PHYS 3313 – Section 001
Lecture #13

Wednesday, March 1, 2017
Dr. Jaehoon Yu

- Rutherford Scattering Experiment and Rutherford Atomic Model
- The Classic Atomic Model
- Bohr Radius
- Bohr's Hydrogen Model and Its Limitations
- Characteristic X-ray Spectra

Announcements

- Midterm Exam
  - In class Wednesday, March. 8
  - Covers from CH1.1 through what we learn March 6 plus the math refresher in the appendices
  - **Please do NOT miss the exam! You will get an F if you miss it.**
  - BYOF: You may bring a one 8.5x11.5 sheet (front and back) of handwritten formulae and values of constants for the exam
    - No derivations, word definitions or solutions of any problems!
    - No additional formulae or values of constants will be provided!
- Homework #3
  - End of chapter problems on CH4: 5, 14, 17, 21, 23 and 45
  - Due: Monday, March 6
- Colloquium today
  - Dr. Peter Brown from TAM
  - Quadruple extra credit colloquium: Wed. April 19, Dr. Nigel Lockyer, the Fermilab Director!

Physics Department
The University of Texas at Arlington
COLLOQUIUM

Calibrating Exploding Stars to Measure the Universe

–

Peter Brown
Texas A&M University

Wednesday March 1, 2017
4:00 Room 103 Science Hall

Abstract

Type Ia supernovae are one kind of "standard candle" used to measure distances and the expansion rate of the universe. With the hundreds or thousands of supernovae used in current analyses, the systematic errors now dominate over the statistical errors. Many of these systematics are poorly understood but are expected to have strong signatures at ultraviolet wavelengths. I am using the Swift Gamma-Ray Burst Explorer and Hubble Space Telescope to observe supernovae in the ultraviolet. I will show constraints on progenitor systems and extinction derived from Swift ultraviolet observations. I will also discuss the effects expected from metallicity, asymmetry, and explosion differences, and how ultraviolet observations can improve the use of type Ia supernovae as cosmological probes

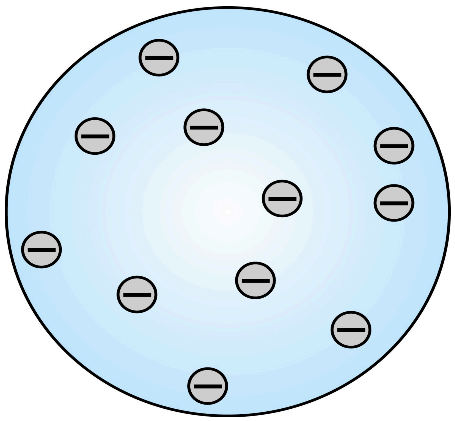
Refreshments will be served at 3:30 p.m. in the Physics Library

The Atomic Models of Thomson and Rutherford

- Without seeing it, 19th century scientists believed atoms have structure.
- Pieces of evidence that scientists had in 1900 to indicate that the atom was not a fundamental unit
- There are simply too many kinds of atoms (~70 known at that time), belonging to a distinct chemical element
  - Too many to be fundamental!!
- Atoms and electromagnetic phenomena seem to be intimately related
- The issue of **valence** ➔ Why certain elements combine with some elements but not with others?
  - Is there a characteristic internal atomic structure?
- The discoveries of radioactivity, X rays, and the electron

