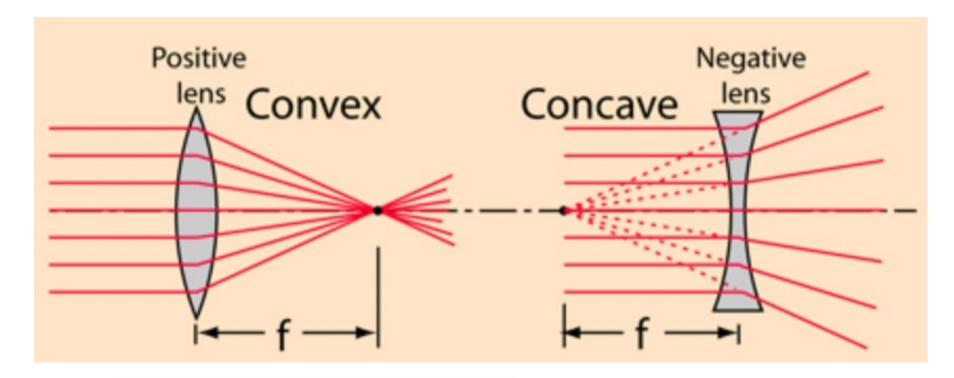
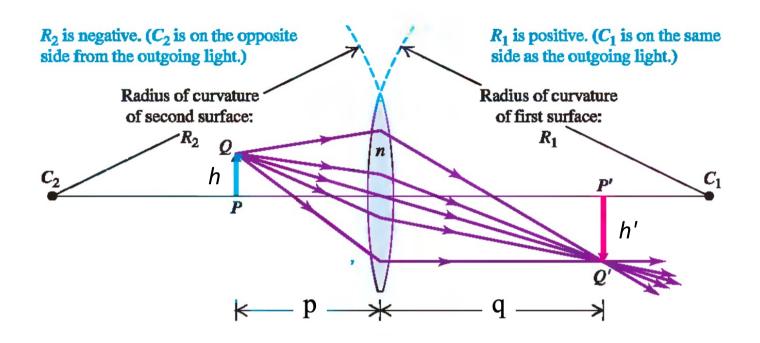
1. Thin lens



$$\frac{1}{f} = (n-1) \left(\frac{1}{R_1} - \frac{1}{R_2} \right)$$

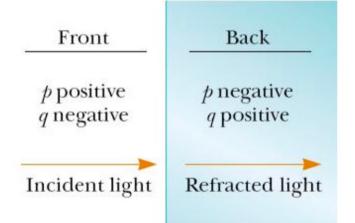
(lens makers' equation)

f is **positive** if the lens is **converging**. f is **negative** if the lens is **diverging**.



Thin-lens equation:

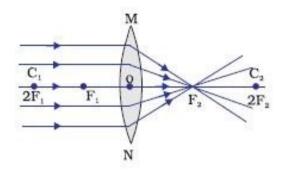
$$\frac{1}{p} + \frac{1}{q} = \frac{1}{f}$$



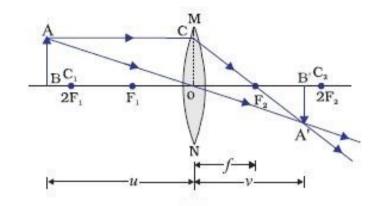
Lateral magnification:

$$M = \frac{h'}{h} = -\frac{q}{p}$$

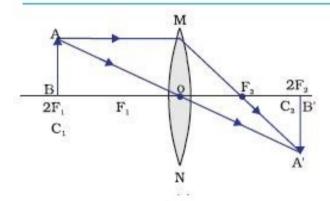
Real object $\leftrightarrow p > 0$ Virtual object $\leftrightarrow p < 0$ Real image $\leftrightarrow q > 0$ Virtual image $\leftrightarrow q < 0$



