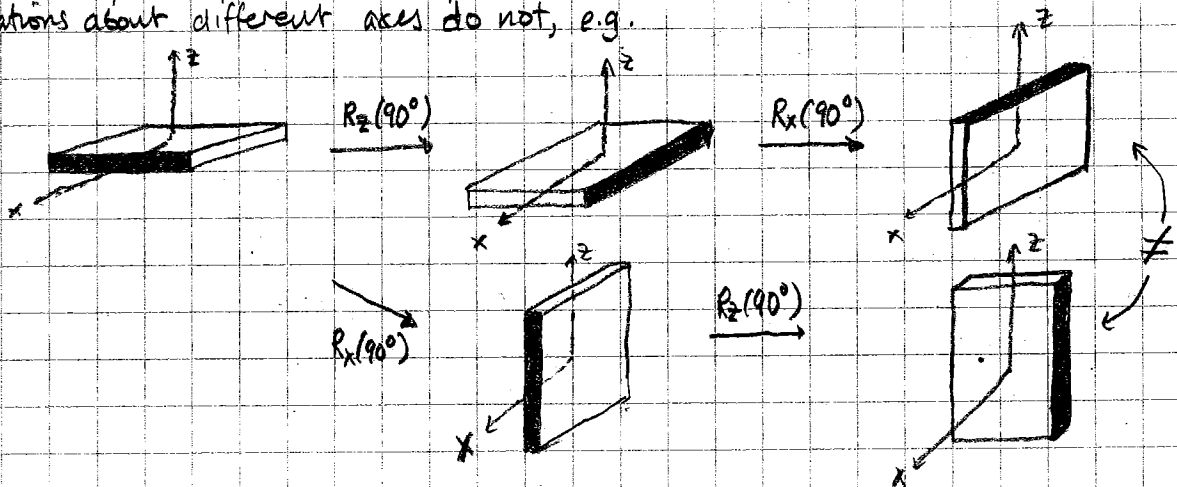


8. ROTATIONS IN THREE-DIMENSIONS & THE THEORY OF ANGULAR MOMENTUM

Classically we know that while rotations about the same axis commute (rotate by 60° about \hat{z} then by 30° about \hat{z} is the same as 30° about \hat{z} followed by 60° about \hat{z}), rotations about different axes do not, e.g.



Representing the rotation of a vector in 3-D is rather simple - we use a matrix multiplication:

$$\begin{bmatrix} V'_x \\ V'_y \\ V'_z \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R_{11} & R_{12} & R_{13} \\ R_{21} & R_{22} & R_{23} \\ R_{31} & R_{32} & R_{33} \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} V_x \\ V_y \\ V_z \end{bmatrix} \quad \underline{V}' = \underline{R} \underline{V}$$

In order that the length of the vector not be changed under rotation we require $V_x'^2 + V_y'^2 + V_z'^2 = V_x^2 + V_y^2 + V_z^2$

$$\underline{V}'^T \cdot \underline{V}' = \underline{V}^T \cdot \underline{V} \Rightarrow \underline{V}^T \underline{R}^T \underline{R} \underline{V} = \underline{V}^T \underline{V} \Rightarrow \underline{R}^T \underline{R} = \underline{1}$$

so \underline{R} must be an orthogonal matrix.

For example, suppose we wish to rotate a vector by an angle ϕ about the fixed z -axis, the appropriate matrix would be

$$\underline{R}_z(\phi) = \begin{bmatrix} \cos \phi & -\sin \phi & 0 \\ \sin \phi & \cos \phi & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

Suppose that we only wish to rotate by an infinitesimal angle $\phi = \epsilon$, then for rotations about the x, y, z axes we'd have

$$\underline{R}_x(\epsilon) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 - \epsilon^2/2 & -\epsilon \\ 0 & \epsilon & 1 - \epsilon^2/2 \end{bmatrix} ; \underline{R}_y(\epsilon) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \epsilon^2/2 & 0 & \epsilon \\ 0 & 1 & 0 \\ -\epsilon & 0 & 1 - \epsilon^2/2 \end{bmatrix} ; \underline{R}_z(\epsilon) = \begin{bmatrix} 1 - \epsilon^2/2 & -\epsilon & 0 \\ \epsilon & 1 - \epsilon^2/2 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 \end{bmatrix}$$

including terms up to $O(\epsilon^2)$.