Thomson's Atomic Model

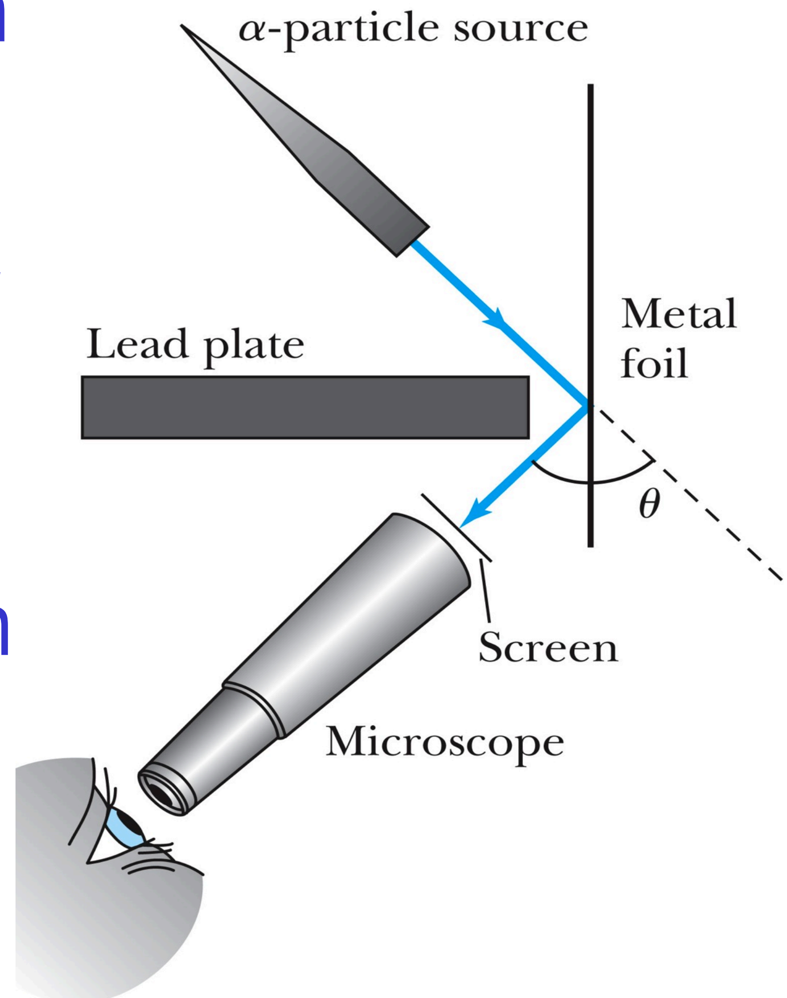
- Thomson's "plum-pudding" model
  - Atoms are electrically neutral and have electrons in them
  - Atoms must have an equal amount of positive charges in it to balance electron negative charges
  - So how about positive charges spread uniformly throughout a sphere the size of the atom with the newly 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.

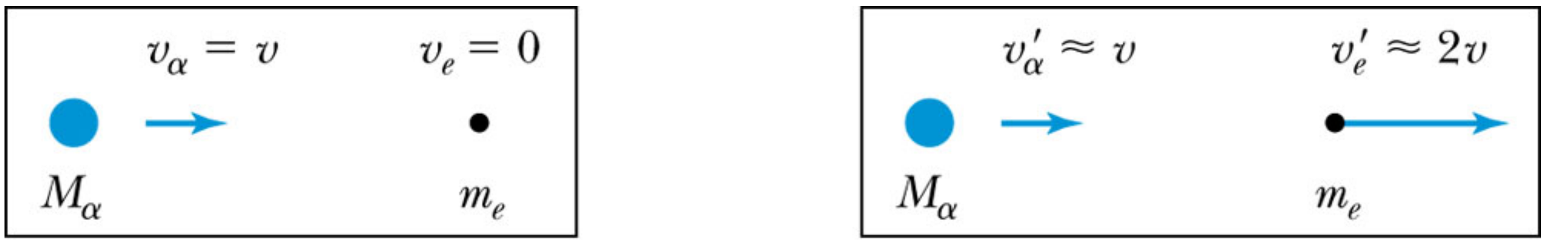
Experiments of Geiger and Marsden

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



Ex 4.1: Maximum Scattering Angle

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



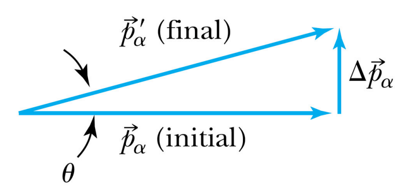
Before After

- 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 in a head-on collision

$$M_\alpha \vec{v}_\alpha = M_\alpha \vec{v}_\alpha^{\,\prime} + m_e \vec{v}_e^{\,\prime}$$
$$\frac{1}{2}M_\alpha v_\alpha^2 = \frac{1}{2}M_\alpha v_\alpha^{\prime 2} + \frac{1}{2}m_2 v_e^2$$

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

- Determine θ by letting Δp_{max} be perpendicular to the direction of motion.



