

1 The Photon

$c \left[\frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \right]$	speed of light
$h \left[\frac{\text{m}^2 \text{kg}}{\text{s}} \right]$	planc's constant
$e \text{ [C]}$	electorn charge
$m_e \text{ [kg]}$	electron mass
$k_B \left[\frac{\text{m}^2 \text{kg}}{\text{s}^2 \text{K}} \right]$	bolzmann constant
$\epsilon_0 \left[\frac{\text{F}}{\text{m}} \right]$	vacuum permittivity

$$c = 2.998 \cdot 10^8 \left[\frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \right]$$

$$h = 6.626 \cdot 10^{-34} \left[\frac{\text{m}^2 \text{kg}}{\text{s}} \right]$$

$$\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$$

$$e = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19} \text{ [C]}$$

$$m_e = 9.109 \cdot 10^{-31} \text{ [kg]}$$

$$k_B = 1.381 \cdot 10^{-23} \left[\frac{\text{m}^2 \text{kg}}{\text{s}^2 \text{K}} \right]$$

$$\epsilon_0 = 8.854 \cdot 10^{-12} \left[\frac{\text{F}}{\text{m}} \right]$$

$$1 \text{ [eV]} = 1.602 \cdot 10^{-19} \left[\frac{\text{kg m}^2}{\text{s}^2} \right] \text{ [J]}$$

1.1 Photon & Electron

$\lambda \text{ [m]}, \nu \left[\frac{1}{\text{s}} \right]$	Wavelength, Freq.
k	Wavenumber
$E \text{ [J]}$	Energy
$\vec{F}_c \text{ [N]}$	Coulomb Force

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{\nu} \quad \nu = \frac{c}{\lambda} \quad \omega = 2\pi\nu$$

$$k = \frac{2\pi\nu}{c}$$

$$E = h \cdot \nu = \hbar \cdot \omega$$

$$|\vec{F}_c| = \frac{Q_1 \cdot Q_2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2}$$

1.2 Photoelectric effect

$V \text{ [V]}$	Voltage
$\phi_0 \text{ [eV]}$	Work function
$I \text{ [A]}$	Photo-current
$n \left[\text{m}^{-3} \right]$	Volume density of electrons
$A \left[\text{m}^2 \right]$	Area
$v \left[\frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \right]$	velocity of electrons

$$h\nu - \phi_0 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = eV$$

$$V(\nu) = \frac{h}{e}\nu - \frac{\phi_0}{e}$$

$$I = nAve$$

1.3 Blackbody Radiation

$L \text{ [m]}$	length of blackbody cube	k_i	wave constants
E_x	Electric field in x-direction	$\langle E \rangle$	Average Energy
N	Number of states	D	Density of states
u	Blackbody radiation	I	Power radiated

$$E_x(x, y, z) = E_{0x} \cos(k_x x) \sin(k_y y) \sin(k_z z)$$

$$k_x = n \frac{\pi}{L} \quad k_y = m \frac{\pi}{L} \quad k_z = l \frac{\pi}{L} \quad k = \sqrt{k_x^2 + k_y^2 + k_z^2}$$

$$N(k) = \frac{1}{3\pi^2} k^3 L^3 \quad D(k) = \frac{k^2}{\pi^2}$$

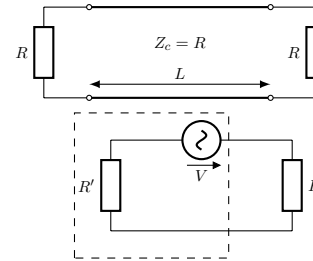
$$u(\omega) = \frac{\omega^2}{\pi^2 c^3} \cdot \frac{\hbar \omega}{\exp\left(\frac{\hbar \omega}{kT}\right) - 1} d\omega \quad u(\nu) = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3 \left(\exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{kT}\right) - 1 \right)} d\nu$$

$$I(\omega) = c \cdot u(\omega)$$

Equipartition-Theorem: Each degree of Freedom has an energy of kT

1.4 Johnson-Noise

This is the noise created in a one-dimensional circuit (like a coax-cable).



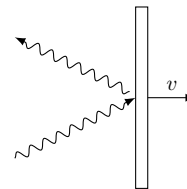
$$\langle V^2 \rangle \quad \text{Noise Voltage}$$

$$\Delta\nu \quad \text{Bandwidth}$$

$$E = E_0 \cdot \sin(k_x \cdot x)$$

$$\langle V^2 \rangle = 4R \cdot k_B T \cdot \Delta\nu$$

1.5 Momentum of a photon



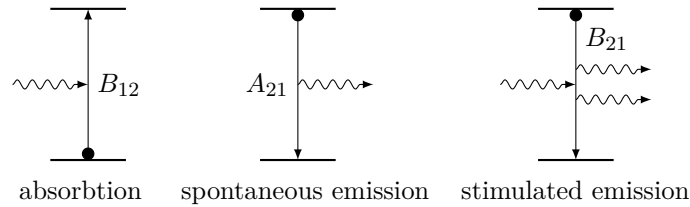
$$p \left[\frac{\text{kg m}}{\text{s}} \right] \quad \text{momentum}$$

$$p_{\text{absorbing}} = \frac{h\nu}{c} = m \cdot v$$

$$p_{\text{reflecting}} = 2 \cdot \frac{h\nu}{c}$$

$$p = \sqrt{2m_e e \Delta V}$$

1.6 Absorption, spontaneous and stimulated emission



n_1 Number of electrons in the lower energy state

n_2 Number of electrons in the higher energy state

$$\frac{dn_2}{dt} = \underbrace{n_1 \cdot u(\nu) \cdot B_{12}}_{\text{absorption}} - \underbrace{n_2 \cdot u(\nu) \cdot B_{21}}_{\text{stimulated emission}} - \underbrace{n_2 \cdot A_{21}}_{\text{spontaneous emission}}$$

$$\frac{n_2}{n_1} = e^{-\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}} = \frac{u(\nu) B_{12}}{u(\nu) B_{21} + A_{21}}$$

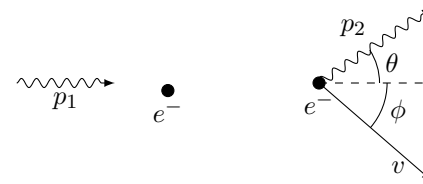
$$B_{21} = B_{12} = B \quad A_{21} = \frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3}$$

We have therefore a population inversion between the two states. The likelihood of a stimulated emission process is larger than the one of absorption. If we enclose the system in an optical cavity, we can achieve self-sustained oscillation at the frequency ν .

