

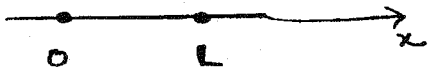
Université de Strasbourg

L3 – 1^{er} semestre

**Travaux dirigés de mécanique quantique pour la chimie –
solutions**

Emmanuel Fromager

Particle confined along a segment of straight line



1- the energy is only kinetic

2- General case:
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi + V \cdot \psi = E \cdot \psi$$
↑
"potential energy"

- one-dimension problem $\psi(x, y, z) = \psi(x)$ (2)
- for $0 \leq x \leq L$ $V(x, y, z) = V(x) = 0$ (1)
- for $x > L$ and $x \leq 0$ $\psi(x) = 0$

(1) \Rightarrow
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} = E \psi$$
 (3)
and (2)

3- (3) \Leftrightarrow
$$\frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} = -\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \psi$$
 (4)

Let us prove that $E \geq 0$:

(4) \Rightarrow
$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi^* \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} = -\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi^* \psi dx$$
I
 ≥ 0

I =
$$\left[\psi^* \frac{d\psi}{dx} \right]_{-\infty}^{+\infty} - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \frac{d\psi}{dx} \cdot \frac{d\psi^*}{dx} dx \leq 0$$
0
 $|\frac{d\psi}{dx}|^2$

Then $E \geq 0$

Let $k^2 = \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}$

(4) \Leftrightarrow
$$\frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} + k^2 \psi = 0$$

\Leftrightarrow
$$\psi(x) = A \cos kx + B \sin kx$$
 (5)

4- Boundary conditions $\psi(x=0) = 0$

(5) \Rightarrow $A = 0 \Rightarrow \psi(x) = B \sin kx$

5. Second boundary condition $\psi(x=L) = 0$

$$\Rightarrow \sin kL = 0 \Leftrightarrow \boxed{kL = n\pi \quad n \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{n\pi}{L} \right)^2 = E_n$$

↑
energies are
quantized

6. $\psi_n(x) = B_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$ (6)

$$\psi_{-n}(x) = B_{-n} \sin\left(-\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) = -B_{-n} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

$$\psi_{-n}(x) = -\frac{B_{-n}}{B_n} \psi_n(x) \Rightarrow \psi_{-n} \text{ and } \psi_n \text{ are "collinear"}$$

If we choose $B_n \in \mathbb{R}^{++} \forall n \in \mathbb{Z}$

the normalisation of ψ_n and ψ_{-n} imposes

$$B_n^2 = B_{-n}^2 \Rightarrow B_n = B_{-n}$$

Thus $\boxed{\psi_{-n}(x) = -\psi_n(x)}$

They both contain the same "physics"
meaning that ψ_{-n} is NOT a new solution.

2/L

Therefore $n \in \mathbb{N}$.

if $n=0$ $\psi_n(x) = \psi_0(x) = 0$

This wave function cannot describe the particle

Since the normalization condition must be fulfilled,
that is $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\psi_n(x)|^2 dx = 1$ ← for a physical
solution.

Thus $\boxed{n \in \mathbb{N}^*}$

7. Normalization $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\psi_n(x)|^2 dx = 1$

$$(6) \Rightarrow B_n^2 \int_0^L \underbrace{\sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)}_{\frac{1}{2}(1 - \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi}{L}x\right))} dx = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{B_n^2}{2} \left[L - \int_0^L \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi}{L}x\right) dx \right] = 1$$

$$\left[\frac{\sin(2n\pi x/L)}{(2n\pi/L)} \right]_0^L = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow B_n = \frac{\sqrt{2}}{\sqrt{L}}$$

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right)$$

8- $\psi^*(x)\psi(x)dx = dP(x)$: probability that the particle is at position x ,

$P(x) = \psi^*(x)\psi(x)$ is the density of probability,

The normalization means that the particle must be somewhere on the line

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dP(x) = 1 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} P(x) dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi^*(x)\psi(x) dx$$

Sum of all probabilities

$$9- P_n(x) = |\psi_n(x)|^2 = \frac{2}{L} \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

$$P_n(x) = \frac{2}{L} \left(\frac{1 - \cos(2n\pi x/L)}{2} \right)$$

$$P_n(x) = \frac{1 - \cos(2n\pi x/L)}{L} \quad (7) \text{ see enclosed figures}$$

3/L

Comment on the wave functions $\psi_n(x)$:

The number of nodes (where $\psi_n(x)$ changes sign) increases with n and thus with the energy

$n=1$	no nodes
$n=2$	1 node
$n=3$	2 nodes

This ensures the orthogonality of the solutions

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi_n | \psi_m \rangle &= \int_0^L dx \psi_n^*(x) \psi_m(x) \\ &= \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi x}{L}\right) dx \\ &= \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \frac{1}{2} \left(\cos\left(\frac{(n-m)\pi x}{L}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{(n+m)\pi x}{L}\right) \right) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L \cos\left(\frac{(n-m)\pi x}{L}\right) dx \end{aligned}$$

$$= \frac{1}{L} \left[\frac{\sin\left(\frac{(n+m)\pi x}{L}\right)}{\frac{(n+m)\pi}{L}} \right]_0^L$$

$$\text{if } n \neq m \Rightarrow \langle \psi_n | \psi_m \rangle = \frac{1}{L} \left[\frac{\int_0^L \sin\left(\frac{(n-m)\pi x}{L}\right) dx}{(n-m)\frac{\pi}{L}} \right]_0^L = 0$$

Therefore $\langle \psi_n | \psi_m \rangle = \delta_{nm}$

Comment on the probability densities:

As n increases, the number of maxima of the probability density increases.

Let x_p^n denote one of the maxima: according to (*)

$$\frac{2n\pi x_p^n}{L} = (2p+1)\pi$$

$$\Rightarrow x_p^n = \frac{(2p+1)L}{2n}$$

$p = 0, 1, \dots, n-1$

$$\text{Therefore } x_{p+1}^n - x_p^n = \frac{L}{n} \xrightarrow{n \rightarrow +\infty} 0$$

which means that for large quantum numbers the density of probability becomes uniform

\Rightarrow classical limit.

4/L

10. We have shown in question 5 that the confinement of the particle induces a quantization of its energy $\rightarrow E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 k_n^2}{2m}$

where $k_n = \frac{n\pi}{L}$. In the classical limit ($L \rightarrow +\infty$)

$$k_{n+1} - k_n = \frac{\pi}{L} \rightarrow 0$$

which means that we get a continuum of values for k_n and thus for E_n (the energy is not quantized anymore).

In reality L is of course finite (very large but not infinite) which means that the energy levels are very very close to each other, looking like a continuum. Note that

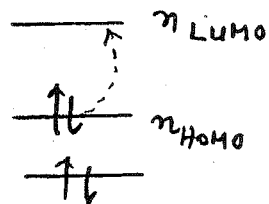
$$E_1 = \frac{\hbar^2 \left(\frac{\pi}{L}\right)^2}{2m} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \quad \psi_1(x) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0$$

$$E_2 = \frac{\hbar^2 \left(\frac{2\pi}{L}\right)^2}{2m} \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0 \quad \psi_2(x) \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0$$

but for sufficiently large n values, E_n won't be small (since L is finite).

In this respect, investigating the classical limit requires the investigation of large quantum numbers.

11-



LUMO: Lowest Unoccupied Molecular Orbital
HOMO: Highest Occupied Molecular Orbital

We consider the electronic transition from the HOMO to the LUMO. The corresponding wave length λ fulfills

$$h \frac{c}{\lambda} = E_{n_{LUMO}} - E_{n_{HOMO}} = \frac{h^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2} (n_{LUMO}^2 - n_{HOMO}^2)$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{8mL^2c}{h(n_{LUMO}^2 - n_{HOMO}^2)}$$

In both cases, there are 4 π electrons therefore

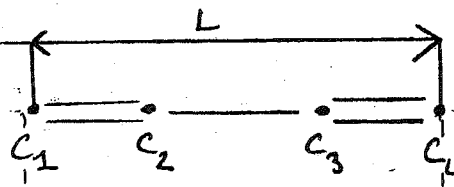
$$n_{HOMO} = 2$$

and

$$n_{LUMO} = 3$$

Value of L ?

In our model we assume that the π electrons are on a straight line

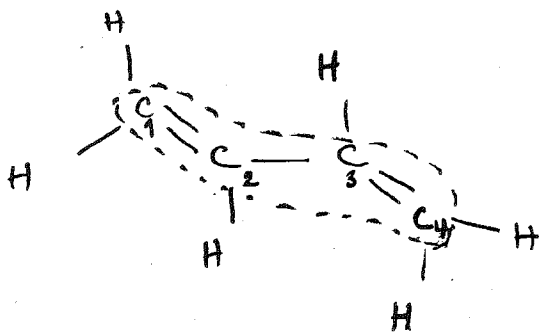


$$L = 2d_{C=C} + d_{C-C}$$

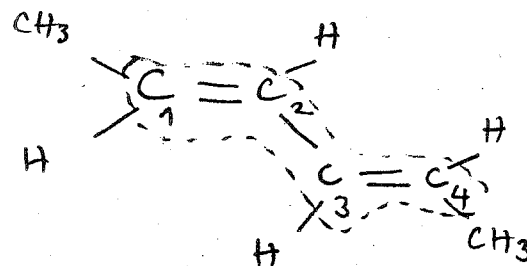
$$L = 2 \times 135 + 154$$

$$L = 424 \text{ pm}$$

Applications:



butadiene



hexa-2,4-diene

$$\lambda = \frac{8 \times 9,11 \cdot 10^{-31} (424)^2 10^{-24} \cdot 3 \cdot 10^8}{6,63 \cdot 10^{-34} (5)}$$

$$\lambda = 1,186 \cdot 10^{-7} \text{ m} = \underline{118,6 \text{ nm} = \lambda}$$

Improvement of the model:

Add on both sides half of the radius of a carbon atom ($d_{C-C}/2$). Thus we get

$$L' = L + d_{C-C} = 578 \text{ pm}$$

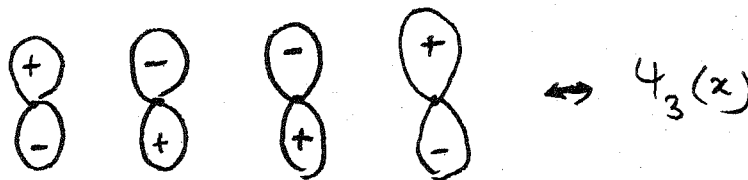
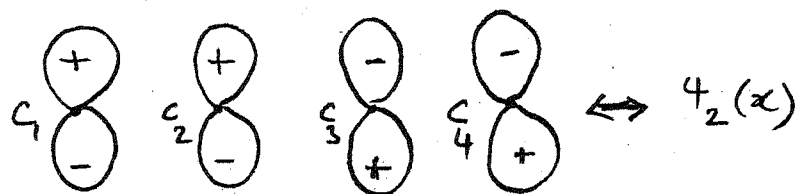
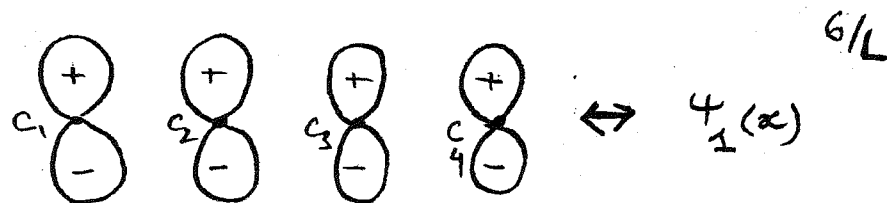
$$\Rightarrow \underline{\lambda' = 220,4 \text{ nm}}$$

which is rather close to the experimental values

$$\lambda_{\text{exp6}} = 227 \text{ nm} \text{ and } \lambda_{\text{exp4}} = 217 \text{ nm}$$

Why this crude model makes sense?

Let us look at the π orbitals ...



$$12. \quad \langle x \rangle_n = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \psi_n^*(x) x \psi_n(x) = \int_0^L \frac{2}{L} x \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L x \left(1 - \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right)\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{2}{L} \underbrace{\int_0^L x dx}_{\frac{L^2}{2}} - \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L x \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{2}{L} \left[\frac{x \sin\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right)}{\left(\frac{2n\pi}{L}\right)} \right]_0^L - \int_0^L \frac{\sin\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right)}{\left(\frac{2n\pi}{L}\right)} dx$$

$$= \frac{2}{L} \left[\frac{-\cos\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right)}{\left(\frac{2n\pi}{L}\right)} \right]_0^L$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle x \rangle_n = \frac{L}{2} \quad \forall n \in \mathbb{N}^*$$

$$13. \quad \langle p_x \rangle_n = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \psi_n^*(x) \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}\right) \psi_n(x)$$

since $\forall x \quad \psi_n(x) \in \mathbb{R} \Rightarrow \psi_n^*(x) = \psi_n(x)$ and therefore $\langle p_x \rangle_n$ is imaginary ($\langle p_x \rangle_n = i\alpha$ where $\alpha \in \mathbb{R}$)

