$\overline{\mathrm{mol}^{-1}}$  $6.02214 \times 10^{23}$  $N_{\rm Av}$ :  $1.6605 \times 10^{-27}$ 1 amu: kg  ${
m eV~K^{-1}}$  $1.38065 \times 10^{-23}$  $\rm J~K^{-1}$  $8.61734 \times 10^{-5}$  $k_{\rm B}$ :  $J K^{-1} mol^{-1}$  $8.2057 \times 10^{-2}$  l atm mol<sup>-1</sup> K<sup>-1</sup> R: 8.314472 ${
m J}~{
m s}^{-1}~{
m m}^{-2}~{
m K}^{-4}$  $5.6704 \times 10^{-8}$  $\sigma_{\mathrm{SB}}$ :  $\rm m\ s^{-1}$  $2.99792458 \times 10^{8}$ c:  $6.62607 \times 10^{-34}$ h: J s $4.13566 \times 10^{-15}$ eV s  $1.05457 \times 10^{-34}$  $6.58212 \times 10^{-16}$ eV sJ s $\hbar$ : hc: 1239.8 eV nm $1.60218 \times 10^{-19}$  $\mathbf{C}$ e:  $9.10938215 \times 10^{-31}$  $MeV c^{-2}$ kg 1: 0.5109989  $m_e$ :  $C^2 J^{-1} m^{-1}$  $e^2 \text{ Å}^{-1} \text{ eV}^{-1}$  $8.85419 \times 10^{-12}$  $5.52635 \times 10^{-3}$  $e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0$ :  $2.30708 \times 10^{-28}$ J m 14.39964 eV Å  $0.529177 \times 10^{-10}$ 0.529177Å  $\mathbf{m}$  $a_0$ : 27.212  $E_{\mathrm{H}}$ : Ha eV

Table 1: Key units in Physical Chemistry

# 1 The Classical Foundations

## 1.1 Lecture 0: Introduction

- 1. Burning lighter
- 2. Foundations of Physical Chemistry
  - (a) Quantum mechanics
  - (b) Statistical mechanics
  - (c) Thermodynamics, kinetics, spectroscopy
  - (d) Physical and chemical properties of matter

#### 1.2 Lecture 1: Basic statistics

- 1. Discrete probability distributions—Coin flip
  - (a) Example of Bernoulli trial,  $2^n$  possible outcomes from n flips
  - (b) Number of ways to get i heads in n flips,  ${}_{n}C_{i} = n!/i!(n-i)!$
  - (c) Probability of *i* heads  $P_i \propto {}_nC_i$
  - (d) Normalized probability,  $\tilde{P}_i = P_i / \sum_i P_i = {}_n C_i / 2^n$
  - (e) Expectation value  $\langle i \rangle = \sum_i i \tilde{P}_i$
- 2. Continuous distributions—temperature
  - (a) Probability density P(x) has units 1/x
  - (b) Normalized  $\tilde{P}(x) = P(x) / \int P(x) dx$
  - (c) (Unitless) probability  $a < x < b = \int_a^b \tilde{P}(x) dx$

- (d) Expectation value  $\langle f(x) \rangle = \int f(x) \tilde{P}(x) dx$
- (e) Mean =  $\langle x \rangle$
- (f) Mean squared =  $\langle x^2 \rangle$
- (g) Variance  $\sigma^2 = \langle x^2 \rangle \langle x \rangle^2$
- (h) Standard deviation  $\Delta x = \sigma$

#### 3. Boltzmann distribution

- (a)  $P(E) \propto e^{-E/k_BT}$ , in some sense the definition of temperature
- (b) Energy and its units
- (c) Absolute temperature and its units
- (d)  $k_BT$  as an energy scale, 0.026 eV at 298 K
- (e) Gravity example
  - i. E(h) = mgh, linear, continuous energy spectrum
  - ii. molecule vs car in a gravitational field (Table 2)
  - iii. Barometric law for gases,  $P = P_0 e^{-mgh/k_BT}$
- (f) Kinetic energy in 1-D example

i. 
$$KE = \frac{1}{2}mv_x^2$$

ii. 
$$P_{1D}(v_x) = \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{m|v_x|^2}{2k_B T}\right)$$

iii. Gaussian distribution, mean  $\mu$ , variance  $\sigma^2$ 

$$G(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

- iv. By inspection,  $\mu = \langle v_x \rangle = 0$ ,  $\sigma^2 = \langle v_x^2 \rangle = k_B T/m$
- v. Molecule vs car again
- (g) Equipartition energy freely exchanged between all degrees of freedom

**Table 2:** Car vs gas molecule at the earth's surface

	car	gas molecule
$\overline{m}$	$1000\mathrm{kg}$	$1 \times 10^{-26}  \mathrm{kg}$
h	$1\mathrm{m}$	$1\mathrm{m}$
mgh	$9800\mathrm{J}$	$9.8 \times 10^{-26} \mathrm{J}$
	$6.1 \times 10^{22}  \text{eV}$	$6.1 \times 10^{-7}  \mathrm{eV}$
T	$298\mathrm{K}$	$298\mathrm{K}$
$k_BT$	$0.026\mathrm{eV}$	$0.026\mathrm{eV}$
$mgh/k_BT$	$2.4 \times 10^{24}$	$2.3 \times 10^{-5}$
$P(1 {\rm m})/P(0)$	$e^{-2.4 \times 10^{-24}}$	0.99998
$\langle h \rangle$	$0\mathrm{m}$	$42\mathrm{km}$
$\langle v_x \rangle^{1/2}$	$2 \times 10^{-12} \mathrm{m/s}$	$640\mathrm{m/s}$

	J	$\mathrm{eV}$	Hartree	$kJ \text{ mol}^{-1}$	$ m cm^{-1}$
1 J =	1	$6.2415 \times 10^{18}$	$2.2937 \times 10^{17}$	$6.0221 \times 10^{20}$	$5.0340 \times 10^{22}$
1  eV =	$1.6022 \times 10^{-19}$	1	0.036748	96.485	8065.5
1  Ha =	$4.3598 \times 10^{-18}$	27.212	1	2625.6	219474.6
$1 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1} =$	$1.6605 \times 10^{-21}$	0.010364	$3.8087 \times 10^{-4}$	1	83.5935
$1 \text{ cm}^{-1} =$	$1.986410^{-23}$	$1.23984 \times 10^{-4}$	$4.55623 \times 10^{-6}$	0.011963	1

