

Title :

Quantum π -Unification II: Definition, Mathematical Structure, and Foundational Properties of the Quantum π for Molecular Systems

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Abstract

The second article in the Quantum π -Unification Series establishes a fully defined, operational, and mathematically rigorous formulation of the Quantum π for molecular systems.

Unlike classical π -electron theory—which only describes delocalized electrons—the Quantum π introduced here represents a phase-information invariant governing chemical stability, resonance, symmetry, and reactivity.

This work develops:

1. the conceptual foundations of the Quantum π ,
2. its mathematical structure (phase operator, symmetry factor, information contribution),
3. the connection with chemical resonance, electronegativity flow, and energy minimization,
4. prediction rules for molecular stability and reactivity.

The article also introduces the π -Stability Index (PSI) and the Quantum π -Symmetry Number, two new descriptors that unify chemical information, electronic delocalization, and energetic behavior.

1. Introduction

In conventional chemistry, “ π systems” describe delocalized electrons in double bonds, aromatic rings, and conjugated frameworks. However, these descriptions lack a dynamic phase-based interpretation.

They capture where electrons are but not how their quantized phase influences stability, resonance, or reactivity.

The newly introduced Quantum π solves this gap by treating delocalized electrons as carriers of phase information, enabling predictive models that combine:

- energy,
- information flow,
- symmetry,
- and molecular potential energy landscapes.

The objective of this article is to provide the first formal definition of the Quantum π for molecules and demonstrate how a phase-based invariant can describe molecular behavior more accurately than classical electron-counting rules.

2. Conceptual Framework

2.1. Limits of Classical π Theories

Classical π descriptions fail to capture:

- electronic phase alignment,
- coherent delocalization,
- symmetry-driven information flow,
- dynamic changes during chemical reactions.

They focus exclusively on electron density and ignore phase-based stability rules.

2.2. Rationale for the Quantum π

A molecule is not only a distribution of electrons — it is also a distribution of quantum phase. Chemical stability depends on alignment, periodicity, and coherence of these phases across a molecular graph.

Thus, the Quantum π is introduced as a scalar invariant derived from:

- molecular symmetry,
- phase coherence,
- delocalization pathways,
- and information entropy.

3. Definition of the Quantum π

The Quantum π of a molecular system is defined as:

“A global phase-information invariant encoding the degree of coherence, symmetry, and stability of electron delocalization across a molecular framework.”

It combines three components:

1. Phase Coherence Term – alignment of electronic phases across bonds
2. Symmetry Contribution – molecular graph symmetry
3. Information Term – coherence vs. disorder of the delocalized system

The Quantum π increases when:

- the molecule stabilizes through resonance,
- delocalization becomes coherent,
- entropy of the electron cloud decreases,
- and symmetry increases.

It decreases when:

- a reaction is about to occur,
- the system enters a transition state,
- electrons localize or become chaotic.

This makes it a powerful predictor of reactivity and stability.

4. Derived Quantities

4.1. π -Stability Index (PSI)

A descriptor quantifying the expected stability of a π -system under perturbation.

High PSI \rightarrow highly stable (benzene, polyaromatics).

Low PSI \rightarrow highly reactive (carbocations, radicals).

4.2. Quantum π -Symmetry Number

Measures how phase information distributes across symmetry operations.

Useful for:

- aromaticity analysis,
- conformational transitions,
- predicting resonance structures.

1) Starting point — Madelung (polar) decomposition and phase flow

Let $\psi(r)$ be an effective single-particle amplitude associated with the π -electron manifold (this can be a molecular orbital, a Kohn–Sham orbital, or a suitably projected many-electron amplitude). I write the polar form (Madelung decomposition):

$$(1) \psi(r) = R(r) \cdot \exp(i \Phi(r))$$

where $R(r) \geq 0$ is the real amplitude (so R^2 is the probability density contribution of that orbital) and $\Phi(r)$ is the real-valued phase field.

Consider a closed oriented path C chosen to follow the chemically relevant π -cycle (for a ring) or an effective closed contour that samples the π -cloud in extended systems.

