Lecture 20 - Schrödinger equation in 3D

What's important.

- Schrödinger equation in 3D
- angular momentum operators

Text: Gasiorowicz, Chap. 10

3D Schrödinger equation

As discussed in Lec. 17, the time-independent Schrödinger equation for a free particle in three dimensions reads:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2}{dz^2}u_E(x, y, z) = Eu_E(x, y, z). \tag{1}$$

Adding a time-independent potential can easily be accommodated through

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2}{dz^2}u_E(x,y,z) + V(x,y,z)u_E(x,y,z) = Eu_E(x,y,z)$$
(2)

Now, for many situations of interest, the potential:

- is between two objects, both of whose motion must be considered
- depends only on the radial separation r, so-called central potentials.

Two-particle wavefunctions in one-dimension were introduced in Lec. 16, where we showed that if the potential energy depended only on the relative separation x_{rel} , the wavefunction could be written as a product of independent wavefunction for the relative motion and the cm motion. The same is true for three dimensions for central potentials V(r). To review the notation (**bold** indicates vectors):

$$\mathbf{R}_{cm} = (m_1 \mathbf{r}_1 + m_2 \mathbf{r}_2) / (m_1 + m_2)$$
(3)

 $\mathbf{r} = \mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2$.

and

With this replacement, the arguments of the plane wave

$$\mathbf{p}_1 \mathbf{r}_1 + \mathbf{p}_2 \mathbf{r}_2 = \mathbf{P}_{cm} \mathbf{R}_{cm} + \mathbf{p} \mathbf{r}, \tag{4}$$

where the total and relative wavevectors are

$$\mathbf{P}_{cm} = \mathbf{p}_1 + \mathbf{p}_2$$
 and $\mathbf{p} = (m_2 \mathbf{p}_1 - m_1 \mathbf{p}_2) / (m_1 + m_2).$ (5)

The total kinetic energy then becomes

$$E = P_{\rm cm}^{2} / 2M_{\rm total} + \rho^{2} / 2\mu. \tag{6}$$

Because the kinetic energy separates cleanly into two pieces, and the potential energy depends on relative separation, the wavefunction separates into a plane-wave part describing the cm, and a relative part which satisfies the Schrödinger equation with a reduced mass:

$$U(\mathbf{R}_{cm}, \mathbf{r}) = \exp(i\mathbf{P}_{cm}\mathbf{R}_{cm}/\hbar) \cdot u(\mathbf{r})$$

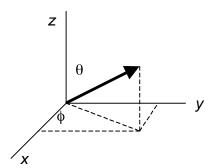
where $u(\mathbf{r})$ satisfies the time-independent SE:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2u}^2 + V(r) u(\mathbf{r}) = Eu(\mathbf{r}). \tag{7}$$

Many of the problems of interest in the remaining part of this course are drawn from atomic and molecular physics, where the mass of the two-particle system is concentrated in the nucleus, such that the total mass is close to the nuclear mass and the reduced mass is close to the electron mass. As a result, we will often write Eq. (7) with μ replaced by m_e ; but we should keep in mind that the exact solution involves the reduced mass.

Central potentials

That the potential in Eq. (7) depends on r, rather than \mathbf{r} , suggests that it may be useful to represent ² in spherical polars, rather than cartesian coordinates. Recalling the definition



It takes repeated application of the chain rule to establish that:
$$\frac{z^{2}}{z^{2}} = \frac{z^{2}}{x^{2}} + \frac{z^{2}}{y^{2}} + \frac{z^{2}}{z^{2}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{r^{2}} \frac{1}{r} r^{2} \frac{1}{r} + \frac{1}{r^{2} \sin \theta} \frac{1}{\theta} \sin \theta \frac{1}{\theta} + \frac{1}{r^{2} \sin^{2} \theta} \frac{z^{2}}{\theta^{2}}$$
(8)

The first term involves only r, giving us some hope that an approach based on the separation of variables might help. As a first step, write the wavefunction $u(r, \theta, \phi)$ as a product state:

$$u(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r) \cdot Y(\theta, \phi) \tag{9}$$