**Table 3:** Energy conversions and correspondences

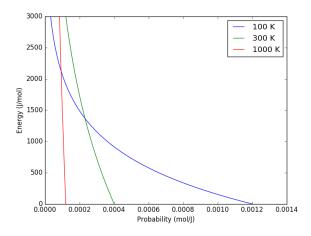


Figure 1: Boltzmann distribution at various temperatures

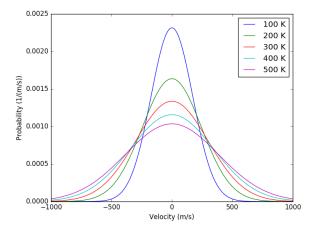


Figure 2: One-dimensional (Gaussian) velocities of  $N_2$  gas

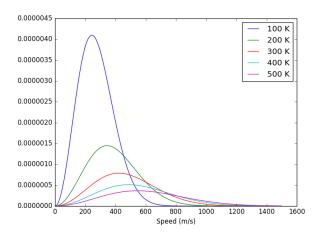


Figure 3: Maxwell-Boltzmann speed distribution of N<sub>2</sub> gas

## 1.3 Lecture 2: Kinetic theory of gases

#### 1. Postulates

- (a) Gas is composed of molecules in constant random, thermal motion
- (b) Molecules only interact by perfectly elastic collisions
- (c) Volume of molecules is << total volume

#### 2. Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution of molecular speeds

(a) Speed 
$$v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}$$

(b) 
$$P_{MB}(v)dv = P_{1D}(v_x)P_{1D}(v_y)P_{1D}(v_z) * degeneracy(v)dv$$

- (c) mean speeds  $\propto \sqrt{T}$
- (d) mean energy  $U = \frac{3}{2}RT$  and heat capacity  $C_v = \frac{3}{2}R$

#### 3. Flux and pressure

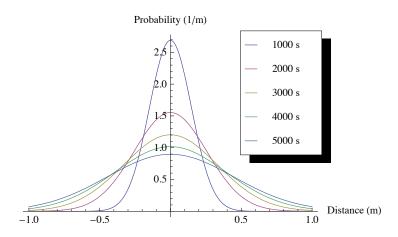
- (a) Velocity flux  $j(v_x)dv_x = v_x \frac{N}{V} P(v_x) dv_x$ , molecules /area /time / $v_x$
- (b) Wall collisions,  $J_w$ , total collisions /area /time
- (c) Momentum exchange, pressure, ideal gas law

#### 4. Collisions and mean free path

- (a) Collision cross section  $\sigma = \pi d^2$ , size of molecule
- (b) Molecular collisions, z per molecule and  $z_{\rm AA}$  per volume
- (c) Mean free path,  $\lambda$ , mean distance between collisions

Table 4: Kinetic theory of gases key equations

Boltzmann distribution $(g(E))$ : degeneracy of $E$ )	$P(E) = g(E)e^{-E/k_BT}$
Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution	$P_{\rm MB}(v) = 4\pi v^2 \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}\right)^{3/2} \exp\left(-\frac{mv^2}{2k_B T}\right)$
Mean and RMS speeds	$\langle v \rangle = \left(\frac{8k_BT}{\pi m}\right)^{1/2} \qquad \langle v^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \left(\frac{3k_BT}{m}\right)^{1/2}$
Pressure	$\langle P \rangle = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t} = m \frac{N}{V} \frac{1}{3} \langle v^2 \rangle = \frac{N k_B T}{V} = \frac{nRT}{V}$
Wall collision frequency	$J_W = \frac{1}{4} \frac{N}{V} \langle v \rangle = \frac{P}{(2\pi m k_B T)^{1/2}}$
Molecular collision frequency	$z = \sqrt{2}\sigma \langle v \rangle \frac{N}{V} = \frac{4\sigma P}{(\pi m k_B T)^{1/2}}$
Total collisions	$z_{AA} = rac{1}{2} rac{N}{V} z$
Mean free path	$\lambda = \frac{\langle v \rangle}{z} = \frac{V}{\sqrt{2}\sigma N}$
Graham's effusion law	$\frac{dN}{dt} = \text{Area} \cdot J_w \propto 1/m^{1/2}$
Effusion from a vessel	$P = P_0 e^{-t/\tau}, \tau = \frac{V}{A} \left(\frac{2\pi m}{k_B T}\right)^{1/2}$
Self-diffusion constant	$D_{11} = \frac{1}{3} \langle v \rangle \lambda$
Diffusion rate	$\langle x^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{2Dt}  \langle r^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{6Dt}$
Einstein-Smoluchowski equation	$D_{11} = \frac{\delta^2}{2\tau}$
Stokes-Einstein equation for liquids	$D_{11} = \frac{k_B T}{4\pi \eta r}$ "Slip" boundary
	$D_{\mathrm{Brownian}} = \frac{k_B T}{6\pi \eta r}$ "Stick" boundary



**Figure 4:** Diffusional spreading,  $\sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle} = \sqrt{2Dt}$ 

# 1.4 Lecture 3: Transport

- 1. Effusion and Graham's law, effusion rate  $\propto MW^{-1/2}$
- 2. Fick's first law: net flux proportional to concentration gradient
  - (a)  $j_x = -D\frac{dc}{dx}$
  - (b) Self-diffusion constant,  $D = \frac{1}{3}\lambda \langle v \rangle$
- 3. Knudsen diffusion,  $D = \frac{1}{3}l\langle v \rangle$
- 4. Fick's second law: time evolution of concentration gradient
  - (a) Continuity with no advection:  $\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \vec{j} + \text{gen}$
  - (b) One-dimension:  $\frac{dc}{dt} = D\frac{d^2c}{dx^2}$
  - (c) Diffusion has Gaussian probability distribution:  $c(x,t)/c_0 = [2\sqrt{\pi Dt}]^{-1} \exp(-x^2/4Dt)$
- 5. Seeing is believing—Brownian motion
  - (a) Seemingly random motion of large particles ("dust") due to "kicks" from invisible molecules
  - (b) Einstein receives Nobel Prize for showing:
    - i. Motion follows same Gaussian diffusion behavior
    - ii. From steady-state arguments in a field, diffusion constant is ratio of Boltzmann energy,  $k_BT$ , to mobility
    - iii. Mobility inversely related to viscosity
  - (c) Stokes-Einstein equation
  - (d) Allows measurement of Avogadro's number, final proof of kinetic theory
  - (e) Similar model for diffusion of liquid molecules, slip boundary
- 6. Random walk model of diffusion
  - (a) Binomial distribution
  - (b) Large N and Stirling approximation
  - (c) Einstein-Smoluchowski relation

Table 5: Classical waves

The wave equation	$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi(x,t)}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi(x,t)}{\partial t^2}$	
General solution	$\Psi(x,t) = A\sin(kx - \omega t)$	
Wavelength (distance)	$\lambda = 2\pi/k$	
Frequency (/time)	$ u = \omega/2\pi$	
Speed	$v = \lambda \nu$	
Amplitude (distance)	A	
Energy	$E \propto A^2$	
Standing wave	$\Psi(x,t) = A\sin(kx)\cos(\omega t),  k = n\pi/a$	

