



Quantum Mechanics cont'd...

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Wave Function

- A wave function is a mathematical description of the state of a system.
- It is a complex function and is generally represented as ψ .
- All measurable quantities, such as energy, momentum, position, etc of the system can be deduced from the wave function.
- Wave function ψ is continuous and single-valued everywhere.
- Derivatives $\partial\psi/\partial x$, $\partial\psi/\partial y$, $\partial\psi/\partial z$ is a continuous and single-valued everywhere.
- It follows the **principle of superposition**. $\psi = \psi_1 + \psi_2$ like waves we have studied so far.
- The wave function is not a physical quantity (can not be measured), but the square of the wave function, $|\psi|^2$ is real and has physical meaning.
- Wave function can be obtained by solving the Schrödinger equation for the system

Properties of Wave Function

1. $\Psi(\vec{r}, t)$ is complex. It can be written in the form

$$\Psi(\vec{r}, t) = A(\vec{r}, t) + i B(\vec{r}, t)$$

where A and B are real functions.

2. Complex conjugate of Ψ is defined as

$$\Psi^* = A - iB$$

3. $|\Psi|^2 = \Psi^* \Psi = A^2 + B^2$

Therefore $|\Psi|^2 = \Psi^* \Psi$ is always positive and real.

4. While Ψ itself has no physical interpretation, $|\Psi|^2$ evaluated at a particular place at a particular time equals to the probability of finding the body there at that time.

Properties of Wave Function

$|\psi|^2 dx$ = Probability of finding the particle in a region having length dx

$\int_{-x_1}^{+x_2} |\psi|^2 dx$ = Probability of finding the particle in a region between x_1 and x_2

$\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} |\psi|^2 dx$ = Total probability of finding the particle in the entire space = 1

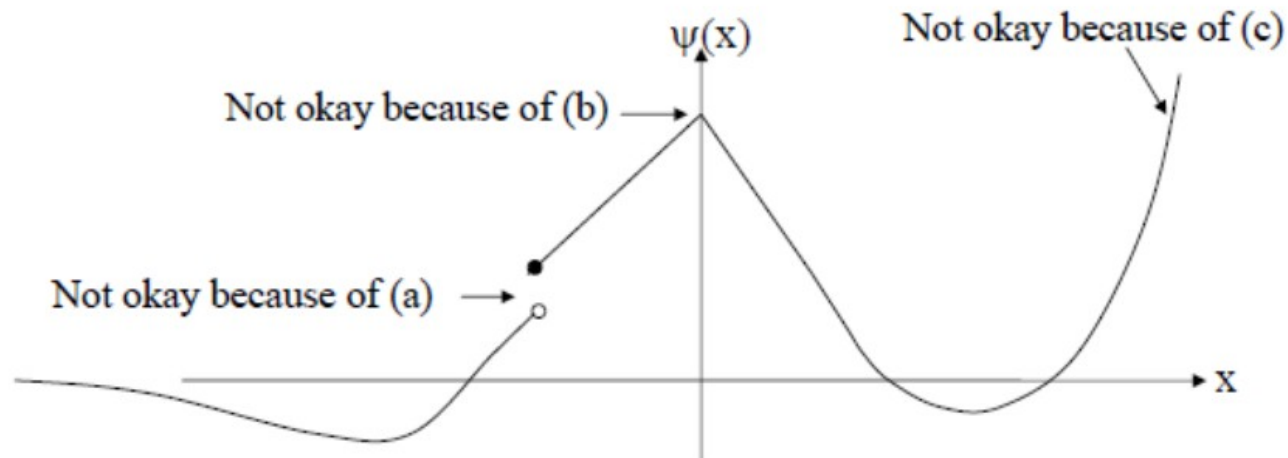
In 3-Dimensional

$|\psi|^2 dx dy dz = |\psi|^2 dV$ is the probability of finding the body in a box of volume dV at time t

