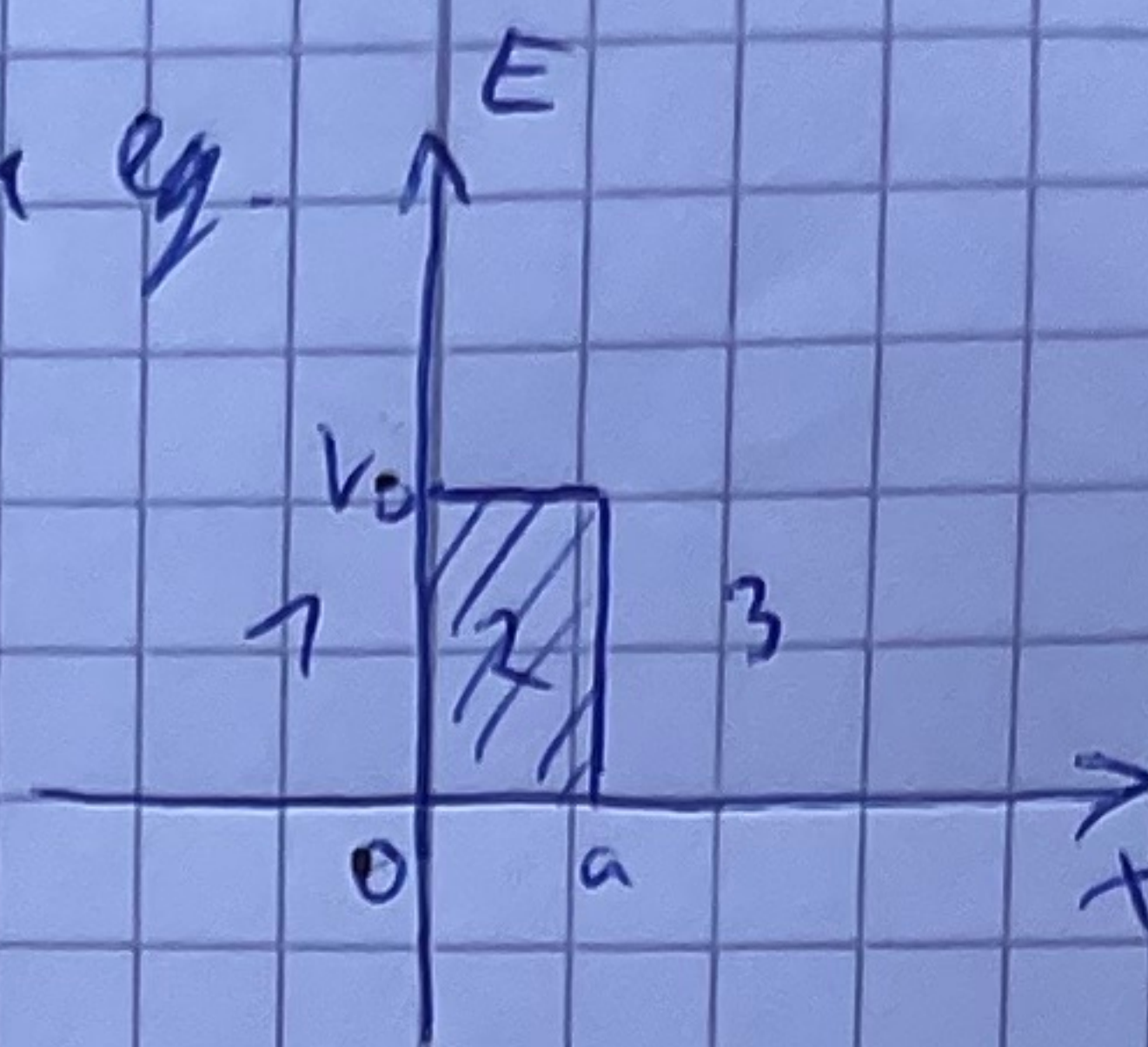


1. Schrödinger eq. for tunnel effect for region I, II, III. Derive eq.

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We divide space into 3 regions:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{I} & V(x) = 0 \\ \text{II} & V(x) = V_0 \\ \text{III} & V(x) = 0 \end{array}$$



The stationary Schrödinger equation is $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\phi(x)}{dx^2} + V(x)\phi(x) = E\phi(x)$

We now derive the form of this equation in each region:

Region I ($x < 0$): potential $V(x) = 0$, Schrödinger eq. $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\phi_1}{dx^2} + 0 \cdot \phi_1 = E\phi_1$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\phi_1}{dx^2} = E\phi_1 \quad / \cdot \frac{-2m}{\hbar^2} \Rightarrow \frac{d^2\phi_1}{dx^2} + \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \phi_1 = 0$$

Region II ($0 \leq x \leq a$): potential $V(x) = V_0$, Schrödinger eq. $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\phi_2}{dx^2} = (E - V_0)\phi_2$

$$\cdot / \left(\frac{-2m}{\hbar^2} \right) \Rightarrow \frac{d^2\phi_2}{dx^2} + \frac{2m(V_0 - E)}{\hbar^2} \phi_2 = 0$$

Region III ($x > a$): potential $V(x) = 0$ and Schrödinger eq. same as for Region I so $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\phi_3}{dx^2} = E\phi_3 \Rightarrow \frac{d^2\phi_3}{dx^2} + \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \phi_3 = 0$

9. Prove that the eigenfunctions for infinite potential are orthonormal

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The particle is trapped in a 1D box (infinite walls) between

$x = 0$ and $x = L$. $V(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & 0 < x < L \\ \infty, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \Rightarrow \text{then } \phi(0) = \phi(L) = 0$

The eigenfunctions are: $\phi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$, for $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

We must show that: $\int_0^L \phi_n(x) \phi_m(x) dx = \delta_{nm}$, $\delta_{nm} = \begin{cases} 1, & n = m \\ 0, & n \neq m \end{cases}$

Case 1: $n \neq m$, $\int_0^L \phi_n(x) \phi_m(x) dx = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi x}{L}\right) dx$

trigonometric identity: $\sin A \sin B = \frac{1}{2} (\cos(A-B) - \cos(A+B))$, thus

$$\sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \sin\left(\frac{m\pi x}{L}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left[\cos\left(\frac{(n-m)\pi x}{L}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{(n+m)\pi x}{L}\right) \right] \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^L \phi_n(x) \phi_m(x) dx = \frac{1}{L} \int_0^L \left[\cos\left(\frac{(n-m)\pi x}{L}\right) - \cos\left(\frac{(n+m)\pi x}{L}\right) \right] dx \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{L} \left(\int_0^L \cos\left(\frac{(n-m)\pi x}{L}\right) dx - \int_0^L \cos\left(\frac{(n+m)\pi x}{L}\right) dx \right); \quad \int \cos(kx) dx = \frac{1}{k} \sin(kx)$$

$$\int_0^L \cos\left(\frac{(n-m)\pi x}{L}\right) dx = \frac{L}{(n-m)\pi} (\sin((n-m)\pi) - \sin(0)) \text{ and } \int_0^L \cos\left(\frac{(n+m)\pi x}{L}\right) dx =$$

$$= \frac{L}{(n+m)\pi} (\sin((n+m)\pi) - \sin(0)), \text{ but } \sin(0) = 0 \text{ and } \sin(k\pi) = 0 \text{ for any } k$$

Thus both sine terms are zero: $\sin((n-m)\pi) = \sin((n+m)\pi) = 0$. Thus both integrals vanish, and $\int_0^L \phi_n(x) \phi_m(x) dx = 0$, so when $n \neq m$, functions are orthogonal.

Case 2: $n = m$, now $\int_0^L \phi_n(x)^2 dx \Rightarrow$ we substitute $\Rightarrow$
 $\phi_n(x)^2 = \left(\sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \right)^2 = \frac{2}{L} \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$ thus $\int_0^L \phi_n(x)^2 dx = \frac{2}{L} \int_0^L \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) dx$

We again use trigonometric identity: $\sin^2 A = \frac{1}{2} (1 - \cos(2A)) \Rightarrow$

$$\Rightarrow \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) = \frac{1}{2} \left(1 - \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right)\right) \Rightarrow \text{we substitute } \Rightarrow \int_0^L \phi_n(x)^2 dx =$$

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

first integral: $\int_0^L 1 dx = L$ and second $\int_0^L \cos\left(\frac{2n\pi x}{L}\right) dx = \frac{L}{2n\pi} (\sin(2n\pi) - \sin(0))$

but $\sin(0) = 0$ and $\sin(2n\pi) = 0$ thus we get $\frac{1}{L} (L - 0) = 1$ thus $\Rightarrow$

$$\Rightarrow \int_0^L \phi_n(x)^2 dx = 1, \text{ so when } n = m, \text{ the functions are normalized.}$$

Thus we have shown that $\int_0^L \phi_n(x) \phi_m(x) dx = \delta_{nm}$ which proves the eigenfunctions are orthonormal.

