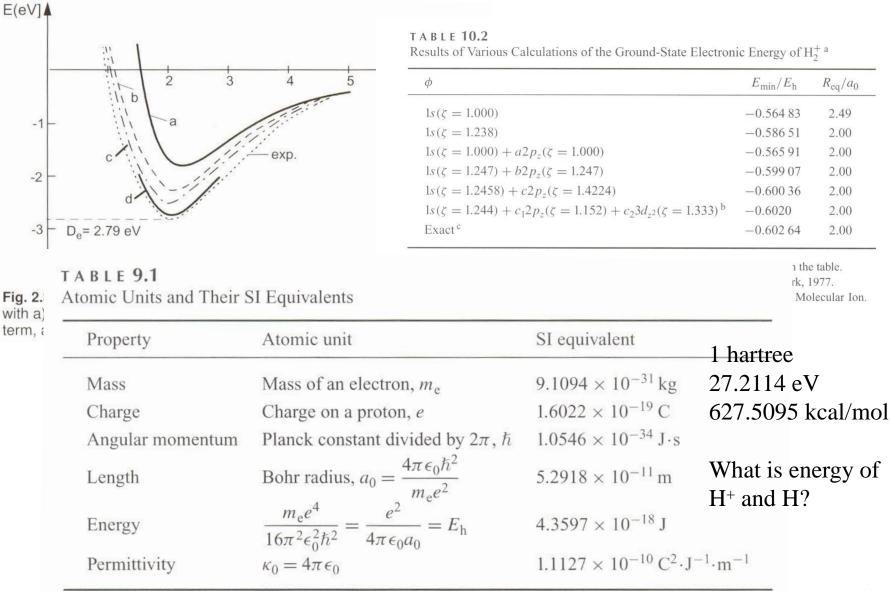
Units Units Units Units



1

Questions

- Why do we call adiabatic
- Delocalization and kinetic energy
- Why does using a smaller atomic wavefunction help?
- Why does adding a 2p orbital help but not 2S orbital?

Adiabatic Approximation

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Adiabatic process

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Contents

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An adiabatic process is any process occurring without gain or loss of heat within a system (i.e. during the process the system is thermodynamically isolated- there is no heat transfer with the surroundings). This is the opposite of a diabatic process, where there *is* heat transfer. A key concept in thermodynamics, many rapid chemical and physical processes are described or approximated in this way. Such processes are usually followed or preceded by events that do involve heat transfer (i.e. are non-adiabatic). Examples include electron-transfer.

Adiabatic : no <u>heat</u> transfer between electron and nuclei Heat: kinetic energy!

Kinetic energy of the nuclei does not effect the electron energies

Questions

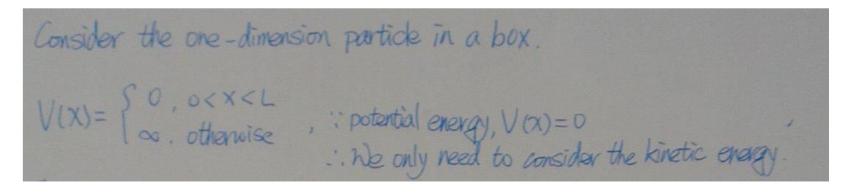
- Why do we call adiabatic
- Delocalization and kinetic energy
- Why does using a smaller atomic wavefunction help?
- Why does adding a 2p orbital help but not 2S orbital?

Answers Delocalization

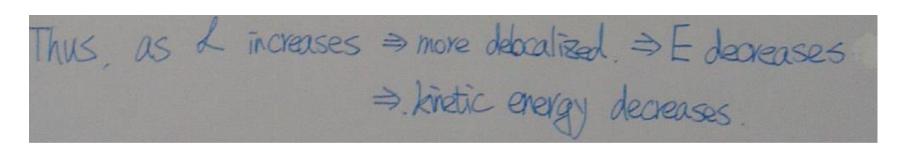
- Now the electron distribution spreads, the position uncertainty increases. According to Uncertainty Principle, the momentum uncertainty will decrease, resulting lower momentum, and lower kinetic energy. (uncertainty and absolute value are the same or not?)
- Delocalization could become covalent bond
- why delocalization lower K.E?I guess the probability curve between two protons become more smooth: then input the new wavefunction :we will get an smaller K.E term because the property of gradient square term in Hamiltonian !(smoother wave lower energy) always work:if the potential term get more important(charge goes up). the effect of delocalization maybe not enough!

$$T = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{h^2}{2m\lambda^2}.$$

Using Particle in a box



 $F(X) = \left[\overline{F} \cdot \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}X\right), \overline{E_n} = \frac{n^2 h^2}{4m^2} \right]$



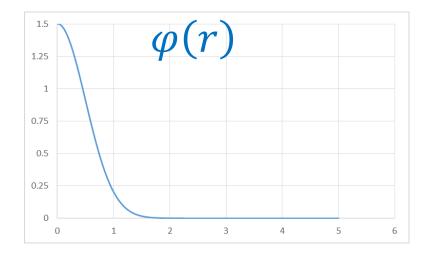
Delocalization and Kinetic Energy $\hat{T} = -\frac{\hbar}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dr^2}$