Properties of Wave Function

5. Mathematical properties of Ψ :

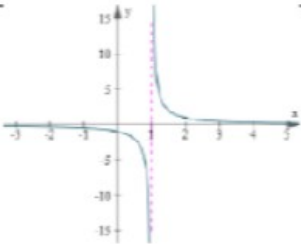
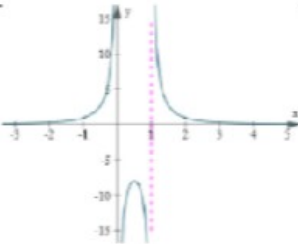
- Ψ must be continuous and single-valued everywhere.
- $\partial\Psi/\partial x$, $\partial\Psi/\partial y$, $\partial\Psi/\partial z$ must be continuous and single-valued everywhere. (There may be exception in some special situations, we will discuss this later.)
- Ψ must be normalizable. $|\Psi|^2$ must go to 0 fast enough as x , y , or $z \rightarrow \pm\infty$ so that $\int |\Psi|^2 dV$ remains finite.



Properties of Wave Function

- ψ must be finite for all values of x ψ can never be infinite
- Ex: $\psi = \psi_0 \tan x$ cannot be an acceptable – $x=90^\circ \rightarrow \tan x = \infty$.
- $\psi = \psi_0 \sin(1/x)$ is also not an acceptable wave function – $x=0 \rightarrow \sin(1/x) = \infty$
- ψ must be single-valued
 → there is no multiple probabilities of finding the particle at the same point
 Ex: $\psi = \psi_0 \sin \sqrt{x}$ - not an acceptable wavefunction (for given x , \sqrt{x} has (\pm) two values)
- ψ should be continuous
 i.e. probability of finding particle at all the points in the region of interest can be specific

Examples of discontinuous ψ

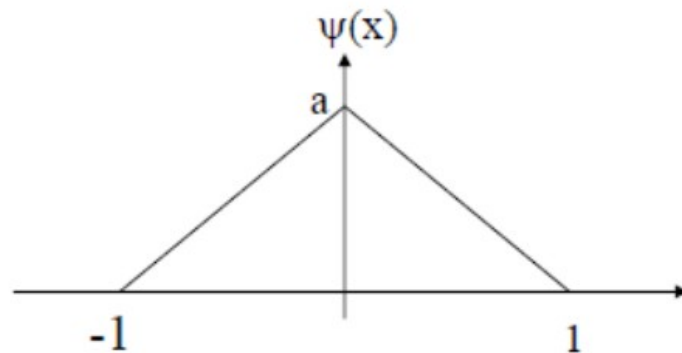
Formula	Graph	Formula	Graph
$\psi(x) = \frac{1}{x-1}$		$\psi(x) = \frac{2}{x^2 - x}$ $= \frac{2}{x(x-1)}$	

Normalisation of Wave Function ψ

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi(x,t)|^2 dV = 1$$

If a wavefunction is not normalized, we can make it so by dividing it with a normalization constant. E.g.

$$f(x) = \begin{cases} a(1-x) & x \geq 0 \\ a(1+x) & x < 0 \end{cases}$$



$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |f(x)|^2 dx &= 2 \int_0^1 [a(1-x)]^2 dx \\ &= 2a^2 \left[-\frac{(1-x)^3}{3} \right]_0^1 \\ &= \frac{2}{3} a^2 \neq 1 \end{aligned}$$

$\therefore f(x)$ is not normalised, but $\psi(x) = \frac{f(x)}{\sqrt{\frac{2}{3}a}}$ is!

Wave Nature of Electron: Invention of Electron Microscope

With a visible light microscope, we are limited to being able to resolve objects which are at least about $0.5 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m} = 0.5 \text{ }\mu\text{m} = 500 \text{ nm}$ in size.

This is because visible light, with a wavelength of $\sim 500 \text{ nm}$ cannot resolve objects whose size is smaller than its wavelength.