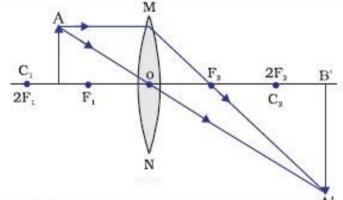
Case (i) Object at infinity



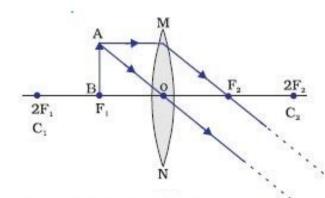
Case (ii) Object at beyond 2f



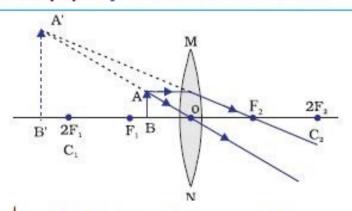
Case (iii) Object at 2f



Case (iv) Object in between f and 2f



Case (v) Object at f



Case (vi) Object distance < f

2. Matter-wave principle

De Broglie's relationships

We recall that for a photon (E, p) associated to an electromagnetic wave (f, λ) :

$$E = h f$$

$$p = h \frac{1}{\lambda}$$
Planck constant:
$$h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ m}^2 \text{ kg/s}$$
particle wave

De Broglie's hypothesis:

To a **particle** (E, p) is associated a **matter wave**, which has a frequency f and a wavelength λ

$$f = \frac{E}{h}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$$

• From
$$f = \frac{E}{h}$$
 and $\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$

if we put:
$$h = 2\pi \hbar$$
 \Rightarrow $E = 2\pi f \hbar$

$$\Rightarrow p = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}\hbar$$

$$\left| \begin{array}{c} E = \hbar \omega \\ \vec{p} = \hbar \, \vec{K} \end{array} \right|$$
 Planck-Einstein's relationship

λ is called **de Broglie wavelength**

 \vec{K} is the angular wave vector (describing how many oscillations it completes per unit of distance)

$$\vec{K}=2\pi/\lambda$$

The Schrödinger's equation

For the case of one-dimensional motion, when a particle with the mass m has a potential energy U(x) Schrödinger's equation is

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} [E - U(x)]\psi = 0$$

Probability density:

Assume that the free particle travels only in the positive direction Relabel the constant A as ψ_0 : $\psi(x) = \psi_0 e^{iKx}$ The probability density is:

$$|\psi|^2 = |\psi_0 e^{iKx}|^2 = (\psi_0)^2 |e^{iKx}|^2$$

Because:

$$|e^{iKx}|^2 = (e^{iKx})(e^{iKx})^* = (e^{iKx})(e^{-iKx}) = e^0 = 1$$

we have:

$$|\psi|^2 = (\psi_0)^2 = const$$

3. A particle in an infinite well

With *n* is an integer: n = 1; 2; 3;... the energy can only have the discrete values: $E_n = \left(\frac{\pi^2 \hbar^2}{2ma^2}\right) n^2$

$$E_n = \left(\frac{\pi^2 (h/2\pi)^2}{2ma^2}\right) n^2 = \frac{h^2}{8ma^2} n^2 \longrightarrow \left[E_n = \frac{h^2}{8ma^2} n^2\right]$$

3rd excited E

We say that the energy is quantized

these values of energy are called energy levels

n=2 — first excited state (E_2)

$$n=3$$
 \longrightarrow second excited state (E_3)

The integer n is called the quantum number

2nd excited

 E_3

1st excited E

ground

energy-level diagram

4. Spectral emission lines in Hydrogen atom

When the electron jumps down from an energy level E_m to a lower one E_n , the hydrogen atom emits a photon of energy:

