

CHEM 26100 (Quantum Mechanics) Problem Sets

Steven Labalme

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1 Blackbodies and the Photoelectric Effect

- 10/6: 1. The intensity (or emissive power) of solar radiation at the surface of the earth is $1.4 \times 10^3 \text{ W/m}^2$, the distance from the center of the sun to the sun's surface is $7 \times 10^8 \text{ m}$, and the distance from the center of the sun to the earth is $1.5 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$.

- (a) Assuming that the sun is a black body, calculate the temperature at the surface of the sun in Kelvin. (Hint: The surface area of a sphere of radius r is $4\pi r^2$.)

Answer. Let

$$I = 1400 \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^2} \quad r_1 = 7 \times 10^8 \text{ m} \quad r_2 = 1.5 \times 10^{11} \text{ m}$$

and let $\sigma = 5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W m}^{-2}$ be Stefan's constant. If P is the total power radiated by the sun, we have from physics that

$$I = \frac{P}{4\pi r_2^2}$$

$$P = 4\pi r_2^2 I$$

and from quantum that

$$P = R \cdot 4\pi r_1^2$$

$$= \sigma T^4 \cdot 4\pi r_1^2$$

Thus, setting these two quantities equal to each other, we obtain

$$4\pi r_2^2 I = \sigma T^4 \cdot 4\pi r_1^2$$

$$r_2^2 I = \sigma T^4 r_1^2$$

$$T = \sqrt[4]{\frac{r_2^2 I}{\sigma r_1^2}}$$

$T = 5803 \text{ K}$

□

- (b) Secondly, compute the wavelength at which the emissive power at the sun's surface has its maximum. In which region of the radiation spectrum does this wavelength lie, i.e., infrared (IR), visible, or ultraviolet (UV)?

Answer. If $b = 2.898 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m K}$ is Wien's displacement constant and we plug in the temperature value T from part (a), then Wien's first law gives us

$$\lambda_{\max} T = b$$

$$\lambda_{\max} = \frac{b}{T}$$

$\lambda_{\max} = 4.99 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$

This wavelength lies in the visible spectrum.

□

2. (a) Using Planck's formula for the energy density $\rho(\lambda, T)$, prove that the total energy density $\rho(T)$ is given by $\rho(T) = aT^4$, where $a = 8\pi^5 k^4 / (15h^3 c^3)$. (Hint: Use the integral $\int_0^\infty x^3 / (e^x - 1) dx = \pi^4/15$.)

Proof. Planck's formula for the energy density is

$$d\rho(\lambda, T) = \frac{8\pi hc}{\lambda^5} \cdot \frac{d\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1}$$

Thus, if we use the change of variables $x = hc/(\lambda kT)$ (also implying $\lambda = hc/(xkT)$ and $d\lambda = -hc/(x^2 kT) dx$), we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \int_0^\infty d\rho(\lambda, T) &= \int_{\lambda=0}^\infty \frac{8\pi hc}{\lambda^5} \cdot \frac{d\lambda}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1} \\ \int_0^\infty \rho_\lambda(T) d\lambda &= \int_{x=\infty}^0 \frac{8\pi hc}{\left(\frac{hc}{xkT}\right)^5} \cdot \frac{1}{e^x - 1} \cdot -\frac{hc}{x^2 kT} dx \\ \rho(T) &= \int_{x=\infty}^0 -\frac{8\pi (hc)^2 (kT)^5 x^5}{(hc)^5 (e^x - 1)(x^2)(kT)} \\ &= \int_{x=0}^\infty \frac{8\pi (kT)^4 x^3}{(hc)^3 (e^x - 1)} \\ &= \frac{8\pi (kT)^4}{(hc)^3} \int_0^\infty \frac{x^3}{e^x - 1} dx \\ &= \frac{8\pi (kT)^4}{(hc)^3} \cdot \frac{\pi^4}{15} \\ &= \frac{8\pi^5 k^4}{15h^3 c^3} T^4 \\ &= aT^4 \end{aligned}$$

as desired. □

- (b) Does this agree with the Stefan-Boltzmann law for the total emissive power?

Answer. Yes — we are given the conversion factor $\rho(\lambda, T) = 4/c \cdot R(\lambda, T)$, so from the above, we should have

$$\begin{aligned} R(T) &= \frac{c}{4} \cdot R(\lambda, T) \\ &= \frac{c}{4} \cdot \frac{8\pi^5 k^4}{15h^3 c^3} T^4 \\ &= \frac{2\pi^5 k^4}{15h^3 c^2} T^4 \end{aligned}$$

But by plugging in the appropriate values, we can determine that

$$\frac{2\pi^5 k^4}{15h^3 c^2} = \sigma$$

where σ is Stefan's constant, giving us

$$R(T) = \sigma T^4$$

as desired. □

3. The photoelectric work function for lithium is 2.3 eV.

- (a) Find the threshold frequency ν_t and the corresponding λ_t .

Answer. From Einstein's annus mirabilis papers, we have that

$$\nu_t = \frac{W}{h} \qquad \lambda_t = \frac{c}{\nu_t} = \frac{ch}{W}$$

Plugging in $W = 3.685 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$ and $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$, we have that

$$\nu_t = 5.56 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$$

$$\lambda_t = 5.39 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

□

- (b) If UV light of wavelength $\lambda = 3000 \text{ \AA}$ is incident on the Li surface, calculate the maximum kinetic energy of the electrons.

Answer. From Einstein's annus mirabilis papers, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} KE_{\max} &= h\nu - W \\ &= \frac{hc}{\lambda} - W \end{aligned}$$

$$KE_{\max} = 2.941 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

□

4. (a) Using the Bohr model, compute the ionization energies for He^+ and Li^{2+} .

Answer. From the Bohr model, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} IE &= E_{\infty} - E_1 \\ &= -\frac{m_e e^4 Z^2}{8\epsilon_0^2 h^2} \cdot \frac{1}{\infty^2} + \frac{m_e e^4 Z^2}{8\epsilon_0^2 h^2} \cdot \frac{1}{1^2} \\ &= \frac{m_e e^4 Z^2}{8\epsilon_0^2 h^2} \end{aligned}$$

It follows since $Z = 2$ for He^+ and $Z = 3$ for Li^{2+} that

$$IE(\text{He}^+) = 8.72 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$$

$$IE(\text{Li}^{2+}) = 1.962 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

in units of Joules per electron.

□

- (b) Can the Bohr model be employed to compute the first ionization energy for He and Li? Explain briefly.

Answer. No — the Bohr model is only valid for single electron systems as it does not take into account electron-electron interactions.

□

5. (a) An electron is confined within a region of atomic dimensions on the order of $1 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$. Compute the uncertainty in its momentum.

Answer. From the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta x \cdot \Delta p &\geq \frac{h}{4\pi} \\ \Delta p &\geq \frac{h}{4\pi \Delta x} \end{aligned}$$

$$\Delta p \geq 5.273 \times 10^{-25} \frac{\text{kg m}}{\text{s}}$$

□

- (b) Repeat the calculation for a proton confined to a region of nuclear dimensions on the order of $1 \times 10^{-14} \text{ m}$.

Answer. From the Heisenberg uncertainty principle, we have that

$$\Delta p \geq \frac{h}{4\pi\Delta x}$$

$$\Delta p \geq 5.273 \times 10^{-21} \frac{\text{kg m}}{\text{s}}$$

□

6. Use the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox in Maple to complete the worksheet “Blackbody Radiation” on Canvas and answer the following questions.

- (a) Using the interactive graph of the spectral energy density $\rho(\nu, T)$ as a function of the frequency ν and temperature T , determine the frequency in Hz at which the spectral energy density peaks at a temperature of 700 K.

Answer.

$$5 \times 10^{13} \text{ Hz}$$

□

- (b) The cosmic background radiation, discovered in 1964 by Penzias and Wilson, can be explained by treating the universe as a blackbody. Using the interactive plot, determine the frequency (in Hz) and wavelength (in m) at which the cosmic background radiation peaks.

Answer.

$$\nu = 2 \times 10^{11} \text{ Hz}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{\nu}$$

$$\lambda = 1.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ m}$$

□

- (c) In which region of the electromagnetic spectrum does the peak cosmic background radiation lie?

Answer. In the microwave region.

□

7. Use the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox in Maple to complete the worksheet “Photoelectric Effect” on Canvas and answer the following questions.

- (a) Copy and complete Table 1 of the worksheet.

Answer.

□

	Au	Mg	Pb	Na	Average value of h :
Threshold frequency (ν_0)	$1.084 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz}$	$8.793 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$	$1.034 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz}$	$5.684 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$	
Planck's constant (h)	$6.681 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$	$6.553 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$	$6.717 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$	$6.522 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$	$6.618 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$

Table 1: Photoelectric data for Au, Mg, Pb, and Na.

- (b) What is the computed average value of Planck's constant, and how does this value compare to its experimental value?

Answer. The computed average value of Planck's constant is $6.618 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$. It is 0.12% off from the true value of $6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$.

□

- (c) For which element is it *least* difficult to eject an electron?

Answer. Sodium — lowest threshold frequency means least energy required to excite an electron to the infinite energy level.

□

2 Boxes and Waves

- 10/13: 1. (a) Imagine the particle in the infinite square well bouncing back and forth against the walls classically. In the absence of friction, the particle will continue to bounce back and forth with a constant speed. What is the probability $P(x)$ of finding this classical particle as a function of its position in the box?

Answer. Let L be the length of the box and let v be the speed of the particle. If $0 \leq x \leq L$, the probability $P(x, x + dx)$ that the particle is between x and $x + dx$ is equal to the time the particle spends in the sliver of the box between x and $x + dx$ per unit time divided by the total time. If we let our unit of time be the amount of time it takes the particle to cross the box from end to end once, then we have

$$\begin{aligned} P(x, x + dx) &= \frac{t_{\text{between } x \text{ and } x + dx}}{t_{\text{total}}} \\ &= \frac{dx/v}{L/v} \\ dP(x) &= \frac{dx}{L} \end{aligned}$$

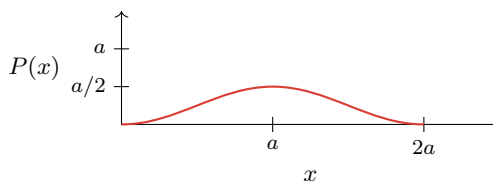
Note that as $dx \rightarrow 0$, $P(x) \rightarrow 0$ as well for any x , so technically the probability of finding the particle at any exact spot is always zero. \square

- (b) Secondly, consider the particle to be in the quantum ground state. What is the probability $P(x)$ of finding this quantum particle as a function of its position in the box? Give a sketch.

Answer. If the box is of length $L = 2a$, then the probability is

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= \psi^*(x)\psi(x) \\ P(x) &= \frac{1}{a} \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi x}{2a}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Sketch:



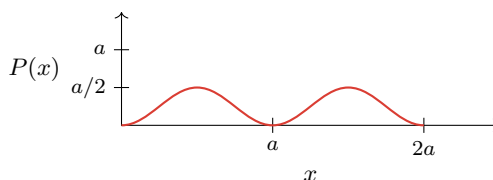
\square

- (c) Thirdly, consider the particle to be in the quantum state $n = 2$. What is the probability $P(x)$ of finding this quantum particle as a function of its position in the box? Give a sketch.

Answer. If the box is of length $L = 2a$, then the probability is

$$\begin{aligned} P(x) &= \psi^*(x)\psi(x) \\ P(x) &= \frac{1}{a} \sin^2\left(\frac{\pi x}{a}\right) \end{aligned}$$

Sketch:



□

- (d) As the quantum state n of the particle approaches infinity, the energy and frequency of the particle become very large. What happens to the probability $P(x)$ of finding this quantum particle as a function of its position in the box?

Answer. The probability $P(x)$ becomes more evenly distributed throughout the box, so the particle behaves more classically. □

2. The spread or uncertainty in position and momentum may be computed by a mathematical measure of the deviation from the average position

$$\Delta x = \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2} \quad (1)$$

and

$$\Delta p = \sqrt{\langle p^2 \rangle - \langle p \rangle^2} \quad (2)$$

where the notation $\langle \rangle$ was developed by Dirac to denote the expectation value. The text evaluates these uncertainties for a particle in the ground state of an infinite square well.

- (a) Do they satisfy the Heisenberg uncertainty relation?

Answer. From McQuarrie and Simon (1997), we have that

$$\Delta x = \frac{a}{2\pi} \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2}{3} - 2} \quad \Delta p = \frac{\pi\hbar}{a}$$

These □ obey the Heisenberg uncertainty relation since

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p = \frac{\hbar}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2}{3} - 2} \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

□

- (b) Evaluate these uncertainties for a particle in the second- and fourth-excited states (the first and second even excited states) of an infinite square well. Do they satisfy the Heisenberg uncertainty relation?

Answer. From McQuarrie and Simon (1997), we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta x &= \frac{a}{2\pi \cdot 3} \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2 \cdot 3^2}{3} - 2} & \Delta p &= \frac{3 \cdot \pi\hbar}{a} \\ \Delta x &= \frac{a}{2\pi \cdot 5} \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2 \cdot 5^2}{3} - 2} & \Delta p &= \frac{5 \cdot \pi\hbar}{a} \end{aligned}$$

These □ obey the Heisenberg uncertainty relation since

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta x \cdot \Delta p &= \frac{\hbar}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2 \cdot 3^2}{3} - 2} \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \\ \Delta x \cdot \Delta p &= \frac{\hbar}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi^2 \cdot 5^2}{3} - 2} \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \end{aligned}$$

□

- (c) Compare the uncertainties in the position and momentum for the ground, second-excited, and fourth-excited states. What would you expect to happen to the uncertainties as the state n approaches infinity?

Answer. From the ground to the second-excited to the fourth-excited state, uncertainty in position increases slightly each time and uncertainty in momentum increases linearly.

As $n \rightarrow \infty$, uncertainty in position will approach the asymptotic limit of $\frac{a}{2\sqrt{3}}$, but uncertainty in momentum will diverge to ∞ . \square

3. Consider a particle in a one-dimensional infinite square well where the infinite walls are located at $-b$ and $+b$. Give the time-dependent form of the ground and the first-excited states.

Answer. We have that the time-independent forms of the ground and first-excited states are, respectively

$$\psi_1(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{2b}\right) \qquad \psi_2(x) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{b}\right)$$

Thus, the time-dependent forms are

$$\begin{aligned} \psi_1(x, t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{2b}\right) \cdot e^{-iE_1 t/\hbar} & \psi_2(x, t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{b}\right) \cdot e^{-iE_2 t/\hbar} \\ \boxed{\psi_1(x, t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} \cos\left(\frac{\pi x}{2b}\right) \cdot e^{-i\hbar\pi^2 t/8mb^2}} & \boxed{\psi_2(x, t) &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{b}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{b}\right) \cdot e^{-i\hbar\pi^2 t/2mb^2}} \end{aligned}$$

\square

4. We have been examining a one-dimensional infinite square well where the infinite walls are located at $-b$ and $+b$. The energy levels in this quantum system are non-degenerate, that is, for each energy, there is only one wave function. Let us place an infinite potential step between $-b/2$ and $+b/2$.

- (a) Is the particle more likely to be in the left or the right infinite square well?

Answer. Because of symmetry, the particle is equally likely to be in the left and right side of the well. \square

- (b) What are the new energy levels and wave functions of this modified system? (Hint: How are they related to the infinite square well?)

