# Introduction to Quantum Mechanics

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# 1 The Wave Function

What we are looking for is the wave function  $\Psi$ .

Law 1.1 (Schrodinger Equation).

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

For simplicity, we always rewrite it as:

$$i\hbar\partial_t\Psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\partial_x^2\Psi + V\Psi.$$

Born's statistical interpretation:

 $\int_a^b |\Psi(x,t)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}x = \text{probability of finding the particle between } a \text{ and } b \text{ at time } t.$ 

Law 1.2 (Normalization).

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi(x,t)|^2 \, \mathrm{d}x = 1.$$

**Proposition 1.1.** The wave function will always stay NORMALIZED.

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}t} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left| \Psi(x,t) \right|^2 \mathrm{d}x = 0.$$

**Proof.** By Schrodinger EQ.,

LHS = 
$$\frac{i\hbar}{2m} \left( \Psi^* \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} - \frac{\partial \Psi^*}{\partial x} \Psi \right) \Big|_{-\infty}^{+\infty}$$
.

Definition 1.1.

$$\langle x \rangle \stackrel{def}{=} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x |\Psi|^2 dx$$

and

$$\langle p \rangle \stackrel{def}{=} m \frac{\mathrm{d} \langle x \rangle}{\mathrm{d}t}.$$

Theorem 1.1.

$$\langle x \rangle = \int \Psi^*(x) \Psi \, \mathrm{d}x$$

and

$$\langle p \rangle = \int \Psi^* \left( -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \Psi \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

**Remark 1.1** (Operator). We say that the operator x represents position, and the operator  $-i\hbar \partial/\partial x$  represents momentum. Also,

$$\langle Q(x,p)\rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^* \left[ Q(x,-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}) \right] \Psi \, \mathrm{d}x.$$

**Property 1.1.** Operators do **NOT**, in general, commute. For example,  $\hat{x}\hat{p} \neq \hat{p}\hat{x}$ , i.e.,

 $\exists$  a function f, s.t.  $(\hat{x}\hat{p})f \neq (\hat{p}\hat{x})f$ .

**Theorem 1.2** (de Broglie formula). The wave length is related to the momentum of the particle:

$$p = \frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi\hbar}{\lambda}.$$

**Theorem 1.3** (Heisenberg's uncertainty principle).

$$\sigma_x \sigma_p \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}.$$

# 2 Time-independent Schrodinger Equation

## 2.1 Stationary states

We look for solutions that are simple products,

$$\Psi(x,t) = \psi(x)\varphi(t).$$

**Theorem 2.1.** By the method of separation of variables,

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\psi}{\mathrm{d}x^2} + V\psi = E\psi$$

and

$$\varphi(t) = e^{-iEt/\hbar}.$$

The first is called the **time-independent Schrodinger equation**.

**Definition 2.1** (Hamiltonian). In classical mechanics, the total energy (kinetic plus potential) is called Hamiltonian:

$$H(x,p) = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x).$$

Now we introduce Hamiltonian operator:

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x).$$

Thus the time-independent Schrodinger EQ. can be written

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

#### which is **IMPORTANT**.

Remark 2.1. Intriguingly and intuitively,

$$\langle H \rangle = E.$$

Also, if the equation yields an infinite collection of solutions  $(\psi_1(x), \psi_2(x), \cdots)$ , each with its associated value of the separation constant  $(E1, E2, \cdots)$ ; thus the wave function is:

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

Particularly,

$$E_n \geq 0$$
 for all  $n$ 

# 2.2 The infinite square well

Suppose

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 \le x \le a \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}.$$

**Theorem 2.2.** Inside the well, we have

$$E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2ma^2}$$

and

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{a}x\right).$$

**Property 2.1.**  $\psi_n(x)$  has some interesting and important porperties:

- 1. They are alternately even and odd, with the respect to the center of the well.
- 2. They are mutually orthogonal (i.e.,  $\int \psi_m(x)^* \psi_n(x) dx = \delta_{mn}$ ) where  $\delta_{mn}$  is **Kronecker delta**:

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

3. They are complete by Dirichlet's theorem.

#### 2.3 The harmonic oscillator

Let

$$V(x) = \frac{1}{2}m\omega^2 x^2.$$

Here I will introduce 2 entirely different approaches to this problem. The first is a diabolically clever algebraic technique and the second is a straitforward "brute force" solution.

