

Hydrogen atom correct structure\* Spectroscopy

Branch of the ~~spectroscopy~~ physics which deals with the observation and interpretation of the radiation emitted and absorbed by the atoms and molecules. And through the light on their structure. It provides information not only about the arrangement and motion of the outer electrons but also information about the angular momentum, magnetic moment, charge distribution and magnetism of the nucleus (study of the hyperfine structure, nuclear magnetic resonance etc.)

It was Dr Sir Isaac Newton who originated spectroscopy by showing that a prism reflects blue light more than red light, thus ~~shows~~ forming a band structure of colours known as a spectrum.

In 1801's Fraunhofer used a photograph to measure the wavelength of lines that had not been before, in light from the sun and he deduced the existence of new element called the He

In 1888, the Swedish Professor, J. Rydberg found

the spectral lines in the hydrogen atom the following mathematical formula: P-II

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left( \frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{n'^2} \right)$$

where  $n$  &  $n'$  are whole numbers

by changing the value of  $n$  &  $n'$  a series of lines are distinguished by name as Balmer series, Lyman series etc.

To describe such series of lines it is convenient to define the reciprocal of the transition wavelength as the wave number  $\bar{\nu}$  ( $\text{cm}^{-1}$ )

$$\bar{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

Wave numbers are very useful in atomic physics since they are easily evaluated from measured wavelengths without any conversion factors.

In 1913, Bohr put forward a radical new model of the hydrogen atom using quantum mechanics.

At the same time as Bohr was working on his model of the hydrogen atom, H. G. J. Moseley measured the X-ray spectra of many elements. He established that  $\sqrt{f} \propto Z$

P-111

The development of the ideas of atomic structure was linked to experiments on the emission, and absorption, of radiation from the atoms. The emission of radiation was considered as something that just has to happen in order to carry away the energy when an electron jumps from one allowed orbit to another. But the mechanism was not explained. It was the Einstein, who explained the emission and absorption of the radiation of the atom by the ~~coefficients~~ coefficients, called Einstein coefficients ( $A_{21}$  &  $B_{21}$ ).

In 1896, Zeeman ~~was~~ ~~studied~~ the worked on the effect of a magnetic field on atoms. This observation is called the Zeeman effect.

Schrodinger's Time-independent Equation

$$\nabla^2 \psi + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Solution of Schrodinger's Equation for Coulomb field (Quantum mechanical Treatment of an electron atom).

Schrodinger equation for one-electron atom like hydrogen atom. It consists of positively charged nucleus (+ze) and negatively charged electron (-e) in one electron system; the mass of the electron is m & the mass of the nucleus = M.

We may replace the mass of the system (electron + nucleus) = by  $\mu$  (reduced mass)

$$\mu = \frac{M \cdot m}{m + M} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\text{Potential energy } V(x, y, z) = -\frac{ze^2}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

The schrodinger equation for such system

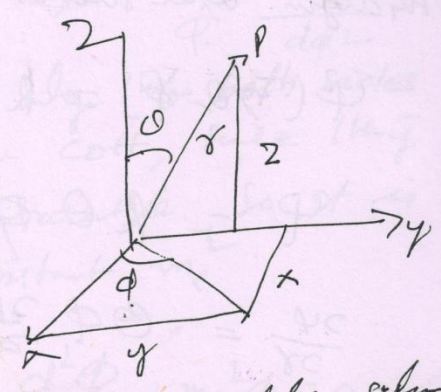
$$\nabla^2 \psi + \frac{2\mu}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

- $x = r \sin \theta \cos \phi$  --- (5)
- $y = r \sin \theta \sin \phi$  --- (6)
- $z = r \cos \theta$  --- (7)

$$\text{where } r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2} \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

$$\theta = \cos^{-1} \left( \frac{z}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2 + z^2}} \right) \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

$$\phi = \tan^{-1} (y/x) \quad \text{--- (10)}$$



The schrodinger equation in spherical polar coordinate system

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{r^2 \sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{2\mu}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

## Separation of variables

P-5

The advantage of writing

Potential energy can be written as in the H<sub>2</sub> atom

$$V = V(r) = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r}$$

Wave equation (11) can be written as (by ~~multiply~~  $r^2$  in (11))

$$\begin{aligned} \sin^2\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) + \sin\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin\theta \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{2\mu r^2}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right) \psi = 0 \quad (12) \end{aligned}$$

Solution of equation (12)

Separation of variables

(A different equation for each variable)

Hydrogen wave function

$$\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r) \Theta(\theta) \Phi(\phi) \quad (13)$$

$$\psi = R \Theta \Phi \quad (14)$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} = \Theta \Phi \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} \quad (15)$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta} = R \Phi \frac{\partial \Theta}{\partial \theta} \quad (16)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} = R \Theta \frac{\partial^2 \Phi}{\partial \phi^2} \quad (17)$$

