

Chapter Five: Approximation Methods:

Time-Independent Perturbation Theory: Nondegenerate Case.

Time-independent Hamiltonian H

$$H = H_0 + V$$

↖ perturbation

We assume that the $V=0$ has been solved.

i.e. we know that $|n^{(0)}\rangle$ satisfy

$$H_0 |n^{(0)}\rangle = E^{(0)} |n^{(0)}\rangle$$

We want to solve the full problem:

$$(H_0 + V) |n\rangle = E_n |n\rangle$$

We will approach this by considering

$$(H_0 + \lambda V) |n\rangle = E_n |n\rangle \quad \text{where } \lambda \text{ is a real}$$

continuous parameter which can be used to turn on and off the perturbation as $0 \leq \lambda \rightarrow 1$. We will, for instance, calculate corrections order by order in λ ← we are assuming the analyticity of the energy eigenvalues and eigenkets in the complex λ plane.

A test case - the two-state problem

$$H = \begin{pmatrix} E_1^{(0)} & \lambda V \\ \lambda V & E_2^{(0)} \end{pmatrix} \quad V \text{ is real.}$$

Now $|1^{(0)}\rangle$ and $|2^{(0)}\rangle$ are clearly known as are the unperturbed energy eigenvalues. We can also solve this problem

exactly.

$$E_{1,2} = \frac{E_1^{(0)} + E_2^{(0)}}{2} \pm \sqrt{\left(\frac{E_1^{(0)} - E_2^{(0)}}{2}\right)^2 + \lambda^2 V^2}$$

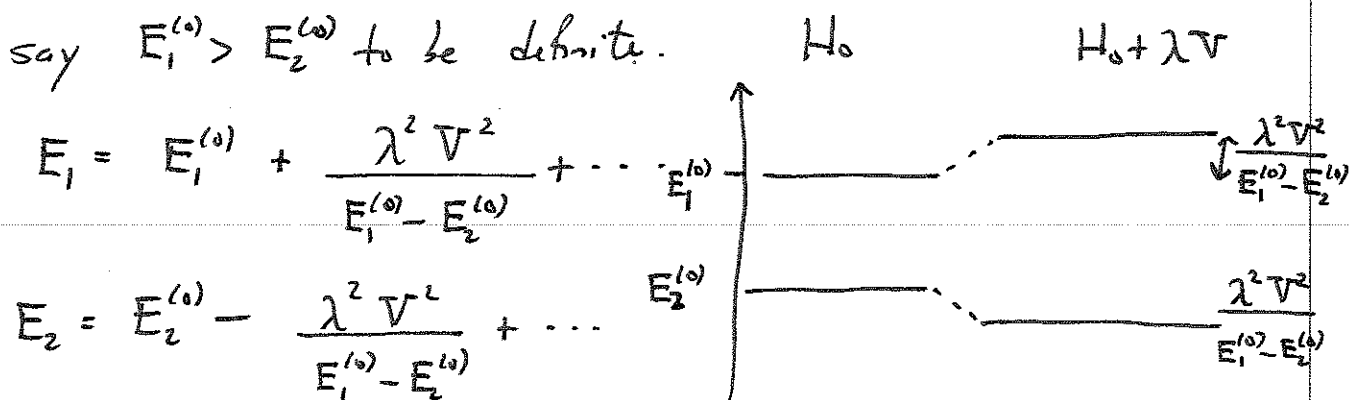
Now, if we take λV to be small i.e.

$$|\lambda V| \ll \left| \frac{E_1^{(0)} - E_2^{(0)}}{2} \right|$$

Then

$$E_{1,2} = \frac{E_1^{(0)} + E_2^{(0)}}{2} \pm \frac{|E_1^{(0)} - E_2^{(0)}|}{2} \left[1 + \frac{4\lambda^2 V^2}{(E_1^{(0)} - E_2^{(0)})^2} \right]^{1/2}$$

say $E_1^{(0)} > E_2^{(0)}$ to be definite.



Notice that we encounter branch points in the λ -plane at

$$\lambda = \pm i (E_1^{(0)} - E_2^{(0)}) / 2V$$

Note too that the convergence of our expansion above requires that

$$|\lambda V| < |E_1^{(0)} - E_2^{(0)}| / 2$$

We will come back to the issue of convergence later on.

Formal Development of the Theory

$H_0 |n^{(0)}\rangle = E_n^{(0)} |n^{(0)}\rangle \leftarrow$ We have solved this problem.

The set $\{|n^{(0)}\rangle\}$ is complete.

We assume that the energy spectrum $E_n^{(0)}$ is nondegenerate.

We want to solve the problem: $(H_0 + \lambda V) |n\rangle_\lambda = E_n^{(\lambda)} |n\rangle_\lambda$

↑
continuous functions of the parameter λ .

As λ is increased from 0 $E_n^{(\lambda)}$ becomes different from $E_n^{(0)}$.

Define the shift in the energy level as

$$\Delta_n^{(\lambda)} = E_n^{(\lambda)} - E_n^{(0)}$$

Then: $(\star) (E_n^{(0)} - H_0) |n\rangle = (\lambda V - \Delta_n) |n\rangle$ {since

$$\cancel{E_n^{(0)}} (E_n^{(0)} + \Delta_n) |n\rangle = (H_0 + \lambda V) |n\rangle \}$$

We need to solve (\star) for $|n\rangle$ and Δ_n . Thus, we need to invert the operator ~~$(E_n^{(0)} - H_0)$~~ $(E_n^{(0)} - H_0) \Rightarrow$ "resolvent" operator.

Is $\frac{1}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0}$ well-defined? As long as it does not act on

$|n^{(0)}\rangle$, we are fine. Note that $(\lambda V - \Delta_n) |n\rangle$ has no projection along $|n^{(0)}\rangle$. To see this note that

$$\langle n^{(0)} | (\lambda V - \Delta_n) |n\rangle = \langle n^{(0)} | E_n^{(0)} - H_0 |n\rangle = 0$$

Define the complementary projection operator

$$\Phi_n = 1 - |n^{(0)}\rangle \langle n^{(0)}| = \sum_k |k^{(0)}\rangle \langle k^{(0)}|$$

so that we can define the inverse operator $\frac{1}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0}$ when acting to the left of Φ_n :

$$\frac{1}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} \phi_n = \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{1}{E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}} |k^{(0)}\rangle \langle k^{(0)}|$$

Note also that $(\lambda V - \Delta_n) |n\rangle = \phi_n (\lambda V - \Delta_n) |n\rangle$

So we can write

$$|n\rangle = C_n(\lambda) |n^{(0)}\rangle + \frac{1}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} \phi_n (\lambda V - \Delta_n) |n\rangle$$

The part of $|n\rangle$ along $|n^{(0)}\rangle$. This part is annihilated when $(E_n^{(0)} - H_0)$ act on $|n\rangle$.

In fact, we know that, in the limit $\lambda \rightarrow 0$, $|n\rangle \rightarrow |n^{(0)}\rangle$ so we know that $\lim_{\lambda \rightarrow 0} C_n(\lambda) = 1$.

$$\langle n^{(0)} | n \rangle = C_n(\lambda) \quad (\text{Because of the } \phi_n \text{ operator})$$

It is convenient and traditional to set $C_n(\lambda) = 1$ for $\lambda \neq 0$ and mess up the overall normalization of the ket $|n\rangle$. We can always fix that later. More on this below.

It is also useful to write $\frac{1}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} \phi_n$ as $\frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0}$ so that we can write

$$|n\rangle = |n^{(0)}\rangle + \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} (\lambda V - \Delta_n) |n\rangle$$

We also note from $\langle n^{(0)} | \lambda V - \Delta_n | n \rangle = 0$ that the energy

Shift of the perturbed levels is given by

$$\Delta_n = \lambda \langle n^{(0)} | V | n \rangle \quad (\text{since we have chosen } \langle n^{(0)} | n \rangle = 1)$$

We now have two equations that need to be solved simultaneously:

$$|n\rangle = |n^{(0)}\rangle + \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} (\lambda V - \Delta_n) |n\rangle$$

$$\Delta_n = \lambda \langle n^{(0)} | V | n \rangle$$

for $|n\rangle$ and Δ_n .

The fundamental approach is to assume an expansion of the form:

$$|n\rangle = |n^{(0)}\rangle + \lambda |n^{(1)}\rangle + \lambda^2 |n^{(2)}\rangle + \dots$$

$$\Delta_n = \lambda \Delta_n^{(1)} + \lambda^2 \Delta_n^{(2)} + \dots$$

and solve order-by-order simply from equating coefficients of λ .

$$\text{To order } \lambda^1: \quad \Delta_n^{(1)} = \langle n^{(0)} | V | n^{(0)} \rangle$$

$$\lambda^2: \quad \Delta_n^{(2)} = \langle n^{(0)} | V | n^{(1)} \rangle$$

$$\lambda^N: \quad \Delta_n^{(N)} = \langle n^{(0)} | V | n^{(N-1)} \rangle$$

\Rightarrow To get Δ_n to order N we need the ket to order $(N-1)$.

Now, look at the first of our pair of equations

$$|n^{(0)}\rangle + \lambda |n^{(1)}\rangle + \lambda^2 |n^{(2)}\rangle + \lambda^3 |n^{(3)}\rangle + \dots$$

$$= |n^{(0)}\rangle + \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} (\lambda V - \lambda \Delta_n^{(1)} - \lambda^2 \Delta_n^{(2)} - \lambda^3 \Delta_n^{(3)} - \dots) \left\{ |n^{(0)}\rangle + \lambda |n^{(1)}\rangle + \lambda^2 |n^{(2)}\rangle + \dots \right\}$$

To order λ^0 $|n^{(0)}\rangle = |n^{(0)}\rangle$ nothing new!

$$\mathcal{O}(\lambda^1) : |n^{(1)}\rangle = \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} V |n^{(0)}\rangle - \frac{\phi_n \Delta_n^{(1)}}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} |n^{(0)}\rangle$$

↑
But $\phi_n |n^{(0)}\rangle = 0$ so

$$|n^{(1)}\rangle = \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} V |n^{(0)}\rangle$$

$$\left(\text{So } \Delta_n^{(2)} = \langle n^{(0)} | V \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} V |n^{(0)}\rangle \right)$$

$\mathcal{O}(\lambda^2)$:

$$|n^{(2)}\rangle = \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} V |n^{(1)}\rangle - \frac{\phi_n \Delta_n^{(1)}}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} |n^{(1)}\rangle \text{ or}$$

$$|n^{(2)}\rangle = \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} V \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} V |n^{(0)}\rangle - \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} \langle n^{(0)} | V |n^{(0)}\rangle \cdot$$

$$\cdot \frac{\phi_n}{E_n^{(0)} - H_0} V |n^{(0)}\rangle$$

Let's write this out in terms of the sums over the unperturbed energy eigenstates - in other words we have to recall our definition

$$\Delta_n = \lambda \langle n^{(0)} | V |n^{(0)}\rangle + \lambda^2 \langle n^{(0)} | V \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|k^{(0)}\rangle \langle k^{(0)}|}{E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}} V |n^{(0)}\rangle$$

$$\Delta_n = \lambda V_{nn} + \lambda^2 \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{\langle n^{(0)} | V |k^{(0)}\rangle \langle k^{(0)} | V |n^{(0)}\rangle}{E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}}$$

↑
refers to the unperturbed states.

More compactly, we can write the energy shift to ^{S.7} second order as

$$\Delta_n = \lambda V_{nn} + \lambda^2 \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|V_{nk}|^2}{E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}} + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

all matrix elements are taken with respect to the unperturbed states.

Doing the same for the kets:

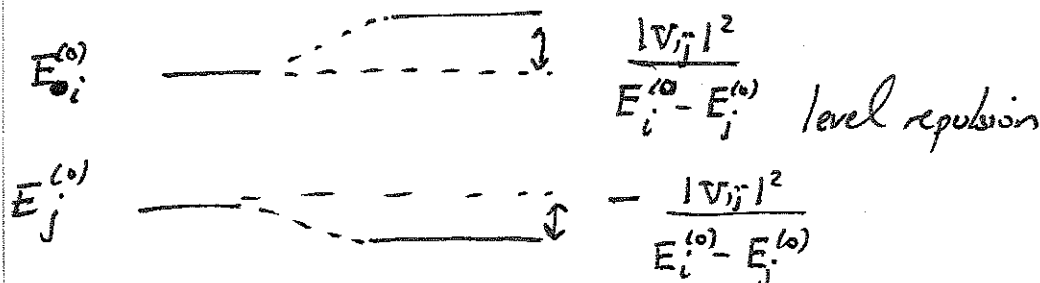
$$|n\rangle = |n^{(0)}\rangle + \lambda \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{V_{kn}}{E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}} |k^{(0)}\rangle +$$

$$+ \lambda^2 \left(\sum_{\substack{k \neq n \\ l \neq n}} |k^{(0)}\rangle \frac{\langle k^{(0)} | V | l^{(0)} \rangle \langle l^{(0)} | V | n^{(0)} \rangle}{(E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)})(E_n^{(0)} - E_l^{(0)})} - \sum_{k \neq n} |k^{(0)}\rangle \frac{V_{nn} V_{kn}}{(E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)})^2} \right)$$

$$+ \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

The n^{th} level now has contributions coming from all the other levels. The amount of this mixing is determined by how the perturbation connects the various unperturbed states.

Two energy levels i and j get shifted away from each other, if connected by V_{ij} say $V_{ii} = V_{jj} = 0$ then



More generally, a pair of levels cannot cross as λ is varied, if connected by V

Also for the ground state

$$\Delta_0 = 2V_{00} + \lambda^2 \sum_{k \neq 0} \frac{|V_{0k}|^2}{E_0^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}}$$

↑ negative \Leftrightarrow lowest states

energy tends to decrease due to mixing.

Wave-function Renormalization:

Now let's fix the normalization of the perturbed ket. Define

$$|n\rangle_N = Z_n^{1/2} |n\rangle, \text{ where the constant } Z_n \text{ ensures that}$$

$$\langle n | n \rangle_N = 1. \text{ We can calculate } Z_n \text{ from}$$

$Z_n^{1/2} = \langle n^{(0)} | n \rangle_N$. $Z_n^{1/2}$ = probability amplitude for the perturbed ket to be found in the unperturbed energy eigenstate.

$$\frac{1}{Z_n} = \langle n | n \rangle = \left(\langle n^{(0)} | + \lambda \langle n^{(1)} | + \lambda^2 \langle n^{(2)} | + \dots \right) \left(|n^{(0)}\rangle + \lambda |n^{(1)}\rangle + \lambda^2 |n^{(2)}\rangle + \dots \right)$$

$$Z_n^{-1} = 1 + \lambda \left(\langle n^{(1)} | n^{(0)} \rangle + \langle n^{(0)} | n^{(1)} \rangle \right) + \lambda^2 \left(\langle n^{(1)} | n^{(1)} \rangle + \langle n^{(0)} | n^{(2)} \rangle + \langle n^{(2)} | n^{(0)} \rangle \right) + \dots$$

But recall $|n^{(1)}\rangle \propto \sum_{k \neq n} |k\rangle$ so many of the above terms are zero.

$$|n^{(2)}\rangle \propto \sum_{k \neq n} |k\rangle$$

In fact

$$Z_n^{-1} = 1 + \lambda^2 \langle n^{(0)} | n^{(0)} \rangle + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

$$= 1 + \lambda^2 \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|V_{kn}|^2}{[E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}]^2} + \mathcal{O}(\lambda^3)$$

so to 2nd order

$$E_n \approx 1 - \lambda^2 \underbrace{\sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|V_{kn}|^2}{[E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}]^2}}_{\text{Probability for leakage to the other states.}}$$

Probability for leakage to the other states.

Note that from

$$E_n = E_n^{(0)} + \lambda V_{nn} + \lambda^2 \sum_{k \neq n} \frac{|V_{nk}|^2}{E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}}$$

$$Z_n = \frac{\partial E_n}{\partial E_n^{(0)}} \quad \text{at least to } \mathcal{O}(\lambda^2) \quad \text{Actually, this result is more general.}$$

← holding V_{ij} fixed.

A simple example

$$H_0 = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 x^2 \quad V = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon m \omega^2 x^2, \quad \epsilon \ll 1$$

Note that all we have done is $\omega \rightarrow \omega \sqrt{1 + \epsilon}$ so we actually have an exact solution for the energies and stationary states of $H = H_0 + V$.