#### 2.3.1 Algebraic method

To begin with, let's rewrite the EQ. in a more suggestive form:

$$\frac{1}{2m} \left[ \left( -i\hbar \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x} \right)^2 + \left( m\omega x \right)^2 \right] \psi = E\psi.$$

The idea is to factor the term in square brackets:

$$u^{2} + v^{2} = (u - iv)(u + iv).$$

**Definition 2.2** (Ladder operator).

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

**Definition 2.3** (Commutator). The commutator of operators  $\hat{A}$  and  $\hat{B}$  is

$$\left[\hat{A}, \hat{B}\right] \stackrel{def}{=\!\!\!=\!\!\!=} \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}.$$

Property 2.2.

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

**Theorem 2.3.** If  $\psi$  satisfies the Schrodinger's EQ. with energy E, then  $\hat{a}_+\psi$  satisfies the Schrodinger's EQ. with energy  $E + \hbar\omega$ :

$$\hat{H}\psi = E\psi \Longrightarrow \hat{H}(\hat{a}_+\psi) = (E + \hbar\omega)(\hat{a}_+\psi).$$

Similarly,

$$\hat{H}\psi = E\psi \Longrightarrow \hat{H}(\hat{a}_-\psi) = (E - \hbar\omega)(\hat{a}_-\psi).$$

Proof.

$$\hat{H} = a_+ a_- + \frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega.$$

Here, then, is a wonderful machine for generating new solutions—if we could just find one solution. Thus, we call  $\hat{a}_+$  raising operator and  $\hat{a}_-$  lowering operator.

But what if I apply the lowering operator **repeatly**? We will reach a state with energy less than zero. By 2.1, there is **NO** guarantee that it will be normalized.

**Proposition 2.1.** Thus, there occurs a "lowest rung"  $\psi_0$  such that

$$\hat{a}_{-}\psi_{0}=0.$$

### Theorem 2.4.

$$\psi_0(x) = A_0 e^{-m\omega/2\hbar x^2}$$

and

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

Thus we could get

$$\psi_n(x) = A_n(a_+)^n e^{-m\omega/2\hbar x^2}$$
, with  $E_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right)\hbar\omega$ 

where  $A_n$  are used for normalization.

**Theorem 2.5.**  $\psi_n$  and  $\psi_{n+1}$  should satisfy:

$$\begin{cases} a_+\psi_n = i\sqrt{(n+1)\hbar\omega} \\ a_-\psi_n = -i\sqrt{n\hbar\omega}\psi_{n-1} \end{cases}.$$

Proof.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |a_+ \psi_n|^2 dx = (n+1)\hbar\omega$$

and

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |a_{-}\psi_{n}|^{2} \, \mathrm{d}x = n\hbar\omega.$$

Ultimately,

$$A_n = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4} \frac{(-i)^n}{\sqrt{n!(\hbar\omega)^n}}.$$

#### 2.3.2 Analytic method

Things look a little cleaner if we introduce the dimensionless variables

$$\xi = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}}x$$
 and  $K = \frac{2E}{\hbar\omega}$ .

