right\rangle$$

If $[\hat{H}, \hat{Q}] = 0$ and $\langle \partial \hat{Q} / \partial t \rangle = 0$, then $\langle Q \rangle$ is constant, i.e. **conserved**.

Results from Ehrenfest theorem

$$\langle p \rangle = m \frac{d}{dt} \langle x \rangle \quad \frac{d}{dt} \langle p \rangle = - \left\langle \frac{dV}{dx} \right\rangle$$

Note that $\left\langle \frac{dV}{dx} \right\rangle \neq \frac{d}{dt} \langle V \rangle$

Minimum uncertainty

$$\sigma_x \sigma_p = \hbar/2$$

For the one-dimensional Harmonic Oscillator, this happens at the ground state.

Consequence of the uncertainty principle in 1D

For all 1D systems, we have $E_g > -V_0$. Meaning the ground state energy is always greater than the minimum potential. This is a consequence of the uncertainty principle.

Ground state energy

For an arbitrary *normalized* state Ψ , we have

$$E_g \leq \langle \Psi | \hat{H} | \Psi \rangle = \langle H \rangle$$

where E_g is the ground state energy.

If Ψ is not normalized, then $E_g \leq \frac{\langle \Psi | \hat{H} | \Psi \rangle}{\langle \Psi | \Psi \rangle}$

Angular momentum operators

$$\hat{L}_x = y\hat{p}_z - z\hat{p}_y \quad \hat{L}_y = z\hat{p}_x - x\hat{p}_z \quad \hat{L}_z = x\hat{p}_y - y\hat{p}_x$$

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

Angular momentum operators (spherical)

$$\hat{L}_x = -i\hbar \left[-\sin(\phi) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} - \cos(\phi) \cos(\theta) \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right]$$

$$\hat{L}_y = -i\hbar \left[\cos(\phi) \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} - \sin(\phi) \cos(\theta) \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right]$$

$$\hat{L}_z = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$$

Hamiltonian using angular momentum

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

Angular momentum commutators

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

$$[\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_k] = 0 \text{ for } k = x, y, z$$

Generally:

$$[\hat{L}_i, \hat{L}_j] = i\hbar \varepsilon_{ijk} \hat{L}_k$$

Angular momentum uncertainty

$$\sigma_{L_i} \sigma_{L_j} \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} |\langle L_k \rangle| |\varepsilon_{ijk}|$$

i.e., if for example L_z is well known, then L_x and L_y are not.**Angular momentum ladder operator**

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

$$\text{A useful relation: } \hat{L}_{\pm} \hat{L}_{\mp} = \hat{L}^2 - \hat{L}_z^2 \pm \hbar \hat{L}_z$$

Angular momentum eigen equations

Using angular momentum ladder operator, one can show

$$\hat{L}^2 f_{\ell}^m = \hbar^2 \ell(\ell+1) f_{\ell}^m \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{L}_z f_{\ell}^m = \hbar m f_{\ell}^m$$

Where the eigen function f_{ℓ}^m happens to be the spherical harmonics Y_{ℓ}^m . Some also represent f_{ℓ}^m as $|\ell m\rangle$.**Three-dimension Levi-Civita symbol**

$$\varepsilon_{ijk} = \begin{cases} -1 & \text{if } (i, j, k) \text{ is } (z, y, x), (x, z, y), \text{ or } (y, x, z) \\ 0 & \text{if } i = j \text{ or } j = k \text{ or } k = i \\ 1 & \text{if } (i, j, k) \text{ is } (x, y, z), (y, z, x), \text{ or } (z, x, y) \end{cases}$$

Pauli matrices

$$\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Hamiltonian in mag. field. using spinFor particle in uniform field magnetic field $\mathbf{B} = B_0 \mathbf{e}_z$

$$\hat{H} = -\gamma B_0 \hat{S}_z = -\alpha_0 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\alpha_0 = \gamma B_0 \hbar/2$

