

Name → Sarthak Matreja  
Sch. No. → 191114228  
Roll. No. → 19F036

Date :

Page:

### Section - F

## Physics Assignment

Ans 1 We know that the interference colours are observed only in thin films but not in the thick plate since we know that the interference of waves occurs only when both the conditions of temporal and spatial coherence.

We have assumed that a monochromatic wave of infinite length is incident on film. In Reality, the incident light consists of wave trains of finite length and coherence extends over the length of each wave train only. Interference can occur only when parts of same group of wave trains overlap. Superposition of different wave trains cannot produce interference because they will be incoherent and do not maintain any constant phase relationship with each other.

Hence it implies that interference occurs only when the optical path difference  $\Delta l$  is less than the coherence length.

$$2\pi t \cos \theta - \lambda/2 \ll l_{\text{coh}}$$
$$2\pi t \cos \theta - \lambda/2 \ll \frac{\lambda^2}{\Delta \lambda}$$

Since,  $l_{\text{coh}} = \frac{\lambda^2}{\Delta \lambda}$

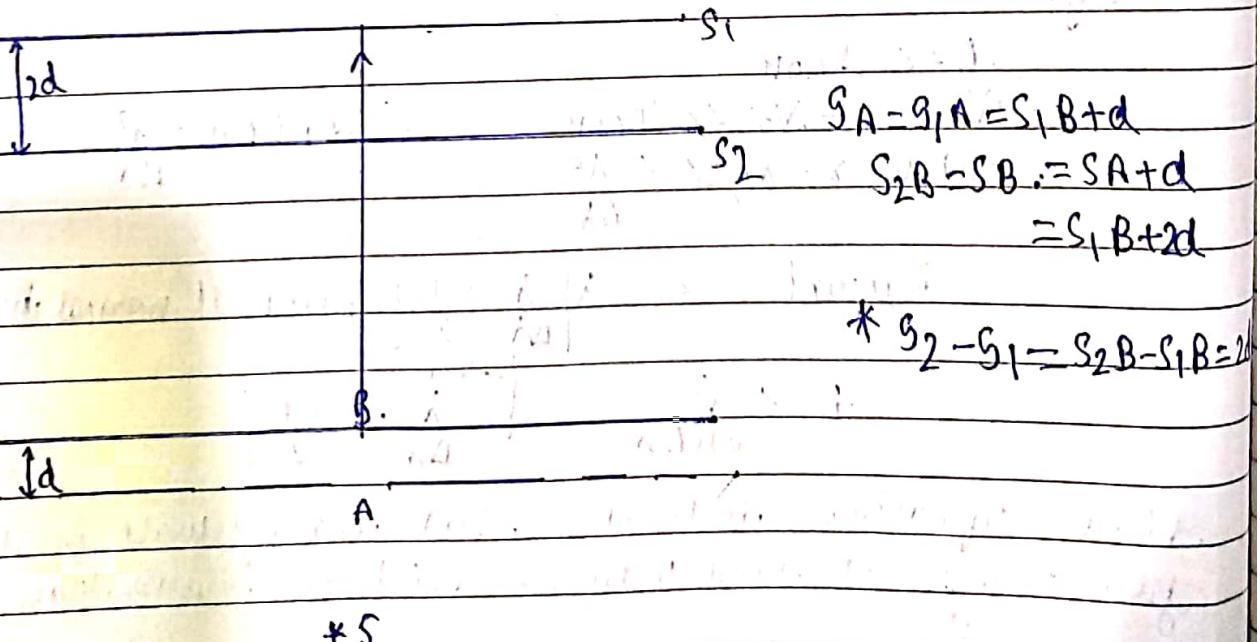
$$2\pi t \cos \theta \ll \lambda \left[ \frac{\lambda}{\Delta \lambda} + \frac{1}{2} \right], (\text{as } r=1 \text{ (normal incidence)})$$

$$t \ll \frac{\lambda^2}{2\Delta \lambda} \quad \left[ \text{since, } \frac{\lambda}{\Delta \lambda} \gg \frac{1}{2} \right]$$

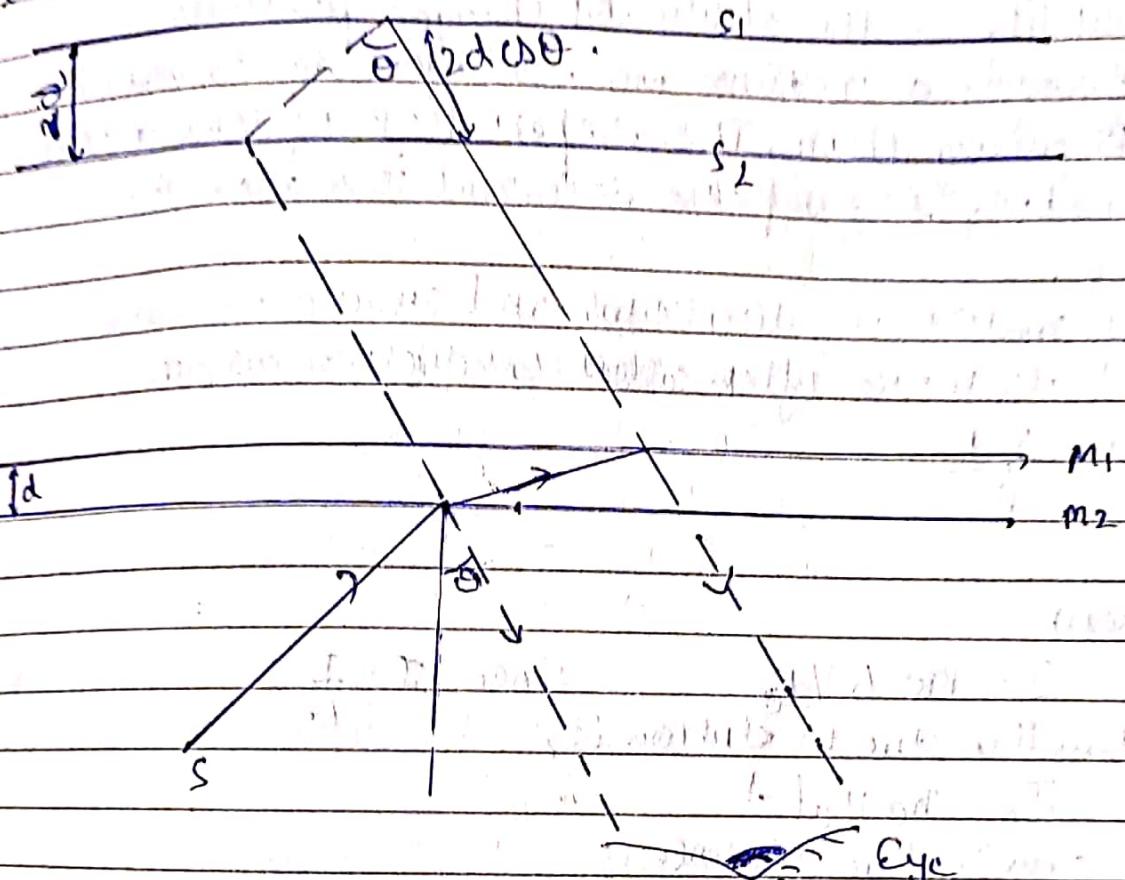
Above equation indicates that interference in thin film will be observed only if thickness  $t$ 's less than  $\left[ \frac{\lambda^2}{2\Delta \lambda} \right]$

Ans 2 Fringes of equal thickness  $\rightarrow$  Newton rings are formed as result of interference between light waves reflected from the top and bottom surfaces of a thin air film enclosed between a plane convex lens and a plane glass plate. The occurrence of alternate bright and dark rings depends on optical path difference arising between the reflected rays. If the light falls normally on the air film the optical path difference between the waves reflected from two surfaces of the film is  $\Delta = at - \lambda/2$ . It is seen that the path difference between the reflected rays arises due to variation in thickness 't' of air film. Reflected light will be of minimum intensity for those thicknesses for which the path difference is  $m\lambda$  and maximum intensity for those thicknesses for which the path difference is  $(2m+1)\lambda/2$ . Thus, each maxima and minima is a locus of constant film thickness.

Fringes of equal inclination: In the Michelson Interferometer experiment, if one looks towards  $M_1$  through T, one observes a virtual image of  $M_2$  in  $C_1$ , parallel to  $M_1$ , say  $M_2'$  which act as two coherent sources formed by thin film of thickness



$M_1 M_2' = c_1 M_1 - c_1 M_2' = c_1 M_2 = (x_1 - x_2)$ , If two arms are equal in length.  $(M_2' M_1) = (x_1 - x_2) = d$ . The virtual images are separate by a distance,  $d$ .



$$M_1 M_2' = (x_1 - x_2)$$

If the observer looks into the system at angle  $\theta$ , the path difference between the two beam will be  $2dc\cos\theta$ . The light that comes from  $M_2$  and goes to eye undergoes rare to dense reflection and a phase change occurs. Hence total path difference is  $D = 2dc\cos\theta + \lambda/2$ .

for a given separation  $d$ , a given wavelength  $\lambda$  and order  $m$  angle  $\theta$  is constant. This means fringes are of circular shape and they are called fringes of equal inclination.

Ans 3

Mobility: Mobility is the ability of charged particles to move through a medium in response to an electric field that is pulling them. The separation of ions according to their mobility in gas phase is called ion mobility spectrometry.

The drift motion is directional and causes drift current flow, which is more often called conduction current.

$$\mu = \frac{V_d}{E}$$

Since we know

$$I = ne A V_d e \quad \text{Since } I = \frac{A}{A} I$$

current density due to electron is,

$$J_e = ne \mu_e E$$

current density due to hole is

$$J_h = p e \mu_h E$$

Comparing above expression with Ohm's law,  $I = \sigma E$

$$\sigma_e = ne \mu_e$$

$$\sigma_h = p e \mu_h$$

Total current in the semiconductor is due to both holes and electron hence  $I = I_e + I_h$

$$I = \frac{I_e}{A} + \frac{I_h}{A}$$

$$I = J_e + J_h$$

$$= (n e \mu_e + p e \mu_h) E$$

$$\sigma = (n e \mu_e + p e \mu_h)$$

ds for semiconductor which is intrinsic  $n = p = n_i$   
 $G = n_i e (N_e + N_h)$ .

Carrier concentration: It is number of electrons in the conduction band per unit volume ( $n$ ) and number of holes in valence band per unit volume ( $p$ ) of material.

