

Q A slit of width a is illuminated by light of wave length 6000 \AA for what value of a will

i) 1st max^m fall at an angle of reflection at 30°

ii) 1st minimum fall at an angle of reflection at 30°

soln $d = a$

$$\lambda = 6000 \text{ \AA}$$

$$= 6000 \times 10^{-10} = 6 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

$$\Rightarrow \theta = 30^\circ \quad n = 1$$

for first maximum

$$\sin 30^\circ = \frac{(2n+1)\lambda}{2d}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{(2 \times 1 + 1) \times 6 \times 10^{-7}}{2a}$$

$$a = 18 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

$$\text{iii) } \theta = 30^\circ, \quad n = 1$$

$$\sin \theta = \frac{n\lambda}{d}$$

$$\sin 30^\circ = \frac{1 \times 6 \times 10^{-7}}{a}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} = \frac{6 \times 10^{-7}}{a}$$

$$a = 12 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

Q light of wave length 6500 \AA passes through a slit 0.01 cm width and forms a diffraction pattern on a screen 1.8 m away what is the width of the central maximum also find the centre of the width of the central maximum when the apparatus is immersed in water of refractive index $\frac{4}{3}$.

Soln

Given that

$$\lambda = 6500 \text{ \AA}$$

$$= 6500 \times 10^{-10}$$

$$= 6.5 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

$$d = 0.1 \text{ m} = 0.1 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}$$

$$D = 1.8 \text{ m}$$

$$x = \frac{2\lambda D}{d}$$

$$= \frac{2 \times 6.5 \times 10^{-7} \times 1.8 \times 10^0}{0.1 \times 10^{-2}}$$

$$= 3.6 \times 6.5 \times 10^{-4} \text{ cm}$$

$$n = \frac{\lambda}{\lambda'}$$

$$\frac{4}{3} = \frac{6.5 \times 10^{-7}}{\lambda'}$$

$$\lambda' = \frac{6.5 \times 10^{-7} \times 3}{4}$$

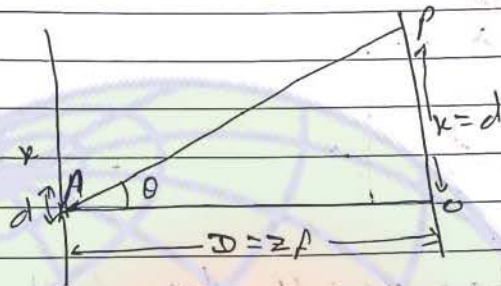
$$x = \frac{2\lambda' D}{d}$$

$$= \frac{2 \times 6.5 \times 10^{-7} \times 3 \times 1.8}{4 \times 0.1 \times 10^{-2}} \text{ m}$$

* Fresnel distance or variety of ray optics

The distance of the screen from the slit or aperture when the spreading of light due to diffraction from the centre of the screen is

equal to the size of the slit
 \Rightarrow It is denoted by λ



Let a screen is placed at distance of D from the slit which have width d

In $\triangle AOP$

$$\tan \theta = \frac{x}{D}$$

For small angle of θ

$$\theta = \frac{x}{D} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

For 1st minimum

$$\sin \theta = \frac{\lambda}{d}$$

For small angle of θ

$$\theta = \frac{\lambda}{d} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

For eqn (1) and (2)

$$\frac{x}{D} = \frac{\lambda}{d}$$

$$x = \frac{\lambda D}{d}$$

$$\theta = \frac{\lambda d}{\lambda}$$

when $x=d$

$$zP = zA$$

$$zA = \frac{d^2}{\lambda}$$

$$zP = \frac{d^2}{\lambda}$$

10.1P Q Two towers of ~~100~~ 50 m on the top of two hills are 20 km apart a line joins them 50 m above a hill. What is the longest wavelength of the radio wave which can be sent b/w the towers without appreciable diffraction effect

Soln

$$d = 50 \text{ m}$$

$$zP = 20 \text{ km}$$

$$\lambda = 20 \times 10^3 \text{ m}$$

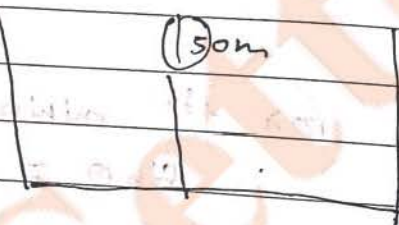
$$\lambda = ?$$

$$zP = \frac{d^2}{\lambda}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{d^2}{zP}$$

$$= \frac{50 \times 50}{20 \times 10^3}$$

$$= \frac{25}{2 \times 10^2} = \frac{1}{8}$$



* Limit of resolution \Rightarrow

The minimum distance ~~the~~ ~~the~~ of ~~of~~ separation b/w two points so that they can be separate by an optical instrument is known as limit of resolution

* Resolving power \Rightarrow

An ability of an optical instrument to form distinctly separate images of the two closely placed point or object is called its resolving power. Which reciprocal of the limit of resolution

$$R.P. \propto \frac{1}{\text{lim of resolution}}$$

$$R.P. \propto \frac{1}{\theta}$$

* Resolving power of telescope and human eye

$$\theta = \frac{1.22 \lambda}{D}$$

$$R.P. = \frac{1}{\theta}$$

$$R.P. = \frac{D}{1.22 \lambda}$$

where d is diameter or aperture of object

* Resolving power of simple microscope

$$RP = \frac{2\mu \sin \theta}{1.22\lambda}$$

angle at the objective lens, μ is the refractive index

* ~~polarisation of light~~

* Comparison b/w the interference and diffraction of light \Rightarrow

Interference

Diffraction

1) It is due to the superposition of two wave fronts originating from two coherent source

1) It is due to the superposition of two secondary wavelets originating from the different point on the screen wave front.

2) In Interference pattern all the maxima and minima that is dark and bright fringe are equal in intensity

2) In diffraction pattern it is vary

3) In interference pattern the dark fringes are usually almost perfectly dark.

3) In diffraction pattern the dark fringes are not perfectly dark

4) In interference pattern the width of the fringe is equal

4) In diffraction pattern the width of the fringes are not equal

5) * In interference bands are large in no.

5) In diffraction bands are few in no.

6) In interference bands are equally spaced

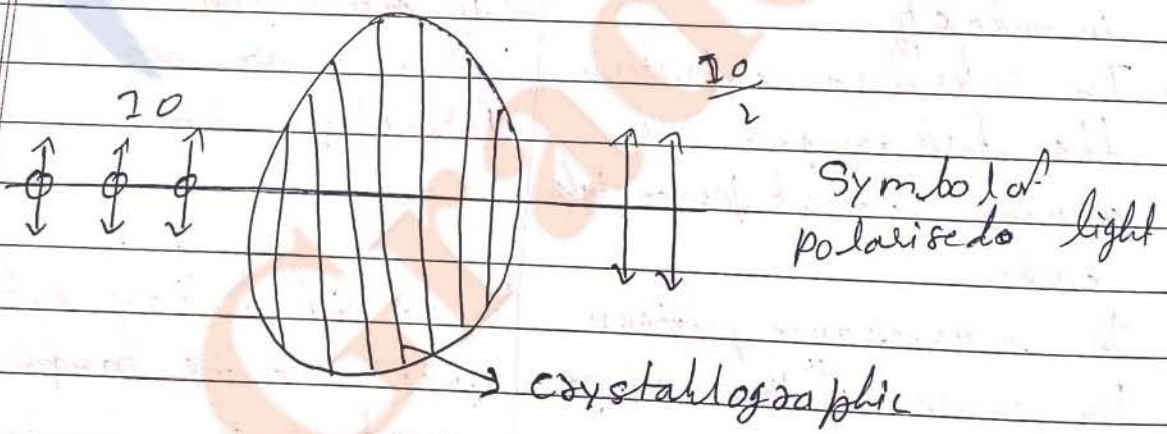
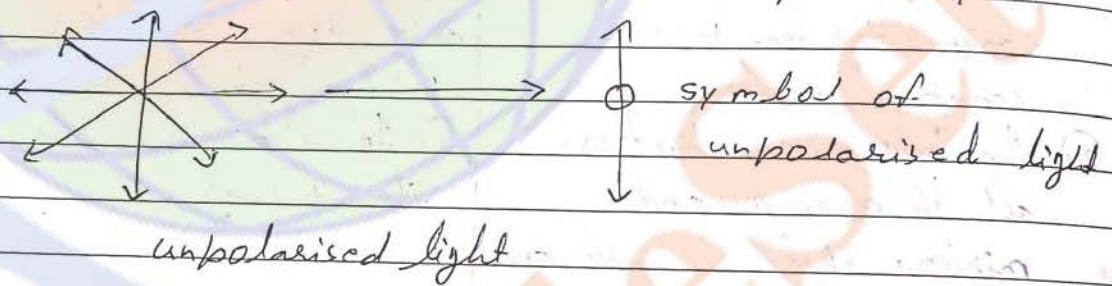
6) In diffraction bands are unequally spaced.

* Polarization of light ⇒

The phenomenon of restriction the vibration of a light wave in a particular direction in a plane \perp to the direction of propagation is known as polarization of light.

* Polariser ⇒ A device which is used to polarise the unpolarised beam of light

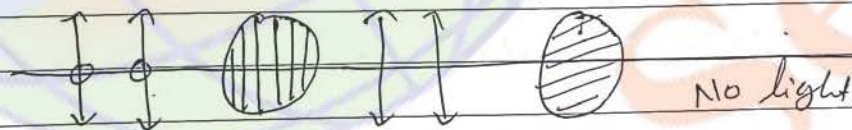
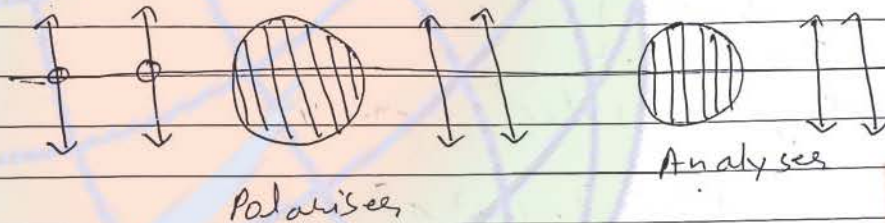
Tourmaline crystal is used as a polariser



In tourmaline crystal the ray of light parallel to the crystallographic axis passes through it and rest light get reflect back

Note Intensity of polarised light is half of the intensity of unpolarised light

* Anger's Analyser \Rightarrow A device which is used to detect if a given light is polarised or unpolarised



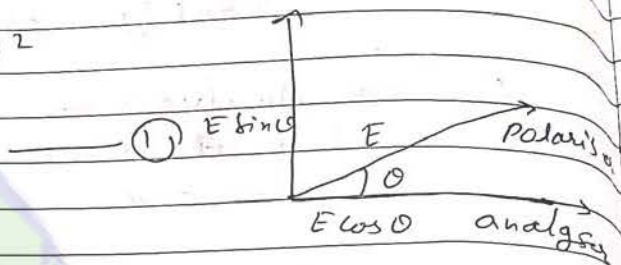
* Malus law \Rightarrow According to Malus law the intensity of the polarised light transmitted through the analyser varies as the square of the cosine of the angle b/w the plane of transmission of the analyser and the plane of the polariser.

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \theta$$

Let the polariser and analyser placed at angle θ

Polarised light of amplitude E have two components. $E \cos \theta$ and $E \sin \theta$ in which $E \sin \theta$ is \perp to the analyses that cannot pass through the analyses. $E \cos \theta$ component is parallel to the analyses which pass through the analyses and resultant amplitude is $E \cos \theta$.

Intensity I (amplitude)²
 $I \propto (E \cos \theta)^2$
 $I = k E^2 \cos^2 \theta$



When maximum intensity
 $\cos \theta = 1$
 $I_0 = k E^2$

Putting this value in eqn (1)

$$I = I_0 \cos^2 \theta$$

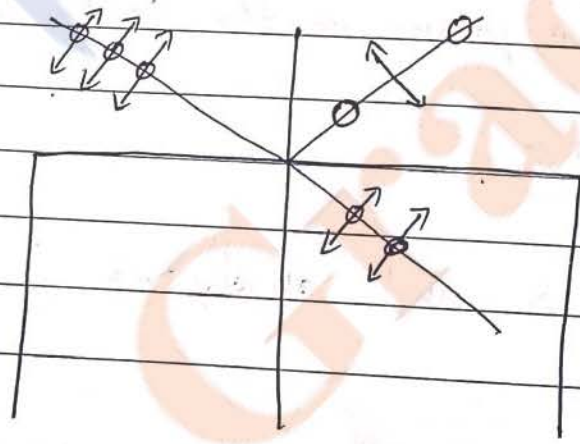
where I_0 is constant

$$I \propto \cos^2 \theta$$

This is Malus law

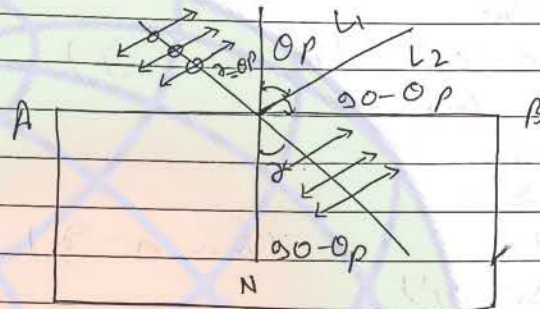
* Polarisation by the Reflection \Rightarrow

When unpolarised or ordinary light incident obliquely in a glass slab then it get partially refracted and partially reflected in such a way it get polarised.



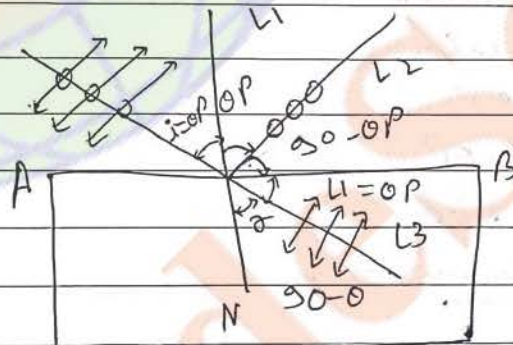
* Angle of Polarisation \Rightarrow
An angle of incidence at which reflected ray is completely polarised is known as the angle of polarisation

It is denoted by OP or I_p



* Brewster's law
A/c to Brewster's Law the refractive index of a medium is numerically equal to the tangent of angle of polarisation

$$\mu = \tan OP$$



Let unpolarised light or ordinary light incident on the separating surface AB at angle of polarisation

OP . By laws of reflection \Rightarrow

$$L_1 = OP$$

$$L_1 + L_2 = 90^\circ \quad (MN \perp AB)$$

$$OP + L_2 = 90^\circ$$

$$L_2 = 90 - OP \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

All angle of polarisation reflected or refracted ray is perpendicular to each other

$$i_2 + i_3 = 90^\circ$$

$$90^\circ - OP + i_3 = 90^\circ \quad (\text{from eqn } 1)$$

$$i_3 = OP \quad (2)$$

$$MN \perp AB$$

$$r + i_3 = 90$$

$$r = 90 - OP \quad (\text{from eqn } 2)$$

By Snell's law

$$\mu = \frac{\sin i}{\sin r}$$

$$\mu = \frac{\sin OP}{\sin (90 - OP)} \quad (\text{from eqn } 3)$$

$$\mu = \frac{\sin OP}{\cos OP}$$

$$\boxed{\mu = \tan OP}$$

Q Refractive index of a medium is $\sqrt{3}$ find the angle of polarisation.

Soln

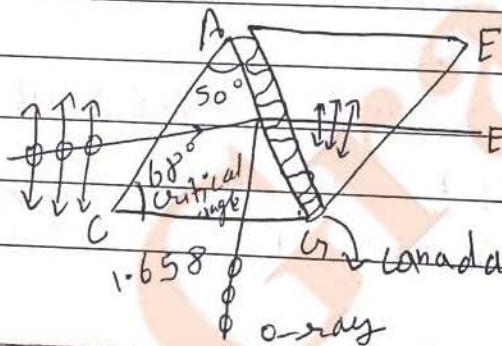
$$\mu = \tan OP$$

$$\sqrt{3} = \tan OP$$

$$OP = \sqrt{3} = 60^\circ$$

* Nicol prism \Rightarrow

Nicol prism is an optical device which is used for producing plane polarised light and analysing the same



Canada Balsam (1.55)

Nicol prism is consist of ~~calcite~~ calcite crystal
AC or E cut an angle of 68° , join by the glue
called Canada Balsam

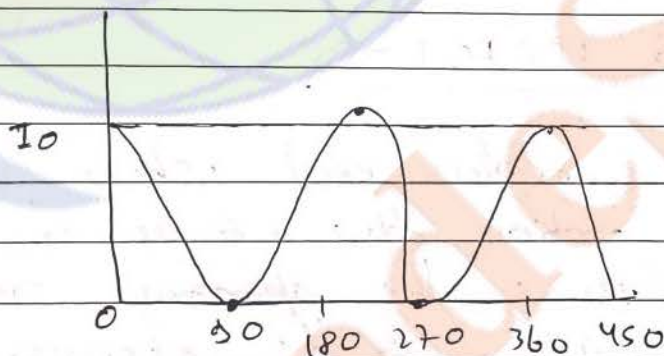
when beam of unpolarised light is passed through
a calcite crystal it break into two rays is
ordinary rays and extra ordinary rays as
refractive index of calcite for o-ray
is 1.658 and for E-ray is 1.486

therefore Canada Balsam acts as a ~~rarer~~ rarer
medium for o-rays and denser medium for
E-rays. Since o-rays incident greater than
critical angle. So, o-ray is totally internally
reflected.

Where as E-ray is unaffected In such a way
Nicol prism is polarise the light

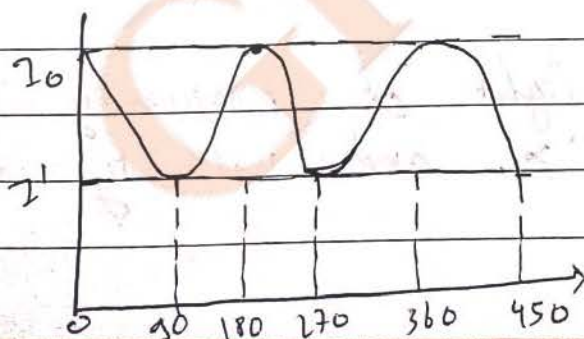
* Doppler's Effect \rightarrow

* Graph of the Malus law \rightarrow



Graph of the unpolarised beam of light

$$I = I' + I_0 \cos^2 \theta$$



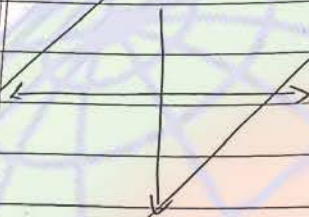
Plane \perp to the direction of propagation in known as polarisation of light

Apparent

* Polariser \Rightarrow

A device which is used to polarise the unpolarised beam of light

Tourmaline crystal is used as a polariser



$\nu' =$
 $\nu' =$
 ν'
By

Solu * DOPPLERS EFFECT \Rightarrow

when mov

According to dopplers effect where there is a relative motion b/w a source of light and the observer the apparent frequency of light received by the observer is different from the true frequency of light emitted by the source of light

$\nu' = \nu$
combining
 $\nu' =$

Let, a source of light of frequency ' ν ' and wave length ' λ ' and velocity of light be ' c ' then

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{\nu} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

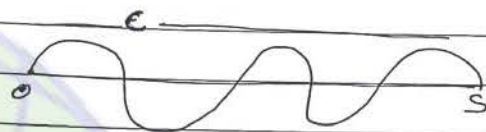
classmate

observer moves towards the source with velocity $-v$

$$\lambda' = \frac{c-v}{\nu} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

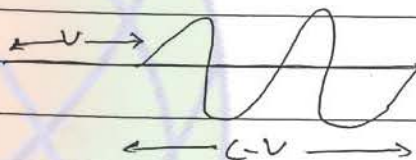
Apparent frequency of source

$$\nu' = \frac{c}{\lambda'}$$



$$\nu' = \frac{c\nu}{c-v}$$

$$\nu' = \frac{\nu}{1 - \frac{v}{c}}$$



$$\nu' = \nu \left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right)^{-1}$$

By binomial theorem

$$\nu' = \nu \left(1 + \frac{v}{c}\right) \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

when moves away from the source -

$$\nu' = \nu \left(1 - \frac{v}{c}\right) \quad \text{--- (4)}$$

combining eqⁿ (3) and eqⁿ (4)

$$\nu' = \nu \left(1 \pm \frac{v}{c}\right) \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

$$\text{but } \frac{v}{c} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$\Delta T = + \frac{v}{c} \times \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$\Delta \lambda = \frac{v}{c} \lambda$$

* There are two types of the Doppler's shift

i) Blue shift \Rightarrow
When observer moves towards the source then change in frequency is positive or change in wavelength is negative i.e. wavelength is decreases so spectrum shift from red to blue called blue shift

ii) Red Shift \Rightarrow when observer moves away from the source then change in frequency is negative and change in wavelength is positive i.e. wavelength is increases so spectrum shift from blue to red called Red shift

* Application of Doppler's effect \Rightarrow

- i) It is used to measure the speed of stars and galaxies
- ii) It is used to measure the temperature of Plasma in thermonuclear
- iii) It confirms the hypothesis that the ~~universe~~ universe is expanding

iv) It is used in radar to estimate the speed of air glass craft these ~~to~~ ~~to~~ Precision and distance from given

v) It is used in sonar to find the submarines and find the depths of the sea

Q what should speed should a galaxy move with respect to us so that the sodium line at 589 nm λ you observed 589.6 nm

Solu

$$\lambda = 589 \text{ nm}$$

$$= 589 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

$$\lambda' = 589.6 \text{ nm}$$

$$c = 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$$

$$v = ?$$

$$\Delta \lambda = \lambda' - \lambda$$

$$= 589.6 - 589$$

$$= 0.6 \text{ nm}$$

$$= 0.6 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

$$\Delta \lambda = \frac{v}{c} \lambda$$

$$v = \frac{\Delta \lambda \times c}{\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{0.6 \times 10^{-9} \times 3 \times 10^8}{589 \times 10^{-9}}$$

$$= \frac{1.8 \times 10^8}{589} \text{ m/s}$$

Ex 10.1

The 6563 \AA H_2 line emitted by hydrogen in a star is found to be red shifted 15 \AA

estimate the speed with which a star is receding from earth

Soln $\lambda = 6563 \text{ \AA}$
 $\Delta\lambda = 15 \text{ \AA}$

$$\Delta\lambda = \frac{v}{c} \lambda$$

$$v = \frac{\Delta\lambda \times c}{\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{15 \times 10^{-10} \times 3 \times 10^8}{6563 \times 10^{-10}}$$

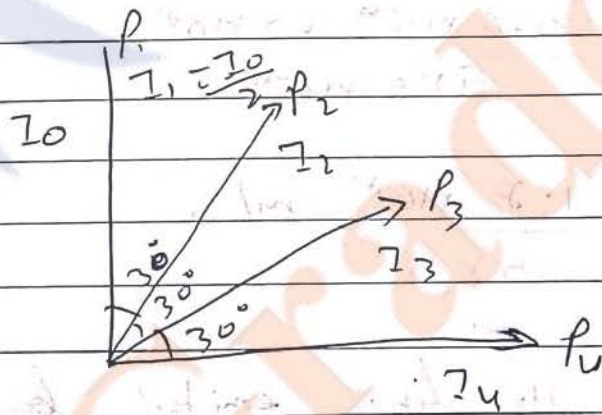
$$= \frac{45 \times 10^8}{6563}$$

$$= 6.86 \times 10^5 \text{ m/s}$$

Let, u
on pol
after

polas

Q An unpolarised beam of light is incident on a group of four polarised sheets which are arranged in such a way that the characteristic direction of polarisation shift makes an angle of 30° with that of the previous light transmitted



Ex 1

Let, unpolarised light of intensity I_0 intensity incident on polarisation P_1 .

after polarisation P_1 is given by

$$I_1 = \frac{I_0}{2} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

polarisation after P_2

$$I_2 = I_1 \cos^2 30^\circ$$

$$= \frac{I_0}{2} \times \frac{3}{4} = \frac{3I_0}{8} \quad \text{--- (2) (from eqn (1))}$$

polarisation after P_3

$$I_3 = I_2 \cos^2 30^\circ$$

$$= \frac{3I_0}{8} \times \frac{3}{4} \quad \text{(from eqn (2))}$$

$$I_3 = \frac{9I_0}{32} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

$$I_4 = I_3 \cos^2 30^\circ$$

$$= \frac{9I_0}{32} \times \frac{3}{4}$$

$$I_4 = \frac{27}{128} I_0$$

Ex 10.5. Ensynic double slit experiment using monochromatic light of wave length λ the intensity of light at a point on the screen where path diff is λ what is the intensity of light at a point where path diff. is $\frac{\lambda}{3}$

Soln path diff = λ

$$\text{path diff} = \frac{\lambda \phi}{2\pi}$$

$$\therefore \frac{\lambda \phi}{2\pi} = \lambda$$

$$\phi = 2\pi$$

$$r_1 = r_2 = r_0 \quad (\text{let})$$

$$r = r_1 + r_2 + 2 \sqrt{r_1 r_2} \cos 2\pi$$

Given $r = k$

$$k = r_0 + r_0 + 2 \sqrt{r_0^2} \times 1$$

$$k = 4r_0$$

$$r_0 = \frac{k}{4} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\frac{\Delta \phi}{2\pi} = \frac{\Delta r}{\lambda}$$

$$\phi = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$r' = r_0 + r_0 + 2 \sqrt{r_0^2} \frac{\cos 2\pi}{3}$$

$$r' = 2r_0 + 2r_0 \times \frac{1}{3}$$

$$r' = r_0 = \frac{k}{4} \quad (\text{from eqn (1)})$$

EX → 10.6

Soln

$$r_1 = 650 \text{ nm}$$

$$= 650 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

$$r_2 = 520 \text{ nm}$$

$$= 520 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}$$

$$(a) \quad \lambda = \frac{\Delta r}{n}$$

$$n = 3$$

$$\lambda = \frac{3 \times 650 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}}{3} \quad \text{As}$$

b) Let length n th bright fringe of λ_1 coincide with the $(n+1)$ th bright fringe of λ_2

$$\frac{n \times 650 D}{d} = \frac{(n+1) 520 D}{d}$$

$$5n = 4n + 4$$

$$n = 4$$

$$n+1 = 4+1 = 5$$

Four bright fringe of the 650 wave length coincide with the 5th 520 of the bright fringe of the 520

10.7) $\theta_1 = 0.2^\circ$

$$D = 1 \text{ m}$$

$$\lambda = 600 \text{ nm}$$

$$\mu = \frac{4}{3}$$

Soln $\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_2} = \mu$

$$\theta_2 = \frac{\theta_1}{\mu}$$

$$= \frac{0.2 \times 3}{4}$$

$$= \frac{0.6}{4}$$

$$= 0.15 \text{ Ans}$$

*

Ch \Rightarrow 11

dual Nature of Matter and Radiation

* Surface barrier of electron \Rightarrow When electron tends to leave the metal surface as positive charge acquire the required as the metal surface that attracts attract the negative charge of electron called surface barrier of electron

* Work function \Rightarrow The minimum energy required by the free electron to just leave metal surface is known as the work function

\Rightarrow Its SI unit is J (Joule)

another unit $1\text{eV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-19}\text{J}$

$1\text{MeV} = 1.6 \times 10^{-13}\text{J}$

* Emission of electron \Rightarrow The phenomenon of emission of electron from the surface of metal is called electron emission

* Types of electron emission

i) Thermionic emission \Rightarrow

An emission of electron in which free electrons are emitted from the metal surface by heating is known as the thermionic emission

ii) field emission \Rightarrow

An emission of electron in which free electrons are emitted from the metal surface by applying external electric field

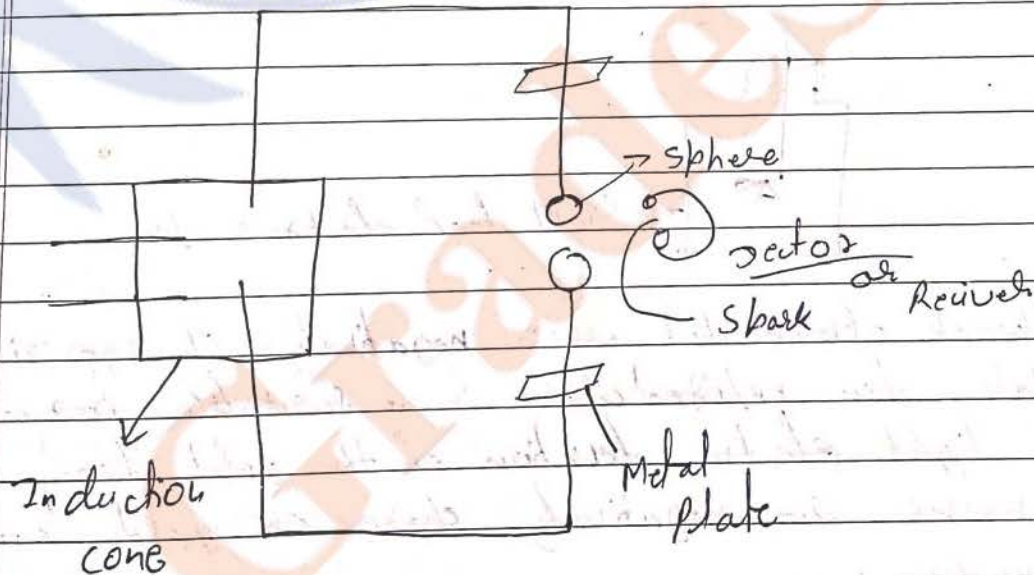
iii) Photo electric emission \Rightarrow An emission of electrons in which free electrons are emitted from the metal surface by applying the suitable frequency of light on it.

iv) Secondary emission \Rightarrow An emission of electrons in which free electrons are emitted from the metal surface by applying the bombarding the fast moving electron is known as the secondary emission.

* Photo electron \Rightarrow The free electron obtained during the photo electric emission is known as photo electron.

* Photo electric current \Rightarrow Current constituent due to the photo electrons is known as the photo electric current.

* Photo electric effect \Rightarrow hertz experiment



henry hertz was observed during the electro magnetic radiation experiment he used a receiver made of wire with metallic sphere on each in and bond into a circuit to form a small gap plus a sphere this receiver was used as a detector of electro magnetic radiation. electro magnetic radiation falling in a detector induced a potential diff. across the gap this was evidence a spark jump across the gap. when exposed in a ultraviolet light this experiment so that emission of electrons is possible in a when suitable frequency of light incident on the metal

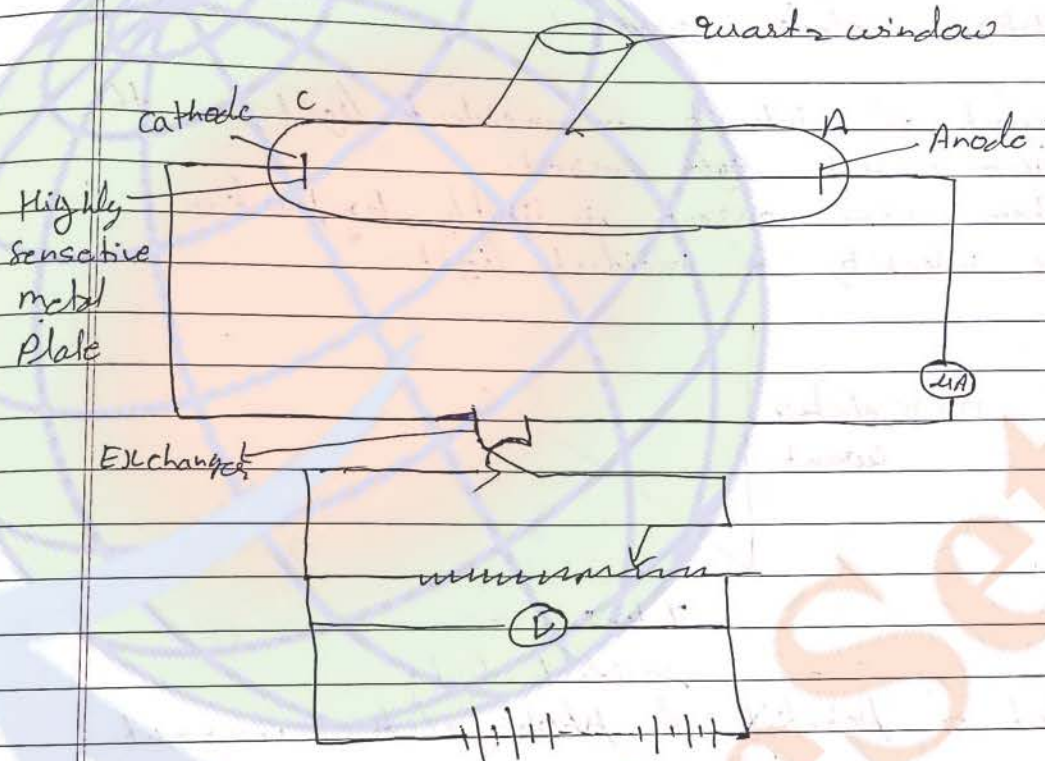
* Hallwach Experiment \Rightarrow



hallwach observe that when negatively charge zinc plate when exposed with in a suitable frequency of light electro deviation of the gold leaf decreases i.e negatively charge on gold leaf decreases

This shows that negatively charged since plate exposed and suitable frequency the electron emitted from the metal surface

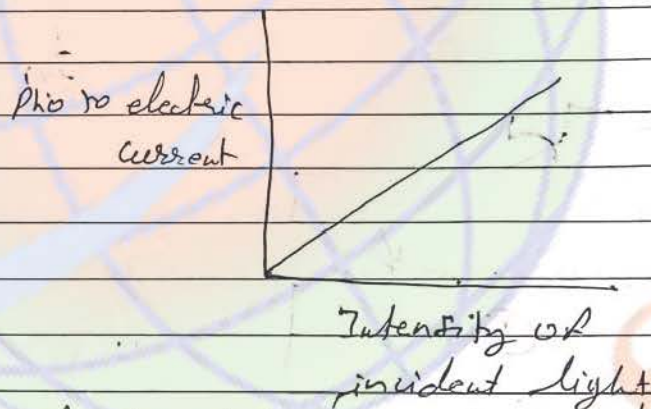
experiment study of the photo electric effect



For the experimental study of the photo electric emission apparatus are arranged as shown in the given figure. It consists of the vacuum tube having two electrodes A and C. The electrode C is a photo sensitive metal plate which emits electrons when exposed to ultraviolet radiation electrode A called the emitted electron. The tube has a side window made up of the glass through which the incident light enters the tube.

on the photo sensitive C electrode A and C are connected to a battery through a suitable exchange electrons are emitted when ultraviolet radiation are made to fall on photo sensitive plate C these electrons are attracted towards electrode A ^{constituent} the photo electric current.

