

Collaborators

I worked with **Andrew Binder** to complete this assignment.

Problem 1

Let \mathbf{a} , and \mathbf{b} be two constant vectors. Show that

$$\int (\mathbf{a} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}})(\mathbf{b} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}) \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = \frac{4\pi}{3}(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b})$$

(the integration is over the usual range: $0 < \theta < \pi, 0 < \phi < 2\pi$). Use this result to demonstrate that

$$\left\langle \frac{3(\mathbf{S}_p \cdot \mathbf{r})(\mathbf{S}_e \cdot \mathbf{r}) - \mathbf{S}_p \mathbf{S}_e}{r^3} \right\rangle = 0$$

for states with $l = 0$. *Hint:* $\hat{\mathbf{r}} = \sin \theta \cos \phi \hat{\mathbf{i}} + \sin \theta \sin \phi \hat{\mathbf{j}} + \cos \theta \hat{\mathbf{k}}$. Do the angular integrals first.

Solution: To do this, we write our vectors in spherical coordinates. After some algebra, we get that the integral is the same as evaluating:

$$\int (\mathbf{a} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}})(\mathbf{b} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}) \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = \int (a_x b_x \sin^2 \theta \cos^2 \phi + a_y b_y \sin^2 \theta \sin^2 \phi + a_z b_z \cos^2 \theta) \cdot \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

(Note that here I've already killed the terms which give us 0 when integrating from 0 to 2π .) This final integral is independent of ϕ , so the integral $\int d\phi = 2\pi$. Therefore, we integrate from $0 < \theta < \pi$:

$$\begin{aligned} \int (\mathbf{a} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}})(\mathbf{b} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{r}}) \sin \theta d\theta d\phi &= \int_0^\pi a_x b_x \pi \sin^3 \theta + a_y b_y \pi \sin^3 \theta + 2\pi a_z b_z \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta \\ &= \pi a_x b_x \int_0^\pi \sin^3 \theta d\theta + \pi a_y b_y \int_0^\pi \sin^3 \theta d\theta + 2\pi a_z b_z \int_0^\pi \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta d\theta \\ &= \frac{4\pi}{3} a_x b_x + \frac{4\pi}{3} a_y b_y + \frac{4\pi}{3} a_z b_z = \frac{4\pi}{3}(\mathbf{a} \cdot \mathbf{b}) \end{aligned}$$

as desired. Now evaluating the expectation value, we first notice that the spin components are independent of r , so this is actually the product of two separate integrals. Also, $Y_{00} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}}$ which is a constant, so combining these two we get:

$$\left\langle \frac{3(\mathbf{S}_p \cdot \mathbf{r})(\mathbf{S}_e \cdot \mathbf{r}) - \mathbf{S}_p \mathbf{S}_e}{r^3} \right\rangle = \int \frac{1}{r^3} R_{n0} dr \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi} \int 3(\mathbf{S}_p \cdot \mathbf{r})(\mathbf{S}_e \cdot \mathbf{r}) - \mathbf{S}_p \mathbf{S}_e d\theta d\phi$$

Now using the identity we just derived, we get:

$$\int \frac{1}{r^3} R_{n0} dr \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi} \int 3(\mathbf{S}_p \cdot \mathbf{r})(\mathbf{S}_e \cdot \mathbf{r}) - \mathbf{S}_p \mathbf{S}_e d\theta d\phi = \int \frac{R_{n0}}{r^3} dr \cdot \frac{1}{4\pi} \int (3(\mathbf{S}_p \cdot \mathbf{r})(\mathbf{S}_e \cdot \mathbf{r}) - \mathbf{S}_p \mathbf{S}_e) \sin \theta d\theta d\phi$$

Now we focus on the angular integral. The first term can be calculated using our identity:

$$\frac{1}{4\pi} \int 3(\mathbf{S}_p \cdot \mathbf{r})(\mathbf{S}_e \cdot \mathbf{r}) = \frac{3}{4\pi} \frac{4\pi}{3} \mathbf{S}_p \mathbf{S}_e = \mathbf{S}_p \mathbf{S}_e$$

Then, since the proton and electron spin are constant, then we can pull $\mathbf{S}_p\mathbf{S}_e$ out of the integral, giving us:

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{1}{4\pi} \int \mathbf{S}_p\mathbf{S}_e \sin \theta d\theta d\phi &= \mathbf{S}_p\mathbf{S}_e \int \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \\ &= \frac{1}{4\pi} \mathbf{S}_p\mathbf{S}_e (4\pi) \\ &= \mathbf{S}_p\mathbf{S}_e\end{aligned}$$

So combining these two terms, we get:

$$\frac{1}{4\pi} \int (3(\mathbf{S}_p \cdot \mathbf{r})(\mathbf{S}_e \cdot \mathbf{r}) - \mathbf{S}_p\mathbf{S}_e) \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = \mathbf{S}_p\mathbf{S}_e - \mathbf{S}_p\mathbf{S}_e = 0$$

as desired. □

Problem 2

When an atom is placed in a uniform external electric field \mathbf{E}_{ext} , the energy levels are shifted – a phenomenon known as the **Stark effect** (it is the electrical analog to the Zeeman effect). In this problem we analyze the Stark effect for the $n = 1$ and $n = 2$ states of hydrogen. Let the field point in the z direction, so the potential energy of the electron is

$$H'_s = eE_{ext}z = eE_{ext}r \cos \theta$$

Treat this as a phenomenon as a perturbation of the Bohr Hamiltonian (Equation 7.43). (Spin is irrelevant to this problem, so ignore it, and neglect the fine structure.)

- (a) Show that the ground state energy is not affected by this perturbation, in first order.

Solution: The integral to first order is:

$$\langle nlm|z|nlm\rangle$$

which is an integral over an even interval of an odd function, so therefore it's zero. \square

- (b) Show that the ground state is four-fold degenerate: $\psi_{200}, \psi_{211}, \psi_{210}, \psi_{21-1}$. Using degenerate perturbation theory, determine the first-order corrections to the energy. Into how many levels does E_2 split?

Solution: The energy in this case is only a function of n , and since these four states (which are also the only allowable states for $n = 2$) share the same value of n , they are degenerate. Calculating the diagonal matrix elements (and skipping the algebra), we get:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle 200|H|200\rangle &= 0 \\ \langle 211|H|211\rangle &= 0 \\ \langle 210|H|210\rangle &= 0 \\ \langle 21-1|H|21-1\rangle &= 0\end{aligned}$$

Now for the off-diagonal terms, I abuse symmetry so I only compute half of them:

$$\begin{aligned}\langle 200|H|211\rangle &= 0 \\ \langle 200|H|210\rangle &= -3a_0 \\ \langle 200|H|21-1\rangle &= 0 \\ \langle 211|H|210\rangle &= 0 \\ \langle 211|H|21-1\rangle &= 0 \\ \langle 210|H|21-1\rangle &= 0\end{aligned}$$

So constructing the full H' we have:

$$H' = eE \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 & -3a_0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ -3a_0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

The eigenvalues of this matrix (which I did via a computer, I'm lazy, and I don't want to type it out) are $\lambda = 0, \pm 3a_0$, with eigenvectors $|211\rangle, |21-1\rangle, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|200\rangle \pm |210\rangle)$. The first two states have an energy correction of 0, and the last two are split by a difference of $6eEa_0$. Therefore, the perturbation

splits the degeneracy into three energy levels, with two states in $E = E_2$ and the other two with $E = E_2 \pm 3eEa_0$. \square

- (c) What are the “good” wave functions for part (b)? Find the expectation value of the electric dipole moment ($\mathbf{p}_e = -e\mathbf{r}$), in each of these “good” states. Notice that the results are independent of the applied field – evidently hydrogen in its first excited state can carry a *permanent* electric dipole moment.

