3. The distance traveled by the kaon between those two events is related to its speed v and the time interval for the travel by

$$v = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time interval}}. \tag{37-10}$$

With these ideas in mind, let us solve for the distance first with classical physics and then with special relativity.

Classical physics: In classical physics we would find the same distance and time interval (in Eq. 37-10) whether we measured them from the kaon frame or from the laboratory frame. Thus, we need not be careful about the frame in which the measurements are made. To find the kaon's travel distance d_{cp} according to classical physics, we first rewrite Eq. 37-10 as

$$d_{cp} = v\,\Delta t, \tag{37-11}$$

where Δt is the time interval between the two events in either frame. Then, substituting $0.990c$ for v and $0.1237\ \mu s$ for Δt in Eq. 37-11, we find

$$\begin{aligned} d_{cp} &= (0.990c)\,\Delta t \\ &= (0.990)(299\,792\,458\ \text{m/s})(0.1237 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{s}) \\ &= 36.7\ \text{m}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

This is how far the kaon would travel if classical physics were correct at speeds close to c.

Special relativity: In special relativity we must be very careful that both the distance and the time interval in Eq. 37-10 are measured in the *same* reference frame—especially when the speed is close to c, as here. Thus, to find the actual travel distance d_{sr} of the kaon *as measured from the laboratory frame* and according to special relativity, we rewrite Eq. 37-10 as

$$d_{sr} = v\,\Delta t, \tag{37-12}$$

where Δt is the time interval between the two events *as measured from the laboratory frame.*

Before we can evaluate d_{sr} in Eq. 37-12, we must find Δt. The $0.1237\ \mu s$ time interval is a proper time because the two events occur at the same location in the kaon frame—namely, at the kaon itself. Therefore, let Δt_0 represent this proper time interval. Then we can use Eq. 37-9 ($\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t_0$) for time dilation to find the time interval Δt as measured from the laboratory frame. Using Eq. 37-8 to substitute for γ in Eq. 37-9 leads to

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{0.1237 \times 10^{-6}\ \text{s}}{\sqrt{1-(0.990c/c)^2}} = 8.769 \times 10^{-7}\ \text{s}.$$

This is about seven times longer than the kaon's proper lifetime. That is, the kaon's lifetime is about seven times longer in the laboratory frame than in its own frame—the kaon's lifetime is dilated. We can now evaluate Eq. 37-12 for the travel distance d_{sr} in the laboratory frame as

$$\begin{aligned} d_{sr} &= v\,\Delta t = (0.990c)\,\Delta t \\ &= (0.990)(299\,792\,458\ \text{m/s})(8.769 \times 10^{-7}\ \text{s}) \\ &= 260\ \text{m}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

This is about seven times d_{cp}. Experiments like the one outlined here, which verify special relativity, became routine in physics laboratories decades ago. The engineering design and the construction of any scientific or medical facility that employs high-speed particles must take relativity into account.

Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

37-2 THE RELATIVITY OF LENGTH

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.11 Identify that because spatial and temporal separations are entangled, measurements of the lengths of objects may be different in two frames with relative motion.

37.12 Identify the condition in which a measured length is a proper length.

37.13 Identify that if a length is a proper length as measured in one frame, the length is less (contracted) as measured in another frame that is in relative motion *parallel* to the length.

37.14 Apply the relationship between contracted length L, proper length L_0, and the relative speed v between two frames.

Key Ideas

- The length L_0 of an object measured by an observer in an inertial reference frame in which the object is at rest is called its proper length. Observers in frames moving relative to that frame and parallel to that length will always measure a shorter length, an effect known as length contraction.
- If the relative speed between frames is v, the contracted length L and the proper length L_0 are related by

$$L = L_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2} = \frac{L_0}{\gamma},$$

where $\beta = v/c$ is the speed parameter and $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2}$ is the Lorentz factor.

The Relativity of Length

If you want to measure the length of a rod that is at rest with respect to you, you can—at your leisure—note the positions of its end points on a long stationary scale and subtract one reading from the other. If the rod is moving, however, you must note the positions of the end points *simultaneously* (in your reference frame) or your measurement cannot be called a length. Figure 37-7 suggests the difficulty of trying to measure the length of a moving penguin by locating its front and back at different times. Because simultaneity is relative and it enters into length measurements, length should also be a relative quantity. It is.

Let L_0 be the length of a rod that you measure when the rod is stationary (meaning you and it are in the same reference frame, the rod's rest frame). If, instead, there is relative motion at speed v between you and the rod *along the length of the rod,* then with simultaneous measurements you obtain a length L given by

$$L = L_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2} = \frac{L_0}{\gamma} \quad \text{(length contraction).} \tag{37-13}$$

Because the Lorentz factor γ is always greater than unity if there is relative motion, L is less than L_0. The relative motion causes a *length contraction,* and L is called a *contracted length.* A greater speed v results in a greater contraction.

The length L_0 of an object measured in the rest frame of the object is its **proper length** or **rest length.** Measurements of the length from any reference frame that is in relative motion *parallel* to that length are always less than the proper length.

Be careful: Length contraction occurs only along the direction of relative motion. Also, the length that is measured does not have to be that of an object like a rod or a circle. Instead, it can be the length (or distance) between two objects in the same rest frame—for example, the Sun and a nearby star (which are, at least approximately, at rest relative to each other).

Does a moving object *really* shrink? Reality is based on observations and measurements; if the results are always consistent and if no error can be determined, then what is observed and measured is real. In that sense, the object really does shrink. However, a more precise statement is that the object *is really measured* to shrink—motion affects that measurement and thus reality.

When you measure a contracted length for, say, a rod, what does an observer moving with the rod say of your measurement? To that observer, you did not locate the two ends of the rod simultaneously. (Recall that observers in motion relative to each other do not agree about simultaneity.) To the observer, you first located the rod's front end and then, slightly later, its rear end, and that is why you measured a length that is less than the proper length.

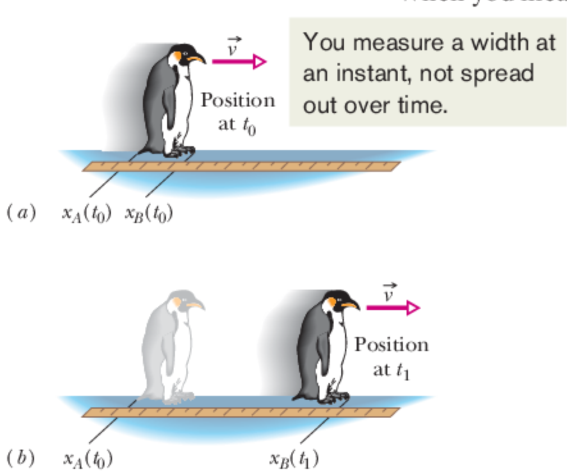

Figure 37-7 If you want to measure the front-to-back length of a penguin while it is moving, you must mark the positions of its front and back simultaneously (in your reference frame), as in (*a*), rather than at different times, as in (*b*).

Proof of Eq. 37-13

Length contraction is a direct consequence of time dilation. Consider once more our two observers. This time, both Sally, seated on a train moving through a station, and Sam, again on the station platform, want to measure the length of the platform. Sam, using a tape measure, finds the length to be L_0, a proper length because the platform is at rest with respect to him. Sam also notes that Sally, on the train, moves through this length in a time $\Delta t = L_0/v$, where v is the speed of the train; that is,

$$L_0 = v\,\Delta t \quad \text{(Sam).} \tag{37-14}$$

This time interval Δt is not a proper time interval because the two events that define it (Sally passes the back of the platform and Sally passes the front of the platform) occur at two different places, and therefore Sam must use two synchronized clocks to measure the time interval Δt.

For Sally, however, the platform is moving past her. She finds that the two events measured by Sam occur *at the same place* in her reference frame. She can time them with a single stationary clock, and so the interval Δt_0 that she measures is a proper time interval. To her, the length L of the platform is given by

$$L = v\,\Delta t_0 \qquad \text{(Sally).} \tag{37-15}$$

If we divide Eq. 37-15 by Eq. 37-14 and apply Eq. 37-9, the time dilation equation, we have

$$\frac{L}{L_0} = \frac{v\,\Delta t_0}{v\,\Delta t} = \frac{1}{\gamma},$$

or

$$L = \frac{L_0}{\gamma}, \tag{37-16}$$

which is Eq. 37-13, the length contraction equation.

Sample Problem 37.03 Time dilation and length contraction as seen from each frame

In Fig. 37-8, Sally (at point A) and Sam's spaceship (of proper length $L_0 = 230$ m) pass each other with constant relative speed v. Sally measures a time interval of 3.57 μs for the ship to pass her (from the passage of point B in Fig. 37-8*a* to the passage of point C in Fig. 37-8*b*). In terms of c, what is the relative speed v between Sally and the ship?

KEY IDEAS

Let's assume that speed v is near c. Then:

1. This problem involves measurements made from two (inertial) reference frames, one attached to Sally and the other attached to Sam and his spaceship.
2. This problem also involves two events: the first is the passage of point B past Sally (Fig. 37-8*a*) and the second is the passage of point C past her (Fig. 37-8*b*).
3. From either reference frame, the other reference frame passes at speed v and moves a certain distance in the time interval between the two events:

$$v = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time interval}}. \tag{37-17}$$

Because speed v is assumed to be near the speed of light, we must be careful that the distance and the time interval in Eq. 37-17 are measured in the *same* reference frame.

Calculations: We are free to use either frame for the measurements. Because we know that the time interval Δt between the two events measured from Sally's frame is 3.57 μs, let us also use the distance L between the two events measured from her frame. Equation 37-17 then becomes

$$v = \frac{L}{\Delta t}. \tag{37-18}$$

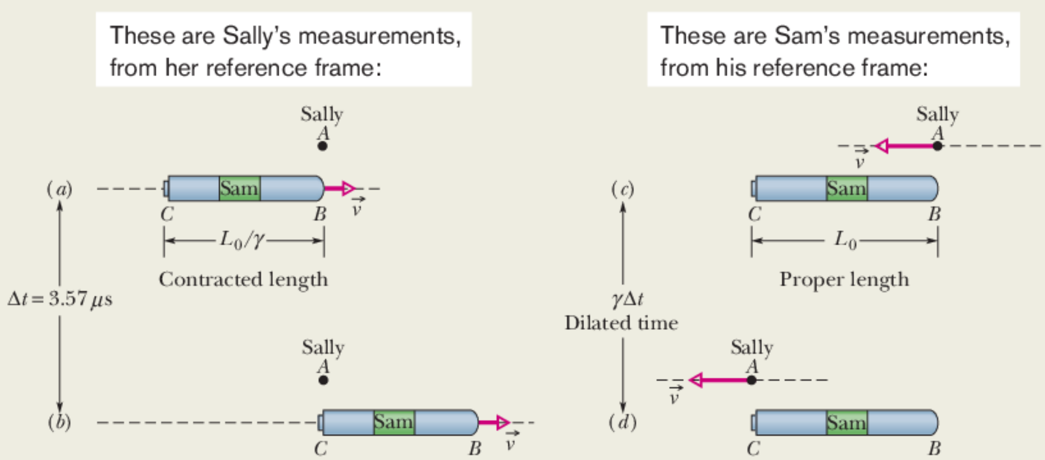

Figure 37-8 (*a*)–(*b*) Event 1 occurs when point B passes Sally (at point A) and event 2 occurs when point C passes her. (*c*)–(*d*) Event 1 occurs when Sally passes point B and event 2 occurs when she passes point C.

We do not know L, but we can relate it to the given L_0: The distance between the two events as measured from Sam's frame is the ship's proper length L_0. Thus, the distance L measured from Sally's frame must be less than L_0, as given by Eq. 37-13 ($L = L_0/\gamma$) for length contraction. Substituting L_0/γ for L in Eq. 37-18 and then substituting Eq. 37-8 for γ, we find

$$v = \frac{L_0/\gamma}{\Delta t} = \frac{L_0\sqrt{(1-(v/c)^2}}{\Delta t}.$$

Solving this equation for v (notice that it is on the left and also buried in the Lorentz factor) leads to

$$\begin{aligned} v &= \frac{L_0 c}{\sqrt{(c\,\Delta t)^2 + L_0^2}} \\ &= \frac{(230\text{ m})c}{\sqrt{(299\,792\,458\text{ m/s})^2(3.57\times10^{-6}\text{ s})^2 + (230\text{ m})^2}} \\ &= 0.210c. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

Note that only the relative motion of Sally and Sam matters here; whether either is stationary relative to, say, a space station is irrelevant. In Figs. 37-8*a* and *b* we took Sally to be stationary, but we could instead have taken the ship to be stationary, with Sally moving to the left past it. Event 1 is again when Sally and point B are aligned (Fig. 37-8*c*), and event 2 is again when Sally and point C are aligned (Fig. 37-8*d*). However, we are now using Sam's measurements. So the length between the two events in *his* frame is the proper length L_0 of the ship and the time interval between them is not Sally's measurement Δt but a dilated time interval $\gamma\,\Delta t$.

Substituting Sam's measurements into Eq. 37-17, we have

$$v = \frac{L_0}{\gamma \Delta t},$$

which is exactly what we found using Sally's measurements. Thus, we get the same result of $v = 0.210c$ with either set of measurements, *but we must be careful not to mix the measurements from the two frames.*

Sample Problem 37.04 Time dilation and length contraction in outrunning a supernova

Caught by surprise near a supernova, you race away from the explosion in your spaceship, hoping to outrun the high-speed material ejected toward you. Your Lorentz factor γ relative to the inertial reference frame of the local stars is 22.4.

(a) To reach a safe distance, you figure you need to cover 9.00×10^{16} m as measured in the reference frame of the local stars. How long will the flight take, as measured in that frame?

KEY IDEAS

From Chapter 2, for constant speed, we know that

$$\text{speed} = \frac{\text{distance}}{\text{time interval}}. \qquad (37\text{-}19)$$

From Fig. 37-6, we see that because your Lorentz factor γ relative to the stars is 22.4 (large), your relative speed v is almost c—so close that we can approximate it as c. Then for speed $v \approx c$, we must be careful that the distance and the time interval in Eq. 37-19 are measured in the *same* reference frame.

Calculations: The given distance (9.00×10^{16} m) for the length of your travel path is measured in the reference frame of the stars, and the requested time interval Δt is to be measured in that same frame. Thus, we can write

$$\left(\begin{matrix}\text{time interval}\\ \text{relative to stars}\end{matrix}\right) = \frac{\text{distance relative to stars}}{c}.$$

Then substituting the given distance, we find that

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\begin{matrix}\text{time interval}\\ \text{relative to stars}\end{matrix}\right) &= \frac{9.00\times10^{16}\text{ m}}{299\,792\,458\text{ m/s}} \\ &= 3.00\times10^{8}\text{ s} = 9.51\text{ y}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}\end{aligned}$$

(b) How long does that trip take according to you (in your reference frame)?

KEY IDEAS

1. We now want the time interval measured in a different reference frame—namely, yours. Thus, we need to transform the data given in the reference frame of the stars to your frame.
2. The given path length of 9.00×10^{16} m, measured in the reference frame of the stars, is a proper length L_0, because the two ends of the path are at rest in that frame. As observed from your reference frame, the stars' reference frame and those two ends of the path race past you at a relative speed of $v \approx c$.
3. You measure a contracted length L_0/γ for the path, not the proper length L_0.

Calculations: We can now rewrite Eq. 37-19 as

$$\left(\begin{matrix}\text{time interval}\\ \text{relative to you}\end{matrix}\right) = \frac{\text{distance relative to you}}{c} = \frac{L_0/\gamma}{c}.$$

Substituting known data, we find

$$\begin{aligned}\left(\begin{matrix}\text{time interval}\\ \text{relative to you}\end{matrix}\right) &= \frac{(9.00\times10^{16}\text{ m})/22.4}{299\,792\,458\text{ m/s}} \\ &= 1.340\times10^{7}\text{ s} = 0.425\text{ y}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}\end{aligned}$$

In part (a) we found that the flight takes 9.51 y in the reference frame of the stars. However, here we find that it takes only 0.425 y in your frame, due to the relative motion and the resulting contracted length of the path.

Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

37-3 THE LORENTZ TRANSFORMATION

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.15 For frames with relative motion, apply the Galilean transformation to transform an event's position from one frame to the other.

37.16 Identify that a Galilean transformation is approximately correct for slow relative speeds but the Lorentz transformations are the correct transformations for any physically possible speed.

37.17 Apply the Lorentz transformations for the spatial and temporal separations of two events as measured in two frames with a relative speed v.

37.18 From the Lorentz transformations, derive the equations for time dilation and length contraction.

37.19 From the Lorentz transformations show that if two events are simultaneous but spatially separated in one frame, they cannot be simultaneous in another frame with relative motion.

Key Idea

- The Lorentz transformation equations relate the spacetime coordinates of a single event as seen by observers in two inertial frames, S and S', where S' is moving relative to S with velocity v in the positive x and x' direction. The four coordinates are related by

$$x' = \gamma(x - vt),$$
$$y' = y,$$
$$z' = z,$$
$$t' = \gamma(t - vx/c^2).$$

The Lorentz Transformation

Figure 37-9 shows inertial reference frame S' moving with speed v relative to frame S, in the common positive direction of their horizontal axes (marked x and x'). An observer in S reports spacetime coordinates x, y, z, t for an event, and an observer in S' reports x', y', z', t' for the same event. How are these sets of numbers related? We claim at once (although it requires proof) that the y and z coordinates, which are perpendicular to the motion, are not affected by the motion; that is, $y = y'$ and $z = z'$. Our interest then reduces to the relation between x and x' and that between t and t'.

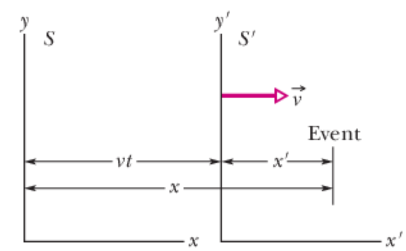

Figure 37-9 Two inertial reference frames: frame S' has velocity $\vec{v}$ relative to frame S.

The Galilean Transformation Equations

Prior to Einstein's publication of his special theory of relativity, the four coordinates of interest were assumed to be related by the *Galilean transformation equations:*

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= x - vt \\ t' &= t \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(Galilean transformation equations; approximately valid at low speeds).} \qquad (37\text{-}20)$$

(These equations are written with the assumption that $t = t' = 0$ when the origins of S and S' coincide.) You can verify the first equation with Fig. 37-9. The second equation effectively claims that time passes at the same rate for observers in both reference frames. That would have been so obviously true to a scientist prior to Einstein that it would not even have been mentioned. When speed v is small compared to c, Eqs. 37-20 generally work well.

The Lorentz Transformation Equations

Equations 37-20 work well when speed v is small compared to c, but they are actually incorrect for any speed and are very wrong when v is greater than about $0.10c$. The equations that are correct for any physically possible speed are called the **Lorentz transformation equations*** (or simply the Lorentz transformations).

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*You may wonder why we do not call these the *Einstein transformation equations* (and why not the *Einstein factor* for γ). H. A. Lorentz actually derived these equations before Einstein did, but as the great Dutch physicist graciously conceded, he did not take the further bold step of interpreting these equations as describing the true nature of space and time. It is this interpretation, first made by Einstein, that is at the heart of relativity.

We can derive them from the postulates of relativity, but here we shall instead first examine them and then justify them by showing them to be consistent with our results for simultaneity, time dilation, and length contraction. Assuming that $t = t' = 0$ when the origins of S and S' coincide in Fig. 37-9 (event 1), then the spatial and temporal coordinates of any other event are given by

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= \gamma(x - vt), \\ y' &= y, \\ z' &= z, \\ t' &= \gamma(t - vx/c^2) \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(Lorentz transformation equations; valid at all physically possible speeds).} \qquad (37\text{-}21)$$

Note that the spatial values x and the temporal values t are bound together in the first and last equations. This entanglement of space and time was a prime message of Einstein's theory, a message that was long rejected by many of his contemporaries.

It is a formal requirement of relativistic equations that they should reduce to familiar classical equations if we let c approach infinity. That is, if the speed of light were infinitely great, *all* finite speeds would be "low" and classical equations would never fail. If we let $c \to \infty$ in Eqs. 37-21, $\gamma \to 1$ and these equations reduce—as we expect—to the Galilean equations (Eqs. 37-20). You should check this.

Equations 37-21 are written in a form that is useful if we are given x and t and wish to find x' and t'. We may wish to go the other way, however. In that case we simply solve Eqs. 37-21 for x and t, obtaining

$$x = \gamma(x' + vt') \quad \text{and} \quad t = \gamma(t' + vx'/c^2). \qquad (37\text{-}22)$$

Comparison shows that, starting from either Eqs. 37-21 or Eqs. 37-22, you can find the other set by interchanging primed and unprimed quantities and reversing the sign of the relative velocity v. (For example, if the S' frame has a positive velocity relative to an observer in the S frame as in Fig. 37-9, then the S frame has a *negative* velocity relative to an observer in the S' frame.)

Equations 37-21 relate the coordinates of a second event when the first event is the passing of the origins of S and S' at $t = t' = 0$. However, in general we do not want to restrict the first event to being such a passage. So, let's rewrite the Lorentz transformations in terms of any pair of events 1 and 2, with spatial and temporal separations

$$\Delta x = x_2 - x_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta t = t_2 - t_1,$$

as measured by an observer in S, and

$$\Delta x' = x_2' - x_1' \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta t' = t_2' - t_1',$$

as measured by an observer in S'. Table 37-2 displays the Lorentz equations in difference form, suitable for analyzing pairs of events. The equations in the table were derived by simply substituting differences (such as Δx and $\Delta x'$) for the four variables in Eqs. 37-21 and 37-22.

Be careful: When substituting values for these differences, you must be consistent and not mix the values for the first event with those for the second event. Also, if, say, Δx is a negative quantity, you must be certain to include the minus sign in a substitution.

Table 37-2 The Lorentz Transformation Equations for Pairs of Events

1. $\Delta x = \gamma(\Delta x' + v\,\Delta t')$	1′. $\Delta x' = \gamma(\Delta x - v\,\Delta t)$
2. $\Delta t = \gamma(\Delta t' + v\,\Delta x'/c^2)$	2′. $\Delta t' = \gamma(\Delta t - v\,\Delta x/c^2)$

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - \beta^2}}$$

Frame S' moves at velocity v relative to frame S.

Checkpoint 2

In Fig. 37-9, frame S' has velocity $0.90c$ relative to frame S. An observer in frame S' measures two events as occurring at the following spacetime coordinates: event Yellow at (5.0 m, 20 ns) and event Green at (−2.0 m, 45 ns). An observer in frame S wants to find the temporal separation $\Delta t_{GY} = t_G - t_Y$ between the events. (a) Which equation in Table 37-2 should be used? (b) Should $+0.90c$ or $-0.90c$ be substituted for v in the parentheses on the equation's right side and in the Lorentz factor γ? What value should be substituted into the (c) first and (d) second term in the parentheses?

Some Consequences of the Lorentz Equations

Here we use the equations of Table 37-2 to affirm some of the conclusions that we reached earlier by arguments based directly on the postulates.

Simultaneity

Consider Eq. 2 of Table 37-2,

$$\Delta t = \gamma\left(\Delta t' + \frac{v\,\Delta x'}{c^2}\right). \qquad (37\text{-}23)$$

If two events occur at different places in reference frame S' of Fig. 37-9, then $\Delta x'$ in this equation is not zero. It follows that even if the events are simultaneous in S' (thus $\Delta t' = 0$), they will not be simultaneous in frame S. (This is in accord with our conclusion in Module 37-1.) The time interval between the events in S will be

$$\Delta t = \gamma \frac{v\,\Delta x'}{c^2} \quad \text{(simultaneous events in } S'\text{)}.$$

Thus, the spatial separation $\Delta x'$ guarantees a temporal separation Δt.

Time Dilation

Suppose now that two events occur at the same place in S' (thus $\Delta x' = 0$) but at different times (thus $\Delta t' \neq 0$). Equation 37-23 then reduces to

$$\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t' \quad \text{(events in same place in } S'\text{)}. \qquad (37\text{-}24)$$

This confirms time dilation between frames S and S'. Moreover, because the two events occur at the same place in S', the time interval $\Delta t'$ between them can be measured with a single clock, located at that place. Under these conditions, the measured interval is a proper time interval, and we can label it Δt_0 as we have previously labeled proper times. Thus, with that label Eq. 37-24 becomes

$$\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t_0 \quad \text{(time dilation)},$$

which is exactly Eq. 37-9, the time dilation equation. Thus, time dilation is a special case of the more general Lorentz equations.

Length Contraction

Consider Eq. 1′ of Table 37-2,

$$\Delta x' = \gamma(\Delta x - v\,\Delta t). \qquad (37\text{-}25)$$

If a rod lies parallel to the x and x' axes of Fig. 37-9 and is at rest in reference frame S', an observer in S' can measure its length at leisure. One way to do so is by subtracting the coordinates of the end points of the rod. The value of $\Delta x'$ that is obtained will be the proper length L_0 of the rod because the measurements are made in a frame where the rod is at rest.

Suppose the rod is moving in frame S. This means that Δx can be identified as the length L of the rod in frame S only if the coordinates of the rod's end points are measured *simultaneously*—that is, if $\Delta t = 0$. If we put $\Delta x' = L_0$, $\Delta x = L$, and $\Delta t = 0$ in Eq. 37-25, we find

$$L = \frac{L_0}{\gamma} \quad \text{(length contraction)}, \tag{37-26}$$

which is exactly Eq. 37-13, the length contraction equation. Thus, length contraction is a special case of the more general Lorentz equations.

