

# Unit 3

## Difference b/w Classical & Quantum Mech

### Classical

- ① Classical mechanics is a macroscopic physics.
- ② Classical mechanics is based on Newton's law.
- ③ Classical mechanics is a definite physics.
- ④ Classical mechanics shows the wave nature of light.
- ⑤ Classical mechanics is able to explain interference, diffraction, polarization etc.

### Quantum

- ① Quantum mechanics is a microscopic physics.
- ② Quantum mechanics is based on Planck's theory of radiation.
- ③ Quantum mechanics is a probable physics.
- ④ Quantum mechanics shows wave nature as well as particle nature.
- ⑤ Quantum mechanics is able to explain photoelectric effect, Compton effect, black body radiation etc.

### Inadequacy or failure of classical Mechanics

- ⇒ Classical mechanics could not explain the stability of atom.

- ⇒ It could not explain black body radiation spectrum
- ⇒ It could not explain Compton effect, photoelectric effect
- ⇒ It could not explain the discrete energy levels of atom.

Black body radiation: A black body is one which completely absorbs the all incident radiation.

Eg :-

Black body Radiation? The radiation emitted by the black body when it is placed in a constant high temperature known as black body radiation.

### Plank's Theory of Quantum Mechanics

In 1900, Planck introduce the revolutionary theory of radiation known as quantum theory of radiation.

He made the following assumptions:-

- ① A black body consist of large number of small oscillating particles.
- ② The radiation emitted by the black body is in the form of discrete energy packets called Quanta / Photons
- ③ The energy of one photon ( $E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$ )
- ④ The black body either absorb or emit radiation which is integral multiple of ' $h\nu$ ', i.e.  $E = nh\nu$  ( $n=1, 2, 3, \dots$ )

### Wave Particle Duality

In some phenomena, like an interference, diffraction, polarization light behaves like a wave and in some other phenomena like in photoelectric effect, compton effect, Black body radiation light behave like a particle. It means light has a dual nature which is called wave particle duality.

## De-Broglie Hypothesis

"A moving particle is always associated with a wave" known as Matterwave. This is known as De-Broglie Hypothesis.

$$\text{And, } \lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{p} \rightarrow \text{momentum of particle}$$

According to de-Broglie

### Other forms of De-Broglie wavelengths

- i) assume K.E. (kinetic energy of particle) =  $K$

$$\therefore \lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mK}} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{\frac{1}{2} \times 2mK}}$$

$$\therefore \lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mK}}$$

- ii) If a particle is a charged particle of charge  $q$ , and accelerated by a potential difference  $V$  (volt).  $\therefore K = qV$

$$\text{as } \lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mK}} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mqV}}$$

- Ques: Find the De-Broglie wavelength of an electron accelerated by a potential difference  $V$  volt.

$$\text{for ex., } \lambda_c = \sqrt{\frac{150}{V}} \text{ Å} = \frac{12.26}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ Å}$$

→ If a particle is a gaseous molecule in thermal equilibrium,

$$K = \text{Boltzmann's constant} = 1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mK}}$$

↳ Boltzmann's constant  
Energy

$$\therefore \lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mk}} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{3mKT}}$$

↓  
Boltzmann's constant

② If a particle having rest mass  $m_0$  moving with velocity 'v' which is comparable to 'c' then its relativistic mass is

$$m = m_0$$

$$\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

$$\therefore \lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{m_0 v} \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

## Properties of Matter wave

The properties of waves are

- ① The De-Broglie wavelength associated with lighter particle is greater than the heavier particle.
- ② The De-Broglie wavelength associated with slow moving particle is greater than fast moving particle.
- ③ If  $v=0$ ,  $\lambda=\infty$   
 & if  $v=\infty$ ,  $\lambda=0$  } i.e. particle should move with finite velocity
- ④ Matter wave is associated with charged particle as well as neutral particles.
- ⑤ The velocity of matter wave is not constant like electro-magnetic wave

To prove  $v_p = \frac{c^2}{v}$

$v_p$  = matter wave velocity

$c$  = speed of light

$v$  = particle velocity

The energy of a photon  $E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$

$$\therefore \nu = \frac{E}{h}$$

$$\therefore \nu = \frac{mc^2}{h} \quad \left[ \text{by Einstein energy mass relation } E = mc^2 \right]$$