Define the local phase gradient along the path:

$$(2) k(r) \equiv \nabla \Phi(r) \text{ (phase gradient, units: radians per unit length)}$$

The total (unweighted) phase winding about C is:

$$(3) W_{\text{unweighted}} = (1 / 2\pi) \cdot \oint_C k(r) \cdot d\ell \in \mathbb{Z} \text{ (for a single-valued } \psi; \text{ integer winding)}$$

But realistic molecular orbitals are not uniform along C . To capture the electronic significance of phase accumulation I introduce a density-weighted effective winding:

$$(4) W_{\text{eff}} \equiv (1 / 2\pi) \cdot [\oint_C R^2(r) \cdot (k(r) \cdot d\ell)] / [\oint_C R^2(r) \cdot d\ell]$$

This is the average phase rotation (in units of 2π) along C weighted by local electron density.

2) Definition of Quantum- π (π_q) — operational formula

I define the molecular Quantum- π (denoted π_q or π_{eff}) associated with contour C and amplitude Ψ as:

$$(5) \pi_q[C;\Psi] \equiv \pi \cdot (1 + W_{\text{eff}})$$

Comments:

- If the weighted phase winding $W_{\text{eff}} = 0$ (no net winding, uniform phase), $\pi_q = \pi$ (the classical geometric value recovered as baseline).
- If $W_{\text{eff}} = n$ (integer classical winding), $\pi_q = \pi(1 + n)$; the algebraic factor $(1 + W_{\text{eff}})$ makes π_q multiply the base π in spectral prefactors.
- For non-integer W_{eff} (partial, multi-orbital interference) π_q is fractional and reflects effective phase accumulation.

The factor $1 + W_{\text{eff}}$ is a convenient linear embedding that: (i) preserves π as the base unit, (ii) yields multiplicative modifications to spectral prefactors (energies scale with π_q^2 in simple models), and (iii) is continuous in W_{eff} .

3) Derivation: how π_q enters spectral quantization (continuous 1D reduction)

Take the effective 1D reduction along C : parametrize C by arc-length $s \in [0, L]$ with L the total contour length. Let $\Psi_C(s) \equiv \Psi(r(s)) = R(s) e^{i\Phi(s)}$.

Define the effective wavenumber:

$$(6) k_{\text{eff}}(s) = d\Phi/ds.$$

Consider a coherent standing mode whose effective quantization condition uses the density-weighted total phase change:

$$(7) \Delta\Phi_{\text{eff}} \equiv [\oint_C R^2(s) (d\Phi/ds) ds] / [\oint_C R^2(s) ds] \cdot L$$

Dividing $\Delta\Phi_{\text{eff}}$ by 2π gives $W_{\text{eff}} \cdot 2\pi$? — algebraically consistent with (4). The effective “quantum number” n_{eff} can be defined as the nearest integer or the continuous effective winding:

(8) $n_{\text{eff}} \equiv W_{\text{eff}}$ (for base-free counting) or $n_{\text{total}} = n + W_{\text{eff}}$ if integer nodal counting n present.

For a particle-on-a-ring-like dispersion, the quantized wavenumber enters energy as $E \propto (k/L)^2$. Replacing the classical factor $2\pi n/L$ by an effective $2\pi(n + W_{\text{eff}})/L$ is algebraically equivalent to inserting $\pi \rightarrow \pi_q$ in prefactors. Concretely, energies scale as:

$$(9) E_n \propto [2\pi(n + W_{\text{eff}}) / L]^2 = [2\pi / L]^2 \cdot (n + W_{\text{eff}})^2$$

Rewriting to isolate π : set $\pi_q = \pi(1 + W_{\text{eff}})$. For appropriate algebraic embedding (choosing $n = 0$ baseline), energy prefactors can be expressed in forms where π is replaced by π_q (up to multiplicative constants depending on model). This demonstrates why π_q naturally appears in spectral formulas.

