

BO APPROXIMATION

We now apply the BO approximation in a formal manner. The starting point is the previous equation in which we drop the explicit dependences on the coordinates:

$$(\hat{T}_n + \hat{H}_e) \sum_a F_a \Phi_a = E \sum_a F_a \Phi_a$$

and we makes use of the BO approximation: (recall $T_n \equiv -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_R^2$)

$$\nabla_R^2 F_a \Phi_a = \Phi_a \nabla_R^2 F_a$$

dependence of electronic wavefn on nuclear motion is weak

and we make use of the fact that $\langle \Phi_a | \Phi_b \rangle = \delta_{ab}$ to get

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_R^2 + \hat{H}_e \right] \sum_a F_a \Phi_a = E \sum_a F_a \Phi_a$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_a \Phi_a \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla_R^2 F_a \right] + \sum_a F_a \hat{H}_e \Phi_a = E \sum_a F_a \Phi_a$$

$$\Rightarrow \sum_a -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Phi_a \nabla_R^2 F_a + \sum_a E_a F_a \Phi_a = E \sum_a F_a \Phi_a$$

$$\therefore \hat{H}_e \Phi_a = E_a \Phi_a$$

(Multiply by Φ_b^* & project out)

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \Phi_b^* \nabla_R^2 F_b + E_b F_b = E F_b$$

↑ recall that this is a function of R: $E_b(R)$

The equations thus get uncoupled.

► $F_b(R)$ is thus the nuclear wavefunction for a given electronic state $E_b(R)$ is not a single valued energy function, but a function of the internuclear separation; $E(R)$ thus acts as a potential energy function in the above Schrödinger equation for $F_b(R)$

► It is evident that several solutions $F_b(R)$ are possible for a given Φ_b

► Replacing $\hat{V}(R; \{r_i\})$ by $E_b(R)$ is equivalent to assuming that electronic motion is very rapid compared to nuclear motion and that the electrons respond instantaneously to a change in the nuclear configuration.

► The full form of the nuclear Schrödinger equation is

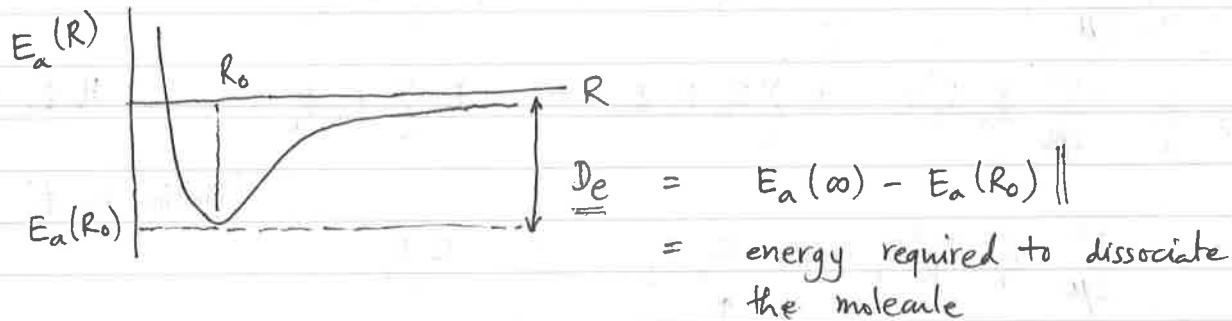
$$\left\{ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{1}{R^2} \frac{\partial}{\partial R} R^2 \frac{\partial}{\partial R} \right] - \frac{\hbar^2}{2mR^2} \left[\frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \sin\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} + \frac{1}{\sin^2\theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial\phi^2} \right] + E_b(R) \right\} F_b(R) = E F_b(R)$$

we define the nuclear angular mom op. $\hat{L}^2 = -\hbar^2 \left[\frac{1}{\sin\theta} \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} \sin\theta \frac{\partial}{\partial\theta} + \frac{1}{\sin^2\theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial\phi^2} \right]$

Thus the BO approx allows us to decouple the electronic and nuclear wavefunctions, and

- We first solve the electronic schrödinger equation and then use this complete basis set to write the nuclear wavefunction and finally use the difference δ_e in the nuclear and electronic motion time scales to replace the potential function in the original equation by an equivalent potential energy function based on the electronic energy for a given internuclear separation, $E(R)$.

