Conservation of Total Relativistic Energy:

(before)

Note: high energy collision $\rightarrow e$'s speed might be relativistic !

Conservation of Relativistic Momentum:

(before) (after)

$$x - dir: \frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \cos \phi + \gamma mv \cos \theta$$

$$y - dir: 0 = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \sin \phi - \gamma mv \sin \theta$$

 $\frac{hc}{\lambda} + mc^2 = \frac{hc}{\lambda'} + \gamma mc^2$

(after)

Incident photon: Target electron
wavelength
$$\lambda$$
, (at rest)
momentum \vec{p}



(knowns $\rightarrow \lambda$: given, ϕ : observation angle) 3 eqs. with 3 unknowns (θ, λ', ν)!

Dividing *c* throughout the energy conservation equation, here are the three equations:

(1)
$$\frac{h}{\lambda} + mc = \frac{h}{\lambda'} + \gamma mc$$

(2) $\frac{h}{\lambda} = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \cos \phi + \gamma mv \cos \theta$
(3) $0 = \frac{h}{\lambda'} \sin \phi - \gamma mv \sin \theta$

Dividing *c* throughout the energy conservation equation and define the following shorthand: $g=h/\lambda$ and $g'=h/\lambda'$, the three eqs. can be written as:

(1)
$$g + mc = g' + \gamma mc$$

(2) $g = g' \cos \phi + \gamma mv \cos \theta$
(3) $0 = g' \sin \phi - \gamma mv \sin \theta$

 $(1)^2 \rightarrow$

$$(g - g' + mc)^{2} = \gamma^{2}m^{2}c^{2}$$

$$(g - g')^{2} + 2(g - g')mc + m^{2}c^{2} = \gamma^{2}m^{2}c^{2}$$

$$(g - g')^{2} + 2(g - g')mc = (\gamma^{2} - 1)m^{2}c^{2} = \left(\frac{1}{1 - v^{2}/c^{2}} - 1\right)m^{2}c^{2}$$

$$(g - g')^{2} + 2(g - g')mc = \left(\frac{\cancel{1 - \cancel{1 - v^{2}/c^{2}}}}{1 - v^{2}/c^{2}}\right)m^{2}c^{2} = \frac{m^{2}v^{2}}{1 - v^{2}/c^{2}}$$

$$(2)^{2} + (3)^{2} \rightarrow \qquad (g - g'\cos\phi)^{2} = \gamma^{2}m^{2}v^{2}\cos^{2}\theta$$

$$\bigoplus g'^{2}\sin^{2}\phi = \gamma^{2}m^{2}v^{2}\sin^{2}\theta$$

$$g^{2} - 2gg'\cos\phi + g'^{2}(\cos^{2}\phi + \sin^{2}\phi) = \gamma^{2}m^{2}v^{2}(\cos^{2}\theta + \sin^{2}\theta)$$

$$g^{2} - 2gg'\cos\phi + g'^{2}(1) = \frac{m^{2}v^{2}}{1 - v^{2}/c^{2}}(1)$$

Notice that the RHS is the same as the one from the energy conservation equation. Equating them gives:

$$(1)^{2} (2)^{2} + (3)^{2}$$
$$(g - g')^{2} + 2(g - g')mc = g^{2} - 2gg'\cos\phi + g'^{2}$$
$$g^{2} - 2gg' + g'^{2} + 2(g - g')mc = g^{2} - 2gg'\cos\phi + g'^{2}$$
$$(g - g')mc = gg'(1 - \cos\phi)$$

Substituting the shorthand $g=h/\lambda$ and $g'=h/\lambda'$ back:



(Compton Shift Equation)

The factor h/mc has the units of length and

$$\lambda_C = \frac{h}{mc} = 0.002426nm$$

is called the Compton Wavelength.

Most importantly, the Compton Shift equation

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

gives the exact prediction for the observed wavelength shift in the Compton scattering experiment.



The particle description for photon is correct !



Gamma Rays and Pair Production

What happens when an even more energetic light (photon) interacts with matter?

 γ - rays are high energy EM radiation with shorter λ and higher *f* even than X - rays

Patrick Blackett and Giuseppe Occhialini (1933) found that...

→ When a sufficiently high energy γ - rays is made to collide with a nucleus within a target, the photon will disappear AND a pair of electron e⁻ and positron e⁺ (the anti-particle of e⁻) can be created.

This process is called **Pair Production**.