Sample Problem 37.05 Lorentz transformations and reversing the sequence of events

An Earth starship has been sent to check an Earth outpost on the planet P1407, whose moon houses a battle group of the often hostile Reptulians. As the ship follows a straight-line course first past the planet and then past the moon, it detects a high-energy microwave burst at the Reptulian moon base and then, 1.10 s later, an explosion at the Earth outpost, which is 4.00×10^8 m from the Reptulian base as measured from the ship's reference frame. The Reptulians have obviously attacked the Earth outpost, and so the starship begins to prepare for a confrontation with them.

(a) The speed of the ship relative to the planet and its moon is $0.980c$. What are the distance and time interval between the burst and the explosion as measured in the planet–moon frame (and thus according to the occupants of the stations)?

KEY IDEAS

1. This problem involves measurements made from two reference frames, the planet–moon frame and the starship frame.
2. We have two events: the burst and the explosion.
3. We need to transform the given data as measured in the starship frame to the corresponding data as measured in the planet–moon frame.

Starship frame: Before we get to the transformation, we need to carefully choose our notation. We begin with a sketch of the situation as shown in Fig. 37-10. There, we have chosen the ship's frame S to be stationary and the planet–moon frame S' to be moving with positive velocity (rightward). (This is an arbitrary choice; we could, instead, have chosen the planet–moon frame to be stationary. Then we would redraw $\vec{v}$ in Fig. 37-10 as being attached to the S frame and indicating leftward motion; v would then be a negative quantity. The results would be the same.) Let subscripts e and b represent the explosion and burst, respectively. Then the given data, all in the unprimed (starship) reference frame, are

$$\Delta x = x_e - x_b = +4.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m}$$

and

$$\Delta t = t_e - t_b = +1.10 \text{ s}.$$

Here, Δx is a positive quantity because in Fig. 37-10, the coordinate x_e for the explosion is greater than the coordinate x_b for the burst; Δt is also a positive quantity because the time t_e of the explosion is greater (later) than the time t_b of the burst.

The relative motion alters the time intervals between events and maybe even their sequence.

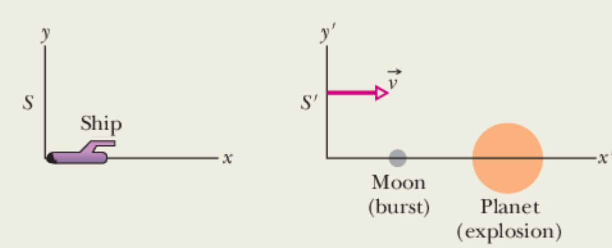

Figure 37-10 A planet and its moon in reference frame S' move rightward with speed v relative to a starship in reference frame S.

Planet–moon frame: We seek $\Delta x'$ and $\Delta t'$, which we shall get by transforming the given S-frame data to the planet–moon frame S'. Because we are considering a pair of events, we choose transformation equations from Table 37-2—namely, Eqs. 1′ and 2′:

$$\Delta x' = \gamma(\Delta x - v\,\Delta t) \tag{37-27}$$

and

$$\Delta t' = \gamma\left(\Delta t - \frac{v\,\Delta x}{c^2}\right). \tag{37-28}$$

Here, $v = +0.980c$ and the Lorentz factor is

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-(+0.980c/c)^2}} = 5.0252.$$

Equation 37-27 then becomes

$$\Delta x' = (5.0252)[4.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m} - (+0.980\,c)(1.10 \text{ s})]$$
$$= 3.86 \times 10^8 \text{ m}, \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

and Eq. 37-28 becomes

$$\Delta t' = (5.0252)\left[(1.10 \text{ s}) - \frac{(+0.980c)(4.00 \times 10^8 \text{m})}{c^2}\right]$$
$$= -1.04 \text{ s}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) What is the meaning of the minus sign in the value for $\Delta t'$?

Reasoning: We must be consistent with the notation we set up in part (a). Recall how we originally defined the time interval between burst and explosion: $\Delta t = t_e - t_b = +1.10$ s. To be consistent with that choice of notation, our definition of $\Delta t'$ must be $t'_e - t'_b$; thus, we have found that

$$\Delta t' = t'_e - t'_b = -1.04 \text{ s.}$$

The minus sign here tells us that $t'_b > t'_e$; that is, in the planet–moon reference frame, the burst occurred 1.04 s *after* the explosion, not 1.10 s *before* the explosion as detected in the ship frame.

(c) Did the burst cause the explosion, or vice versa?

KEY IDEA

The sequence of events measured in the planet–moon reference frame is the reverse of that measured in the ship frame. In either situation, if there is a causal relationship between the two events, information must travel from the location of one event to the location of the other to cause it.

Checking the speed: Let us check the required speed of the information. In the ship frame, this speed is

$$v_{\text{info}} = \frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{4.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m}}{1.10 \text{ s}} = 3.64 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s},$$

but that speed is impossible because it exceeds c. In the planet–moon frame, the speed comes out to be 3.70×10^8 m/s, also impossible. Therefore, neither event could possibly have caused the other event; that is, they are *unrelated* events. Thus, the starship should stand down and not confront the Reptulians.

Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

37-4 THE RELATIVITY OF VELOCITIES

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.20 With a sketch, explain the arrangement in which a particle's velocity is to be measured relative to two frames that have relative motion.

37.21 Apply the relationship for a relativistic velocity transformation between two frames with relative motion.

Key Idea

- When a particle is moving with speed u' in the positive x' direction in an inertial reference frame S' that itself is moving with speed v parallel to the x direction of a second inertial frame S, the speed u of the particle as measured in S is

$$u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + u'v/c^2} \quad \text{(relativistic velocity).}$$

The Relativity of Velocities

Here we wish to use the Lorentz transformation equations to compare the velocities that two observers in different inertial reference frames S and S' would measure for the same moving particle. Let S' move with velocity v relative to S.

Suppose that the particle, moving with constant velocity parallel to the x and x' axes in Fig. 37-11, sends out two signals as it moves. Each observer measures the space interval and the time interval between these two events. These four measurements are related by Eqs. 1 and 2 of Table 37-2,

$$\Delta x = \gamma(\Delta x' + v\,\Delta t')$$

and

$$\Delta t = \gamma\left(\Delta t' + \frac{v\,\Delta x'}{c^2}\right).$$

If we divide the first of these equations by the second, we find

$$\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta x' + v\,\Delta t'}{\Delta t' + v\,\Delta x'/c^2}.$$

The speed of the moving particle depends on the frame.

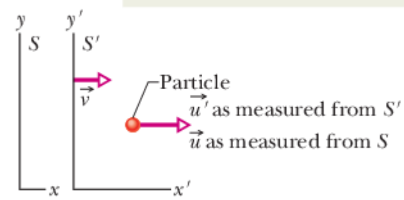

Figure 37-11 Reference frame S' moves with velocity $\vec{v}$ relative to frame S. A particle has velocity $\vec{u}'$ relative to reference frame S' and velocity $\vec{u}$ relative to reference frame S.

Dividing the numerator and denominator of the right side by $\Delta t'$, we find

$$\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} = \frac{\Delta x'/\Delta t' + v}{1 + v(\Delta x'/\Delta t')/c^2}.$$

However, in the differential limit, $\Delta x/\Delta t$ is u, the velocity of the particle as measured in S, and $\Delta x'/\Delta t'$ is u', the velocity of the particle as measured in S'. Then we have, finally,

$$u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + u'v/c^2} \quad \text{(relativistic velocity transformation)} \tag{37-29}$$

as the relativistic velocity transformation equation. (*Caution:* Be careful to substitute the correct signs for the velocities.) Equation 37-29 reduces to the classical, or Galilean, velocity transformation equation,

$$u = u' + v \quad \text{(classical velocity transformation),} \tag{37-30}$$

when we apply the formal test of letting $c \to \infty$. In other words, Eq. 37-29 is correct for all physically possible speeds, but Eq. 37-30 is approximately correct for speeds much less than c.

37-5 DOPPLER EFFECT FOR LIGHT

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.22 Identify that the frequency of light as measured in a frame attached to the light source (the rest frame) is the proper frequency.

37.23 For source–detector separations increasing and decreasing, identify whether the detected frequency is shifted up or down from the proper frequency, identify that the shift increases with an increase in relative speed, and apply the terms blue shift and red shift.

37.24 Identify radial speed.

37.25 For source–detector separations increasing and decreasing, apply the relationships between proper frequency f_0, detected frequency f, and radial speed v.

37.26 Convert between equations for frequency shift and wavelength shift.

37.27 When a radial speed is much less than light speed, apply the approximation relating wavelength shift $\Delta\lambda$, proper wavelength λ_0, and radial speed v.

37.28 Identify that for light (not sound) there is a shift in the frequency even when the velocity of the source is perpendicular to the line between the source and the detector, an effect due to time dilation.

37.29 Apply the relationship for the transverse Doppler effect by relating detected frequency f, proper frequency f_0, and relative speed v.

Key Ideas

- When a light source and a light detector move relative to each other, the wavelength of the light as measured in the rest frame of the source is the proper wavelength λ_0. The detected wavelength λ is either longer (a red shift) or shorter (a blue shift) depending on whether the source–detector separation is increasing or decreasing.

- When the separation is increasing, the wavelengths are related by

$$\lambda = \lambda_0 \sqrt{\frac{1 + \beta}{1 - \beta}} \quad \text{(source and detector separating),}$$

where $\beta = v/c$ and v is the relative radial speed (along a line through the source and detector). If the separation is decreasing, the signs in front of the β symbols are reversed.

- For speeds much less than c, the magnitude of the Doppler wavelength shift $\Delta\lambda = \lambda - \lambda_0$ is approximately related to v by

$$v = \frac{|\Delta\lambda|}{\lambda_0} c \quad (v \ll c).$$

- If the relative motion of the light source is perpendicular to a line through the source and detector, the detected frequency f is related to the proper frequency f_0 by

$$f = f_0 \sqrt{1 - \beta^2}.$$

This transverse Doppler effect is due to time dilation.

Doppler Effect for Light

In Module 17-7 we discussed the Doppler effect (a shift in detected frequency) for sound waves, finding that the effect depends on the source and detector velocities relative to the air. That is not the situation with light waves, which require no medium (they can even travel through vacuum). The Doppler effect for light waves depends on only the relative velocity $\vec{v}$ between source and detector, as measured from the reference frame of either. Let f_0 represent the **proper frequency** of the source—that is, the frequency that is measured by an observer in the rest frame of the source. Let f represent the frequency detected by an observer moving with velocity $\vec{v}$ relative to that rest frame. Then, when the direction of $\vec{v}$ is directly away from the source,

$$f = f_0\sqrt{\frac{1-\beta}{1+\beta}} \quad \text{(source and detector separating)}, \tag{37-31}$$

where $\beta = v/c$.

Because measurements involving light are usually done in wavelengths rather than frequencies, let's rewrite Eq. 37-31 by replacing f with c/λ and f_0 with c/λ_0, where λ is the measured wavelength and λ_0 is the **proper wavelength** (the wavelength associated with f_0). After canceling c from both sides, we then have

$$\lambda = \lambda_0\sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} \quad \text{(source and detector separating)}. \tag{37-32}$$

When the direction of $\vec{v}$ is directly toward the source, we must change the signs in front of the β symbols in Eqs. 37-31 and 37-32.

For an increasing separation, we can see from Eq. 37-32 (with an addition in the numerator and a subtraction in the denominator) that the measured wavelength is greater than the proper wavelength. Such a Doppler shift is described as being a *red shift*, where *red* does not mean the measured wavelength is red or even visible. The term merely serves as a memory device because red is at the *long*-wavelength end of the visible spectrum. Thus λ is longer than λ_0. Similarly, for a decreasing separation, λ is shorter than λ_0, and the Doppler shift is described as being a *blue shift*.

Low-Speed Doppler Effect

For low speeds ($\beta \ll 1$), Eq. 37-31 can be expanded in a power series in β and approximated as

$$f = f_0(1 - \beta + \tfrac{1}{2}\beta^2) \quad \text{(source and detector separating, } \beta \ll 1). \tag{37-33}$$

The corresponding low-speed equation for the Doppler effect with sound waves (or any waves except light waves) has the same first two terms but a different coefficient in the third term. Thus, the relativistic effect for low-speed light sources and detectors shows up only with the β^2 term.

A police radar unit employs the Doppler effect with microwaves to measure the speed v of a car. A source in the radar unit emits a microwave beam at a certain (proper) frequency f_0 along the road. A car that is moving toward the unit intercepts that beam but at a frequency that is shifted upward by the Doppler effect due to the car's motion toward the radar unit. The car reflects the beam back toward the radar unit. Because the car is moving toward the radar unit, the detector in the unit intercepts a reflected beam that is further shifted up in frequency. The unit compares that detected frequency with f_0 and computes the speed v of the car.

Astronomical Doppler Effect

In astronomical observations of stars, galaxies, and other sources of light, we can determine how fast the sources are moving, either directly away from us or directly toward us, by measuring the *Doppler shift* of the light that reaches us. If a certain star were at rest relative to us, we would detect light from it with a certain proper frequency f_0. However, if the star is moving either directly away from us or directly toward us, the light we detect has a frequency f that is shifted from f_0 by the Doppler effect. This Doppler shift is due only to the *radial* motion of the star (its motion directly toward us or away from us), and the speed we can determine by measuring this Doppler shift is only the *radial speed* v of the star—that is, only the radial component of the star's velocity relative to us.

Suppose a star (or any other light source) moves away from us with a radial speed v that is low enough (β is small enough) for us to neglect the β^2 term in Eq. 37-33. Then we have

$$f = f_0(1 - \beta). \tag{37-34}$$

Because astronomical measurements involving light are usually done in wavelengths rather than frequencies, let's rewrite Eq. 37-34 as

$$\frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{c}{\lambda_0}(1 - \beta),$$

or

$$\lambda = \lambda_0(1 - \beta)^{-1}.$$

Because we assume β is small, we can expand $(1 - \beta)^{-1}$ in a power series. Doing so and retaining only the first power of β, we have

$$\lambda = \lambda_0(1 + \beta),$$

or

$$\beta = \frac{\lambda - \lambda_0}{\lambda_0}. \tag{37-35}$$

Replacing β with v/c and $\lambda - \lambda_0$ with $|\Delta\lambda|$ leads to

$$v = \frac{|\Delta\lambda|}{\lambda_0}c \quad \text{(radial speed of light source, } v \ll c\text{).} \tag{37-36}$$

The difference $\Delta\lambda$ is the *wavelength Doppler shift* of the light source. We enclose it with an absolute sign so that we always have a magnitude of the shift. Equation 37-36 is an approximation that can be applied whether the light source is moving toward or away from us but only when $v \ll c$.

Checkpoint 3

The figure shows a source that emits light of proper frequency f_0 while moving directly toward the right with speed $c/4$ as measured from reference frame S. The figure also shows a light detector, which measures a frequency $f > f_0$ for the emitted light. (a) Is the detector moving toward the left or the right? (b) Is the speed of the detector as measured from reference frame S more than $c/4$, less than $c/4$, or equal to $c/4$?

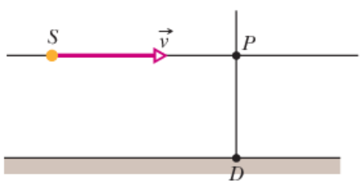

Figure 37-12 A light source S travels with velocity $\vec{v}$ past a detector at D. The special theory of relativity predicts a transverse Doppler effect as the source passes through point P, where the direction of travel is perpendicular to the line extending through D. Classical theory predicts no such effect.

Transverse Doppler Effect

So far, we have discussed the Doppler effect, here and in Chapter 17, only for situations in which the source and the detector move either directly toward or directly away from each other. Figure 37-12 shows a different arrangement, in which a source S moves past a detector D. When S reaches point P, the velocity of S is perpendicular to the line joining P and D, and at that instant S is moving neither toward nor away from D. If the source is emitting sound waves of frequency f_0, D detects that frequency (with no Doppler effect) when it intercepts the waves that were emitted at point P. However, if the source is emitting light waves, there is still a Doppler effect, called the **transverse Doppler effect.** In this situation, the detected frequency of the light emitted when the source is at point P is

$$f = f_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2} \quad \text{(transverse Doppler effect).} \tag{37-37}$$

For low speeds ($\beta \ll 1$), Eq. 37-37 can be expanded in a power series in β and approximated as

$$f = f_0(1 - \tfrac{1}{2}\beta^2) \quad \text{(low speeds).} \tag{37-38}$$

Here the first term is what we would expect for sound waves, and again the relativistic effect for low-speed light sources and detectors appears with the β^2 term.

In principle, a police radar unit can determine the speed of a car even when the path of the radar beam is perpendicular (transverse) to the path of the car. However, Eq. 37-38 tells us that because β is small even for a fast car, the relativistic term $\beta^2/2$ in the transverse Doppler effect is extremely small. Thus, $f \approx f_0$ and the radar unit computes a speed of zero.

The transverse Doppler effect is really another test of time dilation. If we rewrite Eq. 37-37 in terms of the period T of oscillation of the emitted light wave instead of the frequency, we have, because $T = 1/f$,

$$T = \frac{T_0}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \gamma T_0, \tag{37-39}$$

in which T_0 ($= 1/f_0$) is the **proper period** of the source. As comparison with Eq. 37-9 shows, Eq. 37-39 is simply the time dilation formula.

37-6 MOMENTUM AND ENERGY

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

37.30 Identify that the classical expressions for momentum and kinetic energy are approximately correct for slow speeds whereas the relativistic expressions are correct for any physically possible speed.

37.31 Apply the relationship between momentum, mass, and relative speed.

37.32 Identify that an object has a mass energy (or rest energy) associated with its mass.

37.33 Apply the relationships between total energy, rest energy, kinetic energy, momentum, mass, speed, the speed parameter, and the Lorentz factor.

37.34 Sketch a graph of kinetic energy versus the ratio v/c (of speed to light speed) for both classical and relativistic expressions of kinetic energy.

37.35 Apply the work–kinetic energy theorem to relate work by an applied force and the resulting change in kinetic energy.

37.36 For a reaction, apply the relationship between the Q value and the change in the mass energy.

37.37 For a reaction, identify the correlation between the algebraic sign of Q and whether energy is released or absorbed by the reaction.

Key Ideas

- The following definitions of linear momentum $\vec{p}$, kinetic energy K, and total energy E for a particle of mass m are valid at any physically possible speed:

$$\vec{p} = \gamma m\vec{v} \quad \text{(momentum),}$$
$$E = mc^2 + K = \gamma mc^2 \quad \text{(total energy),}$$
$$K = mc^2(\gamma - 1) \quad \text{(kinetic energy).}$$

Here γ is the Lorentz factor for the particle's motion, and mc^2 is the *mass energy*, or *rest energy*, associated with the mass of the particle.

- These equations lead to the relationships

$$(pc)^2 = K^2 + 2Kmc^2$$

and

$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2.$$

- When a system of particles undergoes a chemical or nuclear reaction, the Q of the reaction is the negative of the change in the system's total mass energy:

$$Q = M_ic^2 - M_fc^2 = -\Delta M\, c^2,$$

where M_i is the system's total mass before the reaction and M_f is its total mass after the reaction.

A New Look at Momentum

Suppose that a number of observers, each in a different inertial reference frame, watch an isolated collision between two particles. In classical mechanics, we have seen that—even though the observers measure different velocities for the colliding particles—they all find that the law of conservation of momentum holds. That is, they find that the total momentum of the system of particles after the collision is the same as it was before the collision.

How is this situation affected by relativity? We find that if we continue to define the momentum $\vec{p}$ of a particle as $m\vec{v}$, the product of its mass and its velocity, total momentum is *not* conserved for the observers in different inertial frames. So, we need to redefine momentum in order to save that conservation law.

Consider a particle moving with constant speed v in the positive direction of an x axis. Classically, its momentum has magnitude

$$p = mv = m\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t} \quad \text{(classical momentum)}, \tag{37-40}$$

in which Δx is the distance it travels in time Δt. To find a relativistic expression for momentum, we start with the new definition

$$p = m\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t_0}.$$

Here, as before, Δx is the distance traveled by a moving particle as viewed by an observer watching that particle. However, Δt_0 is the time required to travel that distance, measured not by the observer watching the moving particle but by an observer moving with the particle. The particle is at rest with respect to this second observer; thus that measured time is a proper time.

Using the time dilation formula, $\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t_0$ (Eq. 37-9), we can then write

$$p = m\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t_0} = m\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}\frac{\Delta t}{\Delta t_0} = m\frac{\Delta x}{\Delta t}\gamma.$$

However, since $\Delta x/\Delta t$ is just the particle velocity v, we have

$$p = \gamma mv \quad \text{(momentum)}. \tag{37-41}$$

Note that this differs from the classical definition of Eq. 37-40 only by the Lorentz factor γ. However, that difference is important: Unlike classical momentum, relativistic momentum approaches an infinite value as v approaches c.

We can generalize the definition of Eq. 37-41 to vector form as

$$\vec{p} = \gamma m\vec{v} \quad \text{(momentum)}. \tag{37-42}$$

This equation gives the correct definition of momentum for all physically possible speeds. For a speed much less than c, it reduces to the classical definition of momentum ($\vec{p} = m\vec{v}$).

A New Look at Energy

Mass Energy

The science of chemistry was initially developed with the assumption that in chemical reactions, energy and mass are conserved separately. In 1905, Einstein showed that as a consequence of his theory of special relativity, mass can be considered to be another form of energy. Thus, the law of conservation of energy is really the law of conservation of mass–energy.

In a *chemical reaction* (a process in which atoms or molecules interact), the amount of mass that is transferred into other forms of energy (or vice versa) is such a tiny fraction of the total mass involved that there is no hope of measuring the mass change with even the best laboratory balances. Mass and energy truly *seem* to be separately conserved. However, in a *nuclear reaction* (in which nuclei or fundamental particles interact), the energy released is often about a million times greater than in a chemical reaction, and the change in mass can easily be measured.

An object's mass m and the equivalent energy E_0 are related by

$$E_0 = mc^2, \tag{37-43}$$

which, without the subscript 0, is the best-known science equation of all time. This energy that is associated with the mass of an object is called **mass energy** or **rest energy.** The second name suggests that E_0 is an energy that the object has even when it is at rest, simply because it has mass. (If you continue your study of physics beyond this book, you will see more refined discussions of the relation between mass and energy. You might even encounter disagreements about just what that relation is and means.)

Table 37-3 shows the (approximate) mass energy, or rest energy, of a few objects. The mass energy of, say, a U.S. penny is enormous; the equivalent amount of electrical energy would cost well over a million dollars. On the other hand, the entire annual U.S. electrical energy production corresponds to a mass of only a few hundred kilograms of matter (stones, burritos, or anything else).

In practice, SI units are rarely used with Eq. 37-43 because they are too large to be convenient. Masses are usually measured in atomic mass units, where

$$1\ \text{u} = 1.660\,538\,86 \times 10^{-27}\ \text{kg}, \tag{37-44}$$

and energies are usually measured in electron-volts or multiples of it, where

$$1\ \text{eV} = 1.602\,176\,462 \times 10^{-19}\ \text{J}. \tag{37-45}$$

In the units of Eqs. 37-44 and 37-45, the multiplying constant c^2 has the values

$$\begin{aligned} c^2 &= 9.314\,940\,13 \times 10^8\ \text{eV/u} = 9.314\,940\,13 \times 10^5\ \text{keV/u} \\ &= 931.494\,013\ \text{MeV/u}. \end{aligned} \tag{37-46}$$

Total Energy

Equation 37-43 gives, for any object, the mass energy E_0 that is associated with the object's mass m, regardless of whether the object is at rest or moving. If the object is moving, it has additional energy in the form of kinetic energy K. If we assume that the object's potential energy is zero, then its total energy E is the sum of its mass energy and its kinetic energy:

$$E = E_0 + K = mc^2 + K. \tag{37-47}$$

Although we shall not prove it, the total energy E can also be written as

$$E = \gamma mc^2, \tag{37-48}$$

where γ is the Lorentz factor for the object's motion.

Table 37-3 The Energy Equivalents of a Few Objects

Object	Mass (kg)	Energy Equivalent	
Electron	$\approx 9.11 \times 10^{-31}$	$\approx 8.19 \times 10^{-14}$ J	($\approx$ 511 keV)
Proton	$\approx 1.67 \times 10^{-27}$	$\approx 1.50 \times 10^{-10}$ J	($\approx$ 938 MeV)
Uranium atom	$\approx 3.95 \times 10^{-25}$	$\approx 3.55 \times 10^{-8}$ J	($\approx$ 225 GeV)
Dust particle	$\approx 1 \times 10^{-13}$	$\approx 1 \times 10^{4}$ J	($\approx$ 2 kcal)
U.S. penny	$\approx 3.1 \times 10^{-3}$	$\approx 2.8 \times 10^{14}$ J	($\approx$ 78 GW·h)

Since Chapter 7, we have discussed many examples involving changes in the total energy of a particle or a system of particles. However, we did not include mass energy in the discussions because the changes in mass energy were either zero or small enough to be neglected. The law of conservation of total energy still applies when changes in mass energy are significant. Thus, regardless of what happens to the mass energy, the following statement from Module 8-5 is still true:

> The total energy E of an *isolated system* cannot change.

For example, if the total mass energy of two interacting particles in an isolated system decreases, some other type of energy in the system must increase because the total energy cannot change.