Kinetic energy is the average of the second derivative

Momentum is the average of the derivative

de brogle's relation $p = \frac{h}{\lambda}$ where λ is wavelength

1.5



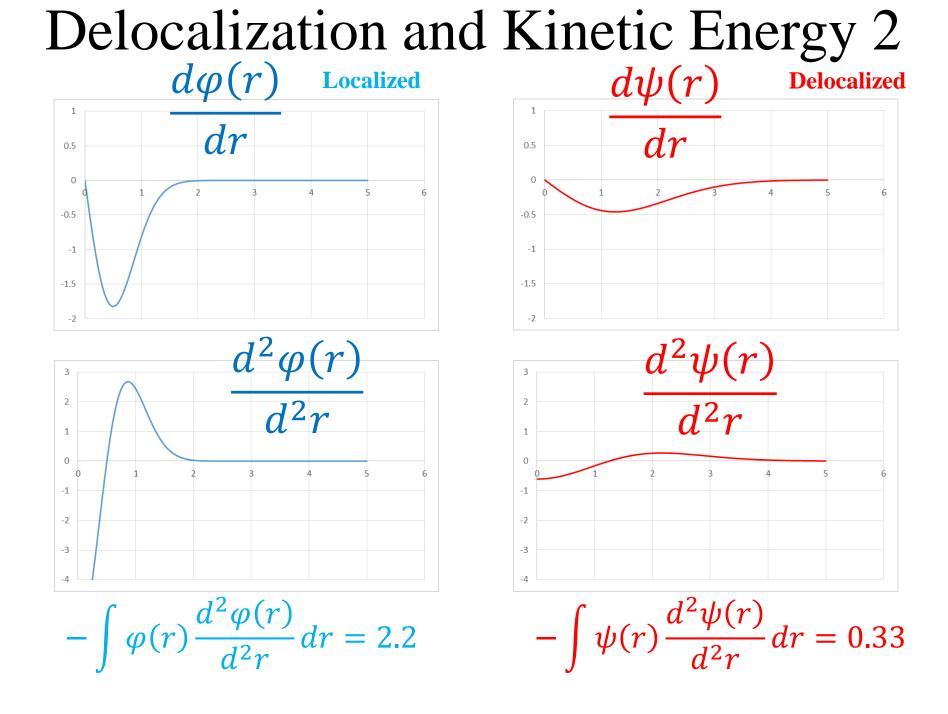
(r) 1.25 0.75 0.5 0.25 0 3 4 5 6 0 1 2

Localized

 $\hat{P} = i\hbar \frac{d}{dr}$

Delocalized

Area have to be kept same so what happens to the wavefunction?



Additional Orbitals

A B L E 10.2

tesults of Various Calculations of the Ground-State Electronic Energy of H_2^+a

ϕ	$E_{\rm min}/E_{\rm h}$	$R_{\rm eq}/a_0$
$ls(\zeta = 1.000)$ Larger coefficient means	-0.564 83	2.49
$1s(\zeta = 1.238)$ smaller orbital	-0.58651	2.00
$1s(\zeta = 1.000) + a2p_z(\zeta = 1.000)$	-0.56591	2.00
$1s(\zeta = 1.247) + b2p_z(\zeta = 1.247)$	-0.59907	2.00
$1s(\zeta = 1.2458) + c2p_z(\zeta = 1.4224)$	-0.60036	2.00
$ls(\zeta = 1.244) + c_1 2p_z(\zeta = 1.152) + c_2 3d_{z^2}(\zeta = 1.333)^{b}$	-0.6020	2.00
Exact ^c	-0.602 64	2.00

The molecular orbitals are of the form $\psi_b = c_A \phi_A + c_B \phi_B$, where ϕ is given in the table. Mulliken, R. S., Ermler, W. C. *Diatomic Molecules*. Academic Press: New York, 1977. Bates, D. R., Ledsham, K., Stewart, A. L. Wave Functions of the Hydrogen Molecular Ion. *Philos. Trans. Roy. Soc. London*, Ser. A. **246**, 215 (1953).

Why Smaller Orbital Helps

• 2.A larger atom has more electrons and orbitals, and more coupling between orbitals, which are too complicated to use the approximation.

2:why a smaller wave function help? the electron get closer to proton:potential decrease ; thought the faster decreasing exponential term means higher K.E. just opposed to the effect of the first question !(how can we do that? what's the meaning of parameter?)

The smaller atomic wavefunction means the higher effective charge. (i.e. the term in wavefunction $e^{-Z_{eff}r/a_0}$; $e^{-1r/a_0} \rightarrow e^{-1.238r/a_0}$). The higher effective charge is natural for our physical intuition since that the electron faces two nucleus rather than

Using smaller Orbitals

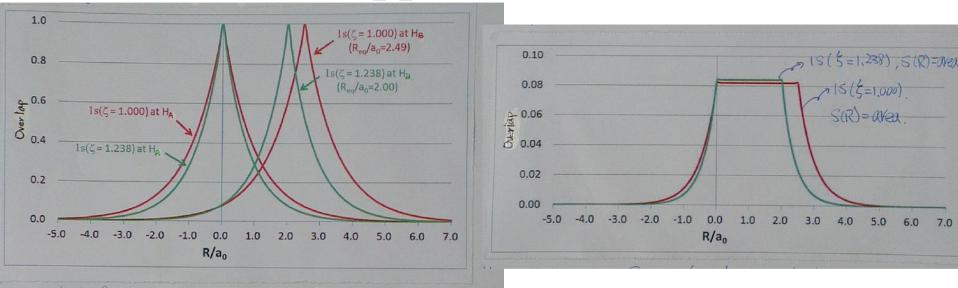
A B L E 10.2

tesults of Various Calculations of the Ground-State Electronic Energy of H_2^+ a

ϕ	$E_{\rm min}/E_{\rm h}$	$R_{\rm eq}/a_0$
$ls(\zeta = 1.000)$ Larger coefficient means	-0.564 83	2.49
$\frac{1s(\zeta = 1.000)}{1s(\zeta = 1.238)}$ Larger coefficient means smaller orbital Growth of density at	-0.586 51	2.00
interatomic regions Decrease of density from region near	The bonding orb has sharper struc near the nuclei	
nucleus	Better described smaller coefficie	•

Bonding Orbital

Look at what happens with smaller orbital



D. When
$$15(3=1,238)$$
 and $Ref./a_0=2,00$, $S_1=0,23)$?
Derived When $15(5=1,000)$ and $Ref./a_0=2,49$, $S_2=0,289$.
For $E_+(R) = \frac{H(R)_{AA} + H(R)_{AB}}{1+S(R)}$
 $\frac{4}{E_15}$
 $\frac{4}{E_15}$
 $\frac{24}{E_15}$
 E_15
 E

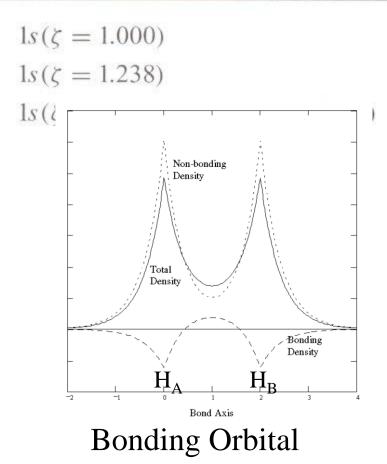
Why 2P orbital helps but 2S does not 1

- 3:why adding 2p but 2s is useful? because different type of orbital can hybrid to lower energy. 1s and 2s are orthogonal so adding 2s is useless! (hybrid is not enough , we need to shirk the orbital using parameter) 1s and 2p are also orthogonal
- 3.2p orbital is more "orthogonal" to 1s orbital than 2s orbital is to 1s orbital.

