Lecture 12 Atomic structure

Atomic structure: background

 Our studies of atomic hydrogen, and hydrogen-like atoms reveal that the spectrum of the Hamiltonian,

$$\hat{H}_0 = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2}{2m} - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Ze^2}{r}$$

is characterized by large degeneracy with eigenvalues having n^2 -fold degeneracy.

- However, although the non-relativistic Schrödinger Hamiltonian provides a useful platform, the formulation is a little too naïve.
- The Hamiltonian is subject to several classes of "corrections", which lead to important physical ramifications (which reach beyond the realm of atomic physics).
- In this lecture, we outline these effects, before moving on to discuss multi-electron atoms in the next.



Atomic structure: outline

- Relativistic (fine structure) corrections and spin-orbit coupling
- Signatures of quantum electrodynamics and the Lamb shift
- Nuclear spin and hyperfine structure of atoms

Atomic structure: hydrogen atom revisited

- As with any centrally symmetric potential, stationary solutions of the Schrödinger equation take form $\psi_{n\ell m}(\mathbf{r}) = R_{n\ell}(r) Y_{\ell m}(\theta, \phi)$.
- For atomic hydrogen, n^2 -degenerate energy levels set by

$$E_n = -\text{Ry} \frac{1}{n^2}, \qquad \text{Ry} = \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\right)^2 \frac{m}{2\hbar^2} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{2a_0}$$

where m is reduced mass (ca. electron mass), and $a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0}{e^2} \frac{\hbar^2}{m}$.

- For higher single-electron ions (He⁺, Li²⁺, etc.), $E_n = -Z^2 \frac{\text{Ry}}{n^2}$.
- Allowed combinations of quantum numbers:

n	ℓ	Subshell(s)
1	0	1 <i>s</i>
2	0, 1	2 <i>s</i> 2 <i>p</i>
3	0, 1, 2	3 <i>s</i> 3 <i>p</i> 3 <i>d</i>
n	$0\cdots(n-1)$	$ns\cdots$



Atomic structure: hydrogen atom revisited

• However, treatment of hydrogen atom inherently non-relativistic:

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is only the leading term in relativistic treatment (Dirac theory).

- Such relativistic corrections begin to impact when the electron becomes relativistic, i.e. $v \sim c$.
- With $Ry = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$ (which follows from virial theorem for Coulomb potential, $2\langle k.e. \rangle = -\langle p.e. \rangle$), and the identity,

$$\mathcal{Z}^2 \mathrm{Ry} = \frac{1}{2} mc^2 (Z\alpha)^2, \qquad \alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{\hbar c} \simeq \frac{1}{137}$$

we find
$$\frac{v}{c} = Z\alpha$$
 where α denotes the **fine structure constant**.

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The "real" hydrogen atom

- Terms of higher order in $\frac{v}{c} = Z\alpha$ provide relativistic corrections which lead to lifting of the degeneracy.
- Our discussion of these relativistic corrections will provide platform to describe multi-electron atoms.
- Relativistic corrections to spectrum of hydrogen-like atoms (known as fine-structure) derive from three (superficially) different sources:
 - (a) relativistic corrections to the kinetic energy;
 - (b) coupling between spin and orbital degrees of freedom;
 - (c) and a contribution known as the Darwin term.

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From the relativistic energy-momentum invariant,

$$E = \sqrt{\mathbf{p}^2 c^2 + m^2 c^4} = mc^2 + \frac{\mathbf{p}^2}{2m} - \frac{1}{8} \frac{(\mathbf{p}^2)^2}{m^3 c^2} + \cdots,$$

we can anticipate the leading correction to the non-relativistic Hamiltonian is given by

$$\hat{H}_1 = -\frac{1}{8} \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2)^2}{m^3 c^2}$$

The relative scale of perturbation

$$\frac{\langle \hat{H}_1 \rangle}{\langle \hat{H}_0 \rangle} \simeq \frac{p^2}{m^2 c^2} = \frac{v^2}{c^2} \simeq (Z\alpha)^2$$

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- Since $[\hat{H}_1, \hat{\mathbf{L}}^2] = 0$, $\langle n\ell m | [\hat{H}_1, \hat{\mathbf{L}}^2] | n\ell' m' \rangle = \hbar^2 \left[\ell'(\ell'+1) \ell(\ell+1) \right] \langle n\ell m | \hat{H}_1 | n\ell' m' \rangle = 0$
- Similarly, since $[\hat{H}_1,\hat{L}_z]=0$, $\langle n\ell m|[\hat{H}_1,\hat{L}_z]|n\ell'm'\rangle=\hbar(m'-m)\langle n\ell m|\hat{H}_1|n\ell'm'\rangle=0$
- Therefore, the off-diagonal matrix elements vanish:

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$$\hat{H}_1 = -\frac{1}{8} \frac{(\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2)^2}{m^3 c^2} = -\frac{1}{2mc^2} \left[\hat{H}_0 - V(r) \right]^2, \qquad V(r) = \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r}$$

scale of resulting energy shift can be obtained from first order perturbation theory,

$$\langle n\ell m|\hat{H}_1|n\ell m\rangle = -\frac{1}{2mc^2}\left(E_n^2 - 2E_n\langle V(r)\rangle_{n\ell} + \langle V^2(r)\rangle_{n\ell}\right)^2$$

Using the identities

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{r} \right\rangle_{n\ell} = \frac{Z}{a_0 n^2}, \qquad \left\langle \frac{1}{r^2} \right\rangle_{n\ell} = \frac{Z^2}{a_0^2 n^3 (\ell + 1/2)}$$

resulting energy shift acquires angular momentum dependence:

$$\langle \hat{H}_1 \rangle_{n\ell m} = -\frac{mc^2}{2} \left(\frac{Z\alpha}{n} \right)^4 \left(\frac{n}{\ell + 1/2} - \frac{3}{4} \right)$$



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- Spin degree of freedom of the electron emerges naturally from relativistic formulation of quantum mechanics. Alongside the spin, this formulation leads to a further relativistic correction which involves coupling between spin and orbital degrees of freedom.
- For a general potential V(r), this spin-orbit coupling is given by:

$$\hat{H}_2 = \frac{1}{2m^2c^2} \frac{1}{r} (\partial_r V) \,\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{L}}$$

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(b) Spin-orbit coupling: physical origin

- Physically, as electron moves through electric field of nucleus, $\mathbf{E} = -\nabla V(r) = -\hat{\mathbf{e}}_r(\partial_r V)$, in its rest frame it will experience a magnetic field, $\mathbf{B} = \frac{1}{c^2}\mathbf{v} \times \mathbf{E}$.
- In this field, the spin magnetic moment of the electron, $\mu_s = -\frac{e}{m} \mathbf{S}$, leads to an additional interaction energy,

$$-\mu_{s} \cdot \mathbf{B} = -\frac{e}{(mc)^{2}} \mathbf{S} \cdot (\mathbf{p} \times \hat{\mathbf{e}}_{r}(\partial_{r}V)) = \frac{e}{(mc)^{2}} \frac{1}{r} (\partial_{r}V) \mathbf{L} \cdot \mathbf{S}$$

where we have used the relation $\mathbf{p} \times \hat{\mathbf{e}}_r = -\frac{1}{r}\mathbf{L}$.

- Additional factor of 1/2 derives from further relativistic effect known as **Thomas precession**.
- Those discontent with heuristic derviation need only wait for Dirac formulation...



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- Without spin-orbit interaction, eigenstates of hydrogen-like atoms can be expressed in basis of mutually commuting operators, \hat{H}_0 , $\hat{\mathbf{L}}^2$, $\hat{\mathbf{L}}_z$, $\hat{\mathbf{S}}^2$, and \hat{S}_z .
- However, with spin-orbit, total Hamiltonian no longer commutes with \hat{L}_z or \hat{S}_z useful to exploit degeneracy of \hat{H}_0 to switch to new basis in which $\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{L}}$ is diagonalized.
- Achieved by turning to basis of eigenstates of the operators, \hat{H}_0 , \hat{J}^2 \hat{J}_z , \hat{L}^2 , and \hat{S}^2 , where $\hat{J} = \hat{L} + \hat{S}$. Since $\hat{J}^2 = \hat{L}^2 + \hat{S}^2 + 2\hat{L} \cdot \hat{S}$, it follows that,

$$\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{L}} = \frac{1}{2}(\hat{\mathbf{J}}^2 - \hat{\mathbf{L}}^2 - \hat{\mathbf{S}}^2) = \frac{1}{2}(j(j+1) - \ell(\ell+1) - s(s+1))$$

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• Combining spin 1/2 with angular momentum ℓ , total angular momentum can take values $j=\ell\pm 1/2$. Corresponding basis states $|j=\ell\pm 1/2,m_j,\ell\rangle$ diagonalize operator,