***Q* Value.** In a system undergoing a chemical or nuclear reaction, a change in the total mass energy of the system due to the reaction is often given as a Q value. The Q value for a reaction is obtained from the relation

$$\begin{pmatrix}\text{system's initial}\\ \text{total mass energy}\end{pmatrix} = \begin{pmatrix}\text{system's final}\\ \text{total mass energy}\end{pmatrix} + Q$$

or

$$E_{0i} = E_{0f} + Q. \tag{37-49}$$

Using Eq. 37-43 ($E_0 = mc^2$), we can rewrite this in terms of the initial *total* mass M_i and the final *total* mass M_f as

$$M_i c^2 = M_f c^2 + Q$$

or

$$Q = M_i c^2 - M_f c^2 = -\Delta M\, c^2, \tag{37-50}$$

where the change in mass due to the reaction is $\Delta M = M_f - M_i$.

If a reaction results in the transfer of energy from mass energy to, say, kinetic energy of the reaction products, the system's total mass energy E_0 (and total mass M) decreases and Q is positive. If, instead, a reaction requires that energy be transferred to mass energy, the system's total mass energy E_0 (and its total mass M) increases and Q is negative.

For example, suppose two hydrogen nuclei undergo a *fusion reaction* in which they join together to form a single nucleus and release two particles:

$$^1\text{H} + {}^1\text{H} \rightarrow {}^2\text{H} + \text{e}^+ + \nu,$$

where ^{2}H is another type of hydrogen nucleus (with a neutron in addition to the proton), e^+ is a positron, and ν is a neutrino. The total mass energy (and total mass) of the resultant single nucleus and two released particles is less than the total mass energy (and total mass) of the initial hydrogen nuclei. Thus, the Q of the fusion reaction is positive, and energy is said to be *released* (transferred from mass energy) by the reaction. This release is important to you because the fusion of hydrogen nuclei in the Sun is one part of the process that results in sunshine on Earth and makes life here possible.

Kinetic Energy

In Chapter 7 we defined the kinetic energy K of an object of mass m moving at speed v well below c to be

$$K = \tfrac{1}{2}mv^2. \tag{37-51}$$

However, this classical equation is only an approximation that is good enough when the speed is well below the speed of light.

Let us now find an expression for kinetic energy that is correct for *all* physically possible speeds, including speeds close to c. Solving Eq. 37-47 for K and then substituting for E from Eq. 37-48 lead to

$$\begin{aligned} K &= E - mc^2 = \gamma mc^2 - mc^2 \\ &= mc^2(\gamma - 1) \quad \text{(kinetic energy)}, \end{aligned} \tag{37-52}$$

where $\gamma\,(= 1/\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2})$ is the Lorentz factor for the object's motion.

Figure 37-13 shows plots of the kinetic energy of an electron as calculated with the correct definition (Eq. 37-52) and the classical approximation (Eq. 37-51), both as functions of v/c. Note that on the left side of the graph the two plots coincide; this is the part of the graph—at lower speeds—where we have calculated kinetic energies so far in this book. This part of the graph tells us that we have been justified in calculating kinetic energy with the classical expression of Eq. 37-51. However, on the right side of the graph—at speeds near c—the two plots differ significantly. As v/c approaches 1.0, the plot for the classical definition of kinetic energy increases only moderately while the plot for the correct definition of kinetic energy increases dramatically, approaching an infinite value as v/c approaches 1.0. Thus, when an object's speed v is near c, we *must* use Eq. 37-52 to calculate its kinetic energy.

Work. Figure 37-13 also tells us something about the work we must do on an object to increase its speed by, say, 1%. The required work W is equal to the resulting change ΔK in the object's kinetic energy. If the change is to occur on the low-speed, left side of Fig. 37-13, the required work might be modest. However, if the change is to occur on the high-speed, right side of Fig. 37-13, the required work could be enormous because the kinetic energy K increases so rapidly there with an increase in speed v. To increase an object's speed to c would require, in principle, an infinite amount of energy; thus, doing so is impossible.

The kinetic energies of electrons, protons, and other particles are often stated with the unit electron-volt or one of its multiples used as an adjective. For example, an electron with a kinetic energy of 20 MeV may be described as a 20 MeV electron.

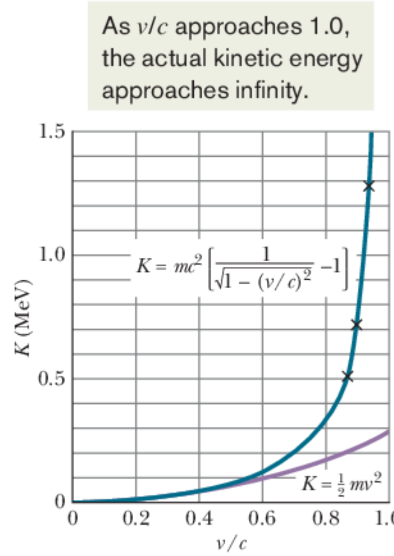

Figure 37-13 The relativistic (Eq. 37-52) and classical (Eq. 37-51) equations for the kinetic energy of an electron, plotted as a function of v/c, where v is the speed of the electron and c is the speed of light. Note that the two curves blend together at low speeds and diverge widely at high speeds. Experimental data (at the × marks) show that at high speeds the relativistic curve agrees with experiment but the classical curve does not.

Momentum and Kinetic Energy

In classical mechanics, the momentum p of a particle is mv and its kinetic energy K is $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$. If we eliminate v between these two expressions, we find a direct relation between momentum and kinetic energy:

$$p^2 = 2Km \quad \text{(classical)}. \tag{37-53}$$

We can find a similar connection in relativity by eliminating v between the relativistic definition of momentum (Eq. 37-41) and the relativistic definition of kinetic energy (Eq. 37-52). Doing so leads, after some algebra, to

$$(pc)^2 = K^2 + 2Kmc^2. \tag{37-54}$$

With the aid of Eq. 37-47, we can transform Eq. 37-54 into a relation between the momentum p and the total energy E of a particle:

$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2. \tag{37-55}$$

The right triangle of Fig. 37-14 can help you keep these useful relations in mind. You can also show that, in that triangle,

$$\sin\theta = \beta \quad \text{and} \quad \cos\theta = 1/\gamma. \tag{37-56}$$

With Eq. 37-55 we can see that the product pc must have the same unit as energy E; thus, we can express the unit of momentum p as an energy unit divided by c, usually as MeV/c or GeV/c in fundamental particle physics.

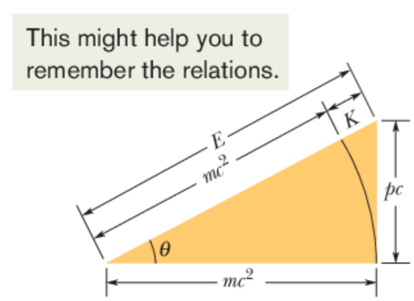

Figure 37-14 A useful memory diagram for the relativistic relations among the total energy E, the rest energy or mass energy mc^2, the kinetic energy K, and the momentum magnitude p.

Checkpoint 4

Are (a) the kinetic energy and (b) the total energy of a 1 GeV electron more than, less than, or equal to those of a 1 GeV proton?

Sample Problem 37.06 Energy and momentum of a relativistic electron

(a) What is the total energy E of a 2.53 MeV electron?

KEY IDEA

From Eq. 37-47, the total energy E is the sum of the electron's mass energy (or rest energy) mc^2 and its kinetic energy:

$$E = mc^2 + K. \tag{37-57}$$

Calculations: The adjective "2.53 MeV" in the problem statement means that the electron's kinetic energy is 2.53 MeV. To evaluate the electron's mass energy mc^2, we substitute the electron's mass m from Appendix B, obtaining

$$\begin{aligned} mc^2 &= (9.109 \times 10^{-31}\text{ kg})(299\,792\,458\text{ m/s})^2 \\ &= 8.187 \times 10^{-14}\text{ J}. \end{aligned}$$

Then dividing this result by 1.602×10^{-13} J/MeV gives us 0.511 MeV as the electron's mass energy (confirming the value in Table 37-3). Equation 37-57 then yields

$$E = 0.511\text{ MeV} + 2.53\text{ MeV} = 3.04\text{ MeV}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) What is the magnitude p of the electron's momentum, in the unit MeV/c? (Note that c is the symbol for the speed of light and not itself a unit.)

KEY IDEA

We can find p from the total energy E and the mass energy mc^2 via Eq. 37-55,

$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2.$$

Calculations: Solving for pc gives us

$$\begin{aligned} pc &= \sqrt{E^2 - (mc^2)^2} \\ &= \sqrt{(3.04\text{ MeV})^2 - (0.511\text{ MeV})^2} = 3.00\text{ MeV}. \end{aligned}$$

Finally, dividing both sides by c we find

$$p = 3.00\text{ MeV}/c. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

Sample Problem 37.07 Energy and an astounding discrepancy in travel time

The most energetic proton ever detected in the cosmic rays coming to Earth from space had an astounding kinetic energy of 3.0×10^{20} eV (enough energy to warm a teaspoon of water by a few degrees).

(a) What were the proton's Lorentz factor γ and speed v (both relative to the ground-based detector)?

KEY IDEAS

(1) The proton's Lorentz factor γ relates its total energy E to its mass energy mc^2 via Eq. 37-48 ($E = \gamma mc^2$). (2) The proton's total energy is the sum of its mass energy mc^2 and its (given) kinetic energy K.

Calculations: Putting these ideas together we have

$$\gamma = \frac{E}{mc^2} = \frac{mc^2 + K}{mc^2} = 1 + \frac{K}{mc^2}. \tag{37-58}$$

From Table 37-3, the proton's mass energy mc^2 is 938 MeV. Substituting this and the given kinetic energy into Eq. 37-58, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} \gamma &= 1 + \frac{3.0 \times 10^{20}\text{ eV}}{938 \times 10^{6}\text{ eV}} \\ &= 3.198 \times 10^{11} \approx 3.2 \times 10^{11}. \quad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

This computed value for γ is so large that we cannot use the definition of γ (Eq. 37-8) to find v. Try it; your calculator will tell you that β is effectively equal to 1 and thus that v is effectively equal to c. Actually, v is almost c, but we want a more accurate answer, which we can obtain by first solving Eq. 37-8 for $1 - \beta$. To begin we write

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{(1-\beta)(1+\beta)}} \approx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2(1-\beta)}},$$

where we have used the fact that β is so close to unity that $1 + \beta$ is very close to 2. (We can round off the sum of two very close numbers but not their difference.) The velocity we seek is contained in the $1 - \beta$ term. Solving for $1 - \beta$ then yields

$$\begin{aligned} 1 - \beta &= \frac{1}{2\gamma^2} = \frac{1}{(2)(3.198 \times 10^{11})^2} \\ &= 4.9 \times 10^{-24} \approx 5 \times 10^{-24}. \end{aligned}$$

Thus, $\beta = 1 - 5 \times 10^{-24}$

and, since $v = \beta c$,

$$v \approx 0.999\,999\,999\,999\,999\,999\,999\,995c. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(b) Suppose that the proton travels along a diameter of the Milky Way galaxy (9.8×10^4 ly). Approximately how long does the proton take to travel that diameter as measured from the common reference frame of Earth and the Galaxy?

Reasoning: We just saw that this *ultrarelativistic* proton is traveling at a speed barely less than c. By the definition of light-year, light takes 1 y to travel a distance of 1 ly, and so light should take 9.8×10^4 y to travel 9.8×10^4 ly, and this proton should take almost the same time. Thus, from our Earth–Milky Way reference frame, the proton's trip takes

$$\Delta t = 9.8 \times 10^4\text{ y}. \quad \text{(Answer)}$$

(c) How long does the trip take as measured in the reference frame of the proton?

KEY IDEAS

1. This problem involves measurements made from two (inertial) reference frames: one is the Earth–Milky Way frame and the other is attached to the proton.
2. This problem also involves two events: the first is when the proton passes one end of the diameter along the Galaxy, and the second is when it passes the opposite end.
3. The time interval between those two events as measured in the proton's reference frame is the proper time interval Δt_0 because the events occur at the same location in that frame—namely, at the proton itself.
4. We can find the proper time interval Δt_0 from the time interval Δt measured in the Earth–Milky Way frame by using Eq. 37-9 ($\Delta t = \gamma\,\Delta t_0$) for time dilation. (Note that we can use that equation because one of the time measures *is* a proper time. However, we get the same relation if we use a Lorentz transformation.)

Calculation: Solving Eq. 37-9 for Δt_0 and substituting γ from (a) and Δt from (b), we find

$$\Delta t_0 = \frac{\Delta t}{\gamma} = \frac{9.8 \times 10^4\ \text{y}}{3.198 \times 10^{11}}$$
$$= 3.06 \times 10^{-7}\ \text{y} = 9.7\ \text{s}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

In our frame, the trip takes 98 000 y. In the proton's frame, it takes 9.7 s! As promised at the start of this chapter, relative motion can alter the rate at which time passes, and we have here an extreme example.

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Review & Summary

The Postulates Einstein's **special theory of relativity** is based on two postulates:

1. The laws of physics are the same for observers in all inertial reference frames. No one frame is preferred over any other.
2. The speed of light in vacuum has the same value c in all directions and in all inertial reference frames.

The speed of light c in vacuum is an ultimate speed that cannot be exceeded by any entity carrying energy or information.

Coordinates of an Event Three space coordinates and one time coordinate specify an **event.** One task of special relativity is to relate these coordinates as assigned by two observers who are in uniform motion with respect to each other.

Simultaneous Events If two observers are in relative motion, they will not, in general, agree as to whether two events are simultaneous.

Time Dilation If two successive events occur at the same place in an inertial reference frame, the time interval Δt_0 between them, measured on a single clock where they occur, is the **proper time** between the events. *Observers in frames moving relative to that frame will measure a larger value for this interval.* For an observer moving with relative speed v, the measured time interval is

$$\Delta t = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-(v/c)^2}} = \frac{\Delta t_0}{\sqrt{1-\beta^2}}$$
$$= \gamma\,\Delta t_0 \quad \text{(time dilation)}. \qquad \text{(37-7 to 37-9)}$$

Here $\beta = v/c$ is the **speed parameter** and $\gamma = 1/\sqrt{1-\beta^2}$ is the **Lorentz factor.** An important result of time dilation is that moving clocks run slow as measured by an observer at rest.

Length Contraction The length L_0 of an object measured by an observer in an inertial reference frame in which the object is at rest is called its **proper length.** *Observers in frames moving relative to that frame and parallel to that length will measure a shorter length.* For an observer moving with relative speed v, the measured length is

$$L = L_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2} = \frac{L_0}{\gamma} \quad \text{(length contraction)}. \qquad \text{(37-13)}$$

The Lorentz Transformation The *Lorentz transformation* equations relate the spacetime coordinates of a single event as seen by observers in two inertial frames, S and S', where S' is moving relative to S with velocity v in the positive x and x' direction. The four coordinates are related by

$$\begin{aligned} x' &= \gamma(x - vt), \\ y' &= y, \\ z' &= z, \\ t' &= \gamma(t - vx/c^2). \end{aligned} \qquad \text{(37-21)}$$

Relativity of Velocities When a particle is moving with speed u' in the positive x' direction in an inertial reference frame S' that itself is moving with speed v parallel to the x direction of a second inertial frame S, the speed u of the particle as measured in S is

$$u = \frac{u' + v}{1 + u'v/c^2} \quad \text{(relativistic velocity)}. \qquad \text{(37-29)}$$

Relativistic Doppler Effect When a light source and a light detector move directly relative to each other, the wavelength of the light as measured in the rest frame of the source is the *proper wavelength* λ_0. The detected wavelength λ is either longer (a *red shift*) or shorter (a *blue shift*) depending on whether the source–detector separation is increasing or decreasing. When the separation is increasing, the wavelengths are related by

$$\lambda = \lambda_0\sqrt{\frac{1+\beta}{1-\beta}} \quad \text{(source and detector separating)}, \tag{37-32}$$

where $\beta = v/c$ and v is the relative radial speed (along a line connecting the source and detector). If the separation is decreasing, the signs in front of the β symbols are reversed. For speeds much less than c, the magnitude of the Doppler wavelength shift ($\Delta\lambda = \lambda - \lambda_0$) is approximately related to v by

$$v = \frac{|\Delta\lambda|}{\lambda_0}c \quad (v \ll c). \tag{37-36}$$

Transverse Doppler Effect If the relative motion of the light source is perpendicular to a line joining the source and detector, the detected frequency f is related to the proper frequency f_0 by

$$f = f_0\sqrt{1-\beta^2}. \tag{37-37}$$

Momentum and Energy The following definitions of linear momentum $\vec{p}$, kinetic energy K, and total energy E for a particle of mass m are valid at any physically possible speed:

$$\vec{p} = \gamma m\vec{v} \quad \text{(momentum)}, \tag{37-42}$$

$$E = mc^2 + K = \gamma mc^2 \quad \text{(total energy)}, \tag{37-47, 37-48}$$

$$K = mc^2(\gamma - 1) \quad \text{(kinetic energy)}. \tag{37-52}$$

Here γ is the Lorentz factor for the particle's motion, and mc^2 is the *mass energy*, or *rest energy*, associated with the mass of the particle. These equations lead to the relationships

$$(pc)^2 = K^2 + 2Kmc^2 \tag{37-54}$$

and

$$E^2 = (pc)^2 + (mc^2)^2. \tag{37-55}$$

When a system of particles undergoes a chemical or nuclear reaction, the Q of the reaction is the negative of the change in the system's total mass energy:

$$Q = M_ic^2 - M_fc^2 = -\Delta M\, c^2, \tag{37-50}$$

where M_i is the system's total mass before the reaction and M_f is its total mass after the reaction.

Questions

1 A rod is to move at constant speed v along the x axis of reference frame S, with the rod's length parallel to that axis. An observer in frame S is to measure the length L of the rod. Which of the curves in Fig. 37-15 best gives length L (vertical axis of the graph) versus speed parameter β?

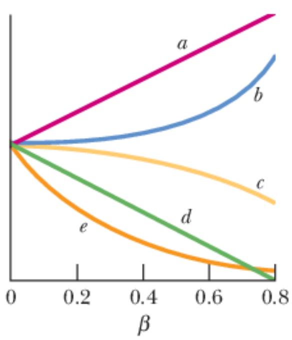

Figure 37-15 Questions 1 and 3.

2 Figure 37-16 shows a ship (attached to reference frame S') passing us (standing in reference frame S). A proton is fired at nearly the speed of light along the length of the ship, from the front to the rear. (a) Is the spatial separation $\Delta x'$ between the point at which the proton is fired and the point at which it hits the ship's rear wall a positive or negative quantity? (b) Is the temporal separation $\Delta t'$ between those events a positive or negative quantity?

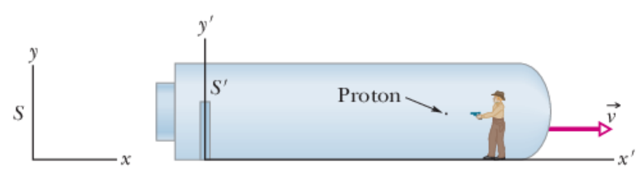

Figure 37-16 Question 2 and Problem 68.

3 Reference frame S' is to pass reference frame S at speed v along the common direction of the x' and x axes, as in Fig. 37-9. An observer who rides along with frame S' is to count off 25 s on his wristwatch. The corresponding time interval Δt is to be measured by an observer in frame S. Which of the curves in Fig. 37-15 best gives Δt (vertical axis of the graph) versus speed parameter β?

4 Figure 37-17 shows two clocks in stationary frame S' (they are synchronized in that frame) and one clock in moving frame S. Clocks C_1 and C_1' read zero when they pass each other. When clocks C_1 and C_2' pass each other, (a) which clock has the smaller reading and (b) which clock measures a proper time?

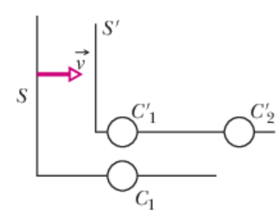

Figure 37-17 Question 4.

5 Figure 37-18 shows two clocks in stationary frame S (they are synchronized in that frame) and one clock in moving frame S'. Clocks C_1 and C_1' read zero when they pass each other. When clocks C_1' and C_2 pass each other, (a) which clock has the smaller reading and (b) which clock measures a proper time?

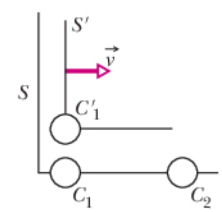

Figure 37-18 Question 5.

6 Sam leaves Venus in a spaceship headed to Mars and passes Sally, who is on Earth, with a relative speed of $0.5c$. (a) Each measures the Venus–Mars voyage time. Who measures a proper time: Sam, Sally, or neither? (b) On the way, Sam sends a pulse of light to Mars. Each measures the travel time of the pulse. Who measures a proper time: Sam, Sally, or neither?

7 The plane of clocks and measuring rods in Fig. 37-19 is like that in Fig. 37-3. The clocks along the x axis are separated (center to center) by 1

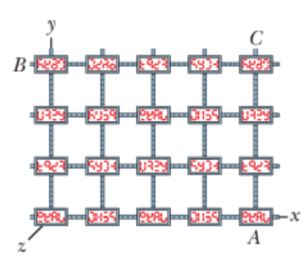

Figure 37-19 Question 7.

light-second, as are the clocks along the y axis, and all the clocks are synchronized via the procedure described in Module 37-1. When the initial synchronizing signal of $t = 0$ from the origin reaches (a) clock A, (b) clock B, and (c) clock C, what initial time is then set on those clocks? An event occurs at clock A when it reads 10 s. (d) How long does the signal of that event take to travel to an observer stationed at the origin? (e) What time does that observer assign to the event?

8 The rest energy and total energy, respectively, of three particles, expressed in terms of a basic amount A are (1) $A, 2A$; (2) $A, 3A$; (3) $3A, 4A$. Without written calculation, rank the particles according to their (a) mass, (b) kinetic energy, (c) Lorentz factor, and (d) speed, greatest first.

9 Figure 37-20 shows the triangle of Fig 37-14 for six particles; the slanted lines 2 and 4 have the same length. Rank the particles according to (a) mass, (b) momentum magnitude, and (c) Lorentz factor, greatest first. (d) Identify which two particles have the same total energy. (e) Rank the three lowest-mass particles according to kinetic energy, greatest first.

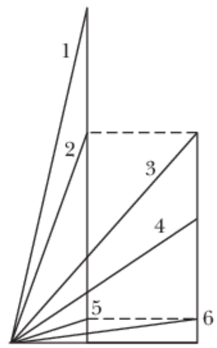

Figure 37-20 Question 9.

10 While on board a starship, you intercept signals from four shuttle craft that are moving either directly toward or directly away from you. The signals have the same proper frequency f_0. The speed and direction (both relative to you) of the shuttle craft are (a) $0.3c$ toward, (b) $0.6c$ toward, (c) $0.3c$ away, and (d) $0.6c$ away. Rank the shuttle craft according to the frequency you receive, greatest first.

11 Figure 37-21 shows one of four star cruisers that are in a race. As each cruiser passes the starting line, a shuttle craft leaves the cruiser and races toward the finish line. You, judging the race, are stationary relative to the starting and finish lines. The speeds v_c of the cruisers relative to you and the speeds v_s of the shuttle craft relative to their respective starships are, in that order, (1) $0.70c, 0.40c$; (2) $0.40c, 0.70c$; (3) $0.20c, 0.90c$; (4) $0.50c, 0.60c$. (a) Rank the shuttle craft according to their speeds relative to you, greatest first. (b) Rank the shuttle craft according to the distances their pilots measure from the starting line to the finish line, greatest first. (c) Each starship sends a signal to its shuttle craft at a certain frequency f_0 as measured on board the starship. Rank the shuttle craft according to the frequencies they detect, greatest first.

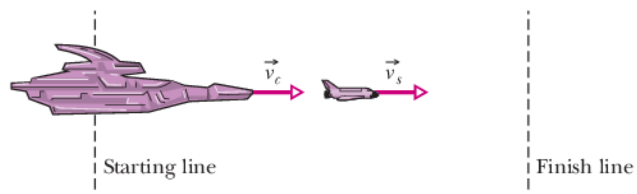

Figure 37-21 Question 11.

Problems

GO Tutoring problem available (at instructor's discretion) in *WileyPLUS* and WebAssign
SSM Worked-out solution available in Student Solutions Manual
• – ••• Number of dots indicates level of problem difficulty
Additional information available in *The Flying Circus of Physics* and at flyingcircusofphysics.com
WWW Worked-out solution is at
ILW Interactive solution is at
http://www.wiley.com/college/halliday

Module 37-1 Simultaneity and Time Dilation

•1 The mean lifetime of stationary muons is measured to be 2.2000 μs. The mean lifetime of high-speed muons in a burst of cosmic rays observed from Earth is measured to be 16.000 μs. To five significant figures, what is the speed parameter β of these cosmic-ray muons relative to Earth?

•2 To eight significant figures, what is speed parameter β if the Lorentz factor γ is (a) 1.010 000 0, (b) 10.000 000, (c) 100.000 00, and (d) 1000.000 0?

••3 You wish to make a round trip from Earth in a spaceship, traveling at constant speed in a straight line for exactly 6 months (as you measure the time interval) and then returning at the same constant speed. You wish further, on your return, to find Earth as it will be exactly 1000 years in the future. (a) To eight significant figures, at what speed parameter β must you travel? (b) Does it matter whether you travel in a straight line on your journey?

••4 *(Come) back to the future.* Suppose that a father is 20.00 y older than his daughter. He wants to travel outward from Earth for 2.000 y and then back for another 2.000 y (both intervals as he measures them) such that he is then 20.00 y *younger* than his daughter. What constant speed parameter β (relative to Earth) is required?

••5 ILW An unstable high-energy particle enters a detector and leaves a track of length 1.05 mm before it decays. Its speed relative to the detector was $0.992c$. What is its proper lifetime? That is, how long would the particle have lasted before decay had it been at rest with respect to the detector?

