Week 9

Quantum Dynamics and Control

9.1 Time-Dependent Schrödinger Equation and Spectroscopy

11/29:

- From last time:
 - The probability of a two-level system being in state 2 at time τ is

$$|a_2(\tau)|^2 \equiv a_2^*(\tau)a_2(\tau) \propto \frac{\sin^2[(E_2 - E_1 - \hbar\omega)t/2\hbar]}{(E_2 - E_1 - \hbar\omega)^2}$$

- When $\hbar\omega = E_2 E_1$, you'll have the maximum resonance/strongest absorption and the peak in the graph of the sinc function.
- Leads to selection rules: Only certain states directly couple with a weak perturbation.
- Now consider the transition dipole moment:

$$(\mu_z)_{12} = \int \phi_2^* \mu_z \phi_1 \, \mathrm{d}x$$

- The integral will vanish in the rigid rotor approximation.
 - Up to the approximation of the rigid rotor, l can only change by ± 1 and m stays the same.
- Taking the harmonic oscillator as the paradigm for vibrational motion, we find that the quantum number must be $\Delta n = \pm 1$.
 - The harmonic oscillator wave functions are of the form

$$\psi_n(x) = N_n H_n(\sqrt{\alpha}x) e^{-\alpha x^2/2}$$

where $\alpha = \sqrt{k\mu}/\hbar$.

- Assume $\alpha = 1$. Then $\psi_n = N_n H_n(x) e^{-x^2/2}$.
- We want to evaluate

$$(\mu_z)_{12} = \int \psi_{n'}(q)\mu_z(q)\psi_n(q) \,\mathrm{d}q$$

where

$$\mu_z(q) = \mu_0 + \left(\frac{\mathrm{d}\mu}{\mathrm{d}q}\right)_{q=0} q + \cdots$$

- This means that the transition dipole moment changes as a function of the bond length.
- When q = 0 (at equilibrium), the transition dipole moment is the equilibrium one (μ_0) .
- Then we Taylor series expand to correct the transition dipole moment away from equilibrium.

- Therefore,

$$(\mu_z)_{nn'} \equiv \mu_0 \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{n'}(q) H_n(q) e^{-q^2} dq + \left(\frac{d\mu}{dq}\right)_{q=0} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{n'}(q) q H_n(q) e^{-q^2} dq + \cdots$$

- The first term goes to zero as long as $n \neq n'$ because the Hermite polynomials are orthonormal.
- Recall that we used a recurrence relation to define the Hermite polynomials.
- In addition to the one we used previously, we have the recurrence relation

$$qH_n(q) = nH_{n-1}(q) + \frac{1}{2}H_{n+1}(q)$$

for all n.

- Thus,

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{n'}(q) q H_n(q) e^{-q^2} dq = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} H_{n'}(q) \left[n H_{n-1}(q) + \frac{1}{2} H_{n+1}(q) \right] e^{-q^2} dq$$

- Thus, unless $n' = n \pm 1$, the integral vanishes.
- This is the selection rule!
- Note that we're just tickling the molecule with a bit of radiation to get this to happen if we hit it with too hard of a hammer, the selection rule will no longer hold.
- Spectroscopy.
 - $-\Delta E = E_n E_l = h\nu.$
 - Regions of EM:

Region	Microwave	Far IR	IR	Vis/UV
Wavenumber (cm ⁻¹)	0.033 - 3.3	3.3 - 330	330 - 14500	14500 - 500000
Molecular property	Rotation of polyatomics	Rotation of small molecules	Vibration	Electron transitions

Table 9.1: Spectroscopy in various regions of the electromagnetic spectrum.

• The Schrödinger equation within the Born-Oppenheimer approximation:

$$\left[\sum_{A} \left(-\frac{\nabla_{A}^{2}}{2}\right) + \hat{H}_{\text{elec}}\right] \psi_{\text{elec}} \psi_{\text{nucl}} = (E_{\text{elec}} + E_{\text{nucl}}) \psi_{\text{elec}} \psi_{\text{nucl}}$$

- We invoke the Born-Oppenheimer approximation to split the wavefunction into electronic and nuclear components.
- We then split this equation into two parts. The first of which is the electronic Schrödinger equation

$$\hat{H}_{\rm elec}\psi_{\rm elec} = E_{\rm elec}\psi_{\rm elec}$$

- The BO approximation is what allows us to split the original Schrödinger equation in two.
- We now multiply by ψ_{elec} and integrate over all of the electrons.

$$\left[\sum_{A} \left(-\frac{\nabla_{A}^{2}}{2}\right) + V(R)\right] \psi_{\text{nucl}} = (E_{\text{elec}} + E_{\text{nucl}})\psi_{\text{nucl}}$$

 $-V(R) = E_{\text{elec}}(R) = \int \psi_{\text{elec}}^* \hat{H}_{\text{elec}} \psi_{\text{elec}} \, dx$ is the potential energy surface (PES).

