

Reminder

Consider two vector spaces \mathbb{V} and \mathbb{U} . We want to define the “direct product space” $\mathbb{V} \otimes \mathbb{U}$.

We take any two basis elements from \mathbb{V} and \mathbb{U} , $|V_i, U_j\rangle = |V_i\rangle \otimes |U_j\rangle$, as a basis state of $\mathbb{V} \otimes \mathbb{U}$.

Assume \mathbb{V} has 2 dimensions and \mathbb{U} has 3 dimensions.

$$|V_i\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$|U_i\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$$

Then the basis elements will be,

$$\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \text{ etc. (6 in total)}$$

General state,

$$|\psi_{\mathbb{V} \otimes \mathbb{U}}\rangle = \sum_{ij} \alpha_{ij} |V_i\rangle \otimes |U_j\rangle$$

in general, can **not** be written as product of just two states from \mathbb{V} and \mathbb{U} :

$$|\psi_{\mathbb{V} \otimes \mathbb{U}}\rangle \neq |\psi_{\mathbb{V}}\rangle \otimes |\psi_{\mathbb{U}}\rangle$$

Example: Considering the combination

$$\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \\ 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \right]$$

there is no way to write it as just a single product $\begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix} \otimes \begin{pmatrix} c \\ d \\ e \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} ac \\ ad \\ ae \\ bc \\ bd \\ be \end{pmatrix}$ of states from \mathbb{V} and \mathbb{U} .

Another Example:

Let $\mathbb{V} = \mathbb{V}_l$ be the space of solutions with fixed angular momentum l to the radial part of the Schrödinger equation. Let \mathbb{U} be the space of solutions to the angular Schrödinger equation $|l, m\rangle$ for the same angular momentum l , with magnetic quantum number $-l \leq m \leq l$.

For free states, $\text{Dim } \mathbb{V} = \mathbb{R}$; for bound states $\text{Dim } \mathbb{V} = \mathbb{Z}$. $\text{Dim } \mathbb{U} = 2l + 1$. Basis vectors of $\mathbb{V} \otimes \mathbb{U}$ are

$$|\psi_{Elm}\rangle = |R_{El}\rangle \otimes |l, m\rangle$$

$$\langle \vec{r} | \psi_{Elm}\rangle = R_{El}(r) Y_l^m(\theta, \varphi)$$

Assume a Hamiltonian H that commutes with L^2

$$[H, L^2] = 0$$

Here $l \rightarrow l'$ transition is not possible (if $l \neq l'$). Therefore, all solutions of the Schrödinger equation can be chosen to be Eigenvectors to L^2 with fixed l (or linear combinations thereof).

Any wave function fulfilling the (time-dependent) Schrödinger equation in this subspace with fixed l can be written as

$$|\psi_l\rangle(t) = \int \sum_m a(E, m) |R_{El}\rangle \otimes |l, m\rangle e^{-iEt/\hbar} dE$$

Since \mathbb{U} can be thought of consisting of column vectors of $2l + 1$ complex numbers, the most general vector in $\mathbb{V} \otimes \mathbb{U}$ is of the form

$$|\psi\rangle = \begin{pmatrix} R_l(r) \\ R_{l-1}(r) \\ \vdots \\ R_{-l}(r) \end{pmatrix}$$

For the previous wave function $|\psi_l\rangle(t)$, $R_l(r) = \int a(E, m=l) R_{El}(r) e^{-iEt/\hbar} dE$ etc.

In this interpretation, the basis elements look as follows: $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ R_{E,l}(r) \\ \vdots \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ etc.

Previously, we have shown that the angular momentum operators $\mathbf{J}^2, \mathbf{J}_z$ allow not only integer, but also half-integer values for the quantum numbers j, m where the eigenvalues of \mathbf{J}^2 are $j(j+1)\hbar$ and the eigenvalues for \mathbf{J}_z are $m\hbar, -j \leq m \leq j$ (in integer increments).

