

Basic Quantum Mechanics
Prof. Ajoy Ghatak
Department of Physics
Indian Institute of Technology, Delhi

Module No # 03
Linear Harmonic Oscillator-I
Lecture No # 02
Linear Harmonic Oscillator (Contd.)

(Refer Slide Time: 00:43)

The image shows a handwritten derivation on a grid background. The equations are as follows:

$$\Psi(x, t) = \sum_{n=0,1,\dots}^{\infty} c_n \psi_n(x) e^{-i(n+\frac{1}{2})\omega t}$$

$$\Psi(x, 0) = \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\pi}} e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\xi - \xi_0)^2} \quad \text{Coherent State}$$

$$c_n = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi_n^*(x) \Psi(x, 0) dx = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} \left(\frac{1}{2}\xi_0\right)^{n/2} e^{-\frac{1}{4}\xi_0^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow |c_n|^2 = \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{1}{2}\xi_0^2\right)^n e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi_0^2}$$

$$\sum_{n=0,1,\dots} |c_n|^2 = e^{-\frac{1}{2}\xi_0^2} \sum_{n=0,1,\dots} \frac{\alpha^n}{n!} = 1 \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{2}\xi_0^2$$

An NPTEL logo is visible in the bottom left corner of the slide.

Continue our discussion on the solutions of the linear harmonic oscillator problem. In my last lecture, I had shown that the most general solution of the one-dimensional Schrodinger equation is given by $c_n \psi_n(x) e^{-i(n+\frac{1}{2})\omega t}$ where n goes from 0 to infinity. Then, we said, now let us assume that at time t equal to 0 the wave function of the oscillator associated with the oscillator is given by $e^{-\frac{1}{2}(\xi - \xi_0)^2}$. Such a state is known as a coherent state of the oscillator, now, then we can find out the corresponding ψ_n of this form of the wave function at t equal to 0, I can find out c_n . And that will be $\psi_n^*(x)$ multiplied by $\psi(x, 0)$ dx .

All limits are from minus infinity to plus infinity. If I carry out this integration as I mentioned last time one can get an analytical expression one over n factorial half xi not square sorry half xi naught square raise to the power of 1 by 2 e to the power of minus half xi square sorry one quarter. So, therefore, mod c n square will be equal to 1 over n factorial half xi naught square raise to the power of n e to the power of minus half xi naught square. You can now see, that if i sum mod c n square over n and let us suppose this, I denote by alpha. So, this factor I take outside. So, e to the power of minus half xi naught square. So, this will be alpha to the power of n divided by n factorial, where alpha is equal to half xi 0 square.

So, this is just e to the power of alpha or e to the power of half xi naught square. So, that will cancel out with this, and you will get one. So, once i n c n square represents the probability of finding this system, the oscillator in the nth state. Now, I have an expression. So, this is normalization condition that n is equal to 0 1 2 3 to infinity, this is equal to 1, and that what it should be expected because the wave function initially at t equal to 0 is normalized. So, therefore, I asked myself that what will be the value of energy that I will get the answer is, that you can get any of the energies and there is a probability c n square for obtaining the n th Eigen energy.

(Refer Slide Time: 04:58)

The image shows handwritten mathematical derivations on a grid background. The top part shows the normalization condition for the harmonic oscillator wave functions. It starts with the expression for the probability density $|c_n|^2$ and then sums it over all states n from 0 to infinity, setting it equal to 1. The bottom part shows the calculation of the expectation value of energy $\langle E \rangle$, which is equal to the expectation value of the Hamiltonian operator \hat{H} . This is done by summing the energy levels E_n multiplied by the probability $|c_n|^2$ over all states n from 0 to infinity. The final result is $\langle E \rangle = \alpha$, where $\alpha = \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega_0$.

$$\Rightarrow |c_n|^2 = \frac{1}{n!} \left(\frac{1}{2} \xi_0^2 \right)^n e^{-\frac{1}{2} \xi_0^2}$$

$$\sum_{n=0, \dots} |c_n|^2 = e^{-\frac{1}{2} \xi_0^2} \sum_{n=0, \dots} \frac{\alpha^n}{n!} = 1 \quad \alpha = \frac{1}{2} \xi_0^2$$

$$\langle E \rangle = \sum_{n=0, \dots} n |c_n|^2 = \sum_{n=0, \dots} \frac{1}{(n-1)!} \alpha^n e^{-\frac{1}{2} \xi_0^2}$$

$$= e^{-\alpha} \alpha \sum_{n=1, \dots} \frac{\alpha^{n-1}}{(n-1)!} = \alpha = \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega_0$$

So, as we know the possible energy levels are E_n is equal to $(n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega_0$. So, the expectation value of E that you will get will be the expectation

value of n plus half within brackets multiplied by \hbar cross omega. And, what is the expectation value of n ? This will be summation n mod c n square and I have just now written the value of mod c n square. So, if you see this, that mod c n square is given by this. So, if you some this up, then it will be n by n factorial. So, that is n minus 1 factorial. So, n will go from 1 to infinity and this is alpha to the power of n , alpha to the power of n and e to the power of minus half ξ naught square, I can take outside. So, this is e to the power of alpha. So, I take alpha outside.