Substituting (14), (15) & (17) in (12) and using  $\frac{P-1}{3}$   
 $R = \theta = \phi$ , we get

$$\underbrace{\frac{m^2 \theta}{R} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right)}_{(I)} + \underbrace{\frac{\hbar^2 \theta}{\theta} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{d\theta}{d\theta} \right)}_{(II)}$$

$$+ \underbrace{\frac{1}{\phi} \frac{d^2 \phi}{d\phi^2}}_{(III)} + \underbrace{\frac{2 \mu r^2}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r} + E \right)}_{(IV)} = 0 \quad (18)$$

Third term in (18) is a function of azimuthal angle  $\phi$  only, whereas the other terms are functions of  $r$  &  $\theta$  only. Now rearranging the (18),

$$\Rightarrow \frac{m^2 \theta}{R} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \frac{\hbar^2 \theta}{\theta} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{d\theta}{d\theta} \right) + \frac{2 \mu r^2 \hbar^2}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r} + E \right) = -\frac{1}{\phi} \frac{d^2 \phi}{d\phi^2} \quad (19)$$

This equation can be correct only if both sides of it are equal to the same const, since they are function of different variable. So it is convenient to call this constant  $m_\phi^2$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{1}{\phi} \frac{d^2 \phi}{d\phi^2} = m_\phi^2 \Rightarrow \frac{d^2 \phi}{d\phi^2} + m_\phi^2 \phi = 0 \quad (20)$$

Equation (19) becomes as

$$\frac{m^2 \theta}{R} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \frac{\hbar^2 \theta}{\theta} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{d\theta}{d\theta} \right) + \frac{2 \mu r^2 \hbar^2}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi \epsilon_0 r} + E \right) = m_\phi^2$$

$$\frac{1}{R} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \frac{2\mu r^2}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right) \quad 5-7$$

$$= \frac{m_e^2}{\hbar^2 \Theta} - \frac{1}{\Theta \sin \Theta} \frac{d}{d\Theta} \left( \sin \Theta \frac{d\Theta}{d\Theta} \right) - E$$

Again<sup>14</sup> Euler (20) appears different variable both sides. It requires the same constant on both sides, say  $l(l+1)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{m_e^2}{\hbar^2 \Theta} - \frac{1}{\Theta \sin \Theta} \frac{d}{d\Theta} \left( \sin \Theta \frac{d\Theta}{d\Theta} \right) = l(l+1)$$

$$\frac{1}{R} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \frac{2\mu r^2}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right) = l(l+1) \quad (22)$$

$\therefore$  Equations (20), (22) & (23) can be written as

$$\frac{d^2 \phi}{d\phi^2} + m_e^2 \phi = 0 \longrightarrow (24)$$

[Equation for  $\phi$ ]

$$\frac{1}{\sin \Theta} \frac{d}{d\Theta} \left( \sin \Theta \frac{d\Theta}{d\Theta} \right) + \left[ l(l+1) - \frac{m_e^2}{\hbar^2 \Theta} \right] \Theta = 0 \quad (25)$$

[Equation for  $\Theta$ ]

and

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \left[ \frac{2\mu}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right) - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] R = 0 \quad (26)$$

[Equation for R]

## Solution of $\phi$ -Equation

1-8

$$\frac{d^2\phi}{d\phi^2} + m_l^2 \phi = 0$$

Its solution is given by

$$\phi(\phi) = A e^{i m_l \phi} \quad \text{--- (27)}$$

From Fig. 1 it is clear that

$\phi$  &  $\phi + 2\pi$  both identically same. Hence it must be true that  $\phi(\phi) = \phi(\phi + 2\pi)$

$$\Rightarrow A e^{i m_l \phi} = A e^{i m_l (\phi + 2\pi)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = e^{i m_l \times 2\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow m_l = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$$

where  $m_l \rightarrow$  magnetic quantum number  
( $m$ )

$l \rightarrow$  orbital quantum number

## Solution of $\Theta$ Equation

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

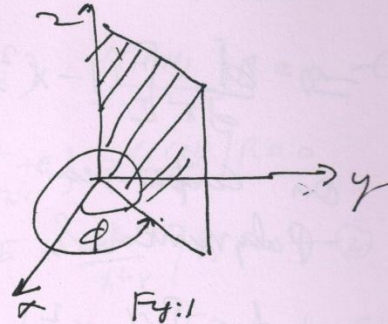
Let  $l(l+1) = \lambda$ ,  $m_l = m$   
and put  $x = \cos\theta$

$$\frac{d\Theta}{d\theta} = \frac{dx}{d\theta} \frac{d\Theta}{dx} = -\sin\theta \frac{d\Theta}{dx} \quad \text{--- (28)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{d\theta} = -\sin\theta \frac{d}{dx}$$

$$\sin\theta \frac{d\Theta}{d\theta} = -\sin^2\theta \frac{d\Theta}{dx}$$

$$\Rightarrow \sin\theta \frac{d\Theta}{d\theta} = -(1-x^2) \frac{d\Theta}{dx} \quad \text{--- (29)}$$





