



Relativistic quantum chemistry



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The Dirac village



Our playground: the periodic table

Alkali Metals Group 1

Alkali Earth Metals Group 2

Groups

The vertical columns are called groups. Elements in the same group behave similarly because they have the same number of outer electrons.

Group 1 has one outer electron, group 2 has two, etc. Most transition metals have two.

Atomic Symbol

Atomic Number
number of protons

Widgets

How it is (or was) used or where it occurs in nature

Color Key

Metallic

Nonmetallic

Transition Metals

Superheavy Elements

Radioactive

Human Body
top ten elements by weight

Earth's Crust
top eight elements by weight

Magnetic
ferromagnetic at room temperature

Noble Metals
inertness-resistant

Only Traces Found in Nature
less than a millionth percent of earth's crust

Never Found in Nature
only made by people

Atoms

Molecules

Boron Group 13

Carbon Group 14

Nitrogen Group 15

Oxygen Group 16

Halogens 17

Noble Gases 18

Period	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18																																																													
1	H Hydrogen Sun and Stars	He Helium Balloons																																																																													
2	Li Lithium Batteries	Be Beryllium Emeralds	B Boron Sports Equipment	C Carbon Basis of Life's Molecules	N Nitrogen Protein	O Oxygen Air	F Fluorine Toothpaste	Ne Neon Advertising Signs																																																																							
3	Na Sodium Salt	Mg Magnesium Chlorophyll	Al Aluminum Aircraft	Si Silicon Stone, Sand, and Soil	P Phosphorus Bones	S Sulfur Egg Yolk	Cl Chlorine Swimming Pools	Ar Argon Light Bulbs																																																																							
4	K Potassium Fruits and Vegetables	Ca Calcium Shells and Bones	Sc Scandium Bicycles	Ti Titanium Aerospace	V Vanadium Springs	Cr Chromium Stainless Steel	Mn Manganese Earthenware	Fe Iron Steel Structures	Ni Nickel Magnets	Cu Copper Coins	Zn Zinc Electric Wires	Ga Gallium Brass Instruments	Ge Germanium Liquid-Emitting Diodes (LEDs)	As Arsenic Semi-conductor Electronics	Se Selenium Poison	Br Bromine Copiers	Kr Krypton Photography Film	Xe Xenon Flashlights	Rn Radon High-Temperature Lamps																																																												
5	Rb Rubidium Global Navigation	Sr Strontium Fireworks	Y Yttrium Lasers	Zr Zirconium Chemical Pipelines	Nb Niobium Mag Lev Trains	Mo Molybdenum Cutting Tools	Tc Technetium Radioactive	Ru Ruthenium Electric Switches	Rh Rhodium Scrap-High Neckties	Pd Palladium Pollution Control	Ag Silver Jewelry	Cd Cadmium Paint	In Indium Liquid Crystal Displays (LCDs)	Sn Tin Plated Food Lanes	Sb Antimony Car Batteries	Te Tellurium Thermoelectric Devices	I Iodine Disinfectant	Xe Xenon High-Temperature Lamps	Rn Radon Surgical Implants																																																												
6	Cs Cesium Atomic Clocks	Ba Barium X-Ray Diagnosis	Rare Earth Metals			Hf Hafnium Nuclear Submarines	Ta Tantalum Mobile Phones	W Tungsten Lamp Filaments	Re Rhenium Rocket Engines	Os Osmium Pen Points	Ir Iridium Spark Plugs	Pt Platinum Laboratory	Au Gold Jewelry	Hg Mercury Thermometers	Tl Thallium Low-Temperature Thermometers	Pb Lead Weights	Bi Bismuth Fing Sprinklers	Po Polonium Anti-Static Brushes	At Astatine Radioactive Medicine	Rn Radon Surgical Implants																																																											
7	Fr Francium Laser Atom Traps	Ra Radium Luminescent Watches	Actinide Metals			Rf Rutherfordium	Ds Dubnium	Sg Seaborgium	Bh Bohrium	Hs Hassium	Mt Meitnerium	Ds Darmstadtium	Rg Roentgenium	Superheavy Elements radioactive, never found in nature, no uses except atomic research																																																																	
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The periodic table ... of 1871

T a b e l l e II.

Reihen-	Gruppe I.	Gruppe II.	Gruppe III.	Gruppe IV.	Gruppe V.	Gruppe VI.	Gruppe VII.	Gruppe VIII.
	R ⁰	R ⁰	R ⁰ ²	RR ⁴ R ⁰ ²	RR ⁴ R ⁰ ²	RR ² R ⁰ ²	RR R ⁰ ²	
1	H=1							
2	Li=7	Be=9,4	B=11	C=12	N=14	O=16	F=19	
3	Na=23	Mg=24	Al=27,3	Si=28	P=31	S=32	Cl=35,5	
4	K=39	Ca=40	—=44	Ti=48	V=51	Cr=52	Mn=55	Fe=56, Co=58, Ni=59, Cu=63.
5	(Cu=65)	Zn=65	—=68	—=72	As=75	Se=78	Br=80	
6	Rb=85	Sr=87	?Yt=88	Zr=90	Nb=94	Mo=96	—=100	Ru=104, Rh=104, Pd=106, Ag=108.
7	(Ag=108)	Cd=112	In=113	Sn=118	Sb=122	Te=125	J=127	
8	Cs=133	Ba=137	?Di=138	?Co=140	—	—	—	— — — —
9	(—)	—	—	—	—	—	—	
10	—	—	?Er=178	?La=180	Ta=182	W=184	—	Os=195, Ir=197, Pt=198, Au=199.
11	(Au=199)	Hg=200	Tl=204	Pb=207	Bi=208	—	—	
12	—	—	—	Th=231	—	U=240	—	— — — —

The periodic table ... of 1871

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eka-aluminium:

gallium (1875)



The periodic table ... of 1871

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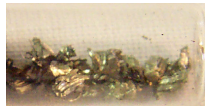
eka-aluminium:
gallium (1875)



eka-silicon:
germanium (1886)



eka-boron:
scandium (1879)





Goldschmidt and Einstein in Norway 1920

Relativistic effects

- scalar effects
- spin-orbit interaction

Lorentz factor:

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

Broken trends



Goldschmidt and Einstein in Norway 1920

Lanthanide contraction

V.M. Goldschmidt, T. Barth, G. Lunde:
Norske Vidensk. Selsk. Skrifter I Mat.
Naturv. Kl. 7, 1 (1925)

D. R. Lloyd, *J. Chem. Ed.* **63** (1986) 503

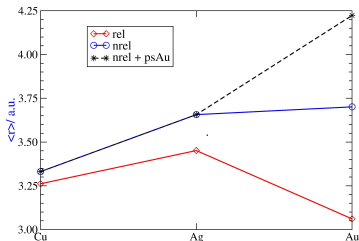
- La^{3+} - Lu^{3+} (117.2 - 100.1 pm)
- Ca^{2+} - Zn^{2+} (114 - 88 pm)
- Cu (138 pm) < Au (144 pm)
< Ag (153 pm)

Relativistic effects

- scalar effects
- spin-orbit interaction

Lorentz factor:

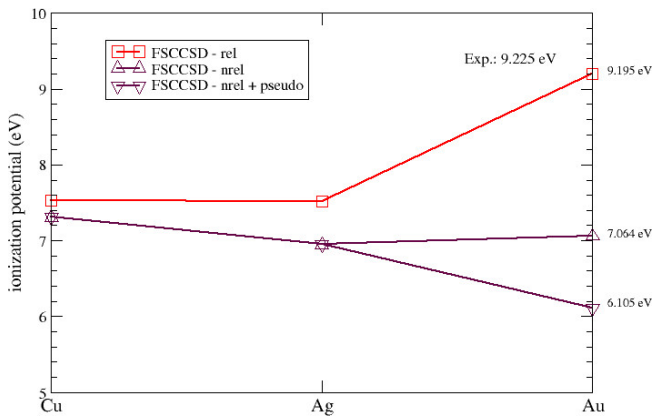
$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$



P.S. Bagus *et al.*, *Chem. Phys. Lett.* **33** (1975) 408

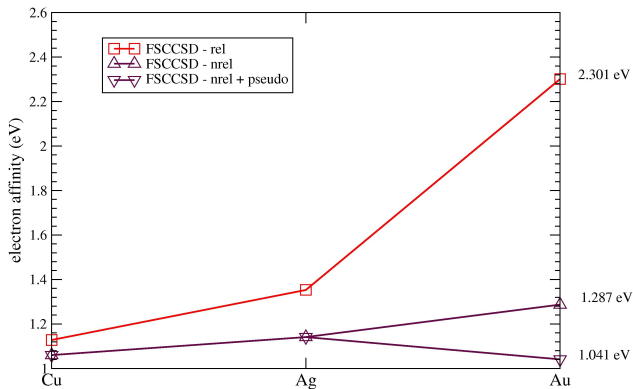
Ionization energy of gold

O. Fossgaard, O. Gropen, E. Eliav and T. Saue, J. Chem. Phys. 119 (2003) 9355



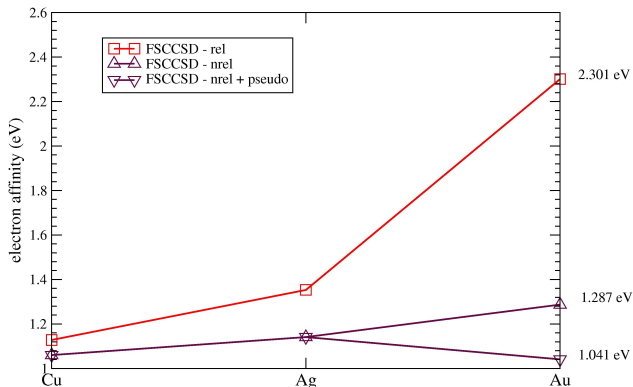
Electron affinity of gold

O. Fossgaard, O. Gropen, E. Eliav and T. Saue, J. Chem. Phys. 119 (2003) 9355



Electron affinity of gold

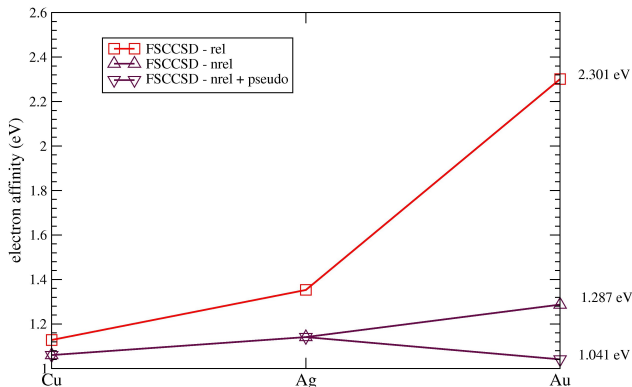
O. Fossgaard, O. Gropen, E. Eliav and T. Saue, *J. Chem. Phys.* 119 (2003) 9355



- Gold and caesium are extremes on the electron affinity scale — 2.309 eV vs. 0.472 eV

Electron affinity of gold

O. Fossgaard, O. Gropen, E. Eliav and T. Saue, J. Chem. Phys. 119 (2003) 9355



- Gold and caesium are extremes on the electron affinity scale — 2.309 eV vs. 0.472 eV
- CsAu is a semi-conductor with a CsCl crystal structure in the solid state; it forms an ionic melt. **The oxidation state of gold is -1.**

Spectroscopic constants of CsAu and homologues

O. Fossgaard, O. Gropen, E. Eliav and T. Saue, J. Chem. Phys. 119 (2003) 9355

	Method		r_e (pm)	ω_e (cm ⁻¹)	$\omega_e x_e$ (cm ⁻¹)	D_e^{cov} (eV)	μ (D)
CsAu	CCSD(T)	rel	326.3	89.4	0.21	2.52	11.73
		nrel	357.1	67.9	0.08	1.34	11.05
		nrel-ps	376.3	59.9	0.13	1.17	9.47
	Exp.[1]a		(320)	(125)		2.58±0.03	
	Exp.[1]b		-	-	-	2.53±0.03	-
CsAg	CCSD(T)	rel	331.6	88.0	0.17	1.51	10.69
		nrel	345.9	78.5	0.02	1.26	10.89
CsCu	CCSD(T)	rel	319.8	101.6	0.09	1.36	10.34
		nrel	327.7	97.1	0.18	1.31	10.88

1) B. Busse and K. G. Weil, Ber. Bunsenges. Phys. Chem. **85**(1981) 309

Without relativity





.. gold would have the same color as silver





.. gold would have the same color as silver



...mercury would not be liquid
at room temperature



Without relativity



.. gold would have the same color as silver



...mercury would not be liquid
at room temperature



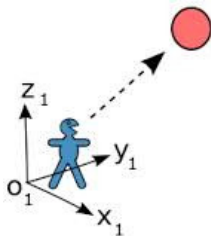
.. your car would not start

Einstein's special theory of relativity

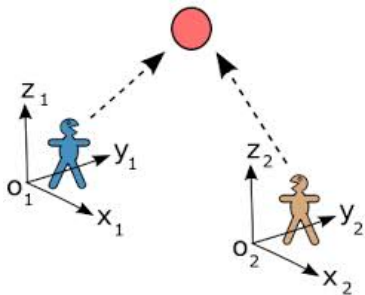


CRASH
C O U R S E

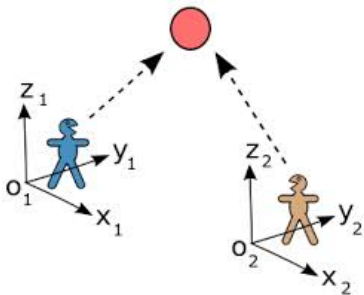
Reference frames



Reference frames

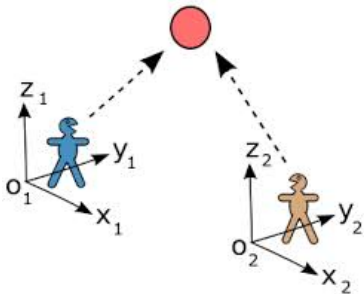


Reference frames



The theory of *special* relativity is restricted to **inertial frames** :
reference frames related by constant velocity

