

## Chapter 12

### The Hydrogen Atom

Hydrogen atom : contains one electron, one proton

Hydrogen-like atom: " " " , allowing for a nucleus, more complicated than a single proton

The Schrödinger becomes a one-particle eqn. after the center of mass motion is separated out.

The Schrödinger eqn. for two-particle system:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_1} \nabla_1^2 \Psi - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m_2} \nabla_2^2 \Psi + V(r) \Psi = E \Psi \quad (1)$$

$$\text{where } \Psi = \Psi(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2) \quad \text{but } V = V(r) \quad (2)$$

$$\vec{r} = \vec{r}_1 - \vec{r}_2 \quad (3)$$

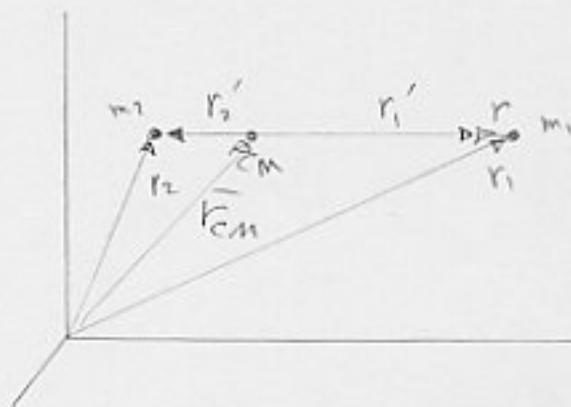
$$\nabla_1^2 \Psi = \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y_1^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z_1^2} \quad (4)$$

$$\nabla_2^2 \Psi = \dots$$

$$\text{Now } \vec{F}_1 = m_1 \frac{d\vec{r}_1}{dt^2}$$

$$\vec{F}_2 = m_2 \frac{d\vec{r}_2}{dt^2} \quad (5)$$

$$\vec{F}_1 = -\vec{F}_2$$



$$\text{By def. : } \bar{r}_{cm} = \frac{\bar{r}_1 m_1 + \bar{r}_2 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \quad (6)$$

$$M = m_1 + m_2$$

$\bar{F}_1 + \bar{F}_2 = 0 \rightarrow \text{C.M. has a const velocity}$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{d^2 \bar{r}_{cm}}{dt^2} = \frac{1}{m_1 + m_2} (m_1 \frac{d^2 \bar{r}_1}{dt^2} + m_2 \frac{d^2 \bar{r}_2}{dt^2}) = 0 \\ \rightarrow \frac{d \bar{r}_{cm}}{dt} = \text{const.} \end{array} \right.$$

let  $\bar{r}_{cm} = 0 \quad (7)$

$$(3) (7)(6) \rightarrow \bar{r}'_1 = \bar{r} - \frac{m_2}{m_1 + m_2}, \quad \bar{r}'_2 = -\bar{r} \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2}$$

$$\text{Remark: Note that, if } \bar{r}_{cm} = 0 \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \bar{r}'_1 \rightarrow r_1 \\ \bar{r}'_2 \rightarrow r_2 \end{array} \right. \quad (8)$$

$$\text{Now } \bar{r}_1 = \bar{r}_{cm} + \bar{r} - \frac{m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \quad \bar{r}_2 = \bar{r}_{cm} - \bar{r} \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2} \quad (9)$$

$$\bar{F}_1 = m_1 \frac{d^2 \bar{r}_1}{dt^2} = 0 + \frac{d^2 \bar{r}}{dt^2} \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2}$$

$$\rightarrow F_1 = \mu \frac{d^2 r}{dt^2} \quad \mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \quad (10)$$

$$\text{Now } \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x_i} = \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} \frac{\partial x}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x_c} \frac{\partial x_c}{\partial x_i} \quad (11)$$

$$\bar{r} = \bar{r}_1 - \bar{r}_2 \rightarrow \bar{x} = \bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2 \rightarrow \frac{\partial x}{\partial x_i} = 1 \quad (12)$$

