

# PHY 127 FS2026

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Lecture 5

March 20th, 2026

*Remember what you learned  
about standing waves*

# LECTURE 4 reminder

①

wave equation:

$$\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} = \frac{1}{v^2} \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial t^2}$$

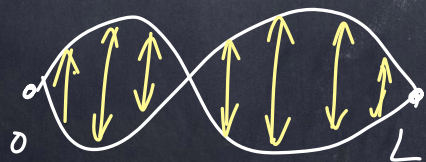
solutions:

$$\psi = A \sin(kx - \omega t)$$

For a standing wave on a string:

$$\psi = A_n \sin \frac{n\pi x}{L}$$

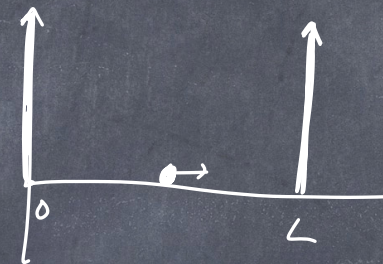
$$n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$



$n=2$

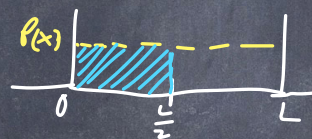
②

"classical" 1-D particle in a box:



Probability is equal for it to be anywhere

$$P(x) = \frac{1}{L}$$



$$P_{0 \rightarrow \frac{L}{2}} = \frac{1}{2}$$

③

A photon has a momentum associated to its wavelength

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

and behaves both like a particle and a wave

Today a related concept. All particles (like electrons) also behave as waves.

The wavelength of a particle is

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

This is known as the de Broglie wavelength.  $p$ : momentum

Consider the energy associated with an electron:

$$E = K + U \quad (\text{classical formula})$$

$\begin{matrix} \uparrow \\ \text{total} \\ \text{energy} \end{matrix}$        $\begin{matrix} \text{kinetic} \\ \text{energy} \end{matrix}$        $\begin{matrix} \text{potential} \\ \text{energy} \end{matrix}$

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

$$\text{since } p = mv \Rightarrow K = \frac{p^2}{2m}$$

$$\text{and since } p = \frac{h}{\lambda} \Rightarrow K = \frac{h^2}{\lambda^2 2m}$$

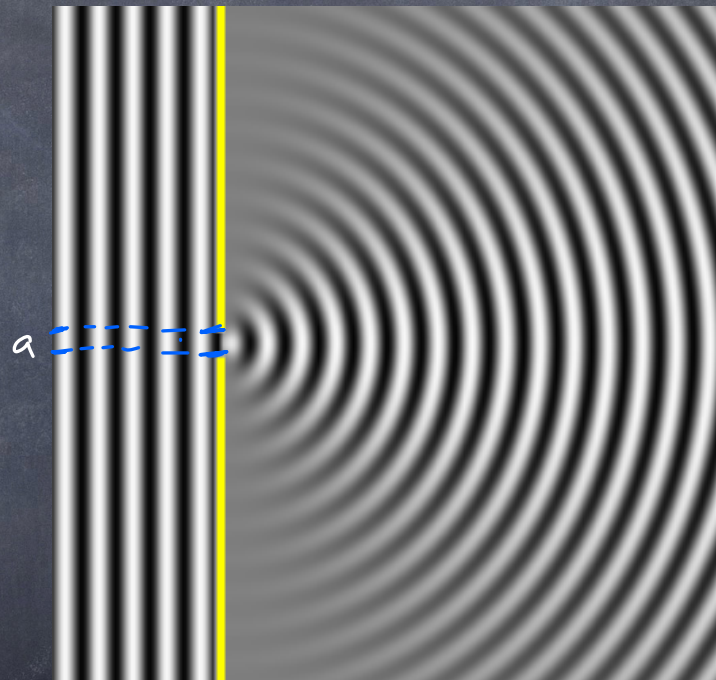
$$\text{so } E = \frac{h^2}{\lambda^2 2m} + U$$

Now we explore what the wave nature  
of electrons means when we measure them.

First, a reminder of some properties  
of waves.

# Phenomena of diffraction

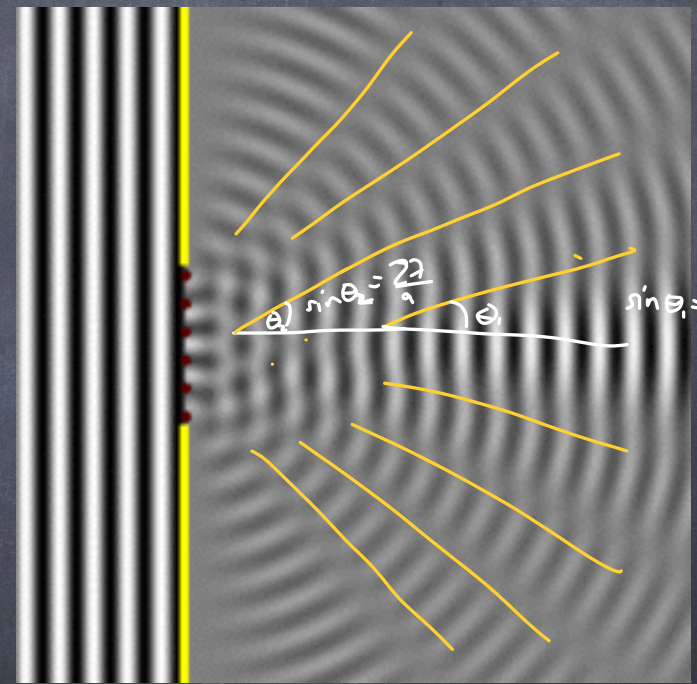
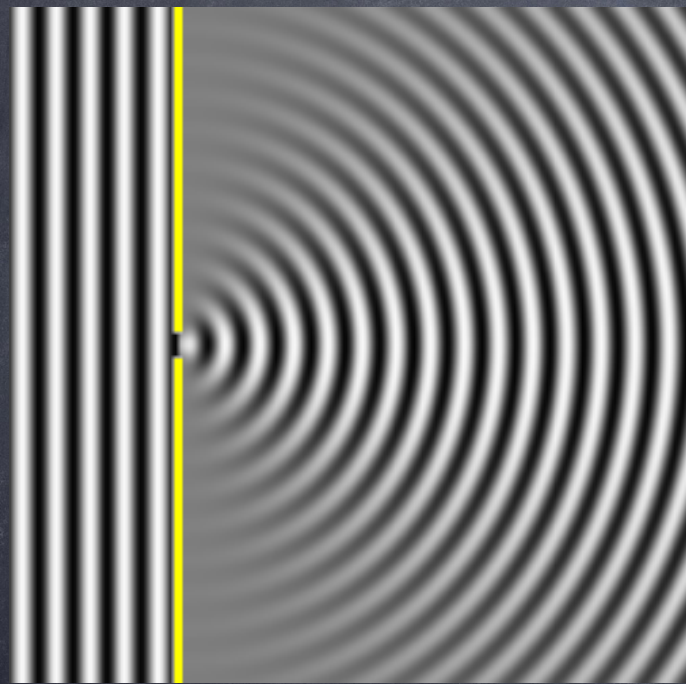
plane wave moving to the right.  
encounters a small hole of size  $a \sim \lambda$