# 2 Quantum Mechanics: Blurred Lines Between Particles and Waves

# 2.1 Lecture 4: Duality and demise of classical physics

## 2.1.1 Properties of waves

- 1. Traveling waves, standing waves
- 2. interference, diffraction
- 3. Expected energy of a classical oscillator,  $\langle \epsilon \rangle_{\nu} = k_B T$  for all  $\nu$

#### 2.1.2 Blackbody radiation

- 1. Hohlraum spectrum (like the sun) empirically observed to obey:
  - (a) Stefan-Boltzmann law, total irradiance
  - (b) Wien's displacement law
- 2. Rayleigh-Jeans predicts spectrum using classical physics
  - (a) standing waves + classical oscillators  $\rightarrow$  ultraviolet catastrophe
- 3. Planck model
  - (a) Energy spectrum of oscillators are quantized,  $\epsilon_{\nu} = nh\nu$
  - (b) Expected energy of a quantized oscillator,  $\langle \epsilon \rangle_{\nu} = h \nu / \left( e^{h \nu / k_B T} 1 \right)$
  - (c) Correctly reproduces Stefan-Boltzmann and Wien Laws!

# 2.1.3 Heat capacities of solids

- 1. Law of DuLong and Pettite,  $C_v = 3R$ , fails at low T
- 2. Einstein model
  - (a) Atomic vibrations are quantized,  $\epsilon_n = nh\nu$
  - (b) Heat capacity goes to zero at low T

#### 2.1.4 Photoelectric effect

- 1. Stopping potential and work function,  $E_{\text{kinetic}} = h\nu W$
- 2. Kinetic energy varies with light frequency, number of electrons varies with light intensity

#### 2.1.5 Compton effect

- 1. light scattering of electrons changes  $\lambda$
- 2. Photon properties,  $\epsilon = h\nu, p = h/\lambda$

# 2.1.6 Wave-particle duality

## 2.1.7 Rutherford, planetary model of atom

1. Inconsistent with Maxwell's equations

#### 2.1.8 Bohr model of H atom

- 1. Discrete H energy spectrum and Rydberg formala
- 2. Bohr model (the old quantum mechanics)
  - (a) Stable electron "orbits," quantized angular momentum
  - (b) Light emission corresponds to orbital jumps,  $\nu = \Delta E/h$
  - (c) Bohr equations
  - (d) Comparison with Rydberg formula
  - (e) Failure for larger atoms

# 2.1.9 de Broglie relation

- 1.  $\lambda = h/p$  universally
- 2. Relation to Bohr orbits
- 3. Davison and Germer experiment,  $e^-$  diffraction off Ni

```
import numpy as np
    import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
3
    hc = 1239.8
    c = 2.9979e8 * 1.e9
                           nm/s
   k = 8.61734e5 eV /K
    hck = hc/k
                      nm K
8
9
    def Irrad(w1,T):
          return (8. * np.pi * hc * c * wl**5) / (np.exp(hck/(wl*T))1)
10
    def PlanckEnergy(wl,T):
          return (hc/wl) / (np.exp(hck/(wl*T))1)
12
13
   plt.figure()
14
   wl=np.linspace(100,5000,1000)
15
   for T in [1000.,2000.,3000.,4000.,5000.]:
        Intensity = Irrad(w1,T)
17
        plt.plot(wl,Intensity,label= K.format(T))
18
```

```
legend=plt.legend()
20
21
    plt.xlabel(Wavelength (nm))
    plt.ylabel(Irradiance (eV/nm3/s))
22
     plt.title(Boltzmann distribution at various temperatures)
23
^{24}
    plt.savefig(./Images/BlackBody.png)
25
26
    plt.figure()
    color=[red,orange,green,blue,violet]
27
28
    wl=np.linspace(100,20000,1000)
    for T in [1000.,2000.,3000.,4000.,5000.]:
29
        Energy = PlanckEnergy(w1,T)
30
31
        plt.plot(wl,Energy,label= K.format(T),color=color[0])
        kT = k*T
32
33
        plt.plot([100,max(wl)],[kT,kT],ls=,color=color.pop(0))
34
    legend=plt.legend()
35
36
    plt.xlabel(Wavelength (nm))
    plt.ylabel(Energy (eV))
37
     plt.title(Boltzmann distribution at various temperatures)
    plt.savefig(./Images/Planck.png)
39
```

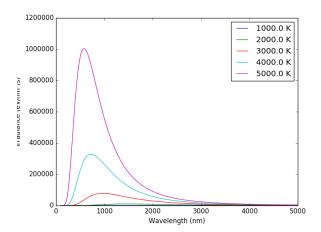


Figure 5: Blackbody irradiance

#### 2.2 Lecture 5: Postulates of quantum mechanics

## 2.2.1 Schrödinger equation describes wave-like properties of matter

## 2.2.2 Born interpretation

- 1. wavefunction is a probability amplitude
- 2. wavefunction squared is probability density

#### 2.2.3 Postulates

- 1. Wavefunction contains all information about a system
- 2. Operators used to extract that information
  - (a) QM operators are *Hermitian*

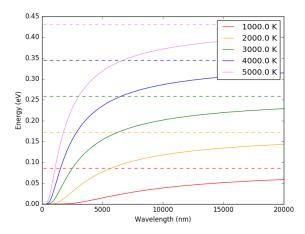


Figure 6: Average energy of a Planck quantized oscillator

**Table 6:** The new physics

Stefan-Boltzmann Law	$\int I(\lambda, T) d\lambda = \sigma_{\rm SB} T^4$
Wien's Law	$\lambda_{\rm max}T=2897768~{\rm nm~K}$
Rayleigh-Jeans eq	$I(\lambda, T) = \frac{8\pi}{\lambda^4} k_B T c$
Blackbody irradiance	$I(\lambda, T) = \frac{8\pi}{\lambda^5} \frac{hc^2}{e^{hc/\lambda k_B T} - 1}$
Einstein crystal	$C_v = 3R \left(\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}\right)^2 \frac{e^{h\nu/k_B T}}{\left(e^{h\nu/k_B T} - 1\right)^2}$
Photon energy	$\epsilon = h\nu = hc/\lambda$
Rydberg equation	$\nu = R_H c \left( 1/n^2 - 1/k^2 \right)$
Bohr equations	$l_n = n\hbar$
$n=1,2,\ldots$	$r_n = n^2 \left( \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{e^2 m_e} \right) = n^2 a_0$
	$E_n = -\frac{m_e e^4}{8\epsilon_0^2 h^2} \frac{1}{n^2} = -\frac{E_H}{2} \frac{1}{n^2}$ $p_n = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{m_e}{\hbar} \frac{1}{n} = p_0 \frac{1}{n}$
de Broglie equation	$\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$

