

[UNIT-2]

De - Broglie Hypothesis

EM-spectrum: γ -rays \rightarrow Hertzian
or
(Radio waves).

Nature of Radiation (light) & matter.

Wave nature

① Reflection

② Refraction

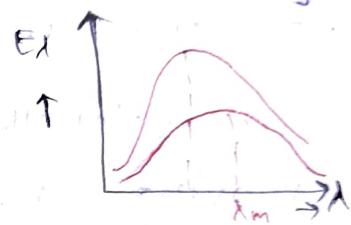
③ Interference

④ Diffraction

⑤ Polarisation

Particle Nature

\rightarrow Black Body radiation



$$\lambda m T = \text{constant}$$

\rightarrow photoelectric effect
 \rightarrow Compton - effect

Note:- ① Planck's Radiation formula-

$$E_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{B\pi^5 hc}{\lambda^5} \frac{d\lambda}{e^{h\lambda/kT} - 1}$$

- ② Photo electric effect confirms presence of Energy in photon.
- ③ Compton Effect \rightarrow presence of momentum with the photon.
- ④ If there is no mass but there is some energy or momentum we can call it particle.

* De-Broglie Hypothesis (matter wave concept) :-
 Matter and radiation both exhibit the dual character i.e., particle and wave character, so, in order to establish a correlation b/w these two entirely different characters, Prof. Louis de Broglie proposed that "There is associated a wave with each moving material particle".

A moving particle under certain circumstances presents the wave nature.

The wavelength of the wave associated with moving material particle (de-Broglie wavelength) is given by -

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

If electron encircling in H-atom presents the wave (character) nature, then the circumference of the orbit of H-atom -

$$2\pi r = n\lambda \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

and ~~the~~ Bohr's Postulate -

$$mv\lambda = \frac{n\hbar}{2\pi} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

From ② + ③

$$\boxed{\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}}$$



Different form of De-Broglie wavelength

* Non-relativistic case - (In terms of K.E) -

$$E_K = \frac{p^2}{2m}$$

$$p = \sqrt{2mE_K}$$

$$\boxed{\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mE_K}}}$$

In terms of ~~electric~~^{acc.} potential -

$$E_K = qV$$

$$\boxed{\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mqV}}}$$

* Relativistic case -

In terms of K.E -

$$E^2 = p^2c^2 + m_0^2c^4$$

$$p^2c^2 = E^2 - m_0^2c^4$$

$$p^2c^2 = (E_K + m_0c^2)^2 - m_0^2c^4$$

$$p^2c^2 = E_K [E_K + 2m_0c^2]$$

$$P = \frac{\sqrt{E_K(E_m + 2m_0c^2)}}{c}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{\sqrt{E_K(E_K + 2m_0c^2)}}$$

* In terms of acc. potential

$$E_K = qV$$

$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{\sqrt{qV(qV + 2m_0c^2)}}$$

* De-Broglie wave velocity (ω) :-

Once we associate a wave with moving material particle, it may have some velocity which is known as de-Broglie wave velocity.

$$\omega = v\lambda$$

$$= \left(\frac{E}{h}\right) \times \left(\frac{h}{P}\right)$$

$$\omega = \frac{E}{P} = \frac{mc^2}{mv}$$

$$\boxed{\omega = \frac{c^2}{v}}$$

in relativistic mechanics:

$v \ll c \Rightarrow \omega \gg c$
which is not acceptable w.r.t overall result

Schrodinger's explanation:-

$$\omega \gg c$$

To resolve the above controversial result Schrodinger suggested that there may be associated a no. of waves whether than a single \leftrightarrow particle with a moving material particle. He imagined the situation as the production of beats in sound where more than one wave superpose each other to give rise to a resultant wave and we receive the sounds in regular intervals.