But let's apply our perturbation analysis anyway...

Shift in the ground state $|0\rangle$ and energy E_0 .

$$|0\rangle = |0^{(0)}\rangle + \sum_{k \neq 0} |k^{(0)}\rangle \frac{V_{k0}}{E_0^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}} + \dots$$

$$\Delta_0 = V_{00} + \sum_{k \neq 0} \frac{|V_{k0}|^2}{E_0^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}} + \dots$$

$$V_{00} = \frac{\epsilon m \omega^2}{2} \langle 0^{(0)} | x^2 | 0^{(0)} \rangle = \frac{\epsilon \hbar \omega}{4}$$

$$V_{20} = \frac{\epsilon m \omega^2}{2} \langle 2^{(0)} | x^2 | 0^{(0)} \rangle = \frac{\epsilon \hbar \omega}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow |0\rangle = |0^{(0)}\rangle + \frac{\epsilon \hbar \omega}{2\sqrt{2}} |2^{(0)}\rangle \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega - \frac{5}{2}\hbar\omega}$$

$$|0\rangle = |0^{(0)}\rangle - \frac{\epsilon}{4\sqrt{2}} |2^{(0)}\rangle + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^2)$$

and $\Delta_0 = E_0 - E_0^{(0)} = \hbar\omega \left[\frac{\epsilon}{4} - \frac{\epsilon^2}{16} + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^3) \right]$

from $\frac{\epsilon^2 (\hbar\omega)^2}{8} \frac{1}{\frac{1}{2}\hbar\omega - \frac{5}{2}\hbar\omega} = -\frac{\hbar\omega \epsilon^2}{16}$ checks!

Now is this correct?

Ground state Energy (Exactly) $\frac{\hbar\omega}{2} \sqrt{1+\epsilon} \approx \frac{\hbar\omega}{2} \left[1 + \frac{\epsilon}{2} - \frac{\epsilon^2}{8} \right] + \mathcal{O}(\epsilon^3)$

What about the shift in the wavefunction

$$\langle x | 0^{(0)} \rangle = \pi^{-1/4} x_0^{-1/2} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2x_0^2}} \quad x_0 = \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{m\omega}}$$

so $x_0 \rightarrow x_0 (1+\epsilon)^{-1/4}$ Expand and collect terms.

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle x | 0^{(0)} \rangle &\rightarrow \frac{\pi^{-1/4}}{x_0^{1/2}} (1+\epsilon)^{1/8} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2x_0^2} (1+\epsilon)^{1/2}} \\
&\approx \frac{\pi^{-1/4}}{x_0^{1/2}} \left(1 + \frac{1}{8}\epsilon\right) e^{-\frac{x^2}{2x_0^2}} \left(1 - \frac{x^2}{2x_0^2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}\epsilon\right) \\
&= \langle x | 0^{(0)} \rangle + \epsilon \left\{ \frac{1}{8} \pi^{-1/4} x_0^{-1/2} e^{-x^2/2x_0^2} - \frac{1}{4} \frac{x^2}{x_0^2} e^{-x^2/2x_0^2} \pi^{-1/4} x_0^{-1/2} \right\} \\
&= \langle x | 0^{(0)} \rangle + \frac{\epsilon}{8} \underbrace{\left(1 - 2\frac{x^2}{x_0^2}\right)}_{-\frac{1}{2} H_2(x/x_0)} \pi^{-1/4} x_0^{-1/2} e^{-x^2/2x_0^2} \\
&\quad \swarrow \text{Hermite polynomial } H_2(x) = 4x^2 - 2
\end{aligned}$$

$$\langle x | 2^{(0)} \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{8}} \pi^{-1/4} x_0^{-1/2} e^{-\frac{x^2}{2x_0^2}} H_2(x/x_0)$$

$$= \langle x | 0^{(0)} \rangle - \frac{\epsilon}{4\sqrt{2}} \langle x | 2^{(0)} \rangle \quad \text{check!}$$

$$\frac{1}{8} \frac{\sqrt{8}}{2} \langle x | 2^{(0)} \rangle = \frac{1}{4\sqrt{2}} \langle x | 2^{(0)} \rangle$$

Time-independent perturbation theory: The degenerate case.

We have a problem when the energy levels are degenerate. Then the denominators $\frac{1}{E_n^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}}$ vanish so the individual

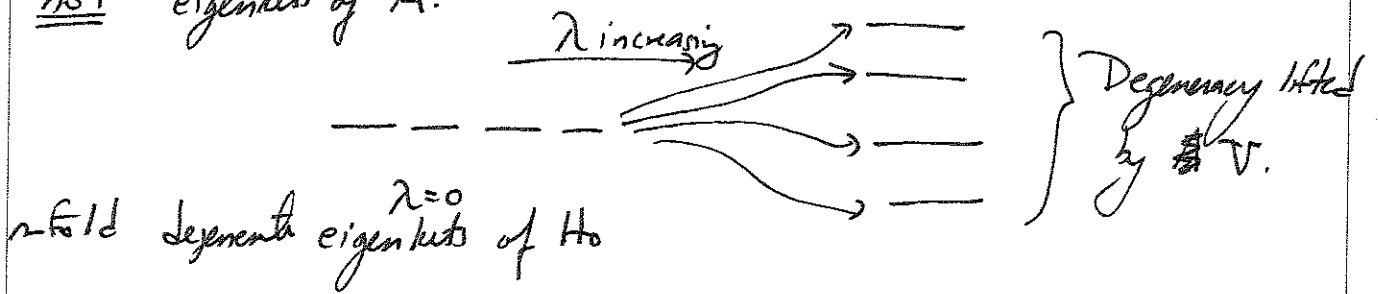
terms in the perturbation series blow-up.

With degenerate states we need to label the kets by their eigenvalues wrt H_0 and another observable A .

$$H_0 |k, a\rangle = E_k |k, a\rangle$$

$$A |k, a\rangle = a |k, a\rangle$$

If $[H, A] \neq 0$ i.e. $[V, A] \neq 0$ then the eigenkets of H are not eigenkets of A .



We can choose the unperturbed kets to be given by any linear combination of the n -fold degenerate states.

$$|l^{(0)}\rangle = \sum_{m=1}^n |k, a_m\rangle \langle k, a_m | l^{(0)}\rangle \quad \text{NOT specified yet!}$$

A new set of spanning kets. \uparrow label this by a collective index $|m^{(0)}\rangle$ \uparrow sum over the kets spanning the degenerate subspace.

The Schrödinger equation obeyed by the perturbed kets $|l^{(0)}\rangle$ is

$$(E^{(0)} - H_0) |l\rangle = (\lambda V - \Delta_e) |l\rangle$$

\uparrow energy of all the states in the degenerate subspace of the unperturbed Hamiltonian

$$\text{Expand: } |l\rangle = |l^{(0)}\rangle + \lambda |l^{(1)}\rangle + \lambda^2 |l^{(2)}\rangle + \lambda^3 |l^{(3)}\rangle + \dots$$

$$\mathcal{O}(\lambda^0) \quad (E^{(0)} - H_0) |l^{(0)}\rangle = 0 \quad \text{as expected.}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \mathcal{O}(\lambda^1) \quad (E^{(0)} - H_0) |l^{(1)}\rangle &= (V - \Delta_e^{(1)}) |l^{(0)}\rangle \\ &= (V - \Delta_e^{(1)}) \sum_{m=1}^n |m^{(0)}\rangle \langle m^{(0)} | l^{(0)}\rangle \end{aligned}$$

Multiply on the left by $\langle \tilde{m}^{(0)} |$.

↑
another of the kets in the degenerate subspace.

⇒

$$\underbrace{\langle \tilde{m}^{(0)} | (E^{(0)} - H_0) | \ell^{(1)} \rangle}_{=0} = \sum_m \langle \tilde{m}^{(0)} | V | m^{(0)} \rangle - \Delta_\ell^{(1)} \langle \tilde{m}^{(0)} | \ell^{(0)} \rangle$$

or

$$\sum_m \langle \tilde{m}^{(0)} | V | m^{(0)} \rangle \langle m^{(0)} | \ell^{(1)} \rangle = \Delta_\ell^{(1)} \langle \tilde{m}^{(0)} | \ell^{(0)} \rangle$$

This is an eigenvector equation for the vector $\langle m^{(0)} | \ell^{(1)} \rangle$ with eigenvalue $\Delta_\ell^{(1)}$.

$$\underline{V}_{\tilde{m}m} l_m = \Delta_\ell^{(1)} l_{\tilde{m}} \Rightarrow \det(\underline{V} - \underline{I} \Delta_\ell^{(1)}) = 0$$

in usual vector notation

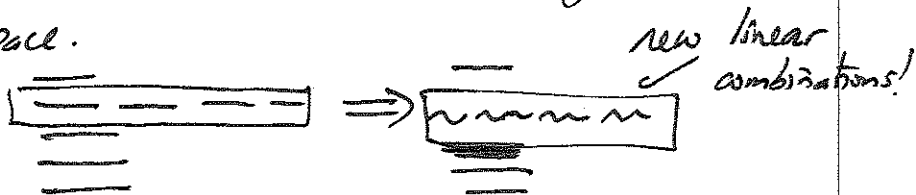
↑
Roots of the secular equation determine the eigenvalues $\Delta_\ell^{(1)}$ ← the energy shifts!

Note there are n solutions - one for each ket spanning the degenerate subspace.

The eigenvectors $l_m = \langle m^{(0)} | \ell^{(1)} \rangle$ are the linear combinations of the $|m^{(0)}\rangle$'s that diagonalize $V \Rightarrow$

$\Delta_\ell^{(1)} = \langle \ell^{(0)} | V | \ell^{(0)} \rangle$ ← diagonal elements are just the 1st order energy shifts.

Basically we have mixed up the states spanning the degenerate subspace of H_0 so that V is diagonal when acting on that part of the Hilbert space.



Now looking at the ket equation to 1st order

$$(E^{(0)} - H_0) |l^{(1)}\rangle = (V - \Delta_l^{(1)}) |l^{(0)}\rangle$$

Define the complementary projection operator ϕ_D

$$\phi_D = 1 - \sum_{m \in D} |m^{(0)}\rangle \langle m^{(0)}| = \sum_{k \notin D} |k^{(0)}\rangle \langle k^{(0)}|$$

↑
degenerate subspace

We can already see that $\langle m^{(0)} | [V - \Delta_l^{(1)}] |l^{(0)}\rangle = 0$
since $\langle m^{(0)} | (E^{(0)} - H_0) |l^{(1)}\rangle = 0$, so:

$$\phi_D (V - \Delta_l^{(1)}) |l^{(0)}\rangle = \phi_D V |l^{(0)}\rangle$$

↑
in the degenerate subspace.

Now $\frac{1}{E^{(0)} - H_0}$ is not singular when acting on $\phi_D V |l^{(0)}\rangle$ so

$$|l^{(1)}\rangle = \frac{\phi_D V |l^{(0)}\rangle}{E^{(0)} - H_0} \quad \langle k^{(0)} | V |l^{(0)}\rangle$$

$$|l^{(1)}\rangle = \sum_{k \notin D} \frac{|k^{(0)}\rangle V_{kl}}{E_D^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}}$$

↑
Energy of the
degenerate subspace

↑
Energy levels not part of the
degenerate subspace.

We have now avoided any singularities associated w/ the energy degeneracy.

By convention we normalize by
 $\langle e^{(0)} | e \rangle = 1.$

$$\text{From } (E^{(0)} - H_0) | e \rangle = (\lambda V - \Delta_e) | e \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda \langle e^{(0)} | V | e \rangle = \Delta_e \langle e^{(0)} | e \rangle = \Delta_e$$

Expanding $| e \rangle$ in powers of λ we find

$$\lambda \langle e^{(0)} | V | \{ | e^{(0)} \rangle + \lambda | e^{(1)} \rangle + \lambda^2 | e^{(2)} \rangle + \dots \} = \lambda \Delta_e^{(1)} + \lambda^2 \Delta_e^{(2)} + \dots$$

$$\mathcal{O}(\lambda^1): \quad \langle e^{(0)} | V | e^{(0)} \rangle = \Delta_e^{(1)} \leftarrow \text{we already knew that..}$$

$$\mathcal{O}(\lambda^2): \quad \langle e^{(0)} | V | e^{(1)} \rangle = \langle e^{(0)} | V \frac{\mathcal{P}_D}{E^{(0)} - H_0} V | e^{(0)} \rangle = \Delta_e^{(2)}$$

so

$$\Delta_e^{(2)} = \sum_{k \notin D} \frac{|V_{ke}|^2}{E^{(0)} - E_k^{(0)}}$$

↑
 Energy of the degenerate subspace ket.

Variational Methods:

There are times when we don't know a sufficient close Hamiltonian H_0 that is solvable (i.e. for which we have exact solutions). In such cases we can use a variational approach to estimate the ground state energy.

Define: $\bar{H} = \frac{\langle \tilde{0} | H | \tilde{0} \rangle}{\langle \tilde{0} | \tilde{0} \rangle}$ where $|\tilde{0}\rangle$ is an ansatz for the ground state ket.

Thm. $\bar{H}_0 > E_0 \leftarrow$ exact ground state energy.

PF: Since the exact eigenkets ~~are~~ of H are complete

$$|\tilde{\delta}\rangle = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |k\rangle \langle k|\tilde{\delta}\rangle; \quad H|k\rangle = E_k|k\rangle$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \langle \tilde{\delta}|\tilde{\delta}\rangle &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |\langle k|\tilde{\delta}\rangle|^2 \\ \langle \tilde{\delta}|H|\tilde{\delta}\rangle &= \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k |\langle k|\tilde{\delta}\rangle|^2 \end{aligned} \right\} \bar{H} = \frac{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} E_k |\langle k|\tilde{\delta}\rangle|^2}{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |\langle k|\tilde{\delta}\rangle|^2}$$

Write $E_k = \underbrace{(E_k - E_0)}_{\text{positive since } E_0 = \text{ground state energy.}} + E_0$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{H} = E_0 + \frac{\sum_{k=1}^{\infty} (E_k - E_0) |\langle k|\tilde{\delta}\rangle|^2}{\sum_{k=0}^{\infty} |\langle k|\tilde{\delta}\rangle|^2} \geq E_0$$

Thus our ansatz will always be an upper bound to the energy.
The guess may be very good even if the ket isn't! Why?

Consider $\langle k|\tilde{\delta}\rangle \sim \mathcal{O}(\epsilon)$ for some ket $|k\rangle$, $k \neq 0$.

Then $\bar{H} - E_0 \sim \epsilon^2$ i.e. not the ground state.

Ideally we write a trial ket that is parameterized by some adjustable variables. $|\tilde{\delta}; \lambda_1, \lambda_2, \dots, \lambda_N\rangle$ and then minimize \bar{H} wrt λ_n $n=1, \dots, N \Leftrightarrow$ i.e. $\frac{\partial \bar{H}}{\partial \lambda_p} = 0$ all p .

A simple example of the variational method.

$$\text{H-atom} \quad H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + \frac{-e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

Try $\langle \tilde{\psi} | \tilde{\psi} \rangle = N e^{-r/a}$ to normalize this we take $N = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi a^3}}$

$$4\pi |N|^2 \int_0^\infty r^2 e^{-2r/a} dr = \pi a^3 |N|^2 = 1$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \tilde{\psi} | \nabla^2 | \tilde{\psi} \rangle &= -|N|^2 4\pi \int_0^\infty r^2 dr \frac{1}{r^2} \partial_r (r^2 \partial_r (e^{-r/a})) e^{-r/a} \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi a^3} 4\pi \frac{a}{4} = 1/a^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle \tilde{\psi} | \frac{1}{r} | \tilde{\psi} \rangle = 4\pi |N|^2 \int_0^\infty dr r e^{-2r/a} = \frac{4}{a^3} \frac{a^2}{4} = 1/a$$

$$\text{So} \quad \bar{H} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{a^2} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a}$$

$$\frac{\partial \bar{H}}{\partial a} = 0 = -2 \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} a^{-3} + \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a^2} = 0$$

$$\frac{\hbar^2}{m} a^{-3} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} a^{-2} \Rightarrow a = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{e^2 m}$$

so the minimum energy occurs for the width of the wavefunction is the Bohr radius $a = a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{m e^2} = \frac{\hbar}{m c} \frac{1}{\alpha}$

So, we took a pretty good guess!