- (b) Have eigenvectors and real eigenvalues,  $\hat{O}\psi_i = o\psi_i$
- (c) Are orthogonal,  $\langle \psi_i | \psi_j \rangle = \delta_{ij}$
- (d) Always observe an eigenvalue when making an observation
- 3. Expectation values
- 4. Energy-invariant wavefunctions given by Schröodinger equation
- 5. Uncertainty principle

#### 2.2.4 Particle in a box illustrations

- 2.3 Lecture 6: Particle in a box model
- 2.3.1 Particle between infinite walls, electron confined in a wire
- 2.3.2 Classical solution, either stationary or uniform bouncing back and forth

## 2.3.3 One-dimesional QM solutions

- 1. Schrödinder equation and boundary conditions
- 2. discrete, quantized solutions
- 3. standing waves,  $\lambda = 2L/n, n-1$  nodes, non-uniform probability
- 4. Ho paper, STM of Pd wire
- 5. zero point energy and uncertainty
- 6. correspondence principle
- 7. superpositions

### 2.3.4 Finite walls and tunneling

- 1. Potential well of finite depth  $V_0$
- 2. Finite number of bound states
- 3. Classical region,  $\psi(x) e^{ikx} + e^{-ikx}, k = \sqrt{2mE}/\hbar$
- 4. "Forbidden" region,  $\psi(x)~e^{\kappa x}+e^{-\kappa x}, \kappa=\sqrt{2m(V_0-E)}/\hbar$
- 5. Non-zero probability to "tunnel" into forbidden region
- 6. Tunneling between two adjacent wells: chemical bonding, STM, nanoelectronics
- 7. H atom tunneling: NH<sub>3</sub> inversion, H transfer, kinetic isotope effect

#### 2.3.5 Multiple dimensions

1. separation of variables, one quantum number for each dimension

## Table 7: Postulates of Non-relativistic Quantum Mechanics

Postulate 1: The physical state of a system is completely described by its wavefunction  $\Psi$ . In general,  $\Psi$  is a complex function of the spatial coordinates and time.  $\Psi$  is required to be:

- I. Single-valued
- II. continuous and twice differentiable
- III. square-integrable  $(\int \Psi^* \Psi d\tau)$  is defined over all finite domains)
- IV. For bound systems,  $\Psi$  can always be normalized such that  $\int \Psi^* \Psi d\tau = 1$

Postulate 2: To every physical observable quantity M there corresponds a Hermitian operator  $\hat{M}$ . The only observable values of M are the eignevalues of  $\hat{M}$ .

Physical quantity	Operator	Expression
Position $x, y, z$	$\hat{x},\hat{y},\hat{z}$	$x\cdot,y\cdot,z\cdot$
		a
Linear momentum $p_x, \dots$	$\hat{p}_x,\dots$	$-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \dots$
Angular momentum $l_x, \dots$	$\hat{p}_x,\dots$	$-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}, \dots$ $-i\hbar \left( y \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right), \dots$
Kinetic energy $T$	$\hat{T}$	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2$
Potential energy $V$	$\hat{V}$	V (r t)
Total energy $E$	$\hat{H}$	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2 + V(\mathbf{r},t)$

**Postulate 3:** If a particular observable M is measured many times on many identical systems is a state  $\Psi$ , the average resuts with be the expectation value of the operator  $\hat{M}$ :

$$\langle M \rangle = \int \Psi^*(\hat{M}\Psi) d\tau$$

Postulate 4: The energy-invariant states of a system are solutions of the equation

$$\hat{H}\Psi(\mathbf{r},t) = i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t}\Psi(\mathbf{r},t)$$

$$\hat{H} = \hat{T} + \hat{V}$$

The time-independent, stationary states of the system are solutions to the equation

$$\hat{H}\Psi(\mathbf{r}) = E\Psi(\mathbf{r})$$

Postulate 5: (The uncertainty principle.) Operators that do not commute  $(\hat{A}(\hat{B}\Psi) \neq \hat{B}(\hat{A}\Psi))$  are called *conjugate*. Conjugate observables cannot be determined simultaneously to arbitrary accuracy. For example, the standard deviation in the measured positions and momenta of particles all described by the same  $\Psi$  must satisfy  $\Delta x \Delta p_x \geq \hbar/2$ .

Table 8: Particle-in-a-box model

## 2.3.6 Introduce Pauli principle for fermions?

#### 2.4 Lecture 7: Harmonic oscillator

#### 2.4.1 Classical harmonic oscillator

- 1. Hooke's law,  $F = -k(x x_0)$ , k spring constant
- 2. Continuous sinusoidal motion

3. 
$$x(t) = A\sin(\frac{k}{\mu})^{1/2}t, \nu = \frac{1}{2\pi}(\frac{k}{\mu})^{1/2}, E = \frac{1}{2}kA^2$$

4. Exchanging kinetic and potential energies

#### 2.4.2 Quantum harmonic oscillator

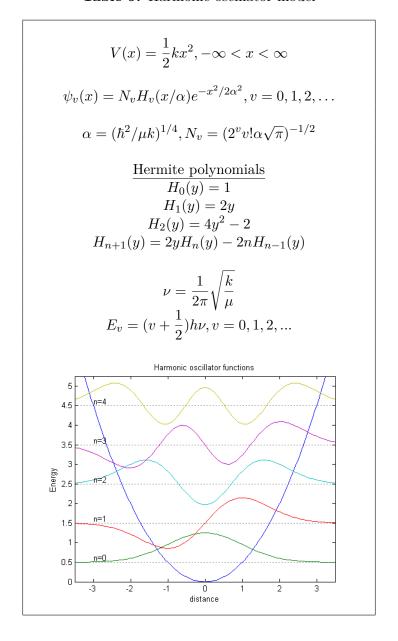
- 1. Solutions like P-I-A-B, waves, nodes, even/odd symmetry
- 2. Zero-point energy
- 3. Expectation values:  $\langle x \rangle = 0, \langle x^2 \rangle = \alpha^2(v+1/2), \langle V(x) \rangle = \frac{1}{2}h\nu(v+\frac{1}{2})$
- 4. Classical turning point and tunneling

5. Classical limiting behavior

#### 2.4.3 HCl example

- 1. Reduced mass,  $\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{1}{m_A} + \frac{1}{m_B}$
- 2. ZPE, energy spacing in IR, Boltzmann probabilities

Table 9: Harmonic oscillator model



## 2.5 Lecture 8: Rigid Rotor

## 2.5.1 Classical rigid rotor

- 1. Compare rotation about an axis vs linear motion
- 2. Moment of intertia  $I = \mu r^2$
- 3. Angular momentum,  $\mathbf{l} = I\omega = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}, T = l^2/2I$ 
  - (a) Angular momentum and energy continuous variables

