Application of Schrödinger Wave Equation



Particle in a 1-dimensional box

The particle in a box problem is a common application of a quantum mechanical model to a simplified system consisting of a particle moving horizontally within an infinitely deep well from which it cannot escape.

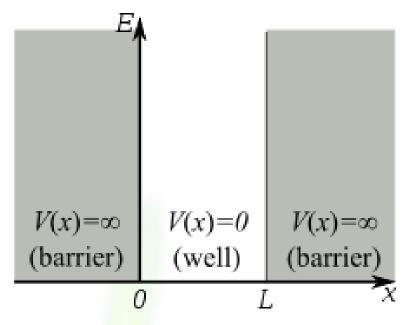
The solutions to the problem give possible values of E and ψ that the particle can possess.

E represents allowed energy values and $\psi(x)$ is a wavefunction, which when squared gives us the probability of locating the particle at a certain position within the box at a given energy level.

To solve the problem for a particle in a 1-dimensional box, we must,

- 1. Define the Potential Energy, V
- 2. Solve the Schrödinger Equation
- 3. Define the wavefunction
- 4. Define the allowed energies

Step 1: Define the Potential Energy V



The barriers outside a one-dimensional box have infinitely large potential, while the interior of the box has a constant, zero potential

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

where L is the length of the box and x is the position of the particle within the box.

Step 2: Solve the Schrödinger Equation

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

with

- ullet \hbar is the reduced Planck Constant where $\hbar=rac{\hbar}{2\pi}$
- m is the mass of the particle
- ullet $\psi(x)$ is the stationary time-independent wavefunction
- V(x) is the potential energy as a function of position
- E is the energy, a real number

This means that the observable properties of the particle (such as its energy and position) are related to the mass of the particle and the width of the well by simple mathematical expressions.

This equation has been well studied and gives a general solution of:

$$\psi(x) = Asin(kx) + Bcos(kx)$$

where A, B, and k are constants.

Step 3: Define the wavefunction

The solution to the Schrödinger equation above is the general solution for a 1-dimensional system.

We now apply **boundary conditions** to find the solution to our particular system.

According to boundary conditions, the probability of finding the particle at x=0 or x=L is zero. When $x=0 \sin(0)=0$ and $\cos(0)=1$; therefore, B must equal O to fulfill this boundary condition giving:

$$\psi(x)=A\sin(kx)$$

We can now solve for constants (A and k) systematically to define the wavefunction.

$$k = \left(\frac{8\pi^2 mE}{h^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

Substituting k into the wavefunction gives,

$$\psi = A sin \left(\frac{8\pi^2 mE}{h^2}\right)^{1/2} x$$

Solving for A gives,

$$A=\sqrt{rac{2}{L}}$$

Which results in the normalized wavefunction for a particle in a 1-dimensional box:

$$\psi = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} sin \frac{n\pi}{L} x$$

Step 4: Determine the Allowed Energies

Solving for E results in the allowed energies for a particle in a box:

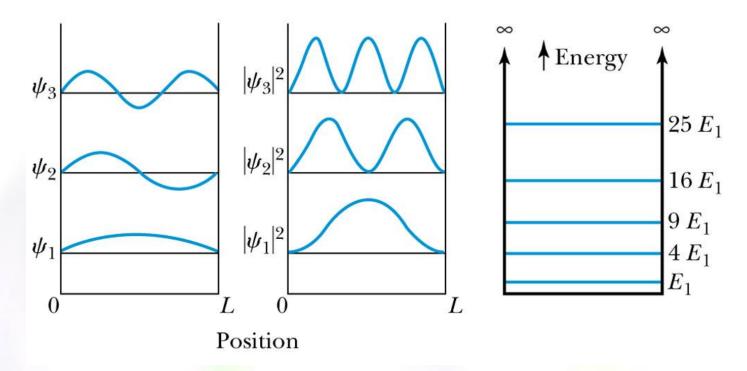
$$E_n = \frac{n^2 h^2}{8mL^2}$$

This is a very important result; it tells us that:

- 1. The energy of a particle is quantized.
- The lowest possible energy of a particle is <u>NOT</u> zero. This is called the zero-point energy and means the particle can never be at rest because it always has some kinetic energy.
- 3. The energy levels increase with n², meaning that high energy levels are separated from each other by a greater amount than low energy levels are. The lowest possible energy for the particle (its *zero-point energy*) is found in state 1.
- 4. The minimum kinetic energy of the particle in a box is inversely proportional to the mass and the square of the well width

What does all this mean?

