

# MODERN PHYSICS

In Earlier days

Newton, Hamilton, & Lagrangian explained motion of objects → observable → naked eye (Macroscopic)

A/c to them → motion → position & momentum ( $mv$ )

solved many problems

& Explained many theories

such as

Motion of objects → the subject → Mechanics

Properties of heat → Thermodynamics

Properties of sound → Acoustics

Mechanics + Thermodynamics + Acoustics  
= Dynamics

Dynamics is a branch of physics which explains Mechanics, Thermodynamics and Acoustics.

After some years they want to know about light.

A/c Newton's corpuscular theory  
→ Light has particle nature

Young's Double slit experiment  
→ Light has wave nature

Maxwell → Dual Nature  
Electro magnetic waves

Electro Dynamics } Electric field, Magnetic field  
                          } Electromagnet

The Combination of Dynamics and Electro dynamics is known as "classical mechanics".

After the discovery of atom,  $e^-$ , proton, x-rays

- \* classical theory does not explain the microscopic (bodies) particles such as atom,  $e^-$ , proton etc
- \* It does not answer many questions
  - Why do stars shine?
  - Why does Copper conduct electricity & glass not?
- \* It does not explain the stability of atom

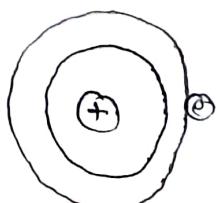
### Failures of classical theory:

- \* classical theory fails to explain the stability of atom.
- A moving charged particle loses energy continuously

Let us consider an atom

If electron loses energy

continuously, it comes closer to the nucleus and when it falls in nucleus atom collapse, but observed fact is atom is stable.



\* It also fails to explain the hydrogen Spectrum.

According to classical theory Energy Spectrum is continuous i.e it emits radiations of all wave lengths. But it is observed that Our hydrogen Spectrum is Line Spectrum. Our hydrogen Spectrum is discrete and emits only certain wavelengths only.

\* It also fails to explain black body radiation, photo electric effect, Compton effect, Specific heats of Solids.

A New theory was developed to explain all failures of classical theory that is "Modern Physics".

### Black body Radiation :

Radiation :

Hot body placed near a cold body → temperature of hot body decreases

Reason : Exchange of ~~heat~~ energy you place two bodies → different temp

→ vacuum → Exchange of energy

Exchange of energy does not need any medium

Exchange of energy → Conduction, Convection

- \* The body which is at a temperature emits energy → heat energy
  - (a) Radiant energy
  - (b) Thermal radiation

In earlier days (b. 1790)

Ice block → cold body → emits → cold radiation  
fire → hot body → emits → hot radiation

After some years → Prevost (1972)

Cold body → Receives (or) absorbs Max. radiation  
emits less rad (U stand near ice block)

Hot body → Emits more radiation  
& absorbs less radiation

According to Prevost

- (i) All bodies emit radiations at all temperatures
- (ii) Whenever temperature increases emission of energy also increases.

When the temperature of body increases it gives IR, V, UV

The body is at lower temperatures so it gives very less number of radiations (No sensation)

The body is at room temperature it emits → IR (sensation)

The body is at a temperature greater than hundreds or thousands of °C then colour of body changes

Red → orange → yellow → white → blue

$1000^{\circ}\text{C}$  or  $>1000^{\circ}\text{C}$   $\rightarrow$  Red or Orange

$2000^{\circ}\text{C}$ , yellow/white

Lavae,  $\rightarrow$   $1000^{\circ}\text{C}$  to  $1200^{\circ}\text{C}$

If temp is further increased  $\rightarrow$  emits  
 $\rightarrow$  UV radiations

To measure radiant energy we use  
 $\rightarrow$  Thermopiles & bolometers

**Black body**: The body which absorbs all the radiations incident on it and emits all radiations when it is heated.

e.g.: Lamp black, platinum black absorb 98% of radiations incident on it.

There is no perfect black body in our universe. Name was first introduced by Kirchoff in 1860.

For scientific investigations

Spherical Cavity  
(small hole to allow radiations)

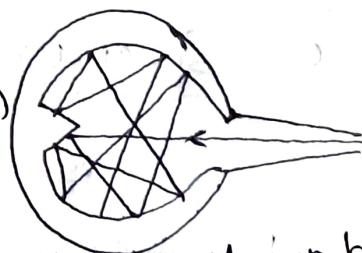
Conical Projection

Inner surface of

Spherical cavity is coated with platinum black or lamp black.

Conical projection is at opp to hole. Conical projection prevent the direct reflection of radiation.

Kirchoff proposed two laws about black body.



(i) Black body is a body which absorbs all the radiations incident on it and behaves as a perfect radiator when it is heated.

(ii) Emission of Energy depends upon temperature of the body we raised and independent of nature and shape of black body.

• Eg: China Cup

### Emissive Power:

The energy radiated by a black body per unit surface area per unit time is known as "Emissive power".

Emissive power mainly depends on surface area.

$$SA \rightarrow \text{less} \quad E_A \rightarrow \text{less}$$

### Energy distribution of Blackbody radiation

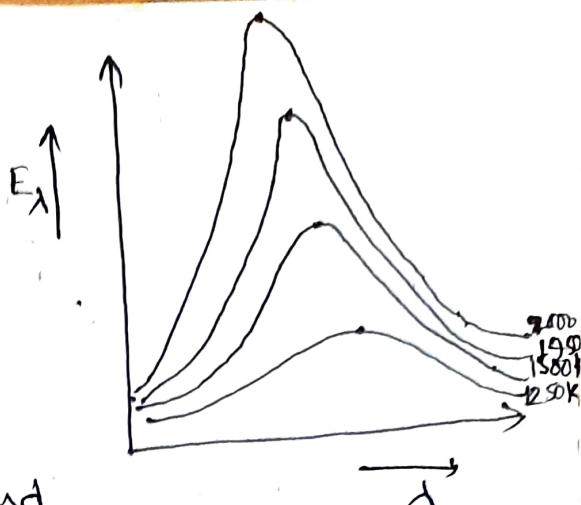
#### (or) Spectrum of Blackbody radiation:

If was first studied by Lummer & Pringsheim. They conduct so many experiments at different temperatures.

They draw graph between  $\lambda$  &  $E_\lambda$ .

## Observations :

- ① Energy distribution is not uniform
- ② At a particular temperature, as  $\lambda$  increases,  $E_\lambda$  increases to a max value and then decreases.
- ③ As temperature increases, the curve becomes sharp and shifts towards shorter wavelengths.
- ④ The total energy emitted by the body at a particular temperature is nothing but area under the curve at that temperature.



## Laws of Blackbody Radiation:

1) Stefan's Law : The energy emitted by the blackbody per unit area per unit time is directly proportional to  $4^{\text{th}}$  power of absolute temperature

$$E_\lambda \propto T^4$$

$$E_\lambda = \sigma T^4$$

stefan's constant

$$E_\lambda = \sigma (T_1^4 - T_2^4)$$

It fails in some conditions

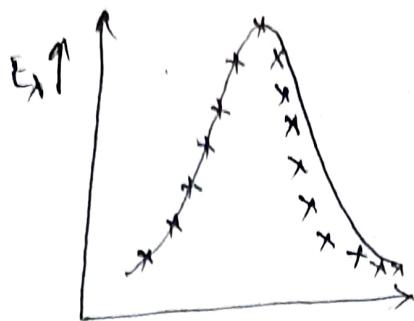
2) Wien's Law :-

Adiabatic change ( $\Delta H = 0$ )  
→ Thermodynamics

$$(i) \Delta T = \text{Const} \Rightarrow \lambda \propto 1/T$$

$$(ii) E_\lambda d\lambda \propto \lambda^{-5}$$

If can't explain the black body radiations at longer wavelengths

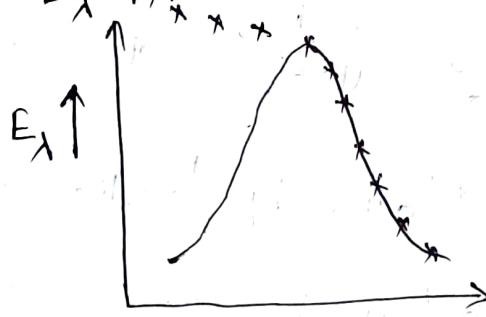


Thus Wein's law fails to explain energy distribution.

Rayleigh Jean's Law :-

Energy distribution is explained by degree's of freedom based on classical Theory.

$$E_\lambda d\lambda = b \lambda^4 d\lambda$$



This law obeys experimental values at longer wavelength and becomes infinite at shorter wavelengths which is abnormal thing. This is known as "Ultraviolet catastrophe".

Planck's radiation law :

Failures of Wein & Rayleigh are easily solved by Max Planck in 1910. He assumed that

- 1) The Black Body radiation chamber consists of infinite no of atoms
- 2) Each atom behaves as an oscillator i.e., each atom vibrates with its own natural frequency.
- 3) Atoms or oscillators absorbs all the energy incident on it, but emits energy when it's energy is equal to integral multiples of  $h\nu$
- 4) And it obeys maxwell boltzmann statistics

According to classical theory energy spectrum is continuous but according to planck's it is not continuous.