Huygen's principle: every point on a wave front serves as a source of secondary spherical waves (wavelets)

If  $a > \lambda$ , more wavelets are produced, which interfere with each other:

$a \sim \lambda$



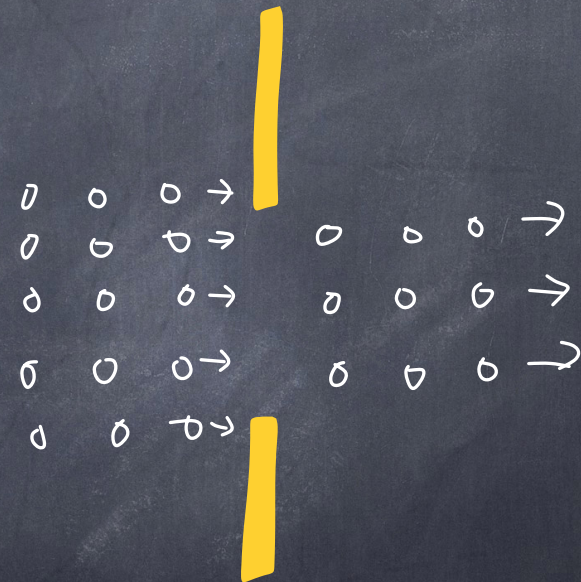
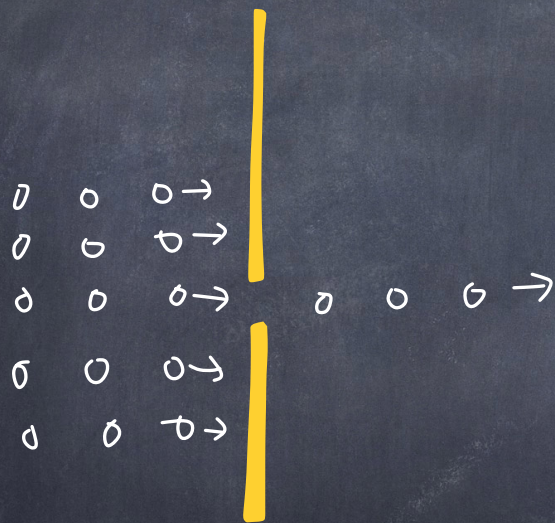
We observe a diffraction pattern from constructive + destructive interference

$$\sin \theta = \frac{m \lambda}{a}$$

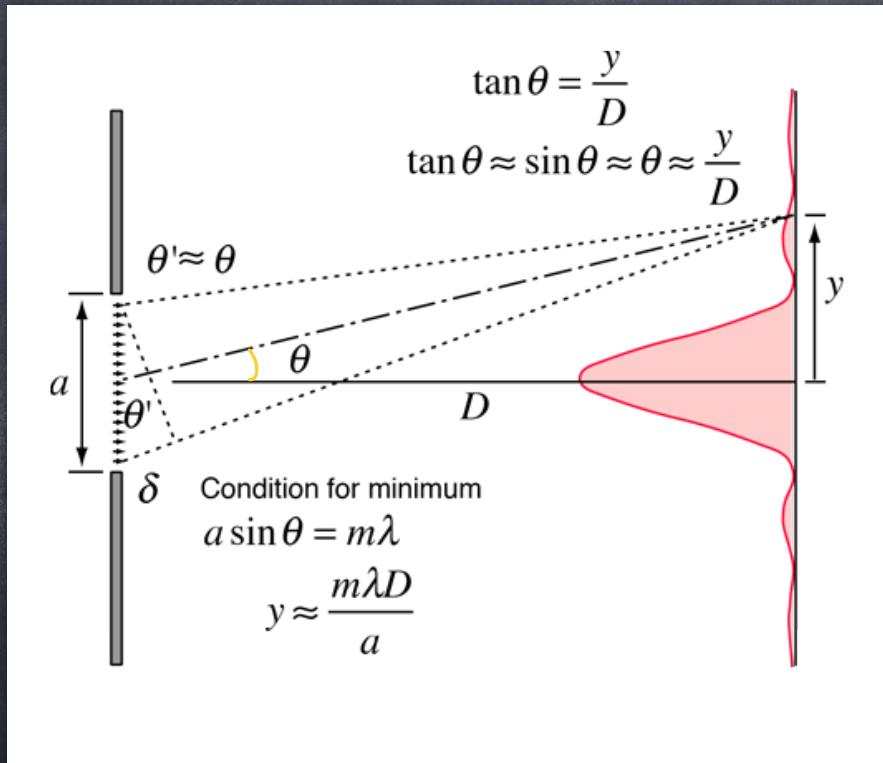
$m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

(Videos on lecture notes page)

If we were observing particles,  
we would instead see:



For a wave,  
we can calculate where the  
diffractive minima (dark spots)  
are



PHY 117 L12, script 1, ch. 13

General rule:

$$a \sin \theta = m \lambda \quad (1)$$

$m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

for destructive interference  
→ dark spots

from geometry,  $\tan \theta = \frac{y}{D}$

for small angles,  $\tan \theta \approx \sin \theta$

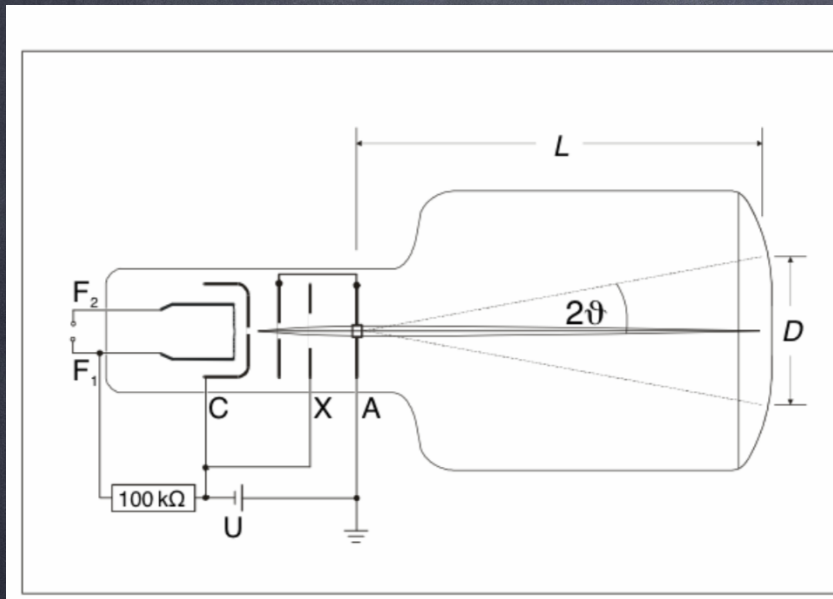
$$\sin \theta = \frac{y}{D} \quad (2)$$

$$(1) + (2): \quad \sin \theta = \frac{y}{D} = \frac{m \lambda}{a}$$

$$y = \frac{m \lambda D}{a}$$

$m = 1, 2, 3, \dots$   
location of  
dark spots.

Experiment in class: can we observe that electrons behave as waves by observing interference pattern?  
 Need to give electron momentum  $\rightarrow$  wavelength



circular diffraction with electrons.

we accelerate electrons in an electric potential,  $U$ .

$$\underbrace{eU}_{\text{potential energy}} = \underbrace{\frac{1}{2}mv^2}_{\text{kinetic energy}}$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{zeU}{m}}$$

$$p = mv = \sqrt{2emU}$$

The wavelength of the electrons is

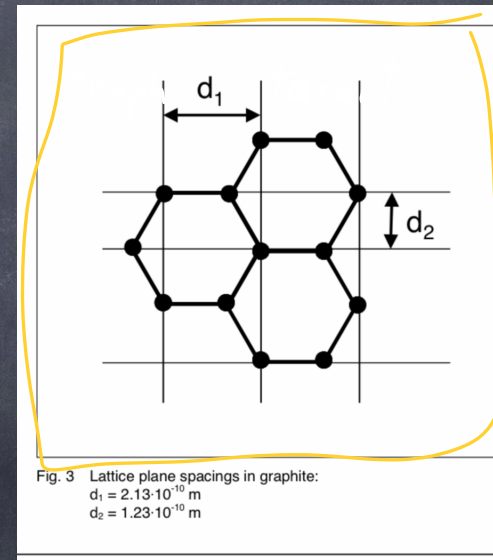
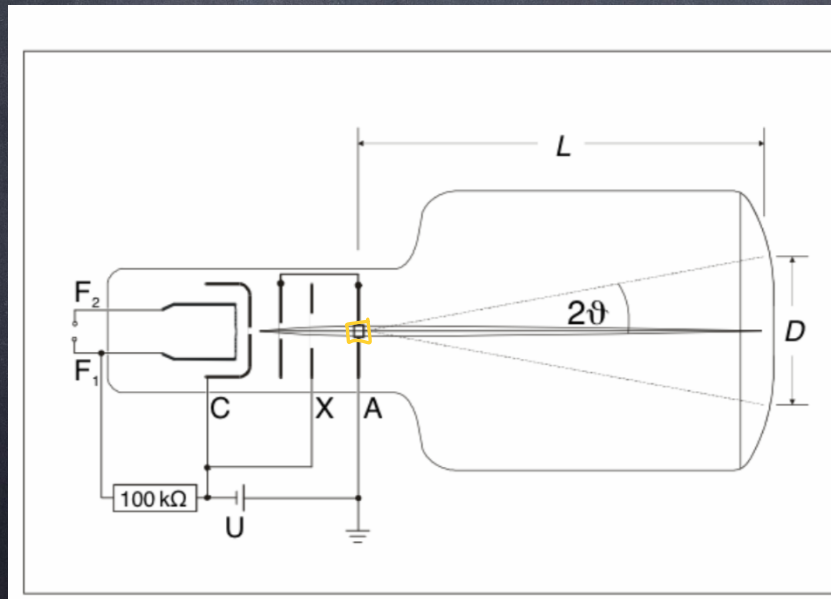
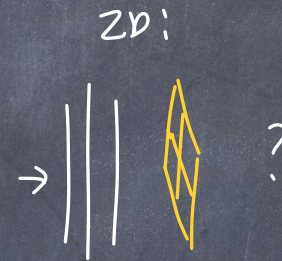
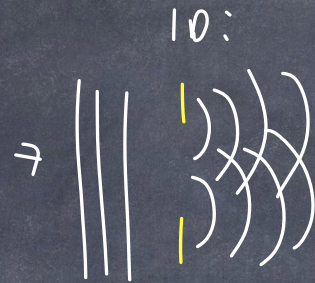
$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p} = \frac{h}{\sqrt{2meU}}$$

Note:

$$\lambda \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{U}}$$

Target is 2-D hexagonal crystal (graphite)

what does 2-D diffraction look like?