If  $v_p$  is the wave velocity,

$$\text{then } v_p = \frac{\nu \lambda}{c} = \frac{mc^2}{h} \times \frac{h}{mv}$$

$$\therefore v_p = \frac{c^2}{v}$$

Since,  $v < c$

$$\therefore v_p = \frac{c^2}{v} > c \quad (\text{which is not possible})$$

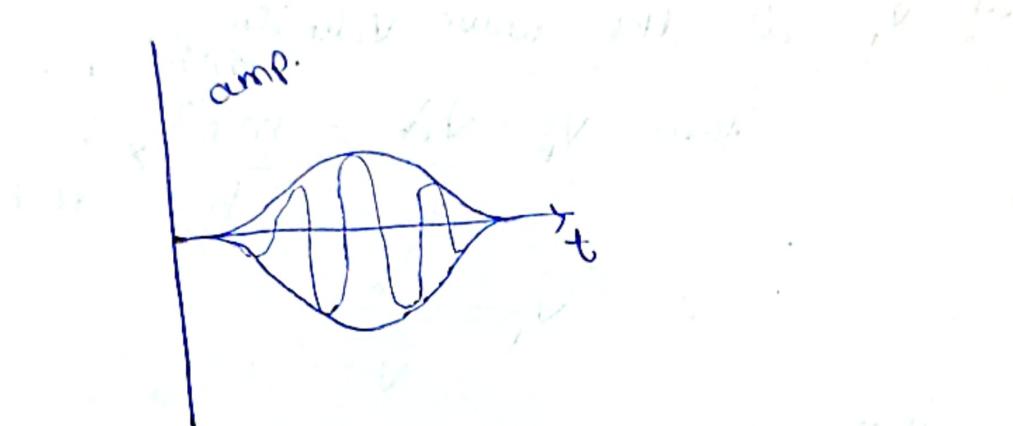
Since  $v$  is less than  $c$ , therefore  $v_p = \frac{c^2}{v}$

which is always greater than  $c$  which is not possible, moving particle

Hence, it shows matter/wave is not associated with single wave, i.e. moving particle is associated with wave group or wave packet.

Wave Group or Wave Packet?

The superposition of number of waves ~~oscillate~~  
of slightly different frequencies and wavelengths  
associated with moving particle known as  
wave group or wave packet.



- ④ Particle certainly like the wave packet

~~Wave velocity or phase velocity ( $v_p$ )~~

when a monochromatic wave travels in a medium then the velocity of that wave is known as wave velocity or phase velocity ( $v_p$ )

where 
$$v_p = \frac{\omega}{k}$$

$\Rightarrow \omega \rightarrow$  angular frequency  $= 2\pi\nu$   
 $\Rightarrow k \rightarrow$  propagation constant  $= \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$

or  $\omega = 2\pi\nu$ ,  $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$

$$v_p = \frac{\omega}{k} = \frac{2\pi\nu}{2\pi/\lambda} = \nu\lambda$$

## Group Velocity ( $V_g$ ) :-

The velocity of the wave group associated with moving particle is known as group velocity.

$$V_g = \frac{\partial \omega}{\partial k} = \frac{\omega_1 - \omega_2}{k_1 - k_2} = \frac{\text{difference in } \omega}{\text{difference in } k}$$

Relation b/w Group velocity ( $V_g$ ) & wave velocity ( $V_p$ )

$$V_p = \frac{\omega}{k}$$

$$\omega = V_p k$$

$$d\omega = V_p dk + k dV_p$$

$$\frac{d\omega}{dk} = V_p + k \frac{dV_p}{dk}$$

$$V_g = V_p + k \frac{dV_p}{dk} \cdot \frac{dk}{dk} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\text{as } \lambda = \frac{2\pi}{k}$$

$$\therefore \frac{dk}{dk} = -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda^2}$$

put in (1)

$$V_g = V_p + k \frac{dV_p}{dk} \left( -\frac{2\pi}{\lambda^2} \right) = V_p - \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} \frac{dV_p}{d\lambda}$$

