Modern Physics

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- 2 Essentials of Thermodynamics
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Wave-particle dualism

- Planck's radiation law
- Photoelectric effect
- Laser
- Compton effect
- Pair production
- Matter waves
- Uncertainty relations





The development of quantum physics begins with the study of thermal radiation.

The most natural way to experience heat radiation is around a campfire - especially in spring or autumn when it's really cold.

The side facing the fire begins to glow, while the back side becomes uncomfortably cold.

It is not the air that makes the front glow, but the thermal radiation.

The warm air flows into the sky, the cold air flows to the fire and ensures the air cooling of the back.





All bodies emit electromagnetic radiation.

The radiation spectrum depends on the nature of the surface and its temperature.

That the emitted radiation depends on the surface is obvious if one thinks of the extreme case of a Faraday cage.

An ideal metal cage effectively shields all electromagnetic radiation.

It is therefore obvious that an ideal metallic surface cannot emit radiation.

The figure shows a glowing tungsten wire.





This figure shows the sun.

We notice the different color of the light emitted by the sun and the glowing tungsten wire.



(Lesliescube.mp4)

Comment 1

Thermal radiation 4

This figure shows the Leslie cube.

The video shows the experiment.

Leslie's cube is used to demonstrate the interplay between temperature and surface.

The cube is filled with boiling water.

The heat radiation at this temperature is not visible to the human eye.

Therefore the radiation is measured with a photodiode.

The current of the photodiode is converted into a temperature.



The photodiode shows a different temperature for each of the four sides of the cube.

This result of the measurement is strange because a metallic cube is filled with boiling water.

The display of the device obviously does not show the temperature of the different surfaces, but that the received radiated power is very different for the different surfaces.

The device receives the lowest radiation power from the unpainted metallic surface.

A "black body" is a source that emits electromagnetic radiation in thermal equilibrium with the surrounding matter. There is no obstacle to prevent the radiation from exiting or entering the source



A "black body" is defined to avoid the difficulties caused by the properties of surfaces

Comment 1

In order to avoid the problems caused by the surface of a body, an ideal source of thermal radiation is defined.

This ideal source of thermal radiation is called a "black body" and the thermal radiation from such an ideal source is called black body radiation.

Electromagnetic radiation can freely penetrate the surface of a black body.

All radiation that falls on the body can enter and all radiation can leave the body unhindered.

The figure shows how a black body can be realized experimentally.

It simply consists of a cavity with a hole through which radiation can enter and exit.

It does not prevent light from passing through the hole in either direction.

Comment 2

If you look through a small entrance hole into a deep cave, it is absolutely black because the temperature of the cave is around room temperature.

This thermal radiation is completely invisible to the human eye and the hole appears completely black.

On the other hand, the sun is a very good approximation of a black body, although the sun is perfectly bright to the human eye, since the eye is sensitive to the thermal radiation of the sun.

All radiation emitted by the sun can leave the sun more or less unhindered and all incident radiation is absorbed.

Hence, it may be a bit misleading to refer to an ideal source of thermal radiation as a "black body". Even so, the phrase is well established.

Solar Radiation Spectrum



Irradiance is the energy of sunlight



The figure shows the solar radiation spectrum.

The maximum of the spectrum covers the spectral range visible to the human eye.

The black line shows the ideal blackbody spectrum.

The only parameter that is necessary to adapt the calculated spectrum to the measurement is the temperature of 5250 °C.

The ideal spectrum of a black body is distorted by the surface of the sun and the earth's atmosphere.

The spectrum mainly shows the absorption bands of the water and oxygen molecules.



The amazing fact is that although there are many different atoms, molecules, etc. with various electromagnetic transitions and very different transition probabilities, there is a universal temperature-dependent spectrum in thermal equilibrium.

Thermal radiation 7

cosmic background radiation





The figure shows a measurement of the cosmic background radiation.

The spectrum is in the range of microwaves and corresponds to a temperature of approximately 3 K.

The cosmic background radiation is a direct relic of the Big Bang and is therefore of great importance for astronomy.



Robert W. Wilson (left) and Arno Penzias pose next to their antenna after winning the Nobel Prize in 1978 for discovering the Big Bang's afterglow.



In 2009, the European Space Agency launched the Planck satellite, which offers the best map yet of the microwave sky. Planck indicates that ordinary matter (the stuff of stars and planets) is only about 5 percent of the universe. ESA/Planck Collaboration



Comment

The figure gives an overview of the thermal spectra at different temperatures.

