

Quantum Mechanics - I
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Lecture - 27
The Particle in a one-dimensional Box

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Keywords

- ➔ Energy eigenvalues and eigenfunctions
- ➔ Expectation values
- ➔ The uncertainty product in the ground state of the particle in a one-dimensional box
- ➔ The classical limit
- ➔ Momentum-space wavefunction
- ➔ Preliminaries on a charged particle in a homogeneous magnetic field
- ➔ Minimal coupling

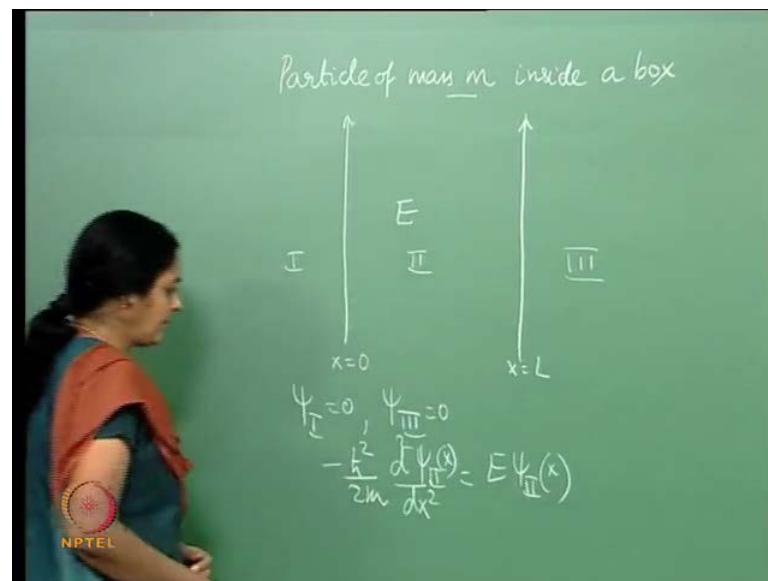
In my last lecture, I spoke about the one dimensional potential barrier. Of course, earlier on we had discussed the one dimensional square well potential. Now, in the potential barrier problem, towards the end, we realized, that the probability of tunneling went down exponentially; If the value $v > 0$, the value of the potential, the magnitude of the potential, was much larger than the energy of the particle, which is trapped on one side of the barrier. Question asked is, what is the penetration across the barrier? And, this would exponentially come down if the energy of the particle is significantly smaller than v_{naught} .

In other words, as the height of the barrier increases the probability of tunneling, the probability of leakage across the barrier goes down and goes down exponentially. So, we will remember this and do yet another example, of stationary state, a one dimensional problem, where this time we will discuss, a particle in a box. It is a much simpler example, than all that we considered earlier, in the following sense, that we imagine this particle of mass m to be inside a box. The walls of the box are impenetrable. So,

basically you have infinite barriers, for the walls of the box. But, the operator word is this; within the box the particle is free to move anywhere. It has positive energy e . The total Hamiltonian is $p^2 / 2m$, where p is a linear momentum of the particle, but then there is no barrier penetration.

The walls of the box behave like, infinitely high barriers and therefore, in the region outside the box, you will not be able to see the particle.

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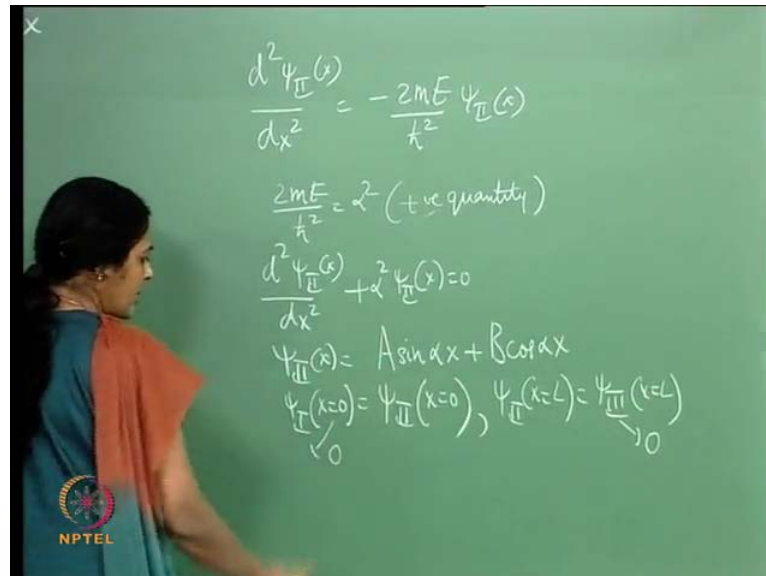


And therefore, in the case of the particle in the box, suppose, I have these infinite barriers, at x equals 0 and x equals L . The particle is confined between these two regions, these two barriers and I call these regions: 1, 2 and 3. This is a particle of mass m inside a box, ψ_1 is 0, ψ_3 is 0. Inside here there is no potential. The particle has energy E , it is a free particle and therefore, in region 2, I have an equation minus $\hbar^2$ cross square by $2m$, $d^2 \psi_2$ of x by dx^2 , is $E \psi_2$ of x .

What are the boundary conditions that we can impose? Certainly, the wave function must be continuous. So, at x equals 0 and x equals L , we will impose continuity of the wave function. But then, because of this infinite barrier, here there are infinite discontinuities here and there and therefore, you cannot expect the 1st derivative of the wave function to be continuous. That will show a finite discontinuity. So, we shall not impose the derivative matching condition at x equals 0 and x equals L . We will merely work with

the fact that the wave functions will match; ψ_1 equals ψ_2 at x equals 0 and ψ_2 equals ψ_3 at x equals L .

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The chalkboard contains the following handwritten equations:

$$\frac{d^2 \psi_{II}(x)}{dx^2} = -\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \psi_{II}(x)$$

$$\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} = \alpha^2 \text{ (+ve quantity)}$$

$$\frac{d^2 \psi_{II}(x)}{dx^2} + \alpha^2 \psi_{II}(x) = 0$$

$$\psi_{II}(x) = A \sin \alpha x + B \cos \alpha x$$

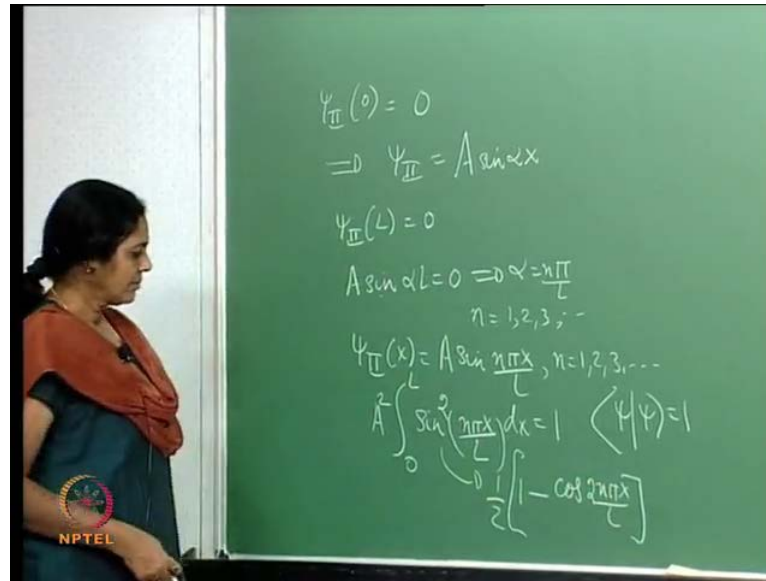
$$\psi_I(x=0) = \psi_{II}(x=0), \quad \psi_{II}(x=L) = \psi_{III}(x=L)$$

Below the last equation, there are arrows pointing from $\psi_I(x=0)$ to 0 and from $\psi_{III}(x=L)$ to 0.