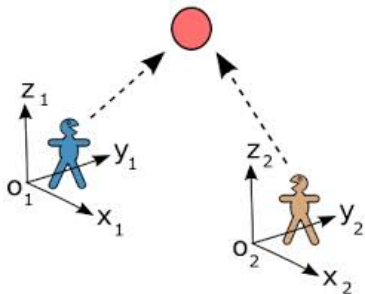
Reference frames



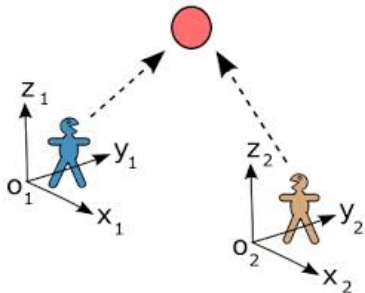
The theory of *special* relativity is restricted to **inertial frames** :
reference frames related by constant velocity

It is based on two postulates:

The principle of relativity

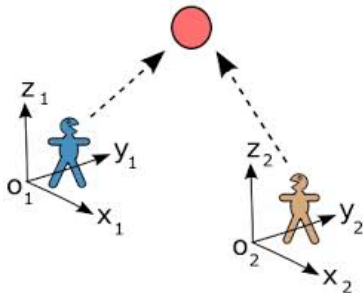


The principle of relativity

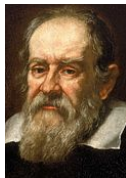


1. The laws of motion are the same in all inertial frames

The principle of relativity



1. The laws of motion are the same in all inertial frames



Galileo Galilei (1632)

... but some frames may be better than others



... but some frames may be better than others



- Speed of boat with respect to the river bank: 3 km/h

... but some frames may be better than others



- Speed of boat with respect to the river bank: 3 km/h
- Speed of water with respect to the river bank: 7 km/h

... but some frames may be better than others



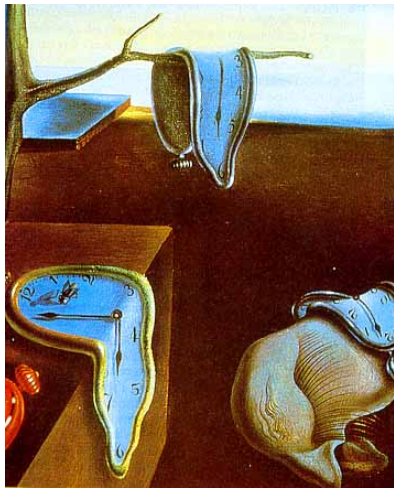
- Speed of boat with respect to the river bank: 3 km/h
- Speed of water with respect to the river bank: 7 km/h
- **Hint:** you do not need this information....

2. The speed c of light is the same in all inertial frames

$$\text{speed} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time}}$$

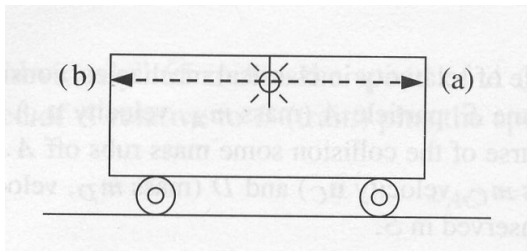
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Implies plasticity of space and time

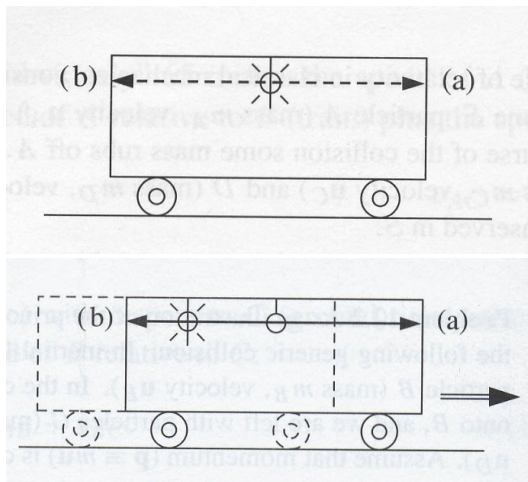
Simultaneity: a relative concept



Observer in the train:

$$t_b = t_a$$

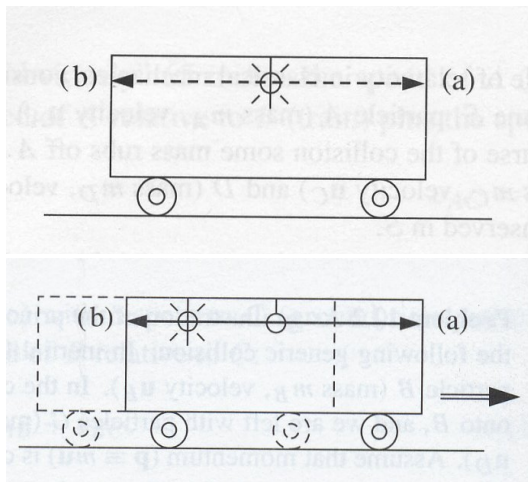
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Simultaneity: a relative concept



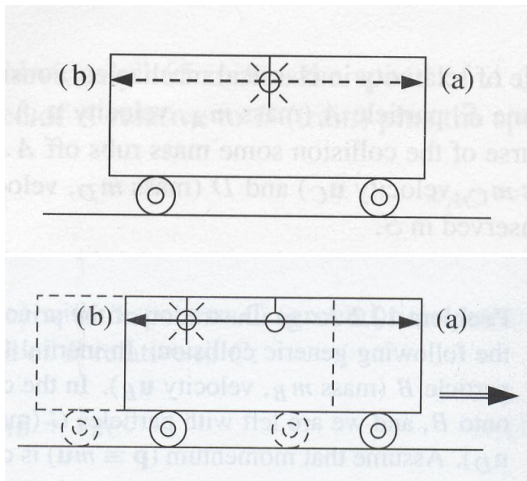
Observer in the train:

$$t_b = t_a$$

Observer on the ground:

$$t_b < t_a$$

Simultaneity: a relative concept



Observer in the train:

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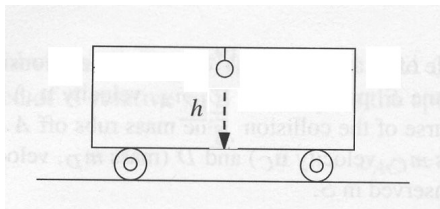
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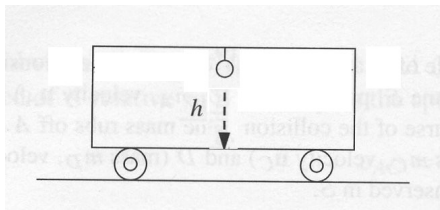
Two events that are simultaneous in one inertial frame are generally not so in another inertial frame.

Picture credit: Griffiths: Introduction to Electrodynamics (1999)

Time dilation



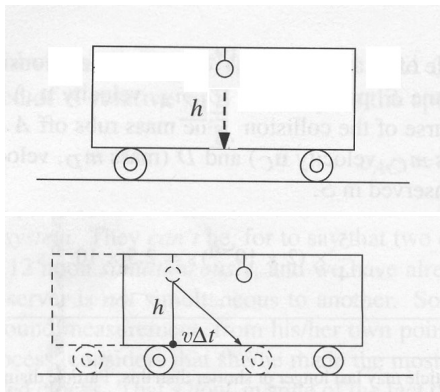
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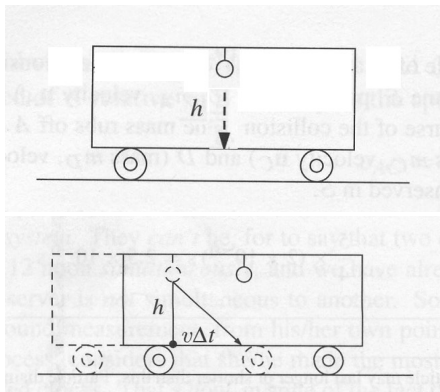
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Time dilation



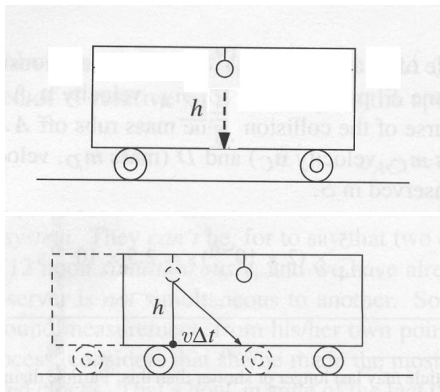
Observer in the train:

$$c\Delta\bar{t} = 2h$$

Observer on the ground:

$$c\Delta t = \sqrt{h^2 + (v\Delta t)^2}$$

Time dilation



Observer in the train:

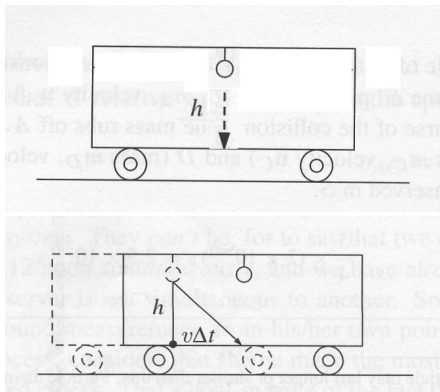
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$$\Delta t = \gamma\Delta\bar{t} > \Delta\bar{t}; \quad \text{Lorentz factor: } \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

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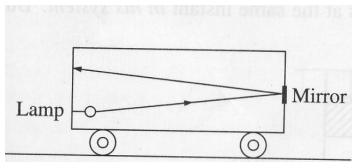
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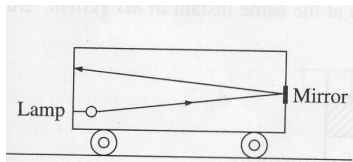
Clocks in movement go slower.

Picture credit: Griffiths: Introduction to Electrodynamics (1999)

Length contraction



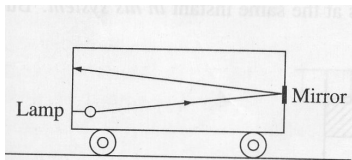
Length contraction



Observer in the train:

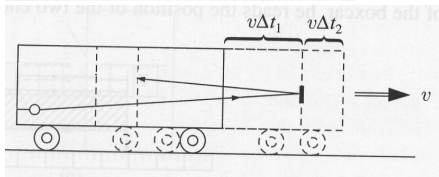
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Length contraction

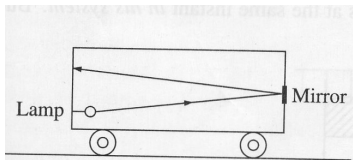


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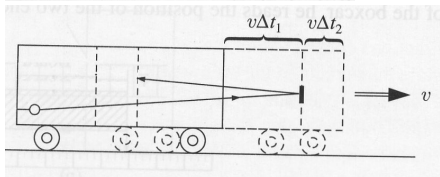


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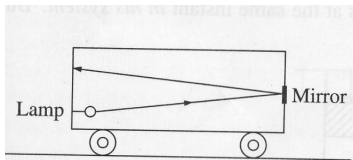


Observer on the ground:

$$c\Delta t_1 = \Delta x + v\Delta t_1$$

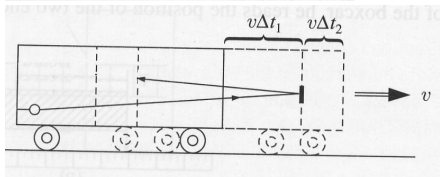
$$c\Delta t_2 = \Delta x - v\Delta t_2$$

Length contraction



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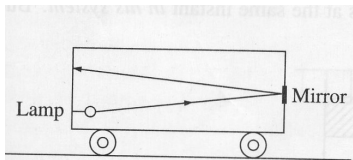
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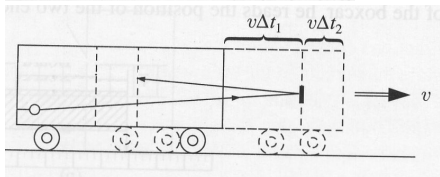
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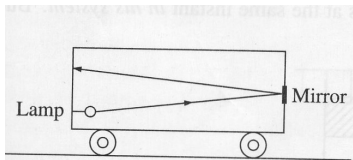
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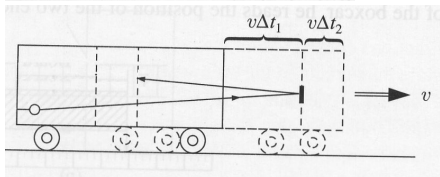
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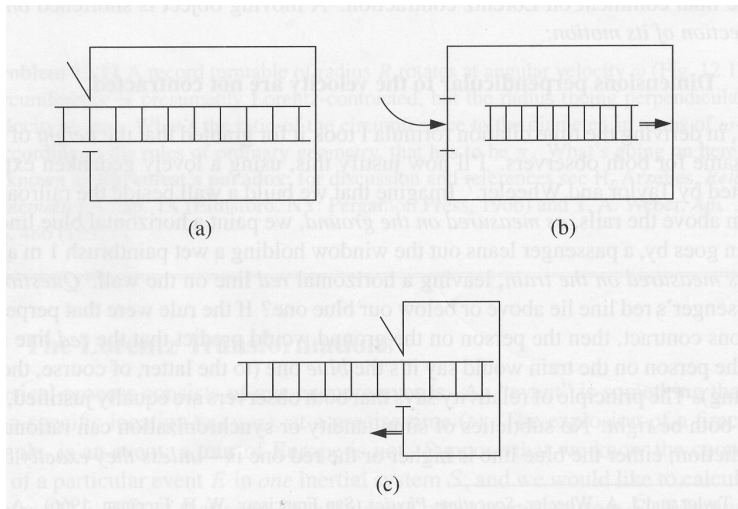
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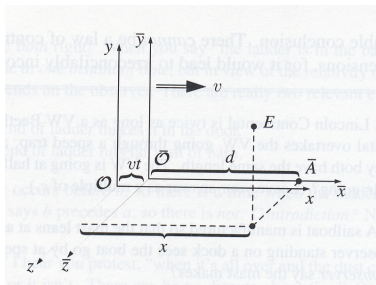
An object in movement is contracted in the direction of movement

