

To Excite An Electron In A One-dimensional Box From Its First Excited State To Its Second Excited State

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Understanding the quantum behavior of electrons confined within potential wells is fundamental in quantum mechanics. One of the most illustrative models is the "particle in a box" or infinite potential well, which provides insights into quantized energy levels and transition dynamics. Specifically, exciting an electron from its first excited state to the second excited state involves carefully analyzing the energy differences, transition probabilities, and the external stimuli capable of inducing such transitions. This article delves into the physics behind this process, the conditions required for excitation, and the methods employed to achieve it.

Fundamentals of the Particle in a One-dimensional Box

Quantum States and Energy Levels

In the idealized one-dimensional infinite potential well, an electron is confined within a box of width (a) , with infinitely high potential walls at $(x=0)$ and $(x=a)$. The potential $(V(x))$ is defined as:

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

The time-independent Schrödinger equation yields solutions for the allowed energy states:

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{a}\right), \quad n=1,2,3,\dots$$

Corresponding energies are quantized as:

$$E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2 m a^2}$$

\]

where:

- n is the quantum number indicating the energy level,
- $\hbar$ is the reduced Planck's constant,
- m is the mass of the electron.

The energy levels increase quadratically with n , with the ground state at $n=1$, first excited state at $n=2$, and second excited state at $n=3$.

States of Interest: Ground, First, and Second Excited States

- Ground state ($n=1$): The lowest energy state with energy E_1 .
- First excited state ($n=2$): The next higher energy level with energy E_2 .
- Second excited state ($n=3$): The next higher energy state after the first excited state, with energy E_3 .

The energy difference between these states is:

$$\Delta E_{n \rightarrow n+1} = E_{n+1} - E_n = \frac{(2n+1)^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{8 m a^2}$$

Specifically, the transition from the first to the second excited state involves an energy difference:

$$\Delta E_{2 \rightarrow 3} = E_3 - E_2 = \frac{5 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{8 m a^2}$$

This energy difference determines the wavelength of the radiation or the energy of the external perturbation needed to induce the transition.

Mechanisms for Exciting the Electron Between Energy Levels

Electromagnetic Radiation and Transition Induction

The most common method to excite an electron from one quantized energy level to another is through interaction with electromagnetic radiation, typically photons. The process involves absorption of a photon with energy matching the energy gap:

$$E_{\text{photon}} = \Delta E_{n \rightarrow n+1}$$

The transition probability depends on the transition dipole moment, the intensity and frequency of the incident radiation, and the selection rules.

Selection Rules in a One-dimensional Box

In the particle in a box, the transition dipole moment between states ψ_m and ψ_n is given by:

$$\mu_{mn} = e \int_0^a \psi_m^*(x) x \psi_n(x) dx$$

where e is the electron charge.

The transition is allowed if μ_{mn} is non-zero. For the infinite well:

- The integral is non-zero only when the parity of the wavefunctions allows it.
- Since ψ_n are sine functions with specific parity properties, the selection rules are:

$$\Delta n = \pm 1, \pm 3, \pm 5, \dots$$

In particular, transitions between states where Δn is odd are allowed, and those with even Δn are forbidden or have very low probabilities.

For the transition from the first excited state ($n=2$) to the second excited state ($n=3$), $\Delta n=1$. This is an allowed transition, making it feasible with appropriate electromagnetic radiation.

External Stimuli and Alternative Methods

While photons are the most straightforward means, other external stimuli can induce transitions:

- Electric fields (Stark effect): Applying a time-varying electric field can induce transitions via field-induced dipole moments.
- Magnetic fields (Zeeman effect): Less common in 1D box models but relevant in more complex systems.
- Particle collisions: Collisions with other particles or photons can cause energy exchanges, leading to excitation.

However, for controlled and precise excitation between specific quantized states, electromagnetic radiation remains the preferred method.

Calculating the Energy and Frequency Required for Excitation

Energy Difference Calculation

Given the energy levels:

$$E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2 m a^2}$$

The energy difference between the first ($n=2$) and second ($n=3$) excited states is:

$$\Delta E_{2 \rightarrow 3} = E_3 - E_2 = \frac{(3^2 - 2^2) \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2 m a^2} = \frac{5 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2 m a^2}$$

Expressed numerically, assuming known parameters for a , m , and fundamental constants, one can determine the photon energy required.

Corresponding Frequency and Wavelength

The frequency f of the photon needed is:

$$f = \frac{\Delta E_{2 \rightarrow 3}}{h}$$

where h is Planck's constant.

The wavelength λ is:

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{f}$$

with c being the speed of light.

This calculation indicates the specific electromagnetic radiation parameters needed to induce the transition.

Practical Considerations in Exciting the Electron

Intensity and Duration of External Radiation

To successfully excite the electron, the radiation must have:

- Sufficient intensity to provide the required energy.
- Appropriate duration to allow absorption without causing ionization or other unwanted effects.

High-intensity pulses can increase transition probabilities but may also induce multi-photon processes or ionization.