So, looking at ψ_2 , we have $d^2 \psi_2 / dx^2$, by $d^2 x$ squared, equals minus $2mE$ by $\hbar$ cross squared, ψ_2 of x and, let us call $2mE$ by $\hbar$ cross squared. As α squared, which is a positive quantity; and therefore, I have $d^2 \psi_2 / dx^2$, by $d^2 x$ squared, plus $\alpha^2 \psi_2$ of x equals 0. Which, leaves me with a plane wave solution inside the box, because, it is a free particle. I could well write this, as ψ_2 of x is $A \sin \alpha x$, αx plus $B \cos \alpha x$, ψ_1 is 0 and ψ_3 is 0. When I say ψ_2 , this is the wave function within the box (Refer Slide Time: 02:24) that is between x equals 0 and x equals L .

So now, let us match the wave functions at the boundaries, ψ_1 at x equals 0 equals ψ_2 at x equals 0. I have selected the box, to range between 0 and L and ψ_2 , at x equals L equals ψ_3 at x equals L . But, this quantity is 0 and this quantity 0. I therefore, have the following boundary conditions which will simplify my wave function.

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So, ψ_2 of 0 out there, when I match it with ψ_1 . This simply implies, that the cos function out here, (Refer Slide Time: 04:30) $B \cos \alpha x$, does not contribute at all. Because, $\cos 0$ is 1 and therefore, B must automatically be 0 and that tells me, that ψ_2 is $A \sin \alpha x$.

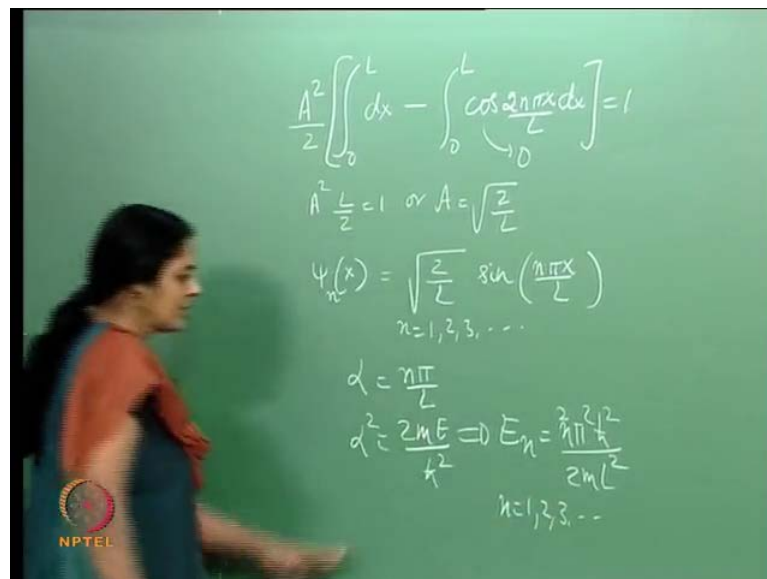
Of course, A is the normalization; we will have to determine that. At x equal's L , I have ψ_2 of L equals 0, because ψ_3 is 0. That tells me, that $A \sin \alpha L$ equals 0. Since, A in general is not 0, because, then the wave function itself will vanish. I have α equals $n \pi$ by L , where n can take values, I cannot put 0, because, if n were 0 then α is 0. Recall that the energy (Refer Slide Time: 04:30) is related to α . α^2 is $2 m$ by $\hbar$ cross squared and then the energy will be 0.

So, n is equal to 0 is not an allowed solution. On the other hand, n equals: 1, 2, 3 also plus minus, plus minus 1, plus minus 2, plus minus 3 in general. But, if n is minus out here, it simply going to give me the same function, because $\sin$ of minus x is minus $\sin$ of x . I do not get anything independent. That is just an overall phase that will come out and therefore, this is the solution. α is $n \pi$ by L , where n takes values: 1, 2, 3 and therefore, ψ_2 of x , is $A \sin n \pi x$ by L .

I have to determine A , the normalization constant. The normalization is done by looking at the entire interval. But, from minus infinity to 0, ψ is 0. So, that does not contribute. Again from L to plus infinity the wave function vanishes. So, there is no contribution.

The only non 0 contribution I need to worry about, is integral 0 to L, A squared psi star of x psi of x, which is psi sin squared n pi x by L d x. This quantity is normalized to 1. This is in fitting with the probabilistic interpretation. Because, this is a same as saying, that this object is equal to 1. Let us recall, that because we are working in the position representation, I have integral psi star of x psi of x d x equals 1. And, that should determine A square for me. Because, I could of course, write this as half 1 minus cos 2 n pi x by L and do the integration.

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$$\frac{A^2}{2} \left[\int_0^L dx - \int_0^L \cos \frac{2n\pi x}{L} dx \right] = 1$$

$$A^2 \frac{L}{2} = 1 \text{ or } A = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}$$

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\alpha = \frac{n\pi}{L}$$

$$\alpha^2 = \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \Rightarrow E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 \alpha^2}{2mL^2}$$

$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

So, that tells me, that a square by 2 integral d x from 0 to L, minus integral cos 2 n pi x by L d x. This quantity is 1. That is not going to make a contribution and this gives me just an L. So, A squared times L by 2 is equal to 1, or A is root of 2 by L. I have not chosen minus root of 2 by L, because wave functions anyway are arbitrary up to a phase. And therefore, my wave function, I will drop this suffix, this subscript 2 out here and I will write psi of x is root of 2 by L sin n pi x by L, n is 1, 2, 3 and so on.

So, this is a wave function psi of x, I should in fact put psi n of x out there, Because, there are very many states, Eigen states of the Hamiltonian, because this is indeed the solution to the Schrodinger equation. What are the corresponding energy levels? We decided that alpha was n pi by L and since alpha squared is 2 m e by h cross squared, which implies that E sub n, is n squared pi squared h cross squared, by 2 m L squared, n taking values 1, 2, 3 and so on. So, these are the Eigen functions. So, if you put a particle

in the box, there are discrete energy levels. Call them E_n and the expression is $E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2}$. And, the corresponding wave functions, are given by $\sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$. So, that is what we have.

Now given this, we would like to see what the uncertainty product is like, specifically in the ground state of the particle in the box, because, we know that for the harmonic oscillator problem, the one dimensional oscillator problem that we have already handled. The ground state was a minimum energy state, minimum uncertainty state and Δx was equal to Δp . And, the uncertainty product got equalized in the ground state. So, let us see what happens here. So, the aim is to calculate, the uncertainty product, in any state of the particle in the box.