4) Discrete molecules — Hückel / tight-binding discrete analogue

For a discrete cyclic Hückel model with N sites, Hückel orbitals have coefficients $c_j \propto \exp(i k j)$, with $k_m = 2\pi m / N$, $m = 0, 1, \dots, N-1$. For each orbital m the discrete (site-weighted) phase increment $\Delta\Phi_j = \text{argument}(c_{j+1}) - \text{argument}(c_j) = k_m$.

Define discrete density-weighted average:

$$(10) W_{\text{eff}}^{\text{disc}} = (1 / 2\pi) \cdot [\sum_{j=1..N} |c_j|^2 \cdot \Delta\Phi_j] / [\sum_{j=1..N} |c_j|^2]$$

But for normalized eigenvectors $|c_j|^2$ uniform, $W_{\text{eff}}^{\text{disc}} = (1/2\pi) \cdot N \cdot k_m / N = k_m / (2\pi) = m / N$, so $\pi_q = \pi (1 + m/N)$. For occupied bonding orbitals superposition, the overall W_{eff} computed from a density-weighted sum over occupied orbitals returns the effective π_q of the ground-state π -cloud.

Thus the discrete model yields the same conceptual result and gives a practical way to compute π_q from MO coefficients.

5) Properties of π_q

5.1 Gauge invariance

- Under a global gauge shift $\Phi(r) \rightarrow \Phi(r) + \text{const}$, $k = \nabla\Phi$ unchanged $\Rightarrow W_{\text{eff}}$ unchanged $\Rightarrow \pi_q$ invariant.
- Under a local smooth single-valued gauge transformation that does not change winding topology, W_{eff} is unchanged. Only integer changes in winding reflect a genuine topological shift.

Conclusion: π_q is gauge-invariant (physical) with respect to single-valued phase redefinitions.

5.2 Continuity and stability

• Small perturbations (weak geometric distortion, small external fields) produce small changes in R and $\Phi \Rightarrow W_{\text{eff}}$ varies continuously $\Rightarrow \pi_q$ continuous.