Calculation:  $dn = Z(E) f(E) dE$

On integrating

$$n = \int_{E_C}^{\infty} Z(E) f(E) dE$$

$$\text{Since } Z(E) dE = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_e^*)^{3/2} E^{1/2} dE \quad (\text{for } E > E_C - i)$$

$$f(E) = \frac{1}{1 + \exp[(E - E_F)/kT]}$$

Using eq (i) and (ii)

$$n = \frac{4\pi}{h^3} (2m_e^*)^{3/2} \frac{e}{E_C} \int_{E_C}^{\infty} (E - E_C)^{1/2} e^{-(E - E_C)/kT} dE$$

$$\text{On solving } n = 2 \left[ \frac{2\pi m_e^* kT}{h^2} \right]^{3/2} e^{-(E_C - E_F)/kT}$$

$\boxed{N_C}$

$$n = N_C e^{-(E_C - E_F)/kT}$$

$$\text{Similarly for holes } p = N_V e^{-(E_F - E_V)/kT}$$

for intrinsic semiconductor

$$n_i^2 = np$$

$$n_i^2 = (N_c N_V) \cdot (e^{(E_C - E_V)/kT})$$

$$n_i^2 = \sqrt{(N_c N_V)} \cdot e^{(E_C - E_V)/kT}$$

Substituting values of  $N_c$  and  $N_V$   $(E_C - E_V) = Eg$

$$n_i^2 = 2 \left[ \frac{2\pi kT}{h^2} \right]^{3/2} (m_e^* m_h^*)^{3/4} e^{-Eg/2kT}$$

for extrinsic semiconductor:

1) In n type semiconductor. (In normal region  $n_n = n_i$ )

(In ionized region)  $n = N_D - N_{D^0}$

$$n = \frac{N_D}{1 + e^{-(E_D - E_F)/kT}}$$

$$n = N_D e^{-(E_D - E_F)/kT}$$

$$n = N_c e^{-(E_C - E_F)/kT}$$

$$\text{Hence } E_F = E_D + E_C + \left(\frac{kT}{2}\right) \ln \left( \frac{N_D}{2(2\pi m^* k T)^{3/2}} \right)$$

at  $T=0K$

$$E_F = \frac{E_D + E_C}{2}$$

Hence on solving

$$n = (2N_D)^{1/2} \left[ \frac{2\pi m^* k T}{h^2} \right]^{3/4} e^{-\frac{(E_C - E_F)}{2kT}}$$

Similarly in p-type (in normal region)  $p_p = n_e$   
 [In ionized region]  $E_F = E_V + E_A$

$$p = (2N_A)^{1/2} \left[ \frac{2\pi m k T}{h^2} \right]^{3/4} \exp \left[ \frac{(E_V - E_A)}{kT} \right]$$

Ques 4

Fermi level in intrinsic semiconductor:

In a pure semiconductor, the electrons in the conduction band cluster very close to the bottom edge of a band, and we assume that electrons are located right at bottom edge of the conduction band.

Electron concentration in conduction band is

$$n = N_c e^{-(E_C - E_F)/kT}$$

hole concentration in valence band is

$$p = N_V e^{-(E_F - E_V)/kT}$$

In intrinsic semiconductor holes and electrons are equal ( $n = p$ )

$$N_c e^{-(E_C - E_F)/kT} = N_V e^{-(E_F - E_V)/kT}$$

Taking logarithm on both sides, we get

$$-\frac{(E_C - E_F)}{kT} = \ln \frac{N_V}{N_c} - \frac{(E_F - E_V)}{kT}$$

$$E_F - E_C = \frac{kT \ln N_V}{N_c} - E_F + E_V$$

$$E_F = \frac{E_C + E_V}{2} + \frac{1}{2} \frac{kT \ln N_V}{N_c}$$

$$\text{But } N_c = 2 \left[ \frac{2\pi m_e^* kT}{n^2} \right]^{3/2} N_V = 2 \left[ \frac{2\pi m_h^* kT}{h^2} \right]^{3/2}$$

$$\text{Hence } \ln \left( \frac{N_V}{N_c} \right) = \frac{3}{2} \ln \left( \frac{m_h^*}{m_e^*} \right)$$

We can also write above equation as

$$E_F = E_C + E_V - \frac{3}{4} kT \ln \left( \frac{m_e^*}{m_h^*} \right)$$

If effective mass of a free electron is assumed to be equal to effective mass of a hole i.e.

$$m_h^* = m_e^*$$

$$\ln \left( \frac{m_h^*}{m_e^*} \right) = 0$$

$$E_F = E_C + E_V$$

$$E_F = \frac{E_g + E_V}{2}$$

at top of valence band  $E_V$  is zero and  $E_V = 0$

$$E_F = \frac{E_g}{2}$$

Ans The Fermi level is energy separating occupied state (or levels) of the valence band from empty states (levels) of conduction band at the absolute temperature  $T=0$ .

The Fermi level is an energy level characterized by statistics which controls occupation of any energy state by a given particle : an electron or a hole in semiconductor.

Electrons and holes are both fermion particles (with half values of spins) and both of them obey the Fermi-Dirac statistics which becomes asymptotically the Boltzmann statistics in dilute systems (with few electrons and/or holes) or nondegenerate systems.

The position of the Fermi level with respect to valence and/or conduction bands depends on various parameters as the temperature, the effective masses of electrons and holes, number of free electrons and holes.

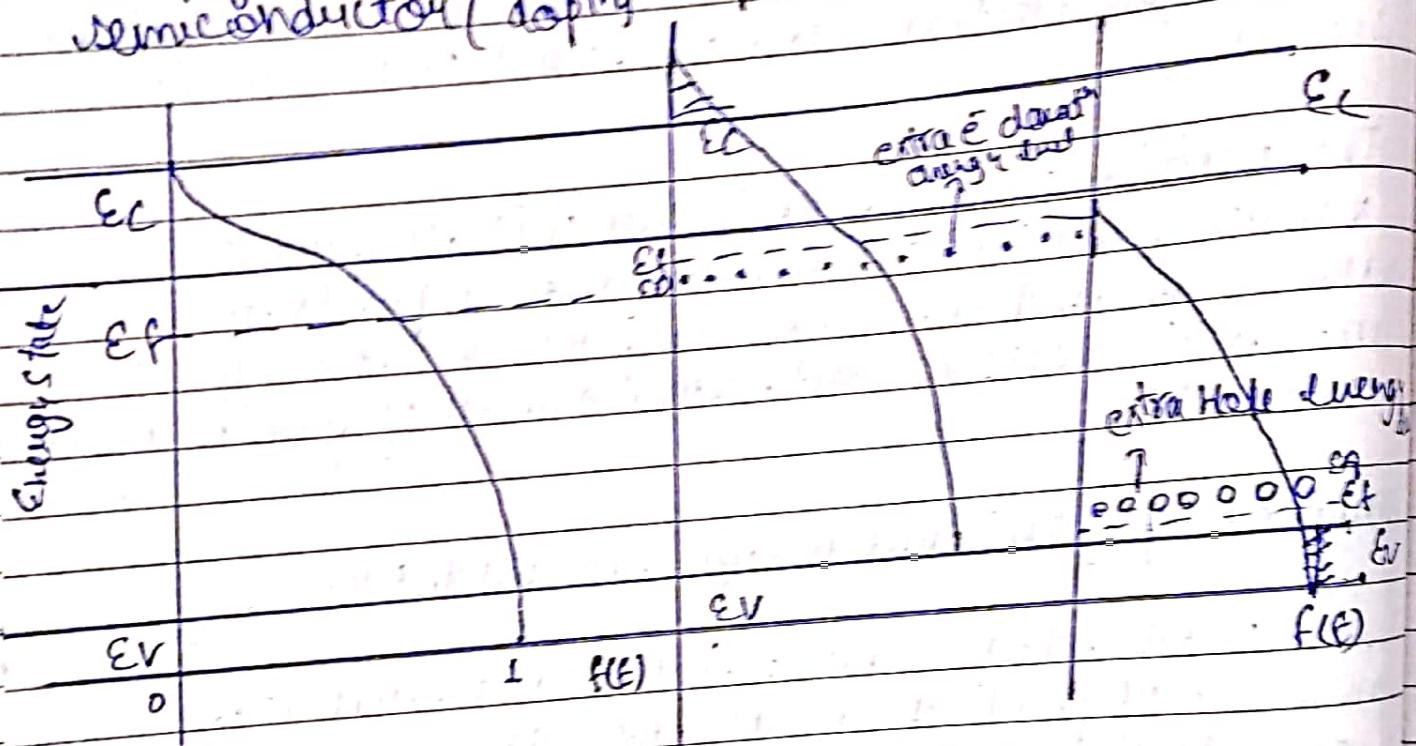
Variation of Fermi level obeys two conditions.

- the "mass action law" which states that the number of particles of each type as well as the overall number of particles must conserve whatever is their distribution on the available energy levels
- The neutrality equation which states that the electrical neutrality has to be fulfilled i.e. the number of negative charges must be counterbalanced exactly by the same number of positive charges

In an extrinsic semiconductor (with additional doping) in order to conserve number of particles (mass action) and to fulfill the overall electrical charge neutrality (neutrality equation), the Fermi level has to move away from midgap position. It has to shift towards conduction band in an n-type semiconductor (extrinsic semiconductor with

add donor doping impurities which are donors.

It shifts towards valence band in a p type semiconductor (doping impurities which are acceptors)



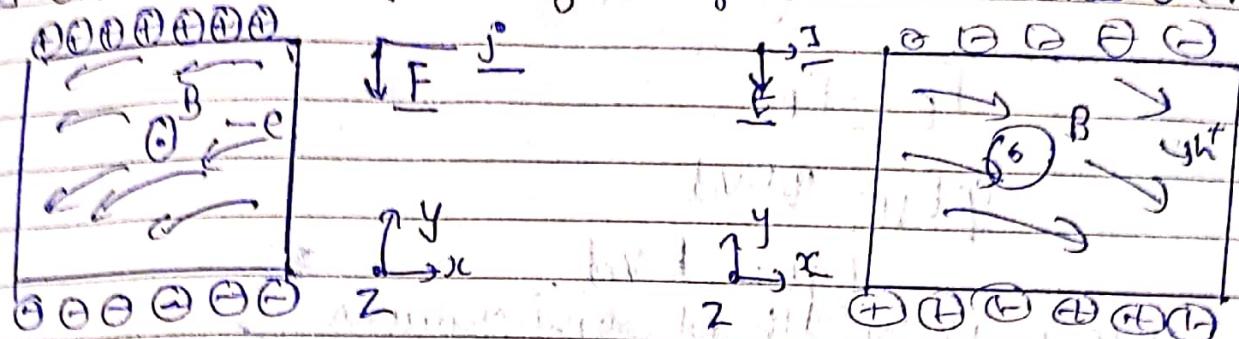
1) Intrinsic  
Semiconductor

2) n type derived

Ans

A static magnetic field has no effect on charges unless they are in motion. When the charge flow, a magnetic field directed perpendicular to direction of flow produces a mutually perpendicular force on charges. When this happens electrons and holes will be separated by opposite forces. This means that the current of carriers will be deflected from a straight line in y direction. In other words, there is a component of velocity in y direction and surface perpendicular

so the y direction will become charged as soon as the current for magnetic field is switched on.



They will in turn produce an electric field ( $E_H$ ) which depends on the cross product of magnetic field intensity, H and current density, J

$$E_H = R J X H$$

where R is called as Hall coefficient

Now, let us consider a bar of semiconductor, having dimension x, y and z let J is directed along x and H along z then  $E_H$  will be along y. Then we could write

$$R = \frac{V_H / y}{J H}, \quad R = \frac{V_H \times z}{J_x \times H}$$

where  $V_H$  is called Hall voltage applying between two surfaces perpendicular to y.

Another way:

$$I = p e A v d$$

Since current density  $J_x = \frac{I}{A} = p e V d$

If equilibrium is attained that means forces due to electric and magnetic field balance

$$F_F = F_B$$

$$\text{if } E_H = B V_d$$

$$E_H = B V_d$$

Hence  $w$  is width of semiconductor

$$E_H = \frac{V_H}{w}$$

$$\frac{V_H}{w} = B V_d$$

$$\text{we have } V_d = \frac{I x}{P e}$$

$$\frac{V_H}{w} = \frac{B I x}{P e}$$

$$V_H = \frac{w B I}{P e A}, \text{ where } d \text{ is thickness}$$

$$V_H = \frac{B I}{P e t}, \text{ where } t \text{ is thickness of plate A}$$

Hall coefficient is defined as Hall field per unit current density per unit magnetic induc<sup>n</sup>

$$R_H = \frac{V_H}{w I x B}$$

$$R_H = \frac{1}{P e}$$

$$\text{Hall Voltage, } V_H = R_H B I$$

$$R_H = \frac{V_H}{B I}$$

Ans 7 Physical significance of wave function:

We cannot specify in similar way what is actually varying in de Broglie waves. Since micro particles exhibit wave properties, it's assumed that a quantity  $\psi$  represent a de Broglie wave. This quantity  $\psi$  is called wave function.

i) Born's Interpretation.