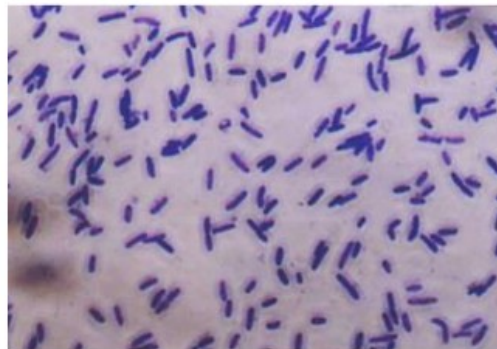


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**Bacteria, as viewed
using visible light**

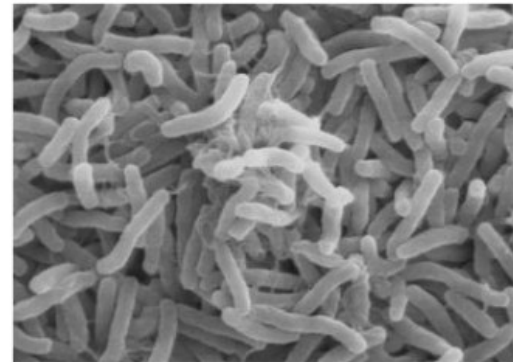
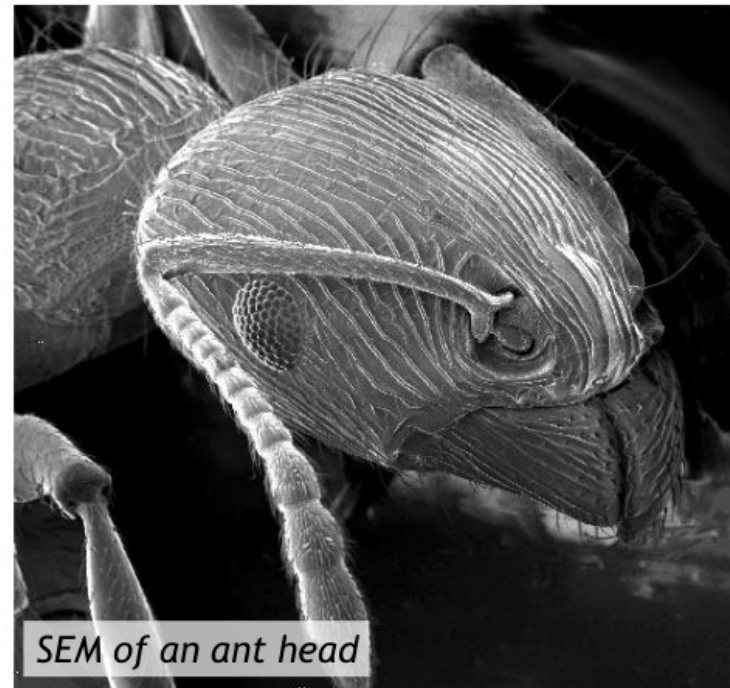
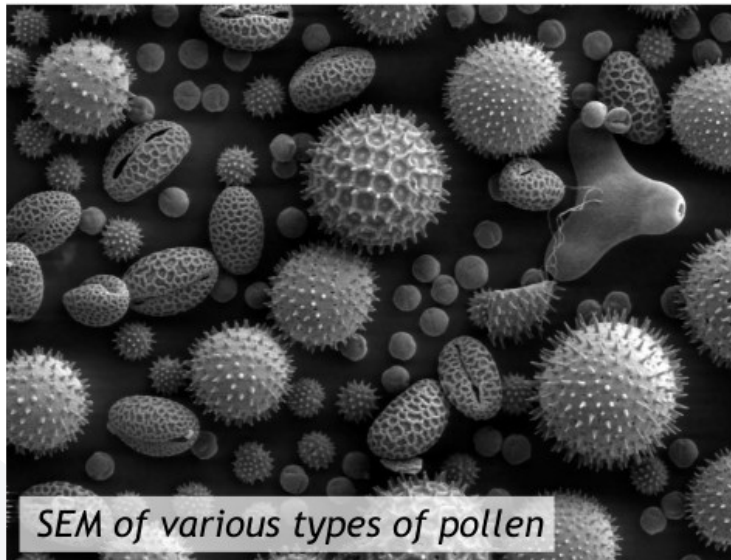


