

## Chapter 12. Simple Applications

### 12.1 Motion in 1 dimension and tunneling

#### 12.1.1 Linear motion

$\psi(x)'' = 2m(V(x)-E)\psi(x)$  ( $T = E - V$ , curvature  $\sim$  kinetic quantum energy)

$T = \int dx \cdot \psi^* \cdot (-1/2m)\psi'' = +(1/2m) \int dx \cdot |\psi'|^2 > 0$  ( $T \sim$  slope squared of  $\psi$ )

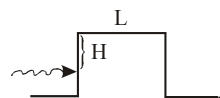
$E < V(x)$ : classically forbidden:  $\psi \sim \exp(\pm x\sqrt{2m(V-E)})$  exp. decay (wave end)

$E > V(x)$ : classically allowed:  $\psi \sim \exp(\pm ix\sqrt{2m(E-V)})$  oscillation (wave)

#### 12.1.2 Tunneling through a barrier

Tunnel probability  $\sim \exp(-\sqrt{8mHL^2}) = e^{-2L\sqrt{2mH}}$

$m$  = mass of particle,  $H$  and  $L$  = height and length of barrier



(Fig. 12.10)

### 12.2 Electrons in boxes

#### 12.2.1 The one dimensional case

Second order linear D.E.: general solution with two parameters,  $f(x) = c_1 \cdot f_1(x) + c_2 \cdot f_2(x)$  .

Here, for  $V(x) = \text{const}$ ,  $f = \cos(kx)$  and  $\sin(kx)$  or  $\exp(\pm ikx) = \cos(kx) \pm i \cdot \sin(kx)$

Eigenvalue equation:  $D^2 \circ f = f \cdot \lambda$  has three variables  $c_1, c_2, \lambda$

Physical boundary conditions for confined particles:  $f(\text{left}) = f(\text{right}) = 0$

One boundary condition fixes  $c_1 : c_2$  (shape of state function)

here:  $f = 0$  at  $x = 0 \rightarrow c_1 : c_2 = 0 : 1$

Second boundary condition: discretizes the eigenvalues

numerate  $E_n, f_n$  by some consecutive numbers  $n$  ("quantum numbers") ,

here:  $k = n\pi/L$  ,  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$\psi_n = \sin(n\pi x/L)$ ,  $E_n = n^2 \pi^2 / 2mL^2$  (Fig. 12.4)

#### 12.2.2 Cyanine dyes

Conjugated carbon chains with nonalternating, equal bond lengths: The present orbital model has no problems, but the (localized 2e-2c)-Valence Bond-restriction cannot represent it: VBs loophole is "use two 'resonating' graphics" for the stationary state of this "mesomeric system".

For equal bond lengths, the nuclear attraction felt by electrons described by  $\pi$  orbitals is comparatively constant (does not apply for ' $\sigma$ -electrons' or for alternating bond lengths).

Length of a box corresponding to chain "with  $d$  double bonds":

$L \approx (2d + 1) \cdot D$ , where  $D$  = atomic distance (so-called bond length)

Highest occupied molecular orbital HOMO has quantum number  $n = d$ , lowest unoccupied molecular orbital LUMO has  $n = d + 1$ . Smallest excitation energy  $\Delta E = E(L, d+1) - E(L, d) = \omega = h \cdot \nu = h \cdot c/\lambda$

Longest wave length (längstwellig) first absorption line  $\lambda = hc / \Delta E$ ,  $\Delta E = \pi^2 / 2 m_e D \cdot L$

$\lambda_{1st \text{ abs.}} \sim L$  (cyanine dyes)

See also the "German" Figs. page

12.2.3 Electron in a 3-dimensional box (Figs. 12.7/8)

$$\psi_{\vec{n}} = \sin(n_x \pi x / L_x) \cdot \sin(n_y \pi y / L_y) \cdot \sin(n_z \pi z / L_z)$$

$$E_{\vec{n}} = \pi^2 / 2m \cdot (n_x^2 / L_x^2 + n_y^2 / L_y^2 + n_z^2 / L_z^2)$$

$\vec{n}$  = quantum vector, reciprocal point, crystal momentum.

