

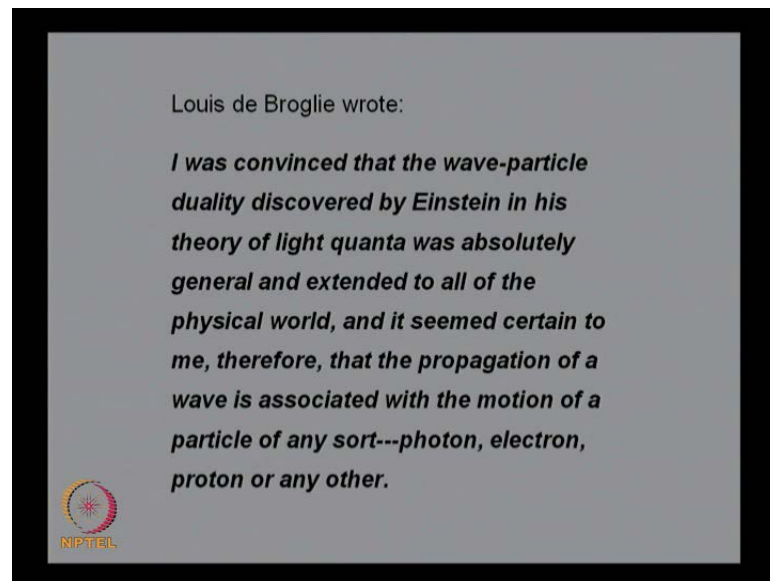
Basic Quantum Mechanics
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Module No.# 01
Introduction and Mathematical Preliminary
Lecture No. #02

Basic Quantum Mechanics: The Schrodinger Equation and The Dirac Delta Function

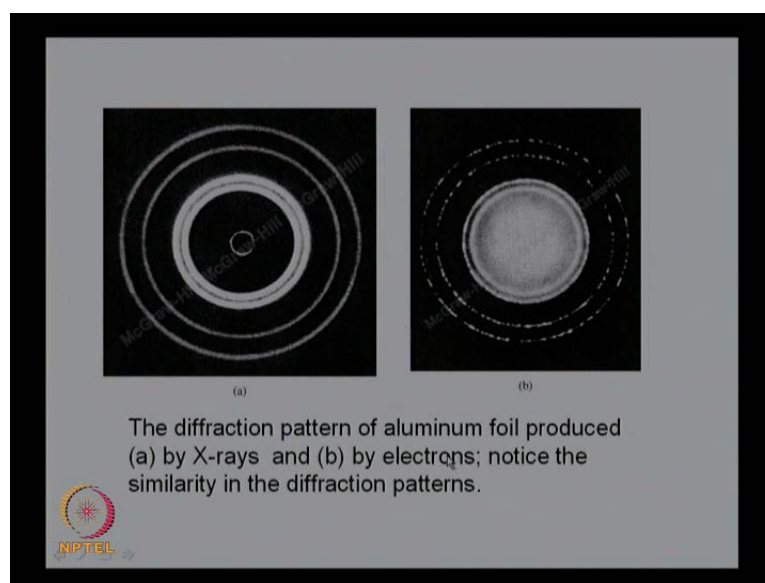
In this lecture, we will continue our discussions on wave particle duality and will give a very heuristic derivation of the Schrodinger equation. And then, we will discuss the Dirac delta function and Fourier transform that will be a bit of mathematics, but that is necessary to understand the solutions of the Schrodinger equation.

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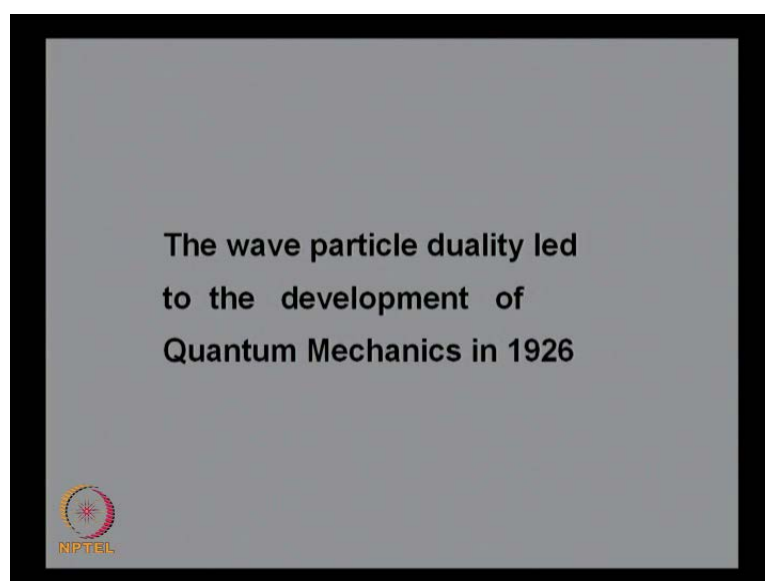
So, this is the second talk on quantum mechanics and as I mentioned in my previous talk de Broglie wrote that, I was convinced that the wave particle duality discovered by Einstein in his theory of light quanta was absolutely general and extended to all of the physical world, and it seemed certain to me that therefore, the propagation of a wave is associated with the motion of a particle of any sort photon, electron, proton or any other.

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Now actually after de Broglie wrote this, the experiment, the experiments, the diffraction pattern by electrons were observed much later. So that is why de Broglie's contribution is considered to be outstanding. He predicted wave nature of electrons; he said that it could not just p for protons; it would be for electrons and protons and neutrons or whatever, you can think or alpha particles or anything that you can think of. And it was only later, he made this prediction around 1923 or 22 and the experiments were carried out only in 1926 or 27 I think the famous diffraction experiments of electron.

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So, the wave particle duality led to the development of quantum mechanics in 1926.

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Wave Particle Duality

⇓


$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = H \Psi$$

Schrödinger Equation (1926)



It lead to the famous Schrodinger equation andthe Schrodinger equation is given by $i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = H \Psi$. So, let me tell you right in the beginning, if you ask me the question that, what is an electron? What is a proton? Is it a particle or a wave? Some people would answer that it is both; that answer is not quite correct. The correct answer is that it is neither. So the electron or the proton is neither a wave nor a particle; it is described by a wave function Ψ which is asolution of this equation.

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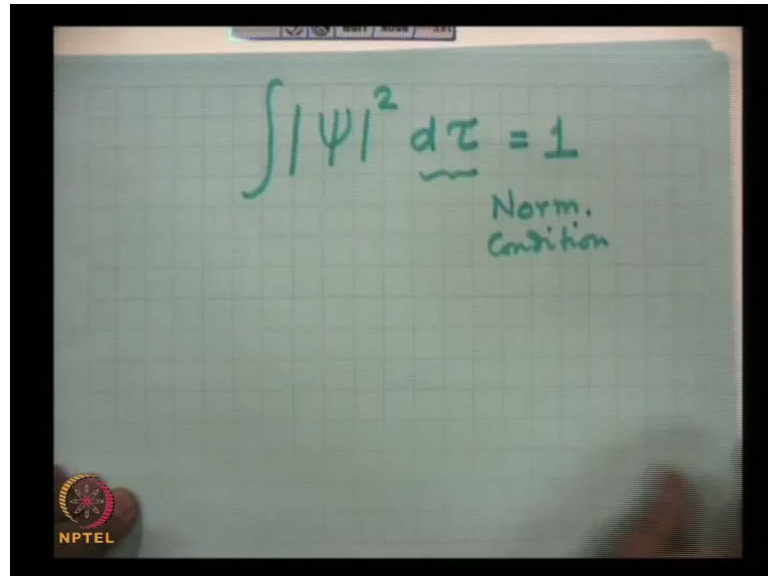
Max Born

In 1926, Max Born formulated the now-standard interpretation of the *probability density function* for $\Psi^* \Psi$ for which he was awarded the 1954 Nobel Prize in Physics (some three decades later).



In 1926 itself, Max Born formulated the new standard interpretation of the probability density function for ψ star ψ for which, he was awarded the 1954 Nobel Prize in Physics.

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$$\int |\psi|^2 d\tau = 1$$

Norm.
Condition

So $|\psi|^2 d\tau$ represents the volume, the probability of finding the particle in the volume element $d\tau$, and since the particle has to be found out somewhere, so the total integral, the total probability must be equal to 1. This condition is known as the normalization condition. Anyway we will discuss that, but first I would like to give you a heuristic derivation of the Schrodinger equation.