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**Bacteria, as viewed
using electrons!**

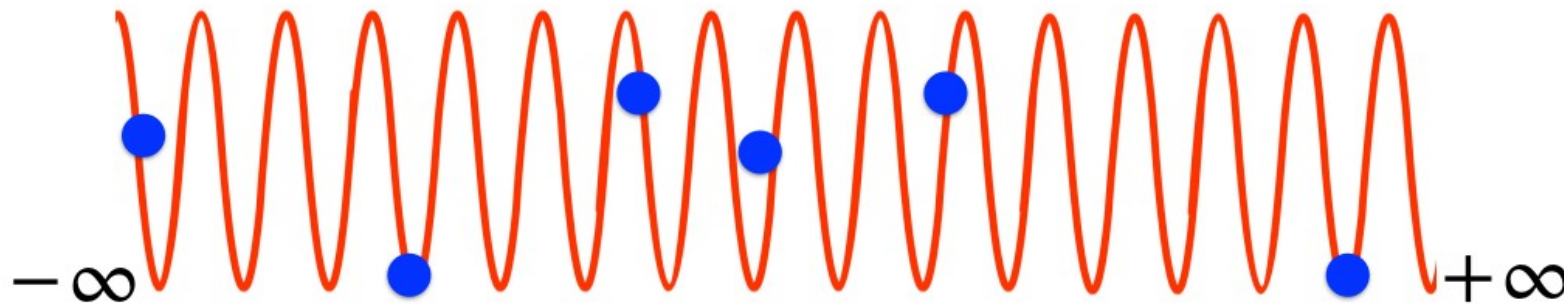
Wave Nature of Electron: Invention of Electron Microscope



Heisenberg Realised that...

According to De Broglie, for matter wave of definite momentum, the wavelength can be defined as:

$$\lambda_B = \frac{h}{p}$$



Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle

It is impossible to determine simultaneously with unlimited precision the position and momentum of a particle

If a measurement of position is made with precision Δx and a simultaneous measurement of momentum in the x direction is made with precision Δp , then the product of the two uncertainties can never be smaller than $h/(4\pi)$. That is,

$$\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

Heisenberg Realised that...

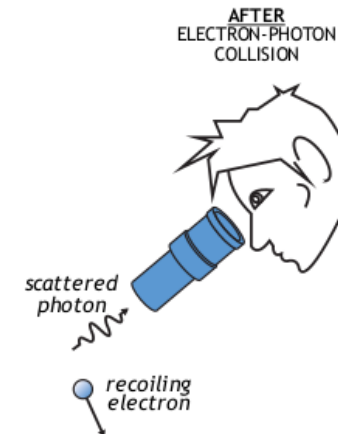
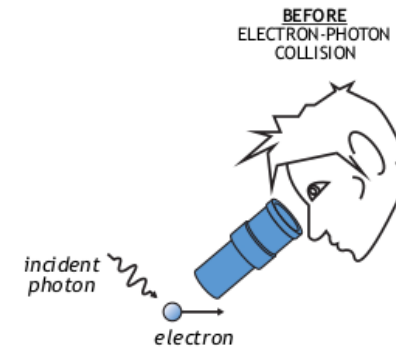
- ➔ In the world of very small particles, one cannot measure any property of a particle without interacting with it in some way
- ➔ This introduces an unavoidable uncertainty into the result
- ➔ One can never measure all the properties exactly



Werner Heisenberg
Nobel Prize for Physics for 1932.

Position-Momentum of an electron Measurement

- Shine light on electron and detect reflected light using a microscope
 - Minimum uncertainty in position is given by the wavelength of the light
 - So to determine the position accurately, it is necessary to use light with a short wavelength
-
- By Planck's law $E = hc/\lambda$, a photon with a short wavelength has a large energy
 - Thus, it would impart a large 'kick' to the electron
 - But to determine its momentum accurately, electron must only be given a small kick
 - This means using light of long wavelength !