Spin expectation value

State of a particle expressed with spin

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} e^{-iE_{\uparrow}t/\hbar} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} e^{-iE_{\downarrow}t/\hbar}$$

where $E_{\uparrow} = -\alpha_0 = -\gamma B_0 \hbar/2$ and $E_{\downarrow} = \alpha_0 = \gamma B_0 \hbar/2$

This state can be written as a spinor

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a e^{i\gamma B_0 t/2} \\ b e^{-i\gamma B_0 t/2} \end{pmatrix}$$

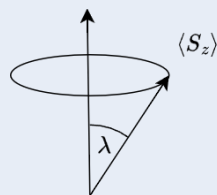
$$\Rightarrow \langle \Psi(t) | = (a^* e^{-i\gamma B_0 t/2} \quad b^* e^{i\gamma B_0 t/2})$$

Which can be used to find the expectation value:

$$\langle S_k \rangle = \langle \Psi(t) | \hat{S}_k | \Psi(t) \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2} \langle \Psi(t) | \sigma_k | \Psi(t) \rangle$$

For S_z it becomes:

$$\langle S_z \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2} (a^* a - b^* b) = \frac{\hbar}{2} \cos(\lambda)$$

For S_x it becomes:

$$\langle S_x \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{2} (a^* b e^{-i\gamma B_0 t} + b^* a e^{i\gamma B_0 t})$$

SpinAn *intrinsic* angular momentum carried by elementary particles; somewhat analogous to classical spin.**Spin 1/2**Particles with $s = 1/2$. There are only two spin eigenstates:

$$\text{Spin up: } |\uparrow\rangle = |s m_s\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

$$\text{Spin down: } |\downarrow\rangle = |s m_s\rangle = \begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Spin-1/2 operators

$$\hat{S} = \frac{\hbar}{2} \sigma$$

 $(\sigma = \text{vector whose components are the Pauli matrices})$ **Spin commutators**

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

NB: Same relations as with angular momentum operators!**Spinors for spin-1/2 particles**A particles general state can be represented by a 2×1 matrix called a spinor:

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} = a \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} + b \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

where $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ representing spin up ($\uparrow$)and $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$ representing spin down ($\downarrow$)**Spin ladder operator**

$$\hat{S}_{\pm} = \hat{S}_x \pm i\hat{S}_y$$

$$\hat{S}_{-} = \hbar \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{S}_{+} = \hbar \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \leftarrow \text{acts on spinors}$$

Spin eigen equations

Using the spin ladder operator, one can show

$$\hat{S}^2 |s m_s\rangle = \hbar^2 s(s+1) |s m_s\rangle \quad \& \quad \hat{S}_z |s m_s\rangle = \hbar m_s |s m_s\rangle$$

Unlike ang. mom., $|s m_s\rangle$ is not the spherical harmonics, thus no need to omit half-integers s and m_s values:

$$s = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, \dots \quad m_s = -s, -s+1, \dots, s-1, s$$

7/10 TOTAL ANGULAR MOMENTUM

Total angular momentum operators

$$\hat{J}_k = \hat{L}_k + \hat{S}_k, \quad k = x, y, z$$

Total angular momentum commutators

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

NB: Same relations as with angular momentum operators!

Total angular momentum ladder operator

$$\hat{J}_{\pm} = \hat{J}_x \pm i\hat{J}_y$$

$$\hat{J}_{\pm} |j m_j\rangle = \hbar \sqrt{j(j+1) - m_j(m_j \pm 1)} |j (m_j \pm 1)\rangle$$

