

PHYS 3313 – Section 001

Lecture #10

Monday, Sept. 30, 2013

Dr. Amir Farbin

- Atomic Model of Thomson
- Rutherford Scattering Experiment and Rutherford Atomic Model
- The Classic Atomic Model
- The Bohr Model of the Hydrogen Atom
- Bohr Radius



Announcements

- Reminder of Homework #2
 - CH3 end of the chapter problems: 2, 19, 27, 36, 41, 47 and 57
 - Due Wednesday, Oct. 2
- Mid-term exam
 - In class on Wednesday, Oct. 16
 - Covers from CH1.1 through what we finish on Oct. 9 + appendices
 - Mid-term exam constitutes 20% of the total
 - **Please do NOT miss the exam! You will get an F if you miss it.**
 - Bring your own HANDWRITTEN formula sheet – one letter size sheet, front and back
 - No solutions for any problems
 - No derivations of any kind
 - Can have values of constants



Remind: Special Project #3

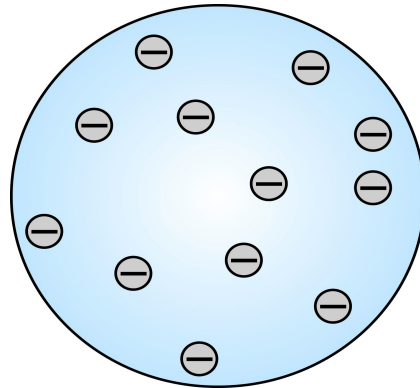
- A total of N_i incident projectile particle of atomic number Z_1 kinetic energy KE scatter on a target of thickness t and atomic number Z_2 and has n atoms per volume. What is the total number of scattered projectile particles at an angle θ ? (20 points)
- Please be sure to clearly define all the variables used in your derivation! Points will be deducted for missing variable definitions.
- This derivation must be done on your own. Please do not copy the book, internet or your friends'.
- Due is Wednesday, Oct. 9.



Thomson's Atomic Model

■ Thomson's "plum-pudding" model

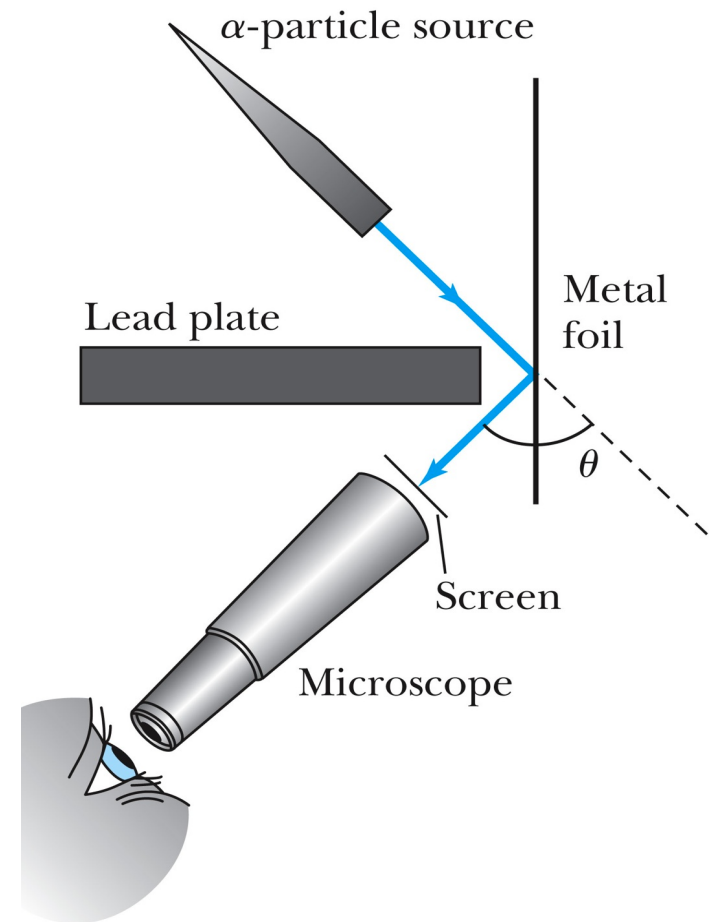
- Atoms are electrically neutral and have electrons in them
- Atoms must have an equal amount of positive charges in it to balance electron negative charges
- So how about positive charges spread uniformly throughout a sphere the size of the atom with, the newly discovered "negative" electrons embedded in a uniform background.



