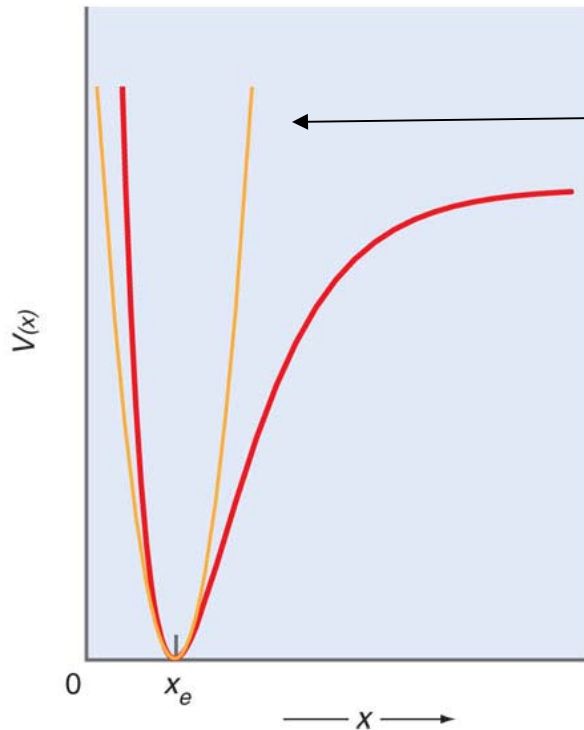


Chapter 7 – Vibrations and Rotations

- translation – particle in box
- rotation – rigid rotor
- vibration – harmonic oscillator



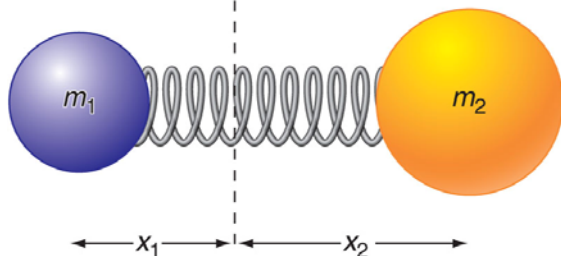
harmonic potential: $V(x) = \frac{1}{2}kx^2$, $k =$ force constant

true potential

actually, we generally use the
of variable $x' = (x - x_e)$ so

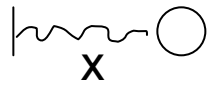
$$V(x') = \frac{1}{2}kx'^2$$

$$x' = 0 \Rightarrow x = x_e$$



Diatomic molecule

center of mass coordinates


$$\mu = \frac{m_1 m_2}{m_1 + m_2} \leftarrow \text{reduced mass}$$

for vibration what matters is the separation between the atoms

true potential can be written as a Taylor series

$$V(x) = V(x_e) + \left. \frac{dV}{dx} \right|_{x_e} (x - x_e)$$

$$+ \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2V}{dx^2} \right|_{x_e} (x - x_e)^2$$

$$+ \frac{1}{6} \left. \frac{d^3V}{dx^3} \right|_{x_e} (x - x_e)^3 + \dots$$

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

$$\left. \frac{dV}{dx} \right|_{x=x_e} = 0$$

$$V(x) = \frac{1}{2} \left. \frac{d^2V}{dx^2} \right|_{x_e} (x - x_e)^2 + \dots$$

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

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

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 wavefunction is

$$\psi_n = A_n H_n \left(\alpha^{1/2} x \right) e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2} x^2}, \quad n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$$

$$\alpha = \sqrt{\frac{k\mu}{\hbar^2}}$$

$$A_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2^n n!}} \left(\frac{\alpha}{\pi} \right)^{1/4}$$

$H_n(\alpha^{1/2} x)$:

Hermite
polynomials

$$\psi_0 = \left(\frac{\alpha}{\pi} \right)^{1/4} e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2} x^2}$$

$$\psi_1 = \left(\frac{4\alpha^3}{\pi} \right)^{1/4} x e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2} x^2}$$

$$\psi_2 = \left(\frac{\alpha}{4\pi} \right)^{1/4} (2\alpha x^2 - 1) e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2} x^2}$$

$$\psi_3 = \left(\frac{\alpha^3}{9\pi} \right)^{1/4} (2\alpha x^3 - 3x) e^{-\frac{\alpha}{2} x^2}$$

$\psi_0, \psi_2, \psi_4, \dots$ even

$\psi_1, \psi_3, \psi_5, \dots$ odd

even function $f(-x) = f(x)$

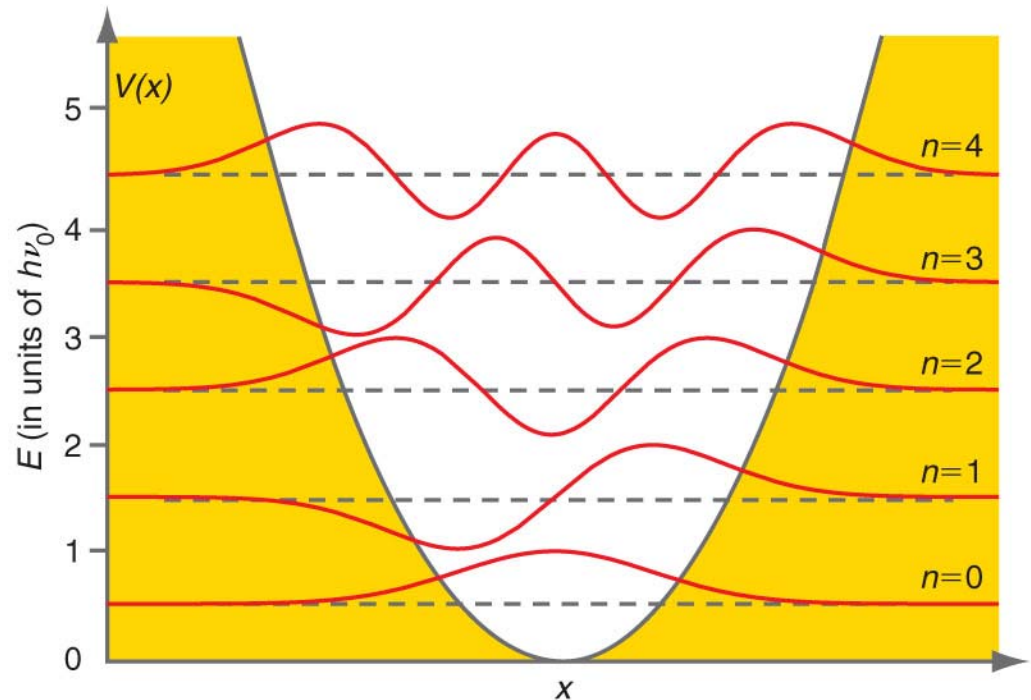
odd function $f(-x) = -f(x)$

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

quantization due to requiring $\psi \rightarrow 0$ as $x \rightarrow \pm\infty$

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

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



← velocity $\rightarrow 0$
 ← maximum velocity

Classical situation

Similar situation for the classical oscillator

$$\langle 0|x|0\rangle = 0$$

$$\langle 1|x|1\rangle = 0$$

$$\langle 1|0\rangle = 0$$

$$\langle 1|x|0\rangle \neq 0$$

short-hand nomenclature

$$\langle n|\hat{A}|m\rangle = \int \psi_n^* \hat{A} \psi_m dx$$

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 non zero only if $n = 1$

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