lattice spacings  $d_1, d_2$

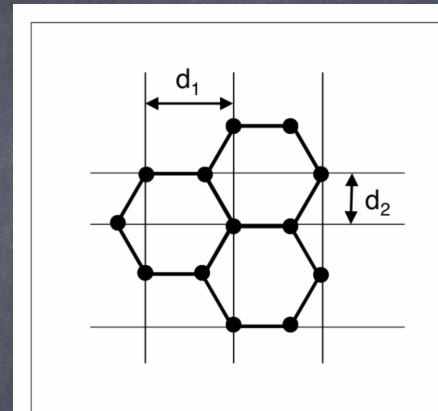
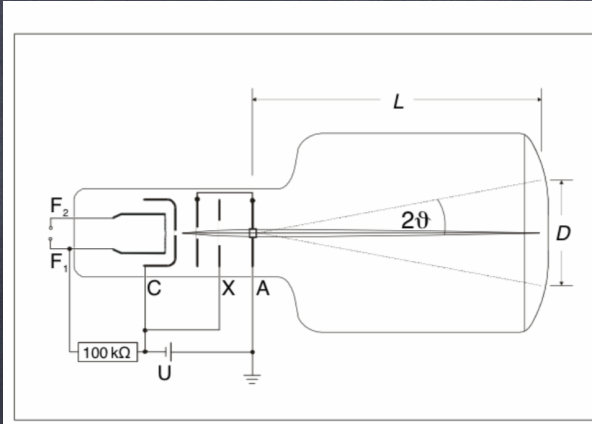


Fig. 3 Lattice plane spacings in graphite:  
 $d_1 = 2.13 \cdot 10^{-10}$  m  
 $d_2 = 1.23 \cdot 10^{-10}$  m

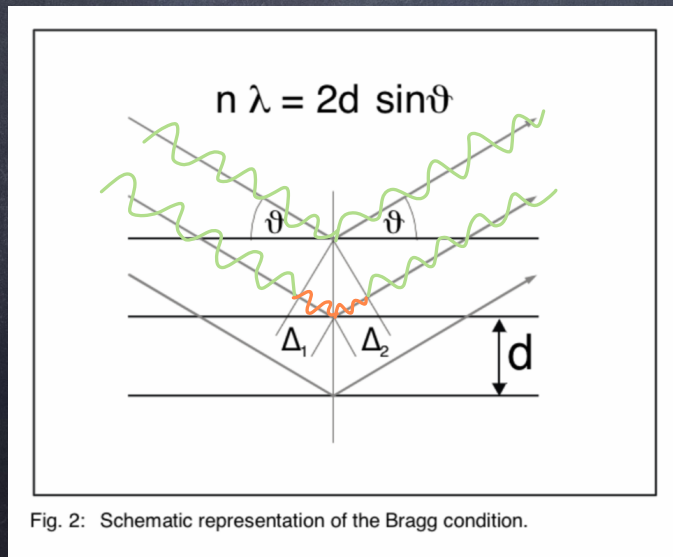
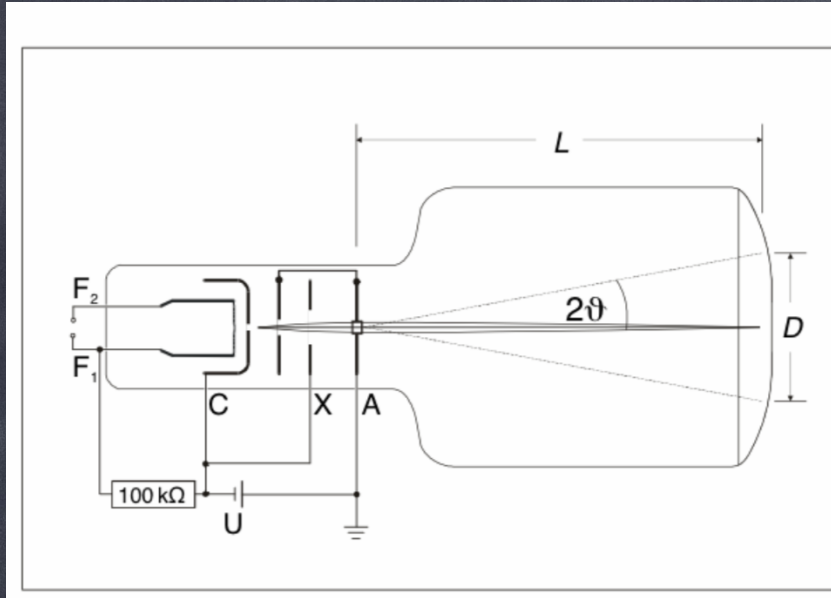


Fig. 2: Schematic representation of the Bragg condition.

Bright spot when path difference is an integer number of wavelengths:  
 Bragg condition  $n\lambda = 2d \sin \theta$   
 (Here, there are two d values)



by geometry:

$$\tan 2\theta = \frac{D}{2L} = \frac{D}{2L}$$

small-angle approximations:

$$\tan(2\theta) \sim \sin(2\theta) \sim 2\sin\theta$$

$$2\sin\theta \approx \frac{D}{2L} \quad (a)$$

Bragg Diffraction condition for bright spots:

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

$$2\sin\theta = \frac{n\lambda}{d} \quad (b)$$

$$\text{set } (a) = (b) \Rightarrow \frac{D}{2L} = \frac{n\lambda}{d}$$

$$D = \frac{n\lambda 2L}{d} \quad n=1, 2, 3, \dots$$

This tells us where we will see bright rings.

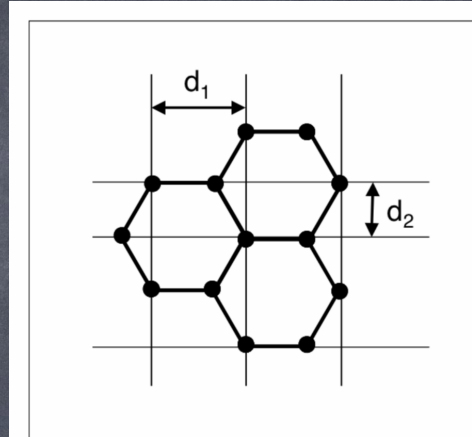
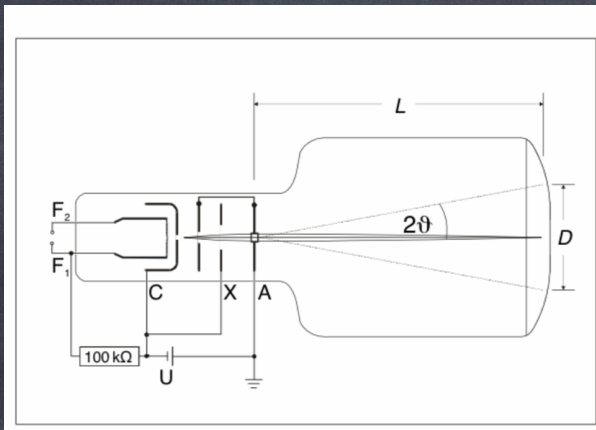