For each value of j we define a $(2j+1)$ – dimensional subspace with basis $|j, m\rangle$. How do we interpret the half-integer values of j ? It turns out that in addition to orbital angular momentum $\vec{\mathbf{L}}$ (which can only have integer values for l), there is also an intrinsic property of each (elementary) particle called **spin** s (somewhat akin to rotation of a body around its own axis). In fact, any Hamiltonian that is consistent with special relativity must commute with this quantity for elementary particles: $[H, S^2] = 0$. Other than charge, the only absolute invariants for elementary particles are their mass m and spin s , which therefore serve to define them.

Particle (elementary ones are bold)	Spin s
Higgs , π , K , ${}^4\text{He}$	0
v, μ, e, quarks , p , ${}^3\text{He}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
γ , W, Z , ρ	1

Each such particle therefore must “live in” a sub space of defined spin

$$s = 0, +1/2, +1, +3/2, \dots$$

with possible basis states $|m_s\rangle, -s \leq m_s \leq s$.

Similar to orbital angular momentum operators, here we have spin operators $S_x, S_y, S_z, S^2, S_+, S_-$ which represent (infinitesimal) rotations in this new space and fulfill all the usual commutator rules as well as relationships like

$$S_z S_+ |m_s\rangle = \hbar(m_s + 1) S_+ |m_s\rangle$$

In general, a particle with spin s must then be represented in the product space of its spatial coordinates, \mathbb{V} with $\text{Dim } \mathbb{V} = \mathbb{R}^3$, and its “spin coordinates”, \mathbb{U} , with $\text{Dim } \mathbb{U} = 2s + 1$.

The basis states in $\mathbb{V} \otimes \mathbb{U}$ are given by $|\alpha, m\rangle = |\alpha\rangle \otimes |m_s\rangle$; $m_s = +s, \dots, -s$ (α represents any quantum numbers describing the basis states in spatial coordinates):

$$\langle \vec{r} | \alpha, m_s \rangle = R_\alpha(\vec{r}) \otimes |m_s\rangle$$

$$\text{Most general state} = \begin{pmatrix} R_s(\vec{r}) \\ R_{s-1}(\vec{r}) \\ \vdots \\ R_{-s}(\vec{r}) \end{pmatrix}$$

If $\mathbf{H} = \mathbf{H}_{\text{spatial}} + \mathbf{H}_{\text{spin}}$, $[\mathbf{H}_{\text{spatial}}, \vec{S}] = 0$ and \mathbf{H}_{spin} acts only on spin degrees of freedom, then all eigenstates of \mathbf{H} can be chosen in the form $|\alpha\rangle \otimes |m_s\rangle$.

The simplest non-trivial case is spin-1/2:

$S = 1/2$ which yields $\text{Dim } \mathbb{U} = 2$, so $\mathbb{U} = \mathbb{C}^2$ with basis states $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$, $\begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

which are eigenfunctions to S_z with magnetic quantum numbers $m_s = +1/2$ and $-1/2$:

$$S_z \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, S_z \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = -\frac{\hbar}{2} \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad (*)$$

General $|\psi\rangle \in \mathbb{U} \Rightarrow \begin{pmatrix} \alpha \\ \beta \end{pmatrix}$; $\alpha, \beta \in \mathbb{C}$

If we normalize the vector, then $|\alpha|^2 + |\beta|^2 = 1 \Rightarrow$ we can write $|\alpha| = \cos \gamma$, $|\beta| = \sin \gamma$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow |\psi\rangle &\geq \begin{pmatrix} \cos \gamma & e^{i\delta_\alpha} \\ \sin \gamma & e^{i\delta_\beta} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= e^{i\frac{\delta_\alpha + \delta_\beta}{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \gamma & e^{\frac{i}{2}(\delta_\alpha - \delta_\beta)} \\ \sin \gamma & e^{\frac{-i}{2}(\delta_\alpha - \delta_\beta)} \end{pmatrix} \\ &= e^{i\frac{\delta_\alpha + \delta_\beta}{2}} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \gamma & e^{\frac{i}{2}\Delta\delta} \\ \sin \gamma & e^{\frac{-i}{2}\Delta\delta} \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

Any operator in this vector space must be represented by a 2x2 matrix:

