

2. Atoms and Bohr Model

2.1 Introduction

- Concept of atom $\rightarrow$ John Dalton (1803)
- Electron $\rightarrow$ J.J Thompson (1897)

Proposed that as e^- are negatively charged particles, hence atom must contain the positively charged particles too.
 $\rightarrow$ Hence, he suggested "Plum Pudding Model".

- Verification of Plum Pudding Model :-

Geiger and Marsden carried out Alpha particle scattering experiment under guidance of Rutherford.

$\rightarrow$ α -particle = positively charged particle.
 = actually a Helium Nucleus.

RUTHERFORD SCATTERING EXPERIMENT

So if Plum Pudding Model is really true then most of the α particles would be deflected & hence one could conclude that positively charged particle is distributed all over atom.

But most of the α particle in that famous Gold foil experiment done under Rutherford, went without appreciable deflection.

Hence, Plum Pudding Model failed. Although from the center of the atom of Gold foil, there was great deflection, which concluded that at the center of atom there is positively charged particle - called NUCLEUS.

Observations from Rutherford Nucleus Model.

- Most of the space is metal foil must be empty
- Positively charged matter must be center at/around single point

Hence Rutherford proposed planetary Model.

↓
This model is concentrated in tiny Nucleus. And electrons revolve around the nucleus.

~~But~~

Critical Issues with Rutherford's Model.

- electron in a circle is continuously revolving charged particle. That is, it is in acceleration
- And as per "classical electrodynamics", such accelerated charged particle must radiate out energy. Hence it should spiral and fall into the nucleus, which doesn't happen.

↳ that is because spiralling electron would emit radiation of increasing frequency.

↓
But we all know — atoms don't radiate unless excited.

2.2 Atomic Spectra

All elements in atomic state $\rightarrow$ emit line spectra

From atomic spectroscopy it was found that each atom exhibits definite pattern / series. We call them "Spectral Series".

bright lines separated by dark intervals.
characteristics of atoms.
 $\downarrow$
study of atoms in such a way is termed "Spectroscopy".

In initial days - wavelength of such series was calculated empirically or semi-empirically. One such effort was made by ~~Balt~~ Balmer in 1885.

Rydberg const: $1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right)$$

longest wavelength of Balmer series is 6563 Å.

for transition from n th energy level to energy level 2, of Hydrogen atom.

Later on other series like Balmer Series were identified. Generic formula is:-

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right]; \text{ where } n_2 > n_1$$

Rydberg

Ritz

Formula

for Lyman Series $\equiv n_1 = 1$

" Balmer " $\equiv n_1 = 2$

" Paschen " $\equiv n_1 = 3$

" Brackett " $\equiv n_1 = 4$

" Pfund " $\equiv n_1 = 5$

2.3 Bohr Model of Hydrogen like Atom

In 1913 → Bohr Suggested → Theories of classical electrodynamics doesn't apply at atomic scale.

combined
Rutherford's Nuclear Model and Quantum Idea by Planck and Einstein

↓

Proposed (theory) for Hydrogen like atom.

→ although not entirely true, but still important milestone.

Postulates Proposed :-

- I. electrons can revolve only in certain allowed orbits.
- II. Angular Momentum is quantised (P.V.Q).

$$L = n\hbar$$
- III. Electron make transition from lower to upper or upper to lower orbit. . ~~if~~
 - lower to upper energy level $\Rightarrow$ Extra energy needed by absorbing a photon of energy $h\nu = E_2 - E_1$.
 - higher to lower energy level $\Rightarrow$ Extra energy released by emitting a photon of energy $h\nu = E_2 - E_1$.

Based on above postulates one can find radius of orbit and velocity of electron orbiting:-

Let Z = atomic no. of the atom (i.e nucleus).