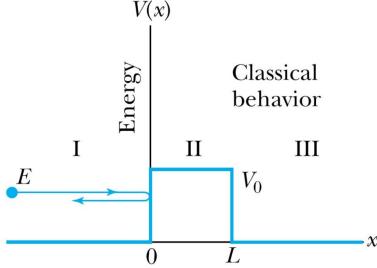
The wavefunction for a particle in a box at n=1, 2 and 3 energy levels look like this:



Notice that the number of **nodes**(places where the particle has zero probabily of being located) increases with increasing energy n

Tunneling

Now we consider the situation where classically the particle does not have enough energy to surmount the potential barrier, $E < V_0$.

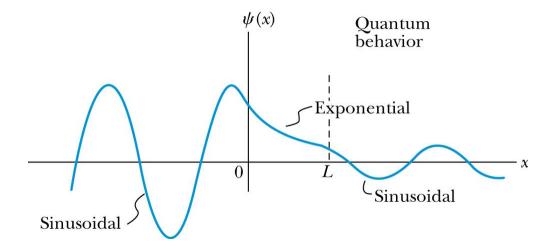


- The quantum mechanical result, however, is one of the most remarkable features of modern physics, and there is ample experimental proof of its existence. There is a small, but finite, probability that the particle can penetrate the barrier and even emerge on the other side.
- The wave function in region II becomes $\psi_{\rm II} = Ce^{\kappa x} + De^{-\kappa x}$ where $\kappa = \frac{\sqrt{2m(V_0 E)}}{\hbar}$
- The transmission probability that describes the phenomenon of **tunneling** is $T = \left[1 + \frac{V_0^2 \sinh^2(\kappa L)}{4E(V_0 E)}\right]^{-1}$

Uncertainty Explanation

Consider when $\kappa L >> 1$ then the transmission probability becomes:

$$T = 16 \frac{E}{V_0} \left(1 - \frac{E}{V_0} \right) e^{-2\kappa L}$$



The above equation implies that there is a finite probability that a particle impinging a potential barrier will penetrate the barrier and will appear in region III. This phenomenon is called tunneling and it, too, contradicts classical mechanics. We will see later how this quantum mechanical tunneling phenomenon can be applied to semiconductor device characteristics, such as in the tunnel diode and SETs.

Quantum Numbers

- Solving the wave equation gives
 a set of wave functions, or orbitals,
 and their corresponding energies.
- Bohr's Atom de Broglie's Atom
- Each orbital describes a spatial distribution of electron density.
- An orbital is described by a set of three quantum numbers.
- Quantum numbers can be considered to be "coordinates" (similar to x, y, and z coodrinates for a graph) which are related to where an electron will be found in an atom.

Solutions to the Schrodinger Wave Equation Quantum Numbers of Electrons in Atoms

Name	Symbol	Permitted Values	Property
principal	n	positive integers(1,2,3,)	Energy level
angular momentum	l	integers from 0 to n-1	orbital shape (probability distribution) (The <i>l</i> values 0, 1, 2, and 3 correspond to s, p, d, and f orbitals, respectively.)
magnetic	m_l	integers from -l to 0 to +l	orbital orientation
spin	$m_{\!s}$	+1/2 or -1/2	direction of e ⁻ spin

Looking at Quantum Numbers: The Principal Quantum Number, n

- The principal quantum number, n, describes the energy level on which the orbital resides.
- The values of n are integers ≥ 0 .

$$n = 1, 2, 3, etc.$$

Looking at Quantum Numbers: The Azimuthal Quantum Number, I

- The azimuthal (or angular momentum) quantum number tells the electron's angular momentum.
- Allowed values of *l* are integers ranging from 0 to
 n 1.

For example, if
$$n = 1$$
, $l = 0$
if $n = 2$, l can equal 0 or 1

Value of <i>I</i>	Angular momentum
0	None
1	Linear
2	2-directional
3	3-directional

Looking at Quantum Numbers: The Azimuthal Quantum Number, I

- The values of / relate to the most probable electron distribution.
- Letter designations are used to designate the different values of l and, therefore, the shapes of orbitals.