For stable molecules (bound states) the $E(R)$ function looks typically like this



- Multiple solutions to the nuclear Schrödinger equations give multiple energy eigenvalues corresponding to vibrational (R part of the equation) and to rotational (θ, ϕ part) of the nuclear motion.
- For diatomic molecules there is a cylindrical symmetry so the motion does not depend on ϕ . Thus a rotational motion corresponds to changes in θ .
- However as seen at the beginning, the energies corresponding to the nuclear motion are much smaller than the electronic energies

ROTATIONAL MOTION

The equation

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \nabla_R^2 F_a(\vec{R}) + E_a(R) F_a(\vec{R}) = E F_a(\vec{R})$$

is a variable-separable equation for the equivalent reduced mass μ since $E(R)$ acts like a central potential acting on μ , referred to the CoM.

Separating the radial and angular part, and solving for the angular part alone gives the equation

$$\frac{k^2}{2\mu R_0^2} F_{a,J}(R_0; \theta) = E_J F_{a,J}(R_0; \theta)$$

where E_J is the separation constant, which has the value $J(J+1)\hbar^2/2I$ where J are integers and the angular wavefunctions are spherical harmonics; $I = \mu R_0^2$, the moment of inertia about an axis \perp to the internuclear line segment passing through the CoM.

Scale of E_J :

$$I \sim \mu a_0^2 \quad \therefore E_J \sim \hbar^2 / \mu a_0^2 \quad \text{while } E_{\text{Electronic}} \sim \hbar^2 / m_e a_0^2$$

$$\Rightarrow E_{\text{rotational}} \sim \frac{1}{m_e} \frac{m_e}{\mu} E_{\text{electronic}}$$

So once again the BO approx - neglecting the $F_a \nabla_R^2 \Phi_a$ term relative to $\Phi_a \nabla_R^2 F_a$, is validated

The rotational energy levels are usually written as

$$E_J = B J(J+1) ; \quad \text{where } B = \hbar / 8\pi c I \quad \text{in units of cm}^{-1}$$

Transitions between level J & J' are allowed if $\langle J' | \vec{p} | J \rangle$, ie the dipole matrix element is non-zero.

These are non-zero IFF $\Delta J = J' - J = \pm 1$ and $\Delta M = M' - M = 0, \pm 1$ and \vec{p} has to be non-zero

Homonuclear diatomics have no (pure) rotational spectrum.

VIBRATIONAL MOTION (IN BOUND STATES)

The molecular potential energy function $E_a(R)$ can be expanded around the mean (equilibrium) position:

$$E_a(R) = E_a(R_0) + \frac{1}{2} (R-R_0)^2 \frac{\partial^2 E_a(R)}{\partial R^2} + \dots$$

↑ ↑ ↑
constant harmonic approximation term neglected

The approximate harmonic potential would correspond to an oscillator with an eigenfrequency $\omega_0 = \left[\frac{1}{\mu} \frac{\partial^2 E_a}{\partial R^2} \Big|_{R=R_0} \right]^{1/2}$

and energy levels $E_a(R_0) + (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega_0 \equiv E$, the molecular energy.

To make an estimate of the vibrational energy $\hbar \omega_0$, we note that $E_a(R_0)$ is of the order $(\hbar^2/a_0^2 m_e)$ ($\because p \sim \hbar/a$)
 So $\partial^2 E / \partial R^2$ is of order $(\hbar^2 / a_0^4 m_e)$
 $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\mu} \frac{\partial^2 E}{\partial R^2}$ is of order $\frac{\hbar^2}{a_0^4 m_e \mu}$
 $\Rightarrow \hbar \omega$ is of order $\frac{\hbar^2}{a_0^2 \sqrt{m_e \mu}}$
 $\Rightarrow E_{\text{vibr}} \approx [m_e / \mu]^{1/2} E_{\text{elec}} \approx 1\%$

JUSTIFICATION OF BO APPROXIMATION

$$\langle p_{\text{nuclear}}^2 \rangle \sim 2\mu \langle E_{\text{vibr}} \rangle = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{m_e}} \frac{\hbar^2}{a_0^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nabla_R^2 F_a \sim \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{m_e}} \frac{1}{a_0^2} F_a$$

On the other hand $\nabla_R^2 \Phi_a \sim (1/a_0^2) \Phi_a$ which is again ~ 100 times
 $\Rightarrow \Phi_a \nabla_R^2 F_a = \sqrt{\frac{\mu}{m_e}} \times F_a \nabla_R^2 \Phi_a$ \nearrow smaller

LHS is thus ~ 100 times $\frac{\text{larger}}{\text{smaller}}$ than $F_a \nabla_R^2 \Phi_a$
 || so neglecting $F_a \nabla_R^2 \Phi_a$ relative to $\Phi_a \nabla_R^2 F_a$ is justified.