Fig. 3 Lattice plane spacings in graphite:  
 $d_1 = 2.13 \cdot 10^{-10}$  m  
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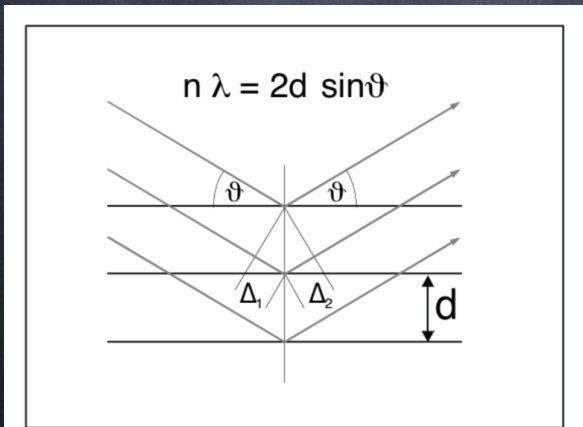


Fig. 2: Schematic representation of the Bragg condition.

$$D = \frac{n\lambda 2L}{d}$$

for  $n=1 \rightarrow$

$$D_1 = \frac{2L\lambda}{d_1}$$

$$D_2 = \frac{2L\lambda}{d_2}$$

If  $d_1 = d_2$ ,  
 then  $D_1 = D_2$

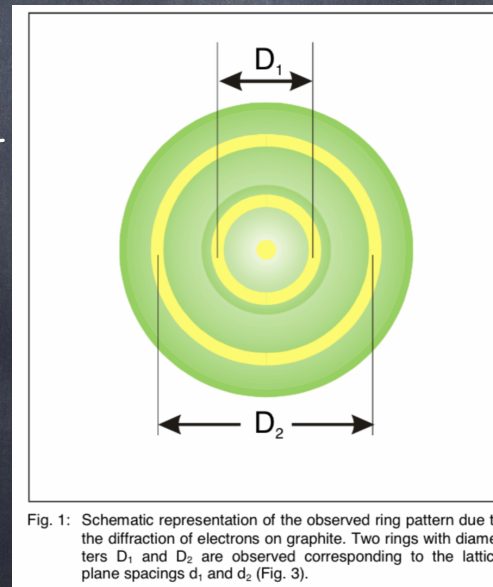


Fig. 1: Schematic representation of the observed ring pattern due to the diffraction of electrons on graphite. Two rings with diameters  $D_1$  and  $D_2$  are observed corresponding to the lattice plane spacings  $d_1$  and  $d_2$  (Fig. 3).

Note!  
 diffraction  
 allows us  
 to  
 measure  
 atomic +  
 molecular  
 structure

(similar  
 to  
 X-ray  
 crystallography)

If an electron is a wave, what does it look like?  
Where is it?

Consider a wave with a singular angular frequency ( $\omega = 2\pi\nu$ )  
and a wave number ( $k = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda}$ ) looks like this:  
(not kinetic energy)



(perfect sine wave with exact  $\omega + k$ )

It has no beginning or end in space.  
We can't define where it is.

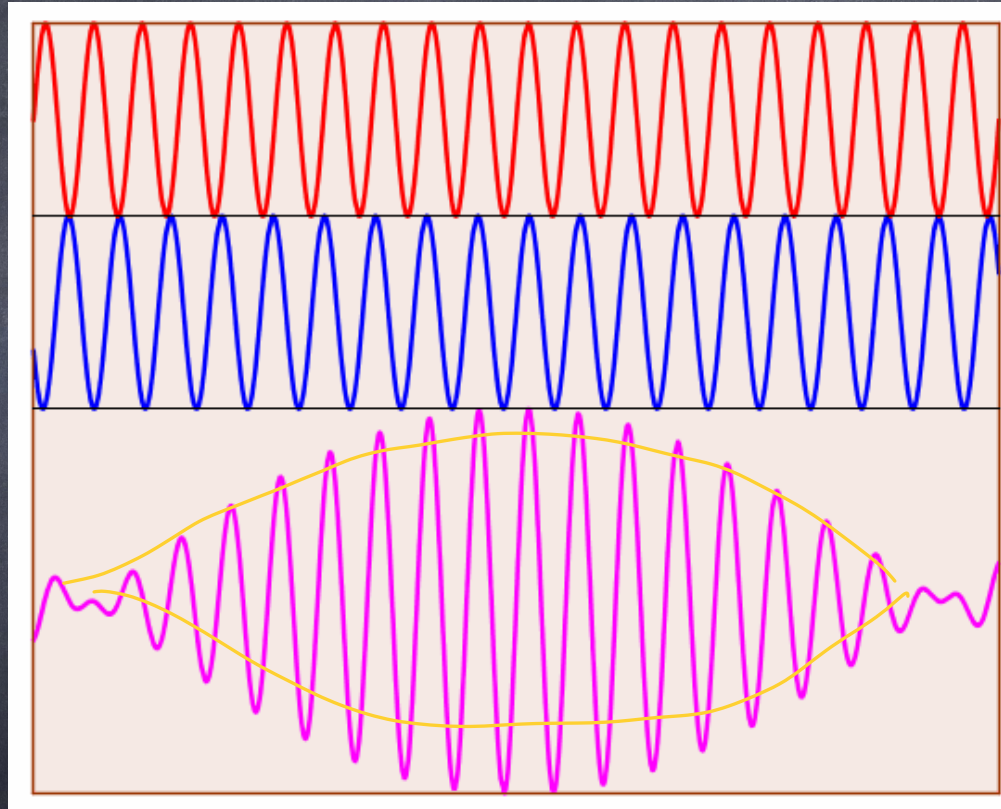
To represent a localized position of a wave,  
we need a group of waves,  
called a "wave packet".