Why 2P orbital helps but 2S does not 2

calculation, we never consider the angular contribution. According to quantum mechanics, s-orbit is spherical symmetry, while p-orbit is cylindrical symmetry. From the view of the electron, considering Born-Oppenheimer approximation (i.e. regard the nucleus is moving much slower than electron or say almost fixed at some place), it sees two nucleus lying on an axis; therefore, the potential due to this two nucleus should be cylindrical symmetry. The angular parts do contribute to the calculation! 2p seems to be more appropriate to describe the H_2^+ system. Thus, only considering spherical symmetry- s-orbit, may not give the correct result even adding the contribution of different principle quantum number. That is the reason why adding 2p can increase more accuracy than 2s.

Using 2p_z Orbitals Hand waving

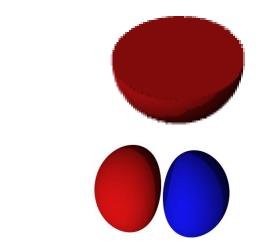


Polarization orbital!

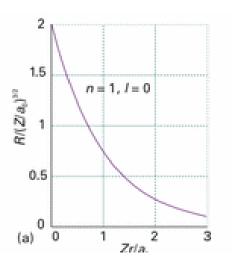
- -0.564 83 2.49
 - -0.586 51 2.00
- -0.565 91 2.00

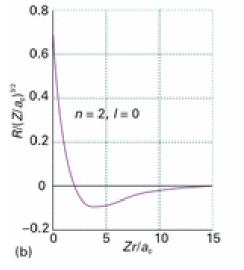
The bonding orbital has asymmetric distribution around nuclei

Better described by a $2p_z$ orbital



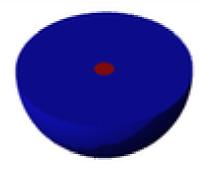
Addition of 2S Orbitals what will it do?





2s orbitals are much bigger than the 1s orbital, but it is still symmetric around the H atom center





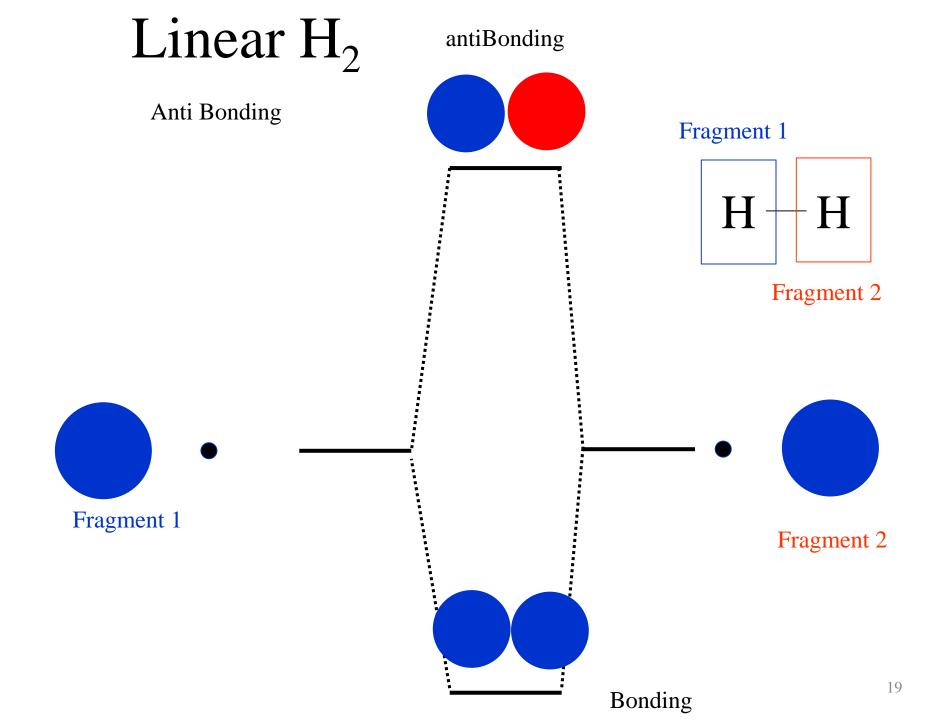
Basis Set

 If you use more atomic orbitals to define the molecular orbital usually the energy gets closer to the exact solution

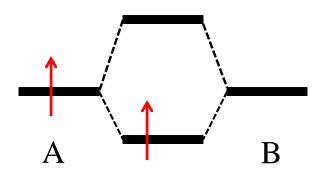
Using a bigger basis set to describe the system

- However bigger basis set you need more time to calculate.
- Changing coefficient on basis set is also important

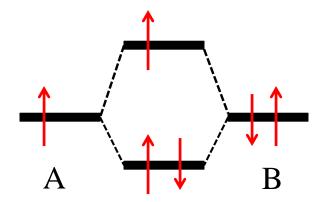
Diatomic Molecules Chemist's view



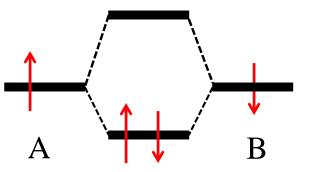
H₂⁺, H₂, He₂⁺, He₂



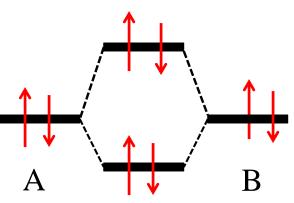
H₂⁺ R_{eq}=1.06 Angstrom Binding Energy 61 kcal/mol