- i) effect of intensity of incident light on the photo electric current.
- ii) Photo electric current is directly proportional to the intensity of incident light



- iii) Effect of potential of photo electric current

* Stopping potential or cutup potential \Rightarrow

The minimum negative potential applied across the plate for which photo electric current becomes zero is called cutup potential or stopping potential

Maximum kinetic energy of the acquired by the electron is given by

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$v = \frac{\omega}{2}$$

$$\omega = 2v$$

for one electron

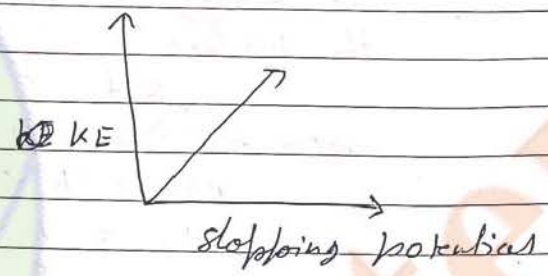
$$q = e \text{ and } V = V_0$$

$$\omega = eV_0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

from eqn (1) and (2)

$$eV_0 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$$KE \propto V_0$$



* Effect of incident of light on the stopping potential

There is no effect of the intensity of light on the stopping potential



* Effect of frequency on stopping potential

threshold frequency \rightarrow

The minimum frequency at which emission of electrons is possible is known as the threshold frequency
Total work done to stop the electrons

$$eV_0 = W = eV_0 \quad (1)$$

The energy of incident light is incident on the surface

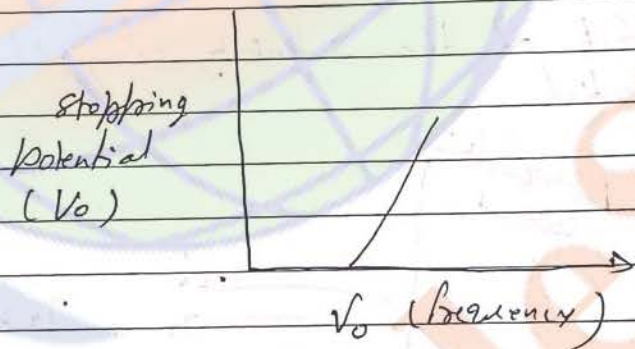
$$\text{but } E = h\nu \quad (2)$$

from eq (1) and (2)

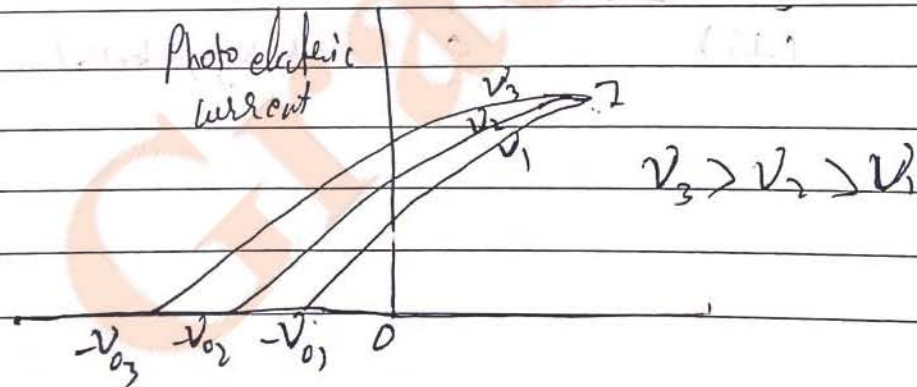
$$eV_0 = h\nu$$

$$V_0 = \frac{h}{e} \nu$$

$$V_0 \propto \nu$$



when intensity is same but frequency is different \rightarrow



Law of Photo electric emission

- i) For a given substance there is minimum frequency of incident light called threshold frequency below which no photo electric emission takes place.
- ii) The no. of electron emitted per second i.e. photo electric current of substance is directly proportional to the intensity of incident light of suitable frequency provided the frequency of light ν threshold frequency ν_0 greater than.
- iii) The maximum K.E of a photo electrons is directly proportional to the frequency of incident light provided the frequency of incident light is greater than the threshold frequency. An independent from the intensity of light.
- iv) The practice of photo electric emission of electron is instantaneous.

* Einstein equation of photo electric \Rightarrow
 A/c Einstein to
 Planck's eqn

When a photon falls on a metal surface the energy of the photon is absorbed by the free electron in the metal. This absorbed energy is utilized in two ways.

- i) A part of energy is used to ~~do~~ ~~and~~ equal to the work function ϕ_0 of the metal surface.

ii) The remaining parts of the energy is used to provide the K.E of the free electron

$$h\nu = \phi_0 + \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

case I when $\nu = \nu_0$

$$h\nu_0 = \phi_0 + 0$$

$$\therefore \phi_0 = h\nu_0$$

Putting this value in eqn ①

$$h\nu = h\nu_0 + \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$$h\nu - h\nu_0 = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = h(\nu - \nu_0)}$$

this is equation of ~~the~~ entire photo electric emission

* Verification of the law of photo electric emission

i) If $\nu < \nu_0$

i.e from the emission equation K.E of a free electron is negative that is possible i.e below the threshold frequency emission of electron does not possible

ii) Since one photon can emit only one electron from the metal surface i.e the surface of photo electrons per

second is directly proportional to the intensity of light.

K.E ~~of~~ or stopping potential of photoelectric

to

emission is directly proportional to the intensity of

collision b/w the free electrons and photon as such that they

that is emission of electron is instantaneous process.

* Relation b/w the cut off potential and frequency of incident light

from eqn Einstein's condition of photo electric emission

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = h(\nu - \nu_0) \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

when K.E is given by

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = eV_0 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

where V_0 is the stopping potential from eqn (1) and (2)

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = eV_0 = h(\nu - \nu_0)}$$

In wave length form

$$\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda}$$

$$\nu_0 = \frac{c}{\lambda_0}$$

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = eV_0 = hc \left(\frac{1}{\lambda} - \frac{1}{\lambda_0} \right)}$$

Determination of the Planck's constant

From the Einstein's equation

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = h(\nu - \nu_0) \quad (1)$$

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = eV_0 \quad (2)$$

$$eV_0 = h(\nu - \nu_0)$$

V_0 is stopping potential

$$eV_0 = h\nu - h\nu_0$$

Dividing all terms by e

$$V_0 = \frac{h\nu}{e} - \frac{h\nu_0}{e} \quad (3)$$

$$y = mx + c \quad (4)$$

This is the equation of the straight line

The comparison equation (3) and (4)

$$y = V_0 \quad x = \nu$$

$$m = \frac{h}{e} \quad (5)$$

$$c = -\frac{h\nu_0}{e} = \frac{\phi_0}{e}$$



$$\text{slope } AB = \tan \theta = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta \nu}$$

$$\tan \theta = m$$

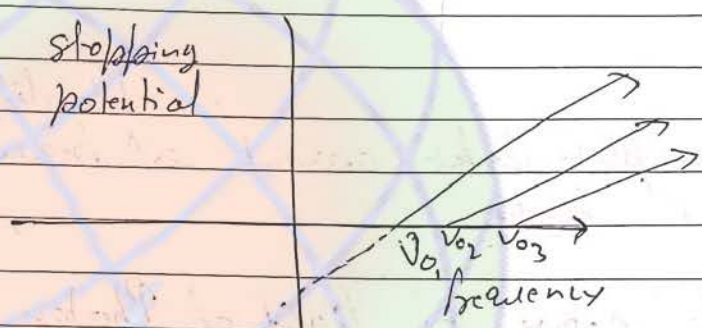
$$\therefore m = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta \nu} \quad (6)$$

from eqn (5) and (6)

$$\frac{h}{e} = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta \nu}$$

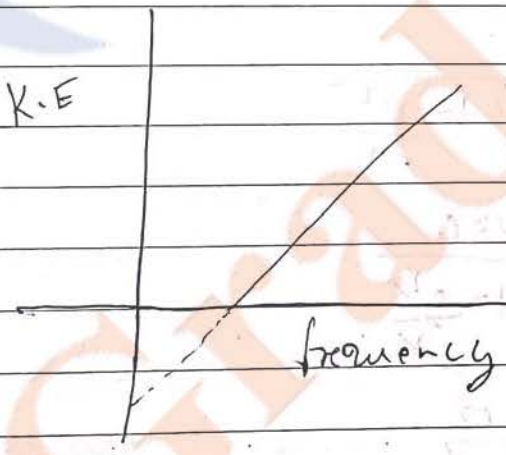
$$h = \frac{\Delta V \cdot e}{\Delta \nu}$$

* Graph b/w the frequency and stopping potential



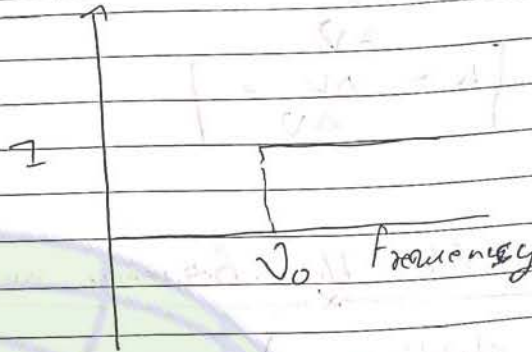
Two or more metal substance have the same slope $\frac{h}{e}$ but different threshold frequency i.e. all the graph b/w stopping potential and frequency are parallel

* graph b/w the K.E and frequency



*

* Frequency and photo electric current \Rightarrow



Note that the photo electric current is ^{depending} frequency of incident light.

* Particle nature of light of Photon \Rightarrow

- i) A Photon travels at speed of light in vacuum
- ii) A Photon has zero rest mass

iii)

$$m = \frac{m_0}{\sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}}$$

where

m_0 is rest mass

$$m_0 = m \sqrt{1 - \frac{v^2}{c^2}}$$

but $v = c$

$$m_0 = m \sqrt{1 - \frac{c^2}{c^2}}$$

$$m \times 0 = 0$$

$$\boxed{m_0 = 0}$$

iii) ~~K.E~~ kinetic mass of photon is $m = \frac{E}{c^2}$

$$m = \frac{h\nu}{c^2}$$

$$m = \frac{h\nu}{c \times c}$$

$$m = \frac{h}{c\lambda}$$

iv) The momentum of photon is

$$p = mc \quad p = mc$$

$$= \frac{h}{\lambda}$$

$$p = \frac{h}{\lambda}$$

v) Photon travels in a straight line

vi) wave length of the photon is changes in different medium so velocity of photon is in different medium

vii) Photon do not have any charge i.e not electrically neutral

viii) photon may so the deceleration under the condition

ix) " are not deviated are electric and magnetic field

~~*~~ Failure of wave theory of light to explain the photoelectric effect

1) A/c to wave theory 'K.E of the free electrons is directly proportional to intensity of light' but in opposite ~~K.E does not depend~~ photo electric emission effect ~~but~~ . experimental 'K.E does not depends on the intensity of light'

ii) A/c to waves theory emission of electron is take place at any frequency of the incident light but photoelectric experiment minimum frequency of incident light called threshold frequency is required

iii) A/c to waves theory free electrons of the metal take some time to absorb the sufficient energy for the emission i.e. it is time lagging in processes but photoelectric emission exp. it is a instantaneous processes it take 10^{-9} second

De Broglie waves or matter waves

A/c to de Broglie some phenomenon of light explain by using wave theory and some phenomenon explain quantum theory. It then is series that light is dual in nature particles as well as wave nature on the following ajection

1) ~~The~~ The inverse is made up particle and radiation and both entities must be symmetrical

ii) The nature & law of symmetry

2) De Broglie wave length or matter wave

A/c to de Broglie the waves associated with the particles light, proton, electron, neutron etc. it is known as the de Broglie waves or matter waves

③ de Broglie's wave length
 According to de Broglie, a moving material particle some time acts as a wave and some time acts as a particle or wave is associated with moving material particle which controls particle in every respect the wave associated with moving particle is called matter wave or de Broglie's wave whose wavelength is called de Broglie's wave length is given by $\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$

Derivation of de Broglie's wave length
 According to Planck's quantum theory

$$E = h\nu \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

According to Einstein's equation

$$E = mc^2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

From eqn (1) and (2)

$$mc^2 = h\nu$$

$$c = \frac{h\nu}{mc}$$

$$\nu\lambda = \frac{h\nu}{mc} \quad (c = \nu\lambda)$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mc}$$

where $mc = p$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$$

$$\therefore \lambda = \frac{h}{p}$$

When mass and velocity associated with the particle ~~is~~ be m and v then

$$\therefore \lambda = \frac{h}{m}$$

This is known as de Broglie's wave length

* de Broglie wavelength in terms of kinetic energy of
de Broglie wavelength is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

K.E of the moving particle is given by

$$K.E = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

Multiplying both sides by m

$$2mK.E = m^2v^2$$

$$\sqrt{2mK.E} = mv$$

Putting this value in eqn (1)

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mK.E}}$$

* de Broglie wavelength in terms of absolute temp.

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$K.E = \frac{3}{2}kT$$

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{3}{2}kT$$

Multiplying both side by m

$$(mv)^2 = 3mKT$$

$$mv = \sqrt{3mKT}$$

Putting this value in eqn (1)

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{3mKT}}$$

* de Broglie's interference length in terms of electric potential
 we know that de Broglie's wave length is given by

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = eV$$

where v = velocity, V = electric potential

multiplying both side by m

$$(mv)^2 = 2meV$$

$$mv = \sqrt{2meV}$$

Putting this value in eqⁿ (1)

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2meV}}$$

⇒ wave length for electron

$$m = 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$$

$$e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

$$h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34}$$

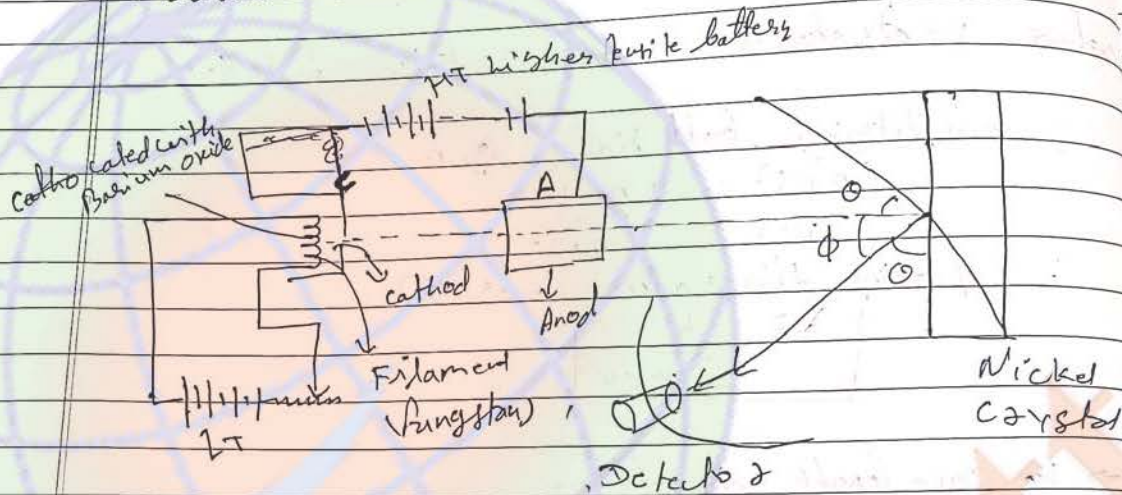
$$\lambda = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34}}{\sqrt{2 \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19} V}}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

* Deviation and Davisson and Germer Experiment =>

✓ The wave nature of slow moving electrons have been established davisson and germer



for a davisson germer experiment apparatus are arrange as show in the given figure it consists of the filament usually made up of tungsten coated with barium oxide and connected to the low tension battery filament is covered by the cathode having a very fine hole connected to the -ve terminal of the battery 'A' is a cylinder a fine hole along it axis called anode cathode an anode from electron gun so electron which produce excited electron that incident on the nickel.

A detector is placed in front of the nickel crystal to detect the magnitude of electron emission

Working
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Working

A fine beam of excited electron of an beam of electron gun falls on the surface of nickel crystal. Then and found that when the incident beam of electron accelerated through a potential of 540 volt

was made to incident to the nickel crystal the intensity of scattered beam was maximum at scattered angle 50°

$$\theta + \phi + \theta = 180^\circ$$

$$2\theta = 180^\circ - 50^\circ$$

$$2\theta = 130^\circ$$

$$\theta = \frac{130^\circ}{2}$$

$$= 65^\circ \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Acc to Bragg's equation from the maximum and deflection

$$2d \sin \theta = n\lambda$$

$$n = 1$$

$$\lambda = 2d \sin \theta$$

for nickel crystal

for nickel crystal $d = 0.91 \text{ \AA}$

$$\lambda = 2 \times 0.91 \sin 65^\circ \quad \text{(from eqn (1))}$$

$$= 1.65 \text{ \AA} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Acc to de Broglie's hypothesis

$$\lambda = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

$$\sqrt{V}$$

$$V = 540$$

$$\lambda = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{540}} \text{ \AA}$$

$$\sqrt{540}$$

$$= 1.67 \text{ \AA} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Since the from eqn (2) and (3) wave length are very close so de Broglie and gamma shows experiment verify wave nature of the moving electron

* Max Born probability interpretation

A/c to Born the probability of finding particle in the space is directly proportional to the square of the amplitude of matter wave associated with the particle at that point

Let A is the amplitude of the matter wave or de Broglie wave of particle at a point in the space then the probability of finding the a particle at that point

Probability $\propto A^2$

Probability $\propto I$

Consider small volume dV around space and A is the amplitude of matter waves the finding the particle in this small volume is given by \Rightarrow

$$A^2 dV = I dV$$

Q The work function of CsM is 2.14 electron volt find

(a) threshold frequency for the CsM

(b) The wave length of incident light of the photo is brought to zero by stopping potential

$$0.6 \text{ V}$$

$$\text{soln } \phi = h\nu_0$$

$$\nu_0 = \frac{\phi_0}{h}$$

$$= \frac{2.14 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19}}{6.63 \times 10^{-34}}$$

$$= 5.16 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$$

(6)

$$e\nu_0 = h\nu - h\nu_0$$

$$e\nu_0 = hc/\lambda - \phi_0$$

$$e\nu_0 + \phi_0 = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{hc}{e\nu_0 + \phi_0}$$

$$= \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34} \times 3 \times 10^8}{1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 0.6 + 5.16 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$= \frac{1.989 \times 10^{-25}}{3.3 \times 10^{-19}} \text{ m}$$

Q3 calculate the frequency associated with a photon of energy $3.3 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J}$

soln

$$E = 3.3 \times 10^{-20} \text{ J}$$

$$h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}$$

$$E = h\nu$$

$$\nu = \frac{E}{h} = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{3.3 \times 10^{-20}}{6.63 \times 10^{-34}} \text{ Hz}$$

Q Mono chromatic light of frequency $6 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$ is produced by a laser. The power emitted is $2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ W}$.

(a) what is the energy of photon in the beam (b) how many photons per s

soln on the average rate emitted by the source

$$P = 2 \times 10^{-3}$$

$$V = 6 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$$

$$E \approx hV = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \times 6 \times 10^{14} \text{ J}$$

(b) let, number of electrons emitted per second
n = N / t N is total no. of photons

$$P = \frac{NE}{t}$$

$$P = nE$$

$$n = \frac{P}{E}$$

$$= \frac{2 \times 10^{-3}}{6.63 \times 10^{-34} \times 6 \times 10^{14}}$$

Q An Electron, An Alpha particle and a proton have the same K.E which of these particles has the shortest de Broglie wave length

soln

$$KE_e = KE_\alpha = KE_p = K \text{ (let)}$$

$$m_e = 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$$

$$m_\alpha = m_p = 6.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

$$m_d = 4m_p = 4 \times 6.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2mKE}}$$

$$\lambda_e : \lambda_\alpha : \lambda_p = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2m_e K}} : \frac{h}{\sqrt{2m_\alpha K}} : \frac{h}{\sqrt{2m_p K}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{m_e}} : \frac{1}{\sqrt{4m_p}} : \frac{1}{\sqrt{m_p}}$$

A particle wave length of the alpha particle is the least

- Q. A particle is moving three times as fast as electron. The ratio of the de Broglie wave length of the particle to that of the electron is 1.813×10^{-4} . Calculate the particle mass and identify the particle.

Soln Given

$$V_p = 3V_e$$

$$\frac{\lambda_p}{\lambda_e} = 1.813 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$$

$$\frac{\frac{h}{m_p V_p}}{\frac{h}{m_e V_e}} = 1.813 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\frac{m_e V_e}{m_p V_p}$$

$$= 1.813 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\frac{m_e \times V_e}{m_p \times 3V_e} = 1.813 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$\frac{m_e \times V_e}{m_p \times 3V_e} = 1.813 \times 10^{-4}$$

$$m_p = \frac{m_e}{3 \times 1.813 \times 10^{-4}}$$

$$= \frac{9.1 \times 10^{-31}}{3 \times 1.813 \times 10^{-4}}$$

$$= 1.675 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

$$m_p = 1.675 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

The particle is proton

Q What is de Broglie wavelength associated with an electron accelerated through a potential difference of 100V

Soln Given

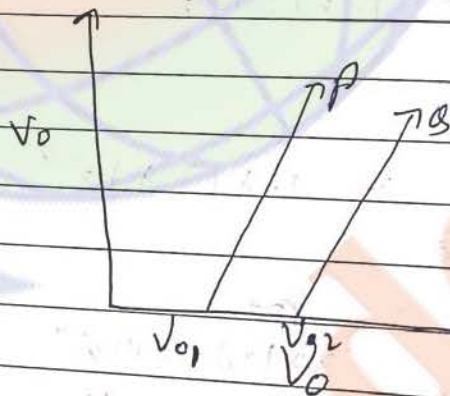
$$V = 100V$$

$$\lambda = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{V}} \text{ \AA}$$

$$\lambda = \frac{12.27}{\sqrt{100}} \text{ \AA}$$

$$\lambda = 1.227 \text{ \AA}$$

Q In a given figure which metal panel B have the greater work function



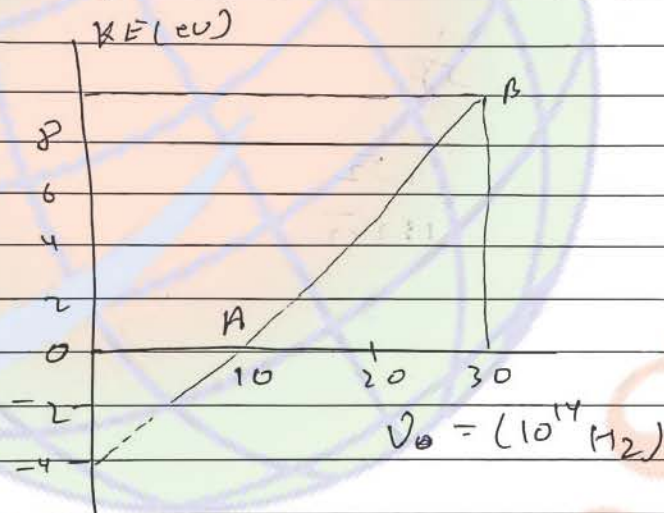
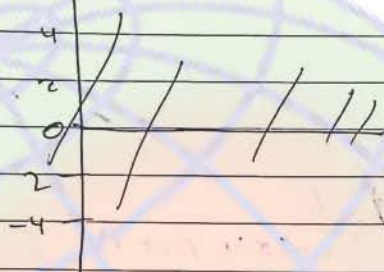
$$V_{02} > V_{01}$$

$$\phi_0 = h\nu_0$$

$$\phi_0 = h\nu_0$$

Work function of the metal Q is ϕ_0 is greater than the work function of the metal P

- i) find λ threshold frequency
- ii) Work function from the following graph
- iii) also find the value of plank's constant



a) $\nu_0 = 10 \times 10^{14}$

b) $\phi_0 = h \nu_0$
 $= 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \times 10 \times 10^{14}$
 $= 6.63 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$

c) $\frac{\Delta V}{\Delta \nu} = \frac{h}{c}$

$h = \frac{\Delta V c}{\Delta \nu}$

$= \frac{8 \times 10^{-19}}{5 \times 10^{14} \times 10} = 6.4 \times 10^{-34}$

$$d = {}_2\text{He}^{+2}$$

$$p \rightarrow {}_1\text{H}^+$$

classmate
Date _____
Page _____

Q. An α particle and proton are accelerated from rest through the same potential difference V . Find the ratio of de Broglie wavelengths associated with them.

Soln

$$m_p = m$$

$$m_\alpha = 4m$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2meV}}$$

$$\lambda_p : \lambda_\alpha$$

$$\frac{h}{\sqrt{2meV}} : \frac{h}{\sqrt{2 \times 4 \times 2eV}}$$

$$= \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}}$$

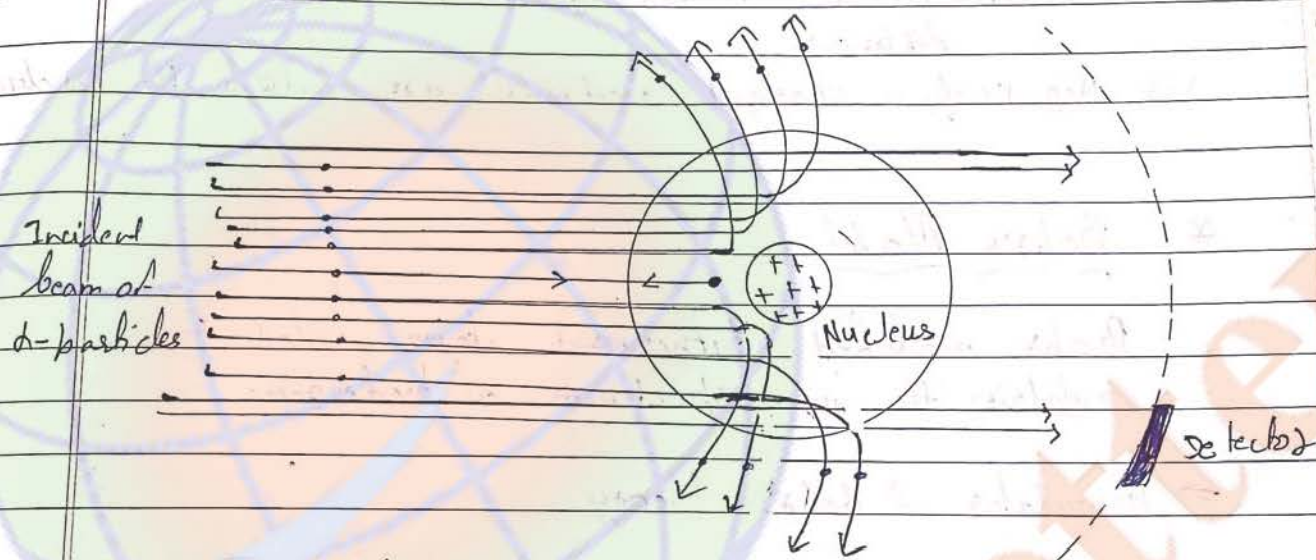
$$= \frac{1}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

$$1 : 2\sqrt{2}$$

* Res
Crs
Incident beam
d-plas

Atoms

* Rutherford α -scattering experiment
or
Geiger - Marsden's α -particle scattering Experiment



Rutherford scattering experiment

On the suggestion of Rutherford, in 1911, his two associates, H. Geiger and E. Marsden performed an experiment by bombarding α -particles (Helium nuclei $Z=2, A=4$) on a gold foil.

Observations

- (i) Most of the α -particles pass through the gold foil undeflected
- (ii) A very small number of α -particles (1 in 8000) suffered large angle deflection; some of them retraced their path or suffered 180° deflection

Conclusion:

- (i) Atom is hollow
- (ii) Entire positive charge and nearly whole mass of atom is concentrated in a small centre called nucleus of atom.
- (iii) Coulombic law holds good for atomic distances
- (iv) Negatively charged electrons are outside the nucleus

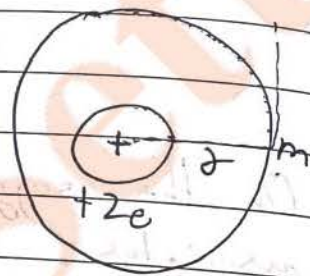
* Bohr's Model

Bohr modified Rutherford atom model to explain the line spectrum of hydrogen.

⇒ postulates of Bohr's theory

1) Stationary circular orbits ⇒

An atom consists of a central positively charged nucleus and negatively charged electrons revolve around the nucleus in certain orbits called stationary orbits



The electrostatic Coulomb force b/w cl'd electrons and the nucleus provides the necessary centripetal force

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

Where Z is the atomic number, m is the mass of electron, $r_n =$ radius of orbit

- ii) **Quantum condition** \Rightarrow The stationary orbits are those in which angular momentum of electron is an integral multiple of $\frac{h}{2\pi}$ i.e.

$$mvr = n \frac{h}{2\pi} \quad n = 1, 2, 3 \dots \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

Integer n is called the principal quantum no. This equation is called Bohr's quantum condition.

- iii) **Heavy Nucleus** \Rightarrow The nucleus is extremely massive than electron, so motion of nucleus can be neglected.

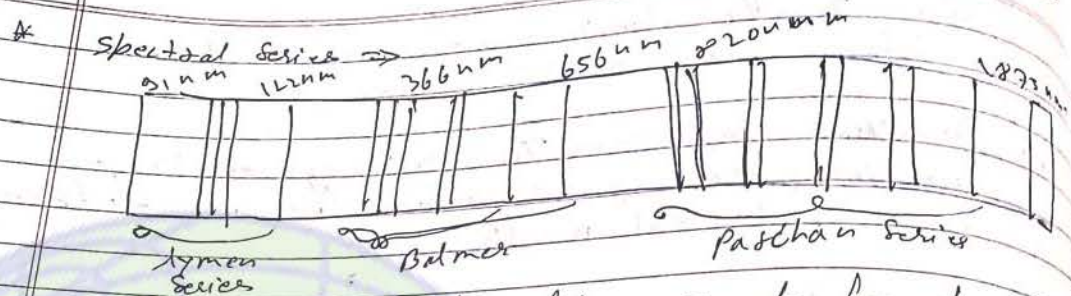
- iv) **Transitions** \Rightarrow The electron does not radiate energy when in a stationary orbit. The quantum of energy (or photon) is emitted or absorbed when an electron jumps from one stationary orbit to the other. The frequency of emitted or absorbed photon is given by

$$h\nu = |E_i - E_f| \quad \text{--- (iii)}$$

This is called Bohr's frequency condition

Radius of orbit and Energy of electron in orbit. Condition of motion of electron in circular orbit is

$$\frac{mv^2}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{(Ze)(e)}{r^2} \quad \text{--- (iv)}$$



1) Lyman series \Rightarrow when electron jumps from higher energy orbit to first orbit

$n_1 = 1$ and $n_2 = 2, 3, 4$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

It lies in UV region

2) Balmer series \Rightarrow

$n_1 = 2$ and $n_2 = 3, 4, 5$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

$$= \frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

It lies in visible region

3) Paschen series \Rightarrow

$n_1 = 3$ and $n_2 = 4, 5, 6$

$$\therefore \frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

$$\Rightarrow \bar{V} = R \left(\frac{1}{3^2} \quad -\frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

It lies in TR region

(1) Bracket series

$$n_1 = 4 \quad \text{and} \quad n_2 = 5, 6, 7$$

$$\bar{V} = R \left(\frac{1}{4^2} \quad -\frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

It lies in IR region

(2) P- fund series

~~$$\bar{V} = R \left(\frac{1}{5^2} \quad -\frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$~~

$$n_1 = 5 \quad \text{and} \quad n_2 = 6, 7, 8, \dots$$

$$\therefore \bar{V} = R \left(\frac{1}{5^2} \quad -\frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

$$= \bar{V} = R \left(\frac{1}{5^2} \quad -\frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

It lies in a TR region.