So, centripetal force of e^- revolving = Coulomb Force in b/w e^- and Nucleus.

$$\Rightarrow \frac{mv^2}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{(Ze) \cdot (e)}{r^2}$$

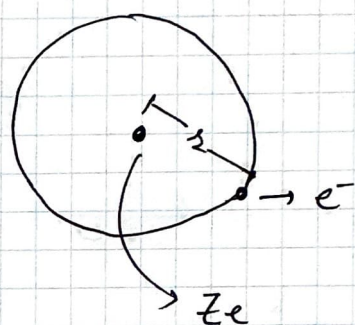
$$\Rightarrow \frac{mv^2}{r} \cdot mr^2 = [RHS] mr^2$$

$$\Rightarrow m^2 v^2 r^2 = [RHS] \cdot mr^2 \cdot r$$

$$\Rightarrow L^2 = \frac{Ze^2 \cdot mr^3}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \cdot r^2}$$

$$\Rightarrow n^2 \hbar^2 = \frac{Ze^2 \cdot mr}{4\pi\epsilon_0}$$

$$\Rightarrow r = r_n = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \cdot n^2 \hbar^2}{Ze^2 \cdot m}$$



and similarly velocity (speed) of e^- in the orbit is -

$$v_n = \frac{Ze^2}{(4\pi\epsilon_0) \hbar n}$$

Radius when $Z=1, n=1$

or in simpler term $\rightarrow a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{me^2}$

$$r_n = (0.529) \frac{n^2}{Z} \text{ \AA}$$

$$v_n = (2.18 \times 10^6) \frac{Z}{n} \text{ m/s.}$$

Remember it!

Now one can find Total Energy $\rightarrow$

$$T.E = \text{Kinetic Energy} + \text{Potential Energy}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}mv^2 + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{Q_1 \cdot Q_2}{r}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2}m \cdot \left[\frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar n} \right]^2 + \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \cdot \frac{(Ze)(-e)}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)n^2\hbar^2/Zem}$$

$$T.E = - \frac{m}{2\hbar^2} \left(\frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{n^2} \right) \quad \left. \vphantom{\frac{m}{2\hbar^2}} \right\} \begin{array}{l} \text{imp.} \\ \text{relation} \\ \text{keep in} \\ \text{mind} \end{array}$$

$$\text{or } T.E = (-13.6) \frac{Z^2}{n^2} \text{ eV.}$$

Summary

- $r_n = \frac{(4\pi\epsilon_0)n^2\hbar^2}{Ze^2m} = 0.529 \frac{n^2}{Z} \text{ \AA}$
- $V_n = \frac{Ze^2}{(4\pi\epsilon_0)\hbar \cdot n} = 2.18 \times 10^6 \frac{Z}{n} \text{ m/s}$
- $E_n = - \frac{m}{2\hbar^2} \left(\frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \frac{1}{n^2}$
 $= -13.6 \frac{Z^2}{n^2} \text{ eV}$

Frequency and wavelength of Radiation in the Transition from $n_2 \rightarrow n_1$

Recalling energy difference relation:-

$$h\nu = E_{n_2} - E_{n_1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nu = \frac{E_{n_2} - E_{n_1}}{h} = \frac{E_{n_2} - E_{n_1}}{2\pi\hbar}$$

$$\Rightarrow \nu = \frac{m}{4\pi\hbar^3} \left(\frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{m}{4\pi\hbar^3} \left(\frac{Ze^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right) \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\infty} Z^2 \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

where $R_{\infty} \rightarrow \frac{m}{4\pi\hbar^3} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^2$

