

PERIODIC TABLE

Atomic Properties of the Elements

NIST

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VIIIa

Frequently used fundamental physical constants																		Physics Laboratory				Standard Reference				Data Group	
For the most accurate values of these and other constants, visit physics.nist.gov/constants																		physics.nist.gov				www.nist.gov/srd					
1 second = 9 192 631 770 periods of radiation corresponding to the transition between the two hyperfine levels of the ground state of ¹³³ Cs																											
speed of light in vacuum c 299 792 458 m s ⁻¹ (exact)																											
Planck constant h 6.6261 × 10 ⁻³⁴ J s (h = h/2π)																											
elementary charge e 1.6022 × 10 ⁻¹⁹ C																											
electron mass m _e 9.1094 × 10 ⁻³¹ kg																											
m _e c ² 0.5110 MeV																											
proton mass m _p 1.6726 × 10 ⁻²⁷ kg																											
fine-structure constant α 1/137.036																											
Rydberg constant R _∞ 10 973 732 m ⁻¹																											
R _∞ hc 3.289 842 × 10 ¹⁵ Hz																											
R _∞ hc 13.6057 eV																											
Boltzmann constant k 1.3807 × 10 ⁻²³ J K ⁻¹																											

Atomic Number	Ground-state Level
58	$1G_4$
Symbol	Ce
Name	Cerium
Atomic Weight	140.116
Ground-state Configuration	$[\text{Xe}]4f^1 5d^0 6s^2$
Ionization Energy (eV)	5.5387

[†]Based upon ^{12}C . () indicates the mass number of the most stable isotope.

For a description of the data, visit physics.nist.gov/data

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The Periodic Table (See Shankar pp.369-371, Griffiths sect. 5.2.2)

Understanding the periodic table is one of the triumphs of QM. Recall that for hydrogen, the electron energy eigenstates are $|n,l,m\rangle$, where

$$n=1,2,3,\dots \quad l=0,1,\dots,n-1 \quad m=-l, \dots, 0, \dots, l$$

n =principal quantum number, l =orbital quantum number, m =azimuthal (or magnetic) quantum number. At a given energy-level n , there are n^2 degenerate states.

Note too that since the electron is a spin-1/2 fermion, it can be in a spin-up or spin-down state of S_z . So the electron's state can be further specified by its spin quantum number $m_s = +1/2$ or $-1/2$.

Hence, the degeneracy at energy level n , including electron spin, is $2n^2$.

Spectroscopic notation: $l=0 \rightarrow s$, $l=1 \rightarrow p$, $l=2 \rightarrow d$, $l=3 \rightarrow f$, ...

(So, for example, a 2p state refers to the state $n=2$, $l=1$.) Thus, the eigenstates (i.e. orbitals) for the electron are

$$1s, 2s, 2p, 3s, 3p, 3d, \dots$$

Understanding Multi-electron atoms

The basic picture follows from some simple considerations/approximations

- 1) Crudest approximation: ignore all electron-electron interactions! So each electron is in one of the hydrogenic (i.e., single-electron) eigenstates (called “orbitals”)
- 2) Pauli exclusion principle: no two electrons can occupy the same exact state
- 3) Electrons fill orbitals in order of increasing energy
- 4) Electron-electron interactions break the degeneracy in l of hydrogen: For a given n , states with higher l values tend to have higher energy (since higher l means more angular momentum, and such an electron tends to be farther from the nucleus and hence the inner electrons tend to “shield” the nucleus.
- 5) States with filled shells (i.e., n -levels) or filled subshells (i.e., subshells) tend to be chemically inert, since the total electric charge configuration is spherically symmetric, so they shield their nucleus effectively, and hence there is little electron affinity for electrons in other atoms.

With this in mind, we can now construct the expected ground states of various elements ...