••6 GO Reference frame S' is to pass reference frame S at speed v along the common direction of the x' and x axes, as in Fig. 37-9. An observer who rides along with frame S' is to count off a certain time interval on his wristwatch. The corresponding time interval Δt is to be measured by an observer in frame S. Figure 37-22 gives Δt versus speed parameter β for a range of values for β. The vertical axis scale is set by $\Delta t_a = 14.0$ s. What is interval Δt if $v = 0.98c$?

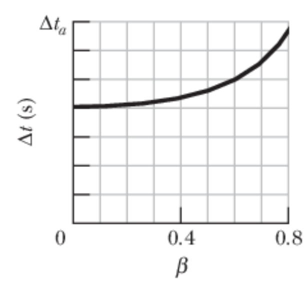

Figure 37-22 Problem 6.

••7 The premise of the *Planet of the Apes* movies and book is that hibernating astronauts travel far into Earth's future, to a time when human civilization has been replaced by an ape civilization. Considering only special relativity, determine how far into Earth's future the astronauts would travel if they slept for 120 y while traveling relative to Earth with a speed of $0.9990c$, first outward from Earth and then back again.

Module 37-2 The Relativity of Length

•8 An electron of $\beta = 0.999\ 987$ moves along the axis of an evacuated tube that has a length of 3.00 m as measured by a laboratory observer S at rest relative to the tube. An observer S' who is at rest relative to the electron, however, would see this tube moving with speed $v\ (= \beta c)$. What length would observer S' measure for the tube?

•9 SSM A spaceship of rest length 130 m races past a timing station at a speed of $0.740c$. (a) What is the length of the spaceship as measured by the timing station? (b) What time interval will the station clock record between the passage of the front and back ends of the ship?

•10 A meter stick in frame S' makes an angle of 30° with the x' axis. If that frame moves parallel to the x axis of frame S with speed $0.90c$ relative to frame S, what is the length of the stick as measured from S?

•11 A rod lies parallel to the x axis of reference frame S, moving along this axis at a speed of $0.630c$. Its rest length is 1.70 m. What will be its measured length in frame S?

••12 The length of a spaceship is measured to be exactly half its rest length. (a) To three significant figures, what is the speed parameter β of the spaceship relative to the observer's frame? (b) By what factor do the spaceship's clocks run slow relative to clocks in the observer's frame?

••13 GO A space traveler takes off from Earth and moves at speed $0.9900c$ toward the star Vega, which is 26.00 ly distant. How much time will have elapsed by Earth clocks (a) when the traveler reaches Vega and (b) when Earth observers receive word from the traveler that she has arrived? (c) How much older will Earth observers calculate the traveler to be (measured from her frame) when she reaches Vega than she was when she started the trip?

••14 GO A rod is to move at constant speed v along the x axis of reference frame S, with the rod's length parallel to that axis. An observer in frame S is to measure the length L of the rod. Figure 37-23 gives length L versus speed parameter β for a range of values for β. The vertical axis scale is set by $L_a = 1.00$ m. What is L if $v = 0.95c$?

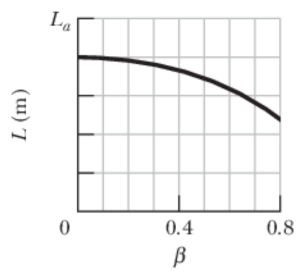

Figure 37-23 Problem 14.

••15 GO The center of our Milky Way galaxy is about 23 000 ly away. (a) To eight significant figures, at what constant speed parameter would you need to travel exactly 23 000 ly (measured in the Galaxy frame) in exactly 30 y (measured in your frame)? (b) Measured in your frame and in light-years, what length of the Galaxy would pass by you during the trip?

Module 37-3 The Lorentz Transformation

•16 Observer S reports that an event occurred on the x axis of his reference frame at $x = 3.00 \times 10^8$ m at time $t = 2.50$ s. Observer S' and her frame are moving in the positive direction of the x axis at a speed of $0.400c$. Further, $x = x' = 0$ at $t = t' = 0$. What are the (a) spatial and (b) temporal coordinate of the event according to S'? If S' were, instead, moving in the *negative* direction of the x axis, what would be the (c) spatial and (d) temporal coordinate of the event according to S'?

•17 SSM WWW In Fig. 37-9, the origins of the two frames coincide at $t = t' = 0$ and the relative speed is $0.950c$. Two micrometeorites collide at coordinates $x = 100$ km and $t = 200\ \mu$s according to an observer in frame S. What are the (a) spatial and (b) temporal coordinate of the collision according to an observer in frame S'?

•18 Inertial frame S' moves at a speed of $0.60c$ with respect to frame S (Fig. 37-9). Further, $x = x' = 0$ at $t = t' = 0$. Two events are recorded. In frame S, event 1 occurs at the origin at $t = 0$ and event 2 occurs on the x axis at $x = 3.0$ km at $t = 4.0\ \mu$s. According to observer S', what is the time of (a) event 1 and (b) event 2? (c) Do the two observers see the same sequence or the reverse?

•19 An experimenter arranges to trigger two flashbulbs simultaneously, producing a big flash located at the origin of his reference frame and a small flash at $x = 30.0$ km. An observer moving at a speed of $0.250c$ in the positive direction of x also views the flashes. (a) What is the time interval between them according to her? (b) Which flash does she say occurs first?

••20 GO As in Fig. 37-9, reference frame S' passes reference frame S with a certain velocity. Events 1 and 2 are to have a certain temporal separation $\Delta t'$ according to the S' observer. However, their spatial separation $\Delta x'$ according to that observer has not been set yet. Figure 37-24 gives their temporal separation Δt according to the S observer as a function of $\Delta x'$ for a range of $\Delta x'$ values. The vertical axis scale is set by $\Delta t_a = 6.00\ \mu$s. What is $\Delta t'$?

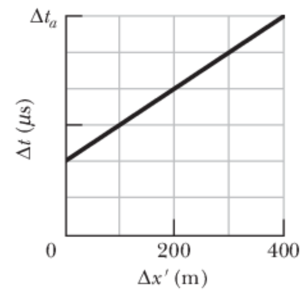

Figure 37-24 Problem 20.

••21 *Relativistic reversal of events.* Figures 37-25*a* and *b* show the (usual) situation in which a primed reference frame passes an unprimed reference frame, in the common positive direction of the x and x' axes, at a constant relative velocity of magnitude v. We are at rest in the unprimed frame; Bullwinkle, an astute student of relativity in spite of his cartoon upbringing, is at rest in the primed frame. The figures also indicate events A and B that occur at the following spacetime coordinates as measured in our unprimed frame and in Bullwinkle's primed frame:

Event	Unprimed	Primed
A	(x_A, t_A)	(x'_A, t'_A)
B	(x_B, t_B)	(x'_B, t'_B)

In our frame, event A occurs before event B, with temporal separation $\Delta t = t_B - t_A = 1.00\ \mu$s and spatial separation $\Delta x = x_B - x_A = 400$ m. Let $\Delta t'$ be the temporal separation of the events according to Bullwinkle. (a) Find an expression for $\Delta t'$ in terms of the speed parameter $\beta\ (= v/c)$ and the given data. Graph $\Delta t'$ versus β for the following two ranges of β:

(b) 0 to 0.01 (v is low, from 0 to $0.01c$)

(c) 0.1 to 1 (v is high, from $0.1c$ to the limit c)

(d) At what value of β is $\Delta t' = 0$? For what range of β is the

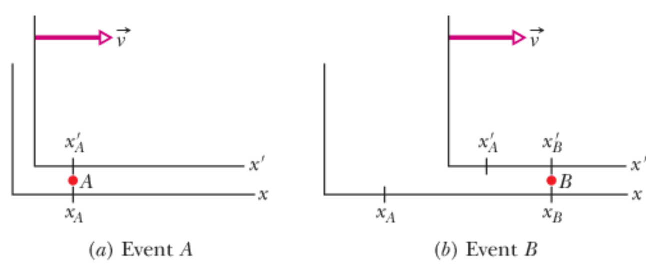

Figure 37-25 Problems 21, 22, 60, and 61.

sequence of events A and B according to Bullwinkle (e) the same as ours and (f) the reverse of ours? (g) Can event A cause event B, or vice versa? Explain.

••22 For the passing reference frames in Fig. 37-25, events A and B occur at the following spacetime coordinates: according to the unprimed frame, (x_A, t_A) and (x_B, t_B); according to the primed frame, (x'_A, t'_A) and (x'_B, t'_B). In the unprimed frame, $\Delta t = t_B - t_A = 1.00\ \mu s$ and $\Delta x = x_B - x_A = 400$ m. (a) Find an expression for $\Delta x'$ in terms of the speed parameter β and the given data. Graph $\Delta x'$ versus β for two ranges of β: (b) 0 to 0.01 and (c) 0.1 to 1. (d) At what value of β is $\Delta x'$ minimum, and (e) what is that minimum?

••23 ILW A clock moves along an x axis at a speed of $0.600c$ and reads zero as it passes the origin of the axis. (a) Calculate the clock's Lorentz factor. (b) What time does the clock read as it passes $x = 180$ m?

••24 Bullwinkle in reference frame S' passes you in reference frame S along the common direction of the x' and x axes, as in Fig. 37-9. He carries three meter sticks: meter stick 1 is parallel to the x' axis, meter stick 2 is parallel to the y' axis, and meter stick 3 is parallel to the z' axis. On his wristwatch he counts off 15.0 s, which takes 30.0 s according to you. Two events occur during his passage. According to you, event 1 occurs at $x_1 = 33.0$ m and $t_1 = 22.0$ ns, and event 2 occurs at $x_2 = 53.0$ m and $t_2 = 62.0$ ns. According to your measurements, what is the length of (a) meter stick 1, (b) meter stick 2, and (c) meter stick 3? According to Bullwinkle, what are (d) the spatial separation and (e) the temporal separation between events 1 and 2, and (f) which event occurs first?

••25 In Fig. 37-9, observer S detects two flashes of light. A big flash occurs at $x_1 = 1200$ m and, 5.00 μs later, a small flash occurs at $x_2 = 480$ m. As detected by observer S', the two flashes occur at a single coordinate x'. (a) What is the speed parameter of S', and (b) is S' moving in the positive or negative direction of the x axis? To S', (c) which flash occurs first and (d) what is the time interval between the flashes?

••26 In Fig. 37-9, observer S detects two flashes of light. A big flash occurs at $x_1 = 1200$ m and, slightly later, a small flash occurs at $x_2 = 480$ m. The time interval between the flashes is $\Delta t = t_2 - t_1$. What is the smallest value of Δt for which observer S' will determine that the two flashes occur at the same x' coordinate?

Module 37-4 The Relativity of Velocities

•27 SSM A particle moves along the x' axis of frame S' with velocity $0.40c$. Frame S' moves with velocity $0.60c$ with respect to frame S. What is the velocity of the particle with respect to frame S?

•28 In Fig. 37-11, frame S' moves relative to frame S with velocity $0.62c\hat{i}$ while a particle moves parallel to the common x and x' axes. An observer attached to frame S' measures the particle's velocity to be $0.47c\hat{i}$. In terms of c, what is the particle's velocity as measured by an observer attached to frame S according to the (a) relativistic and (b) classical velocity transformation? Suppose, instead, that the S' measure of the particle's velocity is $-0.47c\hat{i}$. What velocity does the observer in S now measure according to the (c) relativistic and (d) classical velocity transformation?

•29 Galaxy A is reported to be receding from us with a speed of $0.35c$. Galaxy B, located in precisely the opposite direction, is also found to be receding from us at this same speed. What multiple of c gives the recessional speed an observer on Galaxy A would find for (a) our galaxy and (b) Galaxy B?

•30 Stellar system Q_1 moves away from us at a speed of $0.800c$. Stellar system Q_2, which lies in the same direction in space but is closer to us, moves away from us at speed $0.400c$. What multiple of c gives the speed of Q_2 as measured by an observer in the reference frame of Q_1?

••31 SSM WWW ILW A spaceship whose rest length is 350 m has a speed of $0.82c$ with respect to a certain reference frame. A micrometeorite, also with a speed of $0.82c$ in this frame, passes the spaceship on an antiparallel track. How long does it take this object to pass the ship as measured on the ship?

••32 GO In Fig. 37-26a, particle P is to move parallel to the x and x' axes of reference frames S and S', at a certain velocity relative to frame S. Frame S' is to move parallel to the x axis of frame S at velocity v. Figure 37-26b gives the velocity u' of the particle relative to frame S' for a range of values for v. The vertical axis scale is set by $u'_a = 0.800c$. What value will u' have if (a) $v = 0.90c$ and (b) $v \to c$?

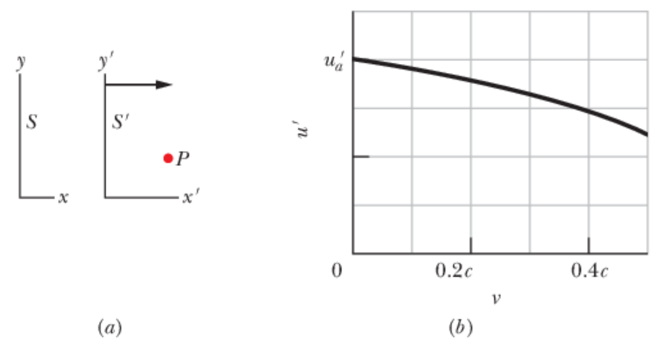

Figure 37-26 Problem 32.

••33 GO An armada of spaceships that is 1.00 ly long (as measured in its rest frame) moves with speed $0.800c$ relative to a ground station in frame S. A messenger travels from the rear of the armada to the front with a speed of $0.950c$ relative to S. How long does the trip take as measured (a) in the rest frame of the messenger, (b) in the rest frame of the armada, and (c) by an observer in the ground frame S?

Module 37-5 Doppler Effect for Light

•34 A sodium light source moves in a horizontal circle at a constant speed of $0.100c$ while emitting light at the proper wavelength of $\lambda_0 = 589.00$ nm. Wavelength λ is measured for that light by a detector fixed at the center of the circle. What is the wavelength shift $\lambda - \lambda_0$?

•35 SSM A spaceship, moving away from Earth at a speed of $0.900c$, reports back by transmitting at a frequency (measured in the spaceship frame) of 100 MHz. To what frequency must Earth receivers be tuned to receive the report?

•36 Certain wavelengths in the light from a galaxy in the constellation Virgo are observed to be 0.4% longer than the corresponding light from Earth sources. (a) What is the radial speed of this galaxy with respect to Earth? (b) Is the galaxy approaching or receding from Earth?

•37 Assuming that Eq. 37-36 holds, find how fast you would have to go through a red light to have it appear green. Take 620 nm as the wavelength of red light and 540 nm as the wavelength of green light.

•**38** Figure 37-27 is a graph of intensity versus wavelength for light reaching Earth from galaxy NGC 7319, which is about 3×10^8 light-years away. The most intense light is emitted by the oxygen in NGC 7319. In a laboratory that emission is at wavelength $\lambda = 513$ nm, but in the light from NGC 7319 it has been shifted to 525 nm due to the Doppler effect (all the emissions from NGC 7319 have been shifted). (a) What is the radial speed of NGC 7319 relative to Earth? (b) Is the relative motion toward or away from our planet?

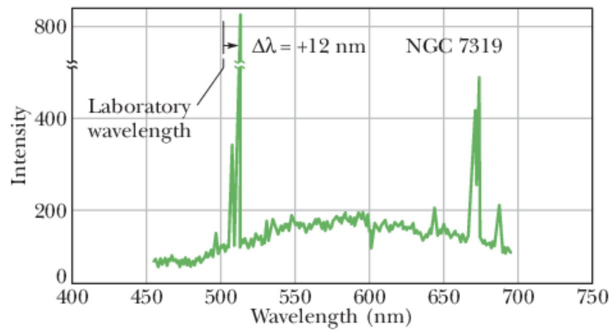

Figure 37-27 Problem 38.

••**39** SSM A spaceship is moving away from Earth at speed $0.20c$. A source on the rear of the ship emits light at wavelength 450 nm according to someone on the ship. What (a) wavelength and (b) color (blue, green, yellow, or red) are detected by someone on Earth watching the ship?

Module 37-6 Momentum and Energy

•**40** How much work must be done to increase the speed of an electron from rest to (a) $0.500c$, (b) $0.990c$, and (c) $0.9990c$?

•**41** SSM WWW The mass of an electron is $9.109\,381\,88 \times 10^{-31}$ kg. To six significant figures, find (a) γ and (b) β for an electron with kinetic energy $K = 100.000$ MeV.

•**42** What is the minimum energy that is required to break a nucleus of ^{12}C (of mass 11.996 71 u) into three nuclei of ^4He (of mass 4.001 51 u each)?

•**43** How much work must be done to increase the speed of an electron (a) from $0.18c$ to $0.19c$ and (b) from $0.98c$ to $0.99c$? Note that the speed increase is $0.01c$ in both cases.

•**44** In the reaction $p + {}^{19}F \rightarrow \alpha + {}^{16}O$, the masses are

$$m(p) = 1.007825\text{ u}, \qquad m(\alpha) = 4.002603\text{ u},$$
$$m(F) = 18.998405\text{ u}, \qquad m(O) = 15.994915\text{ u}.$$

Calculate the Q of the reaction from these data.

••**45** In a high-energy collision between a cosmic-ray particle and a particle near the top of Earth's atmosphere, 120 km above sea level, a pion is created. The pion has a total energy E of 1.35×10^5 MeV and is traveling vertically downward. In the pion's rest frame, the pion decays 35.0 ns after its creation. At what altitude above sea level, as measured from Earth's reference frame, does the decay occur? The rest energy of a pion is 139.6 MeV.

••**46** (a) If m is a particle's mass, p is its momentum magnitude, and K is its kinetic energy, show that

$$m = \frac{(pc)^2 - K^2}{2Kc^2}.$$

(b) For low particle speeds, show that the right side of the equation reduces to m. (c) If a particle has $K = 55.0$ MeV when $p =$ 121 MeV/c, what is the ratio m/m_e of its mass to the electron mass?

••**47** SSM A 5.00-grain aspirin tablet has a mass of 320 mg. For how many kilometers would the energy equivalent of this mass power an automobile? Assume 12.75 km/L and a heat of combustion of 3.65×10^7 J/L for the gasoline used in the automobile.

••**48** GO The mass of a muon is 207 times the electron mass; the average lifetime of muons at rest is 2.20 μs. In a certain experiment, muons moving through a laboratory are measured to have an average lifetime of 6.90 μs. For the moving muons, what are (a) β, (b) K, and (c) p (in MeV/c)?

••**49** GO As you read this page (on paper or monitor screen), a cosmic ray proton passes along the left–right width of the page with relative speed v and a total energy of 14.24 nJ. According to your measurements, that left–right width is 21.0 cm. (a) What is the width according to the proton's reference frame? How much time did the passage take according to (b) your frame and (c) the proton's frame?

••**50** To four significant figures, find the following when the kinetic energy is 10.00 MeV: (a) γ and (b) β for an electron ($E_0 = 0.510\,998$ MeV), (c) γ and (d) β for a proton ($E_0 = 938.272$ MeV), and (e) γ and (f) β for an α particle ($E_0 = 3727.40$ MeV).

••**51** ILW What must be the momentum of a particle with mass m so that the total energy of the particle is 3.00 times its rest energy?

••**52** Apply the binomial theorem (Appendix E) to the last part of Eq. 37-52 for the kinetic energy of a particle. (a) Retain the first two terms of the expansion to show the kinetic energy in the form

$$K = (\text{first term}) + (\text{second term}).$$

The first term is the classical expression for kinetic energy. The second term is the first-order correction to the classical expression. Assume the particle is an electron. If its speed v is $c/20$, what is the value of (b) the classical expression and (c) the first-order correction? If the electron's speed is $0.80c$, what is the value of (d) the classical expression and (e) the first-order correction? (f) At what speed parameter β does the first-order correction become 10% or greater of the classical expression?

••**53** In Module 28-4, we showed that a particle of charge q and mass m will move in a circle of radius $r = mv/|q|B$ when its velocity $\vec{v}$ is perpendicular to a uniform magnetic field $\vec{B}$. We also found that the period T of the motion is independent of speed v. These two results are approximately correct if $v \ll c$. For relativistic speeds, we must use the correct equation for the radius:

$$r = \frac{p}{|q|B} = \frac{\gamma m v}{|q|B}.$$

(a) Using this equation and the definition of period ($T = 2\pi r/v$), find the correct expression for the period. (b) Is T independent of v? If a 10.0 MeV electron moves in a circular path in a uniform magnetic field of magnitude 2.20 T, what are (c) the radius according to Chapter 28, (d) the correct radius, (e) the period according to Chapter 28, and (f) the correct period?

••**54** GO What is β for a particle with (a) $K = 2.00E_0$ and (b) $E = 2.00E_0$?

••**55** A certain particle of mass m has momentum of magnitude mc. What are (a) β, (b) γ, and (c) the ratio K/E_0?

••**56** (a) The energy released in the explosion of 1.00 mol of TNT is 3.40 MJ. The molar mass of TNT is 0.227 kg/mol. What weight of TNT is needed for an explosive release of 1.80×10^{14} J? (b) Can you carry that weight in a backpack, or is a truck or train required? (c) Suppose that in an explosion of a fission bomb, 0.080% of the fissionable mass is converted to released energy. What weight of fissionable material is needed for an explosive release of 1.80×10^{14} J? (d) Can you carry that weight in a backpack, or is a truck or train required?

••57 Quasars are thought to be the nuclei of active galaxies in the early stages of their formation. A typical quasar radiates energy at the rate of 10^{41} W. At what rate is the mass of this quasar being reduced to supply this energy? Express your answer in solar mass units per year, where one solar mass unit ($1 \text{ smu} = 2.0 \times 10^{30}$ kg) is the mass of our Sun.

••58 The mass of an electron is $9.109\,381\,88 \times 10^{-31}$ kg. To eight significant figures, find the following for the given electron kinetic energy: (a) γ and (b) β for $K = 1.000\,000\,0$ keV, (c) γ and (d) β for $K = 1.000\,000\,0$ MeV, and then (e) γ and (f) β for $K = 1.000\,000\,0$ GeV.

•••59 GO An alpha particle with kinetic energy 7.70 MeV collides with an ^{14}N nucleus at rest, and the two transform into an ^{17}O nucleus and a proton. The proton is emitted at 90° to the direction of the incident alpha particle and has a kinetic energy of 4.44 MeV. The masses of the various particles are alpha particle, 4.00260 u; ^{14}N, 14.00307 u; proton, 1.007825 u; and ^{17}O, 16.99914 u. In MeV, what are (a) the kinetic energy of the oxygen nucleus and (b) the Q of the reaction? (*Hint:* The speeds of the particles are much less than c.)

Additional Problems

60 *Temporal separation between two events.* Events A and B occur with the following spacetime coordinates in the reference frames of Fig. 37-25: according to the unprimed frame, (x_A, t_A) and (x_B, t_B); according to the primed frame, (x'_A, t'_A) and (x'_B, t'_B). In the unprimed frame, $\Delta t = t_B - t_A = 1.00\ \mu s$ and $\Delta x = x_B - x_A = 240$ m. (a) Find an expression for $\Delta t'$ in terms of the speed parameter β and the given data. Graph $\Delta t'$ versus β for the following two ranges of β: (b) 0 to 0.01 and (c) 0.1 to 1. (d) At what value of β is $\Delta t'$ minimum and (e) what is that minimum? (f) Can one of these events cause the other? Explain.

61 *Spatial separation between two events.* For the passing reference frames of Fig. 37-25, events A and B occur with the following spacetime coordinates: according to the unprimed frame, (x_A, t_A) and (x_B, t_B); according to the primed frame, (x'_A, t'_A) and (x'_B, t'_B). In the unprimed frame, $\Delta t = t_B - t_A = 1.00\ \mu s$ and $\Delta x = x_B - x_A = 240$ m. (a) Find an expression for $\Delta x'$ in terms of the speed parameter β and the given data. Graph $\Delta x'$ versus β for two ranges of β: (b) 0 to 0.01 and (c) 0.1 to 1. (d) At what value of β is $\Delta x' = 0$?

62 GO In Fig. 37-28*a*, particle P is to move parallel to the x and x' axes of reference frames S and S', at a certain velocity relative to frame S. Frame S' is to move parallel to the x axis of frame S at velocity v. Figure 37-28*b* gives the velocity u' of the particle relative to frame S' for a range of values for v. The vertical axis scale is set by $u'_a = -0.800c$. What value will u' have if (a) $v = 0.80c$ and (b) $v \to c$?

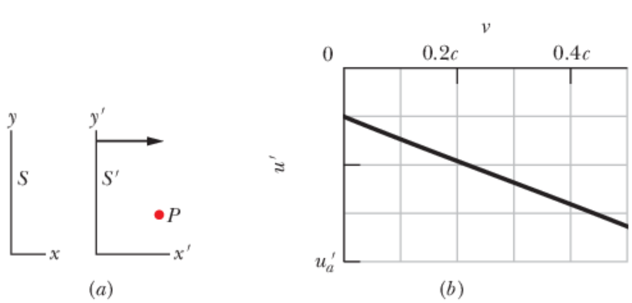

Figure 37-28 Problem 62.