$$\text{Also (6)} \rightarrow \frac{\partial x_c}{\partial x_i} = \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2} \quad (13)$$

$$(11)(12)(13) \rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial r_i^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x_c^2} - \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2} \quad (14)$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x_i^2} = \frac{\partial}{\partial x_i} \left( \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x_i} \right) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left( \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x_i} \right) \frac{\partial x}{\partial x_i} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x_c} \left( \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x_i} \right) \frac{\partial x_c}{\partial x_i} \quad (15)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x_i^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x \partial x_c} \cdot \frac{2m_1}{m_1 + m_2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x_c^2} \left( \frac{m_1}{m_1 + m_2} \right)^2 \quad (16)$$

Similarly:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x_i^2} = \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x \partial x_c} \cdot \frac{2m_2}{m_1 + m_2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x_c^2} \left( \frac{m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \right)^2 \quad (17)$$

$$\rightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{\mu} \left( \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} \right) - \frac{\hbar^2}{2(m_1 + m_2)} \left( \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x_c^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y_c^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z_c^2} \right) + V \Psi = E \Psi \quad (18)$$

Since  $V$  is a func. of relative coord. only, we can write;

$$\Psi(r, r_c) = \Psi_0(r) \Psi_c(r_c) \quad (19)$$

$$(18)(19) \rightarrow \underbrace{\left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\nabla^2 \Psi_0}{\Psi_0} + V \right]}_{\text{indep.}} + \underbrace{\left[ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2(m_1 + m_2)} \cdot \frac{\nabla^2 \Psi_c}{\Psi_c} \right]}_{\text{indep.}} = E \quad (20)$$

$$\rightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \nabla^2 \Psi_0 + V \Psi_0 = E_0 \Psi$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2M} \nabla^2 \Psi_c = E_c \Psi \quad (21)$$

$$\text{where } E = E_0 + E_c$$

$$\text{Now } V(r) = -\frac{Z e^2}{r} \quad (22)$$

and the radial Schrödinger equ.;

$$\left( \frac{d^2}{dr^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{d}{dr} \right) R + \frac{2\mu}{\hbar^2} \left[ E + \frac{Z e^2}{r} - \frac{\ell(\ell+1)\hbar^2}{2\mu r^2} \right] R = 0 \quad (23)$$

For bound states  $E < 0$

$$\text{Let } \beta = \left( \frac{8\mu |E|}{\hbar^2} \right)^{1/2} r \quad (24)$$

$$(23)(24) \rightarrow \frac{d^2 R}{d\beta^2} + \frac{2}{\beta} \frac{dR}{d\beta} - \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{\beta^2} R + \left( \frac{\lambda}{\beta} - \frac{1}{4} \right) R = 0 \quad (25)$$

$$\text{where } \lambda = \frac{Z e^2}{\hbar} \left( \frac{\mu}{2|E|} \right)^{1/2} = Z\alpha \left( \frac{\mu c^2}{2|E|} \right)^{1/2} \quad (26)$$

For  $\beta \rightarrow \text{large}$

$$(25) \rightarrow \frac{d^2 R}{d\beta^2} - \frac{1}{4} R \approx 0 \quad (27)$$

$$\rightarrow R \sim e^{-\beta/2} \quad (28)$$

$$R(\beta) = e^{-\beta/2} G(\beta) \quad (29)$$

$$(29) \text{ in } (25) \rightarrow \frac{d^2 G}{d\beta^2} - \left( 1 - \frac{2}{\beta} \right) \frac{dG}{d\beta} + \left[ \frac{\lambda-1}{\beta} - \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{\beta^2} \right] G = 0 \quad (30)$$