- Thomson thought when the atom was heated the electrons could vibrate about their equilibrium positions and thus produce electromagnetic radiation.

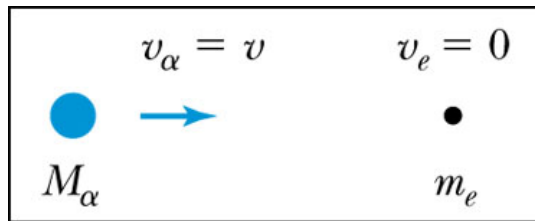
Experiments of Geiger and Marsden

- Rutherford, Geiger, and Marsden conceived a new technique for investigating the structure of matter by scattering a particles from atoms.
- Geiger showed that many a particles were scattered from thin gold-leaf targets at backward angles greater than 90° .

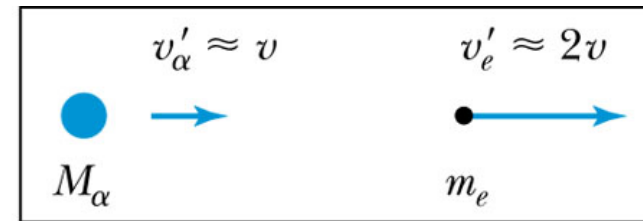


Ex 4.1: Maximum Scattering Angle

Geiger and Marsden (1909) observed backward-scattered ($\theta \geq 90^\circ$) α particles when a beam of energetic α particles was directed at a piece of gold foil as thin as $6.0 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$. Assuming an α particle scatters from an electron in the foil, what is the maximum scattering angle?



Before



After

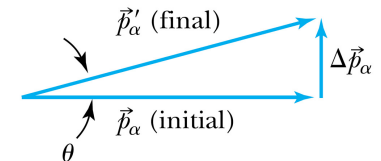
- The maximum scattering angle corresponds to the maximum momentum change
- Using the momentum conservation and the KE conservation for an elastic collision, the maximum momentum change of the α particle is

$$M_\alpha \vec{v}_\alpha = M_\alpha \vec{v}'_\alpha + m_e \vec{v}'_e$$

$$\frac{1}{2} M_\alpha v_\alpha^2 = \frac{1}{2} M_\alpha v'^2_\alpha + \frac{1}{2} m_e v'^2_e$$

$$\Rightarrow \Delta \vec{p}_\alpha = M_\alpha \vec{v}_\alpha - M_\alpha \vec{v}'_\alpha = m_e \vec{v}'_e \Rightarrow \Delta p_{\alpha-\max} = 2m_e v_\alpha$$

- Determine θ by letting $\Delta p_{\max}$ be perpendicular to the direction of motion.



$$\theta_{\max} = \frac{\Delta p_{\alpha-\max}}{p_\alpha} = \frac{2m_e v_\alpha}{m_\alpha v_\alpha} = \frac{2m_e}{m_\alpha} = 2.7 \times 10^{-4} \text{ rad} = 0.016^\circ$$

Multiple Scattering from Electrons

- If an α particle were scattered by many electrons and N electrons results in $\langle \theta \rangle_{\text{total}} \sim \sqrt{N\theta}$
- The number of atoms across the thin gold layer of 6×10^{-7} m:

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{N_{\text{Molecules}}}{\text{cm}^3} &= N_{\text{Avogadro}} (\text{molecules/mol}) \times \left[\frac{1}{\text{g-molecular-weight}} \left(\frac{\text{mol}}{\text{g}} \right) \right] \cdot \left[\rho \left(\frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3} \right) \right] \\ &= 6.02 \times 10^{23} \left(\frac{\text{molecules}}{\text{mol}} \right) \cdot \left(\frac{1 \text{ mol}}{197 \text{ g}} \right) \cdot \left(19.3 \frac{\text{g}}{\text{cm}^3} \right) \\ &= 5.9 \times 10^{22} \frac{\text{molecules}}{\text{cm}^3} = 5.9 \times 10^{28} \frac{\text{atoms}}{\text{m}^3} \end{aligned}$$

- Assume the distance between atoms is $d = (5.9 \times 10^{28})^{-1/3} = 2.6 \times 10^{-10} \text{ (m)}$ and there are $N = \frac{6 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}}{2.6 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}} = 2300 (\text{atoms})$