On the left again the spectrum of the sun, followed by the spectrum of a glowing metal.

With a glowing metal, only the short-wave range of the spectrum is visible to the human eye.

The spectrum of a body at room temperature is in the infrared range of the spectrum.

The last spectrum shows the spectrum of the cosmic background radiation.

The cosmic background radiation perfectly follows the expected spectrum of a blackbody radiation source.

Thermal radiation 11

The Stefan-Boltzmann law gives the total radiation power of the black body (Josef Stefan (1879) and Ludwig Boltzmann (1884)):

 $P = A\sigma T^4$

The Stefan-Boltzmann constant was determined experimentally in 1894

$$\sigma=5.67\cdot 10^{-8}\,\frac{W}{m^2K^4}$$

Wien's displacement law (1893):

$$\lambda_{\max} = 2.9 \, \text{mmK} rac{1}{7}$$

Comment 1

The investigation of thermal radiation was a hot topic in the 19th century.

Based on experimental data, Josef Stefan came to the conclusion in 1874 that the total output of thermal radiation is proportional to the fourth power of temperature.

This result was theoretically confirmed in 1884 by Ludwig Boltzmann on the basis of thermodynamic considerations and Maxwell's electrodynamics.

The Stefan-Boltzmann constant was determined experimentally in 1894.

One year earlier, in 1893, Wilhelm Wien found his famous law of displacement, which relates the maximum of the thermal spectrum to temperature.



The following slides show an example that demonstrates the use of these formulas.

Thermal radiation 12

Solar constant I_E



- radius of the sun: $r_{\rm S} = 6,96 \cdot 10^8 \, {\rm m}$
- distance earth-sun: $r_{\rm SE} = 1.5 \cdot 10^{11} \, {\rm m}$



Nowadays the solar constant, i.e. the intensity or the radiation power of the sun per m² at the edge of the atmosphere, can be measured with the help of satellites.

About 75 % of the intensity at the edge of the atmosphere reach the ground, which corresponds to $1 \text{ kW} / \text{m}^2$ if the surface is oriented perpendicular to the solar radiation.

The temperature of the sun's surface can be calculated using the wavelength for the sun's maximum radiant power.

The total radiant power of the sun can be calculated with the solar radius.

The distance between the earth and the sun can be used to calculate the intensity of solar radiation that reaches the earth.

The following pages show the calculation as an example.

Thermal radiation 13: Example

Temperature of the Sun T_{s} : $\lambda_{max} \approx 500 \text{ nm}$

Wien's displacement law

$$\lambda_{\max} = rac{2.9 \, \text{mmK}}{T}$$
 $T = rac{2.9 \cdot 10^{-3} \, \text{mK}}{5 \cdot 10^{-7} \, \text{m}} = 5800 \, \text{K}$

Thermal radiation 14: Example

Intensity of the Sun on Earth *I*_E (solar constant)

- radius of the Sun: $r_{\rm S} = 6.96 \cdot 10^8 \, {\rm m}$
- distance Earth-Sun: $r_{SE} = 1.5 \cdot 10^{11} \text{ m}$

$$P_{S} = 4\pi r_{S}^{2} \sigma T_{S}^{4}$$

$$I_{E} = \frac{P_{S}}{4\pi r_{SE}^{2}} = \left(\frac{r_{S}^{2}}{r_{SE}^{2}}\right) \sigma T_{S}^{4}$$

$$= \left(\frac{6.96 \cdot 10^{8} \text{ m}}{1.5 \cdot 10^{11} \text{ m}}\right)^{2} 5.67 \cdot 10^{-8} \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^{2}\text{K}^{4}} (5800 \text{ K})^{4}$$

$$= 1380 \frac{\text{W}}{\text{m}^{2}}$$

Revision

Thermal radiation 15: Example

Temperature of the Earth in thermal equilibrium:

Radiation power of the Earth in thermal equilibrium

$$P_E = 4\pi r_E^2 \sigma T_E^4$$

equilibrium (P_{ES} : power which receives the Earth from Sun)

$$P_{ES} = P_E$$

$$\pi r_E^2 I_E = 4\pi r_E^2 \sigma T_E^4$$

$$T_E = \sqrt[4]{\frac{I_E}{4\sigma}} = \sqrt[4]{\frac{1380 \text{ Wm}^{-2}}{4 \cdot 5.67 \cdot 10^{-8} \text{ Wm}^{-2} \text{K}^{-4}}}$$