$N \rightarrow$  Total No of oscillators in

$E \rightarrow$  Total energy of  $N$  oscillators

$$\text{Average energy } (\bar{E}) = \frac{E}{N} \rightarrow (1)$$

$N_0 \rightarrow$  No of oscillators are vibrating with zero energy ( $0 h\nu$ )

$N_1 \rightarrow$  " ( $1 h\nu$ )

$N_2 \rightarrow$  " ( $2 h\nu$ )

$N_n \rightarrow$  " ( $n h\nu$ )

Total no of particles

$$N = N_0 + N_1 + N_2 + \dots + N_n \rightarrow (2)$$

$$E = N_0(0h\nu) + N_1(1h\nu) + N_2(2h\nu) + \dots + N_n(nh\nu) \rightarrow (3)$$

According to Boltzmann statistics

$$N_n = N_0 e^{-\frac{nhv}{kT}} \quad (4)$$

$$\left. \begin{aligned} N_0 &= N_0 e^{-\frac{0hv}{kT}} = N_0 \\ N_1 &= N_0 e^{-\frac{hv}{kT}} \\ N_2 &= N_0 e^{-\frac{2hv}{kT}} \\ N_n &= N_0 e^{-\frac{nhv}{kT}} \end{aligned} \right\} \quad (5)$$

Expression for  $N$

Substitute equation (5) in (2).

$$N = N_0 + N_0 e^{-\frac{hv}{kT}} + N_0 e^{-\frac{2hv}{kT}} + \dots + N_0 e^{-\frac{nhv}{kT}}$$

~~Let  $e^{-\frac{hv}{kT}} = x$~~

$$\Rightarrow N = N_0 (1 + x + x^2 + \dots + x^n)$$

$$\Rightarrow N = N_0 (1 - x)^{-1} = \frac{N_0}{1 - x}$$

$$\Rightarrow N = \frac{N_0}{1 - x} \quad (6)$$

Expression for  $E$

Substitute equation (5) in (3)

$$E = N_0(0) + N_0 e^{-\frac{hv}{kT}}(hv) + N_0 e^{-\frac{2hv}{kT}}(2hv) + \dots + N_0 e^{-\frac{nhv}{kT}}(nhv)$$

$$E = 0 + N_0 e^{-\frac{hv}{kT}}(hv) + N_0 e^{-\frac{2hv}{kT}}(2hv) + \dots + N_0 e^{-\frac{nhv}{kT}}(nhv)$$

~~Let  $e^{-\frac{hv}{kT}} = x$~~

$$E = hv(N_0x + 2N_0x^2 + 3N_0x^3 + \dots + nN_0x^n)$$

$$E = N_0 hvx(1 + 2x + 3x^2 + \dots + nx^n)$$

$$= (N_0)(hv)(x)(1 - x)^{-2}$$

$$E = \frac{(N_0)(hv)(x)}{(1-x)^2} \quad \text{--- (7)}$$

Expression for Average Energy :

Substitute (6) & (7) in eq (1)

$$\langle E \rangle = \frac{E}{N} = \frac{\frac{(N_0)(hv)(x)}{(1-x)^2}}{\left(\frac{N_0}{1-x}\right)}$$

$$= \frac{(N_0)(hv)(x)}{(1-x)^2} \times \frac{(1-x)}{N_0}$$

$$= \frac{(hv)(x)}{(1-x)}$$

$$= (hv) \frac{1}{\left(\frac{1}{x}-1\right)}$$

$$= (hv) \frac{1}{(x^{-1}-1)}$$

$$= (hv) \frac{1}{\left(\left(e^{-hv/kT}\right)^{-1}-1\right)}$$

$$E = \frac{hv}{\left(e^{hv/kT}-1\right)}$$

Energy of Each oscillator is given as this

According to Maxwell Boltzmann, the total no of oscillators in the frequency range  $v$  &  $v+dv$  are

$$\frac{8\pi v^2 dv}{c^3}$$

Total energy in the frequency range  $\nu$  to  $\nu + d\nu$

$E_{\nu} d\nu = (\text{Average energy}) \times (\text{Total interval})$   
in the range  $(\nu) \text{ to } (\nu + d\nu)$

$$E_{\nu} d\nu = \frac{h\nu}{e^{h\nu/kT} - 1} \left( \frac{8\pi\nu^2 d\nu}{c^3} \right)$$

$$E_{\nu} d\nu = \frac{8\pi h\nu^3}{c^3(e^{h\nu/kT} - 1)} d\nu$$

which is known as Planck's radiation law in terms of frequency.

$$c = \nu\lambda$$

$$\nu = c/\lambda$$

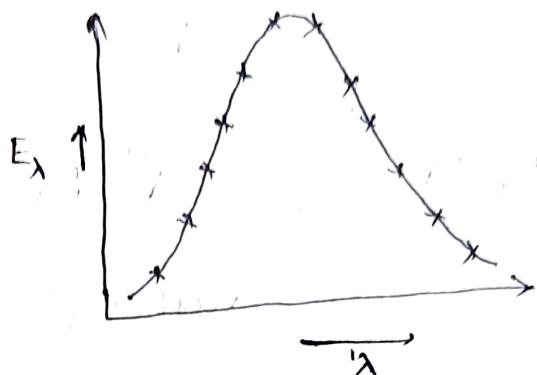
$$d\nu = -c/\lambda^2 d\lambda$$

$$|d\nu| = c/\lambda^2 d\lambda$$

$$E_{\lambda} d\lambda = \frac{8\pi h (c/\lambda)^3}{c^3 (e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1)} \left( \frac{c}{\lambda^2} \right) d\lambda$$

$$E_{\lambda} d\lambda = \frac{8\pi h c}{\lambda^5 (e^{hc/\lambda kT} - 1)} d\lambda$$

which is known as planck's radiation law, in terms of wavelength.



According to planck's radiation law all the values agreed with experimental values. Thus planck's radiation law successfully explains the energy distribution of black body radiation.

Deduction of Weins Law from Planck's Radiation Law:

$$E_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{8\pi hc}{\lambda^5 [e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda KT}} - 1]} d\lambda$$

At shorter wavelengths  $\lambda$  is very small  $\Rightarrow \lambda T$  also very small  $\Rightarrow \frac{hc}{\lambda KT}$  is very big  $\Rightarrow e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda KT}}$  is very big  $\Rightarrow e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda KT}} \gg 1$ , can be neglected

$$E_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{8\pi hc}{\lambda^5 [e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda KT}} - 1]} d\lambda$$

$$E_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{8\pi h c}{\lambda^5} e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda K T}} d\lambda$$

$$= \frac{a}{\lambda^5} d\lambda \quad \text{where } a = \frac{8\pi h c}{\lambda^5 e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda K T}}}$$

$\Rightarrow E_\lambda d\lambda = a \lambda^{-5} d\lambda$

which is nothing but weins law

Deduction of Rayleigh Jeans Law:

According to Planck's Radiation law

$$E_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{8\pi h c}{\lambda^5 (e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda K T}} - 1)} d\lambda$$

At longer wavelength  $\lambda$  is increasing,  $T$  is also increasing so

$\lambda T$  is increasing  $\Rightarrow \frac{hc}{\lambda K T}$  is a

decreasing value or small  $\Rightarrow$

$e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda K T}}$  is also very small

$$\Rightarrow e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda K T}} = 1 + \frac{hc}{\lambda K T} + \frac{1}{2} \left( \frac{hc}{\lambda K T} \right)^2 + \dots$$

$\therefore \frac{hc}{\lambda K T}$  is very small we can

neglect the higher order terms

$$\Rightarrow e^{\frac{hc}{\lambda K T}} = 1 + \frac{hc}{\lambda K T}$$

$\therefore$  The Planck's Radiation Law becomes

$$E_\lambda d\lambda = \frac{8\pi h c}{\lambda^5 \left(1 + \frac{hc}{\lambda kT} - 1\right)} d\lambda$$

$$= \frac{8\pi h c e}{\lambda^4 \left(\frac{hc}{kT}\right)} d\lambda$$

$$= \frac{8\pi k T}{\lambda^4} d\lambda$$

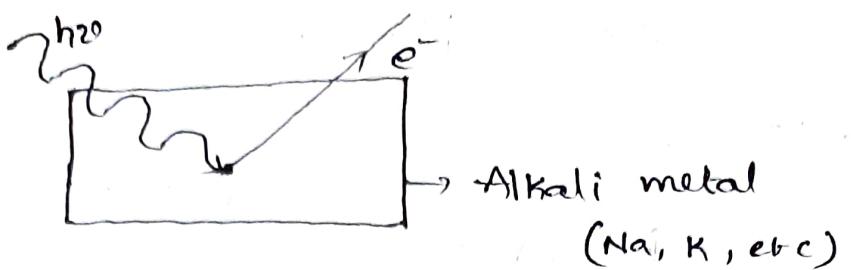
$E_\lambda d\lambda = b \lambda^{-4} d\lambda$

which is nothing but Rayleigh-Jeans law.

Hence Planck's Radiation Law successfully explains the Distribution of energy at all wavelengths.

### Photoelectric Effect:

When a beam of radiation of certain frequency incident on an alkali metal surface then electrons are emitted out of metal surface. This phenomenon is known as "photo electric effect".



The electrons emitted out of metal surface. These electrons are known as "photo electrons".

This photo electric effect was first discovered by Hertz and experimentally proved by many scientists

→ J J Thompson, Millikan

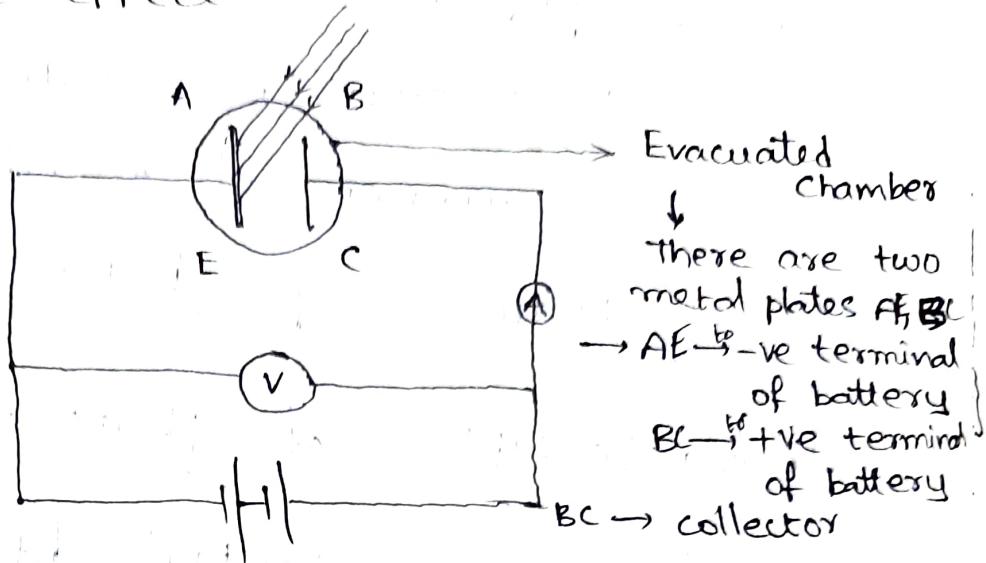
$\downarrow$   
Noble prize → 1923

Hertz discovered this photo electric effect by incidenting U.V rays on zinc plate and observe electrons coming out of metal surface.