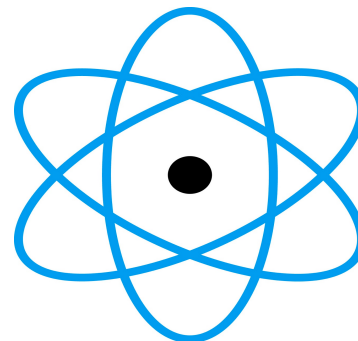
That gives $\langle \theta \rangle_{\text{total}} = \sqrt{2300} (0.016^\circ) = 0.8^\circ$

Rutherford's Atomic Model

- $\langle\theta\rangle_{\text{total}} \sim 6.8^\circ$ even if the α particle scattered from all 79 electrons in each atom of gold



- The experimental results were inconsistent with Thomson's atomic model.
- Rutherford proposed that an atom has a positively charged core (nucleus) surrounded by the negative electrons.



Assumptions of Rutherford Scattering

1. The scatterer is so massive that it does not recoil significantly; therefore the initial and final KE of the α particle are practically equal.
2. The target is so thin that only a single scattering occurs.
3. The bombarding particle and target scatterer are so small that they may be treated as point masses and charges.
4. Only the Coulomb force is effective.



Rutherford Scattering

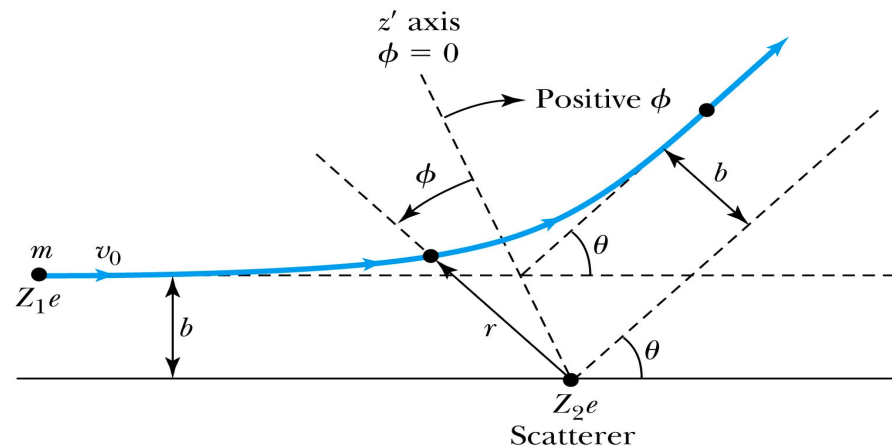
- Scattering experiments help us study matter too small to be observed directly by measuring the angular distributions of the scattered particles
 - What is the force acting in this scattering?
- There is a relationship between the impact parameter b and the scattering angle θ .

