

PHYS1901 Notes

→ Bohr proposed that electron angular momentum (L) is quantised.

$$L = mvr = \frac{nh}{2\pi}$$

- m is electron mass
- v is orbital velocity
- r is orbital radius
- n is the principle quantum number (basically what orbital you're in – 1, 2, 3 etc)
- h is Planck's constant

→ The model was that the electron orbited the proton.

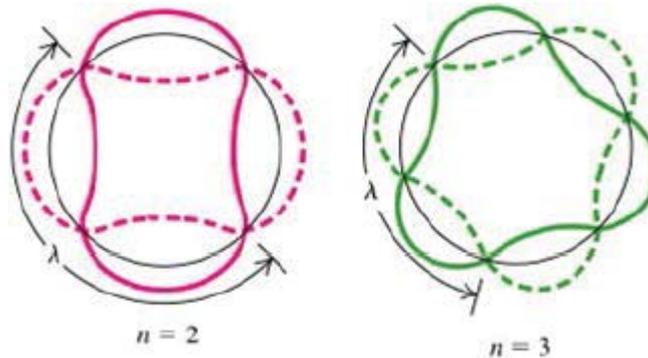
- Centripetal force was by the Coulomb force.
- Mass of the proton by far exceeded the electron and hence, electron orbital was roughly circular.

• Bohr's model could be related to de Broglie's hypothesis.

$$\begin{aligned} mvr &= \frac{nh}{2\pi} \\ 2\pi r &= \frac{nh}{mv} \\ 2\pi r &= n\lambda \end{aligned}$$

→ This suggests that a certain number of wavelengths fit along the circumference.

→ This implies that electrons are standing waves.



Newton's second law:

$$F_c = F_{EM}$$

$$\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_n^2} = \frac{mv_n^2}{r_n} \quad (12)$$

- ▶ r_n and v_n are e^- orbital radius, speed

Quantisation:

$$mv_n r_n = \frac{nh}{2\pi}$$

- ▶ Eq. (13) \Rightarrow

$$v_n = \frac{nh}{2\pi m r_n}$$

Substituting Eq. (14) into (12):

$$\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r_n^2} = \frac{m}{r_n} \frac{n^2 h^2}{4\pi^2 m^2 r_n^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow r_n = \frac{h^2 \epsilon_0}{m\pi e^2} n^2$$

Substituting Eq. (16) into (14):

$$v_n = \frac{nh}{2\pi m} \frac{m\pi e^2}{h^2 \epsilon_0 n^2}$$

or $v_n = \frac{e^2}{2h\epsilon_0} \frac{1}{n}$

The radii are multiples of the smallest radius:

$$r_n = a_0 n^2 \quad \text{with} \quad a_0 = \frac{h^2 \epsilon_0}{m\pi e^2} = r_1$$

- ▶ evaluating the **Bohr radius** a_0 :

$$a_0 = \frac{h^2 \epsilon_0}{m\pi e^2}$$

$$\approx \frac{(6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s})^2 \times 8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C N}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1}}{\pi \times 9.109 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg} \times (1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})^2}$$

$$\approx 5.29 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}$$

- ▶ which is consistent with atomic dimensions

Kinetic energy:

$$K_n = \frac{1}{2} m v_n^2 = \frac{m e^4}{8 \epsilon_0^2 h^2} \frac{1}{n^2} \quad (20)$$

Potential energy:

$$U_n = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r_n} = -\frac{m e^4}{4 \epsilon_0^2 h^2} \frac{1}{n^2} \quad (21)$$

So the total energy of the e^- is

$$E_n = K_n + U_n = -\frac{m e^4}{8 \epsilon_0^2 h^2} \frac{1}{n^2} \quad (22)$$

- ▶ which we can rewrite as:

$$E_n = -\frac{hcR'}{n^2} \quad \text{where} \quad R' = \frac{m e^4}{8 \epsilon_0^2 h^3 c} \quad (23)$$

- ▶ and evaluating R' :