Key points :

- + 1 photon can interact with one electron only & after interaction, the total energy of photon disappears.

Small experiment proved the photo-electric effect



No light incident on A  $\rightarrow$  No current in Ammeter

If we incident light on A  $\rightarrow$  Deflection in Ammeter

i.e. electrons are emitted out of metal surface.

The current in the circuit which gives deflection in Ammeter is known as "photo current".

This experiment proves that when light incident on the metal surface, electrons are emitted out of metal surface.

The no. of electrons emitted

& kinetic Energy of electrons depends upon the following factors.

- 1) potential difference between metal plates
- 2) Intensity of incident radiation
- 3) frequency of incident radiation
- 4) Nature of photometal used

Characteristics of photo electrons:

1) Effect of potential difference:

Intensity, frequency, photo metal are kept constant.

When there is no potential difference, some current flows through the Ammeter.

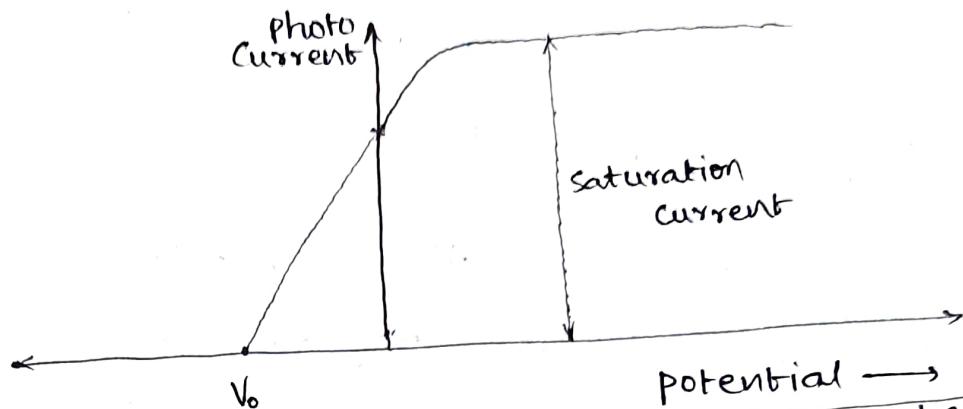
A is given to negative & B is given to positive.

When we increase the potential the photo current increases to a max value.

If we increase the potential further then current becomes constant which is known as "saturation Current".

Now by reversing ~~the~~ + & - terminals & applying potential, at a particular value Current = zero

The potential at which the value of current becomes zero is known as "stopping potential".

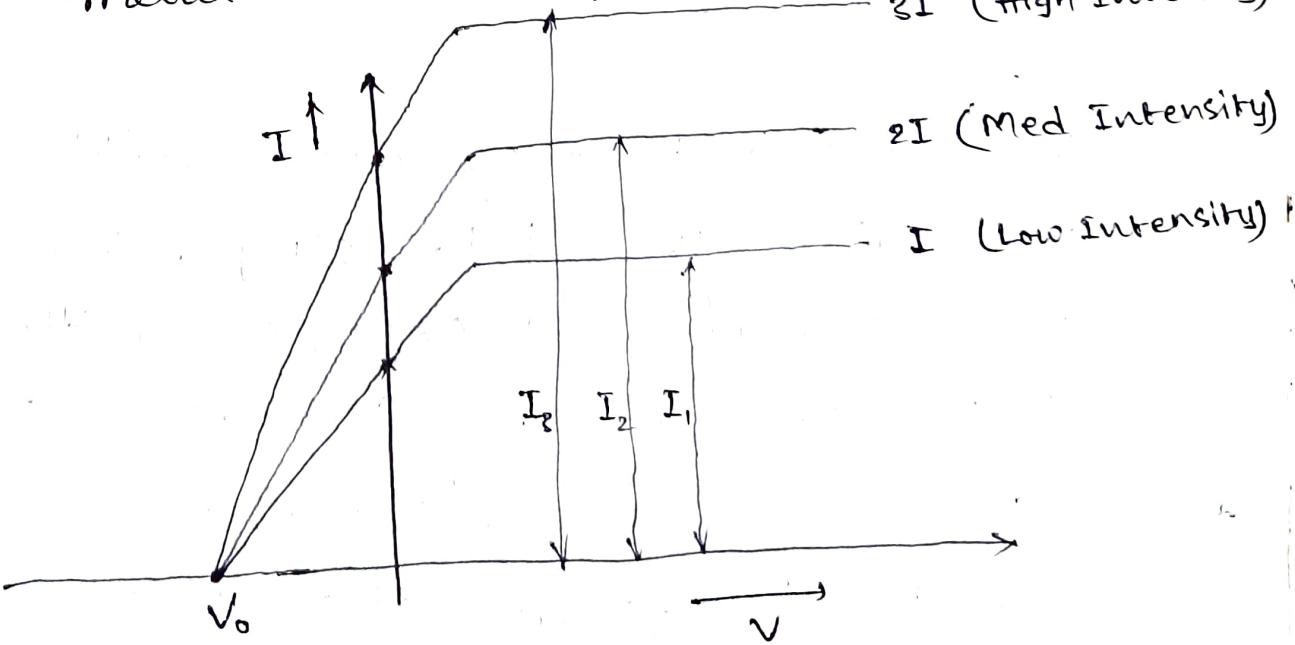


K.E of electrons depends on applied potential between metal plates.

At stopping potential The kinetic energy of electrons is equal to applied potential.  
 (KE depends on potential)

2) Intensity of incident radiation:

frequency and photo-metals are kept constant.



At the intensity  $I_1$  we can measure the current by varying the potential. We get some saturation current ( $I_s$ ) and some stopping potential.

Now at the medium intensity  $2I$  we can measure the photo current by varying potential. We get some saturation current  $I_2 > I_s$  & some stopping potential  $V_0$  same as for  $I_1$ .

At High Intensity  $3I$  also we get a saturation current  $I_3 > I_2$  & same stopping potential.

i.e. Current increases with increase in intensity. That is no. of electrons emitted out of metal surface increases. So no. of electrons emitted from the metal surface depends up on intensity of incident radiation.

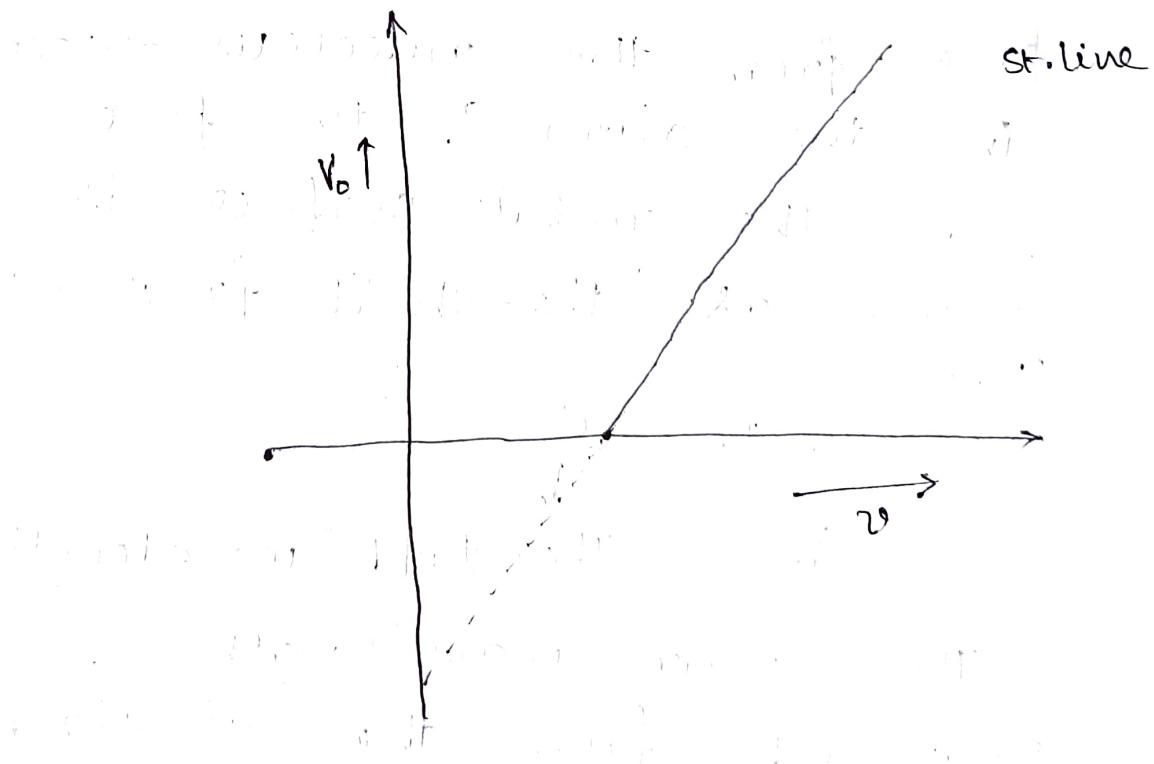
and stopping potential is independent of incident radiation.

\*\*\* so kinetic energy of electrons is independent of incident radiation.

### 3) Effect of frequency of incident radiation:

Keep intensity of incident radiation and photo metal constant.

( $\nu$  varies  $\rightarrow$  filters)



We can measure different stopping potentials for different frequencies of radiation.

The potential can not increase up to some frequency. That is no current flows up to some frequency. After getting a minimum value potential starts to increases with increase in the frequency.

This minimum frequency is known as "threshold frequency".