Implications

- ➔ It is impossible to know *both* the position and momentum exactly, i.e., $\Delta x=0$ and $\Delta p=0$
- ➔ These uncertainties are inherent in the physical world and have nothing to do with the skill of the observer
- ➔ Because h is so small, these uncertainties are not observable in normal everyday situations

$$\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle: Examples



Cricket ball
Macroscopic Object

- A pitcher throws a 0.1-kg baseball at 40 m/s
- So momentum is $0.1 \times 40 = 4 \text{ kg m/s}$
- Suppose the momentum is measured to an accuracy of 1 %, i.e.,

$$\Delta p = 0.01 p = 4 \times 10^{-2} \text{ kg m/s}$$

- The uncertainty in position is then

$$\Delta x \geq \frac{h}{4\pi \Delta p} = 1.3 \times 10^{-33} \text{ m}$$

- No wonder one does not observe the effects of the uncertainty principle in everyday life!

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle: Examples



Electron
(microscopic
object)

Same situation, but baseball replaced by an electron which has mass 9.11×10^{-31} kg traveling at 40 m/s

So momentum = 3.6×10^{-29} kg m/s
and its uncertainty = 3.6×10^{-31} kg m/s

$$\Delta p = 0.01 p = 4 \times 10^{-2} \text{ kg m/s}$$

← Uncertainty in momentum for a ball

The uncertainty in position is then

$$\Delta x \geq \frac{h}{4\pi\Delta p} = 1.4 \times 10^{-4} \text{ m}$$

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle: Energy and time

$$v = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$$

$$\Delta x = v \cdot \Delta t$$

Change in kinetic energy of the particle is

$$\Delta E = \Delta p \cdot v$$

\Rightarrow

$$\Delta p = \frac{\Delta E}{v}$$

Hence,

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p = v \cdot \Delta t \times \frac{\Delta E}{v}$$

\Rightarrow

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p = \Delta E \cdot \Delta t$$

Then from uncertainty principle

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t = \hbar / 2$$

The time-dependent wavefunction of a particle confined to a region between 0 and L is

$$\psi(x, t) = A e^{-i\omega t} \sin(\pi x/L)$$

where ω is angular frequency and E is the energy of the particle. (**Note:** The function varies as a sine because of the limits (0 to L). When $x = 0$, the sine factor is zero and the wavefunction is zero, consistent with the boundary conditions.

Solution

Computation of the normalization constant:

$$\begin{aligned} 1 &= \int_0^L dx \psi^*(x) \psi(x) \\ &= \int_0^L dx \left(A e^{+i\omega t} \sin \frac{\pi x}{L} \right) \left(A e^{-i\omega t} \sin \frac{\pi x}{L} \right) \\ &= A^2 \int_0^L dx \sin^2 \frac{\pi x}{L} \\ &= A^2 \frac{L}{2} \\ \Rightarrow A &= \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}. \end{aligned}$$

5. The wavefunction for a quantum particle of mass m confined to move in the domain $0 \leq x \leq L$ is given by

$$\psi(x) = N \sin(4\pi x/L)$$

where N is the normalization factor.

- (a) Normalize the wavefunction.

Answer:

$$\begin{aligned} N^2 \int_0^L \sin^2 \left(\frac{4\pi x}{L} \right) dx &= 1 \\ y = \frac{4\pi x}{L} \quad x = \frac{L}{4\pi} y \quad dx &= \frac{L}{4\pi} dy \\ \frac{LN^2}{4\pi} \int_0^{4\pi} \sin^2 y dy &= N^2 \frac{L}{4\pi} \frac{4\pi}{2} = N^2 \frac{L}{2} = 1 \\ N &= \left(\frac{2}{L} \right)^{1/2} \\ \psi(x) &= \left(\frac{2}{L} \right)^{1/2} \sin \left(\frac{4\pi x}{L} \right) \end{aligned}$$

6. The state of a one-dimensional quantum system is represented by the wavefunction

$$\psi(x) = N \sin(3\pi x)$$

for $0 < x < 1$ with N being the normalization factor. Calculate the probability that a measurement of the position of the particle will give a result in the range $2/3 \leq x < 1$.