$$V_g = V_p - \lambda \frac{dV_p}{d\lambda}$$

$\therefore (V_g < V_p \text{ always})$

$\Rightarrow$  for Non-dispersive Medium,

$$\frac{dV_p}{d\lambda} = 0 \quad \therefore V_g = V_p$$

To prove  $V_g = V$

Consider a particle having rest mass ' $m_0$ ' moving with velocity  $v$  which is comparable to 'c'

$$\text{Then } \Rightarrow m = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \rightarrow 0$$

if  $\omega$  is the angular velocity,

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

$$\omega = \frac{2\pi m_0 c^2}{h} \rightarrow \omega = \frac{2\pi m_0 c^2}{h \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{d\omega}{d\nu} = \frac{2\pi m_0 c^2}{h} \frac{d}{d\nu} \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-1/2}$$

$$\frac{d\omega}{dv} = \frac{2\pi m_0 c^2}{h} \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-3/2} \left(-\frac{2v}{c^2}\right)$$

$$\frac{d\omega}{dv} = \frac{2\pi m_0 v}{h} \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-3/2}$$

$$K = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi mv}{h}$$

$$K = \frac{2\pi m_0 v}{h \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}}$$

$$\frac{dK}{dv} = \frac{d}{dv} \left[ \frac{2\pi m_0 v}{h \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}} \right]$$

$$\frac{dK}{dv} = \frac{2m_0 \pi}{h} \frac{d}{dv} \left[ \frac{v}{\left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}} \right]$$

$$\frac{dK}{dv} = \frac{2\pi m_0}{h} \left[ \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-1/2} + v \left(\frac{1}{2}\right) \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-3/2} \left(-\frac{2v}{c^2}\right) \right]$$

$$\frac{dK}{dv} = \frac{2\pi m_0}{h \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{3/2}} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

then  $v_g = \frac{d\omega}{dk} = \frac{d\omega/dv}{dK/dv} = \frac{\frac{2\pi m_0 v}{h} \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-3/2}}{\frac{2\pi m_0 \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{-3/2}}{h}}$

$\therefore \boxed{v_g = v}$  → which shows that group velocity is equal to particle velocity.

# Wave function ( $\Psi$ ) and its physical significance

⇒ Probability Amplitude

it is complex quantity

$$\Psi = A + iB \quad \downarrow \quad \text{complex conjugate}$$
$$\Psi^* = A - iB \quad \leftarrow \quad \text{of } \Psi$$

$$|\Psi|^2 = \Psi \Psi^*$$

$$|\Psi|^2 = (A+iB)(A-iB)$$

$$|\Psi|^2 = A^2 + B^2 \Rightarrow \text{real}$$

name ⇒ Probability density ⇒ Probability of finding  
a particle in wave  
packet at a particular time, at a  
particular point.

Ex.  $\iiint_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi|^2 dx dy dz = 1$

⇒ The quantity whose variation with  
matter wave known as wave function ( $\Psi$ ),  
it is also probability amplitude of  
matter wave.

it is a complex quantity and related  
to  $|\psi|^2$  known as probability density.

$|\psi|^2 = \psi\psi^*$  which is a real quantity,

according to max Born,  $|\psi|^2$  gives the

Probability of finding the particle in

a wave packet at a particular time and

at a particle point.

Since, particle certainly lie the wave packet.

$$\iiint_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi|^2 dx dy dz = 1$$

This condition

is known as normalization condition.

Conditions for Acceptable wave function

(a)  $\psi$  must be finite.

(b)  $\psi$  must be single valued.

(c)  $\psi$  must be continuous.

Schrodinger's wave Equation

(1) Schrodinger's Time independent wave equation.

(2) Schrodinger's Time dependent wave equation.

→ To study the wave nature of moving particle,

Schrodinger derived an equation known as Schrodinger's wave equation.

It is of two type written previously.