The minimum frequency required for the electrons to free from the nucleus attraction in the atom & to free from the metal surface is known as "threshold frequency" ( $v_0$ )

$$v_0 = \frac{C}{\lambda_0}$$

$\lambda_0 \rightarrow$  Threshold wavelength

The max wavelength required from the electrons to free from metal surface is known as "threshold wavelength" ( $\lambda_0$ )

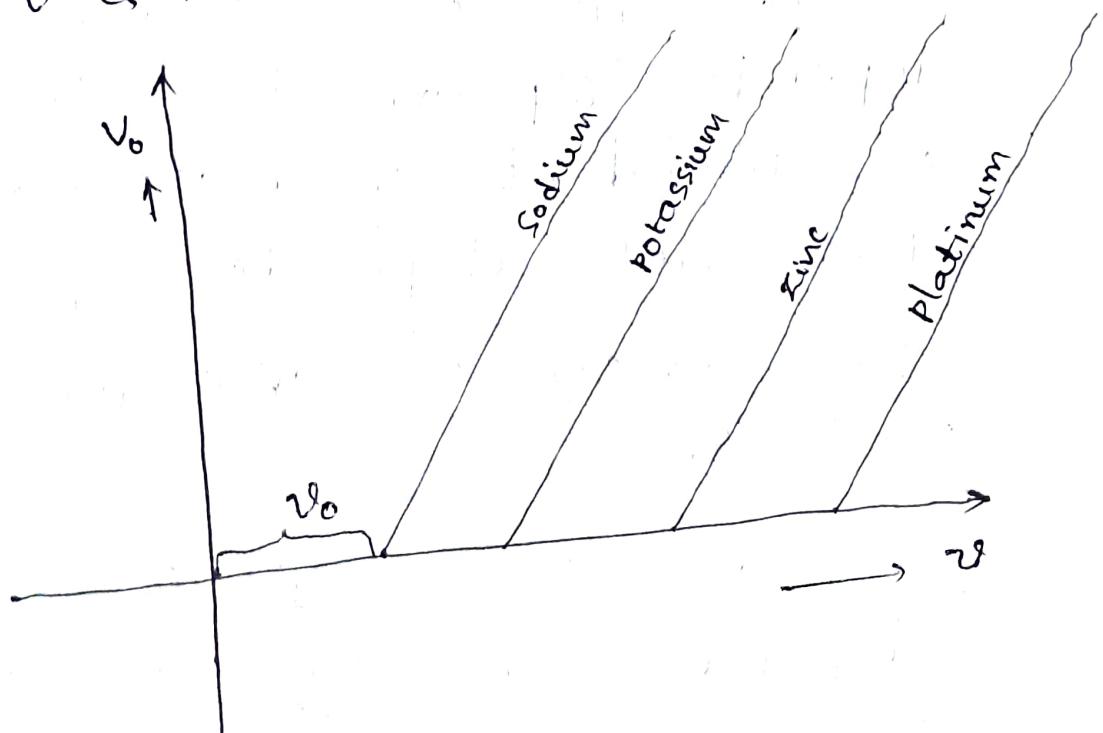
From first characteristic K.E depends up on the potential difference applied between metal plates

From Third, one potential depends up on frequency.

From these two the kinetic energy of emitted electrons depends on frequency of incident radiation.

#### 4) Effect of photo metal:

Keep the intensity of incident radiation constant.  
By drawing graph of  $v$  &  $v_0$



By using different photo metals we get different intercepts on v-axis i.e threshold frequency is different for different photo metals.

i.e Threshold frequency ~~is~~  
~~constant~~ depends on the nature of photo metal used

### Time lag:

- \* The time difference between emission of  $e^-$  and incident light is  $10^{-8}$  sec.

### Laws of photo electric effect:

1) The no of electrons depends up on the intensity of incident radiation, & does not depends up on frequency of incident radiation

2) Kinetic Energy of electron depends on frequency of incident radiation and

does not depends on intensity of radiation.

3) The minimum frequency required to emit electrons out of metal surface is known as "threshold frequency". Before this frequency no electrons emit out of metal surface.

4) There is no time lag between emission of  $e^-$  and incident light ( $10^{-8}$  sec)

Failures of classical theory for photoelectric effect:

According to photo electric effect

i) Energy is continuous and Energy absorbed by the electron depends up on Intensity of incident radiation.

$$\text{i.e., } E \propto I \propto A^2$$



$$\text{i.e. } KE \propto I$$

(which is contradiction to 2nd Law)

2) The time of emission of  $e^-$  depends up on Intensity of incident radiation

i.e Low I

violet  $\rightarrow$  sodium  $\rightarrow$  for one  $e^-$   
of low I  $\downarrow$   
 $1\frac{1}{2}$  year

i.e contradiction to the  
fourth law of photo electric effect.

photo electric effect fails to explain the 2<sup>nd</sup> law and 4<sup>th</sup> law of photo electric effect but it explains the interference polarisation, diffraction etc by considering the wave nature of light.

Einstein's Explanation :-

As photo electric effect was not explained by classical theory.

Einstein explained the photo electric effect using Quantum Theory by considering the particle nature of light in 1905.

He assumed that

- 1) The energy is discontinuous
- 2) The energy can be divided into small energy packets called Quanta or photon
- 3) The photon has less energy when frequency is less ( $E = h\nu$ )
- 4) The photon has high energy when frequency is high
- 5) One photon can interact with only one electron. That is when we incident ~~one~~ photon on electron, the energy of photon is completely absorbed by the electron.

According to Einstein  
The energy of photon when incident on electron.

The energy absorbed by electron can be utilised in two ways.

- i) Some of it's energy is used to free from metal surface
- ii) remaining energy is converted to kinetic energy.

$$h\nu = \omega_0 + \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$\downarrow$   
work function

$$\omega_0 = h\nu_0$$

It is the minimum energy required to emit electron out of the metal surface.

We know that at

$$\underline{eV_0} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2_{\max}$$

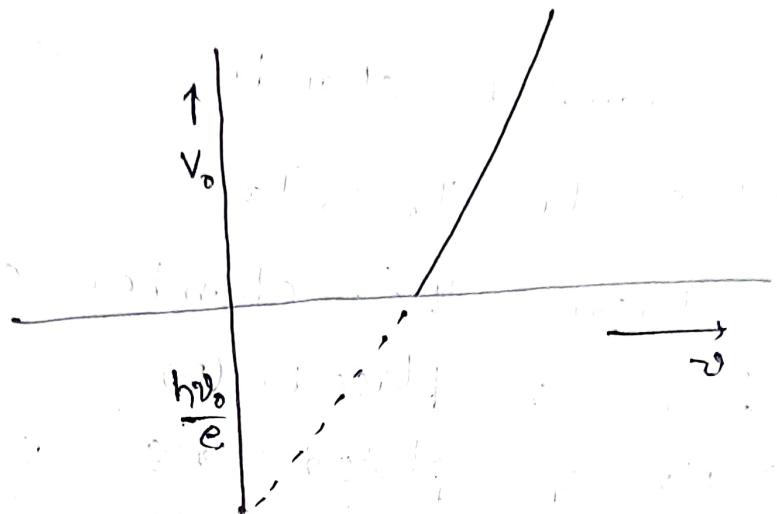
$V_0$  is stopping current = 0

$$h\nu = h\nu_0 + eV_0$$

$$h(\nu - \nu_0) = eV_0$$

which is of the form  
 $y = mx + c$

$$\text{Slope } m = \frac{h\nu}{e}, \text{ intercept } c = -\frac{h\nu_0}{e}$$

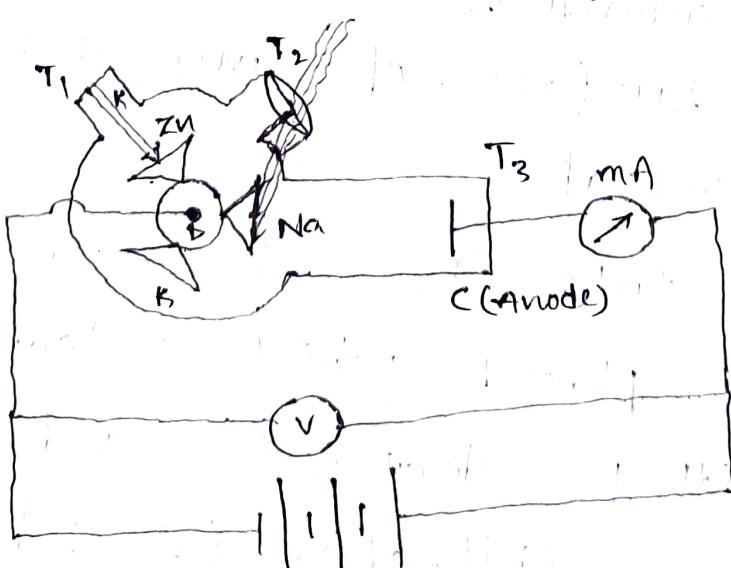


$\rightarrow h \rightarrow$  planck constant

which was introduced by  
Mullikan.

Verification of Einstein's photo electric effect by Mullikan :-

Determination of plancks const



The Einstein's photo electric effect was first verified by Mullikan.

He observed diff frequencies for different photo metals by different stopping potentials.

## Construction :-

- 1) Evacuated chamber with side tubes  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  &  $T_3$
  - 2) Inside the chamber a rotating drum is placed. (D)
  - 3) No of photometals are attached to this rotating drum (D)
  - 4) An adjustable knife edge is placed at side tube  $T_1$  which cleans the surface of metal  
(If any oxidation takes place, it removes them from metal)
  - 5) Side tube  $T_2$  acts as a window to allow the radiations of different frequencies.
- These radiations are incident on clean surface of any one of the metal
- 6) In side tube  $T_3$ , a metal plate is placed which collects the emitted electrons and acts as a collector (Anode)
  - 7) A milli Ammeter which reads the current.

8) He maintain Anode at +ve and -ve potentials w.r.t rotating drum (cathode)

### Working :-

- 1) Now we incident light of one of the certain frequency on metal, then electrons are emitted out of the metal surface and milli Ammeter shows deflection.
- 2) Now we increase the potential current to which implies photo increase
- 3) Apply -ve potential to Anode negative potential For a small are pulled back. slow electrons & if we increase negative potential fast electrons are also pulled back. and current starts to decrease slowly
- 4) At a particular value of potential photo current becomes zero which is known as stopping potential.