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and substitute into Eq. (7), transposing $E \cdot u(r, \theta, \phi)$ in so doing:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} Y(\theta, \phi) \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{1}{r} r^2 \frac{1}{r} R(r) + R(r) \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{1}{\theta} \sin \theta \frac{1}{\theta} + \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{2}{\phi^2} Y(\theta, \phi)$$
$$- [E - V(r)] R(r) Y(\theta, \phi) = 0$$

So long as V(r) has no derivatives, we can divide by R(r) without worry, leading to (after multiplying by r^2 :

$$\frac{1}{R} - \frac{1}{r} r^2 - \frac{R}{r} + \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2} \left[E - V(r) \right] = -\frac{1}{Y \sin \theta} - \frac{1}{\theta} \sin \theta - \frac{1}{\theta} + \frac{1}{\sin \theta} - \frac{2}{\phi^2} Y \tag{10}$$

To make the expression look less cumbersome, the arguments on RY have been dropped. This looks promising: the LHS depends only on r, and the RHS depends only on θ , ϕ , so both sides must equal a constant, which we define with some foreshadowing as $\ell(\ell+1)$. This gives us two equations:

$$-\frac{r^2}{r} \frac{R}{r} + \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2} [E - V(r)] R = \ell(\ell + 1) R$$
 (11)

and

$$-\frac{1}{\sin\theta} - \frac{1}{\theta} \sin\theta - \frac{1}{\theta} + \frac{1}{\sin^2\theta} - \frac{2}{\phi^2} Y = Y\ell(\ell+1)$$
 (12)

We'll return to the first of these equations, called the *radial equation*, in a few lectures. The solution to the radial equation obviously depends on the choice of V(r). But the angular equation is universal - valid for any central potential. We'll solve the Y functions in the next lecture, but to aid our interpretation, a diversion into the representation of angular momentum is in order.

Angular momentum in polar coordinates

We have already established an operator representation for the linear momentum \mathbf{p} . In the following lectures, we interpret the functions Y in terms of angular momentum \mathbf{L} , so it is worthwhile to establish at least a few of the angular momentum operator here, as well as its representation in spherical polar coordinates. Now, the classical form of \mathbf{L} is

$$L = r x p$$
.

When the usual quantum substitution $p_x -> -i \hbar \partial/\partial x$ is performed, the order of **r** and **p** is even more important than in the classical cross product. For example,

$$L_{z} = xp_{y} - yp_{x} = -i\hbar x \frac{}{y} - y \frac{}{x}$$
 (13)

In polar coordinates, this operator has the form

$$L_{z} = -i \hbar \partial /\partial \phi \tag{14}$$

which we establish by consistency. Recalling the transformation between coordinate systems

$$x = r \sin\theta \cos\phi$$
 $y = r \sin\theta \sin\phi$ $z = r \cos\theta$

then

$$L_{z} = -i\hbar \frac{x}{\phi} = -i\hbar \frac{x}{\phi} \frac{x}{x} + \frac{y}{\phi} \frac{y}{y} + \frac{z}{\phi} \frac{z}{z}$$

$$= -i\hbar \frac{r \sin\theta \cos\phi}{\phi} \frac{x}{x} + \frac{r \sin\theta \sin\phi}{\phi} \frac{y}{y} + \frac{r \cos\theta}{\phi} \frac{z}{z}$$

$$= -i\hbar - r \sin\theta \sin\phi \frac{x}{x} + r \sin\theta \cos\phi \frac{y}{y} + 0 \cdot \frac{z}{z}$$

$$= -i\hbar - y \frac{x}{x} + x \frac{y}{y}$$

The last line is just Eq. (13) again. Similar expressions can be obtained for L_x and L_y :

$$L_{x} = -i\hbar - \sin\phi - \cot\theta \cos\phi - \frac{1}{\phi}$$
 (15)

$$L_{y} = -i\hbar \cos \phi - \cot \theta \sin \phi - \cot \phi - \cot \theta \sin \phi - \cot \phi$$

Eqs. (14) - (16) can be combined to yield:

$$L^{2} = -\hbar^{2} \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{1}{\theta} \sin \theta \frac{1}{\theta} + \frac{1}{\sin^{2} \theta} \frac{2}{\phi^{2}}$$
 (17)

Eq. (17) has the same form as (13), which is why we have made the identification with $\ell(\ell+1)$. Why we chose this instead of ℓ^2 will become apparent in the next two lectures.