① Schrodinger's Time independent wave equation:

$\vec{\nabla}$  : Deloperator (3-dimensional differential operator)

$$\vec{\nabla} = \frac{\partial \hat{i}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \hat{j}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \hat{k}}{\partial z}$$

$$\vec{\nabla} \cdot \vec{\nabla} = (\vec{\nabla})^2 = \left( \frac{\partial \hat{i}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \hat{j}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \hat{k}}{\partial z} \right) \left( \frac{\partial \hat{i}}{\partial x} + \frac{\partial \hat{j}}{\partial y} + \frac{\partial \hat{k}}{\partial z} \right)$$

$$\nabla^2 = \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}$$

general wave equation,

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}$$

The differential wave equation for matter is:

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Solution of equation (1) is

$$\psi = \psi_0 e^{-i \omega t} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

differentiating eq(3) with respect to  $t$ :

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \psi_0 \frac{\partial}{\partial t} e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -\psi_0 i\omega e^{-i\omega t}$$

differentiating again w.r.t.  $t$ :

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = \psi_0 (-i\omega)^2 e^{-i\omega t} = (-i\omega)^2 \psi_0 e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} = -\omega^2 \psi \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} \xrightarrow{\text{put here}} \nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} (-\omega^2 \psi)$$

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} (-\omega^2 \psi) + \frac{1}{v^2} \nabla^2 \psi$$

$$(\nabla^2) \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} (-4\pi^2 \delta^2) \psi$$

$$= \frac{1}{v^2} \left( -4\pi^2 \frac{v^2}{\delta^2} \psi \right)$$

$$\nabla^2 \psi = -\frac{4\pi^2}{\delta^2} \psi$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} & \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{4\pi^2}{\delta^2} \psi = 0 \\ & \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{4\pi^2 m^2 v^2}{h^2} \psi = 0 \end{aligned} \right\} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

Ans: ①

$$\textcircled{ii} \quad \Psi = e^{-ikx}$$

Normalize both equations.

If  $E = \text{Total energy}$

$V = \text{Potential energy}$

$\therefore \text{kinetic energy} = E - V$

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = (E - V)$$

$$mV^2 = 2m(E - V)$$

Putting on equation ④, we get

$$\nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{4\pi^2}{n^2} \times \frac{2m(E - V)}{\hbar^2} \Psi = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m(E - V)}{n^2} \Psi = 0$$

} standard form of  
Schrödinger's wave  
equation.

for free particle,  $V=0$

$$\therefore \nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m E}{n^2} \Psi = 0$$

$$\text{define } \frac{\hbar}{2\pi} = \frac{n}{r}$$

$$n = \frac{\hbar}{2\pi}(2r)$$

$$n^2 = \frac{\hbar^2}{4\pi^2} (4r^2)$$

Now,

$$\boxed{\nabla^2 \Psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m(E - V)}{\frac{\hbar^2}{4\pi^2} (4r^2)} \Psi = 0}$$

$$\nabla^2 \psi + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \psi = 0$$

Schrodinger's time dependent wave Eqn

The differential wave equation for matter is:

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

solution of equation (1) is:

$$\psi = \psi_0 e^{-i\omega t} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

partial differentiating (2) w.r.t. 't',

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = \psi_0 (-i\omega) e^{-i\omega t}$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -i\omega \psi$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -i(2\pi\nu) \psi$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -i\left(\frac{2\pi E}{\hbar}\right) \psi$$

$$\frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} = -\frac{i}{\hbar} E \psi$$

$$E \psi = -\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}$$

$$E \psi = i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

We know that Schrodinger's wave equation is

$$\nabla^2 \psi + \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E - V) \psi = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 \psi = - \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E \psi - V \psi) = 0$$

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi = E \psi - V \psi$$

$$V \psi - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi = E \psi$$

$$\boxed{-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi^2 + V \psi = i \hbar \frac{\partial \psi}{\partial t}}$$

time dependent  
of Schrodinger's  
wave equation.

## Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle

According to Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle,

It is impossible to measure the exact position and momentum of a microscopic particle simultaneously.

acc. to Heisenberg,

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p \geq \hbar / 4\pi$$

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \geq \hbar / 4\pi$$

$$\Delta J \cdot \Delta \theta \geq \hbar / 4\pi$$

$\Delta x \rightarrow$  uncertainty in position

$\Delta p \rightarrow$  uncertainty in momentum

$\Delta E \rightarrow$  uncertainty in energy

$\Delta t \rightarrow$  uncertainty in time

$\Delta J \rightarrow$  uncertainty in angular momentum

$\Delta \theta \rightarrow$  uncertainty in angle

Ques: If the uncertainty in position of  $e^-$  is  $4 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$ , calculate uncertainty in momentum.