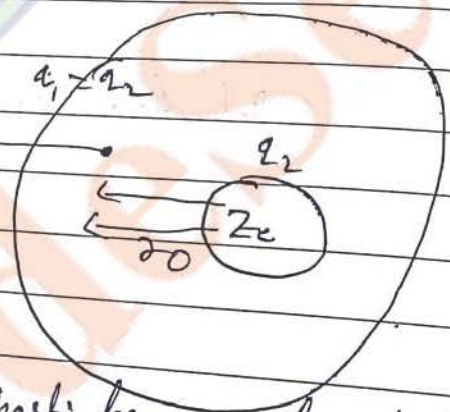
* A distance of closest approach as ^{size} ~~angle~~ of nucleus
 is the minimum distance up to which an ^{energetic} ~~energetic~~
~~alpha~~ particle travelling directly towards the nucleus
 can move before coming to rest and then
 retracing path is known as distance of
 closest approach

Assumption \Rightarrow

- 1) \Rightarrow The scattering is because of collision b/w α particles and nucleus which is perfectly elastic.
- 2) Motion of the nucleus during impact is not taken into consideration because it is heavy
- 3) α -particles as well as nucleus are taken as a point charge.

$$d = \frac{1}{4} \frac{Hc}{v^2}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} mv^2$$



positive charge particles α -particle bombarded towards
 the nucleus with velocity v and K.E is given by

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$$

(1)

due to electrostatic force of repulsion
 α -particles at rest at distance r_0 from the
 centre of the nucleus

$$U = \frac{k q_1 q_2}{r_0^2}$$

$$U = \frac{k \times 2e \times 2e}{r_0^2}$$

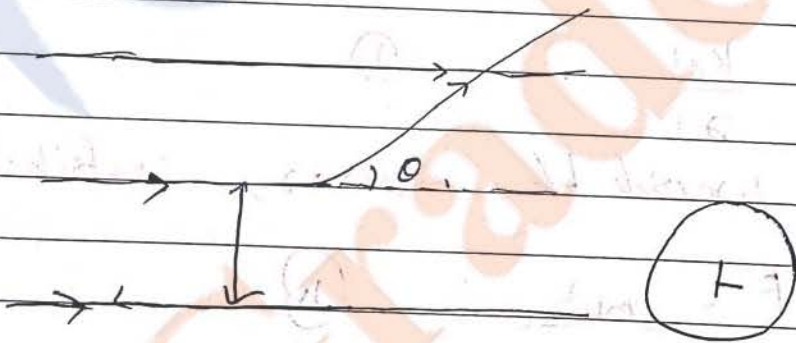
$$U = \frac{2kZe^2}{r_0}$$

This potential energy must be equal to the K.E

$$\frac{1}{2}mv^2 = \frac{2kZe^2}{r_0}$$

$$r_0 = \frac{2kZe^2}{\frac{1}{2}mv^2}$$

* Impact parameter \rightarrow The perpendicular distance of
 the velocity vector of the α -particle from the
 centre of the nucleus. when α -particle is not
 deflected is known as the impact parameter.
 \rightarrow It is denoted by b .



$$b = \frac{2Ze^2}{mv^2} \cot \frac{\theta}{2}$$

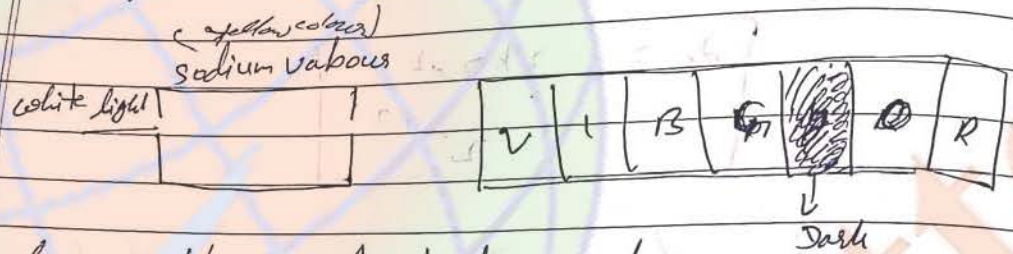
$$4\pi\epsilon_0 \left(\frac{1}{2}mv^2 \right)$$

* Atomic Spectrum \Rightarrow

In each atom of the element electrons jump from one energy level to another energy level produce ^{emits} radiation of different wave lengths that produce the spectrum called atomic spectrum.

* Absorption or line spectrum \Rightarrow

When white light passes through gas or vapours the spectrum of transmitted light consists of few dark lines with bright line called absorption line spectrum.



* Bohr's theory of hydrogen atom

hydrogen atom consists of the 1 electron and positive electron have mass m and moves with velocity v along with circular path. KE is given by

$KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$ electrostatic force is given by

$$U = \frac{Kec^2}{r^2} \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

this force provide the necessary centripetal force

$$F = \frac{mv^2}{r} \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

from eqn (i) and (ii)

$$\frac{mv^2}{r} = \frac{ke^2}{r^2}$$

$$mv^2 = \frac{ke^2}{r} \quad (1)$$

According to Bohr's atomic theory

$$mvr = \frac{nh}{2\pi}$$

$$\text{where } n = \nu r \quad (2)$$

$$v = \frac{nh}{2\pi m r} \quad (3)$$

Putting this value in eqn (1)

$$\frac{nh^2 \nu^2}{4\pi^2 m^2 r} = \frac{ke^2}{r}$$

$$\boxed{r = \frac{n^2 h^2}{4\pi^2 k m e^2}}$$

where $\frac{h^2}{4\pi^2 k m e^2}$ is constant

$$\boxed{r \propto n^2}$$

Radius of an orbit is directly proportional to the square of the principal quantum no.

i.e. $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

Hence ratio of radii is $1:4:9$

Putting the value in eqn (2)

$$v = \frac{nh^2 \nu^2}{2\pi m n^2 h^2} = \frac{ke^2}{2\pi n h}$$

$$v = \frac{2\pi k e^2}{nh}$$

where $\frac{2\pi k e^2}{h} = \text{constant}$

to $\boxed{v \propto \frac{1}{n}}$

A velocity of electron in its orbit is inversely proportional to the principle quantum no.

A Total energy of electron in its orbit

when electron revolved in orbit its possess both KE and potential energy

$$E = KE + PE \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} m v^2$$

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} \frac{k e^2}{r} \quad (\text{from eq. 2 (4)})$$

electric potential energy

$$PE = \frac{k e^2}{r}$$

$$PE = -\frac{k e^2}{r}$$

Putting these values in eqn (5)

$$E = \frac{k e^2}{2r} - \frac{k e^2}{r}$$

$$\boxed{E = -\frac{k e^2}{2r}}$$

$$E = -\frac{k e^2 \times \frac{2\pi^2 k m e^4}{n^2 h^2}}{2 \times \frac{2\pi^2 k m e^4}{n^2 h^2}}$$

$$\boxed{E = -\frac{2\pi^2 k^2 m e^4}{n^2 h^2}}$$

$$K = 9 \times 10^9 \text{ Nm}^2/\text{C}^2$$

$$e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

$$m = 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$$

$$h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$$

$$E = - \frac{2\pi^2 k^2 m e^4}{n^2 h^2}$$

$$E = - \frac{2 \times (3.14)^2 \times (9 \times 10^9) \times 9.1 \times 10^{-31} \times (1.6 \times 10^{-19})^4}{n^2 (6.63 \times 10^{-34})^2}$$

$$E = - \frac{2.17 \times 10^{-18}}{n^2} \text{ J}$$

$$E = \frac{2.17 \times 10^{-18}}{n^2} \text{ eV}$$

$$E = \frac{13.6}{n^2} \text{ eV}$$

* energy level

$$E = \frac{-13.6}{n^2} \text{ eV}$$

when $n=1$ (ground state)

negative sign show that electron bounded with the nucleus.

$$E_1 = \frac{-13.6}{1^2} \text{ eV}$$

$$E_1 = -13.6 \text{ eV}$$

when $n=2$

$$E_2 = \frac{-13.6}{2^2} \text{ eV}$$

$$E_2 = -3.4 \text{ eV}$$

when $n=3$

$$E_3 = \frac{-13.6}{9} \text{ eV}$$

$$E_3 = -1.51 \text{ eV}$$

when $n=4$

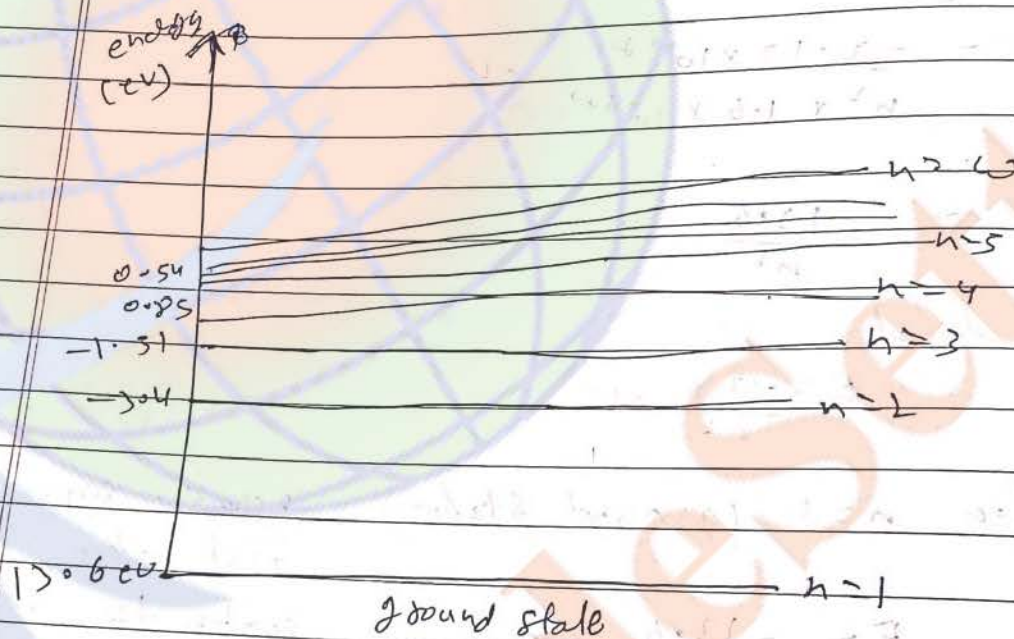
$$E_4 = \frac{13.6}{16}$$

$$= -0.85 \text{ eV}$$

when $n=5$

$$E_5 = \frac{13.6}{25}$$

$$= -0.54 \text{ eV}$$



Line spectrum of hydrogen atom

According to bores atomic theory when electron jump from high energy level to the lower energy level it is radiate energy

in form of photon
 $h\nu = E_n - E_m$

Where

$$E_n = \frac{-2\pi^2 k^2 m e^4}{n^2 h^2}$$

$$E_n - E_m = \frac{-2\pi^2 k^2 m e^4}{h^2 h^2} + \frac{2\pi^2 k^2 m e^4}{m^2 h^2}$$

$$\frac{hc}{\lambda} = \frac{-2\pi^2 k^2 m e^4}{h^2} \left[\frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{m^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{2\pi^2 k^2 m e^4}{ch^3} \left[\frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{m^2} \right]$$

where $\frac{2\pi^2 k^2 m e^4}{ch^3} = R = 1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}$

called Rydberg constant

$$\boxed{\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{m^2} \right]}$$

$$\bar{\nu} = R \left[\frac{1}{n^2} - \frac{1}{m^2} \right]$$

$\bar{\nu}$ = wave number

* Hydrogen spectrum and spectral lines \Rightarrow
 when electron jumps from high energy level to low energy level it emits the radiation of different wave length called spectral lines

1) Lyman series \Rightarrow
When the spectral line emitted due to
the transition of an electron from any
order orbit $n_1 = 2, 3, 4$
to 1st orbit

$n_1 = 1$
from a spectral series called spectral
lines called Lyman series

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

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[1 - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right]$$

largest wave length

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{max}} = R \left[1 - \frac{1}{2^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{max}} = \frac{3}{4} R$$

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{4}{3} R$$

$$\lambda_{max} = \frac{4}{3 \times 10097 \times 10^7}$$

$$= 1215 \text{ \AA}$$

smallest wave length $n = \infty$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{min}} = R \left[1 - \frac{1}{\infty} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_{min}} = R$$

$$\lambda_{min} = \frac{1}{R}$$

$$\lambda_{min} = \frac{1}{10097 \times 10^7}$$

$$= 911 \text{ \AA}$$

Lyman Series lies in a ultra violet region

ii) Balmer Series \Rightarrow The spectral lines form due to transition of electron from any outer orbit $n_i = 3, 4, \dots$ to the second orbit ($n_f = 2$) is known as Balmer series

$$n_i = 3, 4, \dots$$

$$n_f = 2$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right]$$

$$\lambda_{\max} = 6563 \text{ \AA}$$

$$\lambda_{\min} = 3646 \text{ \AA}$$

iii) Balmer Series lies in a visible region

iii) Paschen Series \Rightarrow The spectral lines form due to transition of electron from any outer orbit $n_i = 4, 5, 6, \dots$ to the third orbit is known as Paschen series

$$n_i = 4, 5, 6, \dots$$

$$n_f = 3$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{9} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right]$$

$$\lambda_{\max} = 1875 \text{ \AA}$$

$$\lambda_{\min} = 819 \text{ \AA}$$

Paschen series lies in a infra-red region

iv) Brackett series \Rightarrow The spectral line from due to transition of electron from any outer orbit $n = 5, 6$ to the fourth orbit is known as Brackett series

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

$n_1 = 4$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{16} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right]$$

$$\lambda_{max} = 40589 \text{ \AA}$$

$$\lambda_{min} = 14576 \text{ \AA}$$

v) Pfund series \Rightarrow The spectral line from due to transition of electron from any outer orbit $n = 6, 7$ to the fifth orbit is known as Pfund series

$$n_1 = 5$$

$$n_2 = 6, 7$$

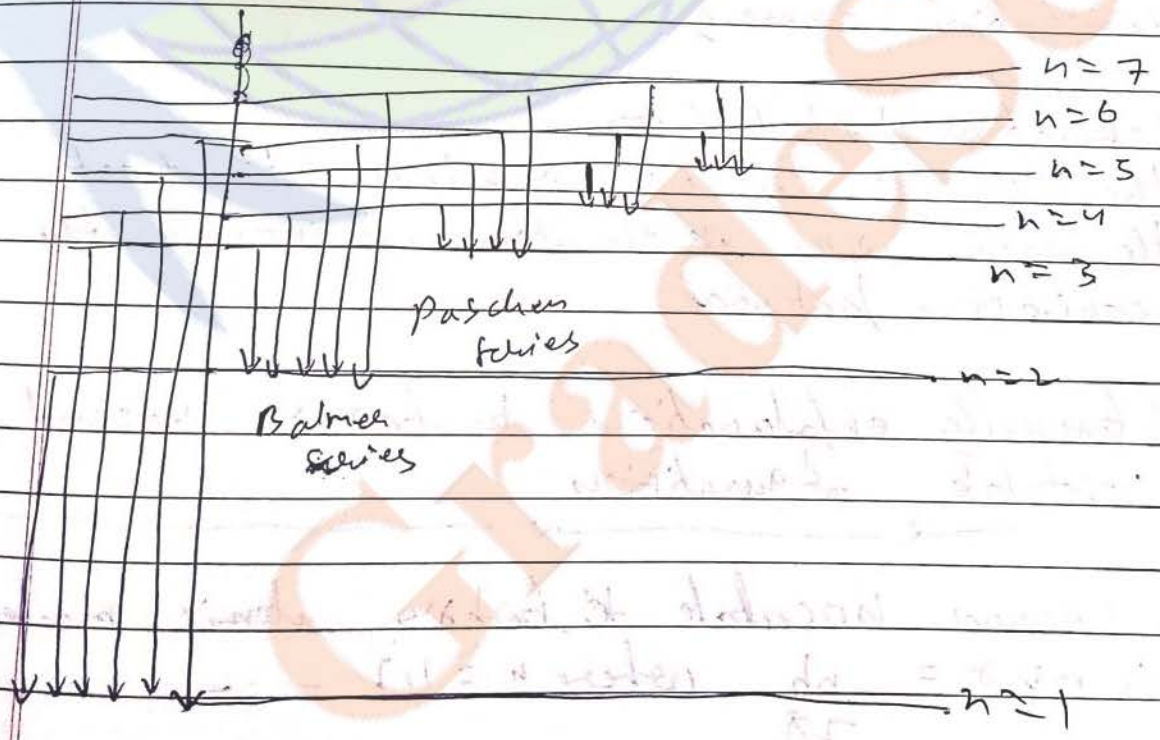
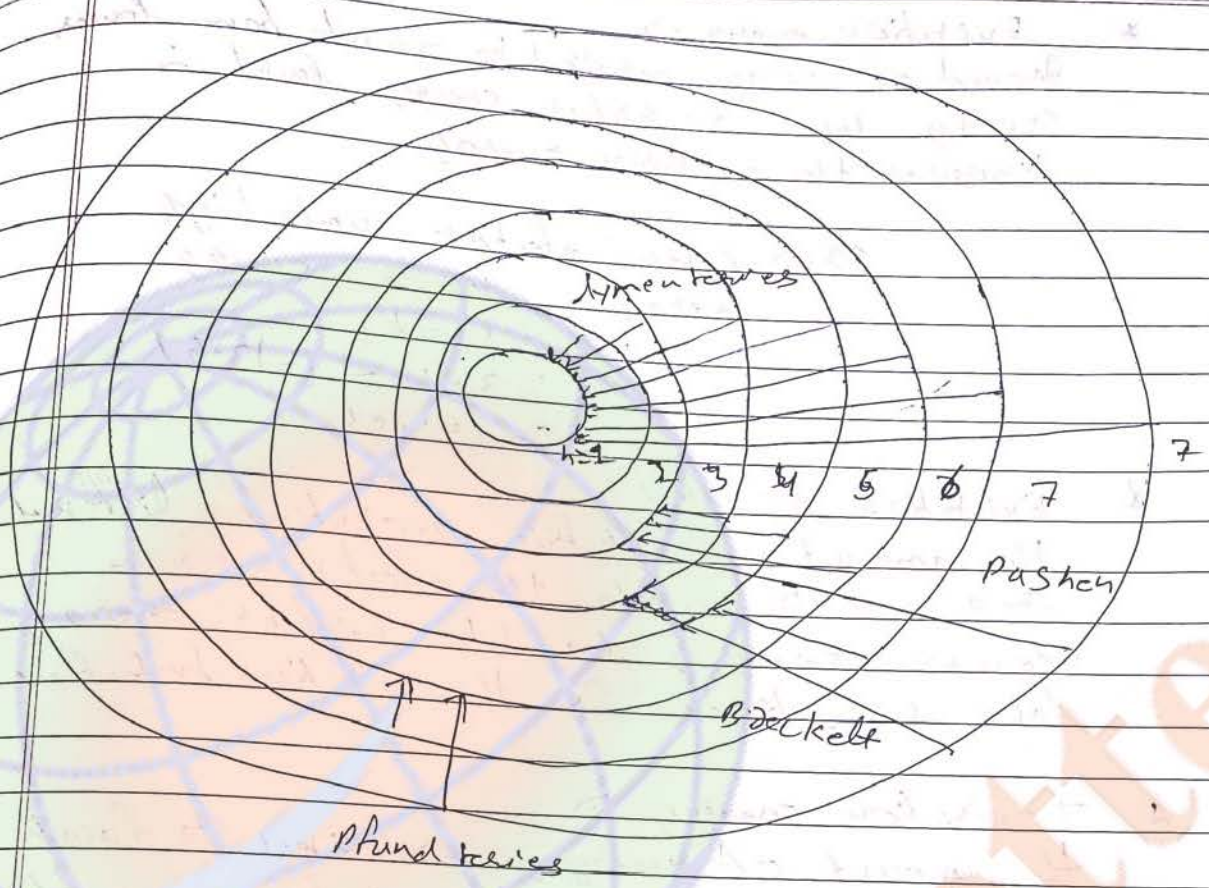
$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right]$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left[\frac{1}{25} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right]$$

$$\lambda_{max} = 74536 \text{ \AA}$$

$$\lambda_{min} = 22773 \text{ \AA}$$

These line in above infrared region



* Excitation energy \Rightarrow
Amount of energy required to jump from lower energy level to higher energy level is known as the excitation energy

eg \Rightarrow when electron jumps high energy to lower energy

$$E = E_2 - E_1$$

$$= 3.4 - (-13.6)$$

$$= 10.2 \text{ eV}$$

* Excitation potential
The amount of electric potential difference required to jump the electron from lower energy level to higher energy level is known as the excitation potential

A Ionisation energy \Rightarrow
The amount of energy required to detach the electron from the atom is known as the ionisation energy

A Ionisation potential \Rightarrow
The potential difference required to detach the electron from the atom is known as the ionisation potential

* de Broglie's explanation to Bohr's second postulate of quantisation

The second postulate to Bohr's atomic model is $m v r = \frac{nh}{2\pi}$ where $n = 1, 2, \dots$

According to de Broglie the electron in orbit is particles in waves we know that when strings fixed to end is plucked in large no. of waves are excited. standing wave forms when total distance travel by a wave down and back is integral multiple hence distance covered equal to

hence, distance covered = $2\pi r_n$

$$i.e. \quad 2\pi r_n = n\lambda \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

but According to de Broglie

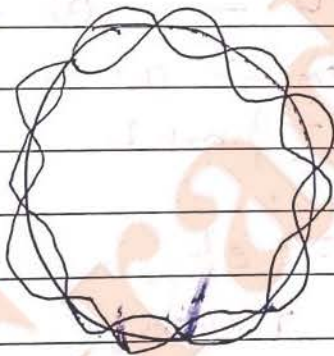
$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$$

$$\therefore 2\pi r_n = \frac{nh}{mv_n}$$

$$mv_n r_n = \frac{nh}{2\pi}$$

Angular momentum at n^{th} = $\frac{nh}{2\pi}$

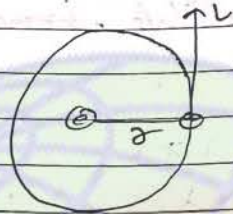
This is 2nd postulates of the Bohr's



$$mv_n r_n = \frac{nh}{2\pi} = \frac{h}{2\pi} \times n$$

* Electron orbit \Rightarrow

Let an electron revolve with velocity v in its orbit
electrostatic force of attraction ~~force~~ provide the
necessary centripetal force



$$F_c = F_e$$

$$\frac{mv^2}{r} = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \times \frac{e^2}{r^2}$$

$$mv^2 = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 m r}}$$

$$r = \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 m v^2}$$

When electron revolves in orbit possesses both
KE as well as potential energy

$$K = KE + U \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

KE of electron is given by

$$KE = \frac{1}{2}mv^2$$

$$KE = \frac{e^2}{2 \times 4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad \text{(from eq 1)}$$

$$PE = \frac{-e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad \text{--- (3)}$$

Electric potential energy

$$U = \frac{1}{4\pi\epsilon_0} \frac{q_1 q_2}{r}$$

$$U = \frac{ex - e}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$U = \frac{-e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Putting value of KE and U in eqn (2)

$$E = \frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r} - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$E = \frac{e^2 - 2e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$E = \frac{-e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r} \quad \text{--- (5)}$$

A negative sign show that electron bounded with the nucleus

eqn (5) / eqn (3)

$$\frac{E}{KE} = \frac{-e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r} \div \frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$K = -K.E$$

eqn (5) / eqn (4)

$$\frac{E}{U} = \frac{-e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r} \div \frac{-e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$\frac{E}{U} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2} U$$

Note \rightarrow Total energy of an electron is equal to the negative of the K.E

ii) Total energy possessed by an electron in its orbit is half of the electric potential energy

Q It is found experimentally that 13.6 eV energy is required to separate a hydrogen atom into a proton and electron. Compute the orbital radius, and velocity of an electron in a hydrogen atom

Soln Given

$$E = 13.6 \text{ eV}$$

$$= 13.6 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$$

$$r = ? \quad v = ?$$

$$e = 1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$$

$$E = \frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 r}$$

$$r = \frac{e^2}{8\pi\epsilon_0 E}$$

$$= \frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-19})^2}{2 \times 13.6 \times 1.6 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$= \frac{1.6 \times 10^{-19} \times 9 \times 10^9}{2 \times 13.6}$$

$$= \frac{1.6 \times 9 \times 10^{-10}}{27.2}$$

$$= 5.3 \times 10^{-11} \text{ m}$$

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$$V = \sqrt{\frac{e^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 m a}}$$

$$V = \frac{c}{4\pi\epsilon_0 m a}$$

$$V^2 = \frac{c^2}{4\pi\epsilon_0 m a}$$

$$= \frac{(1.6 \times 10^{-19})^2 \times 9 \times 10^9}{9 \times 10^{-31} \times 5.3 \times 10^{-11}}$$

$$V = 2.2 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$$

Q According to classical electro magnetic theory calculate the initial frequency of the light emitted by the electron revolving

$$T = \frac{\text{circumference}}{\text{speed}}$$

$$T = \frac{2\pi r}{v}$$

$$\frac{1}{T} = \frac{v}{2\pi r}$$

$$v = \frac{v}{2\pi r}$$

$$= \frac{2.2 \times 10^6}{2 \times 3.14 \times 5.3 \times 10^{-11}} \text{ Hz}$$

$$= 3.6 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz}$$

Q A 10kg satellite circles earth once every two hours in an orbit having a radius of 7000 km assuming that Bohr's angular momentum quantulate - applying a satellite to it just as over electrons in a hydrogen atom. find quantum no. orbit and the satellite

Soln

$$m = 1.0 \text{ kg}$$

$$r = 8000 \text{ km}$$

$$= 8 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$$

$$T = 2 \text{ hr}$$

$$= 2 \times 3600 \text{ sec}$$

$$mv^2 = \frac{mv^2}{2\pi}$$

$$n = \frac{2\pi m v^2}{h} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$T = \frac{\text{circumference}}{v}$$

$$T = \frac{2\pi r}{v}$$

$$v = \frac{2\pi r}{T}$$

Putting this value in eqn (1)

$$n = \frac{2\pi m r}{h} \times \frac{2\pi r}{T}$$

$$n = \frac{(2 \times 3.14)^2 \times 10 \times (8 \times 10^6)^2}{6.63 \times 10^{-34} \times 2 \times 3600}$$

$$= 5.3 \times 10^{45}$$

Q Using the Rydberg formula calculate the wave length of the 1st 4 spectral line in the Lyman series in the hydrogen spectrum

Soln

Given

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R \left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2} \right)$$

$$n_1 = 1$$

$$n_2 = 2, 3, 4, 5$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_1} = 1.097 \times 10^7 \left(\frac{1}{1} - \frac{1}{4} \right)$$

$$\frac{1}{\lambda_1} = \frac{1.097 \times 10^7 \times 3}{4}$$

$$\approx \frac{4}{3 \times 1.097 \times 10^7}$$

$$\lambda_1 = 1218 \text{ \AA}$$

Q 12.5 The ground state of the hydrogen atom is -13.6 electron volt (eV) what are the kinetic and potential energy of the electron this

solⁿ $E = -13.6 \text{ eV}$

$$KE = -E$$

$$= +13.6 \text{ eV}$$

$$E = \frac{1}{2} U$$

$$U = 2E$$

$$U = 2 \times -13.6$$

$$= -27.2 \text{ eV}$$

Ch \rightarrow 13classmate
Date _____
Page _____Nuclei

* 1 amu \Rightarrow $\frac{1}{12}$ part of the mass of an C^{12} carbon atom

\Rightarrow 1 mole of C^{12} carbon atoms = 12 grams

\Rightarrow 6.022×10^{23} C^{12} atoms = 12g

\Rightarrow mass of 1 C^{12} atom = $\frac{12}{6.022 \times 10^{23}}$

\Rightarrow 1 amu = $\frac{1}{12} \times \frac{12}{6.022 \times 10^{23}}$

= 1

6.022×10^{23}

= 1.66×10^{-27} g

1.66×10^{-27} kg

* Mass energy equivalent \Rightarrow
A/c to Einstein equation of mass energy

$$E = mc^2$$

$$E = 1.66 \times 10^{-27} \times (3 \times 10^8)^2$$

$$E = 1.66 \times 10^{-27} \times 9 \times 10^{16}$$

$$E = 1.494 \times 10^{-11} \text{ J}$$

In electron volt (eV)

$$E = \frac{1.494 \times 10^{-11}}{1.602 \times 10^{-19}}$$

$$= 931.25 \times 10^6 \text{ eV}$$

$$= 931.25 \text{ MeV}$$

In MeV

$$E = 931.25 \text{ MeV}$$

Mass of proton = 1.673×10^{-27} kg
 mass of neutron is = 1.6749×10^{-27} kg

* Nucleid Nuclide \Rightarrow Atoms present of proton and neutron in nucleus is called Nuclide

* Isotopes \Rightarrow Atoms of an element having same atomic number but different mass no. are called isotopes

eg \Rightarrow ${}^1_1\text{H}^1$, ${}^2_1\text{H}^2$, ${}^3_1\text{H}^3$

${}^3_2\text{He}^3$, ${}^4_2\text{He}^4$

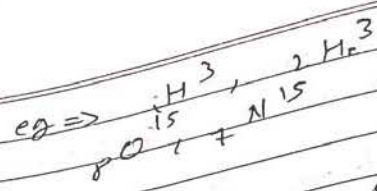
${}^{17}_{17}\text{Cl}^{35}$, ${}^{17}_{17}\text{Cl}^{37}$

A Fraction mass \Rightarrow Fraction mass present an element due to the presence of the isotopes

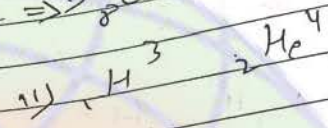
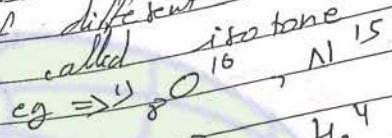
Let an element have an no. n no. of isotopes having mass no. u_1, u_2, \dots, u_n present, $k_1\%$, $k_2\%$, \dots , $k_n\%$

$$\text{Fraction mass} = (u) = \frac{u_1 k_1 + u_2 k_2 + \dots + u_n k_n}{k_1 + k_2 + \dots + k_n}$$

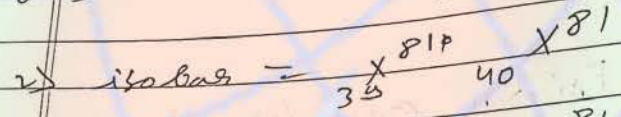
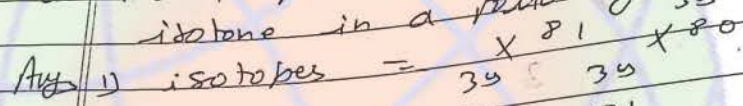
A Isobar \Rightarrow Atoms of an element different element have the same mass no. but different atomic no. are called isobar



★ Isotones \Rightarrow Atoms of different element have same no. of neutrons called isotone



Q find the pair of isotopes, isotones and isotone in a following



Exercise 13.1

$k_1 = 7.5\%$
 $k_2 = 92.5\%$
 $u_1 = 6.01572$
 $u_2 = 7.01000$
 $u = \frac{u_1 k_1 + u_2 k_2}{k_1 + k_2}$

$\Rightarrow \frac{6.01572 \times 7.5 + 7.01000 \times 92.5}{7.5 + 92.5}$

$= 6.9414$

* Size of Nucleus \Rightarrow

Volume of the Nucleus is directly proportional to the mass no.

$$V \propto A$$

$$\frac{4}{3} \pi R^3 \propto A$$

$$R^3 \propto A$$

$$R = R_0 A^{1/3}$$

Where R_0 is known as empirical constant

$$R_0 = 1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

Q Calculate the Radius of nucleus of mass no. 8

$$A = 8$$

$$R = R_0 A^{1/3}$$

$$R = 1.2 \times 10^{-15} \times 8^{1/3}$$

$$R = 2.04 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}$$

* Nuclear Density \Rightarrow Mass of the nucleons present in nucleus per unit volume is known as the nuclear density.

$$\rho = \frac{M}{V}$$

Mass of proton = Mass of neutron

$M =$ mass of proton + mass of neutron

$$= Zm + m(A - Z)$$

$$= Zm + mA - Zm$$

$$M = mA$$

$$V = \frac{4}{3} \pi R^3$$

$$V = \frac{4}{3} \pi R_0^3 A$$

$$[R = R_0 A^{1/3}]$$

$$\rho = \frac{mA}{\frac{4}{3} \pi R_0^3 A}$$

$$= \frac{3 \times 1.66 \times 10^{-27}}{4 \times 3.14 \times (1.2 \times 10^{-15})^3}$$

$$= 2.3 \times 10^{17} \text{ kg/m}^3$$

Density of the nucleus of atom is constant
A does not depend on the mass no.

* Mass Energy or law of conservation of mass energy

Acc to Einstein

$$E = mc^2 \quad (1)$$

If rest mass of the body be m_0 and
K.E is 'T' then total energy is
given by

$$E = M_0 c^2 + T \quad (2)$$

From eqn (1) and (2)

$$M_0 c^2 + T = mc^2$$

$$T = mc^2 - m_0 c^2$$

$$T = (m - m_0) \cdot c^2$$

$$T = \Delta mc^2$$

change of mass is equal to the converted into the
K.E

Mass defect \Rightarrow The difference b/w the mass of the constituent nucleons of the nucleus in the free state and mass of the nucleus is known as mass defect

$\Rightarrow \Delta m$ is denoted by Δm

considers as an atom mass no. A and Atomic no. Z

no. of proton = Z

" " neutron = $(A-Z)$

if mass of the each proton and neutron be m_p and m_n

Total mass of constituent nucleons is given by
 $Zm_p + (A-Z)m_n$

If mass of the nucleus be M then mass defect is given by

$$\Delta m = Zm_p + (A-Z)m_n - M \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

* Binding energy \Rightarrow Total energy the required to separate the nucleons at inf. infinite distance a path from the nucleus so that they ~~may~~ not interact with each other is known as the binding energy

This binding energy B is equivalent to the mass defect i.e. is given by

$$BE = \Delta mc^2$$

$$BE = [Zmp + (A-Z)m_n - M] c^2$$

Here Δm is in atomic mass unit
so energy is in mega electron volt
given by

$$BE = (Zmp + (A-Z)m_n - M) \times 931.25 \text{ MeV}$$

* Binding energy per nucleon \Rightarrow

The average energy required to release a nucleon from the nucleus is called binding energy per nucleon.

$$\frac{\text{Binding energy (BE)}}{\text{Nucleon}} = \frac{\text{Binding energy}}{\text{Total no. of nucleon}}$$

Binding energy per nucleon determine the stability of the nucleus which is directly proportional to the binding energy per nucleon.