Answer. To derive a wave function ψ pertaining to the entire system, we will modify the particle in a box procedure to derive two separate wave functions ψ_I, ψ_{II} corresponding to the two sides of the infinite potential step. Let's begin.

For the negative side (corresponding to ψ_I , start with the Schrödinger equation in the form

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \psi(x) = -k^2 \psi(x)$$

where $k = \sqrt{2mE}/\hbar$. The general solution to this ODE will be of the form

$$\psi_I(x) = A \cos(kx) + B \sin(kx)$$

Our boundary conditions are

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \psi_I(-b) & 0 &= \psi_{II}(-b/2) \\ &= A \cos(kb) - B \sin(kb) & &= A \cos(kb/2) - B \sin(kb/2) \end{aligned}$$

We can make both of the above equations equal to zero three different ways: We can let $A = B = 0$, we can let $\cos(kb) = \cos(kb/2) = B = 0$, and we can let $\sin(kb) = \sin(kb/2) = A = 0$. We will work through each possibility in turn, either finding a nontrivial ψ_I or proving that no such function exists under such conditions. Let's begin.

If $A = B = 0$, then $\psi_I = 0$, and we have a trivial solution.

Now suppose that $B = 0$. Then to make $\cos(kb) = 0$, we must have $kb = \pi n/2$ where n is odd. To make $\cos(kb/2) = 0$, we *also* must have $kb/2 = \pi n'/2$ where n' is odd. But there is no pair of odd numbers n, n' that satisfy both of these equations, because if there were, we would have

$$\frac{\pi n/2}{2} = \frac{\pi n'}{2}$$

$$n = 2n'$$

implying that n is even, a contradiction.

Now suppose that $A = 0$. Then nontrivial solutions let $kb = \pi n'$ where n' is any integer *and* $kb/2 = \pi n$ where n is any integer. Solving this system gives $n' = 2n$, which does *not* break the integer condition. Thus, choosing n as our quantum number (that can take on any integer value), we have as our solution

$$\psi_I(x) = B \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n}{b}x\right)$$

which does indeed satisfy

$$0 = \psi(-b) = \psi(-b/2)$$

It follows by a symmetric argument that we have

$$\psi_{II}(x) = D \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n}{b}x\right)$$

This allows us to define

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} \psi_I(x) & -b \leq x \leq -\frac{b}{2} \\ \psi_{II}(x) & \frac{b}{2} \leq x \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

Before we normalize, note that by part (a), $|B|^2 = |D|^2$. Thus, we can normalize as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi^2(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-b}^{-b/2} \psi_I^2(x) dx + \int_{b/2}^b \psi_{II}^2(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-b}^{-b/2} B^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{2\pi n}{b}x\right) dx + \int_{b/2}^b B^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{2\pi n}{b}x\right) dx \\ &= B^2 \left(\int_{-b}^{-b/2} \frac{1 - \cos\left(\frac{4\pi n}{b}x\right)}{2} dx + \int_{b/2}^b \frac{1 - \cos\left(\frac{4\pi n}{b}x\right)}{2} dx \right) \\ &= B^2 \left(\left[\frac{x}{2} - \frac{b}{8\pi n} \sin\left(\frac{4\pi n}{b}x\right) \right]_{-b}^{-b/2} + \left[\frac{x}{2} - \frac{b}{8\pi n} \sin\left(\frac{4\pi n}{b}x\right) \right]_{b/2}^b \right) \\ &= B^2 \left(\left[\frac{b}{4} \right] + \left[\frac{b}{4} \right] \right) \\ B &= \pm \sqrt{\frac{2}{b}} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, our wave function for this system is

$$\boxed{\psi(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{b}} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi n}{b}x\right)}$$

where $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$, and defined as on the piecewise domain above.

Considering that we substituted $k = 2\pi n/b$ in the above derivation, the energy levels for this system will be

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{2\pi n}{b} &= \sqrt{\frac{2mE_n}{\hbar^2}} \\ \frac{4\pi^2 n^2}{b^2} &= \frac{2mE_n}{\hbar^2} \\ E_n &= \frac{2\pi^2 n^2 \hbar^2}{mb^2} \\ E_n &= \frac{n^2 \hbar^2}{2mb^2}\end{aligned}$$

□

- (c) Are the energy levels degenerate, and if so, what is the degeneracy?

Answer. Yes. We have the two linearly independent piecewise solutions

$$\psi(x) = \begin{cases} \psi_I(x) & -b \leq x \leq -\frac{b}{2} \\ \psi_{II}(x) & \frac{b}{2} \leq x \leq b \end{cases} \quad \psi(x) = \begin{cases} \psi_I(x) & -b \leq x \leq -\frac{b}{2} \\ -\psi_{II}(x) & \frac{b}{2} \leq x \leq b \end{cases}$$

so the degeneracy is 2.

□

- (d) Are the new energies higher or lower than the box without the infinite step?

Answer. By comparing the results from part (b) to those from the pure particle in a box, the energy levels are more spread apart by a factor of 16. Therefore, the new energies are most certainly higher than the box without the infinite step.

□

5. Consider an electron of energy E incident on the potential step where

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} 0 \text{ eV} & x < 0 \\ 8 \text{ eV} & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

Calculate the reflection coefficient R and the transmission coefficient T

- (a) When $E = 4 \text{ eV}$;

Answer. For $E < V$, we automatically have

$$\boxed{R = 1}$$

$$\boxed{T = 0}$$

□

- (b) When $E = 16 \text{ eV}$;

Answer. We have that

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= \frac{\sqrt{2m \cdot 16}}{\hbar} & \beta &= \frac{\sqrt{2m \cdot 8}}{\hbar} \\ &= \frac{4}{\hbar} \sqrt{2m} & &= \frac{4}{\hbar} \sqrt{m}\end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 R &= \frac{(\alpha - \beta)^2}{(\alpha + \beta)^2} \\
 &= \frac{\left(\frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{2m} - \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{2m} + \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m}\right)^2} \\
 &= \frac{2m - 2m\sqrt{2} + m}{2m + 2m\sqrt{2} + m} \\
 &= \frac{3 - 2\sqrt{2}}{3 + 2\sqrt{2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{R = 17 - 12\sqrt{2}}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 T &= \frac{4\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2} \\
 &= \frac{4 \cdot \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{2m} \cdot \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m}}{\left(\frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{2m} + \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m}\right)^2} \\
 &= \frac{4m\sqrt{2}}{2m + 2m\sqrt{2} + m} \\
 &= \frac{4\sqrt{2}}{3 + 2\sqrt{2}}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{T = 12\sqrt{2} - 16}$$

□

(c) When $E = 8 \text{ eV}$.

Answer. We have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \alpha &= \frac{\sqrt{2m \cdot 8}}{\hbar} \\
 &= \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \beta &= \frac{\sqrt{2m \cdot 0}}{\hbar} \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 R &= \frac{(\alpha - \beta)^2}{(\alpha + \beta)^2} \\
 &= \frac{\left(\frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m} - 0\right)^2}{\left(\frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m} + 0\right)^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{R = 1}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
 T &= \frac{4\alpha\beta}{(\alpha + \beta)^2} \\
 &= \frac{4 \cdot \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m} \cdot 0}{\left(\frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m} + 0\right)^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{T = 0}$$

□

6. Use the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox in Maple to complete the worksheet “Particle in a Box” on Canvas and answer the following questions.

(a) Based on the interactive plot, does the wave function become more classical as the quantum number n increases?

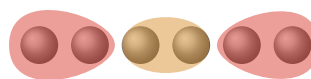
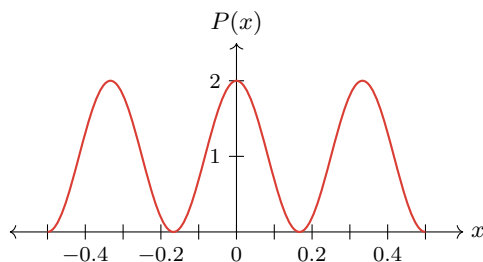
Answer. Yes. It predicts an increasingly “continuous” probability distribution, wherein the particle is equally likely to be found anywhere. □

(b) Does the energy spacing between states become more or less classical as n increases?

Answer. Less classical. Higher energy states are spaced farther apart. □

(c) Sketch the $n = 3$ state of the particle in a box and the third molecular orbital of the hydrogen chain.

Answer.



☐

- (d) What do you observe about the nodal patterns in part (c)?

Answer. They correspond to each other (both in terms of number and placement). ☐

- (e) Based on parts (c) and (d), are the particle-in-a-box wave functions a good model for the wave functions of the hydrogen chain?

Answer. ☐ Yes. ☐

3 Harmonic Oscillators and Diatomics

10/20: 1. Consider an electron with total energy E incident from *left to right* across a potential “drop” where

$$V(x) = \begin{cases} V_0 & x < 0 \\ 0 & x > 0 \end{cases}$$

- (a) Give an expression for the wave function in each of the two regions.

Answer. If region I is $(-\infty, 0)$ and region II is $(0, \infty)$, then

$$\psi_{\text{I}}(x) = Ae^{i\alpha x} + Be^{-i\alpha x}$$

$$\psi_{\text{II}}(x) = Ce^{i\beta x} + De^{-i\beta x}$$

□

- (b) Which coefficient in the wave functions from (a) is zero? Explain briefly why.

Answer. As written, we will have $D = 0$. This is because while the particle travels left to right in regions I and II (so $A, C \neq 0$) and there may be reflection back into region I at the intersection (so potentially $B \neq 0$), there is no particle in region II traveling right to left nor is there a barrier that could reflect some of the particle backwards. □

- (c) Using continuity of the wave function and its derivative at $x = 0$, derive an expression for the reflection coefficient.

Answer. It follows from the continuity of the wave function *itself* at $x = 0$ that

$$A + B = Ae^{i\alpha(0)} + Be^{-i\beta(0)} = \psi_{\text{I}}(0) = \psi_{\text{II}}(0) = Ce^{i\alpha(0)} = C$$

Similarly, it follows from the continuity of the *derivative* of the wave function at $x = 0$ that

$$i\alpha A - i\alpha B = \frac{d}{dx}(Ae^{i\alpha x} + Be^{-i\alpha x})_{x=0} = \left(\frac{d\psi_{\text{I}}}{dx}\right)_{x=0} = \left(\frac{d\psi_{\text{II}}}{dx}\right)_{x=0} = \frac{d}{dx}(Ce^{i\beta x})_{x=0} = i\beta C$$

Thus, we have that

$$A = \frac{C(\alpha + \beta)}{2\alpha}$$

$$B = \frac{C(\alpha - \beta)}{2\alpha}$$

We know that the probability of the particle going left to right in region I is $|A|^2$ and that the probability of the particle going from right to left in region I is $|B|^2$. Thus, since the incident/reflected flux factors in the speed c of the particle in either direction, the respective fluxes are $c|A|^2$ and $c|B|^2$. But this implies that

$$R = \frac{c|B|^2}{c|A|^2} = \frac{|B|^2}{|A|^2}$$

$$R = \frac{(\alpha - \beta)^2}{(\alpha + \beta)^2}$$

□

- (d) Calculate the reflection coefficient R when $V_0 = 8 \text{ eV}$ and $E = 16 \text{ eV}$.

Answer. We have that

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= \frac{\sqrt{2m \cdot (16 - 8)}}{\hbar} & \beta &= \frac{\sqrt{2m \cdot 16}}{\hbar} \\ &= \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m} & &= \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{2m}\end{aligned}$$

Thus, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}R &= \frac{(\alpha - \beta)^2}{(\alpha + \beta)^2} \\ &= \frac{(\frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m} - \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{2m})^2}{(\frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{m} + \frac{4}{\hbar}\sqrt{2m})^2} \\ &= \frac{m - 2m\sqrt{2} + 2m}{m + 2m\sqrt{2} + 2m} \\ &= \frac{3 - 2\sqrt{2}}{3 + 2\sqrt{2}}\end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{R = 17 - 12\sqrt{2}}$$

□

- (e) Compare this result with the result from problem 5b of Problem Set 2.

Answer. The answers are identical.

□

- (f) From your result in (e), explain whether the degree of reflection depends on both the direction (step or “drop”) *and* magnitude of the potential change or only the magnitude of the change.

Answer. Since the answer in part (e) matches that of a setup with the same magnitude but opposite direction, the degree of reflection depends solely on the magnitude of the potential change, not the direction (step or drop). □

2. A good approximation to the intermolecular potential for a diatomic molecule is the Morse potential

$$V(x) = D(1 - e^{-\beta x})^2$$

where x is the displacement from the equilibrium bond length.

- (a) Compute the Taylor series expansion of the Morse potential about $x = 0$ through second order.

Answer. Since

$$\begin{aligned}V(0) &= D(1 - e^{-\beta(0)})^2 & V'(0) &= 2D(1 - e^{-\beta(0)}) \cdot \beta e^{-\beta(0)} \\ &= 0 & &= 0\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}V''(0) &= -2D\beta^2 e^{-\beta(0)} + 4D\beta^2 e^{-2\beta(0)} \\ &= 2D\beta^2\end{aligned}$$

we have that

$$\tilde{V} = V(0) + V'(0)x + \frac{1}{2}V''(0)x^2$$

$$\boxed{\tilde{V} = D\beta^2 x^2}$$

□

- (b) Comparing the result with the potential for the harmonic oscillator, give an expression for the harmonic force constant k in terms of D and β .

Answer. For a harmonic oscillator, we have $V(x) = kx^2/2$. Setting this equal to the above, we have that

$$\frac{1}{2}kx^2 = D\beta^2x^2$$

$$\boxed{k = 2D\beta^2}$$

□

- (c) Given that $D = 7.31 \times 10^{-19}$ J/molecule and $\beta = 1.81 \times 10^{10} \text{ m}^{-1}$ for HCl, calculate the force constant for HCl.

Answer. Plugging the given values into the equation from part (b) gives

$$\boxed{k = 479 \text{ N/m}}$$

□

3. In the infrared spectrum of H^{79}Br , chemists find an intense line at 2630 cm^{-1} . For H^{79}Br , calculate

- (a) The force constant.

Answer. Let $m_{\text{H}} = 1.0$ and let $m_{\text{Br}} = 79.0$. Then

$$\mu = \frac{m_{\text{H}}m_{\text{Br}}}{m_{\text{H}} + m_{\text{Br}}} \cdot \frac{1 \times 10^{-3} \text{ kg}}{6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ u}}$$

$$= 1.64 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

Let $\bar{\nu}_{\text{obs}} = 2.630 \times 10^5 \text{ m}^{-1}$. Then

$$\bar{\nu}_{\text{obs}} = \frac{1}{2\pi c} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$

$$k = (2\pi c \bar{\nu}_{\text{obs}})^2 \mu$$

$$\boxed{k = 403 \text{ N/m}}$$

□

- (b) The period of vibration.

Answer. We have that

$$\frac{2\pi}{T} = \omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$

$$T = 2\pi \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{k}}$$

$$\boxed{T = 1.27 \times 10^{-14} \text{ s}}$$

□

- (c) The zero-point energy.

Answer. We have that

$$\begin{aligned} E_0 &= \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \hbar \sqrt{\frac{k}{\nu}} \\ \boxed{E_0 = 2.61 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J}} \end{aligned}$$

□

4. Using the fact that the wave functions of the harmonic oscillator are either even or odd, show that the average values (or expectation values) of odd powers of position x and momentum p vanish, that is

$$\langle x^k \rangle = 0 \qquad \langle p^k \rangle = 0$$

when k is odd.

