

Lecture #5: Begin Quantum Mechanics: Free Particle and Particle in a 1D Box

Last time:

$$\text{1-D Wave equation } \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 u}{\partial t^2}$$

- * $u(x,t)$: displacements as function of x,t
- * 2nd-order: solution is sum of 2 linearly independent functions
- * *general* solution by separation of variables
- * boundary conditions give *specific* physical system
- * “normal modes” — octaves, nodes, Fourier series, “quantization”
- * The pluck: superposition of normal modes, time-evolving wavepacket
 Problem Set #2: time evolution of plucked system
- * More complicated for separation of 2-D rectangular drum. Two separation constants.

Today: Begin Quantum Mechanics

The 1-D Schrödinger equation is very similar to the 1-D wave equation. It is a postulate. Cannot be derived, but it is motivated in Chapter 3 of McQuarrie. *You can only determine whether it fails to reproduce experimental observations.* This is one of the weirdnesses of Quantum Mechanics.

We are always trying to break things (story about the Exploratorium in San Francisco).

1. Operators: Tells us to do something to the function on its right.

Examples: $\hat{A}f = g$, operator denoted by \hat{A} (“^” hat)

$$\begin{array}{l}
 * \text{ take derivative } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \frac{d}{dx} f(x) = f'(x) \\ \frac{d}{dx} (af(x) + bg(x)) = \underbrace{af'(x) + bg'(x)}_{\text{linear operator}} \end{array} \right. \\
 * \text{ integrate } \quad \int dx (af(x) + bg(x)) = \underbrace{a \int dx f + b \int dx g}_{\text{linear operator}} \\
 * \text{ take square root } \quad \sqrt{(af(x) + bg(x))} = \underbrace{[af(x) + bg(x)]^{1/2}}_{\text{NOT linear operator}}
 \end{array}$$

We are interested in *linear operators* in Quantum Mechanics. (part of McQuarrie’s postulate #2)

2. Eigenvalue equations

$$\hat{A}f(x) = af(x)$$

a is an eigenvalue of the operator \hat{A} .

$f(x)$ is a specific eigenfunction that “belongs” to the eigenvalue a

more explicit notation $\hat{A}f_n(x) = a_n f_n(x)$

| <u>Operator</u> | <u>An Eigenfunction</u> | <u>Its eigenvalue</u> |
|------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| $\hat{A} = \frac{d}{dx}$ | e^{ax} | a |
| $\hat{B} = \frac{d^2}{dx^2}$ | $\sin bx + \cos bx$ | $-b^2$ |
| $\hat{C} = x \frac{d}{dx}$ | ax^n | n |

3. Important Operators in Quantum Mechanics (part of McQuarrie’s postulate #2)

For every *physical quantity* there is a *linear operator*

coordinate $\hat{x} = x$

momentum $\hat{p}_x = -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$ (at first glance, this seems surprising. Why?)

kinetic energy $\hat{T} = \hat{p}^2 / 2m = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}$

potential energy $\hat{V}(x) = V(x)$

energy $\hat{H} = \hat{T} + \hat{V} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x)$ (the “Hamiltonian”)

Note that these choices for \hat{x} and \hat{p} are dimensionally correct, but their “truthiness” is based on whether they give the expected results.

4. There is a very important fundamental property that lies behind the uncertainty principle: non-commutation of two operators. $\hat{x}\hat{p} \neq \hat{p}\hat{x}$

To find out what this difference between $\hat{x}\hat{p}$ and $\hat{p}\hat{x}$ is, apply the commutator, $[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] \equiv \hat{x}\hat{p} - \hat{p}\hat{x}$, to an arbitrary function.

$$\hat{x}\hat{p}f(x) = x(-i\hbar)\frac{df}{dx} = -i\hbar x\frac{df}{dx}$$

$$\hat{p}\hat{x}f(x) = (-i\hbar)\frac{d}{dx}(xf) = (-i\hbar)\left[f + x\frac{df}{dx}\right]$$

$$[\hat{x}, \hat{p}] \equiv \hat{x}\hat{p} - \hat{p}\hat{x} = i\hbar \quad \text{a non-zero "commutator".}$$