So, e to the power of minus alpha outside and alpha outside. And so this will be alpha to the power of n minus 1 by n minus 1 factorial. So, this is n equal to 1 2 3 where alpha is equal to half ξ naught square. So, this is e to the power of alpha. So, therefore, this will come out to be alpha which is equal to half ξ naught square. So, this is the value, average value of n that you will get, similarly you can write down what is the expectation value of n square? I leave that as an exercise.

(Refer Slide Time: 07:11)

$$\langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{2} \xi_0^2$$

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

$$\xi = \gamma x \quad \xi_0 = \gamma x_0$$

$$\gamma = \sqrt{\frac{\mu \omega}{\hbar}}$$

$$\mu = 2 \text{ g}, \quad \omega = 1 \text{ s}^{-1}, \quad \hbar \approx 10^{-27} \text{ erg} \cdot \text{s}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 1}{10^{-27}}} = \sqrt{20 \times 10^{26}} \approx 4.5 \times 10^{13} \text{ cm}^{-1}$$

$$\xi_0 = 4.5 \times 10^{13} \times 1$$

$$E = (n + \frac{1}{2}) \hbar \omega = \frac{1}{2} \mu \omega^2 x_0^2 = \frac{1}{2} \times 2 \times 1 \times 1 = 1 \text{ erg}$$

$$n \approx 10^{27}$$

And, final result will be that the spread in the, so, the expectation value of n will be equal to half ξ naught square. Similarly, you can calculate what is n square and then let us suppose the spread in the value of n , that is Δn is equal to this, I leave this as an exercise for you to calculate the expectation value of n square. And you will find that this will be square root of n , that is ξ_0 divided by under root of 2. Now, let me give you a let me do some numerical examples. So, you will have let us suppose, that ξ naught, you

remember that ξ is equal to γx . And so, therefore, ξ naught is equal to γ of x naught, now γ , if you remember that was equal to $\sqrt{\mu \omega}$ by \hbar cross.

Now, let me take a very simple example that μ is equal to, let us suppose two grams, I am using c g s system of units, ω is equal to 1 second inverse and \hbar cross is approximately 10^{-27} , it is 1 point something erg second. So, if you substitute it here. So, I consider a classical oscillator, the mass is two grams, ω is the time the 2π by t is about one. So, the time period is of the order of 1 second and \hbar cross is of course, the Planck's constant divided by 2π is 10^{-27} erg second. So, if calculate this. So, this will be 2 into 1 divided by 10^{-27} . So, this will be 2 into 10^{27} . So, under root of 20 into 10^{26} . So, this is about 4.5 under root of 20 into 10^{13} meter inverse, centimeter inverse, sorry.

So, you see the value of ξ naught is very large. So, if the amplitude of my displacement of the displacement of the oscillatory, say one centimeter. So, ξ naught is equal to γ times x naught. So, x ξ naught will be γ is 4.5 into 10^{13} into x naught. Let us suppose it is one centimeter. So, I have a particle of mass 2 grams having a time period of the order of 1 second and the amplitude is 1 centimeter. So, the value of ξ naught is very large. So, this is equal to, so therefore, the value of expectation value of n , please see this, the average value of n will be half ξ naught square, 4.5 square was actually 20 . So, 20 into the 10^{26} . So, this is above 10^{27} .

So, the states which have the quantum number of the order of 10^{27} , it is excited and this is expected, because you see E is equal to n plus half $\hbar \omega$ and the total energy of the classical oscillator, as you know is half $\mu \omega^2 x$, square sorry, x naught square which is amplitude. So, μ is 2 grams. So, half into 2 ω is 1 and x naught is 1. So, this is 1 erg \hbar cross is 10^{-27} . So, n must be 10^{27} , this is what we get. So, therefore, we are exciting states with very large quantum number, this is actually, what I am discussing is Bohr's correspondence principle. That in the limit of classical mechanics, we have extremely large quantum numbers.

And, then how many states the delta n, the number of states which are approximately getting excited around 10 to the power of 27, is square root of that? So, this is of the order of square root of that will be 3 into 10 to power of 13. So, this is 30,000 US billion states or 30 trillion states.