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BETTER APPROXIMATION TO $E_a(R)$

The harmonic approximation to $E_a(R)$ is rather drastic. Even if we include a few higher order terms, the approximation to the actual $E_a(R)$ is seen to be quite poor. Moreover, a SHO has ∞ levels, which contradicts reality. P M Morse () proposed an empirical potential

$$E_a^{\text{MORSE}}(R) = E_a^{(0)} \left[1 - \exp(-\alpha(R-R_e)^2) \right]^2$$

$$\text{where } \alpha = \left[\frac{\mu}{2E^{(0)}} \right]^{1/2}$$

and $E^{(0)}$ is the dissociation energy (D_e in previous figure)

This potential gives vibrational energy values of the form

$$E_{\text{vib}} = \omega_e(v + \frac{1}{2}) - \omega_e x_e(v + \frac{1}{2})^2 \quad \text{where } \omega_e = \alpha(\hbar D_e / \pi c \mu)^{1/2}$$

TRANSITIONS BETWEEN IRRATIONAL LEVELS

Let $S(R)$ be the vibrational part of the wavefunction. Then the (approximate) eigenstates, the SHO wavefunction will be denumerated by the vibrational quantum number v and the energy levels will be

$$E_v = (v + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega \quad \text{where } \omega = \left[\frac{1}{\mu} \left. \frac{d^2 E_a(R)}{dR^2} \right|_{R=R_0} \right]^{1/2}$$

As a hybrid model we may take $E^{\text{Morse}}(R)$ instead of $E_a(R)$. In that case $\frac{dE^{\text{Morse}}}{dR} = 0$ at $R=R_e$ and $\frac{d^2E^{\text{Morse}}}{dR^2}$ at $R=R_e$ is $2\alpha^2 E^{(0)}$. Transition occur between states that have non-zero coupling through the dipole operator, ie when $\langle v' | \vec{p} | v \rangle \neq 0$

For homonuclear diatomics $\vec{p}=0$ so pure vibrational transitions cannot occur in such molecules.

In other molecules \vec{p} is a function of R , and we may write

$$\vec{p}(R) = \vec{p}_e(R_e) + \frac{d\vec{p}}{dR}(R - R_e)$$

$$\text{Then } \langle v' | \vec{p} | v \rangle = \frac{i\hbar}{2\mu\omega} \left[\sqrt{v+1} \delta_{v, v+1} - \sqrt{v} \delta_{v, v-1} \right]$$

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COUPLING OF ROT & VIB MOTION

We took $E(R) = \frac{J(J+1)\hbar^2}{2I}$ for rotational motion
(barring a constant) where $I = \mu R_0^2$

and $E(R) = (n + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega_0$ for vibrational motion,
(barring a constant) where $\omega_0^2 = \frac{1}{\mu} \left[\frac{\partial^2 E_a}{\partial R^2} \right]_{R=R_0}$

however these two motion are not strictly independent. In the simplest argument against independence, the approximation $I = \mu R_0^2$ should be replaced by $I = \mu R^2$ where R is now given by the instantaneous value owing to vibrational motion.