↑ fine structure constant.

$$\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar c} \approx \frac{1}{137}$$

Time-Dependent Potentials: The Interaction Picture

$$H = H_0 + V(t) ; H_0 |n\rangle = E_n |n\rangle \text{ known.}$$

When $V(t) \neq 0$ $|n\rangle$ are not stationary states any more!
They do not evolve in time as $e^{-iEt/\hbar}$, because H itself is now time-dependent.

Generally, we will find that as time evolves there will be transitions from one of the states $|n\rangle$ to another state $|n'\rangle$

At $t=0$

$$|\alpha\rangle = \sum_n c_n(0) |n\rangle \leftarrow \text{the physical ket}$$

i.e. our initial condition.

We want to predict the future, i.e. to find

$$|\alpha, t\rangle = \sum_n c_n(t) e^{-iE_n t/\hbar} |n\rangle$$

$c_n(t=0) = c_n(0)$

Separation into the old "bare" time-dependence $e^{-iE_n t/\hbar}$ and some extra stuff due to $V(t) : c_n(t)$.

How to effect this separation: the interaction picture.

Define $|\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_I = e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} |\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_S$

↑ interaction rep ket ↑ Schrödinger rep ket.

observables in the interaction representation

$$A_I = e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} A_S e^{-iH_0 t/\hbar}$$

← Schrödinger operator (w/o time-dependence) →
go back and look at the discussion of the Heisenberg representation!

42, 381 50 SHEETS 5 SQUARE
42, 382 100 SHEETS 5 SQUARE
42, 383 200 SHEETS 5 SQUARE
NATIONAL

What is the time evolution of a ket in the I-picture?

$$\begin{aligned}
 i\hbar \partial_t |\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_I &= i\hbar \partial_t \left(e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} |\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_S \right) \\
 &= -H_0 e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} |\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_S + e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} (H_0 + V) |\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_S \\
 &= \underbrace{e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} V e^{-iH_0 t/\hbar}}_{V_I(t)} \underbrace{e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} |\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_S}_{|\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_I}
 \end{aligned}$$

So

(★) $i\hbar \partial_t |\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_I = V_I(t) |\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_I$ A Schrödinger-like Eq w/ V_I replacing H !

So in the I-picture:

operators have a time-dependence determined by H_0
 kets have a time-dependence determined by V_I
 Half-way between the S and H-pictures!

Ans: $|\alpha; t_0, t\rangle_I = \sum_n C_n(t) |n\rangle$ and (set $t_0=0$)

$$i\hbar \partial_t |\alpha; t\rangle_I = \sum_n C_n(t) V_I |n\rangle \text{ and } |\alpha; 0\rangle_I = \sum_n C_n(0) |n\rangle$$

or

~~$$i\hbar \partial_t \langle m | \alpha; t \rangle_I = \sum_n C_n(t) \langle m | V_I | n \rangle$$

$$\text{But } C_n(0) = \langle n | \alpha; 0 \rangle_I$$~~

From (★) $i\hbar \langle m | \alpha; t_0, t \rangle_I = \sum_n \langle m | V_I | n \rangle \langle n | \alpha; t_0, t \rangle_I$

Note $\langle m | V_I | n \rangle = \langle m | e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} V e^{-iH_0 t/\hbar} | n \rangle$
 $= e^{i(E_m - E_n)t/\hbar} \langle m | V(t) | n \rangle = e^{i(E_m - E_n)t/\hbar} V_{mn}(t)$

And $\langle n | \alpha(t_0, t) \rangle_{\mathbb{R}} = c_n(t)$ so

$$i\hbar \frac{d}{dt} c_m(t) = \sum_n V_{mn}(t) e^{i\omega_{mn}t} c_n(t)$$

$$\text{where } \omega_{mn} = \frac{E_m - E_n}{\hbar}$$

so we have a set of n ordinary differential equations for $c_n(t)$

$$i\hbar \dot{\vec{c}} = \vec{V} \cdot \vec{c}$$

Looking at a simple example: A two-level system.

$$H_0 = E_1 |1\rangle\langle 1| + E_2 |2\rangle\langle 2| \quad (E_2 > E_1)$$

$$V(t) = \gamma e^{i\omega t} |1\rangle\langle 2| + \gamma e^{-i\omega t} |2\rangle\langle 1| \quad \omega, \gamma \text{ are real and positive}$$

Look for a solution w/ initial conditions $c_1(0) = 1$
 $c_2(0) = 0$

$$i\hbar \dot{c}_1 = \gamma e^{+i\omega t} e^{-i\omega_2 t} c_2$$

$$i\hbar \dot{c}_2 = \gamma e^{-i\omega t} e^{i\omega_2 t} c_1$$

or

$$\frac{d}{dt} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\gamma}{i\hbar} \begin{pmatrix} 0 & e^{i(\omega - \omega_2)t} \\ e^{-i(\omega - \omega_2)t} & 0 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \end{pmatrix} \quad \left(\text{let } \frac{\gamma}{i\hbar} = -i\bar{\gamma} \right)$$

$$\text{So } \ddot{c}_1 = -i\bar{\gamma} e^{i(\omega - \omega_2)t} \dot{c}_2 + i(\omega - \omega_2) e^{i(\omega - \omega_2)t} c_2 (-i\bar{\gamma})$$

$$\text{define } \omega - \omega_2 = \nu$$

$$\ddot{c}_1 = -\bar{\gamma}^2 c_1 + i\nu \dot{c}_1 \Rightarrow \dot{c}_1 + i\nu \dot{c}_1 + \bar{\gamma}^2 c_1 = 0$$

$$\alpha \quad \ddot{c}_2 = -\bar{\gamma} i e^{-i\nu t} c_1 - i\bar{\gamma} (-i\nu) c_1 e^{-i\nu t}$$

$$\ddot{c}_2 = (i\bar{\gamma})^2 c_2 - i\nu \dot{c}_2$$

$$\ddot{c}_2 + 2i\nu \dot{c}_2 + \bar{\gamma}^2 c_2 = 0$$

$$c_2 \sim e^{\alpha t} \Rightarrow \alpha^2 + i\nu \alpha + \bar{\gamma}^2 = 0$$

$$\alpha = \frac{-i\nu}{2} \pm \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{-\nu^2 - 4\bar{\gamma}^2}$$

$$c_2 = A e^{\frac{-i\nu}{2} t} e^{i \sqrt{\frac{\nu^2 - 4\bar{\gamma}^2}{4}} t} + B e^{\frac{-i\nu}{2} t} e^{i \sqrt{\frac{\nu^2 + 4\bar{\gamma}^2}{4}} t}$$

$$c_2(0) = 0 \Rightarrow A + B = 0 \text{ fixed } 1-25-10$$

$$c_2(t) = A e^{\frac{-i\nu}{2} t} 2i \sin \left[\sqrt{\frac{\bar{\gamma}^2 + \frac{(\omega - \omega_0)^2}{4}}{4}} t \right]; \quad \nu = \omega - \omega_0$$

and

$$\dot{c}_1 = -i\bar{\gamma} e^{i\nu t} A e^{\frac{-i\nu}{2} t} 2i \sin \left[\sqrt{\frac{\bar{\gamma}^2 + \frac{(\omega - \omega_0)^2}{4}}{4}} t \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow c_1(t) = \underbrace{1}_{c_1(0)} + 2A \int_0^t dt e^{\frac{i\nu}{2} t} \sin[\bar{\omega} t]$$

$$c_1(t) = 1 + \frac{2A}{\nu^2 - \left(\frac{4\bar{\gamma}^2 + \nu^2}{4}\right)} \left[-4\sqrt{\quad} + 2e^{i\nu t/2} (2\sqrt{\quad} \cos(\sqrt{\quad} t) - i\nu \sin(\sqrt{\quad} t)) \right]$$

$$\text{when } t=0 \quad c_1(0) = 1 = 1 + \frac{2A}{-\frac{4\bar{\gamma}^2}{4}} \left[-4\sqrt{\quad} + 4\sqrt{\quad} \right] = 1 \quad \checkmark$$

whoops!

or

or try this the other way...

$$c_1(t) = \frac{i\hbar}{\gamma} e^{+i\nu t} \dot{c}_2(t)$$

$$\dot{c}_2 = 2iA e^{-i\nu t/2} \left(\sqrt{\quad} \cos(\sqrt{\quad} t) - \frac{i\nu}{2} \sin(\sqrt{\quad} t) \right)$$

$$c_1(t) = -\frac{2A\hbar}{\gamma} e^{i\nu t/2} \left(\sqrt{\quad} \cos(\sqrt{\quad} t) - \frac{i\nu}{2} \sin(\sqrt{\quad} t) \right)$$

$$c_1(0) = 1 \Rightarrow A = -\frac{\gamma}{2\hbar} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\quad}}$$

$$\Rightarrow c_2(t) = \frac{-i\gamma}{\hbar} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{(\omega - \omega_{12})^2}{4}}} e^{-i(\omega - \omega_{12})t/2} \sin \left[\sqrt{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{(\omega - \omega_{12})^2}{4}} t \right]$$

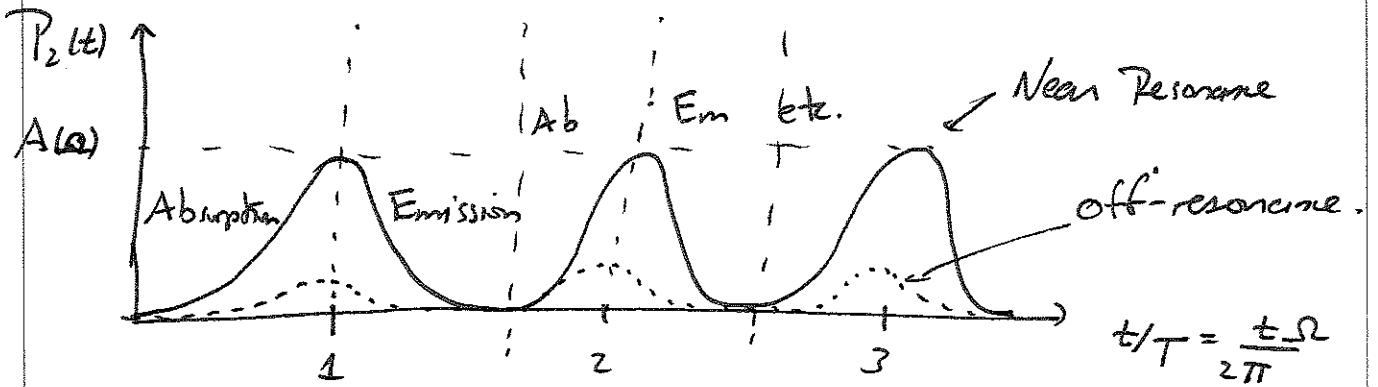
$$c_1(t) = e^{i(\omega - \omega_{12})t/2} \left(\cos \left(\sqrt{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{(\omega - \omega_{12})^2}{4}} t \right) - \frac{i(\omega - \omega_{12}) \sin \left[\sqrt{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{(\omega - \omega_{12})^2}{4}} t \right]}{2 \sqrt{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{(\omega - \omega_{12})^2}{4}}} \right)$$

Rabi's Formula I.I. Rabi

$$P_2(t) = \frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} \frac{1}{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{(\omega - \omega_{12})^2}{4}} \sin^2 \left(\sqrt{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + \frac{(\omega - \omega_{12})^2}{4}} t \right) \leftarrow \text{Probability to find the system in state 2}$$

$$\text{and } P_1(t) = 1 - P_2(t) \leftarrow \text{Probability to find the system in state 1.}$$

Rabi: Nobel prize in physics 1944 - Columbia phys. department from 1929 to 1988!!



$\sin^2(\omega t)$ has max at $\omega t = \pi/2$ $\omega t = 3\pi/2$ or

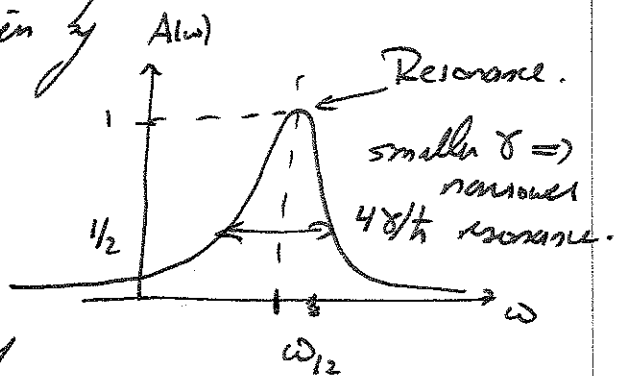
$T = \frac{\pi}{\omega}$. In this case the occupation

of state 2 is oscillating with period

$$\frac{\pi}{\sqrt{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + (\omega - \omega_{12})^2/4}} = T = \frac{2\pi}{\Omega}$$

The amplitude of oscillation is given by

$$\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} \frac{1}{\frac{\gamma^2}{\hbar^2} + (\omega - \omega_{12})^2/4} = A(\omega)$$

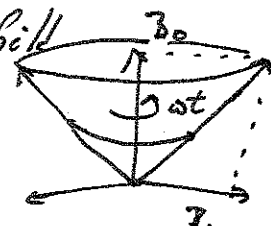


Probability of a transition between very large when $\omega = \omega_{12} = (E_2 - E_1)/\hbar$ Resonance condition.

A physical application: Spin Magnetic Resonance.

Consider a spin-1/2 system in a rotating B-field

$$\vec{B} = B_0 \hat{z} + B_1 (\hat{x} \cos \omega t + \hat{y} \sin \omega t)$$



magnetic moment $\vec{\mu} = \frac{e}{mc} \vec{S}$

$$H_0 = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}_0$$

$$V(t) = -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B}_1$$

$$H_0 = \frac{-e\hbar B_0}{2mc} [|+\rangle\langle +| - |-\rangle\langle -|]; \quad V(t) = \frac{-e\hbar B_1}{2mc} [\cos(\omega t) (|+\rangle\langle -| + |-\rangle\langle +|) + \sin(\omega t) (|+\rangle\langle -| - |-\rangle\langle +|)]$$

We just put in S_x, S_y .

Clearly the upper state is $|+\rangle$ and the lower is $|-\rangle$.

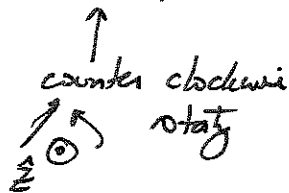
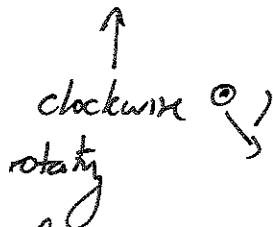
$$\omega_{21} = \frac{|e|B}{mc} \leftarrow \text{spin precession frequency for } B_0, B_1=0$$

$$\text{Note that } U|e\rangle = -\frac{e\hbar B_1}{2mc} \left[(\cos\omega t - i\sin\omega t) |+\rangle - 1 + (\cos\omega t + i\sin\omega t) |-\rangle \right] = -\frac{e\hbar B_1}{2mc} \left[e^{-i\omega t} |+\rangle - 1 + e^{i\omega t} |-\rangle \right]$$

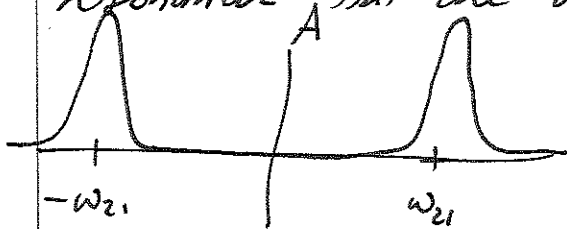
so $\gamma = \frac{-e\hbar B_1}{2mc}$ and $\omega = \omega$ is our Rabi's solution.

Side Note: In practice a rotating magnetic field is not used - rather a oscillating one $B_1 \hat{x} \cos\omega t = \frac{1}{2} B_1 [\hat{x} \cos\omega t + \hat{y} \sin\omega t] +$

$$\frac{1}{2} B_1 [\hat{x} \cos\omega t - \hat{y} \sin\omega t]$$



If the lines are narrow $\frac{B_1}{B_0} \ll 1 \Rightarrow \frac{\gamma}{\hbar} \ll \omega_{21}$ then the resonance line at ω_{21} is well-separated from the ~~one~~ one at $-\omega_{21}$ so really empty we said before is the same - just two resonances that are well-separated instead of 1.



