$$x = r\sin\theta\cos\phi \tag{1}$$

$$y = r\sin\theta\sin\phi \tag{2}$$

$$z = r\cos\theta \tag{3}$$

Rangle of variables is

 $0 \le r < \infty \tag{4}$ 

$$0 \le \theta \le \pi \tag{5}$$

 $0 \le \phi < 2\pi \tag{6}$ 

Volume element for integration is

$$dx \, dy \, dz = \underbrace{r^2 \sin \theta}_{\text{Jacobian}} \, dr \, d\theta \, d\phi \tag{7}$$

The Laplacian becomes

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{r^2} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left( r^2 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{1}{\sin \theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial \theta} \left( \sin \theta \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta} \right) + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right]$$
(8)

the  $\phi$  equation

$$\frac{d^2Q}{d\phi^2} = -m^2Q , \qquad 0 \le \phi < 2\pi \tag{9}$$

This is just the "particle on a ring" problem again in a slightly different form. Thus we know the solutions are  $\sin m\phi$  or  $\cos m\phi$ , or  $e^{\pm im\phi}$  with boundary conditions  $Q(0) = Q(2\pi)$  and  $Q'(0) = Q'(2\pi)$ . The unnormalized solutions in real form are  $Q_0(\phi) = 1$  for m = 0 and  $Q_m(\phi) = \sin m\phi$ ,  $Q_m(\phi) = \cos m\phi$  for m > 0 (doubly degenerate).

the  $\theta$  equation

$$\frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{d}{d\theta} \left( \sin\theta \frac{dP}{d\theta} \right) - \frac{m^2}{\sin^2\theta} P = -\lambda P \tag{10}$$

This equation is called the Associated Legendre Equation. A solution of the form  $P(\theta) = sin^m \theta \cos^\alpha \theta$  might work: *m* is the obvious choice of power for the sin function because the

second term  $\frac{m^2}{\sin^2\theta}P$  will then cancel out some of the derivative operations in the first term. Plug this guess in to obtain (after using some trig. identities)

$$-(m+\alpha)(m+\alpha+1)\sin^{m}\theta\cos^{\alpha}\theta + \alpha(\alpha-1)\sin^{m}\theta\cos^{\alpha-2}\theta = -\lambda\sin^{m}\theta\cos^{\alpha}\theta \quad (11)$$

This works if  $\alpha = 0$  or  $\alpha = 1$  and  $\lambda = (m + \alpha)(m + \alpha + 1)$ . For any other  $\alpha$ , the term  $\alpha(\alpha - 1)\sin^m \theta \cos^{\alpha - 2} \theta$  is uncompensated for. However, we can compensate for this term by adding lower order corrections to P as follows

$$P = \sin^{m} \theta \left[ \cos^{\alpha} \theta + A \cos^{\alpha - 2} \theta + B \cos^{\alpha - 4} \theta + \cdots \right]$$
(12)

As long as  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z} > 0$ , the chain of leftover terms thus generated will terminate because of the  $\alpha(\alpha - 1)$  prefactor. We therefore conclude that, for a given m,

$$\lambda = (m + \alpha)(m + \alpha + 1) \quad \text{where} \quad \alpha \in \mathbb{Z} \ge 0$$
(13)

This can be rephrased by defining  $\ell = m + \alpha$ , in terms of which we can say  $\lambda = \ell(\ell + 1)$ ,  $\ell \in \mathbb{Z} \ge 0$  and also  $m \le \ell$  since  $m = \ell - \alpha$ ,  $\alpha \in \mathbb{Z} \ge 0$ . Finally, the solutions look like

$$P_{\ell m}(\theta) = \sin^{m} \theta \left[ \cos^{\ell - m} \theta + A \cos^{\ell - m - 2} \theta + B \cos^{\ell - m - 4} \theta + \cdots \right]$$
(14)

Notice that each solution has two labels (quantum numbers)  $\ell$  and m.

the radial equation

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{1}{r^2}\left[\frac{d}{dr}\left(r^2\frac{dR}{dr}\right) - \lambda R\right] + V(r)R = ER$$
(15)

Note: any two-particle problem in which the potential energy depends only on the distance between the particles (*i.e.* HCl) can be reduced to an effective one-particle central force problem for the relative motion. In this case, r is the relative separation between particles and m is the reduced mass

$$m = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} = \mu \tag{16}$$

Use  $\lambda = \ell(\ell + 1)$  and rearrange

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r^2\frac{dR}{dr}\right) + \left[V(r) + \underbrace{\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2}}_{\text{centrifugal potential}}\right]R = ER$$
(17)

