

Chem 30324 outline

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I. Lecture 0: Introduction

- A. Burning lighter example
- B. Foundations of physical chemistry:
 - 1. Quantum mechanics
 - 2. Statistical mechanics
 - 3. Thermodynamics, kinetics, spectroscopy
 - 4. Physical and chemical properties of matter

II. Lecture 1: Basic statistics

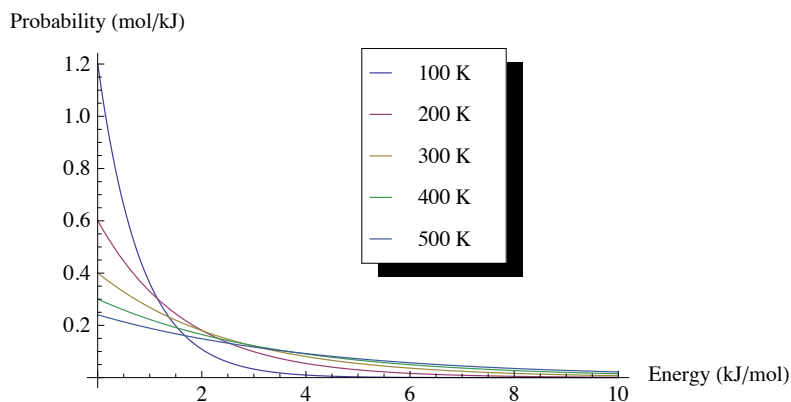
- A. Discrete probability distributions—Coin flip
 - 1. Example of Bernoulli trial, 2^n possible outcomes from n flips
 - 2. Number of ways to get i heads in n flips, ${}_nC_i = n!/i!(n-i)!$
 - 3. Probability of i heads $P_i \propto {}_nC_i$
 - 4. *Normalized* probability, $\tilde{P}_i = P_i / \sum_i P_i = {}_nC_i / 2^n$
 - 5. Expectation value $\langle i \rangle = \sum_i i \tilde{P}_i$
- B. Continuous distributions—temperature
 - 1. Probability density $P(x)$ has units $1/x$
 - 2. Normalized $\tilde{P}(x) = P(x) / \int P(x) dx$
 - 3. (Unitless) probability $a < x < b = \int_a^b \tilde{P}(x) dx$
 - 4. Expectation value $\langle f(x) \rangle = \int f(x) \tilde{P}(x) dx$
 - 5. Mean $= \langle x \rangle$
 - 6. Mean squared $= \langle x^2 \rangle$
 - 7. Variance $\sigma^2 = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$
 - 8. Standard deviation $\Delta x = \sigma$
- C. Boltzmann distribution
 - 1. $P(E) \propto e^{-E/k_B T}$, in some sense the definition of temperature
 - 2. Energy and its units
 - 3. Absolute temperature and its units
 - 4. $k_B T$ as an energy scale, ≈ 0.026 eV at 298 K
 - 5. Gravity example
 - a. $E(h) = mgh$, linear, continuous energy spectrum

Table 1: Key units in Physical Chemistry

N_{Av} :	6.02214×10^{23}	mol^{-1}		
1 amu:	1.6605×10^{-27}	kg		
k_{B} :	1.38065×10^{-23}	J K^{-1}	8.61734×10^{-5}	eV K^{-1}
R :	8.314472	$\text{J K}^{-1} \text{mol}^{-1}$	8.2057×10^{-2}	$\text{l atm mol}^{-1} \text{K}^{-1}$
σ_{SB} :	5.6704×10^{-8}	$\text{J s}^{-1} \text{m}^{-2} \text{K}^{-4}$		
c :	2.99792458×10^8	m s^{-1}		
h :	6.62607×10^{-34}	J s	4.13566×10^{-15}	eV s
\hbar :	1.05457×10^{-34}	J s	6.58212×10^{-16}	eV s
hc :	1239.8	eV nm		
e :	1.60218×10^{-19}	C		
m_e :	$9.10938215 \times 10^{-31}$	kg	1: 0.5109989	MeV c^{-2}
ϵ_0 :	8.85419×10^{-12}	$\text{C}^2 \text{J}^{-1} \text{m}^{-1}$	5.52635×10^{-3}	$e^2 \text{\AA}^{-1} \text{eV}^{-1}$
$e^2/4\pi\epsilon_0$:	2.30708×10^{-28}	J m	14.39964	eV \AA
a_0 :	0.529177×10^{-10}	m	0.529177	\AA
E_{H} :	1	Ha	27.212	eV

Table 2: Energy conversions and correspondences

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

**Figure 1:** Boltzmann probability distribution at various temperatures

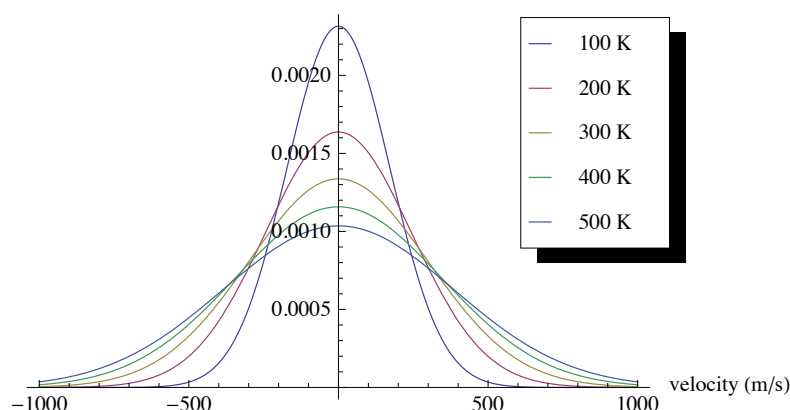


Figure 2: One-dimensional (Gaussian) velocities of N_2 gas

- b. molecule vs. car in a gravitational field
- c. Barometric law for gases, $P = P_0 e^{-mgh/k_B T}$
- 6. Kinetic energy in 1-D example
 - a. $KE = \frac{1}{2}mv_x^2$
 - b. $P_{1D}(v_x) = \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T}\right)^{1/2} \exp\left(-\frac{m|v_x|^2}{2k_B T}\right)$
 - c. Gaussian distribution, $G(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{(x-\mu)^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$, mean μ , variance σ^2
 - d. By inspection, $\mu = \langle v_x \rangle = 0$, $\sigma^2 = \langle v_x^2 \rangle = k_B T/m$
 - e. Molecule vs. car again
- 7. Equipartition – energy freely exchanged between all degrees of freedom

III. Lecture 2: Kinetic theory of gases

A. Postulates

1. Gas is composed of molecules in constant random, thermal motion
2. Molecules only interact by perfectly elastic collisions
3. Volume of molecules is \ll total volume

B. Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution of molecular speeds

1. Speed $v = \sqrt{v_x^2 + v_y^2 + v_z^2}$
2. $P_{MB}(v)dv = P_{1D}(v_x)P_{1D}(v_y)P_{1D}(v_z) * \text{degeneracy}(v)dv$
3. mean speeds $\propto \sqrt{T}$
4. mean energy $U = \frac{3}{2}RT$ and heat capacity $C_v = \frac{3}{2}R$

C. Flux and pressure

1. Velocity flux $j(v_x)dv_x = v_x \frac{N}{V} P(v_x)dv_x$, molecules /area /time / v_x
2. Wall collisions, J_w , total collisions /area /time
3. Momentum exchange, pressure, ideal gas law

D. Collisions and mean free path

Table 3: Kinetic theory of gases key equations

Boltzmann distribution ($g(E)$: degeneracy of E)	$P(E) = g(E)e^{-E/k_B T}$
Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution	$P_{\text{MB}}(v) = 4\pi v^2 \left(\frac{m}{2\pi k_B T} \right)^{3/2} \exp \left(-\frac{mv^2}{2k_B T} \right)$
Mean and RMS speeds	$\langle v \rangle = \left(\frac{8k_B T}{\pi m} \right)^{1/2} \quad \langle v^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \left(\frac{3k_B T}{m} \right)^{1/2}$
Pressure	$\langle P \rangle = \frac{\Delta p}{\Delta t} = m \frac{N}{V} \frac{1}{3} \langle v^2 \rangle = \frac{N k_B T}{V} = \frac{n R T}{V}$
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	$z_{AA} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{N}{V} z$
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	$\langle x^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{2Dt} \quad \langle r^2 \rangle^{1/2} = \sqrt{6Dt}$
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
	$D_{\text{Brownian}} = \frac{k_B T}{6\pi\eta r}$ "Stick" boundary

