Lecture 5

Motion of a charged particle in a magnetic field

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Charged particle in a magnetic field: Outline

- Canonical quantization: lessons from classical dynamics
- Quantum mechanics of a particle in a field
- 3 Atomic hydrogen in a uniform field: Normal Zeeman effect

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- Gauge invariance and the Aharonov-Bohm effect
- Since electrons in a magnetic field: Landau levels
- Integer Quantum Hall effect

What is effect of a static electromagnetic field on a charged particle?

• **Classically**, in electric and magnetic field, particles experience a **Lorentz force**:

$$\mathsf{F} = q \, (\mathsf{E} + \mathsf{v} imes \mathsf{B})$$

q denotes charge (notation: q = -e for electron).

- Velocity-dependent force qv × B very different from that derived from scalar potential, and programme for transferring from classical to quantum mechanics has to be carried out with more care.
- As preparation, helpful to revise(?) how the Lorentz force law arises classically from Lagrangian formulation.

• For a system with *m* degrees of freedom specified by coordinates q_1, \dots, q_m , classical action determined from Lagrangian $L(q_i, \dot{q}_i)$ by

$$S[q_i] = \int dt \, L(q_i, \dot{q}_i)$$

- For conservative forces (those which conserve mechanical energy), L = T V, with T the kinetic and V the potential energy.
- Hamilton's extremal principle: trajectories q_i(t) that minimize action specify classical (Euler-Lagrange) equations of motion,

$$\frac{d}{dt}(\partial_{\dot{q}_i}L(q_i,\dot{q}_i)) - \partial_{q_i}L(q_i,\dot{q}_i) = 0$$

• e.g. for a particle in a potential V(q), $L(q, \dot{q}) = \frac{m\dot{q}^2}{2} - V(q)$ and from Euler-Lagrange equations, $m\ddot{q} = -\partial_q V(q)$

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• To determine the classical Hamiltonian *H* from the Lagrangian, first obtain the canonical momentum $p_i = \partial_{\dot{q}_i} L$ and then set

$$H(q_i, p_i) = \sum_i p_i \dot{q}_i - L(q_i, \dot{q}_i)$$

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$$L(q, \dot{q}) = \frac{m\dot{q}^2}{2} - V(q)$$
, $p = \partial_{\dot{q}}L = m\dot{q}$, and
 $H = p\dot{q} - L = p\frac{p}{m} - (\frac{p^2}{2m} - V(q)) = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(q)$.

• In Hamiltonian formulation, minimization of classical action $S = \int dt \left(\sum_{i} p_i \dot{q}_i - H(q_i, p_i) \right), \text{ leads to Hamilton's equations:}$

$$\dot{q}_i = \partial_{p_i} H, \qquad \dot{p}_i = -\partial_{q_i} H$$

i.e. if Hamiltonian is independent of q_i, corresponding momentum p_i is conserved, i.e. p_i is a constant of the motion.

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- As Lorentz force F = qv × B is velocity dependent, it can not be expressed as gradient of some potential – nevertheless, classical equations of motion still specifed by principle of least action.
- With electric and magnetic fields written in terms of scalar and vector potential, $\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$, $\mathbf{E} = -\nabla \varphi \partial_t \mathbf{A}$, Lagrangian:

$$L = \frac{1}{2}m\mathbf{v}^2 - q\varphi + q\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A}$$

 $q_i \equiv x_i = (x_1, x_2, x_3)$ and $\dot{q}_i \equiv \mathbf{v}_i = (\dot{x}_1, \dot{x}_2, \dot{x}_3)$

- N.B. form of Lagrangian more natural in relativistic formulation: $-qv^{\mu}A_{\mu} = -q\varphi + q\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A}$ where $v^{\mu} = (c, \mathbf{v})$ and $A^{\mu} = (\varphi/c, \mathbf{A})$
- Canonical momentum: $p_i = \partial_{x_i} L = mv_i + qA_i$ no longer given by mass × velocity – there is an extra term

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, Hamiltonian given by:

$$H = \sum_{i} \underbrace{(mv_i + qA_i)}_{= p_i} v_i - \underbrace{\left(\frac{1}{2}mv^2 - q\varphi + q\mathbf{v} \cdot \mathbf{A}\right)}_{= L(\dot{q}_i, q_i)} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + q\varphi$$

• To determine classical equations of motion, H must be expressed solely in terms of coordinates and canonical momenta, $\mathbf{p} = m\mathbf{v} + q\mathbf{A}$

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} (\mathbf{p} - q\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, t))^2 + q\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

• Then, from classical equations of motion $\dot{x}_i = \partial_{p_i} H$ and $\dot{p}_i = -\partial_{x_i} H$, and a little algebra, we recover Lorentz force law

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Lessons from classical dynamics

 So, in summary, the classical Hamiltonian for a charged particle in an electromagnetic field is given by

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} (\mathbf{p} - q\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, t))^2 + q\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

- This is all that you need to recall its first principles derivation from the Lagrangian formulation is not formally examinable!
- Using this result as a platform, we can now turn to the quantum mechanical formulation.