Answer. Since Hermite polynomials $H_v(\xi)$ are even functions if v is even and odd functions if v is odd, and ψ_v is the product of all even functions and a Hermite polynomial for all v , we know that the parity of the Hermite polynomial determines the parity of ψ_v for all v . Thus, ψ_v is even when v is even, and odd when v is odd.

Since the square of either an odd or an even function is even, ψ_v^2 is even for all v . Additionally, x^k is odd for all k . Thus, $x^k \psi_v^2$ is odd for all k, v . But this means that

$$\langle x^k \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_v(x) x^k \psi_v(x) dx = 0$$

as desired.

Similarly, since the derivative of an even function is odd and vice versa, we know that all odd-order derivatives of ψ_v have opposite parity to ψ_v . But this implies that the product of ψ_v and an odd-order derivative of ψ_v is always odd. It follows that

$$\langle p^k \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi_v(x) \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \right)^k \psi_v(x) dx = 0$$

as desired. □

5. For the ground state of the harmonic oscillator...

- (a) Evaluate the Heisenberg uncertainty relation where the spread (or uncertainty) in position and momentum may be computed by

$$(\Delta x)^2 = \int \psi^*(x) (x - \langle x \rangle)^2 \psi(x) dx \qquad (\Delta p)^2 = \int \psi^*(x) (\hat{p} - \langle \hat{p} \rangle)^2 \psi(x) dx$$

Use the results of Exercise 5.17 in McQuarrie and Simon (1997) to evaluate the necessary integrals.

Answer. We have from McQuarrie and Simon (1997) that $\langle x \rangle = 0$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} (\Delta x)^2 &= \int \psi_0^*(x) (x - \langle x \rangle)^2 \psi_0(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} e^{-\alpha x^2/2} x^2 \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} e^{-\alpha x^2/2} dx \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2} dx \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{2\alpha} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}} \\
&= \frac{1}{2\alpha} \\
\Delta x &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{2\alpha}}
\end{aligned}$$

Additionally, we have that $\langle p \rangle = 0$. Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
(\Delta p)^2 &= \int \psi_0^*(x) (\hat{p} - \langle \hat{p} \rangle)^2 \psi_0(x) dx \\
&= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dx} \right)^2 \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} e^{-\alpha x^2/2} dx \\
&= -\hbar^2 \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \frac{d}{dx} (-\alpha x e^{-\alpha x^2/2}) dx \\
&= -\hbar^2 \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\alpha x^2/2} (-\alpha e^{-\alpha x^2/2} + \alpha^2 x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2/2}) dx \\
&= \hbar^2 \sqrt{\frac{\alpha^3}{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (1 - \alpha x^2) e^{-\alpha x^2} dx \\
&= \hbar^2 \sqrt{\frac{\alpha^3}{\pi}} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}} \\
&= \frac{1}{2} \alpha \hbar^2 \\
\Delta p &= \hbar \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{2}}
\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p = \frac{\hbar}{2} \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

□

(b) In terms of the uncertainty relation, what is special about the harmonic oscillator?

Answer. The product of the uncertainties is *exactly* $\hbar/2$, as opposed to some number greater than it. In other words, it can be described as precisely as any quantum system. □

6. Using the expectation values from the previous problem, show for the ground state of the harmonic oscillator that the average values of the kinetic and the potential energies are equal to one half of the total energy, i.e.,

$$\langle T \rangle = \langle V \rangle = \frac{E_0}{2}$$

This relation, known as the **virial theorem**, is true for all states of the harmonic oscillator.

Answer. Invoking the definitions of $\langle T \rangle$ and $\langle V \rangle$ and substituting from Problem 5a, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
\langle T \rangle &= \int \psi_0^*(x) \hat{H} \psi_0(x) dx & \langle V \rangle &= \int \psi_0^*(x) \hat{V} \psi_0(x) dx \\
&= \frac{1}{2\mu} \int \psi_0^*(x) \hat{p}^2 \psi_0(x) dx & &= \frac{1}{2} k \int \psi_0^*(x) x^2 \psi_0(x) dx \\
&= \frac{1}{2\mu} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \alpha \hbar^2 & &= \frac{1}{2} k \cdot \frac{1}{2\alpha} \\
&= \frac{\hbar^2}{4\mu} \cdot \frac{\sqrt{k\mu}}{\hbar} & &= \frac{k}{4} \cdot \frac{\hbar}{\sqrt{k\mu}}
\end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{\hbar}{4} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}} \qquad \qquad \qquad = \frac{\hbar}{4} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}}$$

Thus, we have shown that $\langle T \rangle = \langle V \rangle$. To complete the proof, we have that

$$\langle T \rangle = \langle V \rangle = \frac{\hbar}{4} \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}} = \frac{\frac{\hbar\omega}{2}}{2} = \frac{\hbar\omega (0 + \frac{1}{2})}{2} = \frac{E_0}{2}$$

as desired. □

7. Use the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox in Maple to answer the lettered questions in the worksheet “Harmonic Oscillator” on Canvas.

Answer.

Molecule	Reduced Mass (μ)	Spring Constant (k)	Angular Frequency (ω)	Energy Spacing (ΔE)
HF	1.59×10^{-27} kg	1110 J/m ²	8.36×10^{14} Hz	8.81×10^{-20} J
N ₂	1.16×10^{-26} kg	3130 J/m ²	5.19×10^{14} Hz	5.47×10^{-20} J
CO	1.14×10^{-26} kg	2390 J/m ²	4.58×10^{14} Hz	4.83×10^{-20} J

□

4 Harmonic Oscillators II and the Hydrogen Atom

10/27: 1. The $J = 0$ to $J = 1$ transition for carbon monoxide ($^{12}\text{C}^{16}\text{O}$) occurs at 1.153×10^5 MHz.

(a) Calculate the value of the bond length in carbon monoxide.

Answer. Let $\nu = 1.153 \times 10^{11}$ Hz. We have from McQuarrie and Simon (1997) that

$$\nu = \frac{h}{4\pi^2 I} (0 + 1)$$

for the transition from $J = 0$ to $J = 1$. Thus,

$$I = \frac{h}{4\pi^2 \nu} = 1.456 \times 10^{-46} \text{ kg m}^2$$

This combined with the fact that the reduced mass is

$$\mu = \frac{12 \cdot 16}{12 + 16} = 1.140 \times 10^{-26} \text{ kg}$$

and that $I = \mu r^2$ tells us that

$$r = 1.130 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

□

(b) Predict the $J = 1$ to $J = 2$ transition for carbon monoxide.

Answer. From McQuarrie and Simon (1997), we have that the $J = 0 \rightarrow 1$ and $J = 1 \rightarrow 2$ transitions are, respectively,

$$\nu_0 = \frac{h}{4\pi^2 I} (0 + 1) \qquad \nu_1 = \frac{h}{4\pi^2 I} (1 + 1)$$

Thus, $\nu_1 = 2\nu_0$, so

$$\nu_1 = 2.306 \times 10^{11} \text{ Hz}$$

□

2. The harmonic oscillator has a finite zero-point energy because of the uncertainty relation. In contrast, the lowest possible energy for the 2D rigid rotor is zero.

(a) For the ground state of the 2D rigid rotor, what is the expectation value of the angular momentum, and what is the uncertainty ΔL_z in the expectation value? Recall that

$$(\Delta L_z)^2 = \langle \hat{L}_z^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{L}_z \rangle^2$$

Answer. Since this is the ground state $m = 0$, we have that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \hat{L}_z \rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} \psi^*(\phi) \hat{L}_z \psi(\phi) d\phi \\ &= \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-i(0)\phi} \right) \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right) \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{i(0)\phi} \right) d\phi \\ &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} (1) \cdot -i\hbar \cdot 0 d\phi \end{aligned}$$

$$\langle \hat{L}_z \rangle = 0$$

and that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle \hat{L}_z^2 \rangle &= \int_0^{2\pi} \psi^*(\phi) \hat{L}_z^2 \psi(\phi) d\phi \\
 &= \int_0^{2\pi} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-i(0)\phi} \right) \left(-i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \right)^2 \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{i(0)\phi} \right) d\phi \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_0^{2\pi} (1) \cdot -i\hbar \cdot 0 d\phi \\
 &= 0
 \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}
 (\Delta L_z)^2 &= \langle \hat{L}_z^2 \rangle - \langle \hat{L}_z \rangle^2 \\
 &= 0 - 0
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\Delta L_z = 0}$$

□

- (b) In words, describe the uncertainty in position.

Answer. Since the uncertainty in angular momentum is 0, the uncertainty in position (the Fourier transform of the uncertainty in position) is infinite. □

- (c) Using your answers to (a) and (b), explain briefly why the 2D rigid rotor can have a vanishing zero-point energy and yet still remain consistent with the uncertainty relation.

Answer. It is consistent with the uncertainty relation because we have total certainty in one term and zero certainty in the other. □

3. For the ground state of the hydrogen atom, compute

- (a) The *average* distance from the nucleus for finding the electron.

Answer. We have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \langle r \rangle &= \int_0^\infty \psi_{100}^*(r) r \psi_{100}(r) 4\pi r^2 dr \\
 &= \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} e^{-r/a_0} \right) r \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} e^{-r/a_0} \right) 4\pi r^2 dr \\
 &= 4a_0 \int_0^\infty \sigma^3 e^{-2\sigma} d\sigma \\
 &= 4a_0 \left[-\frac{1}{2} \sigma^3 e^{-2\sigma} \Big|_0^\infty + \frac{3}{2} \int_0^\infty \sigma^2 e^{-2\sigma} d\sigma \right] \\
 &= 4a_0 \left[\frac{3}{2} \cdot \frac{2}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2} \int_0^\infty e^{-2\sigma} d\sigma \right] \\
 &= 4a_0 \cdot \frac{3}{8} \\
 \langle r \rangle &= \frac{3}{2} a_0
 \end{aligned}$$

□

- (b) The *most probable* distance from the nucleus for finding the electron.

Answer. We have from McQuarrie and Simon (1997, p. 211) that the probability that the electron is between r and $r + dr$ is

$$\text{Prob}(r) = \frac{4}{a_0^3} r^2 e^{-2r/a_0}$$

We want to find the point where $d\text{Prob}(r)/dr = 0$, as this will be the maximum. Note that we know that $\text{Prob}(r)$ takes on positive values, and we know that $\text{Prob}(0) = \text{Prob}(\infty) = 0$, so we need not consider the boundary points. We can do this as follows.

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \frac{d}{dr} \left(\frac{4}{a_0^3} r^2 e^{-2r/a_0} \right) \\ &= \frac{4}{a_0^3} \left(2r e^{-2r/a_0} - \frac{2r^2}{a_0} e^{-2r/a_0} \right) \\ &= e^{-2r/a_0} - \frac{r}{a_0} e^{-2r/a_0} \\ \frac{r}{a_0} &= 1 \\ \boxed{r = a_0} \end{aligned}$$

□

- (c) Repeat the calculation for the second excited state ($n = 3$ and $l = 0$) and compare your results with the ground state.

Answer. Average distance from the nucleus: We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \langle r \rangle &= \int_0^\infty \psi_{300}^*(r) r \psi_{300}(r) 4\pi r^2 dr \\ &= \int_0^\infty \left(\frac{1}{81\sqrt{3\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} \left[27 - 18 \left(\frac{r}{a_0} \right) + 2 \left(\frac{r}{a_0} \right)^2 \right] e^{-r/3a_0} \right) r \\ &\quad \cdot \left(\frac{1}{81\sqrt{3\pi}} \left(\frac{1}{a_0} \right)^{3/2} \left[27 - 18 \left(\frac{r}{a_0} \right) + 2 \left(\frac{r}{a_0} \right)^2 \right] e^{-r/3a_0} \right) 4\pi r^2 dr \\ &= \frac{1}{3^9 \pi} \left(\frac{1}{a_0} \right)^3 \int_0^\infty \left([27 - 18\sigma + 2\sigma^2] e^{-\sigma/3} \right) \sigma a_0 \left([27 - 18\sigma + 2\sigma^2] e^{-\sigma/3} \right) 4\pi (\sigma a_0)^2 a_0 d\sigma \\ &= \frac{4a_0}{3^9} \int_0^\infty ([27 - 18\sigma + 2\sigma^2] e^{-\sigma/3}) \sigma^3 ([27 - 18\sigma + 2\sigma^2] e^{-\sigma/3}) d\sigma \\ &= \frac{4a_0}{3^9} \int_0^\infty (27 - 18\sigma + 2\sigma^2)^2 \sigma^3 e^{-2\sigma/3} d\sigma \\ &= \frac{4a_0}{3^9} \int_0^\infty (4\sigma^7 - 72\sigma^6 + 432\sigma^5 - 972\sigma^4 + 729\sigma^3) e^{-2\sigma/3} d\sigma \\ &= \frac{4a_0}{3^9} \left[4 \int_0^\infty \sigma^7 e^{-2\sigma/3} d\sigma - 72 \int_0^\infty \sigma^6 e^{-2\sigma/3} d\sigma + 432 \int_0^\infty \sigma^5 e^{-2\sigma/3} d\sigma \right. \\ &\quad \left. - 972 \int_0^\infty \sigma^4 e^{-2\sigma/3} d\sigma + 729 \int_0^\infty \sigma^3 e^{-2\sigma/3} d\sigma \right] \\ &= \frac{4a_0}{3^9} \left[4 \cdot \frac{7!}{(2/3)^7} \cdot \frac{3}{2} - 72 \cdot \frac{6!}{(2/3)^6} \cdot \frac{3}{2} + 432 \cdot \frac{5!}{(2/3)^5} \cdot \frac{3}{2} - 972 \cdot \frac{4!}{(2/3)^4} \cdot \frac{3}{2} + 729 \cdot \frac{3!}{(2/3)^3} \cdot \frac{3}{2} \right] \\ \boxed{\langle r \rangle = 13.5a_0} \end{aligned}$$

Most probable distance from the nucleus: We have from McQuarrie and Simon (1997) that

$$\begin{aligned}
 R_{30}(r) &= -\sqrt{\frac{(3-0-1)!}{2 \cdot 3[(3+0)!]^3}} \left(\frac{2}{3a_0}\right)^{0+3/2} r^0 e^{-r/3a_0} L_{3+0}^{2 \cdot 0+1} \left(\frac{2r}{3a_0}\right) \\
 &= -\sqrt{\frac{2}{6^4}} \left(\frac{2}{3a_0}\right)^{3/2} e^{-\sigma/3} L_3^1 \left(\frac{2\sigma}{3}\right) \\
 &= -\frac{1}{27\sqrt{3}a_0^{3/2}} e^{-\sigma/3} \left[-3! \left(3 - 3 \left(\frac{2\sigma}{3}\right) + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{2\sigma}{3}\right)^2 \right) \right] \\
 &= -\frac{1}{27\sqrt{3}a_0^{3/2}} e^{-\sigma/3} \left[-\frac{4}{3}\sigma^2 + 12\sigma - 18 \right] \\
 &= \frac{1}{81\sqrt{3}a_0^{3/2}} (4\sigma^2 - 36\sigma + 54) e^{-\sigma/3}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Prob}(r) &= [R_{30}(r)]^2 r^2 \\
 &= \left[\frac{1}{3^9 a_0^3} (16\sigma^4 - 288\sigma^3 + 1728\sigma^2 - 3888\sigma + 2916) e^{-2\sigma/3} \right] (a_0 \sigma)^2 \\
 &= \frac{1}{3^9 a_0} (16\sigma^6 - 288\sigma^5 + 1728\sigma^4 - 3888\sigma^3 + 2916\sigma^2) e^{-2\sigma/3}
 \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 &= \frac{d\text{Prob}(r)}{dr} \\
 &= \frac{1}{3^9 a_0} (96\sigma^5 - 1440\sigma^4 + 6912\sigma^3 - 11664\sigma^2 + 5832\sigma) e^{-2\sigma/3} \\
 &\quad - \frac{2}{3^{10} a_0} (16\sigma^6 - 288\sigma^5 + 1728\sigma^4 - 3888\sigma^3 + 2916\sigma^2) e^{-2\sigma/3} \\
 &= \frac{8}{3^{10} a_0} x (-4\sigma^5 + 108\sigma^4 - 972\sigma^3 + 3564\sigma^2 - 5103\sigma + 2187) e^{-2\sigma/3} \\
 &= -4\sigma^5 + 108\sigma^4 - 972\sigma^3 + 3564\sigma^2 - 5103\sigma + 2187
 \end{aligned}$$

Solving this polynomial for its zeroes, and knowing that the most probable distance is going to be the zero of greatest magnitude (orbital penetration peaks will necessarily be smaller than the farthest one out), we have that the the most probable distance is

$$\sigma = 13.074$$

$$\boxed{r = 13.074a_0}$$

□

4. Using non-relativistic quantum mechanics, compute the ratio of the ground-state energy of hydrogen to that of atomic tritium.