Sol  $\Delta x \cdot \Delta p = h/4\pi$

$$\Delta p = \frac{6.6 \times 10^{-34}}{4 \times 3.14 \times 4 \times 10^{-10}} = 2.31 \times 10^{-25} \text{ kg m/sec}$$

Ques: The lifetime of an excited state of nucleus is  $10^{-12} \text{ sec}$ . what is the uncertainty in energy.

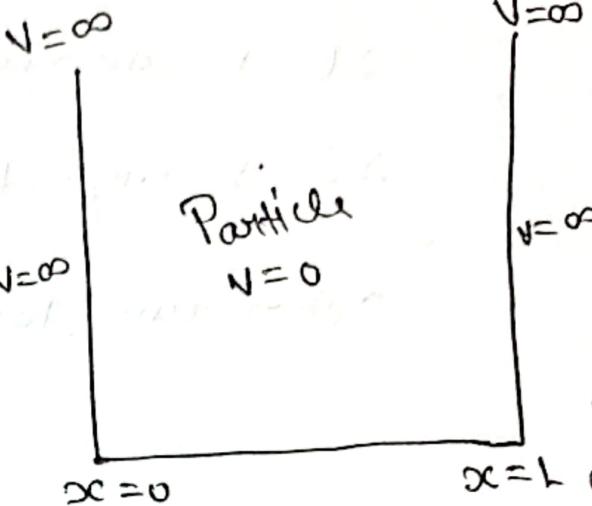
Sol  $\Delta E = \frac{6.6 \times 10^{-34}}{4 \times 3.14 \times 10^{-12}} = 5.25 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J}$

# Particle in 1 Dimensional Infiniit Potential box

$V = 0$  (Inside the box)

$$x > 0 \text{ & } x < L$$

$V = \infty$  at walls & outside the box (i.e.  $x \leq 0$  &  $x \geq L$ )



Consider a 1 dimensional infinite potential box of width 'L'. Suppose particle is inside the box and it is free to move in one dimensional than the expression for potential energy for a particle is given by:

$V = 0$  (Inside the box)  
(i.e.  $x > 0$  &  $x < L$ )

and  $V = \infty$  at walls and outside the box  
(i.e.  $x \leq 0$  &  $x \geq L$ )

The Schrodinger's wave for the given system can be written as,

$$\nabla^2 \psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} (E - V) \psi = 0$$

Inside the box,  $V=0$

$$\therefore \nabla^2 \psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} E \psi = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 \psi + \frac{8\pi^2 m E}{h^2} \psi = 0$$

$$\nabla^2 \psi + k^2 \psi = 0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$k^2 = \frac{8\pi^2 m E}{h^2} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$\Rightarrow$  The solution of eqn (2) can be written as

$$\boxed{\psi = A \sin kx + B \cos kx} \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

where  $A$  and  $B$  are the constants and can be determined by the boundary conditions

(\*) Applying first boundary condition:

when  $x=0, \psi=0$

$$\text{as } \psi = A \sin kx + B \cos kx$$

$$0 = A \sin 0 + B \cos 0$$

$$B = 0$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\psi = A \sin kx} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

④ Applying Second boundary condition,  
when  $x=L$ ,  $\psi=0$

$$\text{as } \psi = A \sin(kx)$$

$$0 = A \sin(kL)$$

$$\therefore \sin(kL) = 0$$

$$\therefore kL = n\pi$$

(as B already 0,  
hence A can't be  
zero.)

$$K = \frac{n\pi}{L} \quad \text{--- (6)}$$

squaring on both sides

$$K^2 = \frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2}$$

$$K^2 = \frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2}$$

$$\frac{8\pi^2 m E}{h^2} = \frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2}$$

$$E = \frac{n^2 h^2}{8m L^2}$$

for ground state,  $n=1$

$$E_1 = \frac{n^2 h^2}{8m L^2} = \frac{h^2}{8m L^2}$$

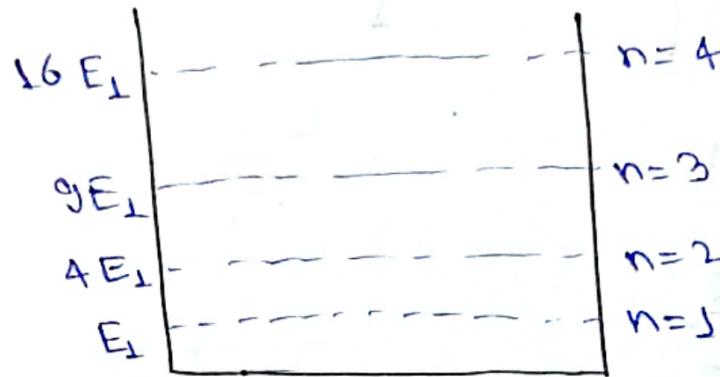
$$E_1 = \frac{h^2}{8m L^2}$$

→ for first excited state (i.e.  $n=2$ )