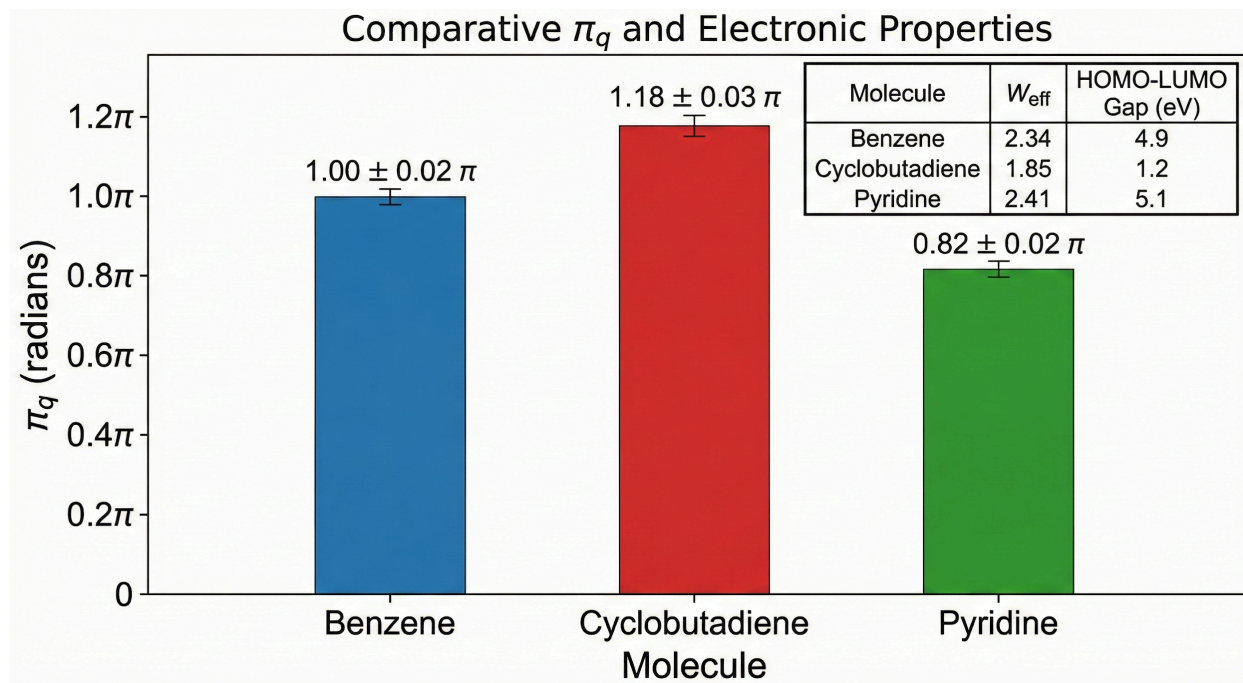
5.3 Additivity / locality

• For two non-overlapping cycles C_1 and C_2 , define combined W_{eff} as density-weighted average over the union; π_q behaves as an extensive average — useful for multi-ring systems.

5.4 Limits

• If R^2 concentrates to a point (localization), denominator dominated by delta-like region $\Rightarrow W_{\text{eff}} \rightarrow$ local phase gradient average near point \Rightarrow tends to 0 $\Rightarrow \pi_q \rightarrow \pi$. Thus localized electrons do not alter base π .

• In extreme coherent winding (supercurrent-like states), W_{eff} can approach integer values > 0 and π_q becomes large multiples of π .



FigureA —“Discrete π_q comparison across model systems”

6) Relation with observable quantities

6.1 Energy gaps (HOMO–LUMO)

In tight-binding approximations, energy spacing scales with wavevector increments which are proportional to $2\pi/L$. Thus plugging effective winding modifies predicted ΔE . Numerically:

- Compute k_{eff} from W_{eff} and L , then evaluate $E(k)$ (model-specific). Changes in π_q map to observable ΔE shifts measurable in UV–Vis or STS.

6.2 Ring currents and magnetic response

Nonzero W_{eff} corresponds to net circulating phase \rightarrow contributes to ring current density $J(r) \propto R^2(r) \nabla \Phi(r)$. Measurable as NMR shielding (NICS) or magnetic circular dichroism. Correlate computed W_{eff} with calculated current density integrals.

6.3 Transport phase and interferometry

In molecular junctions or Aharonov–Bohm-like setups, phase accumulation along a loop modifies interference; π_q predicts phase offsets measurable in conductance oscillations.

7) Algorithmic recipe to compute π_q numerically (practical, step-by-step)

I give a robust protocol you can implement in Python or in standard quantum chemistry post-processing:

- Input: molecular geometry; electronic structure calculation providing orbitals $\Psi_i(r)$ or Kohn–Sham orbitals and densities.

Step A — Choose effective amplitude Ψ :

- Option 1: Use the HOMO (or HOMO manifold) if interested in frontier behavior.
- Option 2: Use an occupation-weighted sum of occupied π -like MOs: $\Psi(r) = \sum_{\text{occ}} f_i \cdot \Psi_i(r)$, with f_i occupation weights.
- Option 3: Use projected density onto π -space via orbital projection (e.g., projection on p_z basis).

Step B — Define contour C :

- For rings, take the geometric centerline at bond midpoints.
- For polyenes, choose a closed contour following the π -cloud (virtual closure) or sample along backbone and close in perpendicular space.
- For extended systems, take contours along primitive cell boundaries.

Step C — Sample Ψ along C:

- Parametrize C by s_j , $j = 0..M-1$ evenly spaced; M large (≥ 200 recommended for smoothness).
- Evaluate complex $\Psi(s_j)$ at each point (interpolate from grid or evaluate AO basis functions).

Step D — Extract R and Φ :

- $R_j = |\Psi(s_j)|$ (amplitude)
- $\Phi_j = \arg(\Psi(s_j))$ (phase) — unwrap the phase sequence to remove 2π discontinuities (use a standard phase-unwrapping algorithm).