When b is small,

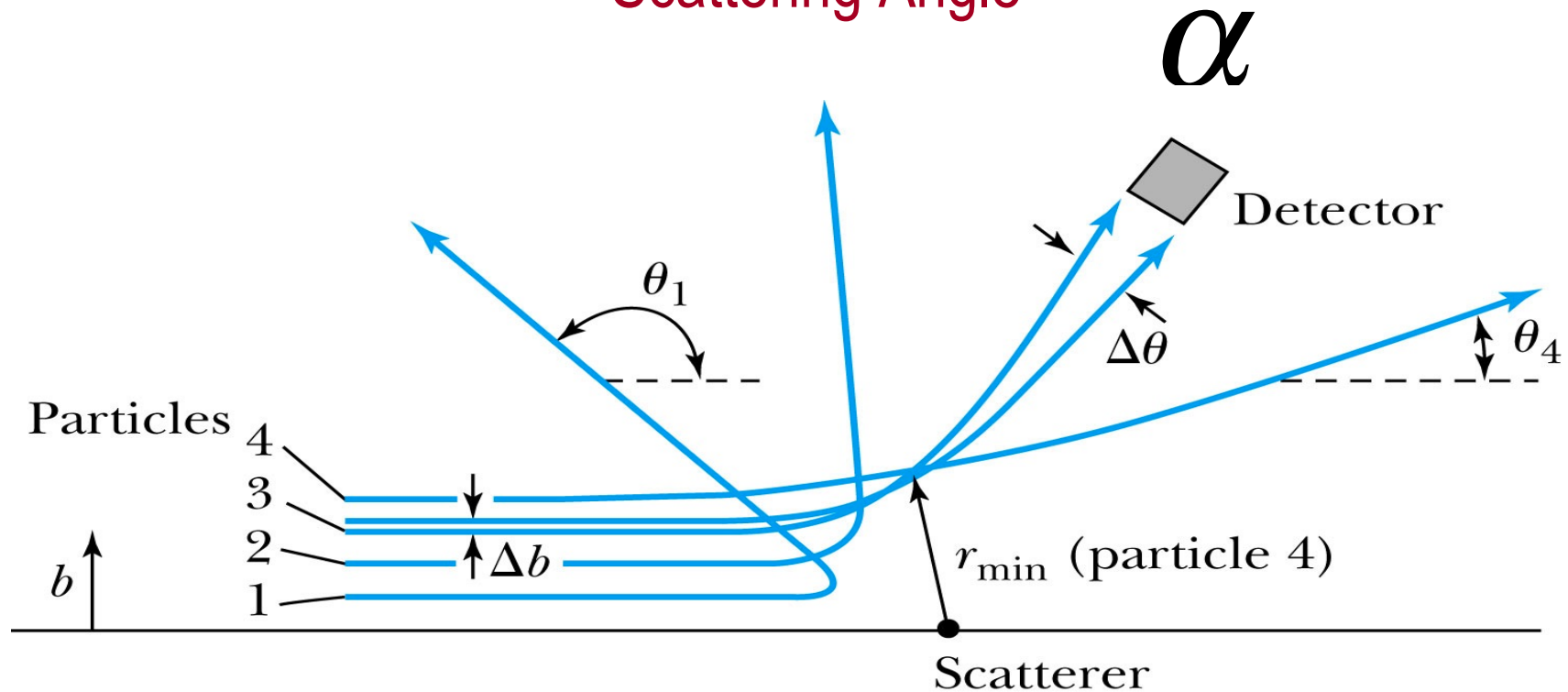
r gets small.

Coulomb force gets large.

θ can be large and the particle can be repelled backward.



The Relationship Between the Impact Parameter b and the Scattering Angle



The relationship between the impact parameter b and scattering angle $\Delta\theta$. Particles with small impact parameters approach the nucleus most closely ($r_{\min}$) and scatter to the largest angles. Particles within a certain range of impact parameters b will be scattered within $\Delta\theta$.

Rutherford Scattering

- What are the quantities that can affect the scattering?

- What was the force again?

- The Coulomb force

$$\vec{F} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{r^2} \hat{r}_e$$

- The charge of the incoming particle ($Z_1 e$)
- The charge of the target particle ($Z_2 e$)
- The minimum distance the projectile approaches the target (r)

- Using the fact that this is a totally elastic scattering under a central force, we know that

- Linear momentum is conserved $\vec{p}_i^\alpha = \vec{p}_f^\alpha + \vec{p}^N$

- KE is conserved $\frac{1}{2} m v_{\alpha i}^2 = \frac{1}{2} m v_{\alpha f}^2 + \frac{1}{2} m v_n^2$

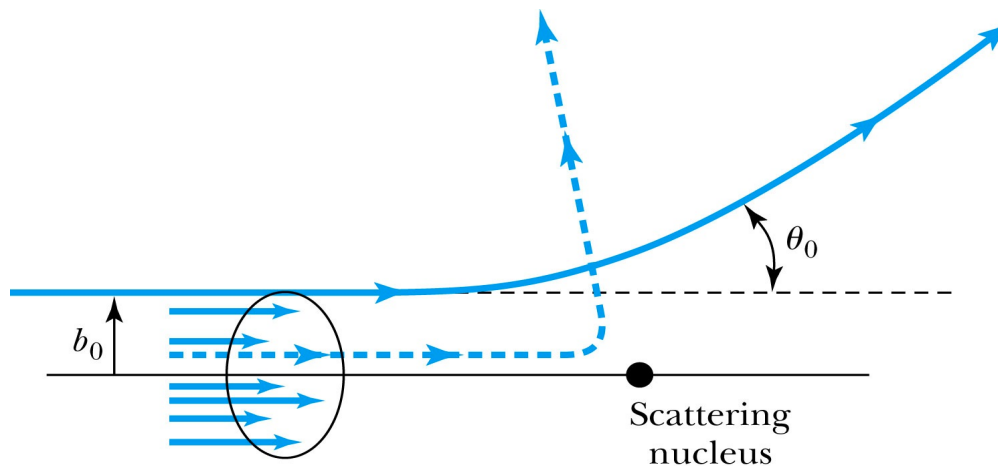
- Angular momentum is conserved $m r^2 \varpi = m v_{\alpha i} b$

- From this, impact parameter $b = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 m v_{\alpha i}^2} \cot \frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 K E_i} \cot \frac{\theta}{2}$



Rutherford Scattering - probability

- Any particle inside the circle of area πb_0^2 will be similarly scattered.