Say something about NMR.

Time-dependent perturbations they

looking for approximate solutions to the differential equation for $C_n(t)$

We should be able to find an expansion of the form:

$$C_n(t) = C_n^{(0)}(t) + \lambda C_n^{(1)}(t) + \lambda^2 C_n^{(2)}(t) + \dots$$

$$\text{where } H = H_0 + \lambda V(t)$$

↖ small parameter.

We will obtain a perturbation expansion for $U_I(t, t_0)$ - the time-development operator in the interaction picture.

$$|\alpha, t_0; t\rangle_I = U_I(t, t_0) |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle$$

$$i\hbar \partial_t |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle_I = V_I |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle_I \Rightarrow$$

$$i\hbar \partial_t U_I(t, t_0) = V_I U_I(t, t_0) \quad \text{with the initial condition} \\ U_I(t_0, t_0) = 1.$$

Integrate both sides.

$$U_I(t, t_0) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt' V_I(t') U_I(t', t_0)$$

Now iterate:

$$U_I(t, t_0) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt' V_I(t') + \left(\frac{-i}{\hbar}\right)^2 \int_{t_0}^t dt' V_I(t') \int_{t_0}^{t'} dt'' V_I(t'') U_I(t'', t_0)$$

Continuing, we get:

$$U_I(t, t_0) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t dt' V_I(t') + \left(\frac{-i}{\hbar}\right)^2 \int_{t_0}^t dt' V_I(t') \int_{t_0}^{t'} dt'' V_I(t'') + \dots + \left(\frac{-i}{\hbar}\right)^n \int_{t_0}^t dt' \int_{t_0}^{t'} dt''$$

Transition Probability

$$|i, t\rangle_I = U_I(t, 0) |i\rangle$$

← state at $t=0$

↑ state in the future.

$$|i, t\rangle_I = \sum_n |n\rangle \langle n | U_I(t, 0) | i \rangle$$

$c_n(t)$ ← This was our earlier name for it.

The connection between $U(t, 0)$ and $U_I(t, 0)$

Schrödinger picture.

$$|\alpha, t_0; t\rangle_I = e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle_S = e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} U(t, t_0) |\alpha, t_0; t_0\rangle_S$$

$$\text{so } |\alpha, t_0; t\rangle_I = e^{iH_0 t/\hbar} U(t, t_0) e^{-iH_0 t_0/\hbar} |\alpha, t_0; t_0\rangle_S$$

This must be $U_I(t, t_0)$ — see the first line on this page.

$$\text{So } \langle n | U_I(t, t_0) | i \rangle = e^{i(E_n t - E_i t_0)/\hbar} \langle n | U(t, t_0) | i \rangle$$

This is the transition amplitude that we defined in Chapter 2.

$$\text{so } |\langle n | U_I(t, t_0) | i \rangle|^2 = |\langle n | U(t, t_0) | i \rangle|^2$$

The transition probabilities are equal as long as $|n\rangle, |i\rangle$ are energy eigenkets.

(5.27) II

How do we use the Dyson Expansion?

At $t=t_0$ we have the system in state $|i\rangle$. In the S-picture

$$|i, t_0; t\rangle_S = e^{i\varphi} |i\rangle \text{ at } t=t_0.$$

↖ unknown phase

It is convenient to pick this phase to be: $e^{-iE_i t_0/\hbar}$ so that

$$|i, t_0; t_0\rangle_S = e^{-iE_i t_0/\hbar} |i\rangle \Rightarrow$$

$$|i, t_0; t_0\rangle_I = |i\rangle$$

Now, we let the system evolve forward in time:

$$|i, t_0; t\rangle_I = U_I(t, t_0) |i\rangle \quad \text{Expand in ket } |n\rangle$$

$$|i, t_0; t\rangle_I = \sum_n |n\rangle \underbrace{\langle n | U_I(t, t_0) | i \rangle}_{c_n(t)}$$

Now, plug in our expansion for U_I :

$$c_n^{(0)}(t) = \delta_{ni}$$

$$c_n^{(1)}(t) = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t \langle n | V_I(t') | i \rangle dt' = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \int_{t_0}^t V_{ni}(t') dt'$$

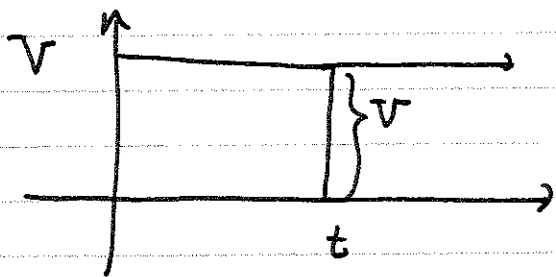
Note: If the interaction picture

$$c_n^{(2)} = \left(-\frac{i}{\hbar}\right)^2 \int_{t_0}^t dt' \sum_m \int_{t_0}^{t'} dt'' e^{i\omega_{mn}t'} V_{nm}(t') e^{i\omega_{mi}t''} V_{mi}(t'')$$

Where $\omega_{ab} = \frac{E_a - E_b}{\hbar}$

Some Examples

A. Constant Perturbation



$$V(t) = \begin{cases} 0, & t < 0 \\ V, & t \geq 0 \end{cases}$$

Take $t_0 = 0$.

$$C_n^{(0)} = \delta_{in}$$

$$C_n^{(1)} = \frac{-i}{\hbar} V_{ni} \int_0^t e^{i\omega_{ni}t'} dt' = \frac{-i}{\hbar} \frac{1}{i\omega_{ni}} (e^{i\omega_{ni}t} - 1)$$

$$= \frac{1}{E_n - E_i} (1 - e^{+i\omega_{ni}t})$$

so the 1st order result for the transition probability $n \neq i$

$$|C_n^{(1)}(t)|^2 = \frac{|V_{ni}|^2}{(E_n - E_i)^2} [2 - 2\cos(\omega_{ni}t)]$$

Recall the half-angle formula: $\sin^2(x/2) + \cos^2(x/2) = 1$ or

$$2 \sin^2(x/2) = 1 - \cos^2(x/2) + \sin^2(x/2) = 1 - [\cos^2(x/2) - \sin^2(x/2)]$$

$$2 \sin^2(x/2) = 1 - \cos(2 \cdot \frac{x}{2}) = 1 - \cos(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow |C_n^{(1)}(t)|^2 = \frac{4|V_{ni}|^2}{(E_n - E_i)^2} \sin^2\left[\frac{(E_n - E_i)t}{2\hbar}\right]$$

Say $|V_{ni}| \neq 0$, what does $|c_n^{(1)}(t)|^2$ look like as a function of the energy of the state n at a fixed time?

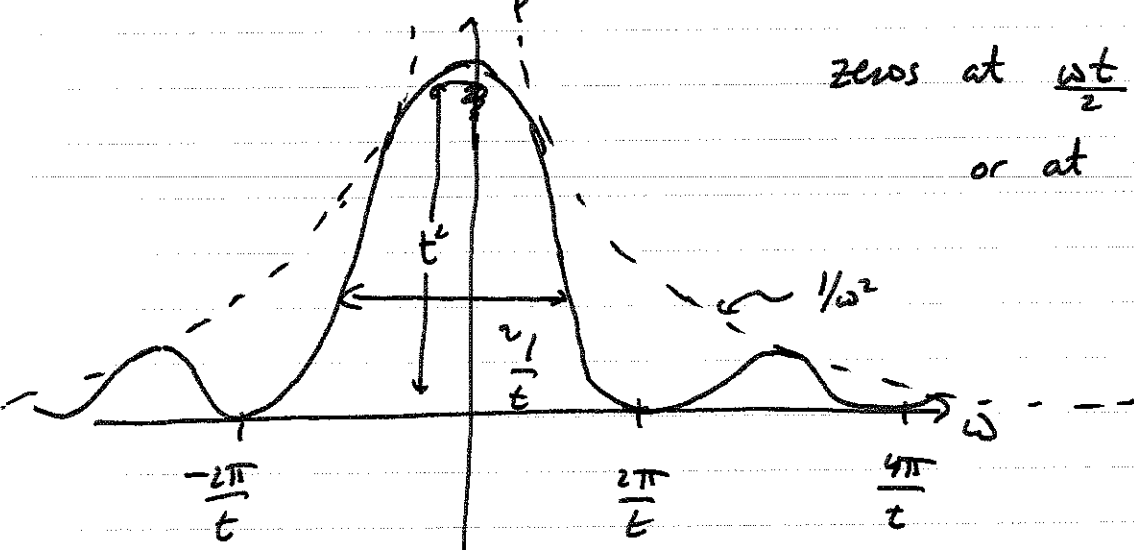
$$P_n(t) = \frac{4 |V_{ni}|^2}{\hbar^2} \frac{1}{\omega^2} \sin^2\left[\frac{\omega t}{2}\right]$$

↑
transition probability

Limits $\omega \rightarrow \pm\infty$ $P \rightarrow 0$
 $\omega \rightarrow 0$ $P \rightarrow 0 \frac{\omega^2 t^2}{4} \sim t^2$
 $\omega^2 4$ ↑
 height of peak.

and call $E_n - E_i = \hbar\omega$

zeros at $\frac{\omega t}{2} = \pi, 2\pi, \dots$
 or at $\omega = \pm \frac{2\pi}{t}, \omega = \pm \frac{4\pi}{t}$



Another statement of the time-energy uncertainty relation!
 for fixed ω need $t < \frac{2\pi}{|\omega|}$ for a significant probability of a transition! What does that mean?

$$\Delta t < \frac{2\pi}{|\omega|} = \frac{2\pi\hbar}{|E_n - E_i|} \Rightarrow \boxed{\Delta E \Delta t \lesssim \hbar}$$

↑
observation time

Energy nonconservation is ok as long as it doesn't last too long!

So, at long times we expect $E_n = E_i$?! What happens then 5.30 II

if $E_n = E_i$ then
$$P_n(t) = \frac{4 |\langle n | i \rangle|^2}{\hbar^2} \frac{t^2}{4} = \frac{|\langle n | i \rangle|^2 t^2}{\hbar^2}$$

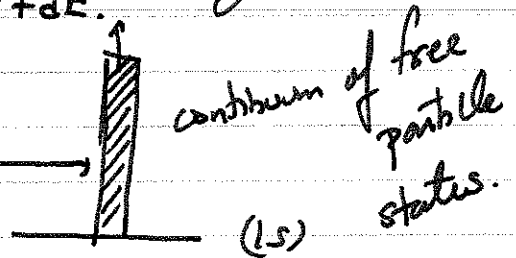
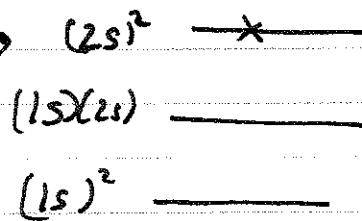
The $P_n \propto t^2$ seems odd. After all, there should be some fixed rate of transitions from $i \rightarrow n$ so $P \propto t$.

To interpret this odd result it helps to think about states arbitrarily close to E_i in energy.

introduce: $\rho(E) =$ density of state = # states w/ energy between E and $E + dE$.

Example: Auger Process

e.g. He in excited state



He⁺ in ground state and one free electron

At long times we need to consider the sum of probabilities to all states w/ energy nearly equal to the excited atom.

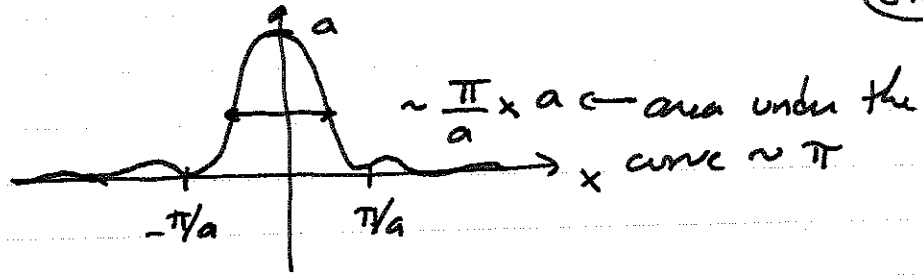
$$\int dE_n \rho(E_n) |C_n^{(1)}(t)|^2 = 4 \int dE_n \rho(E_n) \frac{|\langle n | i \rangle|^2}{|E_n - E_i|^2} \sin^2 \left[\frac{(E_n - E_i)t}{2\hbar} \right]$$

This integral becomes easy in the large t limit!

$$\lim_{\alpha \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{\sin^2(\alpha x)}{\alpha x^2} = \delta(x) \text{ Why?}$$

(5.31) II

Plot: $\frac{\sin^2(ax)}{ax^2}$



$$\text{so } \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{1}{(E_n - E_i)^2} \sin^2 \left[\frac{(E_n - E_i)t}{2\hbar} \right] = \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \frac{t}{2\hbar} \frac{2\hbar}{(E_n - E_i)t} \sin^2 \left[\frac{(E_n - E_i)t}{2\hbar} \right]$$

$$\left[\text{so } a = \frac{t}{2\hbar}, x = (E_n - E_i) \right] = \frac{\pi t}{2\hbar} \delta(E_n - E_i)$$

$$\text{so } \lim_{t \rightarrow \infty} \int dE_n \rho(E_n) |C_n^{(i)}(t)|^2 = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{ni}|^2 \rho(E_i) t \Big|_{E_n = E_i}$$

averaged over all states of energy $E_n = E_i$

Now, we have a linear time dependence so we have a constant transition rate at long times.

$$W_{i \rightarrow [n]} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{ni}|^2 \rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i}$$

↑
transition rate from $|i\rangle$ to $|n\rangle$. This is typically written as:

This expression must be integrated over $\rho(E)dE$.

$$W_{i \rightarrow n} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{ni}|^2 \delta(E_n - E_i) \quad \text{Fermi's Golden Rule.}$$

The time derivative hits $e^{i(E_i - E_n - \hbar\omega)t/\hbar}$ and e^{2t} . (5.33) II

Define $\overline{W}_{i \rightarrow n}(t) = \frac{4 W_{i \rightarrow n}}{2\gamma} \frac{e^{-2\gamma t}}{|V_{ni}|^2}$ Actual transition rate
 transition rate without all the prefactors.

Then
$$\overline{W}_{i \rightarrow n} = \frac{1}{x^2 + \delta^2} + \frac{1}{y^2 + \delta^2} + 2 \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \frac{e^{-2i\omega t}}{(x+i\delta)(y-i\delta)} \right\} + \frac{2}{\gamma} \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \frac{-i\omega e^{-2i\omega t}}{(x+i\delta)(y-i\delta)} \right\}$$
 where $x = \Delta E + \hbar\omega$ $\delta = \gamma \hbar$
 $y = \Delta E - \hbar\omega$

Note: The first three terms come from the derivative of $e^{2\gamma t} \rightarrow 2\gamma e^{2\gamma t} |\{ \} |^2$. The last term comes from the derivative of $e^{i(E_n - E_i - \hbar\omega)t/\hbar} e^{-i(E_n - E_i + \hbar\omega)t/\hbar} = e^{-2i\omega t}$

So:
$$\overline{W}_{i \rightarrow n} = \frac{1}{x^2 + \delta^2} + \frac{1}{y^2 + \delta^2} + 2X$$

where
$$X = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \frac{(1 - i\omega/\gamma) e^{-2i\omega t}}{(x+i\delta)(y-i\delta)} \right\}$$

from the cross term in the $|\{ \} |^2$. The basic question is: what is the effect of the interference between the $e^{i\omega t}$ and $e^{-i\omega t}$ parts of the perturbation?