Resonance Conditions

Maximal transition probability occurs when the radiation frequency matches the energy difference:

$$\hbar \omega = \Delta E_{2 \rightarrow 3}$$

Any deviation from this resonance reduces the transition probability, emphasizing the importance of precise frequency tuning.

Environmental and Decoherence Effects

In real systems, environmental interactions can cause decoherence or energy level broadening, affecting the efficiency of excitation. Isolating the system or operating at low temperatures can mitigate these effects.

Summary and Conclusion

Exciting an electron in a one-dimensional infinite potential well from its first excited state to its second excited state involves understanding the quantum energy structure, transition mechanisms, and external stimuli. The key points include:

- The energy difference between the states is determined by the quantized energy levels and depends on the well width (a) .
- Electromagnetic radiation with photon energy matching $(\Delta E_{2 \rightarrow 3})$ can induce the transition.
- The transition is allowed due to the selection rule $(\Delta n = \pm 1)$.
- Precise control over the frequency, intensity, and duration of the external radiation ensures efficient excitation.

- Real-world applications, such as quantum dots and nanoscale devices, utilize these principles to manipulate electron states for technological purposes.

Understanding and controlling such quantum transitions are fundamental in quantum computing, spectroscopy, and nanotechnology, showcasing the profound implications of quantum mechanics in modern science and engineering.

Frequently Asked Questions

What is the process of exciting an electron from its first to second excited state in a one-dimensional box?

It involves supplying energy, typically via electromagnetic radiation, at a frequency that matches the energy difference between the first and second excited states, enabling a transition from the first to the second excited state.

What is the energy difference between the first and second excited states in a one-dimensional box?

The energy difference is given by $\Delta E = E_2 - E_1 = (3^2 - 2^2)\pi^2\hbar^2 / 2mL^2 = 5\pi^2\hbar^2 / 2mL^2$, where L is the box length.

How does the wavelength of the photon needed to excite the electron from the first to second excited state relate to the box size?

The photon wavelength $\lambda = hc / \Delta E$; since ΔE depends on the box length L , larger L results in smaller energy gaps and longer wavelengths needed for excitation.

What selection rules govern the transition from the first to second excited state in a one-dimensional box?

In a particle-in-a-box model, the electric dipole selection rules allow transitions between states where the quantum number changes by ± 1 ; thus, the transition from $n=1$ to $n=2$ is allowed.

Can external electromagnetic radiation induce the transition from the first to the second excited state in a one-dimensional box?

Yes, applying electromagnetic radiation with energy matching the ΔE between those states can induce the transition via photon absorption.

What role does the particle's mass play in the excitation process within a one-dimensional box?

The particle's mass affects the energy levels; a heavier particle results in smaller energy differences, influencing the frequency of radiation needed for excitation.

Are there any selection rules that prevent or favor the transition from the first to second excited state?

In the particle-in-a-box model, the electric dipole transition is allowed between states where the quantum number changes by ± 1 , so the $n=1$ to $n=2$ transition is favored.

What experimental techniques can be used to excite an electron from its first to second excited state in a quantum well?

Techniques include optical absorption using tunable lasers, microwave or terahertz radiation, or other forms of electromagnetic radiation tuned to the transition energy.

How does the duration of the applied electromagnetic pulse affect the excitation process?

A pulse duration matching the transition's coherence time ensures efficient excitation; too short or too long pulses can lead to incomplete or inefficient transitions due to spectral broadening or decoherence.

What are the practical applications of exciting electrons between energy states in quantum wells or one-dimensional boxes?

Such excitations are fundamental in designing quantum lasers, photodetectors, quantum computing elements, and other nanoelectronic devices that rely on controlled electron transitions.

Additional Resources

Excitation of an Electron in a One-Dimensional Box: Transition from the First to the Second Excited State

Understanding the quantum behavior of electrons confined within potential wells is fundamental to modern physics and nanotechnology. Among the quintessential models, the one-dimensional infinite potential well (also known as the particle in a box) provides a simplified yet insightful framework. In this detailed review, we explore the process of exciting an electron from its first excited state to its second excited state within this system, delving into the underlying quantum mechanics, transition probabilities, selection rules, and experimental considerations.

1. The Quantum Model of a One-Dimensional Box

1.1 Basic Setup and Assumptions

The one-dimensional infinite potential well is characterized by:

- A particle (electron) confined between two impenetrable walls at positions $x=0$ and $x=a$.
- A potential energy $V(x)$ such that:

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

This idealized model assumes no interactions with external fields, negligible thermal effects, and a perfectly rigid boundary.

1.2 Eigenstates and Energy Levels

The stationary states (eigenfunctions) are solutions to the time-independent Schrödinger equation:

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

with boundary conditions:

$$\psi(0) = \psi(a) = 0$$

The normalized eigenfunctions are:

$$\psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin \left(\frac{n \pi x}{a} \right), \quad n=1,2,3,\dots$$

and the corresponding energy eigenvalues:

$$E_n = \frac{n^2 \pi^2 \hbar^2}{2 m a^2}$$

where:

- n is the principal quantum number,
- m is the mass of the electron,
- $\hbar$ is the reduced Planck's constant.