For mathematical simplicity Schrodinger assumed two waves having slightly difference in angular frequency and propagation vector which give rise to resultant wave

The eqn of first wave constituting -

$$Y_1 = A \cos(\omega t - Kx) \quad \dots \quad ①$$

Similarly eqn of other wave -

$$Y_2 = A \cos[(\omega + dw)t - (K + dK)x] \quad \dots \quad ②$$

Therefore the eqn of resultant wave or the wave group -

$$Y = Y_1 + Y_2 \quad \dots \quad ③$$

$$Y = A \cos(\omega t - Kx) + A \cos[(\omega + dw)t - (K + dK)x]$$

$$Y = 2A \cos \frac{1}{2} [(2\omega + dw)t - (2K + dK)x] \cdot \cos \frac{1}{2} (dw - dK)x$$

$\therefore \omega \gg dw$ and $K \gg dK$ then,

$$2\omega + dw = 2\omega, 2K + dK = 2K$$

$$Y = 2A \cos(\omega t - Kx) \cos \left[\frac{dw}{2}t - \frac{dK}{2}x \right]$$

---④

This is the eqn of resultant wave or wave group.

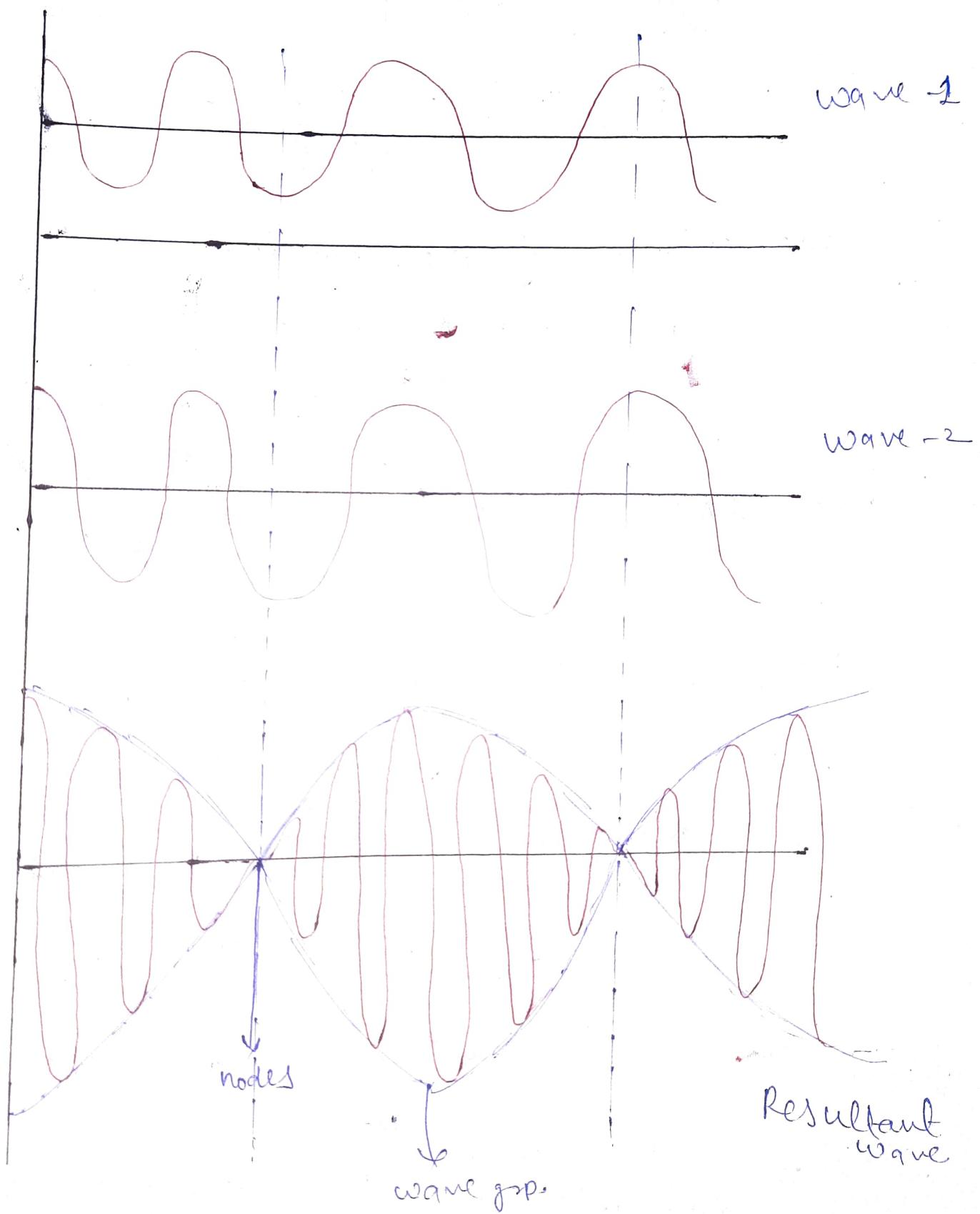
The eqn of resultant wave contains the original wave having angular freq ω and propagation vector K superimposed upon a modulation having angular freq $\frac{dw}{2}$ and propagation vector $\frac{dK}{2}$, the effect of which is to produce the successive wave groups.