Value of <i>l</i>	Orbital (subshell) Letter designation	Orbital Shape	Name*
0	S		sharp
1	р		principal
2	d		diffuse
3	f		fine

* From emission spectroscopy terms

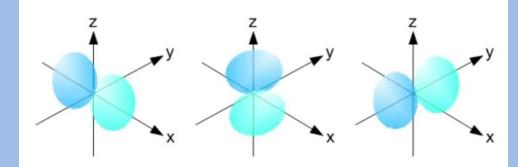
Looking at Quantum Numbers: The Magnetic Quantum Number, m_l

- Describes the orientation of an orbital with respect to a magnetic field
- This translates as the three-dimensional orientation of the orbital.
- Values of m_l are integers ranging from -l to l:

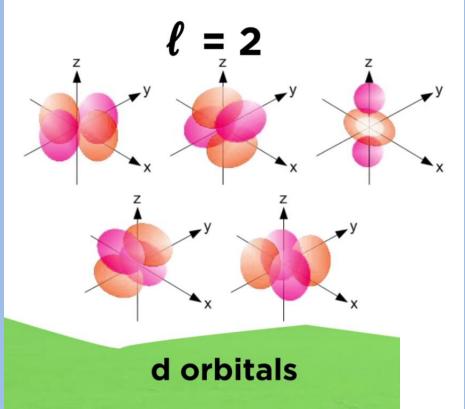
$$-1 \leq m_1 \leq 1$$
.

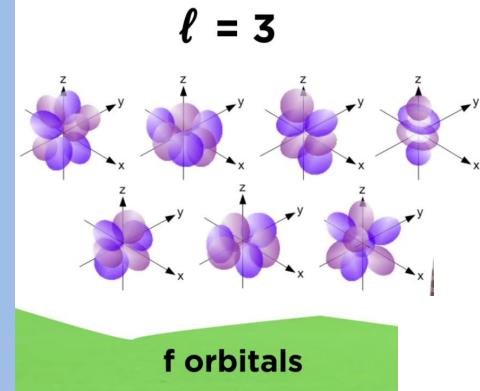
Values of <i>I</i>	Values of m _I	Orbital designation	Number of orbitals
0	0	S	1
1	-1, 0, +1	р	3
2	-2, -1, 0, +1, +2	d	5
3	-3, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, +3	f	7