Paradox of the barn and the ladder



Picture credit: Griffiths: Introduction to Electrodynamics (1999)

Lorentz transformation

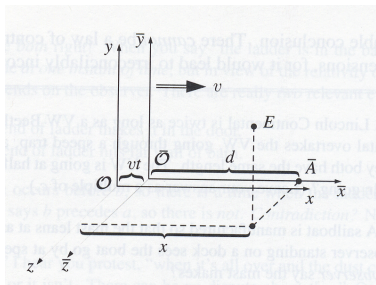


$$x = d + vt$$

$$d = \begin{cases} \bar{x}; & \text{(Galilei)} \\ \gamma^{-1}\bar{x}; & \text{(Lorentz)} \end{cases}$$

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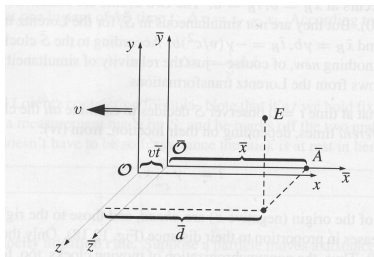
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Let us look at a relativistic theory ...

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Electrodynamics

Maxwell's equations

(SI-based atomic units: $\hbar = m_e = e = 4\pi\epsilon_0 = 1$)

- The homogeneous pair:

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} &= 0 \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} &= \mathbf{0}\end{aligned}$$

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the charge density ρ and current density \mathbf{j} (c is the speed of light)

$$\begin{aligned}\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} &= 4\pi\rho \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{B} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} &= \frac{4\pi}{c^2} \mathbf{j}\end{aligned}$$

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- Are the electric field \mathbf{E} and the magnetic field \mathbf{B} uniquely determined by their divergence ($\nabla \cdot \dots$) and curl ($\nabla \times \dots$) ?

- **The answer is NO !!!!**

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 - ▶ **E and B go to zero at infinity**

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where

$$s(\mathbf{r}_1) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{\nabla_2 \cdot \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}_2)}{r_{12}} d^3 \mathbf{r}_2; \quad \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}_1) = \frac{1}{4\pi} \int \frac{\nabla_2 \times \mathbf{F}(\mathbf{r}_2)}{r_{12}} d^3 \mathbf{r}_2$$

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- This results show that we can reconstruct a vector function from knowledge of its divergence and curl combined with proper boundary conditions.

- General solutions of Maxwell's equations are

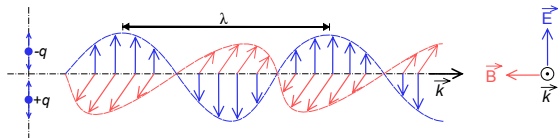
$$\mathbf{E}(\mathbf{r}_1, t) = \int \left\{ \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}_2, t_r) \mathbf{r}_{12}}{r_{12}^3} + \frac{\dot{\rho}(\mathbf{r}_2, t_r) \mathbf{r}_{12}}{r_{12}^2} - \frac{\dot{\mathbf{j}}(\mathbf{r}_2, t_r)}{c^2 r_{12}} \right\} d^3 \mathbf{r}_2$$
$$\mathbf{B}(\mathbf{r}_1, t) = \frac{1}{c^2} \int \left\{ \frac{\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}_2, t_r) \times \mathbf{r}_{12}}{r_{12}^3} + \frac{\dot{\mathbf{j}}(\mathbf{r}_2, t_r) \times \mathbf{r}_{12}}{c r_{12}^2} \right\} d^3 \mathbf{r}_2$$

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- Note that we can always add the solutions of the homogeneous (source-free) equations, that is, electromagnetic waves.

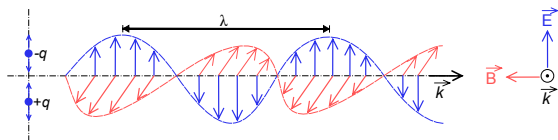


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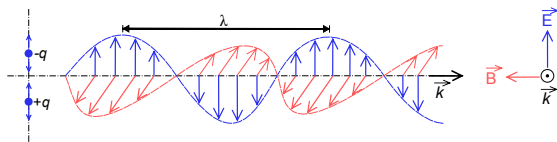
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- A nasty fellow:
 - ▶ Retarded time

$$t_r = t - \frac{r_{12}}{c}$$

Looking into space ...



@Jeff的星空之旅

Looking into space ...

... and time

@Jeff的星空之旅

Helmholtz decomposition

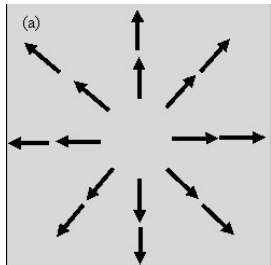
Any vector function \mathbf{F} (differentiable) who goes to zero faster than $\frac{1}{r}$ when $r \rightarrow \infty$ can be expressed as the sum of the gradient of a scalar and the curl of a vector

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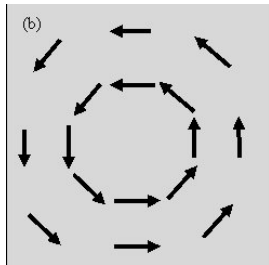
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Longitudinal component (“parallel”):

$$\mathbf{F}_{\parallel} = -\nabla s(\mathbf{r}); \quad \nabla \times \mathbf{F}_{\parallel} = 0$$



Solenoidal component (“perpendicular”):

$$\mathbf{F}_{\perp} = \nabla \times \mathbf{v}(\mathbf{r}); \quad \nabla \cdot \mathbf{F}_{\perp} = 0$$

- $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0$ means that magnetic fields are always solenoidal

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- $\nabla \times \mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = 0$ then becomes $\nabla \times \left(\mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} \right) = 0$ and one may write

$$\mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t} = -\nabla \phi(\mathbf{r}) \quad \Rightarrow \quad \mathbf{E} = -\nabla \phi(\mathbf{r}) - \frac{\partial \mathbf{A}}{\partial t}$$

Maxwell's equations: homogeneous pair

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- With the introduction of the **scalar potential** ϕ and the **vector potential** \mathbf{A} , the homogeneous pair of Maxwell's equations is automatically satisfied.

- $\nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 4\pi\rho$ becomes

$$\nabla^2 \phi + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) = -4\pi\rho$$

$$\text{or } \left[\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right] \phi + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right] = -4\pi\rho$$

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- The Lorentz transformation

$$\bar{\mathbf{r}}_{\parallel} = \gamma (\mathbf{r}_{\parallel} - \mathbf{v}t); \quad \bar{\mathbf{r}}_{\perp} = \mathbf{r}_{\perp}; \quad \bar{t} = \gamma \left(t - \frac{(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{v})}{c^2} \right)$$

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- The Lorentz transformation

$$\bar{\mathbf{r}}_{\parallel} = \gamma (\mathbf{r}_{\parallel} - \mathbf{v}t); \quad \bar{\mathbf{r}}_{\perp} = \mathbf{r}_{\perp}; \quad \bar{t} = \gamma \left(t - \frac{(\mathbf{r} \cdot \mathbf{v})}{c^2} \right)$$

is the relativistic transformation between inertial frames.

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 - ▶ **4-potential**: $A_{\mu} = (\mathbf{A}, (i/c)\phi)$
 - ▶ **4-current**: $j_{\mu} = (\mathbf{j}, ic\rho)$
- They all transform in the same way !

- We start from:

$$\begin{aligned} \left[\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right] \phi + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \left[(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right] &= -4\pi\rho \\ \left[\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2} \right] \mathbf{A} - \nabla \left[(\nabla \cdot \mathbf{A}) + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} \right] &= -\frac{4\pi}{c^2} \mathbf{j} \end{aligned}$$

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- This can be written more compactly as

$$\begin{aligned}\square^2 \phi + \frac{\partial}{\partial t} (\partial_\mu A_\mu) &= -4\pi\rho \\ \square^2 \mathbf{A} - \nabla (\partial_\mu A_\mu) &= -\frac{4\pi}{c^2} \mathbf{j}\end{aligned} ; \quad \square^2 = \partial_\mu \partial_\mu = \nabla^2 - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial t^2}$$

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- .. and finally squashed into

$$\square^2 A_\beta - \partial_\beta (\partial_\alpha A_\alpha) = -\frac{4\pi}{c^2} j_\beta$$

- $\mathbf{B} = \nabla \times \mathbf{A}$ implies that the longitudinal component \mathbf{A}_{\parallel} of the vector potential can be modified without changing \mathbf{B} , that is

$$\mathbf{A} \rightarrow \mathbf{A}' = \mathbf{A} + \nabla\chi$$

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- The electric and magnetic fields are gauge invariant.

Lorentz gauge: $\partial_\mu A_\mu = \nabla \cdot \mathbf{A} + \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} = 0$

- Maxwell's equations simplifies to

$$\square^2 A_\beta = -\frac{4\pi}{c^2} j_\beta$$

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- General solution:

$$A(\mathbf{r}_1, t) = \int \frac{\mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}_2, t_r)}{r_{12}} d^3 \mathbf{r}_2; \quad \phi(\mathbf{r}_1, t) = \int \frac{\rho(\mathbf{r}_2, t_r)}{r_{12}} d^3 \mathbf{r}_2$$

where appears retarded time

$$t_r = t - \frac{r_{12}}{c}$$

- Maxwell's equations simplifies to:

$$\begin{aligned} \nabla^2 \phi &= -4\pi\rho \\ \left(\nabla^2 \mathbf{A} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial^2 \mathbf{A}}{\partial t^2} \right) - \nabla \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial t} &= -\frac{4\pi}{c^2} \mathbf{j} \end{aligned}$$

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- Problem (?)**:
 - The theory of relativity does not allow instantaneous interactions.
- Retardation is hidden in the solution for the purely transversal vector potential

$$\mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}_1, t) = \mathbf{A}_\perp(\mathbf{r}_1, t) = \frac{4\pi}{c^2} \int \frac{\mathbf{j}_\perp(\mathbf{r}_2, t_r)}{r_{12}} d^3 \mathbf{r}_2$$

- Complete Hamiltonian

$$H = H_{\text{particles}} + H_{\text{interaction}} + H_{\text{fields}}$$

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- Fields specified:

Non-relativistic limit

$$(i\gamma_{\mu}\partial_{\mu} - mc)\psi = 0 \quad \rightarrow \quad \left(\frac{p^2}{2m} - i\frac{\partial}{\partial t}\right)\psi = 0$$

Dirac equation Schrödinger equation

- Particles (sources) specified:

Non-relativistic limit

$$\square^2 A_{\mu} - \partial_{\mu}(\partial_{\nu} A_{\nu}) = -\frac{4\pi}{c^2} j_{\mu} \quad \rightarrow \quad ???$$

Maxwell's equations

The non-relativistic limit of electrodynamics

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 & & \nabla \cdot \mathbf{B} = 0 \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{E} + \frac{\partial \mathbf{B}}{\partial t} = 0 & c \rightarrow \infty & \nabla \times \mathbf{E} = 0 \\ \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 4\pi\rho & \Rightarrow & \nabla \cdot \mathbf{E} = 4\pi\rho \\ \nabla \times \mathbf{B} - \frac{1}{c^2} \frac{\partial \mathbf{E}}{\partial t} = \frac{4\pi}{c^2} \mathbf{j} & & \nabla \times \mathbf{B} = 0 \end{array}$$

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- The Coulomb gauge bears its name because it singles out **the instantaneous Coulomb interaction**, which constitutes the proper non-relativistic limit of electrodynamics and which is the most important interaction in chemistry.
- All retardation effects as well as magnetic interactions are to be considered corrections of a perturbation series of the total interaction (in $1/c^2$).

P. A. M. Dirac, Proc. Roy. Soc. A **123** (1929) 714

Quantum Mechanics of Many-Electron Systems.

By P. A. M. DIRAC, St. John's College, Cambridge.

(Communicated by R. H. Fowler, F.R.S.—Received March 12, 1929.)

§ 1. *Introduction.*

The general theory of quantum mechanics is now almost complete, the imperfections that still remain being in connection with the exact fitting in of the theory with relativity ideas. These give rise to difficulties only when high-speed particles are involved, and are therefore of no importance in the consideration of atomic and molecular structure and ordinary chemical reactions, in which it is, indeed, usually sufficiently accurate if one neglects relativity variation of mass with velocity and assumes only Coulomb forces between the various electrons and atomic nuclei. The underlying physical laws necessary for the mathematical theory of a large part of physics and the whole of chemistry are thus completely known, and the difficulty is only that the exact application of these laws leads to equations much too complicated to be soluble. It therefore becomes desirable that approximate practical methods of applying quantum mechanics should be developed, which can lead to an explanation of the main features of complex atomic systems without too much computation.