Putting equation (28) & (29) in (1) equation (1)

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dx} \left[ (1-x^2) \frac{d\Theta}{dx} \right] + \left( \lambda - \frac{m^2}{1-x^2} \right) \Theta = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d}{dz} \left[ (1-x^2) \frac{d\Theta}{dz} \right] + \left[ \lambda(l+1) - \frac{m^2}{1-x^2} \right] \Theta = 0 \quad (30)$$

on comparison of (30) with Legendre Polynomial, equation

$$\frac{d}{dx} \left[ (1-x^2) \frac{d}{dx} P_l^m(x) \right] + \left[ l(l+1) - \frac{m^2}{1-x^2} \right] P_l^m(x) = 0 \quad (31)$$

gives

$$\Theta = B P_l^m(x) \quad (32)$$

$$\Theta_{l,m}(\theta) = B P_l^m(\cos\theta) = B \quad (33)$$

where  $B \rightarrow$  normalized ~~value~~ constant.

$$B = \sqrt{\left[ \frac{(2l+1)}{2} \frac{(l-m)!}{(l+m)!} \right]}$$

Thus the solution is

$$\Theta_{l,m}(\theta) = \left[ \frac{(2l+1)}{2} \frac{(l-m)!}{(l+m)!} \right] P_l^m(\cos\theta) \quad (33)$$

$$\text{with } P_l^m(x) = (1-x^2)^{m/2} \frac{d^m}{dx^m} P_l(x), \quad (34)$$

$$\text{and } P_l(x) = \frac{1}{2^l l!} \left( \frac{d}{dx} \right)^l (x^2-1)^l. \quad (35)$$

$$\text{where } x = \cos\theta \quad (36)$$

## Solution of R-Equation

The radial R-equation is given by as

$$\frac{1}{8^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} \right) + \left[ \frac{2\mu}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right) - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] R = 0 \quad (1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{r^2} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial r^2} \right) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} + \left[ \frac{2\mu}{\hbar^2} \left( \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right) - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] R = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} + \left[ -\frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} + \frac{2\mu}{\hbar^2} E + \frac{2\mu e^2}{\hbar^2 r} \right] R = 0 \quad (2)$$

$$\left[ \text{Take } \frac{\hbar^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} = 1 \right]$$

According to the classical mechanics

if  $E < 0$ , bound state  
 $E > 0$  unbound state

Let us consider the electron is in bound state of the  $H_2$  atom. i.e.  $E < 0$ , then let us substitute

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \lambda^2 &= -\frac{2\mu E}{\hbar^2} \\ \gamma &= \frac{\mu k e^2}{\hbar^2 \lambda} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (3)$$

putting eqn (3) into eqn no. (2), then

$$\frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2}{r} \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} + \left[ -\frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} - \lambda^2 + \frac{2\gamma\lambda}{r} \right] R = 0 \quad (4)$$

Let  $\rho$  be an independent variable such that,

$$\left. \begin{aligned} \rho &= 2\lambda r \\ \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} &= 2\lambda \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5)$$

So that we have that

$$\frac{\partial R}{\partial r} = \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} \cdot \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} = (2\lambda) \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} \quad (6)$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial r^2} = (2\lambda) \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} \right) = (2\lambda) \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \left( \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} \cdot \frac{\partial \rho}{\partial r} \right)$$

$$= (2\lambda) \left( \frac{\partial}{\partial \rho} \left( \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} \cdot (2\lambda) \right) \right)$$

$$= (4\lambda^2) \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial \rho^2} \quad (7)$$

putting the value of eqn (6) & (7) into equation (4)

$$4r^2 \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial \rho^2} + \frac{2}{r} (2r) \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} + \left[ -\frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} - \lambda^2 + \frac{2\lambda a}{r} \right] R = 0$$

Dividing both sides by  $4r^2$ , we get

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial \rho^2} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} + \left[ -\frac{l(l+1)}{4r^2} - \frac{\lambda^2}{4} + \frac{\lambda a}{2dr} \right] R = 0 \quad \text{--- (8)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial \rho^2} + \frac{2}{\rho} \frac{\partial R}{\partial \rho} + \left[ -\frac{l(l+1)}{\rho^2} - \frac{\lambda^2}{4} + \frac{\lambda}{\rho} \right] R = 0 \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

### Asymptotic Behaviour

If  $\rho \rightarrow \infty$ , then eqn (9) becomes

$$\frac{\partial^2 R(\rho)}{\partial \rho^2} - \frac{\lambda^2}{4} R(\rho) = 0 \quad \text{--- (10)}$$

Solution of eqn (10) is

$$R(\rho) = F(\rho) e^{+\rho/2} \quad \text{OR} \quad R(\rho) = F(\rho) e^{-\rho/2} \quad \text{--- (11)}$$

as  $\rho$  varies from 0 to  $\infty$ , then  $e^{+\rho/2}$  goes to infinity, which is not an acceptable wave function.

as  $\rho$  varies from 0 to  $\infty$  then  $e^{-\rho/2}$  goes to zero, i.e. acceptable wave function.

