

center of mass coordinates

 $\begin{array}{ccc}
& & \mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \end{array} \quad \text{reduced mass}$ true potential $V(x) = V(x_e) + \frac{dV}{dx} \Big|_{\mathbf{x}_e} (\mathbf{x} - \mathbf{x}_e)$ 1

for vibration what matters is the separation between the atoms

can be written as a Taylor series

$$+\frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2V}{dx^2} \Big|_{\mathbf{x}_{e}} (\mathbf{x}-\mathbf{x}_{e})^2$$

$$+\frac{1}{6}\frac{d^{3}V}{dx^{3}}\Big|_{x_{e}}(x-x_{e})^{3}+...$$

choose $V(x_e)$ to be the zero of energy

$$\frac{dv}{dx}\Big|_{x=x_e} = 0$$

$$V(x) = \frac{1}{2}\frac{d^2V}{dx^2}(x-x_e)^2 + \dots$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}k(x-x_e)^2 + \dots$$

JU

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu}\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{1}{2}kx^2\psi = E\psi$$

Schrodinger Eq. for 1D harmonic oscillator

Note:
$$e^{-\frac{1}{2}\alpha x^2}$$
 is a solution

$$\frac{d}{dx}e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2} = -\alpha x e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2}$$

$$\frac{d}{dx}\left[-\alpha x e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2}\right] = (-\alpha + \alpha^2 x^2) e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2}$$

Do you see why this solves the equation?

 $e^{+\frac{\alpha}{2}x^2}$ also solves the differential equation. But we reject it.

Why?

The general form of the wavefuction is

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$$E_n = \hbar \sqrt{\frac{k}{\mu}} \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right) = \hbar \omega \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right) = h \upsilon \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right), \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots \quad \omega = \sqrt{k/\mu}$$

quantization due to requiring $\psi \to 0$ as $x \to \underline{+}\infty$

$$\left\langle E_{KE} \right\rangle = \left\langle E_{PE} \right\rangle = \frac{h\nu}{2} \left(n + \frac{1}{2} \right)$$

As *n* becomes large, there is a high probability of finding the oscillator near the classical turning points



$$\left\langle 0 \left| x \right| 0 \right\rangle = 0$$
$$\left\langle 1 \left| x \right| 1 \right\rangle = 0$$
$$\left\langle 1 \left| x \right| 0 \right\rangle = 0$$
$$\left\langle 1 \left| x \right| 0 \right\rangle \neq 0$$

short-hand nomenclature

$$\left\langle n\left|\hat{A}\right|m\right\rangle = \int \psi_{n}^{*}\hat{A}\psi_{m}dx$$

The integral $\langle n|x|0 \rangle$ is the transition moment for going from state ψ_0 to ψ_n .

Transition probability $\propto |\langle n | x | 0 \rangle|^2$

integral is non zero only if n = 1

$\Delta \pm$

Later, we will see that it is also essential that the dipole moment is changing.



Switch to polar coordinates: $(x, y) \rightarrow (r, \phi)$

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2\mu r_0^2} \frac{d^2 \Phi}{d\phi^2} = E\Phi \qquad \longrightarrow \qquad \Phi = e^{im\phi}, \quad m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$$
$$0 \le \phi \le 2\pi$$

$$e^{im(\phi+2\pi)} = e^{im\phi} \implies e^{im2\pi} = 1$$

 $e^{im2\pi} = \cos 2\pi m + i \sin 2\pi m = 1 \implies m = 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \dots$

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 m^2}{2\mu r_0^2} = \frac{\hbar^2 m^2}{2I} \qquad I = \mu r_0^2 = \text{moment of inertia}$$

quantization due to boundary condition $\Phi(0) = \Phi(2\pi)$

Note: there is no zero-point energy. Why?

Classically

$$E = \frac{\left|\vec{\ell}\right|^2}{2I} = \frac{1}{2}I\omega^2$$
All energies
 $\vec{\ell} =$ angular momentum possible

angular momentum in z direction:
$$\vec{\ell}_z = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial \phi}$$

$$\vec{\ell}_z \Phi = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \frac{d}{d\phi} e^{im\phi} = m\hbar\Phi$$

$$P(\phi)d\phi = \frac{d\phi}{2\pi}$$
, all ϕ values equally probable
angular momentum in z direction
precisely defined

 ℓ_z, ϕ do <u>not</u> commute