9.2 Spectroscopy (cont.)

12/1: • From last time, we have that

$$\left[\sum_{A} \left(-\frac{\nabla_A^2}{2\mu_A}\right) + V(R)\right] \psi_{\text{nucl}} = (E_{\text{elec}} + E_{\text{nucl}})\psi_{\text{nucl}}$$

- The PES is $V(R) = \int \psi_{\text{elec}}^* \hat{H}_{\text{elec}} \psi_{\text{elec}} dx$.
- This begins to break down where we have **conical intersections**.
- Conical intersection: An intersection between potential energy surfaces, where electrons can jump from one to the other.
 - Allows for radiation-less transitions from one surface to another.
- Potential energy surface^[1] for the ground electronic wave function and its surface.
 - Think Figure 3.1b with its zero-point energy in the HO approximation.
 - The energies of the vibrational levels get closer and closer together until they're continuous forming a continuum at the level of the asymptote, reaching the classical limit.
- We have that

$$\begin{split} E_{\rm nucl} &\approx E_{\rm HO} + E_{\rm RR} \\ &\approx \hbar \omega (n + \frac{1}{2}) + \frac{\hbar^2}{2I} l(l+1) \end{split}$$

- Since harmonic oscillator transitions are in the IR region and rigid rotor transitions are in the microwave region, vibrational transitions are of higher energy ($\hbar\omega > \hbar^2/2I$).
- Rotational levels.

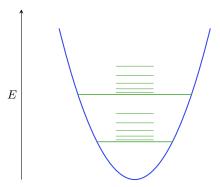


Figure 9.1: Rotational and vibrational energy levels.

- Each vibrational energy level has a number of smaller rotational states that are part of it.
- Changes in rotational levels often accompany changes in vibrational levels.
 - If we change the vibrational level by ± 1 , we have to change the rotational level (by ± 1) as well.

¹Note that we technically have a potential energy curve at this point; we will only have a surface in higher-dimensional systems.

• IR/vibrational spectroscopy.

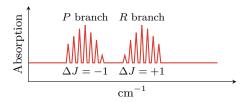


Figure 9.2: IR/vibrational spectrum.

- The whole spectrum represents a rovibrational transition.
- The P branch corresponds to when you go from a lower vibrational state to a higher vibrational state, but you go from a higher rotational state to a lower rotational state.
- The R branch corresponds to when you go from a lower vibrational state to a higher vibrational state, and you go from a lower rotational state to a higher rotational state.
- The number of peaks in the R and P branches reveals which rotational states are occupied (although we could theoretically go on forever, realistically, only lower energy rotational states are occupied).

• Electronic states.

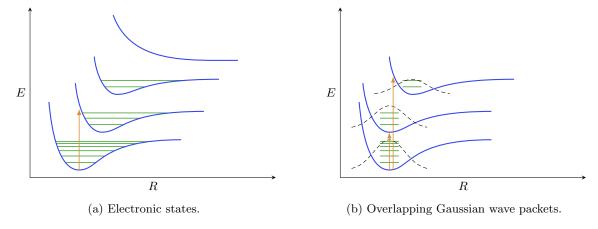


Figure 9.3: Exciting between electronic states.

- You can also do excitations from one potential energy surface to another.
- Recall that we have a Gaussian wave packet around the minimum energy on the PES.
- It's important that our Gaussian wave packets have some overlap for us to jump from one PES to the other.
- In Figure 9.3b, we'd expect a much higher probability of electronic transitions to the PES's with significant orbital overlap than from either to the third, where there is much less overlap.
- Franck-Condon Principle^[2]: The intensity of the transitions is proportional to the product of two harmonic oscillator wave functions ψ_1 from the one vibrational state and ψ_2 from the other vibrational state.
- In a polyatomic molecule, any bond can be approximated as a spring, and any spring can be approximated as a harmonic oscillator.

²Developed at UChicago!

- Thus, any polyatomic molecule can be thought of as a bunch of harmonic oscillators linked together.
- Normal modes and normal coordinates:
 - Degrees of freedom: 3N (x, y, z coordinates).
 - There are translational, vibrational, and rotational DOFs.
 - We always have 3 translational DOFs, 2 or 3 rotational DOFs (depending on whether or not the molecule is linear), and 3N 5 or 3N 6 vibrational DOFs (depending on whether or not the molecule is linear once again).
- Taking the right linear combinations of coupled oscillator stretches gives normal modes that are orthogonal to each other.
 - Diagonalizing gives normal modes that are decoupled from each other.
- Example (H_2O) :

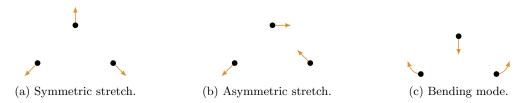


Figure 9.4: Normal modes of H₂O.

- 3 vibrational modes.
- Symmetric stretch, asymmetric stretch, and bending mode.
- Their respective frequencies are $\nu_1 = 3650 \, \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$, $\nu_2 = 3760 \, \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$, and $\nu_3 = 1600 \, \mathrm{cm}^{-1}$.

9.3 Chapter 13: Molecular Spectroscopy

From McQuarrie and Simon (1997).

11/30:

- Spectroscopy: The study of the interaction of electromagnetic radiation with atoms and molecules.
- "Electromagnetic radiation is customarily divided into different energy regions reflecting the different types of molecular processes that can be caused by such radiation" (McQuarrie & Simon, 1997, pp. 495–96).
- Vibrational selection rule: Transitions among vibrational levels resulting from the absorption of radiation have $\Delta v = \pm 1$ and have a dipole moment that varies during the vibration.
 - For a harmonic oscillator, the spectrum consists of one line in the infrared region at the frequency $\nu_{\rm obs} = \sqrt{k/\mu}/2\pi$.
- Vibrational term: The vibrational energy of a molecule. Denoted by G(v). Units cm⁻¹. Given by

$$G(v) = \frac{E_v}{hc}$$

where $E_v = (v + 1/2)h\nu$ and $\nu = \sqrt{k/\mu}/2\pi$.

• Each energy $E_J = \hbar^2/(2I) \cdot J(J+1)$ of the rigid rotator is associated with degeneracy $g_J = 2J+1$.