

PHYS261 Atomic Physics and Physical Optics

Lectures

Thursday 4. September 2008

Tuesday 9. September 2008

Topics:

Helium; Antisymmetry of 2 electron wavefunction; Spin

Comment:

Thursday: One hour Only; Visiting a seminar;

Tuesday: Crashed the notes; Preliminary version; 2007 included

Preliminary version;

Parity homework

Decompose $f(r)$ into positive and negative parity parts

$p(r)$ is such that $p(r) = p(-r)$

$n(r)$ is such that $n(r) = -n(-r)$

$$f(r) = p(r) + n(r)$$

$$f(-r) = p(-r) + n(-r) \quad \text{but this is also } f(-r) = p(r) - n(r) \quad \text{from above}$$

Thus we obtain a set of equations

$$f(r) = p(r) + n(r)$$

$$f(-r) = p(r) - n(r) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \begin{aligned} 2 p(r) &= f(r) + f(-r) \\ 2 n(r) &= f(r) - f(-r) \end{aligned}$$

which gives us the answer

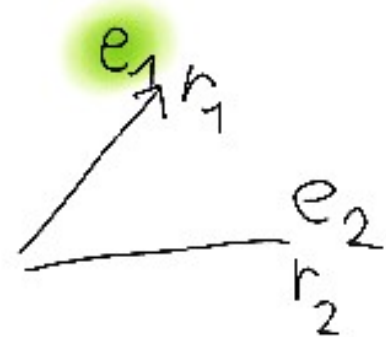
$$p(r) = (f(r) + f(-r)) / 2$$

$$n(r) = (f(r) - f(-r)) / 2$$

This simple property is somewhat analogous to the operations needed in constructing «symmetric» and «antisymmetric» functions for two electrons

Exchange symmetry \rightarrow Pauli Principle
 Indistinguishable particles / identical

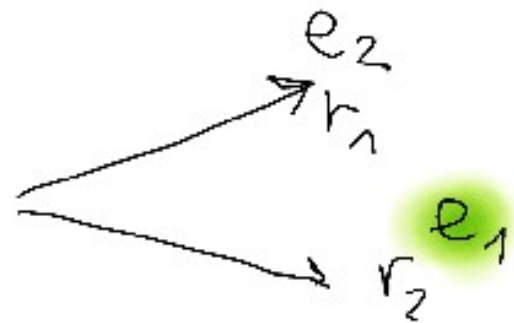
$\psi(r_1, r_2)$ electron 1 in r_1
 " - 2 in r_2



$$|\psi(r_1, r_2)|^2 = |\psi(r_2, r_1)|^2$$

indisting.

Probability density



$$\psi(r_1, r_2) + \psi(r_2, r_1) = \psi(r_1, r_2)$$

In analogy with the parity exercise

The "derivation" is more formal

$$|\Psi(r_1, r_2)|^2 \equiv |\Psi(r_2, r_1)|^2$$

$$\Psi(r_1, r_2) \equiv \pm \Psi(r_2, r_1)$$

$$\Psi(r_1, r_2) \equiv e^{i\alpha} \Psi(r_2, r_1)$$

We derive this through EXCHANGE
Operation \rightarrow operator

$$A_{12} \Psi(r_1, r_2) = \Psi(r_2, r_1)$$

$$A_{12} A_{12} \Psi(r_1, r_2) = A_{12} \Psi(r_2, r_1) = \Psi(r_1, r_2)$$

$$A_{12} \cdot A_{12} = \uparrow$$

$A_{12}^2 = 1$ $A_{12} \psi(1,2) = \psi(2,1) = e^{i\alpha} \psi(1,2)$
 $\psi(1,2)$ satisfying the indistinguishability must be an eigenfunction

$|e^{i\alpha}| = 1$ only two possible eigenvalues

$$A_{12}^2 = 1 \implies (e^{i\alpha})^2 = 1 \quad e^{2i\alpha} = 1$$

$$e^{i\alpha} \begin{cases} \nearrow e^{i0} = 1 \implies \alpha = 0 \\ \searrow e^{i\pi} = -1 \implies \alpha = 2\pi + \dots \end{cases}$$

