

QUANTUM MECHANICS

Lecture 23

The hydrogen atom
The angular momentum

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D. J. Griffiths: paragraph 4.2 - 4.3

The hydrogen atom

- 1 The hydrogen atom consists in a bounded system of an **electron** and a **proton**.
- 2 Since the proton mass is almost 2000 times the mass of the electron, we can assume the proton at rest, in the origin of the (inertial) reference system.
- 3 The electron electrostatic potential energy in the proton electric field is given by

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

- 4 As a consequence, the radial equation reads

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} + \left[-\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] u = E u$$

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- ① We have to see for what energies $E < 0$ (bound states), the radial equation admits square-integrable solutions.

- ② Let us divide the radial equation by E

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2mE} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2mE} \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} u - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 E r} u = u$$

- ③ and let us define

$$k = \frac{\sqrt{-2mE}}{\hbar} m^{-1}$$
$$a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{e^2 m} \approx 0.529 \times 10^{-10} m$$
$$\rho_0 = \frac{2}{a_0 k}$$

where ρ_0 is an adimensional variable.

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$$-\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 E} = -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2} \frac{2m}{2m E} \frac{\hbar^2}{E} = \frac{2}{a_0 k^2} = \frac{\rho_0}{k}$$

② Therefore, the radial equation

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2mE} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2mE} \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} u - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 E r} u - u = 0$$

simplifies in

$$\frac{1}{k^2} \frac{d^2 u}{dr^2} - \frac{1}{k^2} \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} u + \frac{\rho_0}{k} \frac{1}{r} u - u = 0$$

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- ① If, instead of r , we use now the adimensional variable $\rho = k r$, the equation becomes

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\rho^2} - \frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2} u + \frac{\rho_0}{\rho} u - u = 0$$

- ② or, in other words

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\rho^2} = \left[\frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2} - \frac{\rho_0}{\rho} + 1 \right] u = 0$$

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Square-integrable solutions of the radial equation

$$\frac{d^2 u}{d\rho^2} = \left[\frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2} - \frac{\rho_0}{\rho} + 1 \right]$$

do exist if and only if

$$\rho_0 = 2n$$

where $n > 0$ is (any) integer.

The hydrogen atom

But

$$\rho_0 = \frac{2}{a_0 k} = 2n \quad \Rightarrow \quad k = \frac{1}{a_0 n}$$

and since

$$k = \frac{\sqrt{-2mE}}{\hbar}$$

we get the following condition on the possible energy eigenvalues

$$\sqrt{-2mE} = \frac{\hbar}{a_0 n} \quad \Rightarrow \quad E_n = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2ma_0^2} \frac{1}{n^2} \equiv -\frac{\mathcal{E}}{n^2}$$

where

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2ma_0^2} \approx 13.6 \text{ eV}$$

The hydrogen atom

The corresponding radial solutions are

$$R_{nl}(r) = A_{nl} e^{-\frac{r}{na_0}} \left(\frac{2r}{na_0} \right)^l \cdot L_{n-l-1}^{2l+1} \left(\frac{2r}{na_0} \right)$$

$$\text{with } A_{nl} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{na_0} \right)^3 \frac{(n-l-1)!}{2n[(n+l)!]^3}}$$

The $L_r^s(x)$ are the associated Laguerre polynomials

$$L_{q-p}^p(x) = (-1)^p \frac{d^p}{dx^p} L_q(x)$$

$$L_q(x) = e^x \frac{d^q}{dx^q} (e^{-x} x^q) \Rightarrow$$

$$L_0(x) = 1; \quad L_1(x) = -x + 1;$$

$$L_2(x) = x^2 - 4x + 2; \quad L_3(x) = -x^3 + 9x^2 - 18x + 6$$

...

The hydrogen atom

- 1 The full set of the normalized wave functions solving the time-independent Schrödinger equation for the energy $E_n = -\frac{\mathcal{E}}{n^2}$ are the following

$$\begin{aligned}\psi_{nlm}(r, \theta, \phi) &= R_{nl}(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = \\ &= A_{nl} \cdot e^{-\frac{r}{na_0}} \cdot \left(\frac{2r}{na_0}\right)^l \cdot L_{n-l-1}^{2l+1}\left(\frac{2r}{na_0}\right) \cdot Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)\end{aligned}$$

- 2 The radial scale length of the hydrogen atom is clearly given by $a_0 \approx 0.529 \times 10^{-10} m$ which is known as the **Bohr radius**.