Answer. We have from class that

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_1 &= -\frac{\mu}{2\hbar^2} \left(\frac{(1e)e}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \frac{1}{1^2} \\
 &= -\frac{\mu e^4}{8\hbar^2 \epsilon_0^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

Thus, since

$$\begin{aligned}\mu_{\text{H}} &= \frac{m_e m_p}{m_e + m_p} & \mu_{\text{T}} &= \frac{m_e (3m_p)}{m_3 + 3m_p} \\ &= 9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg} & &= 9.12 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{E_{1\text{H}}}{E_{1\text{T}}} &= \frac{-\frac{\mu_{\text{H}} e^4}{8h^2 \epsilon_0^2}}{-\frac{\mu_{\text{T}} e^4}{8h^2 \epsilon_0^2}} \\ &= \frac{\mu_{\text{H}}}{\mu_{\text{T}}} \\ \boxed{E_{1\text{H}} : E_{1\text{T}} = 0.999}\end{aligned}$$

□

5. The Hamiltonian operator for a hydrogen atom in a magnetic field where the field is in the z -direction is given by

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \frac{\beta_B B_z}{\hbar} \hat{L}_z$$

where \hat{H}_0 is the Hamiltonian operator in the absence of the magnetic field, B_z is the z -component of the magnetic field, and β_B is a constant called the Bohr magneton.

- (a) Show that the wave functions of the Schrödinger equation for a hydrogen atom in a magnetic field are the same as those for the hydrogen atom in the absence of the field.

Answer. We have from McQuarrie and Simon (1997, p. 201) that $\hat{L}_z = m\hbar$ for $m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$. Thus, the solutions to $\hat{H}\psi = E\psi$ will be the solutions to

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\hat{H}_0 + \frac{\beta_B B_z}{\hbar} \hat{L}_z\right)\psi &= E\psi \\ \hat{H}_0\psi + \beta_B B_z m\psi &= E\psi \\ \hat{H}_0\psi &= (E - \beta_B B_z m)\psi\end{aligned}$$

i.e., the original wave functions but with a different constant (which will lead to a different energy). □

- (b) Show that the energy associated with the wave function $\psi_{n,l,m}$ is

$$E = E_n^{(0)} + \beta_B B_z m$$

where $E_n^{(0)}$ is the energy in the absence of the field and m is the magnetic quantum number.

Answer. Since we have $\hat{H}_0\psi = E_n^{(0)}\psi$ originally and $\hat{H}_0\psi = (E - \beta_B B_z m)\psi$ from part (a), it follows that

$$\begin{aligned}E - \beta_B B_z m &= E_n^{(0)} \\ E &= E_n^{(0)} + \beta_B B_z m\end{aligned}$$

as desired. □

5 Exact and Approximate Solutions to the Schrödinger Equation

- 11/3: 1. In the book *Flatland*, Edwin Abbott explores the amazement of the inhabitants of a two-dimensional world when they are visited by a three-dimensional sphere. In class, we developed the Schrödinger equation for an atom in three dimensions. Consider how a two-dimensional atom would differ from a three-dimensional atom.

(a) Express the Schrödinger equation in the Cartesian coordinates x and y .

Answer. Since the mass of the proton is far greater than the mass of the electron, we approximate it as fixed at the origin. Thus, we need only account for the kinetic and potential energy of the electron. Naturally, the kinetic energy of the electron will be given by

$$\hat{T} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\nabla^2$$

where m is the mass of the electron and ∇^2 is the Laplacian in two-dimensional Cartesian coordinates. Similarly, since the electron and proton have the same charge e , they will interact through a potential field given by

$$V(r) = -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}}$$

where $\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ is the distance of the electron from the proton (fixed at the origin). It follows that the complete Hamiltonian is given by

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

so our Schrödinger equation is

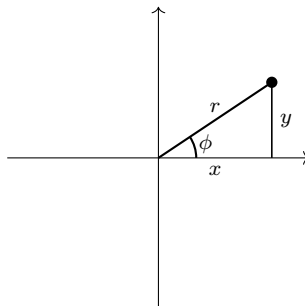
$$\hat{H}\psi = E\psi$$

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \right] \psi(x, y) = E\psi(x, y)$$

□

(b) Re-express the Schrödinger equation in the polar coordinates r and ϕ .

Answer. We will construct this expression from the ground up without motivating our steps. The motivation should be clear by the end when everything comes together. Let's begin. Consider the following picture.



Then $r = \sqrt{x^2 + y^2}$ and $\phi = \tan^{-1}(y/x)$ ($x = r \cos \phi$ and $y = r \sin \phi$ will also be useful). It

follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial u} (\sqrt{u}) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x^2 + y^2) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{u}} \cdot 2x \\
 &= \frac{x}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \\
 &= \frac{x}{r} \\
 &= \cos \phi
 \end{aligned}
 \qquad
 \begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial u} (\sqrt{u}) \cdot \frac{\partial}{\partial y} (x^2 + y^2) \\
 &= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{u}} \cdot 2y \\
 &= \frac{y}{\sqrt{x^2 + y^2}} \\
 &= \frac{y}{r} \\
 &= \sin \phi
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\tan^{-1} \left(\frac{y}{x} \right) \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 + (y/x)^2} \cdot -\frac{y}{x^2} \\
 &= -\frac{y}{x^2 + y^2} \\
 &= -\frac{r \sin \phi}{r^2} \\
 &= -\frac{\sin \phi}{r}
 \end{aligned}
 \qquad
 \begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\tan^{-1} \left(\frac{y}{x} \right) \right) \\
 &= \frac{1}{1 + (y/x)^2} \cdot \frac{1}{x} \\
 &= \frac{x}{x^2 + y^2} \\
 &= \frac{r \cos \phi}{r^2} \\
 &= \frac{\cos \phi}{r}
 \end{aligned}$$

Let ψ be a function of r and ϕ . Then by the chain rule for partial differentiation,

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} &= \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \\
 &= \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \cdot \cos \phi + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \cdot -\frac{\sin \phi}{r} \\
 &= \cos \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi}
 \end{aligned}
 \qquad
 \begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} &= \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \\
 &= \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \cdot \sin \phi + \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \cdot \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \\
 &= \sin \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi}
 \end{aligned}$$

Additionally, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\cos \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\cos \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \right) \\
 &= \left[0 \cdot \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \cos \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} \right] - \left[-\frac{\sin \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} \right] \\
 &= \cos \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\sin \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi}
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\cos \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \right) \\
 &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\cos \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) - \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \right) \\
 &= \left[-\sin \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \cos \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} \right] - \left[\frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \\
 &= -\sin \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \cos \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} - \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2}
 \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right) \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} &= \left[\cos \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\sin \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} \right] \cdot \cos \phi \\ &= \cos^2 \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi}\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} &= \left[-\sin \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \cos \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} - \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \cdot -\frac{\sin \phi}{r} \\ &= \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} + \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2}\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right) \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial x} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial x} \\ &= \left[\cos^2 \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} - \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} \right] \\ &\quad + \left[\frac{\sin^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} + \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \\ &= \cos^2 \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2 \sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} - \frac{2 \sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} + \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2}\end{aligned}$$

Furthermore, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \right) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\sin \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\sin \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \right) \\ &= \left[0 \cdot \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \sin \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} \right] + \left[-\frac{\cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} \right] \\ &= \sin \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} - \frac{\cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi}\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \right) &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\sin \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\sin \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) + \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} \right) \\ &= \left[\cos \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \sin \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} \right] + \left[-\frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \\ &= \cos \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \sin \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2}\end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \right) \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} &= \left[\sin \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} - \frac{\cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} \right] \cdot \sin \phi \\ &= \sin^2 \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} - \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi}\end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} &= \left[\cos \phi \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \sin \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \cdot \frac{\cos \phi}{r} \\ &= \frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2}\end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} &= \frac{\partial}{\partial y} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \right) \\ &= \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \right) \frac{\partial r}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi} \left(\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial y} \right) \frac{\partial \phi}{\partial y} \\ &= \left[\sin^2 \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} - \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} \right] \\ &\quad + \left[\frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi \partial r} - \frac{\sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \\ &= \sin^2 \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} - \frac{2 \sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{2 \sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} + \frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2}\end{aligned}$$

It follows by combining the last two results that

$$\begin{aligned}\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} &= \left[\cos^2 \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{2 \sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} - \frac{2 \sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} + \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \\ &\quad + \left[\sin^2 \phi \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} - \frac{2 \sin \phi \cos \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \phi} + \frac{2 \sin \phi \cos \phi}{r} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r \partial \phi} + \frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\cos^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \right] \\ &= (\cos^2 \phi + \sin^2 \phi) \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{\sin^2 \phi + \cos^2 \phi}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{\sin^2 \phi + \cos^2 \phi}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2} \\ &= \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial \phi^2}\end{aligned}$$

Therefore, from the above and one of our substitutions from the picture, we have that

$$\begin{aligned}&\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \right) - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0\sqrt{x^2+y^2}} \right] \psi(x, y) = E\psi(x, y) \\ &\boxed{\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \right) - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \right] \psi(r, \phi) = E\psi(r, \phi)}\end{aligned}$$

□

- (c) Factoring the wave function $\psi(r, \phi)$ as $R(r)Q(\phi)$, separate the Schrödinger equation into a Schrödinger equation for $R(r)$ with quantum numbers n and m and a Schrödinger equation for $Q(\phi)$ with quantum number m .

Answer. We have from part (b) that

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} \right) \psi(r, \phi) + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right] \psi(r, \phi) \\ &= \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} (R(r)Q(\phi)) + \frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial}{\partial r} (R(r)Q(\phi)) + \frac{1}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \phi^2} (R(r)Q(\phi)) + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right] R(r)Q(\phi) \\ &= Q(\phi) \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial r^2} + \frac{Q(\phi)}{r} \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} + \frac{R(r)}{r^2} \frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right] R(r)Q(\phi) \\ &= \frac{r^2}{R(r)} \frac{\partial^2 R}{\partial r^2} + \frac{r}{R(r)} \frac{\partial R}{\partial r} + \frac{1}{Q(\phi)} \frac{\partial^2 Q}{\partial \phi^2} + \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E \right]\end{aligned}$$

Since r and ϕ are independent variables, it follows that we may let

$$m^2 = \frac{r^2}{R(r)} \frac{d^2 R}{dr^2} + \frac{r}{R(r)} \frac{dR}{dr} + \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E_n \right] \quad -m^2 = \frac{1}{Q(\phi)} \frac{d^2 Q}{d\phi^2}$$

□

- (d) Solve the Schrödinger equation for $Q(\phi)$ and explain its connection with the two-dimensional rigid rotor.

Answer. We have from part (c) that

$$\frac{d^2 Q}{d\phi^2} + m^2 Q(\phi) = 0$$

Taking an operator perspective, we can factor this differential equation to

$$\left(\frac{d}{d\phi} + im \right) \left(\frac{d}{d\phi} - im \right) Q = 0$$

Thus, a solution Q to this differential equation will be in the null space of $d/d\phi - im$ or, since the operators commute, in the null space of $d/d\phi + im$. Solving the differential equation corresponding to each operator independently yields

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{dQ}{d\phi} &= imQ & \frac{dQ}{d\phi} &= -imQ \\ \ln Q &= im\phi + C_1 & \ln Q &= -im\phi + C_2 \\ Q(\phi) &= A_1 e^{im\phi} & Q(\phi) &= A_2 e^{-im\phi} \end{aligned}$$

Clearly, any linear combination of these solutions will be a solution as well, so the complete general solution is

$$Q(\phi) = A_1 e^{im\phi} + A_2 e^{-im\phi}$$

Furthermore, since Q must be single-valued, we must have that $Q(\phi + 2\pi) = Q(\phi)$. Thus, it must be that

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 e^{im(\phi+2\pi)} + A_2 e^{-im(\phi+2\pi)} &= A_1 e^{im\phi} + A_2 e^{-im\phi} \\ A_1 e^{im\phi} e^{i2\pi m} + A_2 e^{-im\phi} e^{-i2\pi m} &= A_1 e^{im\phi} + A_2 e^{-im\phi} \end{aligned}$$

Since A_1 and A_2 are independent variables, we must have that

$$\begin{aligned} A_1 e^{im\phi} e^{i2\pi m} &= A_1 e^{im\phi} & A_2 e^{-im\phi} e^{-i2\pi m} &= A_2 e^{-im\phi} \\ e^{i2\pi m} &= 1 & e^{-i2\pi m} &= 1 \\ \cos(2\pi m) + i \sin(2\pi m) &= 1 + 0i & \cos(2\pi m) - i \sin(2\pi m) &= 1 + 0i \\ m &= 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots & m &= 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \end{aligned}$$

i.e., that overall,

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

Thus, the general solution can be written as one equation

$$Q(\phi) = A e^{im\phi}$$

Indeed, these results show that the angular wave functions of this system are identical to those of the rigid rotor, as we would expect considering that both systems describe a quantum particle at some invariant distance from the nucleus. □

- (e) For *only* $n = 1$ and $m = 0$, solve the Schrödinger equation for the ground-state energy and wave function.