Element	1s	2s	2p	2p	2p	Electron configuration
H						$(1s)^1$
He						$(1s)^2$
Li						$(1s)^2(2s)^1$
Be						$(1s)^2(2s)^2$
B						$(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^1$
C						$(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^2$
N						$(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^3$
O						$(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^4$
F						$(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^5$
Ne						$(1s)^2(2s)^2(2p)^6$

Notice that He, Ne, Ar, Kr, ... making up the last column of the periodic table tend to be chemically inert. Elements in the first column, such as Li, Na, ... have one “extra” electron, so to speak. This extra electron “sees” a net charge of only $+e$ when it “looks inward”, since the 10 inner electrons effectively “screen” much of the $+11e$ nucleus – i.e., the outer electron in Na is only loosely bound to the atom. Thus, Na is fairly willing to give up this loosely bound “valence” electron to other atoms. Elements in the column next to the noble gas column, such as F, Cl, ... “want” to receive an extra electron. So Na and F make a good match: Na will donate an electron to F, in which case both atoms are ionized, and thus held together by an “ionic bond.”

As we continue along the periodic table, some of our preceding rules must be modified. For example, after argon $\text{Ar} = (\text{Ne})(3s)^2(3p)^6$ comes potassium $\text{K} = (\text{Ar})(4s)$. Notice that we would have expected potassium's 19th electron to go into the 3d state, not the 4s state. Why didn't it? Because the growth in energy due to the increase in l is larger than the increase in energy from $n=3$ to $n=4$, so it is energetically favorable for the extra electron to go into the 4s state!

Addition of Angular Momentum

Reading: Shankar chapt. 15 and Griffiths 4.4.3

We found that the angular-momentum state of a particle (either orbital or spin) could be represented by $|j, m\rangle$, where j, m are “good quantum numbers” associated with the operators $\hat{J}^2, \hat{J}_z$:

$$\hat{J}^2 |j, m\rangle = \hbar^2 j(j+1) |j, m\rangle.$$

$$\hat{J}_z |j, m\rangle = \hbar m |j, m\rangle.$$

Here, “good” means that these numbers can be simultaneously specified, since the two operators commute. And of course we also determined commutation relations involving other related operators, including $\hat{J}_x, \hat{J}_y, \hat{J}_z, \hat{J}^2, \hat{J}_+, \hat{J}_-$.

$$\text{e.g. } [\hat{J}_x, \hat{J}_y] = i\hbar \hat{J}_z, \text{ etc.}$$

If we have either

- a) 2 (or more) distinct particles, each with its own angular momentum, such as in a multi-electron atom
- b) A single particle that has both orbital and spin angular momentum, such as the electron of a hydrogen atom

Then we can ask questions about what the total angular momentum of the *system* is.

Preliminaries

Start with 2 angular momenta $\hat{\vec{J}}_1, \hat{\vec{J}}_2$ belonging to different subspaces (i.e., assume they commute):

$$\begin{aligned} [\hat{J}_{1x}, \hat{J}_{1y}] &= i\hbar \hat{J}_{1z}, & [\hat{J}_{1y}, \hat{J}_{1z}] &= i\hbar \hat{J}_{1x}, & [\hat{J}_{1z}, \hat{J}_{1x}] &= i\hbar \hat{J}_{1y}, \\ [\hat{J}_{2x}, \hat{J}_{2y}] &= i\hbar \hat{J}_{2z}, & [\hat{J}_{2y}, \hat{J}_{2z}] &= i\hbar \hat{J}_{2x}, & [\hat{J}_{2z}, \hat{J}_{2x}] &= i\hbar \hat{J}_{2y}. \end{aligned}$$

$$[\hat{J}_{1j}, \hat{J}_{2k}] = 0, \quad j = x, y, z, \quad k = x, y, z$$

The state of the composite system is given by

$$|j_1, m_1\rangle \otimes |j_2, m_2\rangle$$

(equivalent notation: $|j_1, m_1; j_2, m_2\rangle$ or $|j_1, m_1\rangle |j_2, m_2\rangle$)

In this *uncoupled representation*, the system is specified by 4 quantum numbers, j_1, m_1, j_2, m_2 . -- i.e., the operators $J_1^2, J_{1z}, J_2^2, J_{2z}$ form a complete set of commuting observables!

(Note: the dimensionality of the composite system is just the product of the dimensionality of the two subspaces).

The above representation is a perfectly good way of expressing the angular momentum state of the composite system. We now look at an alternative means of doing this which proves especially useful.