$\hat{O} = \begin{pmatrix} O_{\frac{1}{2}\frac{1}{2}} & O_{\frac{1}{2}\frac{-1}{2}} \\ O_{\frac{-1}{2}\frac{1}{2}} & O_{\frac{-1}{2}\frac{-1}{2}} \end{pmatrix}$ which can be expressed as a linear combination of 4 “basis” matrices:

$$\hat{O} = \sum_{i=0,x,y,z} \theta_i \sigma_i$$

$$\sigma_0 = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_x = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_y = \begin{pmatrix} 0 & -i \\ i & 0 \end{pmatrix} \quad \sigma_z = \begin{pmatrix} 1 & 0 \\ 0 & -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

In particular, the three components of the spin vector operator are

$S_i = \frac{\hbar}{2} \sigma_i$ ($i = x, y, z$). This can be proven as follows:

$S_z = \frac{\hbar}{2} \sigma_z$ follows simply from the definition of the basis, Eq. (*)

Similarly, it must be true that $S_+ = \hbar \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 1 \\ 0 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$ since $S_+ \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix} = \hbar \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$ according to our results for arbitrary j , and $S_- = \hbar \begin{pmatrix} 0 & 0 \\ 1 & 0 \end{pmatrix}$. Then all we need is that $S_x = \frac{1}{2}(S_+ + S_-)$ and $S_y = \frac{1}{2i}(S_+ - S_-)$

Finally, $S^2 = \frac{3}{4}\hbar^2 \mathbb{1} = s(s+1)\hbar^2\sigma_0$. This does not give anything new. It commutes with all possible operators as it must.

Some properties of the Pauli matrices:

$$\sigma_i \sigma_j = i \sum_k \varepsilon_{ijk} \sigma_k + \delta_{ij} \sigma_0$$

$\sigma_i \sigma_j = -\sigma_j \sigma_i \Rightarrow$ The Pauli matrices anti-commute.

$$[\sigma_i, \sigma_j] = 2i \sum_k \varepsilon_{ijk} \sigma_k$$

Eigen functions of S_z ; $\begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}, \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}$

$$S_x \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 1 \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -1 \end{pmatrix}$$

$$S_y \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ i \end{pmatrix}, \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ -i \end{pmatrix}$$

As shown above, up to a constant phase (irrelevant), any properly normalized state can be written like

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \gamma & e^{-\frac{i}{2}\Delta\delta} \\ \sin \gamma & e^{\frac{i}{2}\Delta\delta} \end{pmatrix}$$

A rotation around the \hat{n} is given by $e^{-\frac{i\theta\hat{n}\cdot\vec{S}}{\hbar}} = \mathbb{1} - i\theta \frac{\hat{n}\cdot\vec{S}}{\hbar} + (-i\theta)^2 \frac{\hat{n}\cdot\vec{S}}{\hbar} \frac{\hat{n}\cdot\vec{S}}{\hbar} + \dots$

We know that $\frac{\hat{n}\cdot\vec{S}}{\hbar} = \frac{\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma}}{2}$

$$e^{-\frac{i\theta\hat{n}\cdot\vec{S}}{\hbar}} = \mathbb{1} - i\theta \frac{\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma}}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{(-i\theta)^2}{2} (\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})^2 + \dots$$

$$(\hat{n}\cdot\vec{\sigma})^2 = (\hat{n}_x \sigma_x + \hat{n}_y \sigma_y + \hat{n}_z \sigma_z)(\hat{n}_x \sigma_x + \hat{n}_y \sigma_y + \hat{n}_z \sigma_z)$$

$$= (\hat{n}_x^2 \sigma_x^2 + \hat{n}_y^2 \sigma_y^2 + \hat{n}_z^2 \sigma_z^2) = \mathbb{1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sum_{\text{odd } n} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{-i\theta}{2}\right)^n \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} + \sum_{\text{even } n} \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{-i\theta}{2}\right)^n \mathbb{1} \\
&= -i \sin \theta/2 \hat{n} \cdot \vec{\sigma} + \cos \theta/2 \mathbb{1} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta/2 - i \sin \theta/2 \hat{n}_z & -i \sin \theta/2 \hat{n}_x - \sin \theta/2 \hat{n}_y \\ -i \sin \theta/2 \hat{n}_x + \sin \theta/2 \hat{n}_y & \cos \theta/2 + i \sin \theta/2 \hat{n}_z \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

Rotation φ around z axis;

$$\begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\varphi/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\varphi/2} \end{pmatrix}$$

Rotation around z axis changes the relative phase of the two components of a spinor.