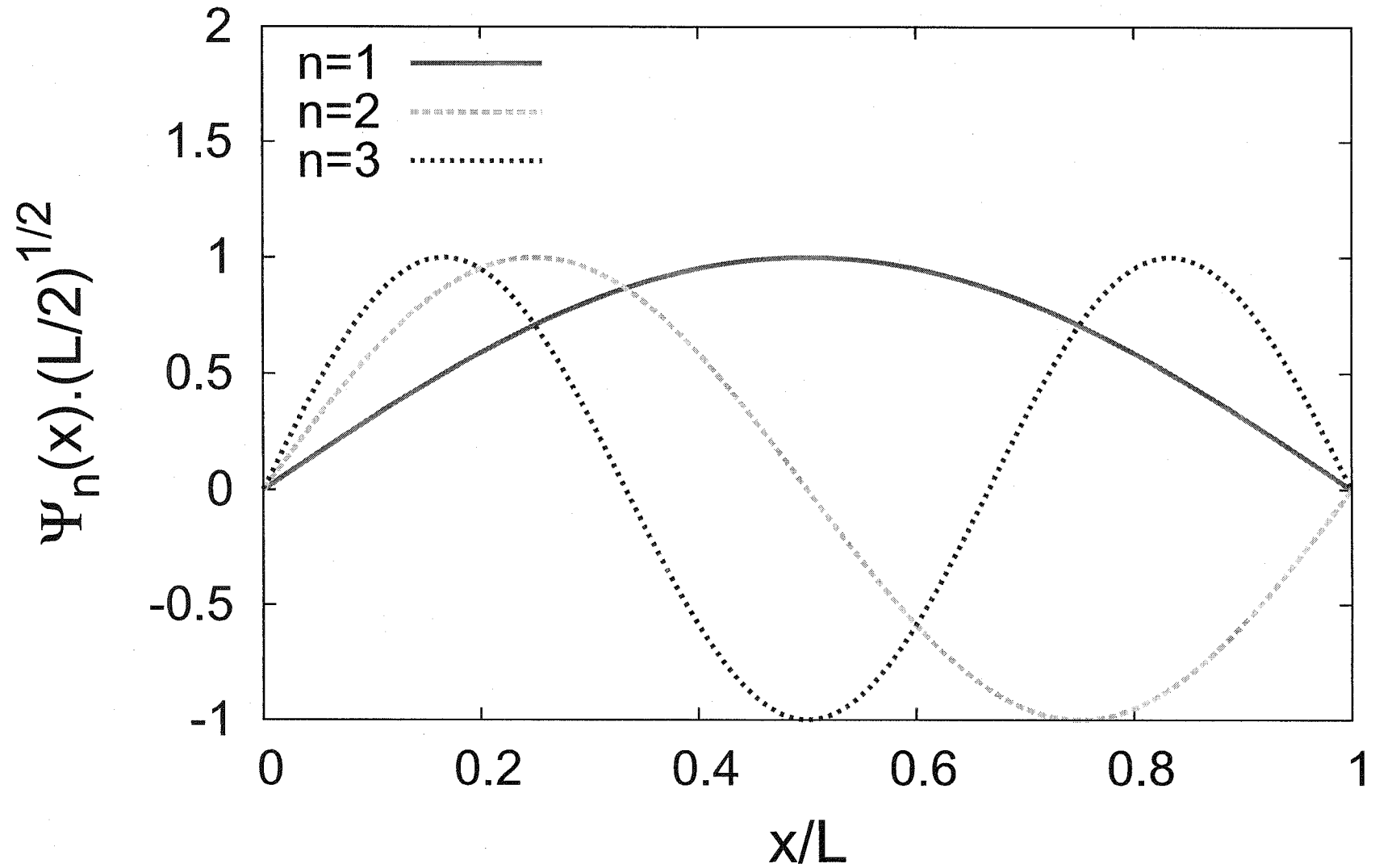
Moreover:

$$\langle p_x \rangle_n^* = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \psi_n(x) \left(+i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}\right) \psi_n^*(x) = \underbrace{\left[\psi_n(x) (i\hbar) \psi_n^*(x) \right]_{-\infty}^{+\infty}}_0 - \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \left(\frac{d\psi_n}{dx}\right) i\hbar \psi_n^* dx$$

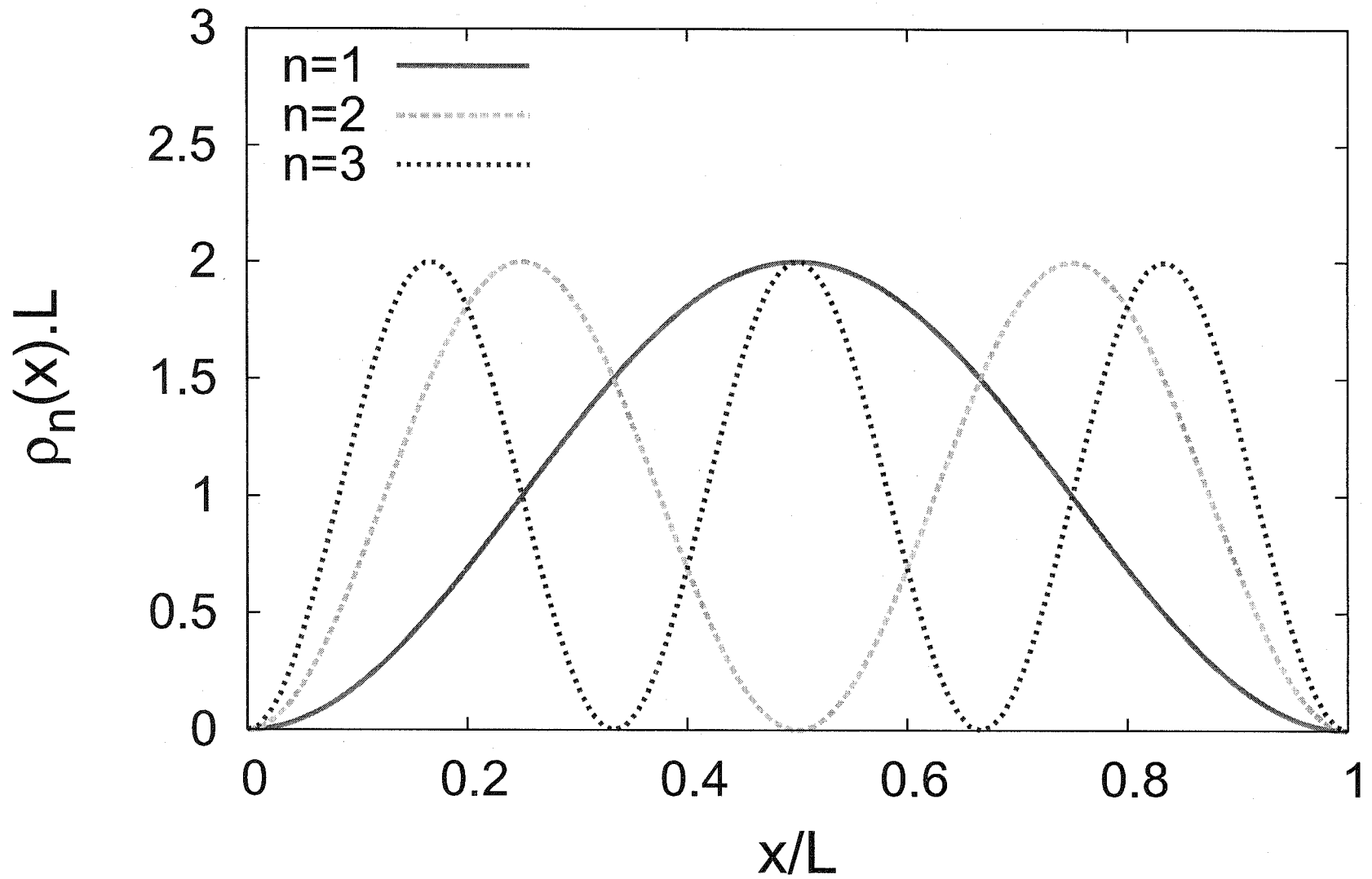
$$\langle p_x \rangle_n^* = \langle p_x \rangle_n = i\alpha = -i\alpha$$

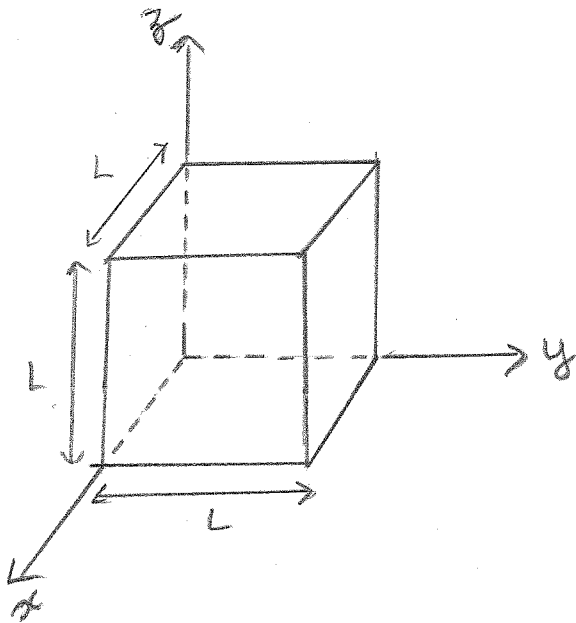
$$\Rightarrow \alpha = 0 \Rightarrow \langle p_x \rangle_n = 0$$

wave functions $\Psi_n(x)$



densities of probability $\rho_n(x)$





1) Equation de Schrödinger : $\hat{H} \Psi(x, y, z) = E \Psi(x, y, z)$

$0 \leq x \leq L$
 $0 \leq y \leq L$
 $0 \leq z \leq L$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \Psi(x, y, z) = E \Psi(x, y, z)$$

Conditions aux limites : $\Psi(0, y, z) = \Psi(L, y, z) = 0 \quad \forall y, z$
 $\Psi(x, 0, z) = \Psi(x, L, z) = 0 \quad \forall x, z$
 $\Psi(x, y, 0) = \Psi(x, y, L) = 0 \quad \forall x, y$

2) Séparation des variables : $\Psi(x, y, z) = \Psi_x(x) \cdot \Psi_y(y) \cdot \Psi_z(z)$

équation de Schrödinger divisée par $\Psi_x(x) \Psi_y(y) \Psi_z(z)$

$$\forall x, y, z \quad (1) \quad = 0 - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{1}{\Psi_x(x)} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_x(x)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{1}{\Psi_y(y)} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_y(y)}{\partial y^2} + \frac{1}{\Psi_z(z)} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_z(z)}{\partial z^2} \right) = E$$

3) l'équation (1) est de la forme $f(x) + g(y) + h(z) = E \quad \forall x, y, z$
 si on la dérive par rapport à x , à y , ou à z , on obtient :

$$\begin{cases} \partial_x f(x) = 0 \\ \partial_y g(y) = 0 \\ \partial_z h(z) = 0 \end{cases} \quad \text{donc on peut écrire :} \quad \begin{cases} f(x) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{\Psi_x(x)} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_x(x)}{\partial x^2} = E_x \\ g(y) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{\Psi_y(y)} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_y(y)}{\partial y^2} = E_y \\ h(z) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{\Psi_z(z)} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_z(z)}{\partial z^2} = E_z \end{cases}$$

avec E_x, E_y et E_z des constantes

Les trois équations ainsi obtenues sont indépendantes les unes des autres 2/3
si on remplace $f(x)$, $g(y)$ et $h(z)$ dans l'équation (1), on

trouve

$$E_x + E_y + E_z = E$$

4) conditions aux limites \Rightarrow même solutions que pour particule sur une ligne

$$\text{ex: } \Psi(0, y, z) = \Psi_x(0) \Psi_y(y) \Psi_z(z) = \Psi_x(L) \Psi_y(y) \Psi_z(z) = \Psi(L, x, y) = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \Psi_x(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{m_x \pi x}{L}\right) \quad E_x = \frac{m_x^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2L^2 m}$$

$$\Psi_y(y) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{m_y \pi y}{L}\right) \quad E_y = \frac{m_y^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2L^2 m}$$

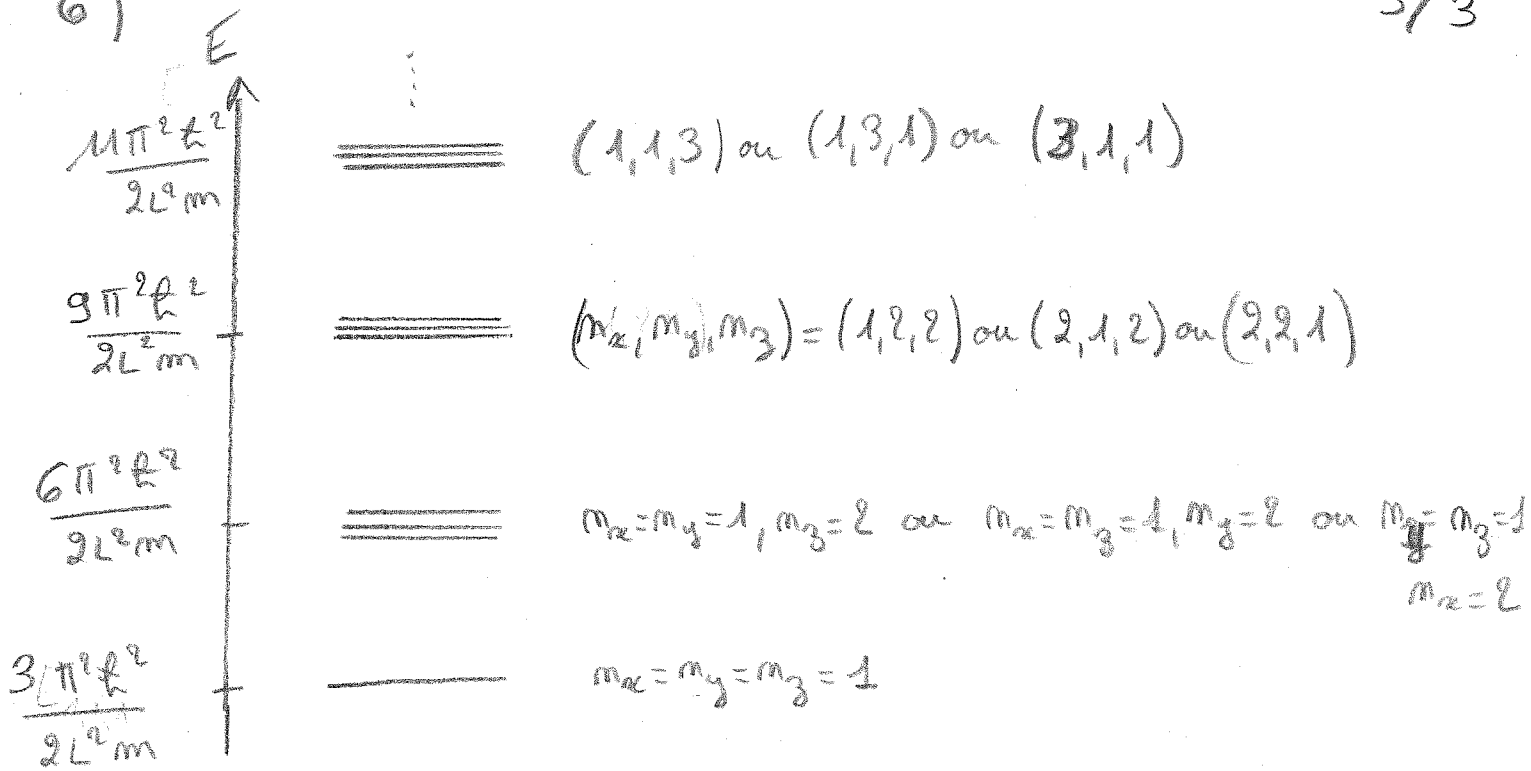
$$\Psi_z(z) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{m_z \pi z}{L}\right) \quad E_z = \frac{m_z^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2L^2 m}$$

$$5) \quad \Psi(x, y, z) = \left(\frac{2}{L}\right)^{3/2} \sin\left(\frac{m_x \pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m_y \pi y}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m_z \pi z}{L}\right)$$

$$E = \frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2L^2 m} (m_x^2 + m_y^2 + m_z^2)$$

avec $m_x, m_y, m_z \in \mathbb{N}^*$

6)



Rq: certains niveaux sont dégénérés.