By matrix multiplication we find that:

$$\underline{R}_x(\epsilon) \underline{R}_y(\epsilon) = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\epsilon^2/2 & 0 & \epsilon \\ \epsilon^2 & 1-\epsilon^2/2 & -\epsilon \\ -\epsilon & \epsilon & 1-\epsilon^2 \end{bmatrix} \quad \& \quad \underline{R}_y(\epsilon) \underline{R}_x(\epsilon) = \begin{bmatrix} 1-\epsilon^2/2 & \epsilon^2 & \epsilon \\ 0 & 1-\epsilon^2/2 & -\epsilon \\ -\epsilon & \epsilon & 1-\epsilon^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

so that

$$\underline{R}_x(\epsilon) \underline{R}_y(\epsilon) - \underline{R}_y(\epsilon) \underline{R}_x(\epsilon) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\epsilon^2 & 0 \\ \epsilon^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \neq \underline{0}$$

demonstrating explicitly that even infinitesimal rotations do not commute.

Note that

$$\underline{R}_z(\epsilon^2) - \underline{R}_z(0) = \begin{bmatrix} 0 & -\epsilon^2 & 0 \\ \epsilon^2 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 \end{bmatrix} \Rightarrow \underline{[R_x(\epsilon), R_y(\epsilon)]} = \underline{R_z(\epsilon^2) - R_z(0)} \quad \textcircled{A}$$

do we know how classical vectors transform under rotations - the question now is how do state vectors, or kets, transform under rotations? This will be the core of a quantum-mechanical understanding of rotations.

$$|\alpha\rangle_R = \underline{D(R)}|\alpha\rangle$$

$\underline{D(R)}$ is a rotation operator in the space of kets $|\alpha\rangle$.

We've done this kind of construction before - recall ^{infinitesimal} translations, where $\vec{x} \rightarrow \vec{x} + d\vec{x}$, we represented this in the space of kets by the operator $\underline{T}(d\vec{x}) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \vec{p} \cdot d\vec{x}$. Similarly translations in time, $t \rightarrow t + dt$ were represented by $\underline{U}(dt) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{H} dt$.

Following this pattern we'll propose $\underline{D(R_x(\epsilon))} = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{J}_x \epsilon$

where \hat{J}_k is a Hermitian operator, forcing \underline{D} to be unitary. For a rotation about a general direction \hat{n} we'd use

$$\underline{D}(\hat{n}, d\phi) = 1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{n} \cdot \hat{J} d\phi$$

As before we can build a rotation through a finite angle out of an infinite number of infinitesimal rotations

$$\text{e.g. } \underline{D}_z(\phi) = \lim_{N \rightarrow \infty} \left[1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{J}_z \left(\frac{\phi}{N} \right) \right]^N \rightarrow e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{J}_z \phi}$$

We will insist that the operators \underline{D} satisfy the same group properties as the rotation matrices \underline{R} : e.g.

$$\underline{R}_1 \underline{R}_2 = \underline{R}_3 \rightarrow \underline{D(R_1)} \underline{D(R_2)} = \underline{D(R_3)}$$

$$\underline{R}^{-1} \underline{R} = \underline{1} \rightarrow \underline{D(R)} \underline{D(R)} = \underline{1}$$

then the operator analogue of (A) would be $D_x(\epsilon)D_y(\epsilon) - D_y(\epsilon)D_x(\epsilon) = D_z(\epsilon^2) - D_z(0)$

$$\Rightarrow \left[1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{J}_x \epsilon - \frac{1}{\hbar^2} \hat{J}_x^2 \epsilon^2 \right] \left[1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{J}_y \epsilon - \frac{1}{\hbar^2} \hat{J}_y^2 \epsilon^2 \right] - \left[1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{J}_y \epsilon - \frac{1}{\hbar^2} \hat{J}_y^2 \epsilon^2 \right] \left[1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{J}_x \epsilon - \frac{1}{\hbar^2} \hat{J}_x^2 \epsilon^2 \right] = -\frac{i}{\hbar} \hat{J}_z \epsilon^2 - 1$$

terms of $O(\epsilon^2) \rightarrow [\hat{J}_x, \hat{J}_y] = i\hbar \hat{J}_z$

in general $[\hat{J}_i, \hat{J}_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} \hat{J}_k$ commutation relation of angular momentum*
 [I'll forget about the hats from now on]

We can define an operator $J^2 = J_x J_x + J_y J_y + J_z J_z$ which commutes with all of J_x, J_y, J_z , e.g.

