

# PHY 362K Review Note 1

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## 1 Prerequisite

### 1.1 One-dimensional Wave Mechanics

The relationship between the particle's energy and the wave's frequency is  $E = \hbar\omega = \frac{p^2}{2m}$

The relationship between its momentum and wavevector is  $p = \hbar k$

Therefore, the dispersion relation is  $\omega = \frac{\hbar k^2}{2m}$

Time-dependent Schrodinger equation:  $\left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x)\right)\Psi(x, t) = i\hbar\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\Psi(x, t)$

The wave equation must have an  $i$  in it, because that is the only way to construct a wave equation with the correct dispersion relation

When the potential energy  $V$  is independent of time, the TDSE can be separated into a time equation and a space equation

For a harmonic oscillator,  $c_n = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_n^*(x)f(x)dx$  where  $f(x)$  is written as  $f(x) = \sum_n c_n \psi_n(x)$ .

Here  $|c_n|^2$  is the probability to measure the particle to be in its  $n$ th eigenstate with energy

$$E_n = \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \hbar\omega$$

The wave function at time  $t$  is  $\Psi(x, t) = \sum_n c_n e^{-\frac{iE_n t}{\hbar}} \psi_n(x)$

## 1.2 Bra-Ket

$|x\rangle$  represents a state of the particle in which its position is  $x$ . That means if you measure the position of the particle you are certain to get the result  $x$

$\langle x|\psi\rangle$  is the probability amplitude that a particle in state  $|\psi\rangle$ . In other words, it is the wavefunction of the particle  $\langle x|\psi\rangle = \psi(x)$

$\langle x|p\rangle$  is the probability amplitude that a particle in an eigenstate of momentum  $p$  will be found at position  $x$ . In other words, it is the wavefunction of a particle of definite momentum  $p$

$$\langle x|p\rangle = Ne^{ikx} = Ne^{\frac{ipx}{\hbar}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}}e^{\frac{ipx}{\hbar}}$$

The state vector can always be written as  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_n s_n|a_n\rangle$  where the values  $s_n$  are arbitrary complex constants

$|s_n|^2$  is the probability that you will get result  $a_n$

$$\langle\psi| = \sum_n s_n^* \langle a_n|$$

If  $|\psi\rangle = \sum_n s_n|a_n\rangle$  and  $|\phi\rangle = \sum_n p_n|a_n\rangle$ , then  $\langle\psi|\phi\rangle = \sum s_n^* p_n$ . This can be thought as the "degree of overlap" of the state vector  $|\phi\rangle$  with the state vector  $|\psi\rangle$  and  $|\phi\rangle$

$$\sum_n |a_n\rangle\langle a_n| = 1$$

An operator  $O$  is a mapping of the ket space onto itself. e.g  $O|\psi\rangle = |\gamma\rangle$ . A linear operator is an operator with the property that if  $O|\psi_1\rangle = |\gamma_1\rangle$  and  $O|\psi_2\rangle = |\gamma_2\rangle$ , then  $O(c_1|\psi_1\rangle + c_2|\psi_2\rangle) = c_1|\gamma_1\rangle + c_2|\gamma_2\rangle$

If the matrix of  $O$  represents an observable, then it must be an Hermitian (the matrix must be equal to its complex-conjugate transpose)

$\langle\phi|O$  is the bra such that  $(\langle\phi|O)|\psi\rangle = \langle\phi|(O|\psi\rangle)$  for all possible kets  $|\psi\rangle$

Examples of adjoint:

(1) The adjoint of  $cA|\psi\rangle$  is  $c^*\langle\psi|A^+$

(2) The adjoint of  $A|\psi\rangle\langle\phi|B$  is  $B^+|\phi\rangle\langle\psi|A^+$

(3) The adjoint of  $AB|\gamma\rangle$  is  $\langle\gamma|B^+A^+$

If  $[A, B] = c$  where  $c$  is a complex constant, then A and B are incompatible observables, which

means that it is not possible to measure both A and B with perfect precision.  $\Delta A \Delta B \geq$

$$\frac{1}{2} |\langle[A, B]\rangle|$$

## 2 Time Independent Perturbation

### 2.1 Non-degenerate Perturbation

We want to solve  $H|\psi_n\rangle = E_n|\psi_n\rangle$

$H = H_0 + H'$  where  $H_0|\psi_n\rangle = E_n^{(0)}|\psi_n\rangle$

$$E_n^{(1)} = \langle\psi_n^{(0)}|H'|\psi_n^{(0)}\rangle$$

$E_n \approx E_n^{(0)} + E_n^{(1)}$  (1st order approach for the energy)

$$|\psi_n^{(1)}\rangle = \sum_{m \neq n} \frac{\langle\psi_m^{(0)}|H'|\psi_n^{(0)}\rangle}{E_n^{(0)} - E_m^{(0)}} |\psi_m^{(0)}\rangle$$

$$|\psi_n\rangle \approx |\psi_n^{(0)}\rangle + |\psi_n^{(1)}\rangle$$

$$E_n \approx E_n^{(0)} + E_n^{(1)} + E_n^{(2)}$$

$$\langle\psi_{nlm}^{(0)}|z|\psi_{n'l'm'}^{(0)}\rangle = 0 \text{ unless } m = m' \text{ and } l = l' + 1 \text{ or } l = l' - 1$$

