



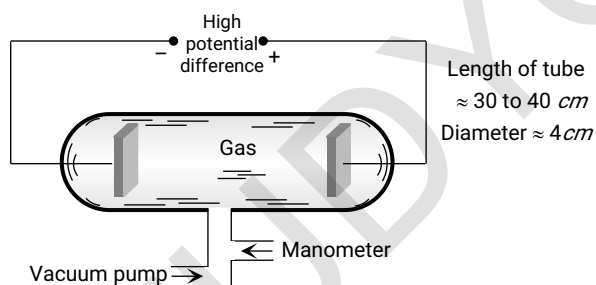
Chapter 25

Electron, Photon, Photoelectric Effect and X-rays

Electric Discharge Through Gases

At normal atmospheric pressure, the gases are poor conductor of electricity. If we establish a potential difference (of the order of 30 kV) between two electrodes placed in air at a distance of few cm from each other, electric conduction starts in the form of sparks.

The discharge of electricity through gases can be systematically studied with the help of discharge tube shown below



As the pressure inside the discharge tube is gradually reduced, the following is the sequence of phenomenon that are observed.

- (1) At normal pressure no discharge takes place.
- (2) At the pressure 10 mm of Hg , a zig-zag thin red spark runs from one electrode to other and cracking sound is heard.

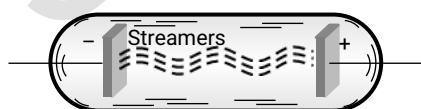


Fig. 25.2

(3) At the pressure 4 mm of Hg , an illumination is observed at the electrodes and the rest of the tube appears dark. This type of discharge is called dark discharge.

(4) When the pressure falls below 4 mm of Hg then the

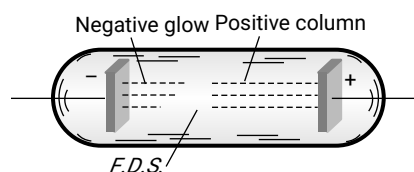
whole tube is filled with bright light called positive column and colour of light depends upon the nature of gas in the tube as shown in the following table.

Table 25.1 : Colour for different gases

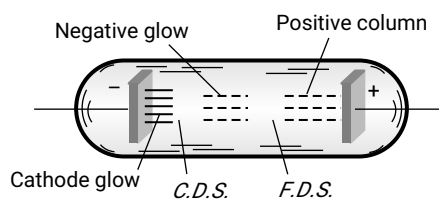
Gas	Air	H_2	N_2	Cl_2	CO_2	Neon
Colour	Purple red	Blue	Red	Green	Bluish white	Dark red

(5) At a pressure of 1.65 mm of Hg :

Sky colour light is produced at the cathode it is called as negative glow. Positive column shrinks towards the anode and the dark space between positive column and negative glow is called Faradays dark space (FDS).



(6) At a pressure of 0.8 mm of Hg : At this pressure, negative glow is detached from the cathode and moves towards the anode. The dark space created between cathode and negative glow is called as Crook's dark space. Length of positive column further reduced. A glow appear at cathode called cathode glow.



(7) At a pressure of 0.05 mm of Hg : The positive column splits into dark and bright disc of light called striations.

(8) At the pressure of 0.01 or 10^{-2} mm of Hg some invisible

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particles move from cathode which is on the opposite side of cathode. These invisible rays emerging from cathode are called cathode rays.

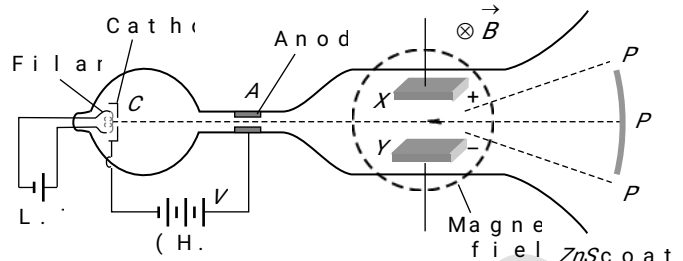
(9) Finally when pressure is reduced to a very low value, there is no discharge in tube.

Cathode Rays

- (1) Cathode rays, discovered by Crookes.
- (2) They are streams of fast moving electrons.
- (3) They can be produced by using a vacuum tube containing gas at a low pressure.
- (4) The cathode rays in the discharge tube are produced due to ionisation of gas due to collision of positive ions.
- (5) Cathode rays travel in straight line.
- (6) Cathode rays are emitted from the cathode surface. Their direction is independent of the position of anode.
- (7) Cathode rays exert mechanical effect.
- (8) Cathode rays produce heat on striking a surface.
- (9) Cathode rays produce fluorescence.
- (10) When cathode rays strike a metal of high atomic weight, X-rays are emitted from the objects.
- (11) Cathode rays are deflected by a magnetic field.
- (12) Cathode rays ionise the gas through which they pass.
- (13) Cathode rays can penetrate thin sheets of metal.
- (14) Cathode rays are found to travel with a velocity of $\frac{1}{30}$ th of velocity of light.

J. J. Thomson's Experiment

- (1) It's working is based on the fact that if an electron is subjected to the electric and magnetic fields, it experiences deflection. In the case where the forces on the electrons due to these fields are equal and opposite, the beam remains undeflected.
- (2) When no field is applied, the beam is deflected upwards at point P.
- (3) In the presence of any field, the electron beam is deflected downwards to point Q.
- (4) If both the fields are properly adjusted such that electron beam produces illumination at point R.