Now this potential is nothing but which controls the kinetic Energy of electrons.

5) Let  $V_0 \rightarrow$  stopping potential  
 $v_{max} \rightarrow$  max velocity of

$$\frac{1}{2} m v_{max}^2 = eV_0 \rightarrow (1)$$

Now According to Einstein's photo electric equation:

$$hv = w + \frac{1}{2} m v_{max}^2$$

$w \rightarrow$  work function

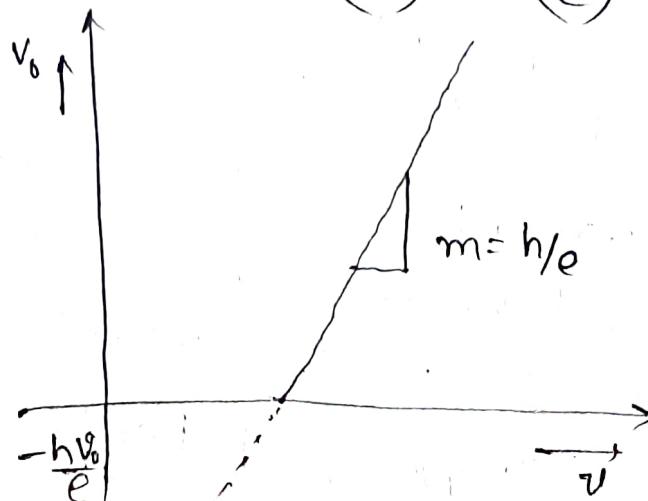
$$hv = hv_0 + \frac{1}{2} m v_{max}^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} m v_{max}^2 = hv - hv_0 \\ = h(v - v_0) \rightarrow (2)$$

From (1) & (2)

$$eV_0 = hv - hv_0$$

$$V_0 = \left(\frac{h}{e}\right)v - \left(\frac{h}{e}\right)v_0$$



The values are agreed with the Mullikan.

Hence photo electric equation of Einstein is verified.

Determination of plancks Constant:

By the graph of mullikan we can find the slope of graph m.

$$\text{But } m = h/e$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{planck's constant } h = m \times e \\ = \text{slope} \times \text{charge of } e^-$$

In this way we can determine the planck's constant

Compton Effect:

when a radiation of high frequency or low wavelength is incident on some matter, then the scattered radiation consists of two components.

1<sup>st</sup> one is the radiation which consists of same incident radiation

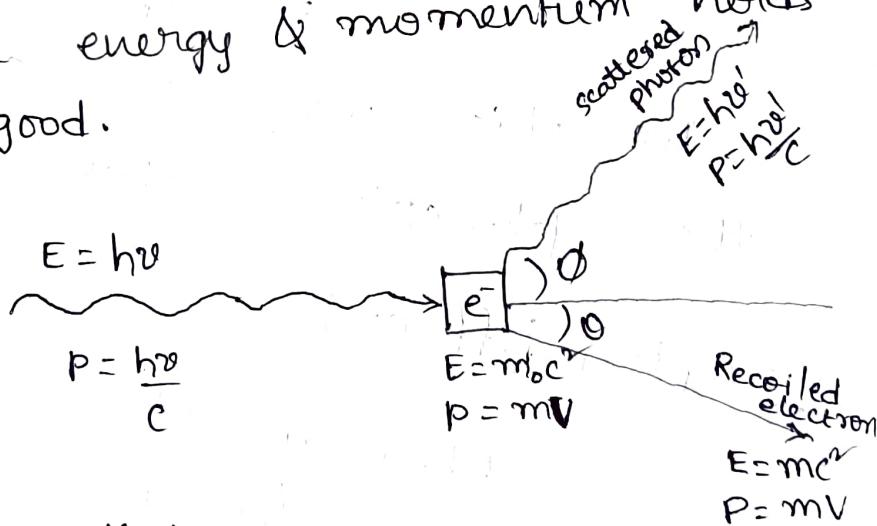
2<sup>nd</sup> one is the radiation which consists of less frequency than incident radiation.

Prof A.H. Compton.

Quantum theory → The radiation consists of system of particles called photons of energy  $h\nu$ .

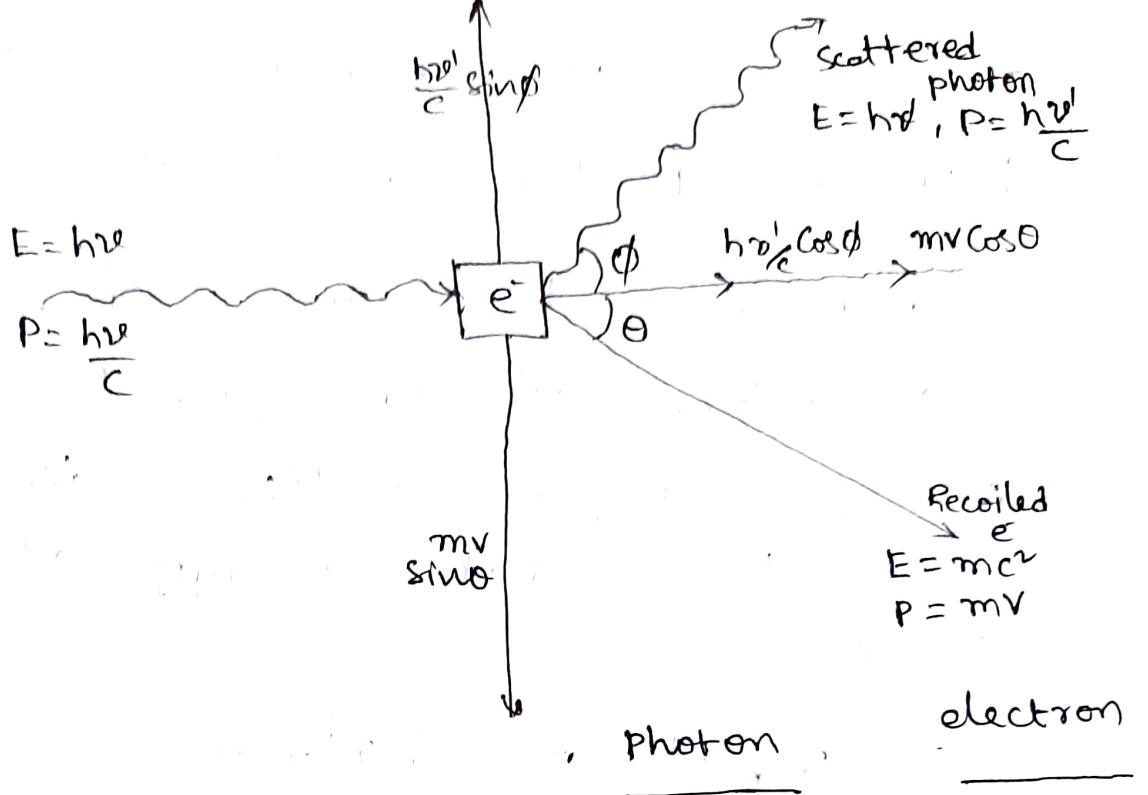
→ The interaction between photon & electron can be considered as elastic collision.

i.e Law of Conservation of energy & momentum holds good.



The radiation in which change in frequency is known as "modified radiation" & the radiation in which ~~is~~ no change in the frequency is known as "un modified radiation".

The Compton effect gave modified radiations, un modified radiations and ~~and~~ recoiled electron.



Before Collision.

1) Energy	$h\nu$	$mc^2$
2) Momentum	$\frac{h\nu}{c}$	0
	x-axis	0
	y-axis	0

After Collision

1) Energy	$h\nu'$	$mc^2$
2) Momentum	$\frac{h\nu'}{c} \cos \phi$	$mv \cos \theta$
	x-axis	0
	y-axis	$\frac{h\nu'}{c} \sin \phi$ $mv \sin \theta$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total Energy before collision} &= h\nu + mc^2 \\ \text{Total Momentum before collision} &= \frac{h\nu}{c} \\ (\text{x-axis}) &= 0 \\ (\text{y-axis}) &= 0 \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total Energy after collision} &= h\nu' + mc^2 \\ \text{Total Momentum after collision} &= \frac{h\nu'}{c} \cos \phi + mv \\ \text{along x-axis} &= \frac{h\nu'}{c} \cos \phi + mv \\ \text{along y-axis} &= \frac{h\nu'}{c} \sin \phi + mv \sin \theta \end{aligned}$$

Here scattering obeys law of  
Conservation of energy & Momentum

as it is an elastic collision between photon & electron.

According to Law of Conservation of energy, total energy before collision is equal to total energy after Collision

$$\begin{aligned} h\nu + m_0 c^2 &= h\nu' + mc^2 \\ \Rightarrow mc^2 &= h\nu + m_0 c^2 - h\nu' \\ \Rightarrow mc^2 &= h(\nu - \nu') + m_0 c^2 \end{aligned}$$

(1)

According to law of conservation of momentum, total momentum before collision and after collision are equal.

so along  $x$ -axis

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{h\nu}{c} &= \frac{h\nu'}{c} \cos\phi + mv \cos\theta \\ \Rightarrow h\nu &= h\nu' \cos\phi + mv c \cos\theta \\ \Rightarrow mv c \cos\theta &= h\nu - h\nu' \cos\phi \end{aligned}$$

(2)

Now along  $y$ -axis

$$0 = \frac{h\nu'}{c} \sin\phi - mv \sin\theta$$

$$\Rightarrow mv c \sin\theta = h\nu' \sin\phi \quad \xrightarrow{\text{L}} \quad (3)$$