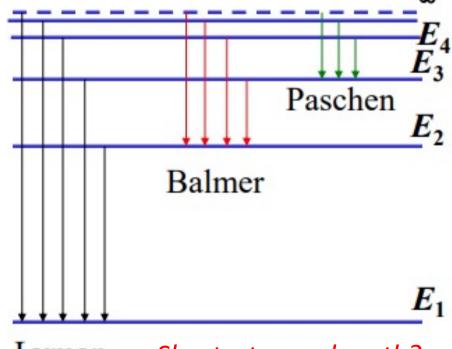
$$\varepsilon = hf_{mn} = \frac{hc}{\lambda_{mn}} = E_m - E_n$$
 with $E_n = -\frac{13.6eV}{n^2}$

$$E_n = -\frac{13.6eV}{n^2}$$

- If $E_n \equiv E_1$: Lyman series
- If $E_n \equiv E_2$: Balmer series
- If $E_n \equiv E_3$: Paschen series
- If $E_n \equiv E_4$: Brackett series

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_H \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2}\right)} \quad \begin{array}{l} n_i, n_f \text{ are like} \\ m, n \text{ above} \end{array}$$

$$R_H = \frac{mk^2e^4}{4\pi c\hbar^3} = 1.097 \times 10^7 m^{-1}$$
(Rydberg constant)



Lyman Shortest wavelength? Longest wavelength?

5. Schrodinger equation for hydrogen atom

After solving Schrodinger equation for the radial part we have:

$$E_n = -\left(\frac{me^4}{8\varepsilon_0^2 h^2}\right) \frac{1}{n^2}$$

Wave function for the ground state

The wave function for the ground state of the hydrogen atom:

$$\psi(r) = \frac{1}{a^{3/2}\sqrt{\pi}}e^{-r/a}$$

Where a is the Bohr radius: $a = 0.529 \times 10^{-10} m = 52.9 nm$

Wave function for the first excited state

$$\psi(r) = Ce^{-ar/2}(2-ar)$$

• *The radial probability density*

$$P(r) = \frac{4}{a^3} e^{-2r/a} r^2$$

6. Special relativity

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1 - u^2 / c^2}}$$

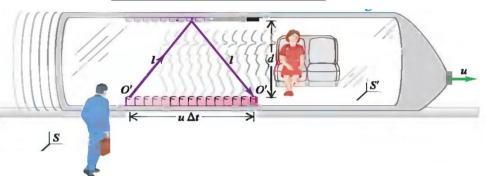
$$\Delta t = \gamma \Delta t_0 ;$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2 / c^2}}$$

Lorentz constant

 $\Delta t > \Delta t_0$: time dilation

Observers measure any clock to run slow if it moves relative to them



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

$$L = \frac{L_0}{\gamma};$$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - u^2 / c^2}}$$

 $(L < L_0)$ (Length contraction)

The length L measured in S, in which the ruler is moving, is shorter than the length L_0 measured in its rest frame S'.

7. Nuclear Radioactivity

• When unstable nuclides decay into different nuclides, they usually emit **alpha** (α) or **beta** (β) particles:

Alpha particle is a ⁴He nucleus, a beta-minus particle (β ⁻) is an electron, beta-plus particle (β ⁺) is a positron (antiparticle of electron)

$${}_{Z}^{A}X \rightarrow {}_{2}^{4}He + {}_{Z-2}^{A-4}Y ; {}_{Z}^{A}X \rightarrow {}_{-1}^{0}e + {}_{Z+1}^{A}Y ; {}_{Z}^{A}X \rightarrow {}_{1}^{0}e + {}_{Z-1}^{A}Y$$

• dN(t)/dt is called the **decay rate or the activity** of the specimen.

Activity: becquerel (Bq) in SI or curie (Ci)

$$1Ci = 3.70 \times 10^{10} Bq = 3.70 \times 10^{10} decays/s$$

$$-\frac{dN(t)}{dt} = \lambda N(t) \qquad N(t) = N_0 e^{-\lambda t} \qquad \lambda : decay constant$$

N(t): the (very large) number of radioactive nuclei in a sample at time t.

• The half-life $T_{1/2}$ is the time required for the number of radioactive nuclei to decrease to one-half the original number N_0

$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda} = \frac{0.693}{\lambda}$$

• The mean lifetime T_{mean} (generally called the lifetime):

$$T_{\text{mean}} = \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{T_{1/2}}{\ln 2}$$