Therefore, the asymptotic solution of (9) & (10) will be

$$R(\rho) = F(\rho) e^{-\rho/2} \quad \text{--- (12)}$$

where  $F(\rho)$  is another function of  $\rho$ .

Putting eqn no. (12) in (9), then we get

$$\rho^2 \frac{\partial^2 F}{\partial \rho^2} + \rho(2-\rho) \frac{\partial F}{\partial \rho} + [\rho\lambda - l(l+1) - \rho] F = 0 \quad \text{--- (13)}$$

at  $\rho=0$ , then we get  $-l(l+1) F(0) = 0$  or  $F(0) = 0$  if  $l \neq 0$ .

Therefore, we try a power series solution method  $\frac{p-12}{}$   
 For  $F(p)$ , it must not contain a constant term.

Hence,  $F(p) = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} a_k p^{c+k}$  — (13)

putting Equation (13) into Equation (12), we get

$$\sum_k a_k (\lambda - 1 - c - k) p^{c+k+1} + \sum_k a_k (c^2 + 2ck + k^2 + c+k - l^2 - l) p^{c+k} = 0$$
 — (15)

Equation (15) is valid for all values of  $p$  only if the coefficient of each power of  $p$  vanishes separately.  
 Equating the coefficient of  $p^c$  to zero, we have,

$$a_0 (c^2 + 0 + 0 + c - l^2 - l) = 0$$

$a_0 \neq 0$ , then

$$c^2 - c - l^2 - l = 0$$

$$(c-l) + (c^2 - l^2) = 0$$

$$(c-l)(c+l+1) = 0 \Rightarrow c=l, \text{ or } c = -(l+1) \text{ — (16)}$$

If  $c = -(l+1)$ , the 1st term in  $F(p)$  will be  $a_0 p^{-(l+1)}$

$$= a_0 \frac{p^{-l}}{p} \text{ — (17)}$$

$F(p) \rightarrow \infty$  as  $p \rightarrow 0$ , then  $F(p)$  is not acceptable function.  $\therefore$  Hence  $c=l$  is the only acceptable value.

Setting the coefficient of  $p^{l+k+1}$  in Eq. (15), we obtain

$$a_k (\lambda - 1 - l - k) + a_{k+1} (l^2 + 2(l+1)k + k^2 + l - l^2 - l) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a_{k+1} = \frac{l+k+1-\lambda}{(k+1)(k+2l+2)} a_k \text{ — (18)}$$

... which allows us to

For the large of  $k$ , we set from (18),

$$\frac{a_{k+1}}{a_k} = \frac{1}{k} \quad \text{--- (19)}$$

We know that

$$e^p = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} \frac{1}{k!} p^k = \sum_{k=0}^{\infty} A_k p^k$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{A_{k+1}}{A_k} = \frac{k!}{(k+1)!} = \frac{k!}{(k+1)k!} = \frac{1}{k+1} \rightarrow \frac{1}{k} \text{ as } k \rightarrow \infty$$

Therefore, as  $k \rightarrow \infty$ , the series for  $F(p)$  behaves like  $\int_0^{\infty} p \cdot e^p$  thus

$$R(p) = e^{-p/2} \int_0^{\infty} p e^p = p e^{p/2} \quad \text{--- (20)}$$

As  $p \rightarrow \infty$ , the  $R(p) \rightarrow \infty$  thus  $R(p)$  is not acceptable. Therefore we have to break the series after a certain value of  $k$ , say  $n'$ . For this

$a_{n'+1}$  must be zero

$$l + n' + 1 - \lambda = 0 \quad \text{--- (21)}$$

$$\Rightarrow n' = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Only spin values

Now defining new quantum number  $n$  and give by

$$l + n' + 1 = \lambda$$

$$n = \lambda = \frac{ke^2}{\hbar} \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{-2E}}$$

Squaring and supplying

$$n^2 = \left( \frac{ke^2}{\hbar} \right)^2 = \frac{\mu}{-2En}$$

$$\Rightarrow E_n = - \frac{\mu e^4}{2\pi^2 \hbar^2 n^2} \quad \text{--- (22)}$$

Since  $n$  and  $l$  are integers including zero.  $\phi$

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

As  $n \rightarrow l+1$ , highest value of  $l$  is  $(n-1)$ .

Therefore,

$$l = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots (n-1)$$

Here  $n$  is called the principle quantum no., which determines the energy.