Total angular momentum eigen equations

$$\hat{J}^2 |j m_j\rangle = \hbar^2 j(j+1) |j m_j\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad \hat{J}_z |j m_j\rangle = \hbar m_j |j m_j\rangle$$

$$|\ell - s| \leq j \leq \ell + s$$

Total angular momentum operator matrices

$$\hat{J}_x = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{J}_+ + \hat{J}_-)$$

$$\hat{J}_y = \frac{1}{2i} (\hat{J}_+ - \hat{J}_-)$$

$$\hat{J}_z = \hbar \begin{pmatrix} j & \dots & 0 \\ \vdots & \ddots & \vdots \\ 0 & \dots & -j \end{pmatrix}$$

A matrix with zero everywhere except along the diagonal, where it starts at j and moves down with integer steps to $-j$

QUANTUM NUMBERS

	Name	Range	Usage
n	Principle	$[1, \infty)$	E_n
ℓ	Azimuthal	$[0, n-1]$	$L = \sqrt{\ell(\ell+1)}\hbar$
m	Magnetic	$[-\ell, \ell]$	$L_z = m\hbar$
s	Spin	Int. and Half-int.	$S = \sqrt{s(s+1)}\hbar$
m_s	Spin magnetic	$[-s, s]$	$S_z = m_s\hbar$
j	Tot. ang. moment.	$[\ell - s , \ell + s]$	$J = \sqrt{j(j+1)}\hbar$
m_j	Tot. ang. moment. proj.	$[-j, j]$	$J_z = m_j\hbar$

All having integer steps within their range

TWO PARTICLES and TOTAL SPIN

Addition of spin angular momentum

Particle 1 has spin s_1 and m_1 , represented by the eigenstate $|s_1 m_1\rangle$, likewise for a second particle in eigenstate $|s_2 m_2\rangle$. The composite state is denoted by $|s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle$. The eigenequations become:

$$\hat{S}_1^2 |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle = s_1(s_1+1)\hbar^2 |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle$$

$$\hat{S}_2^2 |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle = s_2(s_2+1)\hbar^2 |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle$$

$$\hat{S}_{1z} |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle = m_1\hbar |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle$$

$$\hat{S}_{2z} |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle = m_2\hbar |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle$$

What is the total spin angular momentum?

$$\mathbf{S} = \mathbf{S}_1 + \mathbf{S}_2$$

Same as asking: what is the net spin s , and what is the z component m_s ?

The value of m_s is trivial

$$\hat{S}_z |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle = (\hat{S}_{1z} + \hat{S}_{2z}) |s_1 s_2 m_1 m_2\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \hbar m = \hbar(m_1 + m_2)$$

$$m_s = m_1 + m_2$$

Regarding the net spin s , the answer is that you get every spin from $s_1 + s_2$, down to $s_1 - s_2$ in integer steps (assuming $s_1 > s_2$):

$$s = (s_1 + s_2), (s_1 + s_2 - 1), (s_1 + s_2 - 2) \dots, (s_1 - s_2)$$

Highest spin when they are parallel, lowest and antiparallel.

Two spin-1/2 particles

Consider a system with two spin-1/2 particles (*e.g. proton and electron in Hydrogen ground state*).

Measured on a given axis (usually the z -axis), each particle can be either spin up $\uparrow$, or spin down $\downarrow$, giving us four basis states:

$$|\uparrow\uparrow\rangle, |\uparrow\downarrow\rangle, |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle, |\downarrow\downarrow\rangle,$$

$|\uparrow\uparrow\rangle$ and $|\downarrow\downarrow\rangle$ are aligned in z -direction

$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle + |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle)$ is aligned in x or y direction

Total spin here is $s = 1$ when aligned, thus:

$$(\text{triplet state}) \quad s = 1 \quad \begin{cases} |\uparrow\uparrow\rangle \\ \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle + |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle) \\ |\downarrow\downarrow\rangle \end{cases}$$

$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle - |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle)$ is not aligned in any direction, this $s = 0$

$$(\text{singlet state}) \quad s = 0 \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle - |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle)$$

Bosons (*e.g. gluon and photon*) have integer spins

Fermions (*e.g. quarks, muons, electron, neutrino*) have half-integer spin

Two particle system (no interaction)

$$\psi(1,2) = \psi_a(1)\psi_b(2)$$

Where 1, 2 represent all coordinates, spin, etc. of particle 1 and 2 respectively. The indexes a and b represent states.