In chap. 11 we established that for the pots. satisfying

$$\lim_{r \rightarrow \infty} r^2 V(r) = 0$$

$$U(r) \sim r^{l+1} \quad \rightarrow R(r) \sim r^{-\frac{l}{2}} \sim s^{\frac{l}{2}} \quad (31)$$

$$\rightarrow G(s) = s^{\frac{l}{2}} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n s^n \quad (32)$$

$$\text{Let } H(s) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n s^n \quad (33)$$

$$G(s) = s^{\frac{l}{2}} H(s) \quad (34)$$

$$(34) \text{ in } (30) \rightarrow \frac{d^2 H}{ds^2} + \left( \frac{2l+2}{s} - 1 \right) \frac{dH}{ds} + \frac{\lambda - l - 1}{s} H = 0 \quad (35)$$

$$(33)(35) \rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left[ n(n-1)a_n s^{n-2} + n a_n s^{n-1} \left( \frac{2l+2}{s} - 1 \right) + (\lambda - l - 1) a_n s^{n-1} \right] = 0$$

The coeffs. of each power must independently vanish. (36)

$$\rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \left\{ (n+1) [n a_{n+1} + (2l+2) a_{n+1}] + (\lambda - l - 1) a_n \right\} s^{n-1} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} = -\frac{n+l+1-\lambda}{(n+1)(n+2l+2)} \quad (37)$$

$$\text{For } n \rightarrow \text{large} : \quad \frac{a_{n+1}}{a_n} \approx \frac{1}{n} \quad (38)$$

$$\text{Now Since } e^x = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} \frac{x^n}{n!}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{The coeff. of } x^{n+1} &: \frac{1}{(n+1)!} \\ \text{, , , } x^n &: \frac{1}{n!} \end{aligned} \quad \rightarrow \frac{\frac{1}{(n+1)!}}{\frac{1}{n!}} = \frac{1}{n+1}$$

$$\frac{1}{n+1} \approx \frac{1}{n} \quad \text{for large } n$$

$\rightarrow$  The series  $H(g) \sim e^g$  (not well behaved at infinity)

Conclusion  $\rightarrow$  The series  $H(g) = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n g^n$  must terminate for a given  $l$  for some  $n = n_r$  (i.e. it should be a polynomial);

$$\text{i.e. } \lambda = n_r + l + 1 \quad (4.0)$$

Let us introduce the principal quantum number  $n$  defined by:  $n = n_r + l + 1 \quad (4.1)$

Then since  $n_r \geq 0$

$$\rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{i)} n \geq l + 1 \\ \text{ii)} n \text{ is an integer} \\ \text{iii)} \lambda = n \text{ implies that } E = -\frac{1}{2} \mu c^2 \frac{(2\alpha)^2}{n^2} \end{cases} \quad (4.2)$$

Now let  $m_1 = m$  the mass of electron  
 $m_2 = M$ , , , nucleus  $\rightarrow \mu = \frac{mM}{m+M}$

$$\omega_{ij} = \frac{E_i - E_j}{\hbar} = \frac{mc^2/2\pi}{1 + m/M} (2\alpha)^2 \left( \frac{1}{n_i^2} - \frac{1}{n_j^2} \right) \quad (43)$$

These transition frequencies differ slightly for different hydrogen-like atom.

Urey and collaborators (1932) discovered the deuterium using the slight difference between the hydrogen spectrum and deuterium spectrum.

(4.2)  $\rightarrow$  The energy states for a given  $l$  are  $(2l+1)$ -fold degenerate (the radial eqn. does not depend on  $m$ ).

The radial eqn. does depend on  $l$ , but there is no  $l$ -dependence for  $E \rightarrow$  there is additional degeneracy. This is called accidental degeneracy.

In C.M. for  $V \sim \frac{1}{r}$  : The orbits consist of ellipses that maintain their orientation in space.

If  $V \rightarrow \frac{1}{r^{1+\epsilon}}$  : We have precessing orbits

The source of these modifications?

For example the perturbations due to other planets, in the Kepler prob.