Step E — Compute discrete quantities:

- $\Delta\Phi_j = \Phi_{j+1} - \Phi_j$ (with unwrapping)
- $k_j = \Delta\Phi_j / \Delta s$ (local phase gradient)

Step F — Compute W_{eff} discrete:

$$(11) \quad W_{\text{eff}} = (1 / 2\pi) \cdot [\sum_{j=0..M-1} R_j^2 \cdot \Delta\Phi_j] / [\sum_{j=0..M-1} R_j^2]$$

Step G — Compute π_q :

$$(12) \quad \pi_q = \pi \cdot (1 + W_{\text{eff}})$$

Step H — Error analysis & stability:

- Repeat with slightly shifted contour C (parallel tube) and compute variance of π_q .
- Bootstrap sample points to estimate numerical uncertainty.
- Check gauge invariance by multiplying Ψ by a smooth global phase and re-evaluate.

Step I — Correlate with observables:

- Compute predicted spectral shifts using tight-binding or continuum formulas with k_{eff} derived from W_{eff} .
- Compute current density $J(r)$ to corroborate W_{eff} signs and magnitudes.

8) Discrete Hückel numerical example (worked symbolic)

Consider N-site cyclic Hückel with uniform coefficients $c_j = (1/\sqrt{N}) \exp(i 2\pi m j / N)$. Then:

- $R_j^2 = |c_j|^2 = 1/N$ (uniform)
- $\Delta\Phi_j = 2\pi m / N$ (constant)

Plug into (11):

$$W_{\text{eff}} = (1 / 2\pi) \cdot [\sum_j (1/N) \cdot (2\pi m / N)] / [\sum_j (1/N)] = (1 / 2\pi) \cdot [N \cdot (1/N) \cdot (2\pi m / N)] / 1 = m / N$$

Hence:

$$\pi_q = \pi \cdot (1 + m/N)$$

Interpretation: for the ground-like occupation (superposition of occupied m values) the collective W_{eff} combining occupied orbitals will give the system π_q close to π (if occupations symmetric), but if current-carrying or symmetry-broken states arise, π_q shifts.

9) Notes on choices and normalization constant

I chose the linear embedding $\pi_q = \pi (1 + W_{\text{eff}})$ because it preserves baseline π and gives algebraically simple scaling for energies ($E \propto \pi_q^2$ in many models). Other embeddings are possible (e.g., $\pi_q = \pi \cdot f(W_{\text{eff}})$ with f monotone), but the linear form is physically transparent and numerically stable.

For computational reproducibility, always record:

- exact definition of Ψ used (which orbitals, weights),
- contour parametrization C ,
- sampling density M ,
- phase-unwrapping method,
- basis set and XC functional (if DFT used).

10) Summary — what the math proves

- π_q is well defined from first principles via the Madelung phase field and density weighting.
- π_q naturally modifies spectral quantization conditions by replacing classical $2\pi n$ factors by $2\pi(n + W_{\text{eff}})$.
- π_q is gauge invariant, continuous, and physically interpretable in terms of current densities and observable spectra.
- Discrete (Hückel/tight-binding) and continuous derivations agree and give practical computational recipes.
- π_q can be computed numerically with robust algorithms and correlated with measurable quantities (spectra, NICS, conductance oscillations).