Answer. Let $m = 0$. Then the radial equation from part (c) can be written in the form

$$\frac{r^2}{R(r)} \frac{d^2 R}{dr^2} + \frac{r}{R(r)} \frac{dR}{dr} + \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E_1 \right] = 0$$

which after multiplying through by $R(r)/r^2$ becomes

$$\frac{d^2 R}{dr^2} + \frac{1}{r} \frac{dR}{dr} + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E_1 \right] R(r) = 0$$

Performing an asymptotic analysis (i.e., taking the limit as $r \rightarrow \infty$) causes all terms with r in the denominator to go to zero, leaving us with

$$\frac{d^2}{dR^2}(r) + \frac{2mE_1}{\hbar^2} R(r) = 0$$

Solving this equation by the method of part (d) gives

$$R(r) = B e^{ir\sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar}$$

as the $n = 1$ solution. Thus, since

$$\frac{dR}{dr} = \frac{Bi\sqrt{2mE_1}}{\hbar} e^{ir\sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar} \quad \frac{d^2 R}{dr^2} = -\frac{2mE_1 B}{\hbar^2} e^{ir\sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar}$$

plugging our solution back into the original differential equation yields

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= r^2 \frac{d^2 R}{dr^2} + r \frac{dR}{dr} + \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E_1 \right] R(r) \\ &= r^2 \left(-\frac{2mE_1 B}{\hbar^2} e^{ir\sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar} \right) + r \left(\frac{Bi\sqrt{2mE_1}}{\hbar} e^{ir\sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar} \right) + \frac{2mr^2}{\hbar^2} \left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} + E_1 \right] B e^{ir\sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar} \\ &= \frac{Bir\sqrt{2mE_1}}{\hbar} e^{ir\sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar} + \frac{2Bmr^2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2} e^{ir\sqrt{2mE_1}/\hbar} \end{aligned}$$

Cancelling terms from the above, we have

$$\begin{aligned} i\sqrt{2mE_1} &= -\frac{me^2}{2\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar} \\ -2mE_1 &= \frac{m^2 e^4}{4\pi^2 \epsilon_0^2 \hbar^2} \\ &= -\frac{me^4}{8\pi^2 \epsilon_0^2 \hbar^2} \\ \boxed{E_1} &= -\frac{e^2}{2\pi\epsilon_0 a_0} \end{aligned}$$

where $a_0 = 4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2 / me^2$ is the Bohr radius.

It follows that the ground-state wave function is

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(r, \phi) &= B e^{ir\sqrt{2m \cdot -me^4/8\pi^2 \epsilon_0^2 \hbar^2}/\hbar} A e^{i(0)\phi} \\ &= C e^{-rme^2/2\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2} \\ &= C e^{-2r/a_0} \end{aligned}$$

where we bundle the two constants A, B into the constant $C = AB$. We can determine the value of C by normalizing as follows.

$$\begin{aligned}
 1 &= \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \int_0^\infty dr r C^2 e^{-4r/a_0} \\
 &= C^2 \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \left[-\frac{ra_0}{4} e^{-4r/a_0} \right]_0^\infty + \frac{a_0}{4} \int_0^\infty e^{-4r/a_0} dr \\
 &= C^2 \int_0^{2\pi} d\phi \left[-\frac{ra_0}{4} e^{-4r/a_0} - \frac{a_0^2}{16} e^{-4r/a_0} \right]_0^\infty \\
 &= \frac{C^2 a_0^2}{16} \cdot 2\pi \\
 C &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{2}{a_0}
 \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\psi(r, \phi) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{\pi}} \frac{2}{a_0} e^{-2r/a_0}$$

□

- (f) What is the ratio of the ground-state energy of the two-dimensional hydrogen atom to the ground-state energy of the three-dimensional hydrogen atom?

Answer. From part (e) and class,

$$\frac{E_{2D}}{E_{3D}} = \frac{-\frac{e^2}{2\pi\epsilon_0 a_0}}{-\frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 a_0 (1)^2}}$$

$$E_{2D} : E_{3D} = 4$$

□

- (g) On the same figure, draw (or graph electronically) as a function of r the probability for finding the electron in the ground state of the 3D hydrogen atom as well as the probability for finding the electron in the ground state of the 2D hydrogen atom. Briefly compare and contrast these two probability distributions.

Answer. It follows from part (e) that

$$R(r) = \frac{4}{a_0} e^{-2r/a_0}$$

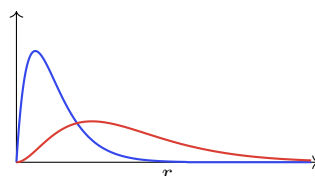
We also know that

$$R_{1s}(r) = \frac{2}{a_0^{3/2}} e^{-r/a_0}$$

Thus, the radial probability densities are

$$[R(r)]^2 r = \frac{16r}{a_0^2} e^{-4r/a_0} \qquad [R_{1s}(r)]^2 r^2 = \frac{4r^2}{a_0^3} e^{-2r/a_0}$$

Therefore, we have that



where the blue line corresponds to $R(r)$ and the red line corresponds to $R_{1s}(r)$. The probability densities follow the same general trend, but are normalized differently and peak at different places, meaning the electrons differ in terms of their most probable distance from the nucleus. In fact, the most probable distance from the nucleus for the planar atom is one-fourth the Bohr radius. \square

2. Using your lecture notes and Problem 7-1 as a guide, give a proof of the variational theorem, i.e., that...

- (a) The energy from a trial wave function will always be greater than or equal to the exact ground-state energy.

Answer. Let $\hat{H}\psi_0 = E_0\psi_0$ where ψ_0 is the ground-state wave function and E_0 is the ground-state energy, and let ϕ be a trial wave function meant to approximate ψ_0 . Since the ψ_n are orthonormal, $\phi = \sum_i c_i \psi_i$ where each c_i is a constant. It follows since the ψ_n are orthonormal that for each n ,

$$\begin{aligned} \int \psi_n^* \phi \, d\tau &= \int \sum_i c_i \psi_n^* \psi_i \, d\tau \\ &= \sum_i c_i \int \psi_n^* \psi_i \, d\tau \\ &= c_n \int \psi_n^* \psi_n \, d\tau \\ &= c_n \cdot 1 \\ &= c_n \end{aligned}$$

Thus,

$$\begin{aligned} E_\phi &= \frac{\int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi \, d\tau}{\int \phi^* \phi \, d\tau} \\ &= \frac{\int \sum_i c_i^* \psi_i^* \hat{H} \sum_j c_j \psi_j \, d\tau}{\int \sum_n c_n^* \psi_n^* \phi \, d\tau} \\ &= \frac{\int \sum_i c_i^* \psi_i^* \sum_j c_j E_j \psi_j \, d\tau}{\sum_n c_n^* \int \psi_n^* \phi \, d\tau} \\ &= \frac{\sum_i \sum_j c_i^* c_j E_j \int \psi_i^* \psi_j \, d\tau}{\sum_n c_n^* c_n} \\ &= \frac{\sum_n c_n^* c_n E_n}{\sum_n c_n^* c_n} \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$E_\phi - E_0 = \frac{\sum_n c_n^* c_n E_n}{\sum_n c_n^* c_n} - E_0 \frac{\sum_n c_n^* c_n}{\sum_n c_n^* c_n} = \frac{\sum_n c_n^* c_n (E_n - E_0)}{\sum_n c_n^* c_n}$$

where each $c_n^* c_n = |c_n|^2$ is nonnegative and $E_n - E_0$ is nonnegative because no energy can be lower than the ground-state energy, implying that the entire right term of the above equation is nonnegative. Thus, $E_\phi \geq E_0$, as desired. \square

- (b) The energy from a trial wave function, constrained to be orthogonal to the exact ground-state wave function, will always be greater than or equal to the exact energy of the first excited state.

Answer. Let $\hat{H}\psi_n = E_n\psi_n$ be a system of interest, and let ϕ be a trial wave function such that

$$\int \psi_0^* \phi \, d\tau = 0$$

Thus, if $\phi = \sum_i c_i \psi_i$, then by part (a),

$$c_0 = \int \psi_0^* \phi \, d\tau = 0$$

It follows that

$$E_\phi = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^* c_i E_i}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^* c_i}$$

so that

$$E_\phi - E_1 = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^* c_i (E_i - E_1)}{\sum_{i=1}^n c_i^* c_i} \geq 0$$

as desired. □

3. Consider a particle in a box in the interval $[-a, a]$.

(a) Use the trial wave function

$$\psi_t = x(a^2 - x^2)$$

to obtain an approximate energy for the first excited state of the box as a function of a .

Answer. We have that

$$\begin{aligned} \int \psi_t^* \hat{H} \psi_t \, d\tau &= \int_{-a}^a (a^2 x - x^3) \left(-\frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \right) (a^2 x - x^3) \, dx \\ &= \int_{-a}^a (a^2 x - x^3) (3x) \, dx \\ &= \int_{-a}^a (3a^2 x^2 - 3x^4) \, dx \\ &= \frac{4a^5}{5} \end{aligned}$$

and that

$$\begin{aligned} \int \psi_t^* \psi_t \, d\tau &= \int_{-a}^a x(a^2 - x^2) x(a^2 - x^2) \, dx \\ &= \int_{-a}^a (a^4 x^2 - 2a^2 x^4 + x^6) \, dx \\ &= \frac{16}{105} a^7 \end{aligned}$$

so

$$\begin{aligned} E_{\psi_t} &= \frac{\int \psi_t^* \hat{H} \psi_t \, d\tau}{\int \psi_t^* \psi_t \, d\tau} \\ &= \frac{4a^5/5}{16a^7/105} \end{aligned}$$

$$E_{\psi_t} = \frac{21}{4a^2} \text{ a.u.}$$

□

(b) Why does this function give an approximation to the first excited state rather than the ground state?

Answer. It is an odd function, like the first excited state, while the ground state is even. □

(c) Use the more accurate trial wave function

$$\psi_t = c_1 x(a^2 - x^2) + c_2 x^3(a^2 - x^2)$$

to obtain an approximate energy for the first excited state of the box as a function of a .

Answer. We have the following matrix entries, calculated in the same manner as H_{11} above. Note that we only perform three explicit calculations per matrix since our operators are Hermitian.

$$\begin{aligned} H_{11} &= \int_{-a}^a x(a^2 - x^2) \hat{H} x(a^2 - x^2) dx & H_{12} &= \int_{-a}^a x(a^2 - x^2) \hat{H} x^3(a^2 - x^2) dx \\ &= \frac{4a^5}{5} & &= \frac{12a^7}{35} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} H_{21} &= H_{12} & H_{22} &= \int_{-a}^a x^3(a^2 - x^2) \hat{H} x^3(a^2 - x^2) dx \\ &= \frac{12a^7}{35} & &= \frac{92a^9}{315} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} S_{11} &= \int_{-a}^a x(a^2 - x^2) x(a^2 - x^2) dx & S_{12} &= \int_{-a}^a x(a^2 - x^2) x^3(a^2 - x^2) dx \\ &= \frac{16a^7}{105} & &= \frac{16a^9}{315} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} S_{21} &= S_{12} & S_{22} &= \int_{-a}^a x^3(a^2 - x^2) x^3(a^2 - x^2) dx \\ &= \frac{16a^9}{315} & &= \frac{16a^{11}}{693} \end{aligned}$$

Thus, we are looking to solve the secular determinant/equation

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &= \begin{vmatrix} H_{11} - ES_{11} & H_{12} - ES_{12} \\ H_{21} - ES_{21} & H_{22} - ES_{22} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \begin{vmatrix} \frac{4a^5}{5} - E\frac{16a^7}{105} & \frac{12a^7}{35} - E\frac{16a^9}{315} \\ \frac{12a^7}{35} - E\frac{16a^9}{315} & \frac{92a^9}{315} - E\frac{16a^{11}}{693} \end{vmatrix} \\ &= \left(\frac{4a^5}{5} - E\frac{16a^7}{105} \right) \left(\frac{92a^9}{315} - E\frac{16a^{11}}{693} \right) - \left(\frac{12a^7}{35} - E\frac{16a^9}{315} \right)^2 \\ &= \frac{1024a^{18}}{1091475} E^2 - \frac{2048a^{16}}{72765} E + \frac{256a^{14}}{2205} \\ &= 4a^4 E^2 - 120a^2 E + 495 \end{aligned}$$

which we can do with the quadratic formula, getting

$$E = \frac{30 + 9\sqrt{5}}{2a^2} \qquad E = \frac{30 - 9\sqrt{5}}{2a^2}$$

It follows that the energy of the first excited state (the smaller of the two values above) is approximately

$$E = \frac{4.94}{a^2} \text{ a.u.}$$

□

- (d) Compare the approximate energies with the exact energy (including their dependence on a) and the approximate wave functions with the exact wave functions. (Hint: In comparing the wave functions, you may want to select $a = 1$.)

Answer. We have from class that the exact energy is

$$E_1 = \frac{\pi^2(2)^2}{8a^2} = \frac{4.934\,802}{a^2} \text{ a.u.}$$

Thus, the dependence on a is identical between the approximations and the exact solution and the first and second approximations have percent error 6.39 % and 0.105 %, respectively.

As to the wave functions, the exact wave functions are sinusoidal while the approximate wave functions are third- and fifth-order polynomials, respectively, that very closely follow (especially in the optimized second case) the trajectory of the exact wave functions. \square

4. Use the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox in Maple to answer the lettered questions in the worksheet “Variational Methods” on Canvas.

- (a) Now what happens as you increase N ? Do you get better approximations to the ground and first excited state, consistent with the Variational Theorem? To answer this, set $N = 5$ in the Maple input and recalculate the approximate energies.

Answer. The approximations get much better. For $N = 5$, we have percent errors 0.004 % and 0.225 % for E_0 and E_1 , respectively, compared with 0.523 % and 6.948 %, respectively, for $N = 2$. \square

- (b) Is the spacing between adjacent energy levels evenly spaced, as seen in the harmonic oscillator? What happens to this spacing as energy increases?

Answer. No. As the energy increases, the spacing decreases. \square

- (c) Are there an infinite number of “bound” vibrational energy levels, as seen in the harmonic oscillator? If not, how many bound states does HCl have?

Answer. No. As we can see from the second plot, only 12 energy levels exist with $E < 0$. \square

- (d) For each series, does the energy decrease variationally as the size of the basis increases? Which series of basis sets gave rise to better energies? What did you notice regarding the time required to carry out each calculation as the size of the basis set increased?

Answer. Yes, the energy does decrease variationally as the size of the basis increases. The second series gave rise to better energies. The time required to carry out the calculations with longer basis sets was greater. \square

6 Perturbation Corrections and Atomic and Molecular Orbitals

11/10: 1. Consider an electron in a potential with a Hamiltonian

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \lambda \hat{V}$$

where

$$\hat{H}_0 = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{2}x^2$$

and the perturbative term $\hat{V} = x^2$.

- (a) Compute the first-order correction to the energy for the ground and the first-excited states for $\lambda = 1/5$.