Symmetry leads to degeneracy! -  $\sigma$  and  $\pi$  states

- a) Electron in a cube (atom, CH<sub>4</sub>)

$\vec{n} = (1, 1, 1)$ : one “s-type” state

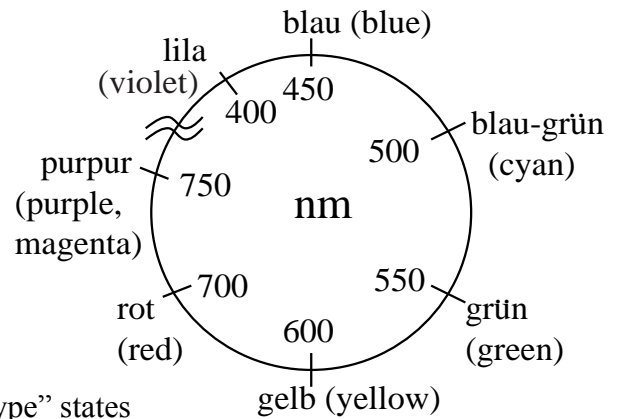
$\vec{n} = (2, 1, 1)$  or  $(1, 2, 1)$  or  $(1, 1, 2)$ : triplet of degenerate “p-type” states

CH<sub>4</sub> valence shell of 4 bonds has *two* IPs at 14 (p-type) and 23 eV (s-type).

- b) Electron in a long box: different lengths give rise to different kinetic zero point energies and to different “energy ladders”.

b1) Linear molecule has 1 long and 2 short extensions - “ $\sigma$ -ladder” and a doubly degenerate “ $\pi$ -ladder” starting a higher energy, with only few  $\sigma$ -levels between the “dense  $\pi$ -band”.

b2) Planar molecule has 2 long and 1 short extensions - a “ $\sigma$ -net” and a higher “ $\pi$ -ladder or -net”



12.3 Harmonic oscillation (vibration)

$$V = k/2 \cdot (\Delta R)^2, \psi_n = P_n(\Delta R) \cdot \exp(-1/2 (\Delta R)^2 \sqrt{\mu k}), E_n = (n+1/2) \hbar \omega, \omega = \sqrt{k/\mu}, n = 0, 1, \dots$$

$P_n$  is a hermite polynomial:

$$P_0 = 1, P_1(x) = x, P_2(x) = 2x^2 - 1, P_3(x) = 2x^3 - 3x, P_4(x) = 4x^4 - 12x^2 + 3, \text{ etc.}$$

$P_n$  is gerade/ungerade for  $n$  even/odd. For large  $n$ ,  $P_n^2$  oscillates rapidly between 0 and twice the classical probability  $1/v = \sqrt{\mu / (2E - k\Delta R^2)}$

Separation between 2 vibrational levels is just  $\Delta E_{n,n+1} = \hbar \omega = \sqrt{k/\mu}$  (in au).

Selection rule for vibrations (see §15.5): absorption/emission of electromagnetic radiation is possible only between adjacent states of different g/u symmetry.

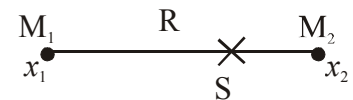
Several dimensions:  $E_{\vec{n}} = \sum_i (n_i + 1/2) \sqrt{k_i/\mu_i}$

d-fold symmetry results in degeneracy; zero-point energy is  $E_0 = d/2 \cdot \hbar \omega$  (Fig. 12.13)

Coordinate Transformation and Reduced Mass

$$(x_1, x_2) \rightarrow R = x_2 - x_1, \quad S = (M_1 x_1 + M_2 x_2) / (M_1 + M_2)$$

(Relative separation) (Schwerpunkt, center of gravity)



In coordinates  $(x_1, x_2)$ , kinetic energy is a simple sum of squares (according to Pythagoras), but potential energy depends simply on  $R$ , which is a complicated square root of  $x$ -coordinates in 3 dimensions, and is independent of  $S$ . Therefore transform to  $(R, S)$ -coordinates:

$$V \rightarrow V(x_1, x_2) = V(S) + V(R)$$

$$T \rightarrow -\frac{1}{2M_1} \cdot \frac{d^2}{dx_1^2} - \frac{1}{2M_2} \cdot \frac{d^2}{dx_2^2} = \dots = \frac{-1}{2(M_1 + M_2)} \cdot \frac{d^2}{dS^2} - \frac{M_1 + M_2}{2M_1 \cdot M_2} \cdot \frac{d^2}{dR^2}$$

Reduced mass  $\mu = (M_1 \cdot M_2) / (M_1 + M_2) < M_1, M_2$

If  $M_1 = M_2$ :  $\mu = M/2$ ; if  $m \ll M$ ,  $\mu \leq m$

## 12.4 Rotation

### 12.4.1 Planar Rotation

Electron along a ring, rotation of a molecular group around an axis (CH<sub>3</sub>; NH<sub>3</sub> in ammine complexes): *no* left and right boundary, but  $\psi(0) = \psi(2\pi)$ ,  $\psi'(0) = \psi'(2\pi)$  connection conditions.