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$$\Delta x, \Delta p$$

$$(\Delta x)^2 = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$$

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) x dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L x \left(1 - \cos\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{L}{2} - \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L x \cos\frac{2n\pi x}{L} dx$$

$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2}$
 $\frac{2n^2\pi^2}{L^2}$
 $\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2}$
 ψ

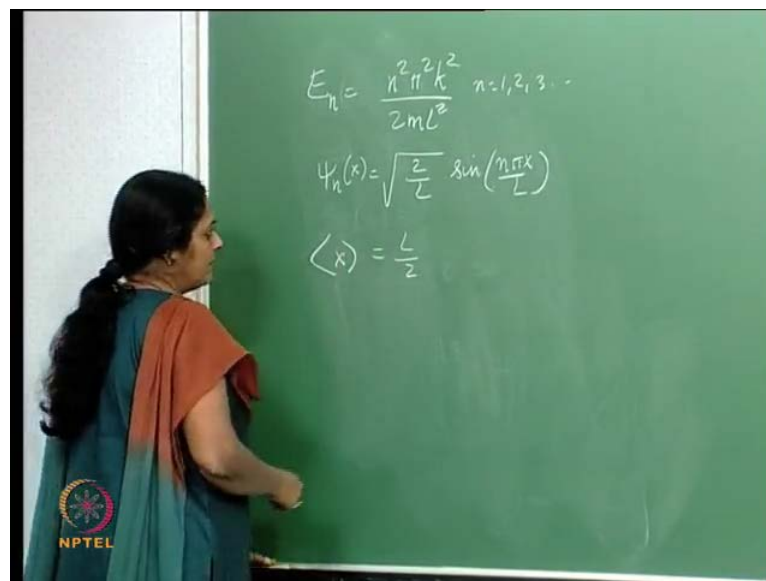
So, we need to compute Δx and Δp . Recall that Δx squared, is expectation x squared minus expectation x , the whole square. Similarly, Δp squared. So, we begin with expectation x . The expectation value of x in any state is $\int \psi^* x \psi$. So, that gives me $\frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin^2 \frac{n\pi x}{L} x dx$.

Now, before I compute this integral, I would like to argue and find out, what would be the value of x ? So, this particle is not biased towards any particular point or in any particular direction. It is a free particle moving anywhere within the box and incapable of penetrating outside the box. In that case, on an average you would expect that x would take the value $L/2$, because, that is the average of 0 and L . So, I would expect the

mean value of x , to be L by 2 . We can always do this calculation explicitly and see if indeed that is true. This is 2 by L , integral x 1 minus $\cos 2 n \pi x$ by L , $d x$ by 2 . And therefore, I might as well write this as 1 by L times this, where the 1 st term in the integral from 0 to L is just, integral $x d x$ and this is from 0 to L .

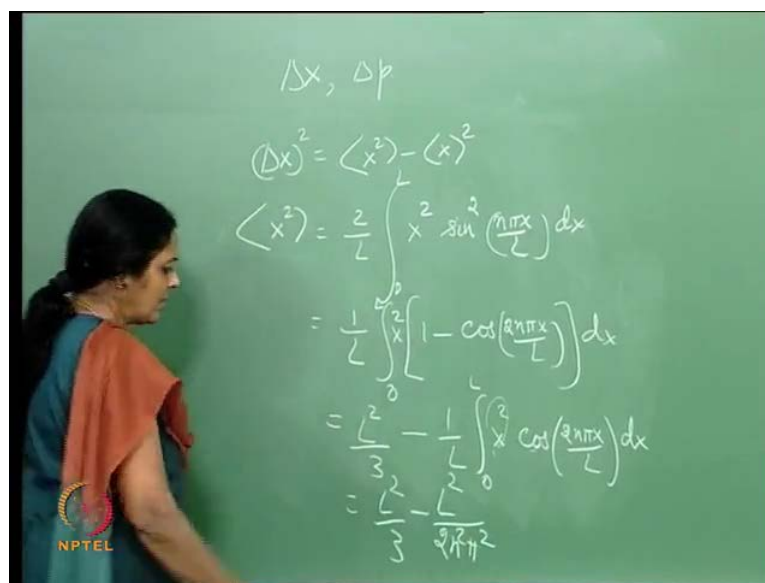
So, the 1 st term just gives me an L by 2 , which is what I thought, would happen. But, I have another integral, which is minus 1 by L , integral $x \cos 2 n \pi x$ by $L d x$. You can use integration by parts and that quantity vanishes. It is a trivial integration and indeed my guess was right that expectation value of x is L by 2 . So, an average the particle has no preferred direction, moves anywhere inside the box. Like a free particle, not subject to any potential and therefore, the average value of x , would be L by 2 . Because, the boundaries, where at x is equal to 0 and x equals L .

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So, let us put that down somewhere, we have E_n is n squared π squared $\hbar$ cross squared by $2 m L$ squared, n equals, $1 2 3$ and so on. And, ψ_n of x , is root of 2 by L , $\sin n \pi x$ by L . Expectation value of x in the state ψ sub n , is L by 2 . So, it seems to be independent of which excited state the particle is in. That is all that we have. But, expectation x squared is not so trivial. We can compute the integral and that is going to be a function of n . And therefore, there is going to be a variance, which gets a contribution both from the mean value of x and from x square's expectation value. So, let us compute that.

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$$\Delta x, \Delta p$$

$$\langle \Delta x \rangle^2 = \langle x^2 \rangle - \langle x \rangle^2$$

$$\langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L x^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L x^2 \left[1 - \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right)\right] dx$$

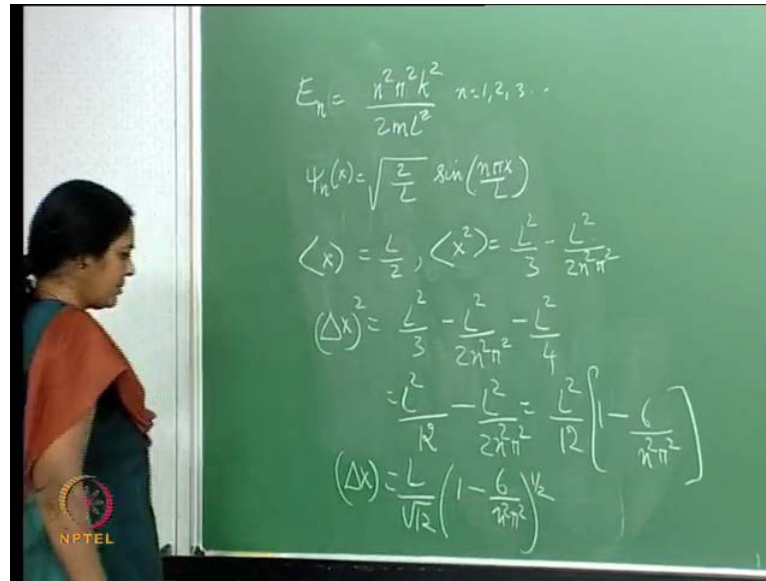
$$= \frac{L^2}{3} - \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L x^2 \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{L^2}{3} - \frac{L^2}{2n^2\pi^2}$$

Expectation x squared is of course, $\frac{2}{L}$ by L , integral x squared $\sin^2 n\pi x$ by L dx . This object is again $\frac{1}{L}$ by L , integral $1 - \cos 2n\pi x$ by L , x squared dx . The integral of course, goes from 0 to L . Well, the 1st term, gives me an integral x squared dx , which just gives me an L squared, by 3 with the $\frac{1}{L}$ by L . Then I have a minus $\frac{1}{L}$ integral 0 to L x squared, $\cos 2n\pi x$ by L dx . This integral again can be worked out explicitly. You can use integration by parts, call this u , call that dv .