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$$\left\langle \frac{1}{r^3} \right\rangle_{n\ell} = \left(\frac{mc\alpha Z}{\hbar n} \right)^3 \frac{1}{\ell(\ell+1/2)(\ell+1)}, \qquad \ell > 0$$

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• Combining these expressions, for $\ell > 0$, we have

$$\langle \hat{H}_1 + \hat{H}_2 \rangle_{n,j=\ell \pm 1/2, m_j, \ell} = \frac{1}{2} mc^2 \frac{(Z\alpha)^4}{n^4} \left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{n}{j+1/2} \right)$$

while for $\ell=0$, we retain just $\langle \hat{H}_1 \rangle$



(c) Darwin term

 Final contribution from relativistic effects arises from "Zwitterbewegung" of electron – giggling – which smears effective potential felt by electron,

$$\hat{H}_3 = \frac{\hbar^2}{8m^2c^2}\nabla^2 V = -\frac{\hbar^2}{8m^2c^2}(4\pi eQ_{\text{nuclear}}) = \frac{\pi\hbar^2 Ze^2}{2m^2c^2}\delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{r})$$

• Since perturbation acts only at origin, it effects only states with $\ell=0$.

$$\langle \hat{H}_3 \rangle_{njm_j\ell} = \frac{\pi \hbar^2 Z e^2}{2m^2 c^2} |\psi_{\ell n}(0)|^2 = \frac{mc^2 (Z\alpha)^4}{2n^3} \delta_{\ell,0}$$

• This term is formally identical to that which would be obtained from $\langle \hat{H}_2 \rangle$ at $\ell = 0$. As a result, combining all three contributions,

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Spectroscopic notation

- To discuss energy shifts for particular states, it is helpful to introduce some nomenclature from atomic physics.
- For a state with principal quantum number n, total spin s, orbital angular momentum ℓ , and total angular momentum j, one may define the state by the spectroscopic notation,

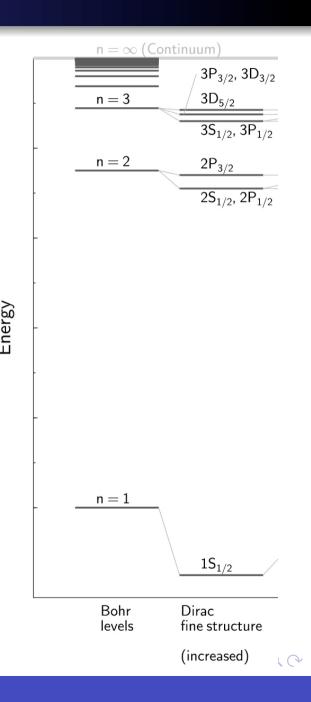
$$n^{2s+1}L_j$$

• For a hydrogen-like atom, with just a single electron, 2s + 1 = 2. In this case, the factor 2s + 1 is often just dropped for brevity.

Relativistic corrections

$$\Delta E_{n,j=\ell\pm 1/2,m_j,\ell} = \frac{1}{2}mc^2\left(\frac{\alpha Z}{n}\right)^4\left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{n}{j+1/2}\right)$$

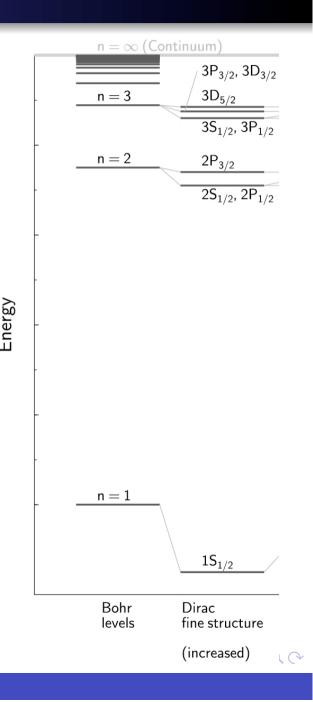
- For a given n, relativistic corrections depend only on j and n.
- For n=1, $\ell=0$ and j=1/2: Both $1S_{1/2}$ states, with $m_j=\pm 1/2$, experience negative energy shift of $-\frac{1}{4}Z^4\alpha^2$ Ry.
- For n=2, $\ell=0,1$: With j=1/2, both $2S_{1/2}$ and $2P_{1/2}$ states have shift, $-\frac{5}{64}Z^4\alpha^2$ Ry, while $2P_{3/2}$ experiences a shift $-\frac{1}{64}Z^4\alpha^2$ Ry.



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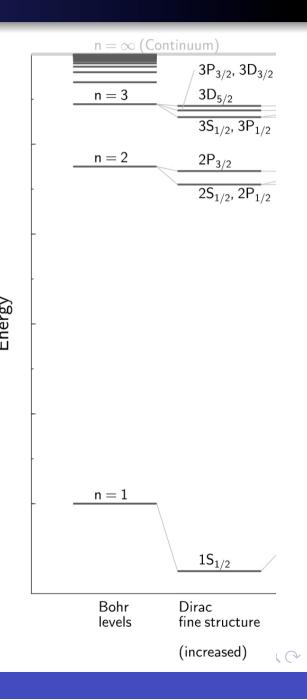
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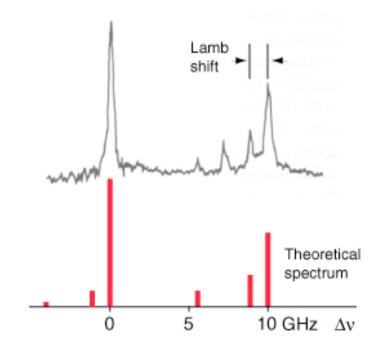
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(Further) relativistic corrections: Lamb shift

- Perturbative corrections predicted by Dirac theory predict that, for hydrogen, the $2S_{1/2}$ and $2P_{1/2}$ states should remain degenerate.
- However, in 1951, an experimental study by Willis Lamb discovered that $2P_{1/2}$ state is slightly lower than the $2S_{1/2}$ state Lamb shift.

 Might seem that such a tiny effect would be insignificant, but shift provided considerable insight into quantum electrodynamics.



Lamb shift

- Within framework of quantum electrodynamics, Coulomb interaction is mediated by exchange of photons – "gauge particles".

$$\langle (\delta \mathbf{x})^2 \rangle \simeq \frac{2\alpha}{\pi} \left(\frac{\hbar}{mc} \right)^2 \ln \frac{1}{\alpha Z}, \qquad \delta x \sim 10^{-5} a_0$$

- Causes electron spin g-factor to be slightly different from 2.
- There is also a slight weakening of the force on the electron when it is very close to the nucleus, causing 2s electron to be slightly higher in energy than the $2P_{1/2}$ electron.

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$$\Delta E_{\rm Lamb} \simeq \left(\frac{Z}{n}\right)^4 n\alpha^2 \, {\rm Ry} \times \left(\frac{8}{3\pi}\alpha \ln \frac{1}{\alpha Z}\right) \delta_{\ell,0}$$

Hyperfine structure

• Finally, we must address the influence of nuclear spin, **I**, which leads to a nuclear magnetic moment,

$$\mathbf{M} = g_N \frac{e}{2M_N c} \mathbf{I}$$

where nucleus has mass M_N and gyromagnetic ratio g_N .

- Since nucleus has internal structure, g_N is not simply 2. For proton, sole nuclear constituent of atomic hydrogen, $g_P \approx 5.56$.
- Even though neutron is charge neutral, its gyromagnetic ratio is about $g_n \approx -3.83$.
- The magnetic moment generates a vector potential ${f A} = -{f M} imes
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$$\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A} = -\left(\mathbf{M}\nabla^2 \frac{1}{r} - \nabla(\mathbf{M} \cdot \nabla) \frac{1}{r}\right)$$

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• To explore the effect of field, consider for simplicity just s-electrons, i.e. $\ell = 0$.