Operation of exchange $\begin{cases} \nearrow + \\ \searrow - \end{cases}$ sign

Generalization to many particles

$$\Psi(r_1, r_2) = \pm \Psi(r_2, r_1)$$

$$\Psi(r_1, r_2) \stackrel{?}{=} \varphi_1(r_1) \varphi_2(r_2) \stackrel{?}{=}$$

$$\Psi_S(r_1, r_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\varphi_1(r_1) \varphi_2(r_2) + \varphi_2(r_1) \varphi_1(r_2) \right]$$

Normalization factor

$$\rightarrow \langle \varphi_1 | \varphi_2 \rangle = 0 \quad 1 \neq 2$$

$$\Psi_A(r_1, r_2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\varphi_1(r_1) \varphi_2(r_2) - \varphi_2(r_1) \varphi_1(r_2) \right]$$

S Symmetric
A Antisymmetric

+ symmetric
- (anti-) with respect
to exchange

Spin — a "new" property
resembling angular momentum
(or magnetic dipole moment)

Why is angular momentum (normal)
related to magnetic moment?

Spin "derived" from Dirac Equation
Relativistic Schrödinger Equation

Lecture

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Spin \leftrightarrow Angular momentum (not really)

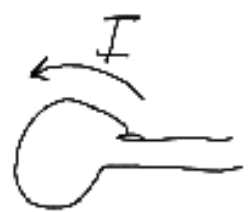
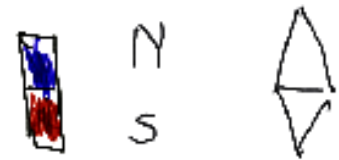
Orbital ang. mom \vec{L} \vec{l}
Spin " " \vec{S} \vec{s}

Two systems \rightarrow total $\vec{L} = \vec{l}_1 + \vec{l}_2$

Generalize : $\vec{S} = \vec{s}_1 + \vec{s}_2$

Spin "more connected" with Magnetic Moment

Dipole \rightarrow magnetic dipole
(Ferromagnets . . .)



Current loop Magnetic moment

$$\vec{\mu} = \vec{A} \cdot j \cdot \text{Const}$$

area vector

\vec{L} $\vec{\mu}$ simple connection

circular motion of charged particle
(orbital) \rightarrow angular momentum
 \rightarrow magnetic moment

Orbital angular $M \rightarrow$ Magnetic moment

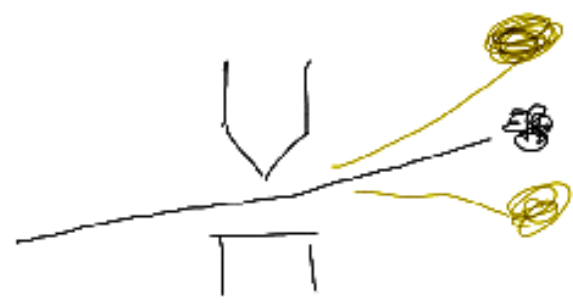
Spin magnetic moment $\xrightarrow{\text{associate}}$ spin angular moment

CAN BE "DERIVED" from DIRAC EQUATION

Pauli postulated

1) Spin \vec{s} (Stern-Gerlach exp.)

2) Pauli principle (Aufbau \rightarrow Build up)



classical
Geometrical Quant.
.....

Orbital, spatial motion

Spin "motion" (Internal) ((Intrinsic))



\rightarrow MORE COMPLEX DESCRIPTION

we crashed on Lx, Ly, Lz
Wikipedia instead

Mathematical definition

[\[edit\]](#)

Angular momentum \mathbf{L} is mathematically defined as the [cross product](#) of a wave function's [position operator](#) (\mathbf{r}) and [momentum operator](#) (\mathbf{p}):

$$\mathbf{L} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}$$

In the special case of a single particle with no [electric charge](#) and no [spin](#), the angular momentum operator can be written in the position basis as a single vector equation:

$$\mathbf{L} = -i\hbar(\mathbf{r} \times \nabla)$$

where ∇ is the [gradient](#) operator. This is a commonly encountered form of the angular momentum operator, though not the most general one.