In this case, Electric force = Magnetic force

$$\Rightarrow v = \frac{E}{B}; v = \text{velocity of electron}$$

- (5) As an electron beam accelerated through a potential difference V , the loss in potential energy appears as gain in kinetic energy. If V is the potential difference between cathode and anode then, loss in potential energy = gain in kinetic energy.

And gain in kinetic energy = $\frac{1}{2}mv^2$ and

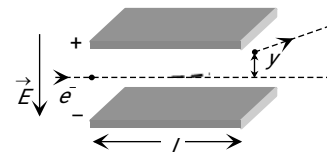
$$\text{i.e. } eV = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \Rightarrow \frac{e}{m} = \frac{v^2}{2V} \Rightarrow \frac{e}{m} = \frac{E^2}{2VB^2}$$

Thomson found $\frac{e}{m} = 1.76 \times 10^{11} \text{ C/kg}$.

If one includes the relativistic velocity ($m = m_0 / \sqrt{1 - v^2/c^2}$), then specific charge decreases with the increase in its velocity.

- (6) The deflection of an electron beam in a magnetic field is given by $y = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{eE}{m} \right) \frac{l^2}{v^2}$ where l is the length of each plate.

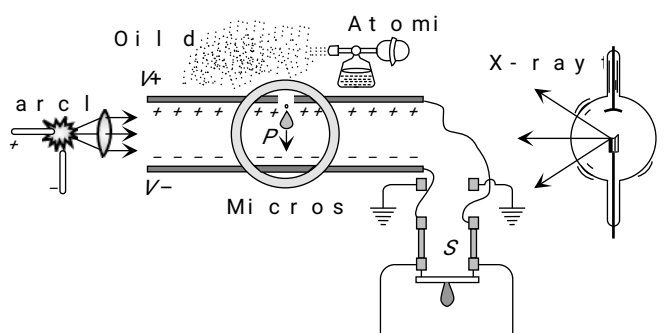
deflection of electron = y is the height of deflection of electron.



Millikan's Oil Drop Experiment

- (1) Millikan performed the pioneering experiment for the precise measurement of the charge on an electron.
- (2) By applying suitable electric field between two parallel plates, the charged oil droplets could be even held stationary in the field for a long time. He found that the charge on an oil droplet is an integral multiple of an elementary charge $e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$.
- (3) In this experiment charge on the oil droplet is balanced by the electric field.

$$q = \frac{6\pi\eta(v_1 + v_2)d}{v} \left[\frac{9\eta v_1}{2g(\rho - \sigma)} \right]^{1/2}$$



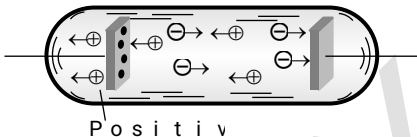
gas. This is done by means of a high voltage applied across the gas. This is done by means of a high voltage applied across the gas.

where m = Coefficient of viscosity, v = Terminal velocity of drop when no electric field is applied between the plates.

V = Potential difference between the plates, d = Separation between the plates, ρ = Density of the oil, r = Radius of the drop.

Positive Rays

When potential difference is applied across a discharge tube, the positive ions are produced at the anode, travel towards the cathode, and pass through the holes in the cathode and appear as positive rays, which are coming out of the cathode.



(1) Positive rays are produced in a discharge tube. The positive ions are produced at the anode, travel towards the cathode, and pass through the holes in the cathode and appear as positive rays, which are coming out of the cathode.

(2) They travel in straight line. But the speed is smaller than that of cathode rays.

(3) They are deflected by electric field. The deflections are small as compared to cathode rays.

(4) They show a spectrum of velocities. The ions move with different velocities. Much less than that of cathode rays.

(5) q/m ratio of these rays depends on the gas in the tube (while in cathode rays, q/m is constant and doesn't depend on the gas). For hydrogen, q/m is maximum.

(6) They carry energy and momentum. The energy of positive rays is more than that of cathode rays.

(7) The value of charge on positive ions is multiple of electronic charge.

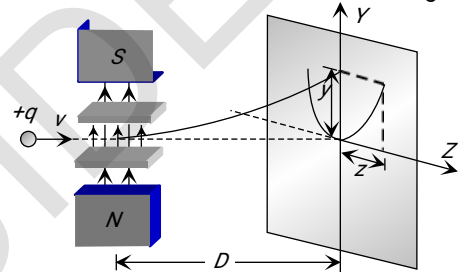
(8) They cause ionisation (which is not produced by cathode rays).

Thomson's Mass Spectrograph

It is used to measure atomic masses.

(1) The positive ions are produced at the anode. These ions are accelerated towards the cathode. This finer ray of positive ions is called a positive ray. It is not allowed to strike the cathode. It is deflected by the electric field.

(2) If the initial motion of the ions is along the x-axis, the electric and magnetic fields are applied along the y and z axes. The force due to electric field is qE and the force due to magnetic field is $q\vec{v} \times \vec{B}$.



The deflection due to electric field is given by

$$y = \frac{qELD}{mv^2} \quad \dots \dots (i)$$

The deflection due to magnetic field is given by

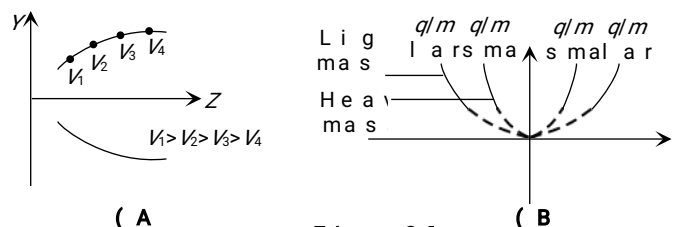
$$y = \frac{qBLD}{mv} \quad \dots \dots (ii)$$

From equation (i) and (ii), we get

where $k = \frac{B^2 LD}{E}$; This is the equation of a parabola.