Conclusion \Rightarrow The variation of binding energy per nucleon and mass no. of curve gives

1) Average binding energy of light nuclei like ${}^1_1\text{H}$, ${}^2_1\text{H}$, ${}^3_1\text{H}$ is small average b. for mass numbers ranging from 2 to 20 there are sharp distinct peaks corresponding to ${}^{24}_{12}\text{Mg}$, ${}^{29}_{12}\text{Si}$, ${}^{16}_8\text{O}$, ${}^{24}_{12}\text{Mg}$, ${}^{12}_6\text{C}$, ${}^{16}_8\text{O}$

- These nuclei are more stable than very nuclei
- (iii) Binding energy per nucleon of the intermediate nuclei range 8.30 to 12.0 corresponding to average binding energy per nucleon 8.5 mega electron volt (above the 8 MeV) in which iron nuclei has binding energy per nucleon is 8.8 MeV
- (iv) As the mass no. of increases the binding energy per nucleon gradually decreases falls up to 7.6 MeV of ^{238}U nuclei

Conclusion \Rightarrow

- i) When heavy unstable nuclei moves with the stable nuclei than they will gain binding energy and hence release of energy this indicates that energy can be release when heavy nuclei break into two or more nuclei called nuclear fission

When we move from lighter nuclei to heavier nuclei we gain find that there we will gain in the over all binding energy and hence release of energy this indicates that energy can be released when two or more lighter nuclei fuses together to form a heavier nuclei this process is know as fusion

Graph

* Packing fraction \Rightarrow
 Mass excess or mass defect per nucleon
 is known as the packing fraction

$$\text{Packing fraction} = \frac{\text{mass defect}}{\text{mass number}} = \frac{M - A}{A}$$

Packing fraction so the stability of the nucleus
 it is universally proportional to packing
 fraction

* Nuclear force \Rightarrow
 an attractive force acts b/w the two nucleons
 is known as the nuclear force

* Characteristics of the nuclear force \Rightarrow

i) It is independent of charge

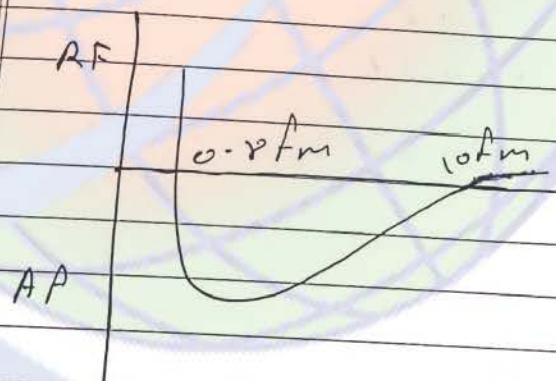
ii) It is strongest force and nature is

π^+ - meson \rightarrow electron
 π^- - meson \rightarrow proton
 π^0 - meson \rightarrow neutron

magnitude is 100 times ^{the} electrostatic force and 10^{38} times than the gravitational force

- iii) It is a short range force ($10^{-15}m$)
- iv) Nuclear force is spin dependent - It has been observe that the nuclear force b/w the nucleons having parallel spin is greater than the force b/w nucleons having anti parallel spin this they as spin dependent
- v) Nuclear force is saturated force
- vi) Nuclear force is non-central force
- vii) Nuclear force is an exchange force it arise due to the exchange of π meson b/w the nucleons

viii) Nuclear force has small component of repulsive force



Nuclear force arise due to π meson \Rightarrow

- 1) π^+ - meson it acts b/w the proton
- 2) π^- - meson it acts b/w the electron
- 3) π^0 - meson it acts b/w the neutron

13.3) obtained a binding energy in mega electron volt of nitrogen nucleus (${}^7_{14}\text{N}$) also find the binding energy per nucleon

$m({}^7_{14}\text{N}) = 14.003074$
 $A = 14, Z = 7$

$M = 14.003074$
 $m_p = 1.007825$
 $m_n = 1.008665$

$BE = Zm_p + (A-Z)m_n - M] \times 931$

$= (7 \times 1.007825 + 7 \times 1.008665 - 14.003074) \times 931$

$= 0.11243 \times 931 \text{ MeV}$

$= 104.67 \text{ MeV}$

$\frac{BE}{\text{nucleon}} = \frac{104.67}{14}$

$= \frac{104.67}{14}$

H.W.E.S
13.4, 13.5

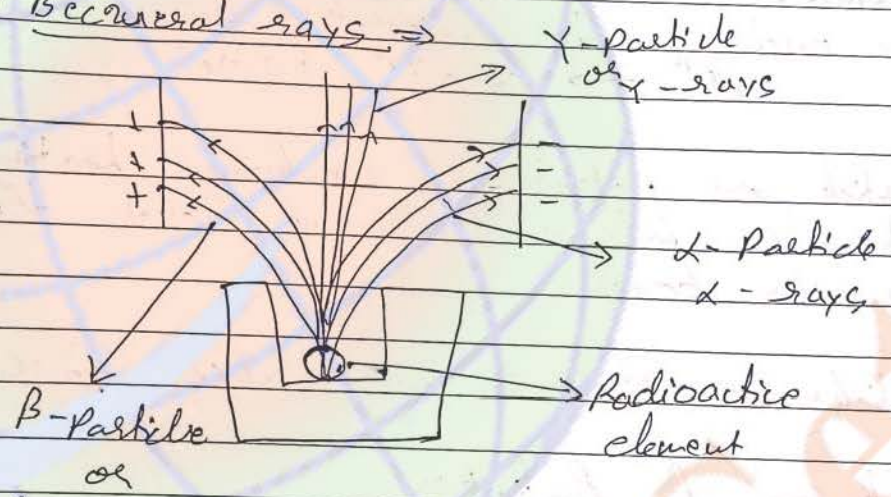
* Radio-activity

The phenomenon of continuous emission of radiation by heavy element is called radio activity

* Radio-active element =>

The element which shows the Radio active element are called Radio-active element

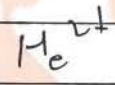
* Because of rays =>



- 1) α-particle
- ↳ P^{2+} - "
- ↳ Y^{-} - "

* Properties of α-particle =>

An α-particle is equivalent to the helium nucleus consists of two proton and two neutrons



They have positive charge +2e
They are emitted with velocity ranging from
① $1.4 \times 10^7 \text{ m/s}$ to ② $2.2 \times 10^7 \text{ m/s}$

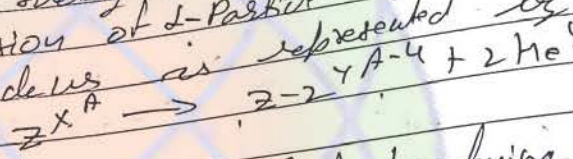
They are deflected by electric and magnetic field

They cause fluorescence
They have low penetrating power

" " rest mass equal to four \times $\frac{1}{1836}$ times
the mass of proton

they have high energy power
they have slightly effect the photographic plate

the emission of α -particle from a radio active nucleus is represented by



α -particle are capable of producing heating effect when fall on a substance and they cause skin bones

α -particles are scattered by metallic foils

2) * Property of β -Particle

i) It is a fast moving electron
ii) It is a negatively charge equal to charge on electron

iii) It rest mass is equal to the rest mass on electron

iv) Its velocity is 2.97×10^8 m/s

v) It is deflected in electric and magnetic field

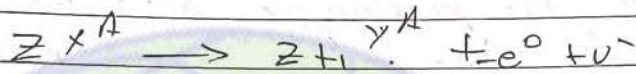
vi) It cause fluorescence

vii) Its penetrating power is about $1/100$ times the penetrating power of α -particle.

vii) It has penetrating power is more than α -particle

ix) It affects the photographic plate

x) The emission of β -particle is given by



3) * Property of γ -particle \Rightarrow

i) It is a packet of energy of electromagnetic radiation

ii) It has no charge

iii) It has mass is zero

iv) Its speed is 3×10^8 m/s in vacuum does not deflect in electric and magnetic field

v) Its ionizing power is $1/100$ by the β -particles

vii) Its penetrating power is 100 times in β -particle

viii) It affects the photographic plate

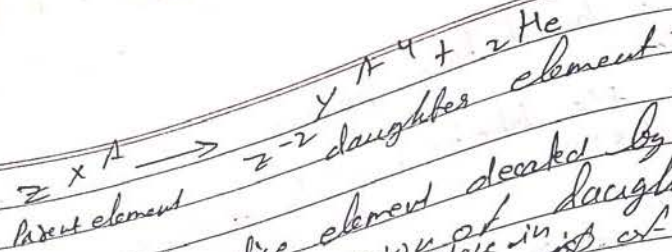
ix) It causes loss of fluorescence emission of γ -rays is given by,



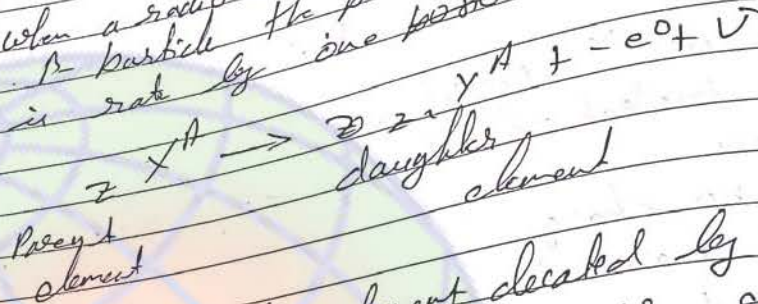
* Law of radioactive decay or disintegration \Rightarrow

i) Radioactive decay is spontaneous process and is not affected by the external conditions such as temp, pressure etc.

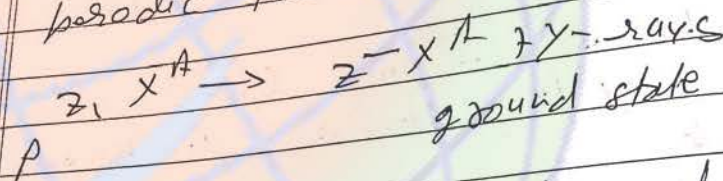
ii) When a radioactive element decays by emitting an α -particle the position of daughter element is down by two places in a periodic table.



iii) When a radio active element decays by emitting a β particle the position of daughter element in periodic table is same as of parent element.



iv) When radio active element decays by emitting a γ -rays its position remains same in periodic table.



H

v) The rate of this integration of a radio-active substance is directly proportional to the no. of atoms remain undecayed in the substance. This law is called radio active decay law or dice integration.

* Mathematical form of decay law →

Let radio active elements initially N_0 ($t=0$) and N after the time 't' elements remains undecayed.

According to law of disintegration

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -\lambda N$$

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -\lambda N \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

When λ is known as decay constant or disintegration constant

b) Integrating

$$\frac{dN}{N} = -\lambda dt$$

Integrating both side

$$\int \frac{dN}{N} = -\lambda \int dt$$

$$\therefore \log_e N = -\lambda t + C \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

where C is a integration constant

$$\text{when } t = 0 \quad N = N_0$$

$$\log_e N_0 = -\lambda \cdot 0 + C$$

$$\therefore C = \log_e N_0$$

Putting this value in eqn (2)

$$\log_e N = -\lambda t + \log_e N_0$$

$$\log_e N - \log_e N_0 = -\lambda t$$

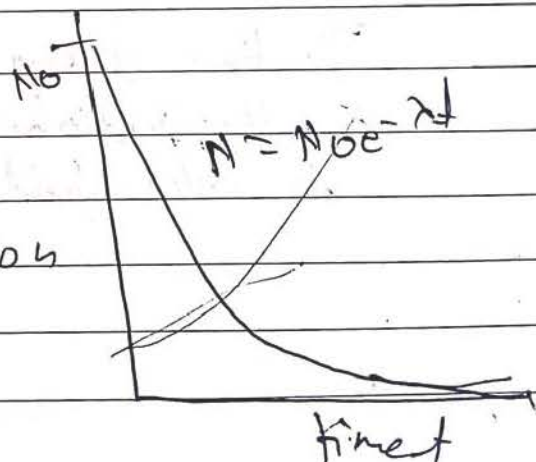
$$\log_e \frac{N}{N_0} = -\lambda t$$

$$\frac{N}{N_0} = e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

This is known as

the exponential decay expression or equation



* decay constant \Rightarrow from exponential decay
 eqn \Rightarrow

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t} \quad \lambda = \frac{1}{t}$$

$$N = N_0 e^{-\frac{1}{t} \times t}$$

$$N = N_0 e^{-1}$$

$$N = \frac{N_0}{e}$$

$$N = \frac{N_0}{2.718}$$

$$N = 0.3679 N_0$$

$$N = 36.79 \% \text{ of } N_0$$

$$N = 36.8 \% \text{ of } N_0$$

Radioactive decay constant is the reciprocal of the time during which no. of atoms in the radioactive substance reduces to 36.8% of the original no. of atoms

Its SI unit is s^{-1}

another unit = day^{-1} , $year^{-1}$, min^{-1} , $hour^{-1}$

* half life radioactive substance \Rightarrow

The time during which half of the atoms of the radioactive substance is ~~just~~ disintegrated is called half life of a radioactive substance

* From the exponential decay equation

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$t = T_{\frac{1}{2}} = T$$

$$N = \frac{N_0}{2}$$

Putting these value in eqn ①

$$\frac{N_0}{2} = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{1}{2} = e^{-\lambda t}$$

Taking loge both side

$$\log_e \frac{1}{2} = \log_e e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$2.303 \log_{10} \frac{1}{2} = -\lambda T$$

$$2.303 [\log_{10} 1 - \log_{10} 2] = -\lambda T$$

$$2.303 \times -0.301 = -\lambda T$$

$$0.693 = \lambda T$$

$$T = \frac{0.693}{\lambda}$$

$$\text{for first half life} = \frac{N_0}{2}$$

$$\text{for 2nd half life} = \frac{N_0}{2 \times 2} = N_0 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^2$$

$$\text{for 3rd half life} = N_0 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3$$

$$\text{for } n^{\text{th}} \text{ half life} = N_0 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

$$\boxed{N = N_0 \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n}$$

$$\frac{N}{N_0} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^n$$

$$n = \frac{t}{T}$$

$$\frac{N}{N_0} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{t/T}$$

* activity of radioactive substance \Rightarrow
 The rate of disintegration of
 radioactive substance is known as
 activity of radioactive substance

from the exponential decay equation

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

diff w.r.t to t

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -\lambda N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$A = \left| \frac{dN}{dt} \right|$$

$$A = \lambda N_0 e^{-\lambda t} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

when $t = 0$ $A = A_0$

$$A_0 = \lambda N_0 \cdot e^0$$

$$A_0 = \lambda N_0$$

Putting this value in eqn (1)

$$A = A_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{A}{A_0} = e^{-\lambda t} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

~~$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$~~

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{N}{N_0} = e^{-\lambda t} \quad (3)$$

from (2) and (3)

$$\frac{A}{A_0} = \frac{N}{N_0}$$

$$\frac{N}{N_0} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{t}{T}}$$

$$\frac{A}{A_0} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^{\frac{t}{T}}$$

Note -

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$A = A_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{A}{A_0} = e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{N_1}{N_0} = e^{-\lambda t}$$

* Average life or mean life \Rightarrow

The ratio of the sum of the live atoms to the total total no. of atom is known as mean life or average life.

$$T_{av} = T_m = \frac{\text{Sum of lives atom}}{\text{total no. of atom}}$$

From the exponential decay equation:

$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

diff w.r. to t

$$\frac{dN}{dt} = -\lambda N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$|dN| = -\lambda N_0 e^{-\lambda t} dt$$

$$\text{Sum of lives atoms} = \int_0^{N_0} t |dN|$$

$$= \int_0^{\infty} t \lambda N_0 e^{-\lambda t} dt$$

$$= \lambda N_0 \int_0^{\infty} t e^{-\lambda t} dt$$

$$\left[\int u v du = u \int v dx - \int \left[\frac{du}{dx} \int v dx \right] dx \right]$$

$$= \lambda N_0 \left[t \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\lambda t} dt - \int_0^{\infty} \left[\frac{dt}{dt} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\lambda t} dt \right] dt \right]$$

$$= \lambda N_0 \left[\left(\frac{t e^{-\lambda t}}{-\lambda} \right)_0^{\infty} + \frac{1}{\lambda} \int_0^{\infty} e^{-\lambda t} dt \right]$$

$$= \frac{\lambda N_0}{\lambda} \left[0 - \frac{1}{\lambda} (e^{-\lambda t})_0^{\infty} \right]$$

$$= N_0 \left[-\frac{1}{\lambda} (e^{\infty} - e^0) \right]$$

$$= N_0 \left[-\frac{1}{\lambda} \times (0 - 1) \right]$$

$$= \frac{N_0}{\lambda}$$

Sum of total lives atom = $\frac{N_0}{\lambda}$

$$T_{av} = \frac{N_0}{\lambda} \cdot \frac{1}{N_0}$$

$$T_{av} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

* Relation b/w the half life and average life

$$T_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{0.6931}{\lambda}$$

$$T_{av} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$\frac{T_{\frac{1}{2}}}{T_{av}} = \frac{0.6931}{1}$$

$$\frac{T_{\frac{1}{2}}}{T_{av}} = 0.6931$$

$$T_{\frac{1}{2}} = 0.6931 T_{av}$$

13.8

$$A_0 = 15 \text{ decay/min}$$

$$T = 5730 \text{ yrs}$$

$$A = 9 \text{ decay/min}$$

$$A = A_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{A}{A_0} = e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\frac{9}{15} = e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$0.6 = e^{-\lambda t}$$

$$\log_e 0.6 = -\lambda t$$

$$2.303 \log_{10} 0.6 = -\lambda t$$

$$+ 2.303 \times 0.2218 = -\lambda t$$

$$2.303 \times 0.2218 = \frac{0.693}{T} t$$

$$t = \frac{2.303 \times 0.2218 \times 5730}{0.693} \text{ yrs}$$

13.9

obtain the amount of cobalt $^{60}_{27}\text{Co}$ necessary to provide a radio active source of $8 \mu\text{Ci}$ of $^{60}_{27}\text{Co}$ (8 micro Curie) strand half life of $^{60}_{27}\text{Co}$ is 5.3 yrs

Soln

$$A = 8 \mu\text{Ci} = 8 \times 3.7 \times 10^7 \text{ decay/sec (Bq)}$$

$$T = 5.3 \text{ yrs}$$

$$= 5.3 \times 365 \times 24 \times 3600 \text{ sec}$$

$$= 1.67 \times 10^8 \text{ sec}$$

$$A = \lambda N$$

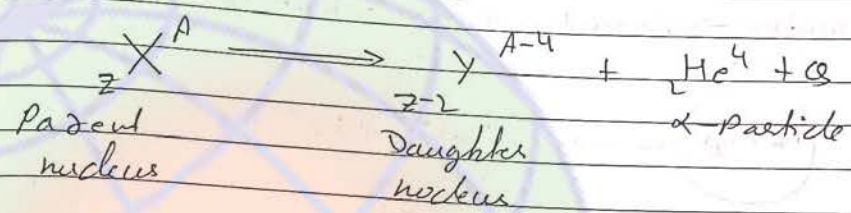
$$N = \frac{A}{\lambda}$$

$$= \frac{8 \times 3.7 \times 10^7}{1.67 \times 10^8} \text{ atom}$$

$$= 0.69 \text{ g}$$

Amount = $\frac{8 \times 3.7 \times 10^7 \times 1.67 \times 10^{-27} \times 160}{0.693 \times 6.022 \times 10^{23}} \text{ g}$

* α -decay \Rightarrow the phenomenon of emission of α -particles from the nucleus of an element is known as the α -decay.



$$Q = [m({}^A_Z X) - m({}^{A-4}_{Z-2} Y) - m({}^4_2 \text{He})] c^2$$

$$= [m({}^A_Z X) + 2m_e - \{2m_e + m({}^{A-4}_{Z-2} Y) + m({}^4_2 \text{He})\}] c^2$$

$$= [M({}^A_Z X) - m({}^{A-4}_{Z-2} Y) - m({}^4_2 \text{He})] c^2$$

Yield

* Kinetic energy

$$KE = \frac{(A-4)}{A} Q$$

* β -decay \Rightarrow the phenomenon of emission of β -particles from is known as the β -decay.

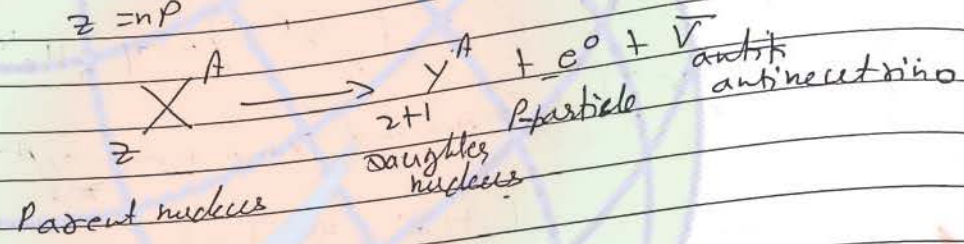
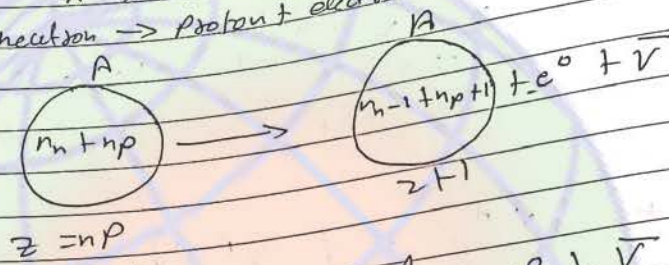
\Rightarrow There are three types of β -decay

- 1) β^- -decay
- 2) β^+ -decay
- 3) electron capture

1) β^- - decay \Rightarrow Neutron of the nucleus converted into the proton, electron and antineutrino in which antineutrino comes out from the nucleus only and proton remains in a nucleus.

\Rightarrow β^- - decay
In a
the n
in wh
nuclei

$n \rightarrow p + e^- + \bar{\nu}$
neutron \rightarrow proton + electron + antineutrino

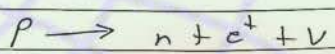


\Rightarrow Q-value

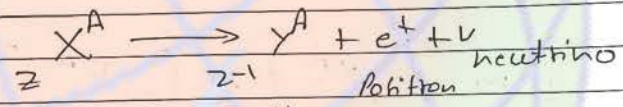
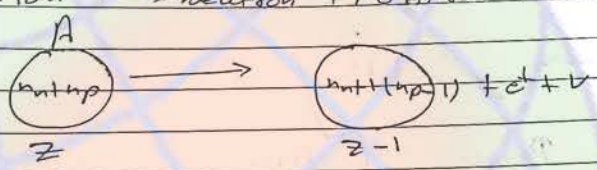
$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{Q-value} &= \left[m \left({}^A_Z X \right) - m \left({}^A_{Z+1} Y \right) - m_e \right] c^2 \\
 &= \left[m \left({}^A_Z X \right) + Z m_e - Z m_e - m \left({}^A_{Z+1} Y \right) - m_e \right] c^2 \\
 &= \left[M \left({}^A_Z X \right) - \left\{ (Z-1) m_e + m \left({}^A_{Z+1} Y \right) \right\} \right] c^2 \\
 \text{Q-value} &= \left[M \left({}^A_Z X \right) - M \left({}^A_{Z+1} Y \right) \right] c^2 \\
 \text{Q-value} &= \left[M \left({}^A_Z X \right) - M \left({}^A_{Z+1} Y \right) \right] \times 931.5 \text{ MeV}
 \end{aligned}$$

2) β^+ -decay \Rightarrow

In a β^+ -decay proton of the nucleus converted into the neutron, ~~for~~ an positron and neutrino in which a neutron remains only positron and neutrino comes shot from the nucleus.



Proton \rightarrow neutron + positron + neutrino



Parent nucleus Daughter nucleus

\Rightarrow Q-value $\Rightarrow [m({}_Z X^A) - m({}_{Z-1} Y^A) - m_e] c^2$

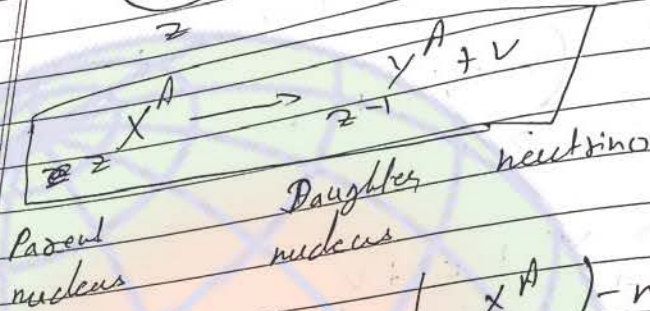
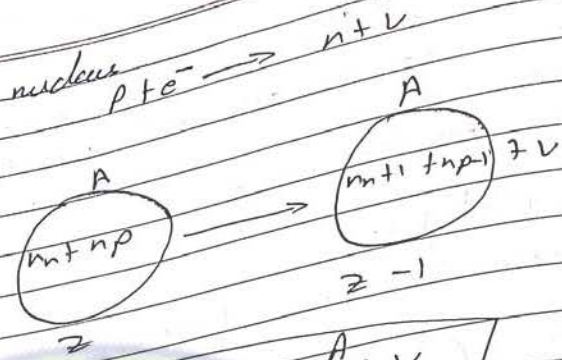
$= [m({}_Z X^A) + Zm_e - Zm_e - m({}_{Z-1} Y^A) - m_e] c^2$

$= [m({}_Z X^A) - \{Zm_e + m({}_{Z-1} Y^A) + m_e\}] c^2$

$= [m({}_Z X^A) - \{m({}_{Z-1} Y^A) + 2m_e\}] c^2$

Q-value $= [M({}_Z X^A) - M({}_{Z-1} Y^A) - 2m_e] c^2$

3) electron capture \Rightarrow In a electron capture proton of the nucleus and electron of the innermost shell (K shell) are ~~are~~ combined together to produce neutron and neutrino in which neutron remains of nucleus only neutrino comes shot from the nucleus.

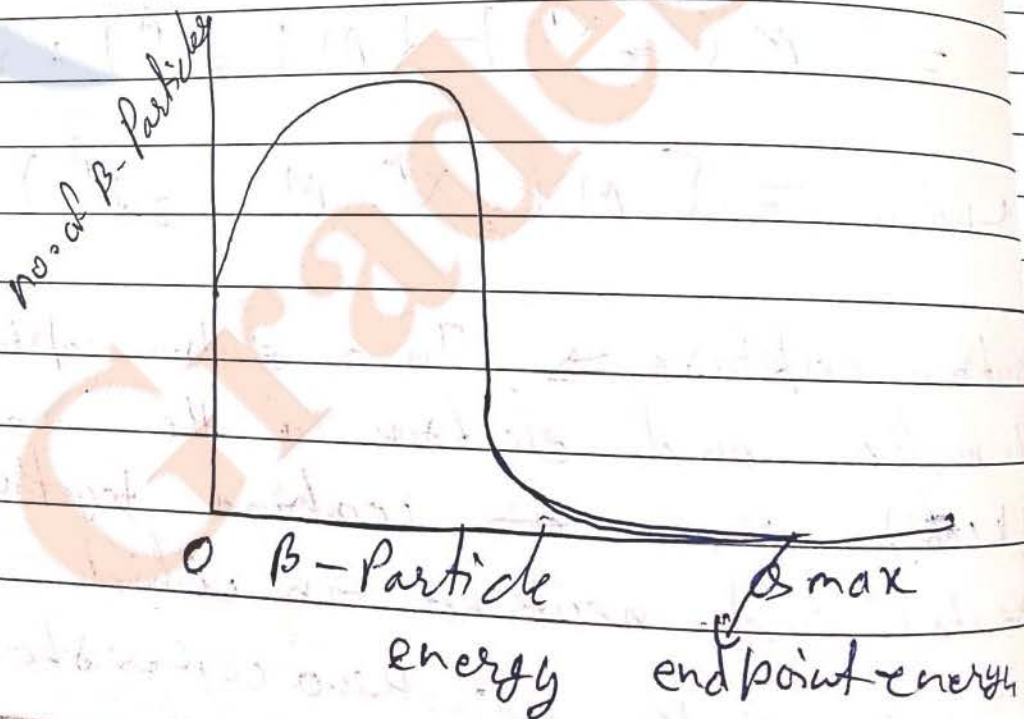


$$Q\text{-value} = [m({}_z X^A) - m({}_{z-1} Y^A)] c^2$$

$$= [m({}_z X^A) + z m_e - (z-1) m_e - m({}_{z-1} Y^A)] c^2$$

$$Q\text{-value} = [M({}_{z-1} Y^A) - m_e] c^2$$

* Graph between the number of Atoms β -Particles and Energy



observation

- i) Most of
- ii) only
- iii) The e.
- β -p
- this
- iv) This
- v) laws
- vi) laws

* neutrino

The of e is due to change in

* Y-

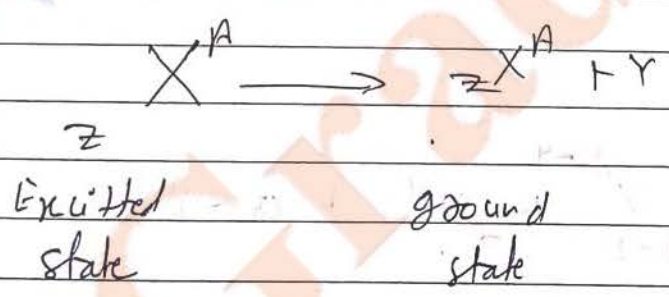
observation

- i) Most of β -particle emitted carry small energy
- ii) only very few β -particles carry maximum energy called endpoint energy
- iii) The energy spectrum of the β -decay indicate that β -particles carries the energy zero to Q -max this
- iv) This violate the
 - i) law of conservation of energy
 - ii) law of conservation of angular momentum

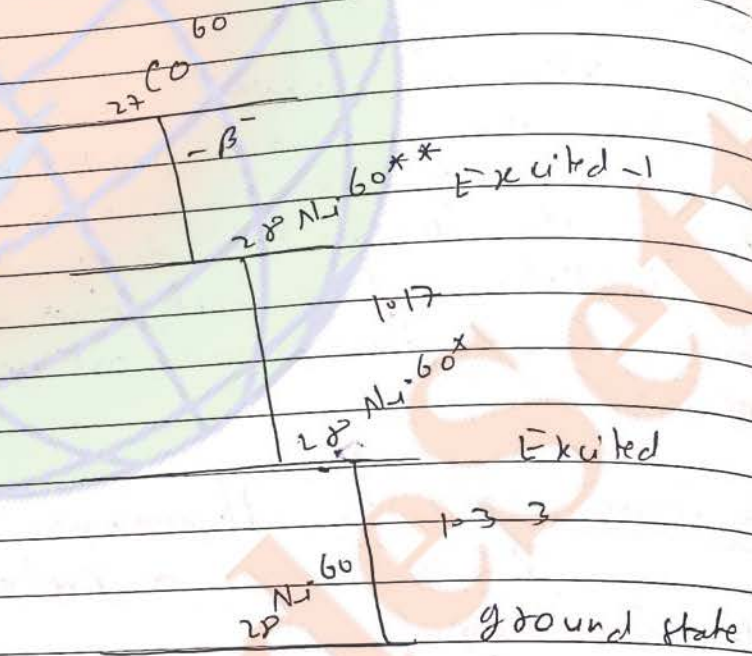
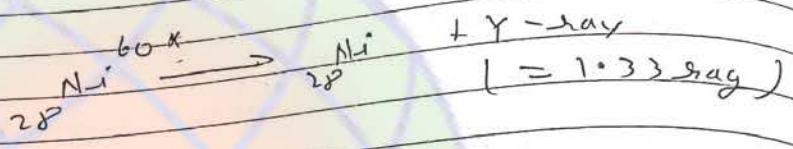
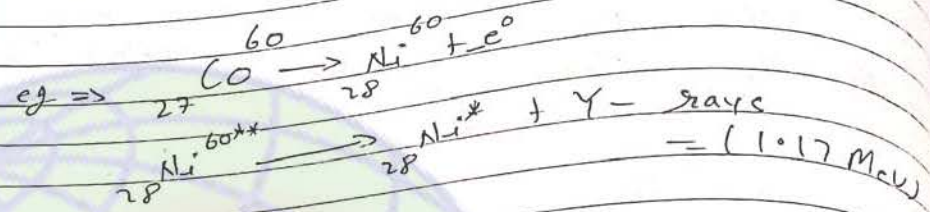
* neutrino hypothesis

The violation of principle law of conservation of energy and law of angular momentum is resolve by pauli he was suggest that during the β -particle decay ~~is~~ there are two particles whose rest mass is zero and charge is neutral called anti neutrino and neutrino

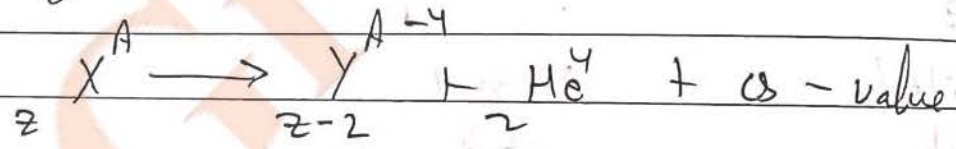
* γ -decay \Rightarrow The phenomenon of emission of γ -particles or photon is know as the γ -decay



Note \Rightarrow γ -decay takes place after the emission of α or β decay



\Rightarrow α -decay



- (2) β^-
- (3) β^+
- (4) α
- (5) γ

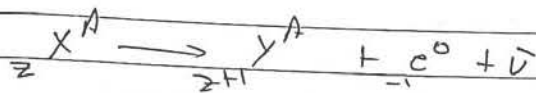
Q Write in kind of A & Z

Q The α β^- β^+ γ are values

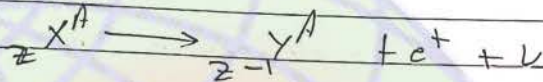
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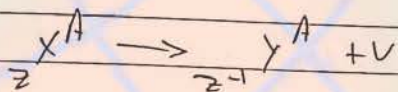
(2) β^- -decay