(Refer Slide Time: 13:47)

$n = 10^{27}$
 $\Delta n \approx 3 \times 10^{13} = 30,000 \text{ billion}$
 $E = 1 \text{ erg}$
 $n = 10^{27} + 3 \times 10^{13}$
 $\langle x \rangle = x_0 \cos \omega t$
 $\langle x^2 \rangle = \dots$
 $\langle x \rangle = \int x |\psi|^2 dx$
 $\Delta x = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \sqrt{\frac{\hbar}{m\omega}}$
 $= \sqrt{\frac{10^{-27}}{2 \times 9 \times 10^{11}}} = \sqrt{\frac{10^{-47}}{18}} = \sqrt{\frac{10^{-48}}{18}}$

So, I hope I am able to make you understand that you have this is the ground state of the oscillator and this is n equal to 1, n equal to 2, n equal to 3. And you come here and it is n is equal to 10 to the power of 27. So, there are so many billions and billions and billions of states are there. Here a very large number of states get excited, this is the delta n, delta n is very large, delta n is of the order of 3 into 10 to the power of 13. So, this is about, this is equal to actually thirty into 10 to the power of 12, that is 30000 d billion states, 30 trillion states. But the spread of energy is very small because this is only 10 to the power of minus 13 of 10 to power of twenty seven. So, as n goes from 10 to the power of 27 to n to the power of 27 plus 3 into 10 to the power of 13.

The change in energy is extremely small, because here E I know was 1 erg and this will be 1 erg plus 1 plus how much? With if I take an n value of 3 into 10 to the power of 13 into h cross omega h cross is 10 to the power of minus 27 omega is 1. So, this is 3 into 10 to the power of minus 14. So, we are adding 1 to this number, which is extremely small in comparison to 1. So, therefore, the energy of the classical oscillator is very precisely defined, delta e is very small, delta x is very small, delta p is very small. And,

that is the domain of classical mechanics in the domain of large quantum numbers. We have classical mechanics, we had in the just before we finished our last lecture, we had said that x was equal to $x_{\text{naught}} \cos \omega t$ and similarly we had found out \dot{x} square x square is equal to something.

So, that Δx , we had found to be equal to 1 over square root of 2γ . Now, what was γ equal to so this was $\mu \omega$ by \hbar cross. So, this will be \hbar cross by $2\mu \omega$. Similarly, one can calculate Δp also. So, what was x equal to x was equal to x was equal to $\int x |\psi|^2 dx$ from minus infinity to plus infinity and that is a very straightforward integration to calculate. So, let me calculate Δx , I am assuming the amplitude to be one centimeter a 2 gram mass having a time period ω is equal to 1 second inverse. So, the time period is 2π by ω . So, about 6 seconds is the time period and the amplitude is 1 centimeter. So, my uncertainty in x is 10 to the power of minus 27 divided by 2 into half into 1 sorry 2 into 2 sorry, μ is 2 grams. So, this will be 4 . Let us suppose I take 10 outside 10 into 10 to the power of minus 28 and this is 4 .

(Refer Slide Time: 18:18)

$$\Delta x = \sqrt{2.5 \times 10^{-28}} \approx 1.6 \times 10^{-14} \text{ cm}$$

$$\Delta p = \sqrt{\frac{\mu \omega \hbar}{2}} = \sqrt{10 \times 10^{-28}} \approx 3 \times 10^{-14} \text{ g cm s}^{-1}$$

$$\Delta x \Delta p \approx \frac{1}{2} \times 10^{-27} = \frac{1}{2} \hbar$$

$$\rightarrow n \approx 10^{27} \quad \text{---} \quad 10^{13}$$

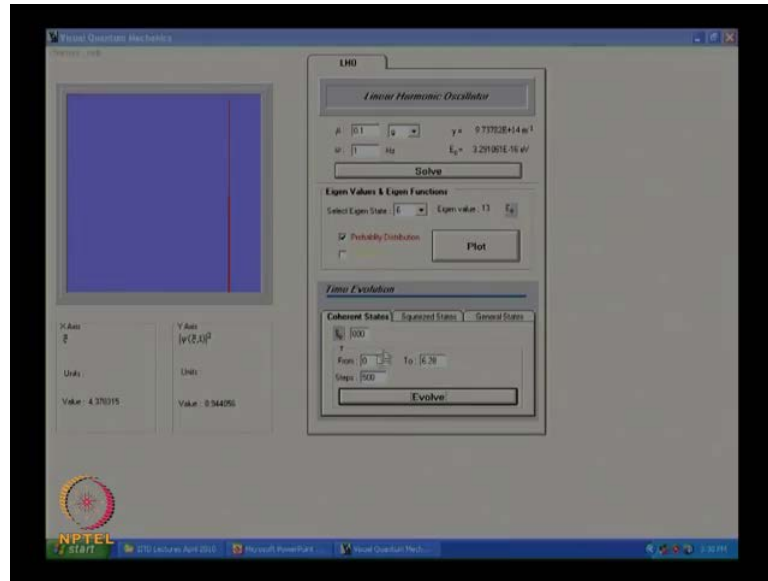
So, my $\Delta x \Delta x$ comes out to be, please see this carefully. So, this comes out to be 2.5 into 10 to the power of minus 28 centimeters. So, 2.5 is about say 1.6 into 10 to the power of minus 14 centimeter. So, this is the uncertainty in x , similarly I can calculate the uncertainty in p . So, that comes out to be under root of $\mu \omega \hbar$ cross by 2 , μ is