Solution: As mentioned in the previous problem, the “good” wave functions are: $|211\rangle, |21-1\rangle, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}(|200\rangle \pm |210\rangle)$. To calculate the electric dipole moment, we notice that $\langle \mathbf{p} \rangle = -e\langle \mathbf{r} \rangle$. For the two unchanged states $|211\rangle$ and $|21-1\rangle$, we have $\langle r \rangle = 0$, so we have $\langle \mathbf{p} \rangle = 0$ for those states too. Calculating the expectation value for the other term, we have:

$$\langle r \rangle = \int \frac{1}{2} (R_{20}^* Y_{00} \pm R_{21}^* \sqrt{3} \cos \theta Y_{00}^*) (R_{20} Y_{00} \pm R_{21} \sqrt{3} \cos \theta Y_{00})$$

Expanding this out, we get that the non-cross terms evaluate to 0, so this integral becomes:

$$\langle r \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \left[\int R_{20} R_{21}^* |Y_{00}|^2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cos^2 \theta r^3 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi \pm \int R_{20}^* R_{21} |Y_{00}|^2 \cdot 3 \cdot \cos^2 \theta r^3 \sin \theta d\theta d\phi \right]$$

And since R_{20} and R_{21} are real quantities, then this integral simplifies even further:

$$\langle r \rangle = \pm \frac{3}{4\pi} \int R_{20} R_{21} \cos^2 \theta \sin \theta r^3 dr d\theta d\phi$$

The θ integral gives $2/3$ and the ϕ integral gives 2π , so therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle r \rangle &= \pm \int_0^\infty R_{21} R_{20} r^3 dr d\theta d\phi \\ &= \pm \frac{a^{-3}}{2\sqrt{12}} \int_0^\infty r^2 \left(\frac{r}{a} - \frac{r^2}{2a^2} \right) e^{-r/a} dr \\ &= \pm \frac{a^{-3}}{2\sqrt{12}} (24a^4 - 60a^4) \\ &= \pm \frac{36a}{2\sqrt{12}} \\ &= 3\sqrt{3}a \end{aligned}$$

So therefore, the expectation value of the dipole moment that we get is $\langle \mathbf{p} \rangle = 3\sqrt{3}ea$. \square

Problem 3

Calculate the wavelength, in centimeters, of the photon emitted under a hyperfine transition in the ground state ($n = 1$) of **deuterium**. Deuterium is “heavy” hydrogen, with an extra neutron in the nucleus; the proton and neutron bind together to form a **deuteron**, with spin 1 and magnetic moment

$$\mu_d = \frac{g_d e}{2m_d} \mathbf{S}_d$$

the deuteron g -factor is 1.71.

Solution: We use the same formulas, except we replace \mathbf{S}_p with \mathbf{S}_d . Writing out the Hyperfine correction, we have:

$$H'_{hf} = \frac{\mu_0 g_d e^2}{2m_d m_e} \langle \mathbf{S}_d \cdot \mathbf{S}_e \rangle = \frac{\mu_0 g_d e^2}{3m_d m_e} \cdot \frac{1}{2} (S_T^2 - S_e^2 - S_d^2)$$

The electron has spin 1/2, so therefore $S_e^2 = 3/4\hbar^2$. The deuteron has spin 1, so $S_d^2 = (1)(2)\hbar^2 = 2\hbar^2$. There are two possible cases for the total spin: $S_T = 1/2$ and $S_T = 3/2$. This gives the values $S_T^2 = 3/4\hbar^2$ or $S_T^2 = 15/4\hbar^2$ respectively. Since S_d and S_e are the same for both energy states, the energy difference really just comes from the difference in the S_T term. Therefore:

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta E &= \frac{\mu_0 g_d e^2}{3\pi m_d m_e a^3 \pi} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{15}{4} - \frac{3}{4} \right) \hbar^2 \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 g_d e^2}{2m_d m_e a^3 \pi} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \hbar^2 \\ &= \frac{\mu_0 g_d e^2 \hbar^2}{2m_d m_e a^3 \pi} \end{aligned}$$

Finally, the wavelength can be calculated as $\lambda = c/v = hc/\Delta E$, so plugging what we have in, we get:

$$\lambda = \frac{4\pi m_d m_e a^3}{\mu_0 g_d e^2 \hbar} \approx 91.88 \text{ cm}$$

□

Problem 4

- (a) Prove the following corollary to the variational principle: If $\langle \psi | \psi_{gs} \rangle = 0$, then $\langle H \rangle \geq E_{fe}$, where E_{fe} is the energy of the first excited state. *Comment:* If we can find a trial function that is orthogonal to the exact ground state, we can get an upper bound on the *first excited state*. In general, it's difficult to be sure that ψ is orthogonal to ψ_{gs} , since (presumably) we don't *know* the latter. However, if the potential $V(x)$ is a function of x , then the ground state is likewise even, and hence any *odd* trial function will automatically meet the condition for the corollary.