2 Wave mechanics

	frequency	wavelength	momentum	energy
Particle		$\lambda_b = \frac{h}{p}$	$p = mv$	$E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$
Wave	ω	$\lambda = \frac{2\pi c}{\omega}$	$p = \frac{\hbar\omega}{c}$	$E = \hbar\omega$

2.1 Compton Scattering

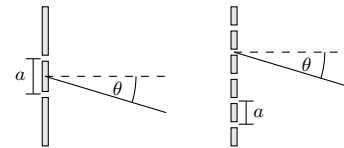


$$p_1 = \frac{h\nu_1}{c} \quad p' = \frac{h\nu_2}{c}$$

$$\nu_2 = \nu_1 - \frac{p_e^2}{2m_e h}$$

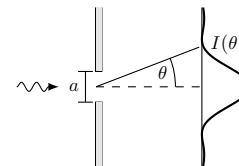
$$\lambda_2 - \lambda_1 = \frac{h}{m_e c} (1 - \cos \theta);$$

2.2 Double Slit and Bragg Diffraction



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Constructive} \quad \sin \theta &= \frac{n\lambda}{a} \\ \text{Destructive} \quad \sin \theta &= \frac{(n + \frac{1}{2})\lambda}{a} \\ n &\in \mathbb{Z} \end{aligned}$$

2.3 Single slit and uncertainty relation



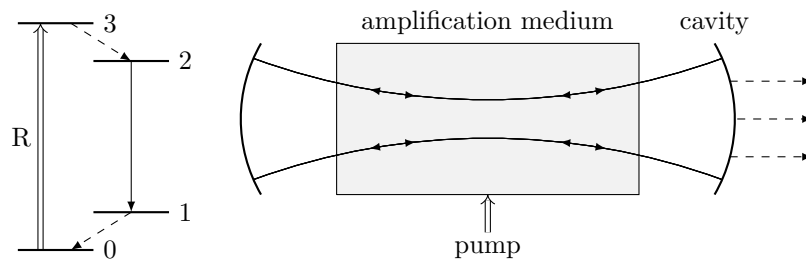
$$I(\theta) = I_0 \frac{\sin^2 \theta}{\theta^2}$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\lambda}{a}$$

$$\Delta x \Delta p \geq \hbar$$

$$\Delta t \Delta E \geq \hbar \quad (E = \hbar\omega)$$

1.7 Laser-optical amplification



Electrons are excited from the ground state “0” to the level “3” by pumping through incoherent radiation. The electrons then fall onto a long-lived state n_2 (State “2”) from level “3”. The pumping can be done either optically by shining a strong incoherent light or by passing a current. It is also assumed that the lower state is quickly emptied by a fast process with lifetime τ_1 . As a result, the population in state “2” is:

$$n_2 = \frac{R}{A_{21}} \quad \text{whereas} \quad n_1 \approx 0 \quad \text{because} \quad A_{21} < \frac{1}{\tau_1}$$

2.4 Bohr-Sommerfeld quantisation

Every single particle must satisfy the following equation. The quantized energy levels below relate to the hydrogen atom

$$\int_{\text{length}} p \cdot ds = n \cdot h \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$E_n = -\frac{Z^2}{n^2} \cdot \frac{m_e e^4}{8\epsilon_0^2 h^2} = -\frac{Z^2}{n^2} \cdot E_{ry}$$

$$r_n = \frac{n^2}{Z} \cdot \frac{2\epsilon_0 h}{m_e e^2} = \frac{n^2}{Z} \cdot a_0$$

$$E_{ry} = 13.6 \text{ [eV]}$$

$$a_0 = 5.292 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ [m]}$$

p Momentum of particle
 E_n Energy of the nth state
 E_{ry} Rydberg Energy
 a_0 Bohr-radius
 Z Number of protons

3 Quantum Mechanics

3.1 Wave function

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) : \mathbb{R}^4 \rightarrow \mathbb{C} \quad \iiint |\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)|^2 d^3r = 1$$

$$\psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = a\psi_1(\mathbf{x}, t) + b\psi_2(\mathbf{x}, t), \quad |a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$$

$$P(x)dx = |\psi(x)|^2 dx \quad P_{ab} = \int_a^b |\psi(x)|^2 dx \quad \langle x \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x |\psi(x)|^2 dx$$

3.2 The Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \cdot \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t}(\mathbf{x}, t) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \cdot \nabla^2 \Psi(\mathbf{x}, t) + V(\mathbf{x}, t) \Psi(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

$$\Psi = A \cdot e^{i(\mathbf{k}\mathbf{x} - \omega t)} \quad \mathbf{k} = [k_x \ k_y \ k_z], \quad \mathbf{x} = [x \ y \ z]^T$$

$$E = \omega\hbar = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m}, \quad k^2 = |\mathbf{k}|^2$$

3.2.1 Phase and Group Velocity

The phase velocity v_φ describes how fast the phase of the wave moves forward. The group velocity v_g describes how fast the energy is moving forward.

$$v_\varphi = \frac{\omega}{k} \quad v_g = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k} \quad \text{Particle wave: } v_\varphi \cdot 2 = v_g$$

3.2.2 Stationary (Time independent) States

In a stationary state, the wave function is a product of a function $\varphi(\mathbf{x})$ independent of time and a function $\chi(t)$ independent of space.

$$\Psi_n(\mathbf{x}, t) = \psi_n(\mathbf{x}) \cdot \chi_n(t) = \psi_n(\mathbf{x}) \cdot e^{-i\frac{E_n}{\hbar}t}$$

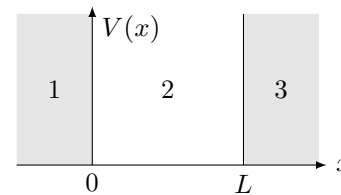
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi_n(\mathbf{x}) + V(\mathbf{x})\psi_n(\mathbf{x}) = \psi_n(\mathbf{x}) \cdot E_n$$

$$\iiint |\Psi|^2 d^3\mathbf{x} = \iiint |\psi|^2 d^3\mathbf{x} = 1$$

$$\Psi(\mathbf{x}, t) = \sum a_n \psi_n(\mathbf{x}) \cdot e^{-i\frac{E_n}{\hbar}t} \quad \sum |a_n|^2 = 1$$

