

# Topic on a Page

for IB Physics:

*Theme E: Nuclear and Quantum Physics*

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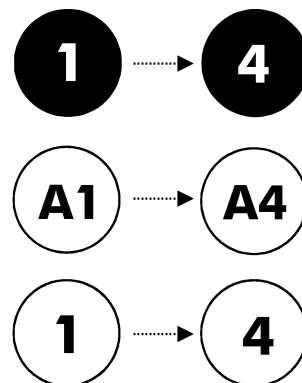
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# Teacher's Introduction

This topic-on-a-page resource has been designed to help your students revise the key points of each topic and test their knowledge after you have taught each section of the **IB Physics: Theme E – Nuclear and quantum physics** specification from topics 1 to 5. Each page is closely tied to the IB specification, ensuring all aspects of the course are covered.

There are four sections to this resource, each with its own features:

1. **Summary posters:** these are the main pages which intend to clearly consolidate and recap all the key information from the IB Physics course.
2. **Activity worksheets:** these are identical to the summary posters, but contain a variety of tasks, from filling in missing words to performing calculations. The activity worksheets aim to ensure the student understands all the key knowledge required of them and gives them the opportunity to demonstrate how well they have remembered and understood the content of the course.
3. **Outline-only pages:** these are the summary posters, but with most of the content removed. Students can research the topics, e.g. for homework, and fill in as much information as they can.
4. **Mark scheme:** full answers for the activity worksheets.



The summary posters, activity worksheets and outline-only pages are designed to be A3 size, although they are still useable at A4 with no loss of detail. When photocopying activity worksheets on A3, we suggest photocopying the relevant summary poster on the reverse. If using at A4 size, we suggest photocopying each A3 'worksheet' (for writing answers) as a double-sided A4 page to avoid shrinking the space available for answers.

Each page presents information in a variety of ways, including:

- **Bullet-point processes** – complex processes and lists have been summarised into quick, easy-to-learn points.
- **Illustrative diagrams** – detailed diagrams that visually represent a concept or an event.
- **Method and calculation boxes** – concisely state the equations used in required calculations.
- **Tips and tricks** – extra useful information that can help students when solving problems.

We hope you find these pages useful during your teaching and your students' revision.

September 2024

# Structure of the Atom

## Did you know?

The electrons are described as a 'cloud' because their exact position is not known unless they are measured; only the probability of their position is known before a measurement.

Each atom with a different number of protons is called an **element**.

There are 118 known elements, and they are arranged in the **periodic table**.

Each element has a chemical symbol:

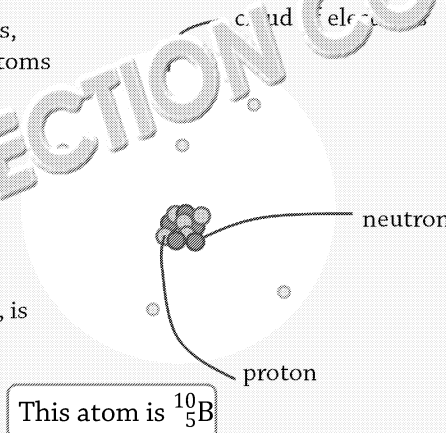


Any atom can be described with its element symbol, plus two numbers. The top number, **A**, is the **mass number**, equal to the number of protons and neutrons in the nucleus. The mass number roughly describes how heavy the atom is. The bottom number, **Z**, is the **proton number**, equal to the number of protons in the nucleus.

## The Atom

The current model of the atom describes a nucleus containing positive protons and neutral neutrons surrounded by a cloud of electrons.

An atom can have different numbers of protons, neutrons and electrons; however, only stable atoms exist for a long time.



## The Geiger-Marsden-Rutherford

The **Geiger-Marsden-Rutherford scattering** experiment provided evidence about the structure of the atom, disproving J J Thomson's plum pudding model.

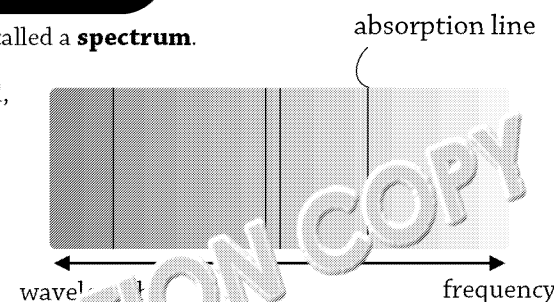
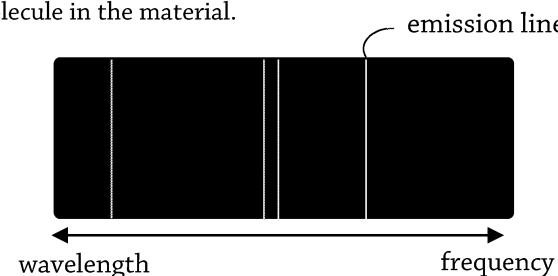
### The experiment

An alpha source provided a **beam of alpha particles** which were aimed at a thin piece of **gold foil**. All alpha particles (positively charged) were of the **same energy**. The experiment was carried out in an **evacuated tube**. Alpha particles were **detected** by a detector at a **fixed radial distance** from the point of collision between the particles and the foil. **Light was emitted** when alpha particles hit a phosphorescent screen, a process called **scintillation**. These emissions of light could be seen with the naked eye.

## Emission and Absorption Spectra

Light from a source will be made from a variety of wavelengths and energies. This variety is called a **spectrum**.

White light is made up from a spectrum of light. When white light passes through a material, some specific energies of light may be absorbed by the material. The atoms in the material have electrons in quantised energy levels. If the energy of a photon of light matches the energy difference between two energy levels, the electron will absorb the photon, becoming excited. These energies of light do not pass through the material, leaving a dark line in the spectrum, called an **absorption line**. Each absorption line relates to a specific element or molecule in the material.