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W. Heisenberg: *The Physical principles of the quantum theory* (1930)

§ 8. THE WAVE CONCEPT FOR MATTER AND RADIATION: CLASSICAL THEORY

The classical wave theory is that of the de Broglie waves for matter and of electromagnetic waves for radiation. This section will treat primarily those waves which are associated with the electron (the proton waves can be treated in an entirely similar manner), though light waves will also be considered briefly. No attempt will be made to include relativistic effects, and it is then logical to treat only electrostatic forces and to neglect magnetic and retardational phenomena.

Scalar relativistic effects in chemistry

- The Lorentz factor

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}; \quad \begin{cases} v & \text{- speed of particle} \\ c & \text{- speed of light} \end{cases}$$

is a diagnostic of relativistic effects.

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- The speed of light is very large !

$$c = 299,792,458 \text{ m/s} = 1079252848.8 \text{ km/h}$$

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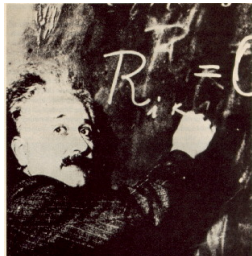
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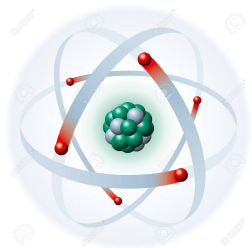
- So what goes fast in an atom or a molecule ?

Scalar-relativistic effects: hydrogen-like atoms

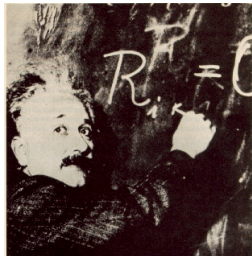


- In atomic units the average speed of the 1s electron is equal to the nuclear charge

$$v_{1s} = Z \text{ a.u.} \quad \text{and} \quad c = 137.0359998 \text{ a.u.}$$



Scalar-relativistic effects: hydrogen-like atoms

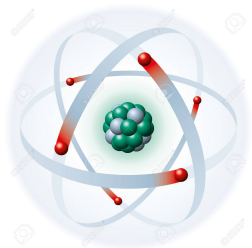


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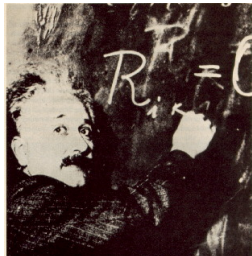
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- The relativistic mass increase of the 1s electron is thus determined by the nuclear charge

$$m = \gamma m_e = \frac{m_e}{\sqrt{1 - Z^2/c^2}}$$



Scalar-relativistic effects: hydrogen-like atoms



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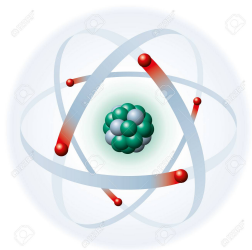
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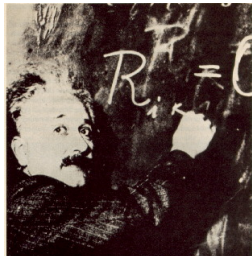
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$$a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2}{m}$$



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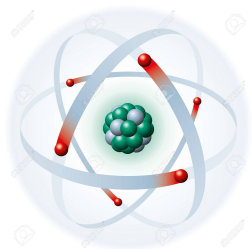
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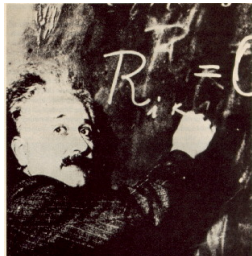
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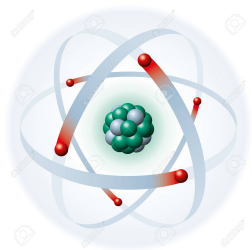
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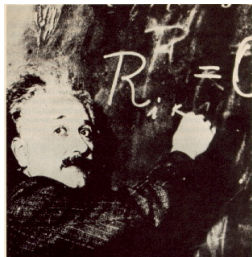
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▶ Au^{78+} : $Z/c = 58\%$



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$$v_{1s} = Z \text{ a.u.} \quad \text{and} \quad c = 137.0359998 \text{ a.u.}$$

- The relativistic mass increase of the 1s electron is thus determined by the nuclear charge

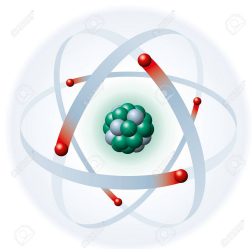
$$m = \gamma m_e = \frac{m_e}{\sqrt{1 - Z^2/c^2}}$$

- The Bohr radius is inversely proportional to electron mass

$$a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0\hbar^2}{m}$$

- Relativity will *contract* orbitals of one-electron atoms, e.g.

- ▶ Au⁷⁸⁺: $Z/c = 58\%$
- ▶ *18% relativistic contraction of the 1s orbital*



- The effect of the other electrons is effectively to screen the nuclear charge:

Neutral atom: Z electrons



We pull off an electron:



+e



-e

Scalar-relativistic effects: many-electron atoms

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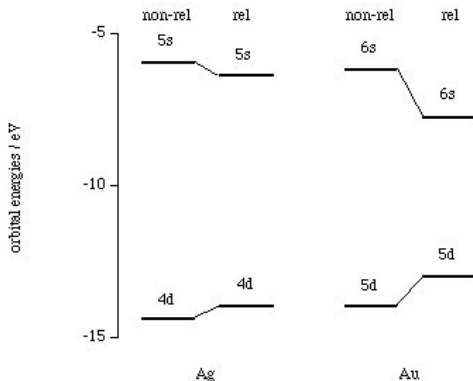
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 - ▶ d, f orbitals : expansion

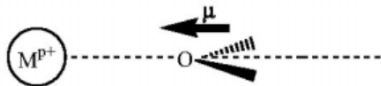
The colour of gold



The colours of silver and gold can be traced back to the energy difference between the $(n-1)d$ and ns orbitals in the atom. For silver this transition is in the ultraviolet, giving the metallic luster. For gold it is in the visible, but only when relativistic effects are included.

Metal-water interaction

C. Gourlaouen, J.-P. Piquemal, T. Saue and O. Parisel, J. Comp. Chem. 27 (2006) 142

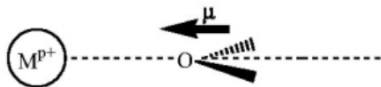


$[Ag(H_2O)]^+$:
electrostatic interaction

bonding dominated by charge-dipole
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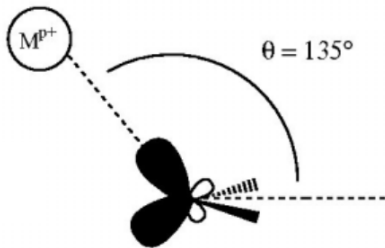
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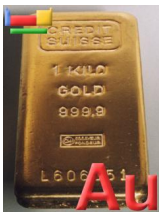


$[Au(H_2O)]^+$:
orbital interaction

relativistic stabilisation of the Au 6s orbital
induces charge transfer and covalent bonding

Two contrasting neighbours: gold and mercury

L. J. Norrby, J. Chem. Ed. 68 (1991) 110



1064°C
12.5 kJ/mol
9.29 J/Kmol
19.32 g/cm³
426 kS/m
dimer
[Xe]4f¹⁴5d¹⁰6s¹
pseudo halogen

Mp.
 ΔH_{fus}
 ΔS_{fus}
 ρ
Conductivity
Gas phase



-39°C
2.29 kJ/mol
9.81 J/Kmol
13.53 g/cm³
10.4 kS/m
monomer
[Xe]4f¹⁴5d¹⁰6s²
pseudo noble gas

The low-temperature melting of mercury is a relativistic effect

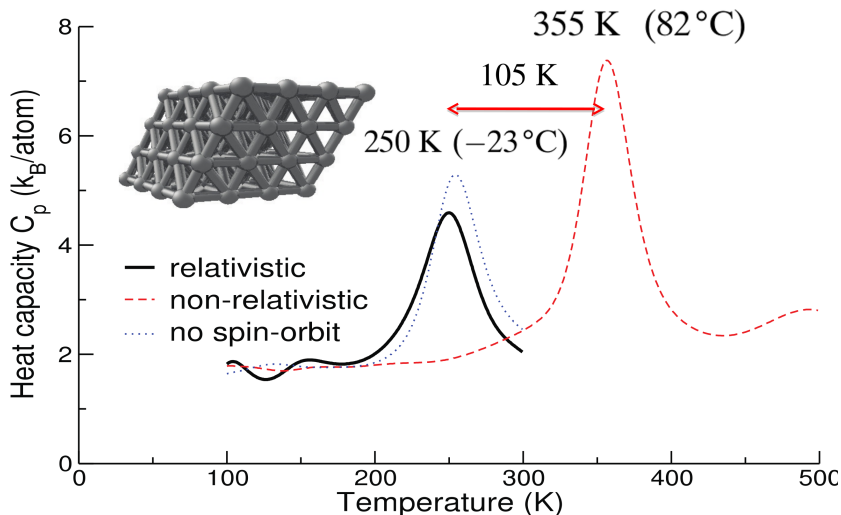
Florent Calvo, Elke Pahl, Michael Wormit and Peter Schwerdtfeger, *Ang. Chemie. Int. Ed.* 52 (2013) 7583

Mercury melts at 234.32 K (-38.83 °C)

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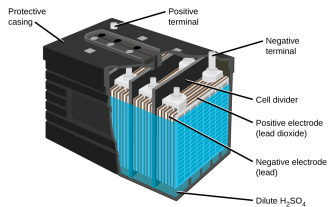
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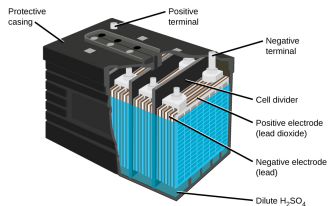
Cars start due to relativity

R. Ahuja, A. Blomqvist, P. Pykkö and P. Zaleski-Eggjerd, Phys. Rev. Lett. 106 (2011) 018301



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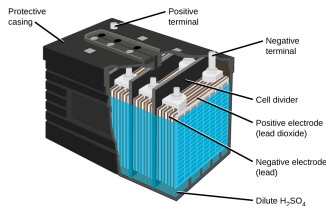
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- Cathode reaction: $\text{Pb(s)} + \text{HSO}_4^-(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{PbSO}_4(\text{s}) + \text{H}^+(\text{aq}) + 2\text{e}^-$
- Anode reaction: $\text{PbO}_2(\text{s}) + \text{HSO}_4^-(\text{aq}) + 3\text{H}^+(\text{aq}) + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{PbSO}_4(\text{s}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O(l)}$
- Total reaction: $\text{Pb(s)} + \text{PbO}_2(\text{s}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{aq}) \rightarrow 2\text{PbSO}_4(\text{s}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O(l)}$
- Cell potential: $E_{\text{cell}}^0 = -\frac{\Delta G^0}{nF} \approx -\frac{\Delta H(0K)}{nF}$

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non-relativistic calculation: +0.39 V

relativistic calculation: +2.13 V

experiment: +2.11 V

Spin-orbit interaction

Spin-orbit interaction

a much misunderstood interaction !

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$$h^{\text{so}} = \frac{1}{2m^2c^2} \mathbf{s} \cdot [(\nabla V) \times \mathbf{p}] \quad \begin{array}{l} V = -\frac{Z}{r} \\ \rightarrow \end{array} \quad \frac{Z}{2m^2c^2r^3} \mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{l}$$

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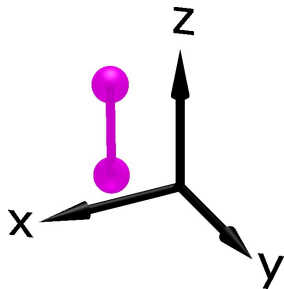
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 - ▶ The spin-orbit term describes the interaction of the spin of the electron with this magnetic field due to the relative motion of other charges.
- This operator **couple**s the degrees of freedom associated with spin and space and therefore makes it impossible to treat spin and spatial symmetry separately.

Spin-orbit interaction couples spin and space.