The wave function  $\psi$  itself has no physical significance but the square of absolute magnitude  $|\psi|$  has significance when evaluated at a particular point and at particular time  $|\psi|^2$  gives the probability of finding the particle there at that time.

The wave function  $\psi(x,t)$  is quantity such that product

$$P(x,t) = \psi^*(x,t)|\psi(x,t)|$$

Is the probability per unit length of finding the particle at the position  $x$  at time  $t$ .

$P(x,t)$  is probability density and  $|\psi(x,t)|^2$  is complex conjugate of  $\psi(x,t)$ .

Hence the probability of finding the particle is larger whenever  $\psi$  is large and vice versa.

2) Normalization condition

The probability per unit length of finding the particle at position  $x$  and time  $t$  is

$$P = |\psi(x,t)|^2$$

So, probability of finding particle in length  $dx$  is

$$P(dx) = |\psi^*(x, t) \psi(x, t)| dx$$

Total probability of finding particle

$$\int P(dx) = \int |\psi^*(x, t) \psi(x, t)| dx$$

If particle exist it may be somewhere on  $x$  axis, so total probability must be unity.

$$\int |\psi^*(x, t) \psi(x, t)| dx = 1$$

This is called normalization condition.

Probability

It can also be written as

$$P = \int |\psi(x, y, z)|^2 dV$$

and Hence

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

$$|C|^2 \cdot \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi(x, y, z, t)|^2 dx dy dz$$

Here  $C$  is normalization constant.

Time independent Schrödinger wave:

In the stationary problems Schrödinger equation can be simplified by separating out time and position dependent parts.

Accordingly we can write the wave function as product of  $x$ ,  $\psi(x)$  and a function of  $t$ ,  $\phi(t)$ .

Therefore

$$\psi(x,t) = \psi(x) \phi(t)$$

Equation (20.56) may be written as

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (\psi, \phi) + V \psi \phi = i \hbar \frac{d}{dt} (\psi, \phi)$$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\phi}{\psi} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2} (\psi, \phi) + V \psi \phi = i \hbar \frac{d}{dt} (\psi, \phi)$$

Dividing above equat<sup>n</sup> with  $\psi \phi$

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{\psi} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + V = i \hbar \frac{1}{\phi} \frac{d \phi}{dt}$$

If we assume potential energy  $V$  is a function of  $x$  only, the entire left hand side of eq (20.59) is a function of  $x$  only while the right hand side is function of  $t$  only. Since  $x$  and  $t$  are independent variables, both the function of  $x$  and  $t$  must be a constant. The constant that each side must equal is called separation constant  $E$ . Thus

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{1}{\psi} \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} + V = E$$

and

$$i\hbar l \frac{d\psi}{dt} = E \psi$$

Hence

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + V\psi = E\psi \quad \text{Eq(i)}$$

This equation is time independent schrodinger wave equation.

Eq(ii) can be written as

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m} \nabla^2 \psi + V\psi = 0$$

The free particle  $\Rightarrow$  when it is moving without being subjected to any external force in region of space. As the particle is moving freely with zero particle potential energy, its total energy will be kinetic energy which is given by

$$E = \frac{p_x^2}{2m}$$

where  $p_x$  is momentum along  $x$  direction.

thus in equation  $\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{\hbar^2} E \psi = 0$

it rewrites as

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + k^2 \psi = 0$$

$$k^2 = \frac{8\pi^2 m E}{\hbar^2}$$

Ans 8

## Postulates of quantum mechanics

### Postulate - I

- The state of a quantum mechanical system is described or represented by a wave function  $\psi(x, t)$ . All constant multiples of a given  $\psi$  describe one and same state.
- The state of system can be built up by applying principle of superposition.

Thus,

$$\Psi = \sum_n C_n \Psi_n$$

Where:  $C_n$  are complex numbers

### Postulate - II

Each dynamical variable  $A(x, p)$  is represented by a linear operator in quantum mechanics. Dynamical variables in general do not commute with each other.

### Postulate - III

If large number of measurements of a dynamical variable  $A$  are made on a system which is prepared to be in one and same state before each measurement results of measurements are distributed over an average value known as experimental value  $\langle A \rangle$ . The expectation value of dynamic variable is

$$\langle A \rangle = \int \psi^* A \psi d\tau$$

$$\int \psi \psi^* d\tau$$

### Postulate - IV

Only possible result of measurement of

dynamical variable  $A$  are eigenvalue of operator  $\hat{A}$  satisfying the eigen value equation, ( $\hat{A}\psi_n = a_n \psi_n$ ) where  $\psi_n$  is eigenfunction of operator  $\hat{A}$  belonging to eigen value  $a_n$ . Eigen value equation satisfied by hamiltonian operator associated with the hamiltonian function  $H$  can be written as

$$\hat{H} \psi_n = E_n \psi_n \text{ where } E_n \text{ is energy of system.}$$

**Tunnel effect:** According to classical idea, a particle striking a hard wall has no chance of leaking through it. But the behavior of a quantum particle is different owing to wave nature associated with it. De Broglie wave also has a possibility of getting partly reflected from boundary of potential well and partly penetrating through barrier. The penetration of a barrier by quantum particle is called tunnelling.

### Application of tunnelling

→  $\alpha$  decay → The quantum possibility of penetrating potential barrier is the basis of explanation of  $\alpha$  decay of radioactive nuclei. In  $\alpha$  decay, an unstable nucleus disintegrates into a lighter nucleus and an  $\alpha$  particle. Ex → uranium nucleus  $^{238}\text{U}$  undergoes  $\alpha$  decay.

In 1928, George Gamow explained  $\alpha$  decay of unstable nuclei on basis of quantum tunneling. The forces in nucleus set up potential barrier of height of order  $30\text{ MeV}$  against  $\alpha$  particle emitted classically, it would be trapped but according to quantum mechanics  $\alpha$  particle tunnels through potential barrier.

Potential  
energy



→  $\alpha$  particle having less energy than height of barrier tunnels through barrier.

Ausg Harmonic oscillator: Atoms in solids execute harmonic vibrations about their equilibrium position and hence can be treated as simple harmonic oscillators. As atom displaces through a distance  $x$  from equilibrium position ( $x=0$ ) a restoring force  $F = -kx$  (appears) , Potential energy is given by  $V = \frac{1}{2} kx^2$ . The Schrödinger equation for this case may be written as

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{8\pi^2m}{h^2} \left( E - \frac{1}{2}kx^2 \right) \psi = 0$$

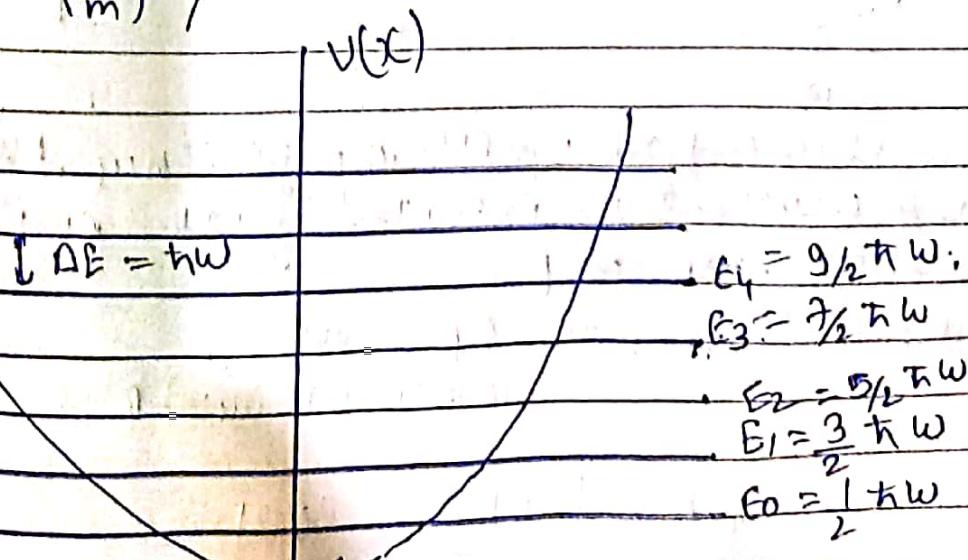
This equation has a solution only at following values of energy  $E_n = \left( n + \frac{1}{2} \right) \hbar \omega$  where  $n = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Thus energy levels of harmonic oscillators are quantized. Lowest energy is  $E_0 = \frac{1}{2} \hbar \omega$

This level is ground state.  $E_0$  is known as zero point energy as it does not vanish even at absolute zero temperature.

The energy levels of harmonic oscillator are shown in figure. Energy levels are equidistant and separated by energy value  $\Delta E = \hbar \omega$

(Classically  $\Rightarrow$  it undergoes sinusoidal oscillation of amplitude  $A = \sqrt{2E}$  and frequency  $f = (\frac{k}{m})^{1/2}/2\pi$ . Kinetic and potential are equal  $\frac{k}{2}x^2$ )



Ans 10. Alpha ( $\alpha$ ): It is a large signal current gain in common base configuration. It is ratio of collector current (output current) to emitter current (input current)

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{Collector current}}{\text{Emitter current}} = \frac{I_C}{I_E}$$

$\alpha$  is current gain in CB amplifier and it indicates that the amount of emitter current reaching to collector.  $\alpha$ 's value is unity ideally and practically less than unity.

Beta ( $\beta$ ):  $\beta$  is current gain factor in common emitter configuration. It is relation of collector current (output current) to base current (input current)

$$\beta = \frac{I_C}{I_B}$$

( $\beta$  is greater than 100 normally)

Gamma ( $\gamma$ ):  $\gamma$  is current gain in common collector configuration and it is ratio of emitter current (output current) to base current (input current)

$$\gamma = \frac{I_C}{I_B}$$

$\gamma$  is also called emitter efficiency that shows much current is injected from emitter to base.  $\gamma$  is high than  $\alpha, \beta$ .

Since,  $I_C = I_C + I_B$   $\Rightarrow$  Dividing by  $I_B$

$$[\gamma = \beta + 1] - \text{Eq(2)}$$

Dividing eq(1) by  $I_E$

$$1 = \alpha + 1$$

$$\left[ 1 - \frac{1}{\alpha} = 1 \right] \quad \text{--- Eq(3)}$$

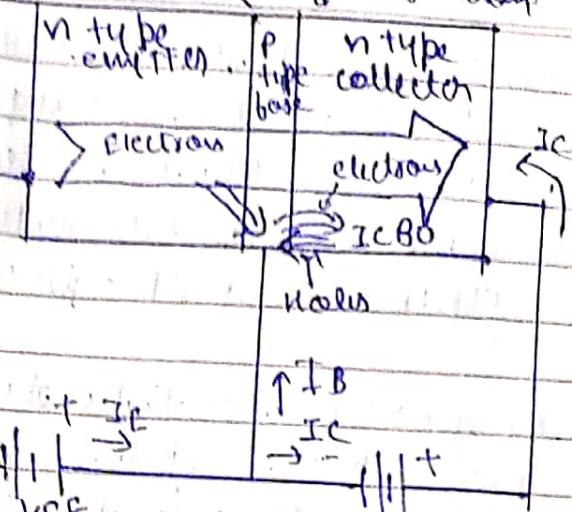
from eq(2) and eq(3)

$$\left[ \alpha = \frac{\beta}{\beta+1} \right]$$

mitter base  
junction

Date:

collect (N-type)  
p junction



Principal particle flows when npn in active region or normal mode

Transistor action  $\Rightarrow$  Under forward bias, an intense injection of electron is not base region takes place and as a result the electron concentration in base region near to EB-junction steeply rises to a value many times higher than equilibrium value because of reverse bias at CB-junction, the electron concentration in the base region nearer to CB-junction is practically zero. Therefore a large concentration in base region is established pre. Now the electrons in base region has two option:

- i) One is that they may recombine with the holes in base causing huge base current. But due to light doping of base region, sufficient number of holes is not available recombination cannot take place in a large way. It is necessary that recombination are precluded in base region, base current is very small.
- ii) As electron concentration is very high on emitter side and zero on collector side of base region, the possibility is that electrons swiftly diffuse towards the collector-base junction under the influence of concentration gradient across the base. The base region is narrow originally and is made further narrower due to the establishment of depletion layers into the base and due to action of bias applied. Owing to this electrons quickly reach the CB-junction. Once they arrive in the vicinity of the junction they will be acted upon by strong

Date: \_\_\_\_\_ Page: \_\_\_\_\_

electric field due to reverse bias and get swept into a collector region. Consequently, a great majority of electrons emitted by emitter flow into the collector. It causes a large reverse current  $I_c$  which is nearly equal to  $I_B$  to flow across CB-junction.