### 2.2 Degenerate Perturbation Theory

$$H'_{jk} = \langle\psi_{nj}^{(0)}|H'|\psi_{nk}^{(0)}\rangle$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} H'_{11} & H'_{12} & \dots & H'_{1g_n} \\ H'_{21} & H'_{22} & \dots & H'_{2g_n} \\ \dots & \dots & \ddots & \dots \\ H'_{g_n 1} & H'_{g_n 2} & \dots & H'_{g_n g_n} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} c_{i1} \\ c_{i2} \\ \dots \\ c_{ig_n} \end{bmatrix} = E_{ni}^{(1)} \begin{bmatrix} c_{i1} \\ c_{i2} \\ \dots \\ c_{ig_n} \end{bmatrix}$$

More simply as  $H'|\phi_{ni}^{(0)}\rangle = E_{ni}^{(1)}|\phi_{ni}^{(0)}\rangle$

$$|\phi_{ni}^{(0)}\rangle = c_{i1}|\psi_{n1}^{(0)}\rangle + c_{i2}|\psi_{n2}^{(0)}\rangle + \dots + c_{ig_n}|\psi_{ng_n}^{(0)}\rangle$$

### 3 Hydrogen-Like Particles

$\frac{1}{\lambda_{n,n'}} = R_H \left( \frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{n'^2} \right)$  where  $R_H \approx 1.097 * 10^7 m^{-1}$  is the Rydberg constant for hydrogen

#### 3.1 Bohr Model

$$E_n = -\frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{m_e}{\hbar^2} \right) \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \left( \frac{m_p}{m_p + m_e} \right) \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Bohr postulated that a photon may be given off only in a Bohr transition between these

energy states, with the photon wavelength given by  $\frac{hc}{\lambda_{n,n'}} = E_n - E_{n'}$

$$R_H = R_\infty \left( \frac{m_p}{m_p + m_e} \right) \text{ with } R_\infty = \left( \frac{1}{4\pi} \right) \frac{m}{\hbar^3 c} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^2$$

#### 3.2 Wavenumber or Inverse Centimeter Units

Transition energies can also be measured in wavenumbers by  $\bar{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$

$$1 \text{ cm}^{-1} \leftrightarrow 29.979 \text{ GHz} \text{ and } 8066 \text{ cm}^{-1} \leftrightarrow 1 \text{ eV}$$

#### 3.3 Schrodinger Equation for the Hydrogen Atom

$$H\psi(\vec{r}) = \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \right] \psi(\vec{r}) = E\psi(\vec{r})$$

$$\psi_{nlm}(\vec{r}) = R_{nl}(r)Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$$

$$\text{Let } u(r) = rR(r), \text{ then } \left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + V_{eff}(r) \right] u(r) = Eu(r) \text{ where } V_{eff}(r) = -\frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + \frac{l(l+1)\hbar^2}{2m_e r^2}$$

$$\text{Coulomb Potential: } -\frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$\text{Centrifugal Potential: } \frac{l(l+1)\hbar^2}{2m_e r^2}$$

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots \text{ and } l = 0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$$

The wave function is normalized in three dimensions

The spherical harmonics are orthonormal on the unit sphere

$$\int_0^\infty |R_{nl}|^2 r^2 dr = 1, \text{ where } |R_{nl}|^2 r^2 \text{ is the radial probability density}$$

### 3.4 Hamiltonian of an Electron Interacting with an Electromagnetic Field

scalar potential:  $\Phi(\vec{r}, t)$  and scalar potential  $\vec{A}(\vec{r}, t)$

$$\vec{E}(\vec{r}, t) = -\vec{\nabla}\Phi(\vec{r}, t) - \frac{\partial\vec{A}(\vec{r}, t)}{\partial t}$$

$$\vec{B}(\vec{r}, t) = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A}(\vec{r}, t)$$

$$H = \frac{1}{2m}(\vec{p} + q\vec{A})^2 + q\Phi = \frac{1}{2m} \left( \vec{p}^2 + q\vec{A} \cdot \vec{p} + q\vec{p} \cdot \vec{A} + q^2|\vec{A}|^2 \right) + q\Phi$$

If we choose a specific gauge:  $\Phi = 0$  and  $\vec{A} = \frac{1}{2} (\vec{B} \times \vec{r})$

$$\text{Then } H = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m_e} - \vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B} + \frac{e^2}{8m_e}(x^2 + y^2) \text{ where } \vec{\mu} = \vec{\mu}_l + \vec{\mu}_s = -\mu_B \left( \frac{\vec{l} + g_e \vec{s}}{\hbar} \right)$$