A material such as a gas or liquid is with excited electrons. After some time, the excited electrons fall back down an energy level, emitting a photon of light. The energy of the photon is equal to the difference between the energy levels. The spectrum from this material is therefore mostly dark with **emission lines** specific to the atoms or molecules in the material.

These very specific absorption and emission lines show that the energy levels of electrons in atoms are specific, quantised values.

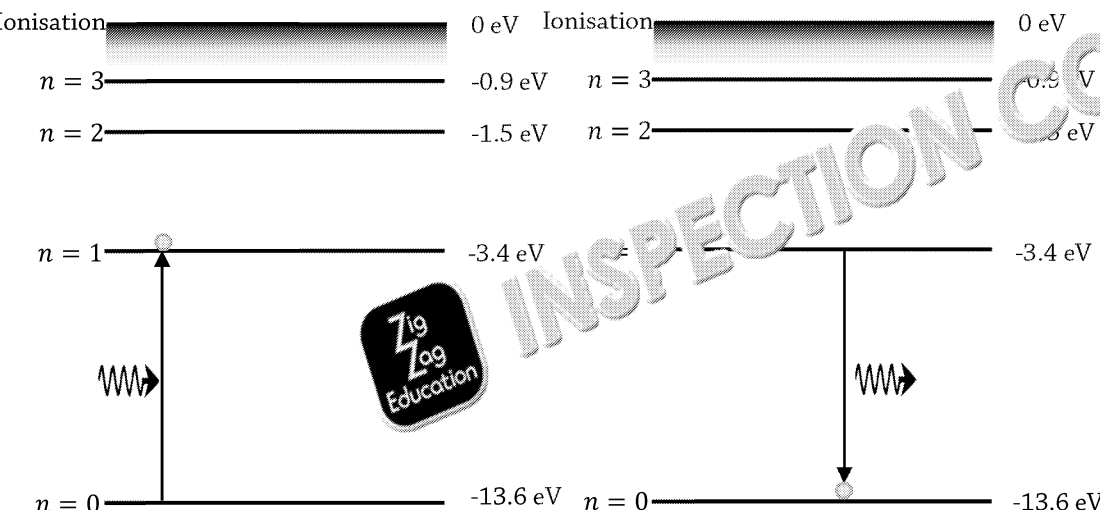
## Photon Absorption and Emission

If a photon has the right energy, an electron in an atom will absorb the photon, moving up to a new energy level. The electron becomes excited in this atomic transition.

The energy level diagram to the right shows the energy levels of the electron in a hydrogen atom.

The electron has absorbed a photon, moving from the  $n = 0$  to  $n = 1$  energy level.

After a short time, the electron will fall back down to its original energy level, emitting a photon in a random direction.



The frequency of the photon emitted depends on the energy released from the atomic transition.

$$E = hf$$

The energy released from an atomic transition is equal to the difference between the energy levels. For this electron's transition:

$$E = |(-13.6 \text{ eV}) - (-3.4 \text{ eV})|$$

$$E = 10.2 \text{ eV}$$

The quantisation of energy of particles means photons are absorbed and emitted with specific energies for each element. Scientists can measure the emission or absorption spectrum from an object and work out what elements are absorbed or emitted those photons. They use this to determine the chemical composition of the object.

### Did you know?

In 1868, Pierre J. C. Janssen and Joseph Norman Lockyer independently observed an unexpected line in the Sun's emission spectrum. They named the new element emitting this wavelength after the god Helios. This element is now called helium.

### The conclusion

Most particles passed through the foil, making up the foil are likely most of the mass of an atom is concentrated in a small nucleus. Some alpha particles were deflected, showing they **must be positively charged** because they were repelled as they approached the nucleus.

The experiments performed by Geiger and Marsden under Rutherford's instruction showed most of the mass of an atom is at the centre in a nucleus.

### Discovery

Electrons can move between any energy level if they absorb the right photon, e.g.  $n = 2$  to  $n = 5$ .

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## Photoelectric effect:

A term for the process of electron emission from the surface of a metal due to light incident on its surface. Albert Einstein explained the photoelectric effect in 1905, leading to his Nobel Prize in 1921.

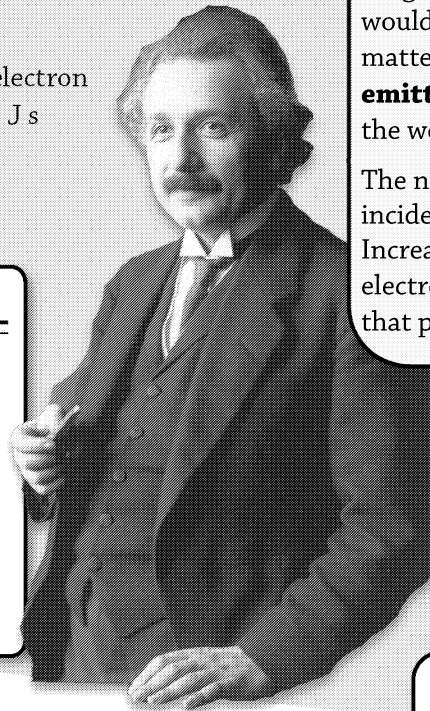
## Photoelectric equation:

$$E_{\max} = hf - \phi$$

$E_{\max}$  = maximum kinetic energy of electron  
 $h$  = Planck constant =  $6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$   
 $f$  = frequency of photon  
 $\phi$  = work function

## Terms of the photoelectric effect

- **Threshold frequency:** the minimum frequency required to emit electrons from the surface of a metal
- **Work function:** the minimum photon energy (frequency) required to remove an electron
- **Stopping potential:** the potential needed to stop an electron from leaving the atom
- **$E_{\max}$ :** the maximum possible kinetic energy of the photoelectrons



## What evidence from the photoelectric effect shows light does not always act like a wave?

If light only behaved as a wave, light incident on a metal surface would eventually transfer enough energy to eject electrons, no matter the power of the light. However, we see **electrons are only emitted when incident light is above a certain energy**, called the work function.