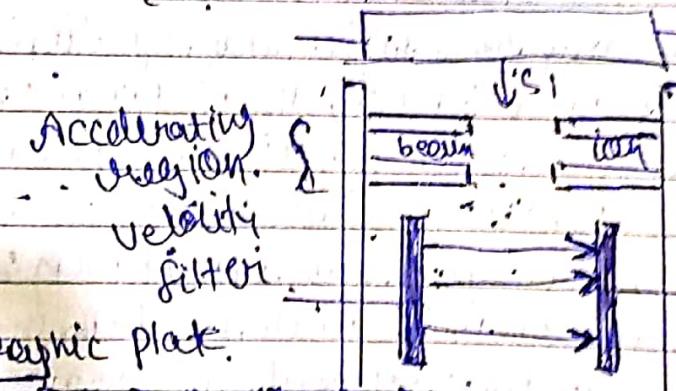
A small base current  $I_B$  is caused by few electrons that undergo recombination in the base. The base junction is forward biased and therefore it has a low resistance. The collector-base junction is reverse biased and has a high resistance. Almost the same current flows through the two junctions. Thus the current is transferred from a low resistance to high resistance. Hence it is called Transistor (transistor).

Cross Discharge tube

Ques. II

Acceleration  
velocity  
filter.

Photographic plate.



Magnetic field

Vacuum chamber

Mass spectrum  
germanium

**Working:**

The element under study is taken in form of gas and introduced into a discharge tube. The gas is ionized under the action of applied voltage and positive ions, which are formed in the discharge tube, are accelerated and conducted into the spectrograph through slits  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ . Most of the positive ions formed will carry a charge of  $+1$  because it is much more difficult to remove further electrons from an already positive ion. The ion beam, thus consisting of ions carrying a positive charge of  $+1$ , passes a wide range of velocities  $v \pm \Delta v$ . It is then passed through the velocity selector. It consists of combination of uniform electric and magnetic fields in crossed configuration. The electric field  $E$  is produced in horizontal direction by a set of charged parallel plates  $P_1$  and uniform magnetic field  $B$  is applied normal to  $E$  in same region. Both  $E$  and  $B$  act normal to ion path. Electric field produces a dispersion of ions with respect to velocity ( $= E/B$ ). do not experience any net force and they continue to travel along the initial direction. Ions travelling with velocities differing from  $v$  are deflected sideways and are absorbed by metal plates. Therefore, a strictly mono velocity ion stream, having a velocity  $v = E/B$ , issues out of velocity selector. This beam of ribbon shape, then passes through the slit  $S_3$  and enters analyzing chamber. The uniform magnetic field  $B$  acting on chamber plays the role of momentum selector. Ions of different masses are deflected along circular paths of different radii depending on their momentum and mass.

Path of different nuclei depending on their momentum and mass after completion of semicircular movement. They come vertical lines on plate, which resemble spectral lines formed by light. Hence it is called as mass spectrum. The number of lines on the plate correspond to number of isotopes. Considering isotope with a mass  $m_1$ ,  $R = \frac{mv}{qB}$  but as  $v = E$  then  $R = \frac{mE}{qB^2}$

distance of line is  $x$

$$\frac{B}{B} \uparrow$$

$$\therefore DC = 2R$$

$$m = \frac{qB^2x}{2E}, m = \text{ke.}$$

Max

In proportion between mass or its relative, mass can be obtained from  $E, h, c$  by proper calibration. Relative masses of two isotopes involve only measurement of  $a$ . If  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  are masses of two isotopes,  $r_1$  and  $r_2$  are distance from  $S_1$

$$\text{line separation } (D) = r_2 - r_1 = \frac{2E}{qB^2} (m_2 - m_1)$$

### Ans 12

Einstein coefficients: (1) The probability that an absorption transition occurs is given by  $P_{12} = B_{12} p(v)$  where  $B_{12}$  is the constant of proportionality known as Einstein coefficient for induced absorption.  $p(v)$  is constant characteristic of the atom and represent the properties of energy states  $E_{1,2}$  (2) The probability that a spontaneous transition occurs is given by  $(P_{21})_{\text{spontaneous}} = A_{21}$

where  $A_{21}$  is a constant known as the Einstein coefficient for spontaneous emission.  $A_{21}$  is a constant characteristic of the atom and is known as radioactive state measured in unit of  $s^{-1}$  is the lifetime of upper state against decay to lower  $l_{21}$  state.

3) The probability that a stimulated transition occurs is given by  $(P_{21})_{\text{stimulated}} = B_{21} p(v)$

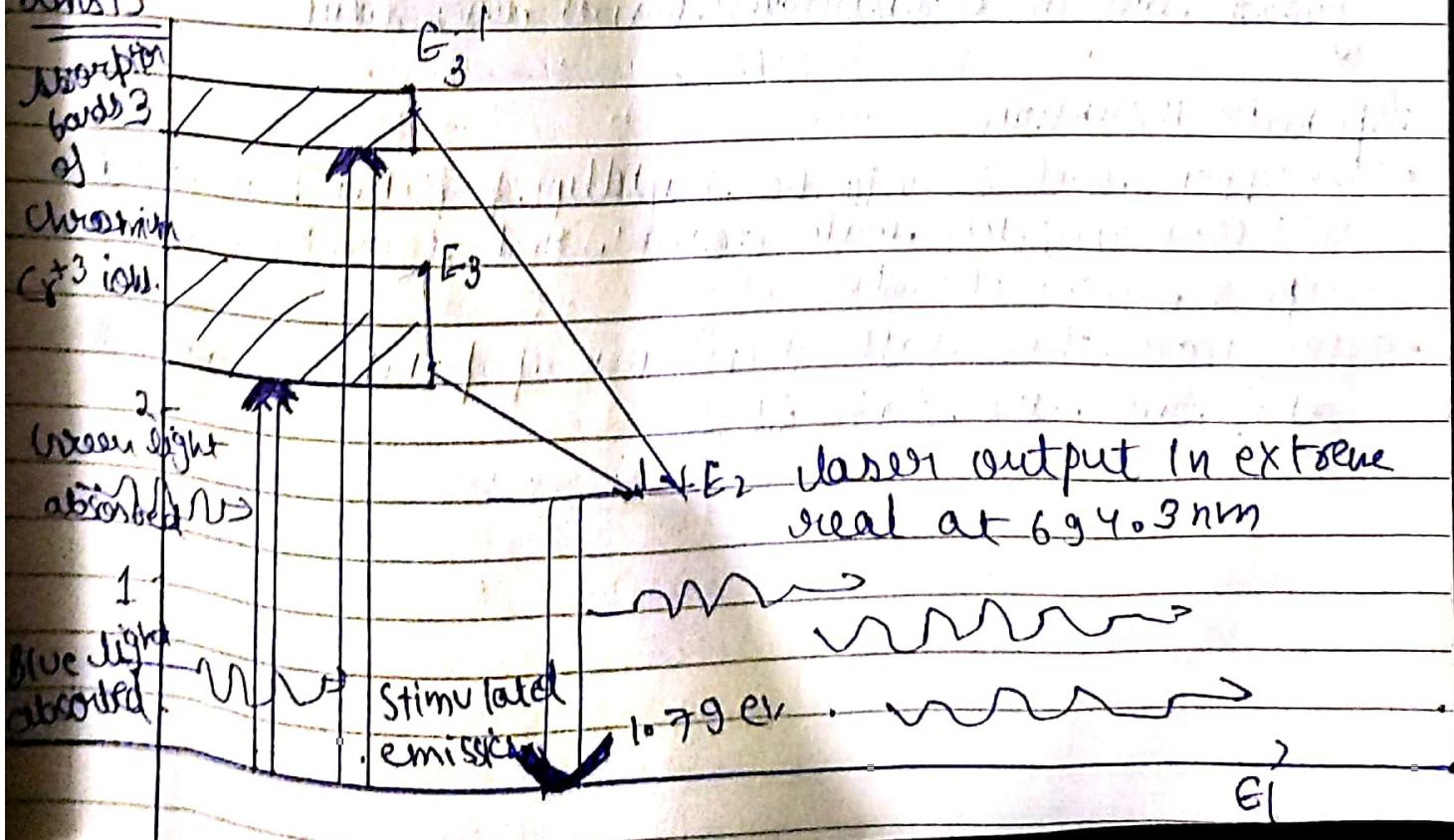
where  $B_{21}$  is constant of proportionality known as Einstein coefficient for stimulated emission. It is constant characteristic of atom and represents properties of energy states  $S_1$  and  $S_2$ .

$$\text{Relation: } B_{12} = B_{21} = C_3 \quad \text{and} \quad A_{21} = 8\pi h v^3 / 3$$

**Significance:** 1) The relation shows that the coefficient for both absorption and stimulated emission are equal. This equality implies that when an atom with two energy levels is placed in radiation field, the probability for an upward (absorption) transition is equal to probability for a downward transition.

2) The relation shows that the ratio of coefficient of spontaneous versus stimulated emission is proportional to third power of frequency of radiation. This is why it is difficult to achieve laser action in high frequency ranges such as X rays.

Ans 13



Working: The energy levels of  $\text{Cr}^{+3}$  ions in crystal lattice. The energy level structure of  $\text{Cr}^{+3}$  ions is characterized by two absorption bands and a metastable state.

### The pumping mechanism

- When the xenon flash lamp is switched on, the discharge generates an intense burst of white light lasting for a few milliseconds.
- The  $\text{Cr}^{+3}$  ions are excited to energy bands  $E_2$  and  $E_3^+$  by green and blue components of white light.
- The  $\text{Cr}^{+3}$  ions undergo non-radiative transitions from the energy level to level  $E_2$ .  $E_2$  is metastable state.
- The metastable state  $E_2$  has a lifetime of approximately 100 times more than the lifetime of  $E_2$  and  $E_3^+$  level. Therefore  $\text{Cr}^{+3}$  ions accumulate at  $E_2$  level.
- The metastable level  $E_2$  is upper laser level while  $E_1$  is ground level and constitutes lower laser level.

### Population inversion

- The upper level  $E_2$  will be rapidly populated as excited  $\text{Cr}^{+3}$  ions quickly make downward transition from upper energy bands.
- When more than half of  $\text{Cr}^{+3}$  ion population accumulates at  $E_2$  level, the state of

Lasing

- A chance photon is produced when  $Cr^{+3}$  ion make transition from  $E_2$  to  $E_1$  level
- This photon stimulates another excited ion to make a downward transition.
- This photon and initial photon trigger many excited ions to emit photons.
- Red photons of wavelength  $6943\text{Å}$  travelling along axis of ruby rod are repeatedly reflected at end mirrors and light amplification occurs.
- On attaining sufficient energy, beam emerges out vertically through mirror.
- The laser becomes active once again when population state is reestablished and output of laser is not a continuous wave but occurs in form of pulses of microsecond duration.