7 - Lorsque le volume de la boîte devient infini, l'énergie n'est plus quantifiée. ($\Delta E \xrightarrow{L \rightarrow +\infty} 0$ entre 2 niveaux)

1 - Operateurs, fonctions propres et valeurs propres

1- $\hat{x} \Psi(x, y, z) = x \Psi(x, y, z)$

$\hat{y} \Psi(x, y, z) = y \Psi(x, y, z)$

$\hat{z} \Psi(x, y, z) = z \Psi(x, y, z)$

$\hat{p}_x \Psi(x, y, z) = -i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(x, y, z)}{\partial x}$

$\hat{p}_y \Psi(x, y, z) = -i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(x, y, z)}{\partial y}$

$\hat{p}_z \Psi(x, y, z) = -i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi(x, y, z)}{\partial z}$

2- $H_{claire} = \frac{1}{2} m v^2 = \frac{p_x^2 + p_y^2 + p_z^2}{2m}$

$\hat{H}_{claire} = \frac{\hat{p}_x^2 + \hat{p}_y^2 + \hat{p}_z^2}{2m} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right)$

$\hat{H}_{claire} \Psi(x, y, z) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \Psi(x, y, z)$

3- $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] \Psi = (\hat{x} \hat{p}_x - \hat{p}_x \hat{x}) \Psi = -\alpha i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} + i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\alpha \Psi)$
 $= -\alpha i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} + i\hbar \Psi + i\hbar \alpha \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x}$

$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar \iff = +i\hbar \Psi$ on ne peut pas mesurer simultanément la position et la quantité de mouvement.

$[\hat{p}_x, \hat{H}_{claire}] \Psi = \hat{p}_x \hat{H}_{claire} \Psi - \hat{H}_{claire} \hat{p}_x \Psi = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) \Psi \right)$
 $+ \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \right) i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x}$

$\stackrel{(*)}{=} +\frac{i\hbar^3}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^3}{\partial x^3} \Psi + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} \right) - \frac{i\hbar^3}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^3 \Psi}{\partial x^3} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2} \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} \right)$
 $= 0$

de même $[\hat{p}_y, \hat{H}_{claire}] \Psi = [\hat{p}_z, \hat{H}_{claire}] \Psi = 0$ Il est possible de mesurer simultanément la quantité de mouvement et l'énergie.

4- $\hat{H}_{claire} \cdot x^{\hbar \alpha} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2 x^{\hbar \alpha}}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 x^{\hbar \alpha}}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 x^{\hbar \alpha}}{\partial z^2} \right)$
 $= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \hbar \alpha \frac{\partial x^{\hbar \alpha - 1}}{\partial x} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \hbar \alpha (\hbar \alpha - 1) x^{\hbar \alpha - 2} \neq \text{Cste} \cdot x^{\hbar \alpha}$

la fonction $x^{\hbar \alpha}$ n'est pas fonction propre de \hat{H}_{claire}

$\hat{H}_{claire} e^{i\hbar \alpha x} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2 e^{i\hbar \alpha x}}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 e^{i\hbar \alpha x}}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 e^{i\hbar \alpha x}}{\partial z^2} \right)$
 $= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \cdot i\hbar \alpha \frac{\partial e^{i\hbar \alpha x}}{\partial x} = +\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \cdot \hbar \alpha^2 \cdot e^{i\hbar \alpha x}$

La fonction $e^{i\hbar \alpha x}$ est fonction propre de \hat{H}_{claire} , de valeur propre $+\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \cdot \hbar \alpha^2$

$\hat{H}_{claire} \sin(\hbar \alpha x) = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{\partial^2 \sin \hbar \alpha x}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \sin \hbar \alpha x}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \sin \hbar \alpha x}{\partial z^2} \right)$
 $= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \hbar \alpha \frac{\partial \cos \hbar \alpha x}{\partial x} = +\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \hbar \alpha^2 \cdot \sin \hbar \alpha x$

la fonction $\sin \hbar \alpha x$ est fonction propre de \hat{H}_{claire} , de valeur propre $\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \hbar \alpha^2$

Rq: $\hat{H}_{claire} (\sin \hbar \alpha x) = \frac{1}{2i} \hat{H}_{claire} \left(\frac{e^{i\hbar \alpha x} - e^{-i\hbar \alpha x}}{2i} \right)$
 $= \frac{1}{2i} \cdot \left(+\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \hbar \alpha^2 e^{i\hbar \alpha x} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \hbar \alpha^2 e^{-i\hbar \alpha x} \right) = +\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \hbar \alpha^2 (\sin \hbar \alpha x)$

$\Rightarrow \sin(\hbar \alpha x)$ est une combinaison linéaire de 2 fonctions propres de même valeur propre $\Rightarrow \sin(\hbar \alpha x)$ est fonction propre de \hat{H}_{claire} .

$\stackrel{(*)}{\text{Rq:}} [\hat{p}_x, \hat{H}_{claire}] = \left[\hat{p}_x, \frac{\hat{p}_x^2}{2m} + \frac{\hat{p}_y^2}{2m} + \frac{\hat{p}_z^2}{2m} \right]$
 $= \frac{[\hat{p}_x, \hat{p}_x^2]}{2m} + \frac{[\hat{p}_x, \hat{p}_y^2]}{2m} + \frac{[\hat{p}_x, \hat{p}_z^2]}{2m} = 0$
 car $[\hat{p}_x, \hat{p}_y] = 0$ car $[\hat{p}_x, \hat{p}_z] = 0$

Exercise 3: \hat{L}_z operator

EX3

$$1. \quad \forall \psi, \chi \quad \langle \psi | \hat{L}_z | \chi \rangle = \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \psi^*(\varphi) (\hat{L}_z \chi)(\varphi) = \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \psi^*(\varphi) (-i\hbar \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \varphi})$$

$$= -i\hbar \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \psi^* \frac{\partial \chi}{\partial \varphi} = -i\hbar \left(\left[\psi^* \chi \right]_0^{2\pi} - \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \chi \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial \varphi} \right)$$

$\varphi=0$ and $\varphi=2\pi$ correspond to the same position in space

$$\Rightarrow \psi^*(0)\chi(0) = \psi^*(2\pi)\chi(2\pi)$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \psi | \hat{L}_z | \chi \rangle = i\hbar \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi \chi \frac{\partial \psi^*}{\partial \varphi} = \int_0^{2\pi} d\varphi (\hat{L}_z \psi)^* \chi = \langle \chi | \hat{L}_z | \psi \rangle^*$$

Since $\hat{L}_z \psi = -i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \varphi}$

$\Rightarrow \hat{L}_z$ is hermitian.

2. Let Φ be eigenfunction of \hat{L}_z associated to l_z

$$\hat{L}_z \Phi = l_z \Phi \quad (2)$$

Since \hat{L}_z is hermitian, $l_z \in \mathbb{R}$

Proof:

$$\langle \Phi | \hat{L}_z | \Phi \rangle = \langle \Phi | \hat{L}_z | \Phi \rangle^* \text{ according to question 1}$$

thus $l_z \underbrace{\langle \Phi | \Phi \rangle}_{\neq 0} = l_z^* \langle \Phi | \Phi \rangle$

$$\Rightarrow l_z = l_z^* \Rightarrow l_z \in \mathbb{R}.$$

$$(2) \Leftrightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial \Phi}{\partial \varphi} = l_z \Phi$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \Phi(\varphi) = c e^{-l_z / i\hbar \varphi}$$

$$\Phi(\varphi=0) = \Phi(\varphi=2\pi) \Rightarrow C e^{+il_z \frac{2\pi}{\hbar}} = C$$

$$\Rightarrow e^{i \frac{2\pi l_z}{\hbar}} = 1 \Rightarrow \frac{2\pi l_z}{\hbar} = 2\pi m \quad m \in \mathbb{Z}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{l_z = m\hbar \quad m \in \mathbb{Z}}$$

Corresponding eigenfunction $\Phi = C_m e^{im\varphi}$ (we choose $C_m \in \mathbb{R}$)

Normalization: $\langle \Phi_m | \Phi_m \rangle = 1 = \int_0^{2\pi} C_m^* e^{-im\varphi} \cdot C_m e^{im\varphi} d\varphi = C_m^2 \cdot 2\pi$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{C_m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}} \Rightarrow \Phi_m = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im\varphi}$$

$$3- \quad \psi_0(\varphi) = A \cos^2(\varphi) = \frac{A}{4} \underbrace{(e^{i\varphi} + e^{-i\varphi})^2}_{(e^{2i\varphi} + 2 + e^{-2i\varphi})}$$

$$\psi_0(\varphi) = \frac{A}{4} (2 \times \sqrt{2\pi} \Phi_0 + \sqrt{2\pi} \Phi_2 + \sqrt{2\pi} \Phi_{-2})$$

$$\boxed{\psi_0(\varphi) = \frac{A\sqrt{2\pi}}{4} (2\Phi_0 + \Phi_2 + \Phi_{-2})}$$

Dirac notation:

$$|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{A\sqrt{2\pi}}{4} (2|\Phi_0\rangle + |\Phi_2\rangle + |\Phi_{-2}\rangle)$$

$$\boxed{\text{if } m \neq l \text{ then } \langle \Phi_m | \Phi_l \rangle = 0}$$

Proof: According to question 1-

$$\langle \Phi_m | \hat{L}_z | \Phi_l \rangle = \langle \Phi_l | \hat{L}_z | \Phi_m \rangle^*$$

$$\text{th } \langle \Phi_m | \Phi_l \rangle = (m\hbar \langle \Phi_l | \Phi_m \rangle)^* = m\hbar \langle \Phi_m | \Phi_l \rangle$$

$$\Rightarrow (l-m) \langle \Phi_m | \Phi_l \rangle = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \langle \Phi_m | \Phi_l \rangle = 0.$$

Therefore $\langle \psi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle = 1 = \frac{A\sqrt{2\pi}}{4} (2 \underbrace{\langle \psi_0 | \Phi_0 \rangle}_{A\sqrt{2\pi} \cdot \frac{2}{4}} + \underbrace{\langle \psi_0 | \Phi_2 \rangle}_{\frac{A\sqrt{2\pi}}{4}} + \underbrace{\langle \psi_0 | \Phi_{-2} \rangle}_{\frac{A\sqrt{2\pi}}{4}})$

$$\langle \psi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle = \frac{A^2 (2\pi)}{16} (4 + 1 + 1) = \frac{\pi A^2}{8} \cdot 6 = \frac{3\pi A^2}{4} = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow A^2 = \frac{4}{3\pi} \Rightarrow \boxed{A = \frac{2}{\sqrt{3\pi}}} \Rightarrow \frac{A\sqrt{2\pi}}{4} = \frac{\sqrt{2\pi}}{4} \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{3\pi}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}$$

Thus $|\psi_0\rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} (2|\Phi_0\rangle + |\Phi_2\rangle + |\Phi_{-2}\rangle)$

4 -

0 can be measured with probability $|\langle \Phi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle|^2 = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}$

+2ħ $|\langle \Phi_2 | \psi_0 \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{6}$

-2ħ $|\langle \Phi_{-2} | \psi_0 \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{6}$

5 - $\langle \hat{L}_z \rangle_{\psi_0} = \langle \psi_0 | \hat{L}_z | \psi_0 \rangle$ where $\langle \psi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle = 1$

$$= \langle \psi_0 | \left(\frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} \hat{L}_z |\Phi_0\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \hat{L}_z |\Phi_2\rangle + \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \hat{L}_z |\Phi_{-2}\rangle \right)$$

0
 $2\hbar |\Phi_2\rangle$
 $-2\hbar |\Phi_{-2}\rangle$

$$\langle \hat{L}_z \rangle_{\psi_0} = \frac{2\hbar}{\sqrt{6}} \underbrace{\langle \psi_0 | \Phi_0 \rangle}_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}} - \frac{2\hbar}{\sqrt{6}} \underbrace{\langle \psi_0 | \Phi_{-2} \rangle}_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}}$$

$\langle \hat{L}_z \rangle_{\psi_0} = 0$

Comment: Let A be an observable and \hat{A} its corresponding Hermitian operator. We denote $\{|\mu_i\rangle\}_i$ an orthonormal basis of eigenvectors of \hat{A} .

At time t_0 the quantum state $|\psi_0\rangle$

can be written in the basis $\{|\mu_i\rangle\}_i$ as follows

$$|\psi_0\rangle = \sum_i C_i |\mu_i\rangle \quad \text{where } \hat{A} |\mu_i\rangle = a_i |\mu_i\rangle \quad \text{and}$$

$\langle \psi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle = 1$. The expectation value of \hat{A} for the state $|\psi_0\rangle$

can be written as

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \hat{A} \rangle_{\psi_0} &= \langle \psi_0 | \hat{A} | \psi_0 \rangle = \sum_i C_i \langle \psi_0 | \hat{A} | \mu_i \rangle \\ &= \sum_i C_i a_i \langle \psi_0 | \mu_i \rangle \end{aligned}$$

Since $\langle \mu_j | \psi_0 \rangle = \sum_i C_i \underbrace{\langle \mu_j | \mu_i \rangle}_{\delta_{ij}} = C_j \quad \forall j$

$$\langle \psi_0 | \mu_i \rangle = \langle \mu_i | \psi_0 \rangle^* = C_i^*$$

Therefore $\langle \hat{A} \rangle_{\psi_0} = \sum_i |C_i|^2 a_i = \sum_i P_i a_i = \langle \hat{A} \rangle_{\psi_0}$

where $P_i = |C_i|^2 = |\langle \mu_i | \psi_0 \rangle|^2$ is the probability of being in state $|\mu_i\rangle$ at time t_0 .