$$E_2 = \frac{4 h^2}{8 m L^2} = 4 E_1$$

→ for second excited state (i.e.  $n=3$ )

$$E_3 = \frac{9 h^2}{8 m L^2} = 9 E_1$$



Constant  $A$  can be determined with the help  
of normalization condition.

$$\Psi = A \sin(kx)$$

$$\Psi = A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

$$\therefore \Psi^* = A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

$$|\Psi|^2 = \Psi \Psi^* = A^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

④ Applying Second boundary condition,

when  $x=L$ ,  $\psi=0$

$$\text{as } \psi = A \sin(kx)$$

$$0 = A \sin(kL)$$

$$\therefore \sin(kL) = 0$$

$$\therefore kL = n\pi$$

(as B already 0,  
hence, A can't be  
zero.)

$\checkmark$  
$$K = \frac{n\pi}{L} \quad \rightarrow \textcircled{6}$$

Squaring on both side

$$K^2 = \frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2}$$

$\hookrightarrow K^2 = \frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2}$

$$\frac{8\pi^2 m E}{h^2} = \frac{n^2\pi^2}{L^2}$$

$\checkmark$  
$$E = \frac{n^2 h^2}{8m L^2}$$

$\Rightarrow$  for ground state,  $n=1$

$$E_1 = \frac{n^2 h^2}{8m L^2} = \frac{h^2}{8m L^2}$$

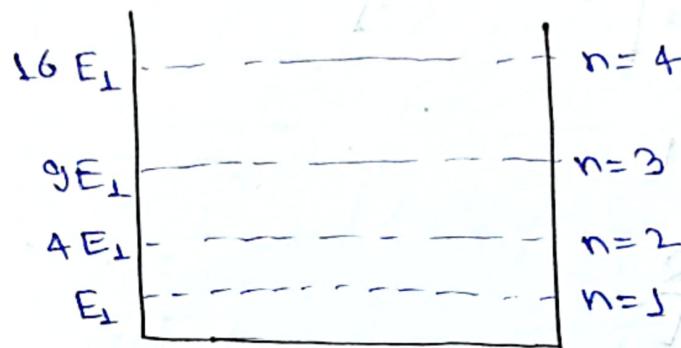
$$E_1 = \frac{h^2}{8m L^2}$$

→ for first excited state (i.e.  $n=2$ )

$$E_2 = \frac{4 h^2}{8mL^2} = 4 E_1$$

→ for second excited state (i.e.  $n=3$ )

$$E_3 = \frac{9 h^2}{8mL^2} = 9 E_1$$



Constant A can be determined with the help of normalization condition

$$\Psi = A \sin(kx)$$

$$\Psi = A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

$$\therefore \Psi^* = A \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

$$|\Psi|^2 = \Psi \Psi^* = A^2 \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$$

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

$$\int_0^L |\psi|^2 dx = \frac{A^2}{2} \left[ x - \frac{\sin\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right)}{\frac{2n\pi}{L}} \right]_0^L$$