In terms of  $\xi$  and K, the Schrodinger equation reads

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 \psi}{\mathrm{d}\xi^2} = (\xi^2 - K)\psi.$$

To begin with, consider that at very large  $\xi$ ,  $\xi^2$  completely dominates over the constant K, so in this regime  $\mathrm{d}^2\psi/\mathrm{d}\xi^2=\xi^2\psi$ , which means that  $\psi\Longrightarrow Ae^{\xi^2/2}+Be^{-\xi^2/2}$ . Thus we let  $\psi=h(\xi)e^{-\xi^2/2}$ . Plugging  $\psi$  into Schordinger EQ., we have

$$h(\xi) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \xi^n$$
 and  $a_{n+2} = \frac{2n+1-K}{(n+1)(n+2)}$ .

For physically acceptable solutions (normalizable solutions), then, we must have K = 2n + 1. Finally,

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

where  $H_n$  is the **Hermite polynomials**.

-2

0

2

4

6

1 0.4 0.8 0.2 0.60 0.4-0.20.2-0.40 -22 0 2 -20 1 4 2 0 0 -1-2

The first four stationary states of the harmonic oscillator are as follows.

## 2.4 The Free Particle

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We turn next to what should have been the simplest case of all: the free particle. The time Schrodinger Eq. reads:

-6

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\mathrm{d}^2\psi}{\mathrm{d}x^2} = E\psi.$$

Let  $k \equiv \sqrt{2mE/\hbar}$ , we have

$$\Psi_k(x,t) = Ae^{i(kx-\hbar k^2t/2m)}.$$

Remark 2.2. The speed of these waves is:

0

2

$$v_{\rm quantum} = \sqrt{E/2m} = 0.5 v_{\rm classical}$$

And

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi_k^*(x,t) \Psi_k(x,t) \, \mathrm{d}x = +\infty,$$

which means that a free particle cannot exist in a stationart state.

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**Theorem 2.6.** The general solution to the time-independent Schrodinger EQ. is still a linear combination of separable solutions:

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

Now this wave function can be normalized for appropriated  $\phi(k)$ . We call it a wave packet.

**Definition 2.4** (phase velocity and group velocity). For the wave function:

$$\Psi(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \phi(k) e^{i(kx - \omega t)} \, \mathrm{d}k.$$

We define:

$$v_{\mathrm{phase}} = \frac{\omega}{k}, \ v_{\mathrm{group}} = \frac{\mathrm{d}\omega}{\mathrm{d}k}.$$

# 3 Formalism

# 3.1 Gerneralized Statistical Interpretation

First we assume the spectrum of the wave funtion is discrete, we have

$$\langle Q \rangle = \sum_{n'} \sum_{n} c_{n'}^* c_n q_n \langle f_{n'} | f_n \rangle = \sum_{n} |c_n|^2 q_n$$

where  $q_n$  is the eigenvalue of operator  $\hat{Q}$  and  $\Psi(x,t) = \sum_n c_n(t) f_n(x)$ . What about momentum?

$$\Phi(p,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ipx/\hbar} \Psi(x,t) dx$$

and

$$\Psi(x,t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ipx/\hbar} \Phi(p,t) dp.$$

# 3.2 Uncertainty Principle

**Theorem 3.1** (generalized uncertainty principle).

$$\sigma_A^2 \sigma_B^2 \ge \left(\frac{1}{2i} \left\langle \left[\hat{A}, \hat{B}\right] \right\rangle \right)^2.$$

How to interpret  $\Delta t$ ?

Definition 3.1.

$$\Delta t \equiv \frac{\sigma_Q}{|\operatorname{d}\langle Q\rangle/\operatorname{d}t|},$$

where

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

I recommend you to learn Hilbert space and Dirac notation.

# 4 Quantum Mechanics in Three Dimensions

# 4.1 The schrodinger Equation

The generalization oto three dimensions is straitforward.

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

where

$$\nabla^2 \equiv \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

is the **Laplacian**. Also the normalization conditions reads  $\int \Psi d^3 \mathbf{r} = 1$ . If V is independent of time, there will be a complete set of stationary states

$$\Psi_n(\mathbf{r},t) = \psi_n(\mathbf{r})e^{-iE_nt/\hbar}$$

Now we adopt spherical coordinates

Lemma 4.1 (Laplacian in spherical coordinates).