So, if that is dv , $\cos 2n\pi x$ by L dx , if that is dv , v is a $\sin$. So, the term $u dv$ has x squared $\sin 2n\pi x$ by L and then there is an integral $v du$, which will make a contribution. And you can simplify this, it is a simple integral and the answer is minus L squared by $2n$ squared π square being the contribution from here. So, this is what we have for expectation x square. As you can see, there is an n dependence, in the expectation value of x squared. And, for large quantum numbers, the contribution from this term goes down. This is a point I will comment on a little bit later. So, let us put down that result.

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$$E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2} \quad n=1, 2, 3, \dots$$

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

$$\langle x \rangle = \frac{L}{2}, \quad \langle x^2 \rangle = \frac{L^2}{3} - \frac{L^2}{2n^2\pi^2}$$

$$(\Delta x)^2 = \frac{L^2}{3} - \frac{L^2}{2n^2\pi^2} - \left(\frac{L}{2}\right)^2$$

$$= \frac{L^2}{12} - \frac{L^2}{2n^2\pi^2} = \frac{L^2}{12} \left(1 - \frac{6}{n^2\pi^2}\right)$$

$$(\Delta x) = \frac{L}{\sqrt{12}} \left(1 - \frac{6}{n^2\pi^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

This is L^2 by 3 minus L^2 by $2n^2\pi^2$, where of course, one should be careful with dimensions. If you are talking of expectation x , it has to be the 1st power of L . If it is expectation x^2 , the dimension comes from L^2 . And therefore, Δx^2 the whole squared is L^2 by 3 minus L^2 by $2n^2\pi^2$ square, minus L^2 by 4, from expectation x the whole squared, which is L^2 by 12, minus L^2 by $2n^2\pi^2$ squared. This is what I have and therefore the variance. So, I can well write this as L^2 by 12 times $1 - \frac{6}{n^2\pi^2}$. That is the variance and therefore, Δx is L by $\sqrt{12}$, $1 - \frac{6}{n^2\pi^2}$ to the power of half. So, that is what I have for Δx .

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$$(\Delta p)^2 = \langle p^2 \rangle - \langle p \rangle^2$$

$$\langle p \rangle = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \left(-i\hbar \frac{d}{dx}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

$$= \frac{2(-i\hbar)}{L} \int_0^L \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right) \cos\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) dx = 0$$

$$\langle p^2 \rangle = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \left(-\hbar^2 \frac{d^2}{dx^2}\right) \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

$$E_n = \frac{\hbar^2 n^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2} = \langle p^2 \rangle = \frac{\hbar^2 n^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2}$$

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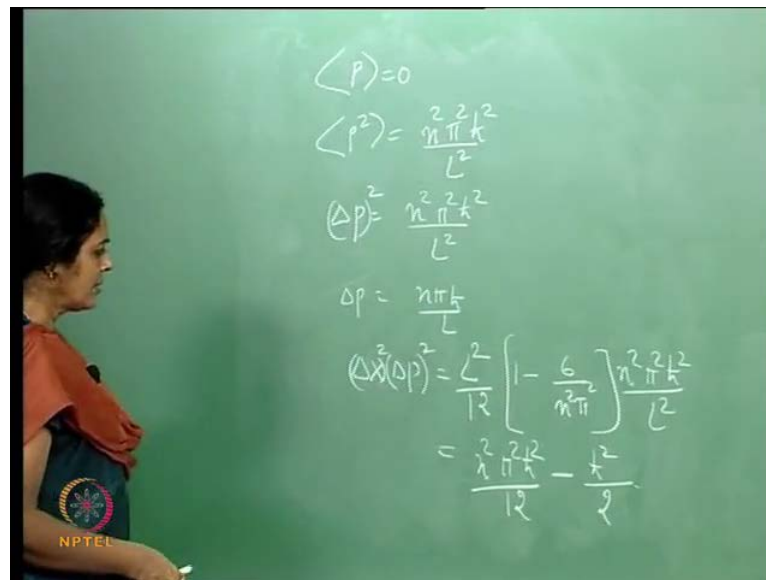
So now, let us find the variance in p . So, Δp the whole squared that is the square of the variance, as you know is expectation p squared, minus expectation p the whole square. So, what is expectation p ? This object, my wave function is root of 2 by L sin $n\pi x$ by L . So, I pull out a 2 by L , integral sin $n\pi x$ by L . I write p in the position representation, as minus $i\hbar$ cross d by dx . So, that is a $\psi^* \psi$, of course, the integral limits go from 0 to L .

The wave function is a real wave function and therefore, ψ^* is the same as ψ and we are working in the position representation. So, this object apart from a minus $i\hbar$ cross, which I can pull outside, is simply sin $n\pi x$ by L , $n\pi$ by L cos $n\pi x$ by L dx . And this integration, if I do it, I will get 0. In fact, I can come up with a very reasonable argument, as to why this should be 0. Because, the particle will caught in a square well, will move as much to the left, as to the right and so on an average, I would expect the net momentum to be 0.

On the other hand, there is a contribution from expectation p squared, to the square of the variance. So, once again I can find this, as before, I have $\psi^* \psi$. But, now it is a minus $\hbar$ cross squared d^2 by dx^2 , sin $n\pi x$ by L . Because, I have substituted for p squared, I could do this integration. On the other hand, I can come up, with a nice argument, as to what it should be. Look at expectation p squared. Now, E_n is n squared π squared $\hbar$ cross squared, by $2mL$ squared. And therefore, p squared you

know that E is p squared by $2m$ and therefore, p squared is m squared π squared h cross squared by L squared. In fact it is p n and this is what makes a contribution, to Δp squared. Not from here, but from expectation p square. Of course, I can explicitly work out this integral and if I did, that I would get this answer.