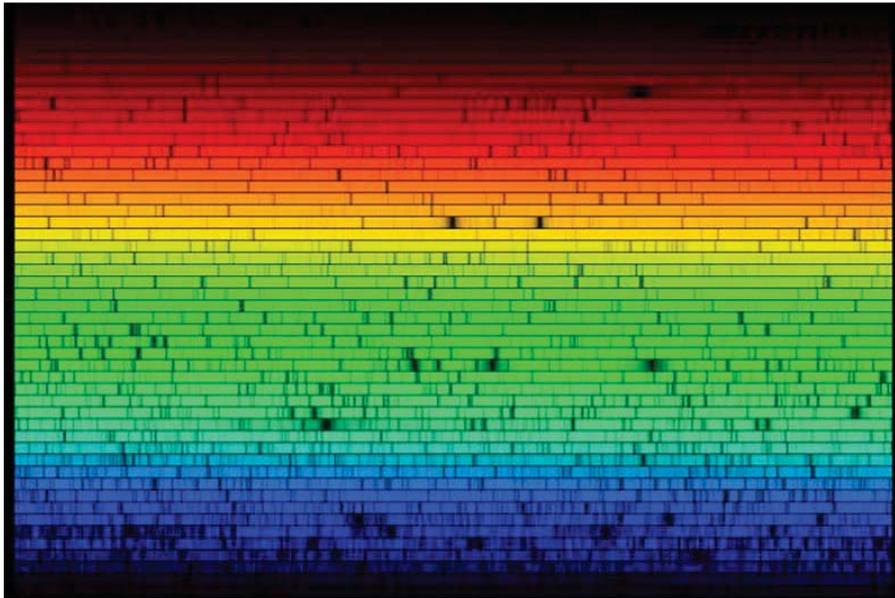
$$\frac{m e^4}{8 \epsilon_0^2 h^3 c} \approx \frac{9.109 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg} \times (1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})^4}{8 \times (8.854 \times 10^{-12} \text{ C N}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-1})^2 \times (6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s})^3 \times 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}$$

i.e. $R' \approx 1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}$

- ▶ so $R' \approx R$ [the Rydberg constant in the Balmer formula, Eq. (6)]

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- Even though the Bohr model isn't correct, it correctly predicts the hydrogen spectrum.
 - Principal quantum number defines the energy state ($n=1,2,3$ etc).
 - Protons aren't 100% stationary – they do move a little bit but not much compared to the electrons.
 - It's like how we say the Sun is stationary but in reality, it is still orbiting a centre of mass.
- The ground state is when the principle quantum number is $n=1$.
 - Decay back to the ground state results in photon emission.
 - Photon is emitted in a random direction.
 - If a continuous spectrum is shone through the gas, light is absorbed at specific wavelengths.
 - Absorbed light is re-emitted in random directions.
- The Sun's spectrum has many absorption lines but they are fairly difficult to see unless the spectrum is zoomed in.
 - Some light is absorbed by atoms in the Sun's atmosphere.
 - Absorption lines can be used to determine what elements are in the Sun's atmosphere.



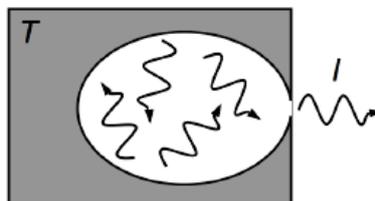
- Helium was discovered based on the line spectrum of the Sun.
- Bohr's model also described single-electron atoms.
 - Ionised helium, doubly-ionised lithium etc.

$$E_n \approx -\frac{Z^2(13.6 \text{ eV})}{n^2}$$

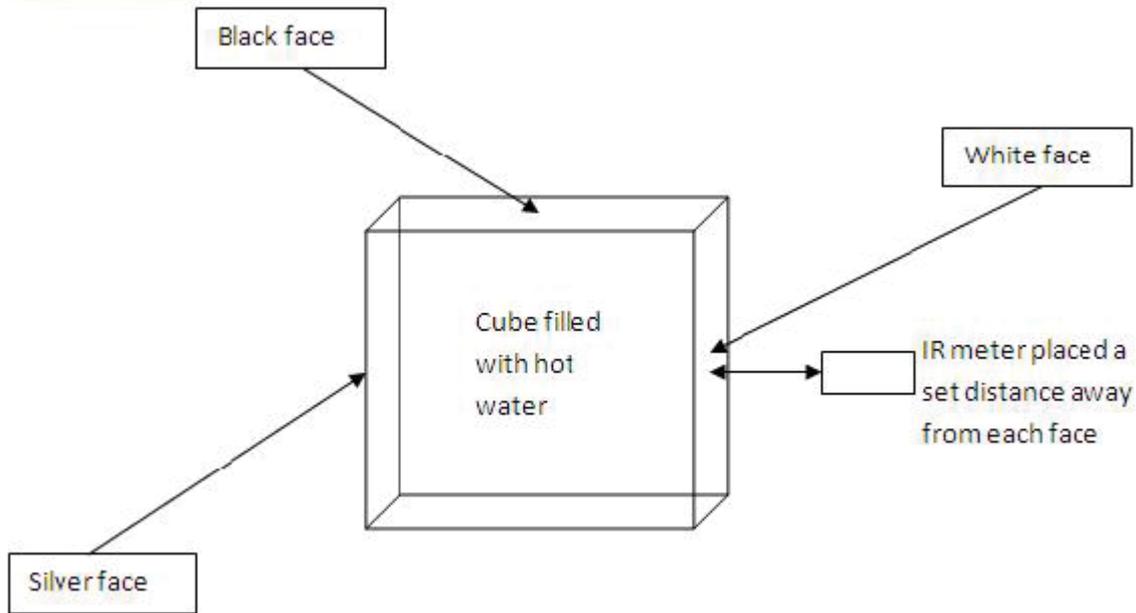
- Even though Bohr's model was useful, it is not good enough.
 - Orbits are unstable.
 - Electron orbits would form magnetic fields – not seen in hydrogen.