In this case, interaction of magnetic moment of electrons with field gives rise to hyperfine interaction,

$$\hat{H}_{\mathrm{hyp}} = -\frac{e}{mc}\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \mathbf{B}$$

• Making use of the identity, $\nabla^2(1/r) = \delta^{(3)}(\mathbf{r})$ and

$$\int d^3r \left[\nabla (\mathbf{I} \cdot \nabla) \frac{1}{r} \right] |\psi_{n,0}(r)|^2 = \frac{\mathbf{I}}{3} \int d^3r \left(\nabla^2 \frac{1}{r} \right) |\psi_{n,0}(r)|^2 = \frac{\mathbf{I}}{3} |\psi_{n,0}(0)|^2$$

to first order in perturbation theory

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• As with spin-orbit interaction, convenient to define the total spin $\mathbf{F} = \mathbf{I} + \mathbf{S}$,

$$\frac{1}{\hbar^2} \mathbf{S} \cdot \mathbf{I} = \frac{1}{2\hbar^2} (\mathbf{F}^2 - \mathbf{S}^2 - \mathbf{I}^2) = \frac{1}{2} (F(F+1) - 3/4 - I(I+1))$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} \begin{cases} I & F = I + 1/2 \\ -I - 1 & F = I - 1/2 \end{cases}$$

Summary: atomic structure

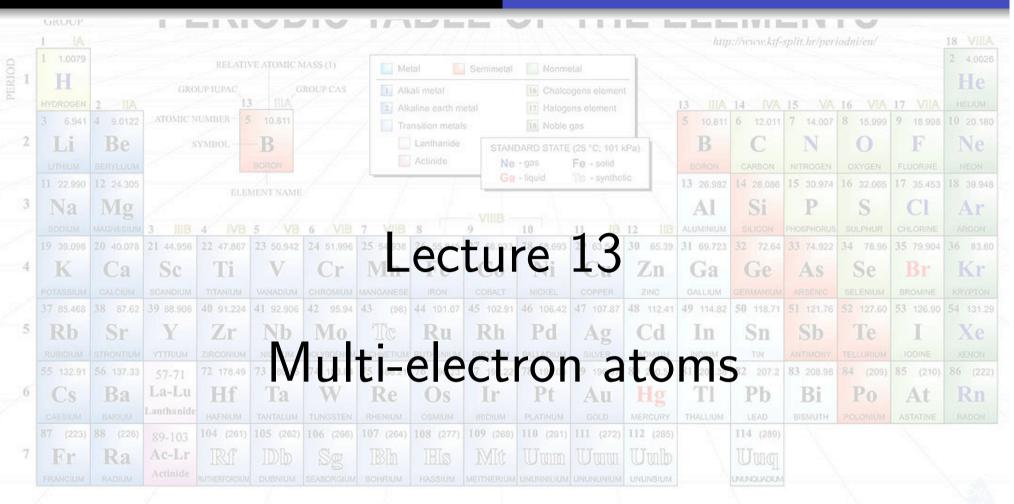
- In non-relativistic quantum mechanics, the hydrogen atom is characterized by an n^2 -fold degeneracy of states.
- Relativistic corrections lead to perturbations that split this degeneracy.
- Although (as we will see) all three key contributions emerge from a single consistent theory (due to Dirac), their physical origin can be ascribed to three sources:
 - (a) Relativistic corrections to the kinetic energy.
 - (b) Coupling between the spin and orbital degrees of freedom.
 - (c) Darwin contribution from the giggling of the electron.

Summary: atomic structure

 Altogether, these contributions lead to a perturbative shift of the energy,

$$\Delta E_{n,j=\ell\pm 1/2,m_j,\ell} = \frac{1}{2}mc^2 \left(\frac{\alpha Z}{n}\right)^4 \left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{n}{j+1/2}\right)$$

- Further spectroscopic corrections provide insight into quantum electrodynamics – Lamb shift.
- Finally, the spin degrees of freedom of the nucleus lead to further spin-orbit contributions which perturb the levels – hyperfine interactions.



(1) Pure Appl. Chem., 73, No. 4, 667-683 (2001) Relative atomic mass is shown with five significant figures. For elements have no stable nuclides, the value enclosed in brackets indicates the mass number of the longest-lived isotopo of the element.

However three such elements (Th. Pa, and U) do have a characteristic terrestrial isotopic composition, and for these an atomic weight is tabulated.

Editor; Aditya Vardhan (adivar@nettlinx.com

ANTHANI												Copyright © 19		eni@ktf-split.h
57 138,91	58 140.12	59 140.91	60 144.24	61 (145)	62 150.36	63 151.96	64 157.25	65 158.93	66 162,50	67 164.93	68 167.26	69 168.93	70 173.04	71 174.97
La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Ho	Er	Tm	Yb	Lu
ANTHANUM	CERIUM		NEODYMIUM	PROMETHIUM	SAMARIUM	EUROPIUM	GADOLINIUM	TERBIUM		HOLMIUM	ERBIUM	THULIUM	YTTERBIUM	LUTETIUM
CTINIDE														
89 (227)	90 232.04	91 231.04	92 238.03	93 (237)	94 (244)	95 (243)	96 (247)	97 (247)	98 (251)	99 (252)	100 (257)	101 (258)	102 (259)	103 (262
Ac	Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	IBIK	Cf	IEs	Fm	Md	No	Lr
ACTINIUM											FERMIUM			

How can we determine energy levels of a multi-electron atom?

- We could start with hydrogenic energy levels for atom of nuclear charge Z, and start filling electrons from lowest levels, accounting for Pauli exclusion.
- Degeneracy for quantum numbers (n, ℓ) is $2 \times (2\ell + 1)$. Each energy level, n, accommodates $2 \times n^2$ electrons:

n		Degeneracy in shell	Cumulative total
1		2	2
2	0, 1	$(1+3) \times 2 = 8$	10
	0, 1, 2	$(1+3+5) \times 2 = 18$	28
4	0, 1, 2, 3	$(1+3+5+7)\times 2=32$	

 Expect atoms containing 2, 10, 28 or 60 electrons would be especially stable and that, in atoms containing one more electron, outermost electron would be less tightly bound.



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How can we determine energy levels of a multi-electron atom?

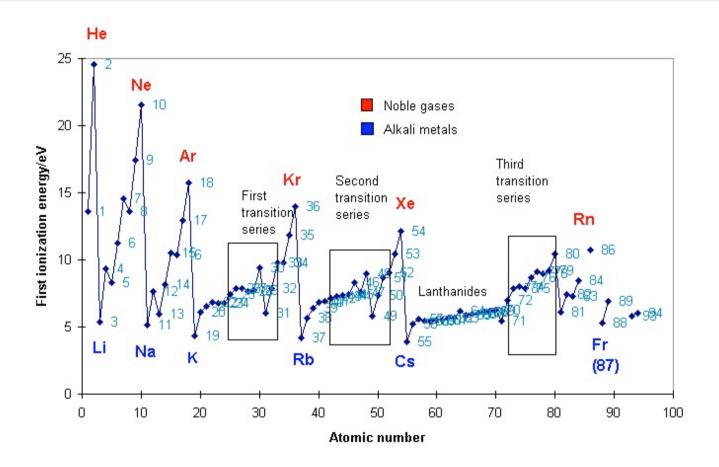
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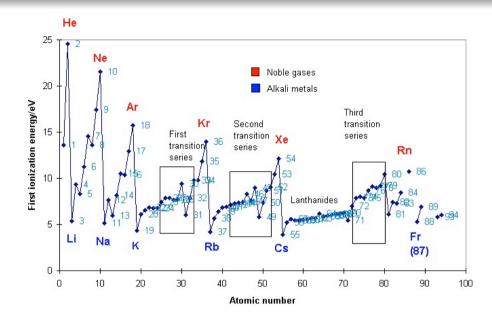
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Background: ionization energies of elements



• Instead, find noble gases $(Z = 2, 10, 18, 36 \cdots)$ are especially stable, and elements containing one more electron (alkali metals) significantly less tightly bound.



- Failure to predict stable electron configurations reflects omission of electron-electron interaction (cf. our discussion of helium).
- In fact, first ionization energies of atoms show only a weak dependence on Z – outermost electrons are almost completely shielded from nuclear charge:

Effective nuclear charge varies as $Z_{\rm eff} \sim (1+\gamma)^Z$ where $\gamma > 0$ characterizes "ineffectiveness of screening"; i.e. ionization energy $I_{\rm Z} = -E_Z \sim Z_{\rm eff}^2 \sim (1+2\gamma Z)$ (cf. experiment).



Multi-electron atoms

 Leaving aside (for now) relativistic effects, Hamiltonian for multi-electron atom given by

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_i^2 - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Ze^2}{r_i} \right] + \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r_{ij}}$$

where $r_{ij} \equiv |\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|$.

- In addition to nuclear binding potential, there is a further Coulomb interaction between electrons.
 - As we have seen with helium, this contribution can have important consequences on spectra and spin structure of wavefunction.
- However, electron-electron interaction makes problem "many-body" in character and analytically intractable – we must develop some approximation scheme (even though effects may not be small!).



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Multi-electron atoms: outline

- Central field approximation
- Self-consistent field method Hartree approximation
- Structure of the periodic table
- Coupling schemes:
 - LS coupling and Hund's rules
 - jj coupling
- Atomic spectra: selection rules
- Zeeman effect revisited

 Electron interaction contains large spherically symmetric component arising from "core electrons". Since

$$\sum_{m=-\ell}^{\ell} |Y_{lm}(\theta,\phi)|^2 = \text{const.}$$

closed shell has spherically symmetric charge distribution.