$$\begin{aligned} [J^2, J_z] &= [J_x J_x, J_z] + [J_y J_y, J_z] + [J_z J_z, J_z] \\ &= J_x [J_x, J_z] + [J_x, J_z] J_x \\ &\quad + J_y [J_y, J_z] + [J_y, J_z] J_y \\ &= J_x (-i\hbar J_y) + (-i\hbar J_y) J_x + J_y (i\hbar J_x) + (i\hbar J_x) J_y = 0 \end{aligned}$$

\Rightarrow we can have simultaneous eigenstates of J^2 & one of J_x, J_y, J_z - we'll choose J_z :

$$J^2 |a, b\rangle = a |a, b\rangle$$

$$J_z |a, b\rangle = b |a, b\rangle$$

now consider operators $J_{\pm} \equiv J_x \pm iJ_y$ then $[J_+, J_-] = 2\hbar J_z$
 & $[J_z, J_{\pm}] = \pm\hbar J_{\pm}$
 & $[J^2, J_{\pm}] = 0$

consider the state $J_{\pm} |a, b\rangle$

$$J_z (J_{\pm} |a, b\rangle) = ([J_z, J_{\pm}] + J_{\pm} J_z) |a, b\rangle = (\pm\hbar J_{\pm} + b J_{\pm}) |a, b\rangle = (b \pm \hbar) (J_{\pm} |a, b\rangle)$$

$$J^2 (J_{\pm} |a, b\rangle) = J_{\pm} a |a, b\rangle = a (J_{\pm} |a, b\rangle)$$

$$\Rightarrow J_{\pm} |a, b\rangle = c_{\pm} |a, b \pm \hbar\rangle$$

so J_{\pm} are "ladder" operators, raising or lowering b by \hbar with each application.

Can we keep applying the raising operator ad infinitum, generating more & more eigenstates of J_z ? It turns out that we cannot for a given value of a , there is a maximum value of b , $b^2 \leq a$. The proof is as follows:

*we'll see that this can be the quantum analogue of $\vec{x} \times \vec{p}$ a little later.

$$J^2 - J_z^2 = J_x^2 + J_y^2 = \frac{1}{2}(J_+ J_- + J_- J_+) = \frac{1}{2}(J_+ J_+^\dagger + J_+^\dagger J_+) \quad \text{since } J_\pm = J_x \pm iJ_y$$

$$\& J_\pm^\dagger = J_\mp$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so } \langle a, b | J^2 - J_z^2 | a, b \rangle &= \frac{1}{2} \langle a, b | J_+ J_+^\dagger | a, b \rangle + \frac{1}{2} \langle a, b | J_+^\dagger J_+ | a, b \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{2} (J_+^\dagger | a, b \rangle)^\dagger (J_+^\dagger | a, b \rangle) + \frac{1}{2} (J_+ | a, b \rangle)^\dagger (J_+ | a, b \rangle) \\ &\geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle a, b | a - b^2 | a, b \rangle \geq 0 \quad \Rightarrow \underline{a \geq b^2} \quad \text{then } \underline{J_+ | a, b_{\max} \rangle = 0} \text{ to ensure this.}$$

$$\text{then } J_- J_+ | a, b_{\max} \rangle = 0, \text{ but } J_- J_+ = J^2 - J_z^2 - \hbar J_z$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{so } (J^2 - J_z^2 - \hbar J_z) | a, b_{\max} \rangle &= 0 \quad \Rightarrow \quad a - b_{\max}^2 - \hbar b_{\max} = 0 \\ & \quad \quad \quad a = b_{\max}(b_{\max} + \hbar) \end{aligned}$$

Similarly using J_- we can prove $J_- | a, b_{\min} \rangle = 0$ & $a = b_{\min}(b_{\min} - \hbar)$

$$\& \text{hence } b_{\max}(b_{\max} + \hbar) = b_{\min}(b_{\min} - \hbar) \quad \Rightarrow \underline{b_{\min} = -b_{\max}}$$

So the allowed values of b are $-b_{\max} \leq b \leq b_{\max}$. Starting with $|a, -b_{\max}\rangle$ we can repeatedly apply J_+ to get states $b = -b_{\max} + n\hbar$ until we hit $b_{\max} \Rightarrow b_{\max} = -b_{\max} + n\hbar \Rightarrow b_{\max} = n\hbar/2$ for integer n .

We define $j = \frac{b_{\max}}{\hbar}$ & we see that j can be integral or half-integral only.