## 2.5.2 Quantum rotor in a plane

- 1. Angular momentum and kinetic energy operators in polar coordinates,  $\hat{l}_z = -i\hbar \frac{d}{d\phi}$
- 2. Eigenfunctions degenerate, cw and ccw rotation
- 3. No zero point energy
- 4. Angular momentum eignefunctions,  $l_z = m_l \hbar$
- 5. Energy superpositions and localization

## 2.5.3 Quantum rotor in 3-D

- 1. Angular momentum and kinetic energy operators in spherical coordinates
- 2. Spherical harmonic solutions,  $Y_{lm_l}$
- 3. Azimuthal QN  $l = 0, 1, \dots$
- 4. Magnetic QN  $m_l = -l, -l+1, ..., l$
- 5. Energy spectrum, 2l + 1 degeneracy
- 6. Vector model can only know total total |L| and  $L_z$
- 7. Wavefunctions look like atomic orbitals, l nodes

```
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
   from matplotlib import cm, colors
   from mpltoolkits.mplot3d import Axes3D
    import numpy as np
    from scipy.special import sphharm
    phi = np.linspace(0, np.pi, 100)
    theta = np.linspace(0, 2*np.pi, 100)
    phi, theta = np.meshgrid(phi, theta)
9
10
     The Cartesian coordinates of the unit sphere
11
   x = np.sin(phi) * np.cos(theta)
12
   y = np.sin(phi) * np.sin(theta)
   z = np.cos(phi)
14
    m, 1 = 0, 0
16
17
```

Table 10: 2-D rigid rotor model

$$V(\phi) = 0, 0 \le \phi \le 2\pi$$

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2I} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2}, \qquad I = \mu R^2$$

$$\psi_{m_l}(\phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-im_l \phi}, m_l = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$

$$E_{m_l} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} m_l^2$$

$$L_z = m_l \hbar$$

$$L_z = m_l \hbar$$

$$U_{20} = \frac{1}{120} \frac{1}{1$$

```
18
     Calculate the spherical harmonic Y(l,m) and normalize to [0,1]
    fcolors = sphharm(m, 1, theta, phi).real
19
20
    fmax, fmin = fcolors.max(), fcolors.min()
    fcolors = (fcolors fmin)/(fmax fmin)
^{21}
22
23
     Set the aspect ratio to 1 so our sphere looks spherical
    sfig = plt.figure(figsize=plt.figaspect(1.))
24
    s = sfig.addsubplot(111, projection=3d)
25
    s.plotsurface(x, y, z, rstride=1, cstride=1, facecolors=cm.seismic(fcolors))
26
    Turn off the axis planes
27
28
    s.setaxisoff()
    plt.savefig(./Images/s.png)
29
30
    m, 1 = 0, 1
31
32
    Calculate the spherical harmonic Y(l,m) and normalize to [0,1]
33
    fcolors = sphharm(m, 1, theta, phi).real
34
    fmax, fmin = fcolors.max(), fcolors.min()
```

Table 11: 3-D rigid rotor model

$$V(\theta,\phi) = 0, 0 \le \phi \le 2\pi, 0 \le \theta < \pi$$

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

$$\hat{H}_{rot} = \frac{1}{2I} \hat{L}^2$$

$$Y_{lm_l}(\theta,\phi) = N_l^{|m|} P_l^{|m|} (\cos(\theta)) e^{im_l \phi}$$

$$l = 0, 1, 2, \dots, \qquad m_l = 0, \pm 1, \dots, \pm l$$

$$E_l = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} l(l+1)$$

$$|L| = \hbar \sqrt{l(l+1)}, L_z = m_l \hbar$$

```
36
    fcolors = (fcolors fmin)/(fmax fmin)
37
     Set the aspect ratio to 1 so our sphere looks spherical
38
     fig = plt.figure(figsize=plt.figaspect(1.))
39
    pfig = plt.figure(figsize=plt.figaspect(1.))
40
41
    p = pfig.addsubplot(111, projection=3d)
    p.plotsurface(x, y, z, rstride=1, cstride=1, facecolors=cm.seismic(fcolors))
42
43
     Turn off the axis planes
    p.setaxisoff()
44
45
46
    plt.savefig(./Images/p.png)
47
    m, 1 = 1, 2
48
49
50
     Calculate the spherical harmonic Y(l,m) and normalize to [0,1]
    fcolors = sphharm(m, 1, theta, phi).real
51
    fmax, fmin = fcolors.max(), fcolors.min()
52
    fcolors = (fcolors fmin)/(fmax fmin)
53
54
    Set the aspect ratio to 1 so our sphere looks spherical
55
     fig = plt.figure(figsize=plt.figaspect(1.))
56
57
    dfig = plt.figure(figsize=plt.figaspect(1.))
    d = dfig.addsubplot(111, projection=3d)
    d.plotsurface(x, y, z, rstride=1, cstride=1, facecolors=cm.seismic(fcolors))
59
     Turn off the axis planes
    d.setaxisoff()
61
62
63
    plt.savefig(./Images/d.png)
```

#### 2.5.4 Particle angular momentum

- 1. Fermions, mass, half-integer spin
  - (a) Electron,  $s = 1/2, m_s = \pm 1/2$



Figure 7: Pythonic s spherical harmonic



Figure 8: Pythonic p spherical harmonic



Figure 9: Pythonic d spherical harmonic

2. Bosons, force-carrying, integer spin

# 2.6 Lecture 9: Spectroscopy

# 2.6.1 Spectroscopy is quantitative measurement of interaction of light with matter

- 1. Observed  $I(\nu)/I(\nu_0)$
- 2. Bohr condition,  $|E_f E_i|/h = \nu = c\tilde{\nu} = c/\lambda$
- 3. Intensities determined by state populations and transition probabilities

#### 2.6.2 Einstein coefficients

- 1. Stimulated absorption,  $dn_1/dt = -n_1B\rho(\nu)$
- 2. Stimulated emission,  $dn_2/dt = -n_2B\rho(\nu)$
- 3. Spontaneous emission,  $dn_2/dt = -n_2A$ ,  $A = \left(\frac{8\pi h \nu^3}{c^3}\right)B$
- 4. 1/A = lifetime

#### 2.6.3 Transition probability

- 1. Einstein coefficient  $B_{if} = \frac{|\mu_{if}|^2}{6\epsilon_0\hbar^2}$
- 2. Classical electric dipole,  $\overrightarrow{\mu} = q \cdot \overrightarrow{l}$ , quantum dipole operator  $\hat{\mu} = e \cdot \overrightarrow{r}$
- 3. Transition dipole moment,  $\mu_{if} = \left(\frac{d\mu}{dx}\right) \langle \psi_i | \hat{\mu} | \psi_f \rangle$
- 4. Selection rules—conditions that make  $\mu_{if}$  non-zero, "allowed" vs "forbidden" transitions