Example: I_2^+ (open-shell)

C. van Wüllen, J. Comput. Chem. 23 (2002) 779

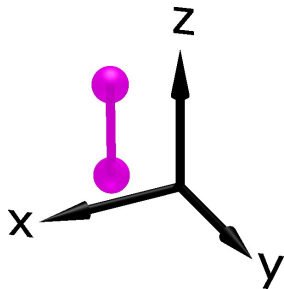


Energy: $\equiv 0 E_h$

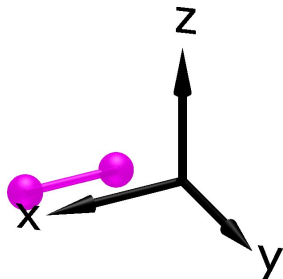
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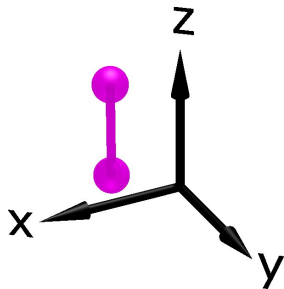


Energy: $= +0.001469972 E_h$

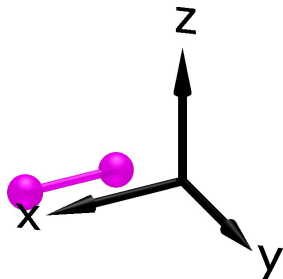
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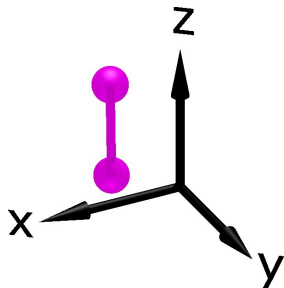
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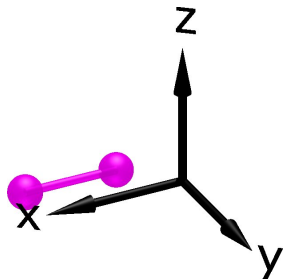
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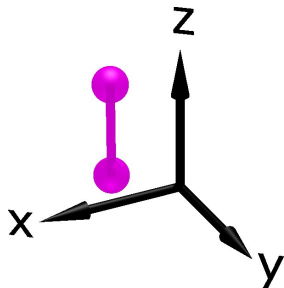
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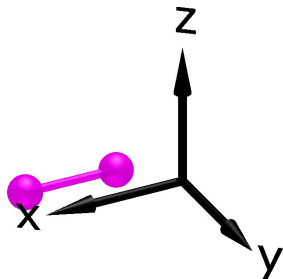
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- A solution is to use *non-collinear* magnetization: $s = |\mathbf{m}|$

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$$(l, m_l) \cup (s, m_s)$$

Spin-orbit interaction in atoms

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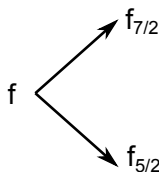
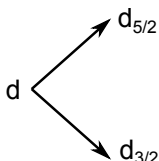
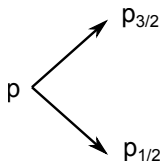
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- Orbitals are accordingly characterized by quantum numbers j and m_j

$$\hat{j}^2 |j, m_j\rangle = \hbar^2 j(j+1) |j, m_j\rangle; \quad \hat{j}_z |j, m_j\rangle = \hbar m_j |j, m_j\rangle$$



Example: the oxygen atom

- Without spin-orbit coupling atomic electronic states are specified as ^{2S+1}L , with the notation S, P, D, \dots for $L = 0, 1, 2, \dots$

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Term	L	S	Possible J values
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- The actual energy levels are

Term	J	Level (cm^{-1})
3P	2	0.000
	1	158.265
	0	226.977
1D	2	15867.862
1S	0	33792.583

<http://physics.nist.gov/PhysRefData/Handbook/Tables/oxygentable1.htm>

Spin-orbit splitting in group 8

Term	J	Oxygen	Sulfur	Selenium	Tellurium	Polonium
3P	2	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.00	0.00
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$$\Delta E(J, J') = E_{so}(LSJ) - E_{so}(LSJ') = \frac{1}{2}\zeta(^{2S+1}L) [J(J+1) - J'(J'+1)]$$

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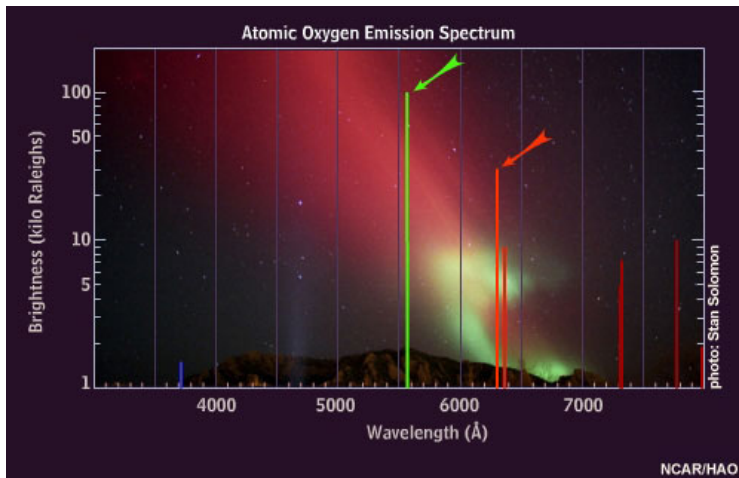
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- For heavier atoms the interval rule breaks down because of coupling between different LS terms as well as change in the spatial extent of radial parts between spin-orbit components.

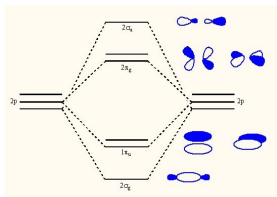
Atomic oxygen emissions in northern lights



	Transition	Wavelength(Å)	Type	Lifetime(s)
Green line	$^1S_0 \rightarrow ^1D_2$	5577	E2	0.75
Red line	$^1D_2 \rightarrow ^3P_2$	6300	M1	110

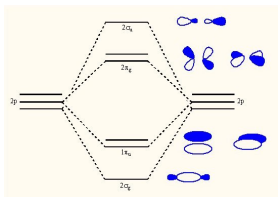
Molecular oxygen: the spinfree picture

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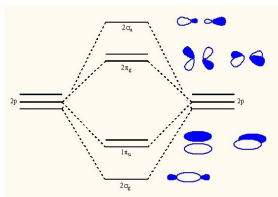
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- Ground-state electron configuration: $[\text{core}]2\sigma_g^2 1\pi_u^4 2\pi_g^2 \Rightarrow \binom{4}{2} = 6$ micro-states

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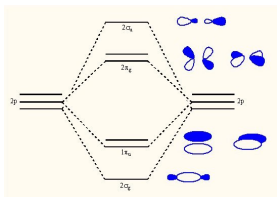
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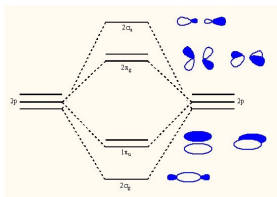
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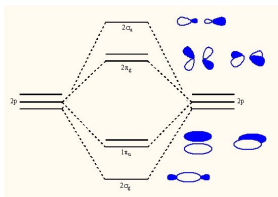
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 - ▶ We make the following table:

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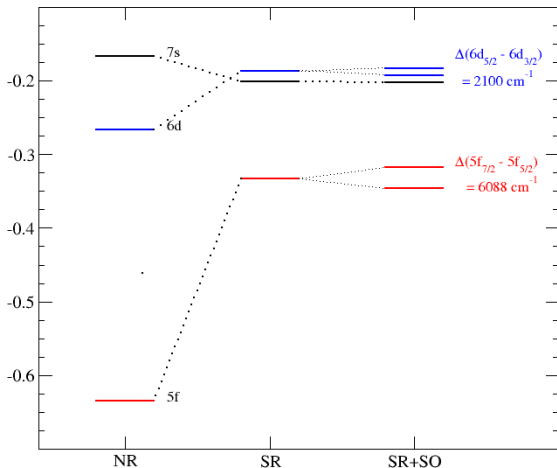
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Relativistic effects: valence orbital energies (E_h) of the uranium atom



- **Scalar relativistic effects (SR):** relativistic mass increase of the electron
- **Spin-orbit effects (SO):** the interaction of the electron spin with the magnetic field induced by charges (e.g. nuclei and other electrons) in relative motion

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- In the following we shall, however, first look at Hamiltonians derived directly from the Dirac equation.



Wolfgang Pauli (1900-1958)



Throughout his life, Pauli was preoccupied with the question of why the fine structure constant, a dimensionless fundamental constant, has a value nearly equal to $1/137$.



In 1958, Pauli fell ill with pancreatic cancer. When his last assistant, Charles Enz, visited him at the Rotkreuz hospital in Zurich, Pauli asked him: “Did you see the room number?” It was number 137. Pauli died in that room on December 15, 1958.

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The Old and the New Testament

- Handbuch der Physik (1926): The Old Testament
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The Old and the New Testament

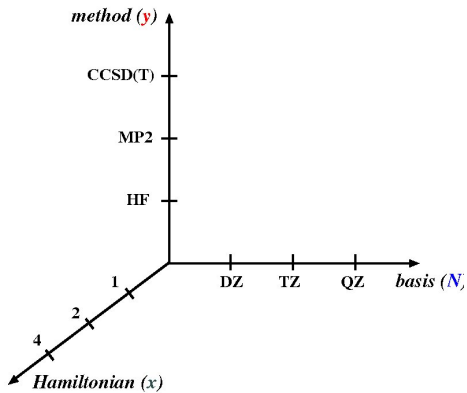
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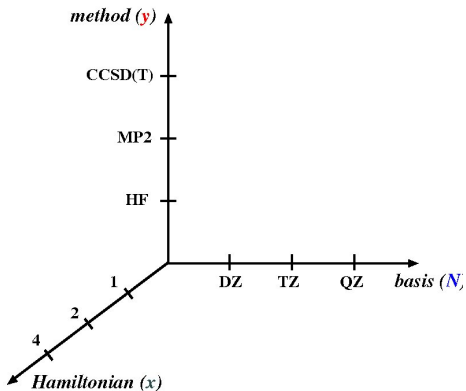


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Theoretical model chemistries



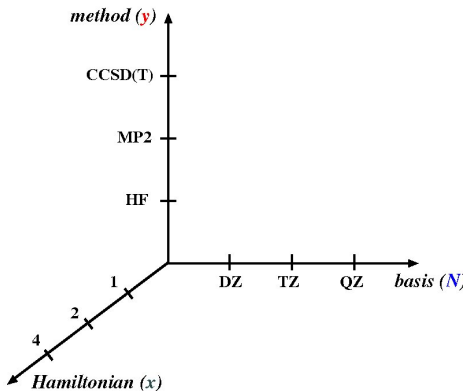
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The electronic Hamiltonian, relativistic or not, has the same generic form

$$\hat{H} = V_{NN} + \sum_i \hat{h}(i) + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{i \neq j} \hat{g}(i, j); \quad V_{NN} = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{K \neq L} \frac{Z_K Z_L}{R_{KL}}$$

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Computational cost: $\propto N^y$

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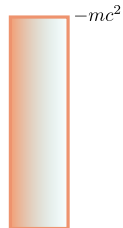
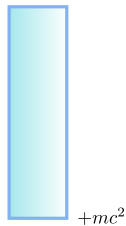
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- Wave equation for non-relativistic free particle:

$$E = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 = \frac{p^2}{2m}; \quad \rightarrow i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \psi = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} \psi = \hat{h}_0 \psi$$

- Relativistic free-particle

$$E = \pm \sqrt{m^2 c^4 + c^2 p^2} \in \langle -\infty, -mc^2 | \cup | +mc^2, +\infty \rangle$$

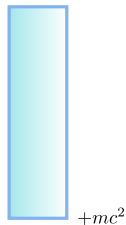


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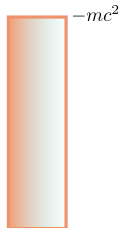
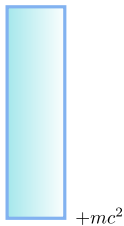
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- Connecting to the non-relativistic expression

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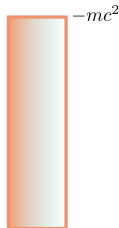
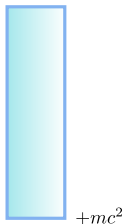
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- The first term explodes in the non-relativistic limit ($c \rightarrow \infty$), but can be avoided by aligning the relativistic energy scale with the non-relativistic one

$$E \rightarrow E - mc^2$$

(only works for positive-energy branch)



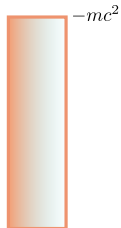
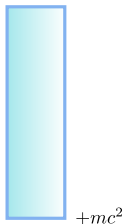
Dirac equation for a relativistic free particle

- Dirac equation

$$\left(h_0 - i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \psi = 0$$

with relativistic free-particle Hamiltonian

$$\hat{h}_0 = \beta mc^2 + c(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} +mc^2 & c(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}) \\ c(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}) & -mc^2 \end{bmatrix}$$



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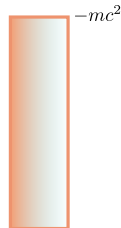
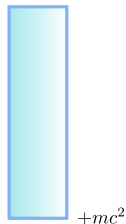
$$\left(h_0 - i \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \right) \psi = 0$$

with relativistic free-particle Hamiltonian

$$\hat{h}_0 = \beta mc^2 + c(\boldsymbol{\alpha} \cdot \mathbf{p}) = \begin{bmatrix} +mc^2 & c(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}) \\ c(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}) & -mc^2 \end{bmatrix}$$

- The solutions are 4-component vector functions

$$\psi = \begin{bmatrix} \psi^L \\ \psi^S \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \psi^{L\alpha} \\ \psi^{L\beta} \\ \psi^{S\alpha} \\ \psi^{S\beta} \end{bmatrix}$$



Dirac equation for a relativistic free particle

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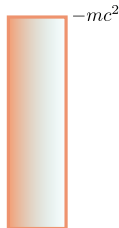
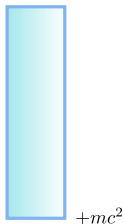
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- Why four components ?