Total angular momentum

Define the total angular momentum

$$\vec{J} = \vec{J}_1 + \vec{J}_2$$

I've dropped the hats on the operators.

The magnitude and z-component of the total angular momentum for the composite system is described by operators

$$J^2 \equiv (\vec{J}_1 + \vec{J}_2)^2 = J_1^2 + J_2^2 + 2\vec{J}_1 \cdot \vec{J}_2$$

$$J_z \equiv J_{1z} + J_{2z}$$

Do these operators commute with one another? --YES

(Stop and verify this for yourself!)

So these operators share a common set of eigenvectors, and thus they provide us with two good quantum numbers. We'll call these j and m , and denote the eigenstate $|j, m\rangle$. Since the total angular momentum is still just an angular momentum, by earlier arguments we have

$$J^2 |j, m\rangle = \hbar^2 j(j+1) |j, m\rangle, \quad J_z |j, m\rangle = \hbar m |j, m\rangle.$$

where $m = -j, -j+1, \dots, 0, \dots, j-1, j$ (Also, $[\mathcal{J}_x, \mathcal{J}_y] = i\hbar \mathcal{J}_z$, etc.).

But wait! In the uncoupled representation, the angular momentum of the composite system is specified by 4 good quantum numbers. But so far, in terms of the total angular momentum, we have only found 2 good quantum numbers: j , associated with the magnitude of the total angular momentum, and m , associated with the z-component of the total angular momentum.

We'll need to hunt around for (two) additional operators that commute with one another and with $\vec{\mathcal{J}}^2, \mathcal{J}_z$.

I'll spare you the search: $\vec{\mathcal{J}}^2, \mathcal{J}_z, \vec{\mathcal{J}}_1^2, \vec{\mathcal{J}}_2^2$ form a complete set of commuting observables!

Let's do a quick, partial verification of this.

$$\begin{aligned} [\mathcal{J}_1^2, \mathcal{J}^2] &= [\mathcal{J}_1^2, \mathcal{J}_1^2 + \mathcal{J}_2^2 + 2\vec{\mathcal{J}}_1 \cdot \vec{\mathcal{J}}_2] \\ &= 2[\mathcal{J}_1^2, \vec{\mathcal{J}}_1 \cdot \vec{\mathcal{J}}_2] \\ &= 2[\mathcal{J}_1^2, \vec{\mathcal{J}}_1] \cdot \vec{\mathcal{J}}_2 \\ &= 0. \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 [J_1^2, J_z] &= [J_1^2, J_{1z} + J_{2z}] \\
 &= [J_1^2, J_{1z}] \\
 &= 0.
 \end{aligned}$$

(Verify for yourself, for example, that J^2 doesn't commute with J_{1z} or with J_{2z})

We'll call the representation in which J^2, J_z, J_1^2, J_2^2 are specified the *coupled representation*, and denote the eigenstates by $|j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$.

In the coupled representation, we have the obvious (or at least plausible) relations:

$$J^2 |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle = \hbar^2 j(j+1) |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$$

$$J_z |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle = \hbar m |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$$

$$J_1^2 |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle = \hbar^2 j_1(j_1+1) |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$$

$$J_2^2 |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle = \hbar^2 j_2(j_2+1) |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$$

Relation between representations

So we have two perfectly good bases for describing the angular momentum of a composite system:

$$|j_1, m_1\rangle |j_2, m_2\rangle \quad \text{and} \quad |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$$

What's the relation between the two? Let's start with the quantum numbers themselves.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Since} \quad \mathcal{J}_z |j_1, m_1\rangle |j_2, m_2\rangle &\equiv (\mathcal{J}_{1z} + \mathcal{J}_{2z}) |j_1, m_1\rangle |j_2, m_2\rangle \\ &= \hbar(m_1 + m_2) |j_1, m_1\rangle |j_2, m_2\rangle. \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow m = m_1 + m_2$$

Now, since the max value of m_1 is j_1 , and since the max value of m_2 is j_2 , it follows that $m_{\max} = j_1 + j_2$. But we also know that m ranges from $-j$, ..., j . Hence we can conclude that $j_{\max} = j_1 + j_2$. (Perhaps this isn't surprising: classically, the magnitude of the total angular momentum of a composite system can't exceed that of its individual components.)