• This suggests a "partitioning" of the Hamiltonian, $\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_1$, with

$$\hat{H}_0 = \sum_{i} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_i^2 - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Ze^2}{r_i} + U_i(r_i) \right]$$

$$\hat{H}_1 = \sum_{i \le i} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r_{ij}} - \sum_{i} U_i(r_i)$$

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- Since single-particle Hamiltonian \hat{H}_0 continues to commute with the angular momentum operator, $[\hat{H}_0, \hat{\mathbf{L}}] = 0$, its eigenfunctions remain indexed by quantum numbers (n, ℓ, m_ℓ, m_s) .
- However, since effective potential, $V(r) + U_i(r)$, is no longer Coulomb-like, ℓ values for a given n need not be degenerate.
- But how do we fix $U_i(r)$; the potential energy experienced by each electron depends on the wavefunction of all the other electrons, which is only known after the Schrödinger equation has been solved.
- This suggests an iterative approach to solving the problem



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Before embarking on this programme, we should first consider our ambitions:

• The development of computation schemes to address quantum mechanics of many-particle systems is a specialist (and challenging) topic common to physics and chemistry.



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• To understand how the potentials $U_i(r)$ can be estimated, we will follow a variational approach due to Hartree:

If electrons are (for now) considered distinguishable, wavefunction can be factorized into (normalized) product state,

$$\Psi(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}) = \psi_{i_1}(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_{i_2}(\mathbf{r}_2)\cdots\psi_{i_N}(\mathbf{r}_N)$$

where the quantum numbers, $i \equiv n\ell m_\ell m_s$, index individual state occupancies.

- Note that $\Psi(\{\mathbf{r}_i\})$ is not a properly antisymmetrized Slater determinant exclusion principle taken into account only insofar that we have assigned different quantum numbers, $n\ell m_\ell m_s$.
- In this approximation, if $U_i(r) = 0$, the ground state would involve filling the lowest shells with electrons.

$$\Psi(\{\mathbf{r}_i\}) = \psi_{i_1}(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_{i_2}(\mathbf{r}_2)\cdots\psi_{i_N}(\mathbf{r}_N)$$

Variational ground state energy:

$$E = \langle \Psi | \hat{H} | \Psi \rangle = \sum_{i} \int d^{3}r \, \psi_{i}^{*} \left(-\frac{\hbar^{2} \nabla^{2}}{2m} - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{Ze^{2}}{r} \right) \psi_{i}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \sum_{i < j} \int d^{3}r \, \int d^{3}r' \, \psi_{i}^{*}(\mathbf{r}) \psi_{j}^{*}(\mathbf{r}') \frac{e^{2}}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \psi_{j}(\mathbf{r}') \psi_{i}(\mathbf{r})$$

- According to variational principle, we must minimize energy by varying $E[\{\psi_i\}]$, subject to normalization condition, $\langle \psi_i | \psi_i \rangle = 1$.
- ullet Latter imposed by set of Lagrange multipliers, $arepsilon_i$

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta \psi_i^*} \left[E - \varepsilon_i \left(\int d^3 r |\psi_i(\mathbf{r})|^2 - 1 \right) \right] = 0$$

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Variational ground state energy:

$$E = \langle \Psi | \hat{H} | \Psi \rangle = \sum_{i} \int d^{3}r \, \psi_{i}^{*} \left(-\frac{\hbar^{2} \nabla^{2}}{2m} - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{Ze^{2}}{r} \right) \psi_{i}$$

$$+ \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \sum_{i < j} \int d^{3}r \, \int d^{3}r' \, \psi_{i}^{*}(\mathbf{r}) \psi_{j}^{*}(\mathbf{r}') \frac{e^{2}}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \psi_{j}(\mathbf{r}') \psi_{i}(\mathbf{r})$$

- According to variational principle, we must minimize energy by varying $E[\{\psi_i\}]$, subject to normalization condition, $\langle \psi_i | \psi_i \rangle = 1$.
- Latter imposed by set of Lagrange multipliers, ε_i ,

$$\frac{\delta}{\delta \psi_i^*} \left[E - \varepsilon_i \left(\int d^3 r |\psi_i(\mathbf{r})|^2 - 1 \right) \right] = 0$$

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$$\left(-\frac{\hbar^2 \nabla^2}{2m} - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Ze^2}{r}\right) \psi_i + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{j \neq i} \int d^3r' |\psi_j(\mathbf{r}')|^2 \frac{e^2}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \psi_i(\mathbf{r})$$

$$= \varepsilon_i \psi_i(\mathbf{r})$$

• Amongst all possible trial functions ψ_i , set that minimizes energy determined by effective potential,

$$U_i(\mathbf{r}) = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{j\neq i} \int d^3r' |\psi_j(\mathbf{r}')|^2 \frac{e^2}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|}$$

• To simplify procedure, useful to engineer radial symmetry by replacing $U_i(\mathbf{r})$ by spherical average, $U_i(r) = \int \frac{d\Omega}{4\pi} U_i(\mathbf{r})$.



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From this result, we therefore find that

$$E = \sum_{i} \epsilon_{i} - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \sum_{i < j} \int d^{3}r' d^{3}r |\psi_{j}(\mathbf{r}')|^{2} \frac{e^{2}}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} |\psi_{i}(\mathbf{r})|^{2}$$



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In summary, within the Hartree framework, the multi-electron
 Hamiltonian is replaced by the effective single-particle Hamiltonian,

$$\hat{H}_0 = \sum_i \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_i^2 - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Ze^2}{r_i} + U_i(r_i) \right]$$

where the central potentials U_i depend self-consistently on the single-particle wavefunctions,

$$U_i(r) = \int \frac{d\Omega}{4\pi} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{j \neq i} \int d^3r' |\psi_j(\mathbf{r}')|^2 \frac{e^2}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|}$$

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$$\hat{H}_1 = \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r_{ij}} - \sum_i U_i(r_i)$$

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Hartree method

Operationally, the Hartree method involves:

- Intital guess for U(r) e.g. smooth function which interpolates between unscreened potential, U(r)=0, as $r\to 0$ and $U(r)=\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{(Z-1)e^2}{r}$ as $r\to \infty$. Solution for this potential provides platform to seed self-consistent potentials, $U_i(r)$.
- 2 With these potentials, $U_i(r)$, determine new set of eigenstates for,

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- Estimate for ground state energy of atom found by filling levels, starting from lowest, and taking account of exclusion principle.
- With revised $\psi_i(\mathbf{r})$, one can then make an improved estimate of $U_i(r_i)$ and return to step 2 iterating until convergence.



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Hartree-Fock method

- An improvement on this procedure can be developed which takes into account exchange interactions.
- This is achieved by introducting a trial variational state wavefunction involving a Slater determinant,

$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{N!}} \begin{vmatrix} \psi_1(\mathbf{r}_1) & \psi_1(\mathbf{r}_2) & \psi_1(\mathbf{r}_3) & \cdots \\ \psi_2(\mathbf{r}_1) & \psi_2(\mathbf{r}_2) & \psi_2(\mathbf{r}_3) & \cdots \\ \psi_3(\mathbf{r}_1) & \psi_3(\mathbf{r}_2) & \psi_3(\mathbf{r}_3) & \cdots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots & \ddots \end{vmatrix}$$

where $\psi_k(\mathbf{r}_i)$, with $i=1,2\cdots N$, denotes the single-particle wavefunction for electron i, and k is shorthand for the set of quantum numbers $(n\ell m_\ell m_s)$.

• The antisymmetry of the determinant ensures that the electrons obey fermi statistics.



Hartree-Fock method

 In this approximation, a variational analysis leads to the Hartree-Fock equations,

$$\varepsilon_{i}\psi_{i}(\mathbf{r}) = \left[-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2m} \nabla_{i}^{2} - \frac{Ze^{2}}{4\pi\epsilon r_{i}} \right] \psi_{i}(\mathbf{r})$$

$$+ \sum_{j\neq i} \int d^{3}r_{j} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_{0}} \frac{e^{2}}{|\mathbf{r} - \mathbf{r}'|} \psi_{j}^{*}(\mathbf{r}') \left[\psi_{j}(\mathbf{r}')\psi_{i}(\mathbf{r}) - \psi_{j}(\mathbf{r})\psi_{i}(\mathbf{r}')\delta_{m_{s_{i}},m_{s_{j}}} \right]$$

- The first term translates to Hartree contribution and describes the influence of the charge density of the other electrons.
- The second term describes the non-local exchange contribution, a manifestation of particle statistics.