Solution: Consider the representation of ψ in its basis expansion:

$$\psi = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} c_n \psi_n$$

where

$$c_n = \langle \psi_n | \psi \rangle$$

If $\langle \psi | \psi_{gs} \rangle = 0$, then this means that $c_0 = 0$, so we can rewrite our sum as:

$$\psi = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} c_n \psi_n$$

The minimum possible energy for a state written in this form is obviously E_{fe} (this is done by setting all but c_1 equal to zero), which proves the corollary. More explicitly, we can write $\langle H \rangle$ as:

$$\langle H \rangle = \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E_n |c_n|^2 \geq \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} E_{fe} |c_n|^2$$

And since E_{fe} is a constant, then we can pull it out, which gives:

$$\langle H \rangle \geq E_{fe} \sum_{n=1}^{\infty} |c_n|^2 = E_{fe}$$

as desired. □

- (b) Find the best bound on the first excited state of the one-dimensional harmonic oscillator using the trial function

$$\psi(x) = A x e^{-bx^2}$$

Solution: First, we can find A by normalization:

$$1 = |A|^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-2bx^2} dx$$

which we can do with the help of a computer:

$$|A|^2 = \sqrt{\frac{32b^3}{\pi}} \implies A = \sqrt[4]{\frac{32b^3}{\pi}}$$

With this determined, we can calculate $\langle H \rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle H \rangle &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A x e^{-bx^2} \left(-\frac{\hbar}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 x^2 \right) A x e^{-bx^2} dx \\ &= -\frac{|A|^2 \hbar}{2m} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x e^{-bx^2} (2bx e^{-bx^2} + 4b^2 x^3 e^{-bx^2}) dx + \frac{m \omega^2 |A|^2}{2} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-2bx^2} \cdot x^2 dx \end{aligned}$$

Now abusing the power of WolframAlpha, we get:

$$\langle H \rangle = \frac{3\hbar^2 b}{2m} + \frac{3m\omega^2}{8b}$$

To find the best bound, we take $\frac{\partial \langle H \rangle}{\partial b}$, which gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{\partial \langle H \rangle}{\partial b} = 0 &= \frac{3\hbar^2}{2m} - \frac{3m\omega^2}{8b^2} \\ \therefore b^2 &= \frac{m^2\omega^2}{4\hbar^2} \implies b = \frac{m\omega}{2\hbar} \end{aligned}$$

Plugging this value of b back:

$$\langle H \rangle_{min} = \frac{3\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar} \right) + \frac{3m\omega^2}{8 \left(\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar} \right)} = \frac{3}{2} \hbar \omega$$

□

Problem 5

Find the lowest bound on the ground state of hydrogen you can get using a gaussian trial wave function

$$\psi(r) = Ae^{-br^2}$$

where A is determined by normalization and b is an adjustable parameter. *Answer:* -11.5 eV.

Solution: Computing the normalization constant first:

$$1 = |A|^2 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2br^2} r^2 \sin \theta dr d\theta d\phi$$

Again abusing Wolfram:

$$1 = |A|^2 \left(\frac{\pi}{2b}\right)^{3/2} \implies A = \left(\frac{2b}{\pi}\right)^{3/4}$$

Now calculating $\langle H \rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle H \rangle &= \int Ae^{-br^2} \left(\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \right) Ae^{-br^2} dV \\ &= \frac{|A|^2 \hbar^2}{2m} \int Ae^{-br^2} (\nabla^2 e^{-br^2}) - \frac{|A|^2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int e^{-br^2} \frac{1}{r} e^{-br^2} dV \\ &= \frac{|A|^2 \hbar^2}{2m} \int e^{-br^2} \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (r^2 \cdot -2bre^{-br^2}) dV - \frac{|A|^2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \int \frac{1}{r} e^{-2br^2} dV \end{aligned}$$