63 GO *Superluminal jets.* Figure 37-29*a* shows the path taken by a knot in a jet of ionized gas that has been expelled from a galaxy. The knot travels at constant velocity $\vec{v}$ at angle θ from the direction of Earth. The knot occasionally emits a burst of light, which is eventually detected on Earth. Two bursts are indicated in Fig. 37-29*a*, separated by time t as measured in a stationary frame near the bursts. The bursts are shown in Fig. 37-29*b* as if they were photographed on the same piece of film, first when light from burst 1 arrived on Earth and then later when light from burst 2 arrived. The apparent distance D_{app} traveled by the knot between the two bursts is the distance across an Earth-observer's view of the knot's path. The apparent time T_{app} between the bursts is the difference in the arrival times of the light from them. The apparent speed of the knot is then $V_{app} = D_{app}/T_{app}$. In terms of v, t, and θ, what are (a) D_{app} and (b) T_{app}? (c) Evaluate V_{app} for $v = 0.980c$ and $\theta = 30.0°$. When superluminal (faster than light) jets were first observed, they seemed to defy special relativity—at least until the correct geometry (Fig. 37-29*a*) was understood.

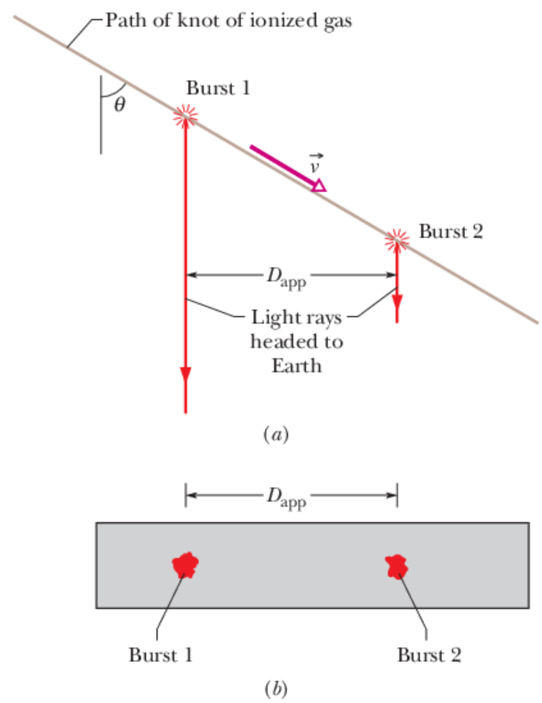

Figure 37-29 Problem 63.

64 GO Reference frame S' passes reference frame S with a certain velocity as in Fig. 37-9. Events 1 and 2 are to have a certain spatial separation $\Delta x'$ according to the S' observer. However, their temporal separation $\Delta t'$ according to that observer has not been set yet. Figure 37-30 gives their spatial separation Δx according to the S observer as a function of $\Delta t'$ for a range of $\Delta t'$ values. The vertical axis scale is set by $\Delta x_a = 10.0$ m. What is $\Delta x'$?

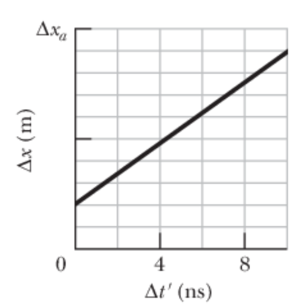

Figure 37-30 Problem 64.

65 *Another approach to velocity transformations.* In Fig. 37-31, reference frames B and C move past reference frame A in the common direction of their x axes. Represent the x components of the velocities of one frame relative to another with a two-letter subscript. For example, v_{AB} is the x component of the velocity of A relative to B. Similarly, represent the corresponding speed parameters with two-letter subscripts. For example, β_{AB} $(= v_{AB}/c)$ is the speed parameter corresponding to v_{AB}. (a) Show that

$$\beta_{AC} = \frac{\beta_{AB} + \beta_{BC}}{1 + \beta_{AB}\beta_{BC}}.$$

Let M_{AB} represent the ratio $(1 - \beta_{AB})/(1 + \beta_{AB})$, and let M_{BC} and M_{AC} represent similar ratios. (b) Show that the relation

$$M_{AC} = M_{AB}M_{BC}$$

is true by deriving the equation of part (a) from it.

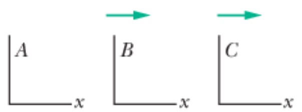

Figure 37-31 Problems 65, 66, and 67.

66 *Continuation of Problem 65.* Use the result of part (b) in Problem 65 for the motion along a single axis in the following situation. Frame A in Fig. 37-31 is attached to a particle that moves with velocity $+0.500c$ past frame B, which moves past frame C with a velocity of $+0.500c$. What are (a) M_{AC}, (b) β_{AC}, and (c) the velocity of the particle relative to frame C?

67 *Continuation of Problem 65.* Let reference frame C in Fig. 37-31 move past reference frame D (not shown). (a) Show that

$$M_{AD} = M_{AB}M_{BC}M_{CD}.$$

(b) Now put this general result to work: Three particles move parallel to a single axis on which an observer is stationed. Let plus and minus signs indicate the directions of motion along that axis. Particle A moves past particle B at $\beta_{AB} = +0.20$. Particle B moves past particle C at $\beta_{BC} = -0.40$. Particle C moves past observer D at $\beta_{CD} = +0.60$. What is the velocity of particle A relative to observer D? (The solution technique here is *much* faster than using Eq. 37-29.)

68 Figure 37-16 shows a ship (attached to reference frame S') passing us (standing in reference frame S) with velocity $\vec{v} = 0.950c\hat{i}$. A proton is fired at speed $0.980c$ relative to the ship from the front of the ship to the rear. The proper length of the ship is 760 m. What is the temporal separation between the time the proton is fired and the time it hits the rear wall of the ship according to (a) a passenger in the ship and (b) us? Suppose that, instead, the proton is fired from the rear to the front. What then is the temporal separation between the time it is fired and the time it hits the front wall according to (c) the passenger and (d) us?

69 *The car-in-the-garage problem.* Carman has just purchased the world's longest stretch limo, which has a proper length of $L_c = 30.5$ m. In Fig. 37-32*a*, it is shown parked in front of a garage with a proper length of $L_g = 6.00$ m. The garage has a front door (shown open) and a back door (shown closed). The limo is obviously longer than the garage. Still, Garageman, who owns the garage and knows something about relativistic length contraction, makes a bet with Carman that the limo can fit in the garage with both doors closed. Carman, who dropped his physics course before reaching special relativity, says such a thing, even in principle, is impossible.

To analyze Garageman's scheme, an x_c axis is attached to the limo, with $x_c = 0$ at the rear bumper, and an x_g axis is attached to the garage, with $x_g = 0$ at the (now open) front door. Then Carman is to drive the limo directly toward the front door at a velocity of $0.9980c$ (which is, of course, both technically and financially impossible). Carman is stationary in the x_c reference frame; Garageman is stationary in the x_g reference frame.

There are two events to consider. *Event 1:* When the rear bumper clears the front door, the front door is closed. Let the time of this event be zero to both Carman and Garageman: $t_{g1} = t_{c1} = 0$. The event occurs at $x_c = x_g = 0$. Figure 37-32*b* shows event 1 according to the x_g reference frame. *Event 2:* When the front bumper reaches the back door, that door opens. Figure 37-32*c* shows event 2 according to the x_g reference frame.

According to Garageman, (a) what is the length of the limo, and what are the spacetime coordinates (b) x_{g2} and (c) t_{g2} of event 2? (d) For how long is the limo temporarily "trapped" inside the garage with both doors shut? Now consider the situation from the x_c reference frame, in which the garage comes racing past the limo at a velocity of $-0.9980c$. According to Carman, (e) what is the length of the passing garage, what are the spacetime coordinates (f) x_{c2} and (g) t_{c2} of event 2, (h) is the limo ever in the garage with both doors shut, and (i) which event occurs first? (j) Sketch events 1 and 2 as seen by Carman. (k) Are the events causally related; that is, does one of them cause the other? (l) Finally, who wins the bet?

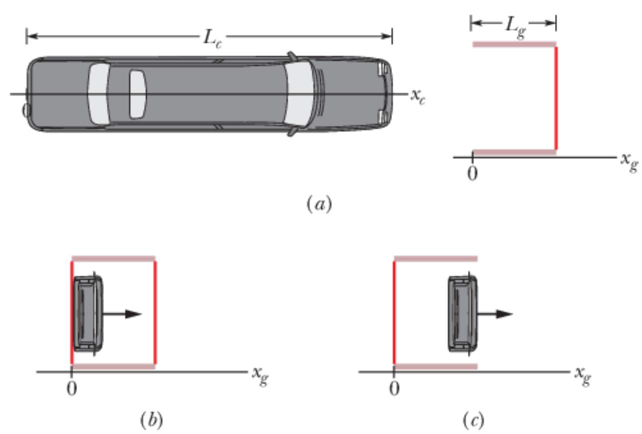

Figure 37-32 Problem 69.

70 An airplane has rest length 40.0 m and speed 630 m/s. To a ground observer, (a) by what fraction is its length contracted and (b) how long is needed for its clocks to be 1.00 μs slow.

71 SSM To circle Earth in low orbit, a satellite must have a speed of about 2.7×10^4 km/h. Suppose that two such satellites orbit Earth in opposite directions. (a) What is their relative speed as they pass, according to the classical Galilean velocity transformation equation? (b) What fractional error do you make in (a) by not using the (correct) relativistic transformation equation?

72 Find the speed parameter of a particle that takes 2.0 y longer than light to travel a distance of 6.0 ly.

73 SSM How much work is needed to accelerate a proton from a speed of $0.9850c$ to a speed of $0.9860c$?

74 A pion is created in the higher reaches of Earth's atmosphere when an incoming high-energy cosmic-ray particle collides with an atomic nucleus. A pion so formed descends toward Earth with a speed of $0.99c$. In a reference frame in which they are at rest, pions decay with an average life of 26 ns. As measured in a frame fixed with respect to Earth, how far (on the average) will such a pion move through the atmosphere before it decays?

75 SSM If we intercept an electron having total energy 1533 MeV that came from Vega, which is 26 ly from us, how far in light-years was the trip in the rest frame of the electron?

76 The total energy of a proton passing through a laboratory apparatus is 10.611 nJ. What is its speed parameter β? Use the proton mass given in Appendix B under "Best Value," not the commonly remembered rounded number.

77 A spaceship at rest in a certain reference frame S is given a speed increment of $0.50c$. Relative to its new rest frame, it is then given a further $0.50c$ increment. This process is continued until its speed with respect to its original frame S exceeds $0.999c$. How many increments does this process require?

78 In the red shift of radiation from a distant galaxy, a certain radiation, known to have a wavelength of 434 nm when observed in the laboratory, has a wavelength of 462 nm. (a) What is the radial speed of the galaxy relative to Earth? (b) Is the galaxy approaching or receding from Earth?

79 SSM What is the momentum in MeV/c of an electron with a kinetic energy of 2.00 MeV?

80 The radius of Earth is 6370 km, and its orbital speed about the Sun is 30 km/s. Suppose Earth moves past an observer at this speed. To the observer, by how much does Earth's diameter contract along the direction of motion?

81 A particle with mass m has speed $c/2$ relative to inertial frame S. The particle collides with an identical particle at rest relative to frame S. Relative to S, what is the speed of a frame S' in which the total momentum of these particles is zero? This frame is called the *center of momentum frame*.

82 An elementary particle produced in a laboratory experiment travels 0.230 mm through the lab at a relative speed of $0.960c$ before it decays (becomes another particle). (a) What is the proper lifetime of the particle? (b) What is the distance the particle travels as measured from its rest frame?

83 What are (a) K, (b) E, and (c) p (in GeV/c) for a proton moving at speed $0.990c$? What are (d) K, (e) E, and (f) p (in MeV/c) for an electron moving at speed $0.990c$?

84 A radar transmitter T is fixed to a reference frame S' that is moving to the right with speed v relative to reference frame S (Fig. 37-33). A mechanical timer (essentially a clock) in frame S', having a period τ_0 (measured in S'), causes transmitter T to emit timed radar pulses, which travel at the speed of light and are received by R, a receiver fixed in frame S. (a) What is the period τ of the timer as detected by observer A, who is fixed in frame S? (b) Show that at receiver R the time interval between pulses arriving from T is not τ or τ_0, but

$$\tau_R = \tau_0\sqrt{\frac{c+v}{c-v}}.$$

(c) Explain why receiver R and observer A, who are in the same reference frame, measure a different period for the transmitter. (*Hint:* A clock and a radar pulse are not the same thing.)

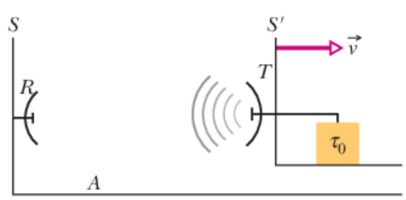

Figure 37-33 Problem 84.

85 One cosmic-ray particle approaches Earth along Earth's north–south axis with a speed of $0.80c$ toward the geographic north pole, and another approaches with a speed of $0.60c$ toward the geographic south pole (Fig. 37-34). What is the relative speed of approach of one particle with respect to the other?

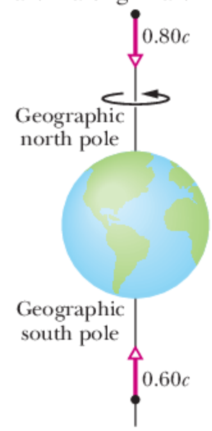

Figure 37-34 Problem 85.

86 (a) How much energy is released in the explosion of a fission bomb containing 3.0 kg of fissionable material? Assume that 0.10% of the mass is converted to released energy. (b) What mass of TNT would have to explode to provide the same energy release? Assume that each mole of TNT liberates 3.4 MJ of energy on exploding. The molecular mass of TNT is 0.227 kg/mol. (c) For the same mass of explosive, what is the ratio of the energy released in a nuclear explosion to that released in a TNT explosion?

87 (a) What potential difference would accelerate an electron to speed c according to classical physics? (b) With this potential difference, what speed would the electron actually attain?

88 A Foron cruiser moving directly toward a Reptulian scout ship fires a decoy toward the scout ship. Relative to the scout ship, the speed of the decoy is $0.980c$ and the speed of the Foron cruiser is $0.900c$. What is the speed of the decoy relative to the cruiser?

89 In Fig. 37-35, three spaceships are in a chase. Relative to an x axis in an inertial frame (say, Earth frame), their velocities are $v_A = 0.900c$, v_B, and $v_C = 0.800c$. (a) What value of v_B is required such that ships A and C approach ship B with the same speed relative to ship B, and (b) what is that relative speed?

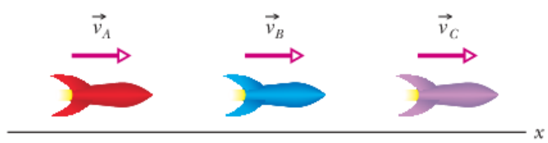

Figure 37-35 Problem 89.

90 Space cruisers A and B are moving parallel to the positive direction of an x axis. Cruiser A is faster, with a relative speed of $v = 0.900c$, and has a proper length of $L = 200$ m. According to the pilot of A, at the instant ($t = 0$) the tails of the cruisers are aligned, the noses are also. According to the pilot of B, how much later are the noses aligned?

91 In Fig. 37-36, two cruisers fly toward a space station. Relative to the station, cruiser A has speed $0.800c$. Relative to the station, what speed is required of cruiser B such that its pilot sees A and the station approach B at the same speed?

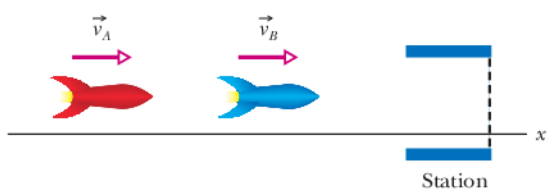

Figure 37-36 Problem 91.

92 A relativistic train of proper length 200 m approaches a tunnel of the same proper length, at a relative speed of $0.900c$. A paint bomb in the engine room is set to explode (and cover everyone with blue paint) when the *front* of the train passes the *far* end of the tunnel (event FF). However, when the *rear* car passes the *near* end of the tunnel (event RN), a device in that car is set to send a signal to the engine room to deactivate the bomb. *Train view:* (a) What is the tunnel length? (b) Which event occurs first, FF or RN? (c) What is the time between those events? (d) Does the paint bomb explode? *Tunnel view:* (e) What is the train length? (f) Which event occurs first? (g) What is the time between those events? (h) Does the paint bomb explode? If your answers to (d) and (h) differ, you need to explain the paradox, because either the engine room is covered with blue paint or not; you cannot have it both ways. If your answers are the same, you need to explain why.

93 Particle A (with rest energy 200 MeV) is at rest in a lab frame when it decays to particle B (rest energy 100 MeV) and particle C (rest energy 50 MeV). What are the (a) total energy and (b) momentum of B and the (c) total energy and (d) momentum of C?

94 Figure 37-37 shows three situations in which a starship passes Earth (the dot) and then makes a round trip that brings it back past Earth, each at the given Lorentz factor. As measured in the rest frame of Earth, the round-trip distances are as follows: trip 1, $2D$; trip 2, $4D$; trip 3, $6D$. Neglecting any time needed for accelerations and in terms of D and c, find the travel times of (a) trip 1, (b) trip 2, and (c) trip 3 as measured from the rest frame of Earth. Next, find the travel times of (d) trip 1, (e) trip 2, and (f) trip 3 as measured from the rest frame of the starship. (*Hint:* For a large Lorentz factor, the relative speed is almost c.)

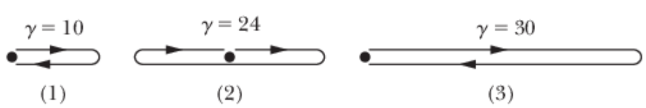

Figure 37-37 Problem 94.

95 Ionization measurements show that a particular lightweight nuclear particle carries a double charge ($= 2e$) and is moving with a speed of $0.710c$. Its measured radius of curvature in a magnetic field of 1.00 T is 6.28 m. Find the mass of the particle and identify it. (*Hints:* Lightweight nuclear particles are made up of neutrons (which have no charge) and protons (charge $= +e$), in roughly equal numbers. Take the mass of each such particle to be 1.00 u. (See Problem 53.)

96 A 2.50 MeV electron moves perpendicularly to a magnetic field in a path with a 3.0 cm radius of curvature. What is the magnetic field B? (See Problem 53.)

97 A proton synchrotron accelerates protons to a kinetic energy of 500 GeV. At this energy, calculate (a) the Lorentz factor, (b) the speed parameter, and (c) the magnetic field for which the proton orbit has a radius of curvature of 750 m.

98 An astronaut exercising on a treadmill maintains a pulse rate of 150 per minute. If he exercises for 1.00 h as measured by a clock on his spaceship, with a stride length of 1.00 m/s, while the ship travels with a speed of $0.900c$ relative to a ground station, what are (a) the pulse rate and (b) the distance walked as measured by someone at the ground station?

99 A spaceship approaches Earth at a speed of $0.42c$. A light on the front of the ship appears red (wavelength 650 nm) to passengers on the ship. What (a) wavelength and (b) color (blue, green, or yellow) would it appear to an observer on Earth?

100 Some of the familiar hydrogen lines appear in the spectrum of quasar 3C9, but they are shifted so far toward the red that their wavelengths are observed to be 3.0 times as long as those observed for hydrogen atoms at rest in the laboratory. (a) Show that the classical Doppler equation gives a relative velocity of recession greater than c for this situation. (b) Assuming that the relative motion of 3C9 and Earth is due entirely to the cosmological expansion of the universe, find the recession speed that is predicted by the relativistic Doppler equation.

101 In one year the United States consumption of electrical energy was about 2.2×10^{12} kW · h. (a) How much mass is equivalent to the consumed energy in that year? (b) Does it make any difference to your answer if this energy is generated in oil-burning, nuclear, or hydroelectric plants?

102 Quite apart from effects due to Earth's rotational and orbital motions, a laboratory reference frame is not strictly an inertial frame because a particle at rest there will not, in general, remain at rest; it will fall. Often, however, events happen so quickly that we can ignore the gravitational acceleration and treat the frame as inertial. Consider, for example, an electron of speed $v = 0.992c$, projected horizontally into a laboratory test chamber and moving through a distance of 20 cm. (a) How long would that take, and (b) how far would the electron fall during this interval? (c) What can you conclude about the suitability of the laboratory as an inertial frame in this case?

103 What is the speed parameter for the following speeds: (a) a typical rate of continental drift (1 in./y); (b) a typical drift speed for electrons in a current-carrying conductor (0.5 mm/s); (c) a highway speed limit of 55 mi/h; (d) the root-mean-square speed of a hydrogen molecule at room temperature; (e) a supersonic plane flying at Mach 2.5 (1200 km/h); (f) the escape speed of a projectile from the Earth's surface; (g) the speed of Earth in its orbit around the Sun; (h) a typical recession speed of a distant quasar due to the cosmological expansion (3.0×10^4 km/s)?

C H A P T E R 3 8

Photons and Matter Waves

38-1 THE PHOTON, THE QUANTUM OF LIGHT

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

38.01 Explain the absorption and emission of light in terms of quantized energy and photons.

38.02 For photon absorption and emission, apply the relationships between energy, power, intensity, rate of photons, the Planck constant, the associated frequency, and the associated wavelength.

Key Ideas

- An electromagnetic wave (light) is quantized (allowed only in certain quantities), and the quanta are called photons.
- For light of frequency f and wavelength λ, the photon energy is

$$E = hf,$$

where h is the Planck constant.

What Is Physics?

One primary focus of physics is Einstein's theory of relativity, which took us into a world far beyond that of ordinary experience—the world of objects moving at speeds close to the speed of light. Among other surprises, Einstein's theory predicts that the rate at which a clock runs depends on how fast the clock is moving relative to the observer: the faster the motion, the slower the clock rate. This and other predictions of the theory have passed every experimental test devised thus far, and relativity theory has led us to a deeper and more satisfying view of the nature of space and time.

Now you are about to explore a second world that is outside ordinary experience—the subatomic world. You will encounter a new set of surprises that, though they may sometimes seem bizarre, have led physicists step by step to a deeper view of reality.

Quantum physics, as our new subject is called, answers such questions as: Why do the stars shine? Why do the elements exhibit the order that is so apparent in the periodic table? How do transistors and other microelectronic devices work? Why does copper conduct electricity but glass does not? In fact, scientists and engineers have applied quantum physics in almost every aspect of everyday life, from medical instrumentation to transportation systems to entertainment industries. Indeed, because quantum physics accounts for all of chemistry, including biochemistry, we need to understand it if we are to understand life itself.

Some of the predictions of quantum physics seem strange even to the physicists and philosophers who study its foundations. Still, experiment after experiment has proved the theory correct, and many have exposed even stranger aspects of the theory. The quantum world is an amusement park full of wonderful rides that are guaranteed to shake up the commonsense world view you have developed since childhood. We begin our exploration of that quantum park with the photon.

The Photon, the Quantum of Light

Quantum physics (which is also known as *quantum mechanics* and *quantum theory*) is largely the study of the microscopic world. In that world, many quantities are found only in certain minimum (*elementary*) amounts, or integer multiples of those elementary amounts; these quantities are then said to be *quantized*. The elementary amount that is associated with such a quantity is called the **quantum** of that quantity (*quanta* is the plural).

In a loose sense, U.S. currency is quantized because the coin of least value is the penny, or \$0.01 coin, and the values of all other coins and bills are restricted to integer multiples of that least amount. In other words, the currency quantum is \$0.01, and all greater amounts of currency are of the form n(\$0.01), where n is always a positive integer. For example, you cannot hand someone \$0.755 = 75.5(\$0.01).

In 1905, Einstein proposed that electromagnetic radiation (or simply *light*) is quantized and exists in elementary amounts (quanta) that we now call **photons**. This proposal should seem strange to you because we have just spent several chapters discussing the classical idea that light is a sinusoidal wave, with a wavelength λ, a frequency f, and a speed c such that

$$f = \frac{c}{\lambda}. \tag{38-1}$$

Furthermore, in Chapter 33 we discussed the classical light wave as being an interdependent combination of electric and magnetic fields, each oscillating at frequency f. How can this wave of oscillating fields consist of an elementary amount of something—the light quantum? What *is* a photon?

The concept of a light quantum, or a photon, turns out to be far more subtle and mysterious than Einstein imagined. Indeed, it is still very poorly understood. In this book, we shall discuss only some of the basic aspects of the photon concept, somewhat along the lines of Einstein's proposal. According to that proposal, the quantum of a light wave of frequency f has the energy

$$E = hf \quad \text{(photon energy)}. \tag{38-2}$$

Here h is the **Planck constant**, the constant we first met in Eq. 32-23, and which has the value

$$h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{J}\cdot\text{s} = 4.14 \times 10^{-15}\ \text{eV}\cdot\text{s}. \tag{38-3}$$

The smallest amount of energy a light wave of frequency f can have is hf, the energy of a single photon. If the wave has more energy, its total energy must be an integer multiple of hf. The light cannot have an energy of, say, $0.6hf$ or $75.5hf$.

Einstein further proposed that when light is absorbed or emitted by an object (matter), the absorption or emission event occurs in the atoms of the object. When light of frequency f is absorbed by an atom, the energy hf of one photon is transferred from the light to the atom. In this *absorption event,* the photon vanishes and the atom is said to absorb it. When light of frequency f is emitted by an atom, an amount of energy hf is transferred from the atom to the light. In this *emission event,* a photon suddenly appears and the atom is said to emit it. Thus, we can have *photon absorption* and *photon emission* by atoms in an object.

For an object consisting of many atoms, there can be many photon absorptions (such as with sunglasses) or photon emissions (such as with lamps). However, each absorption or emission event still involves the transfer of an amount of energy equal to that of a single photon of the light.