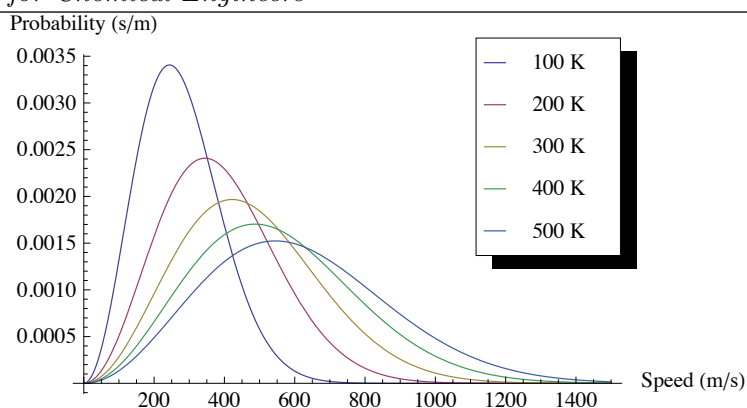


Figure 3: Maxwell-Boltzmann speed distribution of N_2 gas

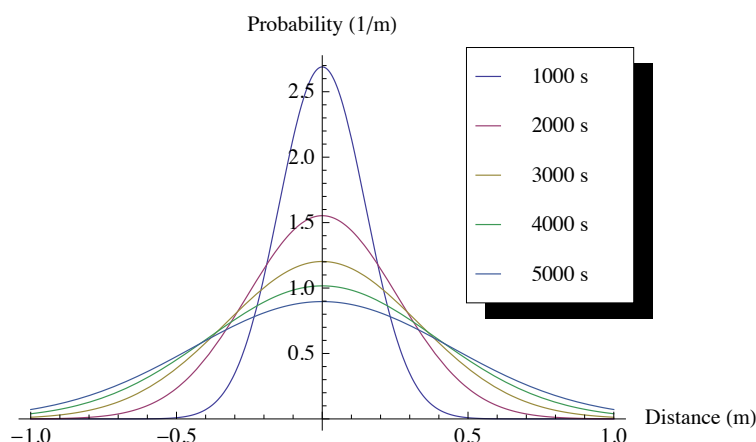


Figure 4: Diffusional spreading, $\sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle} = \sqrt{2Dt}$

1. Collision cross section $\sigma = \pi d^2$, size of molecule
2. Molecular collisions, z per molecule and z_{AA} per volume
3. Mean free path, λ , mean distance between collisions

IV. Lecture 3: Transport

- A. Effusion and Graham's law, effusion rate $\propto MW^{-1/2}$
- B. Fick's first law: net flux proportional to concentration gradient
 1. $j_x = -D \frac{dc}{dx}$
 2. Self-diffusion constant, $D = \frac{1}{3} \lambda \langle v \rangle$
- C. Knudsen diffusion, $D = \frac{1}{3} l \langle v \rangle$
- D. Fick's second law: time evolution of concentration gradient
 1. Continuity with no advection: $\frac{\partial c}{\partial t} = -\nabla \cdot \vec{j} + \text{gen}$
 2. One-dimension: $\frac{dc}{dt} = D \frac{d^2c}{dx^2}$
 3. Diffusion has Gaussian probability distribution: $c(x, t)/c_0 = [2\sqrt{\pi Dt}]^{-1} \exp(-x^2/4Dt)$

E. Seeing is believing—Brownian motion

1. Seemingly random motion of large particles (“dust”) due to “kicks” from invisible molecules
2. Einstein receives Nobel Prize for showing:
 - a. Motion follows same Gaussian diffusion behavior
 - b. From steady-state arguments in a field, diffusion constant is ratio of Boltzmann energy, $k_B T$, to mobility
 - c. Mobility inversely related to viscosity
3. Stokes-Einstein equation
4. Allows measurement of Avogadro’s number, final proof of kinetic theory
5. Similar model for diffusion of liquid molecules, slip boundary

F. Random walk model of diffusion

1. Binomial distribution
2. Large N and Stirling approximation
3. Einstein-Smoluchowski relation

V. Lecture 4: Duality and demise of classical physics

A. Properties of waves

1. traveling waves, $\psi(x, t) = A \sin(kx - \omega t)$, $k = 2\pi/\lambda$, $\omega = 2\pi\nu$
2. standing waves, $\psi(x, t) = A \sin(kx) \cos(\omega t)$
3. interference, diffraction
4. energy proportional to amplitude squared
5. Expected energy of a classical oscillator, $\langle \epsilon \rangle_\nu = k_B T$ for all ν

B. Blackbody radiation

1. Hohlraum spectrum
2. Stefan-Boltzmann law, total irradiance
3. Wien’s displacement law
4. Rayleigh-Jeans and ultraviolet catastrophe
5. Planck model
 - a. Energy spectrum of oscillators are *quantized*, $\epsilon_\nu = nh\nu$
 - b. Expected energy of a quantized oscillator, $\langle \epsilon \rangle_\nu = h\nu / (e^{h\nu/k_B T} - 1)$
 - c. Planck expression for blackbody radiation works!

C. Heat capacities of solids and gases

1. Law of DuLong and Pettite, $C_v = 3R$, fails at low T
2. Einstein solid
 - a. Quantized vibrational energy, $\epsilon_n = nh\nu$
 - b. Heat capacity goes to zero at low T

D. Photoelectric effect

1. Stopping potential and work function, $T = h\nu - W$
2. Frequency and intensity dependence
3. Wave-particle duality

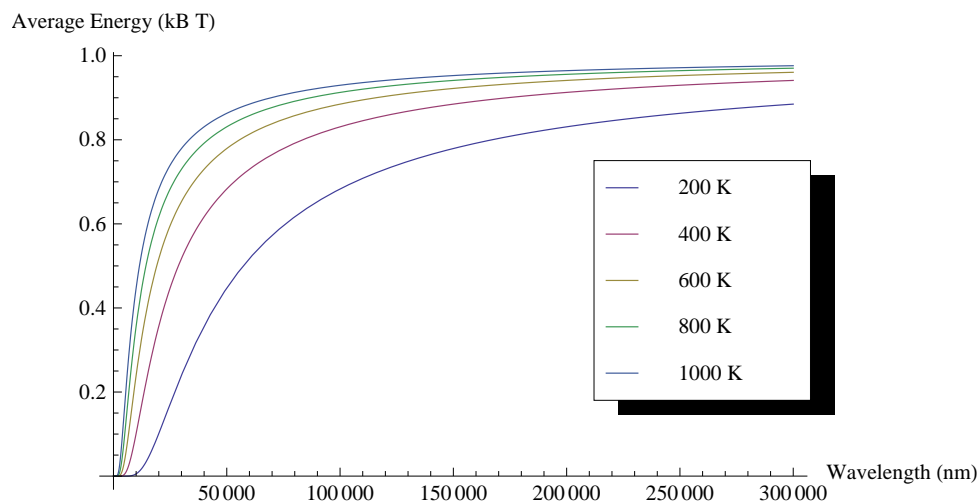


Figure 5: Planck oscillator energy $\langle \epsilon \rangle_\lambda$ vs. wavelength, normalized to $k_B T$