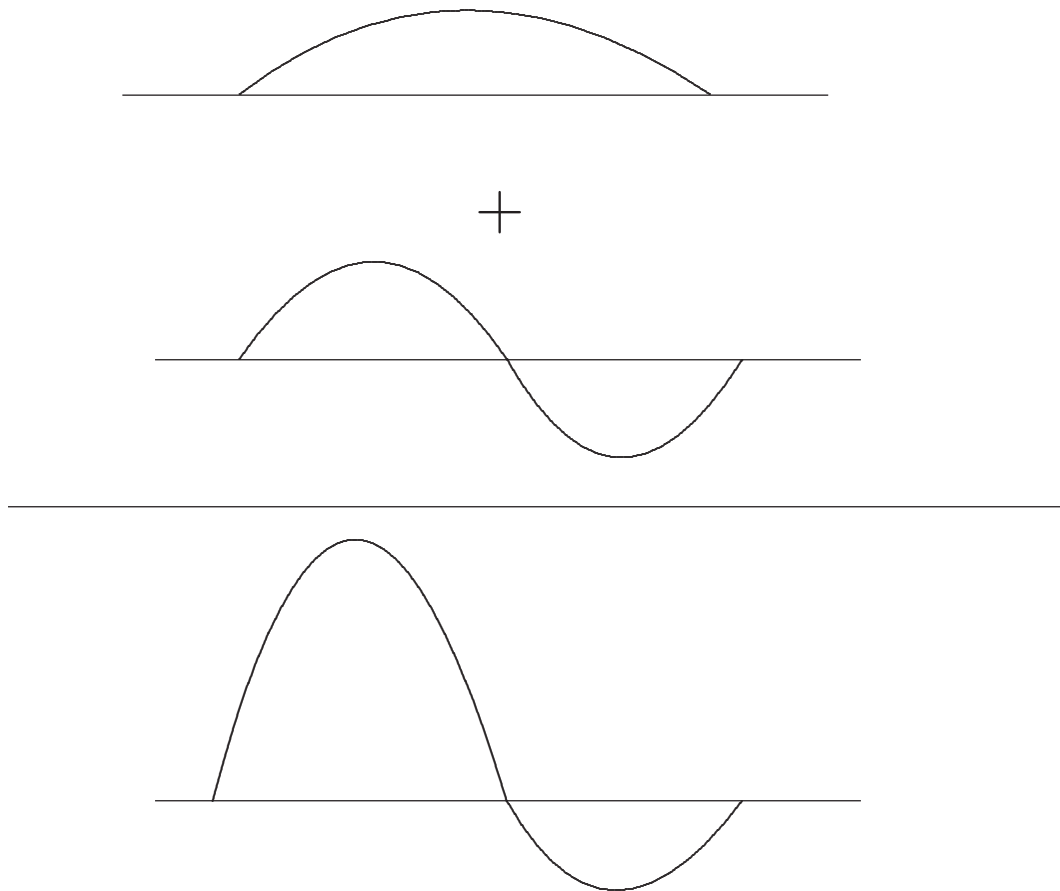
We will eventually see that this non-commutation is the reason we cannot sharply specify *both* x and p_x .

5. Wavefunctions (McQuarrie's postulate #1)

$\psi(x)$: state of the system – contains *everything that can be known*. Strangely, $\psi(x)$ itself can never be directly observed. *The central quantity of quantum mechanics is not observable*. This should bother you!