• Canonical quantization: promote conjugate variables to operators, $\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{p}} = -i\hbar \nabla$, $\mathbf{x} \rightarrow \hat{\mathbf{x}}$ with commutation relations $[\hat{p}_i, \hat{x}_j] = -i\hbar \delta_{ij}$

$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{2m}(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, t))^2 + q\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

• Gauge freedom: Note that the vector potential, **A**, is specified only up to some gauge:

For a given vector potential A(x, t), the gauge transformation

$$\mathbf{A} \mapsto \mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A} + \nabla \Lambda, \qquad \varphi \mapsto \varphi' = \varphi - \partial_t \Lambda$$

with $\Lambda(\mathbf{x}, t)$ an arbitrary (scalar) function, leads to the same physical magnetic and electric field, $\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$, and $\mathbf{E} = -\nabla \varphi - \partial_t \mathbf{A}$.

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$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{2m}(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, t))^2 + q\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

 Expanding the Hamiltonian in A, we can identify two types of contribution: the cross-term (known as the paramagnetic term),

$$-\frac{q}{2m}(\hat{\mathbf{p}}\cdot\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{A}\cdot\hat{\mathbf{p}})=\frac{iq\hbar}{2m}\left(\nabla\cdot\mathbf{A}+\mathbf{A}\cdot\nabla\right)=\frac{iq\hbar}{m}\mathbf{A}\cdot\nabla$$

where equality follows from Coulomb gauge condition, $(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) = 0$.

- And the diagonal term (known as the diamagnetic term) -
- Together, they lead to the expansion

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 + \frac{iq\hbar}{m}\mathbf{A}\cdot\nabla + \frac{q^2}{2m}\mathbf{A}^2 + q\varphi$$

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$$\frac{iq\hbar}{m}\mathbf{A}\cdot\nabla=-\frac{iq\hbar}{2m}(\mathbf{x}\times\mathbf{B})\cdot\nabla=\frac{iq\hbar}{2m}(\mathbf{x}\times\nabla)\cdot\mathbf{B}=-\frac{q}{2m}\hat{\mathbf{L}}\cdot\mathbf{B}$$

where $\hat{\mathbf{L}} = \mathbf{x} \times (-i\hbar \nabla)$ denotes the angular momentum operator.

• For field, $\mathbf{B} = B\hat{\mathbf{e}}_z$ oriented along z, diamagnetic term,

$$\frac{q^2}{2m}\mathbf{A}^2 = \frac{q^2}{8m}(\mathbf{x} \times \mathbf{B})^2 = \frac{q^2}{8m}\left(\mathbf{x}^2\mathbf{B}^2 - (\mathbf{x} \cdot \mathbf{B})^2\right) = \frac{q^2B^2}{8m}(x^2 + y^2)$$

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- In the following, we will address two examples of electron (q = -e) motion in a uniform magnetic field, $\mathbf{B} = B\hat{\mathbf{e}}_z$:
 - Atomic hydrogen: where electron is bound to a proton by the Coulomb potential,

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

2 Free electrons: where the electron is unbound, $\varphi = 0$.

 In the first case, we will see that the diamagnetic term has a negligible role whereas, in the second, both terms contribute significantly to the dynamics.

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 + \frac{eB}{2m}\hat{L}_z + \frac{e^2B^2}{8m}(x^2 + y^2) - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{e^2}{r}$$

• With $\langle x^2 + y^2 \rangle \simeq a_0^2$, where a_0 is Bohr radius, and $\langle L_z \rangle \simeq \hbar$, ratio of paramagnetic and diamagnetic terms,

$$\frac{(e^2/8m_e)\langle x^2+y^2\rangle B^2}{(e/2m_e)\langle L_z\rangle B} = \frac{e}{4\hbar}a_0^2B \simeq 10^{-6}\ B/\mathrm{T}$$

- i.e. for *bound* electrons, *diamagnetic term is negligible.* not so for unbound electrons or on neutron stars!
- When compared with Coulomb energy scale,

$$\frac{(e/2m)\hbar B}{m_e c^2 \alpha^2/2} = \frac{e\hbar}{(m_e c \alpha)^2} B \simeq 10^{-5} B/T$$

where $\alpha = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{\hbar c} \simeq \frac{1}{137}$ denotes fine structure constant, paramagnetic term effects only a small perturbation.