Interference of 2 waves of slightly different  $\omega + k$

$\omega_1, k_1$

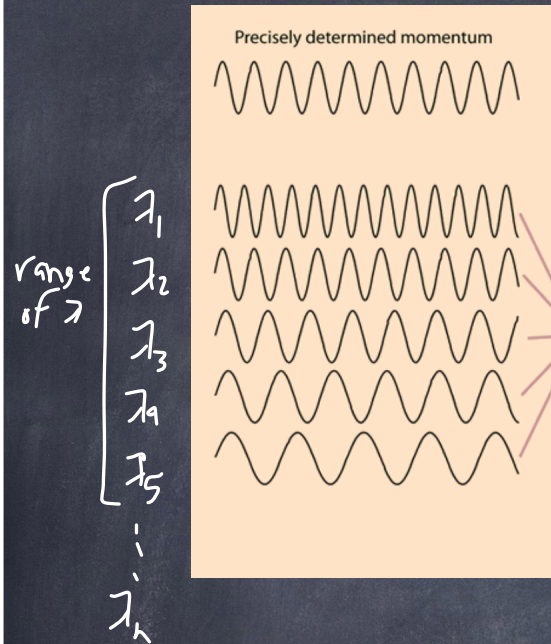
$\omega_2, k_2$

Sum



wave packet is the envelope of the added waves.  
wave packet provides a location of a particle.

what if we add more waves of slightly different  $w$  &  $k$



Each individual wave has its own  $\lambda_i + k_i$   
 $\rightarrow$  own  $\omega_i, k_i \Rightarrow v_i = \frac{\omega_i}{k_i}$

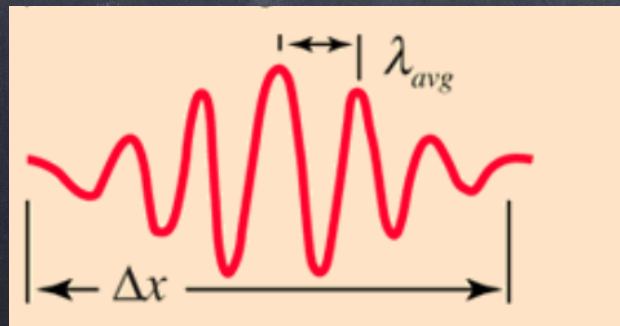
We can define

$$\Delta\lambda = \lambda_n - \lambda_1 \quad \text{and} \quad \lambda_{avg} = \frac{\sum_i^n \lambda_i}{n}$$

Also,  $\Delta\omega = \omega_n - \omega_1$        $\omega_{avg} = \frac{\sum_i^n \omega_i}{n}$

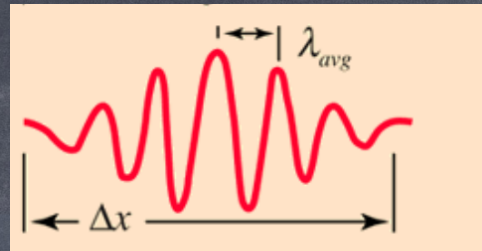
And  $\Delta k = \frac{2\pi}{\Delta\lambda}$        $k_{avg} = \frac{2\pi}{\lambda_{avg}}$

Resulting wave packet  $\rightarrow$



$\Delta x$ : location range of particle

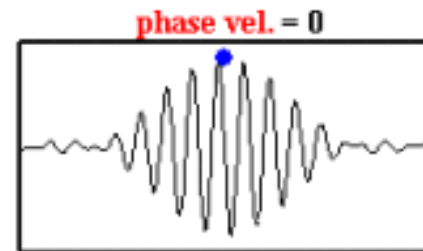
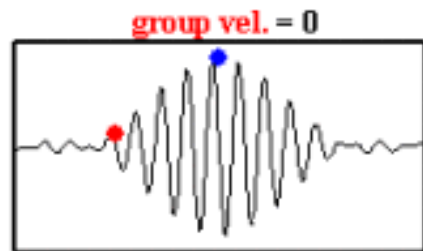
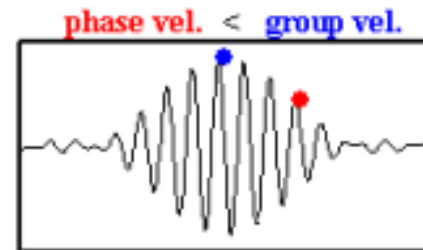
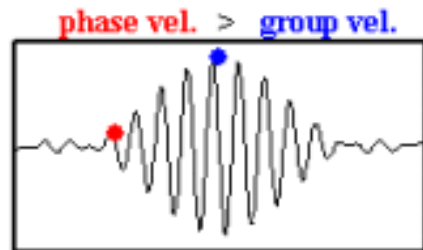
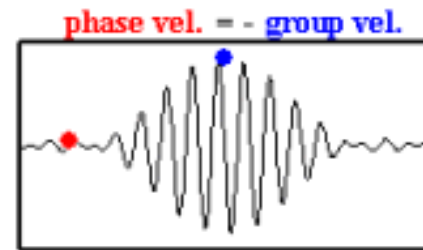
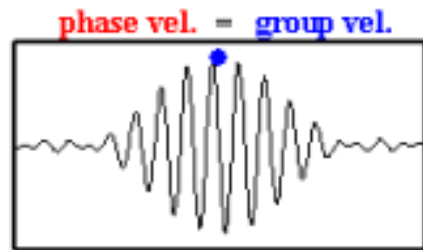
wave packet:



wave packet characterized by two velocities:  
one related to  $\Delta \lambda$  + one related to  $\lambda_{avg}$

1) velocity of the wave packet is  $V_g = \frac{\Delta \omega}{\Delta k}$  group velocity

2) The average of the individual waves has a velocity  $V_p = \frac{\omega_{avg}}{k_{avg}}$  phase velocity



*isvr*

A general property of waves is that

$$\Delta k \Delta x \sim 1$$

$$\Delta \omega \Delta t \sim 1$$

IF we know wavelength/wave number perfectly ( $\Delta k = 0$ ) then  $\Delta x \sim \frac{1}{0} = \infty$  so we have no idea where it is.