Thus, we should take

$$E(R) = E_a(R_0) + (n + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega_0 + \frac{1}{2\mu R^2} J(J+1)\hbar^2$$

↑ ↑ ↑
 electronic vibrational centrifugal distortion,
 energy | $R \rightarrow R^*$
 $H_{ee}(\Phi_e)$

CENTRIFUGAL DISTORTION

$$F_{\text{centr}} = \mu \omega^2 R_0 = J / \mu R_0^3 \rightarrow J / \mu R^3$$

The $F_{\text{harmonic}} = -\mu \omega^2 (R - R_0)$

$$E_{\text{rot, with cent. dist}} = \frac{1}{2} \mu \omega^2 (R - R_e)^2 + \frac{J}{2\mu R^2}$$

$\left\{ \Delta E = - \int F_{\text{centr}} dR \right\}$

$$= \frac{J^2}{2\mu R_0^2} - \frac{J^4}{2\mu^3 R_0^3 \omega^2}$$

We write this as $E_{\text{rot, with cent. dist}} = B_v J(J+1) - D_v [J(J+1)]^2$

where $B_v = \frac{\hbar^2}{8\pi\mu c} \langle v | \frac{1}{R^2} | v \rangle$

$D_v = \frac{\hbar^3}{32\pi^2\mu^3\omega^2 c} \langle v | \frac{1}{R^4} | v \rangle$

ELECTRONIC WAVEFUNCTION OF THE H_2^+ MOLECULAR ION

We consider ~~three~~ two methods to obtain the wavefunction

- (1) An approximate method based on Linear Combinations of Atomic Orbitals or LCAO method, which can be generalised to other molecules
- (2) A semi-exact method involving separation of variables that is specific to H_2^+ .

The LCAO method begins with the assumption that the electron can be in either of the separated atoms (ions); so that when the atoms (ions) are combined, the net wavefunction will be a linear combination of the two atomic wavefunctions. Since the two nuclei are identical, this means that the molecular orbital has the form with the required symmetry

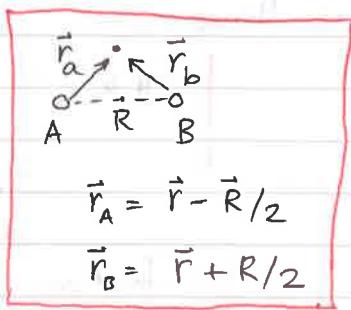
$$\Phi(R) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\phi(r_a) \pm \phi(r_b))$$

where $\phi(r)$ is a hydrogenic ground-state wavefunction.

that is there are two possible states

$$-\Phi_g(R, r) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\phi(r_a) + \phi(r_b)]$$

$$-\Phi_u(R, r) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\phi(r_a) - \phi(r_b)]$$



The Φ_g state is symmetric under reflection through the CoM and the Φ_u state is antisymmetric under the same operation.

Since $\phi(r_a)$ and $\phi(r_b)$ are both 1s states, the projection of the angular momentum on the R axis is zero, so Φ_g and Φ_u represent the σ_g and σ_u molecular terms.

The energy eigenvalue of these molecular wavefunctions is given by

$$E = \int \Phi^* \hat{H}_{el} \Phi d\tau \quad \text{Where}$$

$$\hat{H}_{el} = -\frac{1}{2} \nabla_r^2 - \frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_A|} - \frac{1}{|\vec{r} - \vec{r}_B|} + \frac{1}{r_{AB}}$$

$$\vec{r}_{AB} \equiv \vec{R} \hat{z}$$

The numerator is evaluated as

$$\begin{aligned} \int \Phi^* \hat{H}_{ee} \Phi d\tau &= \frac{1}{2} \int \phi(r_a) \hat{H}_{el} \phi(r_a) d\tau_a + \frac{1}{2} \int \phi(r_b) \hat{H}_{el} \phi(r_b) d\tau_b \\ &\quad \pm \frac{1}{2} \int \phi(r_a) \hat{H}_{el} \phi(r_b) d\tau_a \pm \frac{1}{2} \int \phi(r_b) \hat{H}_{el} \phi(r_a) d\tau_b \\ &= \int \phi(r_a) \hat{H} \phi(r_a) d\tau_a \pm \int \phi(r_b) \hat{H} \phi(r_b) d\tau_b \\ &= H_{AA} \pm H_{AB} \end{aligned}$$

$$H_{AA} = E_0 + \frac{1}{R} (1+R) e^{-2R}$$

$$H_{AB} = \left[E_0 + \frac{1}{R} \right] S(R) - (1+R) e^{-R}$$

NOTE
 $Sd\tau_a = Sd\tau_b = Sd\tau$.
 Since \bar{R} is fixed.

where $S(R) = \int \phi(r_a) \phi(r_b) d\tau \rightarrow$ called the overlap integral.