#### Ans 4 Spontaneous emission

- Random and probabilistic process
- Not amenable for control from outside
- Photons are emitted haphazardly. Instead of emission, direction, polarization state are random
- Photons are emitted uniformly in all direction.
- Photons of slightly different frequencies are generated
- Photons do not have any correlation in phases. (Incoherent)
- Light is unpolarized
- No amplification of light
- Net intensity of generated light is given by

$$I_T = NI$$

where  $N$  is number of atom emitting photons.

$I$  is intensity of photons

#### Stimulated emission

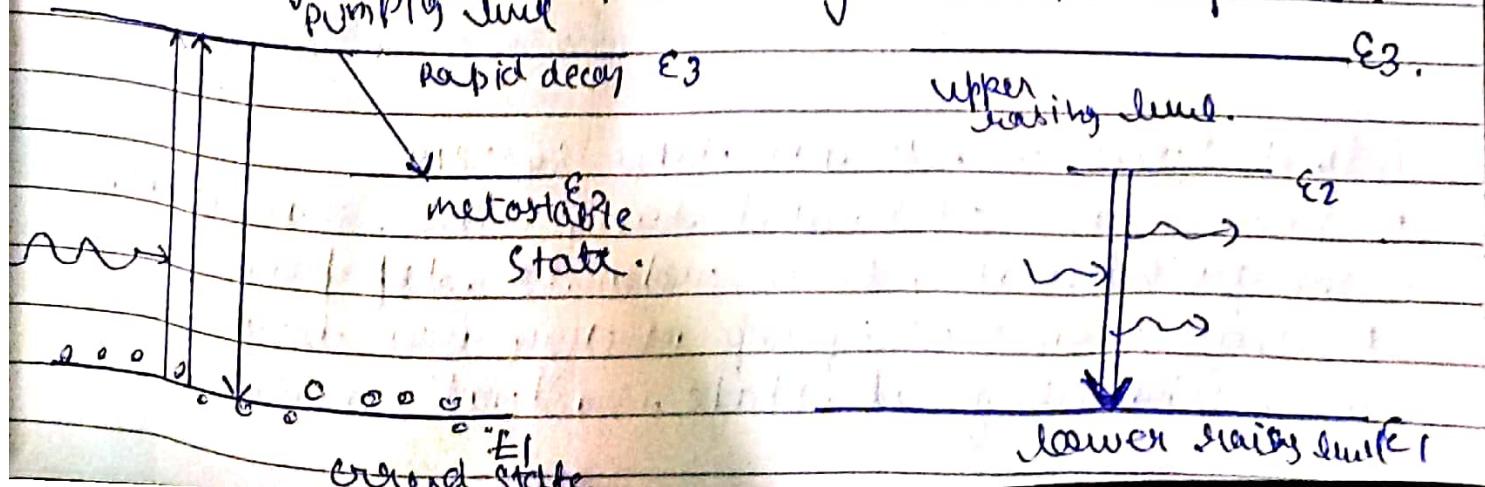
- Not a random process
- Amenable for control from outside
- Stimulating photon imposes its characteristics on photon emitted
- Photons emitted in same direction as of stimulating photon.
  - Spread of photon frequencies is less, light is nearly monochromatic
  - Photons emitted by process are all in phase and therefore coherent
  - Light is polarized
  - Amplification of light takes place
  - As all the photons are in phase. They constructively interfere and produce an intensity

$$I_T = N^2 I$$

Ans 15 Metastable states → An atom can be excited to a higher level by supplying energy to it. Normally, excited atoms have short lifetimes and release their energy in a matter of nanoseconds ( $10^{-9}$  s) through spontaneous emission. It means that atoms do not stay long enough at excited state to be stimulated. As a result, even though the pumping agent continuously raises the atoms to excited level, they undergo spontaneous decay and rapidly return to the lower energy level. Population inversion cannot be established under such circumstances. In order to establish the condition of population inversion the excited atoms are required to 'wait' at the upper energy level till a large number of atoms accumulate at that level. Such an opportunity would be provided by metastable state. Atoms excited to a metastable state remain excited for an appreciable time, which is orders of  $10^6$  to  $10^3$  s. This is  $10^3$  to  $10^6$  times the lifetimes of ordinary excited energy levels. Therefore metastable state allows accumulation of large number of excited atoms at that level. The metastable state population can exceed the population at lower level and establish the condition of population inversion in the laser medium. It would be impossible to create state of population inversion without a metastable state. Metastable state can be readily obtained in crystal system containing impurity atom. These levels lie in forbidden band gap of host crystal. Population inversion readily takes place as the lifetimes of these levels are large and secondly, there is no competition in filling these levels as they are localized levels. For example, phosphorescent materials are made up of atoms with metastable states. There would be no population inversion hence no laser action, if metastable does not exist.

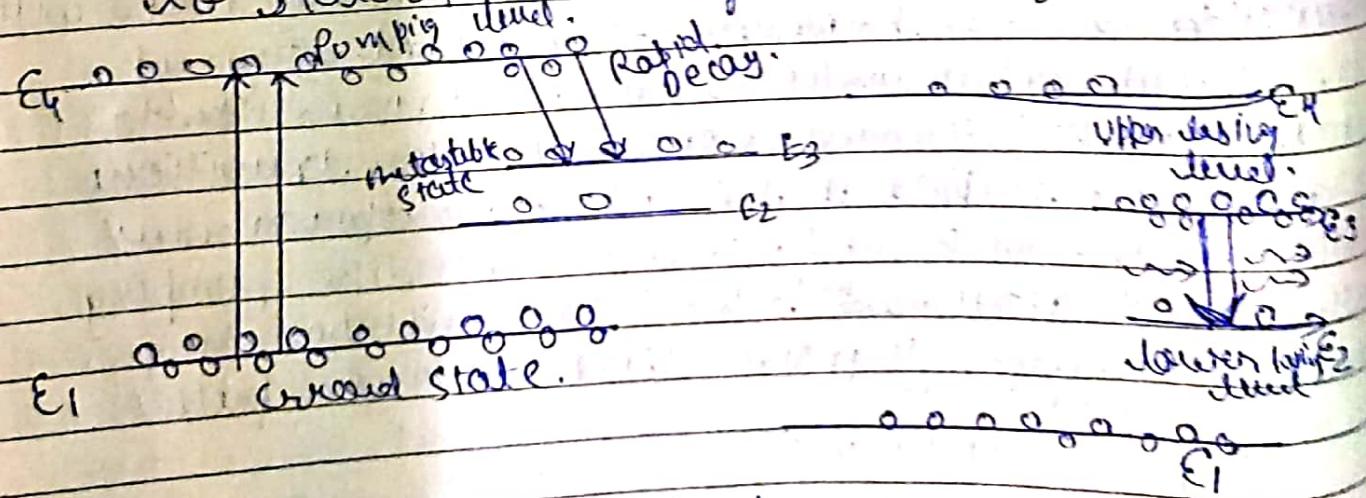
Role  $\Rightarrow$  The simplest conceivable system, such as the ammonia maser built by Townes has only two energy levels. More useful laser systems involve three or four energy levels. In a three-level laser, the material is first excited to a short-lived high energy state that spontaneously drops to a somewhat lower energy state with an unusually long lifetime (metastable state). It traps and holds excitation energy, building up a population inversion that can be further stimulated to emit radiation dropping species back to ground state. Ruby laser is an example.

Ans 16 Three level laser system:  $\Rightarrow$  In ~~three~~ level scheme first excites the atoms to be an excited state higher in energy than upper laser state. The atoms then quickly decay down into upper laser state. It is important for pumped state to have a short lifetime for spontaneous emission compared to upper laser state. When a medium is exposed to pump frequency radiation, a large number of atoms will be excited to  $E_2$  level. However, they do not stay at that level but rapidly undergo downward transition to metastable state  $E_1$  through non-radioactive transitions. The atoms are trapped at this state as spontaneous transition from level  $E_2$  to  $E_1$  is forbidden. The pumping continues and after ~~short~~ time there will be large cumulation of atoms. It produces light only in pulses.



four level system:  $E_1$  is in ground state,  $E_4$  is pumping level,  $E_3$  is metastable upper laser level,  $E_2$  is lower laser level. When light of pump frequency  $\nu$  is incident on laser medium the active centres are readily excited from ground state to pumping level  $E_4$ . The atoms stay at the  $E_4$  level for only about  $10^{-8}$  s and quickly drop down to state  $E_3$ . As spontaneous transitions from level  $E_3$  to level  $E_2$

cannot take place, the atoms get trapped in  $E_3$ . The population of state  $E_3$  grows rapidly. The level  $E_2$  is well above ground state such that  $E_2 - E_1 > kT$ . Therefore at normal temperature atoms cannot jump to level  $E_2$ . As a result  $E_2$  is empty. A chance photon of energy  $\hbar\nu = (E_3 - E_2)$  emitted spontaneously can start the chain and bring atoms to level  $E_2$ . From  $E_2$  atoms go to state  $E_1$  and once again available for excitation.



Advantages of using 4 level laser system.

- In the case of 3 level laser - the lower state is the ground state, so in order to deplete it a large amount of pump energy must be put in so that the ground state is actually in lower

concentration their excited state. The only way to de populate the ground state is to put in more and more pump energy. In case of 4 level laser; only a modest pump energy may be sufficient to establish a population inversion between states 3 and 4. If state 3 is relatively long lived and state 4 is short lived.

- In 4 level laser with the help of pumping the atoms from ground state  $n_1$  are raised to excited state  $n_4$ . From the  $n_4$ , the atoms decay to  $n_3$  by spontaneous emission. The transition rate of atoms from  $n_4$  to  $n_3$  is much faster because of life time is very small.
- In 3 level laser atom can stay for longer lifetime than excited state ( $n_4$ ) but deexcitation from  $n_3$  to  $n_2$  will slow down.

Ques

Holography: In 1948 Dennis Gabor outlined a two step lensless imaging process. It is radically a new technique of photographing the object and is known as wave front reconstruction. The technique is also called 'holography'. The word 'holography' is made by two words 'hologo' means whole and 'graphy' means to write. Thus holography means writing the complete image. It is actually a recording of interference pattern formed between two beams of coherent light coming from same source. In this process both the amplitude and phase component of light wave are recorded on a light sensitive media. Recording is known as hologram. Holography required an intense coherent source. Holographic technique came possible after invention of lasers.

## Application

- 1) Photolithography: Holography is used in production of photographic masks used to produce microelectronic circuits.
- 2) Holographic projection is used to display flight information at the pilot's eye level in airplane cockpit.
- 3) Microscopy: Holography can be used in technique of microscopy. It is possible to obtain a magnified image of an object if recording is done with light of smaller wavelength and reconstruction with light of longer wavelength.
- 4) 3-D photography: One of most obvious applications of holography is production of 3-D photograph, where the distance and orientation of each point of object is recorded in image.
- 5) Data storage: Holograms can also be used as data storage devices and hence are of much use in computer technology. A large amount of information such as 10<sup>12</sup> bytes digits can be stored in cubic cm of volume hologram.

## In Medical.

Holography in Orthopedics: Holography offers an excellent tool for contactless study of orthopedic structures, specifically external fixtures to measure straining on fixation pins and rods. Such studies are important in osteosynthesis with external fixtures used for long bone fractures.

Diffractive bifocal intraocular lens.: A very useful application of diffractive optics is in correction of refractive errors of old persons.

Ans 19 Acceptance angle: let us assume an optical fibre with outer zone having refractive index  $n_0$ , index of core be  $n_1$  and cladding index be  $n_2$ .

