

Robertson-Schrödinger Uncertainty Relation

$$\sigma_A^2 \sigma_B^2 = \langle f|f \rangle \langle g|g \rangle \geq |\langle f|g \rangle|^2 = [\operatorname{Re}(c)]^2 + [\operatorname{Im}(c)]^2$$

$$\sigma_A^2 \sigma_B^2 \geq \left| \frac{1}{2} \langle \{\hat{A}, \hat{B}\} \rangle - \langle \hat{A} \rangle \langle \hat{B} \rangle \right|^2 + \left(\frac{\langle [\hat{A}, \hat{B}] \rangle}{2i} \right)^2$$

↑ covariance

Three dimensions

$$\text{TDSE: } -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \Psi(\vec{r}, t) + V(\vec{r}, t) \Psi(\vec{r}, t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(\vec{r}, t)$$

2nd-order, linear in Ψ , homogeneous, Partial D.E

$$\text{Laplacian } \nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \text{ in Cartesian coords}$$

$$[\hat{r}_i, \hat{p}_j] = i\hbar \delta_{ij} \text{ e.g. } [\hat{y}, \hat{p}_x] = 0 \parallel [\hat{r}_i, \hat{r}_j] = 0 = [\hat{p}_i, \hat{p}_j]$$

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_x \sigma_p \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}, \sigma_y \sigma_p \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}, \text{ but } \sigma_x \sigma_y \text{ is unrestricted}$$

We saw previously the 3-dim infinite sphere well,
3-dim quantum harmonic oscillator, both in Cartesian

Now spherical polar coordinates $\{r, \theta, \phi\}$

$r = |\vec{r}| = \text{distance from origin}$, θ is polar angle

$\theta = 0^\circ = \text{North pole}$, $\theta = 90^\circ = \text{equator}$, $\theta = 180^\circ = \pi = \text{South pole}$

ϕ is azimuthal angle $[0, 2\pi]$ (physics convention)

$$\text{Laplacian } \nabla^2 = \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2}$$

Separation of Variables $\Psi(\vec{r}) = R(r) Y(\theta, \phi)$

Assume $V(\vec{r}) = V(r)$ central potential

TISE1

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{\Psi}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left(r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \frac{R}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin^2 \theta \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{R}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial \varphi^2} \right] + \underbrace{V R \Psi}_\psi = \underbrace{E R \Psi}_\psi$$

Divide by $R(r) \Psi(\theta, \varphi)$ multiply by $-\frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2}$

$$0 = \underbrace{\left\{ \frac{1}{R} \frac{d}{dr} \left(r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) - \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2} [V(r) - E] \right\}}_{\text{only a function of } r} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{\Psi} \left\{ \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin^2 \theta \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial \varphi^2} \right\}}_{\text{function of } \theta, \varphi}$$

$$0 = f(r) + g(\theta, \varphi) \quad \forall r, \theta, \varphi \Rightarrow f(r) = \text{constant} \\ g(\theta, \varphi) = -\text{constant}$$

We could call this first separation constant G , but in fact we will call it: $\ell(\ell+1)$ *ℓ could be complex at this point.*

Angular Equation: $\sin^2 \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin^2 \theta \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial \varphi^2} = -\ell(\ell+1) \sin^2 \theta \Psi$

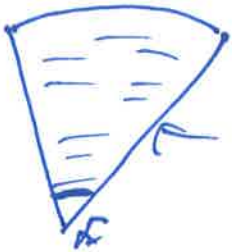
Separation of Variables again: $\Psi(\theta, \varphi) = T(\theta) F(\varphi)$

$$\underbrace{\left\{ \frac{1}{T} \left[\sin^2 \theta \frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\sin^2 \theta \frac{dT}{d\theta} \right) \right] + \ell(\ell+1) \sin^2 \theta \right\}}_{\text{function of } \theta} + \underbrace{\frac{1}{F} \frac{d^2 F}{d\varphi^2}}_{\text{function of } \varphi} = 0$$

Need a second separation constant: m^2 m could be complex at this point.