$$\ell = 1$$



p orbitals

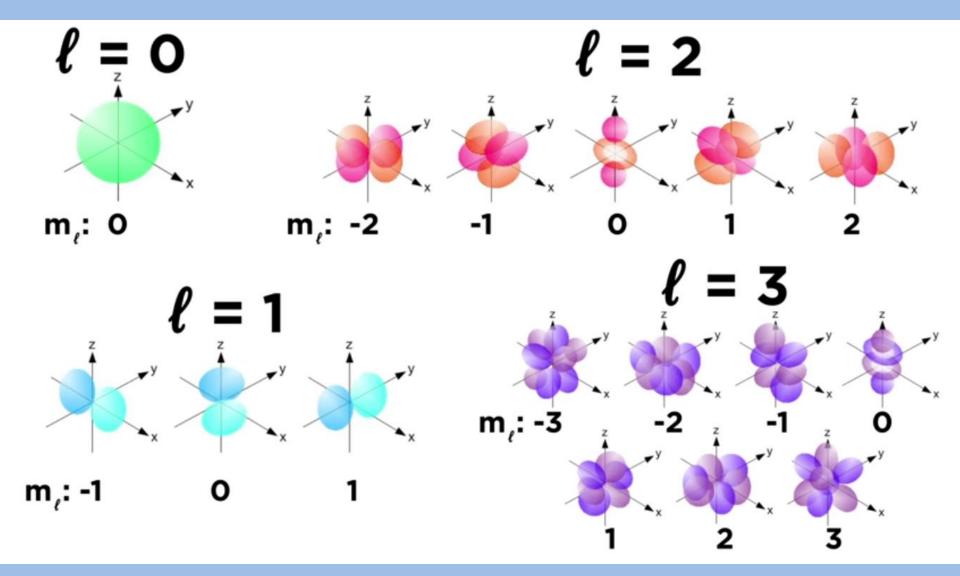


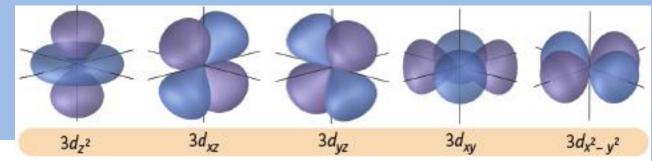


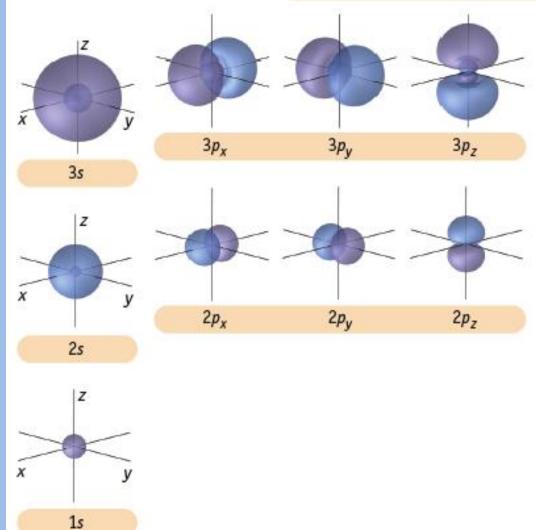
Quantum Numbers and Subshells

- Orbitals with the same value of n form a shell
- Different orbital types within a shell are called subshells.

n	Possible Values of <i>l</i>	Subshell Designation	Possible Values of m_l	Number of Orbitals in Subshell	Total Number of Orbitals in Shell
1	0	1s	0	1	1
2	0	2s	0	1	
	1	2 <i>p</i>	1, 0, -1	3	4
3	0	3s	0	1	
	1	3 <i>p</i>	1, 0, -1	3	
	2	3d	2, 1, 0, -1, -2	5	9
4	0	4s	0	1	
	1	4p	1, 0, -1	3	
	2	4d	2, 1, 0, -1, -2	5	
	3	4f	3, 2, 1, 0, -1, -2, -3	7	16



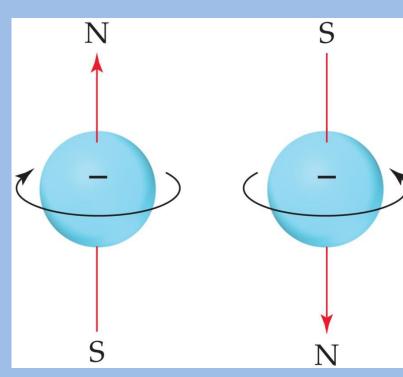




A Summary of Atomic Orbitals from 1s to 3d

The Spin Quantum Number, m_s

- In the 1920s, it was discovered that two electrons in the same orbital do not have exactly the same energy.
- The "spin" of an electron describes its magnetic field, which affects its energy.
- This led to a fourth quantum number, the spin quantum number, m_s.
- The spin quantum number has only
 2 allowed values: +1/2 and −1/2.



- Wolfgang Pauli (1900-1958)
 - Pauli Exclusion Principle, 1925
 "There can never be two or more equivalent electrons in an atom for which in strong fields the values of all quantum numbers n, k₁, k₂, m₁ (or, equivalently, n, k₁, m₁, m₁) are the same."