$\Delta k$ : range of wave numbers  
 $\Delta x$ : location, or size of wave packet  
 $\Delta \omega$ : range in angular frequencies  
 $\Delta t$ : time available for measurement

we can multiply these equations by a constant,  $\frac{h}{2\pi} = \hbar$

$$p = \frac{h}{\lambda} = \hbar k \quad E = h\nu = \hbar \omega$$

$$\Delta p \Delta x \sim \hbar$$

$$\Delta E \Delta t \sim \hbar$$

For example, if an excited atom has a lifetime  $\tau$ , its energy can only be known to  $\Delta E \sim \frac{\hbar}{\tau}$

These relations provide a fundamental concept. Since particles are waves, they must obey the rules of waves. Therefore, we can't know both the  $p$  &  $x$  simultaneously. Likewise, we can't know both  $E$  &  $t$  simultaneously.

This is expressed by:

$$\Delta p \Delta x \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$$
$$\Delta E \Delta t \geq \frac{\hbar}{2}$$

Heisenberg's uncertainty principle (s).

$\Delta t$ : time available for measurement

$\Delta E$ : uncertainty in measured energy.

$\Delta p$ : uncertainty in measured momentum.

$\Delta x$ : uncertainty in measured position.

If you know  $\lambda$  exactly, then you know  $p$  exactly, so  $\Delta p = 0$ . Then  $\Delta x \sim \infty$

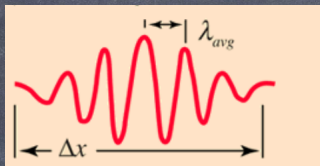
Like this example:  $\lambda$  is one precise value, so wave looks like



Its position  $x$  is completely unknown.

# Recap:

Precisely determined momentum



Precisely determined momentum

A sine wave of wavelength  $\lambda$  implies that the momentum is precisely known. But the wavefunction and the probability of finding the particle  $\Psi^* \Psi$  is spread over all of space!

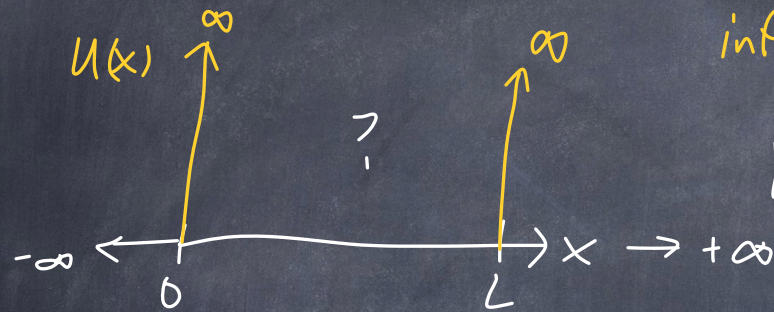
$p = \frac{h}{\lambda}$   
 p precise  
 x unknown

Adding several waves of different wavelength together will produce an interference pattern which begins to localize the wave.

But that process spreads the momentum values and makes it more uncertain. This is an inherent and inescapable increase in the uncertainty  $\Delta p$  when  $\Delta x$  is decreased.

$\Delta x \Delta p > \frac{\hbar}{2}$

Let's go back to our electron in a 1-D box.  
 What is its wave function? What are the allowed energies? Where is it?



infinitely tall box

particle is not outside the box

We write the wave function as  $\Psi = \Psi(x)$

$P(x) = \Psi^2(x)$  is the probability of finding the particle at some  $x$ .

Boundary conditions:  $\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} P(x) = 1$  particle is somewhere

But we know it is in box.

$$P(x=0) = 0 \quad P(x=L) = 0$$

The energy of the particle is  $E = K + U$

The equation for quantum mechanics is:

Schrodinger  
wave  
equation

(time-independent)

$$\underbrace{\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}}_{\text{kinetic energy operator}} \psi(x) + \underbrace{U(x)}_{\text{potential energy operator}} \psi(x) = \underbrace{E}_{\text{total energy operator}} \psi(x)$$

operators operate on wave function  
(take derivative of it, or multiply it)

Inside the box,  $U(x) = 0$ , the particle has no potential energy

so we can simplify wave equation to:

$$\frac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \frac{d^2 \psi(x)}{dx^2} = E \psi(x) \quad (a)$$

$$\frac{d^2 \psi(x)}{dx^2} = -\frac{2mE}{\hbar^2} \psi(x)$$

Now let's call  $k^2 = \frac{2mE}{\hbar^2}$

$k$ : constant, not kinetic energy (we will see that this  $k$  is wave number)

$$E = \frac{\hbar^2 k^2}{2m} \quad (1)$$

and write (a) as!

$$\frac{d^2 \psi(x)}{dx^2} = -k^2 \psi(x) \quad (b)$$

To solve (b), we need a function whose 2nd derivative is  $-k^2$  times the function.

Guess: If  $\Psi(x) = A \sin(kx)$

$$\frac{\partial \Psi(x)}{\partial x} = Ak \cos(kx)$$
$$\frac{\partial^2 \Psi(x)}{\partial x^2} = -Ak^2 \sin kx$$

A: constant  
k: wave number!

we can see that  $\frac{\partial^2 \Psi(x)}{\partial x^2} = -k^2 \Psi(x)$

Also,  $\Psi(x) = B \cos kx$  also works. A + B constants

So the general solution is  $\Psi(x) = A \sin kx + B \cos kx$

We also know that  $\Psi(x=0) = 0$ ,  $\Psi(x=L) = 0$

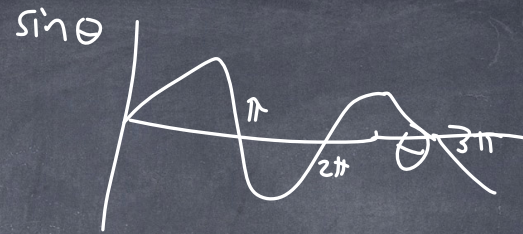
so:

$$\Psi(x=0) = 0 = \underbrace{A \sin k(0)}_0 + \underbrace{B \cos k(0)}_1 = B$$

$B = 0$   
B must be zero

$$\Psi(x=L) = 0 = A \sin(kL)$$

when does this happen?