Squaring and adding equations

(2) & (3)

$$m^2 v^2 c^2 (\sin^2\theta + \cos^2\theta) = (h\nu' \sin\phi)^2 + (h\nu - h\nu')^2$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 v^2 c^2 = h^2 (\nu')^2 \sin^2\phi + h^2 \nu^2 + h^2 (\nu')^2 \cos^2\phi - 2 h^2 \nu \nu' \cos\phi$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 v^2 c^2 = h^2 (\nu')^2 (\sin^2\phi + \cos^2\phi) + h^2 \nu^2 - 2 h^2 \nu \nu' \cos\phi$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 v^2 c^2 = h^2 \nu^2 + h^2 \nu_1^2 - 2 h^2 \nu \nu' \cos\phi \quad \xrightarrow{\text{L}} \quad (4)$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 v^2 c^2 = h^2 (\nu^2 + \nu_1^2 - 2 \nu \nu' \cos\phi)$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 v^2 c^2 = h^2 \nu^2 + h^2 \nu_1^2 - 2 h^2 \nu \nu' \cos\phi \quad \xrightarrow{\text{L}} \quad (4)$$

from equation (1)

$$mc^2 = h(\nu - \nu') + m_0 c^2$$

Squaring equation (1)

$$m^2 c^4 = [h(\nu - \nu')]^2 + m_0^2 c^4 + 2h(\nu - \nu') m_0 c^2$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 c^4 = h^2 (\nu^2 + \nu_1^2 - 2 \nu \nu') + m_0^2 c^4 + 2h(\nu - \nu') m_0 c^2$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 c^4 = h^2 \nu^2 + h^2 \nu_1^2 - 2 h^2 \nu \nu' + m_0^2 c^4 + 2h(\nu - \nu') m_0 c^2 \quad \xrightarrow{\text{L}} \quad (5)$$

equation (5) - equation (4)

$$\begin{aligned}
 m^2 c^4 &= h^2 v^2 + h^2 v'^2 - 2 h^2 v v' + m_0^2 c^4 + 2h(v-v') \\
 m^2 v^2 c^2 &= h^2 v^2 + h^2 v'^2 - 2 h^2 v v' \cos\phi \\
 m^2 c^4 - m^2 v^2 c^2 &= -2 h^2 v v' + m_0^2 c^4 + 2h(v-v')m_0 \\
 &\quad + 2h^2 v v' \cos\phi \\
 &= 2h^2 v v' (\cos\phi - 1) + m_0^2 c^4 + 2h(v-v')m_0
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{6}$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 c^4 - m^2 v^2 c^2 = m^2 c^4 \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right)$$

According to Einstein's special theory of relativity

$$\begin{aligned}
 m &= \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}} \\
 \Rightarrow \left(m \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}\right) &= m_0 \\
 \Rightarrow m^2 \left(1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}\right) &= m_0^2
 \end{aligned}
 \tag{7}$$

Substitute equation (7) in LHS of (6)

$$\Rightarrow m_0^2 c^4 = 2h^2 v v' (\cos\phi - 1) + m_0^2 c^4 + 2h(v-v')$$

$$\Rightarrow 2h^2 v v' (\cos\phi - 1) + 2h(v-v') m_0 c^2 = 0$$

$$\Rightarrow 2h^2 v v' (1 - \cos\phi) = 2h(v-v') m_0 c^2$$

$$\Rightarrow (v-v') m_0 c^2 = h v v' (1 - \cos\phi)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{v - v'}{vv'} = \frac{h}{m_0 c^2} \frac{2 \sin^2 \phi}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{v'} - \frac{1}{v} = \frac{2h}{m_0 c^2} \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\frac{1}{v'} = \frac{1}{v} + \frac{2h}{m_0 c^2} \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{2}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{v'} > \frac{1}{v}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{v' < v}$$

$$\text{As } v = c/\lambda \quad \& \quad v' = c/\lambda'$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{\lambda'}{c} = \frac{\lambda}{c} + \frac{2h}{m_0 c^2} \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda' = \lambda + \frac{2h}{m_0 c} \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\lambda' > \lambda}$$

$$\boxed{\lambda' - \lambda = \frac{2h}{m_0 c} \frac{\sin^2 \phi}{2}}$$

$\therefore$  i.e. The difference in wavelengths is known as "Compton shift", represented by

$$\Delta \lambda$$

$$\boxed{\Delta \lambda = \lambda' - \lambda}$$

$\therefore$  The change in wavelength, i.e. Compton shift depends up on

# Scattering angle of photon.

Case

(i)

$$\phi = 0$$

$$\Delta\lambda = \lambda' - \lambda = 0$$

Case(ii)

$$\phi = 90$$

$$\Delta\lambda = \frac{2h}{m_0 c} \left(\frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}\right)^2 = \frac{h}{m_0 c}$$

$$\boxed{\Delta\lambda = \frac{h}{m_0 c}}$$

0.02426

Compton wavelength

Case(iii)  $\phi = 180$

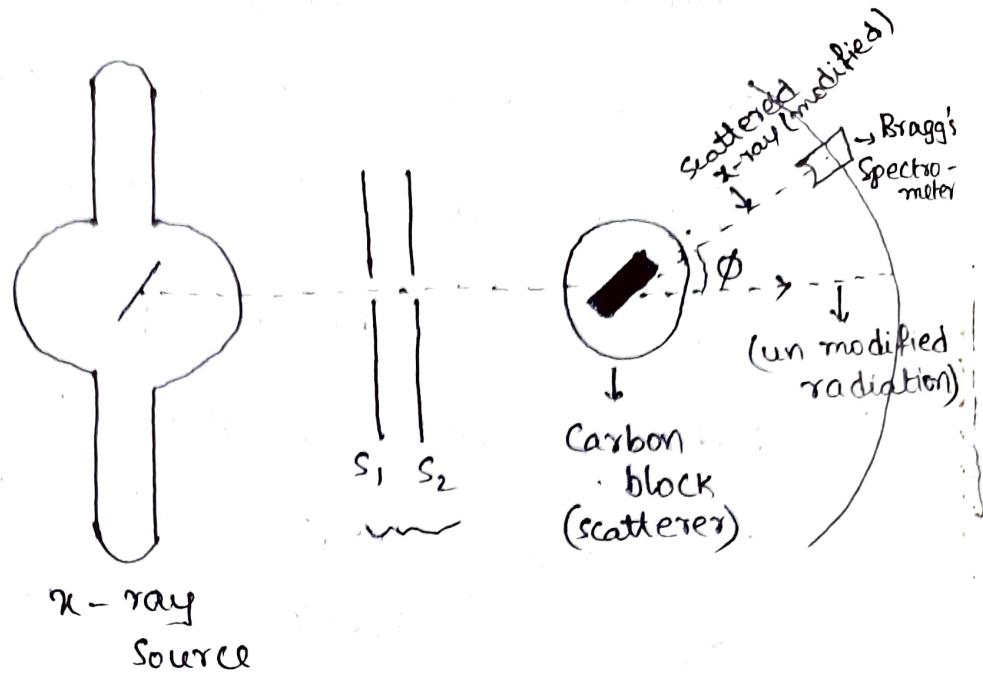
$$\Delta\lambda = \frac{2h}{m_0 c} (1)^2$$

$$\boxed{\Delta\lambda = \frac{2h}{m_0 c}}$$

0.04852

from this we can observe  
that, as scattering angle  
increases, Compton shift increases.

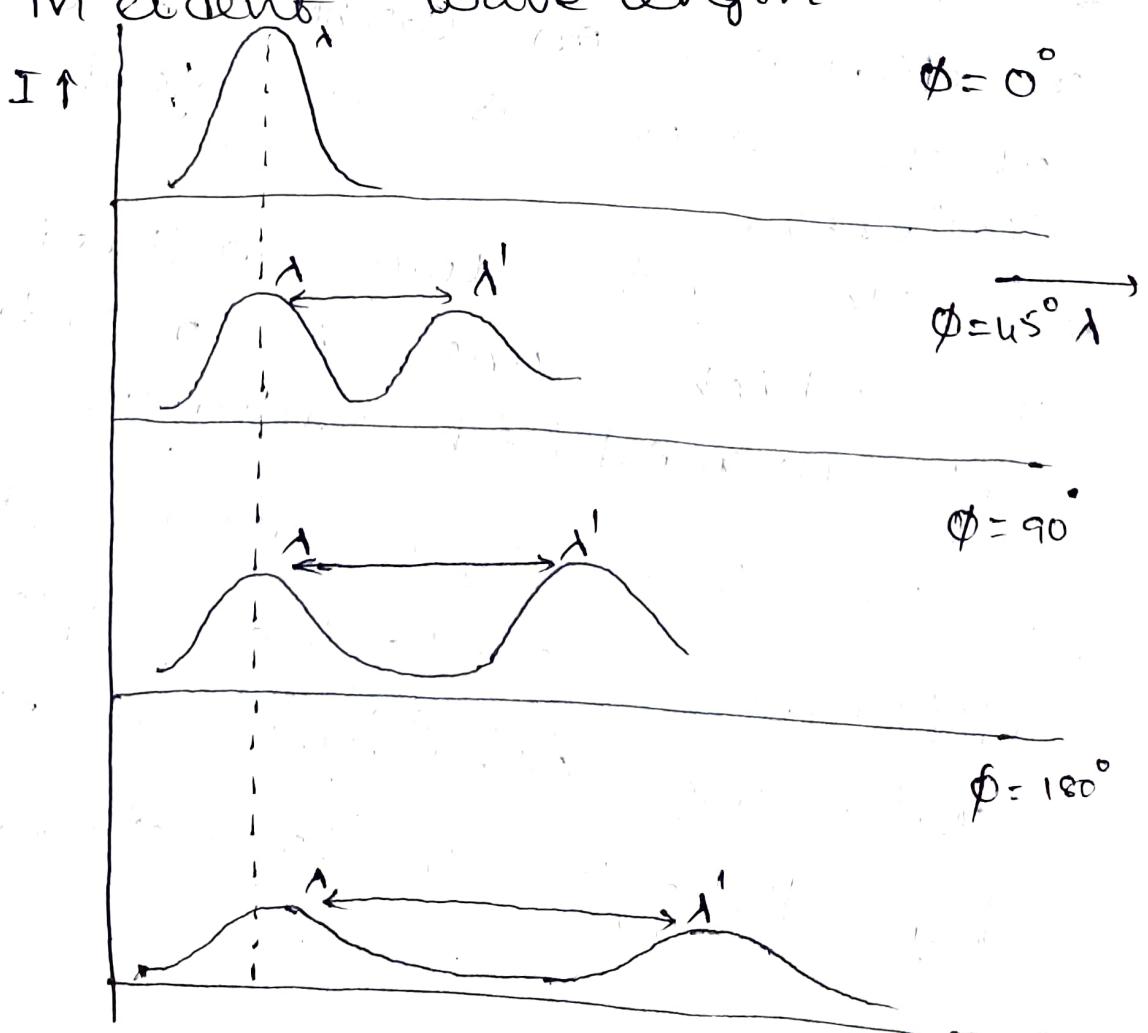
Experimental Verification of  
Compton effect:



- \* The figure shows experimental set up for the verification of Compton effect
- \* Here we incident high energy radiations on Carbon block which acts as a good scatterer.
- \* We get two radiations in which one is modified and unmodified radiation.
- \* The intensity & wavelength at different scattering angles of scatterings (X-rays) are studied by Bragg's Spectrometer.