We can apply directly this formula for \hat{L}_z

$$\Rightarrow \langle \hat{L}_z \rangle_{\psi_0} = 0 \times \frac{2}{3} + 2\hbar \times \frac{1}{6} - 2\hbar \times \frac{1}{6} = 0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{L}_z^2 |4_0\rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{6}} \left(2 \hat{L}_z^2 |\Phi_0\rangle + \underbrace{\hat{L}_z^2 |\Phi_2\rangle}_{(2\hbar)^2 |\Phi_2\rangle} + \underbrace{\hat{L}_z^2 |\Phi_{-2}\rangle}_{(-2\hbar)^2 |\Phi_{-2}\rangle} \right) \\ &= \frac{4\hbar^2}{\sqrt{6}} (|\Phi_2\rangle + |\Phi_{-2}\rangle) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \hat{L}_z^2 \rangle_{4_0} &= \langle 4_0 | \hat{L}_z^2 |4_0\rangle = \frac{4\hbar^2}{\sqrt{6}} \left(\underbrace{\langle 4_0 | \Phi_2 \rangle}_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}} + \underbrace{\langle 4_0 | \Phi_{-2} \rangle}_{\frac{1}{\sqrt{6}}} \right) \\ &= \frac{4\hbar^2}{\sqrt{6}} \cdot \frac{2}{\sqrt{6}} = \frac{8\hbar^2}{6} = \frac{4\hbar^2}{3} \end{aligned}$$

Comment: We can therefore calculate the standard deviation for the angular momentum projection L_z at time t_0

$$\begin{aligned} (\Delta L_z)_{4_0}^2 &= \frac{4}{3} \hbar^2 \Rightarrow (\Delta L_z)_{4_0} = \frac{2\hbar}{\sqrt{3}} \\ &= \langle \hat{L}_z^2 \rangle_{4_0} - \langle \hat{L}_z \rangle_{4_0}^2 \end{aligned}$$

Ecart type et interprétation

$$1. \langle \psi | (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi})^2 | \psi \rangle = \langle (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi})^{\dagger} \psi | \hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi} | \psi \rangle$$

Définition de l'opérateur adjoint

Formules utiles:

$$\textcircled{1} \forall |\psi\rangle, |\varphi\rangle \quad \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \varphi \rangle = \langle \hat{A}^{\dagger} \psi | \varphi \rangle = \langle \psi | \hat{A}^{\dagger} | \varphi \rangle^*$$

$$\begin{aligned} \textcircled{2} \forall |\psi\rangle, |\varphi\rangle \quad \langle \psi | \hat{A} + \hat{B} | \varphi \rangle &= \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \varphi \rangle + \langle \psi | \hat{B} | \varphi \rangle \\ &= \langle \hat{A}^{\dagger} \psi | \varphi \rangle + \langle \hat{B}^{\dagger} \psi | \varphi \rangle \\ &= \langle (\hat{A}^{\dagger} + \hat{B}^{\dagger}) \psi | \varphi \rangle \\ &= \langle (\hat{A} + \hat{B})^{\dagger} \psi | \varphi \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{soit } \boxed{(\hat{A} + \hat{B})^{\dagger} = \hat{A}^{\dagger} + \hat{B}^{\dagger}}$$

$$\textcircled{3} \forall \alpha \in \mathbb{C}, \forall |\psi\rangle, |\varphi\rangle$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \alpha \hat{A} | \varphi \rangle &= \alpha \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \varphi \rangle = \alpha \langle \hat{A}^{\dagger} \psi | \varphi \rangle \\ &= \langle \alpha^* \hat{A}^{\dagger} \psi | \varphi \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{soit } \boxed{(\alpha \hat{A})^{\dagger} = \alpha^* \hat{A}^{\dagger}}$$

$\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi}$ est une notation simple pour $\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi} \hat{\mathbb{1}}$ ^{1) ET}

$\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi} \hat{\mathbb{1}}$ opérateur identité ($\hat{\mathbb{1}}|\psi\rangle = |\psi\rangle$)

D'après la formule $\textcircled{2}$

$$\begin{aligned} (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi} \hat{\mathbb{1}})^{\dagger} &= \hat{A}^{\dagger} + (-\langle A \rangle_{\psi} \hat{\mathbb{1}})^{\dagger} \\ &= \hat{A}^{\dagger} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi}^* \hat{\mathbb{1}}^{\dagger} \leftarrow \text{formule } \textcircled{3} \\ &= \hat{A}^{\dagger} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi} \hat{\mathbb{1}} \end{aligned}$$

Comme \hat{A} est hermitique $\hat{A}^{\dagger} = \hat{A}$ et

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A \rangle_{\psi}^* &= \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle^* = \langle \hat{A} \psi | \psi \rangle \\ &= \langle \hat{A}^{\dagger} \psi | \psi \rangle \\ &= \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle \\ &= \langle A \rangle_{\psi} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{donc } (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi})^{\dagger} = \hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{et } \langle \psi | (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi})^2 | \psi \rangle &= \langle (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi}) \psi | (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi}) \psi \rangle \\ &= \| (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi}) \psi \|^2 \geq 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\bullet \text{ Comme } (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_{\psi})^2 = \hat{A}^2 - 2\langle A \rangle_{\psi} \hat{A} + \langle A \rangle_{\psi}^2$$

il vient

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_\psi)^2 | \psi \rangle &= \langle \psi | \hat{A}^2 | \psi \rangle - 2 \langle A \rangle_\psi \underbrace{\langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle}_{\langle A \rangle_\psi} \\ &\quad + \underbrace{\langle A \rangle_\psi^2}_{1} \langle \psi | \psi \rangle \\ &= \langle A^2 \rangle_\psi - 2 \langle A \rangle_\psi^2 + \langle A \rangle_\psi^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{donc } \langle A^2 \rangle_\psi - \langle A \rangle_\psi^2 = \langle \psi | (\hat{A} - \langle A \rangle_\psi)^2 | \psi \rangle \geq 0$$

L'écart type est donc bien défini.

$$2. \hat{A} | \psi_a \rangle = a | \psi_a \rangle \Rightarrow \langle \psi_a | \hat{A} | \psi_a \rangle = \langle A \rangle_{\psi_a} = a \langle \psi_a | \psi_a \rangle = a$$

(car $|\psi_a\rangle$ est normé)

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{A}^2 | \psi_a \rangle &= \hat{A} (\hat{A} | \psi_a \rangle) = a \hat{A} | \psi_a \rangle = a^2 | \psi_a \rangle \\ \Rightarrow \langle \psi_a | \hat{A}^2 | \psi_a \rangle &= a^2 \langle \psi_a | \psi_a \rangle = a^2 = \langle A^2 \rangle_{\psi_a} = \langle A \rangle_{\psi_a}^2 \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{soit } (\Delta A)_{\psi_a} = 0$$

$$3. | \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\delta^2}} (| \psi_a \rangle + \delta | \psi_b \rangle)$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \psi | \psi \rangle &= \frac{1}{(1+\delta^2)} \langle \psi_a + \delta \psi_b | \psi_a + \delta \psi_b \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{(1+\delta^2)} \left[\underbrace{\langle \psi_a | \psi_a \rangle}_1 + \underbrace{\delta \langle \psi_a | \psi_b \rangle}_0 + \underbrace{\delta^* \langle \psi_b | \psi_a \rangle}_0 + \underbrace{\delta^2 \langle \psi_b | \psi_b \rangle}_1 \right] \end{aligned}$$

2/ET

$$\text{soit } \langle \psi | \psi \rangle = 1.$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{A} | \psi \rangle &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\delta^2}} (\hat{A} | \psi_a \rangle + \delta \hat{A} | \psi_b \rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\delta^2}} (a | \psi_a \rangle + \delta b | \psi_b \rangle) \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \langle A \rangle_\psi &= \langle \psi | \hat{A} | \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{1+\delta^2} \langle \psi_a + \delta \psi_b | a \psi_a + \delta b \psi_b \rangle \\ &= \frac{1}{1+\delta^2} \left[a \langle \psi_a | \psi_a \rangle + \delta b \langle \psi_a | \psi_b \rangle \right. \\ &\quad \left. + \delta^* a \langle \psi_b | \psi_a \rangle + \underbrace{|\delta|^2}_{\delta^2} b \langle \psi_b | \psi_b \rangle \right] \end{aligned}$$

car δ est réel

$$\text{donc } \langle A \rangle_\psi = \frac{a + b \delta^2}{1 + \delta^2}$$

$$\langle A \rangle_\psi^2 = \frac{a^2 + 2ab\delta^2 + b^2\delta^4}{(1+\delta^2)^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \hat{A}^2 | \psi \rangle &= \hat{A} (\hat{A} | \psi \rangle) \\ &= \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\delta^2}} (a \hat{A} | \psi_a \rangle + \delta b \hat{A} | \psi_b \rangle) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{soit } \hat{A}^2 | \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1+\delta^2}} (a^2 | \psi_a \rangle + \delta b^2 | \psi_b \rangle)$$

$$\langle \psi | \hat{A}^2 | \psi \rangle = \frac{1}{(1+\delta^2)} \langle \psi_a + \delta \psi_b | a^2 \psi_a + \delta b^2 \psi_b \rangle$$

$$\langle A^2 \rangle_\psi = \frac{1}{(1+\delta^2)} [a^2 + b^2 \delta^2]$$

$$\text{D'où } (\Delta A)_\psi^2 = \frac{1}{(1+\delta^2)^2} \left[\underbrace{(a^2 + b^2 \delta^2)(1+\delta^2)}_{\substack{a^2 + \delta^2 a^2 + b^2 \delta^2 \\ + b^2 \delta^4}} - \cancel{a^2} - \cancel{2ab\delta^2} - \cancel{b^2 \delta^4} \right]$$

Ainsi

$$(\Delta A)_\psi^2 = \frac{1}{(1+\delta^2)^2} [\delta^2] (a^2 + b^2 - 2ab) = \frac{\delta^2 (a-b)^2}{(1+\delta^2)^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{(\Delta A)_\psi = \frac{\delta |a-b|}{(1+\delta^2)}}$$

$|\psi\rangle$ n'est état propre de \hat{A} que lorsque $\delta=0$

ou $\delta \rightarrow \infty$ puisque $a \neq b$. Dans ces deux situations, le résultat de la mesure de A est connu.

Ce sera a ($\delta=0$) ou b ($\delta \rightarrow \infty$). Pour $0 < \delta < \infty$, la probabilité de mesurer a est $|\langle \psi_a | \psi \rangle|^2 = \frac{1}{1+\delta^2}$

et celle de mesurer b est $|\langle \psi_b | \psi \rangle|^2 = \frac{\delta^2}{1+\delta^2}$, et

$$(\Delta A)_\psi \neq 0$$

Il rend compte de l'incertitude avant la mesure.

Relations d'incertitude d'Heisenberg

1. Mesurer simultanément x et p_x revient à dire que, juste après la mesure, x et p_x sont connus et donc qu'il n'y a aucune incertitude sur leurs valeurs. Ainsi le système (ici la particule) serait dans un état quantique $|\psi\rangle$ tel que $(\Delta x)_\psi = 0$ ET $(\Delta p_x)_\psi = 0$

Soit $(\Delta x)_\psi (\Delta p_x)_\psi = 0$ ← impossible d'après la relation d'incertitude d'Heisenberg.

2. $N(\alpha) = \langle \psi(\alpha) | \psi(\alpha) \rangle = \langle \hat{\Delta}(\alpha) \psi | \hat{\Delta}(\alpha) \psi \rangle$

où $\hat{\Delta}(\alpha) = \hat{p}_x - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi + i\alpha (\hat{x} - \langle x \rangle_\psi)$

Formule utile: \hat{A} opérateurs quelconque.

$$\begin{aligned} \forall |\psi\rangle, |\varphi\rangle \quad \langle \hat{A} \psi | \varphi \rangle &= \langle \psi | \hat{A}^\dagger \varphi \rangle^* \\ &= (\langle \psi | \hat{A}^\dagger \varphi \rangle)^* \\ &= \langle \varphi | \hat{A} \psi \rangle \end{aligned}$$

donc $\boxed{(\hat{A}^\dagger)^\dagger = \hat{A}}$

Ainsi $N(\alpha) = \langle \psi | \hat{\Delta}^\dagger(\alpha) \hat{\Delta}(\alpha) | \psi \rangle$

où $\hat{\Delta}^\dagger(\alpha) = \hat{p}_x^\dagger - \underbrace{\langle p_x \rangle_\psi^*}_{\langle p_x \rangle_\psi} - i\alpha^* (\hat{x}^\dagger - \underbrace{\langle x \rangle_\psi^*}_{\langle x \rangle_\psi})$

\hat{p}_x $\langle p_x \rangle_\psi$ \hat{x} $\langle x \rangle_\psi$

α puisque α est réel

soit $\hat{\Delta}^\dagger(\alpha) = \hat{p}_x - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi - i\alpha (\hat{x} - \langle x \rangle_\psi)$ 1/4.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{et } \hat{\Delta}^\dagger(\alpha) \hat{\Delta}(\alpha) &= (\hat{p}_x - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi - i\alpha (\hat{x} - \langle x \rangle_\psi)) \\ &\quad \cdot (\hat{p}_x - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi + i\alpha (\hat{x} - \langle x \rangle_\psi)) \\ &= \hat{p}_x^2 - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi \hat{p}_x + i\alpha (\hat{p}_x \hat{x} - \langle x \rangle_\psi \hat{p}_x) \\ &\quad - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi \hat{p}_x + \langle p_x \rangle_\psi^2 - i\alpha (\langle p_x \rangle_\psi \hat{x} - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi \langle x \rangle_\psi) \\ &\quad + \alpha^2 (\hat{x}^2 - 2\langle x \rangle_\psi \hat{x} + \langle x \rangle_\psi^2) \\ &\quad - i\alpha (\hat{x} - \langle x \rangle_\psi) (\hat{p}_x - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi) \end{aligned}$$

donc

$$\begin{aligned} N(\alpha) &= \underbrace{\langle p_x^2 \rangle_\psi}_{\langle p_x \rangle_\psi^2} - \underbrace{\langle p_x \rangle_\psi^2} + i\alpha \langle \psi | \hat{p}_x \hat{x} | \psi \rangle \\ &\quad - i\alpha \langle x \rangle_\psi \langle p_x \rangle_\psi - \langle p_x \rangle_\psi^2 + \langle p_x \rangle_\psi^2 \\ &\quad - i\alpha \langle p_x \rangle_\psi \langle x \rangle_\psi + i\alpha \langle p_x \rangle_\psi \langle x \rangle_\psi \\ &\quad + \alpha^2 \langle x^2 \rangle_\psi - 2\alpha^2 \langle x \rangle_\psi^2 + \alpha^2 \langle x \rangle_\psi^2 \\ &\quad - i\alpha \langle \psi | \hat{x} \hat{p}_x | \psi \rangle + i\alpha \langle p_x \rangle_\psi \langle x \rangle_\psi \\ &\quad + i\alpha \langle x \rangle_\psi \langle p_x \rangle_\psi - i\alpha \langle x \rangle_\psi \langle p_x \rangle_\psi \end{aligned}$$

$$N(\alpha) = (\Delta p_x)_\psi^2 + \alpha^2 (\Delta x)_\psi^2 + i\alpha \langle \psi | \hat{p}_x \hat{x} - \hat{x} \hat{p}_x | \psi \rangle$$

$$N(\alpha) = (\Delta x)_\psi^2 \alpha^2 - i\alpha \langle \psi | [\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] | \psi \rangle + (\Delta p_x)_\psi^2$$