Answer. Ground state: First, we need to find $\psi_0^{(0)}$. To do so, we will solve the Schrödinger equation

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{H}_0 \psi^{(0)} &= E_0 \psi^{(0)} \\ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi^{(0)}(x)}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{2} x^2 \psi^{(0)}(x) &= E_0 \psi^{(0)}(x) \end{aligned}$$

which is clearly just the Schrödinger equation for a harmonic oscillator with $k = 1$. Thus, from McQuarrie and Simon (1997), we have that

$$\psi_0^{(0)}(x) = \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} e^{-\alpha x^2/2}$$

where $\alpha = \sqrt{m}/\hbar$. It follows that

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{dE}{d\lambda} \right|_0 &= \int \psi_0^{(0)*}(x) V \psi_0^{(0)}(x) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \right) x^2 \left(\sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \right) dx \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2} dx \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\alpha}{\pi}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4\alpha^3}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{1}{4\alpha^2}} \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\hbar^2}{4m}} \\ E_0^{(1)} &= \frac{\hbar}{2\sqrt{m}} \end{aligned}$$

where the integral is evaluated from the tables. Therefore, by multiplying the above by $\lambda = 1/5$, we obtain the first order correction to the ground state energy as

$$\boxed{\lambda E_0^{(1)} = \frac{\hbar}{10\sqrt{m}}}$$

First-excited state: First, we need to find $\psi_1^{(0)}$. To do so, we will solve the same Schrödinger equation as before to get

$$\psi_1^{(0)} = \sqrt{\frac{4\alpha^3}{\pi}} x e^{-\alpha x^2/2}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \left. \frac{dE}{d\lambda} \right|_0 &= \int \psi_1^{(0)*}(x) V \psi_1^{(0)}(x) dx \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(\sqrt[4]{\frac{4\alpha^3}{\pi}} x e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \right) x^2 \left(\sqrt[4]{\frac{4\alpha^3}{\pi}} x e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \right) dx \\
 &= \sqrt{\frac{4\alpha^3}{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^4 e^{-\alpha x^2} dx \\
 &= \sqrt{\frac{4\alpha^3}{\pi}} \cdot \sqrt{\frac{9\pi}{16\alpha^5}} \\
 &= \sqrt{\frac{9}{4\alpha^2}} \\
 &= \sqrt{\frac{9\hbar^2}{4m}} \\
 E_1^{(0)} &= \frac{3\hbar}{2\sqrt{m}}
 \end{aligned}$$

where the integral is evaluated from the tables. Therefore, by multiplying the above by $\lambda = 1/5$, we obtain the first order correction to the first-excited state energy as

$$\lambda E_1^{(0)} = \frac{3\hbar}{10\sqrt{m}}$$

□

- (b) Optimize the α in the trial wave function $e^{-\alpha x^2/2}$ to estimate the ground-state energy of this system for $\lambda = 1/5$.

Answer. Let $\phi(x) = e^{-\alpha x^2/2}$. Then

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{H}\phi(x) &= \hat{H}_0\phi(x) + \frac{1}{5}x^2\phi(x) \\
 &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} (e^{-\alpha x^2/2}) + \frac{7}{10}x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \\
 &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d}{dx} (-\alpha x e^{-\alpha x^2/2}) + \frac{7}{10}x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \\
 &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} (\alpha^2 x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2/2} - \alpha e^{-\alpha x^2/2}) + \frac{7}{10}x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \\
 &= \left(\frac{7}{10} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \alpha^2 \right) x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2/2} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \alpha e^{-\alpha x^2/2}
 \end{aligned}$$

It follows that

$$\begin{aligned}
 \int \phi^*(x) \hat{H}\phi(x) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} (e^{-\alpha x^2/2}) \left[\left(\frac{7}{10} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \alpha^2 \right) x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2/2} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \alpha e^{-\alpha x^2/2} \right] dx \\
 &= \left(\frac{7}{10} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \alpha^2 \right) \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} x^2 e^{-\alpha x^2} dx + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \alpha \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\alpha x^2} dx \\
 &= \left(\frac{7}{10} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \alpha^2 \right) \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{4\alpha^3}} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \alpha \cdot \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}} \\
 &= \frac{7}{20} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha^3}} - \frac{\hbar^2}{4m} \sqrt{\pi\alpha} + \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \sqrt{\pi\alpha} \\
 &= \frac{7}{20} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha^3}} + \frac{\hbar^2}{4m} \sqrt{\pi\alpha}
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}\int \phi^*(x)\phi(x) dx &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \left(e^{-\alpha x^2/2}\right) \left(e^{-\alpha x^2/2}\right) dx \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{-\alpha x^2} dx \\ &= \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}}\end{aligned}$$

Thus

$$\begin{aligned}E_\phi &= \frac{\int \phi^* \hat{H} \phi dx}{\int \phi^* \phi dx} \\ &= \frac{\frac{7}{20} \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha^3}} + \frac{\hbar^2}{4m} \sqrt{\pi \alpha}}{\sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}}} \\ &= \frac{7}{20\alpha} + \frac{\hbar^2 \alpha}{4m}\end{aligned}$$

Differentiating, we find that

$$\begin{aligned}0 &= -\frac{7}{20\alpha^2} + \frac{\hbar^2}{4m} \\ \frac{1}{\alpha^2} &= \frac{5\hbar^2}{7m} \\ \alpha &= \pm \sqrt{\frac{7m}{5\hbar^2}}\end{aligned}$$

Thus, the possible values that will minimize E_ϕ are the α 's given by the above. Note that $\alpha \rightarrow \pm\infty$ or $\alpha \rightarrow 0$ causes the energy to diverge, and we can ignore any negative energies because the harmonic oscillator does not have a negative energy. Plugging in, we find that $E_\phi(-\sqrt{7m/5\hbar^2}) < 0$, so our minimal value of energy is

$$\begin{aligned}E_\phi &= \frac{7}{20} \sqrt{\frac{5\hbar^2}{7m}} + \frac{\hbar^2}{4m} \sqrt{\frac{7m}{5\hbar^2}} \\ &= \frac{\hbar}{4} \sqrt{\frac{7}{5m}} + \frac{\hbar}{4} \sqrt{\frac{7}{5m}} \\ &= \frac{\hbar}{2} \sqrt{\frac{7}{5m}} \\ \boxed{E_\phi = 0.5916 \text{ a.u.}}\end{aligned}$$

□

- (c) Which approximation yields a better estimate for the ground-state energy?

Answer. First off, we must calculate the energy of the ground state of the electron according to first-order perturbation theory. To do so, note that

$$\begin{aligned}E_0^{(0)} &= \hbar\omega \left(0 + \frac{1}{2}\right) \\ &= \frac{\hbar}{2} \sqrt{\frac{1}{m}} \\ &= \frac{\hbar}{2\sqrt{m}}\end{aligned}$$

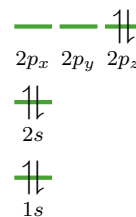
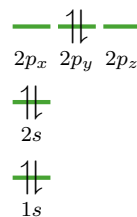
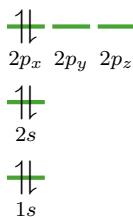
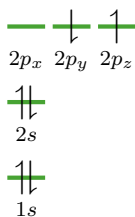
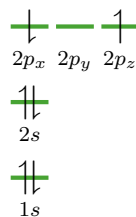
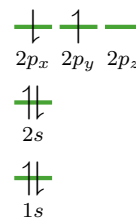
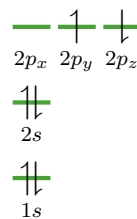
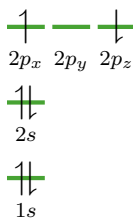
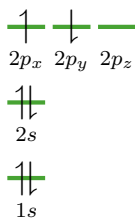
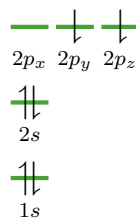
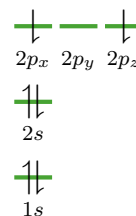
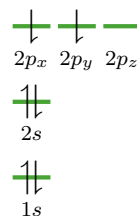
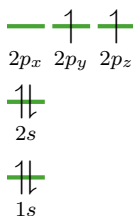
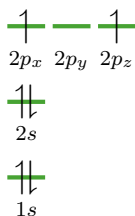
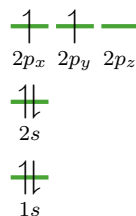
Thus, our approximation for the ground-state energy according to first-order perturbation theory is

$$\begin{aligned}
 E_0 &= E_0^{(0)} + \lambda E_0^{(1)} \\
 &= \frac{\hbar}{2\sqrt{m}} + \frac{\hbar}{10\sqrt{m}} \\
 &= \frac{3\hbar}{5\sqrt{m}} \\
 &= 0.6000 \text{ a.u.}
 \end{aligned}$$

Since our variational energy E_ϕ must be greater than or equal to the actual energy, and E_0 is even greater than E_ϕ , our variational approximation E_ϕ yields a better estimate than our first-order perturbation theory calculation E_0 . \square

2. (a) Using the $1s$, $2s$, and $2p$ orbitals, give all electronic configurations for the carbon atom where both the $1s$ and the $2s$ orbitals are filled.

Answer. They are as follows. \square



- (b) Which configuration has the lowest energy according to Hund's rule?

Answer. Configurations (a)-(f) all have the same minimal energy. This is because we have parallel spins (we can take advantage of the exchange energy) and no two electrons are in the same orbital (as this would add the Coulombic energy). \square

- (c) For this configuration, express the molecular wave function in Grassmann product notation (i.e., with \wedge 's).

Answer. The Grassmann wedge products for these six configurations are

$$\psi_a(123456) = 1s\alpha(1) \wedge 1s\beta(2) \wedge 2s\alpha(3) \wedge 2s\beta(4) \wedge 2p_x\alpha(5) \wedge 2p_y\alpha(6)$$

$$\psi_b(123456) = 1s\alpha(1) \wedge 1s\beta(2) \wedge 2s\alpha(3) \wedge 2s\beta(4) \wedge 2p_x\alpha(5) \wedge 2p_z\alpha(6)$$

$$\psi_c(123456) = 1s\alpha(1) \wedge 1s\beta(2) \wedge 2s\alpha(3) \wedge 2s\beta(4) \wedge 2p_y\alpha(5) \wedge 2p_z\alpha(6)$$

$$\psi_d(123456) = 1s\alpha(1) \wedge 1s\beta(2) \wedge 2s\alpha(3) \wedge 2s\beta(4) \wedge 2p_x\beta(5) \wedge 2p_y\beta(6)$$

$$\psi_e(123456) = 1s\alpha(1) \wedge 1s\beta(2) \wedge 2s\alpha(3) \wedge 2s\beta(4) \wedge 2p_x\beta(5) \wedge 2p_z\beta(6)$$

$$\psi_f(123456) = 1s\alpha(1) \wedge 1s\beta(2) \wedge 2s\alpha(3) \wedge 2s\beta(4) \wedge 2p_y\beta(5) \wedge 2p_z\beta(6)$$

□

3. Using the worksheet “Molecular Orbitals” with the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox for Maple, answer the following questions.

- (a) In performing the geometry optimization of hydrogen fluoride, what is the computed bond length in the STO-3G basis set, and how does this bond length compare to the experimental bond length?

Answer. The computed bond length is 0.9555 Å, which is approximately 5% off from the experimental value of 0.91 Å.

□

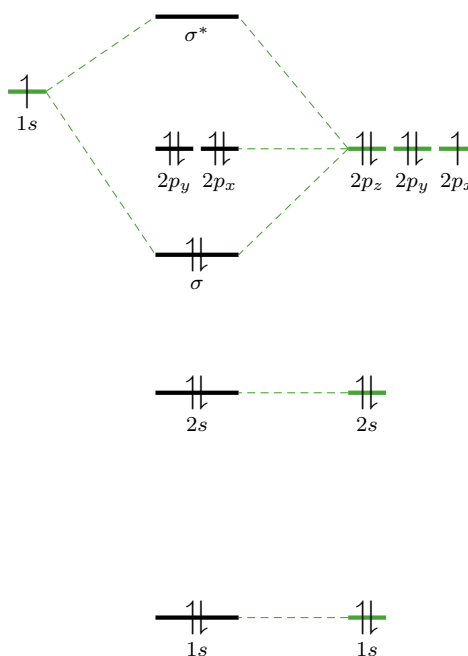
- (b) What is the computed dipole moment of the molecule in Debyes, and is this result consistent with the experimental dipole moment in Debyes? (Hint: Search the NIST database.)

Answer. Maple computed the dipole moment to 1.252 D. NIST has the experimental dipole moment as 1.820 D. The computed value is 31.2% off from the real value, so it is not consistent.

□

- (c) Draw a molecular orbital (MO) diagram for hydrogen fluoride.

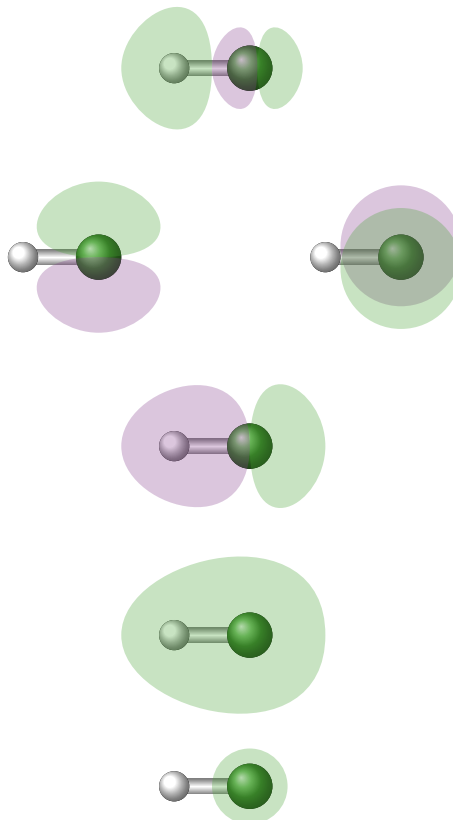
Answer.



□

- (d) Based on the results from the worksheet, provide a sketch of each MO, and explain which atomic orbitals (AOs) contribute significantly to each MO. Are these results consistent with your MO diagram?

Answer.



The first MO comes primarily from the F_{1s} AO. The second MO comes primarily from the H_{1s} and F_{2s} AO. The third MO comes primarily from the H_{1s} , F_{2s} , and F_{2p_z} AOs. The fourth and fifth MOs come entirely from the F_{2p_y} and F_{2p_x} AOs, respectively. The sixth MO comes primarily from the H_{1s} , F_{2s} , and F_{2p_z} AOs.

These results are not consistent with my MO diagram since the MOs drawn derive their their electron density from additional AOs not connected to them by dashed lines in the MO diagram.

□

7 Molecular Orbital Theory

- 11/17: 1. The bonding and antibonding potential energy surfaces of H_2^+ were derived in class by applying the linear variational principle to the trial wave function

$$\psi_{\text{trial}} = c_1 1s_A + c_2 1s_B$$

- (a) Estimate the ground-state potential energy surface by computing the first-order *perturbative* change in the energy where the reference Hamiltonian

$$\hat{H}_0 = -\frac{1}{2}\nabla^2 - \frac{1}{r_A}$$

is the Hamiltonian of the hydrogen atom at position A and the perturbation

$$\hat{V} = -\frac{1}{r_B} + \frac{1}{R}$$

is the interaction of a second proton at position B with the proton at position A where R is the internuclear distance. The reference wave function

$$\psi_0 = 1s_A$$

is the $1s$ orbital of hydrogen centered at position A .

Answer. If we let

$$\hat{H} = \hat{H}_0 + \lambda \hat{V}$$

then we want to find the first-order approximation

$$E(1) = E(0) + (1) \left. \frac{dE}{d\lambda} \right|_0$$

of $E(\lambda)$ with respect to \hat{H} where $\lambda = 1$. Let's begin.

We know that the ground state energy of the unperturbed hydrogen atom is

$$E(0) = -\frac{1}{2} E_h$$

Additionally, we know that the first-order perturbation

$$\begin{aligned} \left. \frac{dE}{d\lambda} \right|_0 &= \int \psi_0^* \hat{V} \psi_0 d\vec{r} \\ &= \int d\vec{r} 1s_A^* \left(-\frac{1}{r_B} + \frac{1}{R} \right) 1s_A \\ &= J \end{aligned}$$

$$\boxed{\left. \frac{dE}{d\lambda} \right|_0 = e^{-2R} \left(1 + \frac{1}{R} \right)}$$

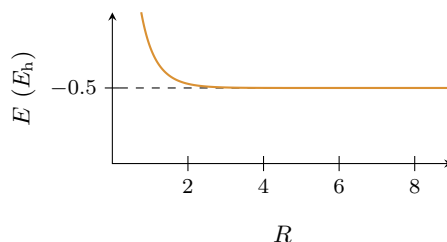
Thus, the ground state potential energy surface is

$$\boxed{E(1) = -\frac{1}{2} + e^{-2R} \left(1 + \frac{1}{R} \right)}$$

□

- (b) Make a sketch of the potential energy surface from part (a) as a function of R .

