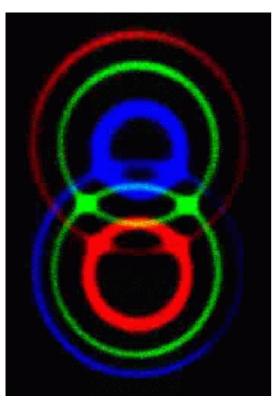


Introduction to Quantum Chemistry

Introduction





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I.A. Discrete spectrum: Defininition of probability

I. Probability



- Discrete spectrum ⇒ Finite number of possible measurement results
 - Ex. Coin toss: Espectrum = 1,2
 - Ex. Dice toss: Espectrum = 1,2,3,4,5,6
- Probability $P_N \Rightarrow$ Frequency of every result

$$P_N = \frac{\text{Number of measurements providing } N \text{ as result}}{\text{Number of possible measurements}}$$

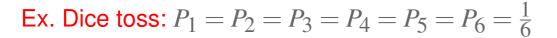
- Normalization $\Rightarrow \sum_{i} P_{i} = 1$
 - Ex. Coin toss: $P_1 = \frac{1}{2} = P_2$

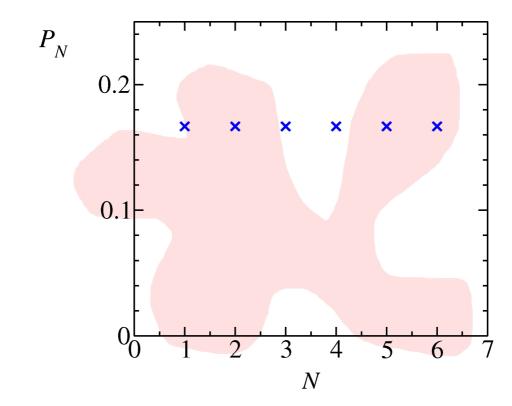
Ex. Dice toss:
$$P_1 = \frac{1}{6} = P_2 = P_3 = P_4 = P_5 = P_6$$

I.A. Discrete spectrum: Graphical representation

I. Probability

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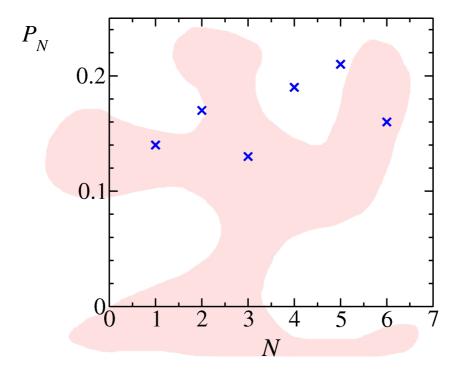
I.A. Discrete spectrum: Graphical representation

I. Probability



Ex. Real dice toss:

$$P_1 = 0.14, P_2 = 0.17, P_3 = 0.13, P_4 = 0.19, P_5 = 0.21, P_6 = 0.16$$





I.A. Discrete spectrum: Mean value of a measurement

I. Probability

• Mean value of a measurement $\langle f \rangle$

N measurements
$$\Rightarrow f_5, f_3, f_1, f_1, f_3, \dots$$

$$\text{Mean value} = \frac{1}{N} (f_5 + f_3 + f_1 + f_1 + f_3 + \dots)$$

$$= \frac{1}{N} (f_1 N_1 + f_2 N_2 + \dots)$$

$$= f 1 \frac{N_1}{N} + f_2 \frac{N_2}{N} + \dots$$

$$\langle f \rangle = \sum_i f_i P_i$$



I.A. Discrete spectrum: Mean value of a measurement

I. Probability

Ex. Dice toss:

$$\langle N \rangle = 1 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 2 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 3 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 4 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 5 \cdot \frac{1}{6} + 6 \cdot \frac{1}{6} = \frac{21}{6} = 3.5$$

$$\langle \sqrt{N} \rangle = \sqrt{1} \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \sqrt{2} \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \sqrt{3} \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \sqrt{4} \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \sqrt{5} \cdot \frac{1}{6} + \sqrt{6} \cdot \frac{1}{6}$$

= 1.8

$$\sqrt{\langle N \rangle} \neq \langle \sqrt{N} \rangle$$

$$\sqrt{3.5} \neq 1.8$$

I.A. Discrete spectrum: Mean squared deviation

I. Probability



■ Mean squared deviation $\Delta f \Rightarrow$ Measures the mean deviation of the values from their mean value