If $a = b$ then $\psi(1,2) = \psi(2,1)$ else $\psi(1,2) \neq \psi(2,1)$

Bosons:

$$\psi_B(1,2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\psi_a(1)\psi_b(2) + \psi_a(2)\psi_b(1)]$$

Fermions:

$$\psi_F(1,2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\psi_a(1)\psi_b(2) - \psi_a(2)\psi_b(1)]$$

If $a = b$ then $\psi_F(1,2) = 0 \Rightarrow$ Two fermions cannot be in the same state (**Pauli exclusion principle**)

Nondegenerate Perturbation (time indep.)

Suppose the TISE cannot be solved exactly

$$\hat{H}|\psi_n\rangle = E_n|\psi_n\rangle$$

To approximate a solution rewrite $\hat{H}$ so the TISE becomes

$$(\hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_1)|\psi_n\rangle = E_n|\psi_n\rangle$$

where $\hat{H}_1$ is a small disturbance/perturbation, and

$$\hat{H}_0|\phi_n^0\rangle = \varepsilon_n^0|\phi_n^0\rangle$$

has known analytical solutions ε_n^0 and ϕ_n^0 . Where there is no degeneracy.

A 1st order approximation of the wave function and the energy can be expressed as:

$$|\psi_n\rangle \simeq |\phi_n^0\rangle + \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{\langle \phi_m^0 | \hat{H}_1 | \phi_n^0 \rangle}{\varepsilon_n^0 - \varepsilon_m^0} |\phi_m^0\rangle$$

$$E_n \simeq \varepsilon_n^0 + \langle \phi_n^0 | \hat{H}_1 | \phi_n^0 \rangle$$

Note! $\hat{H}_1$ should be relatively small, i.e.,
 $|\langle \phi_m^0 | \hat{H}_1 | \phi_n^0 \rangle| \ll |\varepsilon_n^0 - \varepsilon_m^0|$

Degenerate Perturbation (time indep.)

If ε_n^0 of $\hat{H}_0$ has degeneracy g ; then there exists g orthonormal solutions $X_i^0, i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, g$ of the equation

$$\hat{H}_0 X_i^0 = \varepsilon_n^0 X_i^0$$

Thus, by linear algebra, we can write

$$\phi_n^0 = \sum_{i=1}^g c_i X_i^0$$

Where $\{c_i\}$ are found by the g -number of equations

$$\sum_{i=1}^g (H_{ji} - \varepsilon_n^1 \delta_{ji}) c_i = 0, \quad j = 1, 2, 3, \dots, g$$

where $H_{ji} = \langle X_j^0 | \hat{H}_1 | X_i^0 \rangle$ and $\varepsilon_n^1 = \langle \phi_n^0 | \hat{H}_1 | \phi_n^0 \rangle$

The approximations become

$$|\psi_n\rangle \simeq \phi_n^0 = \sum_{i=1}^g c_i X_i^0$$

$$E_n \simeq \varepsilon_n^0 + \varepsilon_n^1$$

Note! If $H_{ji} = H_{ji} \delta_{ij}$ then $\varepsilon_n^1 = \varepsilon_i^1 = \langle X_i^0 | \hat{H}_1 | X_i^0 \rangle$
 $i = 1, 2, 3, \dots, g$

Density of states (DOS)

Number of allowed states per energy

$$\rho(E) = \frac{d}{dE} N(E)$$

Density of states for Fermions

For Fermions with mass m :

$$\rho(E) = V_0 2\pi \left(\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \right)^{3/2} \sqrt{E}$$

where V_0 is a general "normalization volume", i.e., the box volume where all wavefunctions are normalized within.