=280 K

Planck's radiation law

Wave-particle dualism

- Thermal radiation
- Planck's radiation law
- Photoelectric effect
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Planck's radiation law 1



$$\vec{E} = \vec{E}_0 \exp(i\vec{k}\vec{r} - \omega t)$$

$$\vec{B} = \vec{B}_0 \exp(i\vec{k}\vec{r} - \omega t)$$

Energy density of an electromagnetic wave

$$\frac{E}{V}=\frac{1}{2}\varepsilon_0\vec{E}^2+\frac{1}{2\mu_0}\vec{B}^2$$

Intensity of an electromagnetic wave (Poynting vector)

$$I = \frac{P}{A} = \left| \frac{\vec{E} \times \vec{B}}{\mu_0} \right|$$

Planck's radiation law 1



The figure shows the classical view of a plane electromagnetic wave according to the theory of Maxwell.

The energy density of an electromagnetic wave is given by the first underlined equation.

The intensity is given by the absolute value of the Poynting vector.

Both the energy density and the intensity of the wave is proportional to the square of the electric or magnetic field.

Maxwell's theory gives no hint about the temperature dependence of electromagnetic radiation.

Consequently, new ideas are needed to describe the temperature dependence of thermal radiation.
Planck's radiation law 2

Approach from Wilhelm Wien 1896:





standing waves in a cavity

$$L = n \frac{\lambda_n}{2} \quad \rightarrow \quad k_n = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_n} = n \frac{\pi}{L}$$

in three dimension

$$\vec{k}_{n_1,n_2,n_3} = \frac{\pi}{L} \begin{pmatrix} n_1 \\ n_2 \\ n_3 \end{pmatrix}$$



In 1896 Wilhelm Wein made the first attempt to theoretically describe the thermal radiation of a black body.

He assumes that the electromagnetic spectrum in the cavity of the black body is formed by standing waves.

The left figure shows the model of a black body radiation source. In the following it is assumed that it is a cubic cavity with the edge length *L*.

The middle picture shows the standing waves in one spatial direction. If it is a metallic cavity, then the nodes and antinodes correspond to the magnetic field of the wave.



If it is a cavity in an insulating medium, then the nodes and antinodes correspond to the electric field of the standing wave.

The underlined formula gives the quantized wave number in one spatial direction and the formula outlined in red is the generalization for the three-dimensional case.

Planck's radiation law 3

Wilhelm Wien makes the following assumptions:

energy of the standing wave modes

 $E_n = h\nu_n = \hbar\omega_n = \hbar c k_n$

2 probability that a mode is thermally excited

 $w_n \propto \exp(-\hbar\omega_n/k_BT)$

number of modes with wave number
k_n in interval *dk*

$$dN = \frac{4\pi k^2 dk/8}{\pi^3/L^3}$$



Comment 1

1. In Maxwell's electrodynamics, the energy of a wave is proportional to the square of the amplitude, i.e. to the square of the electric or magnetic field strength. The energy of the wave is independent of its frequency.

The spectrum of thermal radiation shows that the energy of the waves must depend on the frequency. Wilhelm Wien makes the simplest possible assumption: the energy of the waves is proportional to the frequency.

This means that the energy of the standing wave in the cavity is proportional to the frequency ω_n .

Since Max Planck explained how this frequency dependence of the energy comes about, the proportionality constant has since been called Planck's constant *h*.



2. In analogy to Maxwell's velocity distribution, Wilhelm Wien assumes that the probability that a wave is excited is proportional to the Boltzmann factor.

3. The energy of the radiation in a cavity is thus on the one hand proportional to the Boltzmann factor and on the other hand proportional to the number of available modes of the standing waves.

The sketch shows how the number of modes of the standing waves can be determined.

The vectors \vec{k}_{n_1,n_2,n_3} form a grid, which is indicated by the red lines.



Each cell of the grid has the volume π^3/L^3 .

The formula underlined in red gives the number of \vec{k}_{n_1,n_2,n_3} vectors whose endpoints lie in a spherical shell with the radius *k* and the thickness *dk*.

The factor 1/8 takes into account that the wave number vectors of the standing wave modes only have positive components, so that only one eighth of a spherical shell has to be taken into account.