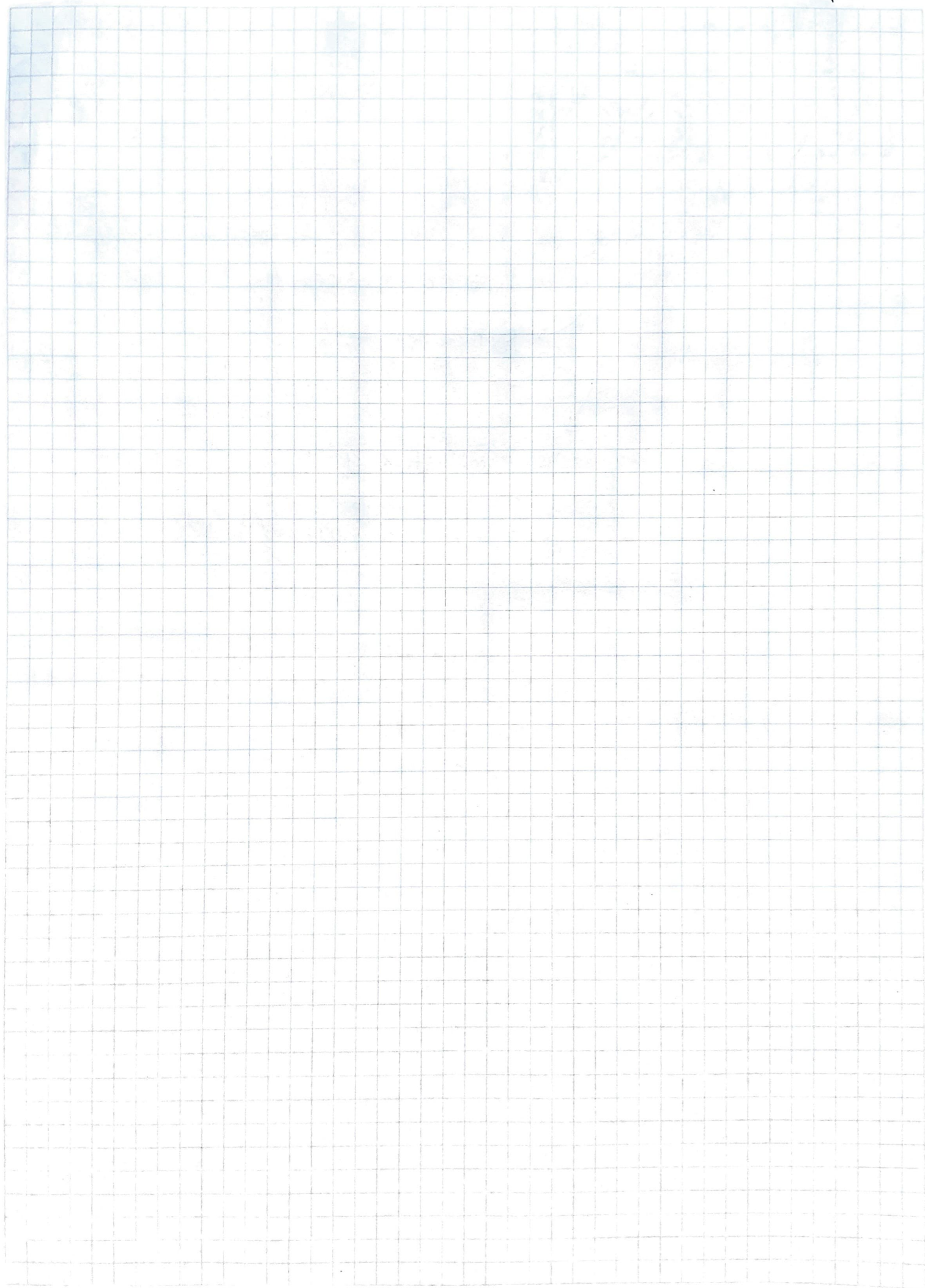
Rydberg constant.

∞ sign hints that infinite nuclear mass has been assumed.

It is combination of fundamental constants and is remarkably close to empirical value $\rightarrow 1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}$

In atomic physics
You will study

"Infinite Nuclear Mass
Correction".



3. WAVE NATURE OF MATTER

3.1 DE BROGLIE HYPOTHESIS

As we studied that radiation has dual nature according to theories/observation of Planck, Einstein and Compton.

de Broglie Hypothesis:

Later on in 1924, Louis de Broglie extended the idea that "Radiation behaves as Matter" to its reverse analogous part "Matter too has wave nature".

We know that energy is :-

$$E^2 = p^2 c^2 + E_0^2$$

Rest Mass Energy (RME)

for photon we could write :-

$$(h\nu)^2 = p^2 c^2 \quad \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{RME is zero} \\ \text{for photon} \end{array} \right\}$$

$$\Rightarrow p = h/\lambda$$

$$\Rightarrow \lambda = \frac{h}{p} \Rightarrow \text{de Broglie wavelength}$$

$$\text{Now as } k = 2\pi/\lambda$$

$$\text{hence } p = \hbar k$$

$$\text{and } E = \hbar \omega$$

Hence.