14. 20 Schrodinger eq. and continuity conditions for a finite potential well, with $E < U_0$

The potential is $V(x) = \begin{cases} 0, & \text{for } |x| \leq a \text{ (inside well)} \\ U_0, & \text{for } |x| > a \text{ (outside well)} \end{cases}$ where $U_0 > 0$ and $E < U_0$. Inside well ($|x| \leq a$) particle moves freely and outside the well ($|x| > a$) there is a constant potential barrier.

Stationary Schrodinger eq. is $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi(x)}{dx^2} + V(x) \psi(x) = E \psi(x)$ and we split into 3 regions:

Region I: $x < -a$, potential $V(x) = U_0$, Schrodinger eq. $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi_1(x)}{dx^2} + U_0 \psi_1(x) =$

$$= E \psi_1(x) \Rightarrow \text{rearranging } \Rightarrow \frac{d^2 \psi_1(x)}{dx^2} = \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (U_0 - E) \psi_1(x), \text{ let's define}$$

$$k = \frac{\sqrt{2m(U_0 - E)}}{\hbar} \text{ (positive real, because } E < U_0) \text{ thus } \frac{d^2 \psi_1(x)}{dx^2} = k^2 \psi_1(x)$$

general solution $\psi_1(x) = A e^{Kx} + D e^{-Kx}$, but e^{-Kx} grows exponentially large when $x \rightarrow -\infty$, so we must set $D = 0$ so $\psi_1(x) = A e^{Kx}$

Region II: $-a \leq x \leq a$, potential $V(x) = 0$, Schrodinger eq. $-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi_2(x)}{dx^2} = E \psi_2(x)$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{d^2 \psi_2(x)}{dx^2} = -\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \psi_2(x), \text{ we define } k = \frac{\sqrt{2mE}}{\hbar} \text{ (real and positive)} \Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{d^2 \psi_2(x)}{dx^2} + k^2 \psi_2(x) = 0. \text{ General solution } \psi_2(x) = B \cos(Kx) + C \sin(Kx)$$

Region III: $x > a$, potential $V(x) = U_0$, exactly as region I thus

$$\frac{d^2 \psi_3(x)}{dx^2} = k^2 \psi_3(x). \text{ General solution } \psi_3(x) = F e^{-Kx}, \text{ we reject } e^{Kx}$$

because it would diverge as $x \rightarrow +\infty$

Since the Schrödinger eq. is second-order, both wavefunction $\psi(x)$ and its derivative $\frac{d\psi}{dx}$ must be continuous at boundaries $x = -a$ and $x = a$.

At $x = -a$, continuity of wavefunction $\psi_1(-a) = \psi_2(-a)$ that is $Ae^{-Kx} = B \cos(-ka) + C \sin(-ka) \Rightarrow Ae^{-Ka} = B \cos(ka) - C \sin(ka)$

Continuity of derivative $\frac{d}{dx} \psi_1(x) = AKe^{-Kx}$, $\frac{d}{dx} \psi_2(x) = -Bk \sin(kx) + Ck \cos(kx) \Rightarrow AKe^{-Ka} = Bk \sin(ka) + Ck \cos(ka)$

At $x = a$, continuity of wavefunction $\psi_2(a) = \psi_3(a) \Rightarrow$

$B \cos(ka) + C \sin(ka) = Fe^{-Ka}$. $\frac{d}{dx} \psi_2(x) = -Bk \sin(kx) + Ck \cos(kx)$,

$\frac{d}{dx} \psi_3(x) = -FKe^{-Kx} \Rightarrow -Bk \sin(ka) + Ck \cos(ka) = -FKe^{-Ka}$

23. Calculate the mean value of square x^2 -coordinate for harmonic oscillator $\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} \psi_n^* \hat{x}^2 \psi_n dx$. Compare results with the corresponding results for classical harmonic oscillator.