Fermis Golden Rule

Transition probability per unit time (**Transition Rate**) for a transition from an initial state into a continuum of final states becomes constant

$$R_{i \rightarrow f} = \frac{d}{dt} P_{i \rightarrow f} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{fi}|^2 \rho(E_f)$$

Variational Principle (Helium Ground State)

The Hamiltonian for Helium ($Z = 2$), is not possible to solve exactly because of the V_{ee} term. We ignore the term, and the exact solution to TISE with Hamiltonian

$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_1 + \hat{H}_2$ becomes

$$\Psi_0(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = \psi_{100}(\mathbf{r}_1) \psi_{100}(\mathbf{r}_2) = \frac{Z^3}{\pi a_0^3} \exp\left(-\frac{Z}{a_0} [r_1 + r_2]\right)$$

with $Z = 2$

We create a trial wavefunction

$$\phi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2) = \frac{\alpha^3}{\pi a_0^3} \exp\left(-\frac{\alpha}{a_0} [r_1 + r_2]\right)$$

where α is a variational parameter.

We have

$$E_g \leq E(\alpha) = \langle \phi | \hat{H} | \phi \rangle = \langle H \rangle$$

One would now find $E(\alpha)$ and minimize it as to estimate the ground state of the Helium atom.

One would first rewrite the Hamiltonian to

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_1 + G \frac{1}{r_1} + \hat{H}_2 + G \frac{1}{r_2} + V_{ee} \text{ where } G = \frac{(\alpha - Z)e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$$

Then find $E(\alpha)$ by

$$E(\alpha) = \langle \phi | \hat{H}_1 | \phi \rangle + \langle \phi | \hat{H}_2 | \phi \rangle + \langle \phi | V_{ee} | \phi \rangle + G \langle \phi | 1/r_1 | \phi \rangle + G \langle \phi | 1/r_2 | \phi \rangle$$

Time-Dependent Perturbation Theory

Consider a Hamiltonian consisting of a time-independent part $\hat{H}_0$ and time dependent part $V(t)$:

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}(t) = \hat{H}_0 + V(t)$$

where $V(t)$ is a disturbance/perturbation. A solution to TDSE can be written as

$$|\Psi(t)\rangle = \sum_n c_n(t) |\psi_n\rangle e^{-iE_n t/\hbar}$$

where $|\psi_n\rangle$ and E_n are known solutions to the TISE with $\hat{H}_0$. We need to find $\{c_n(t)\}$, which follow the equations

$$i\hbar \dot{c}_m = \sum_n c_n V_{nm} e^{i\omega_{mn}t}, \quad m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

where $\dot{c}_m = \frac{d}{dt} c_m$, $V_{nm} = \langle \psi_m | V | \psi_n \rangle$, and $\omega_{mn} = \frac{E_m - E_n}{\hbar}$

Suppose the disturbance $V(t)$ is weak, such that the coefficients $c_n(t)$ vary very slowly with time, meaning

$$c_m(t) \simeq c_m(t_0) + \frac{1}{i\hbar} \sum_n c_n(t_0) \int_{t_0}^t V_{mn}(t') e^{i\omega_{mn}t'} dt'$$

^ **First order general time-dependent perturbation**

If the system is in one of its eigenstates $|\psi_n\rangle$ of $\hat{H}_0$ at time $t = t_0$, we have a **special first order result**:

$$c_m(t) \simeq \delta_{nm} + \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t V_{mn}(t') e^{i\omega_{mn}t'} dt'$$

The **transition amplitude** $c_f(t)$ from initial state $|\psi_i\rangle$ with energy E_i to a final state $|\psi_f\rangle$ with energy E_f we have

$$c_f(t) \simeq \frac{1}{i\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t V_{fi}(t') e^{i\omega_{fi}t'} dt' \quad \text{assuming } f \neq i$$