Requirements: The wave function must be continuous, as well as its derivative

3.2.3 Example: 1D infinite potential well



$$\Psi_1 = \Psi_3 = 0$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi_2(x, t) = E \psi_2(x, t)$$

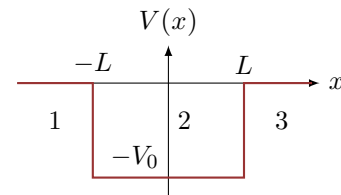
$$\psi_2 = A \sin(kx) + B \cos(kx)$$

Boundary cond.: $\psi_2(0) = \psi_2(L) = 0$

$$\psi_{2n} = A \cdot \sin(k_n x) \quad \Psi_{2n} = A \cdot \sin(k_n x) \cdot e^{-i\frac{E_n}{\hbar}t}, \quad \text{Normalize: } A = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}$$

$$E_n = n^2 \cdot \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2mL} = n^2 \cdot E_0, \quad k_n = \frac{n\pi}{L}$$

3.2.4 Example: 1D finite potential well



The Energy E can be either bigger or smaller than 0. If $E > 0$, the wave function will decay exponentially in region 1 and 3. If $E < 0$, the wave will propagate away from the potential well.

Inside the well: The general solution to the rearranged Schrödinger's is:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi_2(x) = (E - V_0) \psi_2(x)$$

$$\psi_2(x) = A_2 e^{ikx} + A'_2 e^{-ikx} \quad E = \frac{k^2 \hbar^2}{2m} \quad k = \sqrt{\frac{2m(E - V_0)}{\hbar^2}}$$

Outside the well: There are two cases, which can apply:

1. $E > 0$: **Unbound state**

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi_1(x) = E \psi_1(x) \quad \psi_1 = A_1 e^{ikx} + A'_1 e^{-ikx} \quad k = \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}$$

The unbound state does not make sense to be investigated, because the particle is free to be anywhere. In the following, only the unbound state is considered.

2. $E < 0$: **Bound state**

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi_1(x) = E \psi_1(x) \quad \psi_1 = B_1 e^{\delta x} + B'_1 e^{-\delta x} \quad \delta = \sqrt{-\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}$$

We see that as $x \rightarrow -\infty$, the Term B'_1 , as well as B_3 approaches ∞ . Since the wave function cannot approach ∞ , $B'_1 = B_3 = 0$ is a condition.

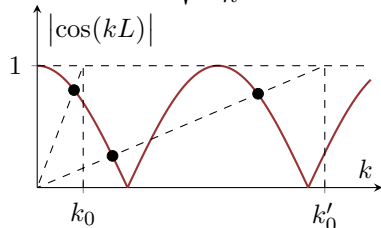
Boundary conditions: We require, that the wave function is continuous, as well as it's spacial derivative. Therefore, we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_1(-L) &= \psi_2(-L) & \psi_2(L) &= \psi_3(L) \\ \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_1(-L) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_2(-L) & \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_2(L) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_3(L) \end{aligned}$$

Even solutions: only even (cosine) components

$$|\cos(kL)| = \frac{k}{k_0}, \quad \tan(kL) > 0$$

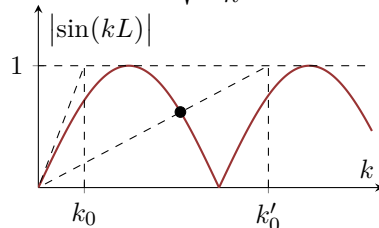
$$k_0 = \sqrt{\frac{2mV_0}{\hbar^2}}$$



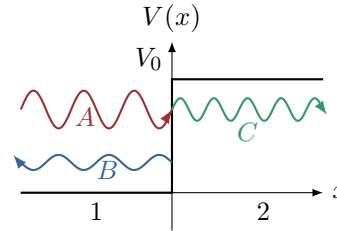
Odd solutions: only odd (sine) components

$$|\sin(kL)| = \frac{k}{k_0}, \quad \tan(kL) > 0$$

$$k_0 = \sqrt{\frac{2mV_0}{\hbar^2}}$$



3.3 Example: 1D potential step function



An incoming plane wave from the left hits a potential step at $x = 0$. In region 1, two waves are added together, one is traveling to the right and one to the left. If $E > V_0$, the wave is transmitted to region 2. if $E < V_0$, the wave decays exponentially in region 2.

In **Region 1**, the general solution to the Schrödinger equation is:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi_1(x) = E \psi_1(x), \quad \psi_1(x) = A e^{ik_1 x} + B e^{-ik_1 x}, \quad k = \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}$$

In **Region 2**, there are two cases, which can apply:

1. $E > V_0$: **Transmission**

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi_2 = (E - V_0) \psi_2(x) \quad \psi_2 = C e^{ik_2 x}, \quad k_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2m(E - V_0)}{\hbar^2}}$$

2. $E < V_0$: **Complete reflection**

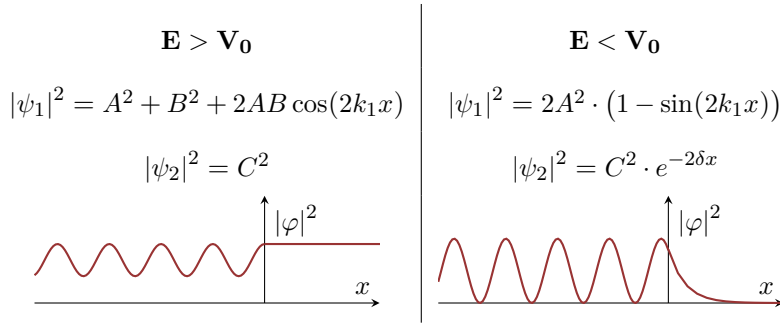
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi_2 = (E - V_0) \psi_2(x) \quad \psi_2 = C e^{\delta_2 x}, \quad \delta_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2}}$$

Applying the **initial conditions**, which require the wave function and it's derivative to be continuous at $x = 0$, we get the following expression for A , B , C :

$$\psi_1(x=0) = \psi_2(x=0) \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_1(x=0) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_2(x=0)$$

$E > V_0$	$E < V_0$
$A + B = C$	$A + B = C$
$k_1(A - B) = k_2 C$	$A = B$

The **probability density function** $|\psi(x, t)|^2 = |\varphi(x)|^2 = \varphi \cdot \varphi^*$ can then be computed and sketched:

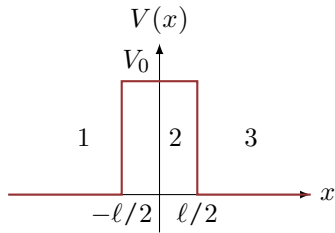


To find the **transmission coefficient** T and the **reflection coefficient** R , we normalize $A = 1$. Then, we can define $B = \sqrt{R}$ and $C = \sqrt{T}$. Then, we can solve for R and T :

$$T = \frac{4k_1k_2}{(k_1 + k_2)^2} \quad R = \left(\frac{k_1 - k_2}{k_1 + k_2} \right)^2$$

If $E < V_0$, nothing is transmitted and therefore $T = 0$ and $R = 1$.