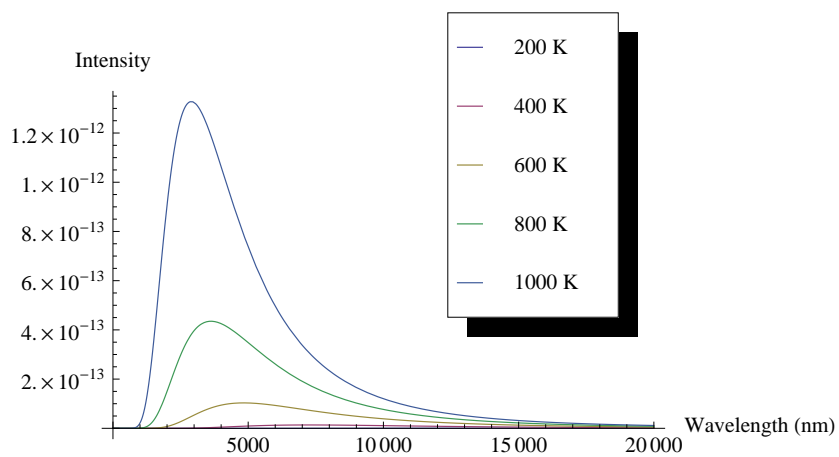


Figure 6: Black body radiation intensity $I(\lambda, T)$ vs. wavelength

Table 4: The new physics

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

4. Photon properties, $\epsilon = h\nu, p = h/\lambda$
5. Compton effect, light scattering of electrons changes λ
- E. Rutherford, planetary model of atom, and inconsistency with Maxwell's equations
- F. Bohr model of H atom
 1. Discrete H energy spectrum and Rydberg formula
 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
- G. de Broglie relation
 1. $\lambda = h/p$ universally
 2. Relation to Bohr orbits
 3. Davison and Germer experiment, e^- diffraction off Ni

VI. Lecture 5: Postulates of quantum mechanics

- A. Schrödinger equation describes wave-like properties of matter
- B. Born interpretation
 1. wavefunction is a probability amplitude
 2. wavefunction squared is probability density
- C. Postulates
 1. Wavefunction contains all information about a system
 2. Operators used to extract that information
 - a. QM operators are *Hermitian*
 - 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 Schrödinger equation
 5. Uncertainty principle
- D. Particle in a box illustrations

VII. Lecture 6: Particle in a box model

- A. Particle between infinite walls, electron confined in a wire
- B. Classical solution, either stationary or uniform bouncing back and forth
- C. One-dimensional QM solutions
 1. Schrödinger equation and boundary conditions
 2. discrete, quantized solutions
 3. standing waves, $\lambda = 2L/n$, $n - 1$ nodes, non-uniform probability

Table 5: Postulates of Non-relativistic Quantum Mechanics

Postulate 1: The physical state of a system is completely described by its wavefunction

Ψ . In general, Ψ is a complex function of the spatial coordinates and time. Ψ is required to be:

- A. Single-valued
- B. continuous and twice differentiable
- C. square-integrable ($\int \Psi^* \Psi d\tau$ is defined over all finite domains)
- D. For bound systems, Ψ 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 eigenvalues of \hat{M} .**

Physical quantity	Operator	Expression
Position x, y, z	$\hat{x}, \hat{y}, \hat{z}$	x, y, z
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	$-i\hbar \left(y \frac{\partial}{\partial z} - z \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \right), \dots$
Kinetic energy T	\hat{T}	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2$
Potential energy V	\hat{V}	$V(\mathbf{r}, t)$
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 in a state Ψ , the average results will be the expectation value of the operator \hat{M} :

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

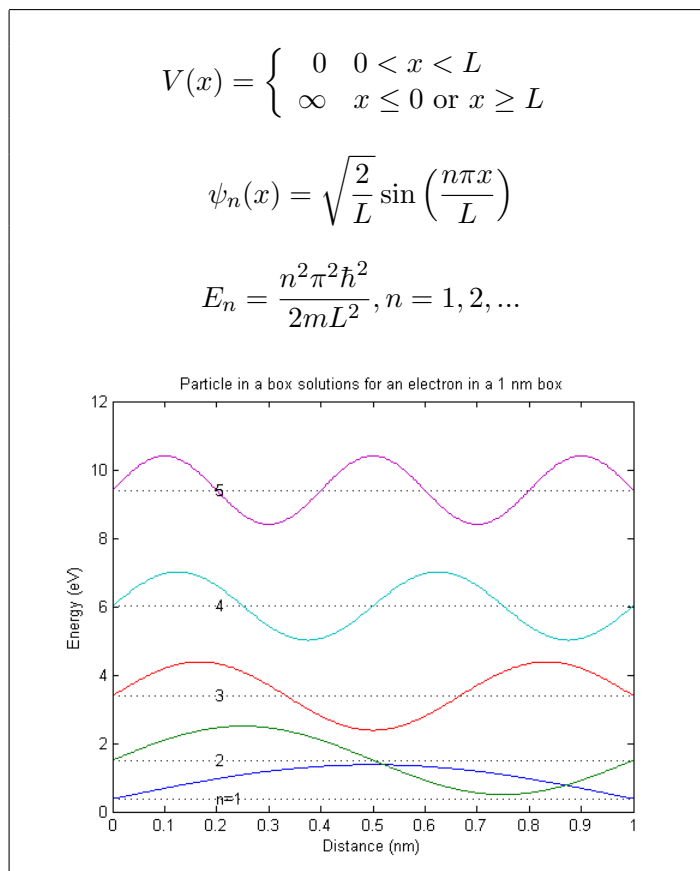
Postulate 4: The energy-invariant states of a system are solutions of the equation

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) &= i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \\ \hat{H} &= \hat{T} + \hat{V} \end{aligned}$$

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 Ψ must satisfy $\Delta x \Delta p_x \geq \hbar/2$.

Table 6: Particle-in-a-box model

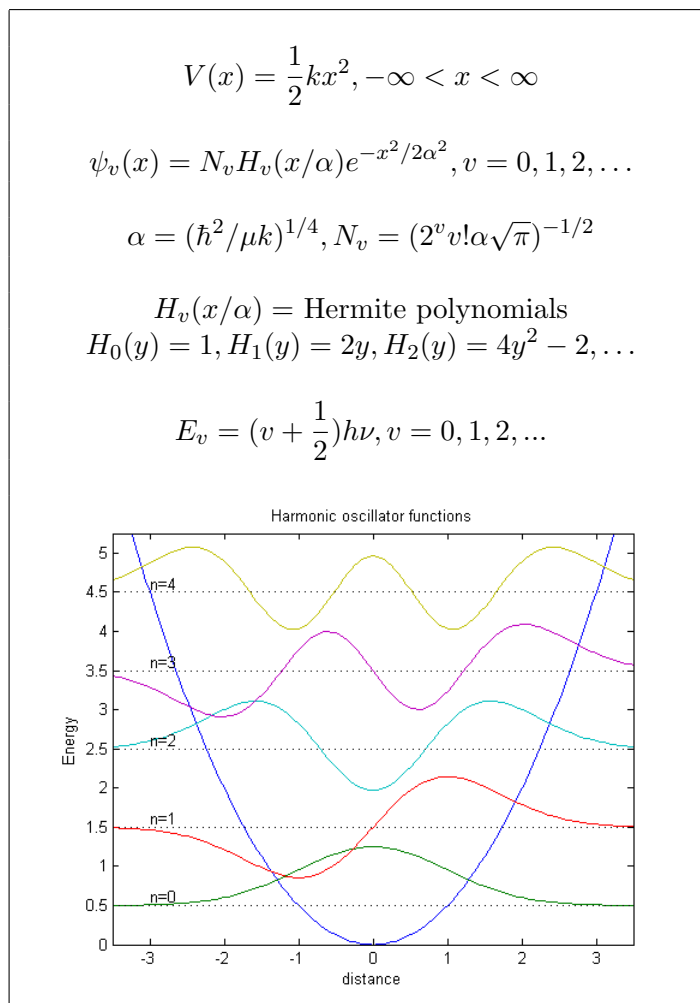
4. Ho paper, STM of Pd wire
 5. zero point energy and uncertainty
 6. correspondence principle
 7. superpositions
- D. Finite walls and tunneling
1. Potential well of finite depth V_0
 2. Finite number of bound states
 3. Classical region, $\psi(x) = e^{ikx} + e^{-ikx}$, $k = \sqrt{2mE}/\hbar$
 4. “Forbidden” 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_3 inversion, H transfer, kinetic isotope effect
- E. Multiple dimensions
1. separation of variables
- F. Introduce Pauli principle for fermions?