3. Comme $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_x] = i\hbar$

$$N(\alpha) = (\Delta x)_\psi^2 \alpha^2 + \alpha\hbar + (\Delta p_x)_\psi^2$$

$$= (\Delta x)_\psi^2 \left[\alpha^2 + \frac{\hbar\alpha}{(\Delta x)_\psi^2} + \frac{(\Delta p_x)_\psi^2}{(\Delta x)_\psi^2} \right]$$

$$= (\Delta x)_\psi^2 \left[\left(\alpha + \frac{\hbar}{2(\Delta x)_\psi^2} \right)^2 + \frac{(\Delta p_x)_\psi^2}{(\Delta x)_\psi^2} - \frac{\hbar^2}{4(\Delta x)_\psi^2} \right]$$

donc

$$N(\alpha) = (\Delta x)_\psi^2 \left[\left(\alpha + \frac{\hbar}{2(\Delta x)_\psi^2} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{(\Delta x)_\psi^2} \left[(\Delta p_x)_\psi^2 - \frac{\hbar^2}{4(\Delta x)_\psi^2} \right] \right]$$

$$N\left(-\frac{\hbar}{2(\Delta x)_\psi^2}\right) = (\Delta p_x)_\psi^2 - \frac{\hbar^2}{4(\Delta x)_\psi^2} \geq 0$$

↑ puisque $N(\alpha) = \langle \psi(\alpha) | \psi(\alpha) \rangle$

norme au carré!

d'où $(\Delta p_x)_\psi^2 \geq \frac{\hbar^2}{4(\Delta x)_\psi^2} \Rightarrow (\Delta p_x)_\psi^2 (\Delta x)_\psi^2 \geq \frac{\hbar^2}{4}$

soit

$$(\Delta x)_\psi (\Delta p_x)_\psi \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

Tutorial - Hydrogen atom

$$a) \frac{-\hbar^2}{2me} \nabla^2 \psi(\vec{r}) - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \psi(\vec{r}) = E \psi(\vec{r})$$

energy
wave function

$$b) \psi_{1s}(\vec{r}) = \underbrace{\frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} a_0^{3/2}}}_{\text{Constant}} e^{-r/a_0} \bar{\psi}_{1s}(\vec{r})$$

$$\frac{\partial}{\partial x} e^{-r/a_0} = -\frac{1}{a_0} \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} e^{-r/a_0}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} e^{-r/a_0} = -\frac{1}{a_0} \left[e^{-r/a_0} \frac{\partial^2 r}{\partial x^2} - \frac{1}{a_0} \left(\frac{\partial r}{\partial x} \right)^2 e^{-r/a_0} \right]$$

$$\text{where } \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} = \frac{1}{2} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (x^2 + y^2 + z^2)^{-1/2} = \frac{x}{r}$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial^2 r}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{r} + x \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \left(\frac{1}{r} \right) = \frac{1}{r} - x \frac{\partial r}{\partial x} \frac{1}{r^2} = \frac{1}{r} - \frac{x^2}{r^3}$$

$$\text{Therefore } \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} e^{-r/a_0} = -\frac{1}{a_0} e^{-r/a_0} \left[\frac{1}{r} - \frac{x^2}{r^3} - \frac{1}{a_0} \frac{x^2}{r^2} \right]$$

$$\text{Similarly we obtain } \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} e^{-r/a_0} = -\frac{1}{a_0} e^{-r/a_0} \left[\frac{1}{r} - \frac{y^2}{r^3} - \frac{1}{a_0} \frac{y^2}{r^2} \right]$$

$$\text{and } \frac{\partial^2 e^{-r/a_0}}{\partial z^2} = -\frac{1}{a_0} e^{-r/a_0} \left[\frac{1}{r} - \frac{z^2}{r^3} - \frac{z^2}{a_0 r^2} \right] \quad //H$$

thus leading to

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{-\hbar^2}{2me} \nabla^2 \bar{\psi}_{1s}(\vec{r}) &= +\frac{\hbar^2}{2me a_0} e^{-r/a_0} \left[\frac{3}{r} - \frac{r^2}{r^3} - \frac{r^2}{a_0 r^2} \right] \\ &= \frac{\hbar^2 e^{-r/a_0}}{2me a_0} \left(\frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a_0} \right) \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Moreover } a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{m_e e^2}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2me} \nabla^2 - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \right] \bar{\psi}_{1s}(\vec{r}) &= \frac{1}{2} \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \left(\frac{2}{r} - \frac{1}{a_0} \right) \bar{\psi}_{1s}(\vec{r}) \\ &\quad - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \bar{\psi}_{1s}(\vec{r}) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 a_0} \bar{\psi}_{1s}(\vec{r}) \end{aligned}$$

Conclusion:

$$\begin{aligned} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2me} \nabla^2 - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \right] \psi_{1s}(\vec{r}) &= -\frac{e^2}{2(4\pi\epsilon_0) a_0} \psi_{1s}(\vec{r}) \\ &= -\frac{1}{2} \frac{m_e e^4}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 \hbar^2} = -E_I \end{aligned}$$

c) $\psi_{1s}(\vec{r}=\vec{0}) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi} a_0^{3/2}} \Rightarrow |\psi_{1s}(\vec{r}=\vec{0})|^2 = \frac{1}{\pi a_0^3} \neq 0$

We may be tempted to interpret this non-zero value as a non-zero probability of finding the electron at the nucleus, which is a bit strange. This point is discussed in the following.

d) Normalization condition:

$$\int_0^{+\infty} \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} |\psi(r, \theta, \varphi)|^2 r^2 \sin\theta dr d\theta d\varphi = 1$$

$dP(r, \theta, \varphi)$ ← probability

to find the electron "at position (r, θ, φ) "

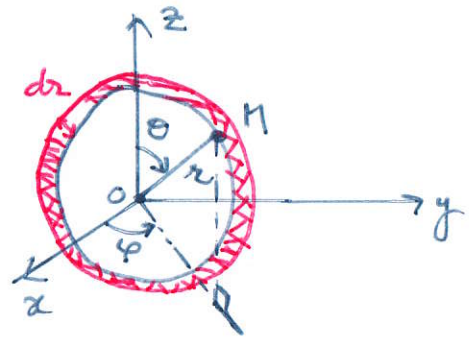
• If we integrate partially in r' , for example for $0 \leq r' \leq r$, but fully in θ and φ , then

$$P(r) = \int_0^r dr' \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} |\psi(r', \theta, \varphi)|^2 r'^2 \sin\theta dr' d\theta d\varphi$$

Corresponds to the probability of finding the electron in the sphere centered at the origin of the frame O and with radius r .

• $dP(r) = P(r+dr) - P(r) = \frac{dP(r)}{dr} dr$

probability of finding the electron at a distance between $r+dr$ and r from the nucleus. (red zone on the figure)



Note that

$$\int_0^{+\infty} dP(r) = \int_0^{+\infty} \frac{dP(r)}{dr} dr = P(+\infty) - P(0) = 1 - 0$$

it is a radial density of probability since, once multiplied by dr and integrated over all possible distances, it gives 1 (normalization condition).

e) $P_{1s}(r) = \int_0^r dr' \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{e^{-2r'/a_0}}{\pi a_0^3} r'^2 \sin\theta dr' d\theta d\varphi$

$$= \frac{4}{a_0^3} \int_0^r dr' e^{-2r'/a_0} r'^2$$

$$\Rightarrow P_{1s}(r) = \frac{dP_{1s}(r)}{dr} = \frac{4}{a_0^3} r^2 e^{-2r/a_0}$$

$P_{1s}(0) = 0$ ← the electron cannot be at the nucleus :-)

Maximum of $\rho_{1s}(r)$: $\frac{d\rho_{1s}}{dr} = 0 = e^{-2r/a_0} \left[2r - \frac{2}{a_0} r^2 \right] = 2e^{-2r/a_0} r \left(1 - \frac{r}{a_0} \right)$

$\Rightarrow r = a_0$ ← like in Bohr's model

Conclusion: The $2p_z$ orbital will be represented by the following parametrized surface:

$\theta, \varphi \mapsto M(\underbrace{\cos \theta}_{r(\theta, \varphi)}, \theta, \varphi)$

f) ψ_{1s} and ψ_{2s} do not vary with θ and φ . They only depend on $r \rightarrow$ They have spherical symmetry.

$\rho_{2s}(r) = \frac{dP_{2s}(r)}{dr} = \int_0^\pi \int_0^{2\pi} \frac{e^{-r/a_0}}{32\pi a_0^3} \left(2 - \frac{r}{a_0} \right)^2 r^2 \sin \theta d\theta d\varphi$

$\rho_{2s}(r) = \frac{1}{8a_0} e^{-r/a_0} \left(2 - \frac{r}{a_0} \right)^2 \left(\frac{r}{a_0} \right)^2$

$r(\theta, \varphi) = r(\theta)$ ← invariance by rotation around the z axis

$r(\pi - \theta) = |\cos(\pi - \theta)| = |\cos \theta| = r(\theta)$

\Rightarrow Symmetry with respect to the xOy plane.

The $1s$ orbital has no nodes.
The $2s$ orbital has one node (at $r = 2a_0$).
A node corresponds to a change of sign in the wavefunction \rightarrow it ensures that $1s$ and $2s$ orbitals are orthogonal.



g) $\psi_{2p_z}(\vec{r}) = \frac{e^{-r/2a_0}}{4\sqrt{2\pi} a_0^{3/2}} \frac{r \cos \theta}{a_0}$

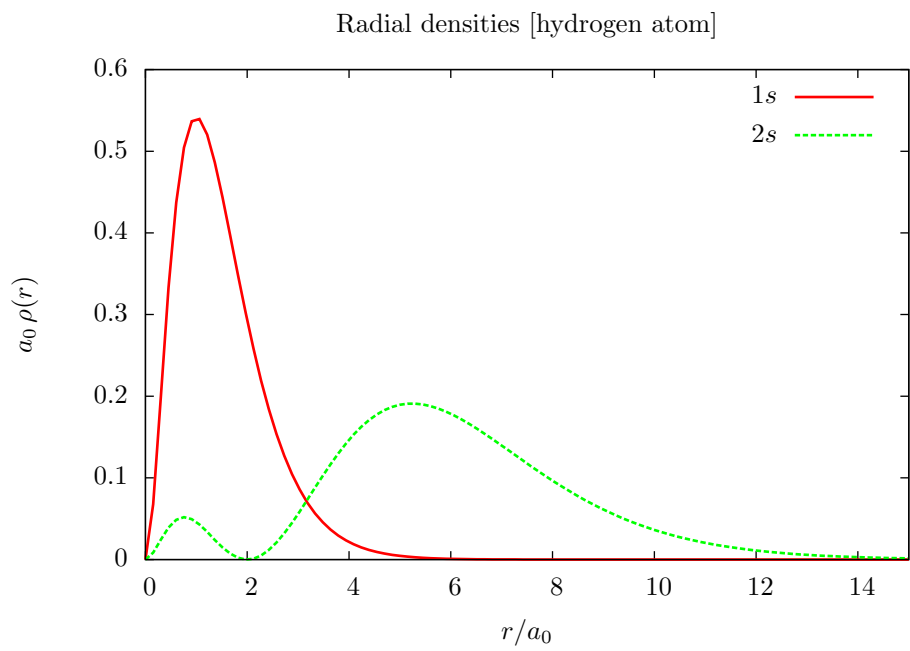
$OM = \frac{z}{\cos \theta} = \frac{z}{OM}$

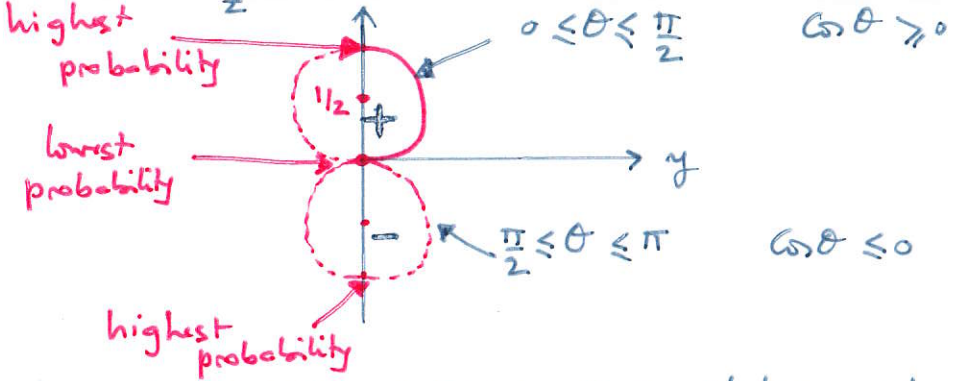
if M belongs to the surface representing $2p_z$.

$\Rightarrow |\psi_{2p_z}(r, \theta, \varphi)| \sim |\cos \theta|$
means it is proportional to ...
(the coefficient is a constant as it does not depend on θ and φ)

$\Rightarrow OM^2 = y^2 + z^2 = z \Rightarrow y^2 + \left(z - \frac{1}{2} \right)^2 = \frac{1}{4}$

This is the equation of a circle centered in $(y=0, z=\frac{1}{2})$ with radius $\frac{1}{2}$.