The number of electrons emitted depends only on the number of incident photons (macroscopically, the intensity of light). Increasing the energy of each photon does not lead to more electrons being emitted. This **one-to-one relationship** suggests that photons act like particles, only interacting with one electron.

## Wave-Particle Duality

While light is historically considered a wave, and electrons particles, there are several phenomena in which light acts as particles and electrons act as waves.

## Demonstrations of wave-like and particle-like behaviour

- The process of electron diffraction is evidence of particles displaying wave properties.
- The photoelectric effect is evidence that electromagnetic waves have particle-like properties.
- Compton scattering is also evidence that electromagnetic waves can act like particles.

You can also write the de Broglie wavelength in terms of momentum:

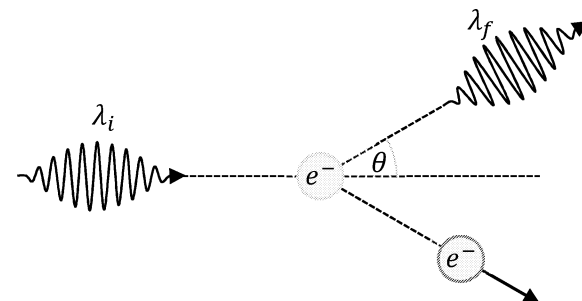
$$\lambda = \frac{h}{p}$$

## Compton Scattering

Compton scattering between a photon and a charged particle is like two pool balls colliding together.

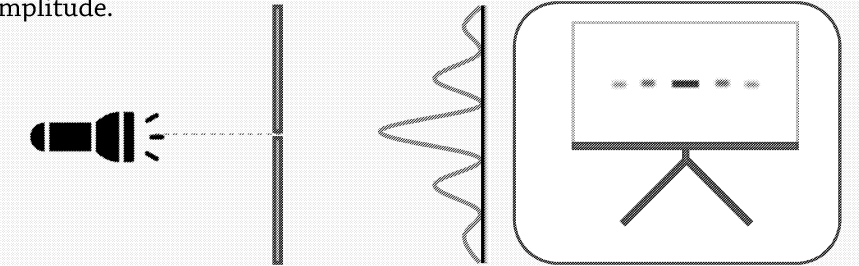
The total momentum and energy of both pool balls is the same before and after the collision.

However, when two pool balls collide, they don't change after the collision. But when a photon interacts with a charged particle through Compton scattering, the photon's energy and wavelength changes.

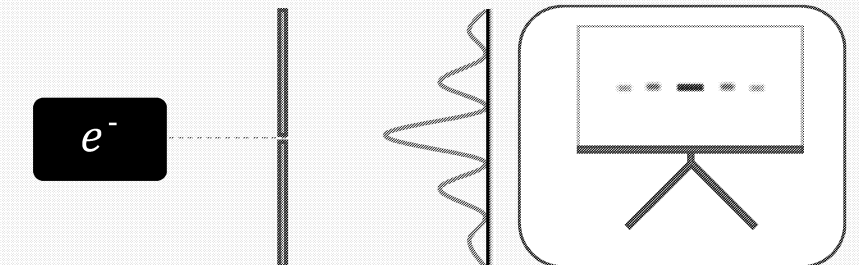


## Electron Diffraction

Shining **light** through a slit onto a screen results in a diffraction pattern on the screen. The light wave diffracts as it passes through the slit, spreading out. Parts of the diffracted wave interfere with other parts, causing areas of high and low amplitude.



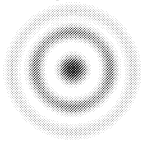
Weirdly, a similar diffraction pattern can be observed when firing **electrons** through a very narrow slit, even though electrons are thought of as particles.



The diffraction of electrons shows they can behave like waves. It's true that all particles can behave like waves in the right conditions. A particle's wavelength is called its de Broglie wavelength.

## Did you know?

The horizontal diffraction pattern above forms from a thin rectangular slit. If the slit is circular instead of rectangular, a diffraction pattern called an Airy disc forms.

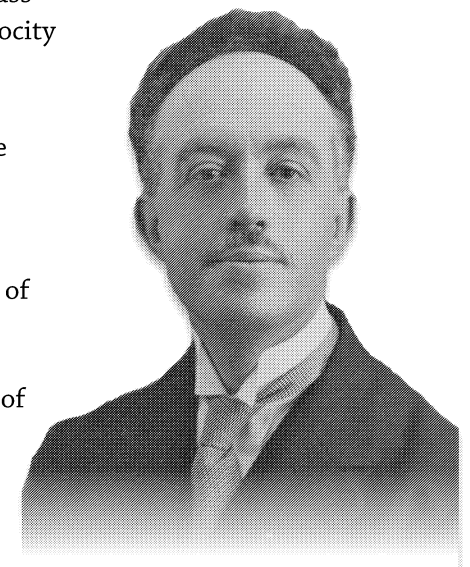


## De Broglie Wavelength

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

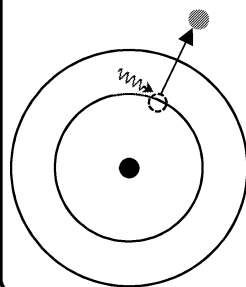
$\lambda$  = wavelength  
 $h$  = Planck constant =  $6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J s}$   
 $m$  = mass  
 $v$  = velocity

- The equation can be used to determine the wavelength of an electron undergoing electron diffraction.
- As the momentum increases, the wavelength decreases and the amount of diffraction decreases.
- As the momentum decreases, the wavelength increases and the amount of diffraction increases.



