

Now we can discuss rotational motion:



We must still assume that rotation & vibration are independent of each other (i.e. bond length is the same).  
To describe the rotation of a particle, we need the following relations:

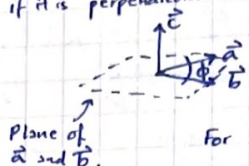
$$\vec{p} = m\vec{v}, \quad K = \frac{\vec{p}^2}{2m}$$

$$I = mr^2, \quad \vec{\omega} = \frac{\vec{r} \times \vec{v}}{r^2}$$

$$\vec{v} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}, \quad \vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$$

$$(\vec{L} = I\vec{\omega})$$

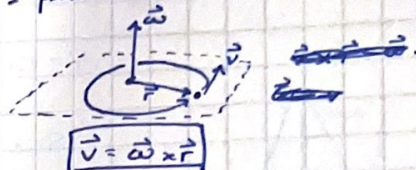
Cross product refresher: vector  $\vec{c}$  is a cross product of  $\vec{a}$  and  $\vec{b}$  if it is perpendicular to both vectors:



$$|\vec{c}| = |\vec{a}||\vec{b}|\sin(\phi),$$

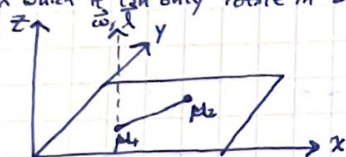
$$\vec{c} = \vec{a} \times \vec{b}.$$

For a particle's rotation, this is:

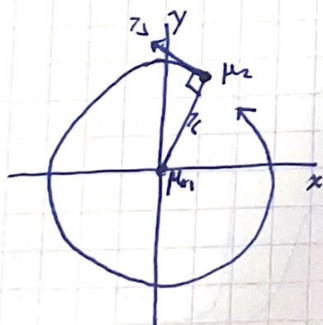


$$K = \frac{I\vec{\omega}^2}{2} = \frac{\vec{L}^2}{2I}$$

Consider the rotation of a ~~particle~~ diatomic molecule on a surface, in which it can only rotate in a 2D space, and not in 3-D.



Recenter  $m_1$  to origin, view from above:



$\vec{\omega}$  and  $\vec{L}$  will always be along the  $z$ -axis due to

$$\vec{L} = \vec{r} \times \vec{p}$$

$$\vec{v} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r}$$

Since  $\vec{v}$  will always be tangential to  $\vec{r}$ , (since we assume  $\vec{r}$  to be constant throughout rotation)  $\sin(\phi) = 1$ . This simplifies

$$\vec{v} = \vec{\omega} \times \vec{r} \rightarrow v = \omega r.$$

"Particle on a ring"

How would we describe the energy of this particle in the classical sense?

$E = K + U$ ,  $U = 0$ , no force pushing particle in or out (we disregard centripetal force)

$$E = K = \frac{p_x^2}{2\mu} + \frac{p_y^2}{2\mu} = \frac{\vec{L}^2}{2I}, \text{ where } I = \mu r^2.$$

Translate into quantum case:

Write hamiltonian

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}.$$

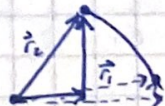
If the wave function is in 2-D space, then  $\Psi(x, y)$ .

State Schrödinger Equation:

$$\hat{H}\Psi = E\Psi, \quad -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \Psi = E\Psi$$

$$\Psi(x, y) \rightarrow \Psi(r, \phi)$$

Recall that for a single particle in 3-D space, we separated these variables since they are independent of each other. However, in a rotating model,  $x$  depends on  $y$ .



$x$  depends on  $y$  and  $y$  depends on  $x$ .

→ We should use polar coordinates instead of cartesian coordinates.

$$\{x, y\} \rightarrow \{r, \phi\} \text{ since } r \text{ is constant.}$$

$$x = r \cos \phi$$

$$y = r \sin \phi$$

$$x^2 + y^2 = r^2$$

This way, when  $m_2$  moves, only  $\phi$  changes.

$$\text{Arc length} = r\phi$$



### Restrictions

Since  $\Psi(x,y) \rightarrow \Psi(r,\phi)$ , ~~in general~~ and  $r$  is constant in our case,  $\Psi(\phi)$ .

$\rightarrow \int |\Psi|^2 d\phi = 1$ , save for later

$\rightarrow$  Periodicity:  $\Psi(\phi) = \Psi(\phi + 2\pi) = \Psi(\phi + 4\pi) = \dots$

Keep these in mind as we solve for the Schrödinger's Equation:

We need to convert

$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \Psi = E\Psi$  to polar coordinates.

Use Laplace's operator in place:  $\left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \Psi$  becomes

$\left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \right)$

Recall, however, that  $\Psi$  does not depend on  $r$ . Therefore,  $\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2}$  and  $\frac{\partial}{\partial r} = 0$ .

$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \left( \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) \Psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \left( \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \right) = \hat{H}$ . Recall that  $\mu r^2 = I$ , so

$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2I} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2}$

Note that this is functionally the same as a particle in 1-D motion, where

$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$  for KE.

### Solve Schrödinger's Equation

$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} \Psi = E\Psi \rightarrow$  We already have solutions to this, from the movement of a particle in 1-D:  $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \Psi = E\Psi$ , where  $\Psi = ce^{ikx}$ . Instead of  $x$  however, we will get  $\Psi = ce^{ik\phi}$ .