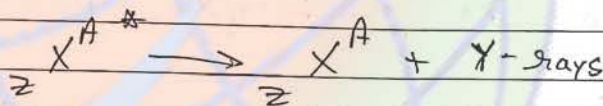
(3) β^+ -decay



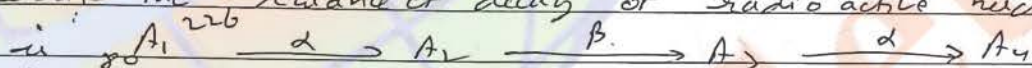
(4) electron capture



(5) γ -decay

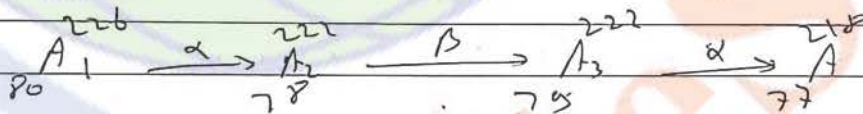


Q Write the sequence of decay of radioactive nucleus



Find the atomic no. and mass no. of A_4

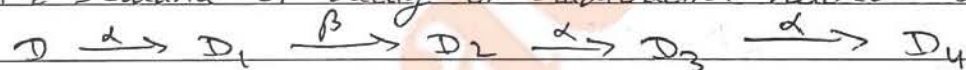
Solⁿ



$$A = 218$$

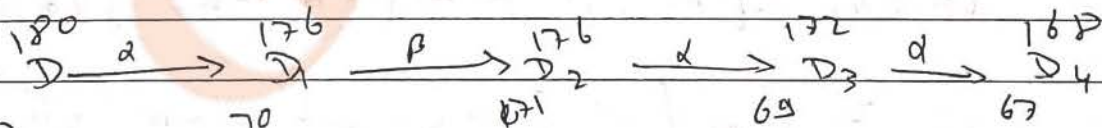
$$Z = 77$$

Q The sequence of decay of radioactive nucleus is



If nucleon number and atomic number of D_2 are 176 and 71 respectively, what are their values of D and D_4

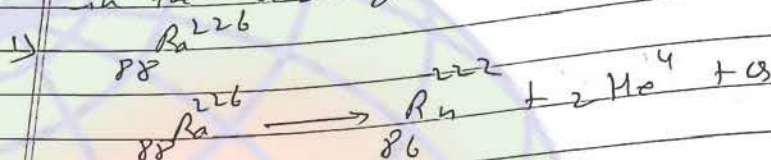
Solⁿ



for D mass no. = A = 180
Atomic no. Z = 72

for DU
A = 168
Z = 86

13.12 Q Find the Q value and K.E of emitted α -particles in the α -decay



Q-value $[m({}_{88}^{226}\text{Ra}) - m({}_{86}^{222}\text{Rn}) - m(2\text{He}^4)]c^2$

$= [226.02540 - 222.01756 - 4.00260]c^2$

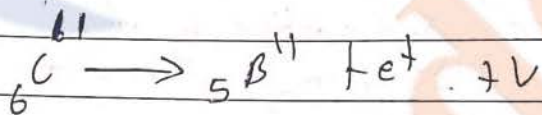
Q-value = 4.94 MeV

K.E $= \frac{(A-4) Q}{A}$

$= \frac{(226-4) \times 4.94}{226}$

= 4.85 MeV

Q 13.13



T = 20.3 min

E = 0.960 MeV

Q value $= [m({}_{6}^{11}\text{C}) - m({}_{5}^{11}\text{B}) - m_e]c^2$

$= [m({}_{6}^{11}\text{C}) + 6m_e - 6m_e - m({}_{5}^{11}\text{B})]c^2$

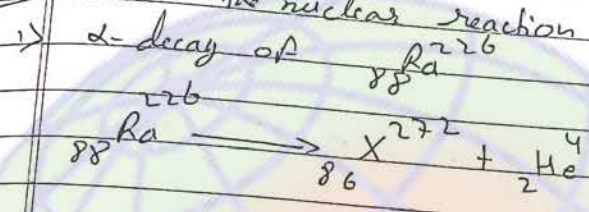
0.9315 MeV

$$[m({}_6\text{C}^{11}) - m({}_5\text{B}^{11}) - 2m_e] \times 931.5 \text{ MeV}$$

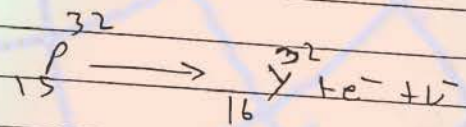
$$= [11.011434 - 11.009305 - 2 \times 0.0005486] \times 931.5$$

$$= 0.961 \text{ MeV}$$

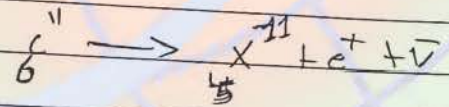
13-6 Write the nuclear reaction



ii) β^- -decay



iii) β^+ -decay ${}_{6}^{11}\text{C}$



* Nuclear reaction \Rightarrow A reaction in which nucleus of an atom in participate is known as the nuclear reaction

\Rightarrow There are two types of nuclear reaction

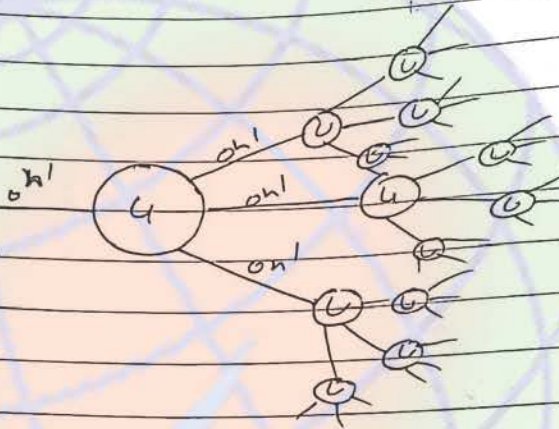
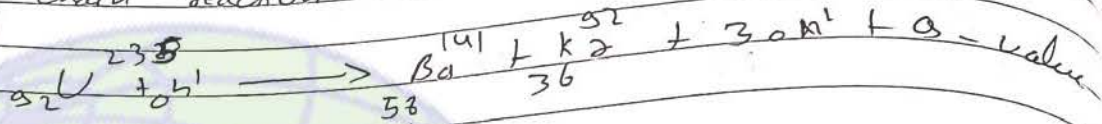
- i) Nuclear fission
- ii) Nuclear fusion

i) Nuclear fission reaction \Rightarrow

A nuclear reaction in which heavy unstable nucleus splits into two or more fragments and release the tremendous amount of energy is known as the nuclear fission reaction

There are two types of the nuclear fission

- 1) Nuclear chain reaction \Rightarrow
A nuclear fission in which all the neutrons are responsible for further fission reactions is known as the nuclear chain reaction



1, 3, 9, 27

* Leakage of neutron from the system \Rightarrow
Some of secondary neutrons produced may escape out of the system and will not take part in further fission this

* Absorption of neutron by \Rightarrow
The secondary neutron may be absorbed by impurities which are not fissile this loss may be reduced by having a fissile material free from impurities

A ~~Absorption~~ of
 A Critical size \Rightarrow

In order to have a sustained chain reaction in a sample of radium (${}_{88}^{226}\text{Ra}$) it is required that the number of neutrons lost due to leakage and absorption called critical size.

B Neutron reproduction factor all multiplication factor \Rightarrow

The ratio of the rate of production of neutrons to the rate of loss of neutrons due to leakage and absorption

\Rightarrow It is denoted by k

$k = \frac{\text{rate of production of neutrons}}{\text{rate of loss of neutrons}}$

Case I

When $k = 1$

The chain reaction will be steady steady

Case II

k is greater than one ($k > 1$)

chain reaction accelerated.

In this case the size of the atom/ material is called super critical

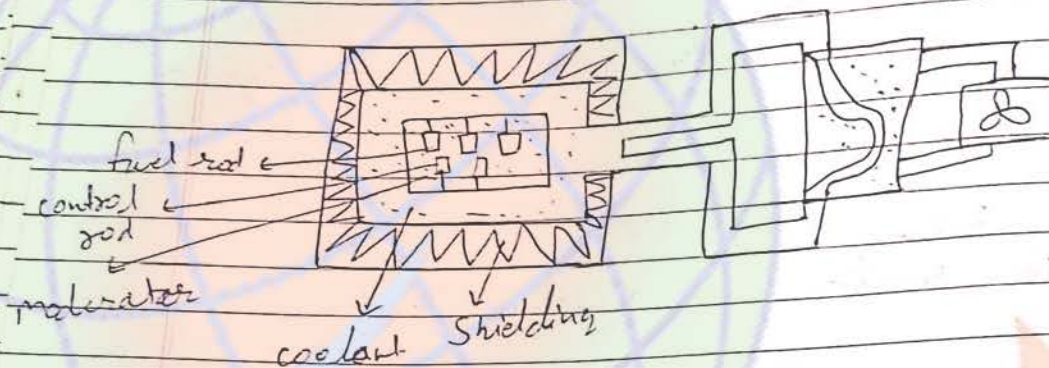
Case III when $k < 1$

The chain reaction gradually comes to the size of the material is called sub ~~case~~ critical

* Control fission reaction \Rightarrow
A reaction in which only one neutron is provided for the further fission reaction is called control fission reaction.

* Nuclear reactor \Rightarrow
A device where controlled fission reaction can take place called nuclear reactor.

* construction \Rightarrow



* Nuclear reactor consists of following \Rightarrow

i) Nuclear fuel

It is a fissile material to be used for the fission process to take place commonly used fuel in a nuclear reaction reactor are U^{233} , U^{235} , U^{239} etc.

ii) Moderator \Rightarrow Moderator slows the speed of the neutrons produced during the fission reaction because moderated ~~and~~ ^{at} rate neutron can easily take ~~part~~ participate

in a fission reaction ~~are~~ and control rod can easily absorb the extra neutrons.

iii) Control rod \Rightarrow

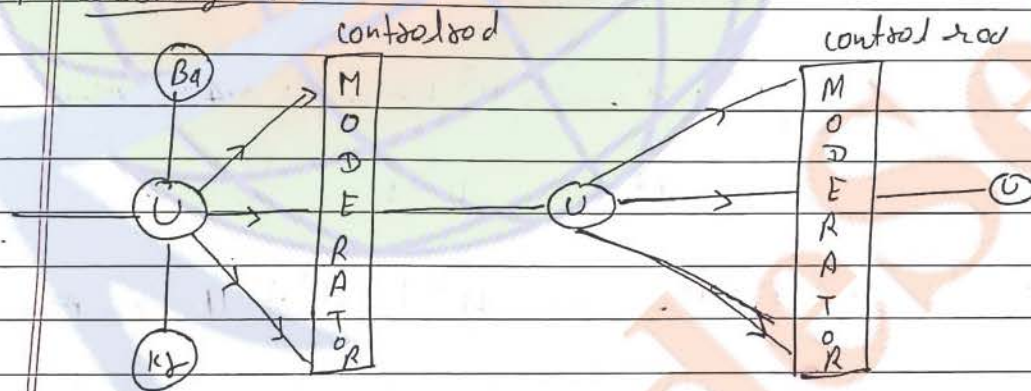
the control rod have ability to capture the extra neutron produced during the fission reaction cadmium, Boron etc. are used as a controller

iv) Coolant \Rightarrow A substance which is used to transfer the heat energy from nuclear reactor to heat exchanger.

v) Shielding \Rightarrow

A concrete wall of few meters thick over the nuclear reaction that protect from the effect of radiation

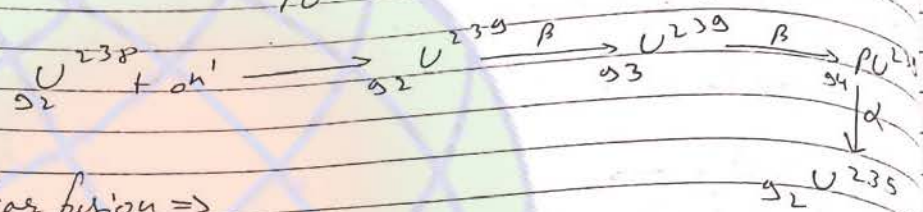
* Working \Rightarrow



When slow moving neutrons strike on the uranium it produce the neutrons that passes through the moderator which retard the speed of the neutron the extra neutron produced during the fission reaction is absorbed by the control rod energy is transferred from the nuclear reactor to the heat exchange by the coolant

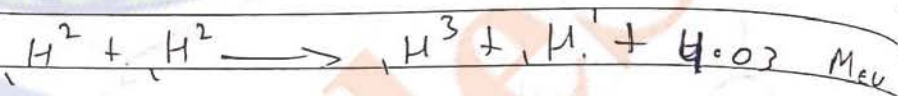
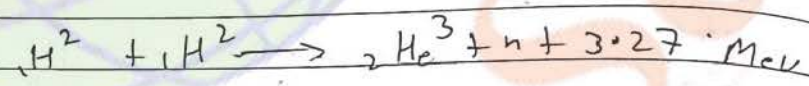
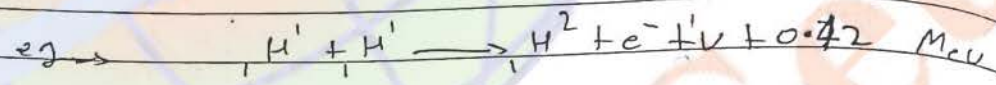
* Fast Breeder reactor =>

They use thorium or natural uranium as fuel element when fast neutrons strike uranium fuel in a reactor U^{238} absorbs a neutron and becomes U^{239} this is radioactive and undergoes β decay the twice to produce Pu^{239}



2) * Nuclear fusion =>

Nuclear reaction in which two or more lighter nuclei are combined together to form stable nuclei and tremendous amount of energy is known as the nuclear fusion.



* Thermonuclear fusion =>

A nuclear fusion in which large amount of heat energy is provided to the lighter nuclei to overcome the electrostatic force of repulsion called thermonuclear fusion

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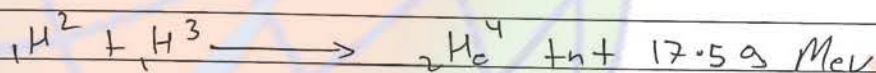
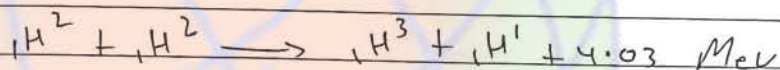
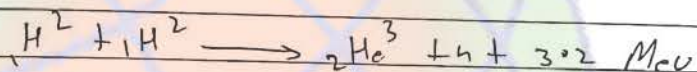
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26

Note \Rightarrow Thermonuclear fusion is the source of energy at the ~~sun~~ sun

* Controlled thermonuclear fusion \Rightarrow

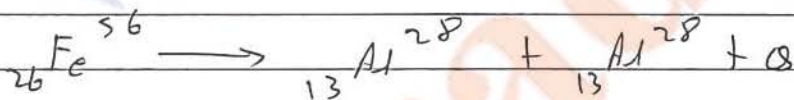
A controlled thermonuclear fusion the basis of fusion reaction which is the best of source of unlimited and unpolluted energy more attractive reaction for terrestrial



* nuclear Holocaust \Rightarrow

Nuclear Holocaust is the name given to the large scale destruction and devastation that would be caused by use of nuclear weapons

Q 13.16



$$Q\text{-value} = [m({}_{26}\text{Fe}^{56}) - 2m({}_{13}\text{Al}^{28})] \times 931.5 \text{ MeV}$$

$$= 55.93494 - 2 \times 27.98191$$

$$= -26.88 \text{ MeV}$$

Here -ve sign show that the fusion reaction is not possible.

13.12

Soln

$$1 \text{ mole} = 239 \text{ g} = 6.022 \times 10^{23}$$

$$1000 \text{ g} = \frac{6.022 \times 10^{23} \times 1000}{239}$$

$$= 2.52 \times 10^{24} \text{ atoms}$$

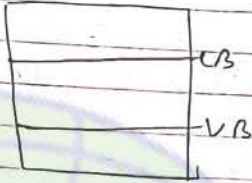
$$\text{Total energy released} = 2.52 \times 10^{24} \times 100 \text{ MeV}$$

Ch → 14

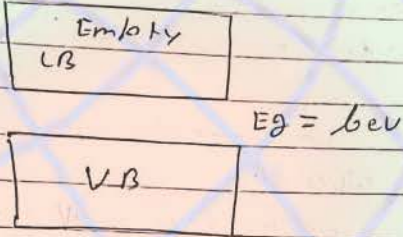
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Semi - Conductor And devices

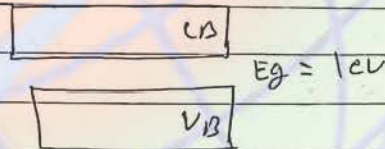
1) Metal / conductor



2) Insulator / Non-Metal



3) Semi-Conductor



Silicon (Si)

Atomic no. = 14

Electronic configuration

$1s^2, 2s^2, 2p^6, 3s^2, 3p^2$

no. of atoms = N

Total valence = 4N

no. of state of energy level = 8N

no. of filled state energy level = 4N

unfilled = 4N

The graph b/w intermolecular space (σ) and energy as shown in the given by considers Silicon a crystal having N no. of Silicon atoms

Total no. of valence electron be 4N

no. of state of energy level be 8N

In which 4N energy level is filled and 4N energy level is unfilled

case I If intermolecular space is very-very larger than the λ ($\sigma = d \gg \lambda$), there is no interaction b/w the atoms of the silicon

case II When σ lies b/w λ and d ($\lambda < \sigma < d$) There is no visible separation b/w the energy level

case III when σ equal to λ the 3s energy level and 3p energy level are separated by a forbidden energy level

Eg

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level
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case II
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when $a \approx b$

case I In this case all the filled and unfilled energy level are over lap of each other they are can not be distinguished each other

case II

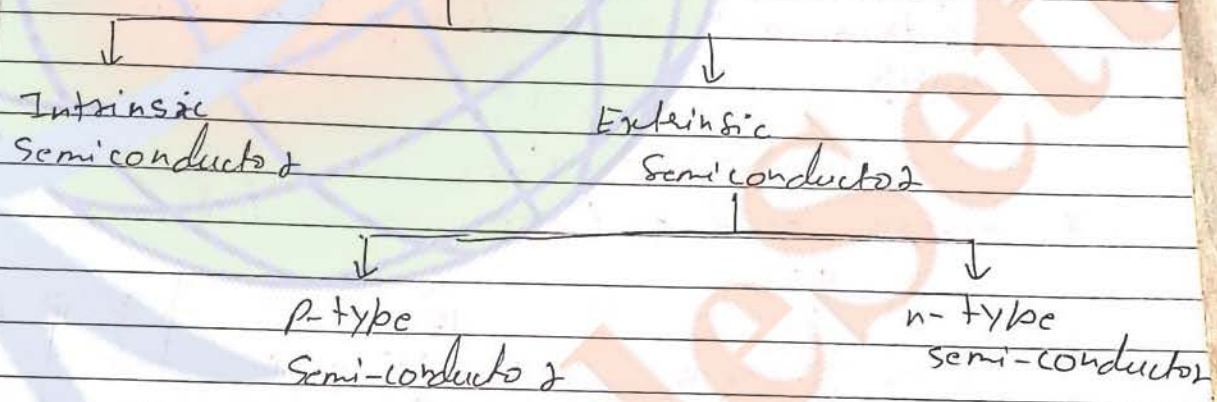
when a is less than a ($\neq La$)

In this case filled and unfilled energy level are separated by small energy gaps and called for hidden energy gaps

The upper unfilled energy level is called conduction band and lower filled energy level called valance band

*

Semi-conductor

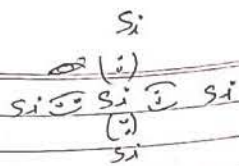


* Intrinsic semiconductors \Rightarrow
A pure semi-conductor is known as the Intrinsic Semiconductors

eg \Rightarrow germanium, Silicon etc.

* Behavior of intrinsic Semiconductors \Rightarrow

Si
Atomic no. = 14
 $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^2$



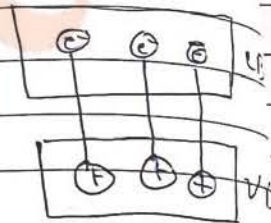
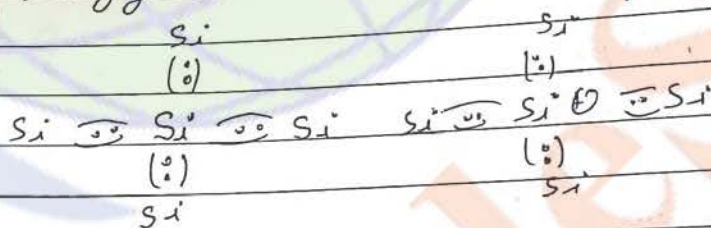
At zero calvin (0°K) all the covalent bond are exist there is no current carriers available at 0°K it acts as a an insulator

At room temperature there is a thermal excitation electron jump from the valance band to conduction band and create the same no. of the holes in the valance band that is the positive in nature which attract the neget electron and constitute electric current these are

⇒ there are two types of current carrying electrons and holes having same no. of density

$$n_e = n_h$$

* Energy band of ^{Intrinsic} Semi-conductor



⇒ There are two types of Impurities

i) Penta-valent ⇒ Phosphorus, arsenic, antimony
It is also know as donor impurities

ii) Tery-valent ⇒ eg ⇒ Aluminium, indium, boron

* Doping ⇒

The processes of adding the impurities in a intrinsic semi-conductor is known as doping

* Method of doping ⇒

- i) By diffusion
- ii) By heating
- iii) By bombarding

* Extrinsic Semi-conductor ⇒

extrinsic semi-conductor which obtained by adding impurities in a intrinsic semi-conductor is known as the extrinsic semi-conductor

⇒ There are two type of extrinsic semi-conductor ⇒

i) P-type extrinsic semi-conductor ⇒

A semi-conductor which obtained by adding the trivalent impurities in extrinsic semi-conductor is known as the P-type semi-conductor.

eg ⇒ Consider a silicon having atomic no. 14

and valence electron 4 from the co-valent bond

⇒ when trivalent impurities added in a silicon atoms this atom replaces one silicon atom

and sits in the lattice site

of replace silicon atom. Indium from the

three complete co-valent bond fourth bond is

remains unbonded.

It creates deficiency of electrons called hole which is positive in nature

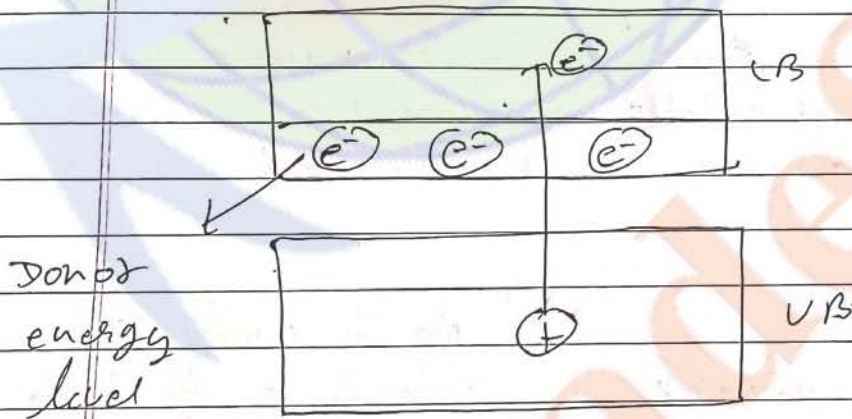
This hole attracts the electrons from the nearby co-valent bond to fill it self more and

more holes are created by adding more and more impurities

2) n-type Semi-conductor \Rightarrow
 A Semi-conductor which obtained by adding the pentavalent impurities in a intrinsic Semi-conductor is known as the n-type Semi-conductor or negative type semi-conductor

When pentavalent impurities are added in a intrinsic semi-conductor it replace one silicon atom and set in a its lattice side of the silicon phosphorus atom form the complete 4 covalent atom fifth electron of it remains unbounded as by adding more more pentavalent free electron are produce that is electrons are the majority current carrier and holes are minority current carrier in a n-type semi-conductor

$$n_e \gg n_h$$



Energy band diagram of the n-type Semi-conductor as shown in the given figure

Donor energy level corresponding to the electron like just below the conduction band the energy gap b/w the conduction band and donor energy level is very very small then the forbidden energy gap so at room temperature these are large no. of the free electrons are available in the conduction band for the conduction of the current majority current carrier is holes and minority current carrier is electron.

* Differe

P-t

1) It is c by a bi-val inter

2) In k P case curve

* Difference b/w the Intrinsic and Extrinsic Semi-conductors

① Intrinsic

1) It is a pure Semi-conductor

2) Its conductivity is 1000

3) In its no. of no. of density of current and electron carrier of holes and electron are same

Extrinsic
1) It is the impure or doped with impurities semi-conductor

2) Its conductivity is high

3) In its no. of density of electron and holes are different

3) Its c low

4) In P the value

5)

Note → P-type

4) Its conductivity is the only the function of the temperature

4) Its conductivity depends on the temp and concentration of the hole and electron i.e. is current carrier

* Ele

Let A

n₁

* elec holes

* Difference b/w the P-type and N-type semiconductors

P-type

N-type

1) It is obtained by adding the tri-valent impurities in the intrinsic semiconductor.

1) It is obtained in a pentavalent adding the impurities in

2) In p-type majority current carriers are holes and minority current carrier is electrons
 $n_e > n_h$

2) In n-type majority current carrier is electron and minority current carrier is hole.
 $n_e > n_h$

3) Its conductivity is low

3) Its conductivity is high

4) In P-type acceptor energy level just above the valance band

4) In N-type donor energy level just below the conduction band

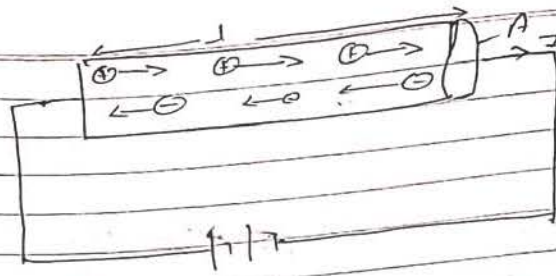
5)

Note -> P-type and N-type semiconductor are electrically neutral

* Electric Current through the semi-conductor =>

Let a semi-conductor of length l area of cross-section A having density of electron and holes n_e and n_h respectively and drift velocity V_e and V_h

* electric current consist ~~two~~ due to the electron holes are given by =>



$$I_n = I_c + I_h$$

$$I_c = A n_c e v_c$$

Total current in a semi conductor

$$I = I_c + I_h$$

$$I = A n_c e v_c + A n_h e v_h$$

$$I = A e (n_c v_c + n_h v_h)$$

* Conductivity of Semiconductor \Rightarrow

$$\sigma = \frac{1}{\rho}$$

$$R = \rho \frac{l}{A}$$

from ohm's law

$$R = \frac{V}{I}$$

$$\therefore \frac{V}{I} = \rho \frac{l}{A}$$

but $E = \frac{V}{l}$

$$V = E l$$

$$\frac{E l}{I} = \rho \frac{l}{A}$$

$$\rho = \frac{I \times l}{E l A}$$

$$\frac{1}{\rho} = \frac{1}{EA}$$

where $I = Ae (n_e v_e + n_h v_h)$

$$\sigma = Ae (n_e v_e + n_h v_h)$$

$$= e \left(n_e \frac{v_e}{E} + n_h \frac{v_h}{E} \right)$$

where $\frac{v_e}{E} = \mu_e$ (Mobility of electron)

$\frac{v_h}{E} = \mu_h$ (Mobility of hole)

$$\sigma = e (n_e \mu_e + n_h \mu_h)$$

case I Mobility Conductivity of extrinsic semiconductor
 $n_e = n_h = n_i$

$$\sigma = e (n_i \mu_e + n_i \mu_h)$$

$$\sigma = e n_i (\mu_e + \mu_h)$$

case II conductivity of p-type semiconductor
 $n_h \gg n_e$

$$\sigma_n = e n_h \mu_h$$

case III Conductivity of n-type semiconductor

$$n_e \gg n_h$$

$$\sigma_n = e n_e \mu_e$$

* Number density of Majority and minority carriers in intrinsic semi-conductor as mass action law \Rightarrow

A/c to this law $n_i =$ density of Intrinsic semi-conductor carrier
 $n_e \Rightarrow$ density of no. of electrons
 $n_h \Rightarrow$ " " " hole

Q. A pure silicon at 300K has equal electron and hole concentration of $1.5 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-3}$. dropping by indium increases the hole concentration to $4.5 \times 10^{22} \text{ m}^{-3}$. calculate the new electron concentration in the doped silicon

Soln

$$n_i = 1.5 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}^{-3}$$

$$n_h = 4.5 \times 10^{22} \text{ m}^{-3}$$

$$n_e = ?$$

$$\therefore n_h n_e = n_i^2$$

$$n_e = \frac{n_i^2}{n_h}$$

$$= \frac{(1.5 \times 10^{16})^2}{4.5 \times 10^{22}}$$

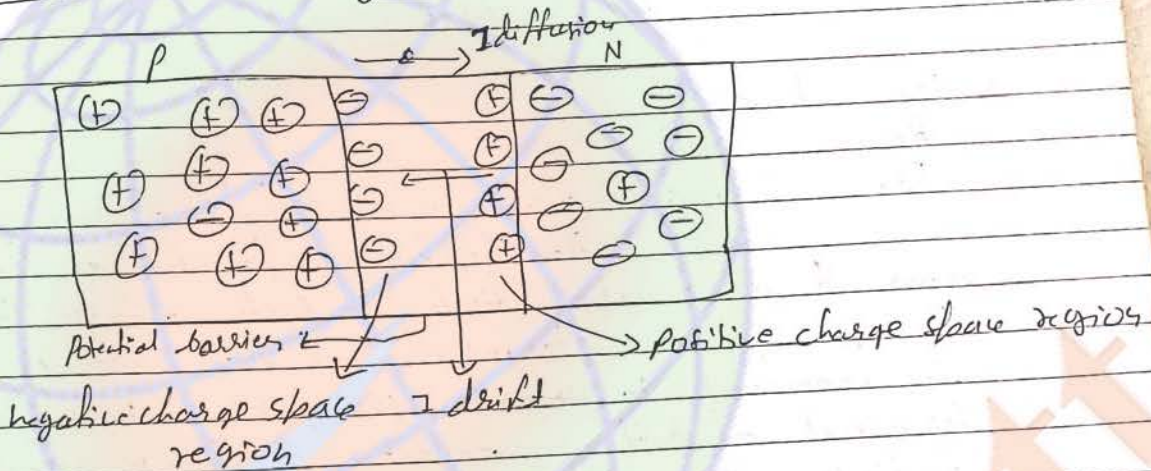
Note the no. density of ~~pair~~ hole electron pair increases with the temp. @ A/c to following relation $n_i^2 = A_0 T^3 e^{-E_g / kT}$

$E_g \Rightarrow$ for band energy gap
 $T =$ absolute temp
 A_0 is constant
 k is volt man constant

* Semi-Conductor device \Rightarrow

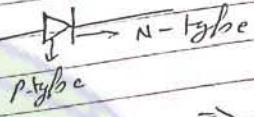
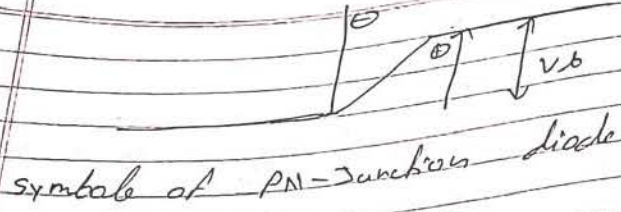
1) PN-Junction \Rightarrow When p-type semiconductor crystal is brought into direct contact with an n-type semiconductor crystal the resulting arrangement is called PN-junction or PN diode

\rightarrow Formation of p-type and n-type Semiconductors



* depletion layer or region \Rightarrow The space charge region at both the side side of PN-junction which have mobile ions and a depletion layer or region where any charge carrier will form a region called depletion layer or region

* Potential barrier \rightarrow due to the e-mobile positive and negative charge region an electric potential region critical at the junction is known as potential barrier \rightarrow It is denoted by V_b



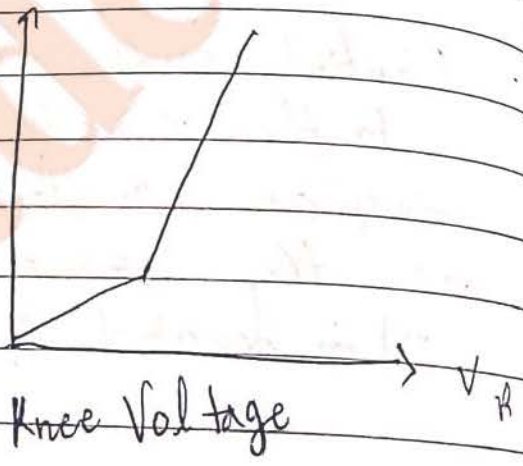
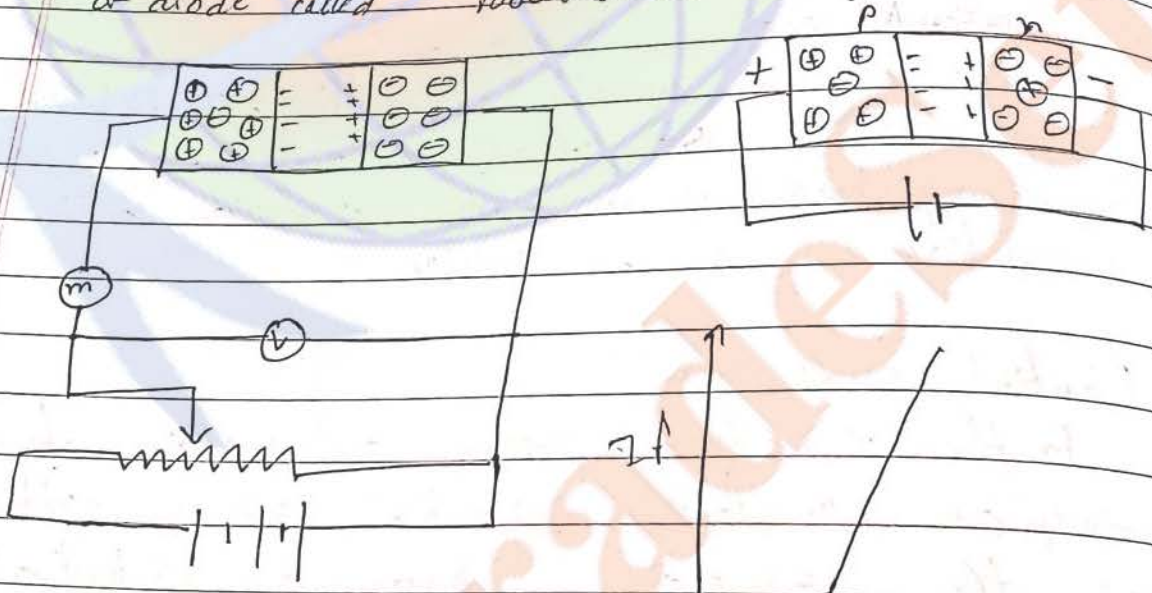
There are two type of Biasing =>