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

If  $\Psi = R(r)Y(\theta, \phi)$  and  $Y = \Theta(\theta)\Phi(\phi)$ , we could separate  $r, \theta$  and  $\phi$  into three equations with important separation constants.

### 4.1.1 The angular Equation

The  $\phi$  equation is easy

$$\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 \Phi}{\mathrm{d}\phi^2} = -m^2 \Phi \implies \Phi = e^{im\phi}.$$

When  $\phi$  advances by  $2\pi$ , we return to the same point in space, so it is natural to require that  $\Phi(\phi+2\pi) = \Phi(\phi)$ . From this it follows that m must be an integer:

$$m = 0, \pm 1, \pm, 2, \cdots$$

The  $\theta$  equation reads

$$\sin\theta \frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}\theta} \left(\sin\theta \frac{\mathrm{d}\Theta}{\mathrm{d}\theta}\right) + \left[l(l+1)\sin^2\theta - m^2\right]\Theta = 0.$$

**Lemma 4.2** (Legendre function). The solution of  $\Theta$  is

$$\Theta(\theta) = AP_l^m(\cos\theta).$$

where

$$P_l^m(x) \triangleq (-1)^m (1-x^2)^{m/2} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)^m P_l(x)$$

is the associated Legendre function, defined by the Rodrigues formula

$$P_l(x) \triangleq \frac{1}{2^l l!} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)^l (x^2 - 1)^l.$$

**Remark 4.1.** Notice that l must be a non-negative integer, for Rodrigues formula to make sense; moreover, if m > l, we cwill have  $P_l^m(x) = 0$ . For any given l, then there are 2l + 1 possible values of m:

$$l = 0, 1, 2 \cdots$$
 and  $m = -l, -l + 1, \cdots, l - 1, l$ .

By normalization condition

$$\int_0^{\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} |Y|^2 \sin\theta \, \mathrm{d}\theta \, \mathrm{d}\phi = 1,$$

we deduce that

$$Y_{l}^{m}(\theta,\phi) = \sqrt{\frac{2l+1}{4\pi} \frac{(l-m)!}{(l+m)!}} e^{im\phi} P_{l}^{m}(\cos\theta)$$
(4.1)

#### 4.1.2 The Radial Equation

Theorem 4.1 (Radial equation).

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

where  $u(r) \equiv rR(r)$ .

Remark 4.2 (Effective potential).

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

and the latter term is the so-called **centrifugal potential**.

## 4.2 The Hydrogen Atom

The radical equation says:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\mathrm{d}^2 u}{\mathrm{d}r^2} + \left[-\frac{e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 r} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{l(l+1)}{r^2}\right]u = Eu.$$

To tidy up the notation, let

$$\kappa = \frac{\sqrt{-2mE_e}}{\hbar}, \quad \rho = \kappa r \quad \text{and} \quad \rho_0 = \frac{m_e e^2}{2\pi\varepsilon_0 \hbar^2 \kappa}$$

so that

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

Intuitively,  $(d^2u/d\rho^2 = u$  when  $\rho \to +\infty$  and  $d^2u/d\rho^2 = ul(l+1)/\rho^2$  when  $\rho \to_0$ 

$$u(\rho) = \rho^{l+1} e^{-\rho} v(\rho).$$

Now we assume the solution,  $v(\rho)$ , can be expressed as a power series in  $\rho$ :

$$v(\rho) = \sum_{j=0}^{+\infty} c_j \rho^j.$$

Plugin it into the radical equation

$$c_{j+1} = \left\{ \frac{2(j+l+1) - \rho_0}{(j+1)(j+2l+2)} \right\} c_j.$$

**Theorem 4.2.** The series must terminate. I.e.,  $\exists N \in \mathbb{N}, c_N = 0$ , which means

$$2(N+l) - \rho_0 = 0.$$

**Proof.** For large j, the recursion formula says

$$c_{j+1} \approx \frac{2}{j+1} c_j \implies c_{j+1} \approx \frac{2^j}{j!} c_0.$$

Then

$$v(\rho) = c_0 e^{2\rho}$$
 and  $u(\rho) = c_0 \rho^{l+1} e^{\rho}$ 

which could not be **NORMALIZED**.