3.3.1 Example: 1D finite potential barrier



An incoming plane wave from the left hits a potential barrier with length l . The Transmission coefficient tells, how much of the wave can continue at the other side of the barrier (quantum tunneling).

In **Region 1 and 3**, the general expression for the wave equation is the following:

$$\psi_j(x) = A_j e^{ik_j x} + A'_j e^{-ik_j x}, \quad k_j = \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}, \quad j \in \{1, 3\}$$

In **Region 2**, the expression is depending on V_0 . There are two cases:

1. $E < V_0$: $\varphi_2 = B_2 e^{\delta_2 x} + B'_2 e^{-\delta_2 x}$, $\delta_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2}}$
2. $E > V_0$: $\varphi_2 = A_2 e^{ik_2 x} + A'_2 e^{-ik_2 x}$, $k_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2m(E - V_0)}{\hbar^2}}$

Apply **boundary conditions** at $x = -l/2$ and $x = l/2$ in order to determine all constants. If the wave is only traveling from left to right, then $A'_3 = 0$.

$$\psi_1(-l/2) = \psi_2(-l/2), \quad \psi_2(l/2) = \psi_3(l/2)$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_1(-l/2) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_2(-l/2), \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_2(l/2) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_3(l/2)$$

Then, the **transmission coefficient** T and the **reflection coefficient** R can be calculated as following:

$$R = \left(\frac{A_1}{A'_1} \right)^2, \quad T = \left(\frac{A_3}{A_1} \right)^2$$

$$T = \frac{4E(V_0 - E)}{4E(V_0 - E) + V_0^2 \sinh^2(\delta_2 l)} \quad T = \frac{4E(V_0 - E)}{4E(V_0 - E) + V_0^2 \sin^2(k_2 l)}$$

If $E > V_0$, the transmission coefficient has a maximum. If $k_2 l = n\pi \Rightarrow T = 1$ (**resonance**). The minimum of T is at: $k_2 l = \pi/2 + n\pi$.

4 Wave Function Space (Hilbert Space)

4.1 Inner Product

The inner product $\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle$ is defined like the scalar product for vectors. If the inner product $\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = 0$, ψ_1, ψ_2 are **orthogonal**.

$$\langle \psi_1 | \psi_2 \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_1^*(\mathbf{x}, t) \psi_2(\mathbf{x}, t) d^3 \mathbf{x}$$

$$\langle \psi | \psi \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t) \psi(\mathbf{x}, t) d^3 \mathbf{x} = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)|^2 d^3 \mathbf{x} = 1$$

4.2 Fourier Transform

$$\psi(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\frac{ipx}{\hbar}} \varphi(p) dp, \quad \varphi(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\frac{ipx}{\hbar}} \psi(x) dx$$

$$\psi(\vec{x}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\frac{i\vec{p}\vec{x}}{\hbar}} \varphi(\vec{p}) d\vec{p}, \quad \varphi(\vec{p}) = \frac{1}{(2\pi\hbar)^{3/2}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{\frac{i\vec{p}\vec{x}}{\hbar}} \psi(\vec{x}) d\vec{x}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_1^*(x) \cdot \psi_2(x) \cdot dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi_1^*(p) \cdot \varphi_2(p) \cdot dp$$

5 Observable Measurements, Time-dependence

Doing a measurement in quantum mechanics (observable) can be interpreted as applying an operator \hat{A} on the wave function $\psi(\mathbf{x}, t)$. For example, to compute the expected position $\langle \mathbf{x} \rangle_\psi$, we apply the operator $\hat{\mathbf{x}} = \mathbf{x}$ to average the wave function:

$$\langle \mathbf{x} \rangle_\Psi = \iiint \Psi^*(\mathbf{x}, t) \cdot \mathbf{x} \cdot \Psi(\mathbf{x}, t) d^3\mathbf{x} = \iiint \mathbf{x} \cdot |\Psi(\mathbf{x}, t)|^2 d^3\mathbf{x}$$

Name	Operator
Position	$\hat{\mathbf{x}} = [\mathbf{x}]$
Momentum	$\hat{\mathbf{p}} = [-i\hbar \nabla]$
Hamiltonian	$\hat{H} = \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V(\mathbf{x})\right]$

$$\nabla = \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \right]^T$$

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

5.1 Canonical commutation relation

The commutators is a way of describing the effect of the order, in which multiple operators are applied.

$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}, \quad [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = -[\hat{B}, \hat{A}], \quad [\hat{A}, \hat{A}] = 0$$

$$[\hat{A}, (\hat{B} + \hat{C})] = [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] + [\hat{A}, \hat{C}]$$

$$[\hat{p}_x, \hat{p}_y] = 0, \quad [\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar, \quad [\hat{z}, \hat{p}_x] = [\hat{z}, \hat{p}_y] = 0$$

5.2 Eigenstates and Eigenvalues

An Observable has an Operator \hat{A} . a state $u_n(x)$ is called an eigenstate the operator applied on the wave function acts like a scalar multiplication to it. Then, the measurement of the general state $\psi(x)$ is a superposition of all the eigenstates.

$$\hat{A}u_n(x) = a_n u_n(x), \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} u_n^*(x) \hat{A}u_n(x) dx = a_n \quad \hat{A}\psi(x) = \sum_n c_n u_n(x)$$

5.3 Harmonic Oscillator

A Quantum mechanical harmonic oscillator can be interpreted as the solution to the Schrödinger equation:

$$\left[\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x) \right] \psi(x) = E\psi(x), \quad V(x) = \frac{1}{2}kx^2 = \frac{m\omega^2}{2}x^2$$

To simplify the equation, we define a new length scale and energy:

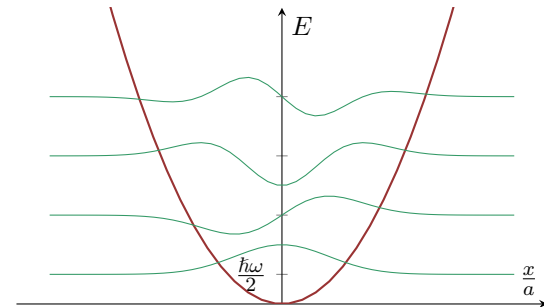
$$a = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{m\omega}}, \quad \tilde{x} = \frac{x}{a}, \quad \tilde{E} = \frac{E}{\hbar\omega} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \left[-\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \tilde{x}^2} + \tilde{x}^2 \right] \varphi(\tilde{x}) = \tilde{E} \varphi(\tilde{x})$$

Then, the solutions to the equation is:

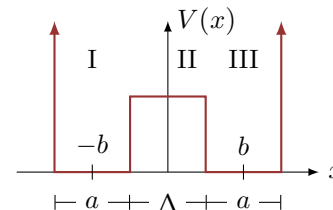
$$E_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right) \hbar\omega, \quad \psi(\tilde{x}) = c_n H_n(\tilde{x}) e^{-\tilde{x}^2/2}, \quad H_n(\tilde{x}) = (-1)^n e^{\tilde{x}^2} \cdot \frac{\partial^n}{\partial \tilde{x}^n} e^{-\tilde{x}^2}$$

$$H_0(\tilde{x}) = 1, \quad H_1(\tilde{x}) = 2\tilde{x}, \quad H_2(\tilde{x}) = 4\tilde{x}^2 - 2, \quad H_3(\tilde{x}) = 8\tilde{x}^3 - 12\tilde{x}$$

$$\Psi_n(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt[4]{\pi} \sqrt{2^n n!} a} \cdot H_n\left(\frac{x}{a}\right) e^{-\frac{x^2}{2a^2}}$$



5.4 The coupled quantum well

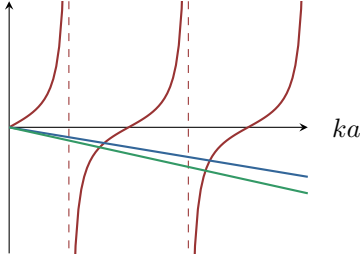


This is the simplified potential of an ammonia molecule NH_3 . The wave function outside the well ($|x| > b + \frac{a}{2}$) is zero. There exists a symmetric, as well as an antisymmetric solution. We consider the case: $E < V_0$

$$\psi_{II} = \begin{cases} \mu \cosh(\delta x) & \text{symmetric} \\ \mu \sinh(\delta x) & \text{antisymmetric} \end{cases}$$

$$k = \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}, \quad \delta = \sqrt{\frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2}}$$

$\tan(ka)$



$$\begin{aligned} \text{symmetric: } \varepsilon_s &= \frac{1 + e^{-\delta\Delta}}{\delta a} \\ \text{antisymmetric: } \varepsilon_a &= \frac{1 - e^{-\delta\Delta}}{\delta a} \\ \tan(ka) &= -ka\varepsilon = -ka \frac{1 \pm e^{-\delta\Delta}}{\delta a} \end{aligned}$$

Now, we can create a superposition of both the symmetric and the antisymmetric case:

$$\psi_{sI} = +\lambda \sin\left(k\left(b - \frac{a}{2} + x\right)\right), \quad \psi_{sIII} = +\lambda \sin\left(k\left(b - \frac{a}{2} + x\right)\right)$$

$$\psi_{aI} = -\lambda \sin\left(k\left(b - \frac{a}{2} + x\right)\right), \quad \psi_{aIII} = +\lambda \sin\left(k\left(b - \frac{a}{2} + x\right)\right)$$

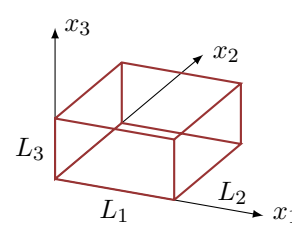
$$\Psi_L = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\Psi_s - \Psi_a), \quad \Psi_R = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(\Psi_s + \Psi_a)$$

$$\Psi_L(x, t) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e^{-i\omega_s t} \left(\psi_s(x) - e^{-i(\omega_a - \omega_s)t} \psi_a(x) \right)$$

$$\omega_a = \frac{E_a}{\hbar}, \quad \omega_s = \frac{E_s}{\hbar}, \quad E_a - E_s = \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2m\delta a^2} \cdot 8e^{-\delta\Delta}$$

From the formula describing the wave equation, we can see that at t_0 , the particle can only be found in region I, and after some time $t_{1/2}$, the particle can only be found in region III. The particle has tunneled from one side to the other. Now, we can define a period $T = \frac{2\pi\hbar}{E_a - E_s}$

6 Schrödinger Equation in 3D



$$V(x_i) = \begin{cases} 0 & \text{if } 0 < x_i < L_i \\ \infty & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

$$V(x, y, z) = V(x_1) + V(x_2) + V(x_3)$$

$$\psi(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \psi_1(x_1) \cdot \psi_2(x_2) \cdot \psi_3(x_3)$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{\psi_1''(x_1)}{\psi_1(x_1)} + \frac{\psi_2''(x_2)}{\psi_2(x_2)} + \frac{\psi_3''(x_3)}{\psi_3(x_3)} \right] + V(x_1) + V(x_2) + V(x_3) = E$$

This equation can be separated into three smaller equations for every spacial dimension x_i

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_i^2} \psi_i(x_i) + V(x_i) \psi_i(x_i) = E_i \psi_i(x_i)$$

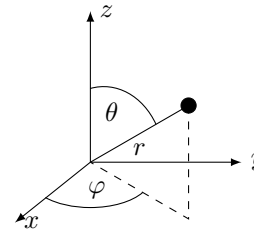
$$E_i^{(n_i)} = n_i^2 \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{2mL_i^2}, \quad \psi_i^{(n_i)} = A \cdot \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_i x_i}{L_i}\right)$$

After normalizing, the wave function can be written as:

$$\psi(x_1, x_2, x_3) = \sqrt{\frac{8}{L_1 L_2 L_3}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_1 x_1}{L_1}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_2 x_2}{L_2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{\pi n_3 x_3}{L_3}\right)$$

When $L_1 = L_2 = L_3$, there sometimes exists multiple states (**degeneracies**) for the same energy $E = E_1 + E_2 + E_3$. Now, we can generate new solutions to the wave function via superposition of those states. In general, degeneracies arise from symmetries (obvious or hidden).