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The chalkboard contains the following equations:

$$\langle p \rangle = 0$$

$$\langle p^2 \rangle = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2}$$

$$(\Delta p)^2 = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2}$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{n \pi \hbar}{L}$$

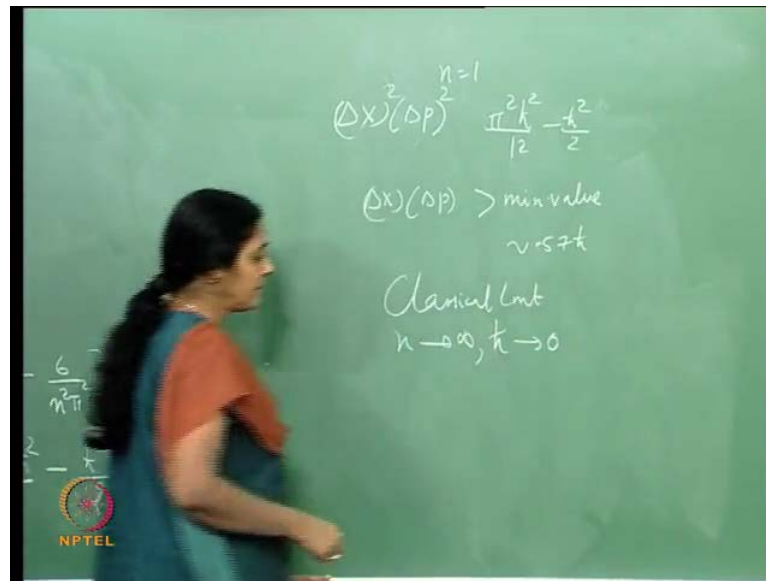
$$(\Delta x)(\Delta p)^2 = \frac{L^2}{12} \left[1 - \frac{6}{n^2 \pi^2} \right] \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2}$$

$$= \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{12} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2}$$

So, let us write that down here and expectation p squared, is n square π square h cross squared, by L squared. I can now compute Δx . Δx is simply expectation p squared, Δp . That is simply expectation p squared and that is n squared π squared, Δp the whole squared, is n squared π square h cross squared by L squared. And therefore, Δp is $n \pi h$ cross by L . I now compute the uncertainty product $\Delta x \Delta p$ in the state ψ_n . I have got Δx there. (Refer Slide Time: 16:06) So, it is easier to do Δx squared Δp squared.

So, Δx squared is out here. It is L squared by 12, times 1 minus 6 by n squared π squared, times Δp square which is n square π square h cross squared by L squared. And, that gives me quantities, the 1st one depends on n square and if the 2nd one you will see that n square cancels out. The 1st one, the L square cancels out and I get an n squared π squared h cross square by 12, minus h cross squared by 2. We can therefore, now find, the value of the uncertainty product, say in the ground state of the particle in the box, setting n equals 1.

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So, let us do that, delta x, delta p, in the ground state for n equals 1. So, (Refer Slide Time: 24:33) delta x squared delta p squared, is pi squared h cross squared by 12, minus h cross squared by 2. We can now put in the value of pi and you can see that the uncertainty product delta x delta p, is greater than the minimum value, because it is roughly 0.57 h cross. This is there for not a minimum uncertainty state.

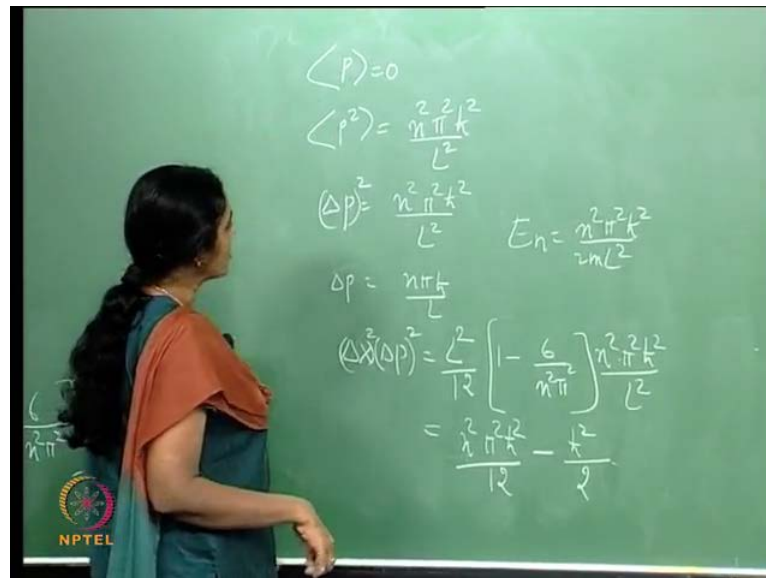
It is obvious that the higher energy states are even worse and there is no minimum uncertainty state, in the case of the particle in a box. The ground state is not a minimum uncertainty state and the other states are even worse. (Refer Slide Time: 24:33) In the sense delta x delta p is larger than, its value for the ground state. You can substitute n is equal to: 2, 3, 4 and so on out here. There is an interesting observation that one can make at this point.

How do you go to the classical limit of the problem? In classical mechanics, the energy levels are not discrete, they are not quantized. Now, for this particle in a box, the energy level must be a continuum of numbers and when do I hit the classical limit. I hit the classical limit, of course, (Refer Slide Time: 24:33) when n becomes very large, h cross has to go to 0 to get to the classical limit. So, the classical limit is reached, for n going to infinity and h cross going to 0.

At that stage, I would really retrieve the classical features. Because, the difference, (Refer Slide Time: 24:33) between n plus 1 the whole squared and n squared, goes down.

For large n , compared to values where n is small and therefore, as you consider larger and larger values of n . It is clear, that the energy levels get closer and closer to each other. This is simply a constant.

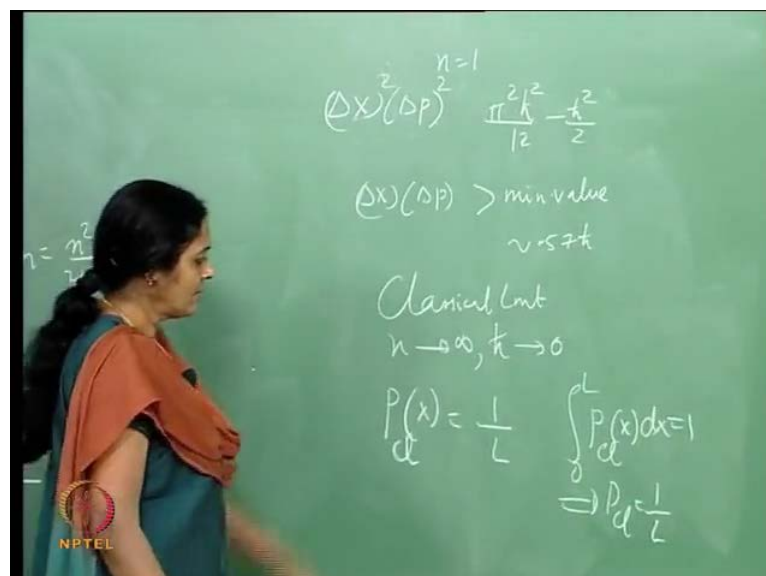
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$$\begin{aligned}\langle p \rangle &= 0 \\ \langle p^2 \rangle &= \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2} \\ (\Delta p)^2 &= \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2} \quad E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2} \\ \Delta p &= \frac{n\pi\hbar}{L} \\ (\Delta x)(\Delta p)^2 &= \frac{L^2}{12} \left[1 - \frac{6}{n^2 \pi^2} \right] \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2} \\ &= \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2}{12} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2}\end{aligned}$$

The energy levels get closer and closer to each other, if you look at E_n and you no longer see the separation very clearly. In other words, you hit the continuum, or you have, hit something that looks like a continuous stretch of states, or you have hit the classical limit.