He defined the phase velocity as - the ratio of angular freq and propagation vector of the original wave, which comes out equal to

$$\text{Phase velocity } V_p = \frac{\omega}{K} = \frac{2\pi \nu \times \lambda}{2\pi} = \nu (\text{wave velocity})$$

$$\text{Group velocity } V_g = \frac{dw/2}{dK/2} = \frac{dw}{dK}$$

* Graphical representation of wave group-



* Velocity of wave group v_g -

The energy of the particle -

$$E = mc^2 = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}} c^2 \quad (1)$$

The momentum of the particle -

$$P = mv = \frac{m_0 v}{\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \quad (2)$$

$$\omega = 2\pi\nu = \frac{2\pi E}{\hbar} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \frac{m_0 c^2}{\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \quad (3)$$

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi P}{\hbar} = \frac{2\pi}{\hbar} \frac{m_0 v}{\sqrt{1-\frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \quad (4)$$

Group velocity -

$$v_g = \frac{dw}{dk} = \frac{dw/dv}{dk/dv} \quad (5)$$

from (3)

$$\frac{dw}{dv} = \frac{2\pi m_0 v}{\hbar \left[1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right]^{3/2}}$$

Hence,

$$v_g = \frac{dw/dv}{dk/dv}$$

putting values -

$$v_g = v$$

from (4)

$$\frac{dk}{dv} = \frac{2\pi m_0}{\hbar \left[1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right]^{3/2}}$$

Therefore a moving material particle is associated with the wave grp which moves with the same velocity as that of the particle.

OR,

Microscopic, moving material particle present itself as a wave group.

* Experimental confirmation of Matter waves -

* Electron microscope

* Davisson - Germer experiment

* G P Thomson experiment

→ Davisson - Germer experiment :-

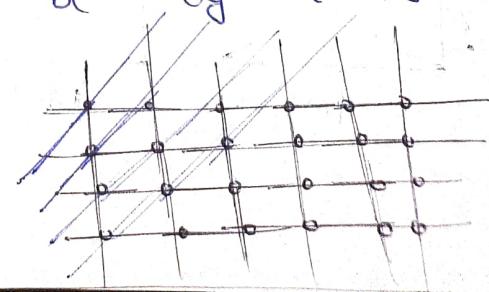
Suppose an electron is accelerated by 100 volt, wavelength associated with this electron -

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2meV}} = \frac{6.64 \times 10^{-34}}{\sqrt{2 \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 100}}$$

$$\lambda =$$

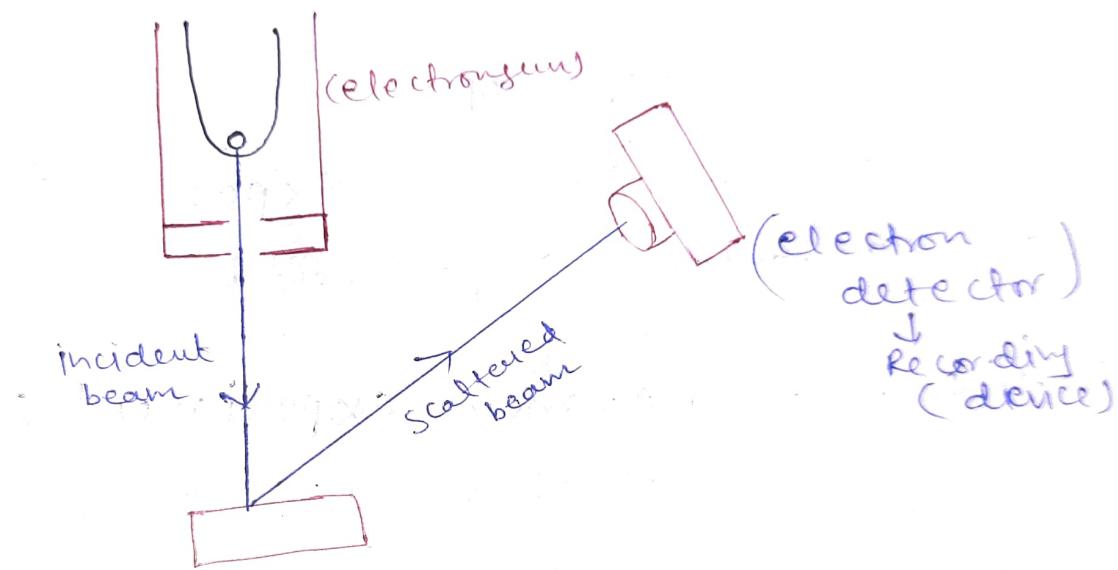
Therefore we need such a slit system in which slit spacing should be of this order.