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$$\psi = A e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

$$p = \frac{h}{\lambda} = \left(\frac{h}{2\pi}\right) \cdot \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \hbar k$$

$$\hbar \equiv \frac{h}{2\pi} \approx 1.1 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}$$

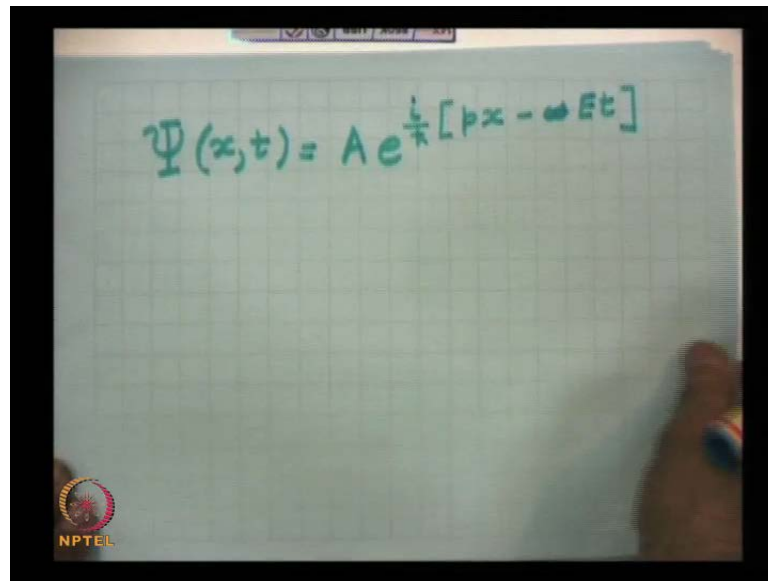
$$E = h\nu = \frac{h}{2\pi} \cdot 2\pi\nu = \hbar \omega$$

$$k = \frac{p}{\hbar} ; \omega = \frac{E}{\hbar}$$

Now, let me take a plain wave; a plain wave is described by a wave function ψ a one dimensional plain wave. So, you have A into e to the power of $i kx$ minus ωt so this is a plain wave propagating in the plus x direction. Now in this equation, I somehow inject the wave particle duality. So as was put forward by de Broglie that the momentum of a particle is related to the wave length by h by λ . This equation is known as the de Broglie relation. So I divide and multiply by 2π ; so h by 2π into 2π by λ ; this quantity is defined as $\hbar$. So this is $\hbar k$, where $\hbar$ is defined to be equal to the plank's constant divided by 2π .

And it has a value about 1.1 something like that into 10 to the power of minus 34 joule second something like that. Then in this equation, we write the Einstein's equation which is $E = h\nu$; once again I divide and multiply by 2π ; so this is h by 2π into $2\pi\nu$. So this is $\hbar\omega$ and this is ω ; so this is $\hbar\omega$. So I get k is equal to p by $\hbar$ and ω is equal to E by $\hbar$ and I substitute this in this expression.

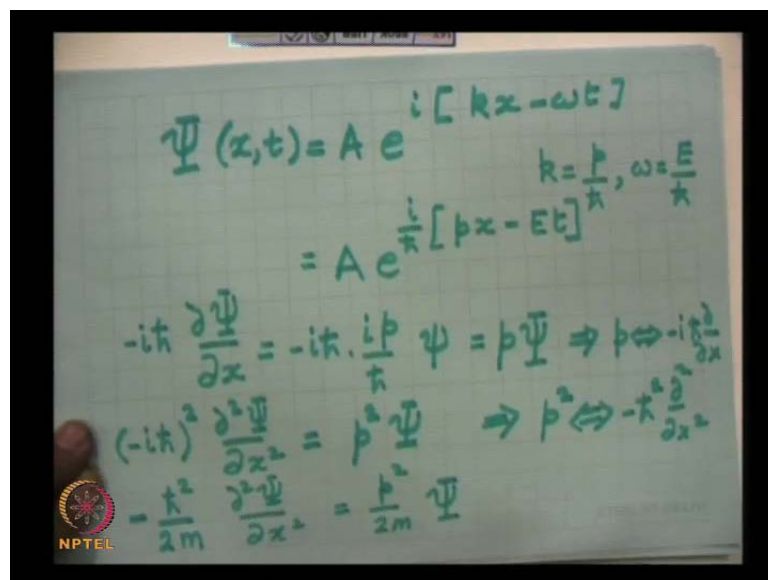
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$$\Psi(x,t) = A e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} [px - Et]}$$

Therefore, I rewrite a one dimensional wave, $\psi \times t$ is equal to A into E to the power of i $k x$; k will be p by $\hbar$ cross; so i by $\hbar$ cross px minus ωt **sorry** minus Et ; let me do this again.

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$$\begin{aligned} \Psi(x,t) &= A e^{i[kx - \omega t]} \\ &= A e^{\frac{i}{\hbar} [px - Et]} \quad k = \frac{p}{\hbar}, \omega = \frac{E}{\hbar} \\ -i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} &= -i\hbar \cdot \frac{i p}{\hbar} \Psi = p \Psi \Rightarrow p \Leftrightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x} \\ (-i\hbar)^2 \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} &= p^2 \Psi \Rightarrow p^2 \Leftrightarrow -\hbar^2 \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} \\ -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} &= \frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi \end{aligned}$$

We have just now said that, ψ of x t p one dimensional plain wave is equal to A e to the power of i kx minus ωt . So then we showed that, k is equal to p by $\hbar$ cross and ω is equal to E by $\hbar$ cross; so i substitute this here and I get, A e to the power of i by $\hbar$ cross px minus Et then, I differentiate partially differentiate with respect to x and

multiplied by $i\hbar$ cross. So $i\hbar$ cross $\Delta\psi$ by Δx , this is equal to $i\hbar$ cross and if I differentiate this with respect to x I will get, $i\hbar$ cross $\Delta\psi$ by Δx ; so multiplied by $i\hbar$ cross times the whole thing therefore, this is ψ .

So $\hbar$ cross $\hbar$ cross cancel out; i times i is minus 1; so minus minus is plus 1; so this is ψ . In fact, this relation suggests if momentum operator for p because, p is associated therefore, p operating on ψ is the same as p is associated with $i\hbar$ cross Δ by Δx . This is not rigorous, but we will write this down there, and we will discuss more little later. I differentiate this again, so I get $i\hbar$ cross times $i\hbar$ cross that is whole square; again differentiate so, $\Delta^2\psi$ by Δx square.

So I multiply by $i\hbar$ cross and if I differentiate this then again, I will get $i\hbar$ cross into $i\hbar$ cross by $\hbar$ cross and therefore, a little algebra will show that, this becomes p square ψ . So this suggests that, p square is equivalent to the operator minus $\hbar$ crosses square Δ^2 by Δx square. So this quantity minus minus is plus; i square is minus 1; so I get minus $\hbar$ crosses square and I divide by say, the mass of the particle. Say mass of the particle is m let us suppose, minus $\hbar$ crosses square by $2m$ $\Delta^2\psi$ by Δx square is equal to p square by $2m$ into ψ . Now let me write down the big function once again.

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$$\Psi(x,t) = A e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}[px - Et]}$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = i\hbar \left(-\frac{iE}{\hbar}\right) \Psi(x,t) = E \Psi$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi$$

Free Particle: $E = \frac{p^2}{2m}$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} \quad \text{1-d Sch Eq.}$$

So I have ψ of x t x comma t is equal to A to the power of i by $\hbar$ cross px minus Et . Now, I partially differentiate with respect to time and I write $i\hbar$ cross $\Delta\psi$ by Δt

and I obtain $\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$ comes from here and then, if I differentiate with respect to time then, I will get $-iE \psi$ by $\hbar$ and the whole thing again. So this will be $i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$; ψ as a function of x, t so i times i is minus 1; minus 1 into minus is plus; $\hbar$ cross $\hbar$ cross cancels out so you get $E \psi$.

Just now I have derived another equation which is $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}$ is equal to $\frac{p^2}{2m} \psi$. Now for a free particle **for a free particle**, the total energy is the kinetic energy classically. So, you have E is equal to $\frac{p^2}{2m}$; so this side is equal to this side; so this must be equal to this; so $i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$ is equal to $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2}$. This is known as the one dimensional Schrodinger equation **Schrodinger equation** for a free particle. Now the derivation that I have given is far from rigorous, but once I have derived this equation, I will study its solution. So, let me do one more thing that I have derived two equations.

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$$\begin{aligned}
 i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} &= E \Psi \\
 -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} &= \frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi \\
 V \Psi &= V \Psi
 \end{aligned}
 \quad \left| \quad E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V(x) \right.$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + V(x) \Psi(x)$$

=0

First I derived $i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = E \psi$, I have derived this then earlier, I have derived $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} = \frac{p^2}{2m} \psi$. Now let us suppose, the particle is in the potential field; so you have the total energy is the kinetic energy plus the potential energy. So, I write this equation $V \psi$ is equal to $V \psi$; V is the potential energy. So, E is equal to $\frac{p^2}{2m} + V$; so this must be equal to this plus this. So, this is the rigorously

correct Schrodinger equation, one dimensional Schrodinger equation for a particle in a potential field described by V of x delta 2 psi by delta x square plus the potential is so much and psi of x .