$$n = 1$$

$$\ell = 0$$

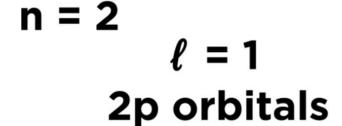
$$\mathbf{m}_{\ell} = \mathbf{0}$$

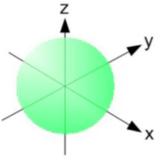
1s orbital

$$m_s = +1/2$$
 z
 $m_s = -1/2$

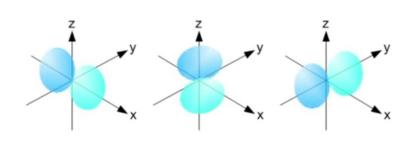
$$\ell = 0$$

2s orbital





$$m_{r} = 0$$

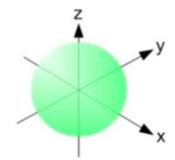


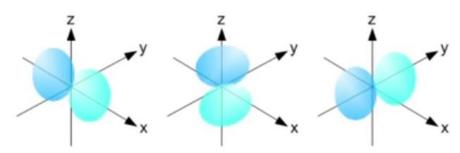
$$m_{r} = -1, 0, 1$$

n = 3

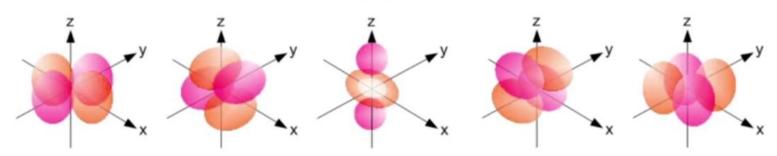
ℓ = 03s orbital

ℓ = 13p orbitals

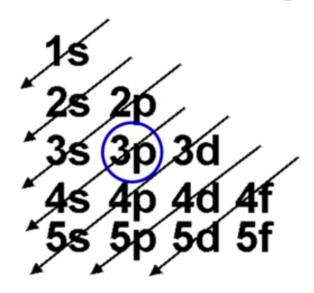


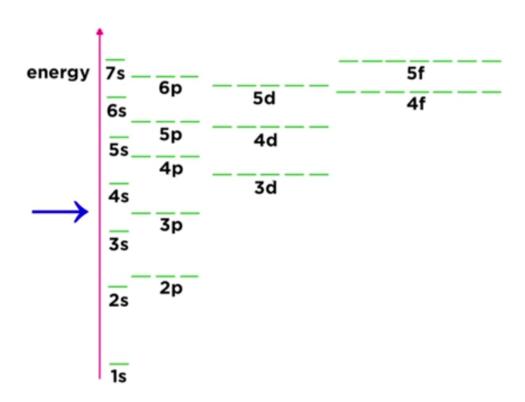


 $\ell = 2$ 3d orbitals

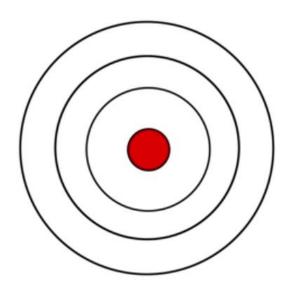


Aufbau Principle

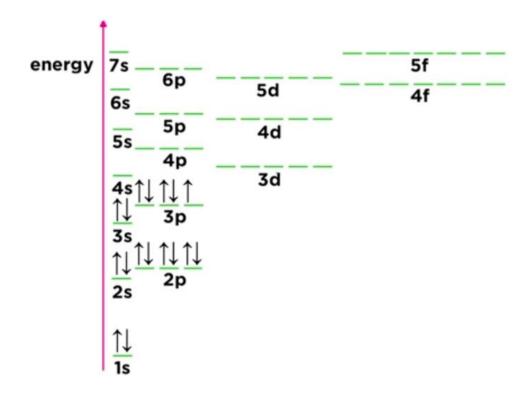




chlorine



Hund's Rule



electron configuration

n = 1 n = 2 n = 3	hydrogen 1 H 1.0079 Ethlum 3 Li 6.941 sodium 11	He 4.0006 beryflum 4 Be 9.0122 mignesium 12		[Ne]3s²3p⁵ 1s²2s²2p63s²3p⁵										B 10,811 sluninium 13	C 12.011 silicon	ntropen 7 N 14,007 phosphorus 15	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	fuorine 9 F 16.998 chlorine 17	10 Ne 20.180 argon 18
3	Na	Mg 24.305												AI 26.982	Si 28.096	P 30,974	S 32.065	CI 35.453	Ar 39.948
	potassium	caldum 20		scandum	ttenum	varadum	chromium 24	manganese 25	1ron 26	cobalt 27	nickel 28	copper 29	zinc 30	gallum	germanum 32	arsenic 33	selenium	bromine 35	krypton
	19			21	22	23								31			34		36
	K	Ca		Sc	Ti	٧	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr
	39.098 rubidium	40.078 strontium		44.956 Yilium	47.867 zirconium	50.942 nloblum	51,996 molybdenum	54.936 technetium	55.845 ruthenium	58.903 rhodium	58.693 palladium	63.546 silver	65.39 cadmium	69.723 Indium	72.61 tin	74.922 antimony	78.96 tellurum	79.904 lodine	83.60 xxxxxx
	37	38		39	40	41	42	43	44	45	46	47	48	49	50	51	52	53	54
	Rb	Sr		Y	Zr	Nb	Мо	Тс	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	1 1	Xe
	85.468	87.62		86.906	91.224	92.906	95.94	[98]	101,07	102.91	108.42	107.87	112.41	114.82	118.71	121.76	127.60	126.90	131.29
	caesium 55	56	57-70	lutetlum 71	hafnium 72	tantalum 73	tungsten 74	rhenium 75	76	ridum 77	platinum 78	20id 79	mercury 80	thallum 81	lead 82	blamuth 83	polonium 84	astatine 85	nadon 86
			*					-/		1.									