It happens when  $kL = n\pi$  ( $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ )

We get solutions when  $k = \frac{n\pi}{L}$  ( $n = 0, 1, 2, \dots$ )

From ①,  $E = \frac{k^2 \hbar^2}{2m} = \frac{\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)^2 \hbar^2}{2m}$  ( $n = 1, 2, \dots$ )

$$E = \frac{n^2 \hbar^2 \pi^2}{2mL^2}$$

or, since  $\hbar = \frac{h}{2\pi}$ ,

$$E_n = \frac{n^2 h^2}{8mL^2} \text{ for } n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$$

The allowed energy levels of an electron in a 1-D box.

For  $n=1$ ,  $E_1 = \frac{h^2}{8mL^2}$  and

$$E_n = n^2 E_1$$

for  $n=1, 2, \dots$

The energy is quantized!

Next, where is the electron?

$$\Psi(x) = A \sin kx = A_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}x\right) \quad \text{for } n=1, 2, \dots$$

What is  $A_n$ ?

$A_n$ : constant  
for each  
 $n$

$$\int_0^L \Psi^2(x) dx = 1 \quad \text{must be true}$$

$$\int_0^L \left[ A_n \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \right]^2 dx = 1$$

$$A_n^2 \cdot \frac{L}{n\pi} \int_0^{n\pi} \sin^2 \theta d\theta = 1$$

To solve this, we substitute

$$\frac{n\pi x}{L} = \theta \Rightarrow \frac{n\pi dx}{L} = d\theta$$

when  $x=L$ ,  $\theta = n\pi$

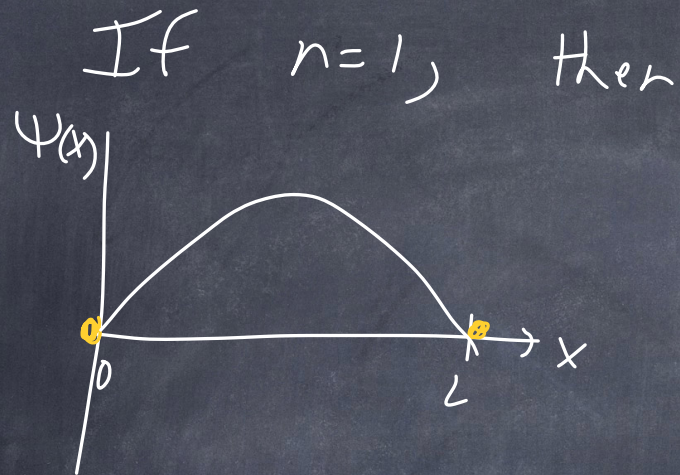
Solution for this integral:  $\int_a^b \sin^2 x \, dx = \frac{1}{2} \left( x - \frac{1}{2} \sin 2x \right) \Big|_a^b$

For our case:  $A_n^2 \frac{L}{n\pi} \left[ \frac{x}{2} - \frac{\sin 2x}{4} \right]_0^{n\pi} = A_n^2 \frac{L}{n\pi} \cdot \frac{n\pi}{2} = 1$

we find that  $A_n = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}}$  (independent of  $n$ )

so the solution is  $\Psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right)$

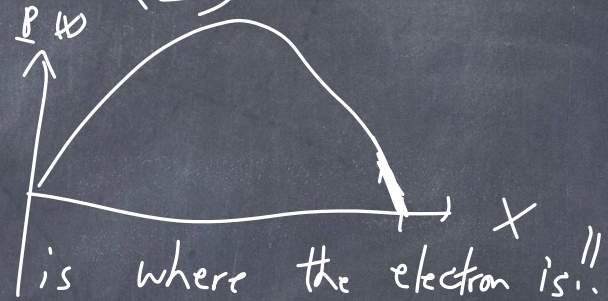
$n$ : quantum numbers (for  $n=1, 2, \dots$ )  
 $\left(\frac{n\pi}{L}\right)$  are wave numbers  $k_n$



$$\Psi_1(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{\pi x}{L}\right)$$

probability  
 $P(x) = \Psi^2(x)$

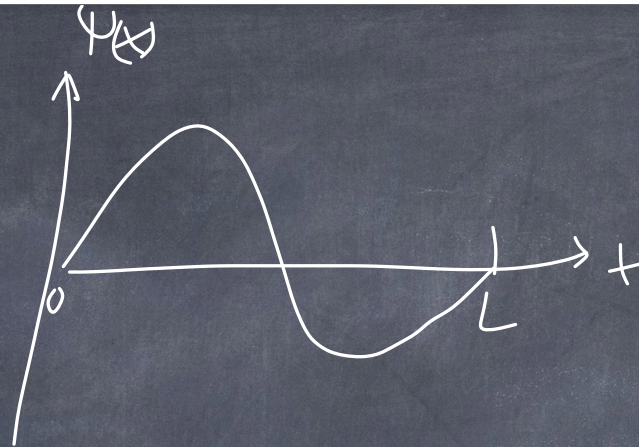
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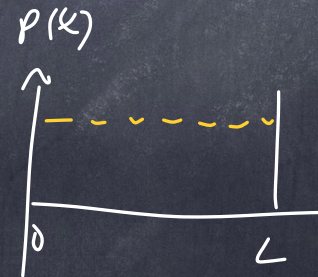
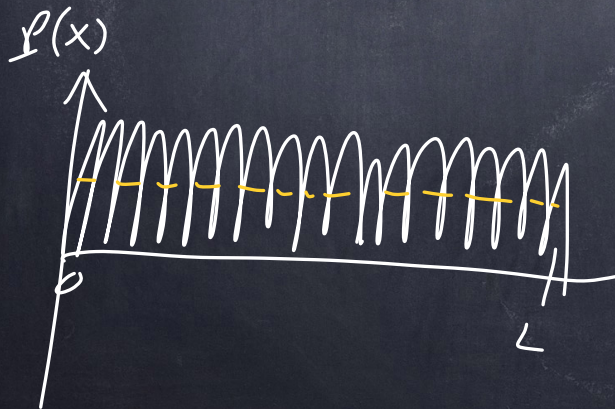
$$E_n = \frac{n^2 h^2}{8mL^2} \text{ for } n=1, 2, 3, \dots$$

The allowed energy levels of an electron in a 1-D box.

For  $n=2$



The classical limit  $n \rightarrow$  large number



classical  
probability