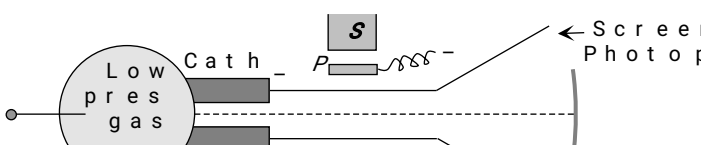
means all the charged particles moving with the same velocity will strike the screen on a parabolic track as shown in the figure.

(3) All the positive ions of different velocities lie on the same parabola. Hence the value of q/m is constant for all the ions of different velocities.



(4) The number of parabolas tells the number of different ions present in the given ionic beam.

Bainbridge Mass Spectrograph



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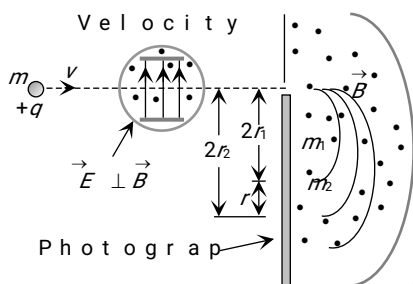
In Bainbridge mass spectrograph velocity are selected by using a velocity selector. Particles are subjected to a uniform magnetic field and electric field. The path of the particles is determined by the velocity of the particles. The particles follow different circular paths.

(1) **Velocity selector:** Particles are isolated from all other particles in the chamber. The electric and magnetic fields are applied perpendicular to the direction of motion of the particle. The particle moves undeflected. For this, $v = \frac{E}{B}$ and E and B should be mutually perpendicular to each other.

(2) **Analysing chamber:** The electric field is applied perpendicular to the direction of motion of the particle. As a result, the particles move along different circular paths.

$$r = \frac{mv}{qB} \Rightarrow \frac{q}{m} = \frac{E}{BB'r} \text{ and } \frac{r_1}{r_2} = \frac{m_1}{m_2}$$

In this way the particles of different masses are separated into different circles of different radii and reach the photographic plate.



Separation between two traces

$$d = 2r_2 - 2r_1 = \frac{2v(m_2 - m_1)}{qB}$$

Matter Waves (de-Broglie Wave)

According to de-Broglie a moving particle sometimes acts as a wave and sometimes as a particle.

The wave associated with moving particle is called de-Broglie wave and it propagates with group velocity.

(1) **de-Broglie wavelength:** de-Broglie wavelength of de-Broglie wave is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mE}} \Rightarrow \lambda \propto \frac{1}{p} \propto \frac{1}{v} \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{E}}$$

Where h is Planck's constant, m is mass of the particle, v is the speed of the particle, E is the kinetic energy of the particle.

The smallest wavelength whose wavelength is that of X-rays.

The wavelength of matter wave is microscopic. Particles like electron, proton, neutron, etc. have wavelengths of the order of 10^{-10} m.

(2) **de-Broglie wavelength associated with a particle:** The energy of a charged particle moving through a potential difference V is given by

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

Hence de-Broglie wavelength $\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mE}} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mqV}}$

$$\lambda_{\text{Electron}} = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}, \quad \lambda_{\text{Proton}} = \frac{0.286}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

$$\lambda_{\text{Neutron}} = \frac{0.202}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}, \quad \lambda_{\alpha\text{-particle}} = \frac{0.101}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

(3) **de-Broglie wavelength associated with a neutron:** de-Broglie wavelength of a neutron is given by

$$\lambda_{\text{Neutron}} = \frac{0.286 \times 10^{-10}}{\sqrt{E \text{ (in eV)}}} \text{ m} = \frac{0.286}{\sqrt{E \text{ (in eV)}}} \text{ \AA}$$

Energy of thermal neutrons at ordinary temperature is given by

$$\therefore E = kT \Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mkT}}; \text{ where } T = \text{Absolute temperature}$$

At Boltzmann's constant $1.38 \times 10^{-23} \text{ J/K}$, So,

$$\lambda_{\text{Thermal neutron}} = \frac{6.62 \times 10^{-34}}{\sqrt{2 \times 1.67 \times 10^{-27} \times 1.38 \times 10^{-23} T}} = \frac{30.83}{\sqrt{T}} \text{ \AA}$$

(4) **Ratio of wavelength of photon to de-Broglie wavelength of a particle:** The ratio of wavelength of a photon to de-Broglie wavelength of a particle is given by

While the wavelength of an electron is given by $\lambda_e = \frac{h}{mv}$. Therefore, for the ratio of wavelength of photon to de-Broglie wavelength of a particle is given by

$$\frac{\lambda_{\text{ph}}}{\lambda_e} = \frac{hc/E}{h/mv} = \frac{mc^2}{E}$$

Characteristics of Matter Waves

(1) Matter wave represents the probability of finding a particle in space.

(2) Matter waves are not electromagnetic waves.

(3) de-Broglie or matter wave is associated with every moving particle (charged or uncharged).

(4) Practical observation of matter waves is made when the de-Broglie wavelength is of the order of the size of the particles.

(5) Electron microscope works on the principle of matter waves.

(6) The phase velocity of the matter wave is greater than the speed of light.

