## Lecture 8

## Angular momentum

### 8.1 Introduction

Now that we have introduced three-dimensional systems, we need to introduce into our quantum-mechanical framework the concept of angular momentum.

Recall that in classical mechanics angular momentum is defined as the vector product of position and momentum:

$$
\underline{L} \equiv \underline{r} \times \underline{p}=\left|\begin{array}{lll}
\underline{i} & \underline{j} & \underline{k}  \tag{8.1}\\
x & y & z \\
p_{x} & p_{y} & p_{z}
\end{array}\right|
$$

Note that the angular momentum is itself a vector. The three Cartesian components of the angular momentum are:

$$
\begin{equation*}
L_{x}=y p_{z}-z p_{y}, \quad L_{y}=z p_{x}-x p_{z}, \quad L_{z}=x p_{y}-y p_{x} \tag{8.2}
\end{equation*}
$$

### 8.2 Angular momentum operator

For a quantum system the angular momentum is an observable, we can measure the angular momentum of a particle in a given quantum state. According to the postulates that we have spelled out in previous lectures, we need to associate to each observable a Hermitean operator. We have already defined the operators $\underline{\hat{X}}$ and $\underline{\hat{P}}$ associated respectively to the position and the momentum of a particle. Therefore we can define the operator

$$
\begin{equation*}
\underline{\hat{L}} \equiv \underline{\hat{X}} \times \underline{\hat{P}}, \tag{8.3}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\underline{\hat{P}}=-i \hbar \underline{\nabla}$. Note that in order to define the angular momentum, we have used the definitions for the position and momentum operators and the expression for the angular momentum in classical mechanics. Eq. (8.3) yields explicit expressions for the components of the angular momentum as differential operators:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{L}_{x}=-i \hbar\left(y \frac{\partial}{\partial z}-z \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right), \quad \hat{L}_{y}=-i \hbar\left(z \frac{\partial}{\partial x}-x \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right), \quad \hat{L}_{z}=-i \hbar\left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial y}-y \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right) . \tag{8.4}
\end{equation*}
$$

Eq. (8.4) can be economically rewritten as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{L}_{i}=-i \hbar \varepsilon_{i j k} x_{j} \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{k}} \tag{8.5}
\end{equation*}
$$

where we have to sum over the repeated indices.

In Eq. (8.5) we have used the same convention introduced in Lecture 7; we use:

$$
\begin{equation*}
x_{1}=x, \quad x_{2}=y, \quad x_{3}=z, \tag{8.6}
\end{equation*}
$$

to denote the three components of the position vector. The same convention is also used for the partial derivatives:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial}{\partial x_{1}}=\frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{2}}=\frac{\partial}{\partial y}, \quad \frac{\partial}{\partial x_{3}}=\frac{\partial}{\partial z} . \tag{8.7}
\end{equation*}
$$

In general the components of a vector $\underline{V}$ can labeled as:

$$
\begin{equation*}
V_{1}=V_{x}, \quad V_{2}=V_{y}, \quad V_{3}=V_{z} \tag{8.8}
\end{equation*}
$$

The symbol $\varepsilon_{i j k}$ denotes the totally antisymmetric unit tensor:

$$
\begin{align*}
& \varepsilon_{123}=\varepsilon_{231}=\varepsilon_{312}=1, \quad \text { cyclic indices }  \tag{8.9}\\
& \varepsilon_{213}=\varepsilon_{132}=\varepsilon_{321}=-1, \quad \text { anticyclic indices } \tag{8.10}
\end{align*}
$$

Out of twenty-seven components, only the six above are actually different from zero. Check that you understand Eq. (8.5).

The following relations are useful:

$$
\begin{align*}
\varepsilon_{i k l} \varepsilon_{i m n} & =\delta_{k m} \delta_{l n}-\delta_{k n} \delta_{l m},  \tag{8.11}\\
\varepsilon_{i k l} \varepsilon_{i k m} & =2 \delta_{l m},  \tag{8.12}\\
\varepsilon_{i k l} \varepsilon_{i k l} & =6 . \tag{8.13}
\end{align*}
$$

Using the canonical commutation relations, Eq. (7.17), we can easily prove that:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\hat{L}_{x}, \hat{L}_{y}\right]=i \hbar \hat{L}_{z}, \quad\left[\hat{L}_{y}, \hat{L}_{z}\right]=i \hbar \hat{L}_{x}, \quad\left[\hat{L}_{z}, \hat{L}_{x}\right]=i \hbar \hat{L}_{y} \tag{8.14}
\end{equation*}
$$

The proof of this statement is left as an exercise in problem sheet 4. Once again, it is useful to get familiar with the more compact notation:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\hat{L}_{i}, \hat{L}_{j}\right]=i \hbar \varepsilon_{i j k} \hat{L}_{k} \text {. } \tag{8.15}
\end{equation*}
$$

Example Instead of using the canonical commutation relations, we can derive the commutation relations bewteen the components $L_{i}$ using their representation as differential operators.