Transition probability from state i to f is given by

$$P_{i \rightarrow f}(t) = |c_f(t)|^2$$

Harmonic Perturbations

Let $V(t) = V_0(\mathbf{r}) \cos(\omega t)$ Note $\omega \neq \omega_{fi}$

$$c_{\text{emission}}(t) \simeq \frac{1}{2} \langle \psi_f | V_0 | \psi_i \rangle \frac{1 - e^{i(\omega_{fi} + \omega)t}}{E_f - E_i + \hbar\omega} \quad \text{if } E_f < E_i$$

$$c_{\text{absorption}}(t) \simeq \frac{1}{2} \langle \psi_f | V_0 | \psi_i \rangle \frac{1 - e^{i(\omega_{fi} - \omega)t}}{E_f - E_i - \hbar\omega} \quad \text{if } E_f > E_i$$

Electron volt unit conversions

Quantity	Unit	Value (3 sig. dig.)
Energy	eV	1.60×10^{-19} J
Momentum	eV/c	5.34×10^{-28} kg · m/s
Mass	eV/c ²	1.78×10^{-36} kg

Common integrals

$$\int x \sin(ax) dx = \frac{1}{a^2} \sin(ax) - \frac{x}{a} \cos(ax)$$

$$\int x \cos(ax) dx = \frac{1}{a^2} \cos(ax) + \frac{x}{a} \sin(ax)$$

Integration by parts

$$\int_a^b f \frac{dg}{dx} dx = - \int_a^b \frac{df}{dg} g dx + fg \Big|_a^b$$

Fundamental constants

Name	Symbol	Value (3 sig. dig.)	In natural units
Planck's reduced constant	$\hbar$	1.05×10^{-34} Js	1
Speed of light	c	3.00×10^8 m/s	1
Electron mass	m_e	9.11×10^{-31} kg	0.511 MeV
Proton mass	m_p	1.67×10^{-27} kg	938 MeV
Proton charge	e	1.60×10^{-19} C	$\sqrt{4\pi\alpha}$
Electron charge	$-e$	-1.60×10^{-19} C	$-\sqrt{4\pi\alpha}$
Permittivity of space	ϵ_0	8.85×10^{-12} C ² /Jm	1
Fine structure constant	α	$e^2/(4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar c) \simeq 1/137 \simeq 7.30 \times 10^{-3}$	$e^2/(4\pi)$
Bohr radius (Hydrogen atom)	a_0	$4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2/(m_e e^2) \simeq 5.29 \times 10^{-11}$ m	$4\pi/(m_e e^2)$

Exponential integrals

$$\int_0^\infty x^n e^{-x/a} dx = n! a^{n+1}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty e^{-ax^2} dx = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty x e^{-ax^2} dx = 0$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^\infty x^2 e^{-ax^2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2\sqrt{a^3}}$$

Gaussian integrals

$$\int_0^\infty x^{2n} e^{-x^2/a^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi} \frac{(2n)!}{n!} \left(\frac{a}{2}\right)^{2n+1}$$

$$\int_0^\infty x^{2n+1} e^{-x^2/a^2} dx = \frac{n!}{2} a^{2n+2}$$

Law of cosines

$$c^2 = a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos(\theta)$$

Trigonometric identities

$$\sin(a \pm b) = \sin(a) \cos(b) \pm \cos(a) \sin(b)$$

$$\cos(a \pm b) = \cos(a) \cos(b) \mp \sin(a) \sin(b)$$

$$\sin(a) \sin(b) = \frac{\cos(a-b) - \cos(a+b)}{2}$$

$$\sin(2\theta) = 2 \sin\theta \cos\theta$$

$$\cos(2\theta) = \cos^2\theta - \sin^2\theta$$

$$\sin^2\theta = \frac{1 - \cos(2\theta)}{2}$$

$$\cos^2\theta = \frac{1 + \cos(2\theta)}{2}$$