Azimuthal Equation: $\frac{1}{F(\varphi)} F''(\varphi) = -m^2 \Rightarrow F''(\varphi) + m^2 F(\varphi) = 0$

$F(\varphi) = A e^{im\varphi} + B e^{-im\varphi}$ or sine and cosine





Solve the S.E. in a pie wedge
 \Rightarrow boundary conditions determine possible values of m .

Usually have the full $[0, 2\pi]$ range of φ .

Later, when we introduce raising and lowering operators for angular momentum, we will see that $l = 0, \frac{1}{2}, 1, \frac{3}{2}, 2, \frac{5}{2}, \dots$ and $m = \{-l, -l+1, \dots, +l\}$.

Right now, I want to argue that for orbital (not spin) angular momentum, m must be integer, not half integer.

If e.g. $m = \frac{1}{2}$, then ψ as a function of angle φ looks like  twice around before repeating, but then ψ is not single-valued, so which ψ do I use to compute probabilities?

Also ψ can not have a jump discontinuity  because $\hat{L}_z = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi}$ would be ∞ at the jump but $\hat{L}_z |\varphi\rangle = m |\varphi\rangle$ with $m = \frac{1}{2}$ e.g. $\neq \infty$.

Griffiths' Quantum Mechanics

You may have encountered this equation already—it occurs in the solution to Laplace's equation in classical electrodynamics. As always, we try separation of variables:

$$Y(\theta, \phi) = \Theta(\theta)\Phi(\phi). \quad [4.19]$$

Plugging this in, and dividing by $\Theta\Phi$, we find

$$\left\{ \frac{1}{\Theta} \left[\sin\theta \frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\sin\theta \frac{d\Theta}{d\theta} \right) \right] + l(l+1) \sin^2\theta \right\} + \frac{1}{\Phi} \frac{d^2\Phi}{d\phi^2} = 0.$$

The first term is a function only of θ , and the second is a function only of ϕ , so each must be a constant. This time I'll call the separation constant m^2 :⁴

$$\frac{1}{\Theta} \left[\sin\theta \frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\sin\theta \frac{d\Theta}{d\theta} \right) \right] + l(l+1) \sin^2\theta = m^2; \quad [4.20]$$

$$\frac{1}{\Phi} \frac{d^2\Phi}{d\phi^2} = -m^2. \quad [4.21]$$

The ϕ equation is easy:

$$\frac{d^2\Phi}{d\phi^2} = -m^2\Phi \Rightarrow \Phi(\phi) = e^{im\phi}. \quad [4.22]$$

$Ae^{im\phi} + Be^{-im\phi}$
two solutions because
2nd order differential equation.

[Actually, there are *two* solutions: $\exp(im\phi)$ and $\exp(-im\phi)$, but we'll cover the latter by allowing m to run negative. There could also be a constant factor in front, but we might as well absorb that into Θ . Incidentally, in electrodynamics we would write the azimuthal function (Φ) in terms of sines and cosines, instead of exponentials, because electric potentials must be *real*. In quantum mechanics there is no such constraint, and the exponentials are a lot easier to work with.] Now, when ϕ advances by 2π , we return to the same point in space (see Figure 4.1), so it is natural to require that⁵

$$\Phi(\phi + 2\pi) = \Phi(\phi). \quad [4.23]$$

In other words, $\exp[im(\phi + 2\pi)] = \exp(im\phi)$, or $\exp(2\pi im) = 1$. From this it follows that m must be an *integer*:

$$m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \quad [4.24]$$

⁴Again, there is no loss of generality here since at this stage m could be any complex number; in a moment, though, we will discover that m must in fact be an *integer*. *Beware*: The letter m is now doing double duty, as *mass* and as the so-called **magnetic quantum number**. There is no graceful way to avoid this since both uses are standard. Some authors now switch to M or μ for mass, but I hate to change notation in midstream, and I don't think confusion will arise as long as you are aware of the problem.