Reasoning classically, we might also anticipate that there is a minimum value of j for the composite system, given by the difference $|j_1 - j_2|$ (corresponding to when the angular momentum of the individual components of the system point in opposite directions). This is indeed the case, as we now show using a counting argument:

For a given j_1, j_2 , there are a total of $(2j_1+1)(2j_2+1)$ independent basis vectors of the form $|j_1, m_1\rangle |j_2, m_2\rangle$.

This must be the same total as for the $|j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$ basis (with j_1, j_2 fixed as before). Now, for each j , there are $(2j+1)$ possible m values.

So we demand that

$$\sum_{j_{\min}}^{j_{\max} = j_1 + j_2} (2j+1) = (2j_1+1)(2j_2+1)$$

$$\Rightarrow j_{\min} = |j_1 - j_2|$$

Summarizing,

$$m = m_1 + m_2$$

$$j = |j_1 - j_2|, \dots, j_1 + j_2$$

Now let's compute the relationship between the basis vectors of the coupled and uncoupled representations:

$$|j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle = \sum_{m_1+m_2=m} \sum c_{m_1, m_2} |j_1, m_1, j_2, m_2\rangle.$$

$$\text{where } c_{m_1, m_2} = \langle j_1, m_1, j_2, m_2 | j, m, j_1, j_2 \rangle.$$

The coefficients c_{m_1, m_2} are called the *Clebsch-Gordan* coefficients.

Their interpretation is straightforward: $|c_{m_1, m_2}|^2$ gives the probability that, for a specified j and m , a measurement of j_{1z} will yield the value m_1 and a measurement of j_{2z} will yield the value m_2 .

Calculation of the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients can be done by appropriate application of the raising/lowering operators J_+, J_- (though we note that these calculations tend to be tedious, so look-up tables exist to assist you).

[Note: The standard phase convention used when defining basis vectors $|j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$ is such that all Clebsch-Gordan coefficients are purely real, and that the projection $\langle j_1, m_1=j_1; j_2, m_2=j-j_1 | j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle$ is real.]

Here's an example calculation:

What does the state $|1, -1, 1, 1\rangle$ look like in the uncoupled representation?

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ j & m & j_1 & j_2 \end{array}$$

Solution :

$$\begin{array}{lcl} j_1 = 1 & \longrightarrow & m_1 = 1, 0, -1 \\ j_2 = 1 & \longrightarrow & m_2 = 1, 0, -1 \end{array}$$

But $m = m_1 + m_2 \longrightarrow -1 = m_1 + m_2 \longrightarrow (m_1 = 0, m_2 = -1) \text{ or } (m_1 = -1, m_2 = 0)$

$$\Rightarrow |1, -1, 1, 1\rangle = C_{0, -1} |1, 0\rangle |1, -1\rangle + C_{-1, 0} |1, -1\rangle |1, 0\rangle$$

$$\begin{array}{cccc} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ j & m & j_1 & j_2 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{cccc} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ j_1 & m_1 & j_2 & m_2 \end{array} \quad \begin{array}{cccc} \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow & \uparrow \\ j_1 & m_1 & j_2 & m_2 \end{array}$$

Hit both sides w/ $J_- \equiv J_{1-} + J_{2-}$.

$$\text{LHS: } J_- |1, -1, 1, 1\rangle = 0 \quad (\text{since for } j=1, m \text{ can't go below } -1)$$

$$\text{RHS: } (J_{1-} + J_{2-}) [C_{0,-1} |1, 0\rangle |1, -1\rangle + C_{-1,0} |1, -1\rangle |1, 0\rangle]$$

$$= C_{0,-1} |1, -1\rangle |1, -1\rangle + C_{-1,0} |1, -1\rangle |1, -1\rangle$$

$$\text{Setting LHS} = \text{RHS} \Rightarrow 0 = C_{0,-1} + C_{-1,0}$$

$$\Rightarrow C_{0,-1} = -C_{-1,0} \quad \text{Normalization of } |1, -1, 1, 1\rangle$$

$$\text{gives } C_{0,-1} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

$$|1, -1, 1, 1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |1, 0\rangle |1, -1\rangle - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} |1, -1\rangle |1, 0\rangle$$