6.1 Schrödinger Equation in spherical coordinates



$$x = r \sin \theta \cos \varphi$$

$$y = r \sin \theta \sin \varphi$$

$$z = r \cos \theta$$

$$\psi_{n\ell m}(r, \theta, \varphi) = R_{n\ell}(r) \cdot Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \varphi) = R_{n\ell}(r) \cdot P_{\ell}^m(\cos \theta) e^{im\varphi}$$

The angular part $Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \varphi)$ can be written as:

$$P_{\ell}^m(x) = (i - x^2)^{\frac{|m|}{2}} \frac{d^{|m|}}{dx^{|m|}} P_{\ell}(x) \quad P_{\ell}(x) = \frac{1}{2^{\ell} \cdot \ell!} \frac{\partial^{\ell}}{dx^{\ell}} (x^2 - 1)^{\ell}$$

The solution to Y will be a **spherical harmonic**. Finally, we must apply the normalization

$$\int_0^{\infty} |R(r)|^2 r^2 dr = 1, \quad \int_{\theta=0}^{\pi} \int_{\varphi=-\pi}^{\pi} |Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \varphi)|^2 \sin \theta d\varphi d\theta = 1$$

These solutions are the same as **spherical harmonics**. They form an **orthogonal basis**, meaning that every well-behaved function $f(\theta, \varphi)$ can be expressed as a superposition of those harmonics.

6.1.1 Hydrogen Atom

The radial part $R_{n\ell}$ of the hydrogen atom with potential $V(r) = \frac{-e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$ can be written as:

$$R_{n\ell}(r) = \frac{1}{r} \rho^{\ell+1} e^{-\rho} v(\rho), \quad \rho = \frac{r}{na_0}, \quad a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{me^2} \approx 5.29 \cdot 10^{-11} \text{ [m]}$$

$$\psi_{n\ell m}(r, \theta, \varphi) = R_{n\ell}(r) Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \varphi) \quad j_{max} = (n - \ell - 1) \geq 0 \quad |m| \leq \ell$$

$v(\rho)$ is a polynomial of degree j_{max} with coefficients: $C_{g+1} = \frac{2(g+l+1-n)}{(g+1)(g+2l+2)} C_g$. For state n , there are $d(n) = n^2$ different solutions (**degeneracies**). The **effective radius** is na_0 . The **probability** of finding an electron between r and $r + dr$ is:

$$p(r)dr = r^2 |R_{n\ell}(r)|^2 dr$$

6.1.2 Quantum Numbers

n is the main quantum number, ℓ is the orbital quantum number and m is the magnetic quantum number (projection of angular momentum). Chemists give the different ℓ 's different names.

- $\ell = 0$: the orbital is called an s-state ($\max p(r)dr$ is at $r = 0$).
- $\ell = 1$: the orbital is called an p-state ($p(r = 0)dr = 0$).
- $\ell = 2$: the orbital is called an d-state.

7 Angular Momentum and Spin

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{L}_x &= \hat{y}\hat{p}_z - \hat{z}\hat{p}_y & \hat{L}_y &= \hat{z}\hat{p}_x - \hat{x}\hat{p}_z & \hat{L}_z &= \hat{x}\hat{p}_y - \hat{y}\hat{p}_x & \hat{\mathbf{L}} &= \det \begin{vmatrix} \mathbf{e}_x & \mathbf{e}_y & \mathbf{e}_z \\ \hat{x} & \hat{y} & \hat{z} \\ \hat{p}_x & \hat{p}_y & \hat{p}_z \end{vmatrix} \\ [\hat{L}_x, \hat{L}_y] &= i\hbar \hat{L}_z & [\hat{L}_y, \hat{L}_z] &= i\hbar \hat{L}_x & [\hat{L}_z, \hat{L}_x] &= i\hbar \hat{L}_y \end{aligned}$$

$$\hat{L}_x = i\hbar \left(\sin \varphi \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + \frac{\cos \theta \cos \varphi}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} \right), \quad \hat{L}_y = -i\hbar \left(\cos \varphi \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} - \frac{\cos \theta \sin \varphi}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} \right)$$

$$\hat{L}_z = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi}, \quad \hat{L}^2 = -\hbar^2 \left[\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \varphi^2} \right]$$

Angular momentum operators do not commute. In order to get commutable operators, we introduce $\hat{L}^2 = \hat{L}_x^2 + \hat{L}_y^2 + \hat{L}_z^2$

$$[\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_x] = 0, \quad [\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_y] = 0, \quad [\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}_z] = 0$$

$$\hat{L}^2 Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \varphi) = \hbar^2 \ell(\ell+1) Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \varphi), \quad \hat{L}_z Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \varphi) = \hbar m Y_{\ell}^m(\theta, \varphi)$$

7.1 Ladder Operator

If a ladder operators $\hat{L}_{\pm} = \hat{L}_x \pm i\hat{L}_y$ are used in the following way: Suppose, we have a wave function ψ , which is simultaneously an eigenfunction of \hat{L}^2 and \hat{L}_z . Then, $\hat{L}_{\pm}\psi$ is also an eigenfunction of \hat{L}^2 and \hat{L}_z with the following eigenvalues:

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{L}^2 \psi &= \lambda \psi, & \hat{L}_z \psi &= \mu \psi \\ \hat{L}^2 (\hat{L}_{\pm} \psi) &= \lambda (\hat{L}_{\pm} \psi), & \hat{L}_z (\hat{L}_{\pm} \psi) &= (\mu \pm \hbar) (\hat{L}_{\pm} \psi) \end{aligned}$$

7.2 Spin

Idea: $\ell = \frac{1}{2} \rightarrow m = \pm \frac{1}{2}$. Instead of using ℓ , we use s to describe the spin. The operators \hat{L}_i are now called \hat{S}_i . We define the spin as $|s, m_s\rangle$:

$$\chi_+ = \left| \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = |\uparrow\rangle, \quad \chi_- = \left| \frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2} \right\rangle = |\downarrow\rangle, \quad \chi = a\chi_+ + \beta\chi_- = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}, \quad |a|^2 + |b|^2 = 1$$