VIII. Lecture 7: Harmonic oscillator

- A. 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
- B. Quantum harmonic oscillator
 - 1. Solutions like P-I-A-B, waves, nodes
 - 2. Zero-point energy
 - 3. Expectation values $\langle x^2 \rangle = \alpha^2(v + 1/2)$, $\langle V(x) \rangle = \frac{1}{2}h\nu(v + \frac{1}{2})$
 - 4. Classical turning point and tunneling
 - 5. Classical limiting behavior
- C. HCl example
 - 1. Reduced mass, $\frac{1}{\mu} = \frac{1}{m_A} + \frac{1}{m_B}$
- D. Anharmonicity, Morse potential

IX. Lecture 8: Vibrational spectroscopy

- A. Spectroscopy, measuring interaction of light with matter, $I(\nu)/I(\nu_0)$
- B. Bohr condition, $|E_f - E_i|/h = \nu = c\tilde{\nu} = c/\lambda$
- C. Intensities determined by state populations and transition probabilities
- D. 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
- E. Transition probability
 - 1. Einstein coefficient $B_{if} = \frac{|\mu_{if}|^2}{6\epsilon_0\hbar^2}$
 - 2. Classical electric dipole, $\vec{\mu} = q \cdot \vec{l}$, quantum dipole operator $\hat{\mu} = e \cdot \vec{r}$
 - 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 μ_{if} non-zero, “allowed” vs. “forbidden” transitions
- F. Vibrational transitions
 - 1. Gross selection rule: dynamic dipole $d\mu/dx$ non-zero
 - 2. Specific selection rule: dipole integral $\langle \psi_v | \hat{\mu} | \psi_{v'} \rangle = 0$ unless $\Delta v = \pm 1$
 - 3. Allowed $\Delta E = h\nu$
 - 4. Boltzmann, $v = 1$ states dominate at normal T
- G. Vibrational spectroscopy
 - 1. Diatomics, homo- vs. heteronuclear
 - 2. Polyatomics, $3n - 6$ ($3n - 5$ for linear polyatomic) vibrational modes
 - 3. CO₂ example

Table 7: Harmonic oscillator model

H. Raman spectroscopy

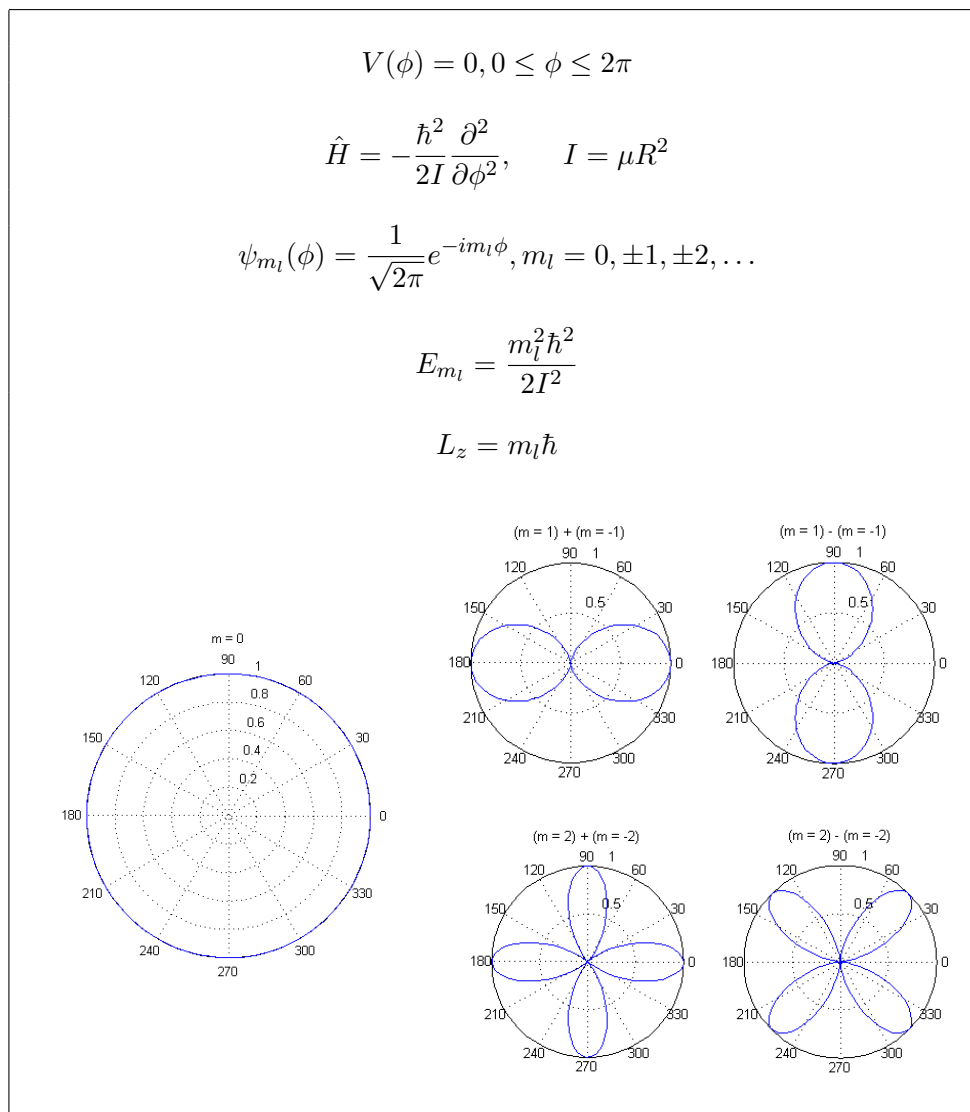
X. Lecture 9: Rigid rotor

A. Classical rigid rotor

1. Rotation about an axis vs. linear motion
2. Moment of inertia $I = \mu r^2$
3. Angular momentum, $\mathbf{l} = I\boldsymbol{\omega} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}$, $T = |\mathbf{l}|^2/2I$
4. Angular momentum and energy continuous variable

B. 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 and energy spectrum
3. No zero point energy
4. Angular momentum eigenfunctions, $l_z = m_l \hbar$
5. Energy superpositions and localization

Table 8: 2-D rigid rotor model

C. 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 $m_l = -l, -l + 1, \dots, l$
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

D. Particle angular momentum

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

2. Bosons, force-carrying, integer spin
- E. Diatomic rotational spectroscopy
 1. Rotational constant $B = \hbar/4\pi Ic \text{ cm}^{-1}$, $I = \mu R^2$
 2. Gross selection rule: dipole moment non-zero
 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
- F. Polyatomic rotational spectroscopy
- G. 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: $\Delta \tilde{E} = \tilde{\nu} - 2B(l)$, $\Delta l = -1$

XI. Lecture 10: Hydrogen atom

- A. 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 $v = \hbar^2 \frac{l(l+1)}{2\mu r^2}$
- B. Solutions
 1. $\psi(r, \theta, \phi) = R_{nl}(r)Y_{lm}(\theta, \phi)$
 2. Principle quantum number $n = 1, 2, \dots$
 - a. K, L, M, N, \dots shells
 - b. $n - 1$ radial nodes
 3. Azimuthal quantum number $l = 0, 1, \dots, n - 1$
 - a. s, p, d, \dots orbital sub-shells
 - b. l angular nodes
 4. Magnetic quantum number $m_l = -l, -l + 1, \dots, l$
 5. Spin quantum number $m_s = \pm 1/2$
- C. Energy spectrum and populations
- D. Electronic selection rules
 1. $\Delta l = \pm 1$, $\Delta m_s = 0$, $\Delta m_l = 0, \pm 1$
- E. Wavefunctions = “orbitals”
- F. Radial probability function $P_{nl}(r) = r^2 R_{nl}^2(r)$
 1. $\langle r \rangle = \int r P_{nl}(r) dr = (\frac{3}{2}n^2 - l(l+1))a_0$