Answer:

$$N^2 \int_0^1 \sin^2 3\pi x \, dx = 1$$

$$y = 3\pi x \quad dx = \frac{1}{3\pi} dy$$

$$\frac{N^2}{3\pi} \int_0^{3\pi} \sin^2 y \, dy = \frac{N^2}{3\pi} \left[\frac{y}{2} - \frac{1}{4} \sin 2y \right]_0^{3\pi} = \frac{N^2}{2} = 1$$

or

$$N = \sqrt{2}$$

13. A one-dimensional particle of mass m occupies the interval $0 \leq x < \infty$ in a state defined by the wavefunction

$$\psi(x) = Nxe^{-ax}$$

where N is the normalization constant and a is a constant having units of inverse length. Normalize the wavefunction, and use the normalized wavefunction to calculate the expectation value of the kinetic energy $\langle T \rangle$ of the particle.

Answer:

$$N^2 \int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-2ax} dx = N^2 \frac{2!}{(2a)^3} = \frac{N^2}{4a^3} = 1 \quad N = 2a^{3/2}$$

14. The unnormalized wavefunction for a quantum particle on the domain $0 \leq x < \infty$ is given by

$$\psi(x) = Nxe^{-ax^2}$$

where N is the normalization and a is a constant having units of the square of the inverse length. Calculate the expectation value of x^2 for the particle.

Answer:

$$N^2 \int_0^{\infty} x^2 e^{-2ax^2} dx = N^2 \frac{1}{4} \frac{\pi^{1/2}}{(2a)^{3/2}} = 1 \quad N = 2 \left[\frac{(2a)^{3/2}}{\pi^{1/2}} \right]^{1/2}$$

$$\Gamma(z) = \int_0^{\infty} x^{z-1} \cdot e^{-x} dx$$

or you can write ...

$$\Gamma(z+1) = \int_0^{\infty} x^z \cdot e^{-x} dx$$

5) $\Gamma(n) = (n-1)!$

Because the gamma function reduces in this special case to $(n-1)!$ it is often convenient to view it as a **generalized factorial function**.

Special values

1) $\Gamma\left(\frac{1}{2}\right) = \sqrt{\pi}$

2) $\Gamma\left(m + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2m-1)}{2^m} \sqrt{\pi} \quad m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

3) $\Gamma\left(-m + \frac{1}{2}\right) = \frac{(-1)^m 2^m \sqrt{\pi}}{1 \cdot 3 \cdot 5 \cdots (2m-1)} \quad m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$



Quantum Mechanics cont'd...

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Time-dependent Schrödinger Wave Equation

Schrödinger Equation is a mathematical expression that describes the change of a physical quantity over time in which the **quantum effects like wave-particle duality are significant...**

- In other words, we can say thatIt is a differential equation for the **de Broglie waves associated with particles** and describes the **motion of particles**.
- The Schrodinger equation is the fundamental equation of wave mechanics in the same sense as Newton's second law of motion of classical mechanics

The Schrödinger Equation has two forms:

- Time-dependent Schrödinger Equation
- Time-independent Schrödinger Equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(r, t)}{\partial t} = H\psi(r, t)$$

Where, $H = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V$

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

V = time dependant Potential energy

Derivation: Time-dependent Schrödinger Wave Equation

Consider a particle of having mass **m**, moving in the **x**-direction; having total energy **E** and momentum, **p**

⇒ Then, according to classical mechanics, the total energy associated with the particle is:

$$\Rightarrow E = KE + PE$$

$$\Rightarrow E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V$$

⇒ If the particle is associated with a matter wave, then it can be represented as a wave function, ψ :

$$\psi(x, t) = Ae^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

k, is the propagation vector and **ω** , angular frequency

Derivation: Time-dependent Schrödinger Wave Equation

$$\psi(x, t) = Ae^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

we know that,

$$\Rightarrow E = h\nu$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \omega = \frac{E}{\hbar} \dots\dots\dots (a)$$