He₂⁺ R_{eq}=1.08 Angstrom Binding Energy 50 kcal/mol

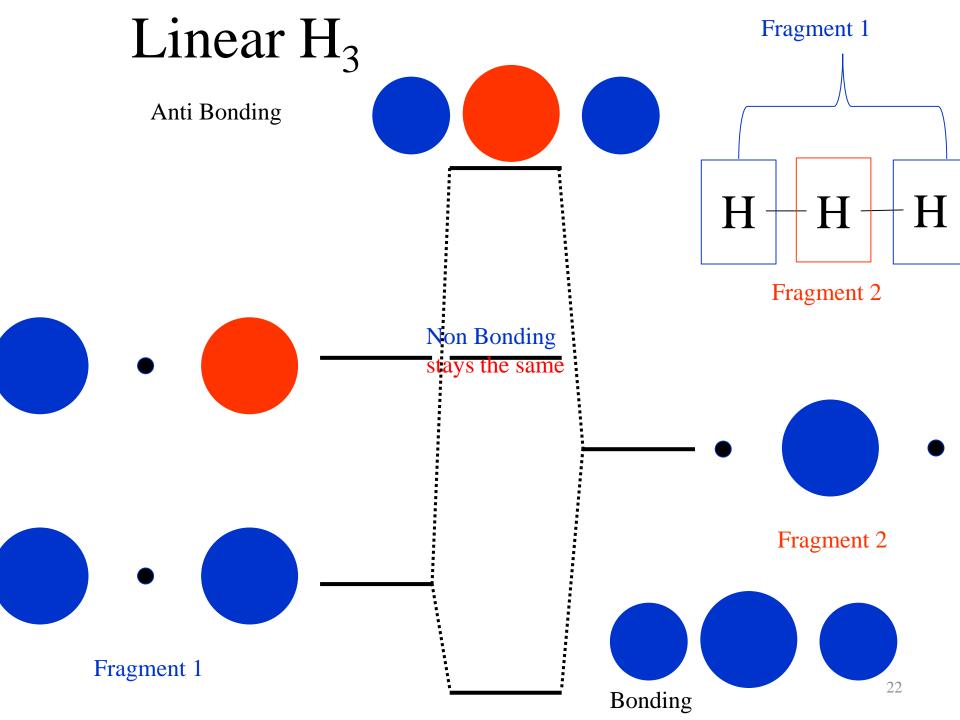


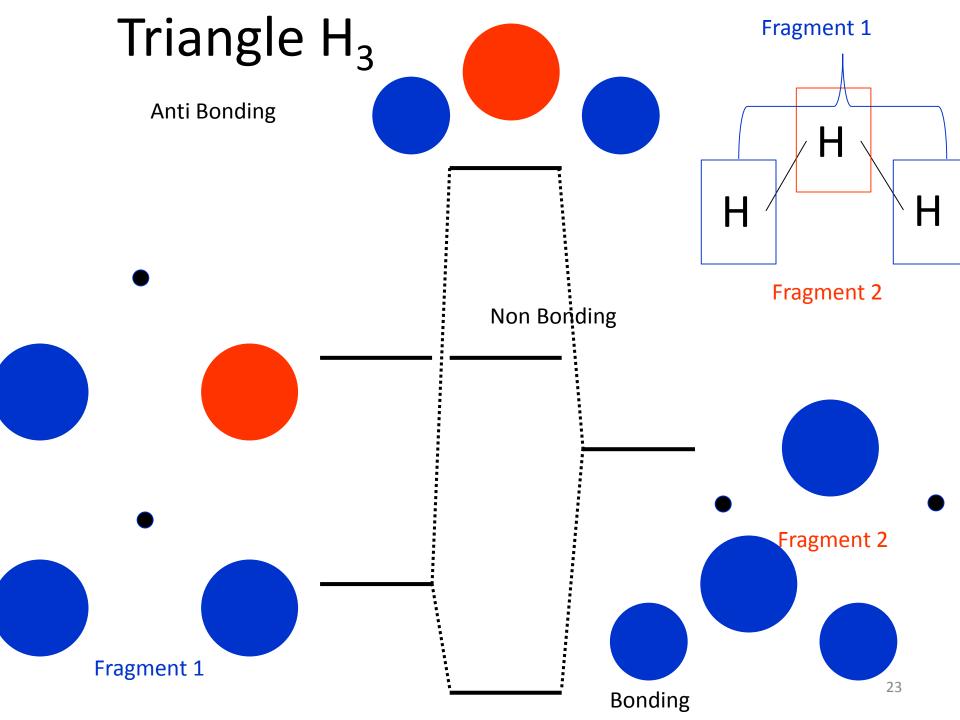
H₂ R_{eq}=0.74 Angstrom Binding Energy 105 kcal/mol