2 grams. So, 2 cancel out ω is $1/\hbar$ cross is 10 to the power of minus 27 . So, this is 10 into 10 to the power of minus 28 . So, this is about 3 into 10 to the power of minus 14 , the unit of momentum will be gram centimeter per second, and if you multiply this out. So, this will come out to be Δx , Δp is about 5 , that is half into 10 to the power of minus 27 .

So, this is equal to half \hbar cross, it is a very important result that I have derived, that for my classical oscillator, $\Delta x \Delta p$ is of the order of \hbar half \hbar cross. So, is my uncertainty principle applicable to the classical oscillator that I see in my first year lab the answer is of course, yes. But both position and momentum are determined with a tremendous degree of accuracy, and that is a consequence of the fact that the value of \hbar cross is extremely small. So, once again when I have a pendulum and I make it vibrate make it oscillate like this, then I asked myself to what state of the oscillator does it belong to? The answer is, it does not belong to a particular state. It belongs to a superposition of states, and then you tell me, what states have been superposed?

And the answer is, we are superposing states for which the quantum number is 10 to the power of 27 about. And in that quantum number the spread in n is 10 to the power of 13 , 3 into 10 to the power of 13 . So, for n equal to 10 to the power of 27 plus minus 10 to the power of 13 . So, that is the number of states we are exciting hundred trillion states, around n equal to 10 to the power of 27 . So, although we are exciting a tremendously large number of states, but because \hbar cross ω is an extremely small quantity. So, therefore, the energy is also very precisely defined. And, ΔE by the spread in the energy divided by the expectation value of energy is extremely small, 10 to the power of minus 13 or so. So, that is my classical oscillator.

(Refer Slide Time: 22:11)



So, therefore, I will again go back to the slide that I had shown, that is very important. So, this is my coherent state and let me evolve. So, it is a packet it is a wave packet obtained by superposition of a thousand trillion states. So, here I have taken only ξ_0 value which is about 1 thousand or something like that, but we have just now found that the value of ξ_0 is extremely large. So, this packet will become extremely small in width and this is how the packet will evolve with time? So, I hope by now, you know the relationship of the classical oscillator, to the quantum oscillator. In quantum mechanics the energy levels are quantized, but the classical oscillator that we see in our first year lab, it corresponds to n equal to 10 to the power of 27. And the spread in the n value is also large, but it is extremely small in comparison to the value of n and so therefore, you will have an almost the energy is very precisely defined.

(Refer Slide Time: 23:36)

$$\Psi(x,t) = \sum_{n=0,1,\dots}^{\infty} C_n \psi_n(x) e^{-iE_n t/\hbar}$$

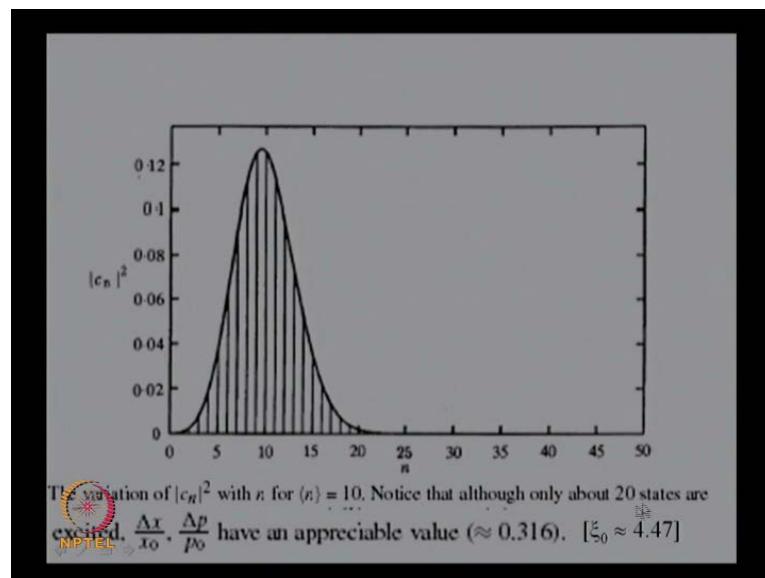
$$C_n = \frac{1}{\sqrt{n!}} \left(\frac{1}{2} \xi_0^2 \right)^{\frac{n}{2}} \exp \left[-\frac{1}{4} \xi_0^2 \right]$$