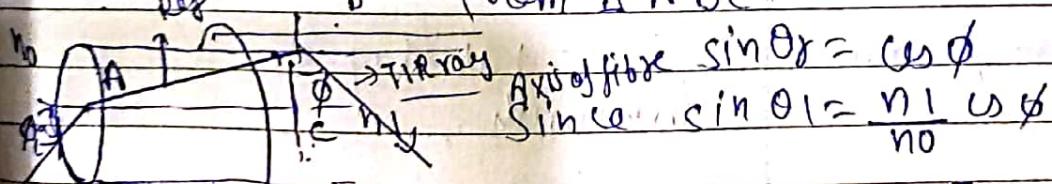
Assume that a light ray enters the fibre at an angle  $\theta_i$  to the axis of fibre. The ray refracts at an angle  $\theta_r$  and strikes the core-cladding interface at an angle  $\phi$ . If  $\phi$  is greater than critical angle  $\phi_c$  the ray undergoes (TIR) at interface, since  $n_1 > n_2$ . As long as angle  $\phi$  is greater than  $\phi_c$ , light will stay within the fibre.

Applying Snell's law

$$\frac{\sin \theta_i}{\sin \phi} = \frac{n_1}{n_0}$$

If  $\theta_i$  is increased beyond a limit  $\theta_i$ , will drop below critical value  $\phi_c$ . The largest value of  $\theta_i$  occurs when  $\phi = \phi_c$

reflected ray from AABC.



$$\sin[\theta_{i(\max)}] = \frac{n_1 \cos \phi_c}{n_0}$$

$$\sin \phi_c = \frac{n_2}{n_1}, \cos \phi_c = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_1}$$

$$\sin[\theta_{i(\max)}] = \frac{\sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}}{n_0}$$

$$n_0 = 1 \text{ (air medium)}$$

$$\sin \theta = \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$$

$$\theta_o = \sin^{-1} \sqrt{n_1^2 - n_2^2}$$

This  $\theta_o$  is acceptance angle. It is maximum angle that a light ray can have relative to axis of fibre

11/19

Step index fibre

- 1) Refractive index of core is uniform and there is a sharp decrease at cladding.
- 2) It is found in two types
  - Mono mode
  - Multi-mode
- 3) Index profile are in shape of step.
- 4) The light rays propagates in zig-zag manner inside the core.
- 5) fibre has lower bandwidth.
- 6) Signal distortion is more in case of high-angle rays in multimode step index fibre.
- 7) Used for short distance communication.
- 8) Diameter is 50-200 $\mu\text{m}$  in multi-mode and 10 $\mu\text{m}$  in single mode.
- 9) Pulse broadasting is present.

Uraded index fibre

- 1) Refractive index is maximum at centre core and it decreases towards core-cladding interface.
- 2) It is found only of multi-mode fibre.
- 3) Index profile is in shape of parabolic curve.
- 4) Light rays propagating in form of linear or helical rays.
- 5) fibre has higher bandwidth.
- 6) Signal distortion is very low even though in rays travel with different speed.
- 7) Used for long distance communication.
- 8) Diameter is 50 $\mu\text{m}$  in core of multimode.
- 9) No pulse broadasting available.

Ans 20 Special theory of relativity is based on following two postulates

- 1) The principle of relativity: All laws of physics are same in all inertial frame of reference.
- 2) The principle of independence of velocity of light: Speed of light in vacuum is independent of motion of light source or observer.

The term "special" implies that this theory considers phenomena only in inertial reference frame. The first postulate is, in effect a generalization of Galilean principle of relativity to cover all physical processes. All physical phenomena proceed identically in all reference frames. All physical laws are absolutely identical in all inertial systems. Basically, no experiment can distinguish one of the frames as preferable. Thus, Einstein's principle of relativity establish complete equality of all inertial frame and rejects the Newton's ideas of absolute space and absolute motion.

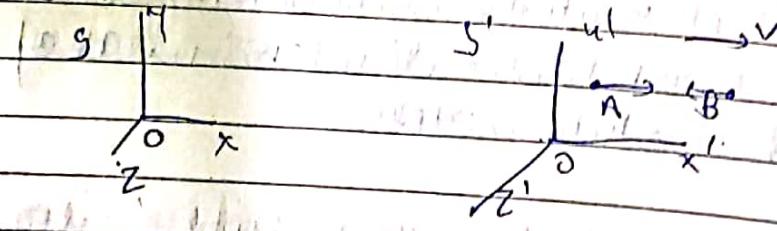
The second postulates states that the velocity of light in vacuum has same value for all observers and is independent of their motion of light source. In contrast to all other velocities, which change on transition from one reference frame to another, velocity of light in vacuum is invariant. This invariance of velocity of light requires that we modify some of our intuitive, everyday, notions of space and time.

Ans 21

There is variation of mass with velocity in relativity that is mass varies with velocity when velocity is comparable with the velocity of light.

- Let there are two identical frames of references  $S$  and  $S'$ .  $S$  is stationary frame of reference and  $S'$  is moving frame of reference. At time  $t = t' = 0$ , that is in the start, they are at the same position that is observer  $O$  and  $O'$  coincides. After that  $S'$  frame starts moving with a uniform velocity  $v$  along  $x$ -axis.
- Suppose there are two particles moving in opposite direction in frame  $S'$ , velocity of particle A will be  $u'$  and B will be  $-u'$  according to observer  $O'$ .

Let us study the velocities and mass of these particles from frame  $S$ .



Velocity of A is  $u_1$  and B is  $u_2$  from frame  $S$  and these are given by

$$u_1 = \frac{(u' + v)}{1 + u'v/c^2} \quad \text{--- Eq(1)}$$

$$u_2 = \frac{(-u' + v)}{1 - u'v/c^2} \quad \text{--- Eq(2)}$$

Let  $M_1$  and  $M_2$  are mass of A and B particle frame S respectively, as the particles are moving to each other at certain instant, they will collide and momentarily come to rest. But even when they come to rest, they draw with velocity of frame S with  $v$ .

According to law of conservation of momentum.

$$m_1 u_1 + m_2 v_2 = (m_1 + m_2) v = m_1 v + m_2 v$$

$$\text{or } m_1 (u_1 - v) = m_2 (v_2 - v).$$

Put eq (1) and (2) we get

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \frac{(1 + u' v/c^2)}{1 - u' v/c^2}$$

Now square equation (1), then divide both sides by  $c^2$  and subtract both sides by 1, we get

$$(1 - u'^2/c^2) = 1 - [(u' + v)/c (1 + u' v/c^2)]^2 \quad \text{eq (3)}$$

Similarly by squaring eq (2) and then dividing both side by  $c^2$  and subtracting both sides by 1, we get

$$1 - v'^2/c^2 = (1 + u'^2 v^2/c^4 - u'^2/c^2 - v^2/c^2) / (1 - u' v/c^2)^2 \quad \text{eq (4)}$$

On dividing eq (3) by eq (4) we get

$$(1 - u'^2/c^2) / (1 - v'^2/c^2) = (1 + u' v/c^2)^2 / (1 - u' v/c^2)^2$$

Take square root on both side.

$$(1 - u'^2/c^2)^{1/2} / (1 - v'^2/c^2)^{1/2} = (1 + u' v/c^2) (1 - u' v/c^2) \quad \text{eq (5)}$$

Now compare eq (3) and 6 we get

$$\frac{m_1}{m_2} = \left(1 - \frac{v_2^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2} / \left(1 - \frac{v_1^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2} \quad \text{eq(7)}$$

2. Let us assume,  $v_2 = 0$

$$m_2 = m_0$$

where  $m_0$  is rest mass of particle.

therefore eq(7) becomes,

$$\frac{m_1}{m_0} = 1 / \left(1 - \frac{v_1^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

assuming  $v_1 = v$ ,  $m_1 = m$ .

$$\frac{m}{m_0} = 1 / \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}$$

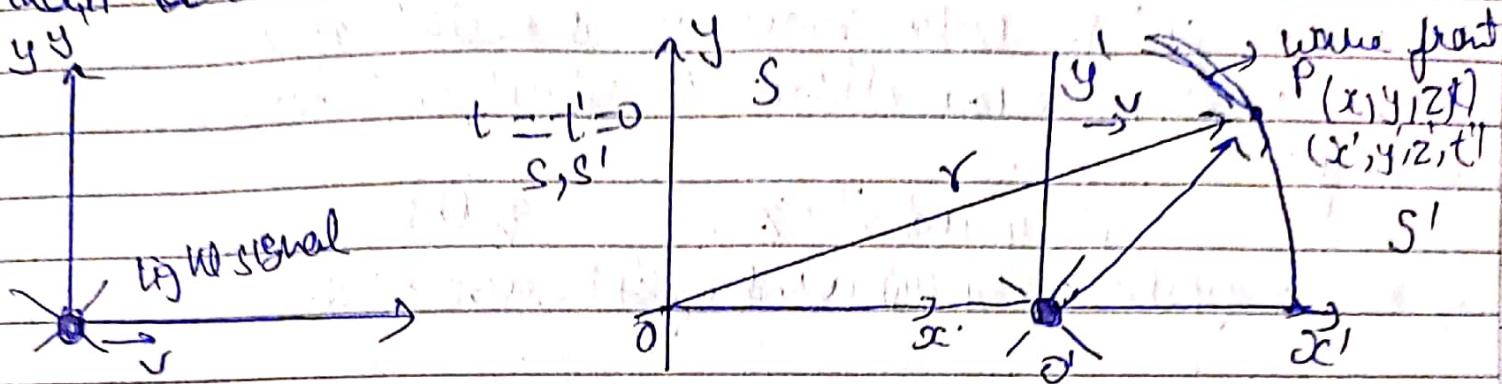
$$\boxed{m = m_0 / \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)^{1/2}}$$

This equation represent variation of mass with velocity

~~Ques~~ Lorentz transformation: equation that apply for all speeds up to  $c$  and incorporate the invariance of speed of light:

Let us consider two inertial reference frame  $S$  and  $S'$  in which standards for measuring distance and time are same. Let reference system  $S'$  be stationary with  $S'$  is moving with velocity  $v$ . Let us assume  $t = t' = 0$ , and origin and  $O'$  coincide. A light source is placed at origin emits a light pulse. Light pulse travels in the form of a spherical wave at speed  $c$ . In both frames

Then during time interval  $t'$  the light pulse travels distance  $c$  and in  $s'$  frame it travels ' $c't'$ ' during time interval  $t'$ . In both the frames the points reached by light pulse at  $t$  and  $t'$  respectively lie on spherical surface of radii  $ct$  and  $ct'$ .



$$r = ct \quad \text{--- eq(1)}$$

$$\text{Thus, } r' = ct' \quad \text{--- eq(2)}$$

The wave surface in frame  $S$  is described by equation

$$x^2 + y^2 + z^2 = r^2 = c^2 t^2 \quad \text{--- eq(3)}$$

and in frame  $S'$  by equation

$$(x')^2 + (y')^2 + (z')^2 = c^2 (t')^2 \quad \text{--- eq(4)}$$

As space and time are regarded as homogeneous, the relation between the coordinates and time in different frames must be linear. Thus

$$x' = ax + bt = a[x + \frac{b}{a}t] \quad \text{--- eq(5)}$$

$$t' = \gamma x + gt \quad \text{--- eq(6)}$$

At time  $t$ , the origin  $s'$  is at  $x = vt$ , if  $x'$  the position

$$x' = 0,$$

$$0 = a[vt + (b/a)t]$$

$$\frac{b}{a} = -v.$$

Hence we get

$$x' = a(x - vt) \quad \text{--- Eq (7)}$$

Similarly.  $x = a(x' + vt') \quad \text{--- Eq (8)}$

Since the system only move in direction of  $x$  and  $x'$  axes, the coordinates  $y, y'$  and  $z, z'$  do not change

$$y' = y \text{ and } z' = z \quad \text{--- Eq (9)}$$

from equation; Eq (6) and Eq (7) and Eq (3)

$$x' = ct' = a(ct - vt) = a(t(1 - v/c)) \quad \text{--- Eq (10)}$$

$$x = ct = a(ct' + vt') = a(t'(1 + v/c)) \quad \text{--- Eq (11)}$$

from equation (10)

$$t' = at(1 - v/c)$$

using Eq (11)

$$ct = ac[at(1 - v/c)](1 + v/c)$$

$$= a^2 ct^2 (1 - v^2/c^2)$$

$$\alpha = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

Replacing  $\alpha$  by  $\gamma \Rightarrow \gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}} \quad \text{--- Eq (12)}$$

Using Eq (7) and Eq (12)

$$x' = x - vt \quad \text{--- Eq (13)}$$

$$\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$$

$$t' = \frac{x}{c} = \frac{x - vt}{c}$$

$$\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

but  $x = ct$

$$t' = t - \frac{vx}{c^2}$$

$$\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

Thus, the equations for ~~point~~ transformation of coordinates from system S to System S' are.

$$x' = \gamma(x + vt)$$

$$y' = y$$

$$z' = z$$

$$t' = \gamma\left(t - \frac{vx}{c^2}\right)$$

$$\text{and } \gamma =$$

$$\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

### Inertial frame

~~Ans 23~~ (Ex → train moving with uniformity) Ex → free falling elevator.