i.	$\lambda = h/p$	} Basic Relations of Quantum Theory
ii.	$p = \hbar k$	
iii.	$E = \hbar \omega$	

other usefull expression related to de Broglie wavelength

I. $\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mKE}}$ as $KE = \frac{p^2}{2m}$

II. $\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mqV}}$

or $\lambda = \frac{12.3}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$

as $KE = qV$
 charge $\swarrow$
 Accelerating Potential $\searrow$

III. In case of Relativistic energy / speed

$$E^2 = p^2c^2 + m_0^2c^4$$

$$\Rightarrow p^2 = \frac{E^2 - E_0^2}{c^2}$$

and thus $\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{KE(KE + 2m_0c^2)}}$

and

$$\lambda = \frac{12.3}{\sqrt{V(1 + \alpha/2)}} \text{ \AA}$$

where $\alpha = \frac{qV}{E_0}$

3.2 EXPERIMENTAL VERIFICATION OF DE-BROGLIE

HYPOTHESIS

- If you accelerate electron with 100 volts, then by using one can find $\lambda = \frac{12.3}{\sqrt{100}} \text{ \AA} = 1.23 \text{ \AA}$
- So, de Broglie wavelength associated with e^- accelerated by 100 volts is $\sim 1.23 \text{ \AA}$, which is of same order as of interplanar spacing in b/w crystals of atom.
- Hence, matter waves' existence may be demonstrated by using X-ray diffraction by crystals.

Davisson-Germer Experiment is such an experiment. { Similar experiment was also conducted by G.P. Thomson. }

Davisson - Germer Experiment (1927).

Prelude Both were studying $\rightarrow$ Scattering of e^- from a solid

The energy of the electrons in primary beam, the angle at ~~which~~ which they reach the target and position of detector - all could be varied.

Classical Prediction

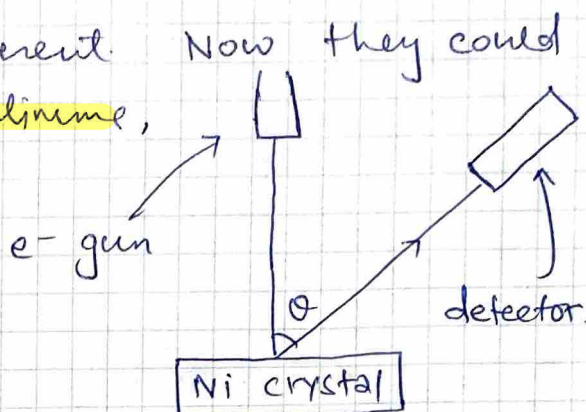
Scattered electrons would emerge in all directions, with only a moderate dependence on — intensity upon scattering angle
— energy of primary electrons.

Scattering

Block of Nickel was used.

Accidentally, air entered the apparatus and to correct they heated the Nickel, in hot oven.

But now results were different. Now they could observe distinct Maxima & Minima, instead of continuous variation.



So why did this happen?

Answer de Broglie hypothesis

suggested that after Nickel was baked to remove the humidity, the ~~crystal~~ plane ~~was~~ atoms actually got crystallized and electrons were diffracted.

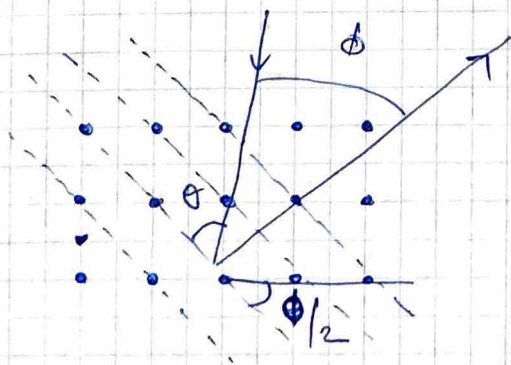
This proved wave nature of electron.

Mathematical description

Remember that increased intensity must have been the result of constructive interference.

Hence, Bragg's condition for the constructive interference is :-

$$n\lambda = 2d\sin\theta \quad ; \quad d \rightarrow \text{spacing b/w alternate bragg's plane}$$



→ for clean image you can see figure 4.4 of Mc Jann

$$\text{Hence, } \theta + \phi + \theta = 180$$

$$\theta = \frac{\pi}{2} - \frac{\phi}{2}$$

and from geometry $d = D \sin \frac{\phi}{2}$
 $\uparrow$
 interatomic spacing

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So, } n\lambda &= 2d \sin \theta \\ &= 2d \sin \left(\pi/2 - \phi/2 \right) \\ &= 2D \sin \frac{\phi}{2} \cdot \cos \frac{\phi}{2} \\ n\lambda &= D \sin \phi \end{aligned}$$

