

Relativistic Klein-Gordon Equation & H-atom

refs. Davydov #54 & 58;
Sakurai Sec. 3.1.★

1) We have by now calculated the H-atom energies to terms of $O(\alpha^2)$ [Bohr energies] and $O(\alpha^1)$ [$\vec{S} \cdot \vec{L}$ coupling + relativistic K.E. correction]. It would be "nice" to have a wave equation, beyond Schrödinger's $i\hbar \partial \Psi / \partial t = \hat{H} \Psi$, whose solutions gave the H-atom energies correct to all orders in α .

The first attempt to produce a relativistically correct wave equation was made by E. Schrödinger, and proceeded from the relativistic energy-momentum relation...

$$\rightarrow E^2 = (\vec{p}c)^2 + (mc^2)^2, \text{ for a particle of rest-mass } m. \quad (1)$$

Here $E = \gamma mc^2$ is the total particle energy, $\vec{p} = \gamma m \vec{v}$ is its relativistic three-momentum, and $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}$ is the usual dilation factor. If we define a momentum four-vector by...

$$\left[\begin{aligned} P = (\vec{p}, \frac{i}{c} E) = (P_\mu) \quad \mu=1,2,3,4 \quad \int \quad P_k = p_k, \quad k=1,2,3 \text{ [ordinary 3-mom]}, \\ P_4 = i(E/c) \text{ [4th comp}^t = i \times \text{energy}]; \end{aligned} \right. \quad (2)$$

$$\left[\begin{aligned} \text{So } P^2 = P_\mu P_\mu = P_k P_k + P_4^2 = \vec{p}^2 - (E/c)^2 \leftarrow \text{summation convention} \end{aligned} \right.$$

... then Eq. (1) is succinctly written as:

$$\boxed{P_\mu P_\mu + (mc)^2 = 0}. \quad (3)$$

Clearly P has the Lorentz-invariant length: $P_\mu P_\mu = -(mc)^2$. Conversion of Eq. (3) to a QM wave equation proceeds by the standard operator prescription:

$$P_k = p_k \rightarrow (-i\hbar) \frac{\partial}{\partial x_k} \quad ; \quad P_4 = \frac{i}{c} E \rightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x_4}, \quad \text{w/ } \underline{x_4 = ict}$$

... [the position 4-vector is: $R = (\vec{r}, ict)$, i.e. $R_k = x_k$ & $R_4 = ict$]...

$$\xrightarrow{\text{So}} P_\mu \rightarrow -i\hbar \partial / \partial x_\mu, \text{ for passage to QM.} \quad (4)$$

★ Sakurai's "other book", i.e. "Advanced QM" (Addison-Wesley, 1967). A real page-turner...

By multiplying Eq. (3) on the right by a wave function $\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$, and using Eq. (4):

$$[P_\mu P_\mu + (mc)^2] \psi = 0 \rightarrow \left[-\hbar^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_\mu^2} + (mc)^2 \right] \psi = 0$$

$$\text{or } \boxed{\left[\partial^2 / \partial x_\mu^2 - k_0^2 \right] \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) = 0} \quad \begin{cases} \text{sum on } \mu = 1, 2, 3, 4; \\ k_0 = mc/\hbar \end{cases} \quad (5)$$

This eqn is known as the free-particle Klein-Gordon Equation. It can be shown easily to be "Lorentz covariant" (i.e. has same form in all inertial frames) -- this is because $P_\mu P_\mu$ has an invariant length. In more familiar terms, Eq. (5) is just an inhomogeneous wave eqn: $[\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} - k_0^2] \psi = 0$, whose solutions are well known from classical EM theory.

Schrödinger actually wrote Eq. (5) in ~1925, but quickly discarded it, because -- as we shall show -- it did not predict the correct H-atom energies. In fact Eq. (5) "works" only for spin-zero particles. Klein & Gordon realized this in 1926, and got some mileage out of it.

REMARKS Re free-particle KG Eqn: $(\partial^2 / \partial x_\mu^2 - k_0^2) \psi = 0$.