Angle  $\varphi = \varphi + 2n\pi$  is “infinitely indeterminate”. Because of this mathematical subtlety, the physical  $\Delta\ell$  and the physical  $T_0$  can be zero.

$$\psi_m = e^{im\varphi}, \quad E_m = m^2/2\mu R^2, \quad m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots \quad (\text{degeneracy!}) \quad \ell_z = m\hbar \quad \ell_z = -i\hbar \partial/\partial\varphi$$

$$I = \sum_i M_i R_i^2 = \mu R^2 = \text{moment of inertia}$$

**Aromatic Rings:**  $\pi$ -electronic states along planar cyclic N-membered carbon chains with nonalternating bond distances D:  $2\pi R = N \cdot D$ .

1 electron per C: System (C<sub>N</sub>H<sub>N</sub>)<sup>q</sup> has (N-q)  $\pi$ -electrons. The HOMO has quantum number  $m_{\text{HOMO}} = [(N-q+1)/4]$ .

Accordingly the valence electron has energy  $\varepsilon = (2\pi^2/D^2) \cdot (m_{\text{HOMO}}(N)/N)^2$ .

Note: 1) One electron more than fitting into a closed shell according to the *Pauli principle* is loosely bond (examples: Na, C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub><sup>-</sup>).

2) A hole in a stable HOMO will be filled: stable orbital  $\Rightarrow$  filled shell (not vice versa). An orbital is stable if it has low potential energy (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>5</sub><sup>-</sup>, but no longer C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>4</sub><sup>2-</sup>; Na<sup>+</sup>, Ne, F<sup>-</sup>, (O<sup>2-</sup>)A<sub>n</sub><sup>+</sup>, but no longer O<sup>2-</sup> in vacuum) and/or low kinetic energy (large ring: C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, but not C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>4</sub>).

A stable  $\pi$ -ring orbital will house up to 4n+2 electrons (*Hückel-Rule*), especially for n=0 and n=1.

### 12.4.2 Rotation in 3-dimensional space, angular momentum

$$\ell = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p} \rightarrow \boldsymbol{\ell} = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}, \quad [\ell_x, \ell_y] = i \ell_z$$

$\ell$  depends on  $\mathbf{r}$  and  $\mathbf{p}$ ; while  $x, y, z$  are ‘independent’,  $x$  and  $p_x$  are ‘interdependent’ through Heisenberg’s relations. Therefore  $\ell_x$  and  $\ell_y$  are also ‘interdependent’. The 3-dimensional angular momentum vector has only 2 well-defined components, because  $\ell = \mathbf{r} \times \mathbf{p}$  and Heisenberg’s smearing  $\Delta x \cdot \Delta p > \frac{1}{2} \cdot \hbar$

$$|\ell| = \hbar \cdot \sqrt{l(l+1)}, \quad \ell_z = m \cdot \hbar, \quad m = l, l-1, \dots, -l \quad (\text{Fig. 12.25})$$

$l$  = hole or half number: eigenfunction single or double valued ( $\pm\sqrt{\quad}$ )

$$|\ell \rangle \circ Y_{lm}(\theta, \varphi) = Y_{lm} \cdot \hbar \cdot \sqrt{l(l+1)}, \quad \ell_z \circ Y_{lm} = Y_{lm} \cdot \hbar \cdot m, \quad \text{spherical harmonics } Y_{lm} \sim e^{im\varphi}$$

The complex spherical harmonics have well-defined  $\ell_z$ -component. They are the simplest basis for the discussion of angular momenta and magnetism in a magnetic field (note: electron has  $m$  and  $e$ , a rotating electron has  $\ell$  and magnetism).