## 2.7 Lecture 10: Vibrational and rotational spectroscopy

### 2.7.1 Diatomic rotational spectroscopy

- 1. Rotational constant  $B = \hbar/4\pi Ic \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ,  $I = \mu R^2$
- 2. Gross selection rule: dynamic dipole moment non-zero (heteronuclear, not homonuclear)
- 3. Specific selection rule:  $\Delta l = \pm 1, \, \Delta m_l = 0, \pm 1$
- 4.  $\Delta \tilde{E}_l = 2B(l+1) \text{ cm}^{-1}$
- 5. Rotational state populations

## 2.7.2 Diatomic vibrational transitions

- 1. Gross selection rule: dynamic dipole  $d\mu/dx$  non-zero
- 2. Homo- vs. heteronuclear
- 3. Specific selection rule: dipole integral  $\langle \psi_v | \hat{\mu} | \psi_{v'} \rangle = 0$  unless  $\Delta v = \pm 1$
- 4. Allowed  $\Delta E = h\nu$
- 5. Boltzmann distribution implies v = 1 states dominate at normal T

## 2.7.3 Raman spectroscopy

- 1. Shine in light of arbitrary frequency  $\tilde{\nu_0}$ , mostly get out the same
- 2. Some light comes out at  $\tilde{\nu_0} \tilde{\nu}$  (Stoke's line)
- 3. Some light comes out at  $\tilde{\nu_0} + \tilde{\nu}$  (anti-Stoke's line)
- 4. Gross selection rule: dynamic polarizability non-zero (homonuclear, not heteronuclear)

## 2.7.4 Anharmonicity, Morse potential

## 2.7.5 Vibration-rotation spectroscopy

- 1. Harmonic oscillator + rigid rotor
- 2. Selection rules:  $\Delta v = \pm 1, \Delta l = \pm 1$
- 3. R branch:  $\Delta \tilde{E} = \tilde{\nu} + 2B(l+1), \Delta l = 1$
- 4. P branch:  $\Delta \tilde{E} = \tilde{\nu} 2B(l), \Delta l = -1$

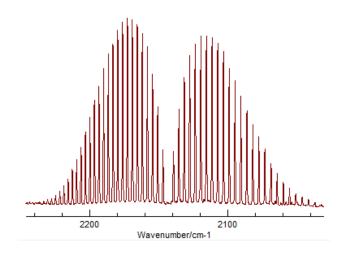


Figure 10: Rovibrational spectrum of carbon monoxide

#### 2.7.6 Polyatomic vibrational spectroscopy

- 1. Polyatomics, 3n-6 (3n-5 for linear polyatomic) vibrational modes
- 2. Selection rules and degeneracies affect number of observed features
- 3.  $CO_2$  example

#### 2.7.7 Polyatomic rotational spectroscopy

- 1. Three distinct moments of intertia  $(I_x, I_y, I_z)$
- 2. Spectra more complex

# 2.8 Lecture 11: Hydrogen atom

# 2.8.1 Schrödinger equation

- 1. Spherical coordinates and separation of variables
- 2. Coulomb potential  $v_{\text{Coulomb}}(r) = -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r}$
- 3. Centripetal potential  $v = \hbar^2 \frac{l(l+1)}{2\mu r^2}$

#### 2.8.2 Solutions

- 1.  $\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R_{nl}(r)Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$
- 2. Principle quantum number n = 1, 2, ...
  - (a)  $K, L, M, N, \ldots$  shells
  - (b) n-1 radial nodes
- 3. Azimuthal quantum number l = 0, 1, ..., n 1
  - (a)  $s, p, d, \ldots$  orbital sub-shells
  - (b) l angular nodes
- 4. Magnetic quantum number  $m_l = -l, -l+1, ..., l$
- 5. Spin quantum number  $m_s = \pm 1/2$
- 6. Energy spectrum and populations
- 7. Electronic selection rules

(a) 
$$\Delta l = \pm 1$$
  $\Delta m_s = 0$   $\Delta m_l = 0, \pm 1$ 

- 8. Wavefunctions = "orbitals"
- 9. Radial probability function  $P_{nl}(r) = r^2 R_{nl}^2(r)$

(a) 
$$\langle r \rangle = \int r P_{nl}(r) dr = \left(\frac{3}{2}n^2 - l(l+1)\right) a_0$$

#### 2.8.3 Variational principle

- 1. Solutions of Schrödinger equation always form a complete set
- 2. True wavefunction energy is therefore lower bound on energy of any trial wavefunction

$$\langle \psi_{\text{trial}}^{\lambda} | \hat{H} | \psi_{\text{trial}}^{\lambda} \rangle = E_{\text{trial}}^{\lambda} \ge E_0$$

1. Optimize wavefunction with respect to variational parameter

$$\left(\frac{\partial \langle \psi_{\text{trial}}^{\lambda} | \hat{H} | \psi_{\text{trial}}^{\lambda} \rangle}{\partial \lambda}\right) = 0 \to \lambda_{\text{opt}}$$

Table 12: Hydrogen atom

$$V(r) = -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r}, 0 < r < \infty$$

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \frac{1}{r^2} \left[ \frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \hat{L}^2 \right] + V(r)$$

$$\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R(r) Y_{l,m_l}(\theta, \phi)$$

$$\left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left( r^2 \frac{d}{dr} \right) + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2m_e r^2} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r} \right\} R(r) = ER(r)$$

$$R_{nl}(r) = N_{nl} e^{-x/2} x^l L_{nl}(x), \quad x = \frac{2r}{na_0}$$

$$P_{nl}(r) = r^2 R_{nl}^2$$

$$n = 1, 2, \dots, \quad l = 0, \dots, n-1 \quad m_l = 0, \pm 1, \dots, \pm l$$

$$N_{nl} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{2}{na_0}\right)^3 \frac{(n-l-1)!}{2n(n+l)!}}$$

$$L_{10} = L_{21} = L_{32} = \dots = 1 \quad L_{20} = 2 - x \quad L_{31} = 4 - x$$

$$E_n = -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\hbar^2}{m_e a_0^2} \frac{1}{n^2} = -\frac{E_H}{2} \frac{1}{n^2}$$

$$|L| = \hbar \sqrt{l(l+1)}, L_z = m_l \hbar$$

#### 2.9 Lecture 12: Many-electron atoms

#### 2.9.1 Many-electron problem, Schrödinger equation not exactly solvable

- 1.  $e^- e^-$  interaction terms prevent separation of variables
- 2. Independent electron model basis of all solutions, describes each electron by its own wavefunction, or "orbital"