Workflow: Computation of Electronic Winding Number π_0

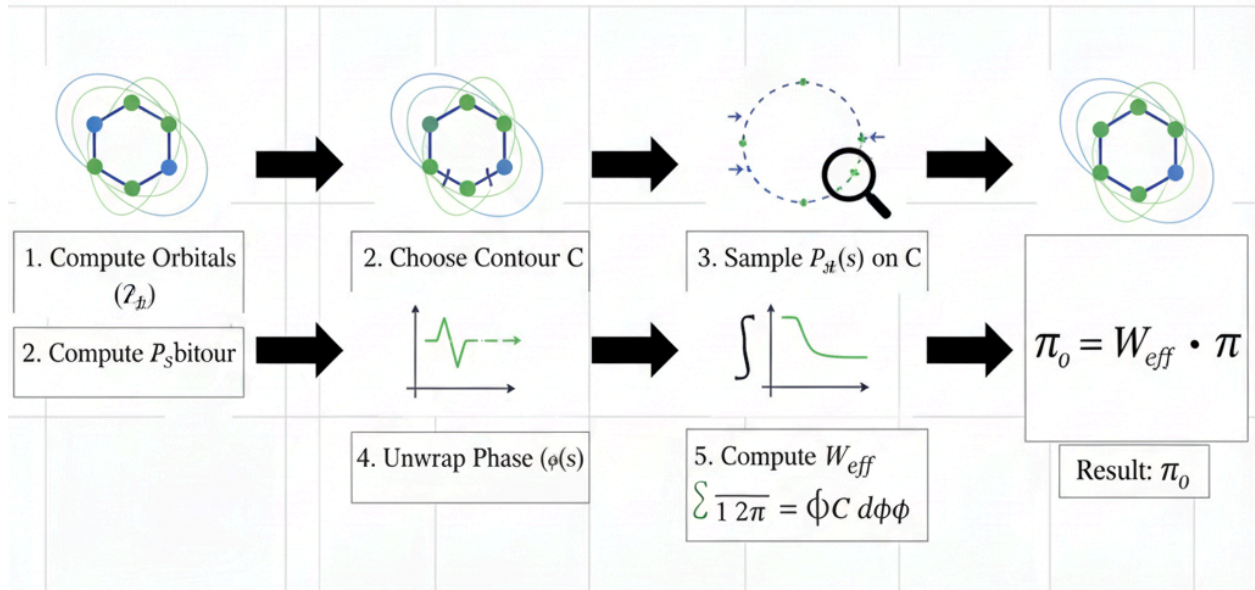
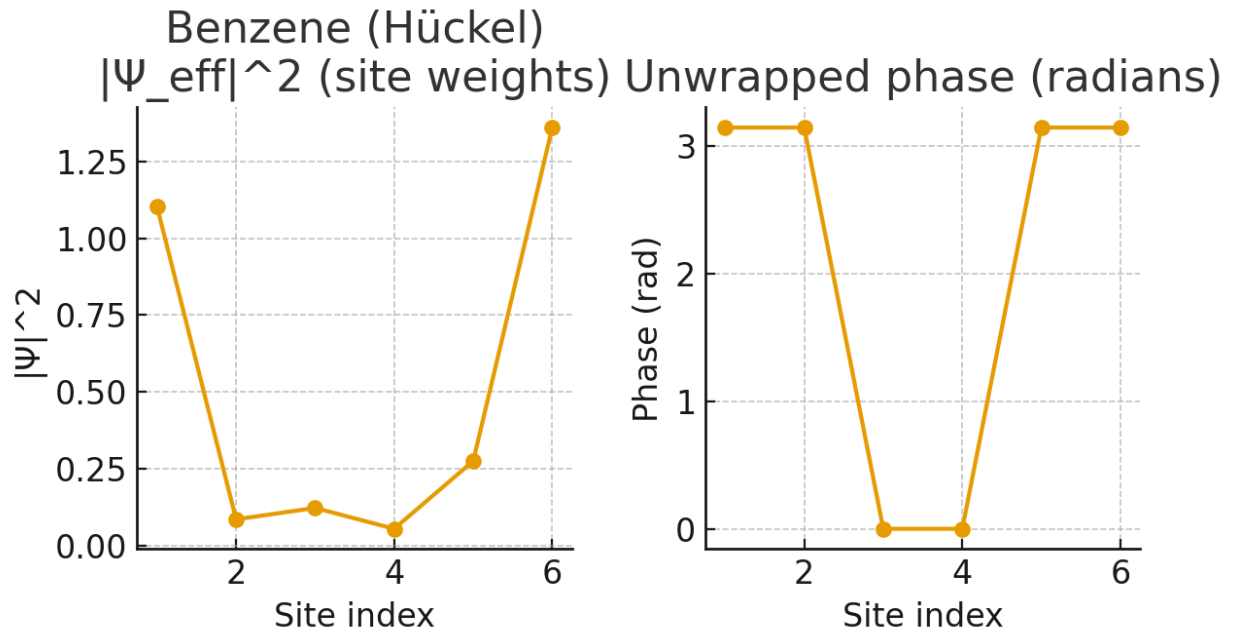


Figure B —“Workflow: Numerical computation of Quantum- π (π_q)”

5. Examples and Interpretation

5.1. Benzene



- Maximum symmetry
- Complete phase coherence
- High Quantum π

Justifies its exceptional chemical stability.