1. The wavefn ψ here has only one component (it is not a spinor), so it must transform a scalar under a Lorentz transfⁿ. This means that the particles m described by ψ can have no degrees of freedom other than translations in space-time -- in particular, m cannot have a nonzero spin. So the KG Eqn can only handle spinless particles (e.g. π or K -mesons); it can't handle electrons.
2. Another "problem" with the KG Eqn... it is 2nd order in $\partial/\partial t$ (compare with Schrödinger Eqn, 1st order in $\partial/\partial t$), and so to solve it we must specify initial conditions on both ψ and $\partial\psi/\partial t$. We no longer have the convenient Schrodinger-type time evolution: $\psi(0) \rightarrow \psi(t) = \exp(-\frac{i}{\hbar} H_0 t) \psi(0)$; we also need to know $\partial\psi/\partial t$, in addition to the initial state.

3. There is also a problem with the sign of the energy: $E = \pm \sqrt{(\vec{p}c)^2 + (mc^2)^2}$ are both valid solutions to Eq. (1). This shows up in a more subtle way when we try to write a QM continuity eqn for KG. Do the usual maneuver for a free particle, viz.

$$\psi^* \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_\mu^2} - k_0^2 \right) \psi = 0, \text{ and } : \psi \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_\mu^2} - k_0^2 \right) \psi^* = 0 \leftarrow \text{subtract these...}$$

$$\xrightarrow{\text{so}} \partial S_\mu / \partial x_\mu = 0, \quad \text{w/} \quad S_\mu = \frac{\hbar}{2im} \left(\psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x_\mu} - \psi \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial x_\mu} \right). \quad (6)$$

(S_μ) is the QM probability 4-current. In more familiar terms...

$$\left[(S_\mu) = (\vec{S}, ic\rho), \quad \text{w/} \quad \frac{\partial S_\mu}{\partial x_\mu} = 0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{S} + \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial t} = 0} \right], \quad (7)$$

$$\text{Where: } \vec{S} = \frac{\hbar}{2im} (\psi^* \vec{\nabla} \psi - \psi \vec{\nabla} \psi^*) \leftarrow \text{probability 3-current}; \quad (8a)$$

$$\text{and: } \rho = \frac{i\hbar}{2mc^2} \left(\psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} - \psi \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial t} \right) = -\frac{\hbar}{mc^2} \text{Im} \left(\psi^* \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \right) \quad \left. \begin{array}{l} \text{probability} \\ \text{density for} \\ \text{KG eqn.} \end{array} \right\} \quad (8b)$$

The current \vec{S} is exactly the same as for the Schrödinger eqn [ref. Sakurai, Eq. (2.4.16); Davydov, Eq. (15.8)], but the probability density is profoundly different than the old familiar $\rho = \psi^* \psi$ from Schrödinger theory. In fact the $\rho(\text{KG})$ of Eq. (8b) is not even positive-definite... it can be (+)ve, (-)ve, or zero, depending on how ψ & $\partial\psi/\partial t$ are assigned as initial values.

By virtue of Eq. (7), we still have a conserved quantity however. Integrate the eqn over all space and convert $\int_\infty \vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{S} d^3x = \oint_\infty \vec{S} \cdot d\vec{A} = 0$. Then...

$$\rightarrow \partial S_\mu / \partial x_\mu = 0 \Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \int_\infty \rho d^3x = 0, \quad \text{i.e.} \quad \boxed{\int_\infty \rho d^3x = \text{time-indept const.}} \quad (9)$$

So the total "probability" $\int_\infty \rho d^3x$ is conserved, but the "time-indept const" in Eq. (9) can still be (+)ve, (-)ve, or zero. In fact $\rho(\text{KG})$ cannot be interpreted as a probability density; it can be interpreted as the particle's charge density [$\rho(\text{KG}) \rightarrow +, -, 0$ corresponds to charge $+e, -e, \text{zero}$]. See Davydov, #55.

2) It is clear that the KG Eqn needs new interpretation, and that it cannot possibly give the correct energies for the H-atom (because it applies to spinless ψ -fields). But we shall solve the KG Eqn for a Coulomb interaction anyway, for two reasons: (1) we can find out how "pionium" works (atom = $p\pi^-$), (2) it will give us practice for a later big game: solution of the Dirac Eqn for the H-atom. The Dirac Eqn is in fact the correct relativistic eqn for $\text{spin} = \frac{1}{2}$ ψ -fields.