- 1) A frame of reference travelling with uniform velocity with respect to ~~main~~ frame.

- 2) Newton's laws of motion are valid

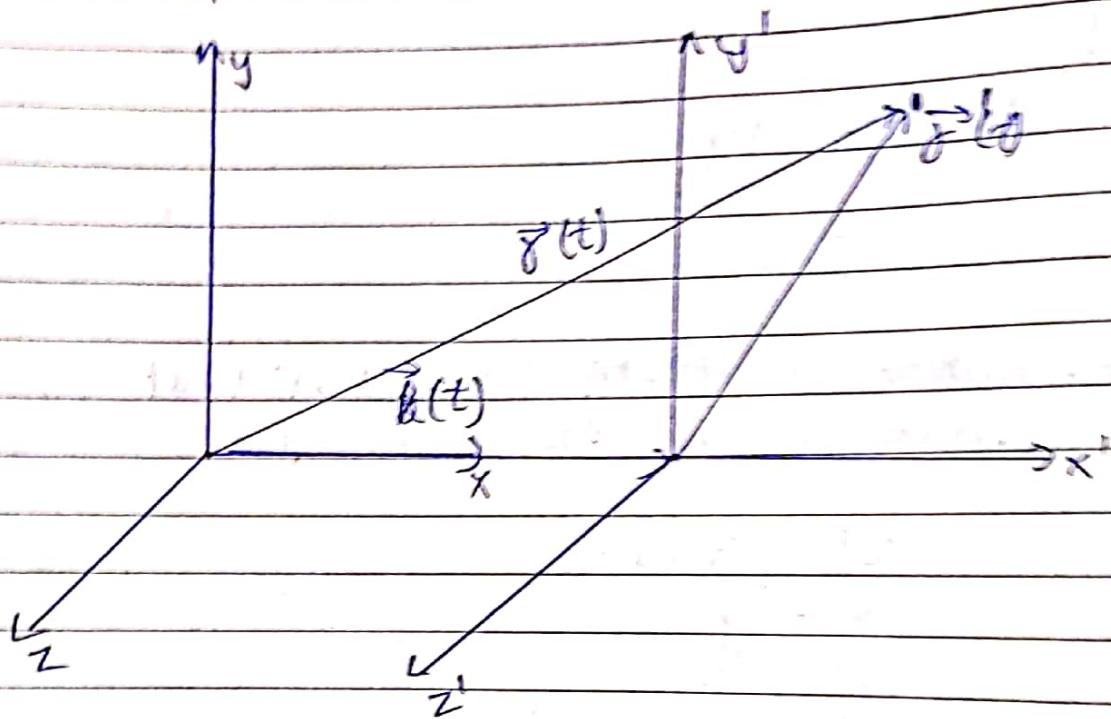
- 3) forces which depends upon distance difference ex: gravitational force, nuclear force are same.

### Non inertial frame

- 1) A frame of reference travelling with non uniform velocity with respect to main frame.
- 2) Newton's laws of motion is not valid.

- 3) forces which are additional due to newton's law is not valid helps in non inertial frame ex: centripetal force, coriolis force.

(2). S and  $S'$  be two inertial frames with relative velocity  $v_0$  at same ...



$$\text{Since } \mathbf{r}(t) = \mathbf{R}(t) + \mathbf{r}'(t)$$

by differentiating both side

$$\Delta \mathbf{r}(t) = \Delta \mathbf{R}(t) + \Delta \mathbf{r}'(t)$$

Since relative velocity is always constant  
in inertial frames

$$\mathbf{v}(t) = \mathbf{v}_0 + \mathbf{v}'(t)$$

again differentiating since acceleration between  
frames is zero

$$\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{0} + \mathbf{a}'$$

$$\boxed{\mathbf{a} = \mathbf{a}'}$$

And since principle of relativity holds  
true all laws of physics is valid

Ques 2) is on last :

Date :

Page :

### No: 2) Length contraction:

Let us consider a rigid rod at rest in a moving frame  $S'$ ; say a spaceship on railcar moving along  $x$  axis with a speed  $v$ . The length of rod is equal to difference between coordinates of its two end points. Then an observer in spaceship measures length of rod to be

$$L_0 = x_2' - x_1'$$

$L_0$  is proper length or length of body measured in reference frame in which body is at rest.

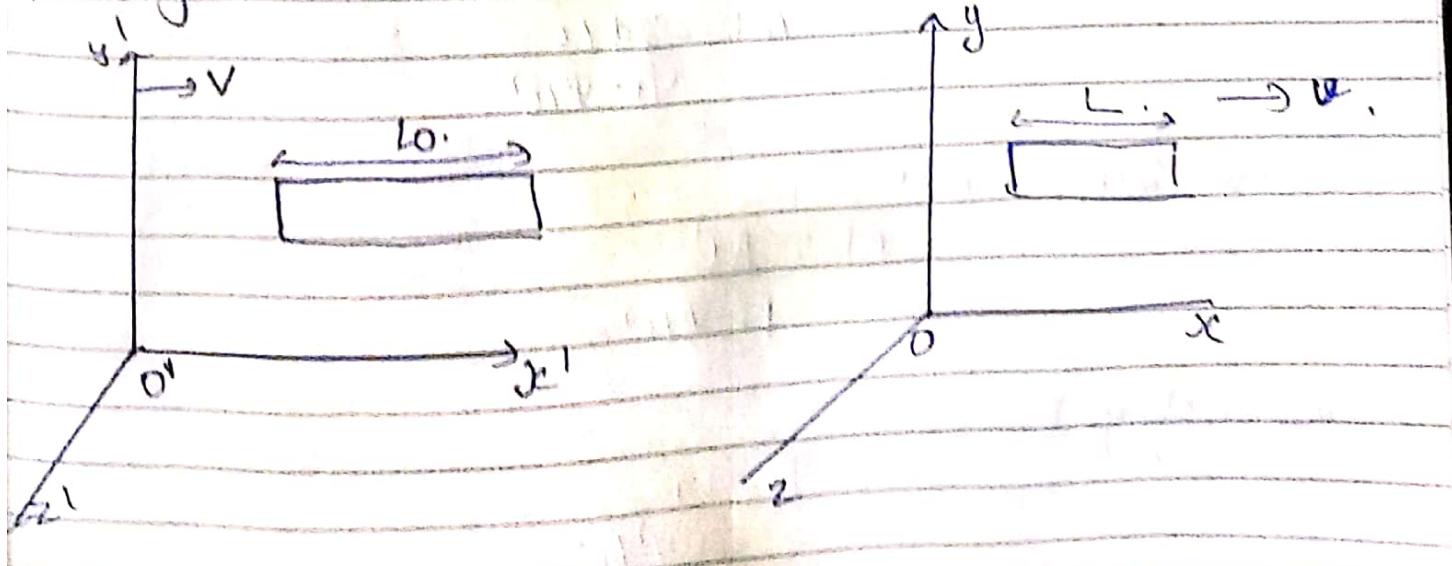
An observer on earth frame  $S$  will have to determine length of rod by marking the forward end position and rearward end position in frame  $S$ .

According to Lorentz coordinate transformation,

$$x_1' = \frac{x_1 - vt}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}} \quad ; \quad x_2' = \frac{x_2 - vt}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$$

$$L_0 = x_2 - x_1 = \frac{L}{\sqrt{1-v^2/c^2}}$$

Hence the change in length is known as contraction in length



## Time dilation:

- Let us consider a railcar moving to right with a speed  $v$ . Let car have a mirror fixed to its ceiling. An observer at rest in car sends off a light pulse at some instant towards the mirror. The light pulse travels (upward) at speed  $c$  gets reflected at mirror at top and comes back to observer. Observer measures time interval  $\Delta t'$  for round trip of pulse with help of clock.
- Time  $t'$  is measured by stationary observer in  $s'$  frame, then its proper time  $T_0$ ,  $\Delta t' = 2d/c$ , where  $d$  is distance between source of light pulse.

From point of view of an observer on ground, the mirror and light source were moving to right with speed  $v$ . By time pulse hits the mirror, the mirror will have moved a distance equal to  $v(\Delta t/2)$  where  $\Delta t$  is time taken by light pulse for its round trip from geometry.

$$\left[ \frac{c(\Delta t)}{2} \right]^2 = v \Delta t^2 + d^2$$

$$(c^2 - v^2)(\Delta t)^2 = 4d^2$$

$$\Delta t = \frac{2d}{c}$$

$$\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$$

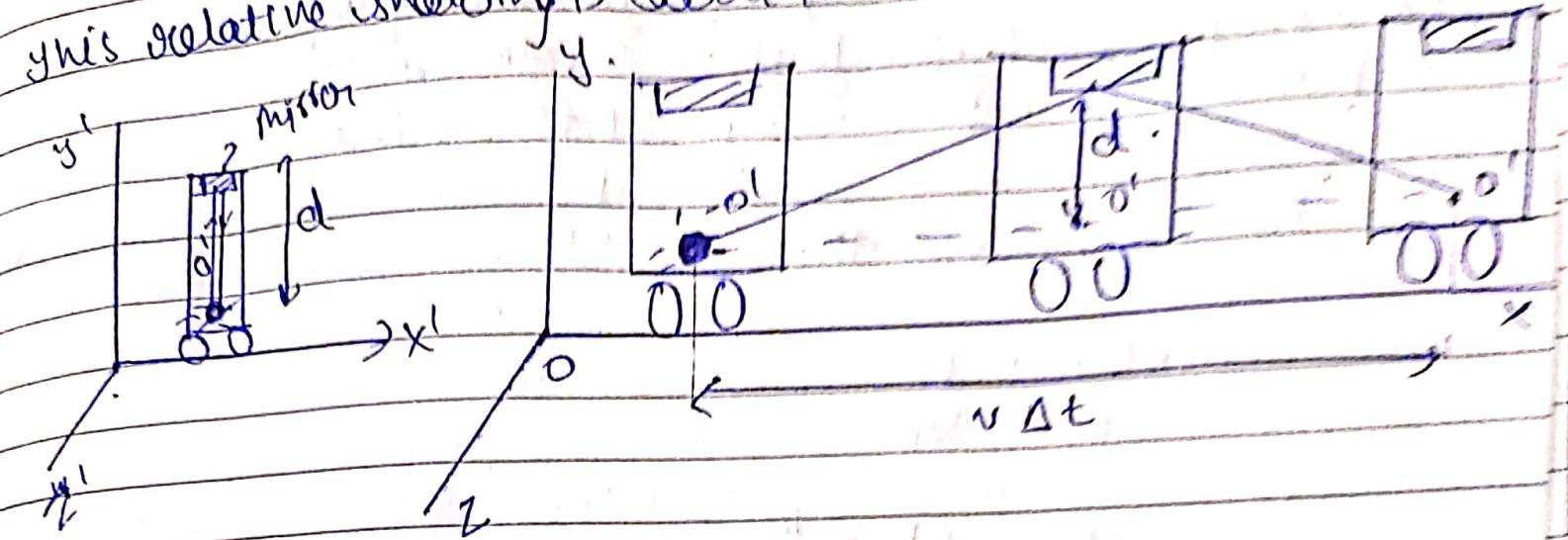
$$\text{Since } 2d/c = \Delta t'$$

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t'}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

Designating  $\Delta t = T$ ,

$$T = \frac{T_0}{\sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}}$$

this relative slowing is called time dilation



MS 26

Bethe's law: The electron travelling in space bend and follow curved path when they travel through regions of different electric field strengths. The behavior is similar to light rays. By analogy the bending of electrons is called electron refraction.