* $\psi(x)$ is a “probability amplitude” – similar to the amplitude of a wave (can be positive or negative)

* $\psi(x)$ can exhibit interference



* probability of finding particle between $x, x + dx$ is $\psi^*(x)\psi(x)dx$ (ψ^* is the complex conjugate of ψ)

6. Average value of observable \hat{A} in state ψ ? Expectation value. (part of McQuarrie's postulate #4)

$$\langle A \rangle = \frac{\int \psi^* \hat{A} \psi dx}{\int \psi^* \psi dx}$$

Note that the denominator is needed when the wavefunction is not normalized to one.

7. Schrödinger Equation

$\hat{H}\psi_n = E_n\psi_n$ ψ_n is an eigenfunction of \hat{H} that belongs to the specific energy eigenvalue, E_n . (part of McQuarrie's postulate #5)

Let's look at two of the *simplest* quantum mechanical problems. They are also very important because they appear repeatedly.

1. Free particle: $V(x) = V_0$ (constant potential)

$$\hat{H} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} + V_0$$

$$\hat{H}\psi = E\psi, \text{ move } V_0 \text{ to RHS}$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \psi = (E - V_0)\psi$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \psi = \frac{-2m(E - V_0)}{\hbar^2} \psi.$$

Note that if $E > V_0$, then on the RHS we need ψ multiplied by a negative number. Therefore ψ must contain complex exponentials. This is the physically reasonable situation.

But if $E < V_0$ (how is such a thing possible?), then on the RHS we need ψ multiplied by a positive number. ψ must contain real exponentials.

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} e^{+kx} \text{ diverges to } \infty \text{ as } x \rightarrow +\infty \\ e^{-kx} \text{ diverges to } \infty \text{ as } x \rightarrow -\infty \end{array} \right\} \text{unphysical [but useful for } |x| \text{ finite (tunneling)]}$$

So, when $E > V_0$, we find $\psi(x)$ by trying $\psi = ae^{+ikx} + be^{-ikx}$ (two linearly independent terms)

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} = -k^2 \underbrace{(ae^{ikx} + be^{-ikx})}_{\psi}$$

$$-\frac{2m(E - V_0)}{\hbar^2} = -k^2$$

Solve for E ,

$$E_k = \frac{(\hbar k)^2}{2m} + V_0.$$

You show that $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} * \psi = ae^{ikx} \text{ is eigenfunction of } \hat{p} \\ * \text{ with eigenvalue } \hbar k \\ * \text{ and } \langle p \rangle = \hbar k. \end{array} \right.$

No quantization of E because k can have *any* real value.

NON-LECTURE

What is the average value of momentum for $\psi = ae^{ikx} + be^{-ikx}$?

$$\langle p \rangle = \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \psi^* \hat{p} \psi}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \psi^* \psi} \quad \leftarrow \text{normalization integral}$$

$$= \frac{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx (a^* e^{-ikx} + b^* e^{ikx}) (-i\hbar) \frac{d}{dx} (ae^{ikx} + be^{-ikx})}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx (a^* e^{-ikx} + b^* e^{ikx}) (ae^{ikx} + be^{-ikx})}$$

$$= \frac{-i\hbar \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx (a^* e^{-ikx} + b^* e^{ikx}) (ik) (ae^{ikx} - be^{-ikx})}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx (|a|^2 + |b|^2 + a^* b e^{-2ikx} + ab^* e^{2ikx})}$$

$$= \frac{\hbar k \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx (|a|^2 - |b|^2 + ab^* e^{2ikx} - a^* b e^{-2ikx})}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx (|a|^2 + |b|^2 + ab^* e^{2ikx} + a^* b e^{-2ikx})}$$

Integrals from $-\infty$ to $+\infty$ over oscillatory functions like $e^{\pm i2kx}$ are always equal to zero. Why?

$$\langle p \rangle = \hbar k \frac{|a|^2 - |b|^2}{|a|^2 + |b|^2}$$

$$\text{if } a = 0 \quad \langle p \rangle = -\hbar k$$

$$\text{if } b = 0 \quad \langle p \rangle = +\hbar k$$

$\frac{|a|^2}{|a|^2 + |b|^2}$ is fraction of the observations of the system
in ψ which have $p > 0$

$\frac{|b|^2}{|a|^2 + |b|^2}$ is fraction of the observations of the system
in ψ which have $p < 0$

END OF NON-LECTURE

Free particle: it is possible to specify momentum sharply, but if we do that we will find that the particle must be delocalized over all space.