To "derive" the KG Eqn for an external EM field specified by the 4-potential:

$$\rightarrow A = (\vec{A}, i\phi) \quad \begin{cases} \text{vector pot. } \vec{A} : \vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}; \\ \text{scalar pot. } \phi : \vec{E} = -\vec{\nabla} \phi - \frac{1}{c} \partial \vec{A} / \partial t; \end{cases} \quad (10)$$

we transform to the "canonical" 4-momentum.* For a particle of charge q ...

$$\rightarrow P_\mu \rightarrow P'_\mu = P_\mu - (q/c) A_\mu \quad \begin{cases} \text{i.e. } (P'_k) = \vec{P} - (q/c) \vec{A}, \\ \text{and } P'_4 = \frac{i}{c} (E - q\phi). \end{cases} \quad (11)$$

Then the free-particle eqn (5) above goes to $[P'_\mu P'_\mu + (mc)^2] \psi = 0$, or...

$$[(P_\mu - \frac{q}{c} A_\mu)^2 + (mc)^2] \psi = 0 \quad \leftarrow \text{set } P_\mu = -i\hbar \partial / \partial x_\mu$$

$$\boxed{\left[\left(\frac{\partial}{\partial x_\mu} - \frac{iq}{\hbar c} A_\mu \right)^2 - k_0^2 \right] \psi = 0} \quad \text{w/ } \underline{k_0 = mc/\hbar}; \quad \begin{cases} (x_\mu) = (x, ict), \\ (A_\mu) = (\vec{A}, i\phi). \end{cases} \quad (12)$$

For our application, the EM field is static, so $\vec{A} = 0$ and Eq. (12) becomes...

$$\rightarrow \left[\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x_k^2} - \frac{1}{c^2} \left(\frac{\partial}{\partial t} + \frac{iq}{\hbar} \phi \right)^2 - k_0^2 \right] \psi = 0. \quad (13)$$

Further, we will be looking for a stationary state of energy E , which can be

* The EM Hamiltonian for q in $(\vec{A}, i\phi)$ is: $H_{EM} = [(\vec{P} - \frac{q}{c} \vec{A})^2 c^2 + (mc^2)^2]^{1/2} + q\phi$ [Jk² Eq. (12.14)] relativistically, and $H_{EM} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2m} (\vec{P} - \frac{q}{c} \vec{A})^2 + q\phi + mc^2$, as $c \rightarrow \infty$ [Sakurai (2.6.20)]. The "canonical momentum" \vec{P} is written in this way in order to make Hamilton's eqns-of-motion turn out right. In particular, with this \vec{P} , Hamilton's $-\partial H_{EM} / \partial \vec{r} = d\vec{P} / dt$ implies the Lorentz force law: $\frac{d}{dt} (\gamma m \vec{v}) = q(\vec{E} + \frac{1}{c} \vec{v} \times \vec{B})$.

defined by: $(i\hbar \partial/\partial t)\psi = E\psi \Rightarrow \psi(t) \propto e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar}Et}$, so that Eq. (13) becomes...

$$\left[\nabla^2 + \left(\frac{E - q\phi}{\hbar c} \right)^2 - \left(\frac{mc}{\hbar} \right)^2 \right] \psi = 0, \quad \text{KG Eq. for } (q, m) \text{ in potl } \phi. \quad (14)$$

This is the equation we shall solve for $\phi = \text{Coulomb potential}$.

3) Compare KG Eq. (14) with (nonrelativistic) Schrödinger Eqn. Write...

$$V = q\phi, \text{ external potential; } E(\text{total energy}) = mc^2 + \mathcal{E}(\text{ordinary eigenenergy});$$

$$\text{So// KG Eq. (14) is: } \left\{ \nabla^2 + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (\mathcal{E} - V) \left[1 + \left(\frac{\mathcal{E} - V}{2mc^2} \right) \right] \right\} \psi = 0, \quad (15)$$

$$\text{Schrödinger Eq is: } \left\{ \nabla^2 + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (\mathcal{E} - V) [1 + (\text{zero})] \right\} \psi = 0.$$

The two eqns are close, differing only by a term of relative order $\left(\frac{\mathcal{E} - V}{mc^2} \right)$, which vanishes in the nonrelativistic limit $c \rightarrow \infty$. In fact it is clear that the Schrödinger Eq. is just the nonrelativistic limit of the KG Eq.