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{y} & =-\hbar^{2}\left(y \frac{\partial}{\partial z}-z \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)\left(z \frac{\partial}{\partial x}-x \frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right) \\
& =-\hbar^{2}\left\{y \frac{\partial}{\partial x}+y z \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial z \partial x}-y x \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial z^{2}}-z^{2} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial y \partial x}+z x \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial y \partial z}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

whilst

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{x} & =-\hbar^{2}\left(( z \frac { \partial } { \partial x } - x \frac { \partial } { \partial z } ) \left(\left(y \frac{\partial}{\partial z}-z \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right)\right.\right. \\
& =-\hbar^{2}\left\{z y \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x \partial z}-z^{2} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x \partial y}-x y \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial z^{2}}+x z \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial z \partial y}+x \frac{\partial}{\partial y}\right\}
\end{aligned}
$$

Noting the usual properties of partial derivatives

$$
\begin{equation*}
\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial x \partial z}=\frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial z \partial x}, \quad \text { etc } \tag{8.16}
\end{equation*}
$$

we obtain on subtraction the desired result:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\hat{L}_{x}, \hat{L}_{y}\right]=\hbar^{2}\left(x \frac{\partial}{\partial y}-y \frac{\partial}{\partial x}\right)=i \hbar \hat{L}_{z} . \tag{8.17}
\end{equation*}
$$

Note that the Cartesian components of the angular momentum do not commute with each other. Following our previous discussion on compatible observables, this means that the components are not compatible observables. We cannot measure, for instance, $L_{x}$ and $L_{y}$ simultaneously, and we do not have a basis of common eigenfunctions of the two operators. Physically, this also implies that measuring one component of the angular momentum modifies the probability of finding a given result for the other two.

Angular momentum plays a central role in discussing central potentials, i.e. potentials that only depend on the radial coordinate $r$. It will also prove useful to have expression for the operators $\hat{L}_{x}, \hat{L}_{y}$ and $\hat{L}_{z}$ in spherical polar coordinates. Using the expression for the Cartesian coordinates as functions of the spherical ones, and the chain rule for the derivative, yields

$$
\begin{aligned}
\hat{L}_{x} & =i \hbar\left(\sin \phi \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}+\cot \theta \cos \phi \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}\right) \\
\hat{L}_{y} & =i \hbar\left(-\cos \phi \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}+\cot \theta \sin \phi \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}\right) \\
\hat{L}_{z} & =-i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}
\end{aligned}
$$

### 8.3 Square of the angular momentum

Let us now introduce an operator that represents the square of the magnitude of the angular momentum:

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{L}^{2} \equiv \hat{L}_{x}^{2}+\hat{L}_{y}^{2}+\hat{L}_{z}^{2}=\sum_{i=1}^{3} \hat{L}_{i}^{2} \tag{8.18}
\end{equation*}
$$

or, in spherical polar coordinates

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{L}^{2} \equiv-\hbar^{2}\left[\frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\left(\sin \theta \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta}\right)+\frac{1}{\sin ^{2} \theta} \frac{\partial^{2}}{\partial \phi^{2}}\right] . \tag{8.19}
\end{equation*}
$$

The importance of this observable is that it is compatible with any of the Cartesian components of the angular momentum;

$$
\begin{equation*}
\left[\hat{L}^{2}, \hat{L}_{x}\right]=\left[\hat{L}^{2}, \hat{L}_{y}\right]=\left[\hat{L}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right]=0 \tag{8.20}
\end{equation*}
$$

Sample proof. Consider for instance the commutator $\left[\hat{L}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right]$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
{\left[\hat{L}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right] } & =\left[\hat{L}_{x}^{2}+\hat{L}_{y}^{2}+\hat{L}_{z}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right] \quad \text { from the definition of } \hat{L}^{2} \\
& =\left[\hat{L}_{x}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right]+\left[\hat{L}_{y}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right]+\left[\hat{L}_{z}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right] \\
& =\left[\hat{L}_{x}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right]+\left[\hat{L}_{y}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right] \quad \text { since } \hat{L}_{z} \text { commutes with itself } \\
& =\hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{z}-\hat{L}_{z} \hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{x}+\hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{z}-\hat{L}_{z} \hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{y}
\end{aligned}
$$