$$\theta_{\max} = \frac{\Delta p_{\alpha-\max}}{p_\alpha} = \frac{2m_e v_\alpha}{m_\alpha v_\alpha} = \frac{2m_e}{m_\alpha} = 2.7\times10^{-4}\,rad = 0.016^\circ$$

Multiple Scattering from Electrons

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

$$\frac{N_{Molecules}}{cm^3} = N_{Avogadro}(molecules/mol) \times \left[\frac{1}{g - molecular - weight}\left(\frac{mol}{g}\right)\right] \cdot \left[\rho\left(\frac{g}{cm^3}\right)\right]$$

$$= 6.02 \times 10^{23}\left(\frac{molecules}{mol}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1mol}{197g}\right) \cdot \left(19.3\frac{g}{cm^3}\right)$$

$$= 5.9 \times 10^{22}\frac{molecules}{cm^3} = 5.9 \times 10^{28}\frac{atoms}{m^3}$$

- Assume the distance between atoms is $d = \left(5.9 \times 10^{28}\right)^{-1/3} = 2.6 \times 10^{-10}(m)$

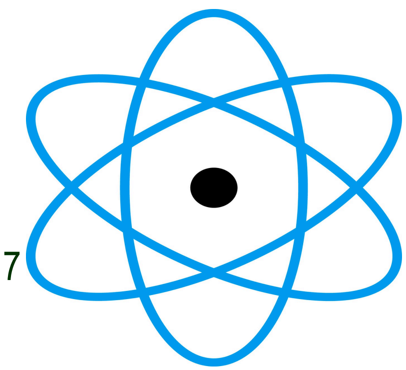
  and there are $N = \dfrac{6 \times 10^{-7}m}{2.6 \times 10^{-10}m} = 2300(atoms)$

  This gives $\langle\theta\rangle_{total} = \sqrt{2300}\left(0.016^\circ\right) = 0.8^\circ$

Rutherford's Atomic Model

- $\langle\theta\rangle_{total} \sim 0.8*79=6.8^{o}$ 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 negatively charged electrons.

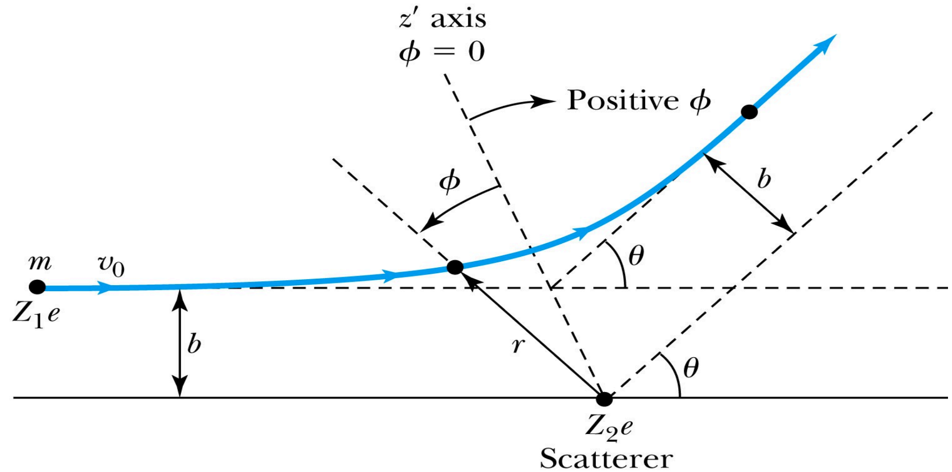


Assumptions of Rutherford Scattering

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 with electrical charges.
4. Only the Coulomb force is effective.