## The Bohr Model and the Photoelectric Effect

The Bohr model of an atom has the positive nucleus at the centre and the electrons in circular orbits around the nucleus. Each circular orbit represents a different energy level.



In the photoelectric effect, a single photon interacts with an electron, giving the electron enough energy to escape the atom. The removal of an electron from an atom is called ionisation.

## Ionisation

An electron absorbs a photon with energy greater than the binding energy of the electron, and the electron is emitted from the atom.

Light can act like a particle, called a **photon**, in certain situations. If a photon with a high frequency interacts with a charged particle, such as an **electron**, the photon can transfer some of its energy to the electron. The photon loses energy, so its frequency decreases and its **wavelength increases**. The electron gains energy in the form of kinetic energy, causing the **electron to recoil** away from the photon.

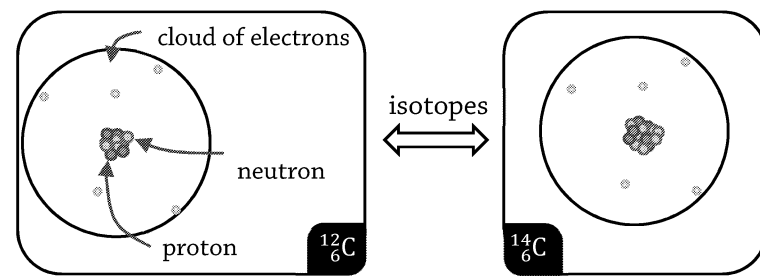
The change in wavelength of the photon can be calculated with the following equation:

$$\lambda_f - \lambda_i = \Delta\lambda = \left(\frac{h}{m_e c}\right)(1 - \cos(\theta))$$

## What is an Isotope?

Each atom can also have a number of neutrons in its nucleus. Two atoms of the **same element** with a **different number of neutrons** are **isotopes** of each other.

An **element** is a type of atom with a specific **number of protons**. For example, carbon has 6 protons. Elements are arranged on the periodic table.



## Mass and Energy

**Nuclear binding energy:** the work required to separate the nucleus into its constituent parts (i.e. protons and neutrons). The greater the nuclear binding energy, the more stable the nucleus.

**Mass defect:** the difference between the mass of the nucleus and the total mass of its individual constituent parts:

$$\Delta m = Zm_p + (A - Z)m_n - m_{\text{nucleus}}$$

$m$  = nuclear mass  
 $Z$  = proton number  
 $A$  = nucleon number

Einstein's theory of relativity states that **mass and energy are related**, and mass can be converted to energy and back. This is what happens in nuclear decay, when the products of a decay have lower mass than the original nuclei – the **missing mass is converted to energy**.

Einstein's energy equation:

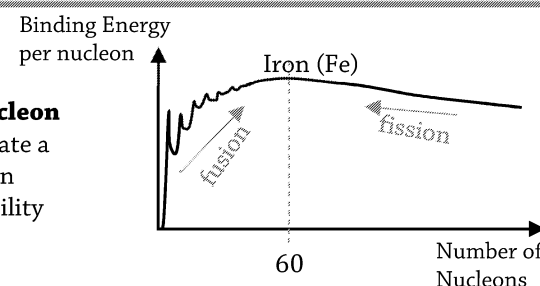
$$E = mc^2$$

$E$  = energy  
 $c$  = speed of light  
 $= 3 \times 10^8 \text{ m s}^{-1}$

Energy changes:

$$\Delta E = \Delta mc^2$$

The **binding energy per nucleon** is the energy needed to separate a nucleus into its parts and is an indication of the nuclear stability of a nucleus.

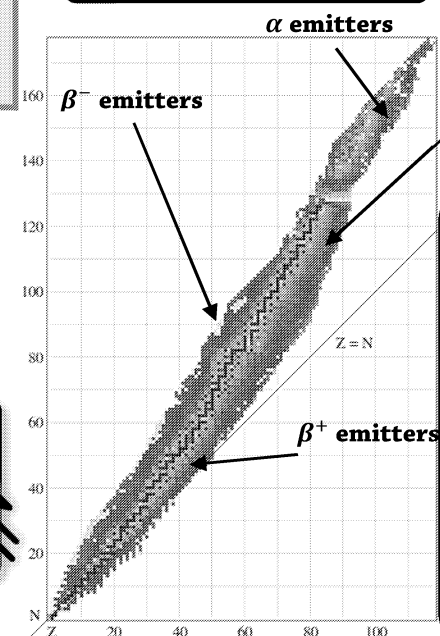


Beyond  $Z = 60$ , the binding energy is roughly constant because the strong nuclear force has little effect over longer distances.

Other evidence for the strong nuclear force is the large binding energy; it is larger than the total energy of the nucleons.

## Nuclear Stability

A plot of **neutron number  $N$**  against **proton number  $Z$**  (to the left) is a useful means of determining the nuclear stability of an isotope.



**Stable isotopes**

For a low number of protons,  $Z$ , a nucleus is stable if it has a similar number of neutrons,  $N$ , so the ratio of protons to neutrons is  $\frac{N}{Z} \approx 1$ . But as  $Z$  increases, the number of neutrons needed to keep the nucleus stable increases more, so  $\frac{N}{Z} > 1$ . You can see the line of stable nuclei deviates away from the  $Z = N$  line in the plot.

## Radioactive Decay

**Radioactive decay** occurs when an atom is unstable and emits radiation to obtain a **more stable state**.

Radioactive decay is a **random process**. This means that we can't know which nucleus in a sample will decay next, or when.