$$|\Psi(x,t)|^2 = \frac{\gamma}{\sqrt{\pi}} \exp \left[-\gamma^2 (x - x_0 \cos \omega t)^2 \right]$$

which represents the classical oscillator

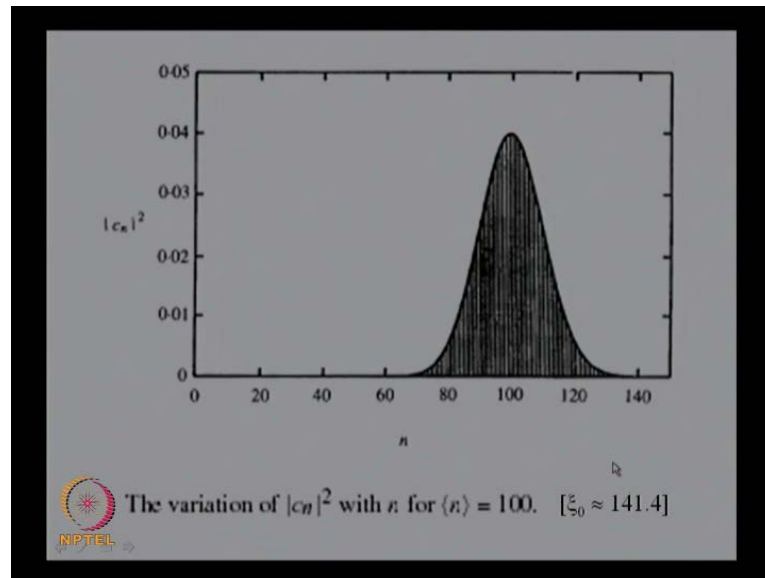
So, let me mention one more thing that we had discussed this, but this is the value of C_n that we obtained.

(Refer Slide Time: 23:38)



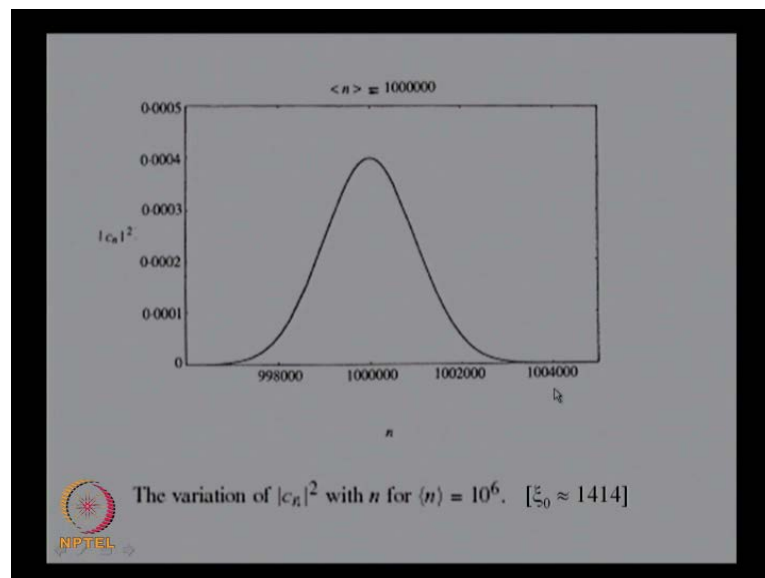
If for example the expectation value of n is 10, then these are, this is the on the vertical axis you have C_n square and the horizontal axis it is n . So, the probability is maximum for around n equal to 10. So, these are the number of states that get excited about 10 12 of them, when average value of n is 10. For a classical oscillator, average value of n is 10 to the power of 27.

(Refer Slide Time: 24:13)



So, when n average value of n becomes 100, then it occupies about 100 states around n equal to 100. So, average the spread in n is about 10.

(Refer Slide Time: 24:30)



When n becomes 1 million, then around 1 million so many states are getting occupied the number of states are large, but the energy spread is extremely small. So, we finish this here. Now, we will go back to the solution of the Schrodinger equation. However, before we start solving the Schrodinger equation, I would like to solve the differential equation which is known as the confluent hyper geometric equation. And, the solution of

which is not only important for the harmonic oscillator problem, but also for the hydrogen atom problem for the three-dimensional oscillator problem and many other problems. So, once if you understand, how to obtain the solution of the confluent hypergeometric equation. Then it is, it will be very easy for you to understand how to obtain the Eigen values corresponding to many problems of interest in quantum mechanics.