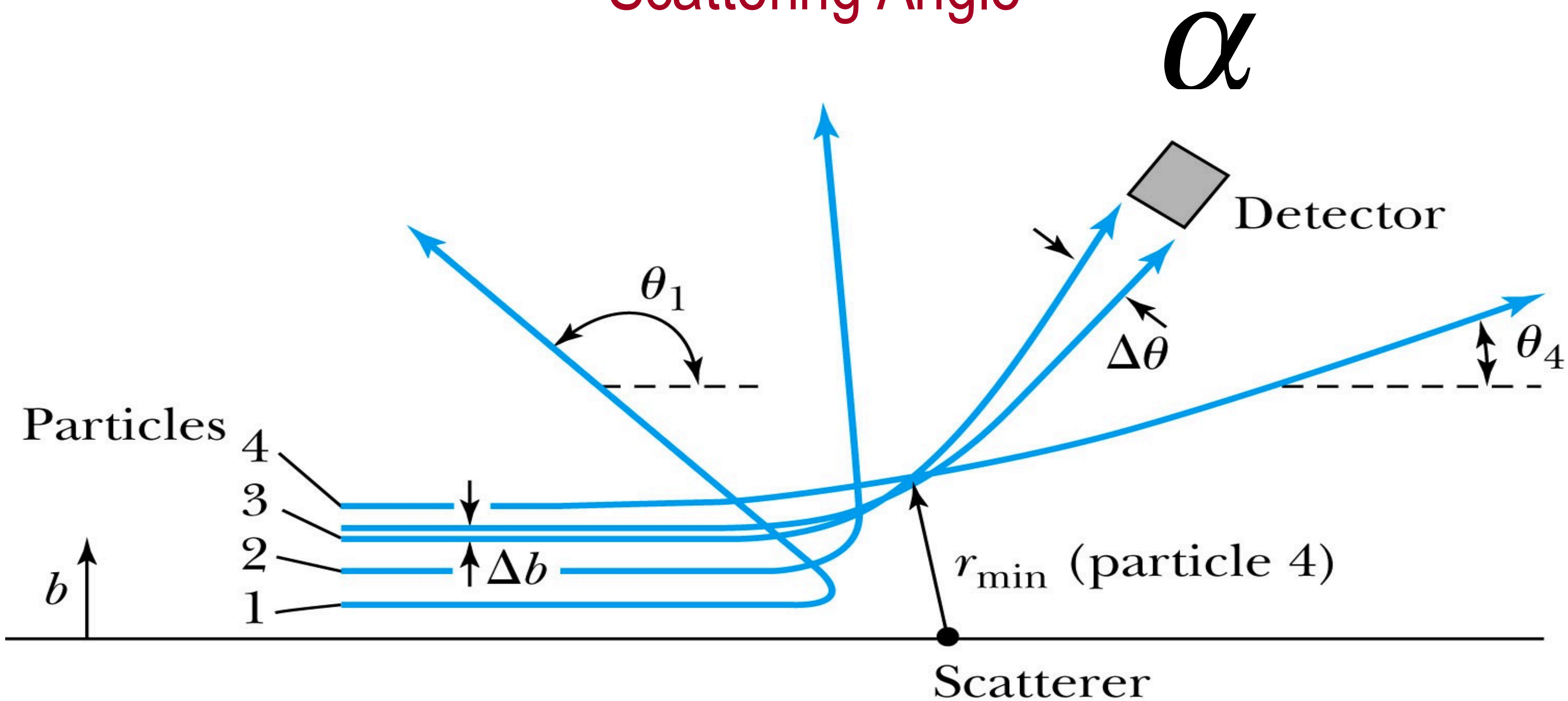
Rutherford Scattering

- 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



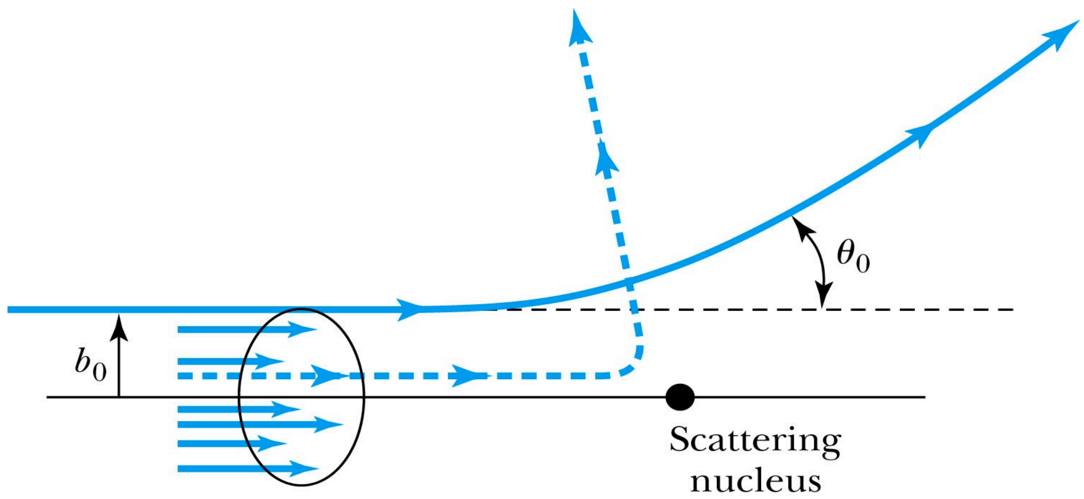
The relationship between the impact parameter b and scattering angle θ: Particles with small impact parameters approach the nucleus most closely (r_{min}) and scatter to the largest angles. Particles within a certain range of impact parameters b will be scattered within the window Δθ.