Theorem 4.3 (Bohr Formula & Radius).

$$E_n = -\left[\frac{m_e}{2\hbar^2} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\right)^2\right]$$
 and  $a = \frac{4\pi\varepsilon_0\hbar^2}{m_e e^2}$ .

Finally, we obtain the spactial wave functions

$$\psi_{nlm}(r,\theta,\phi) = R_{nl}(r)Y_l^m(\theta,\phi)$$

where  $R_{nl}(r) = r^{-1}\rho^{l+1}e^{-\rho}v(\rho)$  and  $Y_l^m(\theta,\phi)$  is defined by Eq 4.1.

Remark 4.3 (Laguerre Polynomials).

$$v(\rho) = L_{n-l-1}^{2l+1}(2\rho)$$

where

$$L_q^p(x) \triangleq (-1)^p \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)^p L_{p+q}(x)$$

is an associated Lguerre polynomial, and

$$L_q(x) \triangleq \frac{e^x}{q!} \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}}{\mathrm{d}x}\right)^q (e^{-x}x^q)$$

is the 
$$q^{\text{th}}$$
 Laguerre polynomial. "Brutally", 
$$\psi_{nlm} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{na}\right)^3 \frac{(n-l-1)!}{2n(n+l)!}} e^{-r/na} \left(\frac{2r}{na}\right)^l \left[L_{n-l-1}^{2l+1}(2r/na)\right] Y_l^m(\theta,\phi).$$

#### 4.3 Angular Momentum

By the formula  $\boldsymbol{L} = \boldsymbol{r} \times \boldsymbol{p}$ 

$$L_x = yp_z - zp_y$$
 (cyc).

Then we deduce the fundamental commutation relations for angular momentum

$$[L_x, L_y] = i\hbar L_z$$
 and  $[L^2, L_x] = 0$  (cyc).

According to generalized uncertainty principle,

$$\sigma_{L_x}\sigma_{L_y} \ge \frac{\hbar}{2} |\langle L_z \rangle|.$$

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With the help of ladder operator  $L_{\pm} = L_x \pm i L_y$ , we could obtain the eigenvalues and the eigenfunctions for angular momentum.

**Theorem 4.4** (Eigenvalues and Eigenfunctions for L).

$$L^2 Y_l^m = l(l+1)\hbar^2 Y_l^m$$
 and  $L_z Y_l^m = m\hbar Y_l^m$ .

**Remark 4.4.** Spherical harmonics (Eq 4.1) are the eigenfunctions of  $L^2$  and  $L_z$ .

### 4.4 Spin

Similarly,

$$[S_x, S_y] = i\hbar S_z$$
,  $S^2 |s m\rangle = s(s+1)\hbar^2 |s m\rangle$  and  $S_z |s m\rangle = m_s\hbar |s m\rangle$ .

**Definition 4.1** (Quantum Numbers). Intuitively,

- n  $(0,1,2,\cdots)$  is the **principal quantum number**; it tells you the energy of electron.
- $l (0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1)$  is called **azimuthal quantum number** and  $m_l (0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots, \pm l)$  the **megnetic quantum number**; they are related to the angular momentum of the electron.
- $s (\pm 1/2)$  is the spin quantaum number. And  $m_s \in \{-s, -s+1, \cdots, s\}$ .

## 5 Misc

#### 5.1 Before Schrodinger

First we will introduce the theories before Schrodinger Equation.