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$$\hat{H} \simeq -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + \frac{e}{2m} \mathbf{B} \cdot \hat{\mathbf{L}} - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r}$$

• In general, term linear in **B** defines magnetic dipole moment μ : $\hat{H}_M = -\mu \cdot \mathbf{B}$. Result above shows that orbital degrees of freedom of the electron lead to a magnetic moment,

$$\boldsymbol{\mu} = -\frac{\boldsymbol{e}}{2m_e}\hat{\boldsymbol{\mathsf{L}}}$$

• cf. classical result: for an electron in a circular orbit around a proton, $I = -e/\tau = -ev/2\pi r$. With angular momentum $L = m_e v r$,

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Atomic hydrogen: Normal Zeeman effect

• So, in a uniform magnetic field, $\mathbf{B} = B\hat{\mathbf{e}}_z$, the electron Hamiltonian for atomic hydrogen is given by,

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \frac{e}{2m}B\hat{L}_z, \qquad \hat{H}_0 = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2}{2m} - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{e^2}{r}$$

• Since $[\hat{H}_0, L_z] = 0$, eigenstates of unperturbed Hamiltonian, \hat{H}_0 , defined by $\psi_{n\ell m}(\mathbf{x})$, remain eigenstates of \hat{H} , with eigenvalues,

$$E_{n\ell m} = -\frac{1}{n^2} \mathrm{Ry} + \hbar \omega_{\mathrm{L}} m$$

where
$$\omega_{\rm L} = \frac{eB}{2m}$$
 denotes the Larmor frequency.

• (Without spin contribution) uniform magnetic field \rightsquigarrow splitting of $(2\ell + 1)$ -fold degeneracy with multiplets separated by $\hbar\omega_{\rm L}$.

Normal Zeeman effect: experiment

• Experiment shows Zeeman splitting of spectral lines...

e.g. Splitting of Sodium D lines (involving 3*p* to 3*s* transitions)



P. Zeeman, Nature 55, 347 (1897).

 ...but the reality is made more complicated by the existence of spin and relativistic corrections – see later in the course.

$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{2m}(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, t))^2 + q\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

- Hamiltonian of charged particle depends on vector potential, A.
 Since A defined only up to some gauge choice ⇒ wavefunction is not a gauge invariant object.
- To explore gauge freedom, consider effect of gauge transformation

$$\mathbf{A} \mapsto \mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A} + \nabla \Lambda, \qquad \varphi \mapsto \varphi' = \varphi - \partial_t \Lambda$$

where $\Lambda(\mathbf{x}, t)$ denotes arbitrary scalar function.

• Under gauge transformation: $i\hbar\partial_t\psi = \hat{H}[A]\psi \mapsto i\hbar\partial_t\psi' = \hat{H}[A']\psi'$ where wavefunction acquires additional phase,

$$\psi'(\mathbf{x},t) = \exp\left[irac{q}{\hbar}\Lambda(\mathbf{x},t)
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but probability density, $|\psi'(\mathbf{x},t)|^2 = |\psi(\mathbf{x},t)|^2$ is conserved.

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• **Proof:** using the identity

$$(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A} - q\nabla\Lambda) \exp\left[i\frac{q}{\hbar}\Lambda\right] = \exp\left[i\frac{q}{\hbar}\Lambda\right](\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A})$$

$$\hat{\mathcal{H}}[\mathbf{A}']\psi' = \left[\frac{1}{2m}(\hat{\mathbf{p}} - q\mathbf{A} - q\nabla\Lambda)^2 + q\varphi - q\partial_t\Lambda\right] \exp\left[i\frac{q}{\hbar}\Lambda\right]\psi$$
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Similarly

$$i\hbar\partial_t\psi' = \exp\left[i\frac{q}{\hbar}\Lambda\right]\left(i\hbar\partial_t - q\partial_t\Lambda\right)\psi$$

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Therefore, if $i\hbar\partial_t\psi = \hat{H}[A]\psi$, we have $i\hbar\partial_t\psi' = \hat{H}[A']\psi'$.