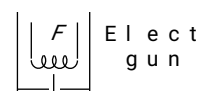
(7) Matter waves can propagate in vacuum as well as in a medium. They are not mechanical waves.

(8) The number of de-Broglie waves associated with an electron in a circular orbit is given by

(9) Only those circular orbits are stable whose circumference is an integral multiple of the de-Broglie wavelength associated with the electron.

Davisson and Germer Experiment

(1) It is used to study the scattering of electrons or to verify the wave nature of electrons.



emitted by electron gun is made to travel along a cubical axis and a narrow beam of three dimensional diffraction grating beam obtained from electron gun.

(2) The diffracted beam of electron is detected by a detector which can be positioned about the point of incidence. The intensity of the beam can also be varied by changing the voltage of the electron gun.

(3) According to classical physics, a beam of electrons at all scattering angles should be observed. Davisson and Germer, found that the beam of electrons was not the same at all angles of scattering. It is maximum at 5.4° potential difference.

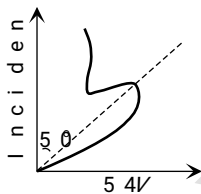
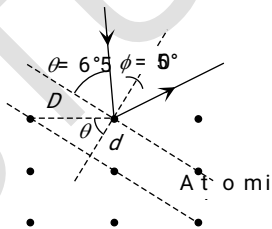


Fig. 2.5

(4) If the de-Broglie waves exist, they should be diffracted using the Bragg's law, $2d \sin \theta = n\lambda$, we can determine the wavelength.

where d = distance between diffraction planes, θ = glancing angle for incidence.



The distance d between diffraction planes is given by $d = \frac{a}{\sin \theta}$, where a is the lattice constant. This gives $d = \frac{3.56 \times 10^{-10}}{\sin 6.5^\circ} = 3.22 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$.

Now the de-Broglie wavelength λ is given by $\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2meV}} = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$.

Thus, the de-Broglie hypothesis is verified.

(5) The Bragg's formula can be written as $2d \sin \theta = n\lambda$, where d is the distance between the planes.

$$\therefore \theta = 90^\circ - \frac{\phi}{2} \text{ and } d = D \cos \theta = D \sin \frac{\phi}{2}$$

$$\text{Using } \sin \theta = \cos \frac{\phi}{2}$$

$$2d \sin \theta = \lambda \Rightarrow 2(D \sin \frac{\phi}{2}) \cdot \cos \frac{\phi}{2} = \lambda \Rightarrow D \sin \phi = \lambda$$

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle

(1) According to Heisenberg's uncertainty principle, it is impossible to measure simultaneously the position and momentum of the particle.

(2) Let Δx and Δp be the uncertainty in the measurement of the position and momentum respectively.

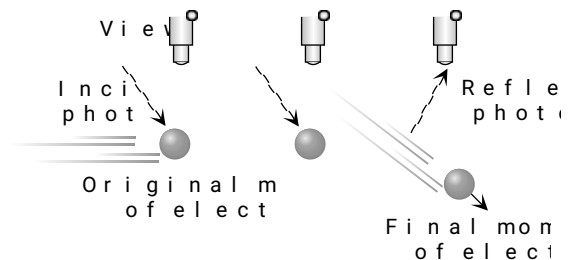
$$\text{then } \Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{h}{4\pi} \quad ; \quad \text{where } h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J-s}$$

$$\text{the Planck's constant } h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J-s}$$

A more rigorous treatment of the uncertainty principle gives

$$(3) \Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

i.e., if we are able to measure the exact position of a particle (say an electron) then the uncertainty in its momentum becomes infinite. Similarly, if we are able to measure the exact momentum of a particle, then the uncertainty in its position becomes infinite.



An electron's position cannot be observed without disturbing its momentum.

(4) Uncertainty principle successfully explains the following phenomena:

- (i) Non-existence of electrons in classical orbits.
- (ii) Finite size of spectral lines.
- (5) The Heisenberg uncertainty principle applies to energy and time, angular momentum and position.

$$\Delta E \Delta t \geq \frac{h}{4\pi} \quad \text{and} \quad \Delta L \Delta \theta \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

(6) If the radius of the electron's orbit is r , then the uncertainty in its position is $\Delta x = r$.

$$\text{in momentum } \Delta p \geq \frac{h}{4\pi r}$$

Photon

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According to Eienstein's quant the bundles (packets or quanta) called a photon and possessing energy (1)Energy of photon of photon is g

$$E = h\nu = \frac{hc}{\lambda}; \quad \text{where } c = \text{Speed of light}$$

constant $\times 10^8 \text{ m/sec}$, $\nu = \text{Frequency}$, $\lambda = \text{Wavelength of light}$.

$$\text{In elect } E(\text{eV}) = \frac{hc}{e\lambda} = \frac{12375}{\lambda(\text{\AA})} \approx \frac{12400}{\lambda(\text{\AA})}$$

(2)Mass of photon is zero. But it's effective mass is g

$$E = mc^2 = h\nu \Rightarrow m = \frac{E}{c^2} = \frac{h\nu}{c^2} = \frac{h}{c\lambda}$$

known as kinetic mass of the photon

(3)Momentum of the photon

$$\text{Momentum } p = m \times c = \frac{E}{c} = \frac{h\nu}{c} = \frac{h}{\lambda}$$

(4)Number of emitted photons of emitted per second from a source of wavelength λ gives $n = \frac{P}{E} = \frac{P}{h\nu} = \frac{P\lambda}{hc}$

where $E =$ energy of each photon

(5)Intensity of light crossing normally per second is called intensity

$$\text{i.e. } I = \frac{E}{At} = \frac{P}{A} \quad \left(\frac{E}{t} = P = \text{radiation power} \right)$$

At a distance r from a point source P is given by $\frac{P}{4\pi r^2} \Rightarrow I \propto \frac{1}{r^2}$

(6)Number of photons falling per second on a surface of area A is $n = \frac{PA}{E}$

Photo- Electric Effect

The photo- electric effect is (called photo- electrons when light from the surface, the electron must overcome the incident radiation to overcome in the material of the surface.