We know that for Nickel ~~$D = 1$~~ $D = 2.15 \text{ \AA}$
 and first order diffraction $n = 1$. Assuming the
 peak for $\phi = 50^\circ$, we get.

$$\lambda = 2.15 \times \sin 50^\circ \text{ \AA}$$

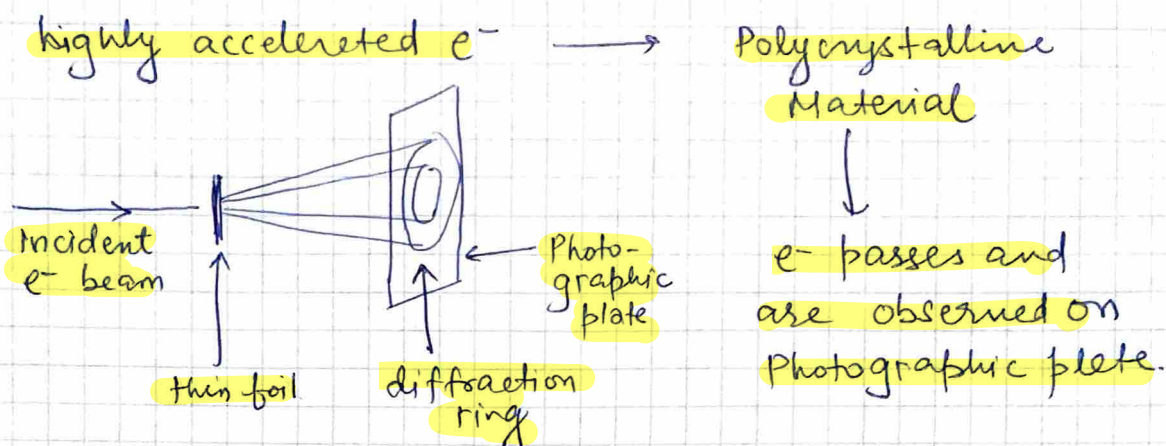
$$\boxed{\lambda = 1.65 \text{ \AA}}$$

Now, according to deBroglie hypothesis,
 we accelerated electrons through a potential difference
 of 54 volt. So, $\lambda = \frac{12.3}{\sqrt{54}} \text{ \AA} \approx 1.66 \text{ \AA}$.

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\lambda = 1.66 \text{ \AA}}$$

We can see that wavelength from both
 process is remarkably close. This leads to
 conclusion that electrons behaved as wave
 with wavelength and went for constructive
 interference and thus intensity
 peaks were formed at angle $\phi = 50^\circ$ with
 incident energy of electron beam to be 54.
 Corresponding to voltage of 54 v.