Since $a = b_{\max}(b_{\max} + \hbar)$, we have $a = \hbar^2 j(j+1)$, so that if we say that $b = m\hbar$, our eigenstates are $|j, m\rangle$

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} J^2 |j, m\rangle &= \hbar^2 j(j+1) |j, m\rangle \\ J_z |j, m\rangle &= \hbar m |j, m\rangle \end{aligned}}$$

$$m = -j, -j+1, -j+2, \dots, j-2, j-1, j$$

$\underbrace{\hspace{10em}}_{2j+1 \text{ states}}$

So in quantum mechanics the angular momentum is quantised - this followed only from the properties of rotations as applied to quantum mechanical states, i.e. the commutation relations for the operators J_k .

$$\begin{aligned} J_+ |j, m\rangle &= C_+(j, m) |j, m+1\rangle \quad \therefore \langle j, m | J_+^\dagger J_+ |j, m\rangle = |C_+(j, m)|^2 \langle j, m+1 | j, m+1\rangle = |C_+(j, m)|^2 \\ &= \langle j, m | J^2 - J_z^2 - \hbar J_z |j, m\rangle = \hbar^2 (j(j+1) - m(m+1)) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_+(j, m) = \hbar \sqrt{(j-m)(j+m+1)} \text{ up to an irrelevant phase}$$

We will return later in the course to the explicit form of the representations of the rotation operator, $D(R)$ in the $|j, m\rangle$ basis. Right now we'll consider a realisation of J_k that is familiar from classical mechanics,

"orbital angular momentum" $\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$ or $L_i = \epsilon_{ijk} x_j p_k$

We can easily show that L_i satisfies the commutation relation for angular momentum, $[L_i, L_j] = i\hbar \epsilon_{ijk} L_k$

$$\begin{aligned} [L_x, L_y] &= [y p_z - z p_y, z p_x - x p_z] = [y p_z, z p_x] - [z p_y, z p_x] - [y p_z, x p_z] + [z p_y, x p_z] \\ &= [y p_z, z p_x] + [z p_y, x p_z] = y p_x [p_z, z] + p_y x [z, p_z] = [z, p_z] (p_y x - y p_x) \\ &= i\hbar (x p_y - y p_x) = \underline{i\hbar L_z} \end{aligned}$$

We found that the operator for infinitesimal rotations about the z-axis in the space of kets is $1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} J_z \delta\phi$,

if $J_z = L_z$ & we act on a position eigenvector $|x, y, z\rangle$ we see that

$$\begin{aligned} \left(1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} L_z \delta\phi\right) |x, y, z\rangle &= \left(1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \delta\phi (x p_y - y p_x)\right) |x, y, z\rangle \\ &= \underbrace{\left(1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} (x \delta\phi) p_y - \frac{i}{\hbar} (-y \delta\phi) p_x\right)}_{\substack{\text{translation by } x\delta\phi \text{ in the } y\text{-direction} \\ \& \text{ by } -y\delta\phi \text{ in the } x\text{-direction}}} |x, y, z\rangle \end{aligned}$$

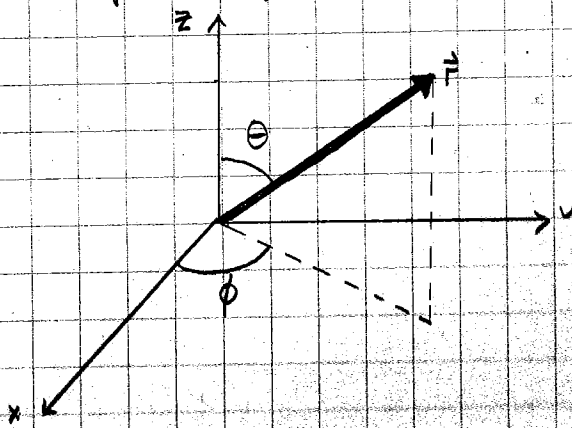
$$= |x - y\delta\phi, y + x\delta\phi, z\rangle$$



So indeed L_k are the generators of rotation in position space.

A more useful co-ordinate system is the spherical polar system (r, θ, ϕ)

$$\begin{cases} x = r \sin\theta \cos\phi \\ y = r \sin\theta \sin\phi \\ z = r \cos\theta \end{cases} \quad \begin{cases} r^2 = x^2 + y^2 + z^2 \\ \cot\theta = z / \sqrt{x^2 + y^2} \\ \tan\phi = y/x \end{cases}$$