We try the spin once more:

Eigen functions

of $L^2 L_z \rightarrow Y_{lm}(\theta, \varphi)$

of $\sigma^2, \sigma_z \rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$\sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\sigma^2 = 1 + 1 + 1$$

$$\sigma_x^2 = 1$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

etc...

Homework

Eigen vectors,
Eigenvalues

$$\sigma \rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \sigma$$

$$\left(\frac{1}{2} \sigma_x, \frac{1}{2} \sigma_y, \frac{1}{2} \sigma_z \right)$$

$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \dots, \begin{pmatrix} f(x) \\ g(x) \end{pmatrix} \rightarrow \chi$
represent the spin variable

Spin and space function

$\begin{pmatrix} f(\vec{r}) \\ g(\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix}$ space and spin motion depend "on each other"

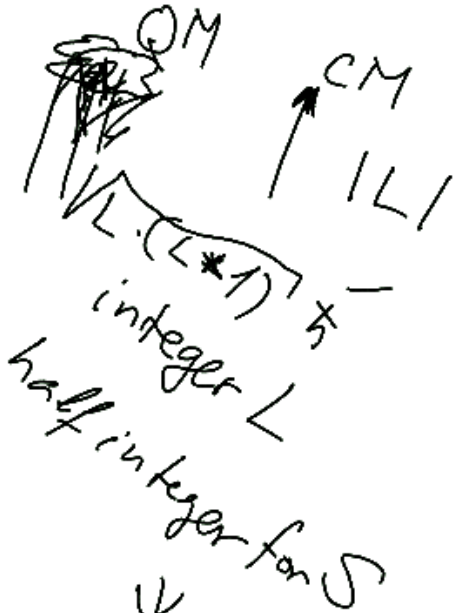
$$\psi(\vec{r}) = \begin{pmatrix} a_1 \\ a_2 \end{pmatrix}$$

a_1, a_2 numbers

Product

independent

assumption



described by Pauli Spinor

$\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$ up
 $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ -b \end{pmatrix}$ down

$|a|^2$ } Probability
 $|b|^2$ }

$L_x \quad L_y \quad L_z$

$\sigma_z \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix} \quad -i\hbar \left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial y} - y \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right) \quad L_z$

$\sigma_x \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad -i\hbar \left(y \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right) \quad L_x$

$\sigma_y \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \frac{1}{2}\hbar \sigma_x \quad \frac{1}{2}\hbar \sigma_y \quad \frac{1}{2}\hbar \sigma_z \quad \boxed{e^{i\alpha \sigma_x}}$

... When you throw a spinning object, its L keeps the direction. The Earth keeps its L and therefore we have springs, summers, winters ... Discuss that .. (J and L are both used for angular momentum)

$$e^{i\alpha \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}} = \mathbb{I} \cos \alpha + i \sin \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbb{I} = 1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pauli Matrices

$$e^{i\alpha \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}} = \mathbb{I} \cos \alpha + i \sin \alpha \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \mathbb{I} = 1 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Pauli Matrices

Spin ANTISYMMETRIC and Spin SYMMETRIC

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{bmatrix} \uparrow +$$

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{bmatrix} \downarrow -$$

$\uparrow \downarrow$

$\uparrow(1) \uparrow(2)$ sym.
 $\downarrow(1) \downarrow(2)$ sym.

$\uparrow(1) \downarrow(2)$ no symmetry
 $\downarrow(1) \uparrow(2)$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\uparrow(1) \downarrow(2) + \downarrow(1) \uparrow(2) \right) \text{ SYM.}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left(\uparrow(1) \downarrow(2) - \downarrow(1) \uparrow(2) \right) \text{ Antisymmetric} \quad \textcircled{0} \text{ — because } \frac{1}{2} + (-\frac{1}{2})$$

4 possible \rightarrow 3 symmetric triplet $S=1$
 1 antisymmetric singlet $S=0$

$$(2S+1)$$

$$\vec{S} = \vec{S}_1 + \vec{S}_2 \dots$$

Eigenvalues and vectors of $\vec{S} \cdot \vec{S} = S^2$

QUALITATIVE "PROOF"