It's easy to find the Clebsch-Gordan coefficients in two limiting cases:

$$1) \quad |j_1 + j_2, j_1 + j_2, j_1, j_2\rangle = 1 \cdot |j_1, j_1\rangle |j_2, j_2\rangle$$

$$2) \quad |j_1 + j_2, -(j_1 + j_2), j_1, j_2\rangle = 1 \cdot |j_1, -j_1\rangle |j_2, -j_2\rangle$$

If you're interested in a general way of calculating Clebsch-Gordan coefficients, the following (recursion) relation proves useful:

Consider: $\underbrace{\langle j_1, m_1, j_2, m_2 |}_{\text{uncoupled rep.}} \mathcal{J}_{\pm} \underbrace{|j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle}_{\text{coupled}}$

Evaluate in 2 different ways:

A) allow $\mathcal{J}_{\pm}$ to act to the right

$$\Rightarrow \hbar \sqrt{(j \mp m)(j \pm m + 1)} \langle j_1, m_1, j_2, m_2 | j, m \pm 1, j_1, j_2 \rangle$$

B) allow $\mathcal{J}_{\pm} \equiv \mathcal{J}_{1\pm} + \mathcal{J}_{2\pm}$ to act to the left

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow & \hbar \sqrt{(j_1 \pm m_1)(j_1 \mp m_1 + 1)} \langle j_1, m_1 \mp 1, j_2, m_2 | j, m, j_1, j_2 \rangle \\ & + \hbar \sqrt{(j_2 \pm m_2)(j_2 \mp m_2 + 1)} \langle j_1, m_1, j_2, m_2 \mp 1 | j, m, j_1, j_2 \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Equating these two expressions leads to a useful relation that allows one to (recursively) generate all Clebsch-Gordan coefficients (provided one uses the orthogonality conditions as well).

Example 1: The allowed (m_1, m_2) and (j, m) values if $j_1=1$ and $j_2=3/2$

m_1	m_2	m	j
1	3/2	5/2	5/2
0	3/2	3/2	5/2, 3/2
1	1/2	3/2	5/2, 3/2
-1	3/2	1/2	5/2, 3/2, 1/2
0	1/2	1/2	5/2, 3/2, 1/2
1	-1/2	1/2	5/2, 3/2, 1/2
-1	1/2	-1/2	5/2, 3/2, 1/2
0	-1/2	-1/2	5/2, 3/2, 1/2
1	-3/2	-1/2	5/2, 3/2, 1/2
-1	-1/2	-3/2	5/2, 3/2
0	-3/2	-3/2	5/2, 3/2
-1	-3/2	-5/2	5/2

Notes:

a) There are 12 distinct combinations of (m_1, m_2) , and 12 distinct combos of (j, m)

b) Table is organized by decreasing m values.

Example 2: Two spin $\frac{1}{2}$ particles

$$\text{Total spin : } S = 1 \text{ or } S = 0 \quad (S_1 = \frac{1}{2}, S_2 = \frac{1}{2})$$

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{z-component} \\ \text{of Total Spin : } \end{array} m_s = m_{s_1} + m_{s_2} \Rightarrow m_s = 1, 0, -1$$

$\begin{array}{cc} \uparrow & \uparrow \\ \pm 1/2 & \pm 1/2 \end{array}$

$$\text{If } S = 1 \longrightarrow m_s = 1, 0, -1 \quad (\text{Triplet state})$$

$$S = 0 \longrightarrow m_s = 0 \quad (\text{Singlet state})$$

$$\text{Triplet} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} |1, 1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle = |\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle |\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle \\ |1, 0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [|\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle |\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\rangle + |-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle |\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle] \\ |1, -1, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle = |-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\rangle |-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\rangle \end{array} \right.$$

$$\text{Singlet} \left\{ |0, 0, \frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [|\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle |-\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}\rangle - |-\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle |\frac{1}{2}, \frac{1}{2}\rangle] \right.$$

Example 3: Angular momentum of two p electrons (i.e., $j_1=1$ and $j_2=1$).