Also, we know that,

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} \Rightarrow p = \frac{h}{\lambda}; \quad k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$\Rightarrow p = \frac{hk}{2\pi} = \hbar k \Rightarrow k = \frac{p}{\hbar} \dots\dots (b)$$

on substituting the eq. "a & b" in wave function $\psi(x, t)$

$$\psi(x, t) = Ae^{i(\frac{p}{\hbar}x - \frac{E}{\hbar}t)} \\ \Rightarrow = Ae^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(px - Et)} \dots\dots\dots (1)$$

Taking the partial derivative w.r.t. to position of the wave function $\psi(x, t)$:

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial x} = Ae^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(px - Et)} \left(\frac{ip}{\hbar} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = Ae^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(px - Et)} \left(\frac{ip}{\hbar} \right)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} = \left(\frac{ip}{\hbar} \right)^2 \psi(x, t)$$

$$\Rightarrow p^2 \psi(x, t) = -\hbar^2 \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} \dots\dots\dots (2)$$

Derivation: Time-dependent Schrödinger Wave Equation

$$\begin{aligned}\psi(x, t) &= Ae^{i(\frac{p}{\hbar}x - \frac{E}{\hbar}t)} \\ &= Ae^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(px - Et)} \dots\dots\dots (1)\end{aligned}$$

Let's take the partial derivative w.r.t. to time of the wave function $\psi(x, t)$:

$$\begin{aligned}\Rightarrow \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} &= Ae^{\frac{i}{\hbar}(px - Et)} \left(\frac{-iE}{\hbar} \right) \\ \Rightarrow \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} &= \left(\frac{-iE}{\hbar} \right) \psi(x, t) \\ \Rightarrow E\psi(x, t) &= \left(\frac{\hbar}{-i} \right) \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} \\ \Rightarrow E\psi(x, t) &= i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} \dots\dots\dots (3)\end{aligned}$$

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V$$

operating over the wave function $\psi(x, t)$:

$$E\psi(x, t) = \frac{p^2}{2m}\psi(x, t) + V\psi(x, t)$$

using the equation 2 and 3, the above equation can be changes to

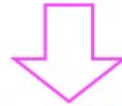
$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} + V\psi(x, t)$$



Time-dependent Schrödinger Wave Equation in 1D

Derivation: Time-dependent Schrödinger Wave Equation

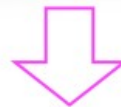
$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, t)}{\partial x^2} + V\psi(x, t) \quad \mathbf{1D}$$



$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, y, z, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, y, z, t)}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, y, z, t)}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x, y, z, t)}{\partial z^2} \right] + V\psi(x, y, z, t)$$

3D

$$\Rightarrow i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi(\mathbf{r}, t) + V\psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$$



$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = H\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \quad H \equiv -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V$$

Derivation: Time-dependent Schrödinger Wave Equation

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(\mathbf{r}, t)}{\partial t} = H\psi(\mathbf{r}, t) \quad H \equiv -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 + V$$

Any condition imposed on the motion of a particle will affect the potential energy U , which is a function of x & t . By knowing the exact form of U , the equation may be solved for Ψ . The time-dependent Schrodinger equation is used to explain non-stationary phenomena, such as the electronic transition between two states of atom.