XII. Lecture 11: Many-electron atoms

- A. Many-electron problem, Schrödinger equation not exactly solvable
 1. $e^- - e^-$ interaction terms prevent separation of variables

Table 9: 3-D rigid rotor model

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

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

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

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

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

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

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

- B. Independent electron model basis of all solutions, describes each electron by its own wavefunction, or “orbital”
- C. Qualitative solutions
1. ψ_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
 6. Rules give the familiar structure of the periodic table

Table 10: Hydrogen atom

$$\begin{aligned}
 V(r) &= -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r}, 0 < r < \infty \\
 \hat{H} &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \frac{1}{r^2} \left[\frac{\partial}{\partial r} r^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \hat{L}^2 \right] + V(r) \\
 \psi(r, \theta, \phi) &= R(r) Y_{l, m_l}(\theta, \phi) \\
 \left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d}{dr} \left(r^2 \frac{d}{dr} \right) + \frac{\hbar^2 l(l+1)}{2m_e r^2} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{r} \right\} R(r) &= E R(r) \\
 R_{nl}(r) &= N_{nl} e^{-x/2} x^l L_{nl}(x), \quad x = \frac{2r}{na_0} \\
 P_{nl}(r) &= r^2 R_{nl}^2 \\
 n &= 1, 2, \dots, \quad l = 0, \dots, n-1 \quad m_l = 0, \pm 1, \dots, \pm l \\
 E_n &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{\hbar^2}{m_e a_0^2} \frac{1}{n^2} = -\frac{E_H}{2} \frac{1}{n^2} \\
 |L| &= \hbar \sqrt{l(l+1)}, L_z = m_l \hbar
 \end{aligned}$$

7. Electrons in different subshells experience different effective nuclear charge $Z_{\text{eff}} = Z - \sigma_{nl}$
 - a. Inner (“core”) shells not shielded well at all
 - b. Inner shell electrons “shield” outer electrons well
 - c. Within a shell, s shielded less than p less than d ..., causes degeneracy to break down
 - d. Electrons in same subshell shield each other poorly, causing ionization energy to increase across the subshell
- D. *Variational principle*–True wavefunction energy is lower bound on energy of any trial wavefunction
 1. Because true solutions form a complete set
 2. Use to optimize candidate wavefunctions (give an example?)
- E. Quantitative solutions
 1. Schrödinger equation
 - a. $\hat{H}\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots) = E\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots)$
 - b. $\hat{H} = \sum_i \hat{h}_i + \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_i \sum_{j>i} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{r}_j|}$
 - c. $\hat{h}_i = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla_i^2 - \frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{|\mathbf{r}_i|}$

2. Construct candidate many-electron wavefunction Ψ from one electron wavefunctions (mathematical details vary with exact approach)
 - a. $\Psi(\mathbf{r}_1, \mathbf{r}_2, \dots) \approx \psi_1(\mathbf{r}_1)\psi_2(\mathbf{r}_2)\dots\psi_n(\mathbf{r}_n)$
3. Calculate expectation value of E of approximate model and apply *variational principle* to find equations that describe “best” (lowest total energy) set of ψ_i
 - a. $\frac{\partial E}{\partial \psi_i} = 0 \quad \forall i$
 - b. $\hat{f}\psi = \left\{ \hat{h} + \hat{v}_{\text{Coul}}[\psi_i] + \hat{v}_{\text{ex}}[\psi_i] + \hat{v}_{\text{corr}}[\psi_i] \right\} \psi = \epsilon\psi$
 - c. (Motivate as equation for an electron moving in a “field” of other electrons, adding an electron to a known set of ψ_i)
 - d. $E = \sum_i \epsilon_i - \frac{1}{2} \langle \Psi | \hat{v}_{\text{Coul}}[\psi_i] + \hat{v}_{\text{ex}}[\psi_i] + \hat{v}_{\text{corr}}[\psi_i] | \Psi \rangle$
4. Electron-electron interactions
 - a. Coulomb (\hat{v}_{Coul}): classical electrostatic repulsion between distinguishable electron “clouds”
 - b. Exchange (\hat{v}_{ex}): accounts for electron indistinguishability (Pauli principle for fermions). Decreases Coulomb repulsion because electrons of like spin intrinsically avoid one another
 - c. Correlation (\hat{v}_{corr}): decrease in Coulomb repulsion due to dynamic ability of electrons to avoid one another; “fixes” orbital approximation
5. General form of exchange potential is expensive to calculate; general form of correlation potential is unknown
 - a. *Hartree model*: Include only classical Coulomb repulsion \hat{v}_{Coul}
 - b. *Hartree-Fock model*: Include Coulomb and exchange
 - c. *Density-functional theory* (DFT): Include Coulomb and approximate expressions for exchange and correlation
6. All the potential terms \hat{v} depend on the solutions, so equations must be solved *iteratively* to *self-consistency*

F. Herman-Skillman code for DFT calculations on atoms

XIII. Lecture 12: Molecular orbital theory of molecules

A. Clamped nucleus (“Born-Oppenheimer”) approximation

1. Write one-electron equations parametrically in terms of positions of all atoms
2. $\hat{h}_i = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m_e} \nabla_i^2 - \sum_{\alpha} \frac{Z_{\alpha} e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 |\mathbf{r}_i - \mathbf{R}_{\alpha}|}$
3. Solve as for atoms, using some model for electron-electron interactions
4. Potential energy surface (PES)
 - a. $E(\mathbf{R}_{\alpha}, \mathbf{R}_{\beta}, \dots) = E_{\text{elec}} + \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \sum_{\alpha} \sum_{\beta > \alpha} \frac{Z_{\alpha} Z_{\beta}}{|\mathbf{R}_{\alpha} - \mathbf{R}_{\beta}|}$

B. 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” = σ_g^2
5. Bond order = $\frac{1}{2}(n - n^*)$

C. Secular equations

1. Expand molecular orbitals in “basis” of atomic-like orbitals

$$\psi_{\text{MO}} = \sum_a c_a \phi_a(\mathbf{r}) \quad (1)$$

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. ϵ 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 ϵ s and back-substitute to find correspond c_i s

D. 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: $F_{ii} \approx \epsilon_{i,\text{ao}}$
 - b. Off-diagonal elements proportional to overlap and inversely proportional to energy difference:

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

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

E. H₂ example, again

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

$$F_{11} = F_{22} = \epsilon_{1s} = \alpha$$

$$F_{12} = F_{21} = \beta$$

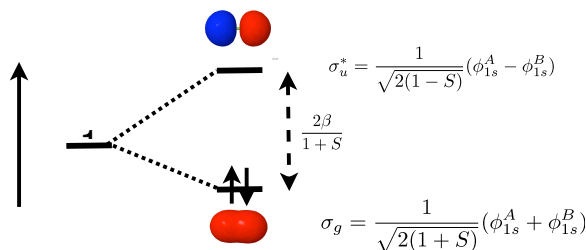
$$\alpha < \beta < 0 \quad \text{typically}$$

2. Set-up and solve secular matrix

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

$$\epsilon_+ = \frac{\alpha + \beta}{1 + S}, \quad c_1 = c_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1 + S)}}$$

$$\epsilon_- = \frac{\alpha - \beta}{1 - S}, \quad c_1 = -c_2 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1 - S)}}$$



- From Taylor expansion get picture of atomic orbitals destabilized by electron repulsion βS and split by interaction β

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

$$\epsilon_- \approx \alpha - \beta S - \beta$$

- Makes clear that bonding stabilization < anti-bonding destabilization

F. Heteronuclear diatomic: LiH, HF, BH example

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

$$\epsilon_+ \approx \alpha_1 - \beta S - \beta^2/|\alpha_1 - \alpha_2|$$

$$\epsilon_- \approx \alpha_2 - \beta S + \beta^2/|\alpha_1 - \alpha_2|$$

- LiH: H 1s + Li 2s, bond polarized towards H
- HF: H 1s + F 2p, bond polarized towards F, lots of non-bonding orbitals
- BH: H 1s, B 2s and 2p_z → bonding, non-bonding, anti-bonding orbitals

G. Homonuclear diatomic: O₂

- Assign aos, 1s, 2s, 2p for each atom (10 total)
- In principle, solve 10 × 10 secular matrix
- In practice, matrix elements rules mean only a few off-diagonal elements survive
 - 1s + 1s do nothing
 - 2s + 2s form σ bond and anti-bond
 - 2p_z + 2p_z form second bond and anti-bond
 - 2p_{x,y} + 2p_{x,y} form degenerate π bonds and anti-bonds
 - O₂ is a triplet, consistent with experiment!