So, this is the Schrodinger equation for a free particle for a particle in a potential field, when this is 0, when it is a free particle then this is 0 then, you have only these two terms for the Schrodinger equation.

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A heuristic derivation of the Schrödinger equation

Plane Wave: $\Psi(x, t) = A e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$

Now

$$p = \frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{h}{2\pi} \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \hbar k; \quad \hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi} \text{ (de - Broglie relation)}$$

$$E = h\nu = \frac{h}{2\pi} 2\pi\nu = \hbar\omega \quad \text{(Einstein's equation)}$$


So let me go back to my slides and let me give you, I will repeat the heuristic derivation of the Schrodinger equation. So I write a plane wave propagating in the plus x direction as A into $e^{i(kx - \omega t)}$. Now, p is equal to this is the de Broglie equation h by λ . So I multiply by 2π and divide by 2π ; so this quantity is the $\hbar$ cross; and this quantity is the wave vector k ; so this is $\hbar$ cross k is known as the plank's constant and E is equal to $h\nu$; I divide and multiply by 2π and I get $\hbar$ cross ω . So this is the known as the Einstein equation.

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$$\Psi(x,t) = A e^{\frac{i}{\hbar}[px - Et]}$$

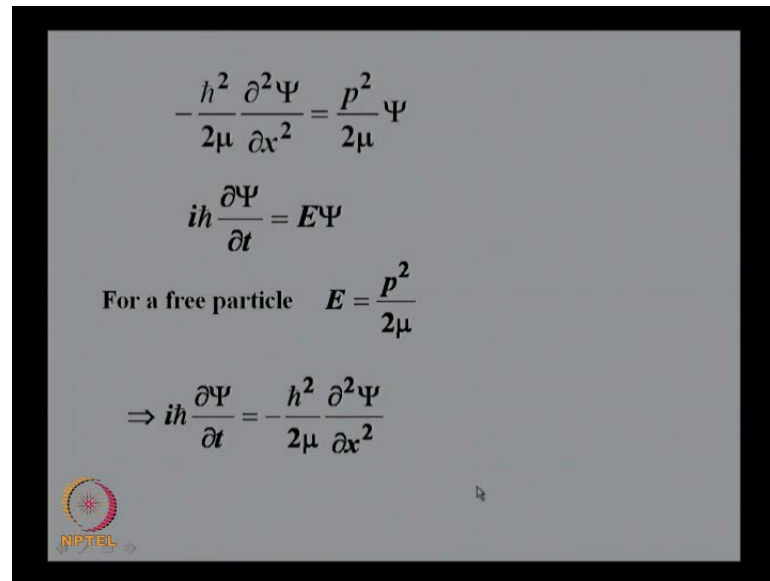
$$-i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x} = p\Psi \Rightarrow p \leftrightarrow -i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial x}$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} = \frac{p^2}{2\mu} \Psi = T \Psi$$

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = E \Psi$$


So I substitute p and E in this equation; that is for you will write p by $\hbar$ cross; for ω I will write E by $\hbar$ cross; so I get this. I differentiate with respect to partially respect to x multiply by minus $\hbar$ cross and I will get minus $\hbar$ cross times i by $\hbar$ cross p so that will become just p times i . So, p can be associated with the operator minus $i \hbar$ cross; $p \psi$ is equal to minus $\hbar$ cross $\Delta \psi$ by Δx . I differentiate it again, here I am **sorry**, I have written the mass as μ minus $\hbar$ crosses square by $2\mu \Delta^2 \psi$ by Δx square and p square when I **when** I differentiate this twice. So I will get i by $\hbar$ cross whole square p square; so $\hbar$ crosses square $\hbar$ crosses square will cancel out, p square ψ which is the kinetic energy times; ψp square by 2μ is the kinetic energy and if I differentiate with respect to time, you will get $E \psi$. So for a free particle E is equal to p square by 2μ ; so this quantity should be equal to this quantity.

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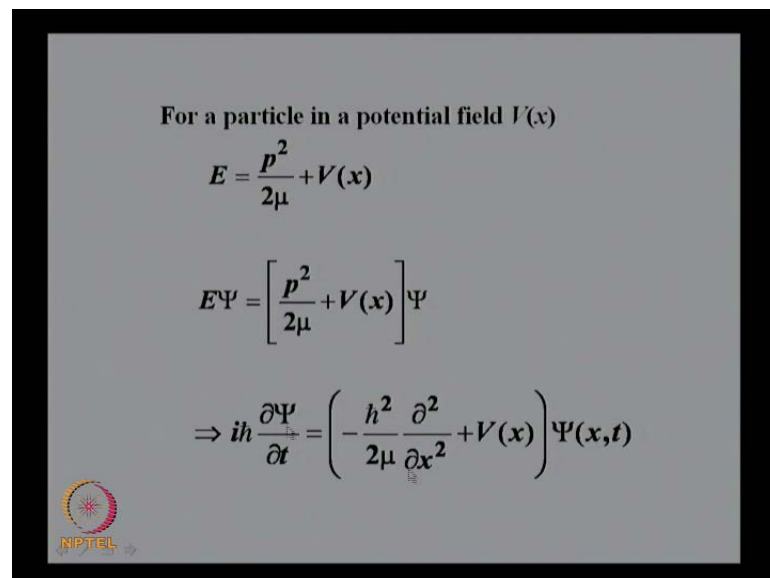
A presentation slide with a grey background and a black border. It contains mathematical equations for a free particle. At the bottom left is the NPTEL logo.
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} = \frac{p^2}{2\mu} \Psi$$
$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = E\Psi$$

For a free particle $E = \frac{p^2}{2\mu}$

$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2}$$

So for a free particle E is equal to p square by 2μ ; so I get the one dimensional Schrodinger equation for a free particle.

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For a particle in a potential field $V(x)$

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2\mu} + V(x)$$
$$E\Psi = \left[\frac{p^2}{2\mu} + V(x) \right] \Psi$$
$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = \left(-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x) \right) \Psi(x,t)$$

For a particle in a potential field V of x , E is equal to p square by 2μ plus V of x ; so Ψ is equal to p square by 2μ plus V of x and then you get this. So this is rigorously correct one dimensional time dependent Schrodinger equation for a particle in a potential field V of x .

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One dimensional time dependent Schrödinger equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V(x) \right] \Psi(x,t)$$

H: Hamiltonian

*Where did we get that [equation] from ?
Nowhere . It is not possible to derive it from
anything you know . It came out of the mind of
Schrödinger*

Richard Feynman



So one writes this quantity is the operator this is p^2 by 2μ ; so this is the operator corresponding to the total energy; so that is known as the Hamiltonian. Richard Feynman, as you all know his noble one of the outstanding physicist of the 20th century. He writes, where did we get that equation from and he says nowhere. It is not possible to derive it from anything you know; it came out of the mind of Schrodinger. So I have given a very heuristic derivation which lacks rigour. Somehow, I have been able to reach the Schrödinger equation and then, I will try to get results by solving the Schrödinger equation.

This equation was first obtained by Erwin Schrödinger in 1926, and I will obtain the solutions and then we will find that this compares very well with experimental data. So that is the success of quantum mechanics. That is the success of the Schrödinger equations for which Schrödinger got the noble prize I think in 1933. So, we have obtained the Schrodinger equation. Now, we will use the Schrödinger equation to study its solution. However, we will digress here for a moment and we will do a little bit of mathematics and in this mathematics, we will try to define what is Dirac delta function, and we will also discuss what we mean by the Fourier transform of a function.

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The image shows a handwritten derivation of the Gaussian integral on a grid background. The steps are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned}
 I^2 &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-y^2} dy \\
 &= \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy \\
 &= \int_0^{2\pi} d\theta \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\rho^2} \rho d\rho \\
 &= 2\pi \left[-\frac{1}{2} e^{-\rho^2} \right]_0^{\infty} = \pi
 \end{aligned}$$

On the right side, there is a diagram of a polar coordinate system with a point (x, y) and a radius ρ at an angle θ. The equations $x = \rho \cos \theta$ and $y = \rho \sin \theta$ are written next to it. An NPTEL logo is visible in the bottom left corner of the slide.

Even before that, let me mention that this integral is to the power of minus x square dx. Let me evaluate this integral; so from minus infinity to plus infinity. This integral let us suppose, I write as I. So you will have I square will be this times this. So again the same integral since it is a definite integral, I will write this as to the power of minus y square dy. So this is over the entire x y plane; so this will be minus infinity to plus infinity e to the power of minus x square plus y square dx dy over the entire x y plane from minus infinity to plus infinity. This integral is very easy to obtain. So you will have, you define the polar coordinates rho is equal to x cos theta and **and I am sorry I am sorry** x is equal to rho cos theta and y is equal to rho sin theta.