**Activity,  $A$**

The number of unstable nuclei that decay per second in a sample,  $A$ :

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

$$A = \lambda N$$

$N$  = number of atoms in sample  
 $N_0$  = initial number of atoms in sample  
 $\lambda$  = decay constant  
 $t$  = time

**Decay probability:**

$$\frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} = -\lambda N$$

**Number of unstable nuclei:**

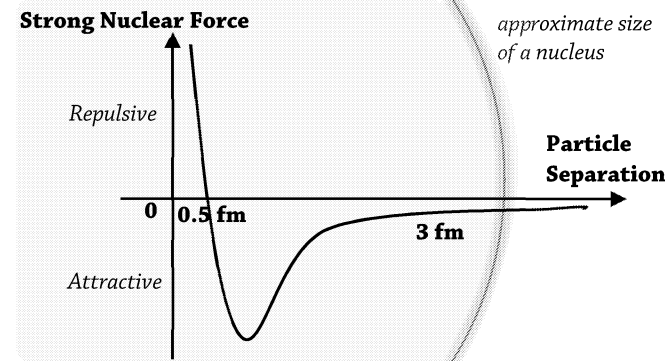
$$N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$$

The decay constant,  $\lambda$ , is only a good approximation for the probability that an atom will decay in the unit time (commonly seconds) if  $\lambda t$  is small (so for low activity).

## Radioactive Decay

### The Strong Nuclear Force

Protons are all positively charged and so naturally repel each other. What keeps protons together in a nucleus? The neutrons in the nucleus are neutral so it can't be those. The answer is the **strong nuclear force**!



The strong nuclear force is attractive within the radius of a small nucleus, holding protons and neutrons together. If the nucleons are too close, the strong nuclear force repels. Typical nucleon separation is around 1 fm. Without the strong nuclear force, nucleons would repel so nuclei wouldn't exist.

### What is Radioactive Decay?

Nuclei can be unstable. At some point, unstable nuclei will split into a more stable state. This change in the nucleus is called **radioactive decay** and for each individual nucleus, it can happen at any time. During radioactive decay, a nucleus will emit one or more types of radiation. There are three main types of **nuclear radiation**:

**$\alpha$**



An alpha particle is the nucleus of a helium atom.

- has two protons and two neutrons
- +2 electric charge
- relatively large mass

**$\beta$**



A beta particle can be an electron ( $-e$ ) or a positron ( $+e$ ).

- is a single fundamental particle
- $\pm 1$  electric charge
- relatively small mass

**$\gamma$**



A gamma particle is a photon of gamma radiation.

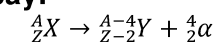
- is a high energy photon of electromagnetic radiation
- zero electric charge
- zero mass

### Neutrinos

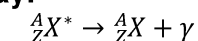
An antineutrino,  $\bar{\nu}$ , or neutrino,  $\nu$ , is emitted every time an electron or a positron is emitted. Neutrinos are tiny and barely interact with other matter.

### Radioactive Decay Equations

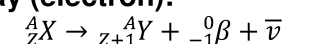
**Alpha decay:**



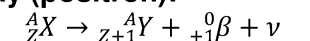
**Gamma decay:**



**Beta decay (electron):**

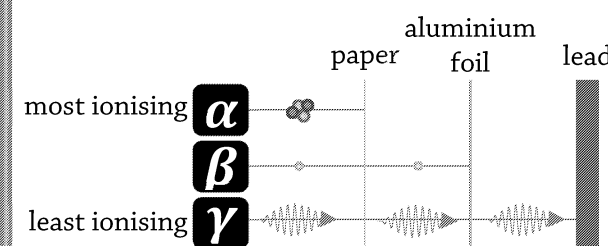


**Beta decay (positron):**



### The Dangers of Nuclear Radiation

Nuclear radiation can harm biological organisms such as the cells in our bodies because they ionise atoms, disrupting normal functions. Thankfully, they have limited penetration depths, so we can protect ourselves from radiation sources.

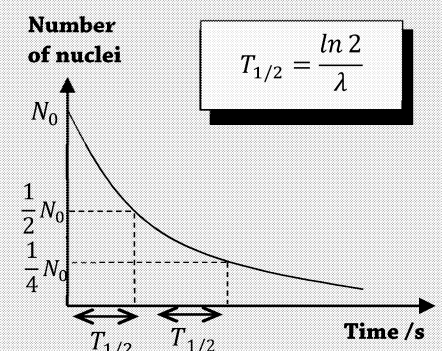


### Radiation Spectroscopy

Alpha and gamma radiation emitted from a nucleus will have a specific energy due to the discrete energy levels in the nucleus. Scientists can analyse the **energy spectrum** of alpha and gamma radiation to determine what element or isotope emitted the radiation. The energy spectrum of beta radiation is continuous because the neutrino also emitted takes some energy.

The **half-life ( $T_{1/2}$ )** of a radioactive substance is the amount of time it takes for the activity of the substance to decrease to **half its original value**. Half-life is a constant, no matter the amount of substance left.

Half-life is used in medicine to determine which isotope to use to image inside a patient's body. The source needs only to be radioactive while the image is taken. It is also used in areas such as **carbon dating**. All living organisms have a roughly equal ratio of  $^{12}\text{C}$  to  $^{14}\text{C}$  in their bodies. When they die, the  $^{14}\text{C}$  slowly decays. By examining the amount of  $^{14}\text{C}$  left in a sample, its age can be determined. Background radiation will also be measured when analysing a substance. Therefore, scientists must subtract background radiation from the measurement to get an accurate count rate.