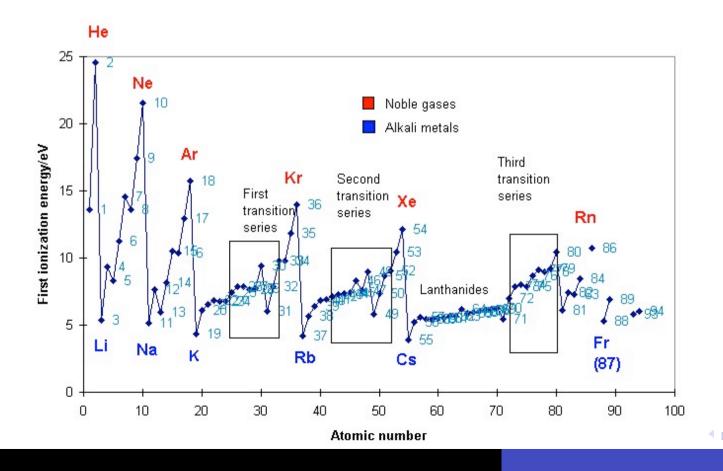
Central field approximation: conclusions

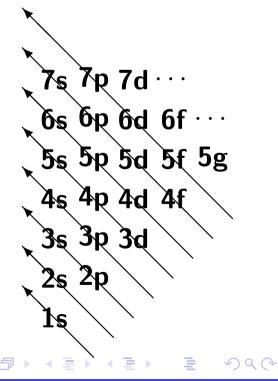
- Hartree-Fock calculations show eigenfunctions characterized by quantum numbers $n\ell m_\ell m_s$, with $\ell < n$, but states with different ℓ for given n non-degenerate; lower values of ℓ lie lower due to screening.
- States corresponding to particular n referred to as a shell, and those belonging to n, ℓ are a subshell.
- Energy levels ordered as

Subshell name	1 <i>s</i>	2 <i>s</i>	2 <i>p</i>	3 <i>s</i>	3 <i>p</i>	4 <i>s</i>	3 <i>d</i>	4 <i>p</i>	5 <i>s</i>	4 <i>d</i>	
n =	1	2	2	3	3	4	3	4	5	4	• • •
$\ell =$	0	0	1	0	1	0	2	1	0	2	
Degeneracy	2	2	6	2	6	2	10	6	2	10	• • •
Cumulative	2	4	10	12	18	20	30	36	38	48	• • •

Central field approximation: conclusions

```
Subshell name
                      25
                           2p
                                 3s
                                      3p
                                            45
                                                 3d
                                                            5s
                 1s
                                                                 4d
                                 0
                                 12
   Cumulative
                           10
                                      18
                                            20
                                                 30
                                                      36
                                                            38
                                                                 48
```





Periodic table

 We can use energy sequence to predict ground state electron configuration – fill levels accounting for exclusion aufbau principle.

Z	Element	Configuration	^{2S+1} L _J	Ioniz. Pot. (eV)
1	Н	(1s)	$S_{1/2}$	13.6
2	He	$(1s)^2$	$\int_{0}^{1} S_{0}$	24.6
3	Li	He (2 <i>s</i>)	$^{2}S_{1/2}$	5.4
4	Be	He $(2s)^2$	$\int_{0}^{1} S_{0}$	9.3
5	В	He $(2s)^2(2p)$	$^{2}P_{1/2}$	8.3
6	C	He $(2s)^2(2p)^2$	$^{3}P_{0}^{'}$	11.3
7	N	He $(2s)^2(2p)^3$	$^{4}S_{3/2}$	14.5
8	0	He $(2s)^2(2p)^4$	$^{3}P_{2}^{'}$	13.6
9	F	He $(2s)^2(2p)^5$	$^{2}P_{3/2}$	17.4
10	Ne	He $(2s)^2(2p)^6$	$ {}^{1}S_{0}$	21.6
11	Na	Ne (3 <i>s</i>)	$^{2}S_{1/2}$	5.1

• Sadly, there are exceptions to rule: e.g. Cu (Z = 29) expected to have configuration $\cdots (4s)^2 (3d)^9$, actually has $\cdots (4s)^1 (3d)^{10} = 9999$

Periodic table

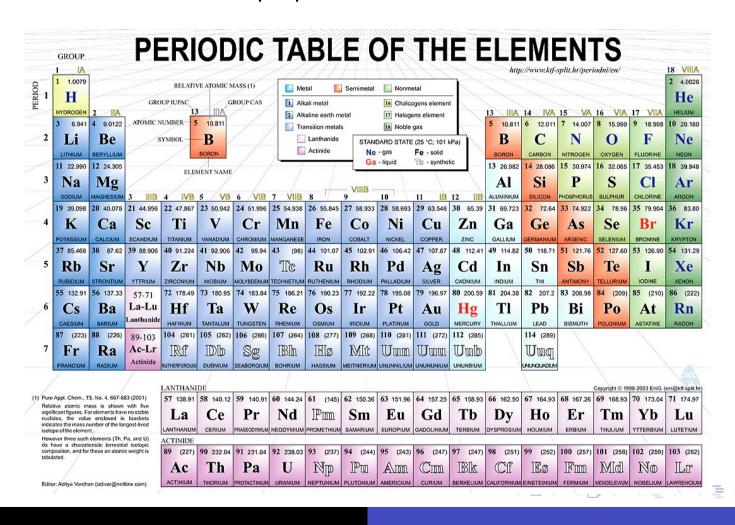
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Periodic table

Aufbau principle forms basis of Periodic table of elements:
 elements with similar electron configurations in outermost shells
 have similar chemical properties.



9 Q (2)

- The aufbau principle allows prediction of the occupation of subshells in atomic ground state – but does not specify spins and orbital angular momenta of subshells.
- To deal with this problem, necessary to consider spin-orbit interaction and residual Coulomb interaction between outer electrons.
- Hamiltonian for multi-electron atom can be written as,

$$\hat{H} \approx \hat{H}_0 + \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r_{ij}} - \sum_i U_i(r) + \sum_i \xi_i(r_i) \hat{\mathbf{L}}_i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}}_i$$

$$\hat{H}_1 \qquad \qquad \hat{H}_2$$

where \hat{H}_0 includes central field terms, \hat{H}_1 is residual Coulomb interaction, and \hat{H}_2 is spin-orbit interaction.



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- For light atoms, $\hat{H}_1 \gg \hat{H}_2$, can treat \hat{H}_2 as a perturbation on $\hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_1$ known as LS (or Russell-Saunders) coupling.
- For heavy atoms (or ionized light atoms), $\hat{H}_2 \gg \hat{H}_1$, electrons become relativistic and spin-orbit interaction dominates jj coupling.

Both scenarios are approximations – real atoms do not always conform to this "comparatively simple" picture.



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Coupling schemes: LS coupling

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- Since Hamiltonian commutes with the set of total angular momenta, $\hat{\mathbf{J}}^2$, $\hat{\mathbf{L}}^2$, and $\hat{\mathbf{S}}^2$, the energy levels of multi-electron atoms are characterized by the set of quantum numbers L, S, J.
- Their ordering in energy given by an empirical set of rules known as Hund's rules.
- As an empirical set of rules, sadly there are exceptions. Moreover, as the atomic mass increases, an electrons become more relatistic, the impact of spin-orbit interactions become increasingly important further undermining the rules.

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$$\hat{H}_1$$

$$\hat{H}_2$$

① Combine spins of electrons to obtain possible values of total spin S. (Remember that closed shells contribute zero spin.)

The largest permitted value of S lies lowest in energy.

Physically: maximising S makes spin wavefunction as symmetric as possible: tends to make spatial wavefunction antisymmetric, reduces Coulomb repulsion (cf. helium).

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$$\hat{H}_2$$

① Combine spins of electrons to obtain possible values of total spin S. (Remember that closed shells contribute zero spin.)

The largest permitted value of S lies lowest in energy.

Physically: maximising S makes spin wavefunction as symmetric as possible: tends to make spatial wavefunction antisymmetric, reduces Coulomb repulsion (cf. helium).

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② For each value of S, find the possible values of total angular momentum L. (Remember that closed shells contribute zero orbital angular momentum.)

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Physically: $\mathsf{maximising}\ \mathsf{L}$ also tends to keep the electrons apart.

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Ouple L and S to obtain values of J (hence name of scheme). (Remember that closed shells contribute zero angular momentum.) If subshell is less than half full, smallest value of J lies lowest in energy; otherwise, largest value lies lowest.

Separation of energies for states of different J arises from treating spin-orbit term \hat{H}_2 as a perturbation (fine structure),

$$\langle Jm_{J}LS|\sum_{i}\xi_{i}(r_{i})\hat{\mathbf{L}}_{i}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{S}}_{i}|Jm_{J}LS\rangle = \zeta(L,S)\langle Jm_{J}LS|\hat{\mathbf{L}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{S}}|Jm_{J}LS\rangle$$
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Since sign of $\zeta(L, S)$ changes according to the whether the subshel is more or less than half-filled, the third Hund's rule is established.