(5.34) II

$$\underline{X} = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \frac{(1 - i\omega/2)e^{-2i\omega t}}{xy + \delta^2 - i\delta(x-y)} \right\} = \operatorname{Re} \left\{ \frac{(1 - i\omega/2)e^{-2i\omega t} [xy + \delta^2 + i\delta(x-y)]}{(xy + \delta^2)^2 + \delta^2(x-y)^2} \right\}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Now: } (xy + \delta^2)^2 + \delta^2(x-y)^2 &= x^2y^2 + 2xy\delta^2 + \delta^4 + \delta^2(x^2 + y^2 - 2xy) \\ &= x^2y^2 + \delta^4 + \delta^2(x^2 + y^2) \\ &= (x^2 + \delta^2)(y^2 + \delta^2) \end{aligned}$$

So:

$$\underline{X} = \frac{1}{(x^2 + \delta^2)(y^2 + \delta^2)} \operatorname{Re} \left\{ [\cos(2\omega t) - i \sin(2\omega t)] [1 - i\omega/2] [(xy + \delta^2) + i\delta(x-y)] \right\} \quad \text{or}$$

$$\underline{X} = \frac{[C \cos(2\omega t) + S \sin(2\omega t)]}{(x^2 + \delta^2)(y^2 + \delta^2)} \quad \text{where } C = xy + \delta^2 + \frac{\omega}{2}\delta(x-y)$$

$$\text{So } C = (\Delta E)^2 - (\hbar\omega)^2 + \left(\frac{\omega}{2}\delta\right)^2 + \hbar\omega(2\hbar\omega) = (\Delta E)^2 + (\hbar\omega)^2 + \left(\frac{\omega}{2}\delta\right)^2$$

$$\text{or } C = \frac{1}{2}(x^2 + y^2) + \delta^2 \Rightarrow$$

$$\boxed{\frac{C}{(x^2 + \delta^2)(y^2 + \delta^2)} = \frac{1}{2} \left[\frac{1}{x^2 + \delta^2} + \frac{1}{y^2 + \delta^2} \right]}$$

$$S = \frac{-\omega}{2}(xy + \delta^2) + \delta(x-y)$$

Now we can write

$$\frac{S}{(x^2 + \delta^2)(y^2 + \delta^2)} = -\frac{1}{\hbar^2} \frac{(\Delta E)^2 - \hbar^3 \omega^3 - \hbar^3 \omega^2 \gamma^2}{(x^2 + \delta^2)(y^2 + \delta^2)}$$

This can be written as:

$$\left(\frac{x}{x^2 + \delta^2} - \frac{y}{y^2 + \delta^2} \right) A \quad \text{where } A = \frac{1}{2\hbar^2}$$

and you can see this by putting over a common denominator

Now, finally (!!) we can construct the transition probability:

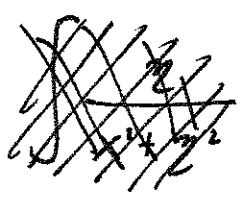
$$W_{i \rightarrow n}(t) = \frac{e^{2\gamma t}}{2} |V_{ni}|^2 \left[\frac{\gamma}{(\Delta E + \hbar\omega)^2 + \gamma^2 \hbar^2} + \frac{\gamma}{(\Delta E - \hbar\omega)^2 + (\gamma \hbar)^2} \right]$$

$$\cdot \left(1 + \cos(2\omega t) \right) + 2 \sin(2\omega t) \left[\frac{\Delta E/\hbar + \omega}{(\Delta E + \hbar\omega)^2 + (\gamma \hbar)^2} - \frac{(\Delta E/\hbar - \omega)}{(\Delta E - \hbar\omega)^2 + (\gamma \hbar)^2} \right]$$

Part from $e^{\pm i\omega t}$ separately Interference terms

To see that the interference terms don't matter, let's average this over time. Set $e^{i\gamma t} = 1$ but keep γ in the denominators.

~~we have~~

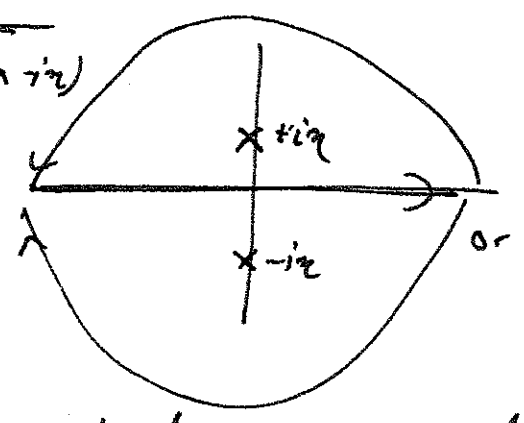


First $\overline{\cos(2\omega t)} = 0$
 $\overline{\sin(2\omega t)} = 0$

Now we need to consider integrals of the form $\int \frac{\gamma}{x^2 + \gamma^2} dx$ in the limit $\gamma \rightarrow 0$. ~~Potential~~ Perturbation on a long time!

First note $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{z}{x^2+z^2} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{z}{(x+iz)(x-iz)} dx$

$= 2\pi i z \frac{1}{2iz} = \pi$



But $f_z(x) = \frac{z}{x^2+z^2} \sim \frac{1}{x} \left[\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{x-iz}{x+iz} \right]$ Another representation of the δ -function! \Rightarrow

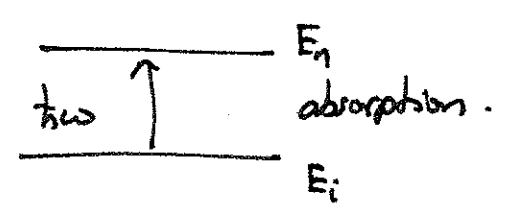
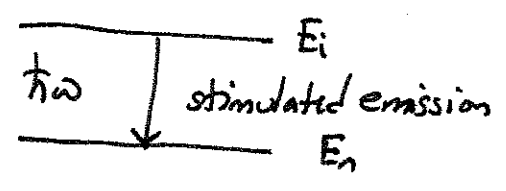
$$\overline{W_{i \rightarrow n}} = \frac{|V_{ni}|^2 \pi}{2 \hbar} \left[\delta(E_n - E_i - \hbar\omega) + \delta(E_n - E_i + \hbar\omega) \right]$$

averaged over a period

from the $(\hbar\omega)^2$ in the denominators!

So each part of the potential (perturbation) acts independently. on average. The interference between $e^{+i\omega t}$ and $e^{-i\omega t}$ parts cancel.

~~At~~ At long times ($t \rightarrow \infty$) we get transitions only if $\omega_{ni} = \pm \omega \Rightarrow E_n = E_i \pm \hbar\omega$



If we had worried about the difference between V_{ni} and V_{ni}^* (S.37) II
it wouldn't have mattered since $|V_{ni}|^2 = |V_{ni}^*|^2$

We have just derived the principle of detailed balance:

$$\text{Emission: } W_{i \rightarrow n}^E = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{ni}|^2 \rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i - \hbar\omega}$$

$$\text{Absorption: } W_{i \rightarrow n}^A = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{ni}|^2 \rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i + \hbar\omega}$$

\Rightarrow

$$\frac{W_{i \rightarrow n}^E}{W_{i \rightarrow n}^A} = \frac{\rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i - \hbar\omega}}{\rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i + \hbar\omega}}$$

Detailed Balance.

Harmonic Perturbations

$$V(t) = \left(\frac{V}{2} e^{i\omega t} + \frac{V^\dagger}{2} e^{-i\omega t} \right) e^{-\eta t}$$

turn it on slowly in the distant past.

$$\Rightarrow C_n(t) = \frac{-i}{\hbar} \int_{-\infty}^t dt' \left\{ e^{i(\omega + \omega_{ni} - i\eta)t'} \frac{V_{ni}}{2} + e^{i(-\omega + \omega_{ni} - i\eta)t'} \frac{V_{ni}^\dagger}{2} \right\}$$

Note: $V_{ni}^\dagger = \langle n | V^\dagger | i \rangle$.

Doing the integral: $\int_{-\infty}^t e^{i(x-i\eta)t'} dt' = \frac{1}{i(x-i\eta)} (e^{i(x-i\eta)t} - e^{-\infty})$

if η is small enough (i.e. slow enough turn on...)

$$C_n(t) = \frac{-i}{2\hbar} \left\{ V_{ni} \frac{e^{i(\omega + \omega_{ni})t}}{i(\omega + \omega_{ni} - i\eta)} + \frac{V_{ni}^\dagger}{(\omega_{ni} - \omega - i\eta)i} e^{i(\omega_{ni} - \omega)t} \right\}$$

or we can write this out as:

$$C_n^{(1)}(t) = \frac{e^{-\eta t}}{2} \left\{ \frac{e^{i(E_n - E_i + \hbar\omega)t/\hbar}}{E_i - E_n - \hbar\omega + i\hbar\eta} + \frac{e^{i(E_n - E_i - \hbar\omega)t/\hbar}}{E_i - E_n + \hbar\omega + i\hbar\eta} \right\} V_{ni}$$

say that V is Hermitian.

We want to compute $\frac{d}{dt} |C_n^{(1)}(t)|^2$ — A Big Mess!

Let's be careful and work this out:

First we'll compute $|\{ \} |^2 \Rightarrow$ why?

As $t \rightarrow \infty$ we get transitions only if:

$$\omega_{ni} + \omega = 0 \quad \text{or} \quad \omega_{ni} - \omega = 0 \Rightarrow$$

$$E_n = E_i \pm \hbar\omega \quad \text{and} \quad \begin{array}{c} E_i \\ \hline \downarrow \hbar\omega \\ E_n \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{c} \hline \uparrow \hbar\omega \\ E_n \end{array}$$

$$W_{i \rightarrow n} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \left(\begin{array}{c} |V_{ni}|^2 \\ \text{or } |V_{in}|^2 \\ |V_{ni}|^2 \end{array} \right) \delta(E_n - E_i \pm \hbar\omega) \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{stimulated} \\ \text{Emission} \end{array} \quad \text{Absorption}$$

these are equal.

Note: $W_{i \rightarrow n} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{ni}|^2 \rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i - \hbar\omega}$ Emission

$$W_{i \rightarrow n} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |V_{ni}|^2 \rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i + \hbar\omega} \quad \text{Absorption}$$

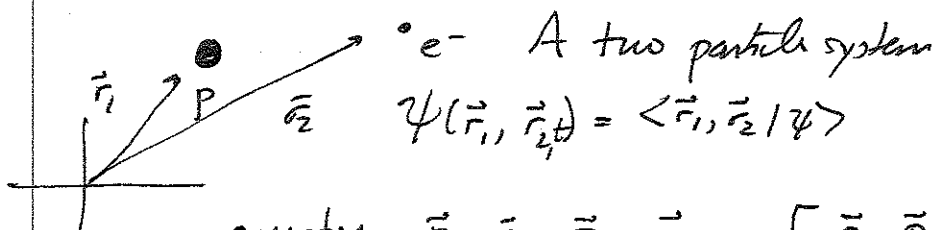
$$\Rightarrow \frac{W_{i \rightarrow n}^{\text{EM}}}{W_{i \rightarrow n}^{\text{A}}} = \frac{\rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i - \hbar\omega}}{\rho(E_n) \Big|_{E_n = E_i + \hbar\omega}} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{Ratio of the rates} = \text{ratio of} \\ \text{the density of final states} \end{array}$$

Principle of Detailed Balance.

Some Applications of Perturbation Theory.

To have some interesting problems to look at, we are going to review some features of simple atomic structure.

The Hydrogen Atom:

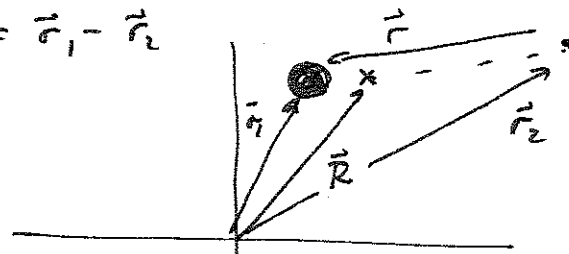


operators $\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, \vec{p}_1, \vec{p}_2$ $[\vec{r}_1, \vec{p}_2] = [\vec{r}_2, \vec{p}_1] = 0$.

These particles interact via a potential $V(\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2)$

$$H = \frac{\vec{p}_1^2}{2m_1} + \frac{\vec{p}_2^2}{2m_2} + V(\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2)$$

Work in terms of center of mass $\vec{R} = \frac{m_1 \vec{r}_1 + m_2 \vec{r}_2}{m_1 + m_2}$ and relate coordinates $\vec{r} = \vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2$



Define: $M = m_1 + m_2$
total mass of the atom.

and similarly for the momenta: $\vec{I} = \vec{p}_1 + \vec{p}_2$

$$\vec{p} = \frac{m_2 \vec{p}_1 - m_1 \vec{p}_2}{m_1 + m_2} \text{ relative momentum.}$$

Then

$$\frac{p_1^2}{2m_1} + \frac{p_2^2}{2m_2} = ?$$

$$\vec{p}_1 = \vec{I} - \vec{p}_2 = \vec{I} - \frac{m_2 \vec{p}_1 - m_1 \vec{p}_2}{m_1} \Rightarrow \vec{p}_1 \left(\frac{m_1 + m_2}{m_1} \right) = \vec{I} - \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p}$$

$$M \vec{p} = m_2 \vec{p}_1 - m_1 \vec{p}_2 \text{ or}$$

$$m_1 \vec{p}_2 = m_2 \vec{p}_1 - M \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{p}_1 = \frac{m_1}{M} \vec{I} - \vec{p}$$

and
$$\vec{p}_2 = \frac{m_2}{m_1} \vec{p}_1 - \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{p}_2 = \frac{m_2}{M} \vec{I} - \frac{m_2}{m_1} \vec{p} - \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{p}_2 = \frac{m_2}{M} \vec{I} - \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{p}_1 = \vec{I} - \vec{p}_2 \text{ and}$$

$$M \vec{p} = m_2 \vec{p}_1 - m_1 \vec{p}_2 \text{ or } \vec{p}_2 m_1 = m_2 \vec{p}_1 - M \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{p}_2 = \frac{m_2}{m_1} \vec{p}_1 - \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{p}_1 = \vec{I} - \frac{m_2}{m_1} \vec{p}_1 + \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p} \Rightarrow \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p}_1 = \vec{I} + \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{p}_1 = \frac{m_1}{M} \vec{I} + \vec{p} \text{ and}$$

$$\vec{p}_2 = \frac{m_2}{M} \vec{I} + \frac{m_2}{m_1} \vec{p} - \frac{M}{m_1} \vec{p} = \frac{m_2}{M} \vec{I} - \vec{p}$$

So:

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} \vec{p}_1 &= \frac{m_1}{M} \vec{I} + \vec{p} \\ \vec{p}_2 &= \frac{m_2}{M} \vec{I} - \vec{p} \end{aligned}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{P_1^2}{2m_1} + \frac{P_2^2}{2m_2} &= \left(\frac{m_1^2 P^2 + 2 \frac{m_1}{M} \vec{P} \cdot \vec{p} + p^2 \right) \frac{1}{2m_1} + \frac{1}{2m_2} \left(\frac{m_2^2 P^2 + 2 \frac{m_2}{M} \vec{p} \cdot \vec{P} + p^2 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{2M^2} (m_1 + m_2) P^2 + \frac{1}{M} \vec{P} \cdot \vec{p} - \frac{1}{M} \vec{P} \cdot \vec{p} + \left(\frac{1}{2m_1} + \frac{1}{2m_2} \right) p^2 \\ &= \frac{P^2}{2M} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{m_1 + m_2}{m_1 m_2} \right) p^2 = \frac{P^2}{2M} + \frac{1}{2m} p^2 \end{aligned}$$

↑
 Define reduced mass $m = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \approx m_e$ (hand)
 ↑
 \Rightarrow since $m_p \gg m_e$

In the position representation:

$$\vec{P} = -i\hbar \vec{\nabla}_R \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{p} = -i\hbar \vec{\nabla}_r$$

check one of these: $\vec{r} = \vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2$ $\vec{R} = \frac{m_1 \vec{r}_1 + m_2 \vec{r}_2}{m_1 + m_2}$

$$\Rightarrow \vec{r}_1 = \frac{m_2}{M} \vec{r} + \vec{R} \quad \vec{r}_2 = \vec{R} - \frac{m_1}{M} \vec{r}$$

$$\partial_r = \left. \frac{\partial r_1}{\partial r} \right|_R \frac{\partial}{\partial r_1} + \left. \frac{\partial r_2}{\partial r} \right|_R \frac{\partial}{\partial r_2} \Rightarrow$$

$$\partial_r = \frac{m_2}{M} \partial_{r_1} - \frac{m_1}{M} \partial_{r_2} \quad \text{so} \quad \vec{p}_{\text{op}} = \left(\frac{m_2}{M} \partial_{r_1} - \frac{m_1}{M} \partial_{r_2} \right) (-i\hbar)$$

↑
in x-basis

so, in the coordinate system $= -i\hbar \partial_r$ as expected.

of \vec{r}, \vec{R} we have a Schrödinger Equation

$$\left[\frac{-\hbar^2}{2M} \nabla_R^2 - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_r^2 + V(r) \right] \varphi(\vec{r}, \vec{R}, t) = i\hbar \partial_t \varphi(\vec{r}, \vec{R}, t)$$

This is clearly separable: $\varphi(\vec{r}, \vec{R}, t) = \varphi_r(\vec{r}, t) \varphi_R(\vec{R}, t)$

This is the only nontrivial part of the problem.