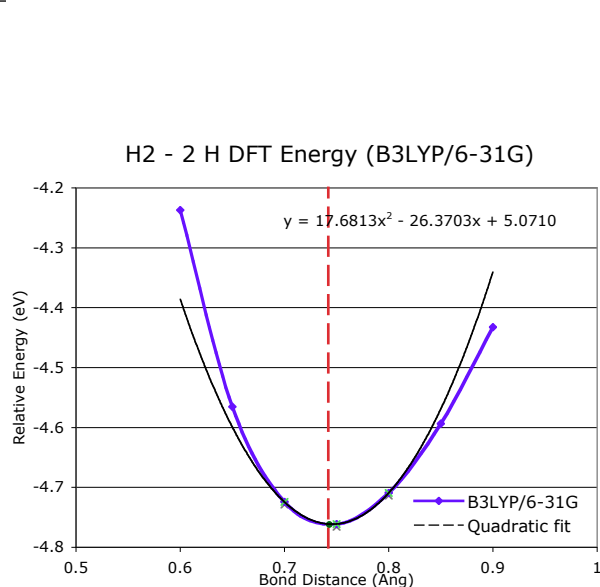
H. The Hückel/tight binding model

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

I. Band structure of solids

XIV. Lecture 13: Computational chemistry

- A. Numerical solvers of Schrödinger equation for molecules readily available today
- B. 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)
- C. Secular equations solved iteratively until input coefficients = output coefficients
 - 1. “self-consistent field”
- D. Output
 - 1. energies of molecular orbitals
 - 2. occupancies of molecular orbitals
 - 3. coefficients describing molecular orbitals
 - 4. total electron wavefunction, total electron density, dipole moment, ...
 - 5. total molecular energy
 - 6. derivatives (“gradients”) of total energy w.r.t. atom positions
- E. Plot total energy vs. internal coordinates: potential energy surface (PES)
- F. Search iteratively for minimum point on PES (by hand or using gradient-driven search): equilibrium geometry
- G. Find second derivative of energy at minimum point on PES: harmonic vibrational frequency
- H. Find energy at minimum relative to atoms (or other molecules): reaction energy
- I. H₂ example

**Bond length**

H-H exp't:	0.742 Å
B3LYP opt:	0.743

Bond energy

H-H exp't	= 4.478 eV
2 H: 2(-0.4969) au = -27.041 eV	
H ₂ : -1.1687 au = -31.803 eV	
Dissociation E	= 4.762 eV
ZPE corrected	= 4.484 eV

Vibrational frequencies

Experiment:	4401 cm ⁻¹
B3LYP harmonic:	4487 cm ⁻¹
ZPE:	0.278 eV

J. Polyatomic molecules

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

XV. Lecture 14: Electronic spectroscopy

- A. Electronic spectroscopy examines electron jumps between energy states (orbitals)
- B. The orbital structure of each substance is unique, so unlike vibrational or rotational spectroscopy, there is no simple general energy model for electronic transitions. There are a couple general rules, though:
 1. Spin selection rule: $\Delta S = 0$
 - a. electron spins are "forbidden to change"
 2. Koopmans "theorem":
 - a. the energy of an electronic transition is approximately the difference in energy between the orbital an electron starts in and the one it ends up in
 - (1) $h\nu \approx \epsilon_{\text{final}} - \epsilon_{\text{initial}}$
 - b. this theorem is an approximation because the orbitals are not static; more correctly, the energy difference is given by a full electronic structure calculation on the initial and final states
- C. Various classes of transitions
 1. UV/visible spectroscopy
 - a. electron jumps from valence filled to empty orbital
 - b. energies of an eV or so
 - c. π to π^* classic example

2. UV photoelectron spectroscopy
 - a. electron ionized from valence filled orbital
3. X-ray spectroscopy
 - a. electron ionized from core orbital or promoted from core to an empty orbital
 - b. 10s-1000s eV energies
 - c. many types, from lab scale to massive synchrotrons
 - d. information about elemental composition, oxidation state, coordination, ...
- D. Various classes of electron events
 1. stimulated absorption
 - a. photon causes jump from lower to higher energy electronic state
 - b. often convoluted with jumps to different vibrational, rotational states
 2. spontaneous emission
 - a. electron spontaneously jumps to a lower energy state and emits a photon
 - b. basis of fluorescence ($\Delta S = 0$)
 - c. basis of long-lived phosphorescence ($\Delta S \neq 0$)
 - d. long-lived because it breaks the spin selection rule
 3. stimulated emission
 - a. passing photon causes electron to jump from higher to a lower energy state and to emit another photon
 - b. cascade of such stimulated events is the basis of laser action

XVI. Lecture XX: Electronic and magnetic properties - skipped

XVII. Lecture 15: Statistical mechanics

- A. Need machinery to average QM information over macroscopic systems
- B. Equal *a priori* probabilities
- C. Two-state model
 1. Box of particles, each of which can have energy 0 or ϵ
 2. Thermodynamic state defined by number of elements N , and number of quanta q ,
 $U = q\epsilon$
 3. Degeneracy of given N and q given by binomial distribution:

$$\Omega = \frac{N!}{q!(N-q)!}$$

4. Allow energy to flow between two such systems
 - a. Energy of a closed system is conserved (first law!)
 - b. Degeneracy of total system is always \geq degeneracy of the starting parts!
 - c. Boltzmann's tombstone, $S = k_B \ln \Omega$
 - d. Clausius: entropy of the universe seeks a maximum! Second Law...
- D. Energy flow/thermal equilibrium between two large systems
 1. Each subsystem has energy U_i and degeneracy $\Omega_i(U_i)$
 2. Bring in thermal contact, $U = U_1 + U_2$, $\Omega = \Omega_1(U_1)\Omega_2(U_2)$

3. If systems are very large, one combination of U_1 , U_2 and Ω will be much more probably than all others
4. What value of U_1 and $U_2 = U - U_1$ maximizes Ω ?

$$\left(\frac{\partial \ln \Omega_1}{\partial U_1}\right)_N = \left(\frac{\partial \ln \Omega_2}{\partial U_2}\right)_N$$

$$\left(\frac{\partial S_1}{\partial U_1}\right)_N = \left(\frac{\partial S_2}{\partial U_2}\right)_N$$

5. Thermal equilibrium is determined by equal **temperature**!

$$\frac{1}{T} = \left(\frac{\partial S}{\partial U}\right)_N$$

6. When the temperatures of the two subsystems are equal, the entropy of the combined system is maximized!
7. (Same arguments lead to requirement that equal pressures (P_i) and equal chemical potentials (μ_i) maximize entropy when volumes or particles are exchanged)

E. Two-state model in limit of large N

1. Large N and Stirling's approximation
2. Fundamental thermodynamic equation of two-state system:

$$S(U) = -k_B (x \ln x + (1 - x) \ln(1 - x)), \text{ where } x = q/N = U/N\epsilon$$

3. Temperature is derivative of entropy wrt energy yields

$$U(T) = \frac{N\epsilon}{1 + e^{\epsilon/k_B T}}$$

- a. $T \rightarrow 0, U \rightarrow 0, S \rightarrow 0$, minimum disorder
- b. $T \rightarrow \infty, U \rightarrow N\epsilon/2, S \rightarrow k_B \ln 2$, maximum disorder
4. Differentiate again to get heat capacity