- i) Forward biasing
- ii) Reverse biasing
- iii) Forward biasing

When a battery of emf greater than the barrier potential is connected across a p-n junction diode in such a way that the positive terminal of the battery is connected to p region and negative terminal of battery connected to the n-junction of diode called forward biasing

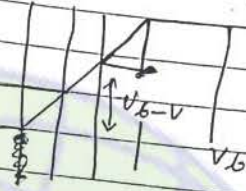
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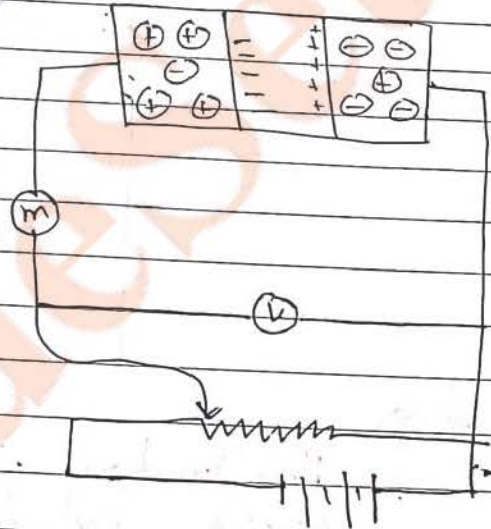


V_R

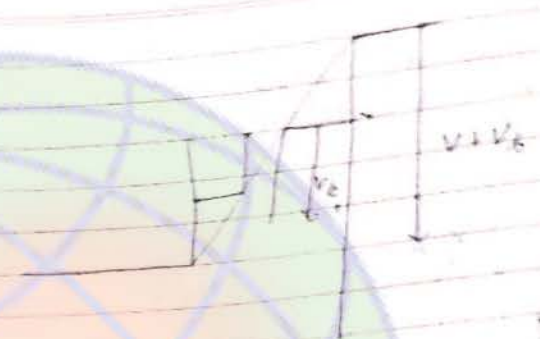
* Knee voltage \rightarrow
A battery voltage at which current flow through the junction increases rapidly is called knee voltage



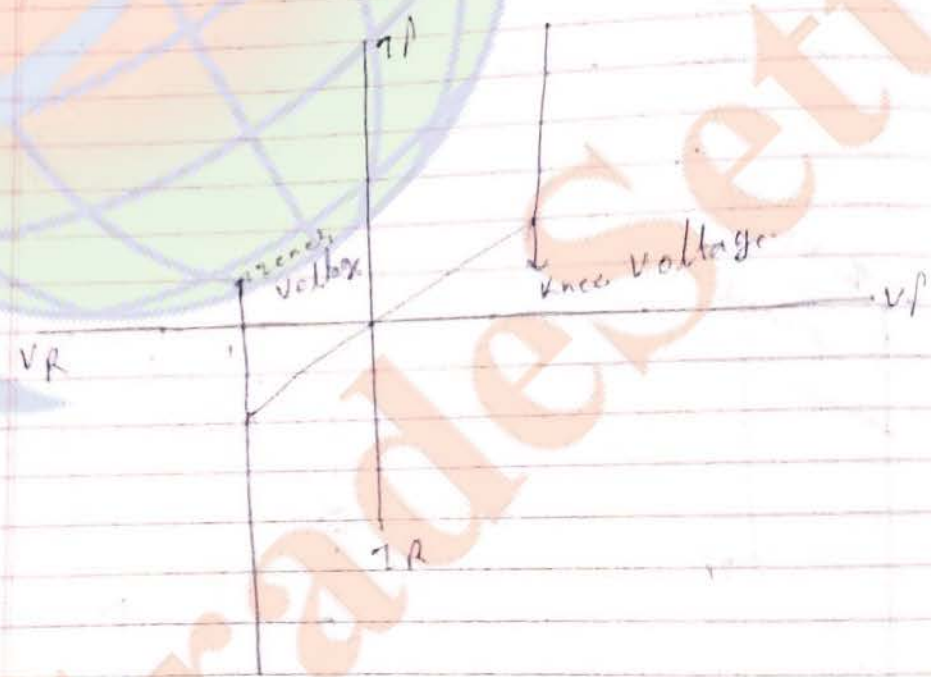
* Reverse biasing \rightarrow
When positive terminal of battery is connected to the 'p' region of the pn-junction diode is called reverse biasing



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A battery voltage at which reverse current get suddenly raised, is known as the Zener voltage or breakdown voltage.



Note →

Pn-junction diode is conduct in forward biasing and does not conduct in reverse biasing.

* PN-Junction diode as a rectifier \Rightarrow

An electronic device which is used to convert the alternating A.C signal into D.C signal is known as the rectifier

Principle \Rightarrow

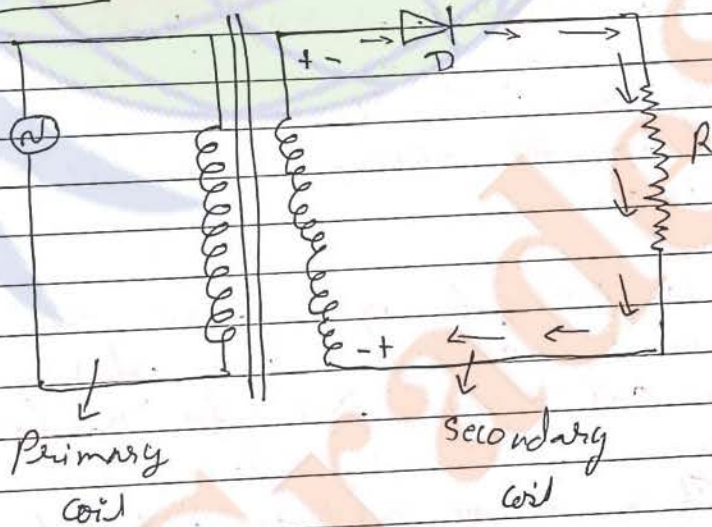
It is based on the principle of that it conducts in forward biasing and does not conduct in the reverse biasing.

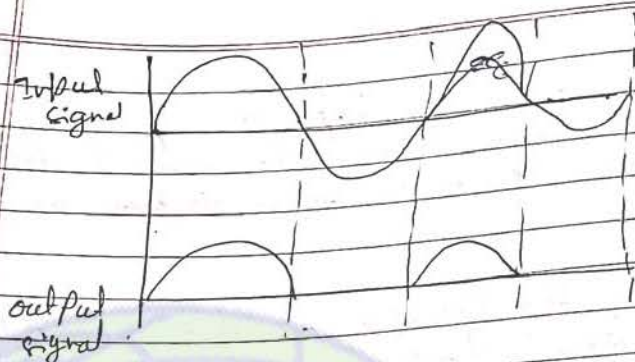
\Rightarrow There are two types of the rectifier

- 1) half wave rectifier
- 2) Full wave rectifier

1) half wave rectifier \Rightarrow A rectifier which converts half cycle of A.C into D.C is known as the half wave rectifier

construction \Rightarrow





half wave rectifier consists of the two coil first coil called the primary coil connected to the A.C source. Second coil called secondary coil is connected to the low resistance through the diode 'D'.

Working ⇒

When positive half cycle applied across the primary coil then emf induced in a secondary coil due to the mutual inductance whose polarity in such a way upper and lower parts of it becomes positive and negative polarities. as result p-n junction diode becomes in a forward bias is connected and allow the flow of current and output of the obtained across the load resistance.

during the negative cycle again polar emf induced across the secondary coil whose polarity is such a way diode 'D' becomes in reverse bias by does not conduct. There is no output obtained across the low resistance as a result in such a way half wave rectifier only convert the half cycle of A.C into D.C.

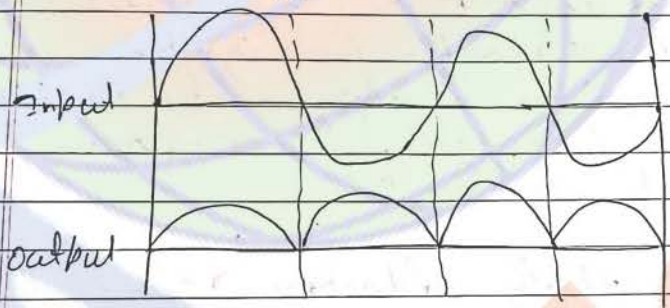
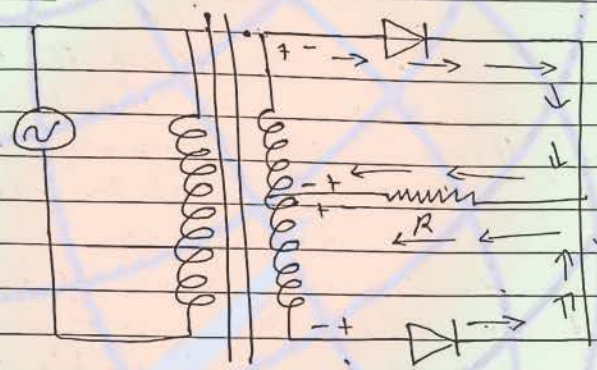
Disadvantage \Rightarrow

- i) It only convert the half cycle ~~into~~ of AC into DC
- ii) It has the loss of energy
- iii) ~~full wave rectifier~~

Full wave rectifier \Rightarrow

rectifier which convert the full cycle of AC into DC

Construction \Rightarrow



A full wave rectifier consists of the two coil. First coil across which input AC signal is applied. Second coil called secondary coil is connected to the two diode D_1 and D_2 . Through the D_1 and D_2 n-type of the diode are connected at the common point. ~~output~~ low resistance are connected at the centre of the coil to the common point of the n-type region.

working

When positive half cycle AC source is input flow through the primary coil then due to mutual inductance emf induce across the coil whose polarity is in such a way diode D_1 becomes forward biased and D_2 in a reverse biased. But D_2 is connected because is forward biased and result output obtained across the R. A half cycle flow through the primary coil again emf induce across the secondary coil whose polarity in such a way diode D_1 becomes in reverse biased that does not conduct and diode D_2 is a forward biased that conduct to which output is obtained across the load resistance in the same direction of the previous current in such a way full wave AC input convert into the D.C

Draw back =>

It produce the actually fluctuating DC output

* Filter circuit =>

An electronic circuit that connected to the out of the rectifier which produce the ripple DC output called filter circuit.

Variable ^{DC} output of amplifier due to super position of the Input AC signal on the output DC signal in a filter signal capacitor or inductor are

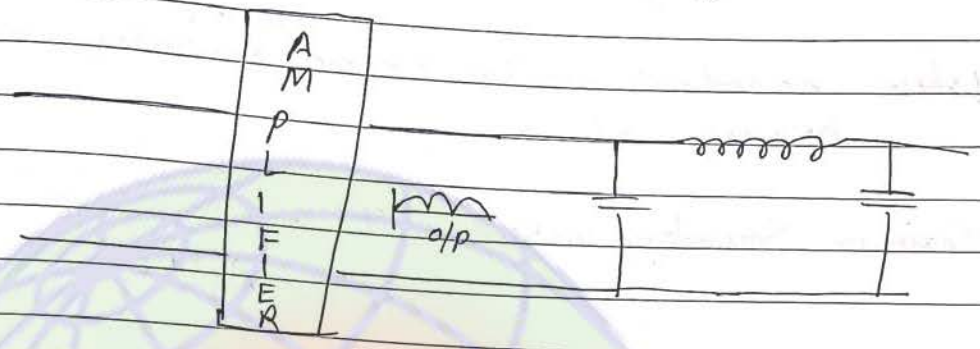
used and

* Reba
72
the
R.

Red
and

Etc
the
D

used because capacitor block of dc output and inductor block the ac output



* Ripple factor of a rectifier \Rightarrow
It is the ratio of the value ac component to the value dc component in a rectifier

Ripple factor = $\frac{\text{value of A.C component}}{\text{value of D.C component}}$

$$= \frac{I_{ac}}{I_{dc}} = \frac{V_{ac}}{V_{dc}} = \sqrt{\left(\frac{I_{rms}}{I_{dc}}\right)^2 - 1}$$

Ripple factor of the half wave rectifier is 1.21 and full wave rectifier is 0.48

Efficiency of _____ it is the reciprocal ratio of the out put ac power to the input subject D.C power

$$\eta = \frac{P_{dc}}{P_{ac}}$$

data

$$\Rightarrow \text{Maximum primary voltage } V_{pm} = \sqrt{2} V_{rms}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Maximum secondary voltage } V_o = V_{pm} \times \frac{n_s}{n_p}$$

where n_s and n_p are the no. of ^{terms of} secondary and primary coil

$$\Rightarrow \text{Maximum secondary current } I_o = \frac{V_o}{R_i + R_L}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Mean value of current in half wave rectifier } I_{dc} = \frac{I_o}{\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Output DC voltage in half wave rectifier } V_o = I_{dc} \times R$$

$$V_o = \frac{I_o}{\pi} \times R$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Mean value of current in full wave rectifier } I_{dc} = \frac{2I_o}{\pi}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Output DC voltage is given by } V_o = I_{dc} \times R$$

$$V_o = \frac{2I_o}{\pi} R$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Current through the PN-Junction diode } I = I_o \left(e^{\frac{eV}{kT}} - 1 \right)$$

where I_o is maximum current, e is the basic charge, V is the voltage and T is the absolute temperature

In case of forward biasing current is given by

$$I = I_0 \left(e^{\frac{eV}{kT}} - 1 \right)$$

Reverse biasing

$$I =$$

~~DC~~ ^{dc} resistance the ratio of voltage through the current is known as dc resistance

$$r_{dc} = \frac{V}{I}$$

* Static or dynamic resistance \Rightarrow
the ratio of the small change in voltage current ratio of the is known as static or dynamic resistance

$$r_{ac} = \frac{\Delta V}{\Delta I}$$

* Some Important type of P-n junction diode \Rightarrow


- 1) Zener diode
- 2) Photo diode
- 3) Light emitting diode emitting diode
- 4) Solar cell

1) Zener diode \Rightarrow

In heavily doped reverse ~~by~~ ~~biased~~ p-n junction ~~is~~ diode is called Zener diode

Zener diode work in a ~~reverted~~ ~~biased~~ breakdown state



→ Symbols of zener diode 

* Zener diode is a voltage regulator →
An electronic device which is used to maintain the constant output voltage



Zener diode used as a voltage regulator consists of the zener diode that is connected to the load resistance and dropping resistance R_d as shown in the given figure

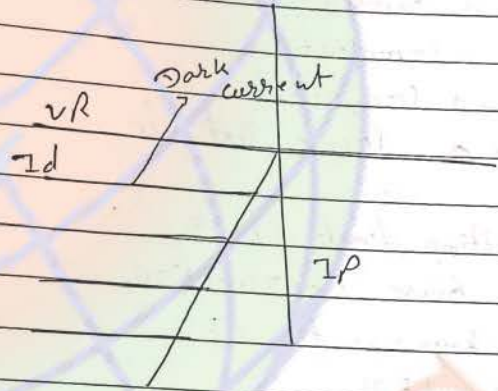
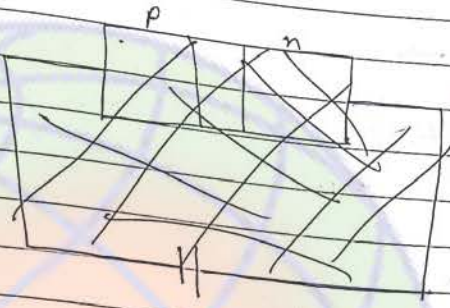
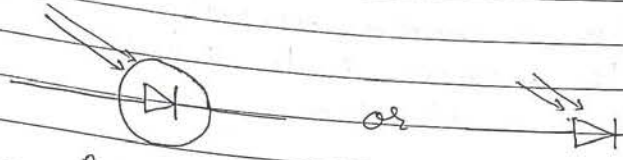
working ⇒

When the input dc voltage increases beyond the certain limit the voltage across the zener diode becomes constant equal to zener breakdown voltage. but the current through the zener diode circuit rises as the dynamic resistance of almost zener zero after after zener breakdown voltage due to which there is an increase in voltage across R_d and constant voltage obtained across R_L

2) Photo diode ⇒

A reverse bias p-n-junction diode which emits the radiation of light in the presence of light is known as the photo diode

→ Symbol of Photo diode



construction ⇒

A Photo diode is p-n junction diode made up of the photo sensitive semi-conductor material it is covered with the transparent material that allows the light falls on it. it is operated under the reverse bias the given figure

when ~~it~~ variable light of energy greater than the forbidden is incident on the p-n junction diode additional electron hole pairs are created in the depletion layer this charge carriers will be separated by the junction field that easily flow the junction by the reverse biasing.

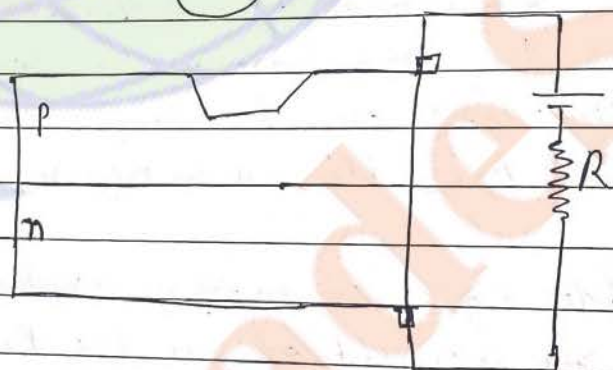
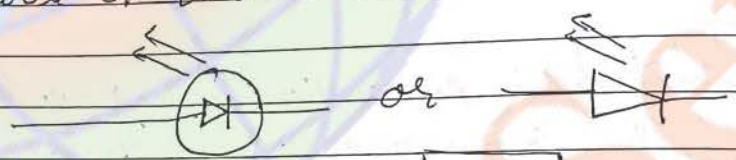
The flow of reverse saturation current increases with the increase in the intensity of light as shown in the given figure.

* dark current \Rightarrow
 A current flow in a reverse bias P-n junction is photo diode in the absence of light in the absence of i_s known as the dark current

- \Rightarrow uses of Photo diode \Rightarrow
- It is use in a remote switch
 - It is use in a communication
 - It is use in a computers
 - It is use in a logic gate etc.

3) light emitting diode (LED) \Rightarrow
 A forward bias P-n junction diode which produces the light is known as the LED

\Rightarrow Symbol of LED



construction \Rightarrow

light emitting diode is consists of the thin layer of P type semiconductor and thick layer of n type semiconductor

It is connected to the load resistance R and forward biased by using the battery voltage.

working \Rightarrow

When p-n junction is forward biased majority current carriers cross the junction. The electron moves from n-region to p-region through the junction and holes move from p-region to n-region as a result of it the concentration of carriers increase especially at the junction boundary which combined with the majority current carriers and produce the heat and light.

uses \Rightarrow

It is used in burglar alarm system.

It is use in calculator or digital watch.

It is use in communication.

It is use in a traffic light, remote control etc.

\Rightarrow Advantage of LED \Rightarrow

It has less power and low operational voltage.

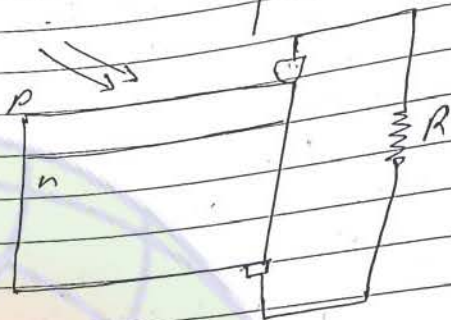
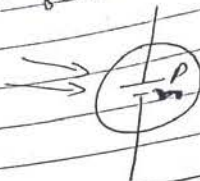
It has fast action and ~~required~~ required no warm up time.

It is cheap in easily to handle.

It can be used in various ~~purpose~~ purposes.

4) Solar cell \Rightarrow p-n junction diode which convert solar energy into the ~~light~~ ~~and~~ electrical energy is known as the solar cell.

⇒ Symbol of solar cell



construction ⇒

A solar cell consists of the silicon or gallium arsenide p-n junction diode which is covered with the glass window the upper layers in the p-type semi-conductor it is very thin so that the incident light photon may easily reach the p-n junction on the top face of p-layer the metal finger electrodes are prepared which is connected to the output load resistance R .

Working

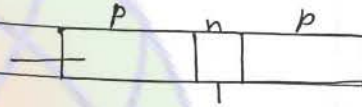
Photon of light falls at the junction electrons & holes are generated in the depletion layer near the junction that moves in opposite opposite direction the photon generated electron ~~to~~ moves ~~to~~ forward n-type and holes moves towards p-region and due to the photo voltage b/w and ~~to~~ bottom and electron electric current obtained across the load resistance R_L .

* Transistor :->

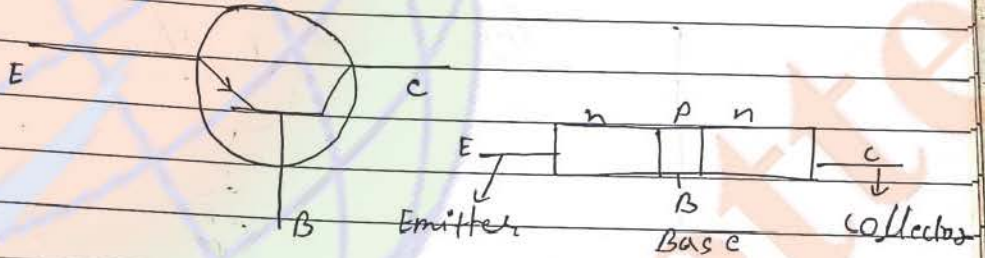
A transistor is formed by sandwich a thin layer of the semi-conductor b/w two thick layers of the same kind of the semiconductor.

=> There are two type of the transistor :->

i) PNP transistor obtained by sandwich of n-type of semiconductor between the thick layers of the semiconductor



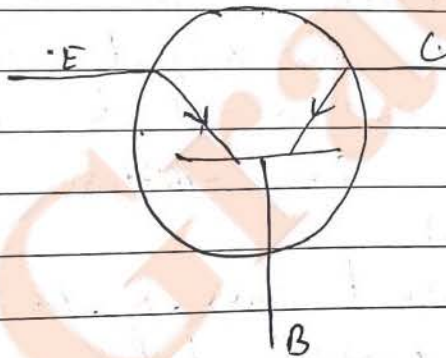
=> Symbol of P-n-p transistor :->



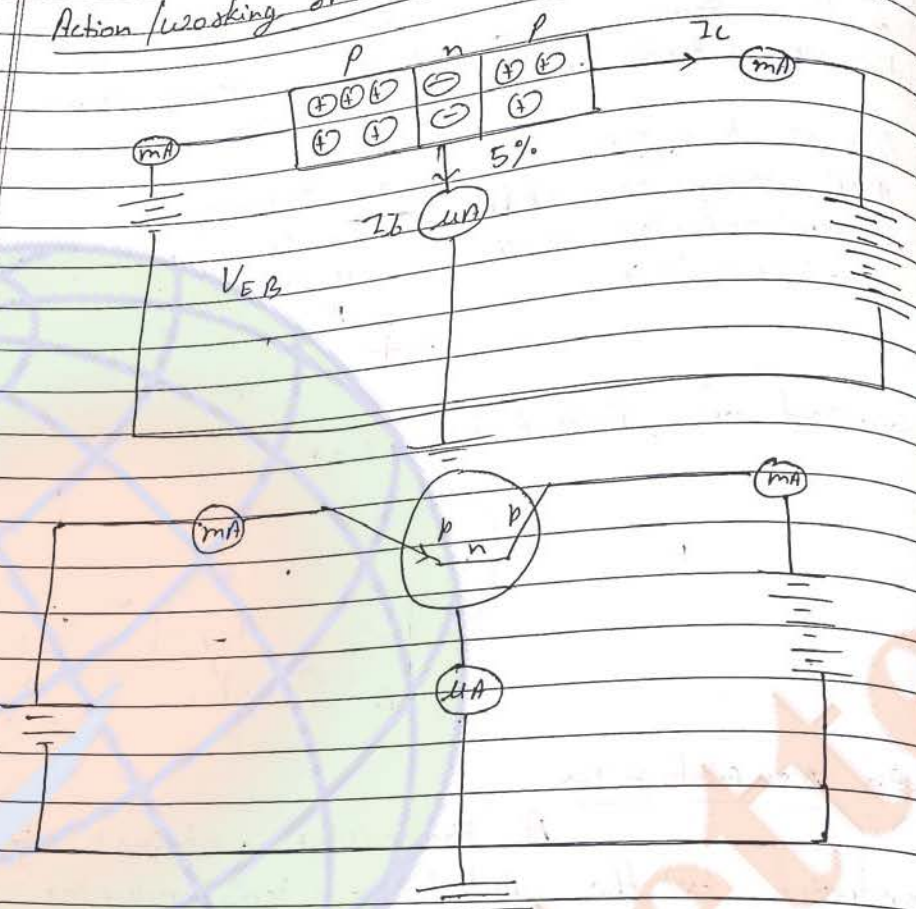
ii) n-p-n transistor :->

A transistor obtained by the sandwich of the p-type of semiconductor between the thick layers of n-type semiconductor

=> Symbol



* Action / working of PNP transistor →



The schematic and symbolic diagrams as shown in the given figure. Emitter base junction is forward biased by using voltage V_{EB} and output collector base junction is reverse biased by using voltage V_{CB} . Since emitter base junction is forward biased so, majority current carrier holes repel towards current carrier holes into the base where 5% of the holes combine with the

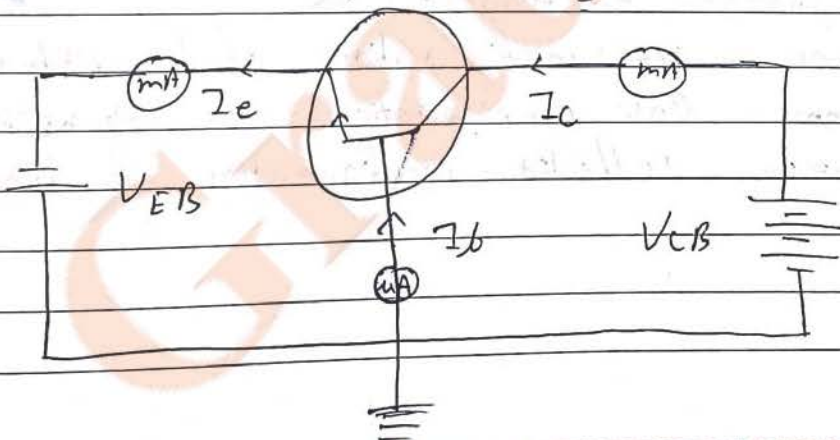
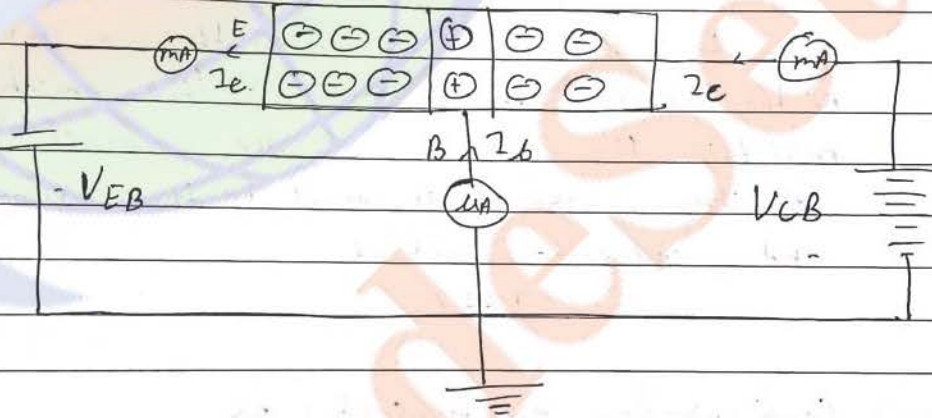
electrons and constituent base current I_b and remaining holes 95% holes attract towards the collector because it is connected to the negative terminal of the battery and constituent the collector current I_c

decreases. A number of holes concentration in a emitter then covalent bond is break immediately and produce the ecb electron and holes where electron moves (+ve) terminal of the battery V_{EB} and holes are repel towards the base and maintain the current in a circuit

According to junction law

$$I_e = I_b + I_c$$

* Action/working of the npn transistor \Rightarrow



The symbolic and schematic diagram of npn transistor as shown in the figure
 emitter base junction is forward biased by using battery voltage V_{EB} and collector base junction is reverse biased by using battery voltage V_{CB}

Since emitter base junction is forward biased for majority current carriers electrons moves towards the base and decreases its depletion layer and enter to the base where 5% of the electrons combine with the holes and constitute the base current I_B . rest of the 95% of electrons attract towards the collector because it is connected to the (positive) terminal of the battery and constitute the collector current I_C .

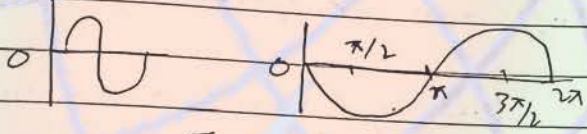
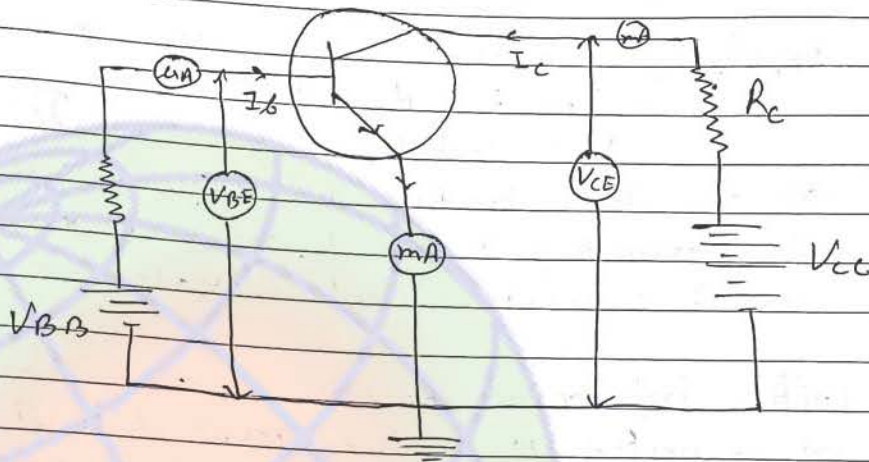
As soon as 1 electron decreases in emitter then electron from the -ve terminal of the battery moves towards the emitter and maintains the current in the circuit
 emitter current is equal to the sum of base and collector current

$$I = I_B + I_C$$

⇒ Configuration of transistor ⇒

- i) Common emitter configuration of transistor
- ii) Common base configuration of transistor
- iii) Common collector configuration of transistor

i) Common emitter configuration of transistor n/p/n :-



$$I_C = I_B + I_C \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

from KVL

$$-V_{CE} + I_C R_C + V_{CE} = 0$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CC} - I_C R_C \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

Common emitter n/p/n transistor is used as a amplifier as shown in the given figure.

- ⇒ Input junction base and emitter is forward biased by using battery voltage V_{BE} and output collector emitter junction is reverse biased by using battery voltage V_{CE} .
- ⇒ A load resistance R_C connected in output across which output is taken out.
- ⇒ Capacitor C_1 and C_2 connected in input and output across which output is taken out.
- ⇒ Capacitor C_1 and C_2 connected in input and output to provide pure a-c input and output.

by applying junction law

$$I_c = I_b + I_e \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Applying kirchoff's voltage law in output circuit

$$-V_{cc} + I_c R_c + V_{CE} = 0$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{cc} - I_c R_c \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

During the positive half cycle input emitter base junction forward bias increased from eqn (1) collection current increases \Rightarrow

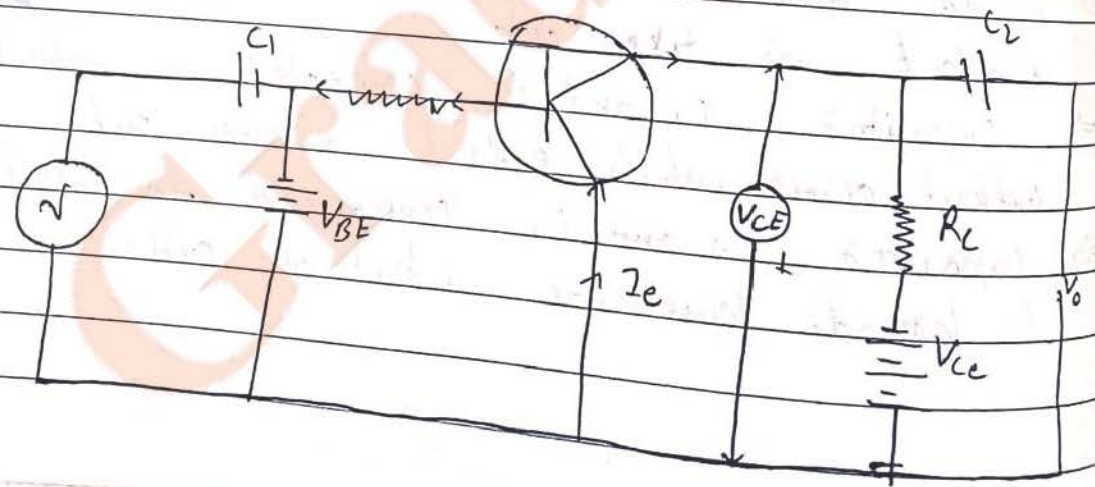
voltage drop across R_c also increases since collector is connected to positive terminal to it produces more negative amplified output signal.