Just a free particle wavefunction.

The potential for the relative coordinate is $V(r) = \frac{-e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$

$\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi) R(r)$ ← where $R(r)$ obeys:

↑
Spherically symmetric potential.

$$\left(\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2mr^2} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \right) R(r) = E_r R(r)$$

for each l there are an infinite set of solutions labeled by n , the principal quantum number $n \geq l+1$

$$R_{nl}(r) = - \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{na_0}\right)^3 \frac{(n-l-1)!}{2r[(n+l)!]^3}} e^{-r/na_0} \left(\frac{2r}{na_0}\right)^l L_{n+l}^{2l+1}\left(\frac{2r}{na_0}\right)$$

where $L_{n+l}^{2l+1}(x) = \sum_{k=0}^{n-l-1} \frac{(-1)^{k+1} [(n+l)!]^2 x^k}{(n-l-1-k)! (2l+1+k)!}$ Associated Laguerre polynomials.

$$a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{m e^2} \leftarrow \text{Bohr radius.}$$

The energy eigenvalues are $E_n = \frac{-e^2}{2 \cancel{4\pi\epsilon_0} a_0} \frac{1}{n^2}$ Lyman formula.
= 13.6 eV

$\psi_{nlm}(r, \theta, \phi) = R_{nl}(r) Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$ are the wavefunctions of the

stationary states w/ Energy $E_n = -E_0 \frac{1}{n^2}$

A few low lying states

$$R_{10} = \frac{2}{a_0^{3/2}} e^{-r/a_0} \leftarrow \text{Ground state}$$

$$R_{20} = \frac{1}{(2a_0)^{3/2}} \left(2 - \frac{r}{a_0}\right) e^{-r/2a_0}; \quad R_{21} = \frac{1}{(2a_0)^{3/2}} \frac{r}{\sqrt{3}a_0} e^{-r/2a_0}$$

Rs of different n but some l are orthogonal.

- For each n we have states w/ $l=0, 1, 2, \dots, n-1$
- Each of these states has a $(2l+1)$ -fold degeneracy due to the azimuthal quantum number m .

\Rightarrow For each energy E_n there are

$$\sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (2l+1) \text{ degenerate states!!}$$

Note: $\sum_{l=0}^{n-1} l = 0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + \dots + n-1$

Note if $n-1 = \text{even}$

$$= \frac{(n-1)n}{2}$$

$0 + 1 + 2 + 3 + 4$

$(n-2)(n-1) + \frac{n-1}{2}$

$n^2 - 3n + 2$

$= 2 \times 4 + 2$

So:

$$\sum_{l=0}^{n-1} (2l+1) = (n-1)n + n = n^2$$

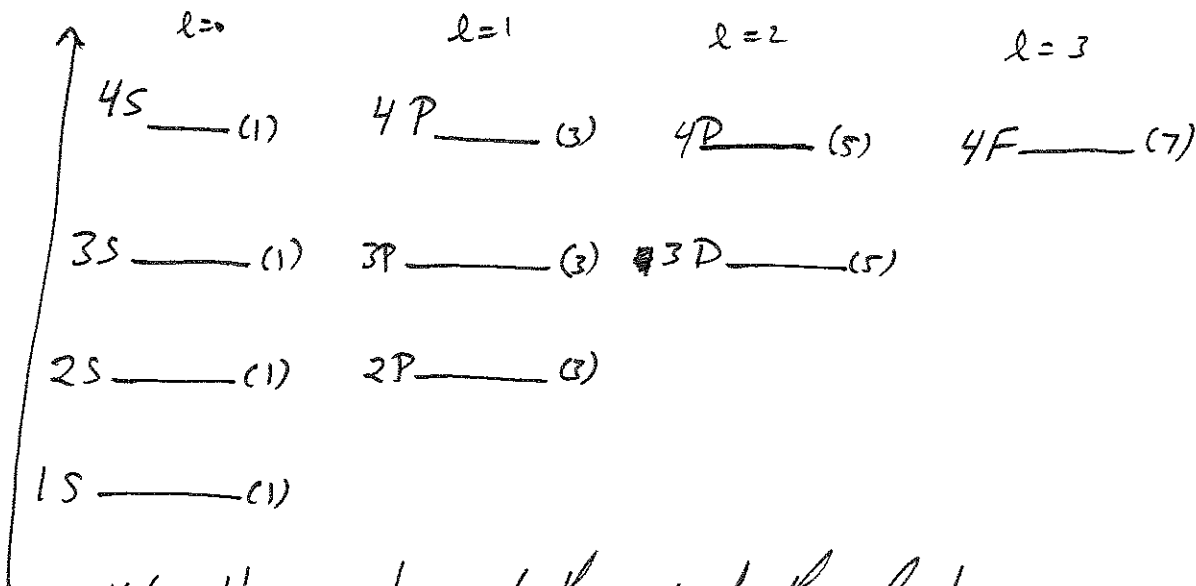
$\frac{(n-1)n}{2}$

if $n-1 = \text{odd}$

$0 + 1 + 2 + 3$

$\frac{(n-1)n}{2} = 3 \times \frac{4}{2} = 6$

\Rightarrow n^2 degenerate states.



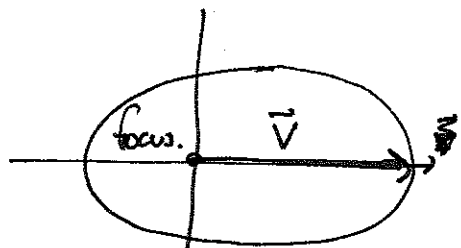
Note: Here we disregard the spin of the electron. more on that later.

Why are the l -levels for the same n degenerate: Symmetry of the Kepler Problem

Lenz's Vector is a constant of the motion:

$\vec{V} = \frac{1}{m} \vec{p} \times \vec{L} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \hat{r}$; the Hermitian operator corresponding to this is:

$$\vec{V} = \frac{1}{2m} [\vec{p} \times \vec{L} + \vec{L} \times \vec{p}] - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \hat{r}$$



You can check that $[\vec{V}, H] = 0$

$$\vec{V} \cdot \vec{L} = 0 \text{ and } \cancel{V^2 = \frac{1}{m^2} (\vec{p} \times \vec{L})^2 - \frac{2e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \vec{p} \cdot \vec{L} + \frac{e^4}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2}}$$

$$V^2 = \frac{e^4}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2} + \frac{2H(L^2 + \hbar^2)}{m} \leftarrow \text{This is for you to check this}$$

\vec{V} is a vector $\Rightarrow [V_i, L_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} V_k$ and

$[V_i, V_j] = i\hbar \left(\frac{-2H}{m}\right) \epsilon_{ijk} L_k \leftarrow$ You should be able to check this as well.

Define $\vec{K} = \sqrt{\frac{-m}{2H}} \vec{V}$

so $[K_i, K_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} K_k$ $[K_i, L_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} K_k$ and

$$[L_i, L_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} L_k$$

Note also that $-\frac{2H}{m} K^2 = \frac{e^4}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2} + \frac{2H}{m} (L^2 + \hbar^2)$ or

$H = \frac{-e^4 m}{2(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2} \frac{1}{K^2 + L^2 + \hbar^2}$ We will now compute the energies and their degeneracies using the commutation relations above.

Define: $\vec{M} = \frac{\vec{L} + \vec{K}}{2}$ $\vec{N} = \frac{\vec{L} - \vec{K}}{2}$

Then $[M_i, M_j] = \frac{1}{4} \{ [L_i, L_j] + [L_i, K_j] + [K_i, L_j] + [K_i, K_j] \}$

$$[M_i, M_j] = \frac{1}{4} \{ i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} L_k + i\hbar (-1) \epsilon_{jik} K_k + i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} K_k + i\hbar \epsilon_{jik} L_k \}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} (L_k + K_k) = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} M_k$$

Similarly, $[N_i, N_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} N_k$ and $[M_i, N_j] = 0$

$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \vec{M} \\ \vec{N} \end{array} \right\}$ acts like an angular momentum. These two "angular momenta" commute with each other. ~~$\vec{M} \cdot \vec{N} = \frac{1}{4} (\vec{L} + \vec{K}) \cdot (\vec{L} - \vec{K}) = \frac{1}{4} (L^2 - K^2)$~~

$$H = -\frac{me^4}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 \cdot 2} \left[\frac{1}{2M^2 + 2N^2 + \hbar^2} \right] \quad \text{since } (\vec{L} + \vec{K})^2 + (\vec{L} - \vec{K})^2 = 2(L^2 + K^2)$$

We can find simultaneous eigenkets of N^2, M^2 $|M, N, m_M, m_N\rangle$

$$M^2 |M, N, m_M, m_N\rangle = (M+1)(M)\hbar^2 |\dots\rangle \quad N_z, M_z$$

$$M_z |M, N, m_M, m_N\rangle = \hbar m_M |\dots\rangle \quad M \text{ can take on values } 0, 1/2, 1, 3/2, \dots \text{ and}$$

$$m_M = -M, \dots, M$$

$$m_N = -N, \dots, N$$

Since $\vec{V} \cdot \vec{L} = 0$ $\vec{K} \cdot \vec{L} = 0 \Rightarrow$

$M^2 = N^2 \Rightarrow$ Bound states of the H-atom correspond to $M = N$. $|M = N, m_M, m_N\rangle$ so

$$H |M, m_M, m_N\rangle = \frac{-me^4}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 \cdot 2} \frac{1}{[4M(M+1) + 1]\hbar^2} |M, m_M, m_N\rangle$$

$$= \frac{-me^4}{2(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 \hbar^2} \frac{1}{(2M+1)^2} |M, m_M, m_N\rangle$$

So the energy eigenvalues are

$$E = -\frac{me^4}{2\hbar^2(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2} \frac{1}{(2M+1)^2} \quad M = 0, 1/2, 1, \dots$$

$(2M+1)^2 = 1, 4, 9, \dots$

What is the degeneracy of the energy levels?

$2M+1$ values of m_M and m_N for each energy level.

$$\Rightarrow E_n = -\frac{me^4}{2\hbar^2(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2} \frac{1}{n^2} \quad \text{degeneracy } \underline{n^2}$$

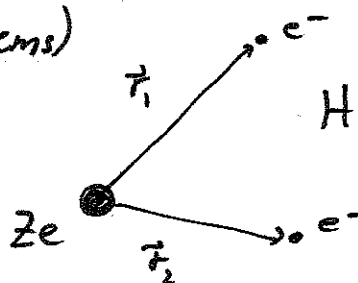
$n=1$	1	1S	=	1	
$n=2$	4	2S	2P ³	=	4
$n=3$	9	3S	3P ³ 3D ⁵	=	9

checks!

A Simple look at the Periodic Table

Two-electron atoms He, Li⁺, H⁻, and Be⁺⁺

Fixed nucleus (Bethe and Jackiw consider nuclear motion in such systems)



$$H = \frac{p_1^2}{2m} + \frac{p_2^2}{2m} - \frac{Ze^2}{r_1} - \frac{Ze^2}{r_2} + \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2|}$$

Here we set $4\pi\epsilon_0 = 1$ and $\hbar = 1$.

There are two principal complications:

- 1) Coulomb interaction between electrons
- 2) Spin-orbit interaction between electron spins and the electric field in the atom.

First we look at the ~~spin~~ effect of the Coulomb interaction between the two electrons:

The ground state of a two-electron atom

We will treat the electron-electron interaction as a perturbation

$$\psi_0(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) = \psi_{1s}(\vec{r}_1) \psi_{1s}(\vec{r}_2) \leftarrow \text{Consider the spin singlet state.}$$

$$\psi_{1s}(\vec{x}) = N e^{-Zr/a_0} \quad N = \frac{1}{\pi^{1/2}} \left(\frac{Z}{a_0}\right)^{3/2}$$

Note that the nuclear charge Z just linearly rescales the Bohr orbit radius.

$$E_0^{(0)} = -\frac{Z^2 e^2}{2a_0} = -\frac{Z^2 e^2}{2a_0} \times 2$$

one from $a_0 \rightarrow a_0/Z$

1st order perturbation theory:

Note we are setting $4\pi\epsilon_0 = 1$

$$\Delta E = \langle \psi^{(0)} | \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2|} | \psi^{(0)} \rangle \leftarrow \text{Just have to work out the integral!}$$

$$\Delta E = \int d^3\vec{r}_1 \int d^3\vec{r}_2 |\psi|^2 e^{-Zr_1/a_0} e^{-Zr_2/a_0} \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2|} \quad \text{or}$$

$$\Delta E = \frac{1}{\pi} \left(\frac{Z}{a_0}\right)^6 \int d^3\vec{x}_1 d^3\vec{x}_2 e^{-Z(x_1+x_2)} \frac{e^2}{|\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2|} \quad \text{or}$$

remember to square!

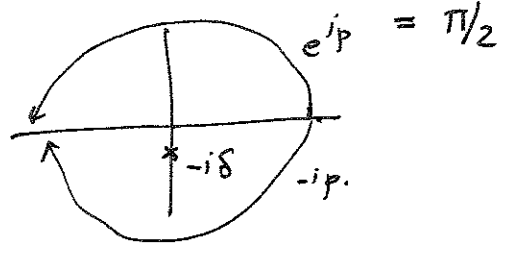
$$\Delta E = \frac{1}{\pi} \frac{Z^6 e^2}{a_0^6} \bar{E}; \quad \bar{E} = \int d^3\vec{x}_1 d^3\vec{x}_2 e^{-2(x_1+x_2)} \frac{1}{|\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2|}$$

Note: $\frac{1}{|\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2|} = \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i(\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2) \cdot \vec{k}} \frac{4\pi}{k^2}$ *simi*

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{1}{|\vec{A}|} &= \int \frac{d^3\vec{k}}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{4\pi}{k^2} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{A}} = \frac{2\pi}{2\pi^2} \int_{-1}^{+1} d(\cos\theta) \int_0^\infty dk e^{ikA \cos\theta} \\ &= \frac{1}{\pi} \int_0^\infty dk \frac{1}{ikA} (e^{ikA} - e^{-ikA}) = \frac{2}{\pi} \int_0^\infty dk \frac{\sin(kA)}{kA} \end{aligned}$$

so we have: $\frac{2}{|\Lambda|\pi} \int_0^\infty dp \frac{\sin p}{p} \leftarrow \text{Sine integral} = \pi/2$
 $= \frac{1}{|\Lambda|}$

wrong way $\int_{-\infty}^\infty dp \frac{e^{ip}}{p+i\delta} = \frac{1}{2}(2\pi i) \frac{e^{-i\delta}}{-2i} \rightarrow \frac{1}{2}$



So

$$\Delta E = \frac{Ze^2}{\pi a_0} \bar{E}$$

$$\bar{E} = \int d^3\vec{x}_1 \int d^3\vec{x}_2 e^{-Zz(x_1+x_2)} \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot (\vec{x}_1 - \vec{x}_2)} \frac{4\pi}{k^2}$$

$$\bar{E} = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \int d^3\vec{x}_1 e^{-Zz x_1 + i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}_1} \int d^3\vec{x}_2 e^{-Zz x_2 - i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}_2} \frac{4\pi}{k^2} \text{ or}$$

$$\bar{E} = \int \frac{d^3k}{(2\pi)^3} \frac{4\pi}{k^2} \left| \int d^3\vec{x} e^{-Zz x + i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} \right|^2$$

Now $\int d^3\vec{x} e^{-Zz x} e^{i\vec{k} \cdot \vec{x}} = 2\pi \int dx x^2 e^{-Zz x} \int_{-1}^1 d(\cos\theta) e^{ikx \cos\theta} =$

$$2\pi \int_0^\infty dx x^2 e^{-Zz x} \frac{1}{ikx} (e^{ikx} - e^{-ikx}) = \frac{4\pi}{k} \int_0^\infty dx x e^{-Zz x} \frac{\sin(kx)}{kx}$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{k^3} \int_0^\infty dy e^{-Zz/k y} y \sin y = \frac{4\pi}{k^2} \text{Im} \int_0^\infty dy e^{-Zz/k y + iy} y$$

$$= \frac{4\pi}{k^3} \text{Im} \left[-\frac{2}{\partial(Z/k)} \int_0^\infty dy y e^{-Zz/k y + iy} \right] = \frac{2 \cdot 4\pi}{\partial(Z/k) k^3} \text{Im} \left[\frac{1}{Zz/k - i} \right]$$

$$= -\frac{2}{\partial(Z/k)} \cdot \frac{4\pi}{k^3} \frac{1}{Zz/k + 1} = -\frac{4\pi k^2}{k^3} \frac{1}{Zz + k^2}$$

$$= \frac{2Z \cdot 4\pi k}{(Zz + k^2)^2} = \frac{16\pi Zk}{(Zz + k^2)^2} = \frac{16\pi Zk}{(4Z^2 + k^2)^2}$$

$$\bar{E} = \frac{4\pi 16^2 \pi^2 Z^2}{(2\pi)^3} \int_0^\infty \frac{dk k^2 4\pi}{k^2} \frac{1}{(4Z^2 + k^2)^2} \quad p = k/2Z$$

$$\bar{E} = \frac{(4\pi)^2 16^2 \pi^2 Z^2}{8\pi^3} \int_0^\infty dp \frac{2Z}{(2Z)^2 (1+p^2)^2}$$

$$\bar{E} = \frac{\pi 4}{Z^5} \int_0^\infty dp \frac{1}{(1+p^2)^2} = \frac{4\pi}{Z^5} \frac{5}{32} = \frac{5\pi}{8} Z^{-5}$$


$$\Rightarrow \Delta E = \frac{5 e^2}{8 a_0} Z \quad \text{and} \quad E^{(1)} = -\frac{Z e^2}{a_0} \left(Z - \frac{5}{8} \right)$$

grand on the ground state energy. This must be an upper

In practice, this result is about 5% too high. Not too bad!