- The **cross section** $\sigma = \pi b^2$ is related to the **probability** for a particle being scattered by a nucleus.

$$nt\pi b^2 = \pi nt \left(\frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 KE_i} \cot \frac{\theta}{2} \right)^2$$

t: target thickness
n: atomic number density

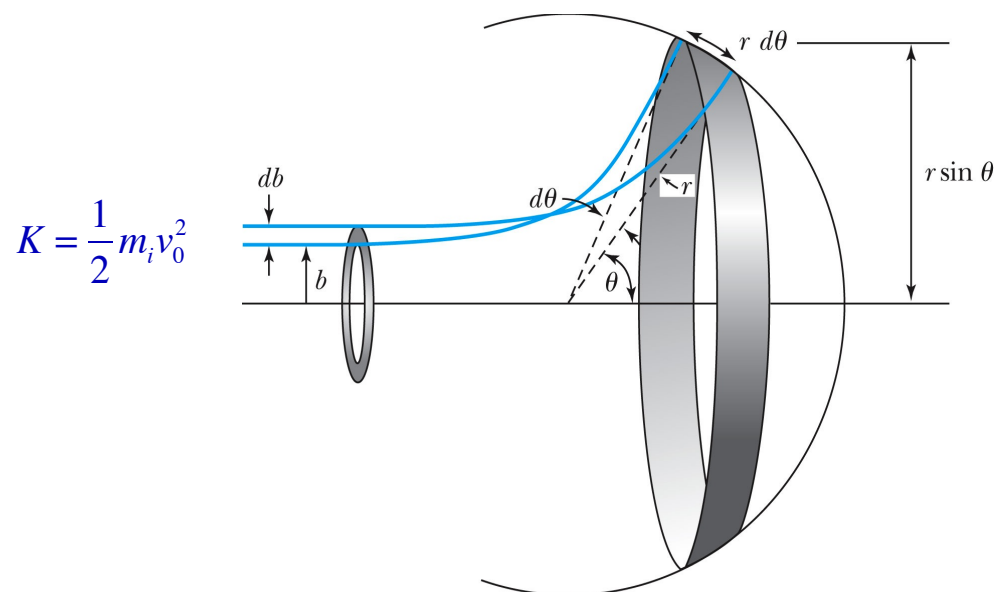
- The fraction of the incident particles scattered is

$$f = \frac{\text{target area exposed by scatterers}}{\text{total target area}}$$

- The number of scattering nuclei per unit area $nt = \frac{\rho N_A N_M t}{M_g} \cdot \frac{\text{atoms}}{\text{cm}^2}$

Rutherford Scattering Equation

- In an actual experiment, a detector is positioned from θ to $\theta + d\theta$ that corresponds to incident particles between b and $b + db$.



- The number of particles scattered into the the angular coverage per unit area is

$$N(\theta) = \frac{N_i n t}{16} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \right)^2 \frac{Z_1^2 Z_2^2}{r^2 K^2 \sin^4(\theta/2)}$$

The Important Points

1. The scattering is proportional to the square of the atomic numbers of *both* the incident particle (Z_1) and the target scatterer (Z_2).
2. The number of scattered particles is inversely proportional to the square of the kinetic energy of the incident particle.
3. For the scattering angle θ , the scattering is proportional to 4th power of $\sin(\theta/2)$.
4. The Scattering is proportional to the target thickness for thin targets.

The Classical Atomic Model

As suggested by the Rutherford Model an atom consisted of a small, massive, positively charged nucleus surrounded by moving electrons. This then suggested consideration of a planetary model of the atom.

Let's consider atoms as a planetary model.