Adding electromagnetic fields: The principle of minimal electromagnetic coupling

(M. Gell-Mann, Nuovo Cimento Suppl. 4 (1956) 848)

- The Hamiltonian of a particle interacting with external fields is obtained from the free-particle Hamiltonian through the substitutions:

$$p_{\mu} \rightarrow p_{\mu} - qA_{\mu} \quad \Rightarrow \quad \text{Electron: } q = -e \quad \Rightarrow$$
$$\mathbf{p} \rightarrow \mathbf{p} + e\mathbf{A}$$
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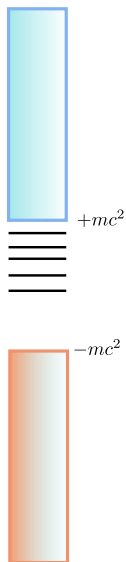
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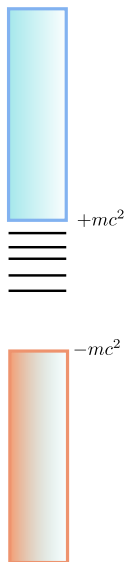
- Energy shift: $\beta \rightarrow \beta' - mc^2 \Rightarrow E \rightarrow E' = E - mc^2$

Negative-energy solutions



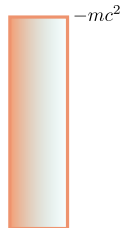
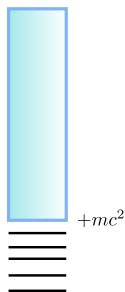
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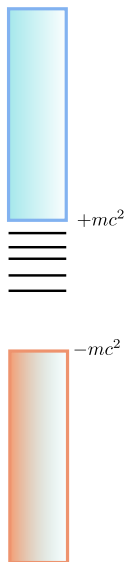
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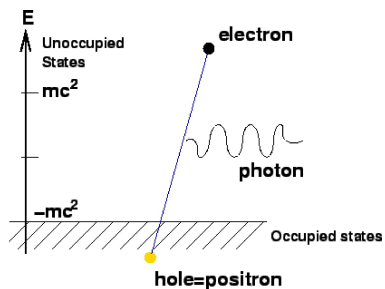
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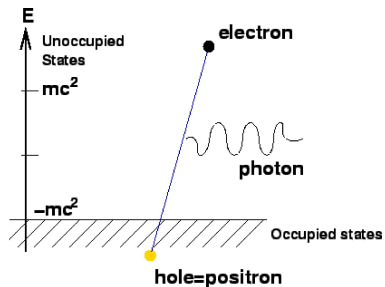
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 - ▶ The electron descending down the negative-energy band would cause an ultraviolet catastrophe.

Electron-positron pair creation



The solution proposed by Dirac

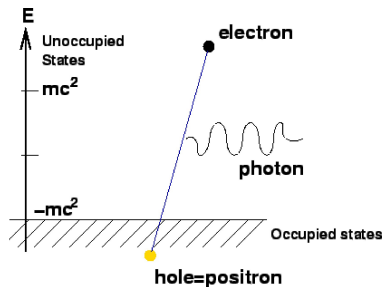
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- All negative-energy solutions are occupied.

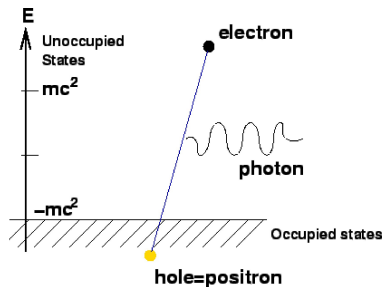
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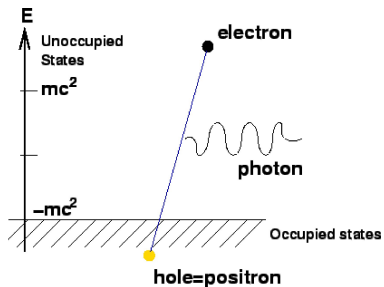
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- The excitation of an electron from the negative-energy band leaves a hole of positive charge, corresponding to the creation of an electron-positron pair.

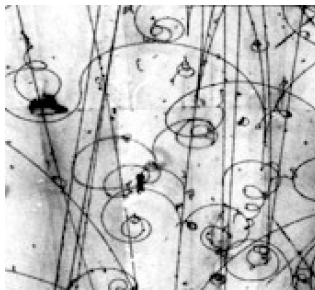
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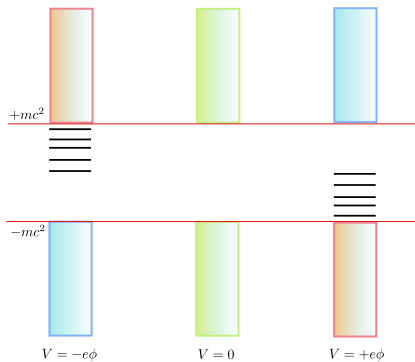
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The theory of Dirac is confirmed in 1932 when the US physicist Carl Anderson discovered the positron.

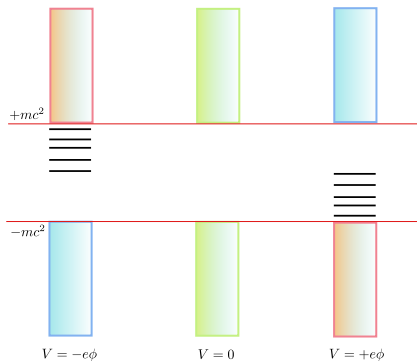


Charge conjugation symmetry



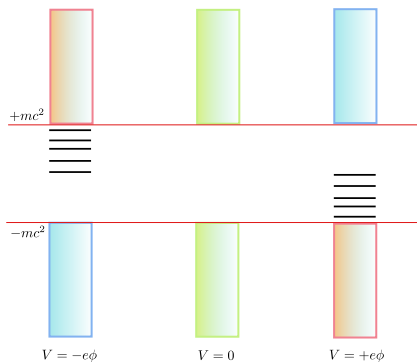
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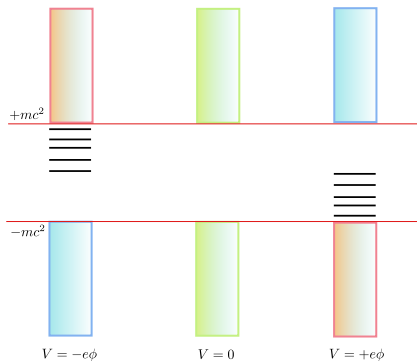
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- For $q = -e$, all solutions, of both positive and negative energy, are *electronic*.
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- Solutions of opposite charge are related by **charge conjugation symmetry**.

- Heisenberg's equation:

$$\frac{d\langle\Psi|\hat{A}|\Psi\rangle}{dt} = -i\langle\Psi|[\hat{A}, \hat{H}]|\Psi\rangle + \langle\Psi|\frac{\partial\hat{A}}{\partial t}|\Psi\rangle$$

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- Free particle : conservation of (linear) momentum

$$[\mathbf{p}, \hat{h}_0^{NR}] = 0 = [\mathbf{p}, \hat{h}_0^R]$$

- Non-relativistic free particle:

$$\left[\boldsymbol{\ell}, \hat{h}_0^{NR} \right] = \frac{i}{m} (\mathbf{p} \times \mathbf{p}) = 0$$

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- The economy of Nature's laws.

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$$(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{A})(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{B}) = \mathbf{A} \cdot \mathbf{B} + i\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot (\mathbf{A} \times \mathbf{B})$$

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- Is spin a relativistic effect ?

- The coupling of particles and fields is relativistic

$$\langle \hat{h}_{int} \rangle = \int [\rho(\mathbf{r}, t)\phi(\mathbf{r}, t) - \mathbf{j}(\mathbf{r}, t) \cdot \mathbf{A}(\mathbf{r}, t)] d^3\mathbf{r} = - \int j_{\mu} A_{\mu} d^3\mathbf{r}$$

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- .. and allows us to extract charge and current density

$$\rho^R = \frac{\delta \langle \hat{h}_{int} \rangle}{\delta \phi} = \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \underbrace{\{-e\mathbf{l}_4\}}_{\text{density operator}} \psi(\mathbf{r}); \quad \mathbf{j}^R = -\frac{\delta \langle \hat{h}_{int} \rangle}{\delta \mathbf{A}} = \psi^\dagger(\mathbf{r}) \underbrace{\{-e\mathbf{c}\boldsymbol{\alpha}\}}_{\text{current operator}} \psi(\mathbf{r})$$

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- ▶ The expression for current density is clearly more complicated.

- Consider the non-relativistic and relativistic velocity operators obtained by the Heisenberg equation of motion

$$\frac{d\mathbf{r}}{dt} = -i \left[\mathbf{r}, \hat{h}^{\text{NR}} \right] = -i \left[\mathbf{r}, \frac{\hat{\mathbf{p}}^2}{2m} \right] = \frac{\hat{\mathbf{p}}}{m}$$

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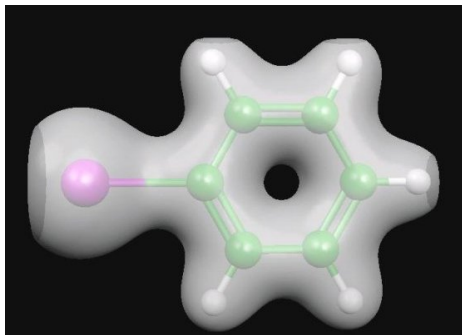
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- The curious form of the relativistic velocity operator is due to *Zitterbewegung*, to be explained later.

(Number) density of iodobenzene

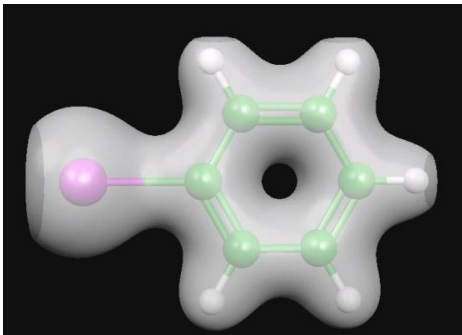
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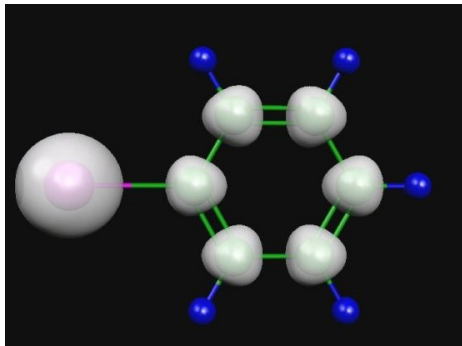
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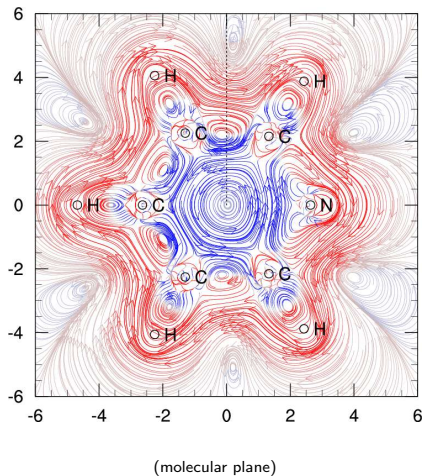


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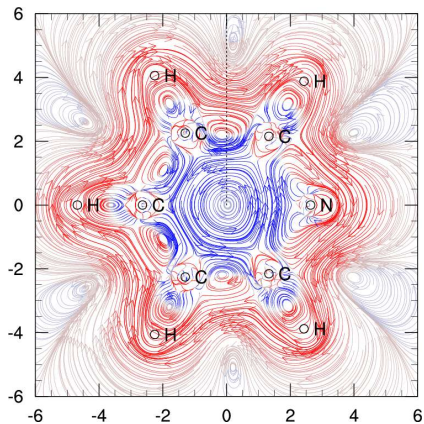


(isosurface 0.0001)

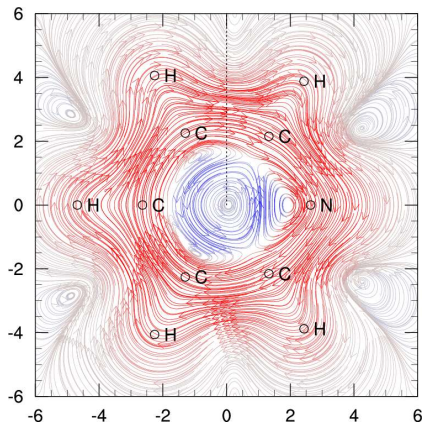
(Number) density of iodobenzene



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- Quantification and truncation

$$\hat{g}(1,2) = \frac{1}{r_{12}} - \underbrace{\left[\underbrace{\frac{c\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i \cdot c\boldsymbol{\alpha}_j}{c^2 r_{12}}}_{\text{Gaunt}} + \frac{(c\boldsymbol{\alpha}_1 \cdot \nabla_1)(c\boldsymbol{\alpha}_2 \cdot \nabla_2) r_{12}}{2c^2} \right]}_{\text{Breit}} + O(c^{-2})$$

4-component relativistic Hamiltonian

- Generic form of electronic Hamiltonian:

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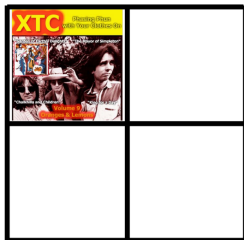
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$$\begin{aligned} \hat{g}(i, j) &= \frac{1}{r_{ij}} \\ &- \frac{c\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i \cdot c\boldsymbol{\alpha}_j}{c^2 r_{ij}} - \frac{(c\boldsymbol{\alpha}_i \cdot \nabla_i)(c\boldsymbol{\alpha}_j \cdot \nabla_j) r_{ij}}{2c^2} \\ &+ \dots \end{aligned}$$

2-component relativistic Hamiltonians



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- Starting from the Dirac equation in a molecular field

$$\begin{bmatrix} V & c(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}) \\ c(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}) & V - 2mc^2 \end{bmatrix} \begin{bmatrix} \psi^L \\ \psi^S \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} \psi^L \\ \psi^S \end{bmatrix} E$$

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L. L. Foldy, S. A. Wouthuysen, Phys. Rev. **78** (1950) 29

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- The transformation can be expressed as

J.-L. Heully, I. Lindgren, E. Lindroth, A.-M. Mårtensson-Pendrill, Phys. Rev. A **33** (1986) 4426;

W. Kutzelnigg in *Relativistic Electronic Structure Theory*. Part 1. Fundamentals, (Ed.: P. Schwerdtfeger), Elsevier, Amsterdam, 2002, p. 66

$$U = W_1 W_2; \quad W_1 = \begin{bmatrix} 1 & -R^\dagger \\ R & 1 \end{bmatrix}; \quad W_2 = \begin{bmatrix} \Omega_+ & 0 \\ 0 & \Omega_- \end{bmatrix}; \quad \begin{aligned} \Omega_+ &= (1 + R^\dagger R)^{-1/2} \\ \Omega_- &= (1 + RR^\dagger)^{-1/2} \end{aligned}$$

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- The 2-component positive-energy solutions take the form

$$\psi_+ = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + R^\dagger R}} (\psi^L + R^\dagger \psi^S) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 + R^\dagger R}} (\psi^L + R^\dagger R \psi^L) = \sqrt{1 + R^\dagger R} \psi^L$$

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- ▶ Using the approximate decoupling (regular approximation)

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without/with renormalization gives the **ZORA/IORA Hamiltonians**.