We can use the commutation relation $\left[\hat{L}_{z}, \hat{L}_{x}\right]=i \hbar \hat{L}_{y}$ to rewrite the first term on the RHS as

$$
\hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{z}=\hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{z} \hat{L}_{x}-i \hbar \hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{y}
$$

and the second term as

$$
\hat{L}_{z} \hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{x}=\hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{z} \hat{L}_{x}+i \hbar \hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{x} .
$$

In a similar way, we can use $\left[\hat{L}_{y}, \hat{L}_{z}\right]=i \hbar \hat{L}_{x}$ to rewrite the third term as

$$
\hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{z}=\hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{z} \hat{L}_{y}+i \hbar \hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{x}
$$

and the fourth term

$$
\hat{L}_{z} \hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{y}=\hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{z} \hat{L}_{y}-i \hbar \hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{y},
$$

thus, on substituting in we find that

$$
\left[\hat{L}^{2}, \hat{L}_{z}\right]=-i \hbar \hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{y}-i \hbar \hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{x}+i \hbar \hat{L}_{y} \hat{L}_{x}+i \hbar \hat{L}_{x} \hat{L}_{y}=0
$$

### 8.4 Eigenfunctions

The compatibility theorem tells us that $\hat{L}^{2}$ and $\hat{L}_{z}$ thus have simultaneous eigenfunctions. These turn out to be the spherical harmonics, $Y_{\ell}^{m}(\theta, \phi)$. In particular, the eigenvalue equation for $\hat{L}^{2}$ is

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{L}^{2} Y_{\ell}^{m}(\theta, \phi)=\ell(\ell+1) \hbar^{2} Y_{\ell}^{m}(\theta, \phi), \tag{8.21}
\end{equation*}
$$

where $\ell=0,1,2,3, \ldots$ and

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{\ell}^{m}(\theta, \phi)=(-1)^{m}\left[\frac{2 \ell+1}{4 \pi} \frac{(\ell-m)!}{(\ell+m)!}\right]^{1 / 2} P_{\ell}^{m}(\cos \theta) \exp (i m \phi) \tag{8.22}
\end{equation*}
$$

with $P_{\ell}^{m}(\cos \theta)$ known as the associated Legendre polynomials. Some examples of spherical harmonics will be given below.

The eigenvalue $\ell(\ell+1) \hbar^{2}$ is degenerate; there exist $(2 \ell+1)$ eigenfunctions corresponding to a given $\ell$ and they are distinguished by the label $m$ which can take any of the $(2 \ell+1)$ values

$$
\begin{equation*}
m=\ell, \ell-1, \ldots,-\ell \tag{8.23}
\end{equation*}
$$

In fact it is easy to show that $m$ labels the eigenvalues of $\hat{L}_{z}$. Since

$$
\begin{equation*}
Y_{\ell}^{m}(\theta, \phi) \sim \exp (i m \phi) \tag{8.24}
\end{equation*}
$$

we obtain directly that

$$
\begin{equation*}
\hat{L}_{z} Y_{\ell}^{m}(\theta, \phi) \equiv-i \hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} Y_{\ell}^{m}(\theta, \phi)=m \hbar Y_{\ell}^{m}(\theta, \phi) \tag{8.25}
\end{equation*}
$$

confirming that the spherical harmonics are also eigenfunctions of $\hat{L}_{z}$ with eigenvalues $m \hbar$.

## Mathematical aside

A few examples of spherical harmonics are

$$
\begin{aligned}
Y_{0}^{0}(\theta, \phi) & =\frac{1}{\sqrt{4 \pi}} \\
Y_{1}^{0}(\theta, \phi) & =\sqrt{\frac{3}{4 \pi}} \cos \theta \\
Y_{1}^{1}(\theta, \phi) & =-\sqrt{\frac{3}{8 \pi}} \sin \theta \exp (i \phi) \\
Y_{1}^{-1}(\theta, \phi) & =\sqrt{\frac{3}{8 \pi}} \sin \theta \exp (-i \phi) .
\end{aligned}
$$

### 8.5 Physical interpretation

We have arrived at the important conclusion that angular momentum is quantised. The square of the magnitude of the angular momentum can only assume one of the discrete set of values

$$
\ell(\ell+1) \hbar^{2}, \quad \ell=0,1,2, \ldots
$$

and the $z$-component of the angular momentum can only assume one of the discrete set of values

$$
m \hbar, \quad m=\ell, \ell-1, \ldots,-\ell
$$

for a given value of $\ell$.
$\ell$ and $m$ are called the angular momentum quantum number and the magnetic quantum number respectively.

Finally a piece of jargon: we refer to a particle in a state with angular momentum quantum number $\ell$ as having angular momentum $\ell$, rather than saying, more clumsily but accurately, that it has angular momentum of magnitude $\sqrt{\ell(\ell+1)} \hbar$.