* slit system → Nickel crystal
(spacing = 1.23 \AA)

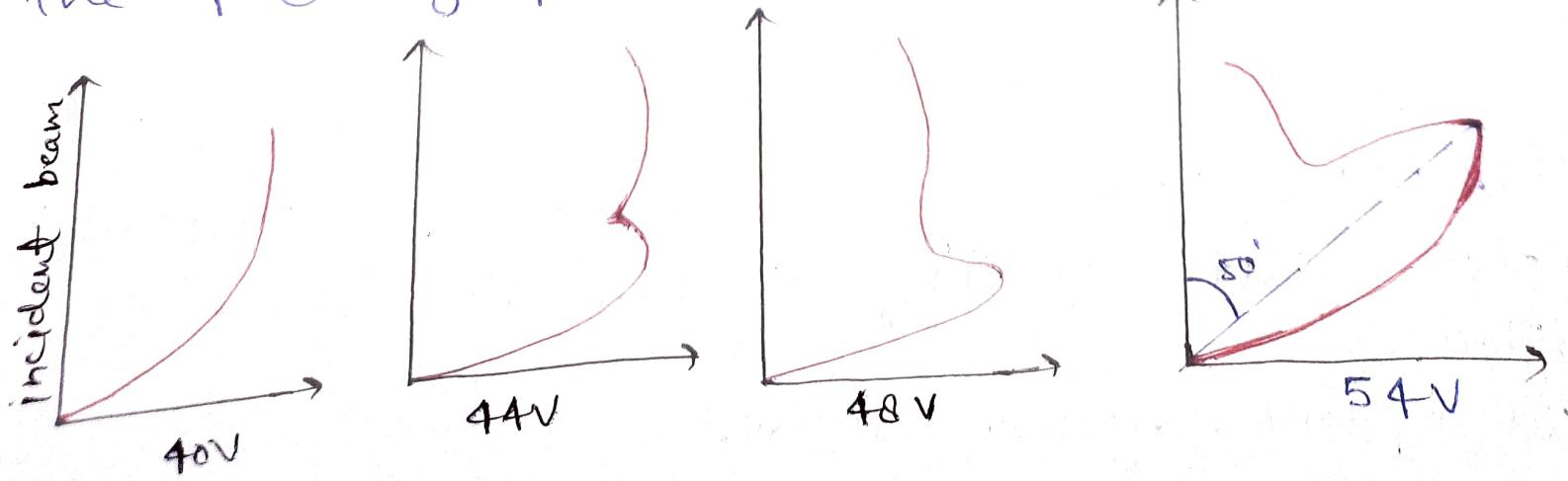


Major components:-

- ① Electron guns → To produce electron beam, collimate and accelerate the electron beam.
- ② Slit system → upon which fine beam of electrons is allowed to incident (nickel crystal)
- ③ Recording device → Scattered intensity into current.



The experiment was performed at different voltages beginning from 40 V to 100 V, and the polar graphs were plotted.



If the electron is behaving (presenting) wave nature it must undergo diffraction similar to x-radiations and therefore, one can use Bragg's eqn under this situation.

$$2d \sin\theta = n\lambda$$

* where d is interplanar (slit) separation
 ↓
 (interatomic distance)

* n is order of diffraction

Considering 1st order diffraction -

$$2 \times 1.23 \text{ Å} \times \sin 65^\circ = \lambda$$

$$\lambda = 1.65 \text{ Å}$$

Considering de-Broglie formula -

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2 \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 54}}$$

$$\lambda = 1.66 \text{ Å}$$

Hence wave nature of material particle is experimentally confirmed.

* Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle :-

- * Dual nature of matter and radiation is responsible for this.

→

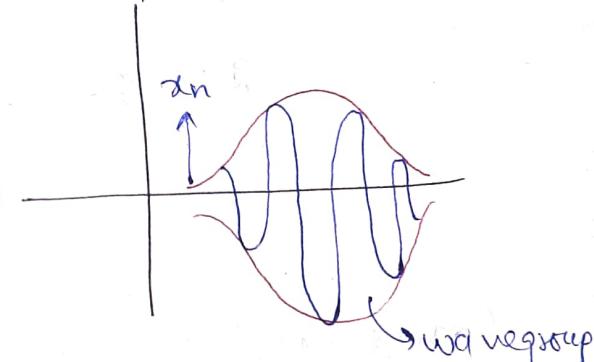
$$\left. \begin{array}{l} \Delta P \cdot \Delta x \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \\ \Delta J \cdot \Delta \theta \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \\ \Delta E \cdot \Delta t \geq \frac{\hbar}{2} \end{array} \right\} \begin{array}{l} (\text{Momentum - Position}) \\ \text{uncertainty} \\ (\text{Ang.momentum - Position}) \\ \text{uncertainty} \\ (\text{Energy-time Un-}) \end{array}$$

$$\boxed{\Delta x = \frac{\hbar}{2K}}$$

→ Derivation of uncertainty principle -
eqn of wave group -

$$y = 2A \cos(\omega t - kx) \cdot \cos\left[\frac{\Delta\omega}{2}t - \frac{\Delta k}{2}x\right]$$

$$\text{at nodes } y = 0$$



$$\cos\left[\frac{\Delta\omega}{2}t - \frac{\Delta k}{2}x_n\right] = 0$$

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{2}t - \frac{\Delta k}{2}x_n = (2n+1)\frac{\pi}{2} \quad \dots \quad (i)$$

$$\frac{\Delta\omega}{2}t - \frac{\Delta k}{2}x_{(n+1)} = (2n+3)\frac{\pi}{2} \quad \dots \quad (ii)$$

$$(ii) - (i)$$

$$\frac{\Delta k}{2} [x_n - x_{n+1}] = \pi$$

$$\frac{\Delta k}{2} \times \Delta x = \pi$$

$$\Delta K \cdot \Delta x = 2\pi$$

$$\therefore K = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi \times p}{h}$$

$$\Delta K = \frac{2\pi}{h} \times \Delta p$$

so

$$[\Delta p \cdot \Delta x = h]$$

→ Energy - time uncertainty

Kinetic Energy -

$$K = \frac{p^2}{2m}, \quad \Delta E = \frac{2p \Delta p}{2m} = \frac{p \Delta p}{m}$$

$$P = m v = m \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \Rightarrow \frac{p}{m} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}$$

$$\Delta E = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \cdot \Delta p$$

$$[\Delta E \cdot \Delta t = \Delta x \cdot \Delta p = h]$$

* Consequences of Uncertainty Principle:-

→ Ground state energy and radius of H-atom

Total energy of H-atom -

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad \text{--- (i)} \quad [E = K.E + P.E]$$

Error -

$$\Delta E = \frac{(\Delta p)^2}{2m} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 (\Delta r)} \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

Using uncertainty principle -

$$\Delta p \cdot \Delta x \approx \hbar$$

$$* \quad \Delta p \cdot \Delta r \approx \hbar$$

$$\Delta p = \frac{\hbar}{\Delta r}$$

Assuming $\Delta p \approx p$, $\Delta r \approx r$

$$\Rightarrow p = \frac{\hbar}{r}$$

Putting in (i)

$$E = \frac{q\alpha \hbar^2}{2mr^2} = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad (iii)$$

for lowest energy state -

$$\frac{dE}{dr} = 0$$

$$-\frac{2\hbar^2}{2mr^3} + \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r^2} = 0 \quad (iv)$$

$$r = r_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0(\hbar)^2}{me^2}$$

on substituting $\epsilon_0, \hbar, m + e$ we
find -

$$r_0 = 0.53 \text{ Å}$$

This is popularly known as radius of
the Bohr's first orbit of H-atom.

$$(iii) \quad E = -\frac{me^4}{8\pi^2(4\pi\epsilon_0)^2} = \frac{-h^2}{8m\pi^2}$$

On substituting the values of m , ϵ_0 in the above we get

$$[E = -13.6 \text{ eV}]$$

This is the lowest energy state of Bohr atom and is named as ground state energy.