#### 2.9.2 Qualitative solutions

- 1.  $\psi_i$  look like H atom orbitals, labeled by same quantum numbers
- 2. Aufbau principle: "Build-up" electron configuration by adding electrons into H-atom-like orbitals, from bottom up

- 3. Pauli exclusion principle: Every electron in atom must have a unique set of quantum numbers, so only two per orbital (with opposite spin)
- 4. Pauli exclusion principle (formally): The wavefunction of a multi-particle system must be anti-symmetric to coordinate exchange if the particles are fermions, and symmetric to coordinate exchange if the particles are bosons
- 5. *Hund's rule*: Electrons in degenerate orbitals prefer to be spin-aligned. Configuration with highest *spin multiplicity* is the most preferred

#### 2.9.3 Structure of the periodic table

- 1. Electrons in different subshells experience different effective nuclear charge  $Z_{\rm eff}=Z-\sigma_{nl}$
- 2. Inner ("core") shells not shielded well at
- 3. Inner shell electrons "shield" outer electrons well
- 4. Within a shell, s shielded less than p less than d ..., causes degeneracy to break down
- 5. Electrons in same subshell shield each other poorly, causing ionization energy to increase across the subshell

#### 2.9.4 Quantitative solutions

1. Schrödinger equation

$$\hat{H}\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots) = E\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots)$$

$$\hat{H} = \sum_{i} \hat{h}_i + \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{i} \sum_{j>i} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|}$$

$$\hat{h}_i = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla_i^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i|}$$

2. Construct candidate many-electron wavefunction  $\Psi$  from one electron wavefunctions (mathematical details vary with exact approach)

$$\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, ...) \approx \psi_1(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_2(\mathbf{r}_2)...\psi_n(\mathbf{r}_n)$$

3. Calculate expectation value of E of approximate model and apply variational principle to find equations that describe "best" (lowest total energy) set of  $\psi_i$ 

$$\begin{split} \frac{\partial E}{\partial \psi_i} &= 0 \quad \forall i \\ \hat{f}\psi &= \left\{ \hat{h} + \hat{v}_{\text{Coul}}[\psi_i] + \hat{v}_{\text{ex}}[\psi_i] + \hat{v}_{\text{corr}}[\psi_i] \right\} \psi = \epsilon \psi \\ E &= \sum_i \epsilon_i - \frac{1}{2} \langle \Psi | \hat{v}_{\text{Coul}}[\psi_i] + \hat{v}_{\text{ex}}[\psi_i] + \hat{v}_{\text{corr}}[\psi_i] | \Psi \rangle \end{split}$$

4. Motivate as equation for an electron moving in a "field" of other electrons, adding an electron to a known set of  $\psi_i$ 

#### 2.9.5 Electron-electron interactions

- 1. Coulomb ( $\hat{v}_{\text{Coul}}$ ): classical repulsion between distinguishable electron "clouds"
- 2. Exchange  $(\hat{v}_{ex})$ : accounts for electron indistinguishability (Pauli principle for fermions). Decreases Coulomb repulsion because electrons of like spin intrinsically avoid one another
- 3. Correlation ( $\hat{v}_{corr}$ ): decrease in Coulomb repulsion due to dynamic ability of electrons to avoid one another; "fixes" orbital approximation
- 4. General form of exchange potential is expensive to calculate; general form of correlation potential is unknown

## 2.9.6 Popular models

- 1. Hartree model: Include only classical Coulomb repulsion  $\hat{v}_{\text{Coul}}$
- 2. Hartree-Fock model: Include Coulomb and exchange
- 3. Density-functional theory (DFT): Include Coulomb and approximate expressions for exchange and correlation
- 4. All the potential terms  $\hat{v}$  depend on the solutions, so equations must be solved *iteratively* to self-consistency

#### 2.9.7 DFT calculations on atoms

1. See http://www.chemsoft.ch/qc/fda.htm

#### 2.10 Lecture 13: Molecular orbital theory of molecules

#### 2.10.1 Clamped nucleus ("Born-Oppenheimer") approximation

1. Write one-electron equations parametrically in terms of positions of all atoms

$$\hat{h}_i = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla_i^2 - \sum_{\alpha} \frac{Z_{\alpha} e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{R}_{\alpha}|}$$
 (1)

- 1. Solve as for atoms, using some model for electron-electron interactions
- 2. Potential energy surface (PES)

$$E(\mathbf{R}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{R}_{\beta}, ...) = E_{\text{elec}} + \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{\alpha} \sum_{\beta > \alpha} \frac{Z_{\alpha} Z_{\beta}}{|\mathbf{R}_{\alpha} - \mathbf{R}_{\beta}|}$$

# 2.10.2 $H_2$ molecule as perturbation on two H atoms brought from infinite distance

- 1. "Bonding" orbital,  $\sigma_g(\mathbf{r}) = 1s_A + 1s_B$
- 2. "Anti-bonding" orbital,  $\sigma_u(\mathbf{r}) = 1s_A 1s_B$
- 3. Interaction scales with "overlap  $\langle 1s_A | 1s_B \rangle$
- 4. Ground configuration =  $\sigma_q^2$
- 5. Bond order =  $\frac{1}{2}(n-n^*)$

Hydrogen (Z = 1) Helium (Z = 2) KE <1/r> 1.5175 1.7352 0.9133 0.60 total energy = -0.5002 virial ratio = -1.9996 total energy = -2.8527 virial ratio = -1.9399 0.20 0.10 Neon (Z = 10)Argon (Z = 18) total energy = -128.3615 virial ratio = -1.9561 total energy = -526.8275 virial ratio = -1.9719 2s distance (bohr) distance (bohr) Krypton (Z = 18) ■ Experiment First ionization energy (eV) 20 15 10

**Table 13:** Numerical DFT Solutions for Atoms

distance (bohr)

## 2.10.3 Secular equations

1. Expand molecular orbitals in "basis" of atomic-like orbitals

$$\psi_{\text{MO}} = \sum_{a} c_a \phi_a(\mathbf{r}) \tag{2}$$

- 2. Problem reduces to finding set of  $c_a$  that give best molecular orbitals (MOs)
- 3. Substituting into Fock equation and integrating yields set of linear equations for the  $c_a$  for each MO

$$\begin{pmatrix} F_{11} - \epsilon S_{11} & F_{12} - \epsilon S_{12} & \dots \\ F_{21} - \epsilon S_{21} & F_{22} - \epsilon S_{22} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ \vdots \end{pmatrix} = 0$$