F. Canonical (NVT) ensemble

1. Previous is example of microcanonical (" NVE ") ensemble
2. Direct evaluation of $S(U)$ is generally intractable, so seek simpler approach
3. Imagine a system brought into thermal equilibrium with a much larger "reservoir" of constant T , such that the aggregate has a total energy U
4. Degeneracy of a given system microstate j with energy U_j is $\Omega_{res}(U - U_j)$

$$T = \frac{dU_{res}}{k_B d \ln \Omega_{res}}$$

$$\Omega_{res}(U - U_j) \propto e^{-U_j/k_B T}$$

5. Probability for system to be in a microstate with energy U_j given by Boltzmann distribution!

$$P(U_j) \propto e^{-U_j/k_B T} = e^{-U_j \beta}$$

6. Partition function "normalizes" distribution, $Q(T) = \sum_j e^{-U_j \beta}$

7. For system of identical (distinguishable) elements with energy states ϵ_i , can factor probability to show

$$P(\epsilon_i) \propto e^{-\epsilon_i/k_B T} = e^{-\epsilon_i \beta}, \quad \beta = 1/k_B T$$

G. Energy factoring

1. If system is large, how to determine it's energy states U_j ? There would be many, many of them!
2. One simplification is if we can write energy as sum of energies of individual elements (atoms, molecules) of system:

$$U_j = \epsilon_j(1) + \epsilon_j(2) + \dots + \epsilon_j(N) \quad (2)$$

$$Q(N, V, T) = \sum_j e^{-U_j \beta} \quad (3)$$

$$= \sum_j e^{-(\epsilon_j(1) + \epsilon_j(2) + \dots + \epsilon_j(N))\beta} \quad (4)$$

- a. *If* molecules/elements of system can be distinguished from each other (like atoms in a fixed lattice), expression can be factored:

$$Q(N, V, T) = \left(\sum_j e^{-\epsilon_j(1)\beta} \right) \dots \left(\sum_j e^{-\epsilon_j(N)\beta} \right) \quad (5)$$

$$= q(1) \dots q(N) \quad (6)$$

$$\text{Assuming all the elements are the same:} \quad (7)$$

$$= q^N \quad (8)$$

$$q = \sum_j e^{-\epsilon_j \beta} : \text{molecular partition function} \quad (9)$$

- b. *If not* distinguishable (like molecules in a liquid or gas, or electrons in a solid), problem is difficult, because identical arrangements of energy amongst elements should only be counted once. Approximate solution, good almost all the time:

$$Q(N, V, T) = q^N / N! \quad (10)$$

- c. Sidebar: "Correct" factoring depends on whether individual elements are fermions or bosons, leads to funny things like superconductivity and superfluidity.

H. Two-state system again

1. Partition function, $q(T) = 1 + e^{-\epsilon \beta}$
2. State probabilities
3. Internal energy $U(T)$

$$U(T) = -N \left(\frac{\partial \ln(1 + e^{-\epsilon \beta})}{\partial \beta} \right) = \frac{N \epsilon e^{-\epsilon \beta}}{1 + e^{-\epsilon \beta}} \quad (11)$$

Table 11: Equations of the Canonical (NVT) Ensemble

$\beta = 1/k_B T$	Full Ensemble	Distinguishable particles (e.g. atoms in a lattice)	Indistinguishable particles (e.g. molecules in a fluid)
Single particle partition function		$q(V, T) = \sum_i e^{-\epsilon_i \beta}$	$q(V, T) = \sum_i e^{-\epsilon_i \beta}$
Full partition function	$Q(N, V, T) = \sum_j e^{-U_j \beta}$	$Q = q(V, T)^N$	$Q = q(V, T)^N / N!$
Log partition function	$\ln Q$	$N \ln q$	$N \ln q - \ln N!$ $\approx N(\ln q - \ln N + 1)$
Helmholtz energy ($A = U - TS$)	$-\frac{\ln Q}{\beta}$	$-\frac{N \ln q}{\beta}$	$-\frac{N}{\beta} \left(\ln \frac{q}{N} + 1 \right)$
Internal energy (U)	$-\left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial \beta} \right)_{NV}$	$-N \left(\frac{\partial \ln q}{\partial \beta} \right)_V$	$-N \left(\frac{\partial \ln q}{\partial \beta} \right)_V$
Pressure (P)	$-\left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial V} \right)_{N\beta}$	$-N \left(\frac{\partial \ln q}{\partial V} \right)_\beta$	$-N \left(\frac{\partial \ln q}{\partial V} \right)_\beta$
Entropy (S/k_B)	$\beta U + \ln Q$	$\beta U + N \ln q$	$\beta U + N (\ln(q/N) + 1)$
Chemical potential (μ)	$-\frac{1}{\beta} \left(\frac{\partial \ln Q}{\partial N} \right)_{VT}$	$-\frac{\ln q}{\beta}$	$-\frac{\ln(q/N)}{\beta}$

NOTE! All energies are referenced to their values at 0 K. Enthalpy $H = U + PV$, Gibb's Energy $G = A + PV$.

4. Heat capacity C_v

- Minimum when change in states with T is small
- Maximize when change in states with T is large

5. Helmholtz energy, $A = -\ln q/\beta$, decreasing function of T

6. Entropy

I. Distinguishable vs. indistinguishable particles

- Distinguishable (e.g., in a lattice): $Q(N, V, T) = q(V, T)^N$
- Indistinguishable (e.g., a gas): $Q(N, V, T) \approx q(V, T)^N / N!$

J. Thermodynamic functions in canonical ensemble

XVIII. Lecture 16: Molecular partition functions

A. Ideal gas of molecules

$$Q_{ig}(N, V, T) = \frac{(q_{\text{trans}} q_{\text{rot}} q_{\text{vib}})^N}{N!}$$

B. Particle-in-a-box (translational states of a gas)

- Energy states $\epsilon_n = n^2 \epsilon_0$, $n = 1, 2, \dots$, ϵ_0 tiny for macroscopic V

2. $\Theta_{\text{trans}} = \epsilon_0/k_B$ translational temperature
3. $\Theta_{\text{trans}} \ll T \rightarrow$ many states contribute to $q_{\text{trans}} \rightarrow$ integral approximation

$$q_{\text{trans,1D}} = \int_0^\infty e^{-x^2 \beta \epsilon_0} dx = L/\Lambda$$

$$\Lambda = \left(\frac{h^2 \beta}{2\pi m} \right)^{1/2} \quad \text{thermal wavelength}$$

$$q_{\text{trans,3D}} = V/\Lambda^3$$

4. Internal energy
 5. Heat capacity
 6. Equation of state (!)
 7. Entropy: Sackur-Tetrode equation
- C. Rigid rotor (rotational states of a gas)
1. energy states and degeneracies
 2. $\Theta_{\text{rot}} = \hbar^2/2Ik_B$
 3. “High” T $q_{\text{rot}}(T) \approx \sigma \Theta_{\text{rot}}/T$
- D. Harmonic oscillator (vibrational states of a gas)
1. $\Theta_{\text{vib}} = h\nu/k_B$
- E. Electronic partition functions \rightarrow spin multiplicity
- F. Non-ideality
1. Real molecules interact through vdW interactions
 2. Particle-in-a-box model breaks down, have to work harder but can still get at same ideas
 3. See Hill, *J. Chem. Ed.* **1948**, 25, p. 347, <http://dx.doi.org/10.1021/ed025p347>