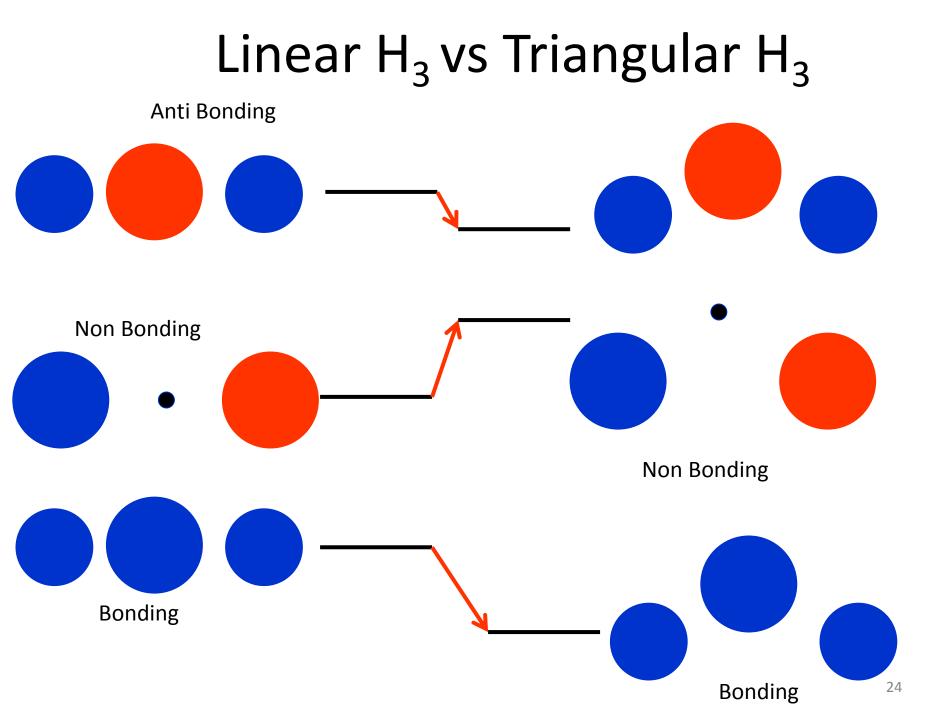


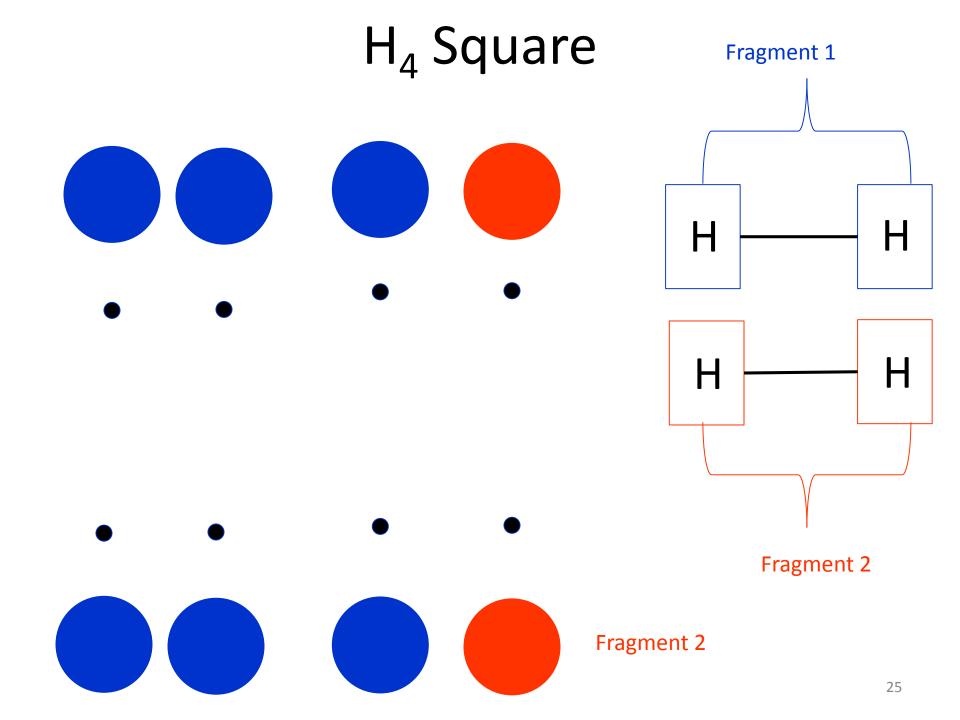
He₂ R_{eq}= Infinity not bound Binding Energy 0 Kcal mol

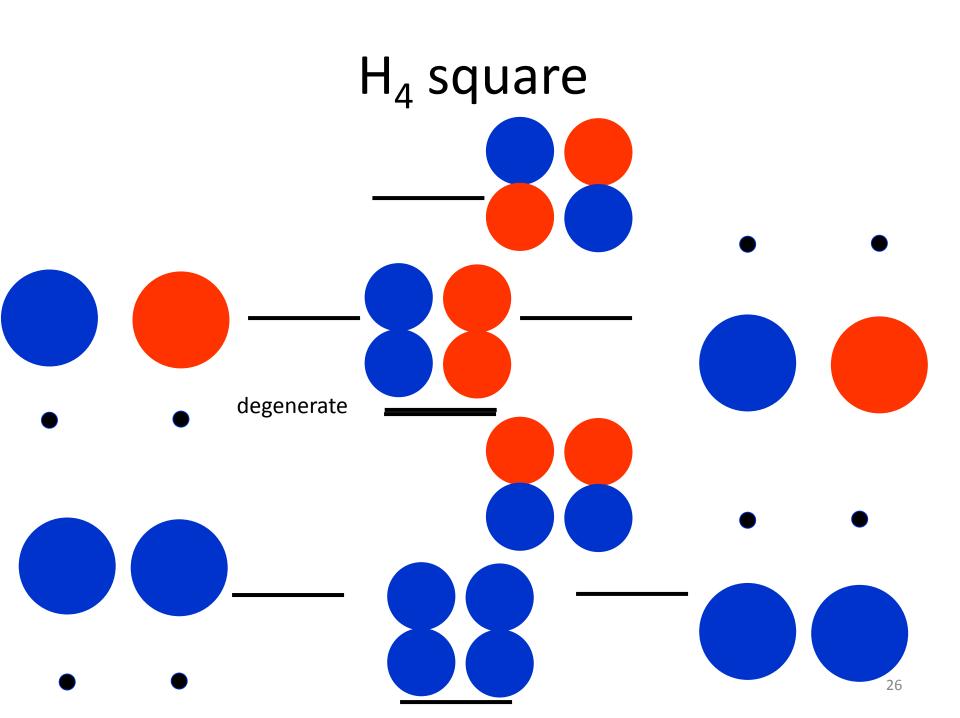
Polyatomic Molecules

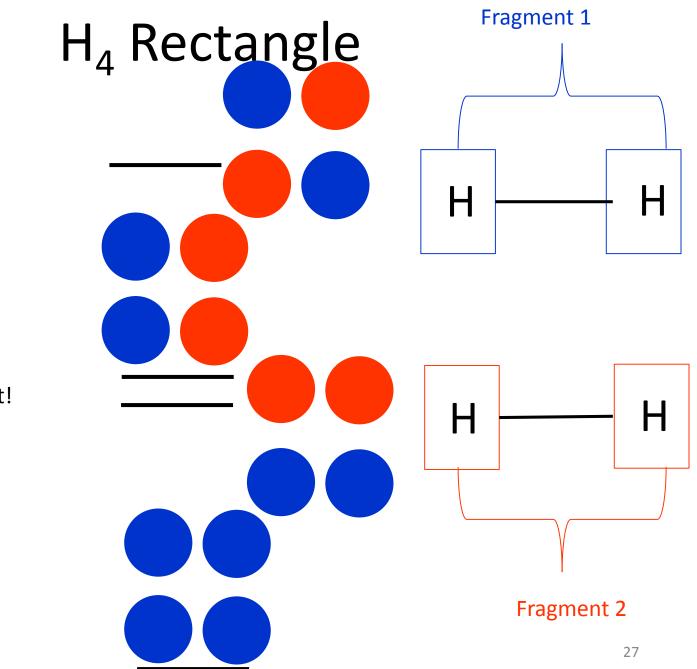




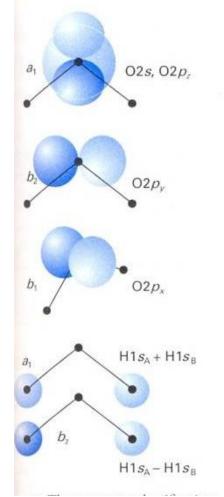








Degenerate orbitals split!