The photoelectric effect was first discovered by Heinrich Hertz and it was investigated in detail by Philipp Lenard.

The photoelectric effect is based on conservation of energy.

(1)Work function (or threshold frequency) is the minimum energy of incident radiation required to eject electrons from metallic surface that surface.

$$W_0 = h\nu_0 = \frac{hc}{\lambda_0} \text{ Joules}; \quad \nu_0 = \text{Threshold frequency}$$

$\lambda_0 =$ Threshold wavelength

Work function in eV is $W_0(\text{eV}) = \frac{hc}{e\lambda_0} = \frac{12375}{\lambda_0(\text{\AA})}$ volt

Table 25. 2 : Work function of some elements

Element	Work fun (eV)	Element	Work fun (eV)
Platinum	6.4	Aluminum	4.3
Gold	5.1	Silver	4.3
Nickel	5.1	Sodium	2.7
Carbon	5.0	Lithium	2.5
Silicon	4.8	Potassium	2.2
Copper	4.7	Cesium	1.9

(2)Threshold frequency (ν_0) is the minimum frequency of incident radiations required to eject electrons from a metallic surface is defined as threshold frequency

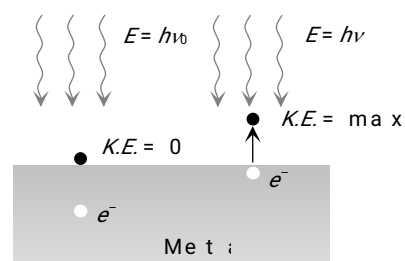
If incident frequency $\nu < \nu_0$ No photoelectron is emitted

For most metals the threshold frequency (ν_0) corresponds to wavelengths between 400 nm and 700 nm

(3)Threshold wavelength (λ_0) is the maximum wavelength of incident radiations required to eject electrons from a metallic surface is defined as threshold wavelength

If incident wavelength $\lambda > \lambda_0$ No photoelectron is emitted

(4)Einstein's photoelectric equation states that the photoelectric effect is the result of the interaction between photon and electron in which photon is absorbed



Einstein's photoelectric equation is $E = W_0 + K_{\max}$

where $K_{\max} = \frac{1}{2} m v_{\max}^2 =$ maximum kinetic energy of emitted electrons.

Experimental Setup for Photoelectric Effect

(1) Two conducting electrodes (A and C) are enclosed in an evacuated glass tube.

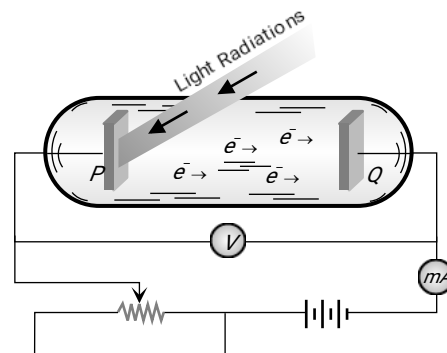


Fig. 25

$$(6) \lambda_0 = \frac{h}{e}(\nu - \nu_0) = \frac{hc}{e} \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{1}{\lambda_0} \right) = 12375 \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{1}{\lambda_0} \right)$$

(2) The battery or other source creates an electric field in the direction of light.

(3) Light of certain wavelength strikes the surface of cathode causes a current called photoelectric current.

(4) As potential difference increases, the current also increases till saturation is reached.

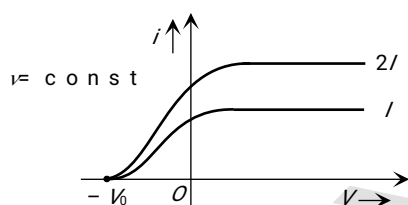
(5) When polarity of battery is reversed, i.e., negative potential is applied, electrons start moving towards the cathode.

(6) At a particular negative potential, the current will reach zero. This potential is called stopping potential. At this potential, the maximum kinetic energy of photoelectrons will be zero. $K_{\max} = h(\nu_0 - \nu)$

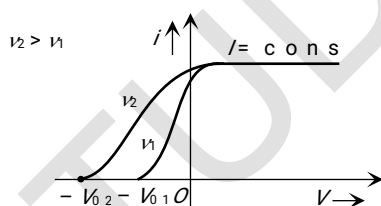
Effect of Intensity and Frequency

(1) Effect of intensity: If the intensity of light increases, the photoelectric current also increases (while its frequency is kept the higher value, showing that more electrons are emitted per unit time. But the stopping potential remains constant).

(2) Effect of frequency: If the frequency of light increases, the stopping potential also increases but the photoelectric current remains constant.



(3) Effect of frequency: If the frequency of light increases, the stopping potential also increases but the photoelectric current remains constant.