So you have here, this as the x and y coordinates and these are the polar coordinates. So this is rho; so this angle is theta; so this is rho cos theta is x and rho sin theta is y. The area element in this plane as you all know will be d rho times rho d theta, and x square plus y square is equal to rho square cos square theta plus rho square sin square theta, that is just rho square. So I will have rho is of course positive; so d theta integral is from 0 to 2 pi and the rho integral is from 0 to infinity to the power of minus rho square rho d rho. This integral is trivial; this is 2 pi and this is half into to the power of minus rho square with a minus sign with the limits 0 to infinity. At infinity this is 0; at 0 it is half; so this comes out to be pi.

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$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx = \sqrt{\pi}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\alpha x^2 + \beta x} dx = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\alpha \left[x^2 - \frac{\beta}{\alpha} x + \frac{\beta^2}{4\alpha^2} - \frac{\beta^2}{4\alpha^2} \right]} dx$$

$$= e^{\beta^2/4\alpha} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\alpha \left[x - \frac{\beta}{2\alpha} \right]^2} dx$$

So, I obtain the result that I is equal to; this is a very important integral which I would like all of you to remember, and we will use this very often. The power of minus x square dx is equal to under root of pi; I square was pi; so I square I is under root of pi. Using this we can now evaluate this integral. So let us suppose, I have this integral the power of minus alpha x square plus beta x dx; so this is from minus infinity to plus infinity. What you do is as most of you may be already be aware of you form a whole square of it; so you get minus infinity to plus infinity the power of minus alpha and then, you get x square minus beta by alpha into x and then, if you want to make a whole square, you have to add and subtract beta by 2 alpha whole square.

So beta square by 4 alpha square and then minus beta square by 4 alpha square multiplied by dx. So this I can take outside, we see beta square by 4 alpha square minus sign into alpha that is beta square by 4 alpha. So this becomes the power of beta square by 4 alpha and this becomes the power of minus alpha x x minus beta by 2 alpha whole square into dx. So from minus infinity to plus infinity, I define this as a z variable.

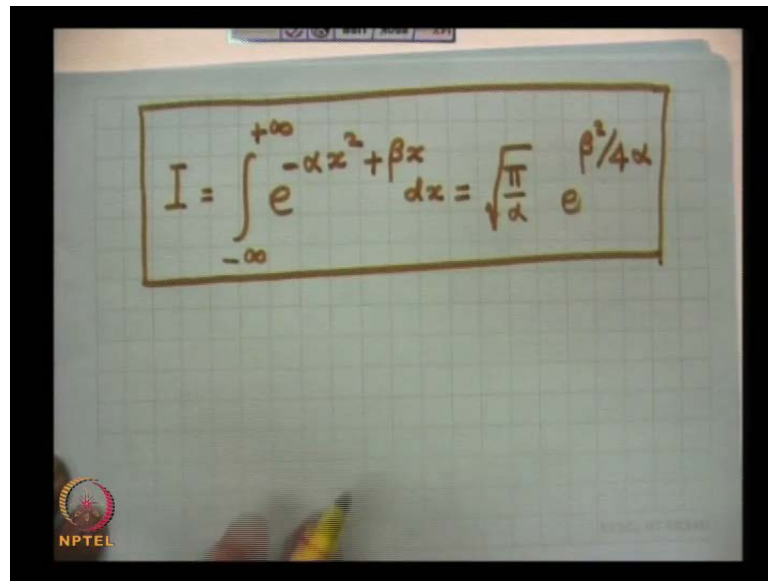
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$$\begin{aligned}
 &= e^{\beta^2/4\alpha} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\alpha z^2} dz \\
 &\quad z = x - \frac{\beta}{2\alpha} \\
 &\quad \sqrt{\alpha} z = y \\
 &= e^{\beta^2/4\alpha} \frac{1}{\sqrt{\alpha}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-y^2} dy \\
 &= \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}} e^{\beta^2/4\alpha}
 \end{aligned}$$

So I find that this integral becomes to the power of beta square by 4 alpha, and to the power of minus infinity to plus infinity to the power of alpha say square into dz where, z is define to be equal to x minus beta by 2alpha so that dx is equal to dz. And in order to evaluate that, you write down alpha under root of alpha times z is equal to y; so you get dz is equal to dy by under root of alpha; so you get to the power of beta square by 4 alpha; so 1 over root alpha and minus infinity to plus infinity to the power of minus y square dy.

Now, this we are just evaluated; so this is square root of pi; so this quantity becomes equal to square root of pi by alpha to the power of beta square by 4alpha. This is a very important integral; I would request all of you to remember this.

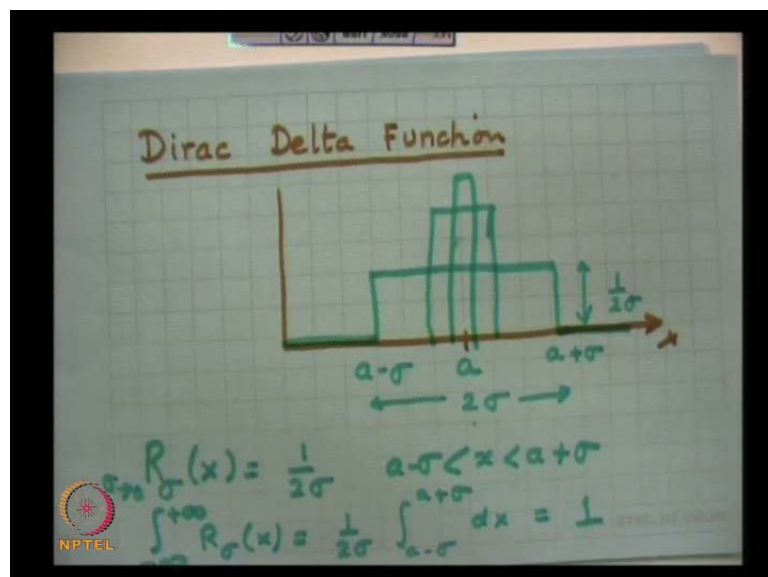
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A handwritten equation on a piece of paper, enclosed in a rectangular box. The equation is
$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-\alpha x^2 + \beta x} dx = \sqrt{\frac{\pi}{\alpha}} e^{\beta^2/4\alpha}$$

So let me write this down once again that, the integral I is defined as integral from minus infinity to plus infinity of the power of minus alpha x square plus beta x dx is equal to under root of pi by alpha into exponential of beta square by 4alpha. This I would request all of you to remember this. Now having done this let me now go to the definition of the Dirac delta function.

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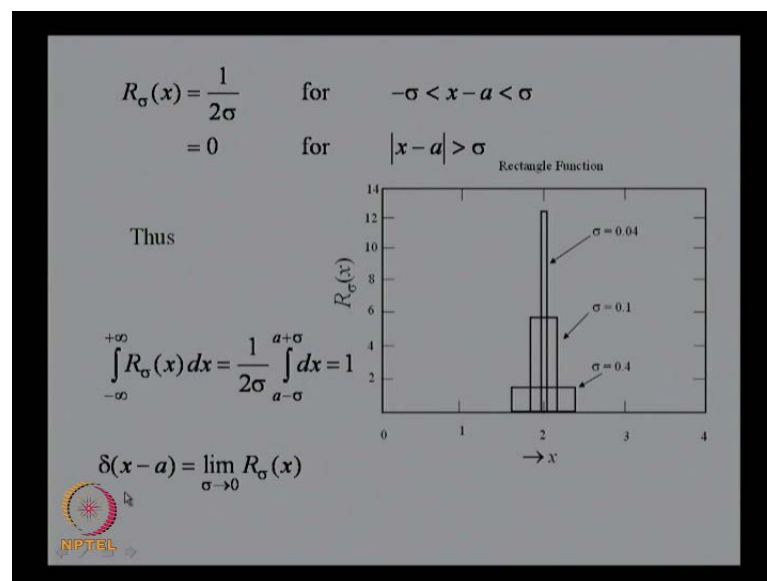


So, we will now discuss the Dirac delta function and the simplest representation of this Dirac delta function is like this. Let me consider a point a on the X axis; this is the X axis

and I consider a rectangle; I consider a function please see this that which is **which is 0** for like this and then, it becomes a rectangle function 1, 2, 3. So this is the point a ; this is the point a minus σ ; and this is the point a plus σ . So that this line is 2σ and I assume that the height of this function is $1/(2\sigma)$. So that the area under this rectangle is $1/(2\sigma)$ multiplied by 2σ ; so the area is 1 independent of σ .