Combine two Y-functions with same  $l$  into real Z-functions:  $Z_{e,\pm m} = (Y_{lm} \pm iY_{l,-m}) / \sqrt{\pm 2}$ . These are the simplest basis for discussion of electrons ‘oriented in an electric field’. They have no sharp  $\ell$ -component in any direction.

$$\text{Rotational energy: } E_{l,m} = l(l+1) / 2I + m^2 \cdot \Delta(1/2I) \quad (\text{Tab. 12.3})$$

$I$  = moment of inertia ;  $\Delta(1/2I)$  = difference of ‘rotational constants’ for different sym. axes

For molecules:  $l, j \rightarrow J$ , and  $m \rightarrow K$




## 12.5 Angular Momentum Vector Coupling

$\ell$ -vector lies somewhere on a cone, two  $\ell$ -vectors have a fixed angle between them

Angle of (z-axis,  $\ell$ ):  $\cos \theta = m / \sqrt{l(l+1)}$


For a p-electron:  $l = 1, m = 0$  or  $\pm 1$ :  $\theta = 90^\circ$  or  $45^\circ$  (Fig. 12.26)

For a spin:  $l = |m| = 1/2$ :  $\theta = \arccos \sqrt{1/3} = 54.74^\circ = \text{magic angle}$

Pseudoparallel triplet-spins:  or  or  (Fig. 12.29)  
 $\alpha(s_1) \alpha(s_2)$ ;  $\alpha(s_1) \beta(s_2) + \beta(s_1) \alpha(s_2)$ ;  $\beta(s_1) \beta(s_2)$

Spinvectors are not vertical! They cannot be really parallel! Pseudoparalleles spins point to “the same side”, e.g. to ‘right up’ and ‘right down’!

Pseudoparallel spins have permutation-symmetric two-spin-functions.

An up-spin and a down-spin is half triplet (see above), half antiparallel singlet ():  
 $\alpha(s_1)\beta(s_2) - \beta(s_1) \alpha(s_2) = \text{“}\alpha\beta\text{-}\beta\alpha\text{”}$ . This function is permutation-antisymmetric.

Charge position space and spin direction space refer to the same real 3D space.

### Learning objectives

After careful study of this chapter you should be able to:

- (1) Write down the Schrödinger equation for a *particle in a box*, eqn (14.1.3), justify and specify the boundary conditions, and find the allowed energies and wavefunctions, eqn (14.1.9).
- (2) Describe the principal features of the solutions of a particle in a box, Section 14.1(b).
- (3) Write down the Schrödinger equation for a particle confined to a rectangular surface, eqn (14.1.11), and use the *separation of variables* technique to find its solutions.
- (4) State the meaning of *degeneracy*, Section 14.1(c).
- (5) Describe the procedure for calculating the wavefunction of a particle in a system with *potential barriers*, Section 14.1(d), and find the wavefunctions in the case of a rectangular barrier, Example 14.2.
- (6) Explain how *tunnelling* occurs, and state how the probability of tunnelling depends on the mass of the particle and the width of the barrier, Section 14.1(d).
- (7) Write down the Schrödinger equation for a *harmonic oscillator*, eqn (14.2.1), obtain the form of its solutions at large displacements, and describe how the full equation is solved, Section 14.2(a).
- (8) Write down an expression for the energy levels of a harmonic oscillator, eqn (14.2.4), and calculate their separation.
- (9) Describe the wavefunctions of the harmonic oscillator, and use the properties of *Hermite polynomials* to calculate its properties, Example 14.4.
- (10) State and apply the *virial theorem*, eqn

(14.2.11).

- (11) Calculate the probability that an oscillator will be found at classically forbidden displacements, eqn (14.2.12).
- (12) Write down the Schrödinger equation for the motion of a *particle on a ring*, eqn (14.3.2), justify and specify the *cyclic boundary conditions*, and find the wavefunctions, eqn (14.3.4).
- (13) Explain the origin of the *quantization of angular motion*, and write expressions for the permitted values of its *z*-component, eqn (14.3.6).
- (14) Write down the operator for the *z*-component of angular momentum, eqn (14.3.9).
- (15) Write down the Schrödinger equation for *rotation in three dimensions*, eqn (14.3.17).
- (16) Show that the Schrödinger equation for rotation is separable, eqn (14.3.18).
- (17) Write down the expression for the energy of a particle on a sphere in terms of its angular momentum quantum number, eqn (14.3.22).
- (18) Write down expressions for the magnitude of the angular momentum, eqn (14.3.24), and the permitted values of its *z*-component, eqn (14.3.25). See also Box 14.3.
- (19) State the meaning of *space quantization* and explain the significance of the *Stern–Gerlach experiment*, Section 14.3(g).
- (20) Explain the meaning of *spin*, and state the spin properties of an electron, Section 14.3(h).
- (21) Specify the *vector model* of angular momentum, Section 14.3(i).