Planck's radiation law 4

Wien's radiation law of 1896 gives the radiation intensity *dI* in the wavenumber interval (k, k + dk)

$$dl \propto \frac{4\pi k^2 dk}{(2\pi)^3} \cdot \hbar ck \cdot \exp(-\frac{\hbar ck}{k_B T}) \qquad \propto \frac{d\lambda}{\lambda^5} \exp(-\frac{ch}{\lambda k_B T})$$



Comment 1

With these assumptions Wilhelm Wien calculates the energy of the radiation in the cavity of the black body.

The electromagnetic energy in the cavity can be observed through the intensity of the radiation leaving the cavity through the small opening. The intensity is proportional to the energy of the radiation in the cavity.

The first factor gives the number of modes in the wave number interval k, k + dk. The second factor gives the energy of the modes and the third factor determines the probability with which these modes are thermally excited.

The intensity is measured experimentally as a function of the wavelength λ and the formula underlined in red can be used to fit the measured spectrum. d λ gives the resolution of the spectrometer used.

Comment 2

To do this, the wave number is expressed by the wavelength $k = 2\pi/\lambda$ and dk by $|dk| = 2\pi d\lambda/\lambda^2$.

The figure shows the exact result of Planck's radiation formula for two temperatures and the result of Wien's theory as a dashed line.

Wien's radiation formula almost perfectly describes the spectrum of thermal radiation.

Wilhelm Wien was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1911 "for his discoveries regarding the laws of thermal radiation".

In order to check whether Wien's radiation formula is exact, Otto Lummer and Ernst Pringsheim carried out precision measurements of thermal radiation at the physical-technical Reichsanstalt (today PTB) in 1896.

Comment 3

They showed that Wein's law of radiation is an approximation and not exact.

In 1900 Max Planck published his radiation formula, which perfectly describes the measurements of Otto Lummer and Ernst Pringsheim.

Also in 1900, John W. S. Rayleigh published a radiation formula in which the Boltzmann factor is omitted and it is assumed that the energy of the modes is simply proportional to the thermal energy k_BT .

This is based on the assumption that in thermal equilibrium the energy of all components of a physical system should be a multiple of k_BT .

The dashed line shows that this approach cannot describe the radiation spectrum.



The Rayleigh formula was revised by Sir James Jeans and republished in 1905, but this did not improve the theory.

The Rayleigh - Jeans law results for very large wavelengths as a limit case of Planck's radiation formula.

This is no coincidence, as the basic assumption of the Rayleigh - Jeans theory is used to establish the numerical prefactor of Planck's radiation law.

Planck's radiation law 5

Three processes are important

- absorption
- spontaneous emission
- stimulated emission



Comment 1

The success of Wien's radiation law is based on the assumption that the energy of the modes in the cavity is proportional to the frequency of the mode.

Although there was no quantum physics in 1900, Max Planck speculatively assumes that matter consists of quantized oscillators which can only absorb and emit electromagnetic radiation in units of $\hbar\omega$.

On the one hand, these hypothetical oscillators take energy from the electromagnetic waves in units of $\hbar\omega$ and, on the other hand, supply the waves with energy in units of $\hbar\omega$.

With this idea, Max Planck gives a physical explanation for Wilhelm Wien's assumption.

Max Planck can trace the temperature dependence of thermal radiation back to the thermal occupation of the energy levels of the quantized oscillators.

Comment 2

Planck's radiation law 5

Albert Einstein took up the idea of Max Planck when investigating the photoelectric effect in 1905 and recognized that light is a stream of energy quanta that are "localized in spatial points, move without division and can only be absorbed and generated as a whole".

With this Albert Einstein discovered the light particles that have since been called "photons".



In 1913 Ernest Rutherford discovered the atomic nucleus and Niels Bohr formulated the first quantized model of the atom that is explicitly based on the findings of Max Planck and Albert Einstein.

Max Planck was awarded the Nobel Prize for the year 1918 "in recognition of the merit he had made in the development of physics through the discovery of energy quanta".

Albert Einstein was awarded the Nobel Prize in 1921 "for his contributions to theoretical physics, especially for his discovery of the law of the photoelectric effect".

Comment 4

In 1916 Albert Einstein derived Planck's radiation law on the basis of Bohr's 1913 atomic model.

Einstein assumes that photons are absorbed and emitted during the atomic transition from a Bohr orbit with the energy E_1 to a Bohr orbit with the energy E_2 .

In the figure, the energy of two Bohr orbits are indicated by horizontal lines.