$$1 = \frac{A^2}{2} \left[ L - 0 \right]$$

$$\Rightarrow 1 = \frac{A^2}{2} \times L$$

$$\Rightarrow A^2 = \frac{2}{L}$$

$$\Rightarrow A = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}$$

$$\therefore \text{or } \psi = A \sin kx$$

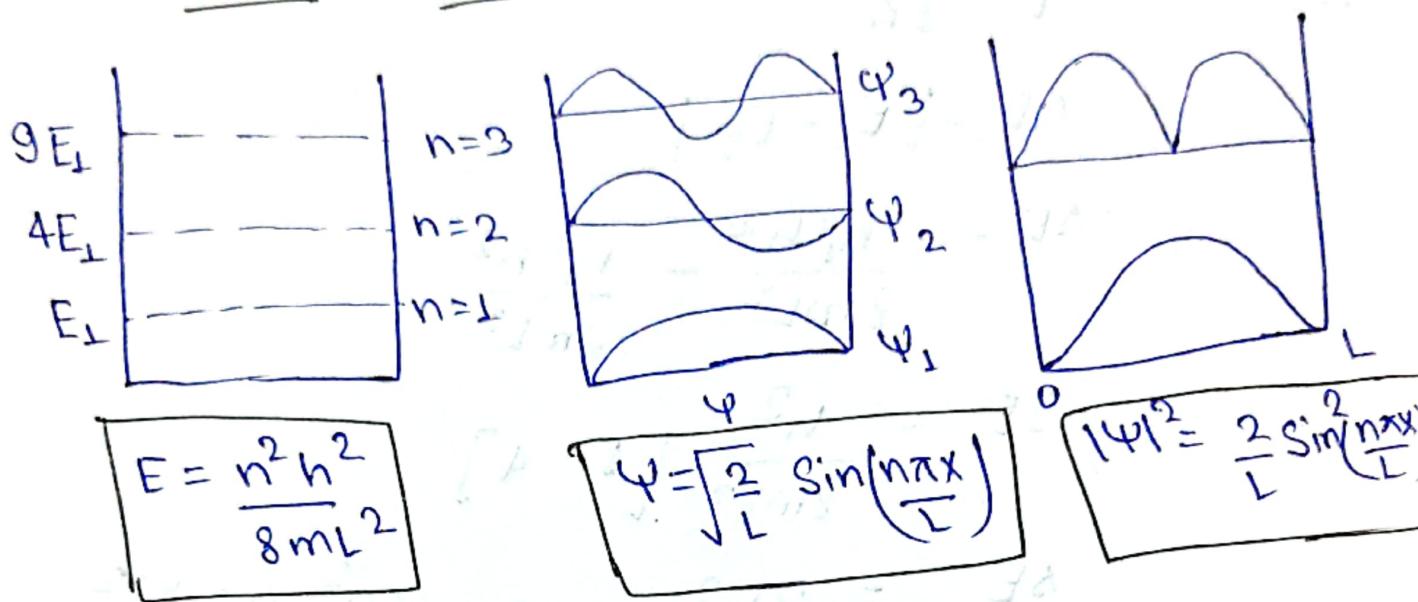
$$\boxed{\psi = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)}$$



$$\boxed{|\psi|^2 = \frac{2}{L} \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)}$$



The energy ( $E$ ), wave function ( $\Psi$ ) and probability density  $|\Psi|^2$  of a particle in one-dimensional infinite potential boxes represented as:



⇒ When the particle is in first energy state (i.e.  $n=1$ ), then the probability of finding the particle is maximum at  $\frac{L}{2}$ , and minimum at 0 and  $L$ .

⇒ and when the particle is in first excited state (i.e.  $n=2$ ) then the probability of finding the particle is maximum at  $\frac{L}{4}$  and  $\frac{3L}{4}$ , and minimum at  $\frac{L}{2}$ .

Ques % Calculate the energy difference between the ground state and first excited state for an electron in one-dimensional rigid box of length  $1\text{A}$ .

Sol %

$$L = 1\text{A}$$

$$\Delta E = |E_1 - E_2|$$

$$\Delta E = \frac{n_1^2 h^2}{8mL^2} - \frac{n_2^2 h^2}{8mL^2}$$

$$\Delta E = \frac{h^2}{8mL^2} [1 - 4]$$

$$\Delta E = \frac{3h^2}{8mL^2} = \frac{3 \times (6.6)^2 \times (10^{-34})^2}{8 \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \times 10^{-20}}$$

$$\Delta E = \frac{3 \times (6.6)^2 \times 10^{-68+51}}{9.1 \times 8} \text{ J}$$

$$\Delta E = \frac{3 \times (6.6)^2 \times 10^{-17}}{9.1 \times 8} \text{ J}$$

$$\Delta E = \frac{3 \times (6.6)^2 \times 10^{-17}}{9.1 \times 8 \times (1.6 \times 10^{-19})} \text{ eV}$$

$$\Delta E = 152.1 \text{ eV}$$