\* Now a graph drawn between wavelength and intensity for different scattering angles.

We get two peaks of intensities & for two wavelength One peak represents say as that of incident radiation (un modified), another peak represent wavelength of scattered radiation, which is greater than that of incident wave length.



From Graph as scattering angle increased Compton shift increased.

The Difference between two peaks give the "Compton shift"

\* For  $\phi = 90^\circ$  we get Compton wavelength.

Thus Compton effect is verified ~~experimentally~~

De-Broglie concept of Matter waves:

Light or radiation has dual nature i.e. particle nature & wave nature when it interacts with matter and when it behaves as particle medium it behaves as wave.

In Newton time Light & Matter have particle nature

After discovery of Interference,

Diffraction & polarisation - They proved that light has wave nature.

In 20<sup>th</sup> century photo electric effect & Compton effect are discovered.

From this they proved that the light has particle nature.

Finally they concluded that the light has dual nature but it can't exhibit both the natures simultaneously.

In 1923 Debroglie extended his explanation to material particle like electron, proton, Neutron, associated. He said that each material particle can associate with one wave and these waves are known as "matter waves".

i.e each wave must associate with one wave these are known as "Debroglie waves".

$$\text{According to him } \lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{P}$$

Explanation :

According to Planck's theory Energy of photon  $E = h\nu$  — (1)

According to Einstein mass energy relation is  $E = mc^2$  — (2)

from (1) & (2)

$$h\nu = mc^2$$

$$\text{but } \nu = \frac{c}{\lambda} \Rightarrow \frac{hc}{\lambda} = mc^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{h}{mc} = \lambda \Rightarrow \boxed{\lambda = \frac{h}{p}}$$

If we consider a material particle of mass  $m$  and is moved with a velocity  $v$ , then the wavelength becomes

$$\boxed{\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}} \quad (4)$$

i.e.

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

If the particle moves with velocity  $v$ , it has kinetic energy

$$K.E = E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \Rightarrow 2E = mv^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 2mE = m^2v^2 = (mv)^2 \rightarrow (5)$$

$$\Rightarrow p = mv = \sqrt{2mE} \rightarrow (6)$$

Substituting (6) in (4)

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mE}}$$

Here  $E$  is the kinetic energy of material particle

Debroglie wavelength associated with electron:

Let us consider an electron is at rest.

The electron is brought into motion by applying a potential difference  $V_0$ .

Then the total work done on electron is given by  $eV_0$   $(\because W = VQ)$

Due to this work done on electron the electron starts moving with a velocity of  $v$  and it gains some kinetic energy because of this velocity  $v$ .

Now KE of  $e^- = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$

But According to Law of conservation of Energy

Work done = KE

$$eV_0 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$$2eV_0 = \frac{q}{2}mv^2$$

$$2meV_0 = m^2v^2$$

$$\Rightarrow mv = \sqrt{2meV_0}$$

The Debroglie wavelength  $\lambda$  is

$$\text{given by } \lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2meV_0}}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{6.624 \times 10^{-34}}{\sqrt{2 \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times V_0}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\lambda = \frac{12.26}{\sqrt{V_0}} \text{ fm}}$$

Wave velocity :

Let ' $v$ ' be the velocity of wave and ' $\nu$ ' be the frequency and it's wave length is  $\lambda$

Then velocity of wave is given by  $v = \nu\lambda \rightarrow (a)$

$$[\because v = n\lambda]$$

According to planck's theory  $E = h\nu$

According to Einstein

$$E = mc^2$$

$$\Rightarrow h\nu = mc^2 \Rightarrow v = \frac{mc^2}{h} \rightarrow (b)$$

$$\text{but } v = \frac{c}{\lambda}$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{h}{mv} \rightarrow (c)$$

Sub (b) and (c) in (a)

$\Rightarrow$  wave velocity

$$u = \frac{mc^2}{h} \times \frac{h}{mv}$$

$$\Rightarrow u = \boxed{\frac{c^2}{v}}$$

$$v < c$$

$$u = \frac{c^2}{v}$$

clearly  $u > c$

$c \rightarrow$  velocity of light  
 $v \rightarrow$  velocity of particle

Wave velocity in terms of  
wave length:

$$h\nu = E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 = eV_0$$

$$\Rightarrow h\nu = eV_0 \Rightarrow v = \frac{eV_0}{h}$$

$$\Rightarrow v = \frac{\frac{h}{2m} eV_0}{\frac{h}{2m} \cdot h}$$

$$\Rightarrow v = \frac{h}{2m} \cdot \frac{2meV_0}{h^2}$$

$$(\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2meV_0}})$$

$$\Rightarrow v = \frac{h}{2m\lambda^2}$$

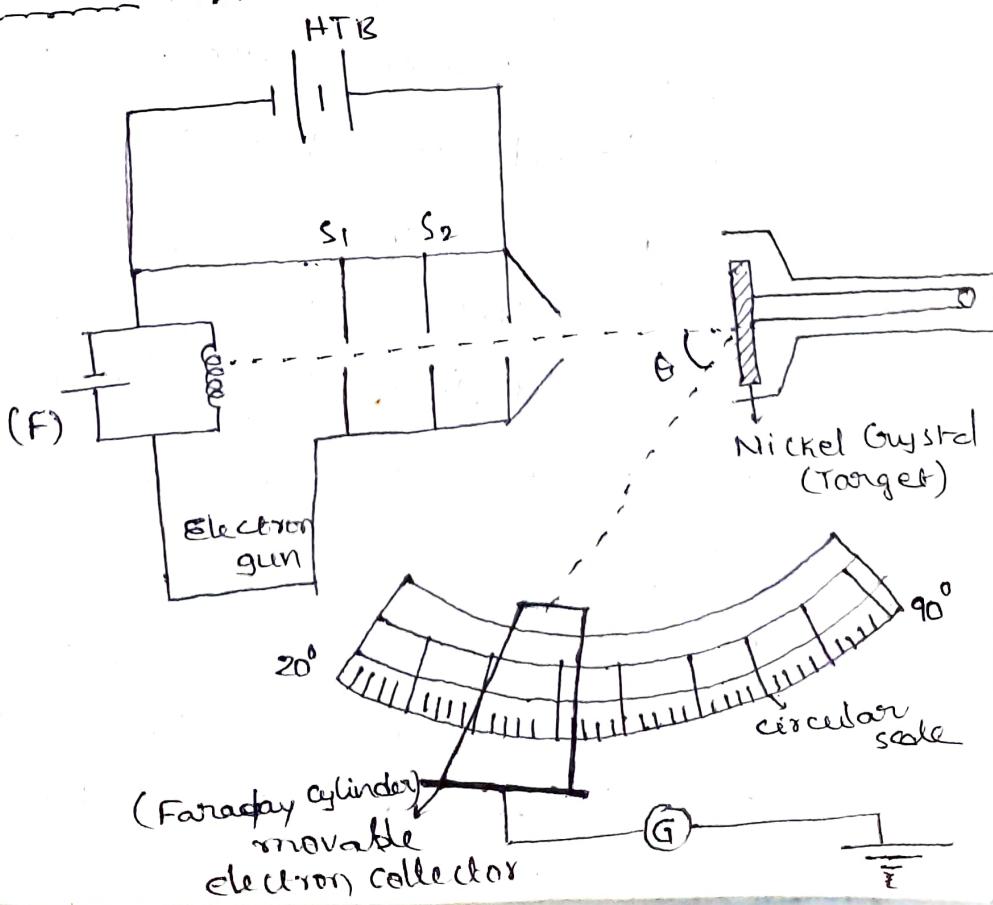
$$\text{Now } u = v\lambda = \frac{h}{2m\lambda^2} (\lambda)$$

$$\Rightarrow u = \boxed{\frac{h}{2m\lambda}}$$

which is nothing but velocity of wave in terms of wavelength

### Davisson & Germer's Experiment:

Experimental evidence for matter wave:



First experimental evidence of existence of matter waves was given by two American physicists Davisson & Germer in 1927. They proved that electron suffers diffraction which is one of the properties of wavenature. i.e. electrons have wave nature. From this, matter wave's exist.

### Construction:

The Apparatus consists of

- 1) Electron gun → which produces or supplies e<sup>-</sup>'s with required velocity
- 2) Inside the electron gun, there is a tungsten filament (F) which is heated with High Tension Batter from which electron's are emitted by thermionic emission
- 3) Inside Electron gun contains two slit's to get a thin ~~parallel~~ fine electron beam
- 4) Nickel crystal acts as a target
- 5) A circular scale attached with movable electron collector is taken at the bottom part

6) A Galvanometer to get the deflection according to scattering angle

### Working :

1) Inside electron <sup>gun</sup>, there is a tungsten filament, which is heated with battery, so that electrons are emitted due to thermionic emission.

2) These emitted electrons are passed through  $S_1$  &  $S_2$ . So that we get fine beam of electrons

3) The electrons can be accelerated in the electric field with known voltage. In this way electron gun gives fine electron beam.

4) Now this electron beam incident on Nickel crystal which acts as a target.

5) The electrons are scattered in all directions from the Nickel crystal.