On account of nonuniform fields, equipotential surface shall be curved. Let potential on surface 1 will be  $V_1$ , potential on surface 2 will be  $V_2$ . Let  $V_2 > V_1$ .

Electron starting from rest travelling in surface 1 has velocity  $v_1$ .

$$v_1 = \sqrt{\frac{2eV_1}{m}}$$

and on surface 2 it has velocity  $v_2 = \sqrt{\frac{2eV_2}{m}}$ .

Let angle w/w path of electron at  $v_1$  and normal to surface 1 be  $\theta_1$ , and on surface 2 is  $\theta_2$ .

As electric field is proportionally perpendicular  
to equipotential surfaces, electron does not  
experience any force tangential to surface.

Dot

a.

b

at

to

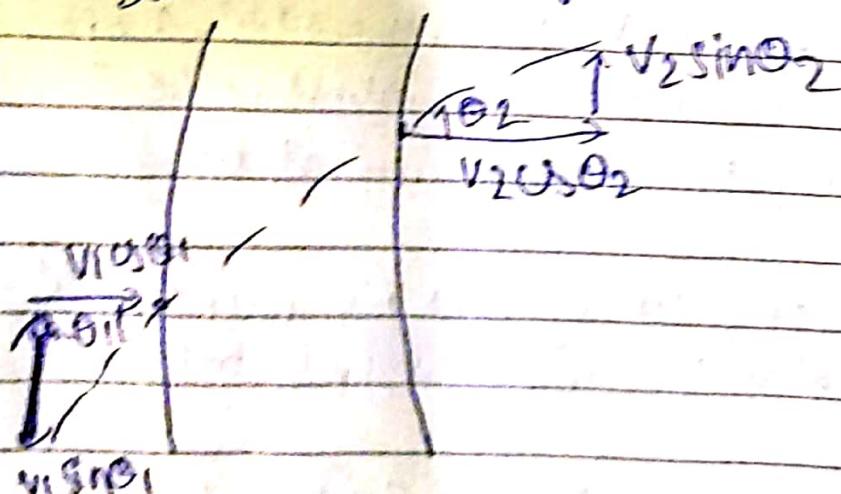
or

$$v_1 \sin\theta_1 = v_2 \sin\theta_2$$

$$\frac{\sin\theta_1}{\sin\theta_2} = \frac{v_2}{v_1}$$

$$\frac{\sin\theta_1}{\sin\theta_2} = \left[ \frac{V_2}{V_1} \right]^{1/2}$$

This equation is known as bethe's law  
Surface 1 Surface 2.



Ques 24. Michelson Morley  $\Rightarrow$  A collimated beam of light from source S is split into two beams by half silvered mirror M. Beam A travels to mirror  $M_1$  and reflected back to M and is transmitted through M. Let us assume that earth travels through ether with speed v and light has speed c in ether. We assume that instrument is arranged such that two equal arms are parallel to earth velocity  $v$ . Speed of beam A travelling from M to  $M_1$  is  $(c-v)$  relative to instrument and time required is  $L/c-v$ . Similarly speed of light beam is  $(c+v)$ : Time is  $L/c+v$

Time for round trip

$$T_A = \frac{L}{c-v} + \frac{L}{c+v} = \frac{2L}{c} \cdot \frac{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}{1 + \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

The beam B is travelled towards mirror  $M_2$  will get reflected at  $M_2$  but mirror M has moved to a new position  $M'$ . The component of velocity of light in direction perpendicular to motion of instrument is  $\sqrt{c^2-v^2}$ .

$$T_B = \frac{2L}{c} \cdot \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

$$\text{Time difference is given by } \Delta T = T_A - T_B = \frac{2L}{c} \left[ \frac{1}{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} - \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \right]$$

Since  $v$  is small compared to  $c$

$$\frac{1}{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}} = 1 + \frac{v^2}{c^2} \quad \text{and} \quad \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} = \frac{1 + \frac{v^2}{c^2}}{2c^2}$$

$$\Delta T = \frac{2L}{c} \left[ 1 + \frac{v^2}{c^2} - \frac{1 - v^2}{2c^2} \right] = \frac{2Lv^2}{c^3}$$

Now, if instrument is rotated through  $90^\circ$   
role of path A and B are interchanged. Then

$$T_A' = \frac{2L/c}{\sqrt{1+v^2}} \quad T_B' = \frac{2L/c}{1-v^2/c^2}$$

$$\Delta T' = T_A' - T_B' = -\frac{4Lv^2}{c^3}$$

$$\Delta T_{\text{Total}} = \frac{2Lv^2}{c^3}$$

path difference introduced between beam components  
A and B is

$$\Delta = c(\Delta T_{\text{Total}}) = \frac{2Lv^2}{c}$$

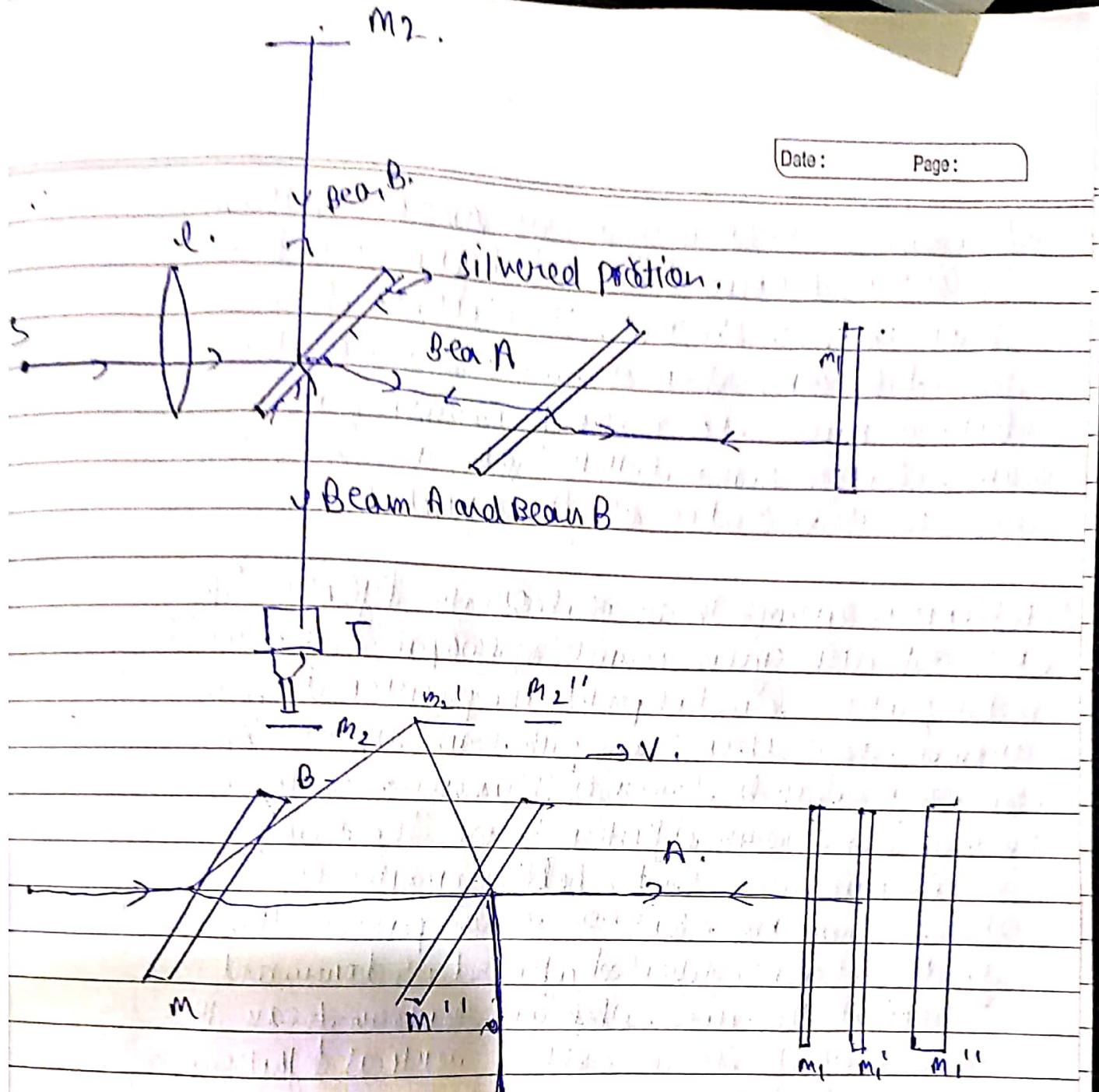
The result was negative since we found no difference  
between speed of light in direction of movement through  
presumed ether and speed at right angles, more recent optical  
interference experiments confirmed absence of any ether wind  
at  $10^{-17}$  level.

In Michelson Morley,  $\lambda = 5500 \text{ Å}^\circ$ ,  $v = 30 \text{ km/s}$

$$\text{we obtain } N = 2 \times 11 \text{ m} / (3 \times 10^4)^2$$

$$5500 \times 10^{-10} \times (3 \times 10^8)^2 \rightarrow 0.4$$

$N = \frac{\Delta T}{\Delta T_{\text{Total}}} = \frac{2Lv^2}{c^3}$



A cathode ray tube (CRT) is a specially designed vacuum tube. It consists of three parts.

1) Electron gun: It consists of several electrodes and is mounted at one end of cathode ray tube. An indirectly heated cathode K emits the stream of electrons from its front face. The electrons pass through a control grid G held at -ve potential. Effective size of aperture in grid is depending upon the potential difference between grid and cathode. The number of electrons striking screen determines intensity.

of glow produced at screen. Two anodes A<sub>1</sub> and A<sub>2</sub> are positioned beyond the control grid which are coaxial with the grid. The electron beam system formed by combination of grid and anodes focus electron rays into a sharp narrow pencil of beam. Electron beam travels along axis of tubes and strikes at centre of fluorescent tube.

2) Deflection system: In an electrostatic deflection type CRT, deflection system consists of two pairs of parallel metal plates. The metal plates are positioned symmetrically around the electron beam path. Beam emitted by electron gun travels towards fluorescent coating and on way passes through deflection system. The two plates in each pair are strictly held parallel to each other. When an electron beam passes through the field, it gets deflected upward or downward in vertical direction. ~~When an electron beam~~ Therefore this set of plates is called vertical deflection plates. Second set of plates is oriented vertically and when a potential difference is applied between the plates, it produces uniform electric field in horizontal direction.

3) Fluorescent screen: Electrons are invisible particles. However electron beam position can be located with help of fluorescent screen. The interior surface of circular front face of CRT is coated with a thin translucent layer of phosphor. Phosphorescent property of emitting light when particles hits them. The glow can be seen through thin glass face and makes the position of electron beam known.

# Schematic diagram of cathode Ray tube.

(Date : \_\_\_\_\_ Page : \_\_\_\_\_)