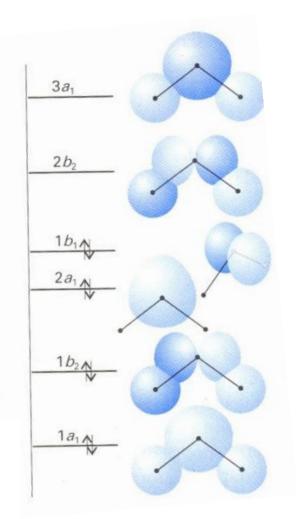


Water H₂O

You must think of symmetry: Rotation of bisecter axis Mirror at the water plane Mirror at the middle

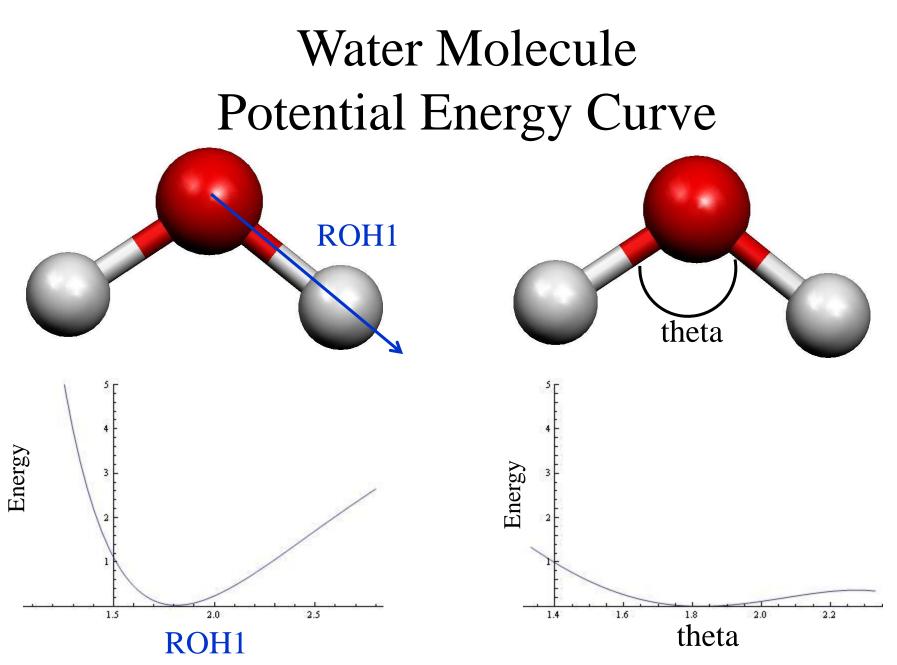
Hydrogens make linear combination: plus and minus pair like bonding and antibonding orbital

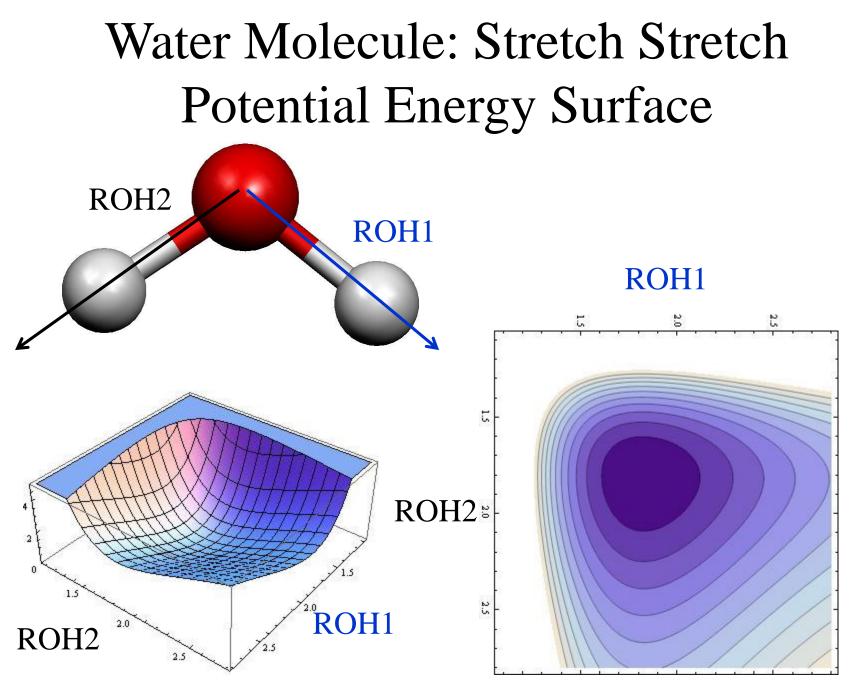
C _{2v}	O2s	$O2p_x$	O2py	$O2p_z$	H1s _A	H1s _B
E	O2s	$O2p_x$	$O2p_y$	$O2p_z$	H1s _A	H1s _B
C2.	O2s	$-O2p_x$	$-O2p_y$	$O2p_z$	$H1s_B$	H1sA
$\sigma_{\rm v}$	O2s	$O2p_x$	$-O2p_y$	$O2p_z$	$H1s_B$	H1s _A
σ'_{v}	O2s	$-O2p_x$	$O2p_{\nu}$	$O2p_z$	H1s _A	H1sB