So, I define a function $R_\sigma(x)$ which is equal to $1/(2\sigma)$ for x lying between $a - \sigma$ and $a + \sigma$ and 0 everywhere else so that the integral from minus infinity to plus infinity $R_\sigma(x)$ is equal to $1/(2\sigma)$ only from this limit. So this is $a - \sigma$ to $a + \sigma$ dx ; so this is equal to 2σ ; so this is 1. So let us reduce the value of σ ; so let me reduce this, but if I reduce the value of σ , the height becomes larger and in the limit of σ tending to 0, this becomes very sharp and very tall. So in the limit of σ tending to 0, this is one of the representations of the Dirac delta function.

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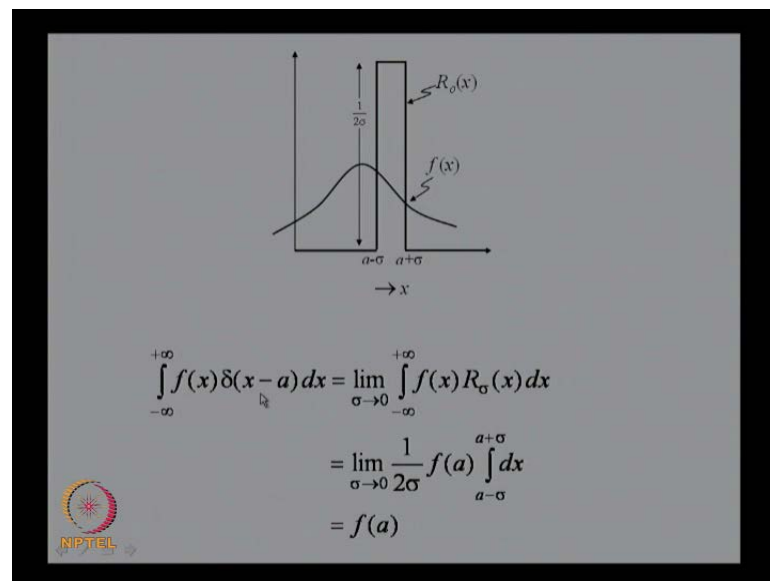


So let me show you; I consider a rectangle function which is $1/(2\sigma)$ for x lying between $a - \sigma$ and $a + \sigma$ and 0 everywhere else, so that the integral of this function from minus infinity to plus infinity. So let us suppose, it is 0 everywhere and then it is so much and 0 everywhere else. So it goes from I have taken here to be equal to 2; so it is $a - \sigma$ to $a + \sigma$; so the integral is 1. So now, I reduce the value of σ ; so here σ is equal to 0.4; so $1/(2\sigma)$ is $1/0.8$, it is slightly

less than 1, and when you make it point sigma 0.1, so this becomes larger. When you become sigma even smaller then, the width becomes smaller, the height becomes larger, but in each of the three cases, the area under the curve is unity.

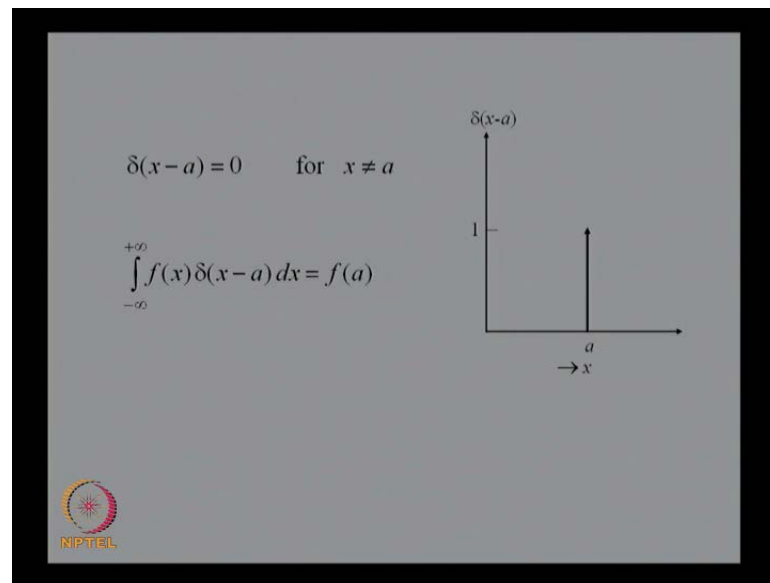
If the limit of sigma tending to 0, we have a very narrow function and very tall function. The area under the curve is 1. That is one representation of the Dirac delta function. One of the many representations of the Dirac delta function.

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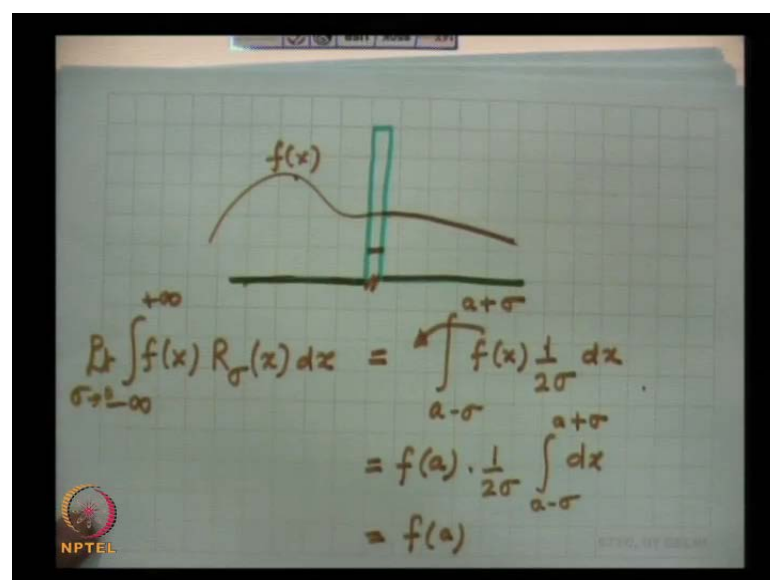
So, let me consider $R_{\sigma}(x)$ when sigma is small, so that it is very tall and this width is very small. Multiply this function by an arbitrary function of x . Now, the product of this function and the rectangle function in this region 0; product of two numbers is 0 if one of the numbers is 0. So the product of $f(x) R_{\sigma}(x)$ is 0 accepting in the domain $a - \sigma$ to $a + \sigma$. Why? Because $R_{\sigma}(x)$ is 0 here so therefore, $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) \delta(x-a) dx$ is equal to limit as sigma tends to 0 $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) R_{\sigma}(x) dx$. In this tiny interval $f(x)$ can be assumed to be constant because, this interval can be made as small as you like, and in this interval $R_{\sigma}(x)$ has a value of $1/(2\sigma)$ and when I integrate this, it becomes 2σ ; so this becomes $f(a)$; so this is the property. For any well behaved function $f(x)$, if I multiply by $\delta(x-a)$ and carry out the integration, I will get $f(a)$.

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So this is the definition of the Dirac delta function. It is shown as a spike, an arrow of unit height at x is equal to a , but the area under the curve is 1. Actually, it is infinitely thin and infinitely tall so that the area under the curve is 1, but it is shown by an arrow usually shown by an arrow; it is like an impulse and has the property that any function, any arbitrary function multiplied by delta of x minus a dx is equal to f of a .

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Let me do this once again; that you see what I have to tell you is that, I have a very tall function **very tall function**, and this is 0 here **this is 0 here**. Now, I consider another

function; this is the rectangle function. I have another function like this; this is f of x which is smoothly varying. Now the product of this function and this function in this region is 0 because, this is 0 the product of f of x and this function is also 0. So the integral $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) \delta(x-a) dx$ from minus infinity to plus infinity is really between this limit and this limit because, the product is 0 everywhere else. So this is actually from a minus sigma to a plus sigma $\int_{-\sigma}^{+\sigma} f(x) \delta(x-a) dx = \frac{1}{2\sigma} \int_{-\sigma}^{+\sigma} f(x) dx$, but if this interval is very small then, f of x does not vary too much in that variable. So I can take it out of the integral and I write this; this is no more approximate. If sigma is very small, I can choose as small as I like. So this becomes $f(a) \int_{-\sigma}^{+\sigma} \delta(x-a) dx = \frac{1}{2\sigma} \int_{-\sigma}^{+\sigma} dx$; so this is equal to a minus sigma to a plus sigma; so this is 2σ ; so 2σ cancel out and you get $f(a)$. So this in the limit of sigma tending to 0