- The force of attraction on the electron by the nucleus and Newton's 2nd law give

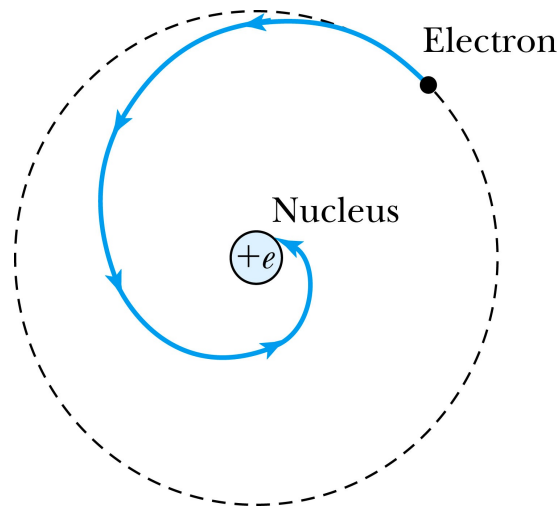
$$\vec{F}_e = -\frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r^2} \hat{e}_r = \frac{mv^2}{r} \hat{e}_r$$

where v is the tangential speed of an electron.

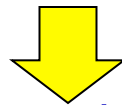
- The total energy is $E = K + V = \frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} = -\frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r}$

The Planetary Model is Doomed

- From classical E&M theory, an accelerated electric charge radiates energy (electromagnetic radiation) which means total energy must decrease. → *Radius r must decrease!!*



Electron crashes into the nucleus!?



- Physics had reached a turning point in 1900 with Planck's hypothesis of the quantum behavior of radiation.

The Bohr Model of the Hydrogen Atom – The assumptions

- “Stationary” states or orbits must exist in atoms, i.e., orbiting electrons *do not radiate* energy in these orbits. These orbits or stationary states are of a fixed definite energy E .
- The emission or absorption of electromagnetic radiation can occur only in conjunction with a transition between two stationary states. The frequency, f , of this radiation is proportional to the *difference* in energy of the two stationary states:
$$E = E_1 - E_2 = hf$$
- *where h is Planck’s Constant*
 - *Bohr thought this has to do with fundamental length of order $\sim 10^{-10}m$*
- Classical laws of physics do not apply to transitions between stationary states.
- The mean kinetic energy of the electron-nucleus system is quantized as $K = nhf_{\text{orb}}/2$, where f_{orb} is the frequency of rotation. This is equivalent to the angular momentum of a stationary state to be an integral multiple of $h/2\pi$



How did Bohr Arrived at the angular momentum quantization?

- The mean kinetic energy of the electron-nucleus system is quantized as $K = nhf_{\text{orb}}/2$, where f_{orb} is the frequency of rotation. This is equivalent to the angular momentum of a stationary state to be an integral multiple of $h/2\pi$.
- Kinetic energy can be written $K = \frac{nhf}{2} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$
- Angular momentum is defined as $|\vec{L}| = |\vec{r} \times \vec{p}| = mvr$
- The relationship between linear and angular quantifies $v = r\omega$; $\omega = 2\pi f$
- Thus, we can rewrite $K = \frac{1}{2}mvr\omega = \frac{1}{2}L\omega = \frac{1}{2}2\pi Lf = \frac{nhf}{2}$

$$2\pi L = nh \Rightarrow L = n \frac{h}{2\pi} = n\hbar, \text{ where } \hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$$

Bohr's Quantized Radius of Hydrogen

- The angular momentum is $|\vec{L}| = |\vec{r} \times \vec{p}| = mvr = n\hbar$

- So the speed of an orbiting e can be written $v_e = \frac{n\hbar}{m_e r}$
- From the Newton's law for a circular motion

$$F_e = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{e^2}{r^2} = \frac{m_e v_e^2}{r} \Rightarrow v_e = \frac{e}{\sqrt{4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e r}}$$

- So from above two equations, we can get

$$v_e = \frac{n\hbar}{m_e r} = \frac{e}{\sqrt{4\pi\epsilon_0 m_e r}} \Rightarrow r = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 n^2 \hbar^2}{m_e e^2}$$



Bohr Radius

- The radius of the hydrogen atom for stationary states is

$$r_n = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 n^2 \hbar^2}{m_e e^2} = a_0 n^2$$

Where the **Bohr radius** for a given stationary state is:

$$a_0 = \frac{4\pi\epsilon_0 \hbar^2}{m_e e^2} = \frac{(8.99 \times 10^9 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^2 / \text{C}^2) \cdot (1.055 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s})^2}{(9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}) \cdot (1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})^2} = 0.53 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$$

- The smallest diameter of the hydrogen atom is

$$d = 2r_1 = 2a_0 \approx 10^{-10} \text{ m} \approx 1 \text{ \AA}$$

– OMG!! The fundamental length!!