Measurements: f_1, f_2, f_3, \dots

Mean value of the deviations = $\langle f - \langle f \rangle \rangle = \langle f \rangle - \langle f \rangle = 0$

$$(\Delta f)^{2} = \langle (f - \langle f \rangle)^{2} \rangle = \langle f^{2} - 2f \langle f \rangle + \langle f \rangle^{2} \rangle$$
$$= \langle f^{2} \rangle - 2\langle f \rangle \langle f \rangle + \langle f \rangle^{2}$$
$$\Delta f = \sqrt{\langle f^{2} \rangle - \langle f \rangle^{2}}$$

I.B. Continuous spectrum: Probability density

I. Probability

- ∞
- Continuous spectrum \Rightarrow Infinite number of possible results of the measurements $\tau \in (a,b)$. It makes no sense to ask about the probability of a particular outcome.

$$\rho_{\tau} = \frac{dP}{d\tau}$$

$$P(\tau \in (\tau_1, \tau_2)) = \int_{\tau_1}^{\tau_2} \rho_{\tau} d\tau$$

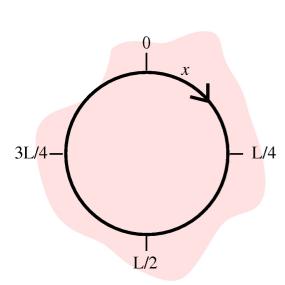
• Normalization $\Rightarrow \int_{\forall \tau} \rho_{\tau} d\tau = 1$

I.B. Continuous spectrum: Probability density

I. Probability



Ex. Ring toss $\Rightarrow \rho_x = \frac{dP}{dx}$



$$P(x \in [x_1, x_2]) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} \rho_x dx$$

Normalization $\Rightarrow \int_0^L \rho_x dx = 1$ $\rho_x = \text{cte.} \Rightarrow \rho_x \int_0^L dx = 1 \Rightarrow \rho_x = \frac{1}{L}$

$$P(x \in [0, L/2]) = \int_0^{L/2} \rho_x dx = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^{L/2} dx$$

I.B. Continuous spectrum: Mean value of measurement

I. Probability



lacktriangle Mean value of a measurement $\langle f \rangle$

$$\langle f \rangle = \int_{\forall \tau} f_{\tau} \rho_{\tau} d\tau$$

Ex. Ring toss

$$\langle x \rangle = \int_0^L x \, \rho_x \, dx = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L x \, dx = \frac{L}{2}$$
$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \int_0^L x^2 \, \rho_x \, dx = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L x^2 \, dx = \frac{L^2}{3}$$

I.B. Continuous spectrum: Mean squared deviation

I. Probability

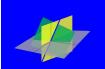


• Mean squared deviation Δf

$$\Delta f = \sqrt{\langle f^2 \rangle - \langle f \rangle^2}$$

Ex. Ring toss

$$\Delta x = \sqrt{\langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2} = \frac{L}{\sqrt{12}}$$

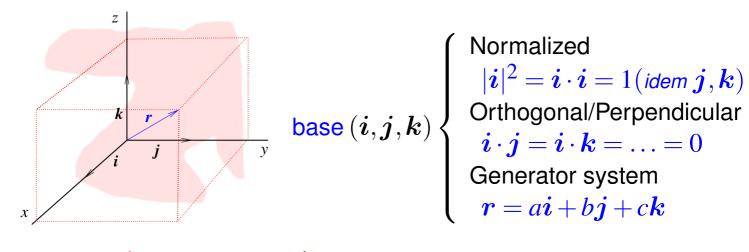


II.A. Vectorial space

II. Quantum Mechanics



■ Vector ⇒ Member of a vectorial space



 $\left. \begin{array}{l} \boldsymbol{r} \cdot \boldsymbol{i} = a \, \boldsymbol{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{i} + b \, \boldsymbol{j} \cdot \boldsymbol{i} + c \, \boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{i} = a \\ \boldsymbol{r} \cdot \boldsymbol{j} = a \, \boldsymbol{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{j} + b \, \boldsymbol{j} \cdot \boldsymbol{j} + c \, \boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{j} = b \\ \boldsymbol{r} \cdot \boldsymbol{k} = a \, \boldsymbol{i} \cdot \boldsymbol{k} + b \, \boldsymbol{j} \cdot \boldsymbol{k} + c \, \boldsymbol{k} \cdot \boldsymbol{k} = c \end{array} \right\} \boldsymbol{r} = (\boldsymbol{r} \cdot \boldsymbol{i}) \boldsymbol{i} + (\boldsymbol{r} \cdot \boldsymbol{j}) \boldsymbol{j} + (\boldsymbol{r} \cdot \boldsymbol{k}) \boldsymbol{k}$