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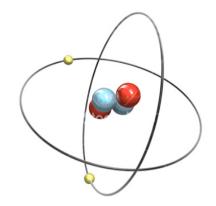
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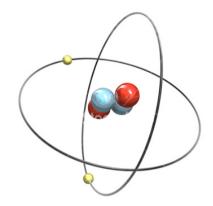
• Helium has ground state electron configuration $(1s)^2$, i.e. L = S = J = 0.



- For excited state of helium, e.g. $(1s)^1(2p)^1$, can now have S=1 or S=0, with the S=1 state lying lower in energy according to Hund's rules.
- Combining orbital angular momenta gives L=1 and thus, with $S=0,\ J=1,$ while with $S=1,\ J=0,1,2$ with J=0 lying lowest in energy.
- In spectroscopic notation ${}^{2S+1}L_J$, for the $(1s)^1(2p)^1$ state of helium, there are four possible states, 3P_0 3P_1 3P_2 and 1P_1 where the three 3P states separated by spin-orbit interaction, and the singlet 1P state lies much higher in energy owing to the Coulomb interaction.



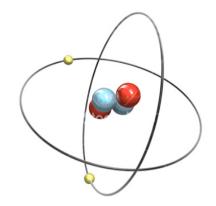
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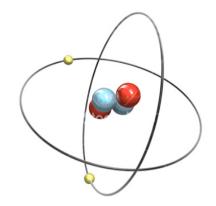
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Landé interval rule

• Recall that separation of energies for states of different J arises from spin-orbit term contribution \hat{H}_2 (fine structure),

$$\langle |J, m_J, L, S| \sum_i \xi_i(r_i) \hat{\mathbf{L}}_i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}}_i | J, m_J, L, S \rangle$$

$$= \frac{\zeta(L, S)}{2} [J(J+1) - L(L+1) - S(S+1)]$$

 Separation between pair of adjacent levels in a fine structure multiplet is proportional to the larger of the two J values involved.

$$\Delta_J \propto J(J+1)-(J-1)J=2J$$

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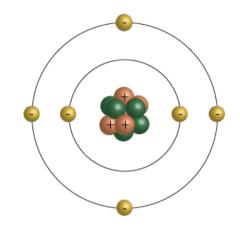
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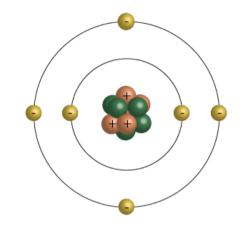
- Carbon has ground state electron configuration $(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^2$.
- Since we now have two identical electrons in same unfilled subshell, need to ensure that wavefunction is antisymmetric.



- To form antisymmetric total angular momentum state, two electrons must have different values of m_{ℓ}
- Inspecting the values of m_L we can deduce that L=1.

$m_\ell^{(1)}$	$m_\ell^{(2)}$	m_L
1		1
1	-1	
	-1	-1

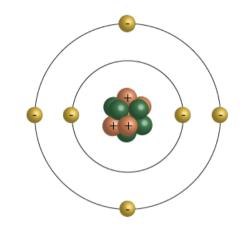
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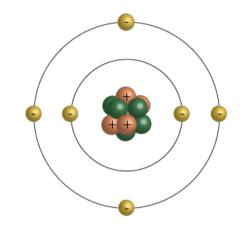
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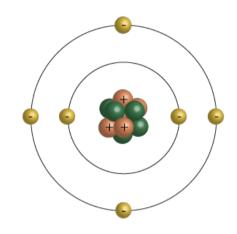


- To form symmetric total angular momentum state, two electrons may have any values of m_{ℓ}
- Inspecting the values of m_L we infer that L=2 or 0.

$m_\ell^{(1)}$	$m_\ell^{(2)}$	m_L
1	1	2
1	0	1
1	-1	0
0	0	0
0	-1	-1
-1	-1	-2



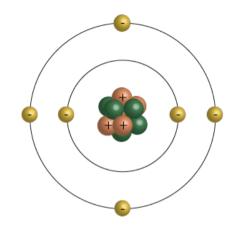
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- Therefore, to ensure antisymmetry of wavefunction, we must therefore take S=1 with L=1 and S=0 with L=2 or 0.
- Finally, to account for fine structure, states with S=1 and L=1 can be combined into a single J=0 state, three J=1 states, and five J=2 states leading to the terms 3P_0 , 3P_1 , and 3P_2 respectively.
- Similarly the S=0, L=2 state can be combined to give five J=2 states, ${}^{1}D_{2}$, while the S=0, L=0 state gives the single J=0 state, ${}^{1}S_{0}$.



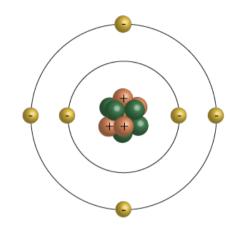
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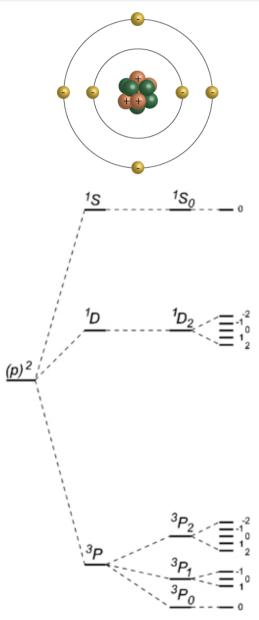


LS coupling – Example: carbon

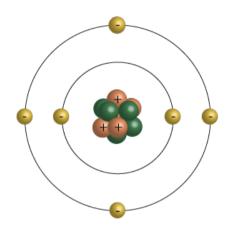
• Energy levels:

	$E \ / { m cm}^{-1}$
$^{-1}S_{0}$	20649
$^{1}D_{2}$	10195
${}^{3}P_{2}^{-}$	43
3P_1	16
${}^{3}P_{0}$	0

• N.B. Landé interval rule is approximately obeyed by fine structure triplet, and that separation between *L* and *S* values caused by electron-electron repulsion is *much* greater than the spin-orbit effect.



LS coupling – Example: carbon



- For the excited states of carbon, e.g. $(2p)^1(3p)^1$, electrons are no longer equivalent, because they have different radial wavefunctions.
- So now one can combine any of S=0,1 with any of L=0,1,2, yielding the following terms (in order of increasing energy, according to Hund's rules):

$$^{3}D_{1,2,3}$$
 $^{3}P_{0,1,2}$

$${}^{3}\mathrm{P}_{0,1,2}$$

$$^3\mathrm{S}_1$$

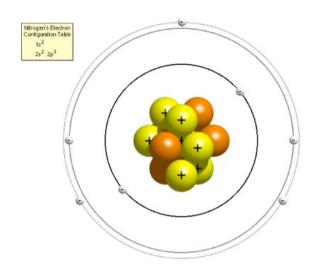
$$^{1}\mathrm{D}_{2}$$
 $^{1}\mathrm{P}_{1}$

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$$^{1}S_{0}$$

LS coupling – Example: nitrogen

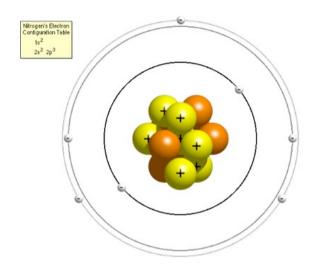
- Nitrogen has ground state electron configuration $(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^3$.
- The maximal value of spin is S = 3/2 while L can take values 3, 2, 1 and 0.



- Since the spin wavefunction (being maximal) is symmetric, the spatial wavefunction must be completely antisymmetric. This demands that all three states with $m_{\ell} = 1, 0, -1$ must be involved.
- We must therefore have L=0, leading to J=3/2 and the term, ${}^4S_{3/2}$.

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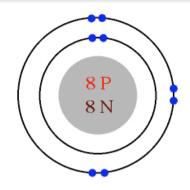
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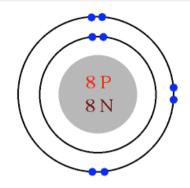
• Oxygen has the ground state electron configuration $(2p)^4$.



- Although there are four electrons in (2p) subshell, maximum value of S=1: there are only three available values of $m_{\ell}=\pm 1,0$, and therefore one must contain two electrons with opposite spin.
- It follows that the maximum value of $m_S=1$, achieved by having electrons with $m_s=+\frac{1}{2}$ in both the other m_ℓ states.
- By pursuing this argument, we may see that allowed values of L, S and J are the same as for carbon $(2p)^2$ in fact this is a general result allowed quantum numbers for a subshell with n electrons are the same as for that of a subshell with n "holes".
- Therefore, the energy levels for the oxygen ground state configuration are the same as for carbon, except that the fine structure multiplet is inverted, in accordance with Hund's third rule.