2. Transition from First to Second Excited State

2.1 Quantum States and Their Significance

- The ground state corresponds to $n=1$, with energy E_1 .
- The first excited state corresponds to $n=2$, with energy E_2 .
- The second excited state corresponds to $n=3$, with energy E_3 .

The transition from the first excited state to the second excited state involves moving from $n=2$ to $n=3$.

2.2 Physical Interpretation

- Electron initially resides in $\psi_2(x)$.
- External stimuli (such as electromagnetic radiation) induce a transition to $\psi_3(x)$.
- This process involves absorption of a photon with energy approximately equal to the difference $E_3 - E_2$.

Calculating this energy difference:

$$\Delta E = E_3 - E_2 = \frac{9\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2ma^2} - \frac{4\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2ma^2} = \frac{5\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2ma^2}$$

Corresponding photon wavelength:

$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{\Delta E}$$

where c is the speed of light, and h is Planck's constant.

3. Transition Mechanisms and Selection Rules

3.1 Electric Dipole Transitions

The dominant transition mechanism in such quantum systems is the electric dipole transition, governed by the dipole moment operator:

$$\hat{\mu} = -e \hat{x}$$

The transition probability between states $|i\rangle$ and $|f\rangle$ depends on the matrix element:

$$\langle f | \hat{\mu} | i \rangle = -e \int_0^a \psi_f^*(x) x \psi_i(x) dx$$

The transition rate is proportional to the square of this matrix element.

3.2 Selection Rules in the Particle in a Box

The symmetry properties of the eigenfunctions dictate allowed transitions:

- The wavefunctions $\psi_n(x)$ have definite parity only for symmetric or antisymmetric potentials. In the infinite well, eigenfunctions are sine functions with no definite parity over the entire domain.
- For the particle in a box, the matrix element $\langle n' | x | n \rangle$ is non-zero only if $|n' - n|$ is odd, i.e., n' and n differ by odd integers due to the parity considerations.

Specifically, the selection rule:

$$\Delta n = \pm 1, \pm 3, \pm 5, \dots$$

is typical, but in this case, the transition from $n=2$ to $n=3$ is allowed because:

$$|3 - 2| = 1$$

which satisfies the selection rule for electric dipole transitions.

4. Calculating Transition Probabilities and Oscillator Strengths

4.1 Matrix Element Calculation

For the transition $(2 \rightarrow 3)$:

$$\langle 3 | x | 2 \rangle = -e \int_0^a \psi_3^*(x) x \psi_2(x) dx$$

Substituting the eigenfunctions:

$$\psi_2(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{a}\right)$$

$$\psi_3(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{a}} \sin\left(\frac{3\pi x}{a}\right)$$

The integral becomes:

$$\langle 3 | x | 2 \rangle = -e \frac{2}{a} \int_0^a x \sin\left(\frac{3\pi x}{a}\right) \sin\left(\frac{2\pi x}{a}\right) dx$$

This integral can be evaluated using trigonometric identities and integration techniques, leading to an explicit expression for the transition dipole moment.

4.2 Transition Probability and Oscillator Strength

The oscillator strength $(f_{2 \rightarrow 3})$ quantifies the transition probability:

$$f_{2 \rightarrow 3} = \frac{2m}{\hbar^2} (E_3 - E_2) |\langle 3 | x | 2 \rangle|^2$$

A higher oscillator strength indicates a more probable transition.

5. External Field Interaction and Transition Rates

5.1 Interaction with Electromagnetic Radiation

The transition rate $(W_{2 \rightarrow 3})$ in the presence of incident electromagnetic radiation is given by Fermi's Golden Rule:

$$W_{2 \rightarrow 3} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |\langle 3 | \hat{H}' | 2 \rangle|^2 \rho(E_3)$$

$$W_{2 \rightarrow 3} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} |\langle 3 | \hat{H}_{\text{int}} | 2 \rangle|^2 \rho(E)$$

where:

- $\langle \hat{H}_{\text{int}} \rangle = -\hat{\mu} \cdot \mathbf{E}$,
- $\mathbf{E}$ is the electric field amplitude,
- $\rho(E)$ is the density of states at energy E .

The transition probability depends on the frequency and intensity of the incident light matching the transition energy.

5.2 Absorption and Stimulated Emission

- When the system absorbs photons with energy ΔE , electrons are excited from $n=2$ to $n=3$.
- The rate of absorption depends on the photon flux, dipole matrix elements, and transition probabilities.
- In stimulated emission, electrons can transition back from $n=3$ to $n=2$, emitting photons coherently.

6. Practical Aspects and Experimental Considerations

6.1 Realistic Implementation

While the ideal infinite potential well is a theoretical model, real systems approximate this scenario in various ways:

- Quantum dots with sharp confinement potentials.
- Semiconductor heterostructures with potential barriers.
- Cold atom traps mimicking 1D confinement.

6.2 Excitation Methods

- Optical excitation: Using lasers with photon energies matching ΔE .
- Electrical methods: Applying voltage pulses to induce electronic transitions.
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