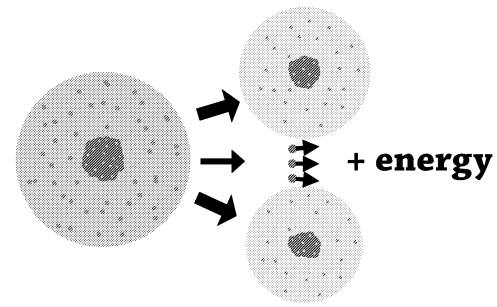


$$T_{1/2} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda}$$



# Fission and Fusion

## What is Nuclear Fission?

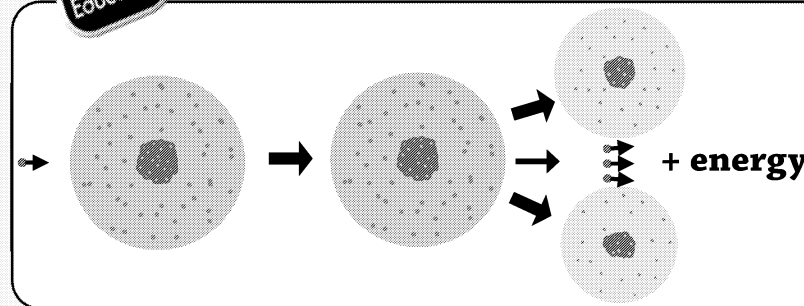


An unstable nucleus can **split into two smaller nuclei**, releasing energy as heat and radiation in the process. This splitting of an atom's nucleus is called nuclear **fission**.

Nuclear fission is different from radioactive decay because the products are two smaller atoms, and not one large atom with a bit of nuclear radiation.

The fission process shown on the left is **spontaneous**; the parent nucleus was unstable, so the atom decayed on its own.

In the process shown on the right, the parent nucleus was made unstable by firing a neutron at it. This is called **neutron-induced fission**.

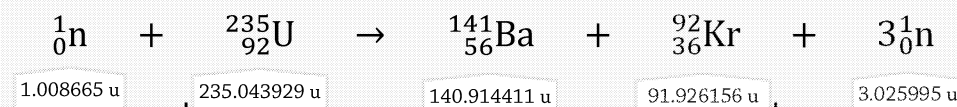


## How much energy is released during fission?

First, you need to **find the change in mass** (aka the mass defect) during the process. Then you can **apply Einstein's famous equation** to convert this change in mass to the **binding energy released**.

$$E = mc^2$$

The equation below shows the neutron-induced fission of uranium-235, a common fuel used in nuclear reactors.



These **atomic masses** are equal to the **total mass of the protons and neutrons** inside the nucleus. This is the **binding energy** that holds the nucleus together. These values are often given these units as a problem.

$$E = ((1.008665 \text{ u} + 235.043929 \text{ u}) - (140.914411 \text{ u} + 91.926156 \text{ u} + 3.025995 \text{ u})) (2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})^2$$

the change in mass in terms of atomic mass units

conversion from u to kg

the speed of light, c

$$E = 2.777 \times 10^{-11} \text{ J} = 173.3 \text{ MeV}$$

$$1 \text{ u} = 1.661 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

## Energy Generation from Nuclear Fission

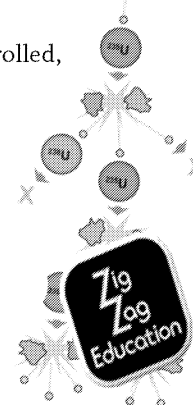
During fission, **energy** and **2-3 neutrons** are released along with the smaller atoms. Energy is released as heat and radiation, which can be used to turn water into steam, driving a turbine, generating electricity.

The **released neutrons** can also be used to **induce fission** in nearby large nuclei, causing more energy and neutrons to be released, and so on.

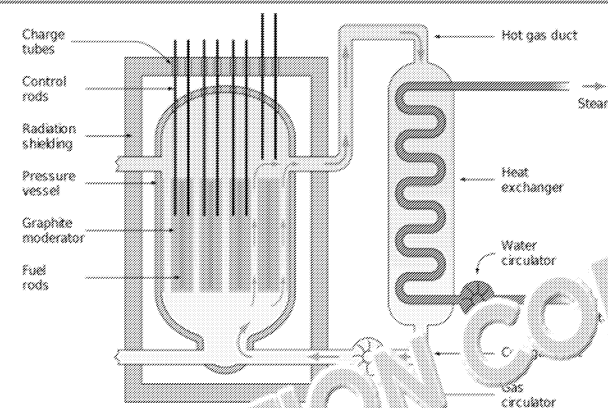
This **chain reaction** is used to continually generate electricity from fissile material like uranium-235 in **nuclear power plants**.

If the number of neutrons inducing fission is not controlled, the number of fission events quickly grows, releasing destructive amounts of energy.

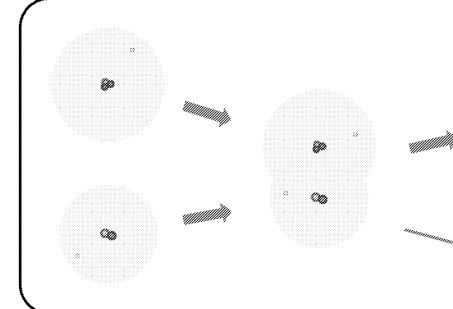
Nuclear reactors produce nuclear waste. This is radioactive material that can remain dangerous for thousands of years. It is important for governments to consider what they will do with the waste from their nuclear reactors, and how they will minimise its effect on the environment and people.



- The **moderator** slows down the speed of the neutrons as the speed has to have a specific value to induce fission. This is often done with graphite or water.
- The **control rods** absorb neutrons to ensure that there is only one thermal neutron per fission event. Materials like cadmium or enriched boron are used.
- The **heat exchanger** extracts the heat and allows it to be transferred to produce electricity.
- The **shielding** stops dangerous nuclear radiation from leaving the reactor. Lead is often used.