In Q.M., too, there are perturbations, so that  $l$ -degeneracy is not really what is observed

In first approx., however, for a given  $n$ , we have

$$l = 0, 1, 2, \dots (n-1)$$

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

$$\text{Real degeneracy} = 2n^2$$

due to possible spin orientation (44)

Now, let us return to the diff. eqn. If we set  $\lambda = n$  in (38);

$$a_{k+l} = \frac{k+l+1-n}{(k+l)(k+2l+2)} a_n \quad (45)$$

$$\rightarrow a_{k+l} = (-1)^{k+l} \frac{n-(k+l+1)}{(k+l)(k+2l+2)} \cdot \frac{n-(k+l)}{k(k+2l+1)} \cdots \frac{n-(l+1)}{l(l+2)} a_0 \quad (46)$$

With the help of this we can obtain the power series expansion for  $H(\beta)$ .

Equivalently, we observe that the eqn for  $H(\beta)$  is that for the associated Laguerre polynomials:

$$H(\beta) = \sum_{n=0}^{(\infty)} L_{n-l-1}(\beta) \quad (47)$$

$$R(\beta) = e^{-\beta/2} G(\beta) = e^{-\beta/2} \beta^l H(\beta) = e^{-\beta/2} \beta^l \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} a_n \beta^n \quad (48)$$

$$\text{or, } R(\beta) = e^{-\beta/2} \beta^l L_{n-l-1}(\beta) \quad (48')$$

$$\text{let } a_0 = \frac{t}{\mu c \alpha} \quad (49)$$

$R_{nl}(r)$ :

$$\begin{aligned} R_{10}(r) &= 2 \left( \frac{z}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} e^{-2r/a_0} \\ R_{20}(r) &= 2 \left( \frac{z}{2a_0} \right)^{3/2} \left( 1 - \frac{zr}{2a_0} \right) e^{-2r/2a_0} \\ R_{21}(r) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \left( \frac{z}{2a_0} \right)^{3/2} \frac{zr}{a_0} e^{-2r/2a_0} \end{aligned} \quad (50)$$

$$R_{30}(r) = 2 \left( \frac{z}{3a_0} \right)^{3/2} \left[ 1 - \frac{22r}{3a_0} + \frac{z(2r)^2}{27a_0^2} \right] e^{-2r/3a_0}$$

$$R_{31}(r) = \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3} \left( \frac{z}{3a_0} \right)^{3/2} \frac{zr}{a_0} \left( 1 - \frac{zr}{6a_0} \right) e^{-2r/3a_0}$$

$$R_{32}(r) = \frac{2\sqrt{2}}{27\sqrt{5}} \left( \frac{z}{3a_0} \right)^{3/2} \left( \frac{zr}{a_0} \right)^2 e^{-2r/3a_0}$$

The following quantitative features emerge from the sampling of eigensolutions:

a) The behavior of  $r^l$  for small r, which forces the wave func. to stay small for a range of radii that increases with  $l$ , is a consequence of the centrifugal repulsive barrier that keeps the electrons from coming close to the nucleus.

b) The recursion relation (38) shows that  $H(\psi)$  is a polynomial of deg.  $n_r = n - l - 1$

→  $H(\psi)$  has  $n_r$  radial nodes (zeros)

→ There will be  $n - l$  bumps in the probability density distribution  $P(r) = r^2 [R_{n_l}(r)]^2$  (51)

For  $l = n - 1 \rightarrow$  only one bump

$$(48') \text{ or } (50) \rightarrow R_{1,n-1}(r) \sim r^{n-1} e^{-2r/a_{on}} \quad (52)$$

$$\rightarrow P(r) \sim r^{2n} e^{-22r/a_{on}} \quad (53)$$

The peak of  $P(r)$  is determined by

$$\frac{dP(r)}{dr} = \left( 2n^2 r - \frac{2\sum r^{2n}}{a_0 n} \right) e^{-2Zr/a_0 n} = 0$$

$$\rightarrow r = \frac{n^2 a_0}{2} \quad (54)$$

which is the Bohr atom value for circular orbits.  
 Smaller values of  $l$  give probability distributions with  
more bumps.