Lowest probability of finding the $2p_z$ electron: when $r(\theta) = 0 \Rightarrow$ in the xOy plane
 $\Rightarrow \theta = \pi/2$
 Highest probability " : when $r(\theta) = 1 \Rightarrow$ along the z axis
 $\Rightarrow \theta = 0$ or π

Complement:

i) $\hat{H}(z)|\psi(z)\rangle = E(z)|\psi(z)\rangle \Rightarrow E(z) \underbrace{\langle \psi(z) | \psi(z) \rangle}_1 = \langle \psi(z) | \hat{H}(z) | \psi(z) \rangle$

$\Rightarrow \boxed{E(z) = \langle \psi(z) | \hat{H}(z) | \psi(z) \rangle}$

$$\frac{dE(z)}{dz} = \underbrace{\langle \psi(z) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}(z)}{\partial z} | \psi(z) \rangle}_{E(z) \langle \frac{d\psi(z)}{dz} | \psi(z) \rangle} + \underbrace{\langle \frac{d\psi(z)}{dz} | \hat{H}(z) | \psi(z) \rangle}_{\langle \hat{H}(z) \psi(z) | \frac{d\psi(z)}{dz} \rangle} + \underbrace{\langle \psi(z) | \hat{H}(z) | \frac{d\psi(z)}{dz} \rangle}_{E^*(z) \langle \psi(z) | \frac{d\psi(z)}{dz} \rangle}$$

$\underbrace{\langle \frac{d\psi(z)}{dz} | \psi(z) \rangle}_0 \quad \underbrace{\langle \psi(z) | \frac{d\psi(z)}{dz} \rangle}_1 \quad \underbrace{\langle \psi(z) | \frac{d\psi(z)}{dz} \rangle}_{E(z)}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{dE(z)}{dz} = \langle \psi(z) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}(z)}{\partial z} | \psi(z) \rangle + E(z) \underbrace{\frac{d}{dz} \langle \psi(z) | \psi(z) \rangle}_0 \Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{dE(z)}{dz} = \langle \psi(z) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}(z)}{\partial z} | \psi(z) \rangle}$

j)
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2me} \nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 \psi(z, \vec{r}) - \frac{ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \psi(z, \vec{r}) = E(z) \psi(z, \vec{r}) \quad (1)$$

Change of variables: $\vec{r} = z\vec{r}' \Rightarrow \vec{r}' = z\vec{r}$

Definition: $\psi(z, \vec{r}) = \psi(z, \frac{\vec{r}'}{z}) = \tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') = \tilde{\psi}(z, z\vec{r})$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi(z, \vec{r}) = \frac{\partial}{\partial x} (\tilde{\psi}(z, z\vec{r})) = z \frac{\partial}{\partial \tilde{x}} (\tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}')) \Big|_{\vec{r}' = z\vec{r}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \psi(z, \vec{r}) = z^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \tilde{x}^2} (\tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}')) \Big|_{\vec{r}' = z\vec{r}}$$

Similarly we obtain $\nabla_{\vec{r}}^2 \psi(z, \vec{r}) = z^2 \nabla_{\vec{r}'}^2 \tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') \Big|_{\vec{r}' = z\vec{r}}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-\hbar^2 z^2}{2me} \nabla_{\vec{r}'}^2 \tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') - \frac{z^2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 z} \tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') = E(z) \tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') \quad (1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{-\hbar^2}{2me} \nabla_{\vec{r}'}^2 \tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 z} \tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') = \frac{E(z)}{z^2} \tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') \quad (2)$$

Conclusion: $\frac{E(z)}{z^2} = E(1) \leftarrow$ spectrum of the hydrogen atom.

$\tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') = \psi(1, \vec{r}') \leftarrow$ corresponding eigenfunction *

* In fact $\tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}') = C \psi(1, \vec{r}') \quad \text{Eq. (2)}$
 \downarrow normalization factor.

$$\langle \psi(z) | \psi(z) \rangle = 1 = \int d\vec{r} |\psi(z, \vec{r})|^2 = \int d\vec{r}' |\psi(1, \vec{r}')|^2 = \int d\vec{r}' |\tilde{\psi}(z, z\vec{r}')|^2 = \int d\vec{r}' \frac{|\tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}')|^2}{z^3}$$

change of variables

$\vec{r} \rightarrow \vec{r}' = z\vec{r}$

Thus leading to (according to Eq. (2))

$$\int d\vec{r}' |\psi(1, \vec{r}')|^2 = \frac{C^2}{z^3} \int d\vec{r}' |\tilde{\psi}(z, \vec{r}')|^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{C = z^{3/2}}$$

\leftarrow Schrödinger equation for the hydrogen atom ($z=1$) !

Conclusion: $\tilde{\Psi}(z, \vec{r}) = z^{3/2} \psi(1, z\vec{r})$

for $\vec{r} = z\vec{r}'$ we finally obtain

$$\tilde{\Psi}(z, z\vec{r}') = \psi(z, \vec{r}') = z^{3/2} \psi(1, z\vec{r}')$$

The 1s orbital in the hydrogen-like atom can therefore be expressed as

$$\psi_{1s}(z, \vec{r}) = \left(\frac{z}{a_0}\right)^{3/2} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-zr/a_0}$$

The energy is quantized as $E_n = -\frac{E_I}{n^2} \leftarrow E(1)$ in the hydrogen atom. It is therefore quantized as follows in the hydrogen-like atom

$$E_n(z) = -\frac{z^2 E_I}{n^2} \quad \text{Eq. (3)}$$

$$H(z) |\psi_n(z)\rangle = E_n(z) |\psi_n(z)\rangle$$

According to the Hellmann-Feynman theorem

$$\frac{dE_n(z)}{dz} = \langle \psi_n(z) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}(z)}{\partial z} | \psi_n(z) \rangle = -\frac{2z E_I}{n^2}$$

↑
according to Eq. (3)

$$\text{Therefore } \left\langle \frac{1}{r} \right\rangle_{\psi_n(z)} = \langle \psi_n(z) | \frac{1}{r} | \psi_n(z) \rangle = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0}{e^2} \times \frac{2z E_I}{n^2}$$

Since $E_I = \frac{m_e e^4}{2(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2 \hbar^2} = \frac{e^2}{2(4\pi\epsilon_0)} \frac{1}{a_0}$

it comes

$$\left\langle \frac{1}{r} \right\rangle_{\psi_n(z)} = \frac{z}{n^2 a_0}$$

If the electron occupies the orbital $\psi_n(z)$, its distance from the nucleus "is" about $\frac{n^2 a_0}{z}$.

• According to Eq. (4)

$$\langle \psi_n(z) | \frac{-ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} | \psi_n(z) \rangle$$

$$= +2 E_n(z) \quad \leftarrow \text{Virial theorem!}$$

Thus leading to

$$\left\langle \frac{p^2}{2me} \right\rangle_{\psi_n(z)} = \langle \psi_n(z) | -\frac{\hbar^2 \nabla^2}{2me} | \psi_n(z) \rangle$$

$$= E_n(z) - \langle \psi_n(z) | \frac{-ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} | \psi_n(z) \rangle$$

$$= -E_n(z) = +\frac{z^2 E_I}{n^2}$$

← Eq. (4)

7/4

$$\text{Since } E_I = \frac{1}{2} m_e c^2 \underbrace{\left[\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar c} \right]^2}_{\alpha^2}$$

it comes

$$\frac{\langle p^2/2m_e \rangle \psi_n(z)}{m_e c^2/2m_e} = \frac{2z^2 E_I}{n^2 m_e c^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{\langle p^2/2m_e \rangle \psi_n(z)}{m_e c^2/2m_e} = \frac{(z\alpha)^2}{n^2}}$$

↓
 can be interpreted as $\left(\frac{v_h}{c} \right)^2$ velocity from a classical point of view.

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{v_h}{c} = \frac{z\alpha}{n}}$$

When $z \sim 100$ relativistic effects become huge.

The Schrödinger equation is not valid anymore.

The (relativistic) Dirac equation should be used instead.

L'oscillateur harmonique (11)

1-a) $E_{tot} = \frac{1}{2m} p_a^2 + \frac{1}{2} k a^2$ $\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}_a^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} k \hat{x}^2 = \frac{\hat{p}_a^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} \omega^2 m \hat{x}^2$

b) $\hat{x} = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{k}} \hat{a}$; $\hat{p}_a = \frac{1}{\sqrt{m k \omega}} \hat{p}_a$; $\hat{H} = k\omega \left(\frac{1}{2} \hat{p}_a^2 + \frac{1}{2} \hat{x}^2 \right)$

$[\hat{a}, \hat{p}_a] \psi = \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{k}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{m k \omega}} \frac{k}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial a} \psi(a) - \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{k}} \frac{1}{\sqrt{m k \omega}} \frac{k}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial a} (a \psi(a))$
 $= -\frac{1}{i} \psi(a) = i \psi(a) \Rightarrow [\hat{x}, \hat{p}_a] = i$

c) Rappel: $(\hat{A} + \hat{B})^\dagger = \hat{A}^\dagger + \hat{B}^\dagger$; $(\hat{A} + i\hat{B})^\dagger = \hat{A}^\dagger - i\hat{B}^\dagger$; $(\hat{A}\hat{B})^\dagger = \hat{B}^\dagger \hat{A}^\dagger$

\hat{x} et \hat{p}_a hermitiques donc $\hat{x}^\dagger = \hat{x}$ et $\hat{p}_a^\dagger = \hat{p}_a$

$(\hat{a})^\dagger = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{x}^\dagger + i\hat{p}_a^\dagger) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{x} + i\hat{p}_a) = \hat{a}^\dagger$ \hat{a} et \hat{a}^\dagger sont adjoints

$[\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger] \psi(a) = \left[\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{x} + i\hat{p}_a), \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} (\hat{x} - i\hat{p}_a) - \frac{1}{2} (\hat{x} - i\hat{p}_a)(\hat{x} + i\hat{p}_a) \right] \psi(a)$
 $= \frac{1}{2} (\hat{x}^2 \psi(a) + i\hat{p}_a \hat{x} \psi(a) - i\hat{x} \hat{p}_a \psi(a) + \hat{p}_a^2 \psi(a))$
 $- \frac{1}{2} (\hat{x}^2 \psi(a) - i\hat{p}_a \hat{x} \psi(a) + i\hat{x} \hat{p}_a \psi(a) + \hat{p}_a^2 \psi(a))$
 $= i [\hat{p}_a, \hat{x}] \psi(a) = i(-i) \psi(a) = \psi(a) \Rightarrow [\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger] = 1$

\hat{a} et \hat{a}^\dagger ne sont pas hermitiques \Rightarrow pas associés à des observables

d) $\hat{N} = \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}$, $\hat{N}^\dagger = (\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a})^\dagger = \hat{a} (\hat{a}^\dagger)^\dagger = \hat{a} \hat{a}^\dagger = \hat{N}$
 $\Rightarrow \hat{N}$ est hermitique

$\hat{N} = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{x} - i\hat{p}_a)(\hat{x} + i\hat{p}_a) = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{x}^2 + i[\hat{x}, \hat{p}_a] + \hat{p}_a^2) = \frac{1}{2} (\hat{x}^2 + \hat{p}_a^2 - 1)$

$\hat{H} = k\omega \left(\hat{N} + \frac{1}{2} \right)$

$|\psi\rangle$ vecteur propre de $\hat{N} \Rightarrow \hat{N}|\psi\rangle = \lambda|\psi\rangle \Leftrightarrow k\omega \hat{N}|\psi\rangle = k\omega \lambda|\psi\rangle$

$\Leftrightarrow k\omega \left(\hat{N} + \frac{1}{2} \right) |\psi\rangle = k\omega \left(\lambda + \frac{1}{2} \right) |\psi\rangle \Leftrightarrow \hat{H}|\psi\rangle = E|\psi\rangle$

$|\psi\rangle$ est vecteur propre de \hat{N} , de valeur propre λ et vecteur propre de \hat{H} , de valeur propre $E = k\omega \left(\lambda + \frac{1}{2} \right)$

\Rightarrow si l'on calcule λ , on pourra calculer l'énergie du système.

2) a) $[\hat{N}, \hat{a}] \psi = \hat{N} \hat{a} \psi - \hat{a} \hat{N} \psi = (\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \hat{a} - \hat{a} \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}) \psi$
 $= \frac{1}{-1} ([\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger] \hat{a}) \psi = -\hat{a} \psi$, $[\hat{N}, \hat{a}] = -\hat{a}$

$[\hat{N}, \hat{a}^\dagger] \psi = (\hat{N} \hat{a}^\dagger - \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{N}) \psi = (\hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} \hat{a}^\dagger - \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a}) \psi = \hat{a}^\dagger ([\hat{a}, \hat{a}^\dagger] \psi) = \hat{a}^\dagger \psi$
 $\Leftrightarrow [\hat{N}, \hat{a}^\dagger] = +\hat{a}^\dagger$

b) \hat{N} est hermitique $\Leftrightarrow \lambda \in \mathbb{R}$

$\hat{N}|\psi_\lambda\rangle = \lambda|\psi_\lambda\rangle = \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} |\psi_\lambda\rangle$ $\int \times \langle \psi_\lambda |$

$\Leftrightarrow \lambda \langle \psi_\lambda | \psi_\lambda \rangle = \langle \psi_\lambda | \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle$

$\Leftrightarrow \lambda \underbrace{\langle \psi_\lambda | \psi_\lambda \rangle}_{>0} = \underbrace{\| \hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle \|^2}_{\geq 0} \Leftrightarrow \lambda \geq 0$

Rq: si $\lambda = 0$, $\| \hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle \|^2 = 0 \Leftrightarrow \hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle = 0$

c) de même si $\lambda \neq 0$, $\hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle \neq 0$

$([\hat{N}, \hat{a}^\dagger] = +\hat{a}^\dagger)$

$\hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle$ est vecteur propre de \hat{N} : $\hat{N} \hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle = -\hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle + \hat{a} \hat{N} | \psi_\lambda \rangle$
 $= -\hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle + \hat{a} \lambda | \psi_\lambda \rangle$
 $\hat{N} \hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle = (\lambda - 1) \hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle$

\Rightarrow vecteur propre associé à $|\psi_\lambda\rangle$: $(\lambda - 1)$

si $\lambda \neq 0$ $\hat{a}^\dagger | \psi_\lambda \rangle \neq 0$

et $\hat{N} \hat{a}^\dagger | \psi_\lambda \rangle = \hat{a}^\dagger | \psi_\lambda \rangle + \hat{a}^\dagger \hat{N} | \psi_\lambda \rangle = (\lambda + 1) \hat{a}^\dagger | \psi_\lambda \rangle$

\hat{a}^\dagger opérateur création, si on l'applique à $|\psi_\lambda\rangle$, on passe du niveau λ à $\lambda + 1$
 \hat{a} opérateur annihilation, $|\psi_\lambda\rangle$, λ à $\lambda - 1$

d) Supposons λ non entier $\Leftrightarrow \lambda = m + q$ avec $m \in \mathbb{N}$ et $0 < q < 1$

$\hat{a} | \psi_\lambda \rangle$ est vecteur propre de \hat{N} , de valeur propre $\lambda - 1$

$\hat{a}^2 | \psi_\lambda \rangle$ est vecteur propre de \hat{N} , de valeur propre $\lambda - 2$

$\hat{a}^{m+1} | \psi_\lambda \rangle \xrightarrow{\hat{N}} \lambda - m - 1$

or $\lambda = m + q$ avec $0 < q < 1$ donc $\lambda - m - 1 < 0$, ce qui

n'est pas possible puisque les valeurs propres $\in \mathbb{R}^+$.