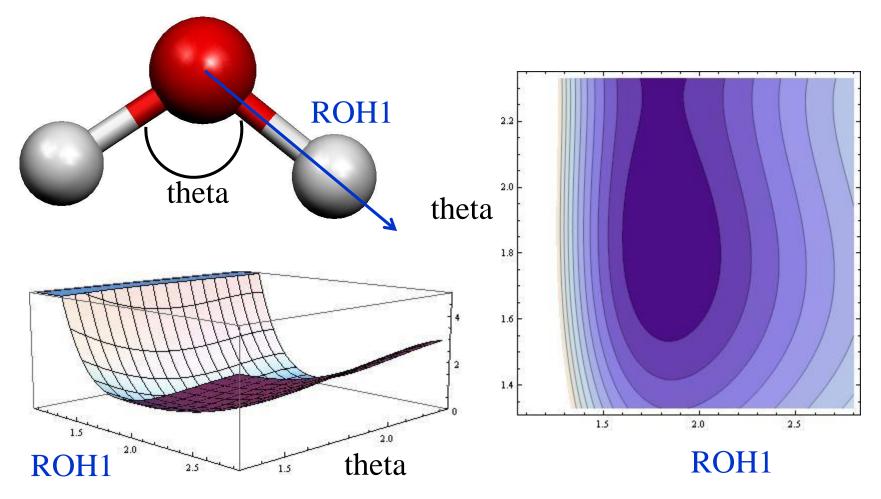
Potential Energy Surface Reaction

Kaito Takahashi



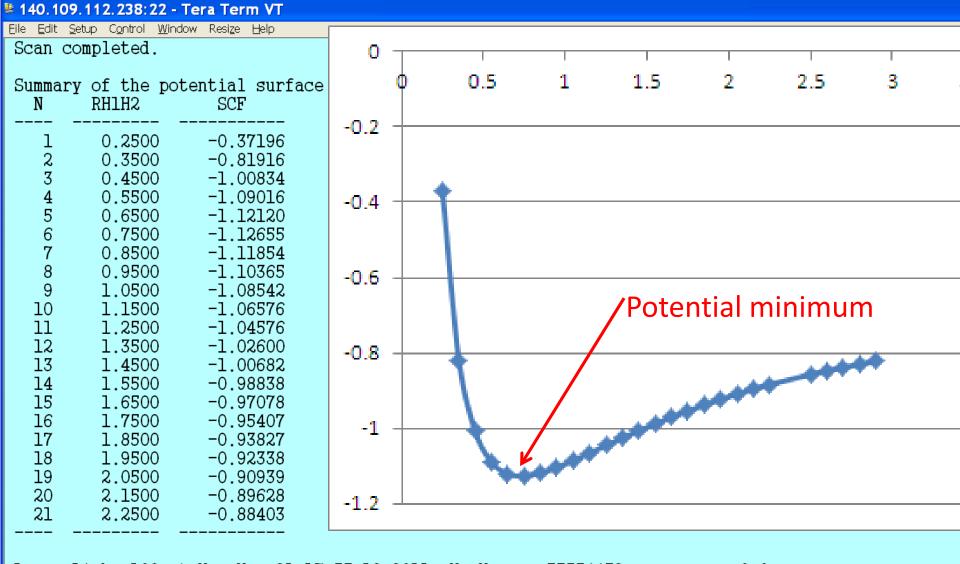


Water Molecule: Stretch Bend Potential Energy Surface



Vibration

Potential Energy Curve



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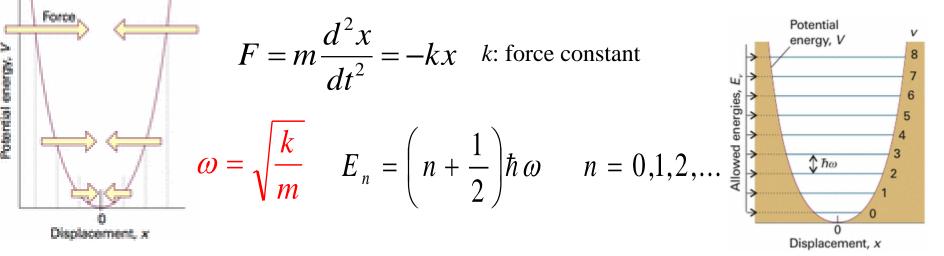
How to quantify Minimum?

• At the minimum the first derivative is zero and the second derivative is always positive

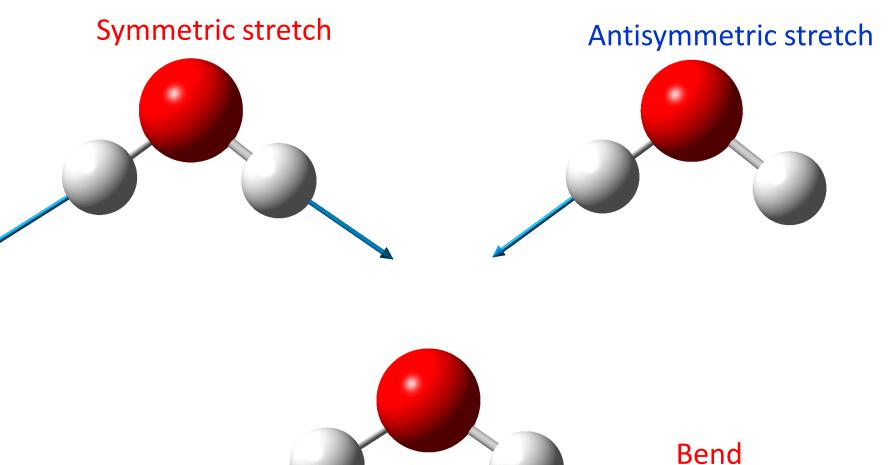
Check the Hessian (second derivative)