Suppose we begin with an arbitrary state $|\alpha\rangle$ & perform an infinitesimal rotation about the z-axis - the rotated state is

$$\left(1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} L_z \delta\phi\right) |\alpha\rangle$$

which in the position space representation can be expressed

$$\langle x, y, z | \left(1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} L_z \delta\phi\right) |\alpha\rangle = \langle x + y\delta\phi, y - x\delta\phi, z | \alpha \rangle$$

this assumes a simple form in spherical polar co-ordinates:

$$x + y\delta\phi = r \sin\theta (\cos\phi + \sin\phi \delta\phi) = r \sin\theta (\cos\phi \cos\delta\phi + \sin\phi \sin\delta\phi) \quad \text{to first order in } \delta\phi$$

$$= r \sin\theta \cos(\phi - \delta\phi)$$

$$y - x\delta\phi = r \sin\theta (\sin\phi - \cos\phi \delta\phi) = r \sin\theta (\sin\phi \cos\delta\phi - \cos\phi \sin\delta\phi)$$

$$= r \sin\theta \sin(\phi - \delta\phi)$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{the rotation takes } \phi \rightarrow \phi - \delta\phi \text{ \& } \langle r\theta\phi | \left(1 - \frac{i}{\hbar} \delta\phi L_z\right) |\alpha\rangle = \langle r\theta, \phi - \delta\phi | \alpha \rangle$$

$$= \langle r\theta\phi | \alpha \rangle - \delta\phi \frac{d}{d\phi} \langle r\theta\phi | \alpha \rangle \quad \left(\text{performing a Taylor series}\right)$$

$$\text{thus } \langle \vec{x} | L_z | \alpha \rangle = -i\hbar \frac{d}{d\phi} \langle \vec{x} | \alpha \rangle$$

$$\text{or } \langle \vec{x} | L_z | \vec{x}' \rangle = \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{x}') \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{d\phi}\right) \quad \left(\text{can also obtain this by representing } \vec{p} \text{ in position space by } \langle \vec{x} | \vec{p} | \vec{x}' \rangle = \delta^{(3)}(\vec{x} - \vec{x}') (-i\hbar \vec{\nabla})\right)$$

The other elements of \vec{L} follow from considering $\vec{x} \times \vec{p}$ in spherical polar co-ordinates

$$\hat{r} = \sin\theta \cos\phi \hat{i} + \sin\theta \sin\phi \hat{j} + \cos\theta \hat{k}$$

$$\hat{\phi} = -\sin\phi \hat{i} + \cos\phi \hat{j}$$

$$\hat{\theta} = \cos\theta \cos\phi \hat{i} + \cos\theta \sin\phi \hat{j} - \sin\theta \hat{k}$$

$$[\hat{i} \times \hat{j} = \hat{k}]$$

as a shorthand, I won't explicitly show that the operators are in the position basis

$$\vec{x} \times \vec{p} = -i\hbar \vec{x} \times \vec{\nabla}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} = \hat{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \hat{\phi} \frac{1}{r \sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} + \hat{\theta} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}$$

$$\vec{L} = \vec{x} \times \vec{p} = -i\hbar r \hat{r} \times \vec{\nabla} = -i\hbar r \left[\hat{r} \times \hat{\phi} \frac{1}{r \sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} + \hat{r} \times \hat{\theta} \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right]$$

$$= -i\hbar \left[\hat{r} \times \hat{\phi} \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} + \hat{r} \times \hat{\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right]$$

$$L_z = -i\hbar \left[\hat{k} \cdot \hat{r} \times \hat{\phi} \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} + \hat{k} \cdot \hat{r} \times \hat{\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]$$

$$= -i\hbar \left[\hat{k} \cdot \left(\sin\theta \cos^2\phi \hat{i} \times \hat{j} - \sin\theta \sin^2\phi \hat{j} \times \hat{i} \right) \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} \right. \\ \left. + \hat{k} \cdot \left(\sin\theta \cos\theta \sin\phi \cos\phi \hat{i} \times \hat{j} + \sin\theta \cos\theta \sin\phi \cos\phi \hat{j} \times \hat{i} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]$$

$$\underline{L_z = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi}}$$

$$L_x = -i\hbar \left[\hat{i} \cdot \hat{r} \times \hat{\phi} \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} + \hat{i} \cdot \hat{r} \times \hat{\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]$$

$$= -i\hbar \left[\cos\theta \cos\phi \hat{i} \times \hat{j} \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} + \left(\cos^2\theta \sin\phi \hat{i} \times \hat{k} - \sin^2\theta \sin\phi \hat{j} \times \hat{k} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]$$

$$\underline{L_x = -i\hbar \left[-\cos\phi \cot\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} - \sin\phi \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]}$$

$$L_y = -i\hbar \left[\hat{j} \cdot \hat{r} \times \hat{\phi} \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} + \hat{j} \cdot \hat{r} \times \hat{\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]$$

$$= -i\hbar \left[-\cos\theta \sin\phi \hat{j} \times \hat{k} \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} + \left(\cos^2\theta \cos\phi \hat{j} \times \hat{i} - \sin^2\theta \cos\phi \hat{j} \times \hat{k} \right) \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]$$

$$\underline{L_y = -i\hbar \left[-\sin\phi \cot\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} + \cos\phi \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]}$$