During the negative half cycle input forward biasing decreases as a result collector current I_c decreases.

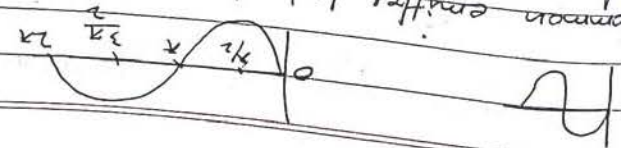
from eqn (2) voltage drop across R_c also decreases and produce more positive amplified output signal.

The phase difference b/w input and output signal is π

* Common emitter pnp transistor is used as an amplifier



Common emitter amp transistor is used as an amplifier whose configuration is shown in the given fig. Input base emitter junction is forward biased by using battery voltage V_{BE} and output junction collector and emitter is reverse biased by using battery voltage V_{CE} .



In input and output capacitors C_1 and C_2 are connected to provide the pure ac. During the positive half cycle input emitter base junction forward bias decreases from e_{a1} collector current I_C decreases and voltage drop across R_C also V and produce more negative output amplified signal.

By applying junction law

$$I_e = I_B + I_C \quad (1)$$

Applying KVL in output circuit

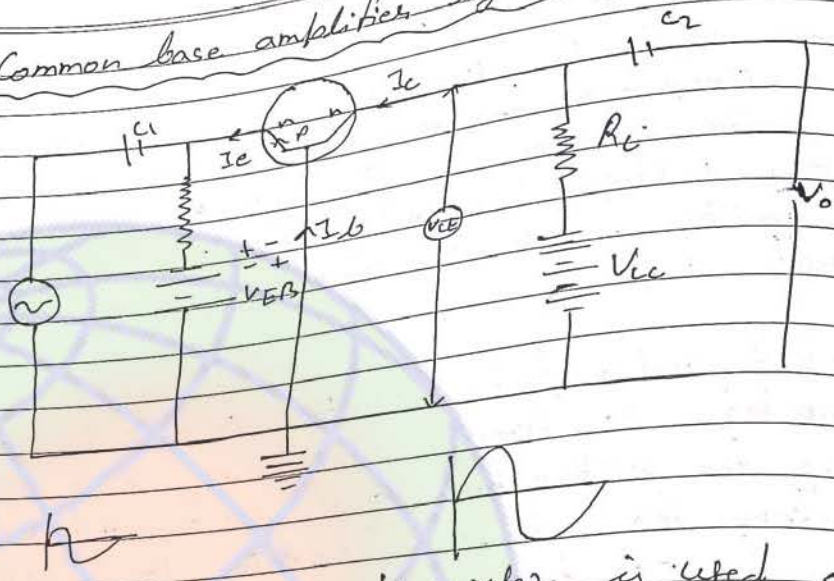
$$-V_{CE} + I_C R_C + V_{CE} = 0$$

$$V_{CE} = V_{CE} - I_C R_C \quad (2)$$

During the negative half cycle input emitter junction forward bias increases from e_{a1} collector current I_C increases and voltage drop across R_C also and produce more positive amplified output signal.

The phase difference b/w input and output is 180° .

* Common base amplifier by using npn transistor



Common base npn transistor is used as an amplifier whose circuit diagram as shown in the given figure. Input emitter base junction is forward biased by using battery voltage V_{EB} output is taken across R_C by using voltage V_{CB} .

In input and output capacitor C_1 and C_2 are connected to provide a.c.

Applying kirchoff's junction law

$$I_e = I_b + I_c \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Applying KVL in output circuit

$$-V_{CC} + I_C R_C + V_{CB} = 0$$

$$V_{CB} - V_o = V_{CC} - I_C R_C$$

During the +ve positive half cycle input emitter base junction forward bias decreases from eqⁿ (1) collector current I_C decreases

The voltage drop across R_C also decreases and produce more positive output amplified signal.

The phase difference b/w input and output is 0

* Common base amplifiers by using pnp transistor ⇒

Transistor gain

Transistor gain of a common emitter amplifier ⇒

i) AC current gain ⇒

The ratio of the small change in output collector current I_c to the small changeⁱⁿ input base current I_b at constant voltage V_{CE} is known as the current gain

$$B_{ac} = \left(\frac{\Delta I_c}{I_b} \right)_{V_{CE} = \text{constant}}$$

ii) DC current gain ⇒

The ratio of the output current to the input current is known as the DC current gain

$$B_{dc} = \frac{I_c}{I_b}$$

iii) Resistance gain (R gain) ⇒

The ratio of the output resistance to the input resistance is known as a resistance gain

$$R_{\text{gain}} = \frac{R_o}{R_i}$$

$$\alpha = \frac{\beta}{\beta + 1}$$

from eqn (v)

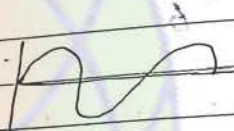
$$\frac{1}{\alpha} - 1 = \frac{1}{\beta}$$

$$\frac{1 - \alpha}{\alpha} = \frac{1}{\beta}$$

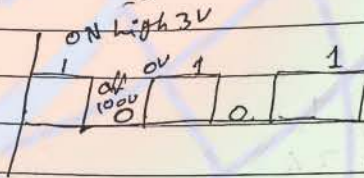
$$\beta = \frac{\alpha}{1 - \alpha}$$

* LOGIC GATES \Rightarrow

i) Analog signal



ii) Digital signal



i) Decimal system
(0, 1, 2, ..., 9)₁₀

ii) Binary system -
(0, 1)₂

* Conversion of decimal to binary system

2	25	1	\rightarrow least significant digit (lsd)
2	12	0	
2	6	0	
2	3	1	
2	1	1	

$$*(25)_{10} = (11001)_2$$

2	17	1
2	8	0
2	4	0
2	2	0
	1	

$$*(17)_{10} = (10001)_2$$

If there is

$$(0)_{10} = (0)_2$$

$$(1)_{10} = (1)_2$$

$$(2)_{10} = 10$$

$$(3)_{10} = 11$$

* Logic gate

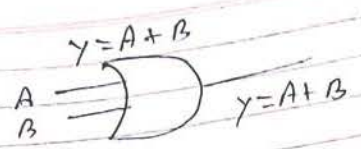
An electronic circuit which perform the Boolean algebraic operation is known as the logic gates

→ Types of logic gates

- i) OR gate
- ii) AND gate
- iii) NOT gate
- iv) NOR gate
- v) NAND gate
- vi) E-OR gate
- vii) E-NOR gate

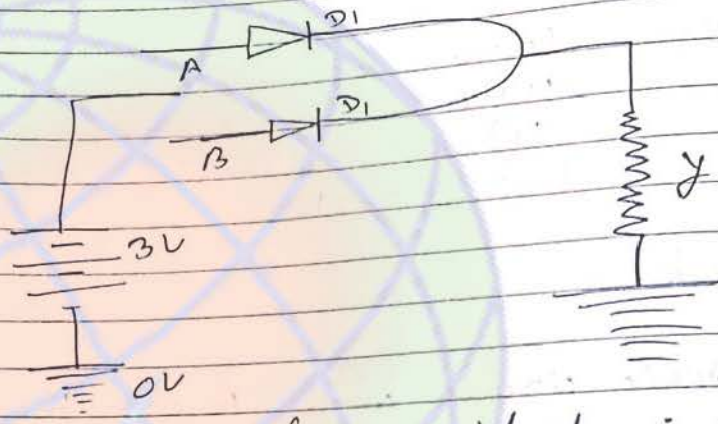
i) OR GATE

A Logic gate which perform the all operation is known as the OR gate



It have two or more input but only one output

⇒ electronic circuit of OR gate ⇒



1) electronic circuit has two input is consist of the two diodes D_1 and D_2 as shown in given figure

operation

Case I When $A = 0$ and $B = 0$

Both diode D_1 and D_2 are reversed biased that they do not conduct and there is no output

i.e $y = 0$

Case II

When $A = 0$ and $B = 1$

Diode D_1 is reversed biased that does not conduct and diode D_2 is forward biased that conduct output is high

means addition
e output

case III - when $A=1$ and $B=1$ i.e. $y=1$
Diode D_1 is forward biased and diode D_2 reversed biased due to diode. D_1 output is high
i.e. $y=1$

case IV - when $A=1$ and $B=1$
Both diode D_1 and D_2 are forward biased that conduct and output is high
i.e. $y=1$

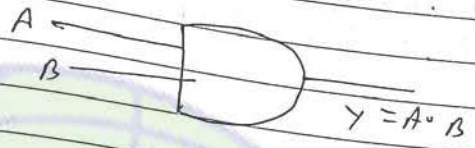
⇒ Truth table

Input		output
A	B	$y = A + B$
0	0	0
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	1

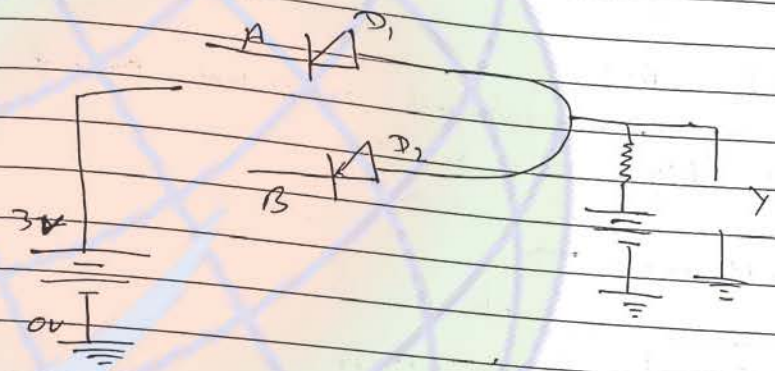
⇒ wave form



2) # And gate \Rightarrow A logic gate which performs the n -operation known as the And gate
 \Rightarrow Symbol of And gate $Y = A \cdot B$



It have two or more input but only one output
 \Rightarrow electronic circuit of And



INPUT		OUTPUT
A	B	$Y = A \cdot B$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

for And operation for two input diode D_1 and D_2 are connected as show in the given figure

(case) \Rightarrow When $A = 0$, $B = 0$ both diode are becomes forward biased and they are conduct and all outputs are gate grounds as default output is as default output low

that is $y=0$

case II

when $A=0, B=1$
diode D_1 conduct and diode D_2 not conduct
as result output is low that is $y=0$

case III

~~A=0~~ $A=1, B=0$
diode D_1 is reverse biased and
 D_2 is forward biased due to which output is
low i.e. $y=0$

case IV

when $A=1, B=1$
Both diodes are forward biased reverse biased
output is high i.e. $y=1$

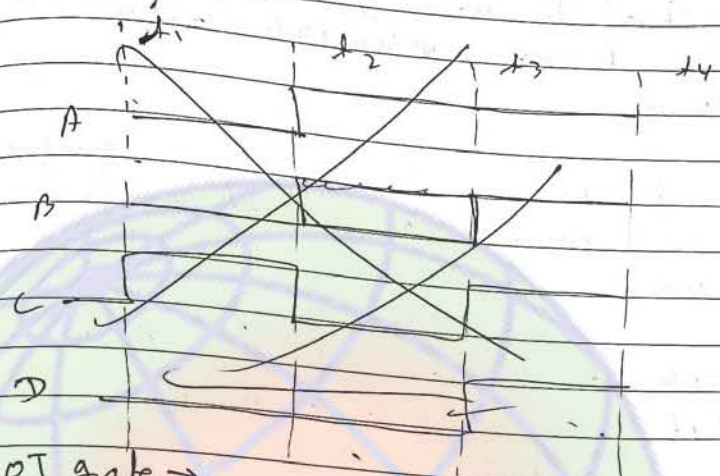
Truth table \rightarrow

Input		Output
A	B	$y = A \cdot B$
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

Wave form \rightarrow

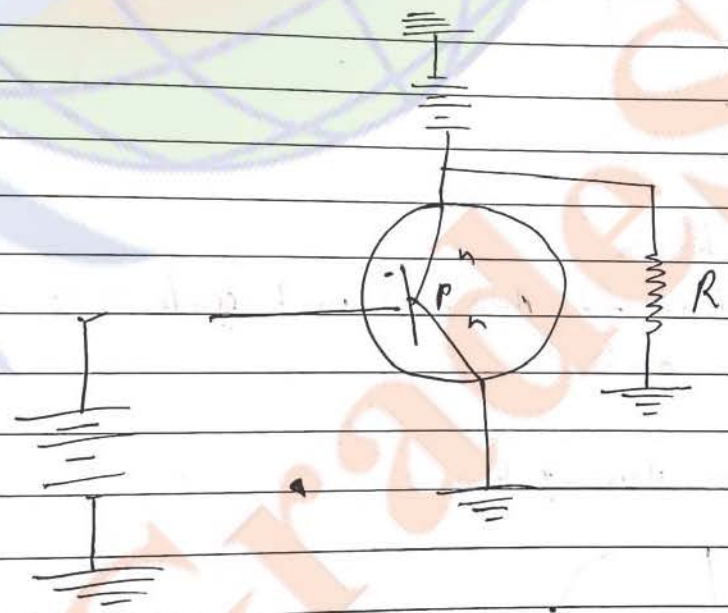
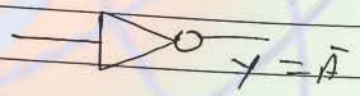
	t_1	t_2	t_3	t_4
A				
inp B				
opp y				

Wave form \Rightarrow



③ NOT gate \Rightarrow

A logic gate which ~~performs~~ ^{the not} performed ~~the~~ operation is known as NOT gate. It has only one input and output.



electronic circuit of the not gate by using the npn transistor as shown in the given figure

case I

when $A=0$ transistor is a reverse biased that does not conduct as result output is high ^{i.e} $y=1$

case II

$A=1$ transistor is forward biased that conduct as a result output is low that is $y=0$

Input	output
A	$y = \bar{A}$
0	1
1	0

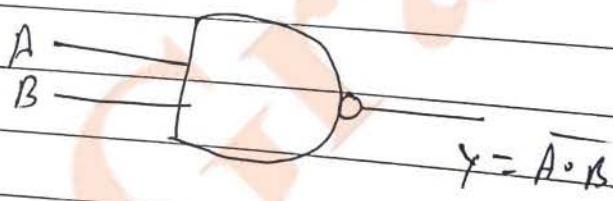
⇒ wave form



* Non-gate ⇒

A combination of And and not gate is known as the Non-gate

⇒ Symbol of Non-gate.



It has two or more input but one only - one output

⇒ Truth table

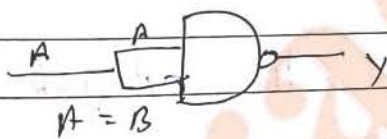
INPUT		Output $Y = A \cdot B$
A	B	
0	0	0
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	1

⇒ wave form →



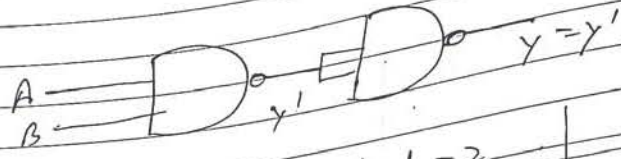
Non-gate is universal logic gate that perform the all basic operation

1) NAND-gate is a not gate



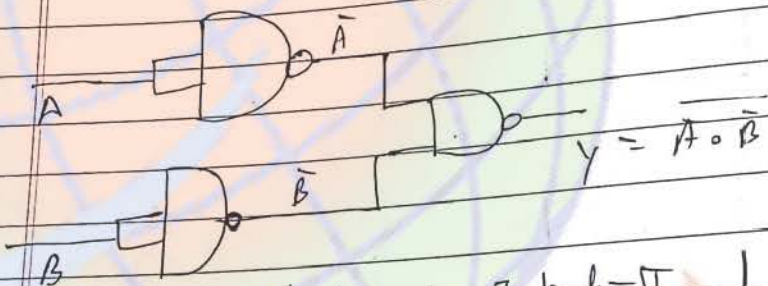
Input		Output $Y = A \cdot B$
A	A = B	
0	0	01
1	1	0

ii) NAND gate as a AND gate



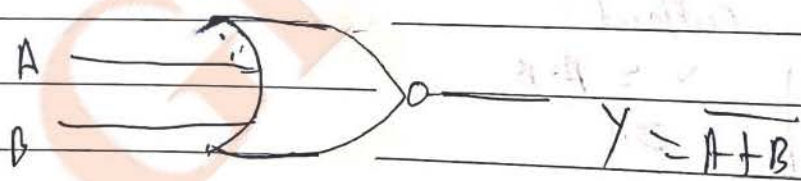
Input-1		Input-2		Output
A	B	$Y' = A \cdot B$		$Y = Y'$
0	0	1		0
0	1	1		0
1	0	1		0
1	1	0		1

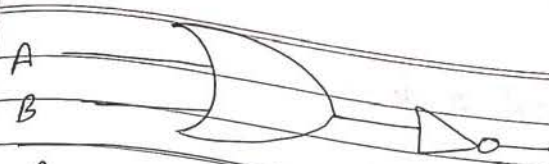
iii) NAND gate as a OR gate



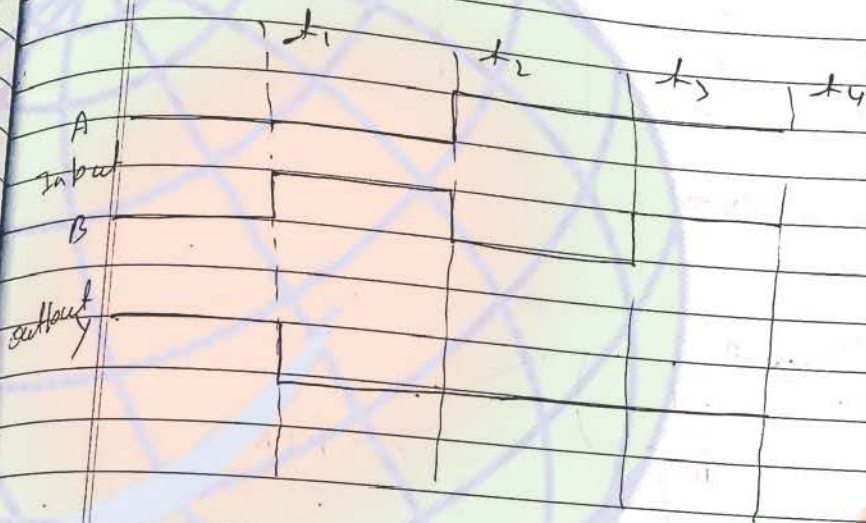
Input-1		Input-2		Output
A	B	\bar{A}	\bar{B}	$Y = \bar{A} \cdot \bar{B}$
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	1
1	0	0	1	1
1	1	0	0	1

~~iv)~~ NOR-gate \Rightarrow A combination of the OR gate and Not gate

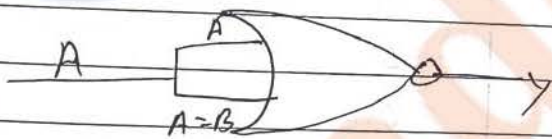




A	B	$y = \overline{A+B}$
0	0	1
0	1	0
1	0	0
1	1	0

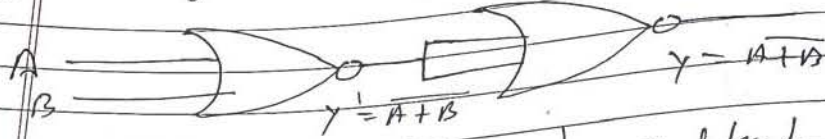


- 1) NOR gate is universal gate \Rightarrow which performed the all operation of the logic gate
- 2) NOR gate is a Not gate



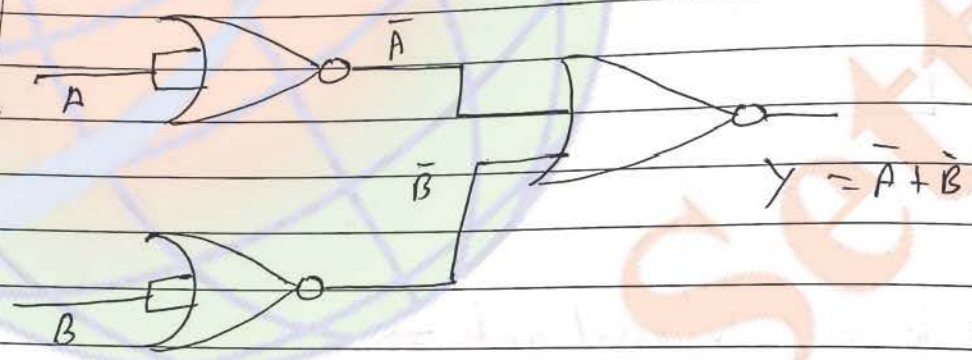
Input		Output
A	$A=B$	$y = \overline{A+B}$
0	0	1
1	1	0

ii) NOR gate as a OR gate \Rightarrow



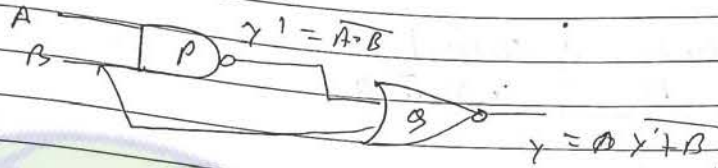
Input-I		Input-II		Output
A	B	$y' = A+B$		$y = A+B$
0	0	1		0
0	1	0		1
1	0	0		1
1	1	0		1

iii) NOR gate as a AND gate



Input-I		Input-II		Output
A	B	\bar{A}	\bar{B}	$y = \bar{A} + \bar{B}$
0	0	1	1	0
0	1	1	0	0
1	0	0	1	0
1	1	0	0	1

Q) Identify the logic gate and write the truth table for two input



P → NAND gate
Q → NOR gate

Input →		Input →		output
A	B	$Y' = A \cdot B$	B	$Y = A \cdot Y' + B$
0	0	1	0	0
0	1	1	1	0
1	0	1	0	0
1	1	0	1	0

Q) The following figure shows the Input wave form A and B and output wave form Y of a logic gates identify the gate and write the truth table



NAND gate

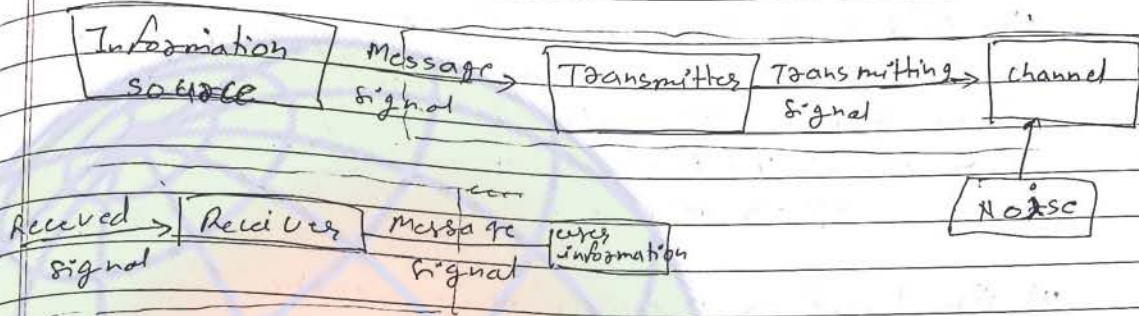
Input		Output
A	B	$Y = \overline{A \cdot B}$
1	1	0
0	0	1
0	1	1
1	0	1
1	1	0
0	0	1
0	1	1

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Communication

* Communication system \Rightarrow



In a communication system, transmitter convert the information source into the electrical form and this signal provided the transmitter. Transmitter convert the message signal into the suitable transmitting signal before the transmitter low frequency signal called modulating signal super impute on the high frequency signal called carrier wave signal this process is known as modulation and ^{obtained} wave is called modulated wave that is transmitted by the transmitting antenna in communication channel. As the transmitter signal propagate through the communication ^{channel} it get distorted due to noise and loss of the strength called attenuation. This signal received by the receiving antenna that have a demodulator which separate the low frequency ^{audio} signal from the modulated signal and transmitter converted it message signal for the user.

They are following two mode of communication
 1) Point to Point communication \Rightarrow
 A mode of communication in which there is
 one signal transmitter and ^{signal} receiver, i know
 as the point to point communication.
 eg \Rightarrow mobile, Fax, Telephone, telegraph

ii) Broad cast \Rightarrow A mode of communication in which
 only one transmitter and large no. of receivers
 is known as the broad cast
 eg \Rightarrow Radio, TV

\Rightarrow Types of the ~~so~~ transmitting medium and
 transmission communication channel

i) Guided transmitter medium/channel \Rightarrow
 It is that communication medium or channel
 which is used to point-to-point communication
 b/w a signal transmitter and receiver
 eg \Rightarrow optical fibre, Telephone
 This is used in line communication system

ii) Un guided transmitter medium \Rightarrow
 It is that communication medium in which
 there is no point to point ^{contact} ~~contact~~ b/w
 signal transmitter and a receiver this
 communication system used and ~~satellite~~
 satellite

Not
 Page no \Rightarrow
 519

* Antenna \Rightarrow A metallic ^{state} structure is known as the antenna

\Rightarrow There are two types of antenna

i) Hertz antenna \Rightarrow It is a straight conductor of length equal to half of the wave length of the transmitted or received signal

$$\text{length of antenna} = \frac{\lambda}{2}$$

ii) Marconi antenna \Rightarrow It is straight conductor whose length is equal to the one fourth of the wave length of the transmitted or received signal

$$\text{length size of antenna} = \frac{\lambda}{4}$$

* Modulation \Rightarrow

The process of super ^{imposition} of high or low frequency signal ~~or~~ called modulating signal over the high frequency signal called carrier wave to produce modulated wave is known as modulation

* Needs of modulation \Rightarrow

i) Size of antenna \Rightarrow by the modulation, modulated wave ~~is~~ obtained ^{that's have} high frequency and low wave length ^{if} size becomes lower

for example \Rightarrow ~~size~~ low frequency signal of 20 kHz
 $20 \times 10^3 \text{ Hz}$

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{\nu} = \frac{3 \times 10^8 \text{ m}}{20 \times 10^3}$$

$$\frac{3 \times 10^4}{2} = 1.5 \times 10^4 \text{ m}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{size of antenna} &= \frac{\lambda}{4} = \frac{1.5 \times 10^4}{4} \\ &= 0.375 \times 10^4 \\ &= 3750 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

so when this signal superimpose over the high frequency carrier wave signal of frequency ω @ $1 \text{ MHz} = 10^6 \text{ Hz}$

$$\lambda = \frac{3 \times 10^8}{10^6} = 300 \text{ m}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{size of antenna} &= \frac{\lambda}{4} \\ &= \frac{300}{4} = 75 \text{ m} \end{aligned}$$

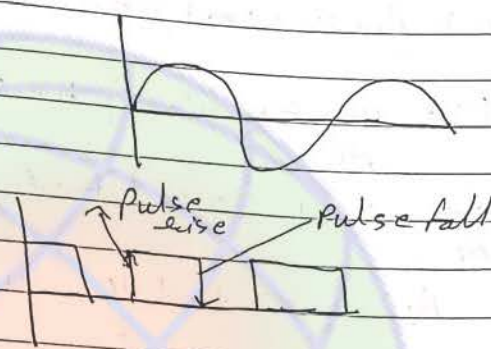
This shows that needs of modulation

ii) Effective power radiated by antenna \Rightarrow Theoretically exponentially it is found that power of radiation is directly proportional to the square of the λ $P \propto (\frac{1}{\lambda})^2$

here power radiation increases by reducing the wavelength this is possible when modulation is take place

• mixing of signal from different transmitters there is impossible to distinguish low frequency signal mixing there is less chance to mixing high frequency signals that way it also needs needs of modulation

- i) Types of modulation
- ii) Amplitude modulation
- iii) Frequency modulation
- iv) Phase modulation
- v) Pulse modulation



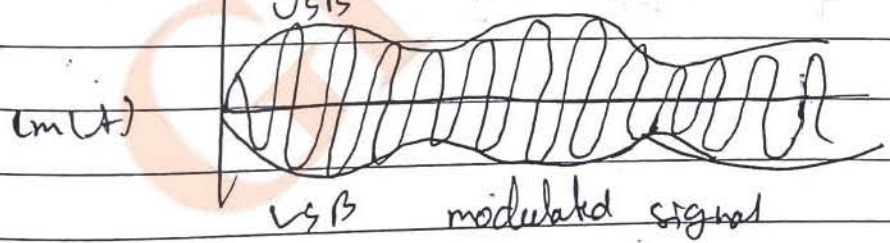
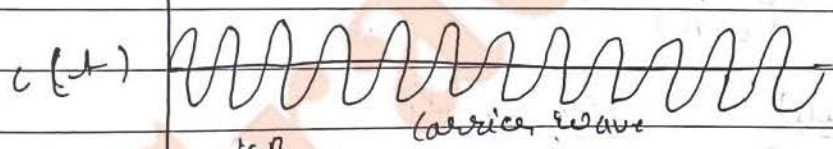
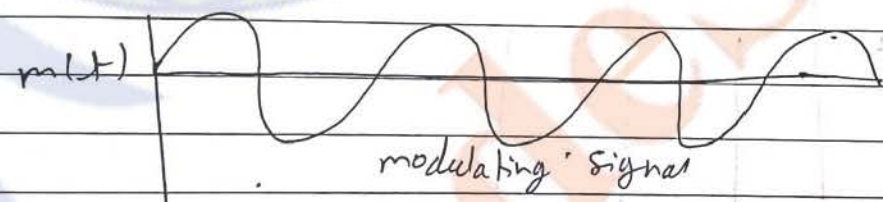
i) Amplitude modulation

A modulation in which amplitude of the carrier waves varies according with the variation of modulating signal

Let modulating signal and carrier wave are

$$m(t) = A_m \sin \omega_m t \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$c(t) = A_c \sin \omega_c t \quad \text{--- (2)}$$



modulated signal is given by

$$C_m(t) = [A_c + m(t)] \sin \omega_c t$$

$$= (A_c + A_m \sin \omega_m t) \sin \omega_c t \quad (\text{from eq. 1})$$

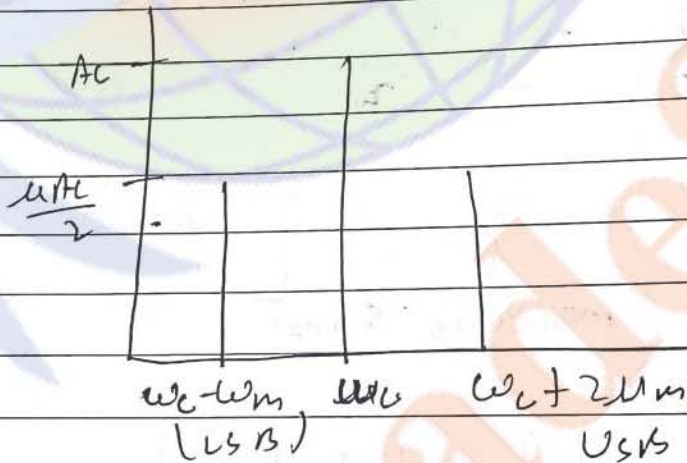
$$= A_c \left(1 + \frac{A_m \sin \omega_m t}{A_c} \right) \sin \omega_c t$$

where $\frac{A_m}{A_c} = \mu$ (called modulation index)

$$C_m(t) = A_c \sin \omega_c t + \frac{A_c \mu \sin \omega_m t \sin \omega_c t}{2}$$

$$= A_c \sin \omega_c t + \frac{A_c \mu \cos(\omega_c - \omega_m) t - A_c \mu \cos(\omega_c + \omega_m) t}{2}$$

here three frequency $(\omega_c - \omega_m)$
called lower side band and $(\omega_c + \omega_m)$
called upper side band



$$\frac{\mu A_c}{2} = \frac{A_m}{A_c} \times \frac{A_c}{2}$$

* band width \Rightarrow upper side band - lower side band

$$= f_{USB} - f_{LSB}$$

$$= (f_c + f_m) - (f_c - f_m)$$

$$= 2f_m$$

Note \Rightarrow Maximum amplitude and voltage of modulation signal = $A_c + A_m$
 minimum amplitude and voltage = $A_c - A_m$

* Power Average power per cycle in the unmodulated carrier wave.

$$P_c = \frac{A_c^2}{2R}$$

Average power per cycle of modulated signal

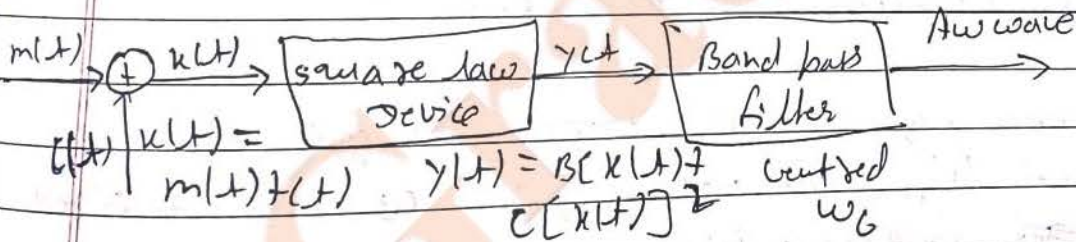
$$P_t = P_c \left(1 + \frac{\mu^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\frac{P_t}{P_c} = \left(1 + \frac{\mu^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\frac{I_t^2 R}{I_c^2 R} = \left(1 + \frac{\mu^2}{2} \right)$$

$$\boxed{\frac{I_t}{I_c} = \sqrt{1 + \frac{\mu^2}{2}}}$$

* Production of the amplitude modulated wave \Rightarrow



Block of a simple modulator

$2 \sin A \sin B = \cos(A-B) - \cos(A+B)$
 $\sin A = \frac{1 - \cos 2A}{2}$

Modulating and carrier wave signal are given by
 $m(t) = A_m \sin \omega_m t$
 $c(t) = A_c \sin \omega_c t$

$k(t) = m(t) + c(t)$
 $= A_m \sin \omega_m t + A_c \sin \omega_c t$

This signal passes through the square law device.