The energy  $E_n$  is the same as obtained by the Bohr on the basis of quantum ideas

### Radial Wave function:

~~The equation (12) is the~~  
~~the solution of (12) will be as~~

the solution of (12) will be as

$$F(\rho) = \rho^l L(\rho) \quad \text{--- (23), and } \lambda = n \quad \text{--- (23)}$$

Therefore the equation (12) can be written as

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 L(\rho)}{\partial \rho^2} + (2l+2-\rho) \frac{\partial L(\rho)}{\partial \rho} + (n-l-1) L(\rho) = 0 \quad \text{--- (24)}$$

The equation (24) is same as associated Laguerre polynomial of order  $p$  and degree  $(q-p)$ , denoted as  $L_q^p(\rho)$ .

Therefore (24) can be written as

$$\rho \frac{\partial^2 L_q^p}{\partial \rho^2} + (p+1-\rho) \frac{\partial L_q^p}{\partial \rho} + (q-p) L_q^p = 0 \quad \text{--- (25)}$$

$$\text{where } p = 2l+1 \quad \text{--- (26)}$$

$$\text{and } n+l = q$$

The equations (25) and (26) are identical, &

$$R_{n,l}(r) = F(\rho) e^{-\rho/2} = N e^{-\rho/2} \rho^l L_{n+l}^{2l+1}(\rho) \quad (26)$$

Now write the condition of normalization

$$\int_0^{\infty} R_{n,l}^2(r) r^2 dr = 1 \quad (27)$$

⇒ Here the factor  $r^2 dr$  is necessary to convert the length  $dr$  in term of  $\rho$  d.p. as

Since  $\rho = 2Zr = 2 \cdot \mu e^2 r$

$$r^2 dr = \frac{n^3 a_0^3}{8 \mu^3 k^3 e^6} \rho^2 d\rho \quad (28)$$

Then eqn (26) becomes

$$\begin{aligned} & \frac{n^3 a_0^3}{8 \mu^3 k^3 e^6} |N|^2 \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\rho} \rho^{2l} (L_{n+l}^{2l+1}(\rho))^2 \rho^2 d\rho = 1 \\ & = \frac{n^3 a_0^3}{8 \mu^3 k^3 e^6} |N|^2 \times \frac{2n [(n+l)!]}{(n-l-1)!} = 1 \end{aligned}$$

$$|N| = \pm \left[ \left( \frac{2Z\mu k e^2}{n a_0} \right)^3 \frac{(n-l-1)!}{2n [(n+l)!]^3} \right]^{1/2} \quad (29)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{The } R_{n,l}(\rho) &= - \left[ \left( \frac{2Z}{n a_0} \right)^3 \frac{(n-l-1)!}{2n [(n+l)!]^3} \right]^{1/2} \\ & \times e^{-\rho/2} \rho^l L_{n+l}^{2l+1}(\rho) \quad (30) \end{aligned}$$

where  $a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{\mu e^2}$

Total wave function for the atom is given by

$$\psi_{n,l,m}(\varphi, \theta, \phi) = R_{n,l}(r) \Theta_{m,l}(\theta) \Phi_m(\phi) \quad (31)$$

$$R_{nl}(r) = N_{nl} e^{-Zr/na_0} \left( \frac{2Zr}{na_0} \right)^l L_{n-l}^{2l+1} \left( \frac{2Zr}{na_0} \right)$$

where  $N_{nl} \rightarrow$  const and

$L_{n-l}^{2l+1}$  is associated Laguerre Polynomials

$$a_0 = \frac{h^2}{4\pi^2 m e^2}$$

~~These eigen values~~

Interpretation of quantum numbers

The three quantum numbers which arise in a natural way during search of acceptable solutions of the Schrodinger equation may be tabulated as

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$l = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$m_l(m) = 0; \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$$

Interpretation of n

Schrodinger equation, the energy of an electron atom in the bound state

$$E_n = - \frac{2\pi^2 m e^4}{h^2 n^2} = - \frac{13.6 \text{ eV}}{n^2}$$

This is the same

Balmer's model;

$n$  quantizes the total energy of  $n^{\text{th}}$  state of the atom. Hence  $n$  is called the total or principal quantum no



Interpretation of l

we consider the radial wave equation

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \left[ \frac{8\pi^2 \mu}{h^2} (E - V(r)) - \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] R = 0 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

the total energy  $E$  of the atom consists of kinetic energy  $K$  and potential energy  $V$  of the electron. The K.E has two parts,  $K_{\text{radial}}$  → due to electron's motion towards or away from the nucleus

and  $K_{\text{orbital}}$  → due to its motion around the nucleus.

$$\text{Then } E = K_{\text{radial}} + K_{\text{orbital}} + V(r)$$

putting this in equation (1)

$$\frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{dR}{dr} \right) + \left[ \frac{8\pi^2 \mu}{h^2} \left( K_{\text{radial}} + K_{\text{orbital}} \right) - \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 \mu} \left[ \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] \right] R = 0$$