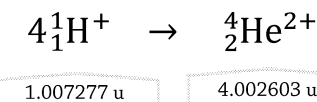
Nuclear fusion is the joining, or **fusing**, of two smaller atoms to form a **larger atom**. You can think of fusion as



## Where do stars get their energy?

Stars have a lot of mass. Our Sun is 500 times more massive than Earth! Gravity pulls all this mass together. Through friction and other processes, this mass heats up, creating high temperatures and pressures in the star's centre. When conditions are extreme enough, atoms of **hydrogen** can **fuse into helium**, releasing energy. The outward pressure from this released energy balances the inward pull of gravity, so the star keeps its shape and size. This type of star is called a main sequence star.

Just like for fission, to calculate the energy released, we use Einstein's equation:



## The Life Cycle of a Star

Stars first fuse hydrogen into helium for most of their lives. However, stars have limited hydrogen to fuse.

In stars like our Sun, as fusion of hydrogen slows down, gravity compresses the core.

The hydrogen around the core fuses, releasing energy that pushes the outer parts of the star out, so they cool. The star swells into a **red giant**.

## Hertzsprung-Russell Diagram

The amount of light a star emits, called its **luminosity**, is proportional to its **temperature** to the power of 4. Plotting the luminosity against their temperatures (H-R diagram) shows the regions for different star types. A star's **luminosity** is also proportional to its **radius** squared. Scientists can measure a star's spectrum and determine its luminosity, temperature and size.

$$L \propto T^4$$

$$L \propto R^2$$

$$1 \text{ AU} = 1.50 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}$$

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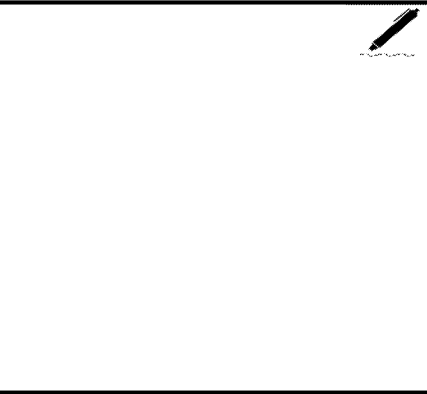
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# Structure of the Atom

## The Atom

1. Draw a diagram of an atom. Label the three subatomic particles in your atom.



2. Decide whether the following statements are true or false marking the appropriate column.

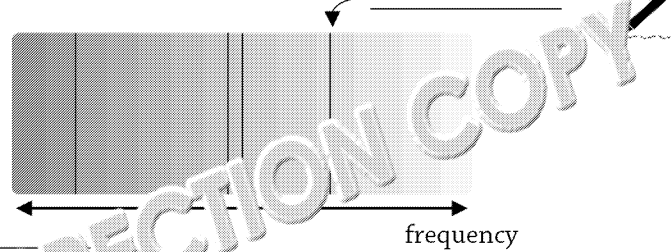
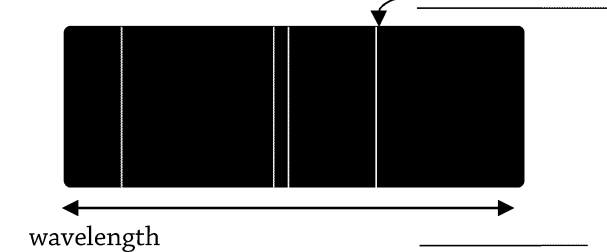
Statement	True	False
An atom can have any number of electrons and exist for a long time.		
There are 10 elements.		
An atom of ${}^7_3\text{Li}$ has 3 protons and 4 neutrons.		
The mass number is equal to the number of neutrons in the nucleus.		
The symbol used for an element depends on the number of protons in the nucleus.		

8. In the space below, describe the experiment of Rutherford and Marsden. You can use the diagram below.



## Emission and Absorption Spectra

3. Label the following diagrams.



4. Describe how absorption and emission spectra form in the laboratory.

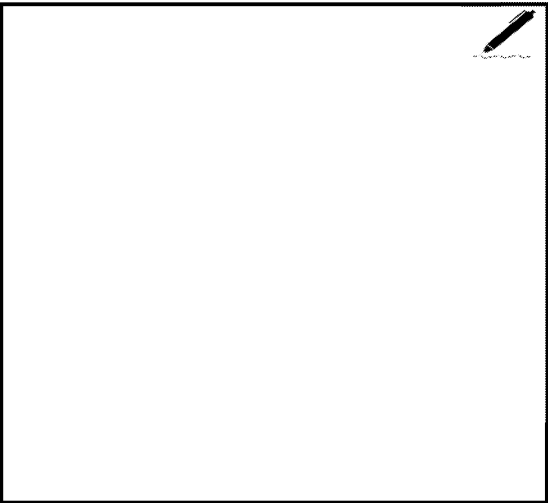


9. Which conclusions from the experiment can be drawn?

- ☐ a) The nucleus is very small.
- ☐ b) Atoms have a central nucleus.
- ☐ c) Most of the mass of an atom is concentrated in the nucleus.
- ☐ d) The nucleus is positively charged.
- ☐ e) An atom has a large empty space.
- ☐ f) The nucleus is made of protons and neutrons.
- ☐ g) An atom can be divided into a nucleus and electrons.