(Refer Slide Time: 26:16)

$$x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + (c-x) \frac{dy}{dx} - a y(x) = 0 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Confluent} \\ \text{Hypergeometric} \\ \text{Equation} \end{array} \right.$$

Frobenius method

$$y(x) = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r x^{p+r}$$

$$y' = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r) x^{p+r-1}$$

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r)(p+r-1) x^{p+r-2}$$

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r)(p+r-1) x^{p+r-1} + c \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r) x^{p+r-1} - a \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r x^{p+r} = 0 \quad x^{p-1}$$

So, we try to solve the equation $x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + (c-x) \frac{dy}{dx} - a y = 0$. This equation where a and c are constants is known as the confluent hypergeometric equation. Hypergeometric equation, actually the name is quite big, but the solutions are very easy to understand. So, I would just like you to patiently work out the solutions using the series solution method and once you understand that solution. The solution corresponding to the hydrogen atom problem and the harmonic oscillator problem and the three-dimensional oscillator problem will become very easy.

So, we will use the power series method which most of you may have already studied, this is also known as the Frobenius method. Frobenius method and the method involves, that I make a power series expansion of y of x in powers of x . So, I constants are usually it is written as c of r , where the since the constant c is appearing here. So, we will replace this by $d_r x$ to the power of $p+r$. Where r goes from 0 to infinity, this is known, this is the fundamental equation which is used in the power series method expansion. So, I differentiate this once, and I differentiate this again. So, y' of x which is equal to d

y by d x the summations are all from 0 to infinity. So, this will be d s of r p plus r. I will do it carefully p plus r minus 1 and d 2 y d x square will be equal to summation r d r as I all of you know p plus r then I have to differentiate this.

So, I will get p plus r minus 1 x to the power of p plus r minus 2. Next step is I substitute this here; I substitute this here, and write down the equation. So, if I multiply by x. So, I will get summation d s of r, p plus r p plus r minus 1 x to the power of p plus r minus 1 because I multiplied by x. So, it becomes like this, plus c times this equation plus c times d y by d x. So, c times d y by d x that is d r 1 just has to do it patiently. I will do it once p plus r minus 1 minus x times this. So, x times this that is summation d r p plus r and x to the power of p plus r minus a y of x. That is a summation d r d r x to the power of p plus r equal to 0. What I do next is? I multiply the whole equation by x to the power of 1 minus p, the summation is over r summation is over r. So, I multiply the whole equation by x to the power of 1 minus p.

(Refer Slide Time: 31:35)

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r)(p+r-1) x^r + c \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r) x^r$$

$$= \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r+c) x^{r+1}$$

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r)(p+r-1+c) x^r = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r+c) x^{r+1}$$

$$\cancel{p(p-1+c)} \quad \boxed{p=0 \text{ or } 1-c}$$

$$d_0 p(p-1+c) + d_1 (p+1)(p+c) x + \dots x^2 + \dots$$

$$= d_0 (p+c) x + d_1 (p+1+c) x^2 + \dots$$

$$p(p-1+c) = 0 \quad \text{Indicial Equation}$$

So, if I do that, what I will obtain is? The following summation d s of r I will have to write down this again p plus r p plus r minus 1 and the multiplication is 1 minus p. So, this is x to the power of r plus c d r p plus r x to the power of 1 minus p, that is x to the power of r minus, if I take these two expression on the right hand side. So, I will get is equal to d r p plus r plus a p plus r plus a times x to the power of r plus 1 r going from 0 to infinity, all of r's are going from 0 to infinity. So, just write these down. So, on the left

hand side. So, let me combine these two. So, you will have summation please see this d's of r p plus r I can take common p plus r minus 1 plus c p plus r minus 1 plus c x to the power of r , r going from 0 to infinity.

And here it will be r equal to 0 to infinity d r p plus r plus a x to the power of r plus 1 on the left hand side. There is an infinite series on the right hand side there is an infinite series. Now, if this has to be valid for all values of x then the coefficient, all the coefficients must be equal.