This radial equation is concerned only with the radial motion of the electron. Hence it must be free from  $K_{\text{orbital}}$ . This is possible only when the last two terms cancelled out each other i.e.

$$\text{i.e. } K_{\text{orbital}} = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 \mu} \left[ \frac{l(l+1)}{r^2} \right] \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$[L^2] (\text{angular momentum}) = \mu v r^2 \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$K_{\text{orbital}} = \frac{1}{2} \mu v^2 = \frac{L^2}{2\mu r^2} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

④ = ⑤

$$\frac{L^2}{2\mu r^2} = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 \mu r^2} (l(l+1))$$

$$L^2 = l(l+1) \frac{h^2}{4\pi^2 \mu r^2}$$

$$|L| = \sqrt{l(l+1)} \frac{h}{2\pi} \quad \text{--- ⑤}$$

hence  $l = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, (n-1)$ .

Thus the electron can have only discrete values of the angular momentum. Thus like  $E$  the  $L$  (angular momentum) is also quantized (discrete); this quantization is called  $l$  described by  $l$ .

$l$  - orbital quantum number. This expression for the angular momentum is identical to that obtained in

Bohr's theory, provided  $l$  is replaced by  $\sqrt{l(l+1)}$ .

\* Interpretation of  $m_l$  (ms)

when the atom is placed in external magnetic field. If the field along the z-axis.

$$L_z = m_l \frac{h}{2\pi} = m_l \frac{h}{2\pi}$$

$$m_l = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$$

$m_l$  describes the quantization of the orientation in a magnetic field

p-19

Thus the solution of the Schrodinger Equation gives much more information just than just the energies. And from the wave function  $\psi$  we can calculate other atomic properties that were not possible in the Bohr-Sommerfeld theory.

Question: Write the wave function for the ground state of hydrogen atom and calculate the most probable and the average distance of the electron from the nucleus. Hence discuss the characteristics of the state of the atom.

Sol: the ground state of one-electron atom,  $n=1, l=0, m=0, z=1$

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_{1,0,0} &= R_{1,0}(r) \Theta_{0,0}(\theta) \Phi_0(\phi) \\ &= 2 \left( \frac{z}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} \times e^{-\frac{zr}{a_0}} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \times \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi a_0^3}} e^{-r/a_0} \end{aligned}$$

## \* Magnetic Quantum number ( $m_l$ or $m_e$ )

(P-25)

As we know that the orbital quantum no.  $l$  determines the magnitude of the electron's angular momentum  $L$ . It is a vector quantity that describes the direction and magnitude of  $L$  of the electron.

What possible significance can a direction in space have for a hydrogen atom? The answer is that when a electron is revolving about a nucleus makes a current loop and has a magnetic field like a magnetic dipole.

Therefore an electron possesses angular momentum interacts with the external magnetic field  $\vec{B}$ .

Therefore, the magnetic quantum no. ( $m_e$ ) specifies the direction of  $\vec{L}$  by determining the component of  $\vec{L}$  in the magnetic field. This phenomenon is called the space quantization.

Let if the magnetic field  $\vec{B}$  is in the direction parallel to the z-axis, the component of  $\vec{L}$  in this direction is given by as

$$L_z = m_l \hbar, \quad m_l = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

(Space quantization)

The possible values of  $m_e$  for a given value of  $l$  lies from  $+1$  to  $-1$  (including 0).

Therefore, the total no. of possible orientations of  $\vec{L}$  in a magnetic field is  $2l+1$ .

Hence, if  $l=0, l_z=0$

(16)

$l=1, l_z = \hbar, 0, -\hbar$

$l=2, l_z = 2\hbar, \hbar, 0, -\hbar, -2\hbar$

and so on...

The space quantization of the angular momentum  $L$  is shown in ~~Fig~~ the below figure.

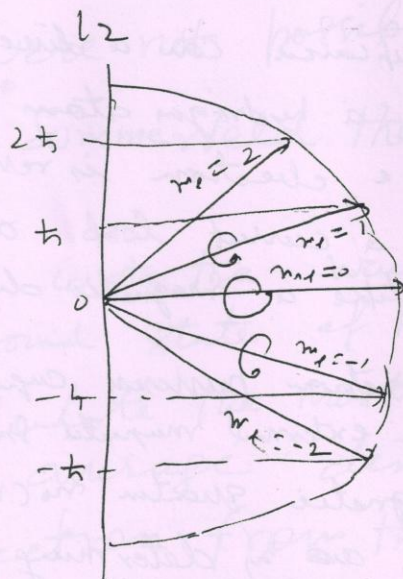


Fig: Space quantization of the orbital angular momentum ( $l=2$ ).