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- Let us investigate the physics it contains !

- Relativistic mass correction

$$E = mc^2 \sqrt{1 + \frac{p^2}{m^2 c^2}} = \underbrace{mc^2}_{\text{rest mass}} + \underbrace{\frac{p^2}{2m} - \frac{p^4}{8m^3 c^4} + \dots}_{\text{kinetic energy}}$$

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 - ▶ The Pauli-Hamiltonian can not be used in variational calculations.

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- ▶ We perform a Taylor expansion

$$\phi(\mathbf{r} + \delta) = \phi(\mathbf{r}) + (\delta \cdot \nabla) \phi(\mathbf{r}) + \frac{1}{2} (\delta \cdot \nabla)^2 \phi(\mathbf{r}) + \dots$$

- We consider the time average of the interaction

$$\begin{aligned} -e \langle \phi(\mathbf{r} + \boldsymbol{\delta}) \rangle_T &= -e\phi(\mathbf{r}) - e \langle (\boldsymbol{\delta} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla}) \rangle_T \phi(\mathbf{r}) - \frac{1}{2} e \langle (\boldsymbol{\delta} \cdot \boldsymbol{\nabla})^2 \rangle_T \phi(\mathbf{r}) + \dots \\ &= -e\phi(\mathbf{r}) - e \frac{\langle \delta^2 \rangle_T}{6} \nabla^2 \phi(\mathbf{r}) + \end{aligned}$$

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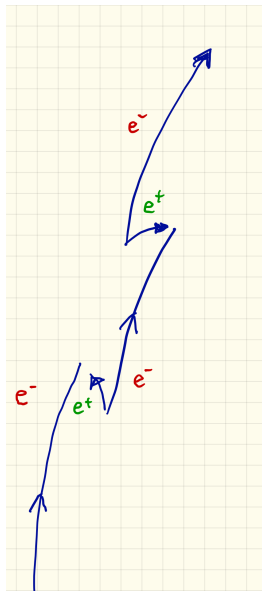
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- ▶ which gives the Darwin term

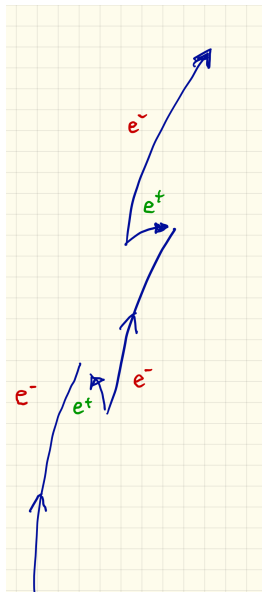
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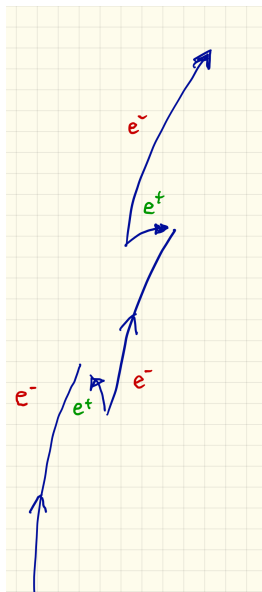
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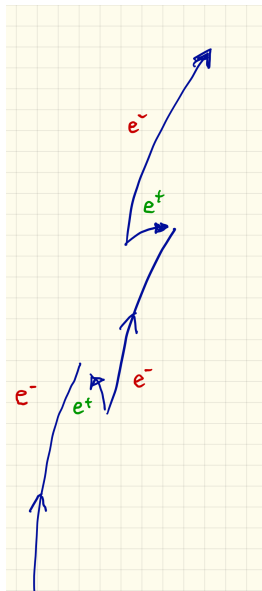
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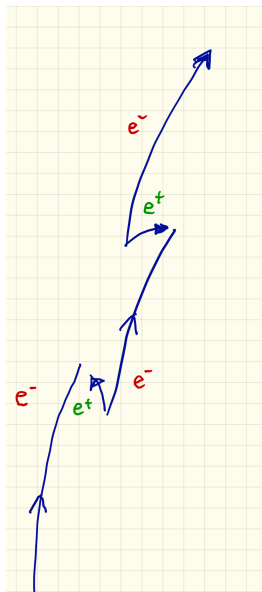
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- In this time a particle can move a maximum distance of

$$\Delta x \approx \frac{1}{2mc} \quad !$$

- Spin-orbit interaction term of the Pauli Hamiltonian

$$h^{\text{so}} = \frac{1}{2m^2c^2} \mathbf{s} \cdot [(\nabla V) \times \mathbf{p}] \quad \begin{array}{l} V = -\frac{Z}{r} \\ \rightarrow \frac{Z}{2m^2c^2r^3} \mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{l} \end{array}$$

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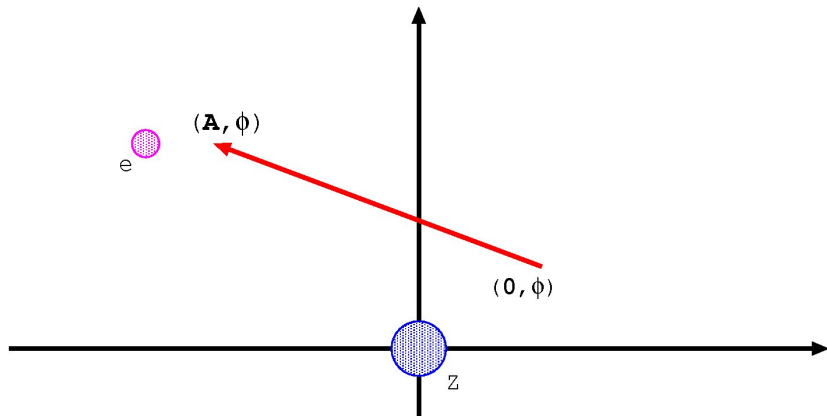
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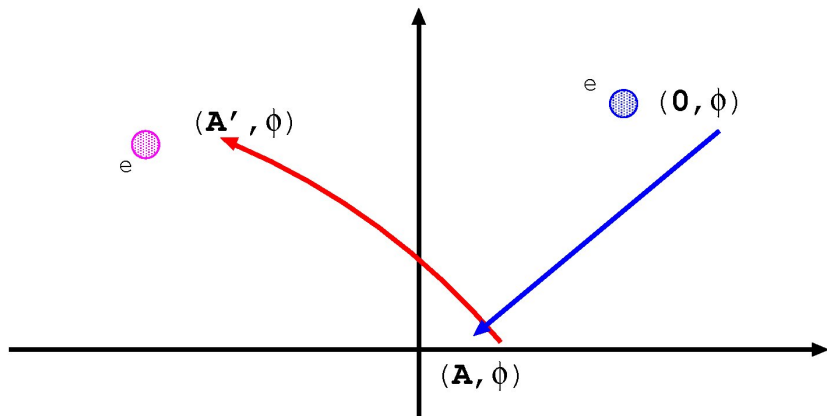
- Where is the spin-orbit interaction operator ($\sim \mathbf{s} \cdot \mathbf{l}$) ???
 - ▶ There is no explicit operator since the electronic Hamiltonian is formulated in the nuclear frame.

Spin-orbit interaction is magnetic induction



By insisting on Coulomb gauge $\phi = \frac{Z}{r}$ in all reference frames.

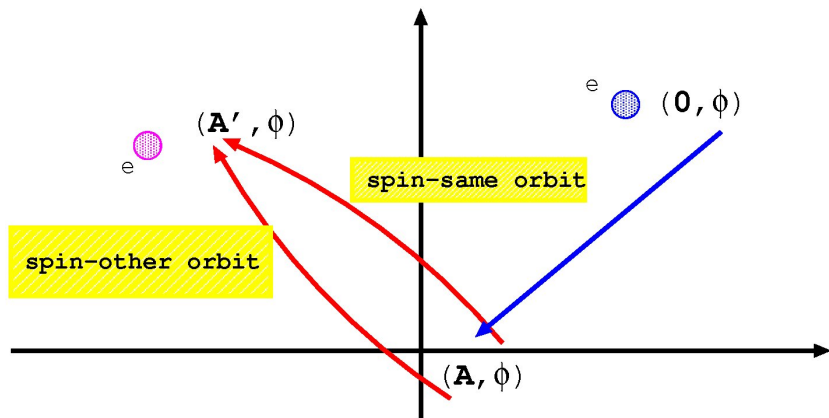
Spin-orbit interaction with other electrons



By insisting on Coulomb gauge $\phi = \frac{1}{r_{12}}$ in all reference frames.

Spin-same-orbit (SSO) interaction arises from the Coulomb term.

Spin-orbit interaction with other electrons



By insisting on Coulomb gauge $\phi = \frac{1}{r_{12}}$ in all reference frames.

Spin-other-orbit (SOO) interaction arises from the Gaunt term.

The spin-orbit interaction with nuclei is of type spin-own orbit in the Born-Oppenheimer approximation.

- The ZORA Hamiltonian is based on an approximative decoupling of the large and small components

$$R = \frac{c}{2mc^2 - V} \left[1 + \frac{E}{2mc^2 - V} \right]^{-1} (\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p}) \sim \frac{c}{2mc^2 - V} (\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \mathbf{p})$$

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[renormalization terms ignored]:

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 - ▶ Usually fixed by approximating the potential in the denominator by a superposition of atomic potentials.

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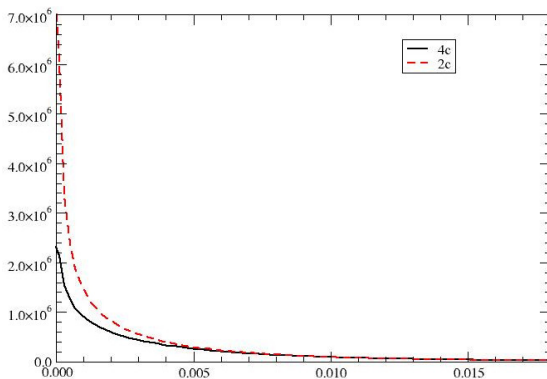
- ▶ may be larger than the relativistic effects !

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An example: the electron density

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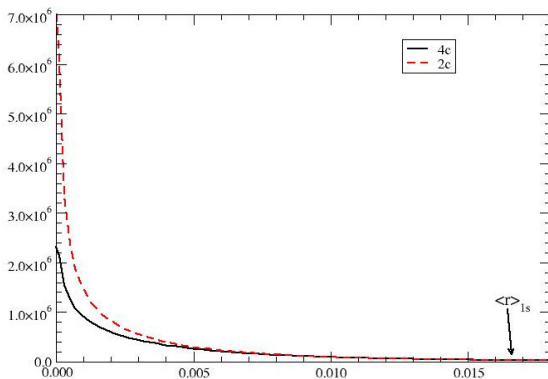


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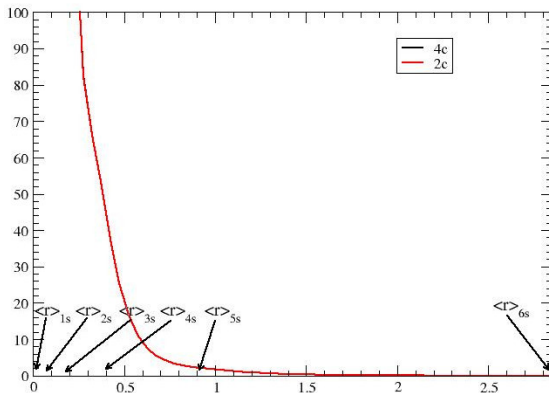
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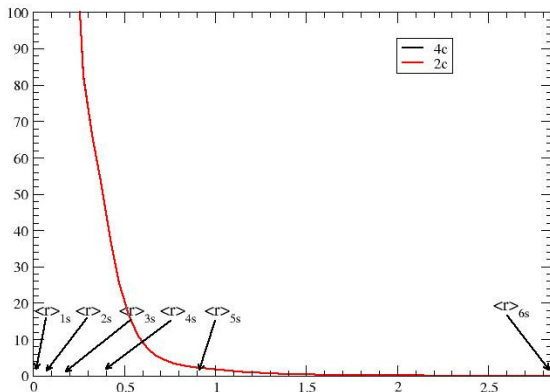
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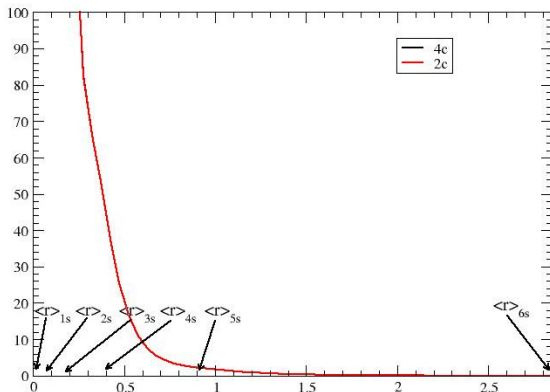
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An example: the electron density

- On a “chemical” scale the difference is no longer visible:



- However, many molecular properties probe the electron density near nuclei, providing local information with great sensitivity to the chemical environment,
 - for instance electric field gradients at nuclei, NMR parameters, molecular gradients and Mössbauer isomer shifts.