Important Formulae for Photoelectric Effect

$$(1) h\nu = h\nu_0 + K_{\max} \quad \text{and} \quad K_{\max} = eV_0$$

$$(2) K_{\max} = eV_0 = h(\nu - \nu_0) \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2}mv_{\max}^2 = h(\nu - \nu_0)$$

$$(3) \lambda_{\max} = \frac{2h(\nu - \nu_0)}{m}$$

$$(4) K_{\max} = \frac{1}{2}mv_{\max}^2 = eV_0 = hc \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{1}{\lambda_0} \right) = hc \left(\frac{\lambda_0 - \lambda}{\lambda\lambda_0} \right)$$

$$(5) \lambda_{\max} = \frac{2hc}{m} \left(\frac{\lambda_0 - \lambda}{\lambda\lambda_0} \right)$$

Compton Effect

(1) The scattering of a photon by an electron is called Compton effect.

(2) The energy and momentum is conserved.

(3) Scattered photon will have a longer wavelength (as compared to incident photon).

(4) The energy lost by the photon is converted into the kinetic energy of the electron.

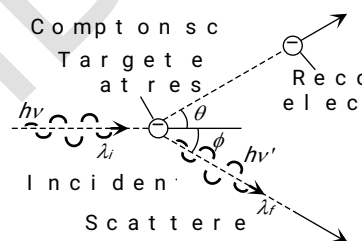
(5) The change in wavelength due to Compton effect is called Compton shift.

$$\lambda_f - \lambda_i = \Delta\lambda = \frac{h}{m_0c} (1 - \cos \phi)$$

$$\text{If } \phi = 0, \Delta\lambda = 0$$

$$\phi = 90^\circ, \Delta\lambda = \frac{h}{m_0c} = 0.24 \text{ nm}$$

$$\phi = 180^\circ, \Delta\lambda = \frac{2h}{m_0c} = 0.48 \text{ nm} \quad (\text{called Compton wavelength})$$



X-Rays

Fig. 25

(1) X-rays were discovered by scientists. They are also called Röntgen rays.

(2) Röntgen discovered that when a discharge tube is operated at a high potential difference, some unknown radiations (X-rays) are emitted from the anode.

(3) There are three essential conditions for the production of X-rays:

(i) A source of electron

(ii) An arrangement to accelerate electrons

(iii) A target of suitable material having a high melting point on which these high energy electrons strike.

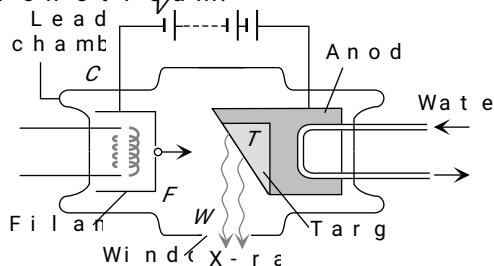
Coolidge X-Ray Tube

(1) It consists of a highly evacuated glass tube containing a cathode and a target (also known as anode). The cathode consists of a tungsten filament coated with oxides of barium and strontium. The target is a material of high melting point surrounded by a molybdenum cylinder. The target is surrounded by a molybdenum cylinder.

(2) The target (It is a material of high melting point and high thermal conductivity) is surrounded by a molybdenum cylinder. The target is surrounded by a molybdenum cylinder.

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(3) The face of the target is in the electron stream.



(4) The filament is heated by a high potential difference is applied to the target and cathode to accelerate the target. The stream of electrons is focussed on the target.

(5) Most of the energy of the electrons (above 98%) and only a fraction of electrons (about 2%) is used to produce X-rays.

(6) During the operation of the X-ray tube, this heat is produced in this target, this heat is conducted to the cooling fins of the copper anode to the cooling fins for radiation and convection.

(7) **Control of intensity of X-rays**
The number of X-ray photons produced is directly proportional to the intensity of X-rays emitted per second from the target. The intensity of X-rays is increased by increasing the filament current.

(8) **Control of quality or penetration of X-rays**
Quality of X-rays implies the penetration power. It can be controlled by varying the potential difference between the cathode and the target.

For large potential difference, the speed of electrons will be large and hence the penetration power of X-rays.

Table 25.3: Types of X-rays

Hard X-rays	Soft X-rays
More penetration	Less penetration
More frequency of $\approx 10^{18}$ Hz	Less frequency of $\approx 10^{16}$ Hz
Lesser wavelength ($\approx 0.01 \text{ \AA}$)	More wavelength ($\approx 10 \text{ \AA}$)

Properties of X-Rays

(1) X-rays are electromagnetic waves in the range 10^{-10} to 10^{-8} m.

(2) The wavelength of X-rays is much smaller than the wavelength of light. Hence they are not visible to the human eye. (This is the only difference between X-rays and light.)

(3) X-rays are invisible.

(4) They travel in a straight line.

(5) X-rays are measured in Röntgen (unit of power).

(6) X-rays carry no charge so they are not deflected by magnetic field and electric field.

$$\lambda_{\text{Gamma rays}} < \lambda_{\text{X-rays}} < \lambda_{\text{UV rays}}$$

(8) They are used in the study of crystal structure.

(9) They ionise gases.

(10) X-rays do not pass through heavy materials.

(11) They affect photographic plates.

(12) Long exposure to X-rays is injurious to health.

(13) Lead is the best absorber of X-rays.

(14) For X-ray photography, BaSO_4 film is used as the best absorber.

(15) They produce photoelectric effect.

(16) X-rays are not emitted by hydrogen.

(17) These cannot be used in Radar because they are reflected by the target.

(18) They show all the important properties of light: reflection, refraction, interference, etc.