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From the lecture tabular integrals we get direct result

$$\langle x^2 \rangle_n = \frac{\hbar}{2m\omega} (2n+1) \text{, which we can use without having to}$$

do full integration manually. Formula tells us the mean value

$\langle x^2 \rangle_n$ increases linearly with n ; even for $n=0$ (ground state),

$\langle x^2 \rangle_0$ is non-zero. Physically, this reflects the zero-point motion:

the particle can never be completely at rest, even at the lowest energy level. For $n=0$ $\langle x^2 \rangle_0 = \frac{\hbar}{2m\omega}$, for higher n ,

$\langle x^2 \rangle_n$ grows with n .

In classical mechanics: total energy $E = \frac{1}{2} m\omega^2 A^2 \Rightarrow A = \sqrt{\frac{2E}{m\omega^2}}$

in classical limit, the particle oscillates between $-A$ and $+A$, and x^2

averages over a cycle to $\langle x^2 \rangle_{\text{classical}} = \frac{A^2}{2} \Rightarrow \langle x^2 \rangle_{\text{classical}} = \frac{E}{m\omega^2}$

In quantum mechanics, the energy levels are $E_n = \hbar\omega \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \Rightarrow$

$$\Rightarrow \langle x^2 \rangle_{\text{classical}} = \frac{\hbar}{m\omega} \left(n + \frac{1}{2}\right) \Rightarrow \langle x^2 \rangle_{\text{quantum}, n} = \frac{\hbar}{2m\omega} (2n+1)$$

Therefore, the quantum mechanical mean value $\langle x^2 \rangle_n$ exactly

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equals the classical prediction $\langle x^2 \rangle_{\text{classical}}$

We are dealing with a quantum harmonic oscillator at a finite temperature T . Energy levels: $E_n = \hbar\omega(n + \frac{1}{2})$, $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$. At non-zero temperature, different energy ~~states~~ levels are populated according to Boltzmann statistics. The partition

function: $Z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta E_n}$, $\beta = \frac{1}{k_B T} \Rightarrow Z = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-\beta \hbar\omega(n + \frac{1}{2})} =$
 $= Z = e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-n\beta \hbar\omega}$. Geometric series, $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}$ for $|x| < 1$. Here $x = e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}$. $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} e^{-n\beta \hbar\omega} = \frac{1}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}} \Rightarrow Z = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}}$

The probability that oscillator is in state n : $P_n = \frac{e^{-\beta E_n}}{Z} \Rightarrow$
 $\Rightarrow P_n = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega(n + 1/2)}}{Z}$.

Average principal quantum number is $\langle n \rangle = \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n P_n \Rightarrow$
 $\Rightarrow \langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{Z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n e^{-\beta \hbar\omega(n + 1/2)} = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2}}{Z} \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n e^{-n\beta \hbar\omega}$.

We compute $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n e^{-n\beta \hbar\omega}$, we know $\sum_{n=0}^{\infty} x^n = \frac{1}{1-x}$ for $|x| < 1 \Rightarrow$
 $\Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n x^{n-1} = \frac{1}{(1-x)^2} \cdot x \Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n x^n = \frac{x}{(1-x)^2}$ and substitute
 $x = e^{-\beta \hbar\omega} \Rightarrow \sum_{n=0}^{\infty} n e^{-n\beta \hbar\omega} = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}}{(1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega})^2}$

now $\langle n \rangle = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2}}{Z} \cdot \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}}{(1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega})^2}$, $Z = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}} \Rightarrow$
 $\frac{1}{Z} = (1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}) e^{\beta \hbar\omega/2}$ $\langle n \rangle = (1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}) e^{\beta \hbar\omega/2} \cdot \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2} e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}}{(1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega})^2}$

We simplify: $e^{\beta \hbar\omega/2} e^{-\beta \hbar\omega/2} = 1$ so $\langle n \rangle = \frac{e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}}{1 - e^{-\beta \hbar\omega}}$ thus $\Rightarrow$

$\Rightarrow \langle n \rangle = \frac{1}{e^{\beta \hbar\omega} - 1}$ (average quantum number)

Behavior at low/high temperatures:

As $T \rightarrow 0$, $\beta \rightarrow \infty$, $e^{\beta \hbar\omega} \rightarrow \infty \Rightarrow \langle n \rangle \rightarrow 0$

At high T ($\beta \rightarrow 0$), $e^{\beta \hbar\omega} \approx 1 + \beta \hbar\omega \Rightarrow e^{\beta \hbar\omega} - 1 \approx \beta \hbar\omega \Rightarrow$

$\Rightarrow \langle n \rangle \approx \frac{1}{\beta \hbar\omega} = \frac{k_B T}{\hbar\omega}$