The integral over θ gives us 2, and the integral over ϕ gives us 2π . Thus, we're left only with the radial portion, which after evaluating the Laplacian is:

$$\langle H \rangle = \frac{A^2 \hbar^2}{m} (4\pi) \int_0^\infty e^{-br^2} (-6br^2 e^{-br^2} + 4r^4 b^2 e^{-br^2}) dr - \frac{|A|^2 e^2}{\epsilon_0} \int_0^\infty r e^{-2br^2} dr$$

Again, using the power of WolframAlpha we get:

$$\langle H \rangle = \frac{3\hbar^2 b}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \sqrt{\frac{2b}{\pi}}$$

Taking the derivative with respect to b , we get:

$$\frac{\partial \langle H \rangle}{\partial b} = 0 = \frac{3\hbar^2}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{1}{2\sqrt{b}} \implies b = \frac{e^4 m^2}{18\pi^3 \epsilon_0^2 \hbar^4}$$

Plugging this back in, we get:

$$\langle H \rangle_{min} = \frac{3\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{e^4 m^2}{18\pi^3 \epsilon_0^2 \hbar^4} \right) - \frac{e^2}{2\pi\epsilon_0} \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \left(\frac{me^2}{\epsilon_0 \hbar^2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{18\pi^3}} \right) \approx -11.5 \text{ eV}$$

□

Problem 6

Apply the Rayleigh-Ritz variational method to a particle in a box of width L to find the ground state energy using a second degree polynomial as a trial wave function.

Solution: We need to select our trial wavefunction to satisfy the condition that $\psi(0) = 0$ and $\psi(L) = 0$, so then we must have:

$$\psi = Ax(L - x)$$

as our second-degree trial function. Computing the normalization constant, we have:

$$1 = |A|^2 \int_0^L x^2 (L - x)^2 dx$$

which through the power of a computer we get:

$$1 = A^2 \frac{L^5}{30} \implies A = \sqrt{\frac{30}{L^5}}$$

Now we can find $\langle H \rangle$:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle H \rangle &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} A^2 \int_0^L x(L - x) \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (x(L - x)) dx \\ &= A^2 \int_0^L x(L - x)(-2) dx \\ &= -\frac{\hbar^2 A^2}{2m} \left(-\frac{L^3}{3} \right) \\ &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(-\frac{L^3}{3} \right) \frac{30}{L^5} \\ &= \frac{5\hbar^2}{mL^2} \end{aligned}$$

□

Problem 7

In Chapter VI we showed that an attractive square well has at least one bound state no matter how weak the potential. Use the Rayleigh-Ritz variational method to prove that this is a general property of *any* potential which is purely attractive. Do this by using the trial function

$$\psi = e^{-\alpha x^2}$$

and showing that α can always be chosen so that $E'(\alpha)$ is negative. (Why does this constitute a proof?)

Solution: The expectation value for any Hamiltonian using this trial wavefunction is:

$$\langle H \rangle = E(\alpha) = \int e^{-\alpha x^2} \left(\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x) \right) e^{-\alpha x^2} dx = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \sqrt{\frac{\alpha\pi}{2}} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2\alpha x^2} V(x) dx$$

For any $V(x)$, we can choose the minimum point of $V(x)$ to equal zero, so that $V(x) > 0$ for all x . Now, we find $E'(\alpha)$:

$$\begin{aligned} E'(\alpha) &= \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2}} \cdot \frac{1}{2\sqrt{\alpha}} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-2\alpha x^2} V(x) dx \\ &= \frac{\hbar^2}{4m} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2\alpha}} + \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{\partial}{\partial \alpha} e^{-2\alpha x^2} V(x) dx \\ &= \frac{\hbar^2}{4m} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{2\alpha}} - \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} 2x^2 V(x) e^{-2\alpha x^2} dx \end{aligned}$$

Now we ask what happens when we vary α . As α gets large, the first term becomes smaller, and at the same time, the second term becomes larger. This is because we can think of the $e^{-2\alpha x^2}$ term almost like a “weight” attached to $2x^2 V(x)$, so by increasing the value of α we are increasing the weight of each term, thereby increasing the total value of the integral. Using this logic, we can imagine a point where we’ve increased α enough such that the second term is larger in magnitude than the first term, which causes $E'(\alpha)$ to become negative. This also works in general, since α can be as large as we want. \square