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- Consider particle (charge q) travelling along path, P, in which the magnetic field, $\mathbf{B} = 0$.
- However, $\mathbf{B} = 0 \not\Rightarrow \mathbf{A} = 0$: any $\Lambda(\mathbf{x})$ such that $\mathbf{A} = \nabla \Lambda$ leads to $\mathbf{B} = 0$.
- In traversing path, wavefunction acquires phase

$$\phi = \frac{q}{\hbar} \int_P \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{x}.$$



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• If we consider two separate paths *P* and *P'* with same initial and final points, relative phase of the wavefunction,

$$\Delta \phi = \frac{q}{\hbar} \int_{P} \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{x} - \frac{q}{\hbar} \int_{P'} \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{x} = \frac{q}{\hbar} \oint \mathbf{A} \cdot d\mathbf{x} \stackrel{\text{Stokes}}{=} \frac{q}{\hbar} \int_{A} \mathbf{B} \cdot d^{2} \mathbf{x}$$

where \int_A runs over area enclosed by loop formed from P and P'

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• i.e. for paths *P* and *P'*, wavefunction components acquire relative phase difference,

$$\Delta \phi = rac{m{q}}{\hbar} imes ext{magnetic flux through area}$$



- If paths enclose region of non-vanishing field, even if **B** identically zero on paths P and P', $\psi(\mathbf{x})$ acquires non-vanishing relative phase.
- This phenomenon, known as the Aharonov-Bohm effect, leads to quantum interference which can influence observable properties.

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Aharanov-Bohm effect: example I

- Influence of quantum interference effects is visible in transport properties of low-dimensional semiconductor devices.
- When electrons are forced to detour around a potential barrier, conductance through the device shows Aharonov-Bohm oscillations.





Aharanov-Bohm effect: example I

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Aharanov-Bohm effect: example II

But can we demonstrate interference effects when electrons transverse region where **B** is truly zero? Definitive experimental proof provided in 1986 by Tonomura:

- If a superconductor completely encloses a toroidal magnet, flux through superconducting loop quantized in units of h/2e.
- Electrons which pass inside or outside the loop therefore acquire a relative phase difference of $\varphi = -\frac{e}{\hbar} \times n\frac{h}{2e} = n\pi$.



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- If n is even, there is no phase shift, while if n is odd, there is a phase shift of π.
- Tonomura *et al.*, 1986

 Experiment confirms both Aharonov-Bohm effect and the phenomenon of flux quantization in a superconductor!

Summary: charged particle in a field

 Starting from the classical Lagrangian for a particle moving in a a static electromagnetic field,

$$L = \frac{1}{2}m\mathbf{v}^2 - q\varphi + q\mathbf{v}\cdot\mathbf{A}$$

• we derived the quantum Hamiltonian,

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} (\mathbf{p} - q\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{x}, t))^2 + q\varphi(\mathbf{x}, t)$$

• An expansion in **A** leads to a paramagnetic and diamagnetic contribution which, in the Coulomb gauge $(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} = 0)$, is given by

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 + \frac{iq\hbar}{m}\mathbf{A}\cdot\nabla + \frac{q^2}{2m}\mathbf{A}^2 + q\varphi$$

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Summary: charged particle in a field

• Applied to atomic hydrogen, a uniform magnetic field, $\mathbf{B} = B\hat{\mathbf{e}}_z$ leads to the Hamiltonian

$$\hat{H} = \frac{1}{2m} \left[\hat{p}_r^2 + \frac{\hat{\mathbf{L}}^2}{r^2} + eB\hat{L}_z + \frac{1}{4}e^2B^2(x^2 + y^2) \right] - \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0}\frac{e^2}{r}$$

- For weak fields, diamagnetic contribution is negligible in comparison with paramagnetic and can be dropped.
- Therefore, (continuing to ignore electron spin), magnetic field splits orbital degeneracy leading to normal Zeeman effect,

$$E_{n\ell m} = -rac{1}{n^2} \mathrm{Ry} + \mu_\mathrm{B} Bm$$

• However, when diamagnetic term $O(B^2n^3)$ competes with Coulomb energy scale $-\frac{Ry}{n^2}$ classical dynamics becomes irregular and system enters "quantum chaotic regime".

Summary: charged particle in a field

- Gauge invariance of electromagnetic field ⇒ wavefunction not gauge invariant.
- Under gauge transformation, $\mathbf{A} \mapsto \mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A} + \nabla \Lambda$, $\varphi \mapsto \varphi' = \varphi - \partial_t \Lambda$, wavefunction acquires additional phase,

$$\psi'(\mathbf{x},t) = \exp\left[i\frac{q}{\hbar}\Lambda(\mathbf{x},t)\right]\psi(\mathbf{x},t)$$

• \rightsquigarrow Aharanov-Bohm effect: (even if no orbital effect) particles encircling magnetic flux acquire relative phase, $\Delta \phi = \frac{q}{\hbar} \int_A \mathbf{B} \cdot d^2 \mathbf{x}$.

i.e. for $\Delta \phi = 2\pi n$ expect constructive interference $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{n} \frac{h}{e}$ oscillations.