⁵This is a more subtle point than it looks. After all, the *probability density* ($|\Phi|^2$) is single valued regardless of m . In Section 4.3 we'll obtain the condition on m by an entirely different—and more compelling—argument.

In EM: $\nabla^2 V(r) = 0$ Laplace's Equation for electric potential = voltage, $V(\phi + 2\pi) = V(\phi)$ because $V(r)$ is measurable with a voltmeter, but wavefunction Ψ is not measurable.

Polar Equation

$$\sin\theta \frac{d}{d\theta} \left[\sin\theta \frac{dT(\theta)}{d\theta} \right] + [\ell(\ell+1)\sin^2\theta - m^2]T(\theta) = 0$$

Associated Legendre Differential Equation

$$\text{2nd-order: } T(\theta) = C P_\ell^m(\cos\theta) + D Q_\ell^m(\cos\theta)$$

associated Legendre functions of the ℓ type
first \uparrow second \uparrow

The P_ℓ^m are complete and orthogonal by themselves — span the Hilbert space; Q_ℓ^m not necessary.

Q_ℓ^m functions $\rightarrow \infty$ at North + South Poles.

Radial Equation

$$\frac{1}{R} \frac{d}{dr} \left(r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) - \frac{2m\hbar^2}{\hbar^2} [V(r) - E] = \ell(\ell+1)$$

Define: $u(r) = r R(r)$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 u(r)}{dr^2} + \left[V(r) + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2} \right] u(r) = E u(r)$$

Looks like 1-dim Schrödinger Eq. with $u(r) = \psi(r)$

and $V_{\text{eff}}(r) = V(r) + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2} \propto$ centrifugal term (repulsive)

Table 4.2: The first few spherical harmonics, $Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)$.

$Y_0^0 = \left(\frac{1}{4\pi}\right)^{1/2}$	$Y_2^{\pm 2} = \left(\frac{15}{32\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin^2 \theta e^{\pm 2i\phi}$
$Y_1^0 = \left(\frac{3}{4\pi}\right)^{1/2} \cos \theta$	$Y_3^0 = \left(\frac{7}{16\pi}\right)^{1/2} (5 \cos^3 \theta - 3 \cos \theta)$
$Y_1^{\pm 1} = \mp \left(\frac{3}{8\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin \theta e^{\pm i\phi}$	$Y_3^{\pm 1} = \mp \left(\frac{21}{64\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin \theta (5 \cos^2 \theta - 1) e^{\pm i\phi}$
$Y_2^0 = \left(\frac{5}{16\pi}\right)^{1/2} (3 \cos^2 \theta - 1)$	$Y_3^{\pm 2} = \left(\frac{105}{32\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin^2 \theta \cos \theta e^{\pm 2i\phi}$
$Y_2^{\pm 1} = \mp \left(\frac{15}{8\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin \theta \cos \theta e^{\pm i\phi}$	$Y_3^{\pm 3} = \mp \left(\frac{35}{64\pi}\right)^{1/2} \sin^3 \theta e^{\pm 3i\phi}$

$$Y_l^m(\theta, \phi) = \epsilon \sqrt{\frac{(2l+1)(l-|m|)!}{4\pi(l+|m|)!}} e^{im\phi} P_l^m(\cos \theta), \quad [4.32]$$

where $\epsilon = (-1)^m$ for $m \geq 0$ and $\epsilon = 1$ for $m \leq 0$. As we shall prove later on, they are automatically orthogonal, so

Griffiths' QM again

$$\int_0^{2\pi} \int_0^\pi [Y_l^m(\theta, \phi)]^* [Y_{l'}^{m'}(\theta, \phi)] \sin \theta d\theta d\phi = \delta_{ll'} \delta_{mm'}. \quad [4.33]$$

In Table 4.2 I have listed the first few spherical harmonics.