Gamma Rays and Pair Production

Physical requirements:

- Energy of γ must be sufficient high:

$$E_{\min} \ge 2m_e c^2 = 2(0.511MeV) = 1.022MeV$$

$$f_{\gamma}(\min) = \frac{E_{\min}}{h} = 247.3 EHz \left(exa - E \, 10^{18}\right)$$
$$\lambda_{\gamma}(\max) = 1.213 \, pm \left(pico - p \, 10^{-12}\right)$$

In addition to energy conservation,

- Charge is conserved: (-e) + (+e) = 0 \checkmark γ has no charge
- Momentum is conserved through the recoil of the nucleus.



Correspondence Principle

So, when does light acts *classically* and *quantum mechanically*?

As we have seen, the basic energy scale for light (a photon) is $\Delta E = hf$

When light interacts with matter, the typical interaction energy scale E_{int} as compares to a single photon energy ΔE determines whether light acts as a wave (CM description) or a particle (QM description):

 $\begin{cases} \text{ if } f \text{ is } small (\lambda \text{ is } \log), \Delta E = hf \ll E_{\text{int}} \text{ then } \text{ light appears as a continuum} \\ \text{EM} \rightarrow \text{CM} (\text{light as a wave}) \end{cases} \\ \text{If } f \text{ is } large (\lambda \text{ is short}), \Delta E = hf \approx E_{\text{int}} \text{ then } \text{light appears as discrete packets} \\ \text{EM} \rightarrow \text{QM} (\text{light as particles}) \end{cases}$

Correspondence Principle

Radio waves (low freq): behaves like *classical* waves with diffraction and interference easily observable.

Visible lights (mid freq): have both wave (classical) & particle (quantum) behaviors. diffraction photoelectric effect X-Rays (high freq): mostly particle (quantum) behaviors. X-Rays productions and Compton Scattering γ -Rays (very high freq): particle (quantum) behaviors. Pair Productions and $e^{-}-e^{+}$ Pair Annihilations (reverse of PP)

Wave-Particle Duality

The Principle of Complementarity: First stated by Niels Bohr in 1928

The wave and the particle descriptions are complementary. We need both descriptions to complete our model of nature, but we never need to use both descriptions at the same time to describe a single part of an occurrence.

Modify our light diffraction experiment slightly: use a photomultiplier tube to measure the number of photons arriving at a given location.



Wave-Particle Duality

Low intensity result: (one or a few photons passing the slits at one time.)

After 21 photons reach the screen



After 1000 photons reach the screen



After 10,000 photons reach the screen



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Photon detections by photomultiplier tube must be done over time.

The arrival of a photon at a particular location will be probabilistic.

And, results are statistical in nature.

Wave-Particle Duality

After 21 photons reach the screen



After 1000 photons reach the screen



After 10,000 photons reach the screen



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The detection of a single photon in the photomultiplier is a *particle* measurement.

But, the distribution pattern of photons arriving at the screen requires a *wave* description.

Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle



For photons going through the slit with width a, one can say that the y-position of the photons will have an uncertain of Δy

Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle



Also, the "spreading-out" of the photons implies that the photons reaching the screen must have a small *uncertainty* Δp_y in the vertical ($\hat{\mathbf{y}}$) direction of its momentum as it exits the slit.

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle again

The Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle is not a statement on the accuracy of the experimental instruments. It is a statement on the fundamental *limitations* in *making* measurements !

To understand this, there are two important factors:

- 1. The wave-particle duality
- 2. The unavoidable interactions between the observer and the object being observed

Uncertainty Principle: Conceptual Example

Suppose we want to measure the position of a particle (originally at rest) by a laser light.

The measurement is accomplished by the scattering of photons off this particle (shining a light) :



Uncertainty Principle: Conceptual Example

But, photons carry momentum and the particle after scattering will recoil !



While the scattered photon gives us a precise position of the particle, the photon will also inevitably impart momentum onto the particle.

Uncertainty Principle: Conceptual Example

If the measurement is made by a photon with wavelength λ , then *at best*,

we can expect our position measurement to be accurate up to an uncertainty,

 $\Delta y \sim \lambda$

But, the photon will transfer a part of its momentum to the particle along the measurement direction y. The amount transfer is then given by,

$$\Delta p_{y} \sim \frac{h}{\lambda}$$

Combining these two expressions gives: $\Delta y \Delta p_y \sim h$

NOTE: By improving Δy by using a *smaller* λ will inadvertently result in a larger uncertainty in $\Delta p_v \sim h/\lambda$ since Δp_v is inverse proportional to λ !.

Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle

We have used a heuristic argument in getting to previous inequality. A more precise inequality can be derivate from full QM calculations, and it should read

$$\Delta y \Delta p_y \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$
 where $\hbar = h / 2\pi$

This is called the **Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle**.