When a photon is absorbed, the electron changes from orbit 1 to orbit 2.

The energy of orbit 2 corresponds to the sum of the energy of orbit 1 and the energy of a photon. The probability that the photon is absorbed is maximal when $E_2 - E_1 = \hbar \omega$ holds.

In the case of spontaneous emission, the electron in orbit 2 emits for some reason (e.g. vacuum fluctuations) a photon with energy $\hbar\omega$ and changes to orbit 1.



In the case of stimulated emission, a photon with energy $\hbar\omega$ hits an atom and thereby triggers the transition from orbit 2 to orbit 1.

This is a resonance process that only works if the energy of the photon corresponds more or less exactly to the energy difference between the two orbits.

An additional photon with energy $\hbar\omega$ is emitted.

In the figure, the photon that triggers the emission is indicated by an additional red curled arrow.

After the stimulated emission there are two identical photons.

These two photons have the same energy and correspond to waves with the same wave vector.

spontaneous emission:

For $E_2 > E_1$, the occupation number N_2 is reduced by the spontaneous emission of a photon with the energy $E_{\gamma} = h\nu = hc/\lambda = E_2 - E_1$

$$\frac{dN_2^{spon}(\lambda)}{dt} = -A_{21}(\lambda)N_2$$

 A_{21} is the Einstein coefficient, which describes the transition rate due to the spontaneous emission of photons



 N_2 denotes the occupation number of state 2 of the quantum system.

The occupation number of state 2 is reduced by the spontaneous emission of photons.

Einstein formulated the underlined equation.

The decay rate $\frac{dN_2^{spon}(\lambda)}{dt}$ of the occupation number is proportional to the occupation number of the excited state 2: N_2 .

The constant of proportionality is the Einstein coefficient A_{21} .

Planck's radiation law 7

stimulated emission of a photon:

$$\frac{dN_2^{stim}(\lambda)}{dt} = -u(\lambda)B_{21}(\lambda)N_2$$

 $u(\lambda)$ denotes the spectral electromagnetic energy density

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u(\lambda) = \frac{1}{V} \frac{\Delta E_{\lambda}}{\Delta \lambda}
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 ΔE_{λ} denotes the electromagnetic energy in the wavelength interval $\lambda \rightarrow \lambda \pm \Delta \lambda/2$ ($\Delta \lambda$ is the line width of the considered transition)

 $B_{21}(\lambda)$ is the Einstein coefficient for stimulated emission

Comment 1

The decay rate of the occupation number of the excited state 2 due to the stimulated emission of a photon is also proportional to the occupation number of the quantum state itself.

In addition, the change in the occupation number is proportional to the density of the photons that can stimulate the transition.

Due to the finite line width of the transition, the energy of the photons does not have to match the energy of the transition exactly.

Due to the uncertainty relations, these energies are not precisely defined.

Therefore, all photons within a certain energy interval can trigger the transition.



The formula $u(\lambda) = \frac{1}{M} \frac{\Delta E_{\lambda}}{\Delta \lambda}$ defines the spectral energy density of these photons.

The constant of proportionality for the stimulated emission is the Einstein coefficient B_{21} .

Absorption:

$$\frac{dN_2^{abs}(\lambda)}{dt} = + u(\lambda)B_{12}(\lambda)N_1$$

 $B_{12}(\lambda)$ is the Einstein coefficient for absorption



- A similar formula describes the absorption of a photon.
- The occupation number of the excited state 2 increases due to absorption.
- The constant of proportionality for the absorption is the Einstein coefficient B_{12} .

The occupation numbers do not change in thermal equilibrium. E.g. for N_2 the equation results

$$rac{dN_2}{dt} = 0 = rac{dN_2^{abs}}{dt} + rac{dN_2^{stim}}{dt} + rac{dN_2^{spon}}{dt}$$

$$0 = +u(\lambda)B_{12}N_1 - u(\lambda)B_{21}N_2 - A_{21}N_2$$

spectral electromagnetic energy density is therefore

$$u(\lambda) = \frac{A_{21}N_2}{B_{12}N_1 - B_{21}N_2} = \frac{A_{21}}{B_{12}\frac{N_1}{N_2} - B_{21}}$$



The occupation numbers of the quantum states do not change in thermal equilibrium.

The formula framed in red results from Einstein's equations.

With this equation the spectral energy density $u(\lambda)$ can be calculated.

The energy density depends on the Einstein coefficients and the quotient of the occupation numbers.