When we discussed the absorption or emission of light in previous chapters, our examples involved so much light that we had no need of quantum physics, and we got by with classical physics. However, in the late 20th century, technology became advanced enough that single-photon experiments could be conducted and put to practical use. Since then quantum physics has become part of standard engineering practice, especially in optical engineering.

Checkpoint 1

Rank the following radiations according to their associated photon energies, greatest first: (a) yellow light from a sodium vapor lamp, (b) a gamma ray emitted by a radioactive nucleus, (c) a radio wave emitted by the antenna of a commercial radio station, (d) a microwave beam emitted by airport traffic control radar.

Sample Problem 38.01 Emission and absorption of light as photons

A sodium vapor lamp is placed at the center of a large sphere that absorbs all the light reaching it. The rate at which the lamp emits energy is 100 W; assume that the emission is entirely at a wavelength of 590 nm. At what rate are photons absorbed by the sphere?

KEY IDEAS

The light is emitted and absorbed as photons. We assume that all the light emitted by the lamp reaches (and thus is absorbed by) the sphere. So, the rate R at which photons are absorbed by the sphere is equal to the rate R_{emit} at which photons are emitted by the lamp.

Calculations: That rate is

$$R_{emit} = \frac{\text{rate of energy emission}}{\text{energy per emitted photon}} = \frac{P_{emit}}{E}.$$

Next, into this we can substitute from Eq. 38-2 ($E = hf$), Einstein's proposal about the energy E of each quantum of light (which we here call a photon in modern language). We can then write the absorption rate as

$$R = R_{emit} = \frac{P_{emit}}{hf}.$$

Using Eq. 38-1 ($f = c/\lambda$) to substitute for f and then entering known data, we obtain

$$\begin{aligned} R &= \frac{P_{emit}\lambda}{hc} \\ &= \frac{(100\text{ W})(590 \times 10^{-9}\text{ m})}{(6.63 \times 10^{-34}\text{ J}\cdot\text{s})(2.998 \times 10^{8}\text{ m/s})} \\ &= 2.97 \times 10^{20}\text{ photons/s.} \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

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38-2 THE PHOTOELECTRIC EFFECT

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

38.03 Make a simple and basic sketch of a photoelectric experiment, showing the incident light, the metal plate, the emitted electrons (photoelectrons), and the collector cup.

38.04 Explain the problems physicists had with the photoelectric effect prior to Einstein and the historical importance of Einstein's explanation of the effect.

38.05 Identify a stopping potential V_{stop} and relate it to the maximum kinetic energy K_{max} of escaping photoelectrons.

38.06 For a photoelectric setup, apply the relationships between the frequency and wavelength of the incident light, the maximum kinetic energy K_{max} of the photoelectrons, the work function Φ, and the stopping potential V_{stop}.

38.07 For a photoelectric setup, sketch a graph of the stopping potential V_{stop} versus the frequency of the light, identifying the cutoff frequency f_0 and relating the slope to the Planck constant h and the elementary charge e.

Key Ideas

- When light of high enough frequency illuminates a metal surface, electrons can gain enough energy to escape the metal by absorbing photons in the illumination, in what is called the photoelectric effect.
- The conservation of energy in such an absorption and escape is written as

$$hf = K_{max} + \Phi,$$

where hf is the energy of the absorbed photon, K_{max} is the kinetic energy of the most energetic of the escaping electrons, and Φ (called the work function) is the least energy required by an electron to escape the electric forces holding electrons in the metal.
- If $hf = \Phi$, electrons barely escape but have no kinetic energy and the frequency is called the cutoff frequency f_0.
- If $hf < \Phi$, electrons cannot escape.

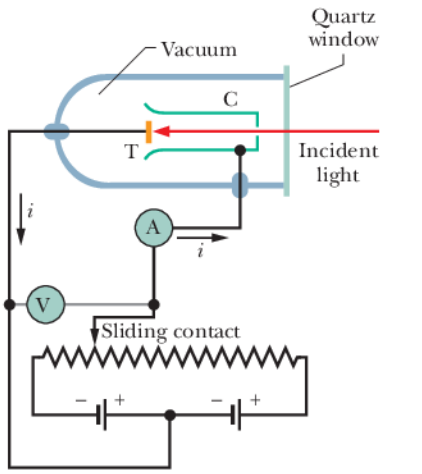


Figure 38-1 An apparatus used to study the photoelectric effect. The incident light shines on target T, ejecting electrons, which are collected by collector cup C. The electrons move in the circuit in a direction opposite the conventional current arrows. The batteries and the variable resistor are used to produce and adjust the electric potential difference between T and C.

The Photoelectric Effect

If you direct a beam of light of short enough wavelength onto a clean metal surface, the light will cause electrons to leave that surface (the light will *eject* the electrons from the surface). This **photoelectric effect** is used in many devices, including camcorders. Einstein's photon concept can explain it.

Let us analyze two basic photoelectric experiments, each using the apparatus of Fig. 38-1, in which light of frequency f is directed onto target T and ejects electrons from it. A potential difference V is maintained between target T and collector cup C to sweep up these electrons, said to be **photoelectrons.** This collection produces a **photoelectric current** i that is measured with meter A.

First Photoelectric Experiment

We adjust the potential difference V by moving the sliding contact in Fig. 38-1 so that collector C is slightly negative with respect to target T. This potential difference acts to slow down the ejected electrons. We then vary V until it reaches a certain value, called the **stopping potential** V_{stop}, at which point the reading of meter A has just dropped to zero. When $V = V_{stop}$, the most energetic ejected electrons are turned back just before reaching the collector. Then K_{max}, the kinetic energy of these most energetic electrons, is

$$K_{max} = eV_{stop}, \tag{38-4}$$

where e is the elementary charge.

Measurements show that for light of a given frequency, K_{max} *does not depend on the intensity of the light source.* Whether the source is dazzling bright or so feeble that you can scarcely detect it (or has some intermediate brightness), the maximum kinetic energy of the ejected electrons always has the same value.

This experimental result is a puzzle for classical physics. Classically, the incident light is a sinusoidally oscillating electromagnetic wave. An electron in the target should oscillate sinusoidally due to the oscillating electric force on it from the wave's electric field. If the amplitude of the electron's oscillation is great enough, the electron should break free of the target's surface—that is, be ejected from the target. Thus, if we increase the amplitude of the wave and its oscillating electric field, the electron should get a more energetic "kick" as it is being ejected. *However, that is not what happens.* For a given frequency, intense light beams and feeble light beams give exactly the same maximum kick to ejected electrons.

The actual result follows naturally if we think in terms of photons. Now the energy that can be transferred from the incident light to an electron in the target is that of a single photon. Increasing the light intensity increases the *number* of photons in the light, but the photon energy, given by Eq. 38-2 ($E = hf$), is unchanged because the frequency is unchanged. Thus, the energy transferred to the kinetic energy of an electron is also unchanged.

Second Photoelectric Experiment

Now we vary the frequency f of the incident light and measure the associated stopping potential V_{stop}. Figure 38-2 is a plot of V_{stop} versus f. Note that the photoelectric effect does not occur if the frequency is below a certain **cutoff frequency** f_0 or, equivalently, if the wavelength is greater than the corresponding **cutoff wavelength** $\lambda_0 = c/f_0$. This is so *no matter how intense the incident light is.*

This is another puzzle for classical physics. If you view light as an electromagnetic wave, you must expect that no matter how low the frequency, electrons can always be ejected by light if you supply them with enough energy—that is, if you use a light source that is bright enough. *That is not what happens.* For light below the cutoff frequency f_0, the photoelectric effect does not occur, no matter how bright the light source.

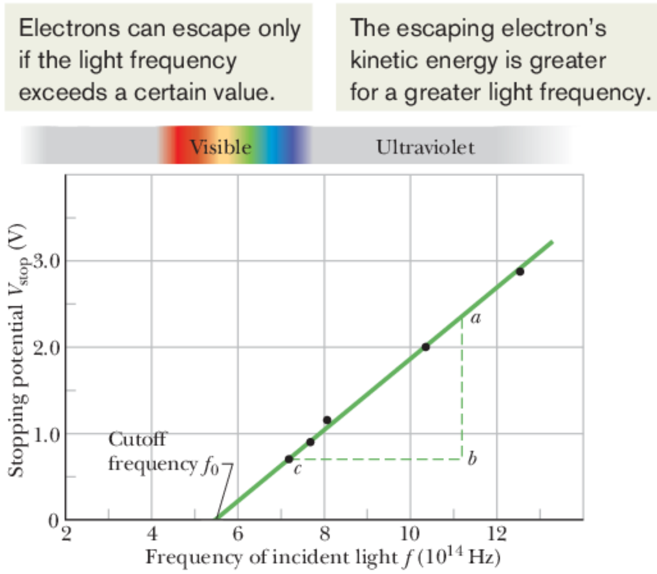


Figure 38-2 The stopping potential V_{stop} as a function of the frequency f of the incident light for a sodium target T in the apparatus of Fig. 38-1. (Data reported by R. A. Millikan in 1916.)

The existence of a cutoff frequency is, however, just what we should expect if the energy is transferred via photons. The electrons within the target are held there by electric forces. (If they weren't, they would drip out of the target due to the gravitational force on them.) To just escape from the target, an electron must pick up a certain minimum energy Φ, where Φ is a property of the target material called its **work function.** If the energy hf transferred to an electron by a photon exceeds the work function of the material (if $hf > \Phi$), the electron can escape the target. If the energy transferred does not exceed the work function (that is, if $hf < \Phi$), the electron cannot escape. This is what Fig. 38-2 shows.

The Photoelectric Equation

Einstein summed up the results of such photoelectric experiments in the equation

$$hf = K_{max} + \Phi \quad \text{(photoelectric equation)}. \tag{38-5}$$

This is a statement of the conservation of energy for a single photon absorption by a target with work function Φ. Energy equal to the photon's energy hf is transferred to a single electron in the material of the target. If the electron is to escape from the target, it must pick up energy at least equal to Φ. Any additional energy $(hf - \Phi)$ that the electron acquires from the photon appears as kinetic energy K of the electron. In the most favorable circumstance, the electron can escape through the surface without losing any of this kinetic energy in the process; it then appears outside the target with the maximum possible kinetic energy K_{max}.

Let us rewrite Eq. 38-5 by substituting for K_{max} from Eq. 38-4 ($K_{max} = eV_{stop}$). After a little rearranging we get

$$V_{stop} = \left(\frac{h}{e}\right)f - \frac{\Phi}{e}. \tag{38-6}$$

The ratios h/e and Φ/e are constants, and so we would expect a plot of the measured stopping potential V_{stop} versus the frequency f of the light to be a straight line, as it is in Fig. 38-2. Further, the slope of that straight line should be h/e. As a check, we measure ab and bc in Fig. 38-2 and write

$$\frac{h}{e} = \frac{ab}{bc} = \frac{2.35\text{ V} - 0.72\text{ V}}{(11.2 \times 10^{14} - 7.2 \times 10^{14})\text{ Hz}}$$
$$= 4.1 \times 10^{-15}\text{ V}\cdot\text{s}.$$

Multiplying this result by the elementary charge e, we find

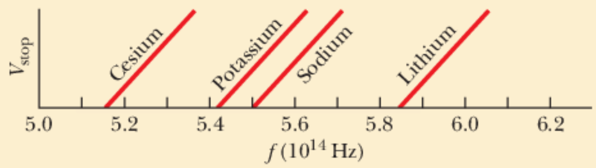
$$h = (4.1 \times 10^{-15}\ \text{V}\cdot\text{s})(1.6 \times 10^{-19}\ \text{C}) = 6.6 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{J}\cdot\text{s},$$

which agrees with values measured by many other methods.

An aside: An explanation of the photoelectric effect certainly requires quantum physics. For many years, Einstein's explanation was also a compelling argument for the existence of photons. However, in 1969 an alternative explanation for the effect was found that used quantum physics but did not need the concept of photons. As shown in countless other experiments, light *is* in fact quantized as photons, but Einstein's explanation of the photoelectric effect is not the best argument for that fact.

Checkpoint 2

The figure shows data like those of Fig. 38-2 for targets of cesium, potassium, sodium, and lithium. The plots are parallel. (a) Rank the targets according to their work functions, greatest first. (b) Rank the plots according to the value of h they yield, greatest first.



Sample Problem 38.02 Photoelectric effect and work function

Find the work function Φ of sodium from Fig. 38-2.

KEY IDEAS

We can find the work function Φ from the cutoff frequency f_0 (which we can measure on the plot). The reasoning is this: At the cutoff frequency, the kinetic energy K_{max} in Eq. 38-5 is zero. Thus, all the energy hf that is transferred from a photon to an electron goes into the electron's escape, which requires an energy of Φ.

Calculations: From that last idea, Eq. 38-5 then gives us, with $f = f_0$,

$$hf_0 = 0 + \Phi = \Phi.$$

In Fig. 38-2, the cutoff frequency f_0 is the frequency at which the plotted line intercepts the horizontal frequency axis, about 5.5×10^{14} Hz. We then have

$$\Phi = hf_0 = (6.63 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{J}\cdot\text{s})(5.5 \times 10^{14}\ \text{Hz})$$

$$= 3.6 \times 10^{-19}\ \text{J} = 2.3\ \text{eV}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

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38-3 PHOTONS, MOMENTUM, COMPTON SCATTERING, LIGHT INTERFERENCE

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

38.08 For a photon, apply the relationships between momentum, energy, frequency, and wavelength.

38.09 With sketches, describe the basics of a Compton scattering experiment.

38.10 Identify the historic importance of Compton scattering.

38.11 For an increase in the Compton-scattering angle ϕ, identify whether these quantities of the scattered x ray increase or decrease: kinetic energy, momentum, wavelength.

38.12 For Compton scattering, describe how the conservations of momentum and kinetic energy lead to the equation giving the wavelength shift $\Delta\lambda$.

38.13 For Compton scattering, apply the relationships between the wavelengths of the incident and scattered x rays, the wavelength shift $\Delta\lambda$, the angle ϕ of photon scattering, and the electron's final energy and momentum (both magnitude and angle).

38.14 In terms of photons, explain the double-slit experiment in the standard version, the single-photon version, and the single-photon, wide-angle version.

Key Ideas

- Although it is massless, a photon has momentum, which is related to its energy E, frequency f, and wavelength by

$$p = \frac{hf}{c} = \frac{h}{\lambda}.$$

- In Compton scattering, x rays scatter as particles (as photons) from loosely bound electrons in a target.
- In the scattering, an x-ray photon loses energy and momentum to the target electron.
- The resulting increase (Compton shift) in the photon wavelength is

$$\Delta\lambda = \frac{h}{mc}(1 - \cos\phi),$$

where m is the mass of the target electron and ϕ is the angle at which the photon is scattered from its initial travel direction.
- Photons: When light interacts with matter, the interaction is particle-like, occurring at a point and transferring energy and momentum.
- Wave: When a single photon is emitted by a source, we interpret its travel as being that of a probability wave.
- Wave: When many photons are emitted or absorbed by matter, we interpret the combined light as a classical electromagnetic wave.

Photons Have Momentum

In 1916, Einstein extended his concept of light quanta (photons) by proposing that a quantum of light has linear momentum. For a photon with energy hf, the magnitude of that momentum is

$$p = \frac{hf}{c} = \frac{h}{\lambda} \quad \text{(photon momentum)}, \tag{38-7}$$

where we have substituted for f from Eq. 38-1 ($f = c/\lambda$). Thus, when a photon interacts with matter, energy *and* momentum are transferred, *as if* there were a collision between the photon and matter in the classical sense (as in Chapter 9).

In 1923, Arthur Compton at Washington University in St. Louis showed that both momentum and energy are transferred via photons. He directed a beam of x rays of wavelength λ onto a target made of carbon, as shown in Fig. 38-3. An x ray is a form of electromagnetic radiation, at high frequency and thus small wavelength. Compton measured the wavelengths and intensities of the x rays that were scattered in various directions from his carbon target.

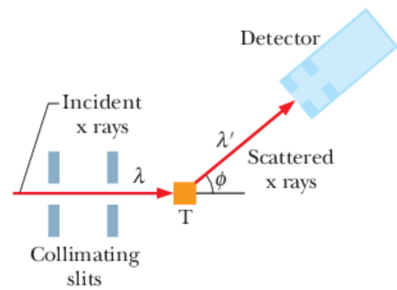

Figure 38-3 Compton's apparatus. A beam of x rays of wavelength $\lambda = 71.1$ pm is directed onto a carbon target T. The x rays scattered from the target are observed at various angles ϕ to the direction of the incident beam. The detector measures both the intensity of the scattered x rays and their wavelength.

Figure 38-4 shows his results. Although there is only a single wavelength ($\lambda = 71.1$ pm) in the incident x-ray beam, we see that the scattered x rays contain a range of wavelengths with two prominent intensity peaks. One peak is centered about the incident wavelength λ, the other about a wavelength λ' that is longer than λ by an amount $\Delta\lambda$, which is called the **Compton shift.** The value of the Compton shift varies with the angle at which the scattered x rays are detected and is greater for a greater angle.

Figure 38-4 is still another puzzle for classical physics. Classically, the incident x-ray beam is a sinusoidally oscillating electromagnetic wave. An electron in the

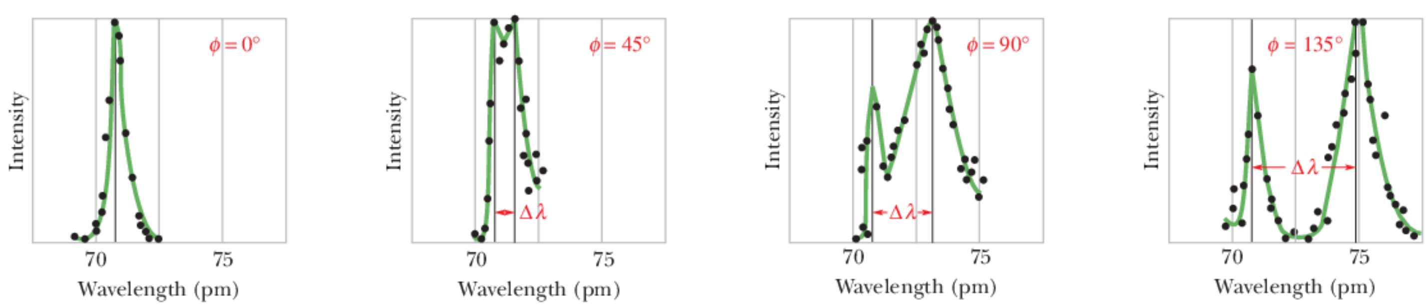

Figure 38-4 Compton's results for four values of the scattering angle ϕ. Note that the Compton shift $\Delta\lambda$ increases as the scattering angle increases.

carbon target should oscillate sinusoidally due to the oscillating electric force on it from the wave's electric field. Further, the electron should oscillate at the same frequency as the wave and should send out waves *at this same frequency,* as if it were a tiny transmitting antenna. Thus, the x rays scattered by the electron should have the same frequency, and the same wavelength, as the x rays in the incident beam—but they don't.

Compton interpreted the scattering of x rays from carbon in terms of energy and momentum transfers, via photons, between the incident x-ray beam and loosely bound electrons in the carbon target. Let's see how this quantum physics interpretation leads to an understanding of Compton's results.

Suppose a single photon (of energy $E = hf$) is associated with the interaction between the incident x-ray beam and a stationary electron. In general, the direction of travel of the x ray will change (the x ray is scattered), and the electron will recoil, which means that the electron has obtained some kinetic energy. Energy is conserved in this isolated interaction. Thus, the energy of the scattered photon ($E' = hf'$) must be less than that of the incident photon. The scattered x rays must then have a lower frequency f' and thus a longer wavelength λ' than the incident x rays, just as Compton's experimental results in Fig. 38-4 show.

For the quantitative part, we first apply the law of conservation of energy. Figure 38-5 suggests a "collision" between an x ray and an initially stationary free electron in the target. As a result of the collision, an x ray of wavelength λ' moves off at an angle ϕ and the electron moves off at an angle θ, as shown. Conservation of energy then gives us

$$hf = hf' + K,$$

in which hf is the energy of the incident x-ray photon, hf' is the energy of the scattered x-ray photon, and K is the kinetic energy of the recoiling electron. Because the electron may recoil with a speed comparable to that of light, we must use the relativistic expression of Eq. 37-52,

$$K = mc^2(\gamma - 1),$$

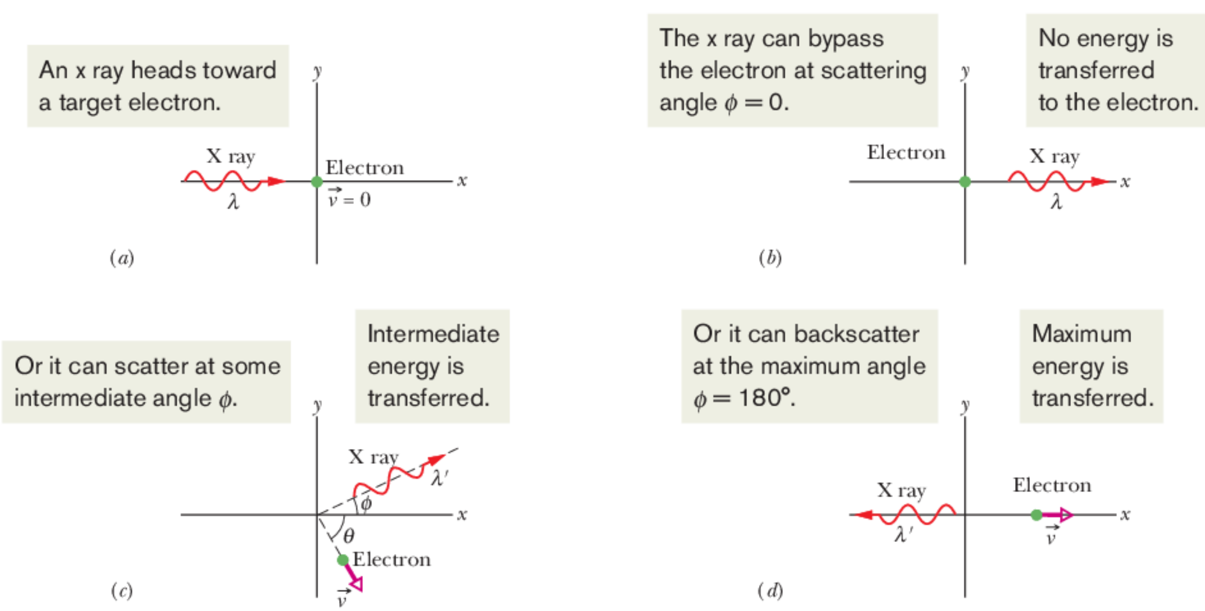

Figure 38-5 (*a*) An x ray approaches a stationary electron. The x ray can (*b*) bypass the electron (forward scatter) with no energy or momentum transfer, (*c*) scatter at some intermediate angle with an intermediate energy and momentum transfer, or (*d*) backscatter with the maximum energy and momentum transfer.

for the electron's kinetic energy. Here m is the electron's mass and γ is the Lorentz factor

$$\gamma = \frac{1}{\sqrt{1 - (v/c)^2}}.$$

Substituting for K in the conservation of energy equation yields

$$hf = hf' + mc^2(\gamma - 1).$$

Substituting c/λ for f and c/λ' for f' then leads to the new energy conservation equation

$$\frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{h}{\lambda'} + mc(\gamma - 1). \tag{38-8}$$

Next we apply the law of conservation of momentum to the x-ray–electron collision of Fig. 38-5. From Eq. 38-7 ($p = h/\lambda$), the magnitude of the momentum of the incident photon is h/λ, and that of the scattered photon is h/λ'. From Eq. 37-41, the magnitude for the recoiling electron's momentum is $p = \gamma mv$. Because we have a two-dimensional situation, we write separate equations for the conservation of momentum along the x and y axes, obtaining

$$\frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \cos \phi + \gamma mv \cos \theta \quad (x \text{ axis}) \tag{38-9}$$

and

$$0 = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \sin \phi - \gamma mv \sin \theta \quad (y \text{ axis}). \tag{38-10}$$

We want to find $\Delta\lambda$ ($= \lambda' - \lambda$), the Compton shift of the scattered x rays. Of the five collision variables (λ, λ', v, ϕ, and θ) that appear in Eqs. 38-8, 38-9, and 38-10, we choose to eliminate v and θ, which deal only with the recoiling electron. Carrying out the algebra (it is somewhat complicated) leads to

$$\Delta\lambda = \frac{h}{mc}(1 - \cos \phi) \quad \text{(Compton shift)}. \tag{38-11}$$

Equation 38-11 agrees exactly with Compton's experimental results.

The quantity h/mc in Eq. 38-11 is a constant called the **Compton wavelength.** Its value depends on the mass m of the particle from which the x rays scatter. Here that particle is a loosely bound electron, and thus we would substitute the mass of an electron for m to evaluate the *Compton wavelength for Compton scattering from an electron.*

A Loose End

The peak at the incident wavelength λ ($= 71.1$ pm) in Fig. 38-4 still needs to be explained. This peak arises not from interactions between x rays and the very loosely bound electrons in the target but from interactions between x rays and the electrons that are *tightly* bound to the carbon atoms making up the target. Effectively, each of these latter collisions occurs between an incident x ray and an entire carbon atom. If we substitute for m in Eq. 38-11 the mass of a carbon atom (which is about 22 000 times that of an electron), we see that $\Delta\lambda$ becomes about 22 000 times smaller than the Compton shift for an electron—too small to detect. Thus, the x rays scattered in these collisions have the same wavelength as the incident x rays and give us the unshifted peaks in Fig. 38-4.