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- ① A part from the ground level ($n = 1, l = 0$), **all the other energy levels of the hydrogen atom are degenerate**, because, for any given energy E_n , all the azimuthal quantum numbers l from 0 to $n - 1$ are possible, and, for any given l , all the magnetic quantum numbers m from $-l$ to $+l$ are also possible.

- ② It is easy to see that the degeneracy of the level n is

$$N = \sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (2l + 1) = 2 \frac{n(n-1)}{2} + n = n^2$$

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The hydrogen spectrum

Transitions from different energy levels may occur due to the interaction with the e.m. field, through the emission/absorption of a photon having an energy equal to the difference between the energy levels involved.

In case of photon emission, f.i., we have

$$\begin{aligned} E_\gamma = E_i - E_f &= -\mathcal{E} \left(\frac{1}{n_i^2} - \frac{1}{n_f^2} \right) = \\ &= \mathcal{E} \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right) \end{aligned}$$

where, as we have already said,

$$\mathcal{E} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2ma_0^2} \approx 13.6 \text{ eV}$$

The hydrogen spectrum

Since $E_\gamma = h\nu$ and $\lambda\nu = c$, in terms of the radiation wavelength λ , the hydrogen spectrum is such that

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{E_\gamma}{hc} = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{hc} \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right) \equiv R \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right)$$

where R is the **Rydberg constant**, given by

$$R = \frac{\mathcal{E}}{hc} \approx 1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}$$

The hydrogen spectrum

- 1 The previous formula was discovered empirically in the XIX^{th} century and the great achievement of QM was to justify and calculate R from fundamental constants.
- 2 Transitions to the ground state ($n_f = 1$) are in the UV and are known as Lyman series.
- 3 Transitions to the first excited state ($n_f = 2$) fall in the visible and constitute the Balmer series.
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The angular momentum

- 1 As we have just seen, the stationary states of the hydrogen atom are labeled with three quantum numbers: n , l , m .
- 2 The principal quantum number n is the only one directly related to the energy.
But what about l and m ?
Which is their meaning ?
- 3 As we will show now, these two quantum numbers are related to the angular momentum.

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The angular momentum

- 1 In classical mechanics, when the potential energy is central, together with the **total energy** also the **angular momentum** is conserved.
- 2 It is not surprising that, also in *QM*, angular momentum plays a significant role.
- 3 Classically, the angular momentum of a point-like particle of momentum $\vec{p}$, evaluated with respect to the origin, reads

$$\vec{L} \equiv \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$$

which, in terms of components, becomes

$$L_x = y p_z - z p_y; \quad L_y = z p_x - x p_z; \quad L_z = x p_y - y p_x$$

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The angular momentum

- 1 The corresponding quantum operators are obtained using the usual prescription

$$p_x \rightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}; \quad p_y \rightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial y}; \quad p_z \rightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial z};$$

- 2 One of the most important properties of the components L_x , L_y , L_z of the angular momentum is that they **do not commute one with the other.**
- 3 We have in fact that

$$[L_x, L_y] = i\hbar L_z$$

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- 1 This means that the three components of the angular momentum are **incompatible observables**: they cannot be measured simultaneously and, therefore, they do not admit simultaneous eigenfunctions.
- 2 In other words, **it does not exist a physical state which is a determinate state for two of them** (a part the case where all the eigenvalues are zero ...).
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However, the modulus square of the angular momentum operator

$$L^2 = L_x^2 + L_y^2 + L_z^2$$

does commute with each of the three components

$$[L^2, L_x] = 0; \quad [L^2, L_y] = 0; \quad [L^2, L_z] = 0$$

The angular momentum

Let us consider, f.i., the commutator $[L^2, L_x]$.
We have

$$\begin{aligned}[L^2, L_x] &= [L_x^2, L_x] + [L_y^2, L_x] + [L_z^2, L_x] = \\&= [L_y^2, L_x] + [L_z^2, L_x] = \\&= L_y[L_y, L_x] + [L_y, L_x]L_y + \\&\quad + L_z[L_z, L_x] + [L_z, L_x]L_z = \\&= L_y(-i\hbar L_z) + (-i\hbar L_z)L_y + \\&\quad + L_z(i\hbar L_y) + (i\hbar L_y)L_z = 0\end{aligned}$$

The angular momentum

Concerning the angular momentum, **the maximum we can do** is, therefore, to look for simultaneous eigenfunctions f of L^2 and, for instance, of L_z :

$$L^2 f = \lambda f \quad \text{and} \quad L_z f = \mu f$$