Answer.



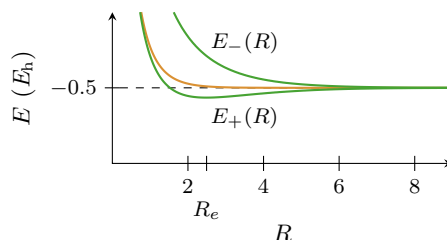
□

- (c) Does the approximation in part (a) produce a stable, bound ground state for H_2^+ ?

Answer. No. Since the function is decreasing on $(0, \infty)$, energy can only be lowered by increasing the internuclear distance, so the atoms will drift apart forever. □

- (d) In a second sketch, compare the potential energy surface in part (a) with the bonding and anti-bonding potential energy surfaces of H_2^+ that were derived in class from the trial wave function above.

Answer.



□

- (e) Using the trial wave function for comparison, explain briefly in terms of bonding — the sharing of electrons — the limitation of the wave function in part (a).

Answer. The wave function in part (a) does not describe bonding particularly well since it is centered strictly at one atom and does not represent an equal, symmetric sharing of electrons. □

- (f) Furnish the trial wave function that within the variational approximation would give the same potential energy surface as the application of first-order perturbation theory in (a).

Answer. Based on the above, we can guess that

$$\psi_{\text{trial}} = 1s_A$$

Indeed, with this trial wave function, we find

$$\begin{aligned} E &= \frac{\int 1s_A^* \hat{H} 1s_A d\tau}{\int 1s_A^* 1s_A d\tau} \\ &= \frac{E_{1s} + J}{1} \\ &= E(1) \end{aligned}$$

as desired. Therefore, the desired trial wave function is indeed

$$\boxed{\psi_{\text{trial}} = 1s_A}$$

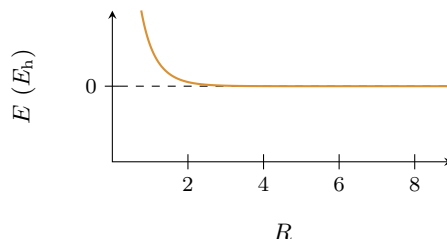
□

2. The Coulomb integral for H_2^+ is given by

$$J(R) = e^{-2R} \left(1 + \frac{1}{R} \right)$$

- (a) By making a sketch of $J(R)$ as a function of the internuclear distance R , show that $J(R)$ is nonnegative for all R .

Answer.



□

- (b) The $J(R)$ results from two competing forces: (i) the attraction of an electron on A to the proton at B and (ii) the repulsion of the proton at A from the proton at B. What does the nonnegativity of $J(R)$ in part (a) say about the relative strengths of these competing forces?

Answer. Since we have that

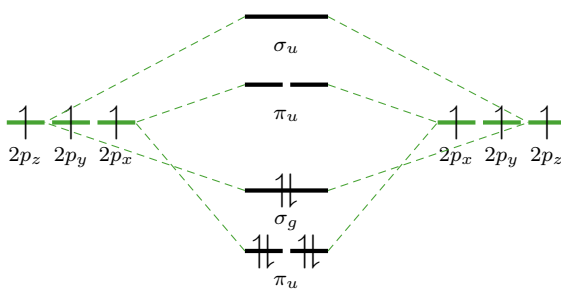
$$\begin{aligned} 0 &< \int d\vec{r} 1s_A^* \left(-\frac{1}{r_B} + \frac{1}{R} \right) 1s_A \\ 0 &< \int d\vec{r} 1s_A^* \left(\frac{1}{R} \right) 1s_A - \int d\vec{r} 1s_A^* \left(\frac{1}{r_B} \right) 1s_A \\ \int d\vec{r} 1s_A^* \left(\frac{1}{r_B} \right) 1s_A &< \int d\vec{r} 1s_A^* \left(\frac{1}{R} \right) 1s_A \end{aligned}$$

where the right term above describes the internuclear repulsion and the left term above describes the electronic attraction, the internuclear repulsion is stronger than the electronic attraction.

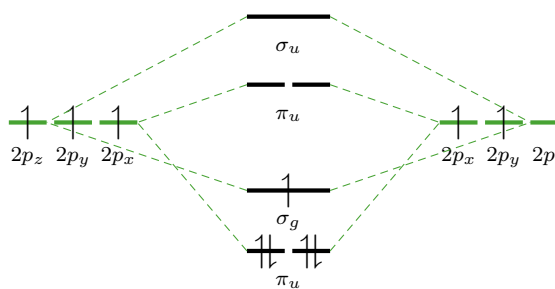
□

3. (a) Give the molecular orbital diagrams for the molecules N_2 , N_2^+ , O_2 , and O_2^+ .

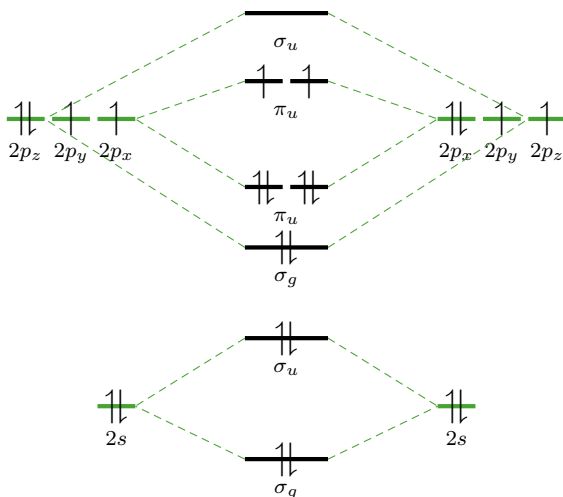
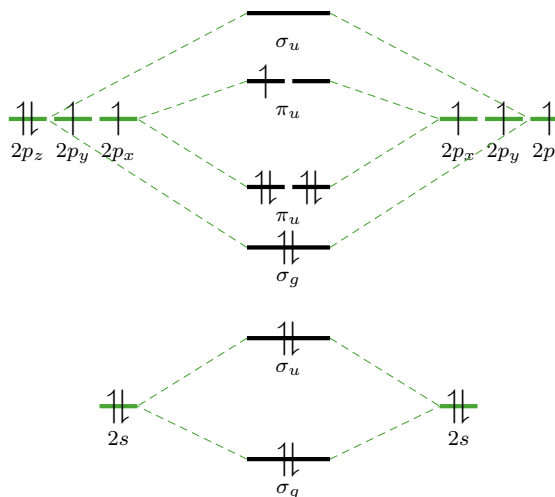
Answer.



(a) N_2 .



(b) N_2^+ .

(c) O_2 .(d) O_2^+ .

□

- (b) What is the bond order for each molecule?

Answer. We have that

$$BO_{N_2} = \frac{1}{2}(8 - 2) \quad BO_{N_2^+} = \frac{1}{2}(7 - 2) \quad BO_{O_2} = \frac{1}{2}(8 - 4) \quad BO_{O_2^+} = \frac{1}{2}(8 - 3)$$

$BO_{N_2} = 3$

$BO_{N_2^+} = 2.5$

$BO_{O_2} = 2$

$BO_{O_2^+} = 2.5$

□

- (c) Explain why N_2 has a larger dissociation energy than N_2^+ , but O_2^+ has a larger dissociation energy than O_2 .

Answer. Bond order, as a measure of stability, positively correlates with dissociation energy. Thus, since $BO_{N_2} > BO_{N_2^+}$ and $BO_{O_2^+} > BO_{O_2}$, N_2 has a larger dissociation energy than N_2^+ and O_2^+ has a larger dissociation energy than O_2 . □

- (d) Using Grassmann notation, give the ground-state wave function for N_2 in molecular orbital theory.

Answer. We have

$$\psi = \sigma_g 1s\alpha(1) \wedge \sigma_g 1s\beta(2) \wedge \sigma_u 1s\alpha(3) \wedge \sigma_u 1s\beta(4) \wedge \sigma_g 2s\alpha(5) \wedge \sigma_g 2s\beta(6) \wedge \sigma_u 2s\alpha(7) \wedge \sigma_u 2s\beta(8) \\ \wedge \pi_u 2p_x\alpha(9) \wedge \pi_u 2p_x\beta(10) \wedge \pi_u 2p_y\alpha(11) \wedge \pi_u 2p_y\beta(12) \wedge \sigma_g 2p_z\alpha(13) \wedge \sigma_g 2p_z\beta(14)$$

where $\psi = \psi(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, 13, 14)$ is a function of the fourteen sets of four (three spatial and one spin) coordinates describing each electron. □

4. Using the worksheet “Huckel Theory” with the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox for Maple, answer the lettered questions.

- (a) Order the energies from lowest to highest.

Answer. We have

$\alpha + 2\beta < \alpha = \alpha < \alpha - 2\beta$

□

- (b) How many molecular orbitals are degenerate?

Answer. If there is one eigenvalue/energy with nontrivial multiplicity, then there exist two molecular orbitals that are degenerate. □

- (c) Normalize each of the four eigenvectors generated by Maple.

Answer. The normalized eigenvectors are □

$$\begin{bmatrix} 0 \\ -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \end{bmatrix}$$

(a)

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \\ 1/\sqrt{2} \\ 0 \end{bmatrix}$$

(b)

$$\begin{bmatrix} -1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ -1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

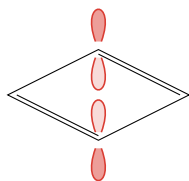
(c)

$$\begin{bmatrix} 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/2 \\ 1/2 \end{bmatrix}$$

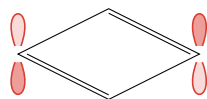
(d)

- (d) Draw a sketch of each of the molecular orbitals including the relative phases between the p_z orbitals as indicated by the computed eigenvectors. □

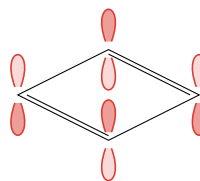
Answer.



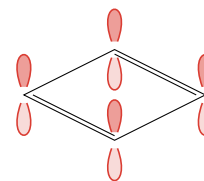
(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)

- (e) Label each sketch in part (d) by its molecular orbital energy.

Answer. We have

$$(a) = \alpha$$

$$(b) = \alpha$$

$$(c) = \alpha - 2\beta$$

$$(d) = \alpha + 2\beta$$

□

- (f) Do the molecular orbitals computed by the variational 2-RDM method agree with the qualitative features of those predicted by Huckel's theory?

Answer. The orbitals (c) and (d) from part (d) have variational 2-RDM analogues. However, the other two orbitals have definite qualitative distinctions (namely, the Huckel ones have their electron density localized to one atom instead of distributed across two). □

- (g) In what ways do these orbital occupations agree with those predicted from Huckel theory, and in what ways do they not agree?

Answer. They agree in the sense that we have a bonding state that is nearly fully occupied and an antibonding state that is nearly empty, but they disagree on the degeneracy of the two middle states (Huckel theory predicts degeneracy in the middle states, but the states computed here differ in occupation by almost exactly an entire electron, suggesting that they have significantly different energies). □

- (h) Based on the computed bond distances, is the geometry of cyclobutadiene square or rectangular?

Answer. Since the bond lengths of C1-C3 and C2-C4 are equal but different than the bond lengths of C1-C2 and C3-C4, cyclobutadiene is rectangular. □

- (i) Can you use the result from part (h) to explain the difference in the occupation numbers from the Variational 2-RDM calculations and those from Huckel's method?

Answer. Yes. Since the lowest and highest energy orbitals have a C_4 axis in both approximations but the molecule overall only has a C_2 axis in the variational 2-RDM approximation, the middle orbitals cannot be symmetric as they are in the Huckel approximation from part (d). This lack of symmetry implies nondegenerate energies, as one orbital must be more occupied than the other to stretch the molecule from square to rectangular. \square

5. In photoelectron spectroscopy, radiation interacts with gaseous molecules to eject electrons whose kinetic energies are measured (recall the photoelectric effect).

- (a) Explain why measuring the kinetic energy of the ejected electrons tells us something about the molecular orbital energies.

Answer. Using Einstein's Nobel prize equation

$$KE = h\nu - W$$

we know that the kinetic energy KE of the ejected electron is equal to the energy $h\nu$ of the impinging photon minus the ionization energy of the ejected electron (the molecular orbital energy). Thus, if we plot measured KE 's versus known $h\nu$'s and perform a linear regression, the y -intercept gives an approximation for W . \square

- (b) If the incident radiation has a frequency of 57.8 nm, what is the largest electron binding energy that can be measured?

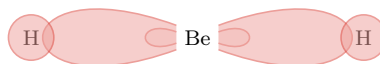
Proof. Using the above equation again, if $\nu = 57.8 \text{ nm}$, the largest electron binding energy that can be measured is that which gives a KE detectably greater than zero. Numerically,

$$\begin{aligned} 0 &< KE \\ 0 &< h\nu - W \\ W &< h\nu \\ &= 3.83 \text{ J} \end{aligned}$$

i.e., the largest energy that can be measured is bounded by $\boxed{3.83 \text{ J}}$. \square

6. (a) Sketch the hybrid orbitals of Be in the molecule BeH_2 and illustrate their role in bonding.

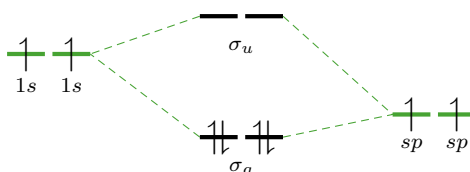
Answer.



\square

- (b) Using the hybrid orbitals, assemble a molecular orbital diagram for BeH_2 .

Answer.



□

- (c) With Grassmann notation, express the MO ground-state wave function for BeH₂.

Answer. We have that

$$\psi(1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6) = 1s\alpha(1) \wedge 1s\beta(2) \wedge 1\sigma_g\alpha(3) \wedge 1\sigma_g\beta(4) \wedge 2\sigma_g\alpha(5) \wedge 2\sigma_g\beta(6)$$

□

7. Using the *hybridized* sp^3 wave functions of CH₄ on McQuarrie and Simon (1997, p. 376), give the probability that an electron in one of the sp^3 wave functions is...

- (a) In carbon's $2p_x$ orbital;

Answer. We have that the normalized sp^3 wave functions are of the form

$$\psi = \frac{1}{2}(2s \pm 2p_x \pm 2p_y \pm 2p_z)$$

Thus, since the probability that an electron is in one of the component orbitals is equal to the square of the norm of its coefficient, we have that

$$\text{Prob}_{2p_x} = \frac{1}{4}$$

□

- (b) In carbon's $2p_z$ orbital.

Answer. By a completely symmetric argument to part (a),

$$\text{Prob}_{2p_z} = \frac{1}{4}$$

□

- (c) By symmetry, should the results in parts (a) and (b) be the same or different?

Answer. Yes.

□

8. The π -electrons may be approximated in conjugated and aromatic hydrocarbons through Huckel theory. Use Huckel theory to approximate the energies and the wave functions for...