Checkpoint 3

Compare Compton scattering for x rays ($\lambda \approx 20$ pm) and visible light ($\lambda \approx 500$ nm) at a particular angle of scattering. Which has the greater (a) Compton shift, (b) fractional wavelength shift, (c) fractional energy loss, and (d) energy imparted to the electron?

Sample Problem 38.03 Compton scattering of light by electrons

X rays of wavelength $\lambda = 22$ pm (photon energy $= 56$ keV) are scattered from a carbon target, and the scattered rays are detected at 85° to the incident beam.

(a) What is the Compton shift of the scattered rays?

KEY IDEA

The Compton shift is the wavelength change of the x rays due to scattering from loosely bound electrons in a target. Further, that shift depends on the angle at which the scattered x rays are detected, according to Eq. 38-11. The shift is zero for forward scattering at angle $\phi = 0°$, and it is maximum for backscattering at angle $\phi = 180°$. Here we have an intermediate situation at angle $\phi = 85°$.

Calculation: Substituting 85° for that angle and 9.11×10^{-31} kg for the electron mass (because the scattering is from electrons) in Eq. 38-11 gives us

$$\begin{aligned}\Delta\lambda &= \frac{h}{mc}(1 - \cos\phi)\\ &= \frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{J}\cdot\text{s})(1 - \cos 85°)}{(9.11 \times 10^{-31}\ \text{kg})(3.00 \times 10^{8}\ \text{m/s})}\\ &= 2.21 \times 10^{-12}\ \text{m} \approx 2.2\ \text{pm}. \qquad \text{(Answer)}\end{aligned}$$

(b) What percentage of the initial x-ray photon energy is transferred to an electron in such scattering?

KEY IDEA

We need to find the *fractional energy loss* (let us call it *frac*) for photons that scatter from the electrons:

$$frac = \frac{\text{energy loss}}{\text{initial energy}} = \frac{E - E'}{E}.$$

Calculations: From Eq. 38-2 ($E = hf$), we can substitute for the initial energy E and the detected energy E' of the x rays in terms of frequencies. Then, from Eq. 38-1 ($f = c/\lambda$), we can substitute for those frequencies in terms of the wavelengths. We find

$$\begin{aligned}frac &= \frac{hf - hf'}{hf} = \frac{c/\lambda - c/\lambda'}{c/\lambda} = \frac{\lambda' - \lambda}{\lambda'}\\ &= \frac{\Delta\lambda}{\lambda + \Delta\lambda}.\end{aligned}$$

Substitution of data yields

$$frac = \frac{2.21\ \text{pm}}{22\ \text{pm} + 2.21\ \text{pm}} = 0.091, \text{ or } 9.1\%. \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

Although the Compton shift $\Delta\lambda$ is independent of the wavelength λ of the incident x rays (see Eq. 38-11), our result here tells us that the *fractional* photon energy loss of the x rays does depend on λ, increasing as the wavelength of the incident radiation decreases.

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Light as a Probability Wave

A fundamental mystery in physics is how light can be a wave (which spreads out over a region) in classical physics but be emitted and absorbed as photons (which originate and vanish at points) in quantum physics. The double-slit experiment of Module 35-2 lies at the heart of this mystery. Let us discuss three versions of it.

The Standard Version

Figure 38-6 is a sketch of the original experiment carried out by Thomas Young in 1801 (see also Fig. 35-8). Light shines on screen B, which contains two narrow parallel slits. The light waves emerging from the two slits spread out by diffraction and overlap on screen C where, by interference, they form a pattern of alternating intensity maxima and minima. In Module 35-2 we took the existence of these interference fringes as compelling evidence for the wave nature of light.

Let us place a tiny photon detector D at one point in the plane of screen C. Let the detector be a photoelectric device that clicks when it absorbs a photon. We would find that the detector produces a series of clicks, randomly spaced in time, each click signaling the transfer of energy from the light wave to the screen via a photon absorption. If we moved the detector very slowly up or down as indicated by the black arrow in Fig. 38-6, we would find that the click rate increases and decreases, passing through alternate maxima and minima that correspond exactly to the maxima and minima of the interference fringes.

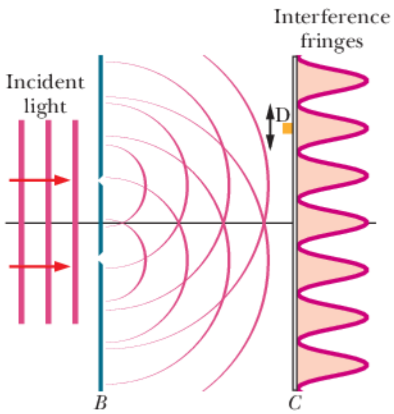


Figure 38-6 Light is directed onto screen B, which contains two parallel slits. Light emerging from these slits spreads out by diffraction. The two diffracted waves overlap at screen C and form a pattern of interference fringes. A small photon detector D in the plane of screen C generates a sharp click for each photon that it absorbs.

The point of this thought experiment is as follows. We cannot predict when a photon will be detected at any particular point on screen C; photons are detected at individual points at random times. We can, however, predict that the relative *probability* that a single photon will be detected at a particular point in a specified time interval is proportional to the light intensity at that point.

We know from Eq. 33-26 ($I = E^2_{\text{rms}}/c\mu_0$) in Module 33-2 that the intensity I of a light wave at any point is proportional to the square of E_m, the amplitude of the oscillating electric field vector of the wave at that point. Thus,

The probability (per unit time interval) that a photon will be detected in any small volume centered on a given point in a light wave is proportional to the square of the amplitude of the wave's electric field vector at that point.

We now have a probabilistic description of a light wave, hence another way to view light. It is not only an electromagnetic wave but also a **probability wave.** That is, to every point in a light wave we can attach a numerical probability (per unit time interval) that a photon can be detected in any small volume centered on that point.

The Single-Photon Version

A single-photon version of the double-slit experiment was first carried out by G. I. Taylor in 1909 and has been repeated many times since. It differs from the standard version in that the light source in the Taylor experiment is so extremely feeble that it emits only one photon at a time, at random intervals. Astonishingly, interference fringes still build up on screen C if the experiment runs long enough (several months for Taylor's early experiment).

What explanation can we offer for the result of this single-photon double-slit experiment? Before we can even consider the result, we are compelled to ask questions like these: If the photons move through the apparatus one at a time, through which of the two slits in screen B does a given photon pass? How does a given photon even "know" that there is another slit present so that interference is a possibility? Can a single photon somehow pass through both slits and interfere with itself?

Bear in mind that the only thing we can know about photons is when light interacts with matter—we have no way of detecting them without an interaction with matter, such as with a detector or a screen. Thus, in the experiment of Fig. 38-6, all we can know is that photons originate at the light source and vanish at the screen. Between source and screen, we cannot know what the photon is or does. However, because an interference pattern eventually builds up on the screen, we can speculate that each photon travels from source to screen *as a wave* that fills up the space between source and screen and then vanishes in a photon absorption at some point on the screen, with a transfer of energy and momentum to the screen at that point.

We *cannot* predict where this transfer will occur (where a photon will be detected) for any given photon originating at the source. However, we *can* predict the probability that a transfer will occur at any given point on the screen. Transfers will tend to occur (and thus photons will tend to be absorbed) in the regions of the bright fringes in the interference pattern that builds up on the screen. Transfers will tend *not* to occur (and thus photons will tend *not* to be absorbed) in the regions of the dark fringes in the built-up pattern. Thus, we can say that the wave traveling from the source to the screen is a *probability wave,* which produces a pattern of "probability fringes" on the screen.

The Single-Photon, Wide-Angle Version

In the past, physicists tried to explain the single-photon double-slit experiment in terms of small packets of classical light waves that are individually sent toward the slits. They would define these small packets as photons. However, modern experiments invalidate this explanation and definition. One of these experiments, reported in 1992 by Ming Lai and Jean-Claude Diels of the University of New Mexico, A *single* photon can take widely different paths and still interfere with itself.

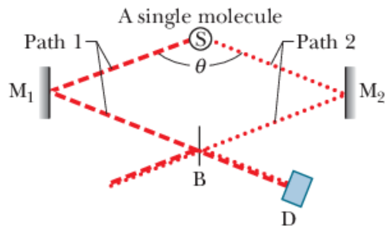


Figure 38-7 The light from a single photon emission in source S travels over two widely separated paths and interferes with itself at detector D after being recombined by beam splitter B. (Based on Ming Lai and Jean-Claude Diels, *Journal of the Optical Society of America B*, **9**, 2290–2294, December 1992.)

is depicted in Figure 38-7. Source S contains molecules that emit photons at well-separated times. Mirrors M_1 and M_2 are positioned to reflect light that the source emits along two distinct paths, 1 and 2, that are separated by an angle θ, which is close to 180°. This arrangement differs from the standard two-slit experiment, in which the angle between the paths of the light reaching two slits is very small.

After reflection from mirrors M_1 and M_2, the light waves traveling along paths 1 and 2 meet at beam splitter B, which transmits half the incident light and reflects the other half. On the right side of B in Fig. 38-7, the light wave traveling along path 2 and reflected by B combines with the light wave traveling along path 1 and transmitted by B. These two waves then interfere with each other at detector D (a *photomultiplier tube* that can detect individual photons).

The output of the detector is a randomly spaced series of electronic pulses, one for each detected photon. In the experiment, the beam splitter is moved slowly in a horizontal direction (in the reported experiment, a distance of only about 50 μm maximum), and the detector output is recorded on a chart recorder. Moving the beam splitter changes the lengths of paths 1 and 2, producing a phase shift between the light waves arriving at detector D. Interference maxima and minima appear in the detector's output signal.

This experiment is difficult to understand in traditional terms. For example, when a molecule in the source emits a single photon, does that photon travel along path 1 or path 2 in Fig. 38-7 (or along any other path)? Or can it move in both directions at once? To answer, we assume that when a molecule emits a photon, a probability wave radiates in all directions from it. The experiment samples this wave in two of those directions, chosen to be nearly opposite each other.

We see that we can interpret all three versions of the double-slit experiment if we assume that (1) light is generated in the source as photons, (2) light is absorbed in the detector as photons, and (3) light travels between source and detector as a probability wave.

38-4 THE BIRTH OF QUANTUM PHYSICS

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

38.15 Identify an ideal blackbody radiator and its spectral radiancy $S(\lambda)$.

38.16 Identify the problem that physicists had with blackbody radiation prior to Planck's work, and explain how Planck and Einstein solved the problem.

38.17 Apply Planck's radiation law for a given wavelength and temperature.

38.18 For a narrow wavelength range and for a given wavelength and temperature, find the intensity in blackbody radiation.

38.19 Apply the relationship between intensity, power, and area.

38.20 Apply Wien's law to relate the surface temperature of an ideal blackbody radiator to the wavelength at which the spectral radiancy is maximum.

Key Ideas

- As a measure of the emission of thermal radiation by an ideal blackbody radiator, we define the spectral radiancy in terms of the emitted intensity per unit wavelength at a given wavelength λ:

$$S(\lambda) = \frac{\text{intensity}}{(\text{unit wavelength})}.$$

- The Planck radiation law, in which atomic oscillators produce the thermal radiation, is

$$S(\lambda) = \frac{2\pi c^2 h}{\lambda^5}\frac{1}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1},$$

where h is the Planck constant, k is the Boltzmann constant, and T is the temperature of the radiating surface (in kelvins).

- Planck's law was the first suggestion that the energies of the atomic oscillators producing the radiation are quantized.

- Wien's law relates the temperature T of a blackbody radiator and the wavelength λ_{max} at which the spectral radiancy is maximum:

$$\lambda_{max} T = 2898\ \mu\text{m}\cdot\text{K}.$$

The Birth of Quantum Physics

Now that we have seen how the photoelectric effect and Compton scattering propelled physicists into quantum physics, let's back up to the very beginning, when the idea of quantized energies gradually emerged out of experimental data. The story begins with what might seem mundane these days but which was a fixation point for physicists of 1900. The subject was the thermal radiation emitted by an ideal blackbody radiator—that is, a radiator whose emitted radiation depends only on its temperature and not on the material from which it is made, the nature of its surface, or anything other than temperature. In a nutshell here was the trouble: the experimental results differed wildly from the theoretical predictions and no one had a clue as to why.

Experimental Setup. We can make an ideal radiator by forming a cavity within a body and keeping the cavity walls at a uniform temperature. The atoms on the inner wall of the body oscillate (they have thermal energy), which causes them to emit electromagnetic waves, the thermal radiation. To sample that internal radiation, we drill a small hole through the wall so that some of the radiation can escape to be measured (but not enough to alter the radiation inside the cavity). We are interested in how the intensity of the radiation depends on wavelength.

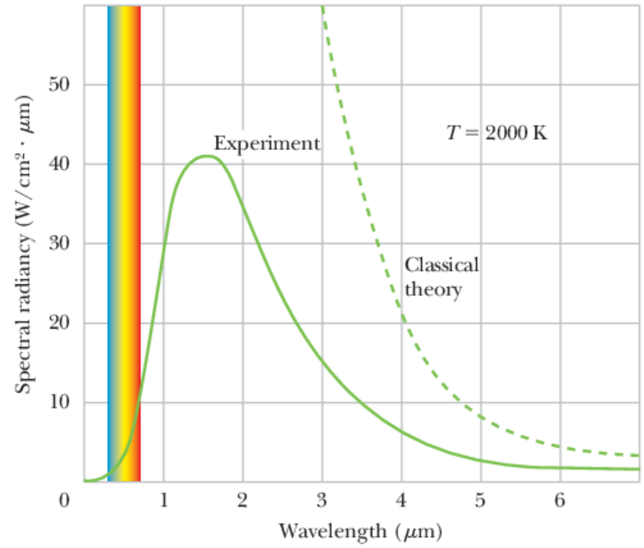


Figure 38-8 The solid curve shows the experimental spectral radiancy for a cavity at 2000 K. Note the failure of the classical theory, which is shown as a dashed curve. The range of visible wavelengths is indicated.

That intensity distribution is handled by defining a **spectral radiancy** $S(\lambda)$ of the radiation emitted at given wavelength λ:

$$S(\lambda) = \frac{\text{intensity}}{\left(\begin{array}{c}\text{unit}\\ \text{wavelength}\end{array}\right)} = \frac{\text{power}}{\left(\begin{array}{c}\text{unit area}\\ \text{of emitter}\end{array}\right)\left(\begin{array}{c}\text{unit}\\ \text{wavelength}\end{array}\right)}. \tag{38-12}$$

If we multiply $S(\lambda)$ by a narrow wavelength range $d\lambda$, we have the intensity (that is, the power per unit area of the hole in the wall) that is being emitted in the wavelength range λ to $\lambda + d\lambda$.

The solid curve in Fig. 38-8 shows the experimental results for a cavity with a wall temperature of 2000 K, for a range of wavelengths. Although such a radiator would glow brightly in a dark room, we can tell from the figure that only a small part of its radiated energy actually lies in the visible range (which is colorfully indicated). At that temperature, most of the radiated energy lies in the infrared region, with longer wavelengths.

Theory. The prediction of classical physics for the spectral radiancy, for a given temperature T in kelvins, is

$$S(\lambda) = \frac{2\pi ckT}{\lambda^4} \quad \text{(classical radiation law)}, \tag{38-13}$$

where k is the Boltzmann constant (Eq. 19-7) with the value

$$k = 1.38 \times 10^{-23}\ \text{J/K} = 8.62 \times 10^{-5}\ \text{eV/K}.$$

This classical result is plotted in Fig. 38-8 for $T = 2000$ K. Although the theoretical and experimental results agree well at long wavelengths (off the graph to the right), they are not even close in the short wavelength region. Indeed, the theoretical prediction does not even include a maximum as seen in the measured results and instead "blows up" up to infinity (which was quite disturbing, even embarrassing, to the physicists).

Planck's Solution. In 1900, Planck devised a formula for $S(\lambda)$ that neatly fitted the experimental results for all wavelengths and for all temperatures:

$$S(\lambda) = \frac{2\pi c^2 h}{\lambda^5}\frac{1}{e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1} \quad \text{(Planck's radiation law)}. \tag{38-14}$$

The key element in the equation lies in the argument of the exponential: hc/λ, which we can rewrite in a more suggestive form as hf. Equation 38-14 was the first use of the symbol h, and the appearance of hf suggests that the energies of the atomic oscillators in the cavity wall are quantized. However, Planck, with his training in classical physics, simply could not believe such a result in spite of the immediate success of his equation in fitting all experimental data.

Einstein's Solution. No one understood Eq. 38-14 for 17 years, but then Einstein explained it with a very simple model with two key ideas: (1) The energies of the cavity-wall atoms that are emitting the radiation are indeed quantized. (2) The energies of the radiation in the cavity are also quantized in the form of quanta (what we now call photons), each with energy $E = hf$. In his model he explained the processes by which atoms can emit and absorb photons and how the atoms can be in equilibrium with the emitted and absorbed light.

Maximum Value. The wavelength λ_{max} at which the $S(\lambda)$ is maximum (for a given temperature T) can be found by taking the first derivative of Eq. 38-14 with respect to λ, setting the derivative to zero, and then solving for the wavelength. The result is known as Wien's law:

$$\lambda_{max}T = 2898\ \mu\text{m}\cdot\text{K} \qquad \text{(at maximum radiancy).} \tag{38-15}$$

For example, in Fig. 38-8 for which $T = 2000$ K, $\lambda_{max} = 1.5\ \mu$m, which is greater than the long wavelength end of the visible spectrum and is in the infrared region, as shown. If we increase the temperature, λ_{max} decreases and the peak in Fig. 38-8 changes shape and shifts more into the visible range.

Radiated Power. If we integrate Eq. 38-14 over all wavelengths (for a given temperature), we find the power per unit area of a thermal radiator. If we then multiply by the total surface area A, we find the total radiated power P. We have already seen the result in Eq. 18-38 (with some changes in notation):

$$P = \sigma\varepsilon AT^4, \tag{38-16}$$

where $\sigma (= 5.6704 \times 10^{-8}\ \text{W/m}^2\cdot\text{K}^4)$ is the Stefan–Boltzmann constant and ε is the emissivity of the radiating surface ($\varepsilon = 1$ for an ideal blackbody radiator). Actually, integrating Eq. 38-14 over all wavelengths is difficult. However, for a given temperature T, wavelength λ, and wavelength range $\Delta\lambda$ that is small relative to λ, we can approximate the power in that range by simply evaluating $S(\lambda)A\ \Delta\lambda$.

38-5 ELECTRONS AND MATTER WAVES

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

38.21 Identify that electrons (and protons and all other elementary particles) are matter waves.

38.22 For both relativistic and nonrelativistic particles, apply the relationships between the de Broglie wavelength, momentum, speed, and kinetic energy.

38.23 Describe the double-slit interference pattern obtained with particles such as electrons.

38.24 Apply the optical two-slit equations (Module 35-2) and diffraction equations (Module 36-1) to matter waves.

Key Ideas

- A moving particle such as an electron can be described as a matter wave.
- The wavelength associated with the matter wave is the particle's de Broglie wavelength $\lambda = h/p$, where p is the particle's momentum.
- Particle: When an electron interacts with matter, the interaction is particle-like, occurring at a point and transferring energy and momentum.
- Wave: When an electron is in transit, we interpret it as being a probability wave.

Electrons and Matter Waves

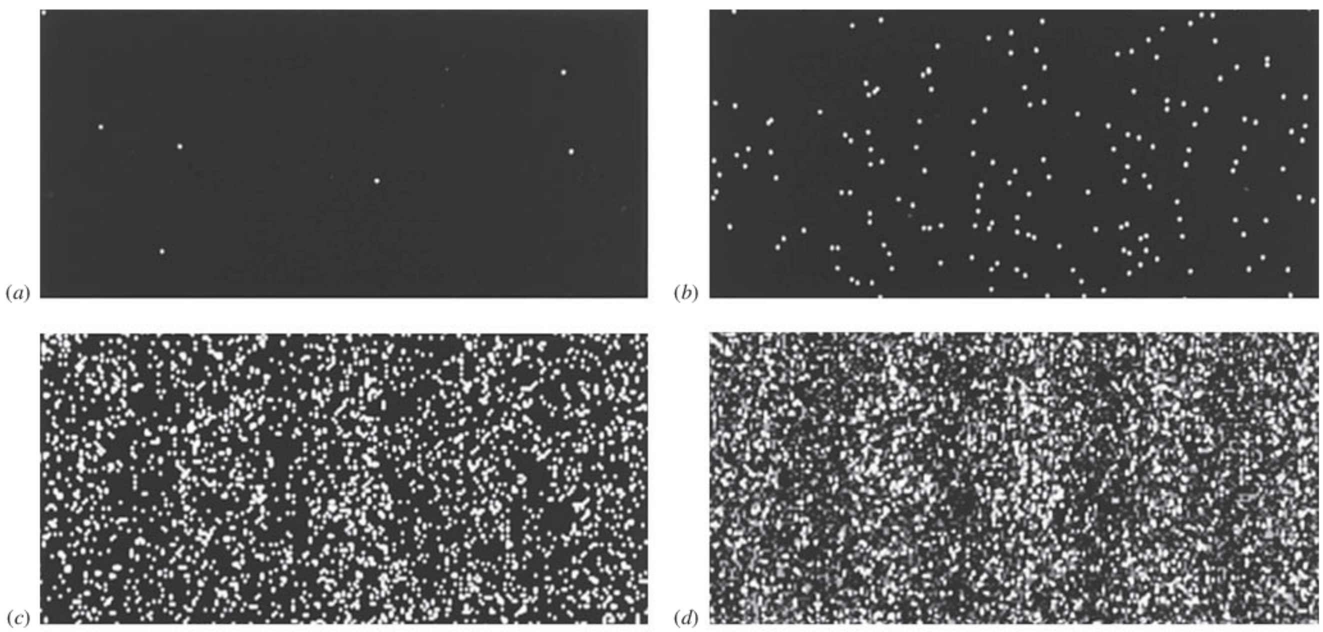
In 1924, French physicist Louis de Broglie made the following appeal to symmetry: A beam of light is a wave, but it transfers energy and momentum to matter only at points, via photons. Why can't a beam of particles have the same properties? That is, why can't we think of a moving electron—or any other particle—as a **matter wave** that transfers energy and momentum to other matter at points?

In particular, de Broglie suggested that Eq. 38-7 ($p = h/\lambda$) might apply not only to photons but also to electrons. We used that equation in Module 38-3 to assign a momentum p to a photon of light with wavelength λ. We now use it, in the form

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} \quad \text{(de Broglie wavelength)}, \tag{38-17}$$

to assign a wavelength λ to a particle with momentum of magnitude p. The wavelength calculated from Eq. 38-17 is called the **de Broglie wavelength** of the moving particle. De Broglie's prediction of the existence of matter waves was first verified experimentally in 1927, by C. J. Davisson and L. H. Germer of the Bell Telephone Laboratories and by George P. Thomson of the University of Aberdeen in Scotland.

Figure 38-9 shows photographic proof of matter waves in a more recent experiment. In the experiment, an interference pattern was built up when



Central Research Laboratory, Hitachi, Ltd., Kokubinju, Tokyo; H. Ezawa, Department of Physics, Gakushuin University, Mejiro, Tokyo

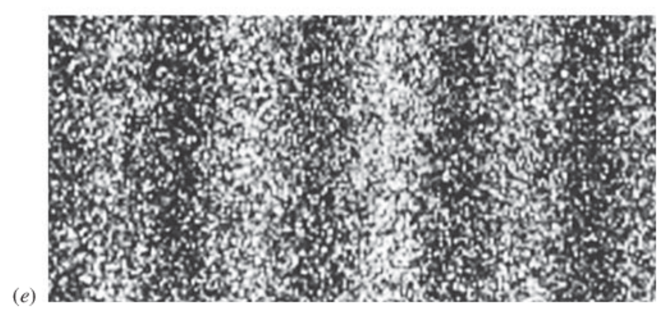
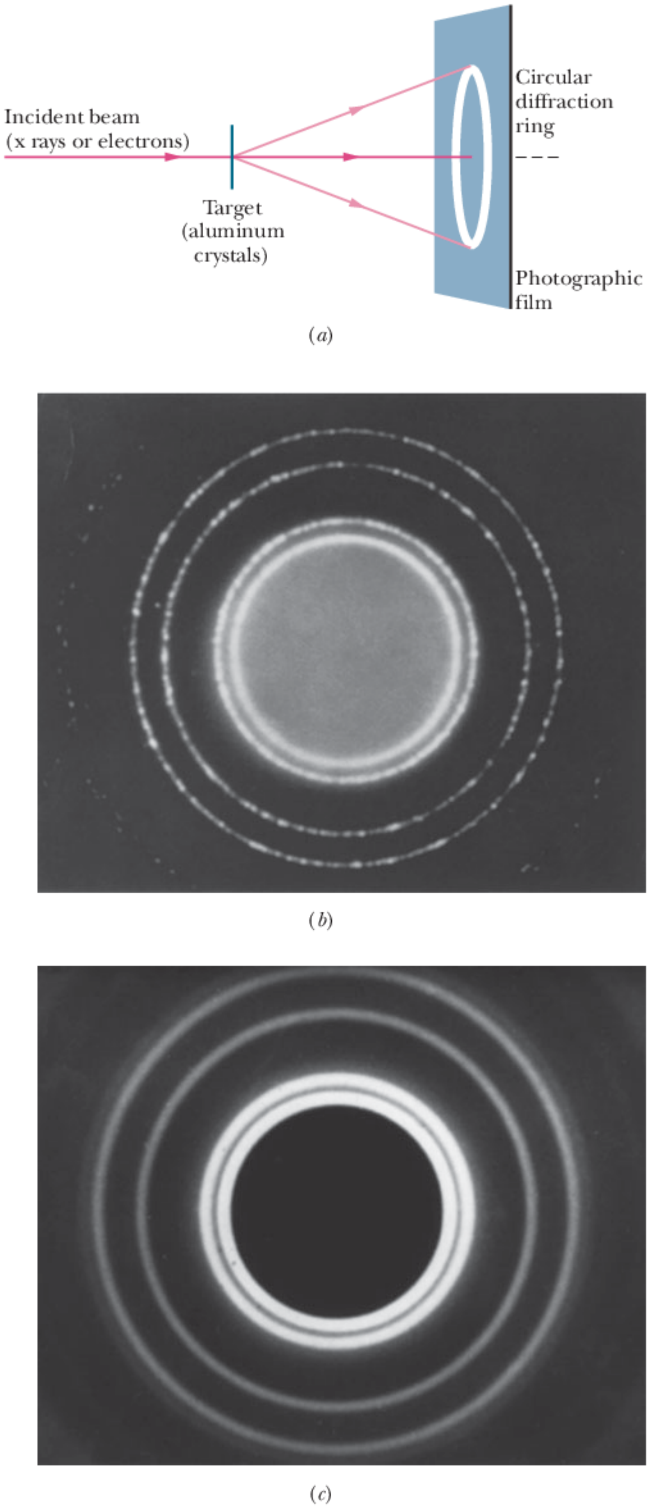


Figure 38-9 Photographs showing the buildup of an interference pattern by a beam of electrons in a two-slit interference experiment like that of Fig. 38-6. Matter waves, like light waves, are *probability waves.* The approximate numbers of electrons involved are (*a*) 7, (*b*) 100, (*c*) 3000, (*d*) 20 000, and (*e*) 70 000.