LS coupling – Example: oxygen

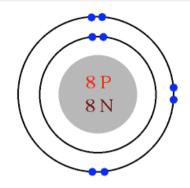
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jj coupling scheme: energy shifts

$$\hat{H} \approx \hat{H}_0 + \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r_{ij}} - \sum_i U_i(r) + \sum_i \xi_i(r_i) \hat{\mathbf{L}}_i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}}_i$$

$$\hat{H}_1$$

$$\hat{H}_2$$

- Sadly, in this case, there are no simple rules to parallel Hund's rules.
- In jj coupling, energy shifts can be estimated by first treating \hat{H}_2 in first order of perturbation theory,

$$\Delta E = \langle n_i \ell_i s_i j_i J m_J | \sum_i \xi(r_i) \hat{\mathbf{L}}_i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}}_i | n_i \ell_i s_i j_i J m_J \rangle = \sum_i \Delta E_i$$

where separate energy shifts are independent of total J and M_J

$$\Delta E_i = \zeta(n_i, \ell_i) \left[j_i(j_i + 1) - \ell_i(\ell_i + 1) - s_i(s_i + 1) \right] / 2$$

• The degeneracy with respect to J is then lifted by the small electrostatic interaction between electrons, \hat{H}_1 .



jj coupling scheme: energy shifts

$$\hat{H} \approx \hat{H}_0 + \sum_{i < j} \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r_{ij}} - \sum_i U_i(r) + \sum_i \xi_i(r_i) \hat{\mathbf{L}}_i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}}_i$$

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$$\hat{H}_2$$

- Sadly, in this case, there are no simple rules to parallel Hund's rules.
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$$\Delta E = \langle n_i \ell_i s_i j_i J m_J | \sum_i \xi(r_i) \hat{\mathbf{L}}_i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}}_i | n_i \ell_i s_i j_i J m_J \rangle = \sum_i \Delta E_i$$

where separate energy shifts are independent of total J and M_J

$$\Delta E_i = \zeta(n_i, \ell_i) \left[j_i(j_i + 1) - \ell_i(\ell_i + 1) - s_i(s_i + 1) \right] / 2$$

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- As an example, consider a configuration $(np)^2$ (cf. treatment of carbon in LS scheme).
- Combining s=1/2 with $\ell=1$, each electron can have j=1/2 or 3/2.
- If the electrons have same *j* value, they are equivalent, so we have to take care of the symmetry of the wavefunction:
 - (a) $j_1 = j_2 = 3/2 \Rightarrow J = 3, 2, 1, 0$, of which J = 2, 0 are antisymmetric.
 - (b) $j_1 = j_2 = 1/2 \Rightarrow J = 1,0$, of which J = 0 is antisymmetric
 - (c) $j_1 = 1/2, j_2 = 3/2 \Rightarrow J = 2, 1.$
- Taking into account Pauli exclusion, in jj coupling (where the term is written $(j_1, j_2)_J$), we have the following terms:

$$(1/2,1/2)_0$$
 $(3/2,1/2)_1$ $(3/2,1/2)_2$ $(3/2,3/2)_2$ $(3/2,3/2)_0$

in order of increasing energy.



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- Note that both LS and jj coupling give the same values of J (in this case, two states with J=0, two with J=2 and one with J=1) and in the same order.
- However, the pattern of levels is different; in LS coupling we found a triplet (${}^{3}P_{0}$, ${}^{3}P_{1}$, and ${}^{3}P_{2}$) and two singlets (${}^{1}D_{2}$ and ${}^{1}S_{0}$), while in this ideal jj scenario, we have two doublets and a singlet.
- The sets of states in the two coupling schemes must be expressible
 as linear combinations of one another, and the physical states for a
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- In fact, this idealized form of jj coupling is not seen in the heaviest such atom in the periodic table, lead $(6p)^2(!)$
- But it is seen in highly ionized states, e.g. Cr^{18+} which has same electron configuration as carbon, $(2p)^2$, but where (because of large unscreened charge on nucleus), electrons move more relativistically.



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jj coupling scheme: Examples C-Si-Ge-Sn-Pb

- Classic example of transition from LS to jj coupling seen in excited states (2p)(3s), (3p)(4s), \cdots (6p)(7s) in series C-Si-Ge-Sn-Pb.
- Since electrons not in same subshell wavefunctions overlap less and Coulomb repulsion is reduced compared to spin-orbit interaction.
- In LS coupling, expect a triplet and a singlet

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 ${}^{1}P_{1}$

while in jj scheme expect two doublets:

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 Experimentally, C and Si conform to LS and Pb to ii, while Ge and Sn intermediate.



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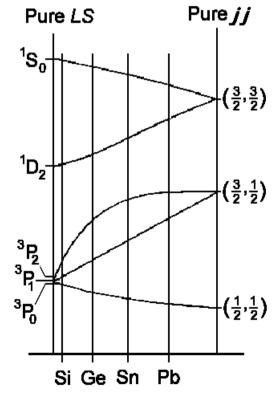
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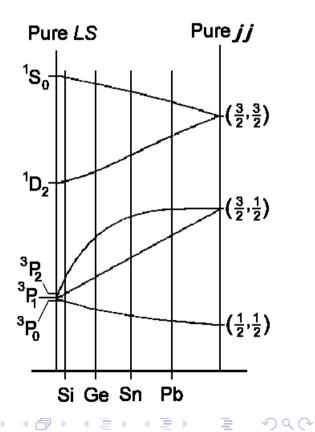
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Atomic spectra

• Atomic spectra result from transitions between different electronic states of an atom via emission or absorption of photons.



• In emission spectra, atom is excited by some means (e.g. thermally through collisions, or by electric discharge), and one observes discrete spectral lines in light emitted as atoms relax.



- In absorption spectra, one illuminates atoms using a broad waveband source, and observes dark absorption lines in the spectrum of transmitted light.
- Atoms excited in this process subsequently decay by emitting photons in random directions – fluorescence.



Atomic spectra

The basic theory governing stimulated emission and absorption, and spontaneous emission of photons will be outlined in detail when we study radiative transitions. Here we anticipate some conclusions of this study.

• In electric dipole approximation, rate of transitions is proportional to the square of matrix element of electric dipole operator,

$$|\langle \psi_{
m f} | \hat{f d} | \psi_{
m i}
angle |^2$$

- In addition, the rate of spontaneous transitions is proportional to ω^3 , where $\omega = |E_{\rm f} E_{\rm i}|$.
- The form of the dipole operator, $\hat{\mathbf{d}}$ means that some matrix elements vanish \implies selection rules



- For a transition to take place:
 - (a) Parity must change
 - **(b)** $\Delta J = \pm 1, \ 0 \ (\text{but } 0 \to 0 \text{ is not allowed}) \ \text{and} \ \Delta M_J = \pm 1, \ 0$
- Atomic states are always eigenstates of parity and of total angular momentum, $\hat{\mathbf{J}}^2$, so these selection rules can be regarded as absolutely valid in electric dipole transitions.
- It should be emphasized that the electric dipole approximation is an approximation, and higher order processes may occur, albeit at a slower rate, and have their own selection rules.

- In specific coupling schemes, further selection rules apply. In the case of ideal LS coupling, we also require:
 - (a) $\Delta S = 0$ and $\Delta M_S = 0$
 - (b) $\Delta L = \pm 1$, 0 (but $0 \rightarrow 0$ is not allowed) and $\Delta M_L = \pm 1$, 0
 - (c) and $\Delta \ell_i = \pm 1$ if only electron i is involved in the transition
- In LS coupling, the states are eigenstates of total spin; since the dipole operator does not operate on the spin part of the wavefunction, the rules on ΔS and ΔM_S follow straightforwardly.
- This, and absolute rules relating to J, imply rules for L and M_L
- The rule for $\Delta \ell_i$ follows from the parity change rule, since the parity of the atom is the product of the parities of the separate electron wavefunctions, given by $(-1)^{\ell_i}$.
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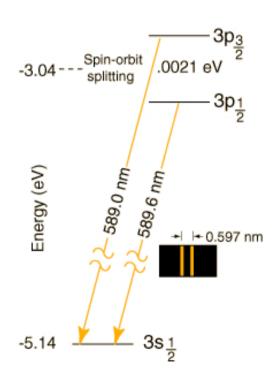
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- For "single electron atoms", ground state consists of single electron in an s level, e.g. alkali metals such as sodium, and also hydrogen.
- For **sodium**, ground state configuration is $(3s)^1$:

Ground state has term ${}^2S_{1/2}$ while excited states all doublets with $J=L\pm 1/2$ (except for s states which have J=1/2).