Uncertainty Relation for $\Delta E \& \Delta t$

Our discussion is not specific to the $\hat{\mathbf{y}}$ direction. In general, we will have similar uncertainty relations for all three spatial directions, i.e.,

$$\Delta x \Delta p_x \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}, \quad \Delta y \Delta p_y \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}, \quad \Delta z \Delta p_z \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

And, additionally, there is an uncertainty relation for ΔE and Δt :

$$\Delta E \Delta t \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$
 similar to $\Delta p_x \Delta x \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$

Uncertainty Relation for $\Delta E \& \Delta t$

In nature, space-time coordinates are linked to its dynamical counterparts as **conjugate** variable pairs in physics.

$$(p_x, x)$$
 (p_y, y) (p_z, z) and (E, t)

And, most importantly, the Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle enforces an *inverse* proportional relation on the two *conjugate* pairs of dynamics variables:

$$\Delta x \Delta p_x \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}, \quad \Delta y \Delta p_y \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}, \quad \Delta z \Delta p_z \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}, \quad \Delta E \Delta t \ge \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

By decreasing the uncertainty in one of the variables (x or t), its corresponding **conjugate** variable $(p_x \text{ or } E)$ must increase accordingly ! But, there are **no** restrictions for *unconjugated* variables: $\Delta x \Delta p_y$ or $\Delta x \Delta y$, etc.

PHYS 262

George Mason University

Prof. Paul So

Chapter 39: Particles Behaving as Waves

- □ Matter Waves
- Atomic Line-Spectra and Energy Levels
- Bohr's Model of Hatom
- □ The Laser
- Continuous Spectra & Blackbody Radiation



Matter Waves

As we have seen, light has a *duality* of being a wave and a particle.

By a *symmetry* argument, de Broglie in 1924 proposed that *all form of matter* should also posses this duality.

Recall for photons, we have: $\lambda = \frac{h}{n}$

For a massive particle with momentum p = mv (or γmv) and total energy *E*, de Broglie proposed:

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{mv} \quad \left(=\frac{h}{\gamma mv}\right)$$

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

(de Broglie wavelength)



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Diffraction of *e* off Aluminum Foil

In 1928, G.P. Thomson (son of J.J. Thomson) performed another demonstrative experiment in showing electrons can act as a wave and diffract from a polycrystalline aluminum foil.

Debye and Sherrer did a similar X-Ray diffraction experiment done a few years earlier using a similar set up.

G.P. Thomson's electron diffraction experiment produced a qualitatively similar result as Debye & Sherrer's X-Ray diffraction experiment.





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Electron Two-Slit Interference

Jonsson, Claus (Germany) Journal of Physics 161 (1961), p. 454-474 (first experiment)



Similar to the two-slit experiment with photons, electrons demonstrate *both* particle (detection of single *e*'s on film) and wave (interference pattern) characteristics.

de Broglie wavelength: an electron vs. a baseball

an electron moving at $v = 1.00 \times 10^7 m/s$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34} J \cdot s}{\left(9.11 \times 10^{-31} kg\right) \left(1.00 \times 10^7 m / s\right)}$$
$$= 7.28 \times 10^{-11} m$$
(experimentally assessable)





 $\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34} \, J \cdot s}{\left(145 \times 10^{-3} \, kg\right) \left(40.0 \, m \, / \, s\right)}$ $= 1.14 \times 10^{-34} \, m$

a baseball moving at v = 40.0m/s

Since *h* is so small, typical daily object's wave characteristic is insignificant !



 \rightarrow Electron microscope is better than regular microscope since $\lambda_{electron} \ll \lambda_{visible \ light}$

The Electron Microscope (Example 39.3)

What accelerating voltage is needed to produce e with $\lambda = 0.010nm$?

From the electron diffraction experiment, we know how to relate the wavelength for a fast moving electron to the accelerating voltage V_a



Atomic Spectra: Electric Discharge Tube with Diluted Gas



Observation: Energetic electrons from cathode excite gaseous atoms in the tube, light can be emitted.

Gas is *diluted* so that the emission process is by *individual* atoms. The spectrum of light emitted are sets of unique lines characteristic of the specific type of atoms in the gas.

Emission Line Spectra

https://youtu.be/N_mwHxEugVE

Emission Line Spectra



Atomic Spectra



Continuous vs. Line Spectra

When light emitted by a hot solid (e.g. filament in a light bulb) or liquid, the spectrum (from a diffraction grating or prism) is *continuous*

But light from the spectrum of a gas discharge tube is composed of *sharp lines*. Atoms/molecules in their gaseous state will give a set of unique wavelengths.



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