***Problem 4.3** Use Equations 4.27, 4.28, and 4.32 to construct Y_0^0 and Y_2^1 . Check that they are normalized and orthogonal.

Problem 4.4 Show that

$$\Theta(\theta) = A \ln[\tan(\theta/2)] \propto Q_0^0(\cos \theta)$$

satisfies the θ equation (Equation 4.25) for $l = m = 0$. This is the unacceptable "second solution"—what's wrong with it? *nothing; it is normalizable.*

***Problem 4.5** Using Equation 4.32, find $Y_1^1(\theta, \phi)$ and $Y_3^2(\theta, \phi)$. Check that they satisfy the angular equation (Equation 4.18), for the appropriate values of the parameters l and m .

****Problem 4.6** Starting from the Rodrigues formula, derive the orthonormality condition for Legendre polynomials:

$$\int_{-1}^1 P_l(x) P_{l'}(x) dx = \left(\frac{2}{2l+1}\right) \delta_{ll'}. \quad [4.34]$$

Hint: Use integration by parts.

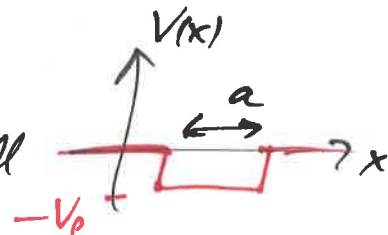
The answer he had in mind is that Q_0^0 blows up at $\theta=0, \pi$ North and South poles, but wavefunction ψ is not measurable.

Finite Spherical Square Well

step function
Heaviside function

$$V(r) = \begin{cases} -V_0, & r \leq a \\ 0, & r > a \end{cases} = -V_0 \theta(a-r)$$

Remember for 1-dim finite square well



always has at least one bound solution, no matter how shallow or narrow the well.

Future homework: Show that in 3 dimensions, there is not always a bound state.

For $l=0$: $u(r) = A \sin(kr) + B \cos(kr)$

$$R(r) = \frac{u(r)}{r} \quad \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\sin(kr)}{r} \rightarrow k, \quad \lim_{r \rightarrow 0} \frac{\cos(kr)}{r} \rightarrow \frac{1}{r}$$

$\frac{1}{r}$ is integrable when multiplied by the measure: $r^2 \sin\theta dr d\theta d\phi$ for spherical polar coordinates

but if $\psi(r) \propto \frac{1}{r}$, then $\nabla^2(\frac{1}{r}) \propto \delta(r)$ and there is no Dirac delta function in the potential $V(r)$.

where

$$k \equiv \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar}, \quad [4.42]$$

as usual. Our problem is to solve this equation, subject to the boundary condition $u(a) = 0$. The case $l = 0$ is easy:

$$\frac{d^2u}{dr^2} = -k^2u \Rightarrow u(r) = A \sin(kr) + B \cos(kr).$$

But remember, the actual radial wave function is $R(r) = u(r)/r$, and $[\cos(kr)]/r$ blows up as $r \rightarrow 0$. So¹⁰ we must choose $B = 0$. The boundary condition then requires $\sin(ka) = 0$, and hence $ka = n\pi$, for some integer n . The allowed energies are evidently

$$E_{n0} = \frac{n^2\pi^2\hbar^2}{2ma^2}, \quad (n = 1, 2, 3, \dots), \quad [4.43]$$

the same as for the one-dimensional infinite square well (Equation 2.23). Normalizing $u(r)$ yields $A = \sqrt{2/a}$; inclusion of the angular part (constant, in this instance, since $Y_0^0(\theta, \phi) = 1/\sqrt{4\pi}$), we conclude that

$$\psi_{n00} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi a}} \frac{\sin(n\pi r/a)}{r}. \quad [4.44]$$

[Notice that the stationary states are labeled by *three quantum numbers*, n , l , and m : $\psi_{nlm}(r, \theta, \phi)$. The *energy*, however, depends only on n and l : E_{nl} .]