II.A. Vectorial space

II. Quantum Mechanics



Vector $\Rightarrow f(x) \Rightarrow$ Hilbert's space

Dot product $\Rightarrow \langle f|g\rangle = \int_{\forall x} f^*(x)g(x)dx$



base
$$(\{\phi_i(x)\}_{i=1}^N)$$

David Hilbert

$$\text{base}\left(\{\phi_i(x)\}_{i=1}^N\right) \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \langle \phi_i | \phi_i \rangle = 1, \ i=1,\ldots,N \\ \text{Orthogonal/Perpendicular} \\ \langle \phi_i | \phi_j \rangle = 0, \ i \neq j = 1,\ldots,N \\ \text{Generator system} \\ f(x) = \sum\limits_{i=1}^N a_i \phi_i(x) \end{array} \right.$$

Normalized

$$\langle \phi_j | f \rangle = \sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i \langle \phi_j | \phi_i \rangle = a_j$$

$$\begin{cases} f(x) = \sum_{i=1}^{N} \langle \phi_i | f \rangle \phi_i(x) \end{cases}$$

II.B. Concept of state: Classic state

II. Quantum Mechanics



■ Classical Mechanics \Rightarrow The state of the system is characterized by the positions and moments of all the particles in the system (\vec{r}, \vec{p})

$$\vec{p} = m \frac{d\vec{r}}{dt}$$

If these magnitudes are known at a given time $(\vec{r}(0), \vec{p}(0))$ they can be known at any later $(\vec{r}(t), \vec{p}(t))$ or earlier time $(\vec{r}(-t), \vec{p}(-t))$ using the second Newton's law

$$\overrightarrow{F} = m \frac{d^2 \overrightarrow{r}}{dt^2}$$



II.B. Concept of state: Quantum state

II. Quantum Mechanics



■ Quantum Mechanics \Rightarrow Postulate 1. The state of the system is characterized by a function depending on the coordinates of the particles in the system and time $\psi(\vec{r},t)$ referred to as state function.

The squared modulus of the state function $|\psi(\vec{r},t)|^2$ is the probability density of the system

$$dP(\vec{r} \in [\vec{r}, \vec{r} + d\vec{r}]) = |\psi(\vec{r}, t)|^2 d\vec{r}$$

Modulus of a complex number

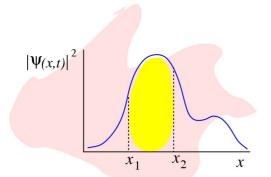
$$a = a_r + ia_i \Rightarrow |a|^2 = a \cdot a^* = (a_r + ia_i)(a_r - ia_i) = a_r^2 + a_i^2$$

II.C. State function

II. Quantum Mechanics



Probabilistic interpretation



$$P(x \in [x_1, x_2]) = \int_{x_1}^{x_2} |\psi(x, t)|^2 dx$$

- State function must be well behaved:
 - a) Normalizable $\Rightarrow \int_{\forall \vec{r}} |\psi(\vec{r},t)|^2 d\vec{r} = 1$
 - b) Single valued ⇒ Probability density has only one value in any space point
 - c) Continuous \Rightarrow No jumps



II. Quantum Mechanics



- Postulate 2. Every measurable physical quantity is described by a lineal and hermitian operator obtained from the clasic expression of the magnitude using the correspondence principle
 - $x \rightarrow \hat{x}$
 - $p_X \to \hat{p}_X = \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx}$



II. Quantum Mechanics



Operator

$$\hat{A} = \frac{d}{dx} \qquad f(x) = e^{-2x} \qquad \hat{B} = x^2$$

$$\downarrow \qquad \qquad \downarrow$$

$$\hat{A}f = \frac{d}{dx}e^{-2x} = -2e^{-2x} \qquad \hat{B}f = x^2e^{-2x}$$

- Lineal $\begin{cases} \hat{A}(f(x) + g(x)) = \hat{A}f(x) + \hat{A}g(x) \\ \hat{A}(cf(x)) = c\hat{A}f(x) \end{cases}$
- Hermitian $\Rightarrow \langle f | \hat{A}g \rangle = \langle \hat{A}f | g \rangle$

$$\langle f|\hat{A}g\rangle = \int_{\forall x} f^* \hat{A}g dx$$

$$\langle \hat{A}f|g\rangle = \int_{\forall x} (\hat{A}f)^* g dx = \left[\int_{\forall x} (\hat{A}f)g^* dx\right]^* = \left[\int_{\forall x} g^* (\hat{A}f) dx\right]^* = \langle g|\hat{A}f\rangle^*$$



II. Quantum Mechanics



Ex. Kinetic energy operator

$$T = \frac{p^2}{2m} \rightarrow \hat{T} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} = \frac{1}{2m} \left(\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{d}{dx}\right)^2 = \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$$

Ex. Potential energy operator

$$V(x) \to \hat{V} = V(x)$$

Ex. Hamiltonian operator

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x) \to \hat{H} = \hat{T} + \hat{V}(x) = \frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + \hat{V}(x)$$