(Refer Slide Time: 34:28)

$$\begin{aligned} ax + b &= 0 & x &= -\frac{b}{a} \\ a &= 0, b &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} ax^2 + bx + c &= 0 & x &= \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}}{2a} \\ a &= 0, b &= 0, c &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3 \dots &= \alpha + \beta x + \gamma x^2 + \dots \\ a &= \alpha & b &= \beta & c &= \gamma \dots \end{aligned}$$

Now, let me illustrate this I am sure most of you know this, but let me illustrate this, that if I have an equation like this, say $ax + b = 0$. Then this equation is satisfied only at x is equal to $-b/a$, for this equation to be satisfied for all values of x , you must have a is equal to 0 and b is equal to 0. Then and then only this equation will be valid for all values of x , let me give you another example I have to I have a quadratic equation $ax^2 + bx + c = 0$. Now, for given values of a b and c as you know the roots of the quadratic equation, you know $-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4ac}$. So, on so forth this is satisfied for 2 values of x ; however, if this equation is to be valid for all values of x then a must be 0, b must be 0, and c must be 0.

This is an identity, this has to be valid for all values of x . And so therefore, on the left hand side, let us suppose I have $a + bx + cx^2 + dx^3$ and so on. And, on the right hand side, you have $\alpha + \beta x + \gamma x^2$ and so on. Then,

for this to be valid, this equation to be valid for all values of x , a must be equal to α , b must be equal to β and c must be equal to γ and so on. So, that is the property of an identity. So, you have here an equation. So, the first coefficient is d_0 . So, $d_0 r$ is 0. So, p multiplied $p - 1$ plus c sorry x to the power of 0. So, let me scratch it out, sorry. So, I have $d_0 p$ into $p - 1$ plus $c x$ to the power of 0, which is 1 plus $d_1 p$ plus $1 r$ is 1 p plus $c x$ plus something like x^2 plus x^3 .

And on the right hand side, this is $d_0 p$ plus $a x$ plus $d_1 p$ plus 1 plus a into x^2 and so on. So, the coefficient of this should be equal to this should be equal to this and since there is no x to the power of 0, here this should be 0, but d_0 cannot be zero. So, you must have p into $p - 1$ plus c must be 0. This is known as the indicial equation, and therefore, we must have the roots of indicial equation are p is equal to 0 or $1 - c$, do these are the roots of the indicial equation. Then, you will have from this equation, if you write this down. I can rewrite this in the following manner.

(Refer Slide Time: 39:10)

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r)(p+r-1) x^r + c \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r) x^r = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r+a) x^{r+1}$$

$$\sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r)(p+r-1+c) x^r = \sum_{r=0}^{\infty} d_r (p+r+a) x^{r+1}$$

$$\cancel{d_0 p(p-1+c)} + d_0 p(p-1+c) + d_1 (p+1)(p+c) x + \dots = d_0 (p+a) x + d_1 (p+1+a) x^2 + \dots$$

$$p(p-1+c) = 0 \quad \text{Indicial Equation}$$

$p = 0 \text{ or } 1-c$

So, please see this, I am rewriting this equation and I will obtain from $d_r p$ plus $r p$ plus r minus 1 plus $c x$ to the power of r , this is equal to from r equal to 1 to infinity, d_r minus 1 p plus r minus 1 plus $a x$ to the power of r . So, now, I have equated that and so therefore, d_r by d_r minus 1 will be equal to p plus r minus 1 plus a divided by p plus r into p plus r , most of you may have done this before. So, I take this d_r minus 1 here. So, this is known as the recurrence relation, and initially I had written out that the roots of

the indicial equations are p can be either 0 or 1 minus c . Let me take the first value p equal to 0. So, you will have d_r is equal to p equal to 0. So, therefore, this will be r minus 1 plus a divided by r into r minus 1 plus c d_{r-1} .

So, you will have, please see this when you put r equal to 1. So, you have d_1 r equal to 1. So, 1 minus 1 is 0. So, a r is 1. So, 1 times r is 1. So, this is 0 times c into d_0 d_2 . So, r is 2. So, 2 minus 1 is 1. So, this is a plus 1 divided by 2 into r is 2 minus 1 is plus 1. So, c plus 1 d_1 and d_1 is a into 1 into c into d_0 . So, this comes out to be if I put a here a into a plus 1 divided by c into c plus 1 into 1 over 2 factorial 1 into 2 into d_0 . Let me write down 1 more term and that will be something like this. So, I found out d_1 .