XIX. Lecture 17: Chemical reactions and equilibrium

- A. Standard states
1. Translational partition function depends on concentration N/V
 2. “Standard state” corresponds to some standard choice for N/V , c°
 3. For ideal gas, related to pressure by $P^\circ = c^\circ k_B T$
- B. Chemical reaction $A \rightarrow B$
- C. Reaction entropy $\Delta S^\circ(T) = S_B^\circ(T) - S_A^\circ(T)$
- D. Reaction energy $\Delta U^\circ(T) = U_B^\circ(T) - U_A^\circ(T) + \Delta E(0)$
- E. Equilibrium condition—equate chemical potentials, $\mu_A(N, V, T) = \mu_B(N, V, T)$
- F. Equilibrium constant—evaluate from partition functions directly or indirectly from thermodynamic potentials
- G. Le’Chatlier’s principle
1. Response to temperature: Boltzmann distribution favors higher energy things as T increases
 2. Response to volume change: particle-in-a-box states increasingly favor side with more molecules as volume increases

Table 12: Statistical Thermodynamics of an Ideal Gas**Translational DOFs** 3-D particle in a box model

$$\theta_{\text{trans}} = \frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2 k_B}, \Lambda = h \left(\frac{\beta}{2\pi m} \right)^{1/2}$$

For $T \gg \theta_{\text{trans}}, \Lambda \ll L, q_{\text{trans}} = V/\Lambda^3$ (essentially always true)

$$U_{\text{trans}} = \frac{3}{2}RT \quad C_{v,\text{trans}} = \frac{3}{2}R \quad S_{\text{trans}}^\circ = R \ln \left(\frac{e^{5/2} V^\circ}{N^\circ \Lambda^3} \right) = R \ln \left(\frac{e^{5/2} k_B T}{P^\circ \Lambda^3} \right)$$

Rotational DOFs Rigid rotor model

Linear molecule $\theta_{\text{rot}} = hcB/k_B$

$$q_{\text{rot}} = \frac{1}{\sigma} \sum_{l=0}^{\infty} (2l+1) e^{-l(l+1)\theta_{\text{rot}}/T} \approx \frac{1}{\sigma} \frac{T}{\theta_{\text{rot}}}, \quad T \gg \theta_{\text{rot}} \quad \sigma = \begin{cases} 1, & \text{unsymmetric} \\ 2, & \text{symmetric} \end{cases}$$

$$U_{\text{rot}} = RT \quad C_{v,\text{rot}} = R \quad S_{\text{rot}}^\circ = R(1 - \ln(\sigma \theta_{\text{rot}}/T))$$

Non-linear molecule $\theta_{\text{rot},\alpha} = hcB_\alpha/k_B$

$$q_{\text{rot}} \approx \frac{1}{\sigma} \left(\frac{\pi T^3}{\theta_{\text{rot},\alpha} \theta_{\text{rot},\beta} \theta_{\text{rot},\gamma}} \right)^{1/2}, \quad T \gg \theta_{\text{rot},\alpha,\beta,\gamma} \quad \sigma = \text{rotational symmetry number}$$

$$U_{\text{rot}} = \frac{3}{2}RT \quad C_{v,\text{rot}} = \frac{3}{2}R \quad S_{\text{rot}}^\circ = \frac{R}{2} \left(3 - \ln \frac{\sigma \theta_{\text{rot},\alpha} \theta_{\text{rot},\beta} \theta_{\text{rot},\gamma}}{\pi T^3} \right)$$

Vibrational DOFs Harmonic oscillator model

Single harmonic mode $\theta_{\text{vib}} = h\nu/k_B$

$$q_{\text{vib}} = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\theta_{\text{vib}}/T}} \approx \frac{T}{\theta_{\text{vib}}}, \quad T \gg \theta_{\text{vib}}$$

$$U_{\text{vib}} = R \frac{\theta_{\text{vib}}}{e^{\theta_{\text{vib}}/T} - 1} \quad C_{v,\text{vib}} = R \left(\frac{\theta_{\text{vib}}}{T} \frac{e^{\theta_{\text{vib}}/2T}}{e^{\theta_{\text{vib}}/T} - 1} \right)^2 \quad S_{\text{vib},i}^\circ = R \left(\frac{\theta_{\text{vib}}/T}{e^{\theta_{\text{vib}}/T} - 1} - \ln(1 - e^{-\theta_{\text{vib}}/T}) \right)$$

Multiple harmonic modes $\theta_{\text{vib},i} = h\nu_i/k_B$

$$q_{\text{vib}} = \prod_i \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\theta_{\text{vib},i}/T}}$$

$$U_{\text{vib}} = R \sum_i \frac{\theta_{\text{vib},i}}{e^{\theta_{\text{vib},i}/T} - 1} \quad C_{v,\text{vib}} = R \sum_i \left(\frac{\theta_{\text{vib},i}}{T} \frac{e^{\theta_{\text{vib},i}/2T}}{e^{\theta_{\text{vib},i}/T} - 1} \right)^2 \quad S_{\text{vib},i}^\circ = R \left(\frac{\theta_{\text{vib},i}/T}{e^{\theta_{\text{vib},i}/T} - 1} - \ln(1 - e^{-\theta_{\text{vib},i}/T}) \right)$$

Electronic DOFs q_{elec} = spin multiplicity

XX. Lecture 18: Chemical kinetics

- A. Kinetics and reaction rates
 - 1. Rate: number per unit time per unit something
- B. Empirical chemical kinetics
 - 1. Rate laws, rate orders, and rate constants
 - 2. Arrhenius expression, $k = Ae^{-E_a/k_B T}$
- C. Reaction mechanisms
- D. Elementary steps and molecularity
- E. Collision theory—overpredicts rates
- F. Transition state theory (TST)
 - 1. Existence of reaction coordinate (PES)
 - 2. Existence of dividing surface
 - 3. Equilibrium between reactants and “transition state”
 - 4. Harmonic approximation for transition state
- G. Locating transition states computationally
- H. Thermodynamic connection
- I. (Skipped) Diffusion-controlled reactions
 - 1. Intermediate complex
 - 2. Steady-state approximation
 - 3. Diffusion-controlled limit ($k_D = 4\pi(r_A + r_B)D_{AB}$)
 - 4. Reaction-controlled limit ($k_{app} = (k_D/k_{-D})k_r$)

XXI. Lecture 19: Conclusion

- A. Do you think about the burning lighter any differently now?

Table 13: Equilibrium and Rate Constants**Equilibrium Constants** $a A + b B \rightleftharpoons c C + d D$

$$K_{eq}(T) = e^{\Delta S^\circ(T,V)/k_B} e^{-\Delta H^\circ(T,V)/k_B T}$$

$$K_c(T) = \left(\frac{1}{c^\circ}\right)^{\nu_c + \nu_d - \nu_a - \nu_b} \frac{(q_c/V)^{\nu_c} (q_d/V)^{\nu_d}}{(q_a/V)^{\nu_a} (q_b/V)^{\nu_b}} e^{-\Delta E(0)\beta}$$

$$K_p(T) = \left(\frac{k_B T}{P^\circ}\right)^{\nu_c + \nu_d - \nu_a - \nu_b} \frac{(q_c/V)^{\nu_c} (q_d/V)^{\nu_d}}{(q_a/V)^{\nu_a} (q_b/V)^{\nu_b}} e^{-\Delta E(0)\beta}$$

Unimolecular Reaction $[A] \rightleftharpoons [A]^\ddagger \rightarrow C$

$$k(T) = \nu^\ddagger \bar{K}^\ddagger = \frac{k_B T}{h} \frac{\bar{q}_\ddagger(T)/V}{q_A(T)/V} e^{-\Delta E^\ddagger(0)\beta}$$

$$E_a = \Delta H^{\circ\ddagger} + k_B T \quad A = e^1 \frac{k_B T}{h} e^{\Delta S^{\circ\ddagger}}$$

Bimolecular Reaction $A + B \rightleftharpoons [AB]^\ddagger \rightarrow C$

$$k(T) = \nu^\ddagger \bar{K}^\ddagger = \frac{k_B T}{h} \frac{q_\ddagger(T)/V}{(q_A(T)/V)(q_B(T)/V)} \left(\frac{1}{c^\circ}\right)^{-1} e^{-\Delta E^\ddagger(0)\beta}$$

$$E_a = \Delta H^{\circ\ddagger} + 2k_B T \quad A = e^2 \frac{k_B T}{h} e^{\Delta S^{\circ\ddagger}}$$