For a free particle, $\psi^*(x)\psi(x)dx$ is delocalized over all space. If we have chosen only one value of $|k|$, $\psi^*\psi$ can be oscillatory, but it must be positive everywhere. Oscillations occur when e^{ikx} is added to e^{-ikx} .

NON-LECTURE

$$\psi = ae^{ikx} + be^{-ikx}$$

$$\psi^*\psi = |a|^2 + |b|^2 + 2\text{Re}[ab^*e^{2ikx}], \text{ but if } a, b \text{ are real}$$

$$\psi^*\psi = \underbrace{a^2 + b^2}_{\text{constant}} + \underbrace{2ab \cos 2kx}_{\text{oscillatory}}$$

Note that $\psi^*\psi \geq 0$ everywhere. For x where $\cos 2bx$ has its maximum negative value, $\cos 2kx = -1$, then $\psi^*\psi = (a-b)^2$. Thus $\psi^*\psi \geq 0$ for all x because $(a-b)^2 \geq 0$ if a, b are real.

Sometimes it is difficult to understand the quantum mechanical free particle wavefunction (because it is not normalized to 1 over a finite region of space). The **particle in a box** is the problem that we can most easily understand completely. This is where we begin to become comfortable with some of the mysteries of Quantum Mechanics.

- * insight into electronic absorption spectra of conjugated molecules.
- * derivation of the ideal gas law in 5.62!
- * very easy integrals

Particle in a box, of length a , with infinitely high walls.

“infinite box”

$$\hat{H} = \frac{\hat{p}^2}{2m} + V(x)$$

$$\left. \begin{array}{l} V(x) = 0 \quad 0 \leq x \leq a \\ V(x) = \infty \quad x < 0, x > a \end{array} \right\} \text{very convenient because } \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} dx \psi^* V(x) \psi = 0.$$

(convince yourself of this!)

$\psi(x)$ must be continuous everywhere.

$\psi(x) = 0$ everywhere outside of box (otherwise $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \psi^* V \psi = \infty$).

$\psi(0) = \psi(a) = 0$ at edges of box.

Inside box, this looks like the free particle, which we have already solved.

$$\hat{H}\psi = E\psi \quad \text{Schrödinger Equation}$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \psi = E\psi \quad (V(x) = 0 \text{ inside the box})$$

$$\frac{d^2}{dx^2} \psi = -\frac{2m}{\hbar^2} E\psi = -k^2 \psi$$

$$k^2 \equiv \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}$$

$\psi(x) = A \sin kx + B \cos kx$ satisfies Schrödinger Equation (it is the general solution)

Apply boundary conditions:

$$\psi(0) = B = 0 \quad \text{therefore } B = 0$$

$$\psi(a) = A \sin ka = 0 \quad \text{therefore } A \sin ka = 0 \text{ (quantization!)}$$