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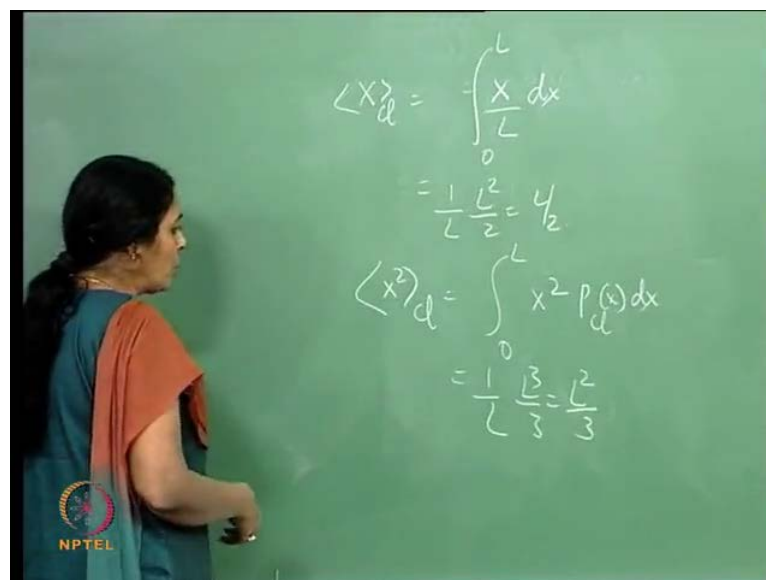


$$\begin{aligned}(\Delta x)(\Delta p)^2 &\stackrel{n=1}{=} \frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2}{12} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2} \\ (\Delta x)(\Delta p) &> \text{min. value} \\ &\sim 5\pi\hbar \\ \text{Classical limit} \\ n \rightarrow \infty, \hbar \rightarrow 0 \\ P(x) &= \frac{1}{L} \quad \int_0^L P(x) dx = 1 \\ &\Rightarrow P(x) = \frac{1}{L}\end{aligned}$$

So, now let us look at the classical limit of this problem. What exactly happens in classical physics? In classical physics, I can talk of the probability distribution, of x and so on. So, let us look at the probability distribution. The probability distribution of x , would be uniform, in classical physics for this problem. Because, the particle can be anywhere, with equal probability and therefore, p of x , let me call it p classical of x .

This would be 1 by L , anybody is guess, because you know that the total probability has to be 1 and that of course implies, that p classical, is 1 by L . That gives me an integral $\int_0^L x$ which is an L and things neatly cancel out. So, if this is p classical, I can find out the value of the mean value of x , the mean value of x squared and so on, in classical physics.

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$$\begin{aligned}\langle x \rangle_{cl} &= \int_0^L \frac{x}{L} dx \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \frac{L^2}{2} = \frac{L}{2} \\ \langle x^2 \rangle_{cl} &= \int_0^L x^2 p_{cl}(x) dx \\ &= \frac{1}{L} \frac{L^3}{3} = \frac{L^2}{3}\end{aligned}$$

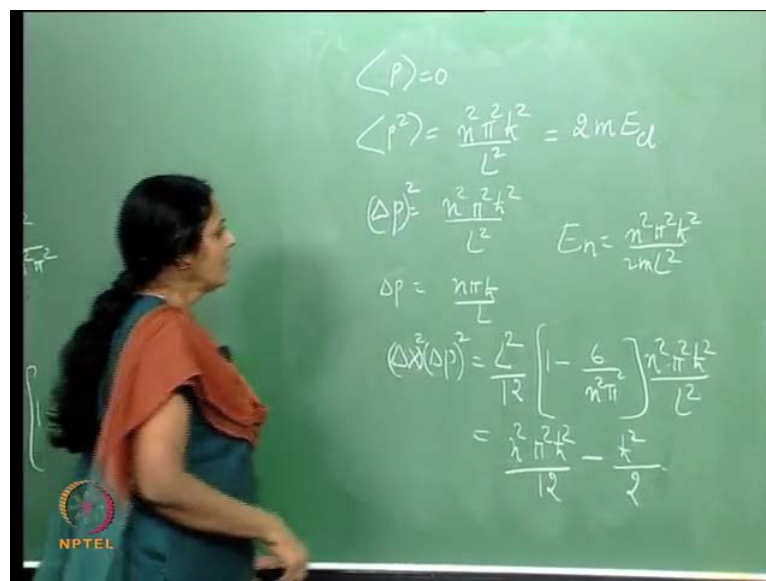
So, the mean value of x , let me call that x classical, the mean value x classical. This object is simply integral $x p$ classical, dx from 0 to L and that is 1 by L , L squared by 2 , which is L by 2 . So, both in classical physics and in quantum physics, I would expect this to be the average value of the position, L by 2 . Not surprisingly therefore, even in the classical limit, the quantum value is simply the same as the classical value. It is L by 2 . Now, look at expectation x squared classical, I use this notation to show the average value in classical physics.

Now, that is 0 to L x squared p classical of x dx . That is 1 by L , x cube by 3 , between 0 and L . So, that is L cube by 3 , which is L square by 3 . This is what I have, for expectation x squared classical, that is L squared by 3 . Now, look at the expectation

value of x^2 here. (Refer Slide Time: 19:10) In the quantum mechanical analogue, where the particle was a quantum particle in the box, you have an L^2 by 3, minus L^2 by $2n^2\pi^2$. Now, in the limit of large quantum numbers, for n going to infinity, you find that expectation x^2 quantum goes to the classical limit, which is given here, which is L^2 by 3. So, that is one thing that we have checked out.

Now, look at expectation value of p , I would use the same argument that I used in the quantum case for expectation value of p . The particle can go anywhere, to the right and to the left, with equal probability and therefore, on an average I would expect its momentum to be 0. The velocities to the right and to the left would be occurring with equal probabilities. And therefore, I would expect the expectation value of p to be 0, as to Δp itself, in the quantum case.