### Relativistic correction

The total energy ( $E_n$ ) of the electron in the bound state in H atom is given by

$$E_n = -\frac{m_e^4 c^4 Z^2}{32\pi^2 \hbar^2 n^2} = -\frac{13.6 Z^2 eV}{n^2} \quad (1)$$

(Non-relativistic energy)

Now if we consider the relativistic correction, then instead of non-relativistic relation given by

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + E_{pot} \quad (2)$$

$$E = c \sqrt{m_0^2 c^2 + p^2} - m_0 c^2 + E_{pot} \quad (17)$$

For the electron in the H<sub>2</sub> atom, the velocity  $v$  of the electron is still small compared to the velocity of  $c$ , which means that  $E_{kin}$  is  $m_0 c^2$  or  $\frac{p^2}{2m_0 c^2}$ .

We can therefore expand the square root of (17) into the power series as

$$\left(1 + \frac{p^2}{m_0^2 c^2}\right)^{1/2} = 1 + \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{p^2}{m_0^2 c^2} - \frac{1}{8} \frac{p^4}{m_0^4 c^4} + \dots$$

which gives the energy expression (17) as of order (3) as

$$E = m_0 c^2 \left(1 + \frac{1}{2} \frac{p^2}{m_0^2 c^2} - \frac{1}{8} \frac{p^4}{m_0^4 c^4}\right) + \dots$$

$$= \left( \frac{p^2}{2m_0} + E_{pot} \right) - \frac{p^4}{8m_0^3 c^2} + \dots = E_{nr} - \Delta E_r \quad (18)$$

Now we can obtain the quantum mechanical expectation value of this correction by putting  $p = \frac{h}{\lambda}$ , which leads

$$\Delta E_r = \frac{h^4}{8m_0^3 c^2} \int \psi_{n,l,m}^* \nabla^4 \psi_{n,l,m} \, d\tau \quad (19)$$

Now putting the value of  $\psi$  of H<sub>2</sub> atom into eqn (19)

$$\text{We get, } \Delta E_r = + E_{nr} \frac{2^2 2^2}{n^2} \left( \frac{3}{4n} - \frac{1}{2} \frac{1}{n} \right) \quad (20)$$

$$\text{When } l = \frac{e^2}{\dots} = 7.297 \times 10^{-7} = \frac{1}{137} \quad (21)$$

(18)

Page 23

where  $\lambda$  is called the Sommerfeld's fine structure constant

Now, the total energy of an electron in the  $H_2$  atom is

$$E_{n,l} = -R_y \frac{Z^2}{n^2} \left( 1 - \frac{\lambda^2 Z^2}{n} \left( \frac{3}{4n} - \frac{1}{l + \frac{1}{2}} \right) \right) \quad \text{--- (9)}$$

where  $R_y \rightarrow$  Rydberg constant  $= \frac{h c R_\infty}{8 \pi^2 m_e h^2}$

and Eqn (9) is the total energy of the  $H_2$  atom.

### The Electron Spin

Several experiments such as the Stern-Gerlach (S.G) experiment, the fine-structure of the spectral lines, or the ~~anomalous~~ anomalous Zeeman effect results that the electron must have an additional characteristic property (besides charge  $-e$  and mass  $m_e$ ), which was called electron spin. This spin must cause an additional magnetic moment ( $\mu_s$ ) in addition to the orbital magnetic moment  $\mu_L$ . This is already postulated by Fermi, before it could be experimentally confirmed.

### The Stern-Gerlach Experiment:

In 1925, Uhlenbeck and Goudsmith proposed that each electron spins while revolving about nucleus and has quantized spin angular momentum. This is like a small electrically charged body (ball).

p-24 (15)

Spin magnetic moment. This proposal was successfully correlated the spectral data for both unperturbed and perturbed complex atoms. And was successful to interpret the results of the Stern-Gerlach Experiment.

In this experiment, a beam of ~~the~~ neutral atoms or molecules, collimated by slits  $S_1$  and  $S_2$  and is allowed to pass through a non-uniform magnetic field  $\vec{B}$  (as shown in the Fig —)

The atoms or molecules are deflected by the magnetic force  $\vec{F}$  and given by

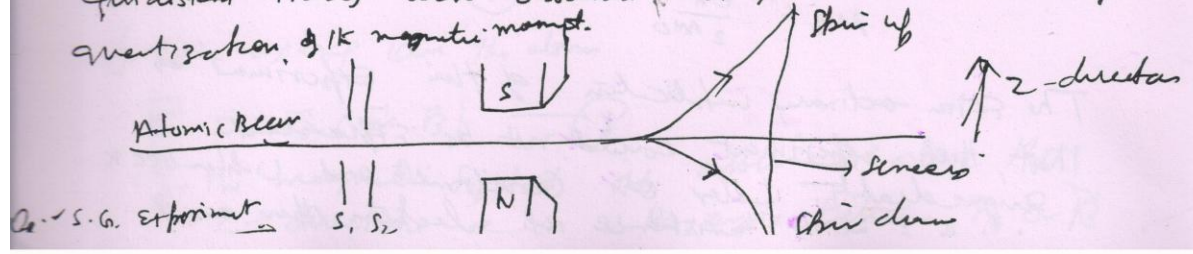
$$\vec{F} = \nabla (\vec{m} \cdot \vec{B}) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