Lecture 8: Continuous Spectra

- Hot solids emit a continuous spectrum.
- A blackbody is one that absorbs almost all incoming radiation – it is also the best emitter of radiation.
 - Consider a cavity, if light falls into the cavity, it will probably be stuck inside there.

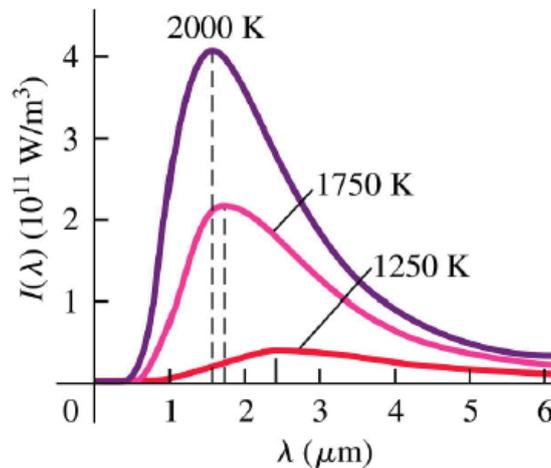


- A Leslie cube (below) can be used to show that the strongest absorber and emitter is the black face and the weakest absorber and emitter is the silver face.



→ Blackbodies are ideal emitters.

- $I_\lambda(T)$ is the power per unit area, per unit λ .
 - Has a single peak as a function of λ .
 - The peak shifts to shorter λ for spectra with higher T.
 - For higher T, spectrum is more intense for all λ .



- The wavelength of the peak of the blackbody curve is given by Wien's displacement law.

$$\lambda_{max} T = 2.9 \times 10^{-3}$$

- Stefan-Boltzmann law for total intensity:

$$I(T) = \int_1^\infty I_\lambda(T) d\lambda = \sigma T^4$$

→ σ is the Stefan-Boltzmann constant = $5.67 \times 10^{-8} \text{ W m}^{-2} \text{ K}^{-4}$

Lecture 9: Probability and Uncertainty

- In classical physics, electron is just a point and charged.
 - Its motion can be described as (x,v) or (x,p) .
 - In quantum physics, there is uncertainty in the position and momentum of particles such as electrons.

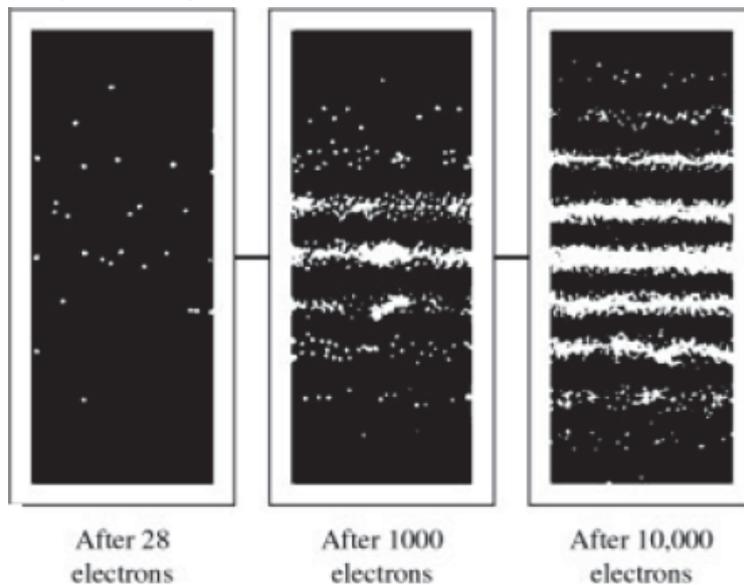
$$\Delta p_x \Delta x \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