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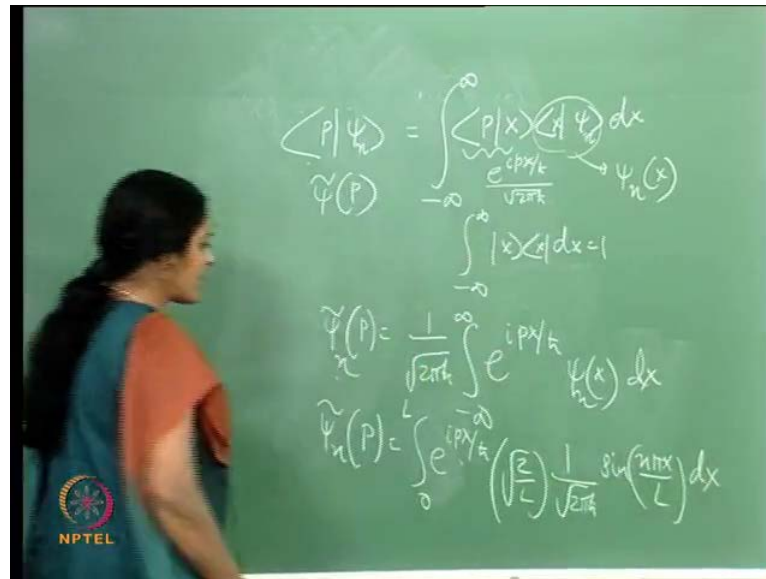


$$\begin{aligned}\langle p \rangle &= 0 \\ \langle p^2 \rangle &= \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2} = 2mE_n \\ (\Delta p)^2 &= \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2} \quad E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2mL^2} \\ \Delta p &= \frac{n\pi\hbar}{L} \\ (\Delta x)(\Delta p)^2 &= \frac{L}{12} \left[1 - \frac{6}{n^2\pi^2} \right] \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{L^2} \\ &= \frac{\hbar^2 \pi^2 n^2}{12} - \frac{\hbar^2}{2}\end{aligned}$$

I have Δp to be essentially given by expectation p^2 , because expectation p was 0 and expectation p^2 , is Δp the whole squared, which is $n^2\pi^2\hbar^2$ by L^2 and what should it be? I know that, this should simply be $2mE_{\text{classical}}$. Because, p^2 by $2m$ is indeed $E_{\text{classical}}$, in the classical case. And therefore, expectation value of p^2 square root gives me Δp , which should be square root of $2mE_{\text{classical}}$.

So, this is the way one goes, from the quantum case to the classical limit. There is one very interesting aspect, so much for the uncertainty. There is one very interesting aspect to this problem and that comes by looking at the momentum space, wave function and the probability density in momentum space. The momentum space wave function, is clearly obtained by doing the Fourier transform of the position space wave function.

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$$\langle p | \psi_n \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \langle p | x \rangle \langle x | \psi_n \rangle dx$$

$$\tilde{\psi}_n(p) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} e^{ipx/\hbar} \psi_n(x) dx$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |x\rangle \langle x| dx = 1$$

$$\tilde{\psi}_n(p) = \int_0^L e^{ipx/\hbar} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{L}} \right) \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$$

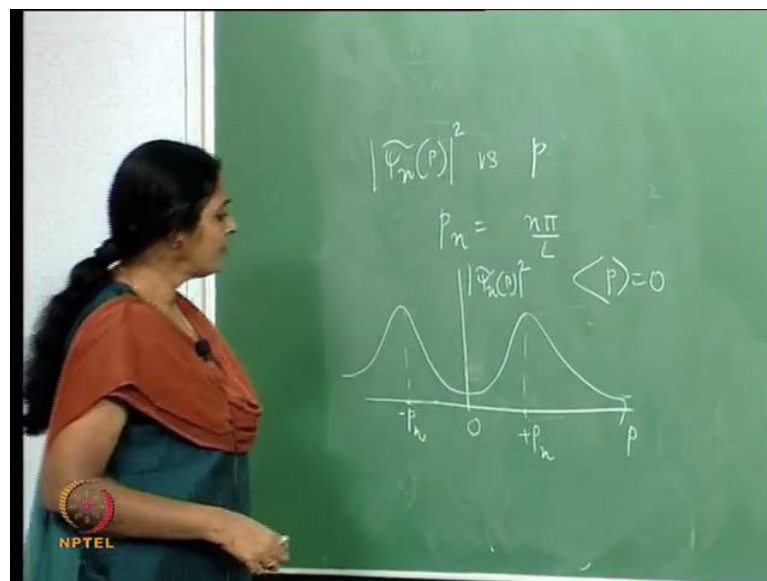
So, in the Dirac notation for instance, I would denote the momentum space wave function, $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$, as this inner product, $\langle p | \psi_n \rangle$. This can well be written as $\langle p | x \rangle \langle x | \psi_n \rangle$. I am talking about quantized energy levels and therefore, I might as well write $\psi_n(x)$. Really this should go from minus infinity to infinity, in general and I have introduced a complete set of states. The right hand side is the identity operator. This object, here is simply $\psi_n(x)$. It is the n -th Eigen state, in the position representation. But, I know that $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$ is related to $\psi_n(x)$ through the Fourier transform.

So, basically this object here, is $e^{ipx/\hbar}$. But, I would also do a root of $2\pi\hbar$. That is when I go from the position space to the momentum space. I have $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$, is equal to $1/\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}$ integral over the allowed values of x , $e^{ipx/\hbar} \psi_n(x)$. I should really write $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$, if I have $\psi_n(x)$. The root 2π here is of course a convention, because, I could have put a $1/\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}$ here and when I do the inverse Fourier transform, I would put a $1/\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}$ when I go from $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$ to $\psi_n(x)$.

I could instead not have the $1/\sqrt{2\pi\hbar}$ at all in one case. I could have made this $2\pi\hbar$ cross and nothing out there, just one out there, when I go from the momentum space to the position space. Equally, I could have kept 1 here as a coefficient removed this and I could have transferred 2π to the other side and so, when I come from the momentum space to the position space during an inverse Fourier transform. I could introduce a coefficient $1/2\pi$. So, those are conventions, now, use this convention and this is what I have.

So, this is the momentum space wave function, except that now, I need to put in ψ_n of x . Between, excess 0 and excess L and therefore, $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$ is really going to be $\int_0^L e^{-ipx/\hbar} \sqrt{2/L} \sin(n\pi x/L) dx$. So, this is the integral that one has to do, in order to find $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$, the momentum space wave function. One can do this integral and find modulus of $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$ of p the whole square and that is going to be the momentum space, probability density.

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So, if you plot that distribution versus p , you see something pretty interesting. Modulus of $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$, the whole squared can be computed and if you plot modulus of $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$ squared versus p . Defining p_n as $n\pi/L$, the plot of modulus of $\tilde{\psi}_n(p)$ squared versus p , takes a maximum asymmetric first of all. It takes a maximum, at plus p_n and minus p_n . At these two values, plus p_n and minus p_n , mod

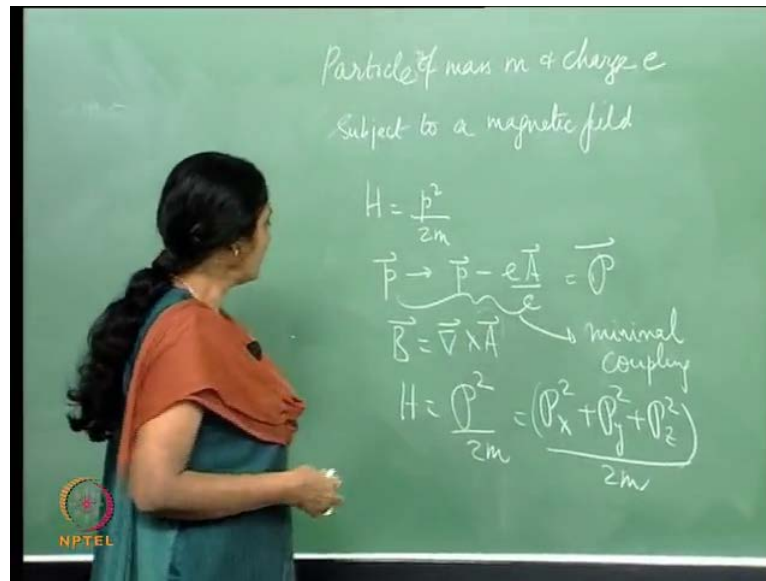
ψ_n^2 of p the whole squared, picks up maxima and interestingly the minimum value is at p equal to 0.