- (a)  $F_{ij} = F_{ji} = \langle \phi_i | \hat{f} | \phi_j \rangle$  are Fock "matrix elements"
- (b)  $S_{ij} = S_{ji} = \langle \phi_i | \phi_j \rangle$  are overlaps
- (c) Typically basis functions normalized such that  $S_{ii} = 1$
- (d)  $\epsilon$  are molecular orbital energies (to be solved for, as many as there are equations)
- 4. From linear algebra, only possible solutions are those that make the determinant vanish

$$\begin{vmatrix} F_{11} - \epsilon S_{11} & F_{12} - \epsilon S_{12} & \dots \\ F_{21} - \epsilon S_{21} & F_{22} - \epsilon S_{22} & \dots \\ \vdots & \vdots & \vdots \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

5. Solve for  $\epsilon$ s and back-substitute to find correspond  $c_i$ s

#### 2.10.4 Qualitative solutions of secular equations

- 1. Lot's of insight into chemical bonding can be obtained from approximate solutions to secular equations, basis of "molecular orbital theory"
- 2. Two general assumptions
  - (a) Diagonal Fock elements are approximately equal to energies of corresponding atomic orbitals:  $F_{ii} \approx \epsilon_{i,ao}$
  - (b) Off-diagonal elements proportional to overlap and inversely proportional to energy difference:

$$F_{ij} \propto \frac{S_{ij}}{\epsilon_{i,ao} - \epsilon_{j,ao}}$$

(c) (Often) set differential overlap  $S_{ij} = 0$ 

# 2.10.5 $H_2$ example, again

1. Assign one 1s atomic orbital ("basis function") to each atom

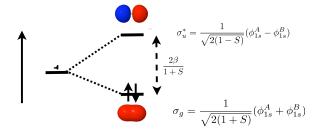
$$F_{11} = F_{22} = \epsilon_{1s} = \alpha$$
$$F_{12} = F_{21} = \beta$$
$$\alpha < \beta < 0 \text{ typically}$$

2. Set-up and solve secular matrix

$$\begin{vmatrix} \alpha - \epsilon & \beta - \epsilon S \\ \beta - \epsilon S & \alpha - \epsilon \end{vmatrix} = 0$$

$$\epsilon_{+} = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{1 + S}, \quad c_{1} = c_{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1 + S)}}$$

$$\epsilon_{-} = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{1 - S}, \quad c_{1} = -c_{2} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1 - S)}}$$



3. From Taylor expansion get picture of atomic orbitals destabilized by electron repulsion  $\beta S$  and split by interaction  $\beta$ 

$$\epsilon_{+} \approx \alpha - \beta S + \beta$$
 $\epsilon_{-} \approx \alpha - \beta S - \beta$ 

4. Makes clear that bonding stabilization < anti-bonding destabilization

#### 2.10.6 Heteronuclear diatomic: LiH, HF, BH example

1. Only AOs of appropriate symmetry, overlap, and energy match can combine to form MOs

$$\epsilon_{+} \approx \alpha_{1} - \beta S - \beta^{2}/|\alpha_{1} - \alpha_{2}|$$
  
 $\epsilon_{-} \approx \alpha_{2} - \beta S + \beta^{2}/|\alpha_{1} - \alpha_{2}|$ 

- 2. LiH: H 1s + Li 2s, bond polarized towards H
- 3. HF: H 1s + F 2p, bond polarized towards F, lots of non-bonding orbitals
- 4. BH: H 1s, B 2s and  $2p_z \rightarrow$  bonding, non-bonding, anti-bonding orbitals

#### 2.10.7 Homonuclear diatomic: $O_2$

- 1. Assign aos, 1s, 2s, 2p for each atom (10 total)
- 2. In principle, solve  $10 \times 10$  secular matrix
- 3. In practice, matrix elements rules mean only a few off-diagonal elements survive
  - (a) 1s + 1s do nothing
  - (b) 2s + 2s form  $\sigma$  bond and anti-bond
  - (c)  $2p_z + 2p_z$  form second bond and anti-bond
  - (d)  $2p_{x,y} + 2p_{x,y}$  form degenerate  $\pi$  bonds and anti-bonds
  - (e) O<sub>2</sub> is a triplet, consistent with experiment!

## 2.10.8 The Hückel/tight binding model

- 1.  $F_{ii} = \alpha, S_{ij} = \delta_{ij}, F_{ij} = \beta$  iff i adjacent to j
- 2. Ethylene example
- 3. Butadiene example
- 4. Benzene example
- 5. Infinite chain example

#### 2.10.9 Band structure of solids

# 2.11 Lecture 14: Computational chemistry

# 2.11.1 Numerical solvers of Schröodinger equation for molecules readily available today

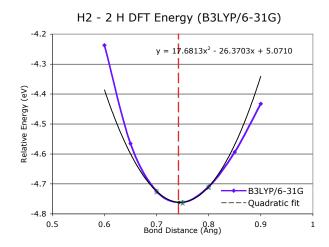
## 2.11.2 Have to specify:

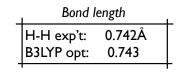
- 1. Identity of atoms
- 2. Positions of atoms (distances, angles, ...)
- 3. (spin multiplicity)
- 4. exact theoretical model (how are Coulomb, exchange, and correlation described?)
  - (a) Hartree, Hartree-Fock, DFT (various flavors), ...
- 5. basis set to express wavefunctions in terms of
- 6. initial guess of wavefunction coefficients (often guessed for you)

# 2.11.3 Secular equations solved iteratively until input coefficients = output coefficients

- 1. "self-consistent field"
- 2. Output
  - (a) energies of molecular orbitals
  - (b) occupancies of molecular orbitals
  - (c) coefficients describing molecular orbitals
  - (d) total electron wavefunction, total electron density, dipole moment, ...
  - (e) total molecular energy
  - (f) derivatives ("gradients") of total energy w.r.t. atom positions
- 3. Plot total energy vs.\ internal coordinates: potential energy surface (PES)
- 4. Search iteratively for minimum point on PES (by hand or using gradient-driven search): equilibrium geometry
- 5. Find second derivative of energy at minimum point on PES: harmonic vibrational frequency
- 6. Find energy at minimum relative to atoms (or other molecules): reaction energy

# 2.11.4 $H_2$ example





Bond energy		
H-H exp't	= 4.478 eV	
2 H: 2(-0.4969) au = -27.041 eV H <sub>2</sub> : -1.1687 au = <u>-31.803</u> eV		
Dissociation E	= 4.762 eV	
ZPE corrected	= 4.484 eV	

Vibrational frequencies		
Experiment: 4401 cm <sup>-1</sup>		
B3LYP harmonic:	4487 cm <sup>-1</sup>	
ZPE:	0.278 eV	

## 2.11.5 Polyatomic molecules

- 1. Gradient-driven optimizations, 3n-6 degrees of freedom
- 2. Hessian matrix for frequencies

# 2.12 Lecture 15: Electronic spectroscopy

3 Statistical Mechanics: The Bridge from the Tiny to the Many