What is the principal physical reason for this error?

Electron screening

 This electron sees an effectively smaller nuclear charge.



nucleus. Suggests that a variational calculation might be

in order:

trial function: $\psi(r) = \pi^{-1/2} \left(\frac{Z'}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} e^{-Z' r/a_0}$ i.e. vary the effective nuclear charge.

Then the electron-electron part gives:

$$\frac{5 Z' e^2}{8 a_0}$$

We have already calculated the kinetic energy before - see our previous attempt at a variational calculation

$$KE = \frac{Z'^2 e^2}{2a_0}. \text{ The potential energy expectation value is}$$

$$PE = \frac{-ZZ'e^2}{a_0} \Leftrightarrow \left\langle \frac{-Z'e^2}{r} \right\rangle \frac{Z}{Z'} \text{ due to the nuclear Coulomb potential}$$

no screening

$$E_0(Z') = \frac{5}{8} \frac{Z'e^2}{a_0} + 2 \left(\frac{Z'^2 e^2}{2a_0} - \frac{ZZ'e^2}{a_0} \right) = \frac{e^2}{a_0} \left[\frac{Z'^2}{2} - 2ZZ' + \frac{5Z'}{8} \right]$$

↑
Ground state energy

↑
Two electrons remember

Find the minimum: $\frac{dE_0}{dZ'} = 0 \Rightarrow 0 = 2Z' - 2Z + 5/8$

$$Z' = Z - 5/16 \text{ so}$$

$$E_0 = - \left(Z - 5/16 \right)^2 \frac{e^2}{a_0} \leftarrow \text{Now, down to about 1\% error!!}$$

To summarize: We have $E_0^{(0)} = - \frac{Z^2 e^2}{a_0}$


$$E_0^{(1)} = - \left(Z - \frac{5}{8} \right) \frac{Z e^2}{a_0}$$

$$E_0^{(var)} = - \left(Z - 5/16 \right)^2 \frac{e^2}{a_0}$$

The story is not over, however. If we put in $Z=1$ we get E_{ground} of H^- is higher than a free electron and one H atom. This is not true! H^- is energetically stable.

Thinking about very big atoms: The Hartree Approximation

Side
Bar

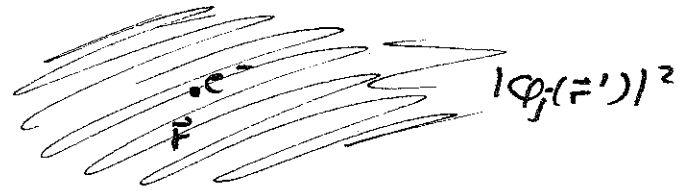

 ← this electron see an essentially spherically symmetric average field. We need to determine that average field and the single particle wavefunctions - in a self-consistent approach.

Assume that the wave function is a product of one electron wave functions

$\Psi(\vec{r}_1, \dots, \vec{r}_N) = \Phi_1(\vec{r}_1) \dots \Phi_N(\vec{r}_N)$ ← Note: This is not antisymmetrized! More on this later, but for now let's just assume that all Φ_j are mutually orthogonal to each other. This doesn't fix the problem completely. We will have to learn about many particle states to really think about this.

What is the average potential?

The average charge density at \vec{r}' due to the j th electron: $e |\Phi_j(\vec{r}')|^2$

$$\Rightarrow \int d^3\vec{r}' \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|} |\Phi_j(\vec{r}')|^2$$


an electron at \vec{r} will have the potential energy.

⇒ The i th electron sees an average potential:

$$V_i(\vec{r}) = \int d^3\vec{r}' \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r}-\vec{r}'|} \sum_{j \neq i} |\Phi_j(\vec{r}')|^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{r}$$

↖
↖
 other electrons nucleus.

Then $\Phi_i(\vec{r})$ is determined by: $\left[-\frac{\nabla^2}{2m} + V_i(\vec{r}) \right] \Phi_i = \epsilon_i \Phi_i$

We now have a set of coupled equations to solve:

$$V_i(\vec{r}) = \int \int_{\vec{r}'} \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \sum_{j \neq i} |\varphi_j(\vec{r}')|^2 - \frac{Ze}{r}$$

$$\left[-\frac{\nabla^2}{2m} + V_i(\vec{r}) \right] \varphi_i = \epsilon_i \varphi_i$$

~~Can~~ Can show that energy of the state ϵ_i

$$E = \sum_i \epsilon_i - \frac{1}{2} \int \sum_{i \neq j} \int \int_{\vec{r}, \vec{r}'} \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} |\varphi_i(\vec{r})|^2 |\varphi_j(\vec{r}')|^2$$

The Fermi-Thomas Approximation

We can get the general features of the self-consistent potential from a semiclassical approach.

For a large atom the potential of the i th electron is approximately equal to the potential seen by a test charge.

$$V_i(\vec{r}) = V(\vec{r}) = \int \int_{\vec{r}'} \frac{e^2}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}'|} \sum_j |\varphi_j(\vec{r}')|^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{r}$$

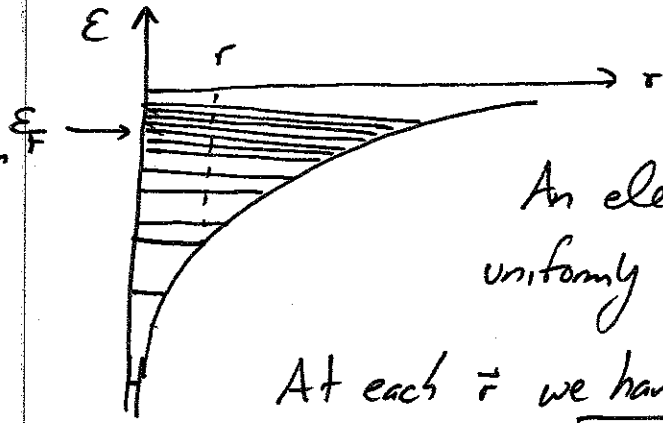
and $\sum_j |\varphi_j(\vec{r})|^2 = n(\vec{r})$ ← many is the self interact.!
↖ charge density (e) at \vec{r} .

We need to find out how the density depends on the potential.

Observation: In a large atom most electrons have a large kinetic energy so $V(r)$ varies slowly compared to the oscillations in $\varphi(\vec{r})$. \Rightarrow Treat the wavefunctions as plane-waves

$$\varphi_i(\vec{r}) \sim e^{i\vec{p}_i(\vec{r}) \cdot \vec{r}} \quad \text{where} \quad \epsilon_i = \frac{p_i^2(\vec{r})}{2m} + V(\vec{r})$$

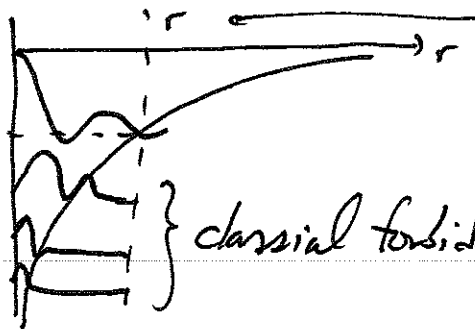
states occupied up to here.



An electron in state φ_i will be spread out uniformly in the classically allowed region:

At each \bar{r} we have electrons w/ momentum ranging from 0 to $P_f(\bar{r}) = \sqrt{2m[E_f - V(\bar{r})]}$

Only electrons w/ $E_i > V(r)$ have a reasonable chance of being at \bar{r} .



Not all states contribute to the density here.

classical forbidden region for these states

$n(r) = \frac{P_f^3}{3\pi^2}$ why?

$\int_0^{P_f} p^2 dp \frac{4\pi}{(2\pi)^3} = \frac{1}{2\pi^2} \frac{1}{3} P_f^3 \times 2$
Spin states.

Combining these two results:

$n(r) = \frac{(2m[E_f - V(r)])^{3/2}}{3\pi^2}$

To solve for $V(r)$ write $\nabla^2 V = -4\pi e^2 n(r)$ Poisson's Eq. assuming $V(r)$ is spherically symmetric

$r^{-2} \partial_r (r^2 \partial_r V) = -\frac{4\pi e^2}{3\pi^2} [2m(E_f - V(r))]^{3/2}$

- w/ boundary conditions 1) $r \rightarrow 0 \quad V \rightarrow -\frac{Ze^2}{r}$ ← Just see the nuclear charge.
- 2) Outer radius of the atom $E_f - V(r) = 0 \quad n \rightarrow 0$

For a neutral atom $V(r) = 0$.

If we change both the dependent and independent variables.

$$V(r) = -\frac{Ze^2}{r} \Phi(x) \quad r = \frac{bx}{Z^{1/3}}; \quad \Phi(0) = 1$$

Note: Shift the zero of energy.

$$V'' + \frac{2}{r} V' + \frac{4e^2(2m)^{3/2}}{3\pi} [\epsilon_F - V(r)]^{3/2} = 0$$

$$V' = -\frac{Ze^2}{r} \Phi'(x) \frac{Z^{1/3}}{b} + \frac{Ze^2}{r^2} \Phi(x)$$

$$V'' = -\frac{Ze^2}{r^2} \Phi''(x) \frac{Z^{2/3}}{b^2} + \frac{2Ze^2}{r^2} \Phi'(x) \frac{Z^{1/3}}{b} - \frac{2Ze^2}{r^3} \Phi(x)$$

$$V'' + \frac{2}{r} V' = -\frac{Z^{5/3} e^2}{b^2 r} \Phi''(x) = -\frac{Z^{5/3} e^2 Z^{1/3}}{b^2 bx} \Phi''(x)$$

$$\epsilon_F - V(r) = \left[\frac{Ze^2}{r} \Phi(x) \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{Z^{5/3} e^2 \Phi''(x)}{b^3 x} = -\frac{4e^2(2m)^{3/2}}{3\pi} \frac{Z^{3/2} e^3}{b^{3/2} x^{3/2}} \Phi^{3/2}(x)$$

$$\text{or } \Phi''(x) x^{1/2} = \frac{4}{3\pi} \frac{(2m)^{3/2} e^3}{b^{3/2}} \Phi^{3/2}(x)$$

take $b = \left(\frac{3\pi}{4}\right)^{2/3} \frac{1}{2} a_0$ and we get

$$\boxed{x^{1/2} \Phi''(x) = \Phi^{3/2}(x)}$$

Numerical solutions show that $\Phi(x) = \begin{cases} 1 - 1.59x, & x \rightarrow 0 \\ \frac{144}{x^3}, & x \rightarrow \infty \end{cases}$

Note that $\Phi = 0$ only at $r \rightarrow \infty$ so $V \rightarrow 0$ there as well.
 This means that the electron distribution also extends to ∞

At small r we find (convert back to ~~dimensional~~ dimensional full units)

$$V(r) = -\frac{Ze^2}{r} + 1.80 \frac{Z^{4/3} e^2}{a_0}$$

↑
nuclear potential



potential due to the electrons
at $\bar{r} = 0$.

Predictions of the Thomas-Fermi model:

1) $\Phi(x)$ is independent of any atomic parameters \Rightarrow shape of the effective potential is the same for all large atoms.

2) From $r = \frac{bx}{Z^{1/3}} \Rightarrow$ the length scale of the atom $\propto Z^{-1/3}$

so that as Z grows, the atom's size decreases

3) The potential is $\Phi \propto Z^{4/3}$ so $n(r) \sim [E_F - V]^{3/2} \Rightarrow$
 $n(r) \propto (Z^{4/3})^{3/2} \sim Z^2 \leftarrow$ electron density scales as Z^2

↑
electron density

4) Consider finite angular momentum eigenstates:

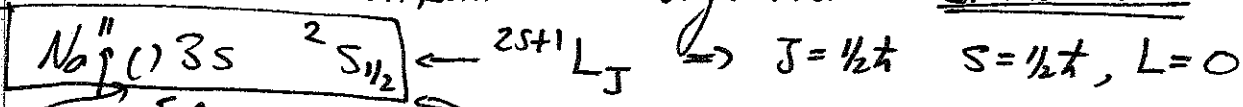
Then $V_{\text{eff}}(r) = V(r) + \frac{l(l+1)}{2mr^2}$ must have a minimum below 0 energy for bound states to exist:

$Z \leq 4 \Rightarrow$ only $l=0$, $4 < Z < 19$ only $l=0, 1$; $19 < Z \leq 53$ $l=0, 1, 2$

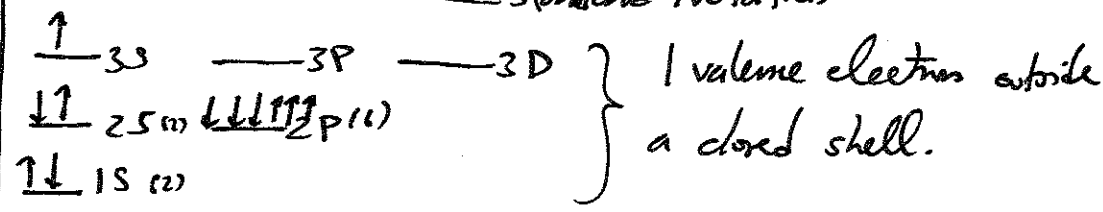
Ground states: S states S, P states S, P, D states

One more example of time-independent perturbation theory:
Spin-orbit interaction and Fine Structure.

Consider an alkali atom: e.g. Na ← Ground State



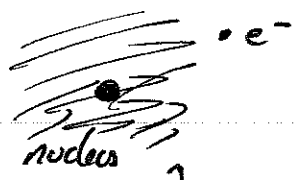
means closed shells below this state.
⇒ i.e. $(1s)^2 (2s)^2 (2p)^6$



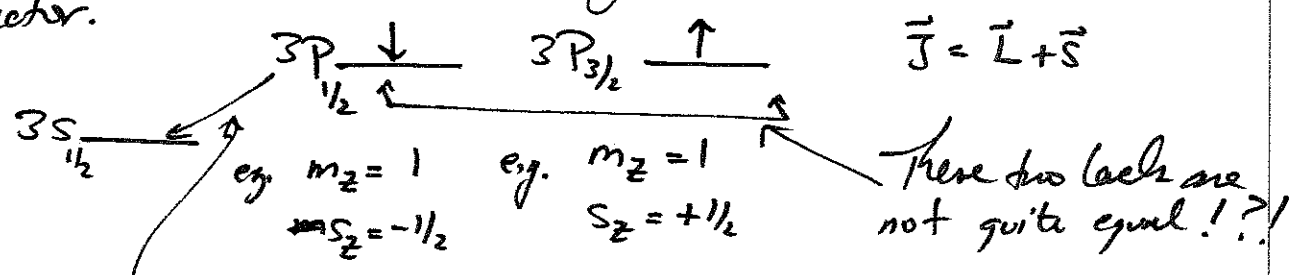
Standard Notation

Unperturbed (Hydrogenic) states.