$$\Delta p_y \Delta y \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

$$\Delta p_z \Delta z \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

$$\Delta E \Delta t \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

- Δt is the duration in energy state E.
- The diffraction pattern describes a statistical result – demonstrates the wave nature of electrons.
 - Electrons arrive randomly at the detector.
 - Pattern intensity corresponds to the probability of arrival at a point.
 - Below, electrons pass through one at a time.



- If electrons pass through one at a time, what interferes? The electron with itself?
 - Bohr’s model states that electrons orbit in a plane, say $z=0$.
 - Therefore, $p_z=0$ and Δp_z is 0.
 - By the Uncertainty principle, $\Delta z=\infty$
 - As we know that $z=0, \Delta z=0$ – this is a contradiction.

Lecture 10: Wave Functions and the Schrödinger Equation

- Electrons cannot be described as point particles.
 - They don’t have defined positions and velocities (Uncertainty Principle).
- The description of the position and motion of an electron can be described by a wave function ($\psi(r,t)$).
 - It describes where the particle is likely to be.
 - The wave function is the wave amplitude.
 - The wave function is a complex number at $dx dy dz$ at time t .
 - $|\psi(r,t)|^2$ is the probability of finding the particle at $r(x,y,z)$ – probability density function (probability per volume)

$$\int \int \int |\psi(r,t)|^2 dx dy dz = 1$$

- The probability of the particle being somewhere is 1.
- This is called normalisation condition.

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- Usually, the probability of finding a particle in a certain place changes with time.
 - But not always, such as electrons in defined energy levels – this makes $\Delta t \rightarrow \infty$
 - These situations are called stationary states.
- For a stationary state, the wave function has the form:

$$\boxed{\psi(r, t) = \psi(r)e^{-iEt/\hbar}}$$

- E is the energy.
- $\psi(r)$ is the stationary-state wave function.
 - Using the above equation:

$$\boxed{|\psi(r, t)|^2 = |\psi(r)|^2}$$

- Therefore, probability a particle is at a point is time-independent.
- Stationary states oscillate harmonically in time.

$$\begin{aligned} \psi(r, t) &= \psi(r)e^{-iEt/\hbar} \\ \psi(r, t) &= \psi(r)\left(\cos\frac{Et}{\hbar} - i\sin\frac{Et}{\hbar}\right) \\ \psi(r, t) &= \psi(r)\left(\cos\frac{2Et\pi}{h} - i\sin\frac{2Et\pi}{h}\right) \\ \psi(r, t) &= \psi(r)\left(\cos\frac{2hft\pi}{h} - i\sin\frac{2hft\pi}{h}\right) \\ \psi(r, t) &= \psi(r)(\cos 2\pi ft - i\sin 2\pi ft) \\ \psi(r, t) &= \psi(r)(\cos \omega t - i\sin \omega t) \end{aligned}$$

- $\psi(r)$ has a fixed spatial form – they are standing waves.
- The 1D time-independent Schrödinger equation is:

$$\boxed{\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} + U(x)\psi = E\psi}$$

- ψ is the 1D stationary-state wave function.
- m is mass of the particle.
- E is the total energy of the particle.
- $U(x)$ is the potential energy of the particle at position x .
- When there are no forces on a particle, the potential energy is zero – $U(x)=0$.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} &= \frac{-2m}{\hbar^2} E\psi \\ \text{Solution is in the form: } \psi &= Ae^{ikx} \\ \frac{d^2\psi}{dx^2} &= -k^2\psi \\ \text{By equating: } k &= \pm \frac{(2mE)^{\frac{1}{2}}}{\hbar} \end{aligned}$$

- For a free particle, the total energy is:

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} E &= K = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \\ p &= mv \\ \therefore E &= \frac{p^2}{2m} \end{aligned}}$$

- Phase velocity of a wave is the rate at which the phase of the wave propagates in space.

$$\boxed{\begin{aligned} v_{\phi} &= \frac{\omega}{k} \\ \psi(r, t) &= Ae^{-i(kx+\omega t)} \end{aligned}}$$