One can show they correspond to elliptical orbits  
 in the large quantum number limit.

c) Given the wave func., we can calculate

$$\langle r^k \rangle = \int_0^\infty dr r^{2+k} [R_{nl}(r)]^2 \quad (55)$$

Some useful expectation values:

$$\langle r \rangle = \frac{a_0}{2Z} [3n^2 - l(l+1)]$$

$$\langle r^2 \rangle = \frac{a_0^2 n^2}{2Z^2} [5n^2 + 1 - 3l(l+1)]$$

$$\langle \frac{1}{r} \rangle = \frac{\sum}{a_0 n^2} \quad (56)$$

$$\langle \frac{1}{r^2} \rangle = \frac{Z^2}{a_0^2 n^3 (l+\frac{1}{2})}$$

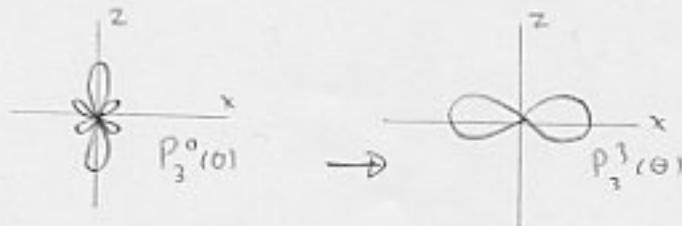
$$d) P(r, \theta, \phi) \sim r^2 [R_{nl}(r)]^2 |\gamma_l^m(\theta, \phi)|^2 \quad (57)$$

Since  $\gamma_l^m(\theta, \phi) = (-1)^m \left[ \frac{2l+1}{4\pi} \frac{(l-m)!}{(l+m)!} \right]^{\frac{1}{2}} P_l^m(\cos \theta) e^{im\phi}$

$$\rightarrow P(r, \theta, \phi) \sim r^2 [R_{nl}(r)]^2 P_l^m(\cos \theta) \quad (58)$$

As  $m$  increases  $\rightarrow P_l^m(\cos \theta)$  shifts from  $-z$ -axis toward the equatorial plane

i.e. For example



$$\text{When } |m|=l \rightarrow (P_l^l(\cos \theta))^2 \sim \sin^{2l} \theta \quad (59) \text{ Peaked about } \theta = \frac{\pi}{2}$$

It can be shown;

As  $l$  increases  $\rightarrow$  the width of the peak decreases like  $l^{-\frac{1}{2}}$

Conclusion  $\rightarrow l \rightarrow \text{large} \rightarrow \text{width} \rightarrow 0$

$\rightarrow$  classical picture of the planar orbits  
(i.e. definiteness)

The finite width of the peak (quantum mechanical aspect) can be understood from the following considerations:

i) When  $|m|=l \rightarrow L_z^2 = l^2 \quad (L_z |m=l\rangle = l|m=l\rangle)$

$\rightarrow L^2 = L_x^2 + L_y^2 + L_z^2$  and  $L^2 = l(l+1)$  in units of  $\hbar$   
 $\rightarrow L_x^2 + L_y^2 = l \quad (60)$

$\rightarrow$  The angular momentum vector can never be perfectly oriented along an axis.

ii) Identically,

The degeneracy in  $m$   $\xrightarrow{\text{allows us}}$  to orient the orbit relative to some other axis

$\rightarrow$  So that there is really no distinguished z-axis -

Thus a state that is an eigenstate of  $L_x$  with eigenvalue  $l$  will be oriented in the x-dir

$$L_x |m=l\rangle_x = l|m=l\rangle_x \quad (61)$$

$$\text{where } |m=l\rangle_x = \sum_m c_m |m\rangle_z \quad (62)$$

But because of the degeneracy, the energy will be the same as for the z-oriented orbits.