	Cs	Ba	*	Lu	Hf	Ta	W	Re	Os	Ir	Pt	Au	Hg	TI	Pb	Bi	Ро	At	Rn
	132.91 francium	137.33 radium		174,97 lawrendum	178.49	180.95 dubrium	163.84 seeborglum	166.21 bohrium	190.23 hassium	192.22 meitnerum	195.06 ununnilum	198.97 unununium	200.59 ununbium	204.36	207.2	208.98	[508]	[210]	[222]
	87	88	89-102	103	104	105	106	107	108	109	110	111	112						
	Fr	Ra	* *	Lr	Rf	Db	Sg	Bh	Hs	Mt	Uun	Uuu	Uub						
	[223]	[226]		[262]	[261]	[262]	[266]	[264]	[269]	[268]	[271]	[272]	[277]						

*Lanthanide series

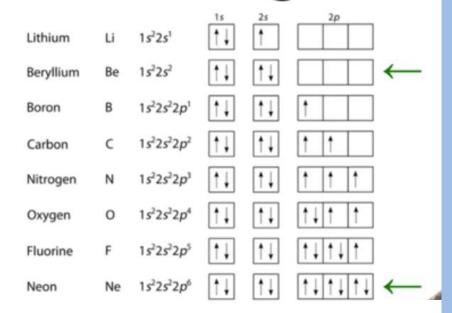
* * Actinide series

	lantharum 57	cerium 58	preseodymium 59	neodymium 60	promethium 61	semerium 62	europium 63	gedolinium 64	terblum 65	dysprosium 66	holmlum 67	ertium 68	thulum 69	ytterblum 70
1	La	Ce	Pr	Nd	Pm	Sm	Eu	Gd	Tb	Dy	Но	Er	Tm	Yb
ı	138.91	140.12	140,91	144.24	[148]	150.36	151.96	187.25	158.93	162.50	164.93	167.26	168.93	173.04
	actnium 89	thorium 90	protectinium 91	uranium 92	neptunium 93	plutonium 94	americium 95	ourlum 96	97	californium 98	einsteinium 99	fermium 100	mendelevium 101	nobelium 102
ı	Ac	Th	Pa	U	Np	Pu	Am	Cm	Bk	Cf	Es	Fm	Md	No
l	[227]	232.04	231.04	238.03	[237]	[244]	[245]	[247]	[247]	[251]	[252]	[257]	[258]	[259]

orbital diagram

			1s	25	2ρ
Lithium	Li	$1s^22s^1$	[↑↓]	1	\sqcup
Beryllium	Ве	$1s^22s^2$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	
Boron	В	$1s^22s^22p^1$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	↑
Carbon	C	$1s^22s^22p^2$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \qquad \longleftarrow$
Nitrogen	N	$1s^22s^22p^3$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \uparrow \\ \longleftarrow$
Oxygen	0	$1s^22s^22p^4$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow\uparrow\uparrow$
Fluorine	F	$1s^22s^22p^5$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow$
Neon	Ne	$1s^22s^22p^6$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow\uparrow\downarrow\uparrow$

orbital diagram



paramagnetic

diamagnetic

Diamagnetic materials are slightly repelled by a magnetic field and do not retain the magnetic properties when the external field is removed. Paramagnetic materials are slightly attracted by a magnetic field and do not retain the magnetic properties when the external field is removed.