$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{d^2}{d\phi^2} (ce^{ik\phi}) = E(ce^{ik\phi}) \rightarrow E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2I}$ ,  $k = \pm \sqrt{\frac{2IE}{\hbar^2}}$

$\rightarrow$  Let's solve the boundary condition that  $\Psi(\phi) = \Psi(\phi + 2\pi) = \Psi(\phi + 4\pi)$

$e^{ik\phi} = e^{ik(\phi+2\pi)} = e^{ik(\phi+4\pi)} = \dots$

$e^{ik\phi} = e^{ik\phi} e^{ik2\pi}$   
 $1 = e^{ik2\pi}$

$\rightarrow$  Euler's identity,  $\cos 2\pi k + i \sin 2\pi k = 1$ , Either  $\cos 2\pi k = 1$ ,  $i \sin 2\pi k = 0$

$\cos 2\pi k = 0$ ,  $i \sin 2\pi k = 1$ ,

$\therefore k = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots = m_l$

$\Psi_{m_l} = ce^{im_l \phi}$  where  $m_l = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$  Quantization.

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

Since  $E_{m_l} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} m_l^2$  and  $I = \mu r^2$ ,

$E_{m_l} = \frac{\hbar^2}{8\mu r^2} m_l^2$   $|e^{im_l \phi}|^2 =$

Normalizing  $\Psi$ :

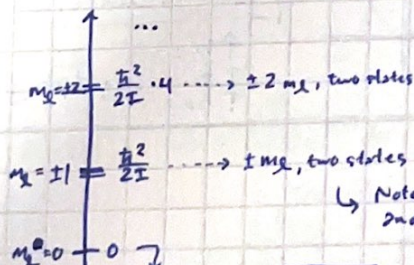
$P = |\Psi|^2 = |c|^2 \cdot 1$

$\int_0^{2\pi} P d\phi = |c|^2 \cdot \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi = |c|^2 \cdot 2\pi = 1$  (For normalization)

$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}$

For PIR problem,

$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im_l \phi}$



Note that when  $m_l = 1$ ,  $e^{i\phi}$   
and when  $m_l = -1$ ,  $e^{-i\phi}$

Not the same

Unlike in a 1-D system, where  $n \neq 0$  in  $\frac{\hbar^2}{8\mu r^2} n^2$ ,  $m_l = 0$  actually makes physical sense. When  $m_l = 0$ ,  $\Psi = 1$ , and the wave function still exists.



$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im_l \phi} \quad \text{when } m_l = 1 \quad \text{when } m_l = -1$$

$$e^{i\phi} \quad -e^{-i\phi} : \Psi(x) = e^{ikx} \text{ for 1-D motion; left or right motion.}$$

These positive or negative values represent counter-clockwise or clockwise motion respectively:



Proof that  $m_l = +1$  is counter-clockwise and  $m_l = -1$  is clockwise:

The operator for angular momentum in the  $z$ -component is defined as:

$$\hat{L}_z = -i\hbar \frac{d}{d\phi} \rightarrow \text{note similarity to } \hat{p} = -i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}$$

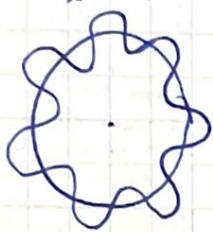
$$\Psi = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im_l \phi}, \quad \hat{L}_z \Psi = -i\hbar \frac{d}{d\phi} \left( \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im_l \phi} \right) = -i\hbar \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} (im_l e^{im_l \phi})$$

If  $m_l$  is (-),  $L_z$  is (-) in  $z$ -direction,  $m_l$  is (+),  $L_z$  is (+) in  $z$ -direction.

$$L_z = \pm \frac{\hbar m_l}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im_l \phi}$$

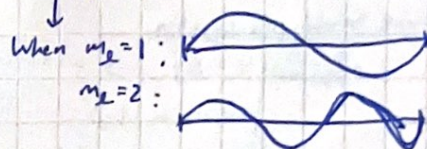
→ Relating this all to waves on a ring:

$$L = \hbar m_l = r \cdot p, \therefore L = r \left( \frac{h}{\lambda} \right), \quad \lambda = \frac{h}{p}, \quad p = \frac{h}{\lambda} : \text{Relate } \lambda \text{ to length of box } (r):$$



Integer ( $m_l$ ) number of wavelengths fitting into the circle.

$$r \left( \frac{h}{\lambda} \right) = \hbar m_l, \quad 2\pi r = \lambda m_l$$



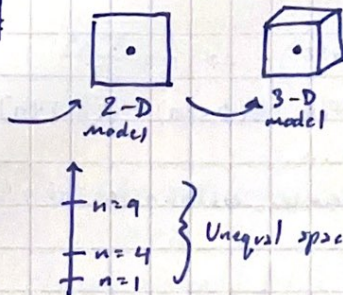
### SUMMARY OF KNOWN MODELS OF QM

Particle in a box:

→ Particle on a line

→ Particle in a box with infinitely high walls

→ Particle in a box with finitely high walls

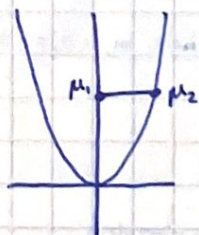


$$\Psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{a}\right)$$

$$E_n = \frac{h^2}{8ma^2} \cdot n^2 \text{ where } n=1, 2, 3, \dots$$

Harmonic Oscillator:

Note that the  $n$  for the Energy equation is not the same as the one in the PIB model.



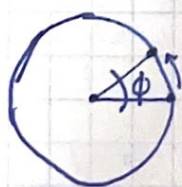
$$E_n = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega$$

$$n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\Psi_n(x) = A_n H_n(x/\alpha) e^{-\frac{\alpha^2 x^2}{2}}$$

$$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{5}{2} \hbar \omega \\ \frac{3}{2} \hbar \omega \\ \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega \end{array} \right\} \text{ Equal spacing}$$

Particle in a ring:



$$\Psi_{m_l}(\phi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im_l \phi}$$

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

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