#### 5.1.1 Black Body Radiation

$$M_{\lambda}(T) = \frac{\mathrm{d}E_{\lambda}}{\mathrm{d}\lambda}, \quad \alpha_{\lambda}(T) = \frac{E_{\mathrm{absorb}}}{E_{\mathrm{in}}} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{M_{\lambda}(T)}{\alpha_{\lambda}(T)} = M_{0}(\lambda, T) = \mathrm{Const.}$$

Law 5.1. Stefan Boltzmann law:  $M(T) = \sigma T^4$ . Wien's displacement law:  $\lambda_m T = b$ .

### 5.1.2 Photoelectric Effect

$$h\nu = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + W.$$

### 5.1.3 Compton effect

$$\Delta \lambda = \lambda - \lambda_0 = \frac{2\hbar}{m_0 c} \sin^2 \frac{\psi}{2}.$$

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#### 5.1.4 Bohr Model

The quantization of angular momentum says:

$$L = mvr = n\hbar$$
.

Also,

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\infty} \left( \frac{1}{m^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right).$$

#### 5.2Probability current

**Definition 5.1** (Probability current).

$$J\triangleq -\frac{i\hbar}{2m}(\Psi^*\nabla\Psi-\Psi\nabla\Psi^*)=\frac{\hbar}{m}\operatorname{Im}(\Psi^*\nabla\Psi).$$

Then

$$\frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} + \nabla J = 0$$

where  $\rho = \int \Psi^* \Psi \, dx$ .

#### 5.3 Two-state Quantum System

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \begin{pmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} E_1 & A \\ A & E_2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} C_1 \\ C_2 \end{pmatrix}.$$

Then,

$$C_1 + k_{\pm}C_2 = \left[C_1(0) + k_{\pm}C_2(0)\right] \exp\left[-\frac{i(E_1 + k_{\pm}A)}{\hbar}t\right]$$

where 
$$k \pm = \left(E_2 - E_1 \pm \sqrt{(E_2 - E_1)^2 + 4A^2}\right) / 2A$$
.

Lemma 5.1. 
$$C_{1}(t) = \frac{1}{k_{+} - k_{-}} \left\{ k_{+} \left[ C_{10} + k_{-} C_{20} \right] e^{-\frac{i(E_{1} + k_{-} A)}{\hbar} t} - k_{-} \left[ C_{10} + k_{+} C_{20} \right] e^{-\frac{i(E_{1} + k_{+} A)}{\hbar} t} \right\}$$
 and 
$$C_{2}(t) = \frac{1}{k_{+} - k_{-}} \left\{ \left[ C_{10} + k_{-} C_{20} \right] e^{-\frac{i(E_{1} + k_{-} A)}{\hbar} t} - \left[ C_{10} + k_{+} C_{20} \right] e^{-\frac{i(E_{1} + k_{+} A)}{\hbar} t} \right\}$$

$$C_2(t) = \frac{1}{k_+ - k_-} \left\{ \left[ C_{10} + k_- C_{20} \right] e^{-\frac{i(E_1 + k_- A)}{\hbar}t} - \left[ C_{10} + k_+ C_{20} \right] e^{-\frac{i(E_1 + k_+ A)}{\hbar}t} \right\}$$

What if  $C_{10} = 1$ ,  $C_{20} = 0$  and  $E_1 = E_2 = 0$ ?

$$C_1(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ e^{iAt/\hbar} + e^{-iAt/\hbar} \right]$$
 and  $C_2(t) = \frac{1}{2} \left[ e^{iAt/\hbar} - e^{-iAt/\hbar} \right]$ 

which entails that

$$C_1(t) = \cos(At/\hbar)$$
 and  $C_2(t) = \sin(At/\hbar)$ .

#### 5.4Famous Experiments

Milikan+Compton Davisson-Germer Zeeman Stern-Gerlach

Wave-particle Duality de Broglie Formula Quantization of Angular Momentum Electronic Spin