Donc λ ne peut pas être entier $\Rightarrow \lambda \in \mathbb{N}$

2) d) Que se passe-t-il si $\lambda = m \in \mathbb{N}$? (31)

$\hat{a}^m |\psi_\lambda\rangle$ est vecteur propre de \hat{N} , de valeur propre $\lambda - m = 0$

d'après 2) b) on sait que $\hat{a}^{m+1} |\psi_\lambda\rangle = 0$

\Rightarrow dans ce cas on n'obtient pas de $|\psi\rangle$ non nul vecteur propre de

\hat{N} de valeur propre $< 0 \Rightarrow$ c'est possible $\Rightarrow m \in \mathbb{N}$.

e) $\hat{a}^m |\psi_\lambda\rangle$ est le vecteur propre $|\psi_0\rangle$ de valeur propre $\lambda = 0$

si j'applique \hat{a}^+ à $|\psi_0\rangle$ j'ai $\hat{a}^+ |\psi_0\rangle$ $\lambda = 1$

$\hat{a}^{+2} |\psi_0\rangle$ $\lambda = 2$

\vdots

et $\forall k \in \mathbb{N}$, $\hat{a}^{+k} |\psi_0\rangle$ $\lambda = k$

donc tous les vecteurs propres $|\psi_m\rangle$ peuvent être obtenus en appliquant \hat{a}^+ à partir de $|\psi_0\rangle$.

f) Pour $\lambda = 0$, $\hat{a} |\psi_0\rangle = 0 \Leftrightarrow \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\hbar}} (\hat{x} + i\hat{p}_x) |\psi_0\rangle = 0$

$$\Leftrightarrow \sqrt{\frac{m\omega}{\hbar}} \alpha \psi_0(x) + \frac{i}{\sqrt{m\hbar\omega}} \frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \psi_0(x) = 0$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \frac{m\omega}{\hbar} \alpha dx = - \frac{d\psi_0(x)}{\psi_0(x)}$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \psi_0(x) = K e^{-\frac{1}{2} \frac{m\omega}{\hbar} x^2}$$

\Rightarrow la solution est unique car toutes les fonctions solutions de l'équation sont proportionnelles entre elles.

$$\Rightarrow \text{normalisation} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi_0^* \psi_0 dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} K^2 e^{-\frac{m\omega}{\hbar} x^2} = K^2 \sqrt{\frac{\pi\hbar}{m\omega}} = 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow K = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\psi_0(x) = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4} e^{-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar} x^2}}$$

g) Les valeurs propres de \hat{H} sont $\hbar\omega(m + \frac{1}{2})$ avec $m \in \mathbb{N}$ (cf question 1.d)

$$\Rightarrow \text{pour } m=0 : E_0 = \frac{\hbar\omega}{2} \text{ et } \psi_0(x) = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4} e^{-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar} x^2}$$

2) g) (suite) On construit les autres fonctions d'onde à partir de ψ_0 , en (41)

$$\text{utilisant } \hat{a}^+ \quad |\psi_1\rangle = \frac{\hat{a}^+ |\psi_0\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \hat{a}^+ \psi_0 | \hat{a}^+ \psi_0 \rangle}} = \frac{\hat{a}^+ |\psi_0\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \psi_0 | \hat{a} \hat{a}^+ | \psi_0 \rangle}}$$

normalisation

$$\text{or } \hat{a} \hat{a}^+ = 1 + \hat{a}^+ \hat{a} = 1 + \hat{N} \Leftrightarrow \langle \psi_0 | (1 + \hat{N}) | \psi_0 \rangle = (1+0) \langle \psi_0 | \psi_0 \rangle = 1$$

$$\Leftrightarrow |\psi_1\rangle = \frac{\hat{a}^+ |\psi_0\rangle}{\sqrt{1}} \text{ avec } E_1 = \hbar\omega \left(1 + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{3}{2} \hbar\omega$$

$$\text{de même } |\psi_2\rangle = \frac{\hat{a}^+ |\psi_1\rangle}{\sqrt{\langle \hat{a}^+ \psi_1 | \hat{a}^+ \psi_1 \rangle}} = \frac{\hat{a}^{+2} |\psi_0\rangle}{\sqrt{1 \times 2}} \text{ avec } E_2 = \hbar\omega \left(2 + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{5}{2} \hbar\omega$$

$$|\psi_m\rangle = \frac{(\hat{a}^+)^m |\psi_0\rangle}{\sqrt{m!}} \text{ avec } E_m = \hbar\omega \left(m + \frac{1}{2}\right)$$

\hookrightarrow ce sont les polynômes d'Hermite.

Dégénérescence ? Supposons $|\psi_m\rangle$ vecteur propre de \hat{N} de valeur propre m et non dégénéré

$$\hat{N} |\psi_m\rangle = m |\psi_m\rangle$$

est-ce que $|\psi_{m+1}\rangle$ est également non dégénéré ?

on sait que $\hat{a} |\psi_{m+1}\rangle$ est vecteur propre de \hat{N} , de valeur propre m

or, on suppose $|\psi_m\rangle$ non dégénéré donc $|\psi_m\rangle$ et $\hat{a} |\psi_{m+1}\rangle$ sont proportionnels

$$\hat{a} |\psi_{m+1}\rangle = C |\psi_m\rangle$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \hat{a}^+ \hat{a} |\psi_{m+1}\rangle = C \hat{a}^+ |\psi_m\rangle$$

$$\Leftrightarrow \hat{N} |\psi_{m+1}\rangle = C \hat{a}^+ |\psi_m\rangle$$

$$\Leftrightarrow (m+1) |\psi_{m+1}\rangle = C \hat{a}^+ |\psi_m\rangle$$

$$\Leftrightarrow |\psi_{m+1}\rangle = \frac{C}{m+1} \hat{a}^+ |\psi_m\rangle$$

$\Leftrightarrow \hat{a}^+ |\psi_m\rangle$ et $|\psi_{m+1}\rangle$ sont proportionnels et associés à la même valeur propre

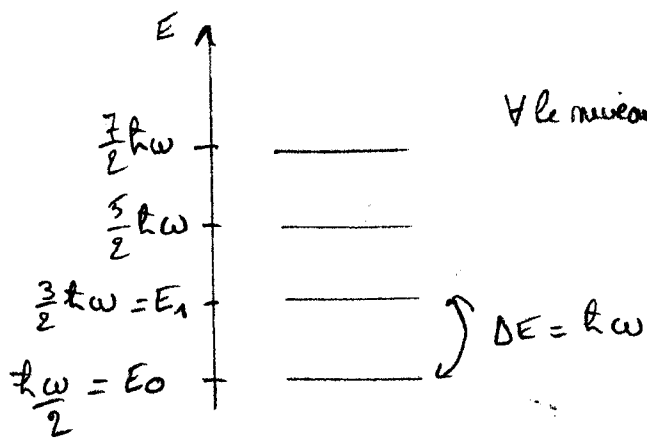
$\Rightarrow |\psi_{m+1}\rangle$ non dégénéré.

or $|\psi_0\rangle$ est non dégénéré $\Rightarrow |\psi_1\rangle$ est non dégénéré

$$\Rightarrow |\psi_2\rangle$$

est non dégénéré

Energie entre deux niveaux successifs : $\Delta E = E_{m+1} - E_m = \hbar\omega$
ne dépend pas de m



(seule transition permise) (51)

pour passer au niveau supérieur, on absorbe toujours la même énergie $h\omega$, donc le spectre d'absorption de vibration ne contient qu'une bande d'absorption correspondant à cette énergie.

2) h) L'énergie de l'état fondamental (appelé aussi l'énergie du vide), n'est pas nulle !

3) Molécule H-I, $k = 313,8 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^{-1} = \omega^2 m \Rightarrow \omega = \sqrt{\frac{k}{m}}$
 fréquence de l'oscillateur: $\nu_0 = \frac{\omega}{2\pi} = 6,89 \cdot 10^{13} \text{ Hz}$ et $\Delta E = h\omega = \nu_0 h = 4,56 \cdot 10^{-20} \text{ J}$

$$E = \frac{hc}{\lambda} \Rightarrow \lambda = 4,35 \cdot 10^{-6} \text{ m} \hat{=} \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{\nu_0}{c} = 2299 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

on observe une bande d'absorption caractéristique de la vibration de la liaison H-I dans l'infrarouge.

4 - Model of the point charge elastically bound, in an electric field

$$\hat{H}(z) = \frac{\hat{p}_z^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \hat{z}^2 - q \mathcal{E} \hat{z}$$

Schrödinger equation $\hat{H}(z)\chi = E(z)\chi$

\downarrow energy in the presence of the electric field
 \downarrow wave function in the presence of the electric field

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\chi}{dz^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 z^2 \chi - q \mathcal{E} z \chi = E(z) \chi$$

Since $\frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 z^2 - q \mathcal{E} z = \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \left(z^2 - \frac{2q \mathcal{E}}{m \omega^2} z \right)$

$$= \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 \left[\left(z - \frac{q \mathcal{E}}{m \omega^2} \right)^2 - \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}^2}{m^2 \omega^4} \right]$$

$$(1) \Leftrightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\chi}{dz^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 (z - x_0)^2 \chi = \left(E(z) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}^2}{m \omega^2} \right) \chi$$

Let $x_0 = \frac{q \mathcal{E}}{m \omega^2}$, $E' = E(z) + \frac{1}{2} \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}^2}{m \omega^2}$ (2)

Change of variable $u = z - x_0$

$$\chi(z) = \chi(u + x_0) = \Phi(u)$$

$$\left. \frac{d\Phi}{du} \right|_u = \left. \frac{d\chi}{dz} \right|_{u+x_0} \quad \text{and} \quad \left. \frac{d^2\Phi}{du^2} \right|_u = \left. \frac{d^2\chi}{dz^2} \right|_{u+x_0} \quad 6/$$

Therefore (1) can be rewritten as

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\Phi}{du^2} + \frac{1}{2} m \omega^2 u^2 \Phi = E' \Phi \quad (3)$$

(3) is formally identical to the Schrödinger equation of a 1D harmonic oscillator of energy E' and corresponding eigenfunction Φ .

We know from section 2 that E' is quantized and can be written as $E'_n = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega$, $n \in \mathbb{N}$

According to (2), the energy of 1D harmonic oscillator in the presence of a static electric field is quantized and equals

$$E_n(z) = E'_n - \frac{1}{2} \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}^2}{m \omega^2}$$

$$E_n(z) = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega - \frac{1}{2} \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}^2}{m \omega^2}, \quad n \in \mathbb{N}$$

From section 2 we know that the eigenfunction Φ_m associated to E_m' is equal to ψ_m (\leftarrow we explained previously how it can be obtained from the creation operator \hat{a}^\dagger and the vacuum wave function ψ_0)

$$\Phi_m(x) = \psi_m(x) = \chi_m(x - x_0)$$

Therefore the eigenfunction χ_m of the bound system in the presence of the electric field, associated to $E_m(\mathcal{E})$, is equal to:

$$\boxed{\chi_m(x) = \psi_m(x - x_0)} \quad (4)$$

In the following we denote $\psi_m(\mathcal{E}) = \chi_m \leftarrow$ depends on \mathcal{E} since $x_0 = \frac{q\mathcal{E}}{m\omega^2}$

We thus rewrite the Schrödinger equations as

$$\hat{H}(\mathcal{E})\psi_m(\mathcal{E}) = E_m(\mathcal{E})\psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \quad \forall \mathcal{E}$$

$$\Rightarrow E_m(\mathcal{E}) \langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \rangle = \langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \hat{H}(\mathcal{E}) | \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \rangle$$

Comment: Note that χ_m is normalized since, according to Eq.(4)

$$\begin{aligned} \langle \chi_m | \chi_m \rangle &= \langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx |\chi_m(x)|^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx |\psi_m(x - x_0)|^2 \\ &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx |\psi_m(x)|^2 = 1 \end{aligned}$$

\leftarrow The solution ψ_m of the 1D harmonic oscillator is normalized.

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \frac{dE_m(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} &= \frac{1}{d\mathcal{E}} \langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \hat{H}(\mathcal{E}) | \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \rangle \\ &= \langle \frac{d\psi_m(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} | \hat{H}(\mathcal{E}) | \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \rangle \\ &\quad + \langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}(\mathcal{E})}{\partial \mathcal{E}} | \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \rangle \\ &\quad + \langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \hat{H}(\mathcal{E}) | \frac{d\psi_m(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} \rangle \\ &= E_m(\mathcal{E}) \left(\frac{d\langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \rangle}{d\mathcal{E}} \right) + \underbrace{\langle \hat{H}(\mathcal{E}) \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \frac{d\psi_m(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} \rangle}_{E_m(\mathcal{E}) \langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \frac{d\psi_m(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} \rangle} \\ &\quad + \langle \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}(\mathcal{E})}{\partial \mathcal{E}} | \psi_m(\mathcal{E}) \rangle \end{aligned}$$

$$\frac{dE_n(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} = E_n(\mathcal{E}) \underbrace{\frac{d\langle \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) | \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) \rangle}{d\mathcal{E}}}_0 + \langle \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}(\mathcal{E})}{\partial \mathcal{E}} | \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) \rangle$$

since $\langle \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) | \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) \rangle = 1 \quad \forall \mathcal{E}$

we then obtain the Hellmann-Feynman theorem:

$$\boxed{\frac{dE_n(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} = \langle \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) | \frac{\partial \hat{H}(\mathcal{E})}{\partial \mathcal{E}} | \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) \rangle}$$

$$\frac{\partial \hat{H}(\mathcal{E})}{\partial \mathcal{E}} = -q\hat{x} = -\hat{D}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{dE_n(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} = -\langle \hat{D} \rangle_{\psi_n(\mathcal{E})}}$$

$$E_n(\mathcal{E}) = (n + \frac{1}{2})\hbar\omega - \frac{1}{2} \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}^2}{m\omega^2} \Rightarrow \frac{dE_n(\mathcal{E})}{d\mathcal{E}} = -\frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}}{m\omega^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\langle \hat{D} \rangle_{\psi_n(\mathcal{E})} = \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}}{m\omega^2}}$$

$$\text{Static polarizability } \alpha(0) = \left. \frac{d\langle \hat{D} \rangle_{\psi_n(\mathcal{E})}}{d\mathcal{E}} \right|_0 = \frac{q^2}{m\omega^2}$$

note that the static polarizability is a property of the system (nucleus + particle). It does not depend on the electric field!