In Gaussian you can use the freq keyword

Harmonic Oscillator

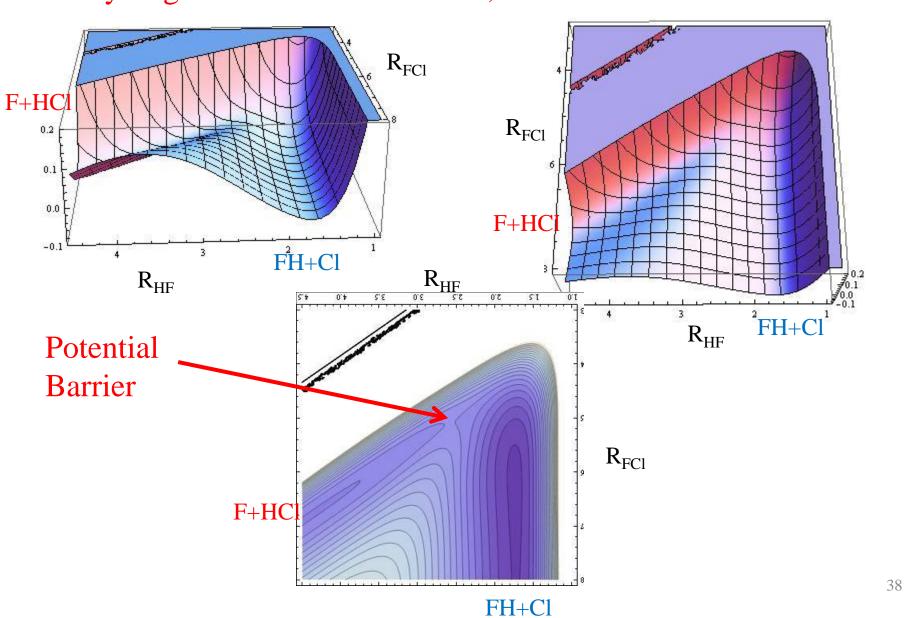


Normal Modes of Water

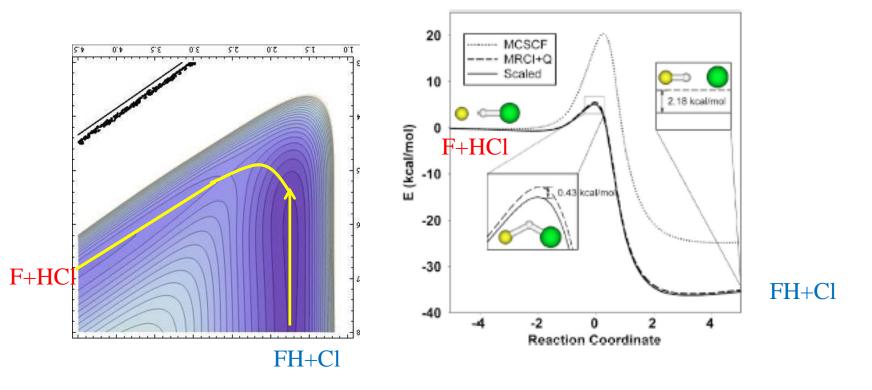


Reaction

F+HCl→FH+Cl Potential Energy Surface Hydrogen Abstraction Reaction, break a HCl bond form a HF bond



Potential Energy Curve along IRC



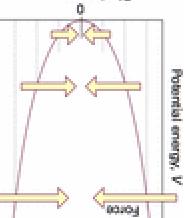
You need enough energy to go over the potential barrier to react! The minimum energy path that connect the barrier with reactant and product is called intrinsic reaction path For F+HCl case you need about 5 kcal/mol of for reaction to occur

How to quantify Barrier?

• At the barrier the first derivative is zero and the second derivative is negative for one degree of freedom and the rest are always positive. In Gaussian you can use the freq keyword to check if there is imaginary frequency

Harmonic Oscillator approximation

so omega is imaginary



at barrier $F = m \frac{d^2 x}{dt^2} = -kx$ k: force constant $\omega = \sqrt{\frac{-k}{m}}$ In the case of barrier the force constant k is negative

40

Transition State Theory

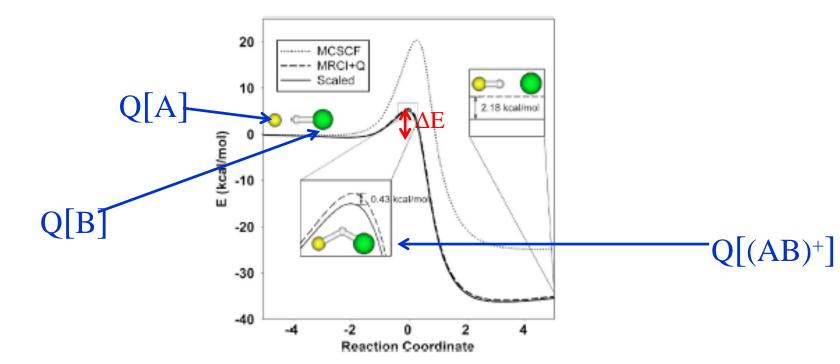
• Once you have the barrier you can estimate the thermal rate constant of the reaction from the calculation results! (Assuming that the reaction proceeds along the IRC)

$$\begin{array}{c} A+B \to (AB)^+ \to \text{product} \\ \uparrow \\ \text{Activated Complex} \\ \text{(Geomtry at Potential Barrier)} \end{array} - \left(\frac{d[A]}{dt}\right) = \frac{k_B T}{h} K^+[A][B] \end{array}$$

 K^+ is the thermal rate constant that depends on temperature

Things Needed To Calculate Rate Constant $K^{+} = \frac{Q[(AB)^{+}]}{Q[A]Q[B]} \exp\left[-\frac{\Delta E}{k_{B}T}\right]$

Q is the partition function of the respective molecules DE is the energy difference from the reactant to the barrier



Partition Function 1
$$Q_{trans} = \left(\frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} V = \left(\frac{2\pi m k_B T}{h^2}\right)^{3/2} \frac{k_B T}{P}$$

Usually you consider 1atm pressure

$$Q_{electronic} = D_0 \exp\left[-\varepsilon_0 / k_B T\right] + D_1 \exp\left[-\varepsilon_1 / k_B T\right] + D_2 \exp\left[-\varepsilon_2 / k_B T\right] + \dots = D_0$$

D is the degeneracy of the electronic state, usually only consider ground electronic state

Partition Function 2
$$Q_{rot} = \frac{\pi^{1/2}}{\sigma_r} \left(\frac{T^{3/2}}{(\theta_A \theta_B \theta_C)^{1/2}} \right) \qquad \theta_{A,B,C} = \frac{h^2}{8\pi^2 I_{A,B,C} k_B}$$

I is the moment of inertia around the respective axis

$$Q_{vib} = \prod_{i}^{Nvib} \frac{1}{1 - \exp\left[-\frac{hv_i}{k_B T}\right]}$$

 v_i is the vibrational frequency of the i-th vibrational mode

Normal Mode Vibration

First we consider mass –weight Cartesian Coordinates $q_1 = m_1^{1/2} \Delta X_1; q_2 = m_1^{1/2} \Delta Y_1; q_3 = m_1^{1/2} \Delta Z_1; q_4 = m_2^{1/2} \Delta x_2; \dots q_{3N} = m_N^{1/2} \Delta Z_N$

Next expand the potential energy to second term near equilibrium

$$V = V(0) + \sum_{I}^{3N} K_{I}q_{I} + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{I}^{3N}\sum_{J}^{3N} K_{IJ}q_{I}q_{J} = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{I}^{3N}\sum_{J}^{3N} K_{IJ}q_{I}q_{J}$$

energy is given as $E = \frac{1}{2}\sum_{I}^{3N}\dot{q}_{I}^{2} + \frac{1}{2}\sum_{I}^{3N}\sum_{J}^{3N} K_{IJ}q_{I}q_{J}$

Cross term

If we diagonalize
$$K_{IJ}$$
 $E = \frac{1}{2} \sum_{I}^{3N-5/6} \dot{Q}_{I}^{2} + \frac{1}{2} \sum_{I}^{3N-5/6} \lambda_{I} Q_{I}^{2}$

Total

Motion described by 3N-6(5 for linear molecule) NORMAL MODES

$$Q_I = \sum_{J=1}^{3N} L_{IJ} q_J$$
 $I = 1,3N - 5/6$

5/6 Modes that are ignored have zero λ_I TRANSLATION/ROTATION