→ Zero point energy of Harmonic oscillator:-

Total Energy of Harmonic oscillator-

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}mw^2x^2 \quad (i)$$

$$\Delta E_{\text{hf}} = \frac{(\Delta p)^2}{2m} + \frac{1}{2}mw^2(\Delta x)^2 \quad (ii)$$

Using uncertainty principle -

$$\Delta p \cdot \Delta x \approx \hbar$$

$$\Delta p \approx \frac{\hbar}{\Delta x}$$

assuming $\Delta E \approx E$, $\Delta x \approx x$, $\Delta p \approx p$

for lowest energy,

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = 0$$

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2}{8m\pi^2} + \frac{1}{2}mw^2x^2 \quad (iii)$$

$$\frac{dE}{dx} = -\frac{2\pi^2}{2mx^3} + \frac{1}{2}mw^2x^2 = 0$$

$$x = \left[\frac{\hbar}{mw} \right]^{1/2}$$

Putting in (iii)

$$E_{min} = \frac{\hbar^2}{2mx^2} \times mw + \frac{1}{2}mw^2 \frac{\hbar}{mw}$$

$$E_{min} = \hbar\omega$$

$\omega_0 \rightarrow$ frequency in ground state

This is known as zero-point energy. Therefore, contrary to the classical prediction, the quantum mechanical oscillator exhibit a minimum non-zero value of energy as given below above. This result is entirely different with the well known classical result.

→ Non-existence of electron in Nucleus:-

Assume that electron can reside in the Nucleus.

$$\text{Nuclear diameter} \approx 10^{-14} \text{ m}$$

By uncertainty principle -

$$\Delta p \cdot \Delta x \approx \hbar$$

Assume that $\Delta p \approx p$, $\Delta x \approx x$
so,

$$p \approx \frac{\hbar}{x} = \frac{1.05 \times 10^{-34}}{10^{-14} \text{ m}} = 1.05 \times 10^{20} \text{ kg ms}^{-1}$$

An electron whose momentum is uncertain by this much order of magnitude must have energy many times of this value. Using relativistic momentum energy relation

$$E^2 = p^2 c^2 + m_0^2 c^4$$

$$E = \sqrt{p^2 c^2 + m_0^2 c^4}$$

$$E = \sqrt{(1.05 \times 10^{-20})^2 \cdot (3 \times 10^8)^2 + (9.1 \times 10^{-31})^2 (3 \times 10^8)^4}$$

neglecting $m_0^2 c^4$ for simplicity -

$$E = 1.05 \times 10^{-20} \times 3 \times 10^8$$

$$E = \frac{1.05 \times 10^{-20} \times 3 \times 10^8}{1.6 \times 10^{-19}} \text{ eV}$$

$$E \approx 20.6 \text{ MeV}$$

after assuming $m_0^2 c^4$

$$E > 20.6 \text{ MeV}$$

Experimentally using β -ray except $\approx 2-3$ MeV.
This means electron can't reside in nucleus

→ Finite width of the spectral lines:-

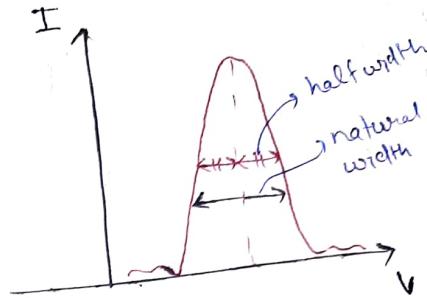
Using Energy-time uncertainty relation

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \approx \hbar$$

$$\hbar \cdot \Delta v \cdot \Delta t \approx \hbar$$

$$\Delta v = \frac{1}{\Delta t} = \frac{1}{10^8}$$

$$\Delta v \approx 10^8 \text{ Hz}$$



⇒ Spectral line can never be infinitely sharp.

* Bohr's Atomic Model and Uncertainty principle
from the first postulate of Bohr's orbit-

$$\Delta E = 0$$

By U.P -

$$\Delta E \cdot \Delta t \approx \hbar$$

$$\Delta t \approx \infty$$

But actually it is 10^{-8} .