Raising & lowering operators follow as $L_{\pm} = L_x \pm iL_y$

$$L_{\pm} = -i\hbar \left[-\cot\theta \cdot e^{\pm i\phi} \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} \pm i e^{\pm i\phi} \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right] = -i\hbar e^{\pm i\phi} \left[\pm i \frac{\partial}{\partial\phi} - \cot\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right]$$

$$L^2 = L_x^2 + L_y^2 + L_z^2 = L_z^2 + \frac{1}{2} (L_+ L_- + L_- L_+)$$

$$L^2 = -\hbar^2 \left[\frac{1}{\sin^2\theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial\phi^2} + \frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \left(\sin\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \right) \right]$$

The importance of L^2 becomes clear if we consider the Hamiltonian for a particle moving in three-dimensions

$$\underline{H = \frac{p^2}{2m}}$$

firstly let's derive an operator equation $\vec{L}^2 = \vec{x}^2 \vec{p}^2 - (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{p})^2 + i\hbar \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p}$:

(remember $[x_i, p_j] = i\hbar \delta_{ij}$)

$$\vec{L}^2 \equiv \vec{L} \cdot \vec{L} = (\vec{x} \times \vec{p}) \cdot (\vec{x} \times \vec{p}) \equiv \sum_{ijklm} \epsilon_{ijk} x_j p_k \epsilon_{ilm} x_l p_m$$

$$= \sum_{ijklm} \epsilon_{ijk} \epsilon_{ilm} x_j p_k x_l p_m = \sum_{ijklm} (\delta_{jl} \delta_{km} - \delta_{jm} \delta_{kl}) x_j p_k x_l p_m$$

$$= \sum_{jk} x_j p_k x_j p_k - \sum_j x_j \sum_k p_k x_k p_j$$

$$= \sum_{jk} x_j (-[x_j p_k] + x_j p_k) p_k - \sum_{jk} x_j p_k ([x_k p_j] + p_j x_k)$$

$$= \sum_{jk} x_j (-i\hbar \delta_{jk} + x_j p_k) p_k - \sum_{jk} x_j p_k (i\hbar \delta_{kj} + p_j x_k)$$

$$= -i\hbar \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p} + \vec{x}^2 \vec{p}^2 - i\hbar \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p} - \sum_{jk} x_j p_j p_k x_k$$

$$= -2i\hbar \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p} + \vec{x}^2 \vec{p}^2 - \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p} \sum_k (-[x_k p_k] + x_k p_k)$$

$$= -2i\hbar \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p} + \vec{x}^2 \vec{p}^2 + \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p} \sum_k i\hbar \delta_{kk} - (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{p})^2$$

$$= -2i\hbar \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p} + \vec{x}^2 \vec{p}^2 + 3i\hbar \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p} - (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{p})^2 = \underline{\vec{x}^2 \vec{p}^2 - (\vec{x} \cdot \vec{p})^2 + i\hbar \vec{x} \cdot \vec{p}}$$

$$\left[\begin{array}{l} \epsilon_{ijk} \epsilon_{ilm} = \delta_{il} \delta_{km} - \delta_{im} \delta_{kl} \\ \text{e.g. } \begin{array}{l} j=2, k=3 \\ l=2, m=3 \end{array} \text{ LHS}=1, \text{ RHS}=1 \\ \begin{array}{l} j=2, k=3 \\ l=3, m=2 \end{array} \text{ LHS}=-1, \text{ RHS}=-1 \end{array} \right.$$

Now consider this in the position representation

$$\vec{L}^2 \rightsquigarrow r^2 (-i\hbar \vec{\nabla})^2 - (\vec{r} \cdot (-i\hbar \vec{\nabla}))^2 + i\hbar \vec{r} \cdot (-i\hbar \vec{\nabla})$$

$$= -\hbar^2 r^2 \nabla^2 + \hbar^2 (\vec{r} \cdot \vec{\nabla})(\vec{r} \cdot \vec{\nabla}) + \hbar^2 \vec{r} \cdot \vec{\nabla} \quad \vec{r} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = r \frac{\partial}{\partial r}$$

$$= -\hbar^2 r^2 \nabla^2 + \hbar^2 \left(r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right)$$

$$\& \text{ thus } -\hbar^2 \nabla^2 = \frac{L^2}{r^2} - \hbar^2 \left(\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right)$$

but recall that

$$H = \frac{1}{2m} \vec{p}^2 \rightsquigarrow \frac{1}{2m} (-i\hbar \vec{\nabla})^2 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2$$

$$\& \text{ thus in the position representation } H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(r \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{L^2}{2mr^2}$$

where the angular dependence is completely within L^2 !