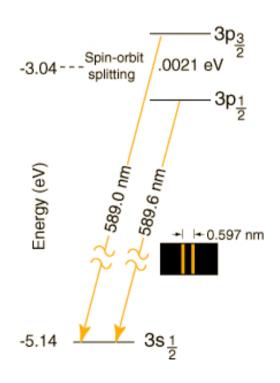
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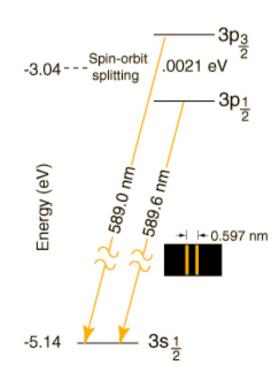
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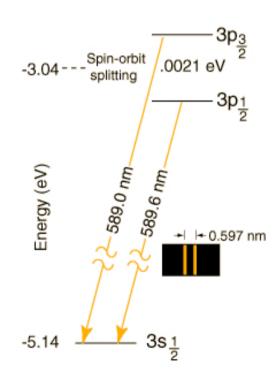
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- The $p \leftrightarrow d$ transitions involve two doublets, ${}^2P_{1/2,3/2}$ and ${}^2D_{3/2,5/2}$. However, the ${}^2P_{1/2} \leftrightarrow {}^2D_{5/2}$ transition is forbidden by the ΔJ rule, so line is actually a triplet.
- As n increases, energy levels approach those for hydrogen, because the nuclear charge is increasingly effectively screened by the inner electrons.
- In an absorption spectrum, atoms start from ground state, so only $3s \rightarrow np$ lines seen. In emission, atoms are excited into essentially all their excited levels, so many more lines will be seen in the spectrum.

- The ground state has term 1S_0 . Low-lying excited states of form $(1s)(n\ell)$ (since energy required to excite both of electrons greater than first ionization energy). Excited states can have S=0 or S=1, with S=1 lying lower in energy (Hund).
- The LS coupling approximation is sound for helium, so $\Delta S = 0$ selection rule implies that S = 0 and S = 1 states independent:
- Lines in S=0 system all singlets and can be observed in emission and those starting from the ground state in absorption. Lines in S=1 system all multiplets: observed in emission only.
- Transitions of the form ${}^3S_1 \leftrightarrow {}^3P_{2,1,0}$ are observed as triplets, spaced according to the Landé interval rule.
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To conclude survey of atomic structure, we now return to consider how atomic spectra are influenced by a magnetic field?

• Begin with hydrogen-like atoms involving just a single electron. In a magnetic field, $\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \hat{H}_{\rm rel.} + \hat{H}_{\rm Zeeman}$, where

$$\hat{H}_{\text{Zeeman}} = -\frac{e}{2mc}B(\hat{L}_z + 2\hat{S}_z) = -\mu_{\text{B}}B(\hat{L}_z + 2\hat{S}_z)/\hbar$$

denotes Zeeman term.

- Since we are dealing with confined electrons, we have neglected the diamagnetic contribution to the Hamiltonian.
- Depending on scale of magnetic field, the spin-orbit term in $\hat{H}_{\rm rel.}$ or the Zeeman term may dominate the spectrum of the atom.



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 Previously we have seen that, to leading order, relativistic corrections lead to fine-structure energy shift,

$$\Delta E_{n,j}^{\text{rel.}} = \frac{1}{2} mc^2 \left(\frac{Z\alpha}{n}\right)^4 \left(\frac{3}{4} - \frac{n}{j+1/2}\right)$$

for states $|n,j| = \ell \pm 1/2, m_j, \ell \rangle$.

 For weak magnetic fields, we can also treat Zeeman energy in framework of perturbation theory:

Although states with common j (e.g. $2S_{1/2}$ and $2P_{1/2}$) are degenerate, spatial wavefunctions have different parity, and off-diagonal matrix element of $\hat{H}_{\mathrm{Zeeman}}$ vanishes – avoids need for degenerate perturbation theory.

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 Making use of the relation, (exercise – refer back to addition of angular momentum and spin)

$$\langle n,j=\ell\pm 1/2,m_j,\ell|\mathcal{S}_z|n,j=\ell\pm 1/2,m_j,\ell
angle=\pm rac{\hbar m_j}{2\ell+1}$$

we obtain the following expression for the first order energy shift,

$$oxed{\Delta \mathcal{E}_{j=\ell\pm 1, \mathit{m}_j, \ell}^{\mathrm{Zeeman}} = \ell \pm 1/2, \mathit{m}_j, \ell} = \mu_{\mathrm{B}} \mathit{Bm}_j \left(1 \pm rac{1}{2\ell+1}
ight)}$$

- i.e. all degenerate levels split by field.
- In contrast to the "normal" Zeeman effect, the magnitude of the splitting now depends on ℓ .



$$\hat{H}_{\mathrm{Zeeman}} = -\frac{e}{2mc}B(\hat{L}_z + 2\hat{S}_z) = -\mu_{\mathrm{B}}B(\hat{L}_z + 2\hat{S}_z)/\hbar = -\mu_{\mathrm{B}}B(\hat{J}_z + \hat{S}_z)/\hbar$$

- For a multi-electron atom in weak field, unperturbed states given by $|J, M_J, L, S\rangle$, where J, L, S refer to total angular momenta.
- To determine Zeeman shift, need to determine $\langle \hat{S}_z \rangle$, a useful revision of the quantum mechanics of angular momenta:
- ① First we note that the operator $2\hat{\mathbf{L}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}} = \hat{\mathbf{J}}^2 \hat{\mathbf{L}}^2 \hat{\mathbf{S}}^2$ is diagonal in the basis of states, $|J, M_J, L, S\rangle$.
- Recalling that $[\hat{S}_i, \hat{S}_j] = i\hbar\epsilon_{ijk}\hat{S}_k$ and $[\hat{L}_i, \hat{S}_k] = 0$, it follows that the matrix element of the following operator vanishes,

$$-i\hbar\hat{\mathbf{S}}\times\hat{\mathbf{L}}\equiv\hat{\mathbf{S}}(\hat{\mathbf{L}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{S}})-(\hat{\mathbf{L}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{S}})\hat{\mathbf{S}}$$



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$$-i\hbar\hat{S} \times \hat{L} \equiv \hat{S}(\hat{L} \cdot \hat{S}) - (\hat{L} \cdot \hat{S})\hat{S}$$



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Moreover, since $[\hat{\mathbf{L}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}}, \hat{\mathbf{J}}] = 0$, it follows that the matrix element of the following operator also vanishes,

$$-i\hbar(\hat{\mathbf{S}}\times\hat{\mathbf{L}})\times\hat{\mathbf{J}}=\hat{\mathbf{S}}\times\hat{\mathbf{J}}(\hat{\mathbf{L}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{S}})-(\hat{\mathbf{L}}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{S}})\hat{\mathbf{S}}\times\hat{\mathbf{J}}$$

If we expand left hand side, we thus find that the matrix element of the following operator also vanishes,

$$(\hat{\mathbf{S}} \times \hat{\mathbf{L}}) \times \hat{\mathbf{J}} = \hat{\mathbf{L}}(\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{J}}) - \hat{\mathbf{S}}(\hat{\mathbf{L}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{J}}) \stackrel{\hat{\mathbf{L}} = \hat{\mathbf{J}} - \hat{\mathbf{S}}}{=} \hat{\mathbf{J}}(\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{J}}) - \hat{\mathbf{S}}\hat{\mathbf{J}}^{2}$$

Therefore, it follows that $\langle \hat{\mathbf{S}} \hat{\mathbf{J}}^2 \rangle = \langle \hat{\mathbf{J}} (\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{J}}) \rangle$. With $\hat{\mathbf{S}} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{J}} = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{\mathbf{J}}^2 + \hat{\mathbf{S}}^2 - \hat{\mathbf{L}}^2)$, we have

$$\langle \hat{S}_z \rangle = \langle \hat{J}_z \rangle \frac{J(J+1) + S(S+1) - L(L+1)}{2J(J+1)}$$



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 As a result, we can deduce that, at first order in perturbation theory, the energy shift arising from the Zeeman term is given by

$$\Delta E_{J,M_J,L,S} = \mu_{\rm B} B \langle (\hat{J}_z + \hat{S}_z) \rangle / \hbar = \mu_{\rm B} g_J M_J B$$

where effective Landé g-factor

$$g_J = 1 + \frac{J(J+1) + S(S+1) - L(L+1)}{2J(J+1)}$$

N.B. for hydrogen (S=1/2 and $J=L\pm 1/2$), we recover previous result.



Example: atomic spectra of sodium