Rutherford Scattering

- What are the quantities that can affect the scattering?
  - What was the force again?
    - The Coulomb force $$\vec{F} = \frac{1}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{r^2}\hat{r}_e$$
  - The charge of the incoming particle (Z_1e)
  - The charge of the target particle (Z_2e)
  - 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 $\frac{1}{2}mv_{\alpha i}^2 = \frac{1}{2}mv_{\alpha f}^2 + \frac{1}{2}mv_n^2$
  - Angular momentum is conserved $mr^2\varpi = mv_{\alpha i}b$
- From this, impact parameter $b = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0 m v_{\alpha i}^2}\cot\frac{\theta}{2} = \frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{8\pi\varepsilon_0 KE_i}\cot\frac{\theta}{2}$

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.

$$nt\pi b^2 = \pi nt \left(\frac{Z_1 Z_2 e^2}{8\pi\varepsilon_0 KE_i} \cot\frac{\theta}{2} \right)^2$$

t: target thickness
n: atomic number density

- The fraction of the incident particles scattered is

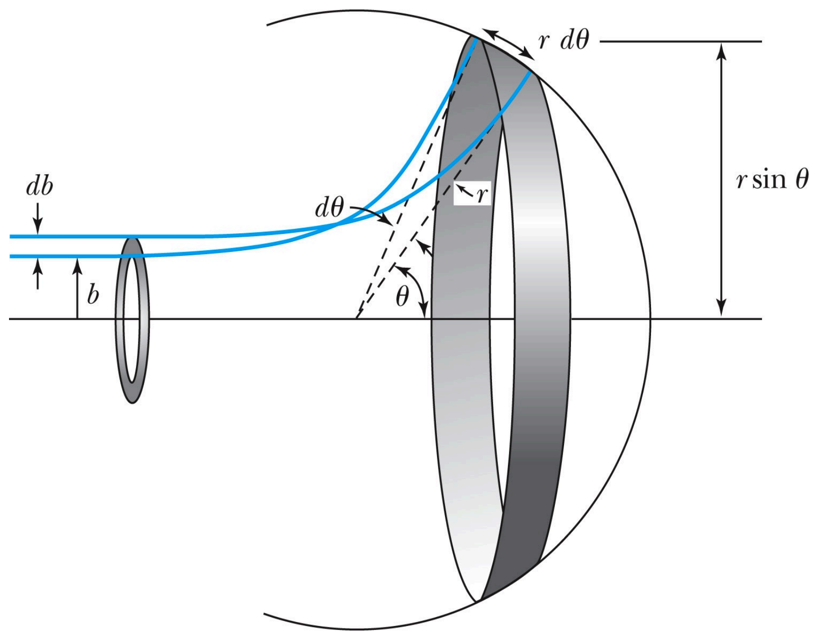
$$f = \frac{\text{target area exposed by scatterers}}{\text{total target area}}$$

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

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 $b + db$.

$$K = \frac{1}{2} m_i v_0^2$$



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

$$N(\theta) = \frac{N_i n t}{16} \left(\frac{e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \right)^2 \frac{Z_1^2 Z_2^2}{r^2 K^2 \sin^4(\theta/2)}$$

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 a 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.