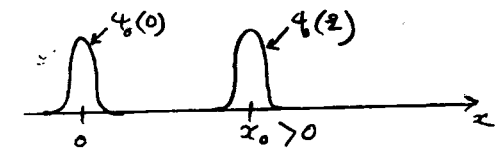
$$\langle \hat{D} \rangle_{\psi_n(\mathcal{E})} = \frac{q^2 \mathcal{E}}{m\omega^2} = q \underbrace{\langle \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) | \hat{x} | \psi_n(\mathcal{E}) \rangle}_{\langle \hat{x} \rangle_{\psi_n(\mathcal{E})}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\langle \hat{x} \rangle_{\psi_n(\mathcal{E})} = \frac{q\mathcal{E}}{m\omega^2} = x_0}$$

Comment: In the ground state (n=0) the wave function equals

$$\psi_0(\mathcal{E}) = \chi_0(x) = \psi_0(x-x_0) = \left(\frac{m\omega}{\pi\hbar}\right)^{1/4} e^{-\frac{m\omega}{2\hbar}(x-x_0)^2}$$

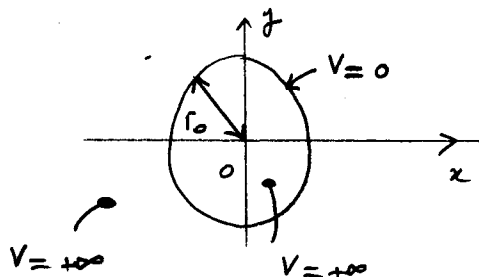
if $q > 0$ and $\mathcal{E} > 0$: $x_0 > 0$ which is consistent with classical mechanics



Tutorial: rotational energy of a diatomic molecule

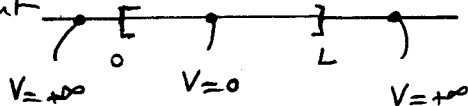
1. Planar rotator

1-1.

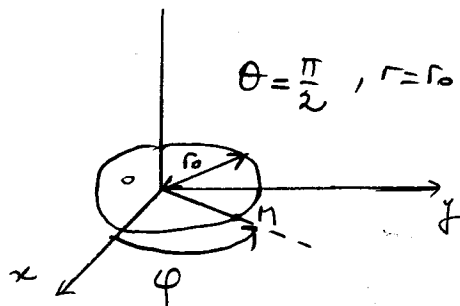


The potential energy is infinite inside and outside the circle. It equals zero on the circle. Thus the particle is "free" to move on the circle.

For the particle on a straight line we had the potential energy infinite outside the segment and $V=0$ on the segment



1-2.



Schrödinger equation $\hat{H}\psi = E\psi$ on the circle

where $\psi(r, \theta, \varphi) = \psi(\varphi)$

$$\text{and } \hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \nabla^2$$

$$\text{Thus } \hat{H}\psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \left[\frac{1}{r} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r + \frac{1}{r^2} \left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial \theta^2} + \frac{1}{\sin^2 \theta} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \varphi^2} \right) \right] \psi$$

$$\frac{\partial^2}{\partial r^2} r\psi = \frac{\partial}{\partial r} \left(\psi + r \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial r} \right) = 0$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial \theta} = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow \hat{H}\psi = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu r_0^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \varphi^2} \psi$$

The Hamiltonian of a planar rotator can therefore be written as

$$\hat{H}_{PR} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu r_0^2} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \varphi^2}$$

$$1-3. \quad \hat{L}_z = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial \varphi} \Rightarrow \hat{L}_z^2 = -\hbar^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial \varphi^2}$$

$$\hat{H}_{PR} = \frac{\hat{L}_z^2}{2I}$$

$$1.4- [\hat{H}_{PR}, \hat{L}_z] = \frac{1}{2I} [\hat{L}_z^2, \hat{L}_z] = 0$$

\hat{H}_{PR} and \hat{L}_z are two commuting Hermitian operators. We can therefore find a common orthonormal basis of eigenfunctions.

1.5- According to Exercise 3 in the tutorial "postulates of quantum mechanics and Dirac formalism"

The normalized eigenfunctions of \hat{L}_z are $\Phi_m(\varphi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{im\varphi}$ ($m \in \mathbb{Z}$) with the

associated eigenvalue $m\hbar$.

1.6- Let us check that Φ_m is also an eigenfunction of \hat{H}_{PR} :

$$\hat{H}_{PR} \Phi_m = \frac{1}{2I} \hat{L}_z (\hat{L}_z \Phi_m) = \frac{1}{2I} \hat{L}_z (m\hbar \Phi_m) = \frac{m\hbar}{2I} \underbrace{\hat{L}_z \Phi_m}_{m\hbar \Phi_m}$$

$$\hat{H}_{PR} \Phi_m = E_m \Phi_m \quad \text{with} \quad E_m = \frac{(m\hbar)^2}{2I}$$

$m \in \mathbb{Z}$

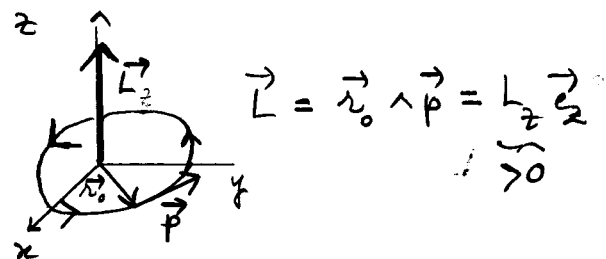
quantized energy

For $m \neq 0$ the degeneracy is 2 since Φ_m and Φ_{-m} are associated to the same energy. \odot

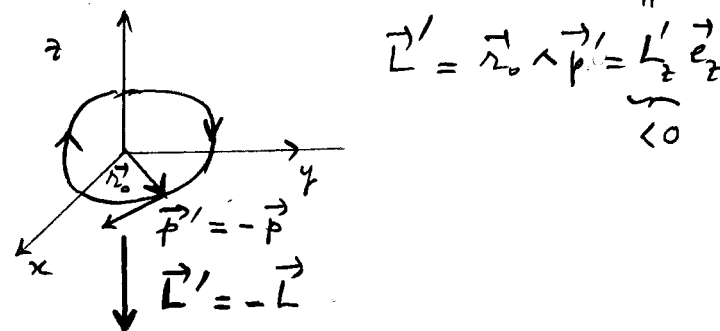
$$\text{With } B = \frac{\hbar^2}{8\pi^2 I} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2I}$$

$$E_m = m^2 B$$

\odot Comment: $m > 0$ means, from a classical mechanics point of view, that the particle rotates this way



And $m < 0$ means that the particle rotates the other way around



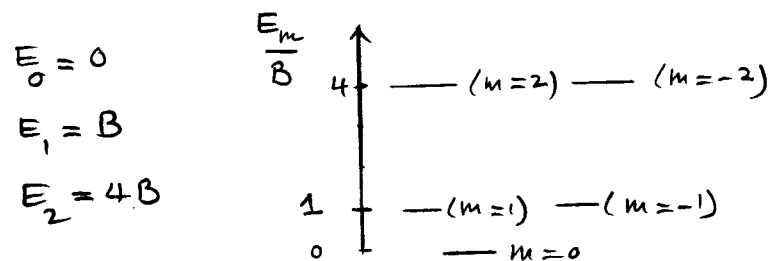
In both cases the kinetic energy should be the same since $p' = p \Rightarrow$ We get the same result in quantum mechanics.

if $m=0$ $E_0=0$ and $\Phi_0(\varphi) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \neq 0$

$m=0$ is a physical solution

$$1 \rightarrow E_{m+1} - E_m = (m+1)^2 B - m^2 B = \boxed{B(2m+1) = \Delta E_m}$$

ΔE_m is not constant like for the harmonic oscillator.



2. Rigid rotator

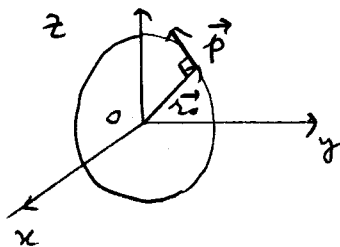
2-1. In classical mechanics

$$\vec{L} = \vec{r}_0 \wedge \vec{p} \quad \text{and} \quad \vec{r}_0 \perp \vec{p}$$

Since the particle moves on a sphere

$$\text{Therefore } |\vec{L}| = r_0 \cdot p$$

$$L^2 = r_0^2 p^2$$



The energy is only kinetic

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2\mu} = \frac{L^2}{2\mu r_0^2}$$

In quantum mechanics, the Hamiltonian of the rigid rotator

$$\hat{H}_{RR} = \frac{\hat{L}^2}{2I} \quad \text{equals then}$$

$$2.2 \quad [\hat{H}_{RR}, \hat{L}^2] = \frac{1}{2I} [\hat{L}^2, \hat{L}^2] = 0 \rightarrow \text{common orthonormal basis of eigenfunctions}$$

The eigenfunctions of \hat{L}^2 are the spherical harmonics

$$\hat{L}^2 Y_l^m(\theta, \varphi) = l(l+1)\hbar^2 Y_l^m(\theta, \varphi) \quad l \in \mathbb{N}$$

$$\hat{L}_z Y_l^m(\theta, \varphi) = m\hbar Y_l^m(\theta, \varphi) \quad m \in \mathbb{Z} \\ -l \leq m \leq +l$$

$$\hat{H}_{RR} Y_l^m = \frac{1}{2I} \hat{L}^2 Y_l^m = \frac{l(l+1)\hbar^2}{2I} Y_l^m$$

$$\boxed{\hat{H}_{RR} Y_l^m = E_l Y_l^m \quad \text{with } E_l = l(l+1)B \\ l \in \mathbb{N}}$$

The energy is quantized and the degeneracy equals to $2l+1$ since $m = -l, -l+1, \dots, 0, 1, \dots, l$ give the same energy E_l

$$2-3. \Delta E_L = E_{L+1} - E_L = (L+2)(L+1)B - L(L+1)B$$

$$\Delta E_L = 2(L+1)B \neq \text{constant.}$$

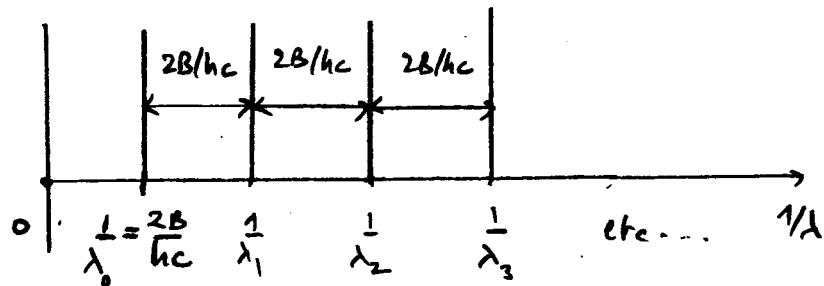
The frequency ν_L corresponding to the transition $L \rightarrow L+1$

$$\text{Ruhlls} \quad h\nu_L = \Delta E_L = 2(L+1)B$$

$$\lambda_L = \frac{c}{\nu_L} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda_L} = \frac{\nu_L}{c} = \frac{2(L+1)B}{hc} = \frac{1}{\lambda_L}$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{L+1}} - \frac{1}{\lambda_L} = \frac{2B}{hc} = \text{const}$$

If transitions occur only between adjacent levels the absorption spectrum should look like:



3- Applications

3-1-1- The experimental spectrum in figure 1 matches the theoretical one with $\frac{2B}{hc} = 20,7 \text{ cm}^{-1}$.

Note that the transition $1 \rightarrow 2$ should occur, according to question 2-3, for the wave number

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_1} = 2 \times \frac{2B}{hc} = 41,4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

↑ according to experiment

and that is what can be seen on the experimental spectrum

Everything is consistent!

The selection rule is therefore $\Delta l = \pm 1$ for purely rotational transitions ($\Delta l = +1$ for absorption and $\Delta l = -1$ for emission)

$$3-1-2- \quad * \quad \frac{1}{\lambda_{L+1}} - \frac{1}{\lambda_L} = 2\bar{B} = \frac{2B}{hc} \Rightarrow \bar{B} = \frac{B}{hc}$$

$$+ \quad \bar{B} = \frac{1}{hc} \cdot \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 \mu r_0^2} \quad \text{where } \mu = \frac{35 m_p}{36 m_p}$$

$$\mu = \frac{35}{36} m_p$$

$$r_0^2 = \frac{h}{c} \cdot \frac{1}{8\pi^2 \bar{B}} \frac{36}{35 m_p}$$

$$r_0 \approx 1,3 \text{ \AA}$$

3-2-1- transition of lowest energy $0 \rightarrow 1$ ($\Delta E_1 = 2B$)

$$3-2-2- \frac{1}{\lambda_0} = 3.84235 \text{ cm}^{-1} \Rightarrow \lambda_0 \approx \underbrace{2,6 \cdot 10^{-3} \text{ m}}_{\text{microwave}}$$

Vibrational transitions occur in the infrared domain (with $\Delta m = \pm 1$), that is for smaller wave lengths. ($\lambda_{\text{microwave}} > \lambda_{\text{infrared}}$)

We can thus conclude that adjacent rotational energy levels are much closer to each other energetically than adjacent vibrational levels.

$$3-2-3- \frac{1}{\lambda_0} = \frac{2B}{hc} \Rightarrow B = \frac{hc}{2\lambda_0} \approx 3,816 \cdot 10^{-23} \text{ J}$$

$$3-2-4- B = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I} \Rightarrow I = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 B} \approx 1,457 \cdot 10^{-46} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg}$$

$$r_0^2 = \frac{I}{\mu} \Rightarrow r_0 = \left(\frac{I}{\mu}\right)^{1/2} \approx \boxed{1,13 \text{ \AA} \approx r_0}$$