Let's recall that we're often interested in stationary states whose wavefunctions are the eigenfunctions of the Hamiltonian

$$H \phi_E(r, \theta, \phi) = E \phi_E(r, \theta, \phi).$$

(this is a partial differential eqn)

Suppose that we could express these wavefunctions as a product of a factor depending upon r & a factor depending upon θ, ϕ :

$$\phi_E(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r) X(\theta, \phi),$$

then the kinetic energy piece of the Hamiltonian being factored into those two terms is very handy

$$H = f\left(r, \frac{\partial}{\partial r}\right) + \frac{L^2}{2mr^2} \quad \left(L^2 = f_n\left(\theta, \phi, \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}, \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}\right) \text{ but not } r, \frac{\partial}{\partial r}!\right)$$

$$\Rightarrow H \phi_E = E \phi_E \rightarrow X(\theta, \phi) f\left(r, \frac{\partial}{\partial r}\right) R(r) + R(r) \frac{1}{2mr^2} L^2 X(\theta, \phi) = E R(r) X(\theta, \phi)$$

If we knew what the eigenfunctions of the L^2 operator were ($L^2 X_n(\theta, \phi) = \lambda X_n(\theta, \phi)$) we'd be able to write

$$X_n(\theta, \phi) \left[f\left(r, \frac{\partial}{\partial r}\right) R(r) + \frac{\lambda^2}{2mr^2} R(r) - ER(r) \right] = 0$$

where the object in square brackets is an ordinary differential eqn.

So for solving three-dimensional problems it will pay to know the eigenfunctions of the L^2 operator.

REMEMBER: \vec{L} is just a particular realisation of the generator of rotations, \vec{J} . We already know that the eigenstates of \vec{J}^2 have integral or half-integral eigenvalues and are simultaneously eigenstates of J_z .

eigenequation $L_z X_m(\theta, \phi) = m \hbar X_m(\theta, \phi)$

$$-i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} X_m(\theta, \phi) = m \hbar X_m(\theta, \phi) \Rightarrow X_m(\theta, \phi) = f(\theta) e^{im\phi}$$

$$L^2 X_{lm}(\theta, \phi) = \hbar^2 l(l+1) X_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$$

$$-\hbar^2 \left[\frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right) \right] X = \hbar^2 l(l+1) X$$

$$\Rightarrow \left[\frac{-m^2}{\sin^2 \theta} + \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left(\sin \theta \frac{d}{d\theta} \right) + l(l+1) \right] f_m(\theta) = 0 \quad \text{ordinary differential eqn}$$

An easy way to get at the solutions of this equation is to use the ladder operators

$$L_+ |l, m=l\rangle = 0$$

$$\text{in the position representation: } -i\hbar \left[-\cot \theta e^{i\phi} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} + i e^{i\phi} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right] e^{i\ell\phi} f_{\ell}(\theta) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(-i\hbar \cot \theta + i \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \right) f_{\ell}(\theta) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \left(-l \cos \theta + \sin \theta \frac{d}{d\theta} \right) f_{\ell}(\theta) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \underline{f_{\ell}(\theta) \propto (\sin \theta)^{\ell}} \quad \left[\frac{d}{d\theta} \sin^{\ell} \theta = \ell \sin^{\ell-1} \theta \cos \theta \right]$$

$$\text{thus } \langle \theta, \phi | l, m=l \rangle = N e^{i\ell\phi} (\sin \theta)^{\ell}$$

$$1 = \langle l, m=l | l, m=l \rangle = \int d\Omega |N|^2 \sin^{2\ell} \theta = |N|^2 \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^{\pi} \sin \theta d\theta \sin^{2\ell} \theta = |N|^2 \cdot 2\pi \int_{-1}^1 du \theta (\sin^2 \theta)^{\ell}$$

$$= |N|^2 2\pi \int_{-1}^1 du \theta (1 - \cos^2 \theta)^{\ell} = |N|^2 2\pi \int_{-1}^1 dz (1 - z^2)^{\ell}$$

$$\text{with some work can determine that } N = \frac{(-1)^{\ell}}{2^{\ell} \ell!} \sqrt{\frac{(2\ell+1)(2\ell)!}{4\pi}}$$

where the $(-1)^{\ell}$ factor is a conventional phase choice.