Time-dependent Schrödinger Wave Equation

The Schrödinger Equation has two forms:

- Time-dependent Schrödinger Equation
- Time-independent Schrödinger Equation

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

$$i\hbar \frac{\partial \psi(r, t)}{\partial t} = H\psi(r, t)$$

Time-independent Schrödinger Wave Equation

In many atomic phenomena, the **potential energy** of the particle is **independent of time and depends only on the position** of the particle. In such situations, the differential equation for de-Broglie waves associated with particles is called the time-independent (**stationary/steady state**) Schrodinger wave equation.

$$\psi(x, t) = Ae^{i(kx - \omega t)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \psi(x, t) = Ae^{i(\frac{p}{\hbar}x - \frac{E}{\hbar}t)}$$

$$\Rightarrow = Ae^{i(\frac{p}{\hbar}x)}e^{(-i\frac{E}{\hbar}t)} \quad (\because e^{m+n} = e^m + e^n)$$

$$\Rightarrow = \psi(x) \phi(t)$$

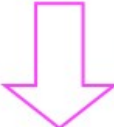
$$\psi(x, t) = \psi(x) \phi(t)$$

separation of variables

Time-independent Schrödinger Wave Equation

we know that, the time dependent schrödinger wave equation for particle moving in x direction is

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


$$\psi(x, t) = \psi(x) \phi(t)$$

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

$$\Rightarrow \psi(x) \left[i\hbar \frac{\partial \phi(t)}{\partial t} \right] = \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} + V\psi(x) \right] \phi(t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \underbrace{\frac{1}{\phi(t)} \left[i\hbar \frac{\partial \phi(t)}{\partial t} \right]}_{\text{Function of time}} = \underbrace{\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} + V\psi(x) \right] \frac{1}{\psi(x)}}_{\text{Function of position}}$$

Time-independent Schrödinger Wave Equation

$$\underbrace{\frac{1}{\phi(t)} \left[i\hbar \frac{\partial \phi(t)}{\partial t} \right]}_{\text{Function of time}} = \underbrace{\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} + V\psi(x) \right] \frac{1}{\psi(x)}}_{\text{Function of position}}$$

⇒ LHS = RHS = S (Separation variable constant)

Let's find that constant, by calculating the LHS, as we know that:

$$LHS = \frac{1}{\phi(t)} \left[i\hbar \frac{\partial \phi(t)}{\partial t} \right] \quad \text{and} \quad \phi(t) = e^{(-i\frac{E}{\hbar}t)}$$

upon substitution, we will have

$$\frac{1}{\phi(t)} \left[i\hbar \frac{\partial}{\partial t} e^{(-i\frac{E}{\hbar}t)} \right] \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\phi(t)} \left[i\hbar e^{(-i\frac{E}{\hbar}t)} \left(\frac{-iE}{\hbar} \right) \right] \Rightarrow \frac{1}{\phi(t)} \left[i\hbar \phi(t) \left(\frac{-iE}{\hbar} \right) \right] \Rightarrow E$$

⇒ LHS = RHS = E (total energy of the system)

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(x, t) &= \psi(x) \phi(t) \\ \psi(x) &= A e^{i(\frac{p}{\hbar}x)} \\ \phi(t) &= e^{(-i\frac{E}{\hbar}t)} \end{aligned}$$

Time-independent Schrödinger Wave Equation

$$E = \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} + V\psi(x) \right] \frac{1}{\psi(x)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\psi(x)} \left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} + V\psi(x) \right] = E$$

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

This is differential equation in position only and can be easily solved to get energy of the system

$$\left[-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} + V \right] \psi(x) = E\psi(x)$$

$$H\psi(x) = E\psi(x)$$

where the above equation is Eigen value equation and H is the hamiltonian, and E is the solution

Time-independent Schrödinger Wave Equation

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

we can also rearrange the above equation as:

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

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

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

Free particle: Time-independent Schrödinger Wave Equation

For a free particle, $V(x) = 0$

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

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} = - \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \psi(x)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\partial^2 \psi(x)}{\partial x^2} = -k^2 \psi(x) \quad \therefore k = \sqrt{\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}}$$

So, The solution to time independent Schrodinger Equation is: $\psi(x) = Ae^{ikx}$

and we know that, $\phi(t) = e^{(-i\frac{E}{\hbar}t)}$

So, The final solution is: $\psi(x, t) = \psi(x) \phi(t) = Ae^{-i(kx - \frac{E}{\hbar}t)}$