Absorption of X-Rays

X-rays are absorbed when they pass through a material.

$$\text{Intensity of X-rays} = I_0 e^{-\mu x}$$

So intensity of absorbed X-rays is given by

$$I' = I_0 - I = I_0 (1 - e^{-\mu x})$$

where μ is the thickness of the absorber and μ is the absorption coefficient.

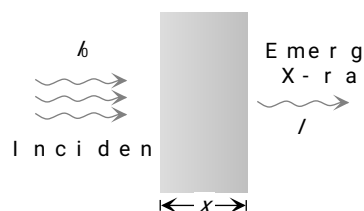


Fig. 25.5

$$\mu \propto \lambda^{-3}; (\lambda = \text{Wavelength of X-ray})$$

$$\mu \propto \nu^3 (\nu = \text{Frequency of X-ray})$$

$$\mu \propto Z^4 (Z = \text{Atomic number of target})$$

Classification of X-Rays

In X-ray tube, when high speed electrons strike the target, they penetrate the target. They lose energy and come to rest inside the metal. The electrons that are stopped make several collisions with the atoms of the target. At each collision one of the following types of X-rays get formed.

(1) Continuous X-rays

(2) Characteristic X-rays

Continuous X-Rays

As an electron passes close to the target, the electron is deflected as shown in the figure. This results in deceleration of the electron during deceleration. This deceleration produces X-rays.

The X-ray photons so emitted form a continuous spectrum.

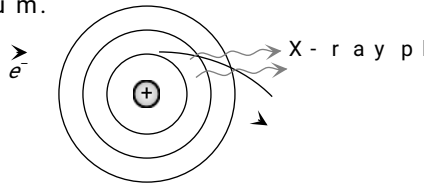


Fig. 25

(1) Minimum wavelength: When the electron gives up its whole of its energy in a single collision, it emits a photon of maximum energy.

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = eV = h\nu_{\max} = \frac{hc}{\lambda_{\min}}$$

where v = velocity of electron before collision
 V = potential difference through which electron is accelerated
 λ_{\min} = minimum wavelength

Maximum frequency of radiation $\nu_{\max} = \frac{eV}{h}$

Minimum wavelength = cut off wavelength

$$\lambda_{\min} = \frac{hc}{eV} = \frac{12375}{V} \text{ \AA}$$

(2) Intensity: The continuous X-ray spectra consist of all the wavelengths. The intensity of the continuous X-rays varies with the accelerating voltage applied to the target.

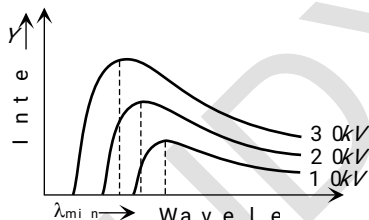


Fig. 26

For each voltage, the intensity of the continuous X-rays starts at a minimum wavelength and then drops gradually.

The wavelength at which the intensity is maximum depends on the accelerating voltage and vice-versa.

Characteristic X-Rays

Few of the fast moving electrons penetrate the surface atoms of the target and hit the tightly bound electrons of the atom. Now when the electron is ejected from the atom, a vacancy is created at that place.

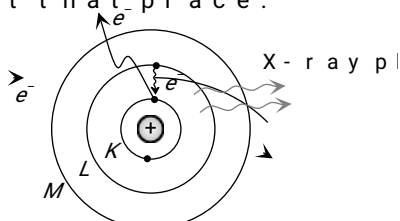


Fig. 27

To fill this vacancy electrons from the outer shells move to the inner shells, creating vacancies. We know that electrons move from a higher energy level to a lower energy level. Thus this energy difference is emitted in the form of X-rays of very small but discrete wavelengths. This spectrum is called characteristic X-ray spectrum.

(1) K, L, M, ... series: If the electron strikes the target and ejects an electron from the K shell, a vacancy is created in the K shell. Immediately an electron from the outer shell jumps to the K shell, emitting a photon of energy equal to the energy difference between the two shells. Similarly, if an electron is ejected from the L shell, an X-ray photon of higher energy is emitted due to the jump of electrons from the M shell to the L shell, and so on.

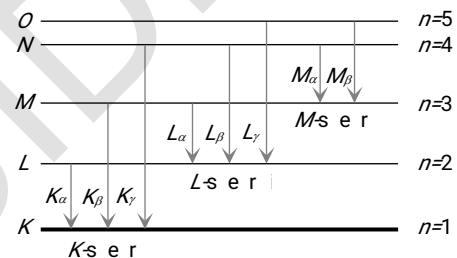


Fig. 28

If the electron strikes the target and ejects an electron from the L shell of the target atom, a vacancy is created in the L shell so that X-ray photons are emitted.

These photons are emitted in a similar way the continuous X-rays may be explained.

(2) Intensity: The intensity of the characteristic X-rays depends on the wavelength, the intensity of the X-ray source, and the distance from the source. As shown in figure, these X-rays are called characteristic X-rays. At other wavelengths, the intensity is zero.

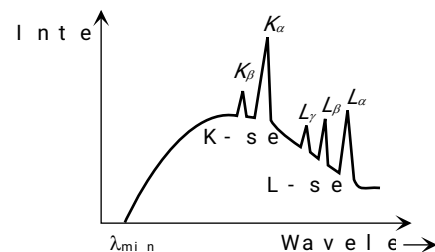


Fig. 29

Mosley's Law

Mosley studied the characteristic X-ray spectra of various elements and concluded that the square root of the frequency of the characteristic X-rays of different elements are very similar.