The eigenfunctions for $m < l$ can be obtained by acting with L_- :

$$\text{in the position representation } L_- = -i\hbar e^{-i\phi} \left[-i \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} - \cot \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right]$$

$$\text{since } L_- |l, m\rangle = \hbar \sqrt{(l+m)(l-m+1)} |l, m-1\rangle$$

$$\text{so } |l, m-1\rangle = \frac{L_-}{\hbar \sqrt{(l+m)(l-m+1)}} |l, m\rangle$$

$$\& \langle \theta, \phi | l, m-1 \rangle = \frac{e^{-i\phi}}{\sqrt{(l+m)(l-m+1)}} \left[-\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + i \cot \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right] \langle \theta, \phi | l, m \rangle$$

$$\text{e.g. } l=1: \langle \theta, \phi | 1, 1 \rangle = \frac{-1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{3 \cdot 2!}{4\pi}} e^{i\phi} \sin \theta = \frac{-\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{4\pi}} e^{i\phi} \sin \theta$$

$$\langle \theta, \phi | 1, 0 \rangle = \frac{e^{-i\phi}}{\sqrt{1 \cdot 2}} \left[-\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + i \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right] \left(\frac{-\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{4\pi}} e^{i\phi} \sin \theta \right) = \frac{\sqrt{3}}{\sqrt{4\pi}} \left[-\cos \theta + i \cos \theta i \right]$$

$$\langle \theta, \phi | 1, 0 \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4\pi}} \cos \theta$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \theta, \phi | 1, -1 \rangle &= \frac{e^{-i\phi}}{\sqrt{1 \cdot 2}} \left[-\frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} + i \frac{\cos \theta}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right] \left(\sqrt{\frac{3}{4\pi}} \cos \theta \right) \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{3}{8\pi}} e^{-i\phi} \left[\sin \theta \right] = \sqrt{\frac{3}{8\pi}} e^{-i\phi} \sin \theta \end{aligned}$$

These eigenfunctions are known as the "Spherical Harmonics", for $m \geq 0$ they can be obtained from

$$Y_{l,m}^m(\theta, \phi) \equiv \langle \theta, \phi | l, m \rangle = \frac{(-1)^l}{2^{l+1/2}} \sqrt{\frac{2l+1}{4\pi}} \sqrt{\frac{(l+m)!}{(l-m)!}} e^{im\phi} \frac{1}{\sin^m \theta} \frac{d^{l-m}}{d(\cos \theta)} (\sin \theta)^{2l}$$

& $Y_l^{-m}(\theta, \phi) = (-1)^m Y_l^{m*}(\theta, \phi)$ gives the $m < 0$ solutions.

For the few lowest l , the explicit solutions are

$$Y_0^0 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{4\pi}}$$

$$Y_1^0 = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4\pi}} \cos \theta = \sqrt{\frac{3}{4\pi}} \frac{z}{r}$$

$$Y_1^{\pm 1} = \mp \sqrt{\frac{3}{8\pi}} e^{\pm i\phi} \sin \theta = \mp \sqrt{\frac{3}{8\pi}} \frac{x \pm iy}{r}$$

notice that this is like the spherical components of a vector.

$$Y_2^0 = \sqrt{\frac{5}{16\pi}} (3 \cos^2 \theta - 1)$$

$$Y_2^{\pm 1} = \mp \sqrt{\frac{15}{8\pi}} e^{\pm i\phi} \cos \theta \sin \theta$$

$$Y_2^{\pm 2} = \sqrt{\frac{15}{32\pi}} e^{\pm 2i\phi} \sin^2 \theta$$

Remember these functions are the eigenstates of L^2 & L_z in the position basis.

$$L^2 Y_l^m = l(l+1)\hbar^2 Y_l^m \quad \& \quad L_z Y_l^m = m\hbar Y_l^m$$

Exercise: convince yourself that these functions can only be wavefunctions of a quantum system if l & m are integers.

as we'd expect of non-degenerate eigenstates of Hermitian operators, they are orthogonal:

$$\delta_{l,m} \delta_{l',m'} = \langle l', m' | l, m \rangle = \int d\Omega Y_{l', m'}^*(\theta, \phi) Y_{l, m}(\theta, \phi)$$