Numerical example: the uranium atom

	DCG	DC	X2C(AMFI)	DKH2	DKH1	ZORA	scZORA
$1s_{1/2}$	-4262.599	-4281.813	-4272.178	-4253.946	-4568.402	-4890.081	-4267.639
$2s_{1/2}$	-804.292	-806.637	-804.996	-802.931	-840.315	-829.339	-804.400
$2p_{1/2}$	-773.067	-777.035	-775.649	-774.270	-791.143	-799.722	-775.573
$2p_{3/2}$	-633.274	-635.783	-635.010	-635.027	-634.978	-651.542	-634.900
$3s_{1/2}$	-206.265	-206.730	-206.350	-205.894	-214.216	-208.368	-206.214
$3p_{1/2}$	-192.463	-193.251	-192.949	-192.624	-196.579	-194.945	-192.940
$3p_{3/2}$	-159.897	-160.378	-160.206	-160.220	-160.067	-161.622	-160.178
$3d_{3/2}$	-138.721	-139.070	-138.997	-139.024	-138.568	-140.214	-138.982
$3d_{5/2}$	-132.183	-132.426	-132.367	-132.393	-131.938	-133.477	-132.350
$4s_{1/2}$	-54.250	-54.355	-54.259	-54.140	-56.332	-54.425	-54.223
$4p_{1/2}$	-48.048	-48.232	-48.161	-48.077	-49.085	-48.334	-48.159
$4p_{3/2}$	-39.454	-39.554	-39.515	-39.522	-39.437	-39.633	-39.508
$4d_{3/2}$	-29.688	-29.744	-29.734	-29.743	-29.590	-29.817	-29.730
$4d_{5/2}$	-28.100	-28.130	-28.123	-28.132	-27.980	-28.197	-28.119
$4f_{5/2}$	-15.207	-15.202	-15.211	-15.220	-15.089	-15.247	-15.210
$4f_{7/2}$	-14.802	-14.786	-14.795	-14.803	-14.676	-14.828	-14.792

Numerical example: the uranium atom

	DCG	DC	X2C(AMFI)	DKH2	DKH1	ZORA	scZORA
5s _{1/2}	-12.582	-12.603	-12.582	-12.553	-13.081	-12.587	-12.573
5p _{1/2}	-10.098	-10.136	-10.122	-10.103	-10.320	-10.133	-10.122
5p _{3/2}	-8.077	-8.095	-8.088	-8.091	-8.049	-8.094	-8.087
5d _{3/2}	-4.347	-4.352	-4.353	-4.356	-4.305	-4.356	-4.353
5d _{5/2}	-4.040	-4.041	-4.042	-4.045	-3.995	-4.044	-4.041
5f _{5/2}	-0.350	-0.346	-0.349	-0.350	-0.321	-0.349	-0.349
5f _{7/2}	-0.323	-0.318	-0.321	-0.322	-0.294	-0.321	-0.321
6s _{1/2}	-2.135	-2.139	-2.135	-2.130	-2.234	-2.134	-2.133
6p _{1/2}	-1.338	-1.344	-1.342	-1.339	-1.371	-1.343	-1.342
6p _{3/2}	-0.983	-0.985	-0.984	-0.985	-0.968	-0.984	-0.984
6d _{3/2}	-0.193	-0.193	-0.193	-0.194	-0.181	-0.193	-0.193
6d _{5/2}	-0.183	-0.183	-0.184	-0.184	-0.173	-0.184	-0.184
7s _{1/2}	-0.202	-0.202	-0.202	-0.202	-0.211	-0.202	-0.202

The uranium atom: spin-orbit splittings

SO	DCG	DC	X2C(AMFI)	DKH2	DKH1	ZORA	scZORA
2p	139.793	141.252	140.638	139.244	156.165	148.179	140.672
3p	32.565	32.874	32.743	32.404	36.512	33.324	32.762
3d	6.538	6.644	6.630	6.631	6.631	6.737	6.632
4p	8.594	8.678	8.645	8.555	9.648	8.701	8.651
4d	1.588	1.614	1.611	1.611	1.611	1.620	1.612
4f	2.021	2.041	2.034	2.012	2.271	2.038	2.035
5p	0.307	0.312	0.311	0.311	0.310	0.312	0.312
5d	0.307	0.312	0.311	0.311	0.310	0.312	0.312
5f	0.027	0.028	0.028	0.028	0.027	0.028	0.028
6p	0.797	0.795	0.793	0.790	0.862	0.791	0.791
6d	0.009	0.010	0.010	0.010	0.008	0.010	0.010

Basis set considerations



Villa Casale, Sicily

- Hydrogen atom (bound solutions):

$$\psi_{nlm}(\mathbf{r}) = R_{nl}(r) Y_{\ell m}(\theta, \phi); \quad R_{nl}(r) = \mathcal{N}_{n\ell} \rho^\ell e^{-\rho/2} L_{n-\ell-1}^{2\ell+1}(\rho); \quad \rho = \frac{2r}{na_0}$$

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- Cartesian GTOs:

$$\chi_{ijk}^{GTO}(\mathbf{r}) = \mathcal{N} x^i y^j z^k \exp[-\alpha r^2]; \quad i + j + k = \ell$$

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- What about relativistic atomic solutions ?

The 2-component relativistic case

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$$\psi_{njm_j}(\mathbf{r}) = R_{nj}(r) \chi_{j,m_j}(\theta, \phi); \quad \begin{cases} \hat{j}^2 \chi_{j,m_j} & = j(j+1) \chi_{j,m_j} \\ \hat{j}_z \chi_{j,m_j} & = m_j \chi_{j,m_j} \end{cases}$$

where χ_{j,m_j} are 2-component angular functions.

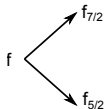
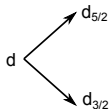
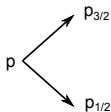
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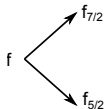
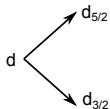
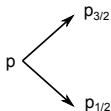
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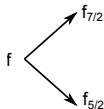
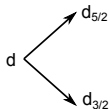
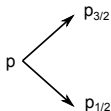
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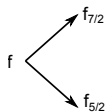
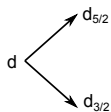
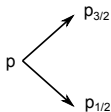
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- Parent orbital has well-defined orbital angular momentum l
 - Suggests that

$$\hat{l}^2 \chi_{j,m_j} = l(l+1) \chi_{j,m_j}$$

- such that

$$\chi_{j,m_j} = c_\alpha Y_{lm_\alpha} \alpha + c_\beta Y_{lm_\beta} \beta$$

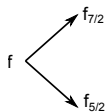
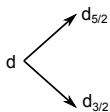
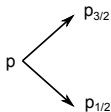
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- ▶ where

$$m_j = m_\ell + m_s \quad \Rightarrow \quad m_\alpha = m_j - \frac{1}{2}; \quad m_\beta = m_j + \frac{1}{2}$$

A new quantum number: κ

- The 2-component angular functions χ_{j,m_j} are eigenfunctions of both \hat{j}^2 and $\hat{\ell}^2$

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$$\hat{\kappa} = - \left[(\boldsymbol{\sigma} \cdot \hat{\ell}) + 1 \right]$$

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	$s_{1/2}$	$p_{1/2}$	$p_{3/2}$	$d_{3/2}$	$d_{5/2}$	$f_{5/2}$	$f_{7/2}$
κ	-1	+1	-2	+2	-3	+3	-4

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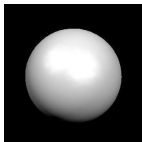
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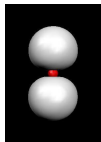
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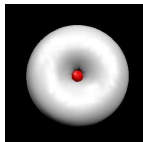
- Associated densities



$2(s, p)_{1/2, 1/2}$



$2(p, d)_{3/2, 1/2}$



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The 4-component relativistic case

- Hydrogen atom (bound solutions):

$$\psi = \begin{bmatrix} \psi^L \\ \psi^S \end{bmatrix} = \begin{bmatrix} R^L \chi_{\kappa, m_j}(\theta, \phi) \\ i R^S \chi_{-\kappa, m_j}(\theta, \phi) \end{bmatrix}$$

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- Radial functions

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► where $\lambda = \frac{1}{\hbar c} \sqrt{m^2 c^4 - E^2}$; $\gamma = \sqrt{\kappa^2 - (Z\alpha)^2} |\kappa|$

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- where $\lambda = \frac{1}{\hbar c} \sqrt{m^2 c^4 - E^2}$; $\gamma = \sqrt{\kappa^2 - (Z\alpha)^2} |\kappa|$
- Radial functions with $|\kappa| = 1$ have a weak singularity at the origin
 - serves as a “black hole” in basis set optimizations



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- ▶ The exponent is chosen to satisfy the semi-empirical rule

$$\langle r_n^2 \rangle^{1/2} = [0.836A^{1/3} + 0.570] \text{ fm}$$

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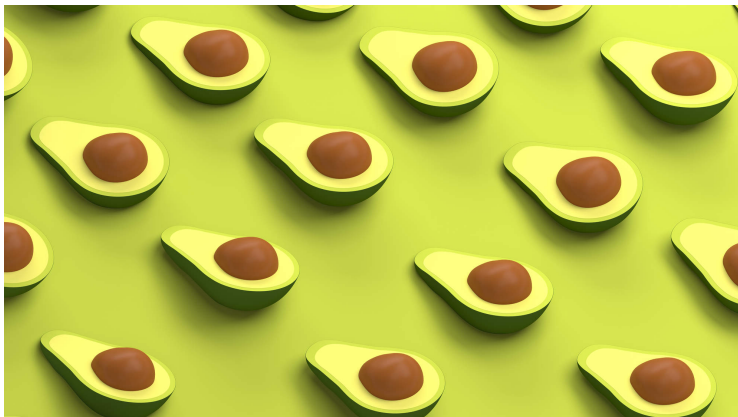
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Relativistic effective core potentials



The frozen-core approximation

4-component relativistic Hartree–Fock calculations

- Hg: polarizability (\AA^{-3})

$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^{10} 4s^2 4p^6 4d^{10} 4f^{14} 5s^2 5p^6 5d^{10} 6s^2$	6.61
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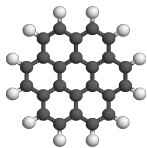
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Valid for a single valence orbital φ_v outside a closed-shell core $\{\varphi_c\}$

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- Further manipulation gives

$$\left(\hat{F}_v + V_{PP} \right) |\chi_v\rangle = |\chi_v\rangle\varepsilon_v; \quad V_{PP} = \hat{F}_c + \sum_c (\varepsilon_v - \varepsilon_c) |\varphi_c\rangle \langle\varphi_c|$$

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- How do we determine parameters $\{A_k, \alpha_k, n_k\}$?

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- ▶ V_{PP} is then found by inversion of radial equation for the pseudovalence orbital

$$\left(\hat{F}_v(r) + V_{PP}\right) R_p(r) = R_p(r) \varepsilon_v \quad \Rightarrow \quad V_{PP}(r) = \frac{\left(\varepsilon_v - \hat{F}_v(r)\right) R_p(r)}{R_p(r)}$$

- With both scalar relativistic (SR) and spin-orbit (SO) interaction included one would expect the form

$$V_{PP;A}(\mathbf{r}_{iA}) = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\ell_{\max}} \sum_{j=|\ell-1/2|}^{\ell+1/2} \tilde{V}_{\ell j}(r_{iA}) \sum_{m_j=-j}^j |\ell j m_j\rangle \langle \ell j m_j|$$

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- In practice the contributions are separated

$$V_{PP;A}^{SR} = \sum_{\ell=0}^{\ell_{\max}} \frac{1}{(2\ell+1)} \left[(\ell+1) \tilde{V}_{\ell, \ell+1/2} + \ell \tilde{V}_{\ell, \ell-1/2} \right] \sum_{m_{\ell}=-\ell}^{\ell} |\ell m_{\ell}\rangle \langle \ell m_{\ell}|$$

$$V_{PP;A}^{SO} = \sigma \cdot \sum_{\ell=0}^{\ell_{\max}} \frac{1}{(2\ell+1)} \left[\tilde{V}_{\ell, \ell+1/2} - \tilde{V}_{\ell, \ell-1/2} \right] \sum_{m_{\ell}, m'_{\ell}=-\ell}^{\ell} |\ell m_{\ell}\rangle \langle \ell m_{\ell}| \ell | \ell' m'_{\ell}\rangle \langle \ell' m'_{\ell}|$$

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- Effective core potentials have limited applicability (in principle no core properties), but are an excellent choice for many applications.

Short bibliography

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