Therefore Bohr's model is not consistent from the point of view of the Uncertainty principle.

* Wave function and its physical signification (4)

→ Basic postulates of Quantum mechanics - (wave mechanics):

When we associate a wave with a material particle this definitely indicate that certain physical quantity will be varying in space and time. For example - variation of pressure in space and time gives rise to the propagation of mechanical waves.

Similarly the variation of electric field vector and magnetic field vector in space and time leads the electromagnetic wave propagation. So, if the microscopic material particle exhibit as a wave (matter wave) it must have then some wave eqn. In which some physical quantity will definitely be there which will vary in space and time. That variable quantity correcting the matter wave is known as wave function (ψ). This ψ alone has no physical significance since it is linked with the probability of finding particle, and the probability can never be negative. It is either 0 or 1. But square of modulus $(\psi)^2$ will always be +ve and therefore it is known as probability density, as it is considered over the unit volume of space.

$(\psi)^2 \propto$ Prob. of finding particle in a given region at a given instant.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\Psi|^2 dv = 1 \rightarrow \text{prob. density of finding the particle in a given region at a given instant.}$$

In many situations the wave function is a complex quantity - i.e.

$$\Psi = a + ib, \quad \Psi^* = a - ib$$

$$\Psi \cdot \Psi^* = a^2 + b^2 = \text{a real quantity.}$$

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi(x,t) \Psi^*(x,t) dv = 1 \rightarrow \text{Wave function is said to be normalised.}$$

$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi(x,t) \Psi(x',t) dv = 0 \rightarrow \text{Absence of particle in all other regions in a given region at a given instant (wave functions is said to be orthogonal).}$

→ Basic requirements of Ψ :-

1. For values of (x, y, z) , Ψ should be single valued.
2. For all values of (x, y, z) , Ψ should be continuous.
3. For all values of (x, y, z) , Ψ should be finite.
4. For all values of (x, y, z) , $\frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial x}, \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial y}, \frac{\partial \Psi}{\partial z}$ (partial derivative) must exist and out.
5. If Ψ is not normalised, then it is to be multiplied by a constant 'A'.

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} A \Psi(x,t) \cdot A \Psi^*(x,t) dv = 1 .$$

$$A^2 \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi(x,t) \cdot \Psi^*(x,t) dv = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{A^2 = \frac{1}{\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi(x,t) \cdot \Psi^*(x,t) dv}}$$

* Schrodinger's wave eqn :-

Differential eqn of wave motion -

$$\frac{d^2 y}{dx^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{d^2 y}{dt^2}$$

$$y = A e^{-i\omega(t-x/v)}$$

Similarly -

$$\Psi^2 \cdot \boxed{\frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial t^2}} \quad \dots \quad (1)$$

$$\Rightarrow \Psi(x,t) = A e^{-i\omega(t-x/v)}$$

$$\Rightarrow \Psi(x,t) = A e^{-2\pi i(\nu t - x/v)}$$

$$\boxed{\Psi(x,t) = A e^{-2\pi i(\nu t - x/\lambda)}} \quad \dots \quad (11)$$

$$\text{Using } \lambda = \frac{\hbar p}{p} = \frac{2\pi \hbar}{2\pi p} = \frac{2\pi \hbar}{p}$$

$$E = \hbar \nu = \frac{2\pi \hbar}{\lambda} \nu = 2\pi \hbar \nu \Rightarrow$$

$$\Rightarrow \nu = E/2\pi \hbar$$

} de-Broglie
concept

$$\Psi(x,t) = A e^{-\frac{i}{\hbar}(Et - Px)}$$

(3)

Total energy of the particle -

$$E = \frac{p^2}{2m} + V \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

on operating this by $\Psi(x,t)$ -

$$E \Psi(x,t) = \frac{p^2}{2m} \Psi(x,t) + V \Psi(x,t)$$

on differentiating partially eq (3) w.r.t t -

$$\frac{\partial \Psi(x,t)}{\partial t} = -\frac{iE}{\hbar} \Psi(x,t)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{E} \Psi(x,t) = \boxed{-\frac{\hbar}{i} \frac{\partial \Psi(x,t)}{\partial t}}$$