Since we have now only two eigenstates $|\uparrow\rangle$ and $|\downarrow\rangle$, we can write:

$$\hat{S}^2 = \frac{3}{4}\hbar^2 \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{S}_x = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{S}_y = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{S}_z = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Now, we define the ladder operators in the same way as for the angular momentum:

$$\hat{S}_+ = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & \hbar \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{S}_- = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ \hbar & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \hat{S}_+ |\uparrow\rangle = \hat{S}_- |\downarrow\rangle = 0, \quad \hat{S}_+ |\downarrow\rangle = \hbar |\uparrow\rangle, \quad \hat{S}_- |\uparrow\rangle = \hbar |\downarrow\rangle$$

We can write states in dirac notation as: $|\ell, m\rangle$. For spins, we get:

$$|1, 1\rangle = |\uparrow\uparrow\rangle, \quad |1, -1\rangle = |\downarrow\downarrow\rangle, \quad |1, 0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle + |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle), \quad |0, 0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\uparrow\downarrow\rangle - |\downarrow\uparrow\rangle)$$

7.3 Identical Particles

When we have two particles with wave function $\varphi_a(\vec{x}_1)$ and $\varphi_b(\vec{x}_2)$, we can combine them in two different ways:

- **Fermion:** $\psi_- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\varphi_a(\vec{x}_1)\varphi_b(\vec{x}_2) - \varphi_b(\vec{x}_1)\varphi_a(\vec{x}_2))$: symmetric (electron)
- **Boson:** $\psi_+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\varphi_a(\vec{x}_1)\varphi_b(\vec{x}_2) + \varphi_b(\vec{x}_1)\varphi_a(\vec{x}_2))$: antisymmetric (photon)

Pauli exclusion principle: **Two fermions cannot occupy the same identical state**

7.3.1 Exchange Interactions

We have two particles, which have normalized and orthogonal wave functions. We have three different interactions:

1. The particles are **distinguishable**: $\psi = \psi_a(x_1)\psi_b(x_2)$

$$\left\langle (x_1 - x_2)^2 \right\rangle_{\psi} = \langle x^2 \rangle_{\psi_a} + \langle x^2 \rangle_{\psi_b} - 2 \langle x \rangle_{\psi_a} \langle x \rangle_{\psi_b}$$

2. **Symmetric** wave function: $\psi_+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi_a\rangle |\psi_b\rangle + |\psi_b\rangle |\psi_a\rangle)$

$$\left\langle (x_1 - x_2)^2 \right\rangle_{\psi} = \langle x^2 \rangle_{\psi_a} + \langle x^2 \rangle_{\psi_b} - 2 |\langle \psi_a | x | \psi_b \rangle|^2$$

3. **Antisymmetric** wave function: $\psi_- = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|\psi_a\rangle |\psi_b\rangle - |\psi_b\rangle |\psi_a\rangle)$

$$\left\langle (x_1 - x_2)^2 \right\rangle_{\psi} = \langle x^2 \rangle_{\psi_a} + \langle x^2 \rangle_{\psi_b} + 2 |\langle \psi_a | x | \psi_b \rangle|^2$$

This means, that the particles are closer together in the antisymmetric case than in the symmetric case. But this does not account for the spin. Because of Pauli's exclusion principle, the electrons must be in a different state, therefore they have different spin. The total angular momentum can be either $|0, 0\rangle$ or $|1, 0\rangle$. Those are both antisymmetric wave functions. Therefore, the radial part must be symmetric, in which case, both electrons are attracted to each other.

7.4 Many Electrons: Atomic Shells

Electrons with $n = 2$ are further away from the nucleus than electrons with $n = 1$. Therefore, those further away see a different (smaller) effective charge than those in the inner shell.

To write the wave function of an electron, we use the notation indexed by: $|n, \ell, m\rangle$.

shell n	subshell ℓ	max e^- in subshell	max e^- in shell
K	1s	2	2
L	2s	2	2 + 6 = 8
	2p	6	
M	3s	2	2 + 6 + 10 = 18
	3p	6	
	3d	10	

Here, the number of degeneracies per shell is displayed. Remember, we have $n \geq 1$, $0 \leq \ell \leq n$, $-\ell \leq m \leq \ell$, and for every different state, the electron can have either spin up or spin down. So, the number of electrons in a sub shell is the number of degeneracies.

8 Useful formulas

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-ax^2} dx = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{a}} \quad \int_0^{\infty} x e^{-ax^2} dx = \frac{1}{2a} \quad \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-ax^2} dx = \frac{\sqrt{\pi}}{2a^{3/2}}$$

$$\int x^n e^{cx} dx = e^{cx} \sum_{i=0}^n (-1)^{n-i} \frac{n!}{i! c^{n-i+1}} x^i \quad \int_0^{\infty} x^n e^{-cx} dx = \frac{n!}{c^{n+1}}$$

$$\text{Gaussian: } G = A \cdot e^{-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}}$$

8.1 Trigonometry

$$\begin{aligned} \sin(2\alpha) &= 2 \sin \alpha \cos \alpha & \cos(2\alpha) &= \cos^2 \alpha - \sin^2 \alpha \\ \sin(\alpha \pm \beta) &= \sin(\alpha) \cos(\beta) \pm \cos(\alpha) \sin(\beta) & \cos(\alpha \pm \beta) &= \cos(\alpha) \cos(\beta) \mp \sin(\alpha) \sin(\beta) \\ \sin(\alpha) \pm \sin(\beta) &= 2 \sin \frac{\alpha \pm \beta}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha \mp \beta}{2} & \cos(\alpha) + \cos(\beta) &= 2 \cos \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \cos \frac{\alpha - \beta}{2} \\ \cos(\alpha) - \cos(\beta) &= -2 \sin \frac{\alpha + \beta}{2} \sin \frac{\alpha - \beta}{2} & \sin(\alpha) \sin(\beta) &= \frac{1}{2} (\cos(\alpha - \beta) - \cos(\alpha + \beta)) \\ \cos(\alpha) \cos(\beta) &= \frac{1}{2} (\cos(\alpha - \beta) + \cos(\alpha + \beta)) & \sin(\alpha) \cos(\beta) &= \frac{1}{2} (\sin(\alpha - \beta) + \sin(\alpha + \beta)) \\ \sin^2 \alpha &= \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos 2\alpha) & \cos^2 \alpha &= \frac{1}{2} (1 + \cos 2\alpha) \\ \sin^3 \alpha &= \frac{1}{4} (3 \sin \alpha - \sin 3\alpha) & \cos^3 \alpha &= \frac{1}{4} (3 \cos \alpha + \cos 3\alpha) \\ \frac{\sin 2\alpha}{\sin \alpha} &= 2 \cos \alpha & \sin \alpha \cos \alpha &= \frac{1}{2} \sin 2\alpha \\ c^2 &= a^2 + b^2 - 2ab \cos \gamma & \frac{a}{\sin \alpha} = \frac{b}{\sin \beta} = \frac{c}{\sin \gamma} &= 2r = \frac{u}{\pi} \end{aligned}$$