Now, what are the excited states?



Note: Central Potential cannot be simply $\sim 1/r \Rightarrow 3s$ and $3p$ levels are split since we have removed the degeneracy associated with the Lenz vector.



$\lambda = 5896 \text{ \AA}$ But the transition from the $3p_{3/2} \rightarrow 3s_{1/2}$ states is $\lambda = 5890 \text{ \AA}$ ← slightly higher energy!

This produces the so-called "Sodium Doublet" on D-lines

Note $E = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$ so $\frac{\Delta E}{E} = \frac{hc}{hc} \left(\frac{1}{5890} - \frac{1}{5896} \right) (5890) =$

Let's consider $H_{so} = \frac{1}{2m_e^2 c^2} \frac{1}{r} \frac{dV_c}{dr} (\vec{L} \cdot \vec{S})$ as a perturbation to the Hamiltonian of a hydrogenic atom:

$H = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V_c(r) \leftarrow$ This way we can study the effect of spin-orbit coupling without worrying about the electron-electron interaction ~~at~~ at the same time!

Recall from chapter three: $\vec{L} \cdot \vec{S} = \frac{J^2 - L^2 - S^2}{2}$

since $J^2 = (\vec{L} + \vec{S})^2 = L^2 + S^2 + 2\vec{L} \cdot \vec{S}$

\Rightarrow We should work in L^2, J^2, J_z eigenket basis! ∇

In $|lms\rangle \rightarrow |l, j, J_z\rangle$ $j = l \pm 1/2$ from addition of angular momenta!
 $L^2, L_z, S^2, S_z \rightarrow L^2, S^2, J^2, J_z$

1st order energy shifts:

$$\Delta_{nej} = \left\{ \frac{1}{2m_e^2 c^2} \int dr^3 \frac{1}{r} \frac{dV_c}{dr} R_{ne}(r) R_{ne}(r) \right\} \frac{\hbar^2}{2} [j(j+1) - l(l+1) - 3/4]$$

if $j = l + 1/2$: $[] = (l + 3/2)(l + 1/2) - l(l+1) - 3/4$
 $= l^2 + 2l + 3/4 - l^2 - l - 3/4$
 $= l$

if $j = l - 1/2$: $[] = (l - 1/2)(l + 1/2) - l^2 - l - 3/4$

Note above $j=3/2$ $j=1/2$ ∇
 $\rightarrow = l^2 - 1/4 - l^2 - l - 3/4 = -l - 1$ KNOWN as:
 So: $\Delta_{nej} = \frac{1}{2m_e^2 c^2} \left\langle \frac{1}{r} \frac{dV_c}{dr} \right\rangle \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \begin{cases} l, & j = l + 1/2 \\ -(l+1), & j = l - 1/2 \end{cases}$ $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{Lande's} \\ \text{interval rule.} \end{array} \right\}$

The expectation value of this operator in the l, m state.

Let's try to understand the magnitude of the effect:

By dimensional analysis $\left\langle \frac{1}{r} \frac{dV_e}{dr} \right\rangle \sim \frac{e^2}{a_0^3}$ since $V \sim 1/r$

$\Rightarrow \Delta \sim \frac{\hbar^2}{m^2 c^2} \frac{e^2}{a_0^3}$ compared to the gaps in the $1S \rightarrow 2S$ levels.

(Balmer splittings) $\sim \frac{e^2}{a_0}$

helpful to know that $\frac{e^2}{\hbar c} \sim \frac{1}{137}$ and:

← Fine structure constant.
(units where $4\pi\epsilon_0 = 1$)

1) Compton wavelength of an electron $\lambda_c = \frac{\hbar}{mc}$

↑
wavelength of a photon w/ energy equal to

the electron's rest mass

2) "Classical" Electron radius: $\frac{e^2}{mc^2}$ (in units where $4\pi\epsilon_0 = 1$)

from $E = \frac{4}{3} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r} = \frac{1}{3} mc^2$

3) Bohr radius:

sphere of constant charge density

$$a_0 = \frac{\hbar^2}{m e^2} \quad (4\pi\epsilon_0 = 1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{e^2}{m e c^2} = \frac{1}{137} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{\hbar}{m e c} = \frac{1}{137}$$

← classical electron radius

↑
Compton wavelength of an electron.

↑
Bohr radius

$$\frac{\Delta E}{E} \sim \frac{\frac{e^2 \hbar^2}{a_0^3 m_e^2 c^2}}{\frac{e^2}{a_0}} = \frac{\hbar^2 / m_e^2 c^2}{a_0^2} = \left(\frac{\hbar / m_e c}{a_0} \right)^2 \sim \left(\frac{1}{137} \right)^2 \sim 10^{-4} \quad 5.53$$

about the right order
of magnitude.

There are other effects at this level of precision: we need to drop the nonrelativistic Schrödinger Eq. For example the energy of the electron is really

$$\sqrt{m^2 c^4 + p^2 c^2} - m c^2 \approx \frac{p^2}{2m} - \frac{p^4}{8m^3 c^2}$$

But, at least we can understand why in principle the $3P_{1/2}$ and $3P_{3/2}$ levels are split.

Time-dependent Perturbation Theory: Interacts with a classical radiation field \leftarrow This approach misses the effect of spontaneous emission. For

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} (\vec{p} - \frac{e}{c} \vec{A})^2 + V(r) \quad \text{that we have to quantize the radiation field.}$$

work in the Coulomb gauge $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$ with no scalar potential $\phi = 0$ and dropping the $|\vec{A}|^2$ term

$$\text{Then } H = \frac{1}{2m} p^2 - \frac{e}{m_e c} \vec{A} \cdot \vec{p}$$

note we moved \vec{p} past \vec{A} using $\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{A} = 0$.

From Maxwell's Eqs:

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{E} = -\frac{1}{c} \frac{\partial \vec{A}}{\partial t}$$

We consider a monochromatic plane wave of light:

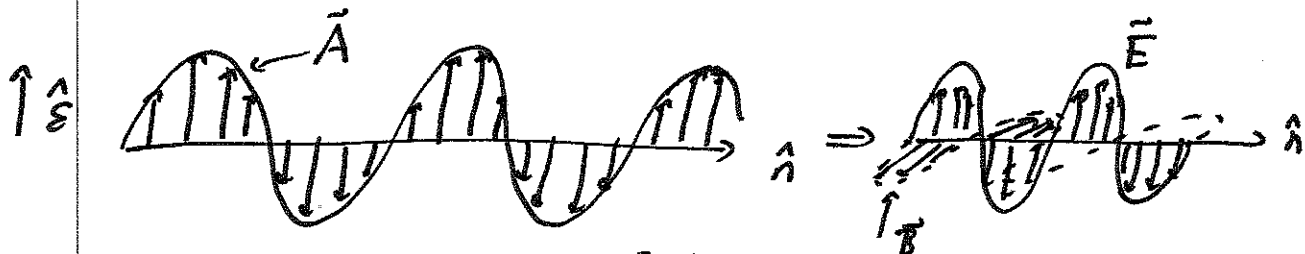
$$\vec{A} = 2A_0 \hat{e} \cos\left(\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t\right)$$

Amplitude \rightarrow

polarization state \rightarrow

$$\text{Wavevector } \vec{k} = \frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n}$$

$$\hat{e} \cdot \hat{n} = 0 \quad (\text{Transverse wave})$$



$$\cos\left(\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left[e^{i\left[\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t\right]} + e^{-i\left[\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x} - \omega t\right]} \right]$$

We can now try to understand induced emission and absorption.

Comparing to our earlier result, we see that the $e^{-i\omega t}$ generates absorption and the $e^{+i\omega t}$ gives stimulated emission

$$\frac{-e}{mc} \vec{A} \cdot \vec{p} = -\frac{e}{mc} A_0 \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{p} \left[e^{i\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}} e^{-i\omega t} + e^{-i\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}} e^{+i\omega t} \right]$$

Absorption: $V_{ni}^{\dagger} = -\frac{e}{mc} A_0 \langle n | e^{i\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{p} | i \rangle$

so

$$W_{i \rightarrow n} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \frac{e^2 |A_0|^2}{m^2 c^2} |\langle n | e^{i\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{p} | i \rangle|^2 \delta(E_n - E_i - \hbar\omega)$$

if we have a discrete energy level $|n\rangle$ as the final state we need to interpret the delta function as follows:

$$\delta(\omega - \omega_{ni}) = \lim_{\gamma \rightarrow 0} \frac{\gamma}{2\pi} \frac{1}{(\omega - \omega_{ni})^2 + \gamma^2/4} \quad \text{— recall our slow turn-on approach.}$$

we can use this result w/ a finite γ due to the finite lifetime of the excited state.

Absorption Cross Section: $\sigma_{ab} = \frac{\text{Energy absorbed per unit time (i} \rightarrow \text{n)}}{\text{Energy flux of the radiation field}}$

$\frac{E}{L^2 \cdot T}$

$[\sigma] = L^2 \leftarrow$ cross section is an area.

$$u = \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{8\pi} (E_{\text{max}}^2 + B_{\text{max}}^2) \Rightarrow u = \frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{\omega^2}{c^2} |A_0|^2$$

↑
energy density in the radiation field

See for example Jackson. Chapter 6.

Energy flux: $c u$

energy absorbed

Transition rate

5.56

$$\Rightarrow \sigma_{abs} = \frac{\hbar \omega \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \frac{e^2}{m^2 c^2} |A_0|^2 |\langle n | e^{i\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{p} | i \rangle|^2 \delta(E_n - E_i - \hbar \omega)}{\frac{1}{2\pi} \frac{\omega^2}{c} |A_0|^2}$$

$$\sigma_{abs} = \frac{4\pi^2 \hbar}{m^2 \omega} \left(\frac{e^2}{\hbar c} \right) |\langle n | e^{i\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \vec{p} | i \rangle|^2 \delta(E_n - E_i - \hbar \omega)$$

$\frac{E \cdot T}{M^2 T^{-1}}$ $\alpha \approx \frac{1}{137}$ $\frac{M^2 L^2}{T^2}$ $\frac{1}{\hbar} \delta(\omega_i - \omega) = \frac{T}{E \cdot T}$
 dimensionless.

$$[\sigma] = \frac{I^2}{M^2} \cdot \frac{M^2 L^2}{T^2} = L^2 \text{ checks.}$$

Electric Dipole Approximation: (E1 approximation)

$$e^{i\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x}} = 1 + i\frac{\omega}{c} \hat{n} \cdot \vec{x} + \dots$$

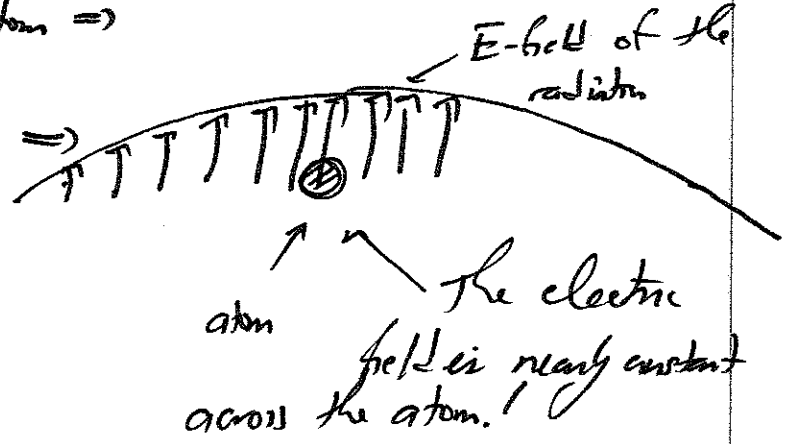
$$\hbar \omega \sim \frac{Z^2 e^2}{a_0} \quad \text{and} \quad \hbar c n \left(\frac{\omega}{c} \right)^{-1} = \lambda = \frac{\lambda}{2\pi} \sim \frac{\hbar c a_0}{Z^2 e^2} \quad \text{or}$$

atomic level spacing

$$\lambda \sim \frac{c}{\omega} \sim \frac{\hbar c (a_0/Z)}{Z e^2} \sim \left(\frac{1}{137} \right)^{-1} \frac{1}{Z} \text{ Ratom} \leftarrow a_0/Z$$

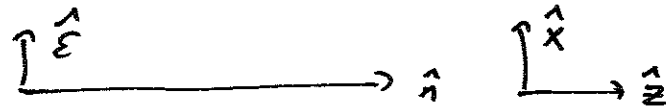
$$\text{so } \lambda \sim 137 Z^{-1} \text{ Ratom} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{\lambda}{\text{Ratom}} \sim \frac{137}{Z} \gg 1 \Rightarrow$$



$$\Rightarrow \langle n | e^{i\frac{\omega}{\hbar} \hat{n} \cdot \hat{x}} \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \hat{p} | i \rangle = \hat{\epsilon} \cdot \langle n | \hat{p} | i \rangle$$

put $\hat{\epsilon} \parallel \hat{n}$ and $\hat{z} \parallel \hat{n}$



Then we need to know $\langle n | p_x | i \rangle$ since $[x, H_0] = \frac{i\hbar p_x}{m}$

$$\langle n | p_x | i \rangle = \frac{m}{i\hbar} \langle n | [x, H_0] | i \rangle = \frac{m}{i\hbar} \langle n | x | i \rangle \{E_i - E_n\} \text{ or}$$

using $\frac{E_i - E_n}{\hbar} = -\omega_{ni}$ we get:

$$\langle n | p_x | i \rangle = i m \omega_{ni} \underbrace{\langle n | x | i \rangle}_{\text{dipole matrix element.}}$$

$$\sigma_{ab} = 4\pi^2 \alpha \omega_{ni} |\langle n | x | i \rangle|^2 \delta(\omega - \omega_{ni})$$

$$\int \sigma_{ab}(\omega) d\omega = \sum_n 4\pi^2 \alpha \omega_{ni} |\langle n | x | i \rangle|^2 = \sum_n f_{ni} \frac{\hbar}{2m} \alpha 4\pi^2$$

↑
 Define: $f_{ni} = \frac{2\omega_{ni} m}{\hbar} |\langle n | x | i \rangle|^2$ oscillation strength.
 take $|i\rangle$ to be the ground state

$$\text{Note: } \sum_n f_{ni} = 1.$$

$$[x, [x, H_0]] = \frac{i\hbar}{m} [x, p_x] = -\frac{\hbar^2}{m}$$

Prove the Thomas Reiche-Kuhn sum rule:

$$\begin{aligned} \langle n | [x, [H, x]] | n \rangle &= \sum_i \{ \langle n | x H - H x | i \rangle \langle i | x | n \rangle + \\ &+ \langle n | x | i \rangle \langle i | H x - x H | n \rangle \} \\ &= \sum_i \{ \langle n | x | i \rangle \langle i | x | n \rangle (E_i - E_n) + \\ &+ \langle n | x | i \rangle \langle i | x | n \rangle (E_i - E_n) \} = 2 \sum_i |\langle n | x | i \rangle|^2 (E_i - E_n) \end{aligned}$$

swap n and i to make this look like the text book:

$$\frac{1}{2} \langle i | [x, [H, x]] | i \rangle = \sum_n |\langle i | x | n \rangle|^2 (E_n - E_i)$$

$$\text{But } [x, [H, x]] = [x, \left[\frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x), x \right]]$$

$$= \left[x, \frac{-i\hbar}{2m} p \right] = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \quad \text{so}$$

$$\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} = \sum_n |\langle i | x | n \rangle|^2 (E_n - E_i) \quad \text{or}$$

$$1 = \sum_n |\langle i | x | n \rangle|^2 \left(\frac{E_n - E_i}{\hbar} \right) \frac{2m}{\hbar} \iff 1 = \sum_n f_{ni}$$

Sum of all oscillator strengths is one.