We cannot solve this equation exactly without knowing the exact form of the function V(r), but we can examine the behavior of the solutions in the limits  $r \to 0$  and  $r \to \infty$ .

$$r \rightarrow 0$$

Of the last three terms the centrifugal potential dominates because it blows up like  $1/r^2$ whereas V(r) goes at most like 1/r (Coulomb potential). Therefore the differential equation becomes

$$\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r^2\frac{dR}{dr}\right) = \frac{\ell(\ell+1)}{r^2}R, \quad r \to 0 \text{ limit}$$
(18)

It is easy to show that  $R(r) = r^{\ell}$  solves this.

$$r \to \infty$$

Of the last three terms, the energy E dominates because V(r) and the centrifugal potential go to zero. Therefore the differential equation becomes

$$\frac{1}{r^2}\frac{d}{dr}\left(r^2\frac{dR}{dr}\right) = -\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}R, \quad r \to \infty \text{ limit}$$
(19)

It is easy to show that  $R(r) = e^{-\alpha r}$  where  $\alpha = \sqrt{-2mE/\hbar^2}$  is a solution as  $r \to \infty$  (must take the limit after plugging in; E is negative for bound states). Another possibility is  $e^{\alpha r}$ but this blows up at large r which makes it unacceptable. For any V(r) which goes to zero at infinity (always true in chemistry) and diverges more weakly than  $1/r^2$  at  $r \to 0$  (always true in chemistry), we have deduced that

$$R(r) \sim r^{\ell}$$
 near  $r = 0$  (20)

$$R(r) \sim e^{-\alpha r} \quad \text{as } r \to \infty$$
 (21)

We can use this information to sketch the general appearance of any atomic orbital.

 $\begin{array}{l} \hline s \text{ orbitals } \ell = 0 \\ \text{Near the nucleus, } R(r) \sim r^0 \Rightarrow \text{ finite value at nucleus.} \\ \hline p \text{ orbitals } \ell = 1 \\ \text{Near the nucleus, } R(r) \sim r^1 \Rightarrow 0 \text{ value at the nucleus, but has a finite slope.} \\ \hline d \text{ orbitals } \ell = 2 \\ \text{Near the nucleus, } R(r) \sim r^2 \Rightarrow 0 \text{ value at the nucleus, zero slope at the nucleus.} \\ \hline \text{General Observations} \end{array}$ 

The tails (*i.e.*  $r \to \infty$ ) decay exponentially

The probability of being close to the nucleus has the trend  $s > p > d > \cdots$  because of the short ranged  $R \sim r^{\ell}$  behavior, *i.e.*  $r^0 > r^1 > r^2 > \cdots$  near r = 0.

The lowest energy radial function for a given  $\ell$  value has zero nodes.

One node is added for each successive higher energy state: this is required by orthogonality.

In general, the energy depends on the "principle" quantum number n (labeling which state of a given  $\ell$  we are talking about),  $n = \ell + 1, \ell + 2, \ell + 3, \ldots$ , and also on  $\ell$ . However, the energy does not depend on the m quantum number because the radial equation does not contain it. Hence the correct labeling for solutions of the radial equation is  $R_{n\ell}(r)$  with the energy labeled as  $E_{n\ell}$ . Each  $E_{n\ell}$  is  $(2\ell + 1)$ -fold degenerate due to the  $2\ell + 1$  different mvalues corresponding to each  $\ell$ .

The total wavefunction has the form  $\psi_{n\ell m}(r, \theta, \phi) = R_{n\ell}(r)\mathcal{Y}_{\ell m}(\theta, \phi)$ .

Hydrogenic Atoms

For a single electron attracted to a nucleus of charge Ze,

$$V(r) = -\frac{Ze^2}{r\pi\epsilon_0 r} \qquad \text{S.I. units} \tag{22}$$

We can apply methods similar to those for the harmonic oscillator and the  $\theta$ -equation to find that

$$E_n = -\frac{Z^2 m_e e^4}{32\pi^2 \hbar^2 \epsilon_0^2} \frac{1}{n^2} \qquad \text{S.I. units}$$
(23)

where  $n = \ell + 1, \ell + 2, ...$  or equivalently  $\ell \leq n - 1, n \in \mathbb{Z} > 0$ . Only for hydrogenic atoms does the energy E depend only on n and not on  $\ell$ . This is essentially accidental.