## 35-1 The Schrödinger Equation

Like the classical wave equation (Equation 15-9b), the Schrödinger equation is a partial differential equation in space and time. Like Newton's laws of motion, the Schrödinger equation cannot be derived. Its validity, like that of Newton's laws, lies in its agreement with experiment. In one dimension, the Schrödinger equation is ${ }^{\dagger}$

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

where we have written $U$ as $U(x)$ to emphasize that while $U$ may depend on position, $U$ does not depend on time. The function $U(x)$ represents the environment of the particle being described. It is this potential energy function in the Schrödinger equation that establishes the difference between different problems, just as the expressions for forces acting on a particle play in classical physics.

The calculation of the allowed energy levels in a system involves only the time-independent Schrödinger equation, whereas finding the probabilities of transition between these levels requires the solution of the time-dependent equation. In this book, we will be concerned only with the time-independent Schrödinger equation.

The solution of Equation 35-4 depends on the form of the potential energy function $U(x)$. When $U(x)$ is such that the particle is confined to some region of space, only certain discrete energies $E_{n}$ give solutions $\psi_{n}$ that can satisfy the normalization condition (Equation 34-18):

$$
\int_{-\infty}^{\infty}|\psi|^{2} d x=1
$$

The one-dimensional time-independent Schrödinger equation is easily extended to three dimensions. In rectangular coordinates, it is

$$
-\frac{\hbar^{2}}{2 m}\left(\frac{\partial^{2} \psi}{\partial x^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} \psi}{\partial y^{2}}+\frac{\partial^{2} \psi}{\partial z^{2}}\right)+U \psi=E \psi
$$

