

Tues: HW by 5pm

Weds: Read 7.2

Quantum Theory in Three Dimensions

In most situations the location of a particle requires more than one spatial co-ordinate and we need to extend quantum theory to such multi-dimensional situations. Examples of these include:

- 1) free particles in three dimensions
- 2) particles in three dimensional wells
- 3) three dimensional harmonic oscillator
- 4) electrons inside atoms.

The basic concepts and structure of quantum theory will be unaltered. However, new features will appear. For example:

- 1) there are often multiple distinct states with the same energy
- 2) there are situations where symmetries are present and these are important for conserved quantities and also the structure of states.

Basic notation and concepts of probabilities

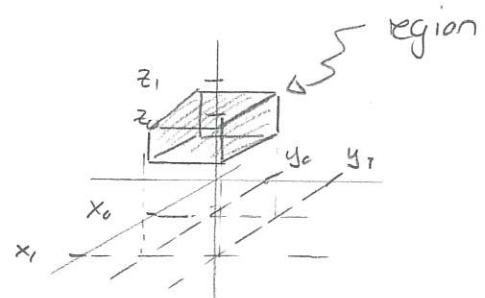
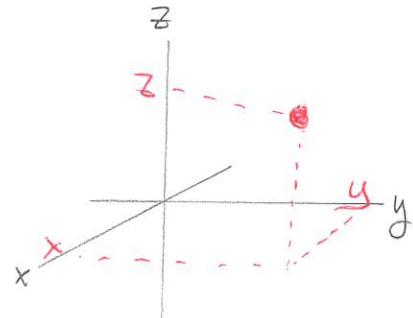
In three dimensions a position measurement gives an outcome that consists of three numbers, or co-ordinates:

$$(x, y, z) \equiv \vec{r} \equiv x\hat{i} + y\hat{j} + z\hat{k}$$

We will then consider the probability with which various position measurement outcomes occur. Again these are expressed in terms of ranges of outcomes. So the most general probability assignment is:

$$\text{Prob } (x_0 \leq x \leq x_1, \text{ AND } y_0 \leq y \leq y_1, \text{ AND } z_0 \leq z \leq z_1)$$

which describes the probability with which the particle will be in a certain three dimensional region. Such probabilities can be calculated by a probability density $P(x, y, z)$ whose purpose is to compute such probabilities.



$$\text{Prob } (x_0 \leq x \leq x_1, \text{ AND } y_0 \leq y \leq y_1, \text{ AND } z_0 \leq z \leq z_1) = \int_{z_0}^{z_1} \int_{y_0}^{y_1} \int_{x_0}^{x_1} P(x, y, z) dx dy dz$$

We abbreviate the probability density

$$P(x, y, z) = P(\vec{r})$$

and the volume element $dV = dx dy dz$.

So we would write

$$\int_{x_0}^{x_1} \int_{y_0}^{y_1} \int_{z_0}^{z_1} P(x, y, z) dx dy dz = \int_{\text{region}} P(\vec{r}) dV$$

This is shorthand for the l.h.s.

The probability must be normalized over all space. Thus

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x, y, z) dx dy dz = \int_{\text{all space}} P(\vec{r}) dV = 1$$

We can also use this probability density to compute (marginal) probabilities such as

$$\text{Prob}(x_0 \leq x \leq x_1, \text{REGARDLESS of } y, z) = \int_{z=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{y=-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{x_0}^{x_1} P(x, y, z) dx dy dz$$

Wavefunctions for three dimensions

In quantum theory the probability density is determined by a wavefunction, which, in general, is a function of three co-ordinates and time. Thus

$$\text{Wavefunction} \equiv \Psi(x, y, z, t) = \Psi(\vec{r}, t)$$

This gives a time independent probability density

$$P(x, y, z, t) \equiv P(\vec{r}, t) = |\Psi(x, y, z, t)|^2 = |\Psi(\vec{r}, t)|^2$$

Then this is normalized if

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi(x, y, z, t)|^2 dx dy dz = 1$$