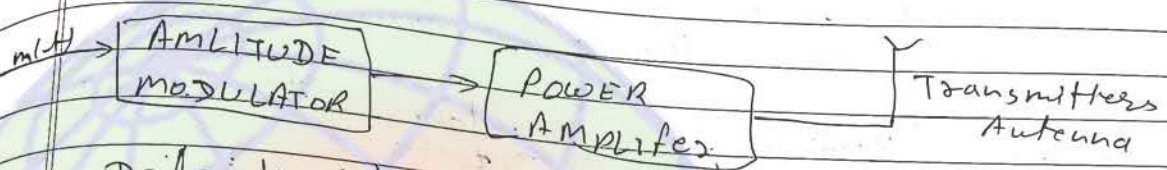
$y(t) = [B k(t)]^2 + c [k(t)]^2$
 $= B [A_m \sin \omega_m t + A_c \sin \omega_c t]^2 + c [A_m \sin \omega_m t + A_c \sin \omega_c t]^2$
 $= B A_m^2 \sin^2 \omega_m t + B A_c^2 \sin^2 \omega_c t + 2 B A_m A_c \sin \omega_m t \sin \omega_c t$
 $+ c A_m^2 \sin^2 \omega_m t + 2 c A_m A_c \sin \omega_m t \sin \omega_c t + c A_c^2 \sin^2 \omega_c t$

$y(t) = B A_m^2 \sin^2 \omega_m t + B A_c^2 \sin^2 \omega_c t + \frac{c A_m^2}{2} - \frac{c A_c^2}{2}$
 $\cos 2\omega_m t + 2 c A_m A_c \cos(\omega_c - \omega_m) t +$
 $2 c A_m A_c \cos(\omega_c + \omega_m) t + \frac{c A_c^2}{2} - \frac{c A_c^2}{2}$
 $\cos 2\omega_c t$

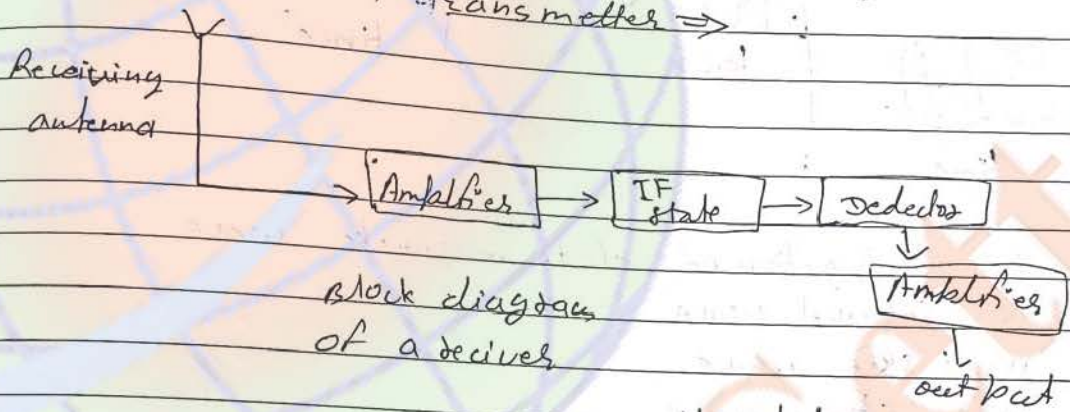
There are ~~the~~ following frequency $\omega_c - \omega_m$, ω_m , $2\omega_c$, $\omega_c + \omega_m$ and ω_c terms

This frequency are passes through the band pass filter which produce the desired ~~desired~~ frequency $\omega_c - \omega_m$ and $\omega_c + \omega_m$

Before ^{transmission} these signal are ^{boosted} through the power amplifiers and then radiated by the transmitting antenna in a communication channels.



Deduction of amplitude modulated wave
1) Block diagram of transmitter =>



Block diagram of a receiver

transmitted message gets ^{attenuated} in propagating through the channel. The receiving antenna to ^{be} ~~is~~ ^{connected} by an amplifier and a detector and addition it is connected to the intermediate frequency stage which convert the carrier frequency in ^{to} ~~at~~ ^{low} frequency. ^{The} ~~to~~ ^{output} of the IF stage passes through the detector that produce the actual output message signal. Since during the detection signal is ^{attenuated} so again it passes through the amplifier whose block diagram as show in the given figure.

* Demodulation or detection \Rightarrow The process of removal of the low frequency signal from the high frequency signal called demodulation or detection block diagram as shown in the given figure.



- Propagation of electromagnetic wave
- i) Ground wave
 - ii) sky wave
 - iii) Space wave

i) Ground wave propagation \Rightarrow

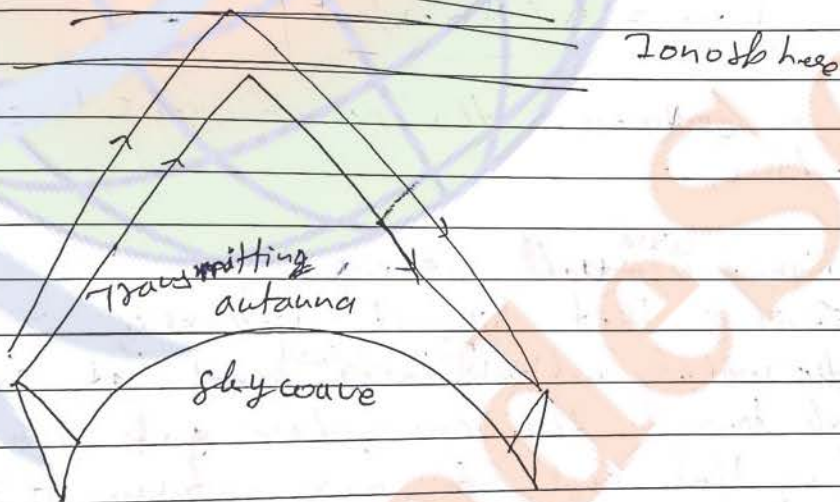
A mode of wave propagation in which the ground has strong influence on the propagation of signal waves from the transmitting antenna to receiving antenna is known as the ground wave propagation or surface wave propagation.

To radiate the signal with high efficiency the antenna length is almost λ . The antenna has large physical size and they are located very near to the ground in standard amplitude modulated (AM) broadcast the ground based vertical towers are generally used.

as transmitting antenna for such antenna ground has strong influence on the propagation of the signal the mode of propagation is called surface wave propagation and wave glides over the surface of the earth a wave induces current the ground over which it passes and it is attenuated as result of absorption of energy by the earth the Attenuation of surface wave increases very rapidly with increase in frequency for its frequency is low ~~MHz~~ less than few mega Hertz (MHz)

ii) Sky wave propagation ⇒

It is a mode of wave propagation in which the radio wave emitted from the transmitter antenna reach the receiving antenna after reflection by the ~~atmosphere~~ ionosphere sphere.



In the frequency range from ~~1.30~~ ^{few mega hertz} 1.30 to 40 MHz can be ~~activated~~ ^{activated} by the ~~at~~ reflection of the atmosphere that extends from 65 km to 400 km above the earth's surface.

Ionosphere occurs due to the absorption of ultraviolet and other high energy radiations coming from the Sun. The ionosphere is divided into different layers on the variation of density of ions. Density of the atmosphere decreases at height but concentration of ions increases. Each layer acts as a reflector of the different frequency.

* Critical frequency \Rightarrow It is a highest frequency of radio wave which when sent straight up, normally towards the layer of ionosphere gets reflected from ionosphere and returns to the earth.

$$f_c = 9(N_{max})^{1/2}$$

where N_{max} is the no. of density of the electrons.

* Maximum ^{usual} ~~usual~~ frequency \Rightarrow That it is that highest frequency of radio waves which when sent ~~sent~~ at some angle towards the ionosphere gets reflected from that and becomes returns to the earth.

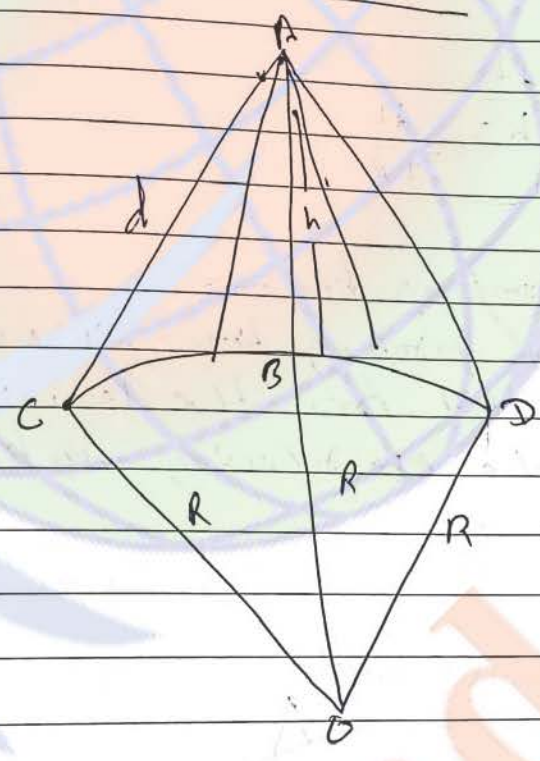
Maximum usual frequency = $f_o F_2$

$$f_o F_2 = f_c \cos \theta$$

Skip distance \Rightarrow
It is the smallest distance b/w the transmitting antenna and the receiving antenna and the receiving antenna where the sky wave is fixed frequency but not more than the critical frequency is first received after reflection from the ionosphere.

Wave fading \Rightarrow It is the variation in the strength of a signal at a ~~receiver~~ ^{receiver} due to interference of wave.

Height of antenna \Rightarrow



Let antenna AB of height of h fixed on the ground surface which have radius R

$$AO^2 = AB^2 + OB^2$$

$$(h+R)^2 = d^2 + R^2$$

$$h^2 + R^2 + 2hR = d^2 + R^2$$

$$h^2 \ll R$$

$$2hR = d^2$$

$$d = \sqrt{2hR}$$

Area affected
 $= \pi d^2$
 $= \pi 2hR$
 Area = $2\pi hR$

population = Area \times population density
 population = $R \pi h \rho$

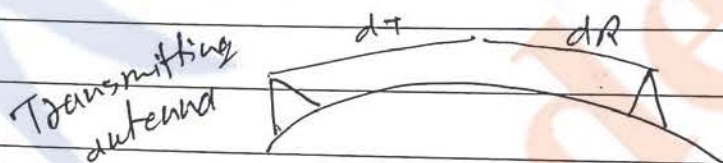
height

$$2hR = d^2$$

$$h = \frac{d^2}{2R}$$

3) \odot Space wave propagation \rightarrow

It is a mode of propagation in which the radio wave emitted from the transmitting antenna reach ~~the~~ space the ~~the~~ receiving antenna through space.



$$d_m = d_T + d_R$$

$$d_m = \sqrt{2h_T R} + \sqrt{2h_R R}$$

A space wave are used for line of sight communication as well as satellite communication at frequency of above the 30MHz communication is essentially ^{generally limited} ~~increases~~ to line of ^{sight path} ~~the~~ ~~paths~~ at smaller wave length and can be placed at heights of many line of ^{sight} ~~side~~ above the ~~o~~ ground because of wave ~~gate~~ ^{side} nature of propagation direct so total horizontal distance from the transmitting antenna to receiving antenna is given by

$$d_m = d_T + d_R$$

where h_T = height of transmitting antenna

$$d_m = \sqrt{2h_T R} + \sqrt{2h_R R}$$

h_R = height of receiving antenna

television broad cast microwave links and satellite ~~satellite~~ communication can be used in space wave mode communication can be used in space wave mode.

Ex-15-1

$$h_T = 32 \text{ m}$$

$$h_R = 50 \text{ m}$$

$$R = 6.4 \times 10^6 \text{ m}$$

$$d_m = \sqrt{2h_T R} + \sqrt{2h_R R}$$

$$= \sqrt{2 \times 32 \times 6.4 \times 10^6}$$

$$= 45.5 \text{ km}$$

17.1.16

15.5)

$$A_c = 12V$$

$$A_m = 2$$

$$\mu = 75\%$$

$$= \frac{75}{100} = \frac{3}{4}$$

$$\mu = \frac{A_m}{A_c}$$

$$\frac{3}{4} = \frac{A_m}{12}$$

$$A_m = \frac{3}{4} \times 12$$

$$= 9$$

15.6)

$$i(t) = 2 \sin 8\pi t \text{ volts}$$

$$v(t) = A_c \sin \omega_c t$$

comparing above eqn

$$A_c = 2V$$

$$\omega_c = 8\pi$$

$$8\pi V_c = 8\pi^4$$

$$V_c = 4$$

$$A_m = 1V$$

$$A_{max} = A_c + A_m = 2 + 1 = 3V$$

$$A_{min} = A_c - A_m = 2 - 1 = 1V$$

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(1)
$$\mu = \frac{A_m}{A_c} = \frac{1}{2} = 0.5$$

17.1

15.7

$$A_c + A_m = 10V$$

$$A_c - A_m = 2V$$

$$2A_c = 12$$

$$A_c = \frac{12}{2} = 6$$

$$A_c = 6V$$

$$A_m = 10 - 6 = 4V$$

$$u = \frac{A_m}{A_c} = \frac{4}{6} = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$u = \frac{2}{3}$$

$$A_c + A_m = 10$$

$$A_c - A_m = 0$$

$$2A_c = 10$$

$$A_c = 5$$

$$A_m = 5$$

$$u = \frac{A_m}{A_c} = \frac{5}{5} = 1$$

*

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Electromagnetic Wave

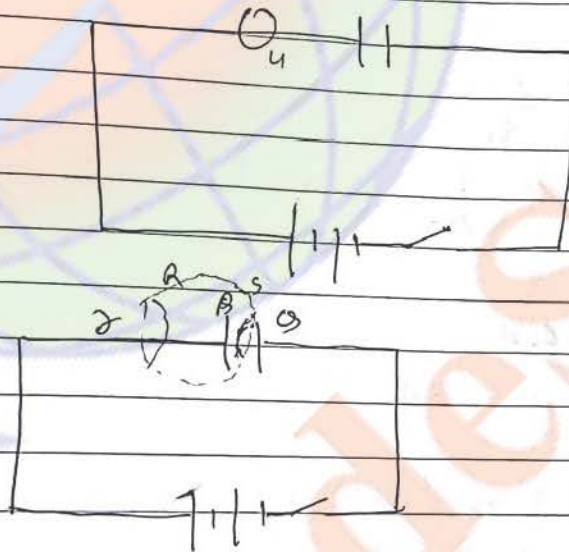
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* Displacement current \Rightarrow
A/c to ampere circuital law

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Maxwell suggested that ~~from~~ above equation is logical in constant constant

for this verification Maxwell arranged the apparatus that consists of a capacitor of two plate P and Q connected to the battery through tapping switch. Maxwell considers the tapping switch in which where one end is kept in contact with plate P and another end lies b/w the plates.



Applying A/c at R

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I$$

$$B \int dl \cos \theta = \mu_0 I$$

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \times d\mathbf{l} = \mu_0 I$$

$$B = \frac{\mu_0 I}{2\pi r} \quad \text{--- (i)}$$

Applying Ampere's

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \mu_0 I$$

$$\boxed{B = 0} \quad \text{--- (ii)}$$

from eqn (i) and (ii) ampere circuital law is consistent with maxwell's equations that some thing is missing in the ampere's circuital law which is related to the electric field

Let capacitor plates has area A and charge q

$$E = \frac{\sigma}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\sigma = \frac{q}{A}$$

$$E = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0 A}$$

$$q = \epsilon_0 E A$$

$$q = \epsilon_0 \phi_e$$

Differentiating w.r.t. t.

$$\frac{dq}{dt} = \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_e}{dt}$$

$$\boxed{I_d = \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_e}{dt}}$$

$$\oint \mathbf{B} \cdot d\mathbf{l} = \mu_0 (I + I_d)$$

It is the displacement current that comes into play in electric field and electric flux changing with time

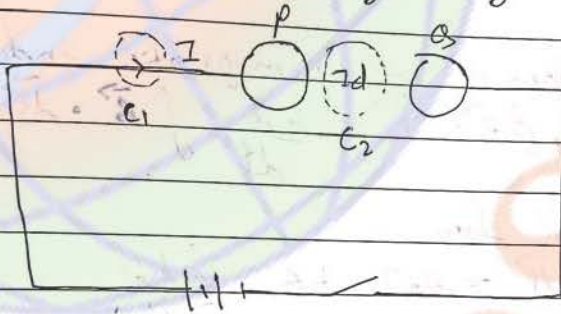
Maxwell modify the ampere circuital law called as ampere Maxwell law or equation are given by

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0(I + I_d)$$

$$= \mu_0 I + \mu_0 \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_e}{dt}$$

Continuity of current \Rightarrow

According to continuity of current the sum of conduction current and displacement current has a important property of continuity along any closed path individually they may be continuous.



Consider a parallel plate capacitor P and Q connected to the battery through the switch

Consider two loops C_1 and C_2

$$I + I_D = I + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_e}{dt}$$

where $\phi_e = 0$

$$I + I_D = I \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

for loop C_2

$$I + I_D = \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_e}{dt}$$

$$= 0 + \frac{d\phi}{dt}$$

$$I + I_d = I \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

From eqn (1) and (2) we can conclude that sum of conduction current and displacement current are continuous.

Equation of Maxwell :-

i) Gauss law of electrostatics

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{Q}{\epsilon_0}$$

ii) Gauss law of electromagnetostatics

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0$$

iii) Faraday's law of electromagnetic induction

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{l} = - \frac{d}{dt} \int \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{s}$$

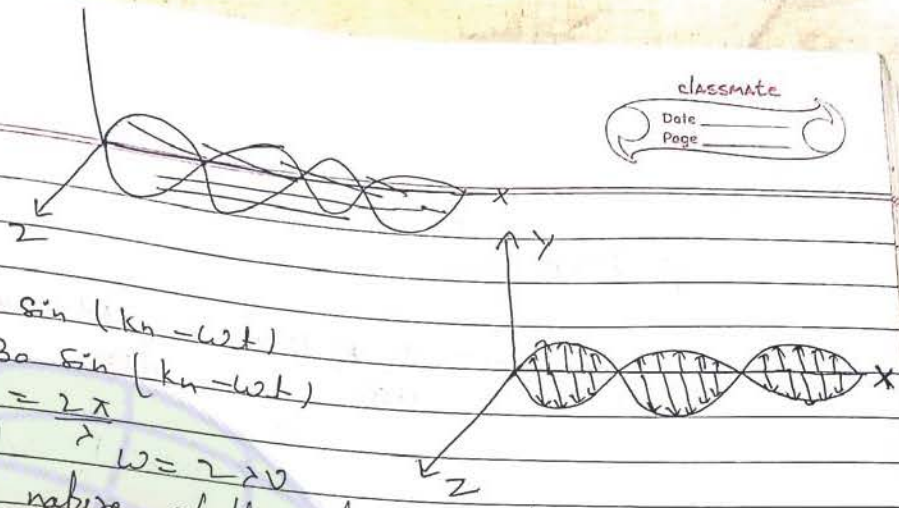
iv) Ampere Maxwell law

$$\oint \vec{B} \cdot d\vec{l} = \mu_0 I + \epsilon_0 \frac{d\phi_e}{dt}$$

* Electromagnetic waves :->

A/c to Maxwell the electromagnetic waves are those waves in which there are sinusoidal variation of electric and magnetic field vectors at right angle to each other,

As well as at right angle to the direction of wave propagation.



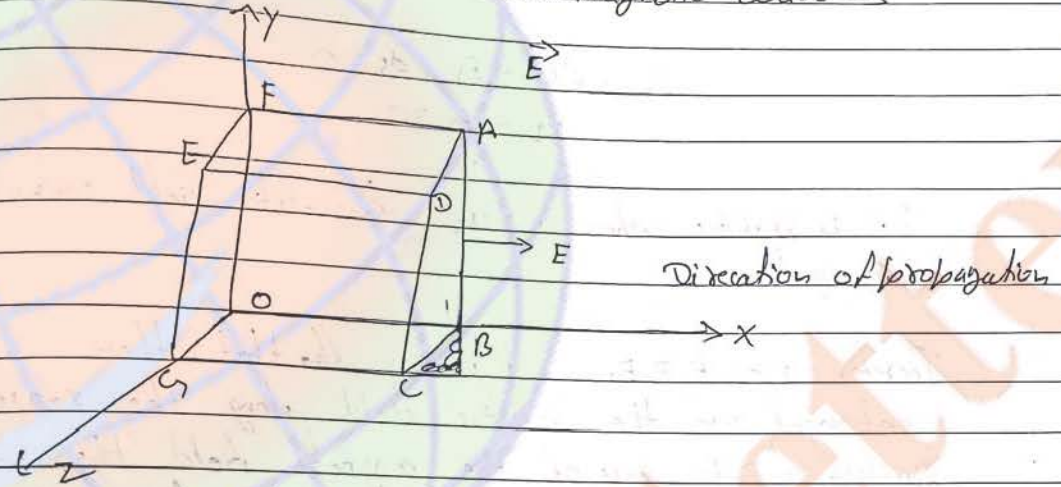
$$E_y = E_0 \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$B_z = B_0 \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

$$k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$$

$$\omega = 2\pi\nu$$

* Transverse nature of the electromagnetic wave \Rightarrow



At plane
consider an electromagnetic wave propagate in the direction of the x-axis in a consider parallelepiped ABCDEFGH ABCD is the wave front of the electromagnetic wave at the any stand it'

Electric and magnetic field \perp to the direction of a magnetic field x-axis surface surface to zero

Since there is no charge enclosed in a parallelepiped

Applying the gauss law :-

$$\oint \vec{E} \cdot d\vec{s} = \frac{q}{\epsilon_0}$$

$$\oint \vec{F} \cdot d\vec{s} = 0 \quad \theta = 0$$

$$\int_{ABCD} E_1 ds \cos 0^\circ + \int_{EFGH} E_2 ds \cos 180^\circ + \int_{ADEF} E ds \cos 90^\circ + \int_{BCGH} E ds \cos 90^\circ$$

$$\int_{ABDF} E_1 ds \cos 90^\circ + \int_{CDEG} E ds \cos 90^\circ = 0$$

$$E_1 \int ds - E_2 \int ds = 0$$

$$E_1 - E_2 = 0$$

This is possible when $\mu_1 = \mu_2$ but static field cannot propagate

Therefore $E_1 = E_2$ this is so that there is no component of the electric field along the x-axis similarly, in case of the magnetic field there is no component of the magnetic field along the direction of propagation that is electric field and magnetic field are perpendicular to the direction of propagation of wave

⇒ characteristics of the electromagnetic wave ⇒

- i) It is produced by the oscillating charge
- ii) It does not require ^{any material} medium for propagation
- iii) Its speed in vacuum is 3×10^8 m/s which is given by

$$c = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0}}$$

iv) speed of light in a dielectric medium

$$V = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\mu_0 \epsilon_0 \epsilon_r \mu_r}}$$

v) Speed of electromagnetic wave is the ratio of the amplitude of the electric field and magnetic field

$$c = \frac{E_0}{B_0}$$

vi) The velocity of electromagnetic waves depends inversely on a electric and magnetic field

vii) The electromagnetic waves carry energy which is divided equally b/w electric field and magnetic field vectors

viii) Intensity of the static electric field and magnetic field are given by

$$u_e = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_0^2$$

or

$$u_B = \frac{B_0^2}{2\mu_0}$$

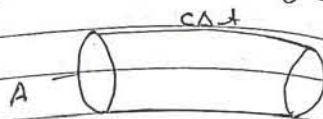
Total energy density of
Total energy of electromagnetic wave

$$u_T = u_e + u_B$$

$$u_T = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_0^2 + \frac{B_0^2}{2\mu_0}$$

* Intensity of electromagnetic waves \Rightarrow
 The energy passing per unit area per unit time perpendicular to the direction of propagation of wave

$$I = \frac{\text{Energy}}{\text{Volume}}$$



$$U_{av} = \frac{U_{av}}{\text{Volume}}$$

$$U_{av} = U_{av} \times A c \Delta t$$

$$I = \frac{U_{av} A c \Delta t}{A A \Delta t}$$

$$I = U_{av} c$$

* Momentum of electromagnetic wave \Rightarrow

$$\text{Momentum} = \frac{\text{Energy}}{c}$$

$$p = \frac{U}{c}$$

* Radiation pressure \Rightarrow

$$\text{Pressure} = \frac{\text{change in momentum}}{\Delta t}$$

$$\text{Pressure} = \frac{U \text{ Energy}}{c \Delta t}$$

unit time
gabac

Example 8.2 $= \frac{I}{c} = \frac{\text{Intensity}}{\text{Speed}}$

Soln $\nu = 25 \text{ MHz}$
 $= 25 \times 10^6 \text{ Hz}$

$E = 6.3 \text{ V/m}$

$B = ?$

$c = \frac{E}{B}$

$B = \frac{E}{c}$

$= \frac{6.3}{3 \times 10^8}$

$= 2.1 \times 10^{-8}$

$B = 2.1 \times 10^{-8} \text{ T}$

Example 8.3

Soln $B_y = 2 \times 10^{-7} \sin(0.5 \times 10^3 x + 1.0 \times 10^6 t) \text{ T}$

$B = B_0 \sin(kx + \omega t)$

Comparing above eqn

$B_0 = 2 \times 10^{-7} \text{ T}$

wave length

$k = 0.5 \times 10^3$

$\frac{2\pi}{\lambda} = 0.5 \times 10^3$

$\lambda = \frac{2\pi}{0.5 \times 10^3}$

frequency

$\omega = 1.0 \times 10^6$

$2\pi \nu = 1.0 \times 10^6$

$$v = \frac{1.5 \times 10^{11}}{2 \times 10^8}$$

(b) $c = \frac{E_0}{B_0}$

$$E_0 = B_0 c$$

$$= 2 \times 10^{-7} \times 3 \times 10^8$$

$$= 60$$

$$E = E_0 \sin(kx + \omega t)$$

$$E = 60 \sin(10^{15} \times 10^3 \times t + 1.5 \times 10^{11} \times t) \text{ Nc}^{-1}$$

Example no →
P.4)

$$\frac{P}{A} = 1800 / \text{cm}^2$$

$$A = 20 \text{ cm}^2$$

$$P = 18A = 18 \times 20$$

$$= 360 \text{ W}$$

$$t = 30 \text{ min}$$

$$= 30 \times 60 \text{ sec}$$

$$U = P \times t$$

$$= 360 \times 30 \times 60$$

$$\text{Momentum} = \frac{U}{c}$$

$$\text{Force} = \frac{\text{momentum}}{t}$$

$$= \frac{U}{t}$$

$$F = \frac{360 \times 30 \times 60}{3 \times 10^8 \times 30 \times 60} = 12 \times 10^{-7} \text{ N}$$

Example
P.5)

$$P_{in} = 100 \text{ W}$$

$$r = 3 \text{ m}$$

$$\eta = 20\%$$

$$\eta = \frac{P_o}{P_{in}}$$

$$P_o = \eta P_{in}$$

$$= \frac{7.5}{100} \times 100$$

$$P_o = 2.05 \text{ W}$$

$$I = \frac{P_o}{A}$$

$$= \frac{2.05}{4 \times 10^{-2}}$$

$$= 2.05$$

$$4 \times 3.14 \times 9$$

$$I = I_e + I_B$$

$$I_e = I_B$$

$$I_e = I_B = \frac{1}{2} I$$

$$I_e = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_{rms}^2$$

$$\frac{I}{2} = \frac{1}{2} \epsilon_0 E_{rms}^2$$

$$E_{rms} = \sqrt{\frac{I}{\epsilon_0}}$$

$$= \sqrt{\frac{2.05}{4 \times 3.14 \times 9 \times 8.854 \times 10^{-12}}}$$

$$= 2.09 \text{ V/m}$$

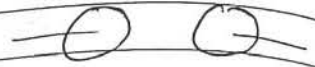
$$\epsilon_0 = I_{rms} \sqrt{2}$$

$$= \frac{2.09 \times 1.414}{4.07} \text{ V/m}$$

$$C = \frac{E_0}{B_0}$$

$$B_0 = \frac{E_0}{c}$$

$$= \frac{4.007}{3 \times 10^8} \text{ T}$$

Exercise
Ex \Rightarrow p.1

$$r = 12 \text{ cm} = 12 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}$$

$$d = 5 \text{ cm} = 5 \times 10^{-2} \text{ m}$$

$$I = 0.15 \text{ A}$$

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 A}{d}$$

$$C = \frac{\epsilon_0 \pi r^2}{d}$$

$$= \frac{8.854 \times 10^{-12} \times 3.14 \times 144 \times 10^{-4}}{5 \times 10^{-2}}$$

$$= 80.1 \times 10^{-12}$$

$$Q = CV$$

$$\frac{Q}{I} = C \left(\frac{V}{I} \right)$$

$$\frac{I}{C} = \frac{V}{I}$$

$$\frac{0.15}{80.1 \times 10^{-12}} = \frac{V}{I}$$

$$\frac{V}{I} = 1.87 \times 10^9 \text{ Vs}^{-1}$$

$$I_0 = \frac{\epsilon_0 d \phi}{dt}$$

$$= \epsilon_0 \frac{dEA}{dt}$$

$$= \epsilon_0 A \frac{dE}{d\phi}$$

$$E = \frac{V}{d}$$

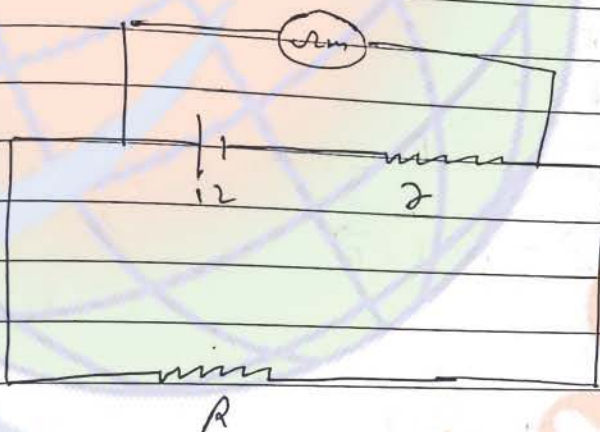
$$I_0 = \frac{C_0 A}{d} \frac{dv}{dt}$$

$$= C \frac{dv}{dt}$$

$$= 80.1 \times 10^{-2} \times 1.87 \times 10^3 A$$

Q storage battery of emf 12V and internal resistance 0.5Ω is to be charged by a battery charge which supply 110V dc how much resistances must be connected in series with the battery to limit the charging current to 5 amperes what will be the potential difference across the terminal of the battery during charging what is the purpose having series resistor during charging

Sol:



$$R_{eq} = R + r$$

R remaining voltage

$$V = 110 - 12$$

$$= 98V$$

$$I = \frac{V}{R_{eq}}$$

$$5 = \frac{98}{R + 0.5}$$

$$R + 0.5$$

$$R + 0.5 = \frac{4.8}{5}$$

$$= 1.96$$

$$R = 1.96 - 0.5$$

$$R = 1.46$$

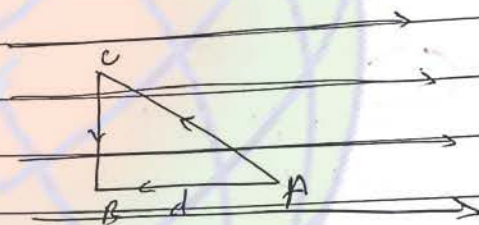
$$V = E + IR$$

$$= 12 + 1.5 \times 0.5$$

$$= 12 + 2.5$$

$$= 14.5V$$

Q. A test charge q_0 is moved without acceleration from point A to B along the path $A \rightarrow C \rightarrow B$ as shown in the given figure. Calculate the potential difference b/w A and B.



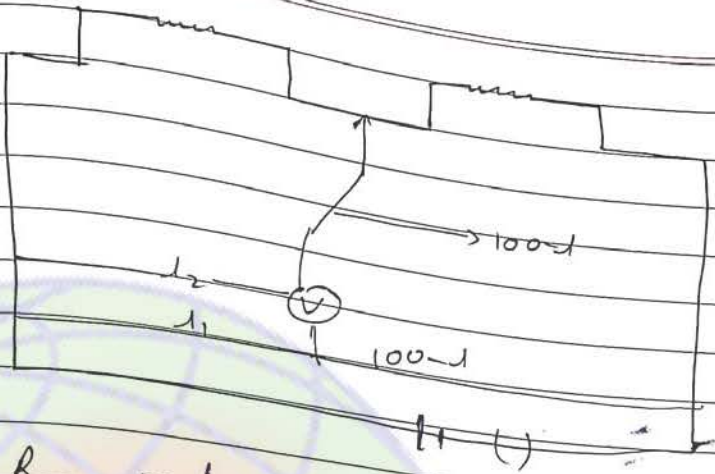
$$\vec{AB} = \vec{AC} + \vec{CB}$$

$$E = -\frac{dV}{dl}$$

$$E = -\frac{(V_B - V_A)}{d}$$

$$Ed = V_A - V_B$$

$$V_A - V_B = Ed$$



$$\frac{R}{S} = \frac{I_1}{100 - I_1} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$\frac{R}{R_{e2}} = \frac{I_2}{100 - I_2}$$

$$R_{eq} = \frac{1}{\frac{1}{R} + \frac{1}{S}}$$

$$= \frac{5 + R}{5}$$

$$= \frac{R \times 5}{5 + R} = \frac{I_2}{100 - I_2} \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

eqn (1) / eqn (2)

$$\frac{R \times 5}{R}$$

$$= \frac{5 + R}{5} = \frac{I_2}{100 - I_2}$$

$$5 = \frac{I_2}{100 - I_2}$$

$$\frac{5^2 \times R}{5 + R} = \frac{I_2 (100 - I_2)}{I_1 (100 - I_2)}$$