Planck's radiation law 10

quotient of the occupation numbers (with $\nu \lambda = c$)

$$\frac{N_1}{N_2} = \exp\left(\frac{E_2 - E_1}{k_B T}\right) = \exp\left(\frac{h\nu}{k_B T}\right) = \exp\left(\frac{hc}{\lambda k_B T}\right)$$

spectral energy density in thermal equilibrium

$$u(\lambda) = \frac{A_{21}}{B_{12} e^{hc/\lambda k_{\mathrm{B}}T} - B_{21}}$$



The quotient of the occupation numbers is determined by the Boltzmann factor.

The energy difference in the exponent of the Boltzmann factor corresponds to the energy of the photons and can therefore be expressed in terms of the frequency or the wavelength of the radiation.

The formula outlined in red gives the spectral energy density, whereby the quotient of the occupation numbers is expressed by the Boltzmann factor.

Planck's radiation law 11

$$u(\lambda) = \frac{A_{21}}{B_{12}e^{hc/\lambda k_BT} - B_{21}}$$

Since the energy density diverges for ${\it T} \rightarrow \infty$

$$B_{12} = B_{21}$$

Stimulated emission is the inverse process of absorption

Absorption does not destroys coherence

Equally, stimulated emission cannot destroy the coherence of a light wave →light amplification by stimulate emission of radiation



This formula leads to an important conclusion.

Since the energy density has to diverge to infinity with increasing temperature, the Einstein coefficients for absorption and stimulating emission must be the same.

The stimulated emission of radiation and absorption are inverse processes.

Therefore, light can be amplified by stimulated emission of radiation.

Since absorption does not destroy the coherence of a light wave, the stimulated emission does not destroy the coherence of a light wave either.

A device that amplifies a wave of light through stimulated emission is called a laser.

1

Photoelectric effect

Planck's radiation law 12

spectral energy density

$$u(\lambda) = \frac{A_{21}}{B_{21}} \frac{1}{e^{hc/\lambda k_B T} - 1}$$

Planck's radiation law

$$\frac{dP}{Ad\lambda} = 2\pi \frac{hc^2}{\lambda^5} \frac{1}{e^{hc/\lambda k_B T} - 1}$$

Wien's radiation law

$$\lambda \to 0$$
 and $\frac{dP}{Ad\lambda} = 2\pi \frac{hc^2}{\lambda^5} e^{-hc/\lambda k_B T}$

Rayleigh-Jeans law

$$\lambda o \infty$$
 and $rac{dP}{Ad\lambda} = 2\pi rac{c}{\lambda^4} k_B T$

Comment 1

The intensity of the thermal radiation can be calculated with the spectral energy density.

The calculation itself is not very interesting and the equation outlined in red gives the result that has become famous as Planck's radiation formula.

The ratio $\frac{A_{21}(\lambda)}{B_{21}(\lambda)}$ is determined in the high temperature limit, where the thermodynamic assumption is well accepted that each degree of freedom carries the thermal energy $k_{\rm B}T$.

Another detail should be noted. Since both the absorption and the emission of a photon is determined by the same transition probability this important microscopic detail of the specific quantum system (atom, molecule, etc.) cancels in the ratio $\frac{A_{21}(\lambda)}{B_{21}(\lambda)}$.



This results in the same, universal thermal spectrum for all quantum systems that emit and absorb photons in thermal equilibrium.

In the limit of small wavelengths, Wien's radiation law results and in the limit of longer wavelengths, the Rayleigh-Jeans law.

According to the discussion of Wien's law, the blue factor can be traced back to the photon energy $h\nu = hc/\lambda$ and the number of *k*-modes that contribute.

Wave-particle dualism

- Thermal radiation
- Planck's radiation law
- Photoelectric effect
- Laser
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- Pair production
- Matter waves
- Uncertainty relations
Photoelectric effect 1

Demonstration of the photoelectric effect





(photoelectriceffect.mp4, PhotoeffektFreiburg.mp4)



Max Planck's idea that electromagnetic radiation can only be absorbed and emitted in quanta is correct.

The analysis of thermal spectra is, however, time-consuming and not very useful in order to clearly demonstrate the effect.

When analyzing the photoelectric effect in 1905, Albert Einstein was able to show beyond doubt that Max Planck's ideas are correct.

Assuming that the energy of electromagnetic waves is quantized according to Max Planck's idea, he showed that the photoelectric effect can be understood in all its details.