where  $\vec{m}$  is magnetic moment vector. Here the direction of  $\vec{B}$  varies slowly but the magnitude of  $\vec{B}$  is strongly ~~is~~ direction dependent. Thus if the projection of  $\vec{m}$  is taken along the direction of  $\vec{B}$  and denoted as  $m_B$ , then (1) can be written as

$$\vec{F} = m_B \nabla \cdot \vec{B} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

by measuring the deflection on the screens, the force  $\vec{F}$  and  $m_B$  may be determined.

Consider  $m_B$  can have any values from  $-m$  to  $+m$ . therefore, we would expect a single continuous trace on the screens: but experimentally, instead of a continuous trace, discrete equidistant traces were observed, and gives a clear proof of quantization of magnetic moment.





(20) Since the magnetic moment vector  $\vec{m}$  appeared to assume certain discrete directions in space, therefore it is called the space quantization.

Now the magnetic moment  $\vec{m}$  of the charged particle is related to the angular momentum  $\vec{L}$  by classically,

$$\vec{m} = -\frac{e}{2m} \vec{L} \quad (3)$$

Since  $L$  has  $(2l+1)$  component, we may expect the projection of  $\vec{m}$  in a fixed direction, such as on  $\vec{B}$  and can be written as

$$m_B = -\frac{eh}{2m} m \quad (4)$$

$$m_B = -\mu_B m \quad (5)$$

$$\text{When } \mu_B = \frac{eh}{2m} = 9.27 \times 10^{-24} \text{ J/Tesla}$$

Bohr magneton.

Since  $m$  can assume the values from  $-l$  to  $+l$  with steps of unity, i.e.  $(2l+1)$  values. Since  $l$  is an integer  $(2l+1)$  is odd no; therefore we expect an odd number of beam (in the S-G experiment). But a beam of silver atom yielded two beams in this experiment, which is even no. and the value of  $\mu_B$  equals

$$\mu_B = \frac{eh}{2m} \quad (5)$$

The extraordinary implication of this experiment is that this experiment could not be explained immediately. Later on Goudsmit and Uhlenbeck

intrinsic magnetic moment provided an explanation for this experiment. On the basis of this theory the silver atom in the S-state has two projections possible in space, namely

$$\mu_B = \pm \frac{e\hbar}{2m_0} \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

The positive and negative signs signify the orientation of the magnetic moment in the space i.e. up and down

Grassmuth and Uhlenbeck assumed that the electron has an intrinsic (or spin) angular momentum, but this is not easy to measure directly as the magnetic moment.

Now it is convenient to associate spin  $S$  with the magnetic moment  $\mu_B$

$$S = +\frac{\hbar}{2}, \quad \mu_B = -\frac{e\hbar}{2m_0}$$

$$S = -\frac{\hbar}{2}, \quad \mu_B = +\frac{e\hbar}{2m_0}$$

### Theory of the S.G. Experiment

The separation of beam of silver atoms into two components in S.G. experiment may be explained as let the atom of magnetic moment  $m$  enter a non-uniform magnetic field  $\vec{B}$ . Then the force acting on the atom

$$\vec{F} = \nabla (m \cdot \vec{B}) \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

If the magnetic field is assumed along the  $z$ -direction  $\theta$  is the angle between  $\vec{m}$  &  $\vec{B}$

$$1) \hbar \omega$$

$$F = m \omega \frac{\partial B}{\partial z} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

classically  $Q$  can have all possible values but quantum mechanically, according to space quantization, it can have only discrete values.

as the electron enters  $\vec{B}$  in the non-uniform magnetic field  $B_z$  then

$$\text{acceleration } a_z = \frac{F}{m_0} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$m_0 \rightarrow$  mass of the atom.

$L \rightarrow$  if  $L$  is the length of the magnetic field,  $u$  is the velocity of the atom along the direction of the beam, then time taken by the atom in  $B_z$

$$t = \frac{L}{u} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

the displacement along the  $z$ -direction

$$z = \frac{1}{2} a_z t^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{F}{m_0} \cdot \left(\frac{L}{u}\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \left( m \omega \frac{\partial B}{\partial z} \right) \left(\frac{L}{u}\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} m \omega \left[ \frac{L^2}{m_0 u^2} \right] \frac{\partial B}{\partial z} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

quantum mechanically, and according to the space quantization  $\omega = \pm 1$ ,

$$z = \pm \frac{1}{2} \frac{m L^2}{m_0 u^2} \frac{\partial B}{\partial z} \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

(6) gives the two directions for spin half particles which is observed in the S.G. experiment