- (a) The allyl radical;

Answer. Consider the system $\mathbb{H}\vec{c} = E\mathbb{I}\vec{c}$ describing only the three adjacent $2p_z$ orbitals of the allyl radical, each of which contains one electron. Invoking the Huckel approximation, we get

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbb{H}\vec{c} &= E\mathbb{I}\vec{c} \\ (\mathbb{H} - E\mathbb{I})\vec{c} &= 0 \\ \begin{pmatrix} \alpha - E & \beta & 0 \\ \beta & \alpha - E & \beta \\ 0 & \beta & \alpha - E \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \end{pmatrix} &= \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix} \end{aligned}$$

as an approximation of the original system, where α, β are experimentally determined quantities. We want to find all energies E that give $\mathbb{H} - E\mathbb{I}$ a nontrivial null space, i.e., a nontrivial corresponding wave function. But these values of E will be the ones for which $\mathbb{H} - E\mathbb{I}$ is singular with determinant zero. Thus, set

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

$$\begin{aligned}
&= \beta^3 \begin{vmatrix} (\alpha - E)/\beta & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & (\alpha - E)/\beta & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & (\alpha - E)/\beta \end{vmatrix} \\
&= \begin{vmatrix} x & 1 & 0 \\ 1 & x & 1 \\ 0 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} \\
&= x^3 - 2x \\
&= x(x + \sqrt{2})(x - \sqrt{2}) \\
\frac{\alpha - E}{\beta} &= 0, \pm\sqrt{2} \\
E &= \alpha - (0, \pm\sqrt{2})\beta
\end{aligned}$$

to determine the desired approximate energies, which we may label

$$\boxed{E_1 = \alpha + \sqrt{2}\beta} \qquad \boxed{E_2 = \alpha} \qquad \boxed{E_3 = \alpha - \sqrt{2}\beta}$$

As for the corresponding wave functions, to determine the coefficients of ψ_i , we solve the original system with each E_i plugged in using Gauss-Jordan elimination. For example,

$$\begin{aligned}
&\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} \frac{\alpha-E_1}{\beta} & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & \frac{\alpha-E_1}{\beta} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & \frac{\alpha-E_1}{\beta} & 0 \end{array} \right) \\
&\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} -\sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 1 & -\sqrt{2} & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\sqrt{2} & 0 \end{array} \right) \\
&\left(\begin{array}{ccc|c} 1 & 0 & -1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & -\sqrt{2} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 0 & 0 \end{array} \right)
\end{aligned}$$

yields $\psi_1 = (1c_3)2p_{z_A} + (\sqrt{2}c_3)2p_{z_B} + (c_3)2p_{z_C}$. We can pick a particular solution by normalizing to get $c_3 = 1/2$, yielding

$$\boxed{\psi_1 = \frac{1}{2}2p_{z_A} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}2p_{z_B} + \frac{1}{2}2p_{z_C}}$$

Repeating the process for E_2 and E_3 gives

$$\boxed{\psi_2 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}2p_{z_A} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}2p_{z_C}}$$

$$\boxed{\psi_3 = \frac{1}{2}2p_{z_A} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}2p_{z_B} + \frac{1}{2}2p_{z_C}}$$

□

(b) Cyclobutadiene;

Answer. The Huckel approximation system for cyclobutadiene is identical to the four-dimensional generalization of the system used in part (a), except that the bottom-left and upper-right matrix elements are β instead of zero, reflecting the fact that cyclobutadiene is ring-shaped and thus the $2p_{z_A}$ and $2p_{z_D}$ orbitals are actually adjacent. Symbolically, the system is

$$\begin{pmatrix} \alpha - E & \beta & 0 & \beta \\ \beta & \alpha - E & \beta & 0 \\ 0 & \beta & \alpha - E & \beta \\ \beta & 0 & \beta & \alpha - E \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} c_1 \\ c_2 \\ c_3 \\ c_4 \end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix} 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \\ 0 \end{pmatrix}$$

We may proceed from here in an identical fashion to part (a) to learn that

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 &= \begin{vmatrix} x & 1 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & x & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & x & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} \\
 &= x^2(x+2)(x-2) \\
 E &= \alpha - (0, \pm 2)\beta
 \end{aligned}$$

i.e.,

$$E_1 = \alpha + 2\beta$$

$$E_2 = E_3 = \alpha$$

$$E_4 = \alpha - 2\beta$$

As before, these values then yield

$$\psi_1 = \frac{1}{2}(2p_{z_A} + 2p_{z_B} + 2p_{z_C} + 2p_{z_D})$$

Solving for ψ_2 and ψ_3 is somewhat more complicated however due to the degeneracy of their corresponding energies. Indeed, applying Gauss-Jordan elimination with either E_2 or E_3 plugged in gives a two-dimensional null space (i.e., two linearly independent families of solutions) described by

$$\psi_{2,3} = (-c_3)2p_{z_A} + (-c_4)2p_{z_B} + (c_3)2p_{z_C} + (c_4)2p_{z_D}$$

However, since wave functions should be orthogonal, choose $c_4 = 0$ for ψ_2 and $c_3 = 0$ for ψ_3 , i.e., choose

$$\psi_2 = (-c_3)2p_{z_A} + (c_3)2p_{z_C}$$

$$\psi_3 = (-c_4)2p_{z_B} + (c_4)2p_{z_D}$$

Normalizing then yields

$$\psi_2 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}2p_{z_A} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}2p_{z_C}$$

$$\psi_3 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}2p_{z_B} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}2p_{z_D}$$

Lastly, we can still solve for ψ_4 as we did in part (a):

$$\psi_4 = \frac{1}{2}(-2p_{z_A} + 2p_{z_B} - 2p_{z_C} + 2p_{z_D})$$

□

(c) The cyclopentadienyl radical.

Answer. Here, we proceed in an entirely analogous method to the previous two parts. No new modifications are needed. Indeed, we find the energies via

$$\begin{aligned}
 0 &= \begin{vmatrix} x & 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 \\ 1 & x & 1 & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & 1 & x & 1 & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & 1 & x & 1 \\ 1 & 0 & 0 & 1 & x \end{vmatrix} \\
 &= (x+2)(x^2-2-1)^2 \\
 E &= \alpha - \left(-2, \frac{1 \pm \sqrt{5}}{2}\right)\beta
 \end{aligned}$$

to be

$$E_1 = \alpha + 2\beta$$

$$E_2 = E_3 = \alpha - \frac{1 - \sqrt{5}}{2}\beta$$

$$E_4 = E_5 = \alpha - \frac{1 + \sqrt{5}}{2}\beta$$

Gauss-Jordan elimination, picking orthogonal bases where necessary, and normalization then yields

$$\psi_1 = \frac{1}{\sqrt{5}}(2p_{z_A} + 2p_{z_B} + 2p_{z_C} + 2p_{z_D} + 2p_{z_E})$$

$$\psi_2 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5 - \sqrt{5}}}2p_{z_A} - \frac{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{5 - \sqrt{5}}}{10}2p_{z_B} + \frac{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{5 - \sqrt{5}}}{10}2p_{z_C} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 - \sqrt{5}}}2p_{z_D}$$

$$\psi_3 = \frac{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{5 - \sqrt{5}}}{10}2p_{z_A} - \frac{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{5 - \sqrt{5}}}{10}2p_{z_B} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 - \sqrt{5}}}2p_{z_C} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 - \sqrt{5}}}2p_{z_E}$$

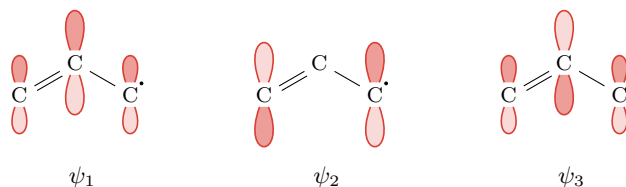
$$\psi_4 = -\frac{1}{\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5}}}2p_{z_A} - \frac{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5}}}{10}2p_{z_B} + \frac{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5}}}{10}2p_{z_C} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5}}}2p_{z_D}$$

$$\psi_5 = \frac{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5}}}{10}2p_{z_A} - \frac{\sqrt{5}\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5}}}{10}2p_{z_B} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5}}}2p_{z_C} + \frac{1}{\sqrt{5 + \sqrt{5}}}2p_{z_E}$$

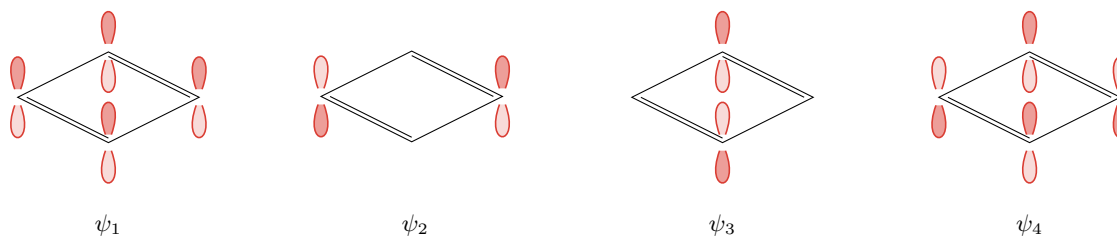
□

- (d) For each wave function computed in parts (a), (b), and (c), give a schematic sketch of the molecular orbital contributions. Refer to Figure 10.23 on McQuarrie and Simon (1997, p. 396) for an example of such a sketch.

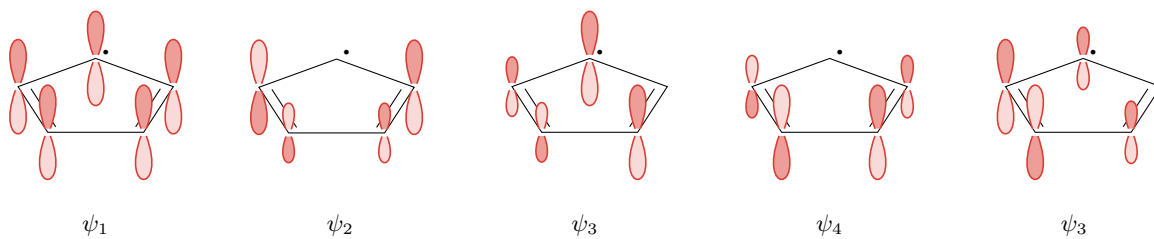
Answer.



Part (a).



Part (b).



Part (c).

□

8 Vibrational Modes and Time-Dependent Quantum Mechanics

12/2:

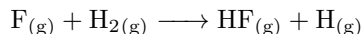
1. Consider the molecule BeH_2 .
 - (a) How many degrees of freedom does the molecule possess?
 - (b) For each degree of freedom, there is a normal mode of vibration. Enumerate each of the normal modes of vibration.
 - (c) Which of these modes are IR active? Explain.
2. Using the worksheet “Normal Modes” with the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox for Maple, you will compute the optimized geometry and the vibrational normal modes of hypochlorous acid (or HOCl) using the electronic structure theory known as the Hartree-Fock method. After using the worksheet to perform the calculations and view the animations of the normal modes on your computer, answer the following questions.
 - (a) In performing the geometry optimization of HOCl , what are the computed bond lengths and angle in the STO-3G basis set, and how do these bond lengths and angle compare to the experimental values?
 - (b) Give the computed and experimental values of the three normal modes, and based on the computed animations, draw an illustrative sketch for each normal mode.
 - (c) Repeat parts (a) and (b) for the triatomic molecule sulfur dioxide (or SO_2) by changing at the top of the worksheet r_1 and r_2 to the experimental bond length of 1.43 \AA , θ to 119° , and the atoms in the variable *molec* from H, O, and Cl to O, S, and O, respectively.
3. The wave functions of the harmonic oscillator may be categorized as being either even or odd. They are even when $\psi(-x) = \psi(x)$ and they are odd when $\psi(-x) = -\psi(x)$.
 - (a) Using this symmetry property, compute the probability for a transition from $n = 0$ to $n = 2$.
 - (b) In general, what may be said regarding transitions between even states?
 - (c) Are these results consistent with the more general selection rules derived in class?
4. The molecule $^{39}\text{K}^{127}\text{I}$ has a microwave spectrum of equally-spaced lines.
 - (a) In a laboratory at the University of Chicago, the spacing is measured to be 3634 MHz . What is the bond length of $^{39}\text{K}^{127}\text{I}$?
 - (b) In the far infrared region, the molecule $^{39}\text{K}^{35}\text{Cl}$ has an intense line at 278.0 cm^{-1} . Compute the force constant and the period of vibration for $^{39}\text{K}^{35}\text{Cl}$.
5. Using the worksheet “Molecular Spectroscopy” with the Quantum Chemistry Toolbox for Maple, you will compute the rotational spectra for the ground and first-excited states of hydrogen chloride HCl . You will compute the rotational spectra by two methods: (i) a normal-mode approximation in which the vibrational and rotational energies are modeled with the harmonic oscillator and the three-dimensional rigid rotor approximations, respectively, and (ii) an *ab initio* approximation in which the rovibrational Schrödinger equation is solved for the rovibrational energies with the potential energy curve computed by density functional theory (DFT). After using the worksheet to perform the calculations, answer the following questions.
 - (a) What are the rovibrational energies in reciprocal centimeters of the P and R branches in the normal-modes approximation?
 - (b) How does the spacing between rovibrational energies in part (a) change with J ?
 - (c) What are the rovibrational energies of the P and R branches in the *ab initio* approximation?
 - (d) How does the spacing between rovibrational energies in part (c) change with J ?
 - (e) Compute the wavelength of a photon required to excite a molecule from $n = 0$ and $J = 0$ to $n = 1$ and $J = 1$.

- (f) In what region of the electromagnetic spectrum does this energy lie?
6. If the ground state and the excited state have a degeneracy of g_1 and g_2 , respectively, the Einstein A coefficient is given by

$$A = \frac{16\pi^3\nu^3 g_1}{3\epsilon_0 h c^3 g_2} |\mu|^2$$

where $|\mu|$ is the **transition dipole moment**. Consider the $1s \rightarrow 2p$ absorption of gaseous hydrogen $\text{H}_{(\text{g})}$, which is observed at 121.8 nm. The radiative lifetime of the triply degenerate excited $2p$ state of $\text{H}_{(\text{g})}$ is 1.6×10^{-9} s. Compute the value of the transition dipole moment for this transition.

7. The He-Ne laser has a line at 3391.3 nm from the $5s^1P_1 \rightarrow 3p^3P_2$ transition. In the *Table of Atomic Energy Levels* by Charlotte Moore, the energies of these levels are $166\,658.484\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and $163\,710.581\text{ cm}^{-1}$, respectively. Compute the wavelength of this transition, and explain why the result is not 3391.3 nm. (Hint: Consult Example 8-10 in McQuarrie and Simon (1997).)
8. Chemical lasers generate population inversions through chemical reactions. In the HF gas laser, the gaseous HF is produced by the reaction



The major product of this reaction is $\text{HF}_{(\text{g})}$ in the excited $n = 2$ vibrational state. The reaction creates a population inversion in which $N(n)$, the number of molecules in each vibrational state n , is much larger for $n = 2$ than $n = 0$ or $n = 1$. The output of the $\text{HF}_{(\text{g})}$ laser corresponds to transitions between vibrational lines of the $n = 2 \rightarrow n = 1$ transition ($\lambda = 2.7 - 3.2\text{ }\mu\text{m}$). Why isn't there any lasing action from $n = 2 \rightarrow n = 0$ even though there is a population inversion between these states?

References

McQuarrie, D. A., & Simon, J. D. (1997). *Physical chemistry: A molecular approach*. University Science Books.