Einstein was awarded the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1921 for this work in particular.



The two figures show two charged electroscopes.

In the left figure, the electroscope is charged with electrons.

In the right figures, positive charges are used and electrons are removed from the electroscope.

The figure shows the effect of electrostatic induction.

The first video shows an electroscope being charged with electrons.

Ultraviolet light is used to discharge the electroscope.

The charge of the electroscope does not change when the electroscope is charged with positive charge carriers.



In the second video, the electroscope is also charged with electrons.

But now there is a piece of glass between the lamp and the electrode of the electroscope.

Despite the bright light, the charge cannot be removed from the electroscope.

These experiments show that electrons gain energy from electromagnetic radiation and overcome the binding energy of the metal.

The experiment with the glass plate shows that the intensity of the light is not the decisive physical quantity.

Photoelectric effect 2





In a quantitative experiment, monochromatic light must be used.

The sketch on the left shows the experimental setup.

One electrode is illuminated while the photoelectrons are collected with a second electrode.

The photocurrent depends on the applied voltage.

The photocurrent becomes saturated when a high positive voltage is applied.

The maximum photocurrent increases with the intensity of the light.

Regardless of the intensity of the radiation, all photoelectrons can be stopped by the same delay voltage.



The product of the stop voltage and the charge of an electron corresponds to the kinetic energy of the photoelectrons.

The equation framed in red indicates the kinetic energy of the photoelectrons.

There is a threshold frequency or maximum wavelength for which photoelectron emission is possible.

If the frequency of the radiation is less than ν_0 , no photoelectrons can be emitted.

For most metals, this threshold frequency is in the ultraviolet region of the electromagnetic spectrum.

Since UV light is normally absorbed by normal glass, photoelectrons cannot be observed when the light is passed through an ordinary glass plate.

Photoelectric effect 3

kinetic energy of photoelectrons according to Einstein

 $E_{kin} = h \nu - W_A$

 W_A denotes the work function, i.e. the binding energy of the electrons

photoelectrons are only emitted when

 $h\nu > W_A$

threshold frequency and wavelength

$$h
u_0 = rac{hc}{\lambda_0} = W_A
ightarrow rac{hc}{W_A}$$



The kinetic energy of the photoelectrons is determined by the energy of the photons and reduced by the binding energy of the electrons.

Electrons can only leave the metal surface if the energy of the photons is greater than the work function, i.e. the binding energy.

The linear dependence of the kinetic energy of the photoelectrons on the frequency of the electromagnetic wave is a clear proof of Planck's law $E = h\nu$.

The intensity of the radiation determines the number of photons.

Therefore, the photocurrent becomes larger as the intensity of the light increases.

The last line shows the calculation of the threshold wavelength for the emission of photoelectrons.

Revision

Photoelectric effect 4





The figure shows the experimental results for zinc.

The work function of zinc is \approx 4.3 eV.

The cutoff frequency of $10.4 \cdot 10^{14}$ Hz corresponds to a wavelength of 286 nm.

In the second video, a zinc electrode was used and photoelectrons can only be emitted by ultraviolet light.

Apparently, ultraviolet light is effectively blocked by normal glass (not quartz glass).

The following table provides values for the work function and threshold wavelength of some elements.

Photoelectric effect 5

	W _A	$\lambda_0 = \frac{hc}{W_A}$
Cu	4.3 eV	289 nm
Ag	4.05 eV	307 nm
AI	4.0 eV	310 nm
Au	4.8 eV	259 nm
Pt	5.32 eV	233 nm
Zn	4.34 eV	286 nm
Ва	1.8 eV	690 nm

work function W_A and threshold wavelength λ_0

Revision

Summary in questions 1

- 1. Explain the definition of a "black body".
- 2. Sketch the spectrum of black body radiation.
- 3. Write down the Stefan-Boltzmann law.
- 4. Write down Wien's displacement law.
- 5. Explain the meaning of the Einstein coefficient A_{21} .
- 6. Explain the meaning of the Einstein coefficient B_{21} .
- 7. Explain the meaning of the Einstein coefficient B_{12} .
- 8. Why are the Einstein coefficients of absorption and stimulated emission the same?

Summary in questions 2

- 9. Explain the basic assumptions of Wien's radiation law.
- 10. Explain the basis assumptions of Rayleigh-Jeans law.
- 11. Explain the basic assumptions of Planck's law of radiation.