The denominator is

$$\begin{aligned} &\frac{1}{2} \int [|\phi(r_a)|^2 + |\phi(r_b)|^2 \pm 2 \phi(r_a) \phi(r_b)] d\tau \\ &= 1 + S(R) \end{aligned}$$

Hence

$$E_{g,u} = E_0 + \frac{1}{R} \frac{(1+R)e^{-2R} \pm (1-2R^2/3)e^{-R}}{1 \pm (1+R+R^2/3)e^{-R}}$$

\uparrow
 $(= -0.5)$

The function $E_g - E_0$ has a minimum (< 0) for $R = 2.5$

The function $E_u - E_0$ has no minimum and is always +ve

- For homonuclear diatomic molecules another symmetry arises due to the presence of a centre of symmetry. (which coincides with the centre of mass)

Both, the hamiltonian \hat{H}_e and \hat{L}_z are invariant under a reflection of coordinates about this point. That is, if $\vec{r} \rightarrow -\vec{r}$, \hat{H}_e and \hat{L}_z remain unaltered.

- Under the same transformation two wavefunctions Φ_L may either flip or not flip their sign. ^{represent what?}
Wavefunctions that flip the sign are called u gerade states, while the ones that do not, represent g gerade states. (u and g states)

- Thus, the ^{electronic} state of molecule is, in addition to its energy, classified on the basis of Λ , and their parity. For the case $\Lambda=0$, another symmetry comes in, the \pm sign under reflection

- Thus Σ states can be $\Sigma_g^+ \Sigma_u^+ \Sigma_g^- \Sigma_u^-$

while Π and Δ states can be Π_g or Π_u and Δ_g or Δ_u .

- In addition to this an electron state is classified by the spin multiplicity for ~~spin~~ total spin S the multiplicity is $2S+1$. This number is shown as a pre-superscript, e.g. a state with $S=1$, $\Lambda=1$ and of even parity will be shown as a ${}^3\Pi_g$ state.

- Barring ~~#~~ a few exceptions it is found that the ground state of molecules is usually a ${}^1\Sigma_g$ state, and for homonuclear diatomics it is ${}^1\Sigma_g^+$.

SYMMETRIES OF A MOLECULE

A diatomic molecule has an axis of cylindrical symmetry, the internuclear axis and if this axis is taken as the z -axis, the

- \hat{L}_z operator commutes with the Hamiltonian (azimuthal symmetry) (in the body-fixed coordinates)
- However $\hat{L}_x \hat{L}_y \hat{L}^2$ do not commute with \hat{H}_{el} - the ^{electronic} Hamiltonian is not invariant under rotation about this axis.

Hence, the electronic eigenfunctions Φ_a are simultaneous eigenfunctions of \hat{L}_z and \hat{H}_{el} :

$$\hat{L}_z \Phi_a = \lambda_a \Phi_a \quad \lambda = 0, 1, 2, \dots \\ \Sigma, \Pi, \Delta, \dots \text{ states}$$

- The electronic Hamiltonian is invariant under reflection in a plane containing the z -axis (e.g. XZ or YZ plane). In the XZ plane reflection implies $y \rightarrow -y$ and refl. in the YZ plane implies $x \rightarrow -x$

If the reflection operator is \hat{A} , then the above implies $[\hat{A}, \hat{H}_{\text{el}}] = 0$ and the reflection operator flips the sign of L_z , so $\hat{A}\hat{L}_z = -\hat{L}_z\hat{A}$

- This implies, that if $\hat{A}\Phi \rightarrow \Phi'$ where Φ' and Φ differ only in the sign of the eigenvalue of L_z for this eigenfunction. [as long as $\lambda \neq 0$]
- Thus $\lambda \neq 0$ states are doubly degenerate, states with $\pm \lambda$ have the same energy.
- If $\lambda = 0$, however, then the two states are ^{unaffected by reflection} ~~non-degenerate~~, that is Σ states have no degeneracy, but ^{there can be two types of} ~~the two wavefunctions are different~~.
- The difference between the wavefunction of the original and reflected cases can only be in the form of a constant multiplier for Σ states.

Since double reflection is a unity (identity) operation, this constant can only be ± 1 for all Σ states. We thus distinguish between two kinds of Σ states.

- States for which a reflection (in a plane containing the z -axis) changes the sign are called Σ^+ states, those for which the sign changes are called Σ^- states.