(Refer Slide Time: 42:36)

$$\sum d_r (p+r)(p+r-1+c) x^r = \sum_{r=1}^{\infty} d_{r-1} (p+r-1+c) x^r$$

$$\frac{d_r}{d_{r-1}} = \frac{p+r-1+c}{(p+r)(p+r-1+c)}$$

Recurrence Relation
 $p=0, 1-c$

$$d_r = \frac{r-1+c}{r(r-1+c)} d_{r-1}$$

$$d_1 = \frac{a}{1 \cdot c} d_0$$

$$d_2 = \frac{a+1}{2 \cdot (c+1)} \cdot \frac{a}{1 \cdot c} d_0 = \frac{a(a+1)}{c(c+1)} \cdot \frac{1}{2!} d_0$$

So, let me write down one more term d_3 . So, r is 3. So, 3 minus 1 is 2. So, this is a plus 2 divided by 3 and 3 minus 1 is 2. So, 2 plus c into d_2 . So, into d_2 and d_2 is given by this. So, you will get a into a plus 1 into a plus 2 divided by c into c plus 1 into c plus 2, and then it is multiplied 2 factorial multiplied by 3 is 3 factorial into d_0 . So, you obtain the infinite series that is like this, f . You write this down as $f = 1 + a c x + \dots$ this is 1 of the solutions which I written down that as $d_r x$ to the power of p plus r p is 0, I have assumed p equal to zero. So, this will become $d_r d_r x$ to the power of r . So, you will have if I take $d_0 x$ to the power of 0 plus $d_1 x$ plus $d_2 x$ square and so on. So, if I assume d_0 outside.

So, I get 1 plus x d 1 by d 0. So, that is a by c x by 1 factorial plus a into a plus 1 into c by c plus 1 x by 2 factorial plus a into a plus 1 into a plus 2 into c into c plus 1 x square. And, this becomes x cube by factorial 3, this infinite series when d 0 i assume to be equal to 1 is known as the confluent hypergeometric series.

(Refer Slide Time: 45:14)

$y_1 = {}_1F_1(a, c, x)$ Confluent Hypergeometric Function
 ${}_1F_1(a, c, x) = 1 + \frac{a}{c} \frac{x}{1!} + \frac{a(a+1)}{c(c+1)} \frac{x^2}{2!} + \frac{a(a+1)(a+2)}{c(c+1)(c+2)} \frac{x^3}{3!} + \dots$
 $p = 1 - c$
 $x^{1-c} {}_1F_1(a - c + 1, 2 - c, x)$
 $c \neq 0, -1, -2, \dots$
 NPTEL

So, I have 1 of the solutions of the differential equation is y is equal to ${}_1F_1$ that is y 1 of x y 1 of x is ${}_1F_1$ one a c x, this is known as the confluent hypergeometric function. This is an extremely important function, and it is very easy to remember. So, ${}_1F_1(a, c, x)$ is equal to 1 plus a comma c x factorial 1 plus a into a plus 1 by c into c plus 1 x square by factorial 2 plus a into a plus 1 into a plus 2 c into c plus 1 into c plus 2 x cube by factorial 3 plus, this is an infinite series. Obviously, c cannot be 0 or a negative integer, the function will blow up this is 1 solution and the other solution as you can see is p was equal to 1 minus c and the other solution will be other solution will be x to the power of 1 minus c.

I leave that as an exercise ${}_1F_1(a - c + 1, 2 - c, x)$ and if, actually, if c is a positive integer. Say let us suppose c is equal to 3, then this becomes negative. So, that will blow up. So, the general solution of the differential equation is given by the following.

(Refer Slide Time: 47:51)

$$\Rightarrow x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + (c-x) \frac{dy}{dx} - a y(x) = 0$$

For $c \neq 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$

$$y(x) = C_1 {}_1F_1(a, c, x) + C_2 x^{1-c} {}_1F_1(a-c+1, 2-c, x)$$

$$\frac{d^2 \psi}{d\xi^2} + [-L - \xi^2] \psi(\xi) = 0$$

$$c = \frac{1}{2}$$

So, we started out with the equation $x \frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} + (c-x) \frac{dy}{dx} - a y(x) = 0$, for this you must remember for $c \neq 0, \pm 1, \pm 2, \pm 3, \dots$. The general solution of this equation is $y(x) = C_1 {}_1F_1(a, c, x) + C_2 x^{1-c} {}_1F_1(a-c+1, 2-c, x)$, there is a superscript, there is a subscript on both on the left as well as on the right of f . So, this will be ${}_1F_1(a-c+1, 2-c, x)$.

What we will do in our next lecture is that, you remember that, we had the equation like this $\frac{d^2 \psi}{d\xi^2} + [-L - \xi^2] \psi(\xi) = 0$. The Schrodinger equation was equal was given by λ minus ξ square, we will transform this equation into an equation which is hypergeometric equation. And, we will find that the values are c is equal to half small c become equal to half. We will transform this equation into a differential equation of this type, and we will obtain the solutions of for the linear harmonic oscillator problem. So, with this, we end today's lecture, and we will request that that you go through the solution of the confluent hypergeometric equation. And that is given in any book on mathematical physics, and go through that before you come to the, in any case the analysis that I have given is complete by itself.

And, next time I will talk on the on the behavior of the series for large values of x and we will obtain the solutions of the harmonic oscillator problem. Thank you.