	$ j\ m\ j_1\ j_2\rangle \equiv \sum C_{m_1 m_2} j_1\ m_1\rangle j_2\ m_2\rangle$
①	$ 2\ 2\ 1\ 1\rangle = 1\ 1\rangle 1\ 1\rangle$
②	$ 2\ 1\ 1\ 1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ 1\rangle 1\ 0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ 0\rangle 1\ 1\rangle$
③	$ 2\ 0\ 1\ 1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} 1\ 1\rangle 1\ -1\rangle + \sqrt{\frac{2}{3}} 1\ 0\rangle 1\ 0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} 1\ -1\rangle 1\ 1\rangle$
④	$ 2\ -1\ 1\ 1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ 0\rangle 1\ -1\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ -1\rangle 1\ 0\rangle$
⑤	$ 2\ -2\ 1\ 1\rangle = 1\ -1\rangle 1\ -1\rangle$
⑥	$ 1\ 1\ 1\ 1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ 1\rangle 1\ 0\rangle - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ 0\rangle 1\ 1\rangle$
⑦	$ 1\ 0\ 1\ 1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ 1\rangle 1\ -1\rangle - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ -1\rangle 1\ 1\rangle$
⑧	$ 1\ -1\ 1\ 1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ 0\rangle 1\ -1\rangle - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} 1\ -1\rangle 1\ 0\rangle$
⑨	$ 0\ 0\ 1\ 1\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} 1\ 1\rangle 1\ -1\rangle - \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} 1\ 0\rangle 1\ 0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} 1\ -1\rangle 1\ 1\rangle$

To show this, will need $\mathcal{J}_- |j, m, j_1, j_2\rangle = \hbar \sqrt{(j+m)(j-m+1)} |j, m-1, j_1, j_2\rangle$
plus orthogonality relations (plus phase choice) :

① follows because there's only one choice!

To get ②, apply $\mathcal{J}_- = \mathcal{J}_{1-} + \mathcal{J}_{2-}$ to ① :

$$\mathcal{J}_- |2, 2, 1, 1\rangle = (\mathcal{J}_{1-} + \mathcal{J}_{2-}) |1, 1\rangle |1, 1\rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow \quad \hbar |2, 1, 1, 1\rangle = \sqrt{2} \hbar [|1, 1\rangle |1, 0\rangle + |1, 0\rangle |1, 1\rangle]$$

To get ③, apply $\mathcal{J}_- = \mathcal{J}_{1-} + \mathcal{J}_{2-}$ to both sides
of ②, keep on doing this to get ④ and ⑤.

To get ⑥ : we know $|1, 1, 1, 1\rangle = a |1, 1\rangle |1, 0\rangle + b |1, 0\rangle |1, 1\rangle$

$$\text{but } \langle 1111 | 1111 \rangle = 1 \longrightarrow a^2 + b^2 = 1$$

$$\text{Also, } \langle 2111 | 1111 \rangle = 0 \longrightarrow \frac{a}{\sqrt{2}} + \frac{b}{\sqrt{2}} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow a = \pm \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, b = \mp \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}. \quad \text{Phase convention says.}$$

$$\langle j_1, m_1 = j_1, j_2, m_2 = j - j_1 | j, j, j_1, j_2 \rangle = \text{positive}$$

$$\Rightarrow a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}, b = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

Apply $J_- = J_{1-} + J_{2-}$ to both sides of (6) to get (7). Apply this again to (7) to get (8).

To get (9): We know $|0011\rangle = a|11\rangle|1-1\rangle + b|10\rangle|10\rangle + c|1-1\rangle|11\rangle$

$$\text{demand } \langle 0011 | 0011 \rangle = 1 \implies a^2 + b^2 + c^2 = 1$$

$$\text{demand } \langle 2011 | 0011 \rangle = 0 \implies \frac{a}{\sqrt{6}} + \frac{2b}{\sqrt{6}} + \frac{c}{\sqrt{6}} = 0$$

$$\text{demand } \langle 1011 | 0011 \rangle = 0 \implies \frac{a}{\sqrt{2}} - \frac{c}{\sqrt{2}} = 0$$

phase convention $\Rightarrow$ a is positive.

$$\implies a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad b = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{3}}, \quad c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{3}} \quad !$$