$$ka = n\pi \quad k = \frac{n\pi}{a} \quad n \text{ is an integer}$$

$$\psi = A \sin \frac{n\pi}{a} x$$

$$\int_0^a dx \psi^* \psi = 1 \quad \text{normalize}$$

$$A^2 \int_0^a dx \sin^2 \frac{n\pi}{a} x = A^2 \frac{a}{2} = 1$$

$$A = \left(\frac{2}{a} \right)^{1/2}$$

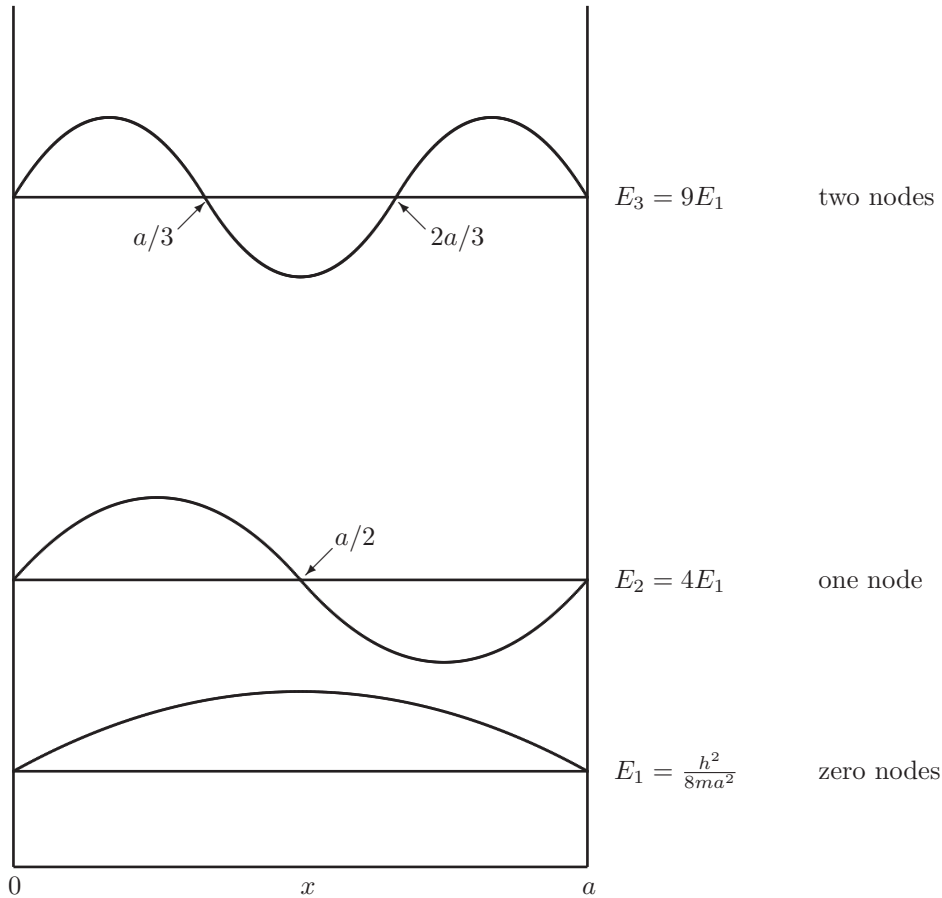
$\psi_n = \left(\frac{2}{a} \right)^{1/2} \sin \frac{n\pi}{a} x$ is the *complete* set of eigenfunctions for a particle in a box. Now

find the energies for each value of n .

$$\begin{aligned}
 \hat{H}\psi_n &= -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2}{dx^2} \left(\frac{2}{a}\right)^{1/2} \sin \frac{n\pi}{a} x \\
 &= +\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left(\frac{n\pi}{a}\right)^2 \psi_n \\
 &= \frac{h^2 n^2}{8ma^2} \psi_n.
 \end{aligned}$$

$$E_n = n^2 \underbrace{\frac{h^2}{8ma^2}}_{E_1} = n^2 E_1 \quad n = 1, 2, 3 \dots \quad (\text{never forget this!})$$

$n = 0$ means the box is empty
what would a negative value of n mean?



$n-1$ nodes, nodes are equally spaced. All lobes between nodes have the same shape.

Summary:

Some fundamental mathematical aspects of Quantum Mechanics.

Initial solutions of two-simplest Quantum Mechanical problems.

- * Free Particle
- * Particle in an infinite 1-D box

Next Lecture:

1.
 - * more about the particle in 1-D box
 - * Zero-point energy (this is unexpected)
 - * $\Delta x \Delta p$ vs. n ($n = 1$ gives minimum uncertainty)

2. particle in 3-D box
 - * separation of variables
 - * degeneracy

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