- $n = 1$ gives its lowest energy state (called the “ground” state)



The Hydrogen Atom

- The energies of the stationary states

$$E_n = -\frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r_n} = -\frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 a_0 n^2} = -\frac{E_0}{n^2} \quad E_0 = \frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 a_0} = \frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C})^2}{8\pi(8.99 \times 10^9 \text{ N} \cdot \text{m}^2/\text{C}^2) \cdot (0.53 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m})} = 13.6 \text{ eV}$$

where E_0 is the ground state energy

n	E (eV)
∞	0.00
4	-0.85
3	-1.51
2	-3.40

n_u (at $n=3$)
 n_l (at $n=2$)

- Emission of light occurs when the atom is in an excited state and decays to a lower energy state ($n_u \rightarrow n_l$).

$$hf = E_u - E_l$$

↑
Energy

where f is the frequency of a photon.

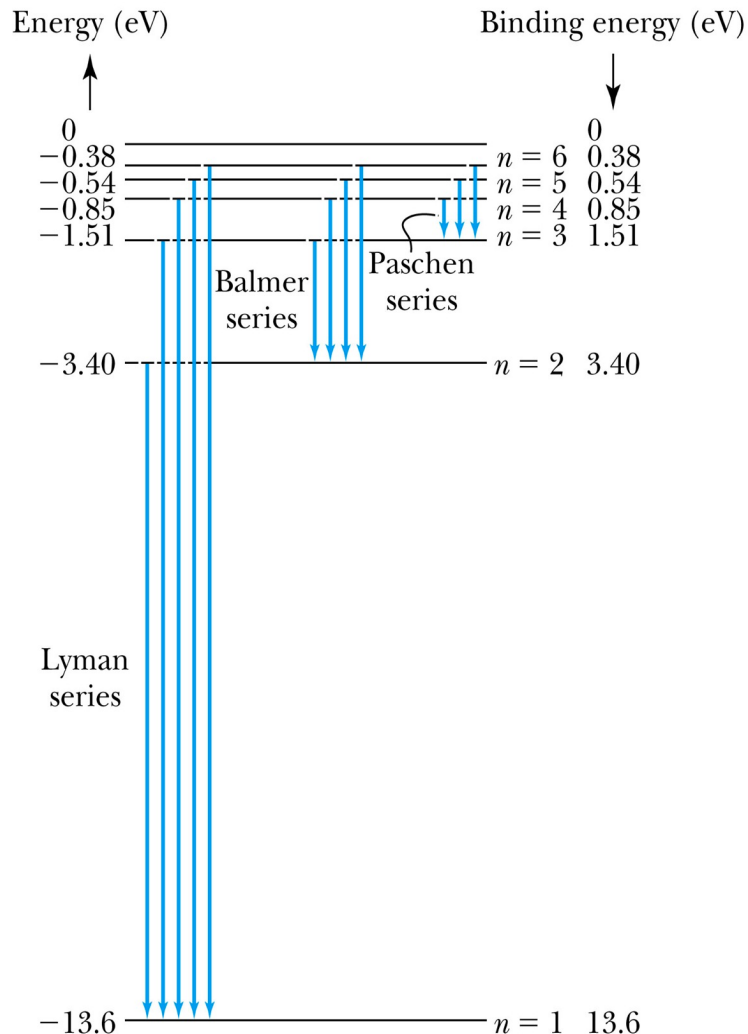
$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{f}{c} = \frac{E_u - E_l}{hc} = \frac{E_0}{hc} \left(\frac{1}{n_l^2} - \frac{1}{n_u^2} \right) = R_\infty \left(\frac{1}{n_l^2} - \frac{1}{n_u^2} \right)$$

1 ————— -13.6

R_∞ is the **Rydberg constant**. $R_\infty = E_0/hc$



Transitions in the Hydrogen Atom



- **Lyman series:** The atom will remain in the excited state for a short time before emitting a photon and returning to a lower stationary state. All hydrogen atoms exist in $n = 1$ (invisible).
- **Balmer series:** When sunlight passes through the atmosphere, hydrogen atoms in water vapor absorb the wavelengths (visible).