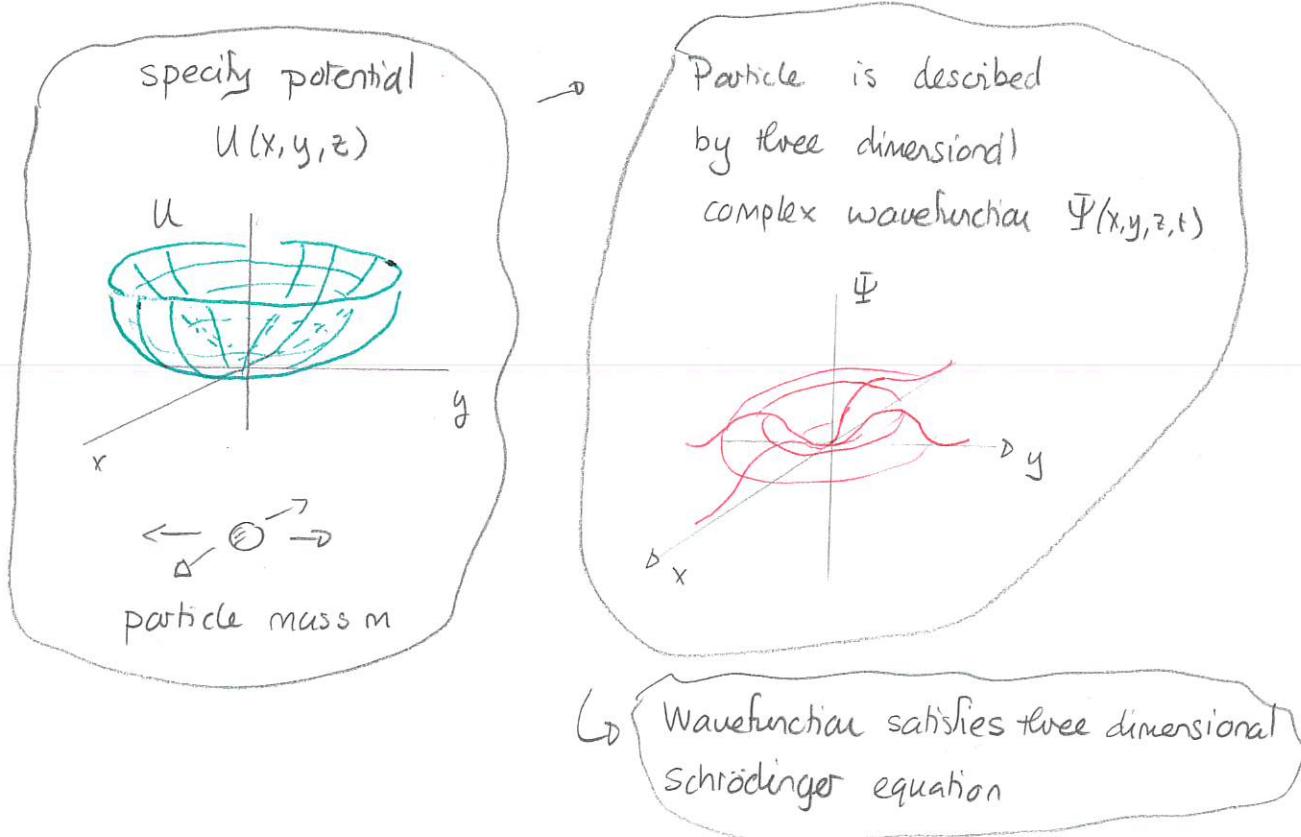
and is used to determine probabilities via:

$$\text{Prob}(x_0 \leq x \leq x_1, \text{ AND } y_0 \leq y \leq y_1, \text{ AND } z_0 \leq z \leq z_1) = \int_{z_0}^{z_1} \int_{y_0}^{y_1} \int_{x_0}^{x_1} |\Psi(x, y, z, t)|^2 dx dy dz.$$

Quiz 1 $\begin{matrix} -\text{all} \\ -\text{square roots} \end{matrix}$

Schrödinger equation in three dimensions

The method for determining the suitable wavefunction is similar to the one dimensional case:



The three dimensional Schrödinger equation is:

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

There is a short-hand notation for the combination of spatial derivatives. The "del squared" operator is defined as

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

and thus

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

Then the Schrödinger equation becomes

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \Psi + U \Psi = -i\hbar \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t}$$

Again we can split the time and spatial parts. This gives stationary states or energy eigenstates with a particular energy E .

$$\Psi(\vec{r},t) = \Psi(\vec{r}) e^{-iEt/\hbar}$$

and the stationary state $\Psi(\vec{r})$ only depends on spatial co-ordinates and satisfies the three dimensional time-independent Schrödinger equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \Psi + U(\vec{r}) \Psi(\vec{r}) = E \Psi(\vec{r}) \Leftrightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} \right] + U(x,y,z) \Psi(x,y,z) = E \Psi(x,y,z)$$

Free particle in three dimensions

The TISE for a free particle in three dimensions is:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial z^2} \right] = E \Psi$$

We can consider various candidate solutions, guided by comparable one dimensional solutions, i.e. $\Psi(x) = A e^{ikx}$

Quizz

For Ψ_1 ,

$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi_1}{\partial x^2} = A(i2)^2 e^{i2x} \quad \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_1}{\partial y^2} = A(i)^2 e^{iy}$$

substitution gives:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[A(-4) e^{i2x} + A(-1)e^{iy} \right] = E[A e^{i2x} + A e^{iy}]$$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\underbrace{4e^{i2x} + e^{iy}}_{\text{different}} \right] = E(e^{i2x} + e^{iy})$$

cannot cancel

For Ψ_2 we get:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[\frac{\partial^2 \Psi_2}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_2}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \Psi_2}{\partial z^2} \right] = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \left[A(-4) e^{i2x} e^{iy} - A e^{i2x} e^{iy} \right] = E A e^{-}$$

$$\Rightarrow -\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} 5 e^{i2x} e^{iy} = \pm e^{i2x} e^{iy}$$

Thus we see that the product of two basic one dimensional wavefunctions is a solution but the sum is not. We will see this throughout.