$\uparrow \downarrow$
 S_1
 S_2

space SYMMETRIC - Spin ANTISYMMETRIC (spin SINGLET)
 space ANTISYMMETRIC - Spin SYMMETRIC (spin TRIPLET)

$$\Psi_A(1,2) = \phi_A(1,2) \Xi_S(1,2)$$

$$\Psi_A(1,2) = \phi_S(1,2) \Xi_A(1,2)$$

$$\left[\phi_a(r_1) \chi_a(1) \phi_b(r_2) \chi_b(2) - \phi_b(r_1) \chi_b(1) \phi_a(r_2) \chi_a(2) \right]$$

$$\left[\phi_a(r_1) \phi_b(r_2) \pm \phi_b(r_1) \phi_a(r_2) \right] \left[\chi_a(1) \chi_b(2) \mp \chi_b(1) \chi_a(2) \right]$$

SPACE symmetric

SPIN antisymmetric

SPACE antisymmetric

SPIN symmetric

The reason is simple to see now: repulsion is reduced for space asymmetric function
 Space asymmetric vanishes ($\rightarrow 0$) when $r_1 \rightarrow r_2$

Space symmetric

Spin singlet

Space antisymmetric

Spin triplet

$$T_1 + T_2 + V_1 + V_2 + V_{12} + \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2|}$$



Space symmetric

$$\psi_a(r_1) \psi_b(r_2)$$

$$\vec{r}_1 = \vec{r}_2$$

$$\psi_a(r) \psi_b(r) + \psi_a(r) \psi_b(r)$$

BIG REPULSION

Space antisymmetric

SMALL REPULSION

$$\vec{r}_1 = \vec{r}_2$$

$$\psi_a(r) \psi_b(r) - \psi_a(r) \psi_b(r)$$

zero

The story you should learn to perform:

Here starting:

The two electron atoms have the spin symmetry feature. You can make the total wavefunction antisymmetric by taking symmetric spin and space function antisymmetric. Or you can take antisymmetric spin and then this applies space function is symmetric. Symmetric spins are called triplet, because there are 3 of them, antisymmetric is a singlet.

Two electrons repel each other. The repulsion adds energy, positive potential.

It is now possible to see that the repulsion is larger for singlets than for corresponding triplet. Think e.g. about 1s 2p orbitals, as states a and b. Then schematically

$$\Psi(\text{antisym}) \rightarrow a(1) b(2) - b(1) a(2) \quad \Psi(\text{sym}) \rightarrow a(1) b(2) + b(1) a(2)$$

when the repulsion is greatest? It is when $r_1 \rightarrow r_2$ - and then $\Psi(\text{sym})$ is BIG,