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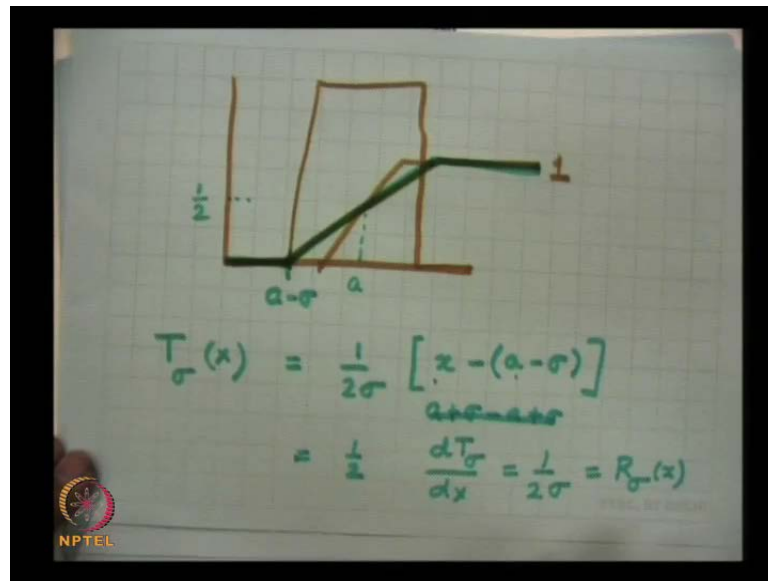
$$\delta(x-a) = 0 \quad x \neq a$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \delta(x-a) dx = 1$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} f(x) \delta(x-a) dx = f(a)$$

So I get the very important result that I get the very important result that delta of x minus a is 0 everywhere else excepting at x is equal to a where it is in infinite value such that, minus infinity to plus infinity delta of x minus a dx is equal to 1 and then, I have that minus infinity to plus infinity of a well defined function, well behaved function f of x into delta of x minus a because, the product is 0 everywhere excepting at x equal to a dx . This is equal to $f(a)$. These three equations define the Dirac delta function, but what I have given you is just one of the representations of the Dirac delta function.

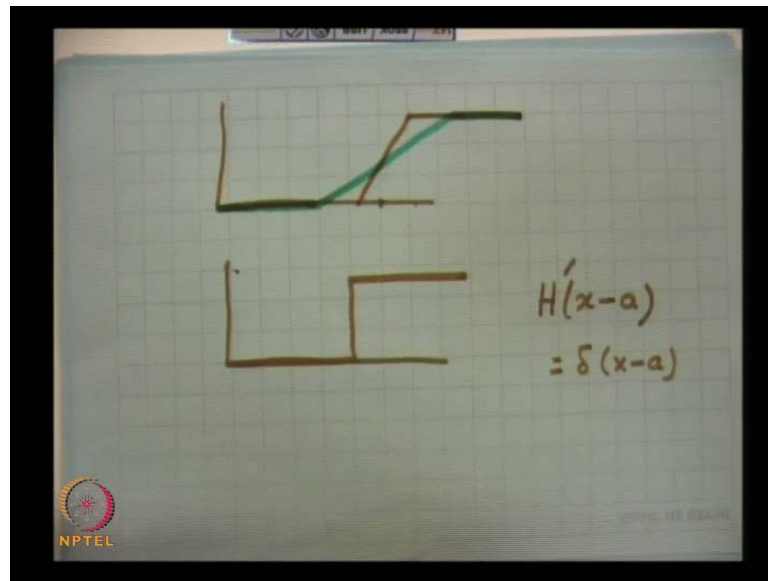
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Let me give you one more definition. I have here let us suppose, a ramp function **ramp function**. Itake saylike this; it has a value 1 here and 0 here. So let me write this down with the blue color. So a ramp function is 0 here then, it increases linearly and then it becomes one here. So this is at x is equal to a , it has a value half. So if the ramp function is defined as $T_\sigma(x)$ then Iwrite that, this is equal to $\frac{1}{2\sigma} x$ minus a minus σ . So at x is equal to a minus σ , this is 0. So this is a minus σ at x is equal to a plus σ . So this becomes a plus σ minus a plus σ 2σ 2σ cancels out so that is 1, and that at x is equal to a , this is 0; this is σ by 2σ . So at x is equal to a , it has the value equal to half.

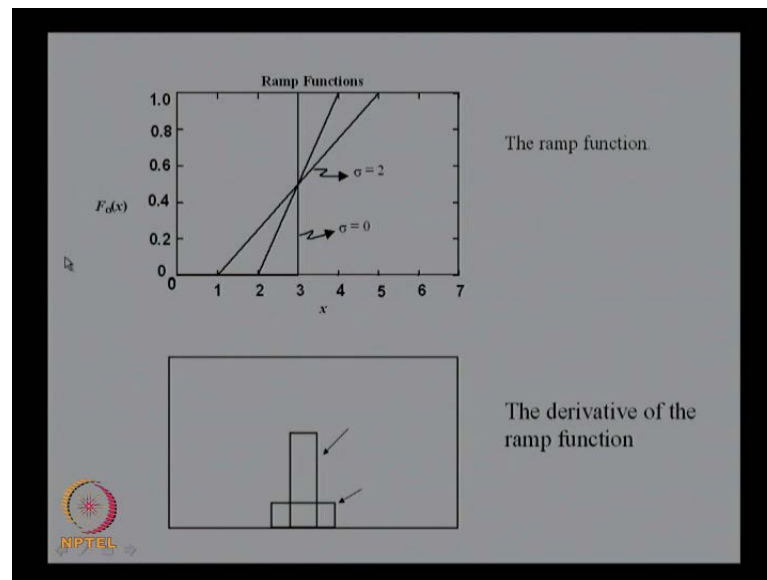
So, in this region from between a minus σ and a plus σ , $T_\sigma(x)$ has this value. Now, Itake the derivative of this function; so I have this ramp function which is 0 here; it increases linearly here and it becomes one here, if Itake the derivative of this function. So $\frac{dT_\sigma}{dx}$, if you see this, if you just differentiate this; this is equal to $\frac{1}{2\sigma}$. So this is my $R_\sigma(x)$; this is my; this is the rectangle function. So the derivative of the function is if you see carefully that, in this here it is 0; here it is something like this and here beyond this it is. So as I make σ smaller, it becomes sharper and sharper.

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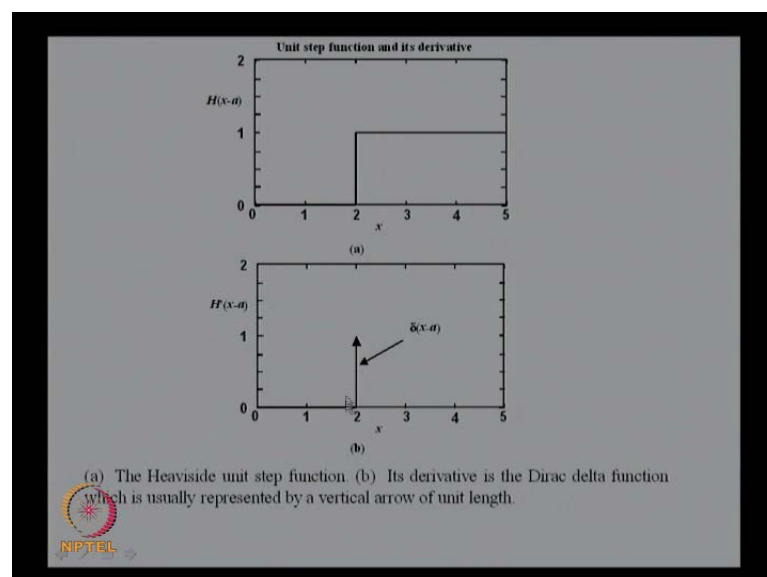
So therefore, if I have a ramp function like this if I have a ramp function like this; this goes like this and then, it goes like this and then it has a one value, then the derivative of this function because derivative is 0 here derivative is 0 here, derivative of here is unity; that this is the rectangle function, and as i make sigma smaller and smaller this becomes sharper and sharper. In the limit of sigma tending to 0, you will have the heavy side unit step function like this. The derivative of this function, this is known as the heavy side unit step function and it is known as, it is described by H of x minus a. The derivative of the unit step function is a Dirac delta function. So H prime of x minus a is equal to delta of x minus a.

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So let me show you in this slides that this is the ramp function; so it is 0 here and then, it becomes when sigma is large. As you make sigma smaller and smaller this slope of this function becomes larger and larger. In the limit of sigma tending to 0, this becomes a unit ramp step function. I am sorry here I have written as $F_{\sigma}(x)$. So this is the derivative of the ramp function and in the limit of sigma tending to 0, it will become a delta function.

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So this is the unit step function. This is known as the heavy side unit step function and its derivative is the Dirac delta function. So whenever you have a discontinuity in a function then, its derivative is a Dirac delta function. Now I will show you by a simple example, and you should be very careful in calculating the derivative.