This is a point to note, because expectation value of p was 0. While the mean value of p , $p = 0$ is the lowest probability point. Because, you find that the probability distribution really peaks up at p is plus n , plus $p = n$ and minus $p = n$. So, the average value is really the lowest probability value. For this distribution and that is a very important and interesting point to remember in the context of the case of the particle in the box. So, we have seen three situations. The particle in the box, the square well potential and the infinite potential barrier. These are all examples of stationary states and several interesting quantum properties emerged in the process.

There was tunneling, leakage across the well, into the classically forbidden region, tunneling across the barrier. The manner in which the quantum limit went to the classical limit, the classical limit itself comes for large quantum numbers, where n goes to infinity and $\hbar$ goes to 0. We have seen the free particle solution, ψ is a plane wave solution $e^{ipx/\hbar}$ or $e^{-ipx/\hbar}$. We have seen the harmonic oscillator, the 1 dimensional oscillator where we had the ladder operators b and $b^\dagger$ and we had discrete energy levels and essentially the Hermite polynomials, as the energy Eigen state. Now, to a last and very interesting problem in this category and that is the case of a charged particle, in a homogenous magnetic field.

You will find that this spectrum, in a sense, has a part which behaves, like the linear harmonic oscillator spectrum and another part, which behaves like the free particle. So, there is a combination of both the harmonic oscillator and the free particle, in the case of the problem of the charged particle of mass m , moving in a homogenous magnetic field. So, let me just set up the foundation for that and then in tomorrow's lecture, I can look at the details of this problem.

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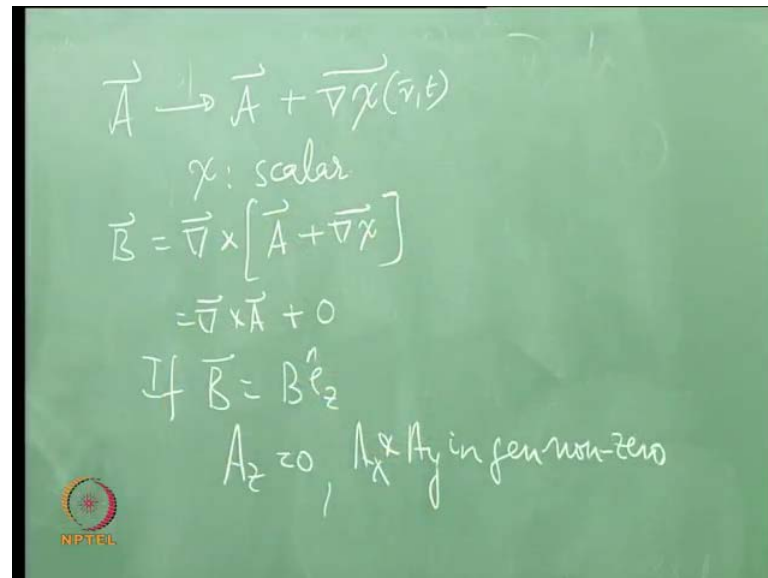
So, we now discuss the problem of a charged particle, in a homogenous magnetic field. Particle of charge, particle of mass m and charge e , subject to a homogenous magnetic field, subject to a magnetic field, where we will approximate, we will simplify it to a homogenous magnetic field, a little later.

The Hamiltonian for a free particle is p squared by $2m$, as you know p is a linear momentum of the particle. Now, in the presence of a magnetic field, you do a minimal coupling and p itself, is replaced by p minus e A by c , where A is the vector potential. The magnetic field itself is related to A , by B equals ∇ cross A . So, let me call this as P not p , P like that. The Hamiltonian then, is P squared by $2m$, where P is defined. The vector P is simply the linear momentum of the particle, minus e A by c . This prescription p goes to p minus e A by c . Leads to something called the minimal coupling, because, when you do the squared. There are terms, which involve p dot A , A dot p and so on. And, that is the coupling, between the particle that momentum p and the vector potential A , of the field.

That we are talking about and, this is a minimal coupling, one can think of more non minimal terms, but that is beside the issue right now, we shall work with the minimal coupling prescription. So, this is obviously going to have 3 components, P_x square plus P_y square, plus P_z squared, by $2m$. Now, it is clear, that the magnetic field is the physically observable field. Is a physically observable quantity and not so much the

vector potential A , in the sense, that several A 's, in fact, an infinite set of vector potentials could give me the same magnetic field. Because, if I replace A , by A plus gradient of a scalar quantity, I would still get the same B .

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$$\vec{A} \rightarrow \vec{A} + \vec{\nabla} \chi(\vec{r}, t)$$

χ : scalar

$$\vec{B} = \vec{\nabla} \times [\vec{A} + \vec{\nabla} \chi]$$

$$= \vec{\nabla} \times \vec{A} + 0$$

If $\vec{B} = B \hat{e}_z$

$A_z = 0, A_x, A_y$ in general non-zero

So, I can do what is called, a Gauge transformation, on A . A goes to A plus grad χ , χ is a function of space time and χ is a scalar. Then B is now $\text{del cross } A$ plus grad χ , which is $\text{del cross } A$, plus the curl of a gradient and that is 0. And therefore, there are in principle, I can choose χ to be anything I wish, any scalar function and therefore, for an infinite set of vector potentials, I get the same magnetic field B .

The Hamiltonian (Refer Slide Time: 42:01) is given in this manner. I would like to make this magnetic field homogenous. In the sense, I would like to choose B to be, a constant magnetic field, independent of space and time, along the z direction. The direction of B is chosen as a reference axis, or the z direction. Now, in that case, A_z will be 0, because, B is equal to if B is equal to $B \hat{e}_z$, A_z is 0 and A_x and A_y in general non zero. It is possible for me, since, I have already explained that different A 's could lead to the same B . It is possible for me to choose A_x and A_y non zero, for a given B . I could choose A_x to be 0 and A_y to be non zero, for the same B , or A_x to be non zero and A_y to be 0, get the same B .

So, by Gauge transformation that is by changing a given value of A , to A plus grad χ and choosing my χ appropriately. I can have a different an infinite set of vector

potentials, which will give me the same B . I choose a Gauge, by fixing a certain value, of A_x , A_y and A_z . In this case A_z is 0 and depending upon the choice of A_x and A_y , I would say that I have selected a Gauge. So, we will work out the problem of the particle in the homogenous magnetic field. Get the Eigen spectrum, the energy Eigen spectrum and the Eigen values, for specific Gauges, that means for specific choice, of A_x , A_y and of course, A_z is equal to 0. This is what we will see in the next lecture.