6) These electrons are collected by movable electron collector or Faraday detector which gives the angular distribution

of electrons, in between  $20^\circ$  &  $90^\circ$

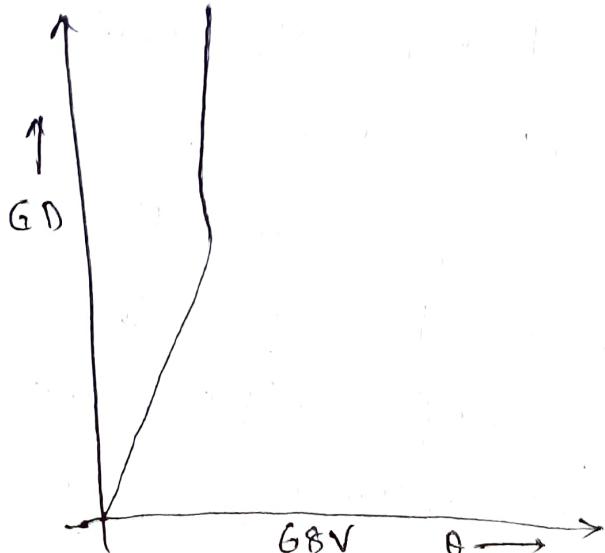
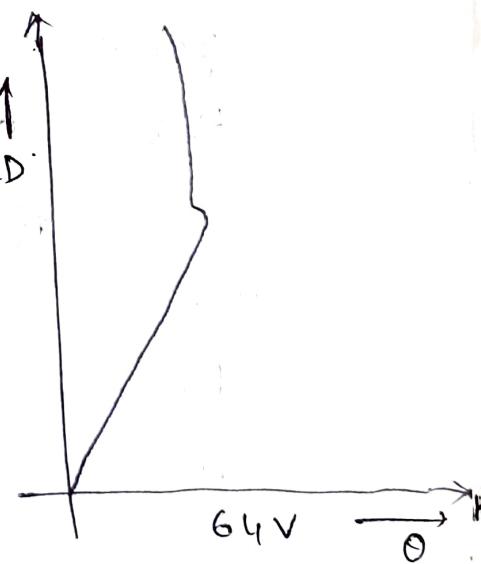
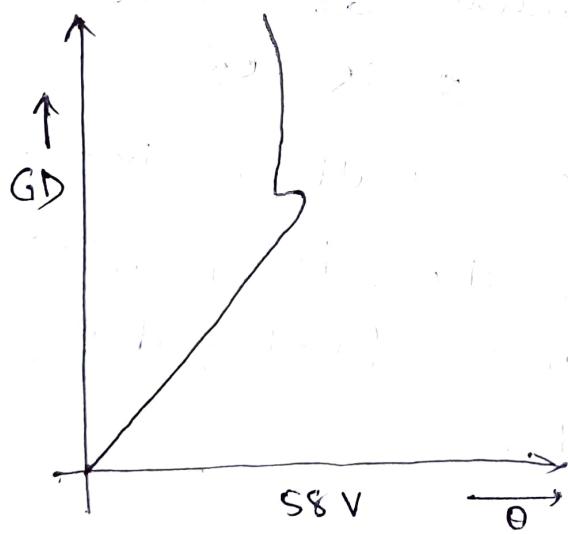
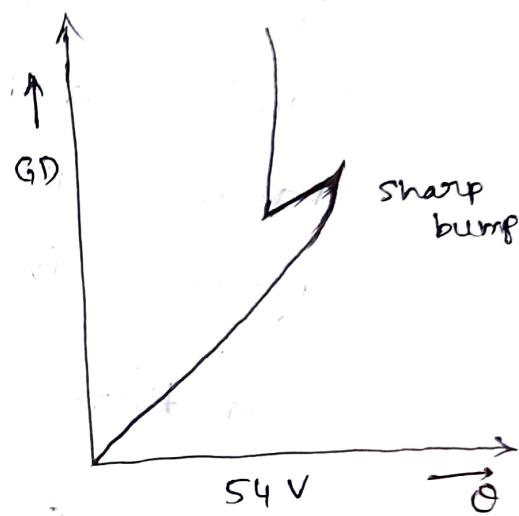
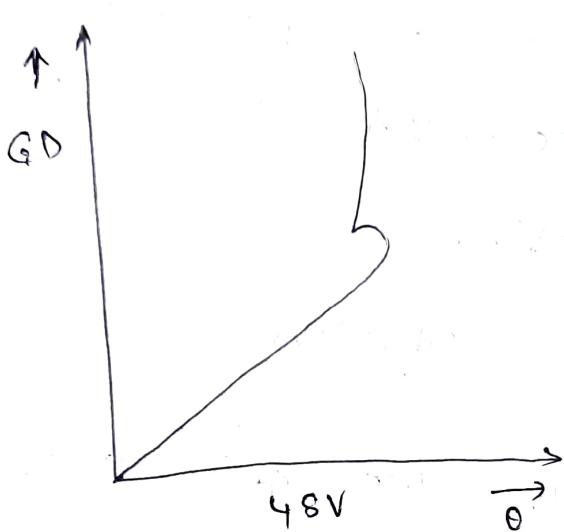
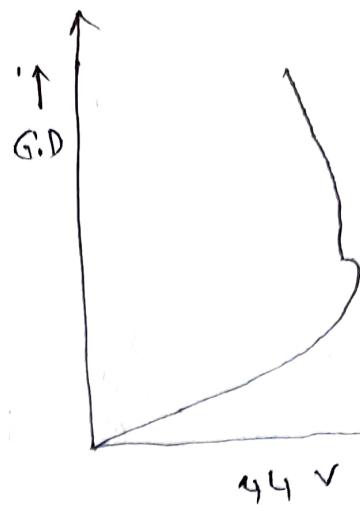
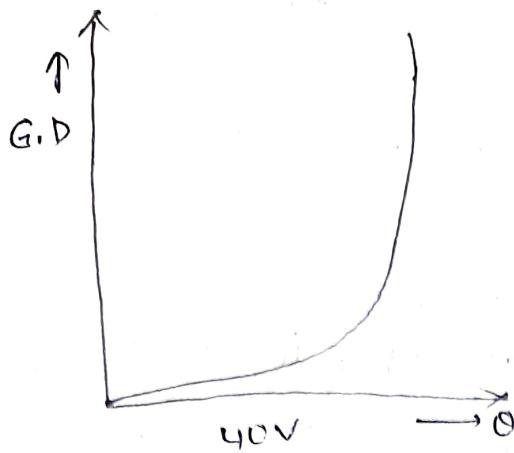
7) This Faraday detector is connected to Galvanometer which gives the intensity of incident electrons.

### Theory :

When ever we incident electron beam on Nickel crystal, e<sup>-</sup>'s are scattered in all directions.

Here we measure the scattering angle between incident & scattered electron beams correspond to the Galvanometer deflection or intensity (depending up on applied voltage) at different voltages.

Now plotted graphs between 0 and intensity or galvanometer deflection at different voltages.



From graph's we observe

- 1) As voltage increase the graph moves up.  
As voltage increases
- 2) As  $\theta$  increases, intensity of electron beam increases slowly and at a particular value it decreases and then again increases.

3) Here we observe a bump

- 4) At 54 volts we get a sharp peak or bump at which the angle  $\theta$  is  $50^\circ$   
If we further increase the voltage, the bump size decreases and finally disappear at 68 volts.

Why this bump appears? It is studied by Davisson and Germer. They said that this is mainly due to the scattering of electron which gives max & minima.

but not total max & total min.

Now Debroglie wavelength at 54 volts

$$\lambda = \frac{12.26}{\sqrt{V_0}} = \frac{12.26}{\sqrt{54}}$$

$$\boxed{\lambda = 1.67 \text{ Å}}$$

But according to Bragg's

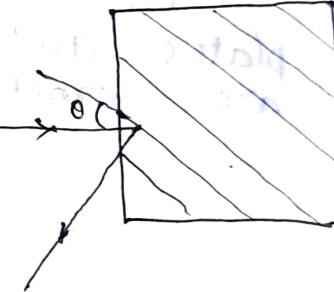
$$n\lambda = 2d \sin\theta$$

$$n=1$$

$$d = 0.91 \text{ Å}$$

$\theta$  = Bragg's angle

(Angle between incident radiation & Bragg's plane)



$$\lambda = 2ds\sin\theta = 2 \times 0.91 \times \sin 65^\circ = 1.65 \text{ Å}$$

Bragg's wavelength

$$\boxed{\lambda = 1.65 \text{ Å}}$$

Debroglie wavelength of Davisson and Germer coincide with Bragg's wavelength which proves the Diffraction of electron.

From this we can say that according to Davisson and Germer electrons possess

# Quantum physics

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

$$m \rightarrow \downarrow \rightarrow \lambda \uparrow$$

$$V \rightarrow \downarrow \rightarrow \lambda \uparrow$$

→ Velocity of matter wave > velocity of light

$$E = mc^2, E = h\nu$$

$$mc^2 = h\nu \Rightarrow v = \frac{mc^2}{h}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} \Rightarrow \omega = \frac{h\nu}{\lambda} = \frac{mc^2}{h} \times \frac{1}{v}$$

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

$$(n) \frac{d}{\pi s} \leq \Delta \cdot \Delta (n)$$

wave packet → (group of waves)

Consider  $\Delta x \leq 10^{-3} \text{ m}$

velocity is not able to determine position can

velocity can be determined but position can't

Heisenberg Uncertainty principle

Debroglie concept

Depending on Heisenberg's matter wave theory proposed an interesting theory in 1927. According to this it is impossible to determine

the position and velocity of a particle simultaneous and accurately at a time.

$\Delta x \rightarrow$  Uncertainty in determining the position

$\Delta p \rightarrow$  uncertainty in momentum

The product of uncertainty in position and momentum is nearly equal to a constant, which is Planck's constant.

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta p \approx h$$

$$(or) \Delta x \cdot \Delta h \geq \frac{h}{2\pi} (\hbar)$$

Similarly:

$$(or) \Delta E \Delta t \geq \frac{h}{2\pi} (\hbar)$$

Similarly

$$\Delta J \Delta \theta \approx h$$

$$\Delta J \Delta \theta \geq \frac{h}{2\pi} (\hbar)$$