The general solution to Equation 4.41 (for an arbitrary integer l) is not so familiar:

$$u(r) = Arj_l(kr) + Brn_l(kr), \quad [4.45]$$

where $j_l(x)$ is the **spherical Bessel function** of order l , and $n_l(x)$ is the **spherical Neumann function** of order l . They are defined as follows:

$$j_l(x) \equiv (-x)^l \left(\frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dx} \right)^l \frac{\sin x}{x}; \quad n_l(x) \equiv -(-x)^l \left(\frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dx} \right)^l \frac{\cos x}{x}. \quad [4.46]$$

For example,

$$j_0(x) = \frac{\sin x}{x}; \quad n_0(x) = -\frac{\cos x}{x};$$

$$j_1(x) = (-x) \frac{1}{x} \frac{d}{dx} \left(\frac{\sin x}{x} \right) = \frac{\sin x}{x^2} - \frac{\cos x}{x};$$

¹⁰Actually, all we require is that the wave function be *normalizable*, not that it be *finite*: $R(r) \sim 1/r$ at the origin *would* be normalizable (because of the r^2 in Equation 4.31). For a more compelling proof that $B = 0$, see R. Shankar, *Principles of Quantum Mechanics* (New York: Plenum, 1980), p. 351. 342



So what?
This is not the
real problem.

Griffiths QM

Shankar QM

$$R \sim \frac{U}{r} \sim \frac{c}{r}$$

diverges at the origin. This in itself is not a disqualification, for R is still integrable. The problem with $c \neq 0$ is that the corresponding total wave function

$$\psi \sim \frac{c}{r} Y_0^0$$

does not satisfy Schrödinger's equation at the origin. This is because of the relation

$$\nabla^2(1/r) = -4\pi\delta^3(\mathbf{r}) \quad (12.6.3)$$

the proof of which is taken up in Exercise 12.6.4. Thus unless $V(r)$ contains a function at the origin (which we assume it does not) the choice $c \neq 0$ is untenable. Thus we deduce that

$$U_{El} \xrightarrow{r \rightarrow 0} 0 \quad (12.6.4)$$

*Exercise 12.6.4.** (1) Show that

$$\delta^3(\mathbf{r}-\mathbf{r}') \equiv \delta(x-x')\delta(y-y')\delta(z-z') = \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \delta(r-r')\delta(\theta-\theta')\delta(\phi-\phi')$$

(consider a test function).

(2) Show that

$$\nabla^2(1/r) = -4\pi\delta^3(\mathbf{r})$$

(Hint: First show that $\nabla^2(1/r) = 0$ if $r \neq 0$. To see what happens at $r=0$, consider a sphere centered at the origin and use Gauss's law and the identity $\nabla^2\phi = \nabla \cdot \nabla\phi$.)

General Properties of U_{El}

We have already discussed some of the properties of U_{El} as $r \rightarrow 0$ or ∞ . We try to extract further information on U_{El} by analyzing the equation governing these limits, without making detailed assumptions about $V(r)$. Consider first the limit $r \rightarrow 0$. Assuming $V(r)$ is less singular than r^{-2} , the equation is dominated by

‡ As we will see in a moment, $l \neq 0$ is incompatible with the requirement that $\psi(r) \rightarrow r^{-1}$ as $r \rightarrow 0$. The angular part of ψ has to be $Y_0^0 = (4\pi)^{-1/2}$.

§ Or compare this equation to Poisson's equation in electrostatics $\nabla^2\phi = -4\pi\rho$. Here $\rho = \delta^3(\mathbf{r})$, ϕ represents a unit point charge at the origin. In this case we know from Coulomb's law that $\phi = 1/r$.