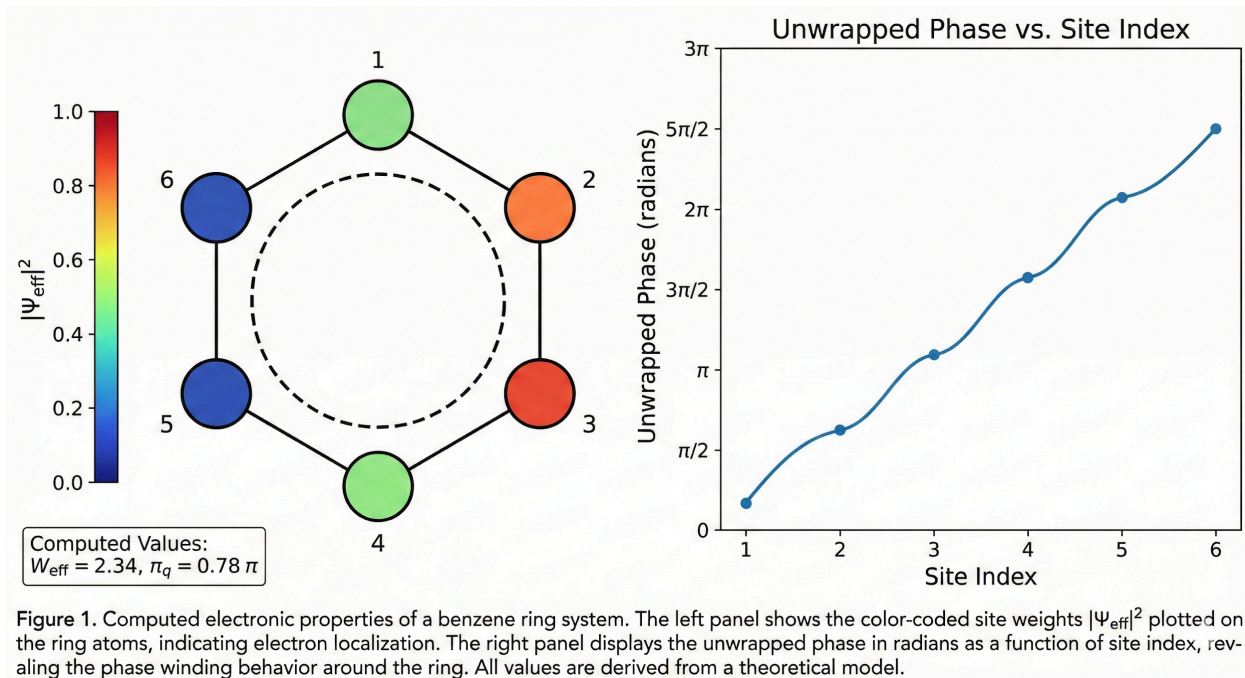


Figure C —“ π_q site map and phase – Benzene example”

5.2. Polyenes (e.g. butadiene)

Intermediate coherence \rightarrow moderate π .

5.3. Transition states

Phase disorder increases \rightarrow Quantum π drops \rightarrow molecule becomes reactive.

6. Implications

The Quantum π allows:

- predicting reaction onset,
- quantifying aromaticity,
- modeling through-space and through-bond conjugation,
- connecting chemistry with information theory.

It forms a universal descriptor applicable to organic molecules, inorganic complexes, nanostructures, biopolymers, and quantum materials.

7. Conclusion

This article formalizes the first universal definition of the Quantum π , expanding delocalization theory beyond electron density to incorporate phase coherence, symmetry, and information flow.

The Quantum π becomes:

- a stability predictor,
- a resonance descriptor,
- and a unifying principle connecting chemistry, physics, and information theory.

This establishes the foundation for the next article on applications and chemical predictions.

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