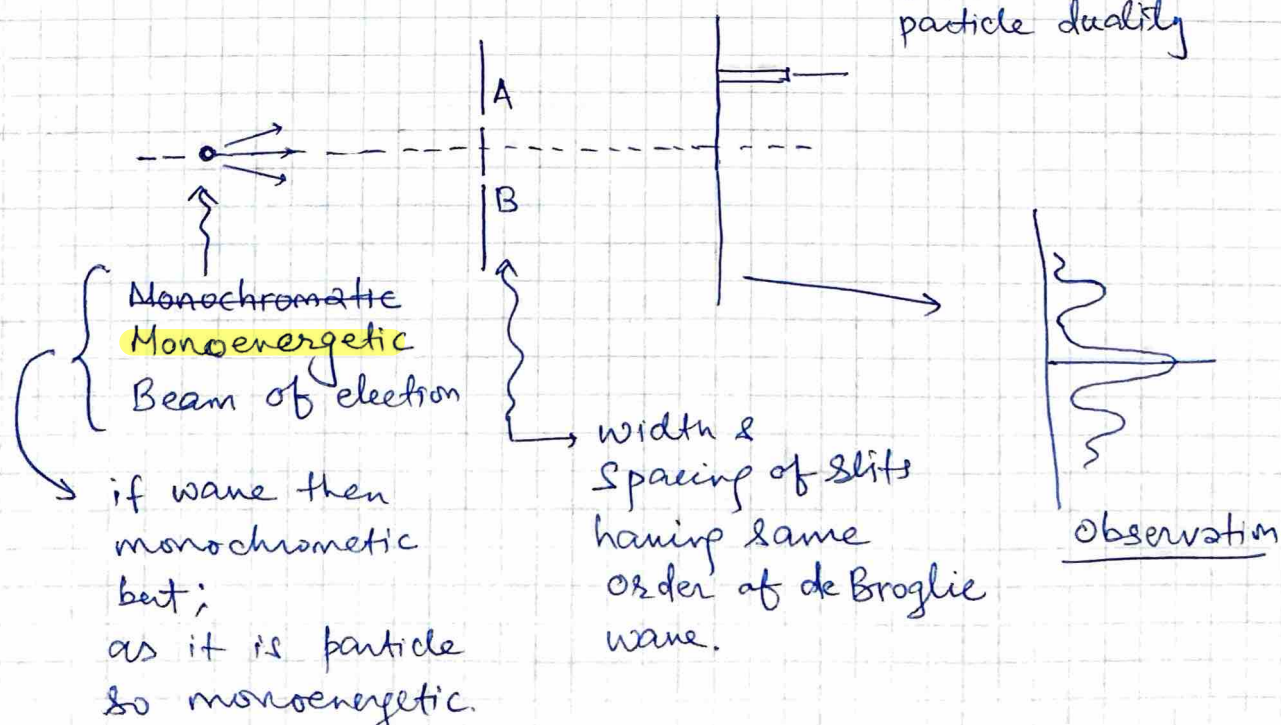
3.3 GP Thomson's Experiment



The observed pattern $\rightarrow$ similar to Debye-Scherrer X-ray
 confirms wave nature of e^-

3.4 Double Pattern Experiment - but with particles this time

Double slit experiment $\rightarrow$ Excellent way to demonstrate WPD
 wave-particle duality



3.4 Need for wave function

The interference pattern with electrons in double slit experiment

↓
tells us that

↓
each particle interferes with itself in some way.

↓
But now → how do we describe a particle interfering with itself and, when they reach on any screen they create interference pattern.

Solution

Solution is derived from classical physics — as we know that waves — are characterised by Amplitude and intensity of such waves is directly proportional to square of amplitude.

thus $I \propto |\psi(x,t)|^2 = \psi^*(x,t) \cdot \psi(x,t)$

we have assumed that each particle has associated wave function, such that absolute square of this function gives intensity.

Suppose we have two waves ψ_1 and ψ_2 moving to superimpose —

$$I_1 = |\psi_1|^2$$

hence, $\psi = \psi_1 + \psi_2$

$$I_2 = |\psi_2|^2$$

and $\psi_1 = |\psi_1| e^{i\alpha_1}$

$$\psi_2 = |\psi_2| e^{i\alpha_2}$$

where ~~the~~ $|\psi_1|$ and $|\psi_2|$ are absolute values and $e^{i\alpha_1}$ and $e^{i\alpha_2}$ are phases. and we already know $|\psi_1| = \psi_1^* \psi_1$

↳ complex conjugate of ψ_1

Thus intensity of combined (or superimposed wave) is $\rightarrow$

$$\begin{aligned} I &= |\psi_1 + \psi_2|^2 \\ &= (\psi_1 + \psi_2)^* (\psi_1 + \psi_2) \\ &= \psi_1^* \psi_1 + \psi_1^* \psi_2 + \psi_2^* \psi_1 + \psi_2^* \psi_2 \\ &= |\psi_1|^2 + |\psi_2|^2 + \psi_1^* \psi_2 + \psi_2^* \psi_1 \\ &= |\psi_1|^2 + |\psi_2|^2 + |\psi_1| |\psi_2| (e^{-i(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)} + e^{i(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)}) \end{aligned}$$

$$\Rightarrow I = |\psi_1|^2 + |\psi_2|^2 + 2\sqrt{I_1} \cdot \sqrt{I_2} \cdot \cos(\alpha_1 - \alpha_2)$$

3.5 Born's Interpretation

wave function was interpreted by Born (Max Born) statistically as wave functions in Q.M. seems abstract.

He postulated :-

1. wave function which describes a particle is actually wave of its probability.

Hence $P(x)dx = |\psi(x,t)|^2 dx$

↳ Probability of finding the particle in element dx at time t .

and $P(x) = |\psi(x,t)|^2$ is Position Probability Density.

2. Also particle must exist somewhere. So

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} |\psi|^2 dx = 1.$$