Rotation around y-axis:

$$\begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta/2 & -\sin \theta/2 \\ \sin \theta/2 & \cos \theta/2 \end{pmatrix}$$

Combination (Euler angles) corresponds to rotating the spinor pointing in +z-direction to the direction given by the spherical coordinates θ, φ :

$$\begin{aligned}
&\begin{pmatrix} e^{-i\varphi/2} & 0 \\ 0 & e^{i\varphi/2} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta/2 & -\sin \theta/2 \\ \sin \theta/2 & \cos \theta/2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} 1 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \\
&= \begin{pmatrix} \cos \theta/2 e^{-i\varphi/2} \\ \sin \theta/2 e^{i\varphi/2} \end{pmatrix}
\end{aligned}$$

This is exactly the form of the **most general** state possible if we identify $\theta/2 = \gamma$ and $\varphi = \Delta\delta$! This means that for each possible state of a spin-1/2 particle, there is (exactly) one direction in space (given by the spherical coordinates θ, φ) such that it is in the eigenstate with $m_s = +1/2$ of the spin operator pointing in that direction, $\hat{n} \cdot \vec{S}$. Of course, for all **other** directions (except $-\hat{n}$), the state is **not** in an eigenstate of the corresponding spin operator, and therefore will have a statistical uncertainty for any measurement of the spin component along that direction.

Force Due to a magnetic field B on a length s of wire carrying current I : $F = BIs$

Torque on square loop with side length s = $2s/2 BIs \sin \theta$

Magnetic moment = Is^2

$$\vec{\mu} = Ia \hat{n}$$

$$\vec{\tau} = \vec{\mu} \times \vec{B}$$

Work $dW = \tau d\theta$

Let initial orientation be at $\theta=90$

Work done = $\mu B \int_{90}^{\theta_{final}} \sin \theta d\theta$

Potential energy stored in the loop, $V_{pot} = -\mu B \cos \theta_{final}$

Magnetic dipole moment of a single charge q orbiting at fixed radius r with velocity v :

$$\mu = \frac{qv}{2\pi r} r^2 = \frac{qvr}{2} = \frac{q}{2mc} L$$

Interaction Hamiltonian is given by,

$$\begin{aligned} H_{int} &= -\vec{\mu} \cdot \vec{B} \\ &= -\frac{q}{2mc} \vec{j} \cdot \vec{B} \end{aligned}$$

Electron Spin : $H_{int} = -g \frac{q}{2mc} \vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$

$$= g \frac{e\hbar}{2mc} \frac{1}{2} \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{B} \quad \text{Here } \mu_B = \frac{e\hbar}{2mc} \quad \text{and} \quad g = 2(1.00116)$$

$$= -\gamma \vec{S} \cdot \vec{B}$$

In general Hamiltonian can have..,

$$|\psi\rangle_{spatial} \otimes \chi ; \chi = \begin{pmatrix} a \\ b \end{pmatrix}$$

$$H = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m} \mathbb{1} + g\mu_B \frac{1}{2} \vec{\sigma} \cdot \vec{B}$$

$$|\psi\rangle_{(t=0)} \Rightarrow |\psi\rangle_{(t)} = e^{-\frac{iHt}{\hbar}} |\psi\rangle_{(t=0)}$$

Rotation around axis of \vec{B} by an angle of $g\mu_B \frac{Bt}{\hbar}$

$$|\psi\rangle_{(t)} = e^{-ig\mu_B B \hat{b} \cdot \vec{\sigma} \frac{t}{\hbar}}$$

Here $g_{\text{proton}} = 2(2.79)$

$g_{\text{neutron}} = 2(-1.91)$

If the magnetic field is inhomogeneous;

$$\text{Force} = -\nabla \overline{V_{pot}} = \vec{\mu} \cdot \nabla \vec{B}$$

Consequence: Stern-Gerlach apparatus which can measure the angular momentum (spin) component along the z-direction determined by the field direction.