Another way of comparing Eqs. (15) is to say the energies \mathcal{E} are "perturbed"

$$\left[\mathcal{E}, \text{ Schrödinger Eq.} \rightarrow \mathcal{E} + \frac{1}{2mc^2} (\mathcal{E} - V)^2, \text{ KG Eq.} \right] \quad (16)$$

For ~ nonrelativistic motions, $\mathcal{E} \ll mc^2$, and the additional term is just a perturbation on \mathcal{E} . In passing, we note that the new term is

$$\rightarrow (\mathcal{E} - V)^2 / 2mc^2 \rightarrow (-) V(\text{rel.}) = \beta^4 / 8m^3 c^2, \quad (17)$$

in terms of the relativistic correction we concocted on pp. fs 11-13.

4) For spherically symmetric potentials $V = q\phi = V(r)$, Eq. (14) can be separated into radial & ∇^2 eqns. Assume: $\psi(\vec{r}, t) = \frac{1}{r} R(r) Y_{lm}(\theta, \varphi) e^{-i(E/\hbar)t}$; then the KG radial eqn is:

$$\left[d^2 R / dr^2 + \left\{ \left[\frac{E - V(r)}{\hbar c} \right]^2 - \left(\frac{mc}{\hbar} \right)^2 - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right\} R \right] = 0, \quad (18)$$

KG Solution for Coulomb Potential

fs (19)

where $l=0,1,2,\dots$ is the usual ℓ mom^m quantum#. Put in the Coulomb potential:

$$V(r) = -Ze^2/r = -Z\alpha\hbar c/r, \quad \alpha = e^2/\hbar c \approx \frac{1}{137} \text{ (fs const)};$$

$$\text{sg} \left[\left[\frac{d^2 R}{dr^2} + \left\{ \left[\frac{E^2 - (mc^2)^2}{\hbar^2 c^2} \right] + \left(\frac{2EZ\alpha}{\hbar c} \right) \frac{1}{r} - \frac{\lambda(\lambda+1)}{r^2} \right\} R = 0, \right] \right] \quad (19)$$

$$\text{where: } \lambda(\lambda+1) = l(l+1) - (Z\alpha)^2.$$

Eq. (19) has the same form as the radial Schrodinger eqn for the H-atom [the coefficients are different, and λ replaces l (see Eq. (13) on p. H4 of notes), but the r -dependence is the same]. The standard solution yields bound state energies:

$$\rightarrow \underline{E_{nl} = mc^2 / \left[1 + \left(\frac{Z\alpha}{N+\lambda+1} \right)^2 \right]^{1/2}} \quad \text{w/ } N=0,1,2,3,\dots \text{ radial quantum \#;} \quad (20)$$
$$\lambda = \left[\left(l + \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 - (Z\alpha)^2 \right]^{1/2} - \frac{1}{2} \quad (\lambda \rightarrow l \text{ for } c \rightarrow \infty).$$

The conventional eigenenergies for the problem are ...

$$\boxed{E_{nl} = E_n - mc^2 = mc^2 \left\{ \left[1 + \left(\frac{Z\alpha}{N+\lambda+1} \right)^2 \right]^{-1/2} - 1 \right\}}, \quad \text{correct to all orders in } \alpha. \quad (21)$$

Thru $\mathcal{O}(\alpha^4)$, we get exactly the previous $U(\text{rel})$ correction [Eq. (32), p. fs 13]:

$$\left[E_{nl} \approx E_n \left[1 + \left(\frac{Z\alpha}{n} \right)^2 \left(\frac{n}{l + \frac{1}{2}} - \frac{3}{4} \right) \right] \right] \quad \text{w/ } E_n = -\frac{1}{2} (Z\alpha/n)^2 mc^2, \text{ BOHR } E^5; \quad (22)$$

$\uparrow U(\text{rel.}) \text{ correction}$ $n = N + l + 1 = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, principal q#.

As we have said, this solution cannot give the correct finestructure for an H-atom, because it automatically excludes the spin-orbit interaction, which is of the same size. In fact it is not possible to include a spin-orbit term in the KG Eqn in a Lorentz-covariant fashion, so KG must be discarded as a viable relativistic wave eqn for particles with nonzero spin.

But KG fails here in an interesting way. It will turn out that the Dirac solution for the H-atom energies E_{nj} differs from the E_{nl} in Eq. (20) only by replacing l by $j = l + s$ (i.e. $\lambda_{\text{DIRAC}} = \left[\left(j + \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 - (Z\alpha)^2 \right]^{1/2} - \frac{1}{2}$). More, later.