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The image shows handwritten mathematical derivations and graphs on a grid background. The derivations are as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} \psi &= e^{-|x|} = e^x & x < 0 \\ &= e^{-x} & x > 0 \\ \psi' &= e^x & x < 0 \\ &= -e^{-x} & x > 0 \\ \psi'' &= e^x & x < 0 \\ &= +e^{-x} & x > 0 \end{aligned}$$

To the right of the equations are three hand-drawn graphs:

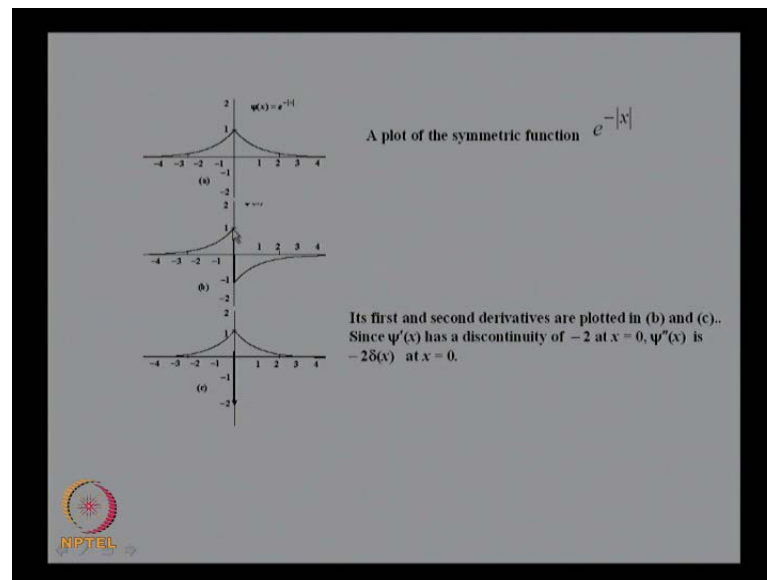
- The first graph shows the function $\psi = e^{-|x|}$, which is a symmetric bell-shaped curve peaking at $x=0$.
- The second graph shows the first derivative ψ' , which is an odd function, increasing from negative infinity to positive infinity, passing through the origin.
- The third graph shows the second derivative ψ'' , which is an even function, symmetric about the y-axis, with a positive peak at $x=0$.

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

Say, let us consider a function like the power of minus mod x. Now the power of minus mod x; this means that this is equal to the power of plus x for x less than 0 and the power of minus x; so psi is equal to the power of minus mod x; minus x for x greater than 0. If you take the derivative psi prime; this is the power of x for x less than 0 and minus the power of minus x x greater than 0, and if you keep on naively differentiating this, it will become the power of x and the power of minus minus plus the power of minus x for x greater than 0.

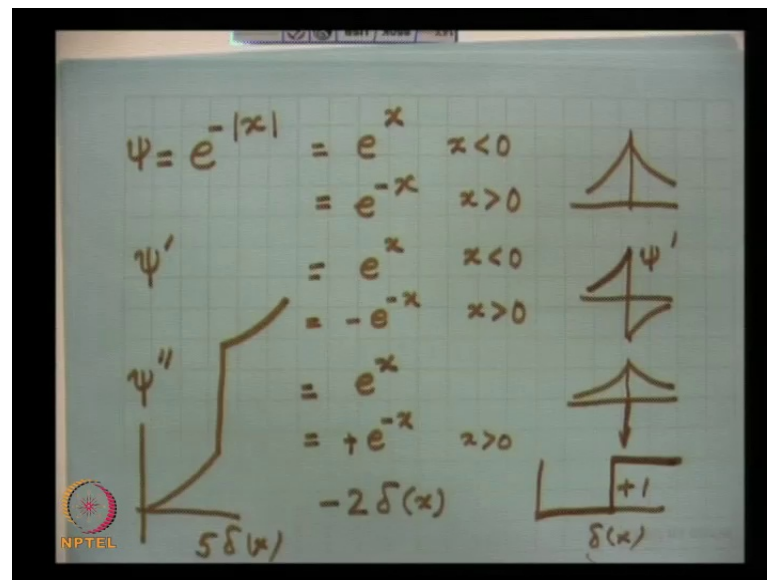
So you will find that this is the power of minus mod x so psi double prime is equal to psi. Now this is incorrect because, this function looks like this. So its derivative has a discontinuity **the derivative has a discontinuity**. Discontinuity of minus 2 units; so the derivative if you approach from the left hand side this is psi prime has a value plus 1 and has a value minus 1, if you approach from the right hand side. So at this point at x is equal to 0, if you plot this, it will be something like this, but there is a Dirac data function at the origin.

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So let me illustrate this. So you have here, the power minus mod x, a plot of the symmetric function. Now its derivative has a discontinuity of minus 2 units. If the derivative has the discontinuity of plus 1 unit then, the derivative **then the derivative** is if the function has a discontinuity of 1 unit plus then, it has its derivative is the delta function, but if it is minus 2 units so, psi double prime of x at x is equal to 0 is equal to minus 2 times delta x. So you must remember that, whenever a function has a discontinuity at a particular place then, its derivative is always a Dirac delta function **Dirac delta function** multiplied by the amount of discontinuity. If the amount of discontinuity is minus 5 then, derivative will be minus 5 times delta x. So in this particular case, the derivative was minus 2 units.

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So the derivative at the origin is minus 2 delta x. In the unit step function, the derivative was plus 1 as I go from, as I increase x the **the** discontinuity is plus 1. So the derivative here is just delta of x. If a function has behaves like this that, you have a function it goes like this and then, it makes a jump of 5 units. So at that point, the derivative will be 5 times delta x.

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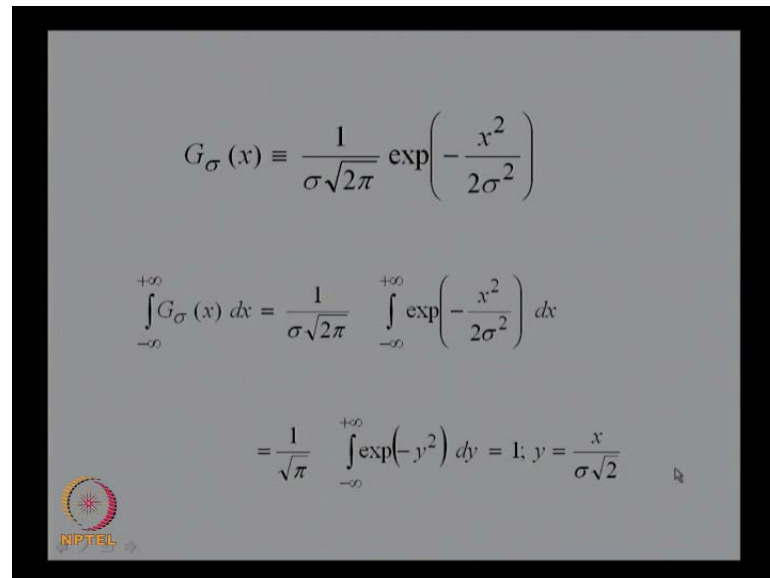
$$I = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx$$

$$I^2 = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2} dx \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-y^2} dy = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-(x^2+y^2)} dx dy$$

$$= \int_0^{+\infty} \int_0^{2\pi} e^{-r^2} dr r d\phi = (2\pi) \left[-\frac{1}{2} e^{-r^2} \right]_0^{+\infty} = \pi$$

So this is here, I have derived the same equation that which I derived sometime back at the integral I; I converted into polar coordinates and I obtain that I square is pi. So I will be equal to the square root of pi.

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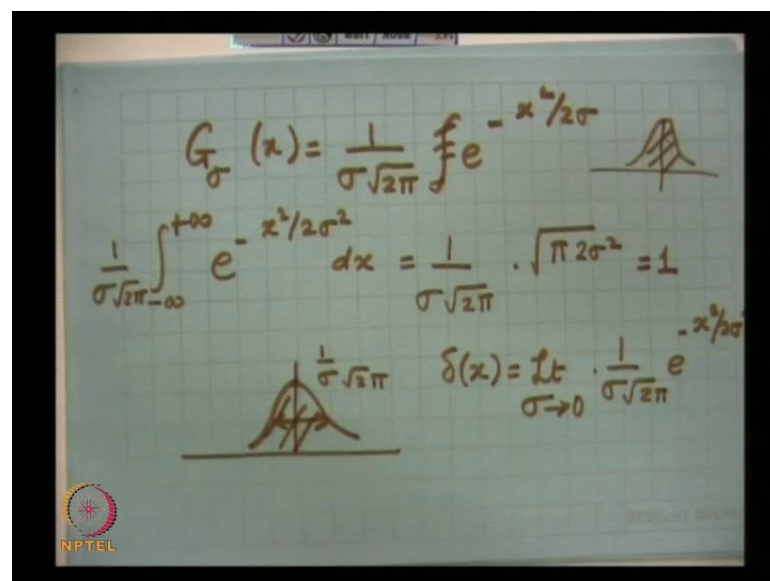
$$G_{\sigma}(x) \equiv \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right)$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} G_{\sigma}(x) dx = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2\sigma^2}\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \exp(-y^2) dy = 1; y = \frac{x}{\sigma\sqrt{2}}$$

So let me consider the Gaussian function. The Gaussian function, I write it as 1 over sigma under root 2 pi to the power of minus x square by 2 sigma.