Parts (b) and (c) from PSSC film "Matter Waves," courtesy Education Development Center, Newton, Massachusetts

Figure 38-10 (*a*) An experimental arrangement used to demonstrate, by diffraction techniques, the wave-like character of the incident beam. Photographs of the diffraction patterns when the incident beam is (*b*) an x-ray beam (light wave) and (*c*) an electron beam (matter wave). Note that the two patterns are geometrically identical to each other.

electrons were sent, *one by one,* through a double-slit apparatus. The apparatus was like the ones we have previously used to demonstrate optical interference, except that the viewing screen was similar to an old-fashioned television screen. When an electron hit the screen, it caused a flash of light whose position was recorded.

The first several electrons (top two photos) revealed nothing interesting and seemingly hit the screen at random points. However, after many thousands of electrons were sent through the apparatus, a pattern appeared on the screen, revealing fringes where many electrons had hit the screen and fringes where few had hit the screen. The pattern is exactly what we would expect for wave interference. Thus, *each* electron passed through the apparatus as a matter wave—the portion of the matter wave that traveled through one slit interfered with the portion that traveled through the other slit. That interference then determined the probability that the electron would materialize at a given point on the screen, hitting the screen there. Many electrons materialized in regions corresponding to bright fringes in optical interference, and few electrons materialized in regions corresponding to dark fringes.

Similar interference has been demonstrated with protons, neutrons, and various atoms. In 1994, it was demonstrated with iodine molecules I_2, which are not only 500 000 times more massive than electrons but far more complex. In 1999, it was demonstrated with the even more complex *fullerenes* (or *buckyballs*) C_{60} and C_{70}. (Fullerenes are molecules of carbon atoms that are arranged in a structure resembling a soccer ball, 60 carbon atoms in C_{60} and 70 carbon atoms in C_{70}.) Apparently, such small objects as electrons, protons, atoms, and molecules travel as matter waves. However, as we consider larger and more complex objects, there must come a point at which we are no longer justified in considering the wave nature of an object. At that point, we are back in our familiar nonquantum world, with the physics of earlier chapters of this book. In short, an electron is a matter wave and can undergo interference with itself, but a cat is not a matter wave and cannot undergo interference with itself (which must be a relief to cats).

The wave nature of particles and atoms is now taken for granted in many scientific and engineering fields. For example, electron diffraction and neutron diffraction are used to study the atomic structures of solids and liquids, and electron diffraction is used to study the atomic features of surfaces on solids.

Figure 38-10*a* shows an arrangement that can be used to demonstrate the scattering of either x rays or electrons by crystals. A beam of one or the other is directed onto a target consisting of a layer of tiny aluminum crystals. The x rays have a certain wavelength λ. The electrons are given enough energy so that their de Broglie wavelength is the same wavelength λ. The scatter of x rays or electrons by the crystals produces a circular interference pattern on a photographic film. Figure 38-10*b* shows the pattern for the scatter of x rays, and Fig. 38-10*c* shows the pattern for the scatter of electrons. The patterns are the same—both x rays and electrons are waves.

Waves and Particles

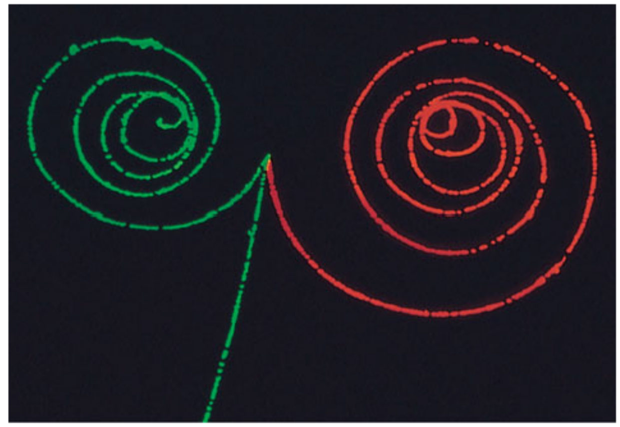
Figures 38-9 and 38-10 are convincing evidence of the *wave* nature of matter, but we have countless experiments that suggest its *parti-*

cle nature. Figure 38-11, for example, shows the tracks of particles (rather than waves) revealed in a bubble chamber. When a charged particle passes through the liquid hydrogen that fills such a chamber, the particle causes the liquid to vaporize along the particle's path. A series of bubbles thus marks the path, which is usually curved due to a magnetic field set up perpendicular to the plane of the chamber.

In Fig. 38-11, a gamma ray left no track when it entered at the top because the ray is electrically neutral and thus caused no vapor bubbles as it passed through the liquid hydrogen. However, it collided with one of the hydrogen atoms, kicking an electron out of that atom; the curved path taken by the electron to the bottom of the photograph has been color coded green. Simultaneous with the collision, the gamma ray transformed into an electron and a positron in a pair production event (see Eq. 21-15). Those two particles then moved in tight spirals (color coded green for the electron and red for the positron) as they gradually lost energy in repeated collisions with hydrogen atoms. Surely these tracks are evidence of the particle nature of the electron and positron, but is there any evidence of waves in Fig. 38-11?

To simplify the situation, let us turn off the magnetic field so that the strings of bubbles will be straight. We can view each bubble as a detection point for the electron. Matter waves traveling between detection points such as I and F in Fig. 38-12 will explore all possible paths, a few of which are shown.

In general, for every path connecting I and F (except the straight-line path), there will be a neighboring path such that matter waves following the two paths cancel each other by interference. For the straight-line path joining I and F, matter waves traversing all neighboring paths reinforce the wave following the direct path. You can think of the bubbles that form the track as a series of detection points at which the matter wave undergoes constructive interference.



Lawrence Berkeley Laboratory/Science Photo Library/Photo Researchers, Inc.

Figure 38-11 A bubble-chamber image showing where two electrons (paths color coded green) and one positron (red) moved after a gamma ray entered the chamber.

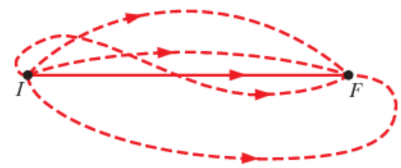


Figure 38-12 A few of the many paths that connect two particle detection points I and F. Only matter waves that follow paths close to the straight line between these points interfere constructively. For all other paths, the waves following any pair of neighboring paths interfere destructively.

Checkpoint 4

For an electron and a proton that have the same (a) kinetic energy, (b) momentum, or (c) speed, which particle has the shorter de Broglie wavelength?

Sample Problem 38.04 de Broglie wavelength of an electron

What is the de Broglie wavelength of an electron with a kinetic energy of 120 eV?

KEY IDEAS

(1) We can find the electron's de Broglie wavelength λ from Eq. 38-17 ($\lambda = h/p$) if we first find the magnitude of its momentum p. (2) We find p from the given kinetic energy K of the electron. That kinetic energy is much less than the rest energy of an electron (0.511 MeV, from Table 37-3). Thus, we can get by with the classical approximations for momentum p ($= mv$) and kinetic energy K ($= \frac{1}{2}mv^2$).

Calculations: We are given the value of the kinetic energy. So, in order to use the de Broglie relation, we first solve the kinetic energy equation for v and then substitute into the momentum equation, finding

$$\begin{aligned} p &= \sqrt{2mK} \\ &= \sqrt{(2)(9.11 \times 10^{-31}\ \text{kg})(120\ \text{eV})(1.60 \times 10^{-19}\ \text{J/eV})} \\ &= 5.91 \times 10^{-24}\ \text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}. \end{aligned}$$

From Eq. 38-17 then

$$\begin{aligned} \lambda &= \frac{h}{p} \\ &= \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34}\ \text{J} \cdot \text{s}}{5.91 \times 10^{-24}\ \text{kg} \cdot \text{m/s}} \\ &= 1.12 \times 10^{-10}\ \text{m} = 112\ \text{pm}. \qquad \text{(Answer)} \end{aligned}$$

This wavelength associated with the electron is about the size of a typical atom. If we increase the electron's kinetic energy, the wavelength becomes even smaller.

Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

38-6 SCHRÖDINGER'S EQUATION

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

38.25 Identify that matter waves are described by Schrödinger's equation.

38.26 For a nonrelativistic particle moving along an x axis, write the Schrödinger equation and its general solution for the spatial part of the wave function.

38.27 For a nonrelativistic particle, apply the relationships between angular wave number, energy, potential energy, kinetic energy, momentum, and de Broglie wavelength.

38.28 Given the spatial solution to the Schrödinger equation, write the full solution by including the time dependence.

38.29 Given a complex number, find the complex conjugate.

38.30 Given a wave function, calculate the probability density.

Key Ideas

- A matter wave (such as for an electron) is described by a wave function $\Psi(x, y, z, t)$, which can be separated into a space-dependent part $\psi(x, y, z)$ and a time-dependent part $e^{-i\omega t}$, where ω is the angular frequency associated with the wave.
- For a nonrelativistic particle of mass m traveling along an x axis, with energy E and potential energy U, the space-dependent part can be found by solving Schrödinger's equation,

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

where k is the angular wave number, which is related to the de Broglie wavelength λ, the momentum p, and the kinetic energy $E - U$ by

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi p}{h} = \frac{2\pi\sqrt{2m(E-U)}}{h}.$$

- A particle does not have a specific location until its location is actually measured.
- The probability of detecting a particle in a small volume centered on a given point is proportional to the probability density $|\psi|^2$ of the matter wave at that point.

Schrödinger's Equation

A simple traveling wave of any kind, be it a wave on a string, a sound wave, or a light wave, is described in terms of some quantity that varies in a wave-like fashion. For light waves, for example, this quantity is $\vec{E}(x, y, z, t)$, the electric field component of the wave. Its observed value at any point depends on the location of that point and on the time at which the observation is made.

What varying quantity should we use to describe a matter wave? We should expect this quantity, which we call the **wave function** $\Psi(x, y, z, t)$, to be more complicated than the corresponding quantity for a light wave because a matter wave, in addition to energy and momentum, transports mass and (often) electric charge. It turns out that Ψ, the uppercase Greek letter psi, usually represents a function that is complex in the mathematical sense; that is, we can always write its values in the form $a + ib$, in which a and b are real numbers and $i^2 = -1$.

In all the situations you will meet here, the space and time variables can be grouped separately and Ψ can be written in the form

$$\Psi(x, y, z, t) = \psi(x, y, z)\, e^{-i\omega t}, \tag{38-18}$$

where $\omega\ (= 2\pi f)$ is the angular frequency of the matter wave. Note that ψ, the lowercase Greek letter psi, represents only the space-dependent part of the complete, time-dependent wave function Ψ. We shall focus on ψ. Two questions arise: What is meant by the wave function? How do we find it?

What does the wave function mean? It has to do with the fact that a matter wave, like a light wave, is a probability wave. Suppose that a matter wave reaches a particle detector that is small; then the probability that a particle will be detected in a specified time interval is proportional to $|\psi|^2$, where $|\psi|$ is the absolute value of the wave function at the location of the detector. Although ψ

is usually a complex quantity, $|\psi|^2$ is always both real and positive. It is, then, $|\psi|^2$, which we call the **probability density,** and not ψ, that has *physical* meaning. Speaking loosely, the meaning is this:

> The probability of detecting a particle in a small volume centered on a given point in a matter wave is proportional to the value of $|\psi|^2$ at that point.

Because ψ is usually a complex quantity, we find the square of its absolute value by multiplying ψ by ψ^*, the *complex conjugate* of ψ. (To find ψ^* we replace the imaginary number i in ψ with $-i$, wherever it occurs.)

How do we find the wave function? Sound waves and waves on strings are described by the equations of Newtonian mechanics. Light waves are described by Maxwell's equations. Matter waves for nonrelativistic particles are described by **Schrödinger's equation,** advanced in 1926 by Austrian physicist Erwin Schrödinger.

Many of the situations that we shall discuss involve a particle traveling in the x direction through a region in which forces acting on the particle cause it to have a potential energy $U(x)$. In this special case, Schrödinger's equation reduces to

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2}[E - U(x)]\psi = 0 \quad \text{(Schrödinger's equation, one-dimensional motion)}, \qquad (38\text{-}19)$$

in which E is the total mechanical energy of the moving particle. (We do *not* consider mass energy in this nonrelativistic equation.) We cannot derive Schrödinger's equation from more basic principles; it *is* the basic principle.

We can simplify the expression of Schrödinger's equation by rewriting the second term. First, note that $E - U(x)$ is the kinetic energy of the particle. Let's assume that the potential energy is uniform and constant (it might even be zero). Because the particle is nonrelativistic, we can write the kinetic energy classically in terms of speed v and then momentum p, and then we can introduce quantum theory by using the de Broglie wavelength:

$$E - U = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{p^2}{2m} = \frac{1}{2m}\left(\frac{h}{\lambda}\right)^2. \qquad (38\text{-}20)$$

By putting 2π in both the numerator and denominator of the squared term, we can rewrite the kinetic energy in terms of the angular wave number $k = 2\pi/\lambda$:

$$E - U = \frac{1}{2m}\left(\frac{kh}{2\pi}\right)^2. \qquad (38\text{-}21)$$

Substituting this into Eq. 38-19 leads to

$$\frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + k^2\psi = 0 \quad \text{(Schrödinger's equation, uniform } U\text{)}, \qquad (38\text{-}22)$$

where, from Eq. 38-21, the angular wave number is

$$k = \frac{2\pi\sqrt{2m(E - U)}}{h} \quad \text{(angular wave number)}. \qquad (38\text{-}23)$$

The general solution of Eq. 38-22 is

$$\psi(x) = Ae^{ikx} + Be^{-ikx}, \qquad (38\text{-}24)$$

in which A and B are constants. You can show that this equation is indeed a solution of Eq. 38-22 by substituting it and its second derivative into that equation and noting that an identity results.

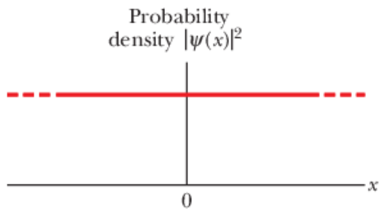


Figure 38-13 A plot of the probability density $|\psi|^2$ for a particle moving in the positive x direction with a uniform potential energy. Since $|\psi|^2$ has the same constant value for all values of x, the particle has the same probability of detection at all points along its path.

Equation 38-24 is the time-independent solution of Schrödinger's equation. We can assume it is the spatial part of the wave function at some initial time $t = 0$. Given values for E and U, we could determine the coefficients A and B to see how the wave function looks at $t = 0$. Then, if we wanted to see how the wave function evolves with time, we follow the guide of Eq. 38-18 and multiply Eq. 38-24 by the time dependence $e^{-i\omega t}$:

$$\Psi(x,t) = \psi(x)e^{-i\omega t} = (Ae^{ikx} + Be^{-ikx})e^{-i\omega t}$$
$$= Ae^{i(kx-\omega t)} + Be^{-i(kx+\omega t)}. \quad (38\text{-}25)$$

Here, however, we will not go that far.

Finding the Probability Density $|\psi|^2$

In Module 16-1 we saw that any function F of the form $F(kx \pm \omega t)$ represents a traveling wave. In Chapter 16, the functions were sinusoidal (sines and cosines); here they are exponentials. If we wanted, we could always switch between the two forms by using the Euler formula: For a general argument θ,

$$e^{i\theta} = \cos\theta + i\sin\theta \quad \text{and} \quad e^{-i\theta} = \cos\theta - i\sin\theta. \quad (38\text{-}26)$$

The first term on the right in Eq. 38-25 represents a wave traveling in the positive direction of x, and the second term represents a wave traveling in the negative direction of x. Let's evaluate the probability density $|\psi^2|$ for a particle with only positive motion. We eliminate the negative motion by setting B to zero, and then the solution at $t = 0$ becomes

$$\psi(x) = Ae^{ikx}. \quad (38\text{-}27)$$

To calculate the probability density, we take the square of the absolute value:

$$|\psi|^2 = |Ae^{ikx}|^2 = A^2|e^{ikx}|^2.$$

Because

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

we get

$$|\psi|^2 = A^2(1)^2 = A^2.$$

Now here is the point: For the condition we have set up (uniform potential energy U, including $U = 0$ for a *free particle*), the probability density is a constant (the same value A^2) for any point along the x axis, as shown in the plot of Fig. 38-13. That means that if we make a measurement to locate the particle, the location could turn out to be at any x value. Thus, we cannot say that the particle is moving along the axis in a classical way as a car moves along a street. *In fact, the particle does not have a location until we measure it.*

38-7 HEISENBERG'S UNCERTAINTY PRINCIPLE

Learning Objective

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

38.31 Apply the Heisenberg uncertainty principle for, say, an electron moving along the x axis and explain its meaning.

Key Idea

- The probabilistic nature of quantum physics places an important limitation on detecting a particle's position and momentum. That is, it is not possible to measure the position $\vec{r}$ and the momentum $\vec{p}$ of a particle simultaneously with unlimited precision. The uncertainties in the components of these quantities are given by

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p_x \geq \hbar$$
$$\Delta y \cdot \Delta p_y \geq \hbar$$
$$\Delta z \cdot \Delta p_z \geq \hbar.$$

Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle

Our inability to predict the position of a particle with a uniform electric potential energy, as indicated by Fig. 38-13, is our first example of **Heisenberg's uncertainty principle,** proposed in 1927 by German physicist Werner Heisenberg. It states that measured values cannot be assigned to the position $\vec{r}$ and the momentum $\vec{p}$ of a particle simultaneously with unlimited precision.

In terms of $\hbar = h/2\pi$ (called "h-bar"), the principle tells us

$$\begin{aligned} \Delta x \cdot \Delta p_x &\geq \hbar \\ \Delta y \cdot \Delta p_y &\geq \hbar \quad \text{(Heisenberg's uncertainty principle).} \\ \Delta z \cdot \Delta p_z &\geq \hbar \end{aligned} \tag{38-28}$$

Here Δx and Δp_x represent the intrinsic uncertainties in the measurements of the x components of $\vec{r}$ and $\vec{p}$, with parallel meanings for the y and z terms. Even with the best measuring instruments, each product of a position uncertainty and a momentum uncertainty in Eq. 38-28 will be greater than $\hbar$, *never* less.

Here we shall not derive the uncertainty relationships but only apply them. They are due to the fact that electrons and other particles are matter waves and that repeated measurements of their positions and momenta involve probabilities, not certainties. In the statistics of such measurements, we can view, say, Δx and Δp_x as the spread (actually, the standard deviations) in the measurements.

We can also justify them with a physical (though highly simplified) argument: In earlier chapters we took for granted our ability to detect and measure location and motion, such as a car moving down a street or a pool ball rolling across a table. We could locate a moving object by watching it—that is, by intercepting light scattered by the object. That scattering did not alter the object's motion. In quantum physics, however, the act of detection in itself alters the location and motion. The more precisely we wish to determine the location of, say, an electron moving along an x axis (by using light or by any other means), the more we alter the electron's momentum and thus become less certain of the momentum. That is, by decreasing Δx, we necessarily increase Δp_x. Vice versa, if we determine the momentum very precisely (less Δp_x), we become less certain of where the electron will be located (we increase Δx).

That latter situation is what we found in Fig 38-13. We had an electron with a certain value of k, which, by the de Broglie relationship, means a certain momentum p_x. Thus, $\Delta p_x = 0$. By Eq. 38-28, that means that $\Delta x = \infty$. If we then set up an experiment to detect the electron, it could show up anywhere between $x = -\infty$ and $x = +\infty$.

You might push back on the argument: Couldn't we very precisely measure p_x and then next very precisely measure x wherever the electron happens to show up? Doesn't that mean that we have measured both p_x and x simultaneously and very precisely? No, the flaw is that although the first measurement can give us a precise value for p_x, the second measurement necessarily alters that value. Indeed, if the second measurement really does give us a precise value for x, we then have no idea what the value of p_x is.

Sample Problem 38.05 Uncertainty principle: position and momentum

Assume that an electron is moving along an x axis and that you measure its speed to be 2.05×10^6 m/s, which can be known with a precision of 0.50%. What is the minimum uncertainty (as allowed by the uncertainty principle in quantum theory) with which you can simultaneously measure the position of the electron along the x axis?

KEY IDEA

The minimum uncertainty allowed by quantum theory is given by Heisenberg's uncertainty principle in Eq. 38-28. We need only consider components along the x axis because we have motion only along that axis and want the uncertainty Δx in location along that axis. Since we want the minimum allowed uncertainty, we use the equality instead of the inequality in the x-axis part of Eq. 38-28, writing $\Delta x \cdot \Delta p_x = \hbar$.

Calculations: To evaluate the uncertainty Δp_x in the momentum, we must first evaluate the momentum component p_x. Because the electron's speed v_x is much less than the speed of light c, we can evaluate p_x with the classical expression for momentum instead of using a relativistic expression. We find

$$p_x = mv_x = (9.11 \times 10^{-31}\text{ kg})(2.05 \times 10^6\text{ m/s})$$
$$= 1.87 \times 10^{-24}\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s}.$$

The uncertainty in the speed is given as 0.50% of the measured speed. Because p_x depends directly on speed, the uncertainty Δp_x in the momentum must be 0.50% of the momentum:

$$\Delta p_x = (0.0050)p_x$$
$$= (0.0050)(1.87 \times 10^{-24}\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s})$$
$$= 9.35 \times 10^{-27}\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s}.$$

Then the uncertainty principle gives us

$$\Delta x = \frac{\hbar}{\Delta p_x} = \frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34}\text{ J}\cdot\text{s})/2\pi}{9.35 \times 10^{-27}\text{ kg}\cdot\text{m/s}}$$
$$= 1.13 \times 10^{-8}\text{ m} \approx 11\text{ nm}, \qquad \text{(Answer)}$$

which is about 100 atomic diameters.

WILEY PLUS Additional examples, video, and practice available at *WileyPLUS*

38-8 REFLECTION FROM A POTENTIAL STEP

Learning Objectives

After reading this module, you should be able to . . .

38.32 Write the general wave function for Schrödinger's equation for an electron in a region of constant (including zero) potential energy.

38.33 With a sketch, identify a potential step for an electron, indicating the barrier height U_b.

38.34 For electron wave functions in two adjacent regions, determine the coefficients (probability amplitudes) by matching values and slopes at the boundary.

38.35 Determine the reflection and transmission coefficients for electrons incident on a potential step (or potential energy step), where the incident electrons each have zero potential energy $U = 0$ and a mechanical energy E greater than the step height U_b.

38.36 Identify that because electrons are matter waves, they might reflect from a potential step even when they have more than enough energy to pass through the step.

38.37 Interpret the reflection and transmission coefficients in terms of the probability of an electron reflecting or passing through the boundary and also in terms of the average number of electrons out of the total number shot at the barrier.

Key Ideas

- A particle can reflect from a boundary at which its potential energy changes even when classically it would not reflect.
- The reflection coefficient R gives the probability of reflection of an individual particle at the boundary.
- For a beam of a great many particles, R gives the average fraction that will undergo reflection.
- The transmission coefficient T that gives the probability of transmission through the boundary is

$$T = 1 - R.$$

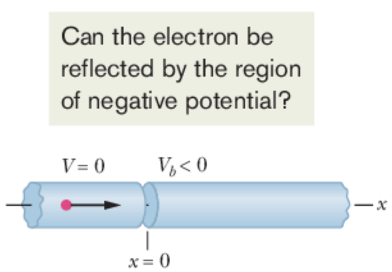


Figure 38-14 The elements of a tube in which an electron (the dot) approaches a region with a negative electric potential V_b.

Reflection from a Potential Step

Here is a quick taste of what you would see in more advanced quantum physics. In Fig. 38-14, we send a beam of a great many nonrelativistic electrons, each of total energy E, along an x axis through a narrow tube. Initially they are in region 1 where their potential energy is $U = 0$, but at $x = 0$ they encounter a region with a negative electric potential V_b. The transition is called a *potential step* or *potential energy step*. The step is said to have a *height* U_b, which is the potential energy an electron will have once it passes through the boundary at $x = 0$, as plotted in