9 Periodic Table of the Elements

12.201s H Hydrogen 1.00784– 1.00811																		21s He Helium 4.002602(2)																	
30.982s Li Lithium 6.938–6.997	41.572s Be Beryllium 9.0121831(5)	<div><div>Zenegss</div><div>Sy</div><div>Name</div><div>saw</div></div> <div>Z = atomic number; eneg = electronegativity; ss = subshell; Sy = Symbol, Name = element name, saw = standard atomic weight</div>																52.042p B Boron 10.806–10.821	62.552p C Carbon 12.0096– 12.0116	73.042p N Nitrogen 14.00643– 14.00728	83.442p O Oxygen 15.99903– 15.99977	93.982p F Fluorine 18.998403163(6)	103.982p Ne Neon 20.1797(6)												
110.933s Na Sodium 22.98976928(2)	121.313s Mg Magnesium 24.304–24.307																	131.613p Al Aluminium 26.9815385(7)	141.903p Si Silicon 28.084–28.086	152.193p P Phosphorus 30.973761998(5)	162.583p S Sulphur 32.059–32.076	173.163p Cl Chlorine 35.446–35.457	183.943p Ar Argon 39.948(1)												
190.824s K Potassium 39.0983(1)	201.004s Ca Calcium 40.078(4)	211.363d Sc Scandium 44.95908(5)	221.543d Ti Titanium 47.867(1)	231.633d V Vanadium 50.9415(1)	241.663d* Cr Chromium 51.9961(6)	251.553d Mn Manganese 54.938044(3)	261.833d Fe Iron 55.845(2)	271.883d Co Cobalt 58.933194(4)	281.913d Ni Nickel 58.6934(4)	291.903d* Cu Copper 63.546(3)	301.653d Zn Zinc 65.38(2)	311.814p Ga Gallium 69.723(1)	322.014p Ge Germanium 72.630(8)	332.184p As Arsenic 74.921595(6)	342.554p Se Selenium 78.971(8)	352.964p Br Bromine 79.901–79.907	363.004p Kr Krypton 83.798(2)	370.825s Rb Rubidium 85.4678(3)	380.955s Sr Strontium 87.62(1)	391.224d Y Yttrium 88.90584(2)	401.334d Zr Zirconium 91.224(2)	411.64d Nb Niobium 92.90637(2)	422.164d* Mo Molybdenum 95.95(1)	431.94d Tc Technetium (98)	442.24d* Ru Ruthenium 101.07(2)	452.284d* Rh Rhodium 102.90550(2)	462.204d Pd Palladium 106.42(1)	471.934d* Ag Silver 107.8682(2)	481.694d Cd Cadmium 112.414(4)	491.785p In Indium 114.818(1)	501.965p Sn Tin 118.710(7)	512.055p Sb Antimony 121.760(1)	522.15p Te Tellurium 127.60(3)	532.665p I Iodine 126.90447(3)	542.605p Xe Xenon 131.293(6)
550.796s Cs Cesium 132.90545196(6)	560.896s Ba Barium 137.327(7)	57–71 * Lanthanides	721.35d Hf Hafnium 178.49(2)	731.55d Ta Tantalum 180.94788(2)	742.365d W Tungsten 183.84(1)	751.95d Re Rhenium 186.207(1)	762.25d Os Osmium 190.23(3)	772.205d Ir Iridium 192.227(3)	782.285d* Pt Platinum 195.084(9)	792.545d* Au Gold 196.966569(5)	802.005d Hg Mercury 200.592(3)	811.626p Tl Thallium 204.382– 204.385	821.876p Pb Lead 207.2(1)	832.026p Bi Bismuth 208.98040(1)	842.06p Po Polonium (209)	852.26p At Astatine (210)	862.26p Rn Radon (222)	870.77s Fr Francium (223)	880.97s Ra Radium (226)	89–103 ** Actinides	1046d Rf Rutherfordium (261)	1056d Db Dubnium (268)	1066d Sg Seaborgium (269)	1076d Bh Bohrium (270)	1086d Hs Hassium (269)	1096d Mt Meitnerium (278)	1106d Ds Darmstadtium (281)	1116d Rg Roentgenium (282)	1126d Cn Copernicium (285)	1137p Nh Nihonium (286)	1147p Fl Flerovium (289)	1157p Mc Moscovium (289)	1167p Lv Livermorium (293)	1177p Ts Tennessine (294)	1187p Og Oganesson (294)
* **			571.15d* La Lanthanum 138.90547(7)	581.124f* Ce Cerium 140.116(1)	591.134f Pr Praseodymium 140.90766(2)	601.144f Nd Neodymium 144.242(3)	611.134f Pm Promethium (145)	621.174f Sm Samarium 150.36(2)	631.24f Eu Europium 151.964(1)	641.24f* Gd Gadolinium 157.25(3)	651.14f Tb Terbium 158.92535(2)	661.224f Dy Dysprosium 162.500(1)	671.234f Ho Holmium 164.93033(2)	681.244f Er Erbium 167.259(3)	691.254f Tm Thulium 168.93422(2)	701.14f Yb Ytterbium 173.045(10)	711.274f Lu Lutetium 174.9668(1)	891.16d* Ac Actinium (227)	901.35f* Th Thorium 232.0377(4)	911.55f* Pa Protactinium 231.03588(2)	921.385f* U Uranium 238.02891(3)	931.365f* Np Neptunium (237)	941.285f Pu Plutonium (244)	951.135f Am Americium (243)	961.285f* Cm Curium (247)	971.35f Bk Berkelium (247)	981.35f Cf Californium (251)	991.35f Es Einsteinium (252)	1001.35f Fm Fermium (257)	1011.35f Md Mendelevium (258)	1021.35f No Nobelium (259)	1031.35f Lr Lawrencium (266)			

Standard atomic weights taken from the Commission on Isotopic Abundances and Atomic Weights (ciaaw.org/atomic-weights.htm). Adapted from Ivan Griffin's L^AT_EX Periodic Table. © 2017 Paul Danese

An asterisk (*) next to a subshell indicates an anomalous (Aufbau rule-breaking) ground state electron configuration.