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$$G_{\sigma}(x) = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2\sigma^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} e^{-x^2/2\sigma^2} dx = \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} \cdot \sqrt{\pi 2\sigma^2} = 1$$

$$\delta(x) = \lim_{\sigma \rightarrow 0} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/2\sigma^2}$$

So let me write a Gaussian function like this. G sigma of x is equal to 1 over sigma under root of 2 pi to the power of minus x square by 2 sigma square **sorry sorry**. There is no

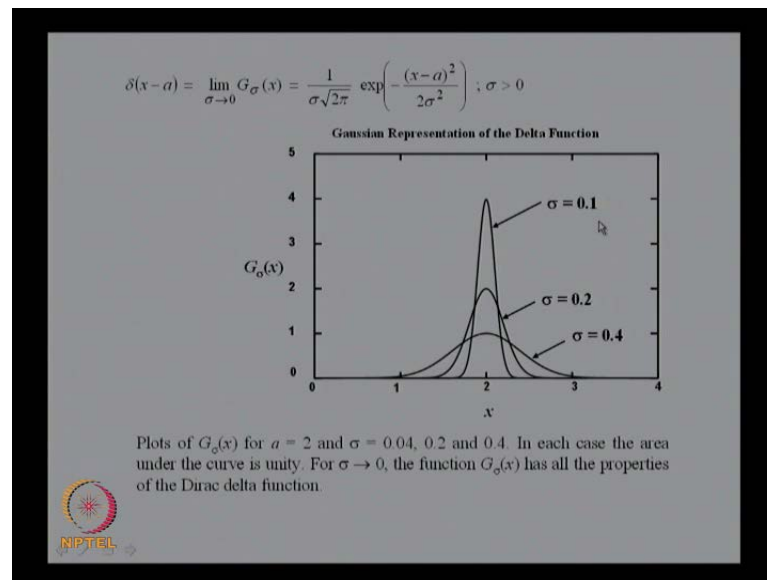
integral sign here. So it is **it is a** Dumbbell function like this; it is a Gaussian function peak at x is equal to 0. The integral of this function minus infinity to plus infinity, I can take **I can take** σ under root of 2π outside. So the integral of this function is $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \frac{1}{\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}} e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)} dx$.

So, if we use the formula; so this will be $1/\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}$ multiply by π by α . So under root of $\pi\alpha$ is equal to $1/\sqrt{2\sigma^2}$; so this is $1/\sqrt{2}\sigma$; so this cancels out; so this will be 1. So, the areas under the curve is always 1 irrespective of the value of σ . So let me plot this at x is equal to a , the width of the function at x is equal to say 0, the value is $1/\sigma$. So the value of the Gaussian function at x is equal to 0 is about $1/\sigma$ so actually, $1/\sigma\sqrt{2\pi}$ at the width of the function is about σ .

So, as I make the σ smaller, the width becomes smaller, the peak becomes sharper, but the area under the curve remains the same. So therefore, this is yet another representation of the Dirac delta function that $\delta(x)$ is equal to limit of σ tending to 0 $1/\sigma\sqrt{2\pi} e^{-x^2/(2\sigma^2)}$. This is known as the Gaussian representation of the Dirac delta function.

So I come back to my slide and I have here $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \delta(x) dx = 1$; I define as when I have three equal to sign that means, one over this is defined to be equal to that. At this factor is such that, the integral under the curve is 1. So this is obvious, this is I take the integral under the curve. So I put y is equal to $x/\sigma\sqrt{2}$. So this becomes very simple integration with the formula that I had given you earlier and this integral is one irrespective of the value of σ .

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So I plot this; so as the value of sigma become smaller and smaller, it becomes sharper and sharper, the width become smaller, but the value at x is equal to 2 or if I have a displaced Gaussian, here I have taken a is equal to 2; this corresponds to sigma is equal to 0.04, 0.4; this corresponds to 0.2, 0.1. If you make even smaller 0.01, it will become taller and sharper. So for sigma tending to 0, the function G_{σ} of x has all the properties of the Dirac delta function. So this equation at the top is yet is the own as the Gaussian representation of the **of the** Dirac delta function.

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DELTA FUNCTION AS A DISTRIBUTION

$$N(E)dE = N_0 \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{1}{(kT)^{3/2}} E^{1/2} e^{-\frac{E}{kT}} dE$$

Now, in a room like this; let us suppose, the distribution of energy of the molecules is given by the Maxwellian distribution; so $N(E)dE$ represents the number of molecules whose energy lies between E and $E + dE$. If I ask you the question how many molecules have exactly the energy E is equal to kT ? The answer is 0 because dE is 0. I want the number of molecules whose energy lies between kT and $kT + dE$ so dE is not 0. So, if this distribution the total number of molecules which have exactly the energy E equal to kT is 0, but if we do have N_1 number of molecules.

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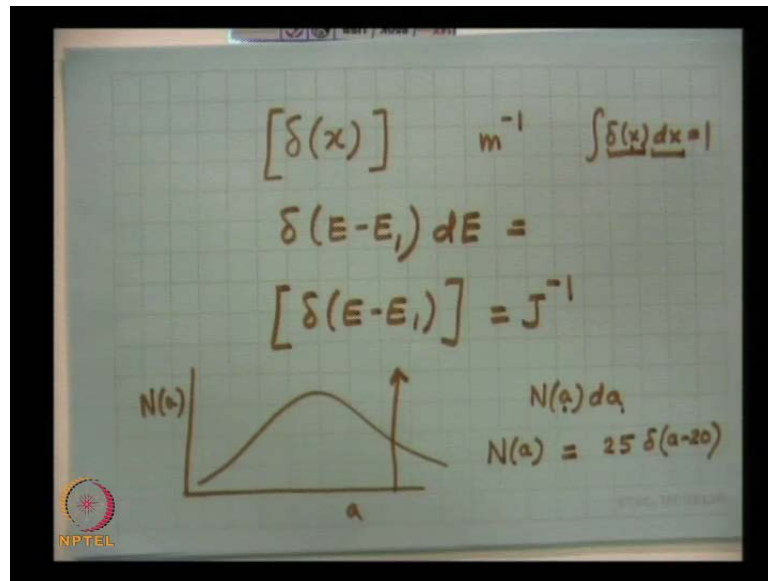
$$N(E)dE = N_0 \frac{2}{\sqrt{\pi}} \frac{1}{(kT)^{3/2}} E^{1/2} e^{-\frac{E}{kT}} dE + N_1 \delta(E - E_1)$$

where $\delta(E - E_1)$ represents the Dirac delta function and has the dimensions of inverse energy



Let us suppose N_1 number of molecules, which has exactly the energy E_1 then to this, I must add this Dirac delta function. So delta function is a distribution and therefore, $N(E)dE$ represents the number of molecules $N(E)$.

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So let me summarize this by saying that, if I have delta of x and x is in meters then, the dimension of delta of x will be meter inverse. If delta of E minus E_1 , if this is E is measured in joules then, this times dE will give the number of molecules. So therefore, the dimensions of delta of E minus E_1 is joules inverse. Here, delta of x dx is equal to 1. So therefore, if x is in meters so dx has the dimension of meters, delta x will have a dimension of meter inverse. So it is a...It is not just an ordinary function, it is a distribution.

So, if you have **if you have** let us suppose, age distribution function of students in an university, if it is given by this N of a versus a therefore, N of a da represents the number of students whose age lies between a and a plus da . So if I want to ask that, what is the number of boys who have exactly the age 22 years? The answer is 0. But, if we do have exactly 20 students which have who have the exact energy of 20 years. So let us suppose **so let us suppose**, there are 25 students who have the energy who have the age exactly 20 years so then, that is represented by this and that will be a represented by a Dirac delta function, and this dimensions of this will be age inverse.

So delta of x , if x is measured in meters then, it is delta of x is in meter inverse. If x is energy then, it is energy inverse. If it is time then, it is time inverse. So we will continue next time on the other representations of the Dirac delta function and the Fourier transform theory **thank you**.