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number, the spectral lines merge at higher frequencies.

He also gave the following relation

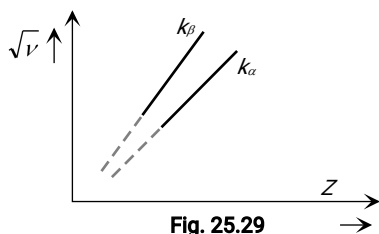


Fig. 25.29

where Frequency of X -ray is proportional to $(Z-b)^2$, b is a shielding constant.

$(Z-b)$ = Effective atomic number and doesn't depend on the natural value as follows

- $b = 1$ for K -series
- $b = 7.4$ for L -series
- $b = 19.2$ for M -series

(1) Mosley's law supported Bohr's model of elements.

(2) It experimentally determined the atomic number of elements.

(3) This law established the periodic table by atomic weight.

(4) Gaps in Mosley's data at 72 or 75 indicated the existence of new elements which were discovered later.

(5) The atomic numbers of the first three elements were estimated to be 29, 47 and 78 respectively.

(6) When a vacancy occurs in the inner shell of an atom, the electron from a higher shell falls into the vacancy and emits an X-ray. The energy of the X-ray is equal to the difference in energy between the two shells.

(7) Wave length of characteristic X-ray is given by

(8) If transition is from n_2 to n_1 , the energy of the X-ray is

$$(i) \lambda = \frac{3RC}{4} = 2.47 \times 10^{-15} \text{ Hz}$$

$$(ii) \lambda_K = RC(Z-1)^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right) = \frac{3RC}{4}(Z-1)^2$$

$$= 2.47 \times 10^{-15} (Z-1)^2 \text{ Hz}$$

(iii) In general the wave length of X-ray is

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_K} = R(Z-1)^2 \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2}\right) \text{ where } n = 2, 3, 4,$$

$$\text{While } \lambda_{K\alpha} = \frac{1216}{(Z-1)^2} \text{ \AA}$$

$$(i) E_{K\alpha} = 10.2(Z-1)^2 \text{ eV}$$

Uses of X- Rays

- (i) In study of crystal structure determined using X-ray diffraction.
- (ii) In medical science
- (iii) In radiography
- (iv) In radiotherapy
- (v) In engineering
- (vi) In laboratories
- (vii) In detective department
- (viii) In art the change occurring examined by X-rays.

Tips & Tricks

- ✍ Discovery of positive rays isotopes.
- ✍ The de-Broglie wavelength of an atom is equal to circumference of its orbit.
- ✍ A particle having zero rest mass and momentum must travel with the speed of light.
- ✍ de-Broglie wavelength associated with a particle is given by $\lambda = \frac{h}{mv_{rms}} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{3mkT}}$ (Energy at temperature $E = \frac{3}{2}kT$)
- ✍ A photon is not a material particle.
- ✍ When a particle exhibits wave nature, it is called a wave packet, rather than a particle.
- ✍ By coating the metal surface with strontium oxide its work function is reduced.
- ✍ We must remember that intensity of radiation is inversely proportional to the square of the distance from the source of light and $I \propto \frac{1}{d^2}$ so $I \propto \frac{1}{d^2}$
- ✍ The photoelectric current can be increased by increasing the intensity of light.
- ✍ Production of X-ray is the result of the photoelectric effect.

The thickness of medium at which X-rays become $\frac{I_0}{2}$ is called half value thickness $(x_{1/2})$ and it is $x_{1/2} = \frac{0.693}{\mu}$ cm.

Continuous X-rays are produced called "Bremsstrahlung". Its maximum wavelength depends on the target material.

The wavelength of characteristic X-rays depends on accelerating voltage. It depends on the target material.

In characteristic X-rays, $\lambda_{K\alpha} < \lambda_{L\alpha} < \lambda_{M\alpha}$ and $\nu_{K\alpha} > \nu_{L\alpha} > \nu_{M\alpha}$ and $\lambda_{K\alpha} > \lambda_{K\beta} > \lambda_{K\gamma}$.

Nearly all metals emit photoelectric effect in UV light. But alkali metals like rubidium and cesium emit photoelectric effect in visible light.

Oxide coated filament in vacuum tube emits electrons at relatively lower temperature.

Conduction of electricity in vacuum tube is because colliding electrons act to increase in mean free path.

Kinetic energy of cathode ray depends on accelerating voltage and work function of cathode.

Photoelectric effect is due to the emission of electrons from a metal surface.

Hydrogen atom does not emit X-rays because its energy levels are too close to each other.

The essential difference between α rays and γ rays is that α rays are emitted from the nucleus while γ rays are emitted from the nucleus of an atom.

There is no time delay between incidence of light and emission of electrons as the light falls on metal surface.

If light were wave (not photon), it would take time to eject a photoelectron out of the metal.

Dose of X-ray is measured in terms of free energy via ionisation.

Safe dose for human body per week is 0.01 Rontgen. The amount of X-ray dose is measured in terms of energy through ionisation at a depth of 1 cm.

The photoelectrons emitted from a metal surface have different kinetic energies but the incident photons have same energy. This is because electrons do not exist in the surface.

Those coming from below the surface are getting themselves free.

Einstein was awarded Nobel prize for his work on photoelectric effect.

Uncertainty in the measurement of position of a photon with momentum p is $\Delta p = \frac{h}{2\pi d}$ where d is the diameter of the aperture.

where d = diameter of the aperture, Δp = uncertainty in the measurement of momentum.