II.D. Operators: Result of a measurement

II. Quantum Mechanics



Postulado 3. The only possible result of the measurement of a physical quantity A is one of the eigenvalues of the corresponding eigenvalue equation

$$\hat{A} \varphi_i = a_i \varphi_i$$
 $i = 1, 2, \dots$

The numbers a_1, a_2, \ldots are known as eigenvalues of the \hat{A} operator and the functions ϕ_i are their corresponding eigenfunctions. The eigenfunctions define a basis set in the Hilbert's space.

$$\psi = \sum_{i} \langle \varphi_i | \psi \rangle \varphi_i$$

II. Quantum Mechanics



■ When the system is described by the state function ψ , the measurement of the A magnitude will provide the result a_i with a probability equal to $P_{a_i} = |\langle \varphi_i | \psi \rangle|^2$.

$$\Psi = \sum_{i} \langle \varphi_{i} | \Psi \rangle \varphi_{i} \Rightarrow P_{a_{i}} = |\langle \varphi_{i} | \Psi \rangle|^{2}$$



II.D. Operators: Result of a measurement

II. Quantum Mechanics



• Consequence $1 \Rightarrow \hat{A} \varphi_i = a_i \varphi_i$ y $\psi = \varphi_i$

$$P_{a_i} = |\langle \varphi_i | \psi \rangle|^2 = 1$$

■ Consecuence 2 \Rightarrow the mean value of a measurement of the A magnitude is

$$\langle \hat{A} \rangle = \sum_{i} P_{a_i} a_i = \sum_{i} |\langle \varphi_i | \psi \rangle|^2 a_i = \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle$$





II. Quantum Mechanics



• Consequence $3 \Rightarrow f \equiv g, \hat{A}f = af$

$$\begin{split} \langle f|\hat{A}f\rangle &= \left[\langle f|\hat{A}f\rangle\right]^* \\ \langle f|af\rangle &= \left[\langle f|af\rangle\right]^* \\ a\langle f|f\rangle &= a^* \left[\langle f|f\rangle\right]^* \Rightarrow a = a^* \Rightarrow a \text{ real} \end{split}$$

■ Consequence $4 \Rightarrow \hat{A}f = af$, $\hat{A}g = bg$, $a \neq b$

$$\langle f|\hat{A}g\rangle = \left[\langle g|\hat{A}f\rangle\right]^*$$

$$b\langle f|g\rangle = a\langle g|f\rangle^*$$

$$\downarrow \langle g|f\rangle^* = \left[\int_{\forall x} g^*fdx\right]^* = \int_{\forall x} f^*gdx = \langle f|g\rangle$$

$$(b-a)\langle f|g\rangle = 0 \Rightarrow f,g \text{ orthogonals}$$



The commutator between two operators is defined by

$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = \hat{A}\hat{B} - \hat{B}\hat{A}$$

Ex.
$$\hat{A} = \frac{d}{dx}$$
 y $\hat{B} = x^2$

$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}]f = \hat{A}\hat{B}f - \hat{B}\hat{A}f = \frac{d}{dx}(x^2f) - x^2\frac{df}{dx}$$
$$= 2xf + x^2\frac{df}{dx} - x^2\frac{df}{dx} = 2xf$$
$$[\hat{A}, \hat{B}] = 2x$$



I.D. Operators: Simultaneous measurement

II. Quantum Mechanics



• Consequence. If the hermitian operators \hat{A} and \hat{B} commute, then there is a common set of eigenfunctions.

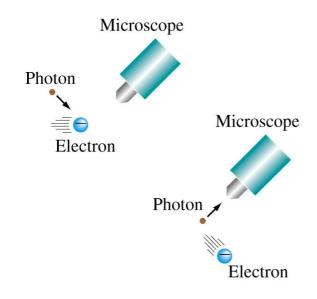
$$egin{aligned} [\hat{A},\hat{B}] &= 0 \ \Rightarrow \ \hat{A}\hat{B}f = \hat{B}\hat{A}f \ \hat{A}f_i &= a_if_i \ \downarrow \ \hat{B}\hat{A}f_i &= \hat{B}(a_if_i) \ \hat{A}(\hat{B}f_i) &= a_i(\hat{B}f_i) \ \downarrow \ \hat{B}f_i \ \text{is eigenfunction of } \hat{A} \ \text{with eigenvalue } a_i \ \hat{B}f_i &= kf_i \end{aligned}$$

II.E. Uncertainty principle

II. Quantum Mechanics



Heisenberg's uncertainty principle



$$\Delta A \Delta B \geq rac{1}{2} \langle [\hat{A}, \hat{B}]
angle$$
 $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] = i\hbar$ $\Delta x \Delta p \geqslant rac{\hbar}{2}$