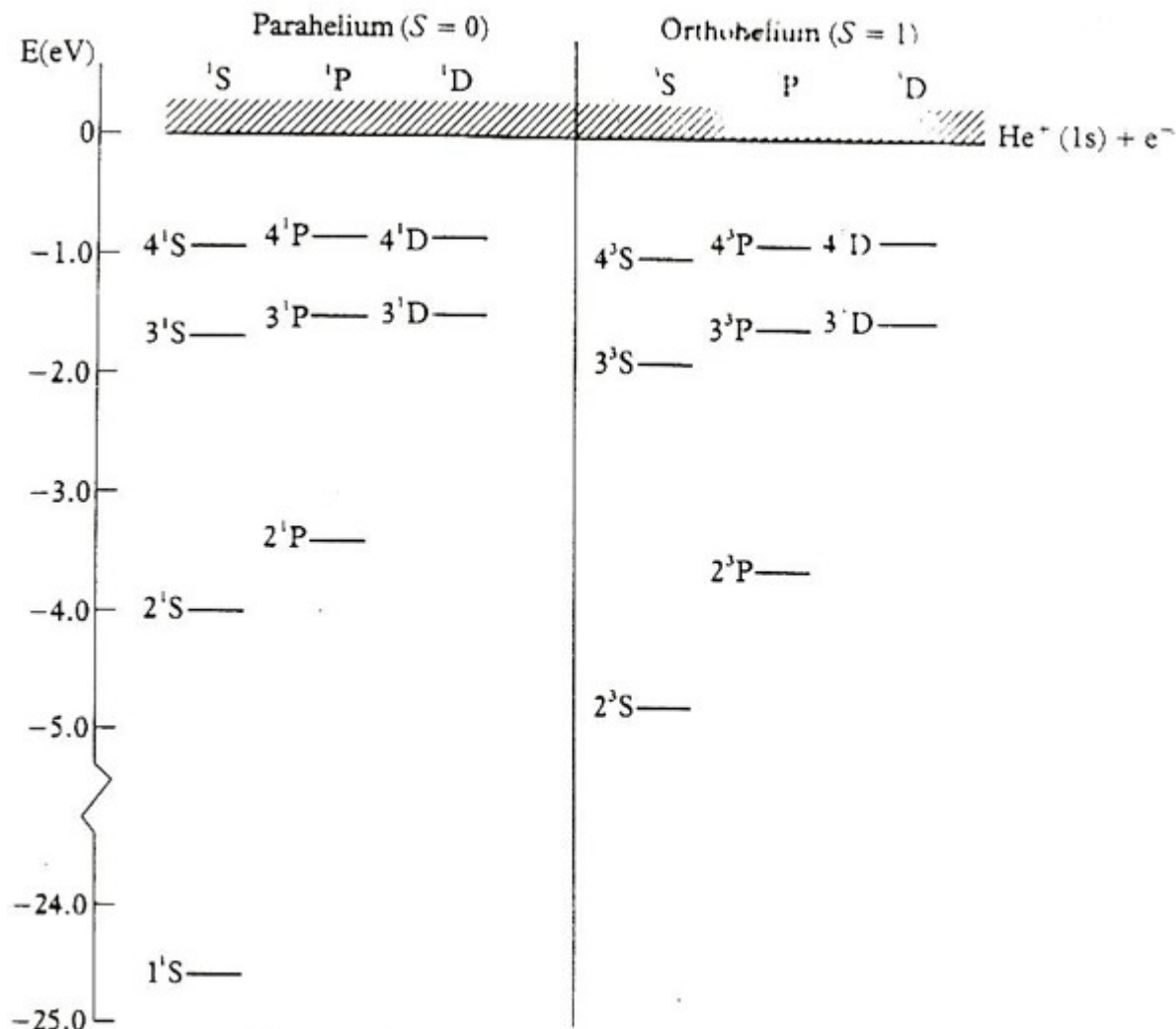
$\Psi(\text{antisym})$ is very small ...

So if you manage to follow:

triplet \rightarrow spin SYM \rightarrow space ASYM \rightarrow for $r_1 \rightarrow r_2$ $\Psi(\text{antisym})$ is very small the repulsion is very small.

singlet \rightarrow spin ASYM \rightarrow space SYM \rightarrow for $r_1 \rightarrow r_2$ $\Psi(\text{sym})$ is BIG, the repulsion is BIG,

Experiment - Level scheme for Helium



The experimental values of the lowest energy levels of helium.

$E = 0$ corresponds to the ionisation threshold.

Spin degrees of freedom + Something on Dirac Equation

It might be useful to read about spin in textbooks on Quantum Theory, as well as many different entries on Wikipedia and **Hyperphysics**

(<http://hyperphysics.phy-astr.gsu.edu/hbase/hframe.html> to get there -just google it instead of copying this long link). Both of these sources should be taken as orientation, i.e. not too seriously - i.e. not as «authoritative».

Dirac equation: The story is fascinating. Originally intended to repair the inconsistencies of relativistic Schrödinger equation:

obtained by replacing $T+V=E$ by $p^2 + m^2 c^4 = E^2$

from Hyperphysics:

$$E = mc^2 = \sqrt{p^2 c^2 + m_0^2 c^4}$$

just according to the above. E was taken as in non-rel Schrödinger equation, but the square root was «linearized» using unknown objects, now known as Dirac Matrices:

$$E y = c(a_x p_x + a_y p_y + a_z p_z + b m c^2) y$$

(here E and p_i are the usual operators), but are new type of objects, Dirac spinors.

It lead later to explanation of antiparticles etc etc.

P.A.M. Dirac is one of the most important contributors to modern physics (read about him)

Explanation of Spectra - repeat your SELECTION RULES - then you can understand how the spectrum is related to the Level scheme