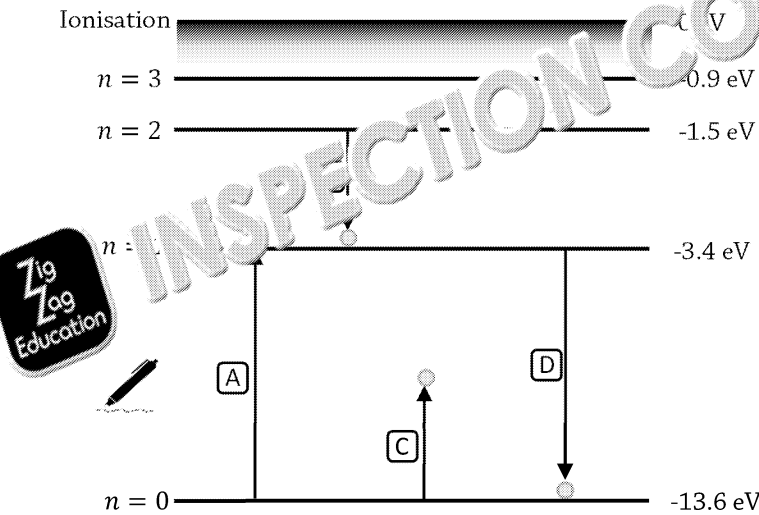
7. An electron absorbs a photon with a frequency of  $5.2 \times 10^{14}$  Hz. How much energy does the electron gain? Give your answer in joules and then convert to electronvolts.  $h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34}$  Js

5. What happens when a photon passes by an electron in an atom? Write your description in the box below.



## Photon Absorption and Emission

6. Which change in energy of an electron shown below is not allowed? Circle one letter.



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## Photoelectric Effect

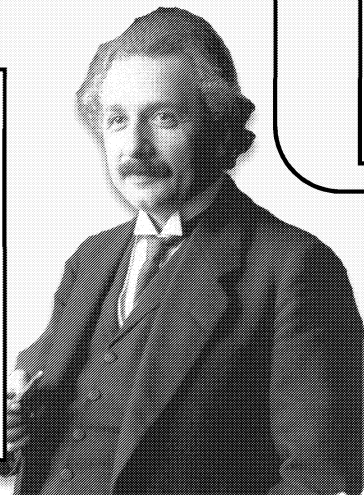
## Quantum Physics – Additional Higher Level

1. What is the photoelectric effect?

- ☐ a) when a photon is emitted from a metallic surface
- ☐ b) when multiple photons are emitted from a metallic surface due to incident light
- ☐ c) when an electron is emitted from a metallic surface due to incident light

2. A photon with a frequency of  $3.90 \times 10^{15}$  Hz interacts with an electron on a zinc surface, causing the electron to be emitted. The work function of zinc is  $3.74 \text{ eV}$ . What is the maximum kinetic energy of the electron?

$$E_{\text{max}} = hf - \phi$$



### The Bohr Model and the Photoelectric Effect

3. Draw the Bohr model of a hydrogen atom (one proton, one electron) with an incident photon ejecting the electron from the atom.

4. What is ionisation?
- ☐ a) an atom gains a negative charge
  - ☐ b) an atom becomes positively or negatively charged
  - ☐ c) when an atom absorbs an iron atom



What evidence from the photoelectric effect shows light does not always act like a wave?

Describe the work function and explain what it means regarding the behaviour of photons.

### Wave-Particle Duality

8. Which of the following are true evidence for the wave-like behaviour of particles or particle-like behaviour of waves?

- ☐ a) Compton scattering is evidence that electromagnetic waves can act like particles.
- ☐ b) The variation in wavelength of electromagnetic waves is evidence they can act like particles.
- ☐ c) Electron diffraction is evidence that particles can act like waves.
- ☐ d) The photoelectric effect is evidence that electromagnetic waves can act like particles.
- ☐ e) The change in velocity of an electron in an electric field is evidence that particles can act like waves.

### Compton Scattering

5. Fill in the gaps to complete the paragraph about Compton scattering.

If a photon with a high frequency interacts with a charged particle, such as an \_\_\_\_\_, the photon can transfer some of its energy to the electron.

The photon \_\_\_\_\_ energy, so its frequency \_\_\_\_\_ and its wavelength increases. The electron gains energy in the form of \_\_\_\_\_ energy, causing the electron to recoil away from the \_\_\_\_\_.



6. A photon interacts with an electron, causing the electron to recoil away at  $30^\circ$  from the photon's initial trajectory. What is the change in wavelength of the photon due to the energy lost in this interaction?

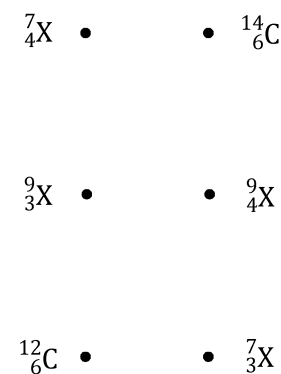
$$\lambda_f - \lambda_i = \Delta\lambda = \left(\frac{h}{m_e c}\right) (1 - \cos(\theta))$$

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## What is an Isotope?



1. Match the isotopes together.

- electron
- proton
- neutron

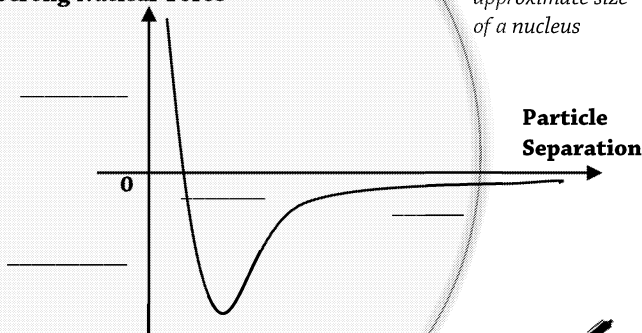


## Radioactive Decay

### The Strong Nuclear Force

1. On the graph below showing the regions where the strong nuclear force is attractive or repulsive.

Strong Nuclear Force



## What

10. In the decay relation

Rate

## Mass and Energy

$$\Delta m = Zm_p + (A - Z)m_n - m_{\text{nucleus}}$$

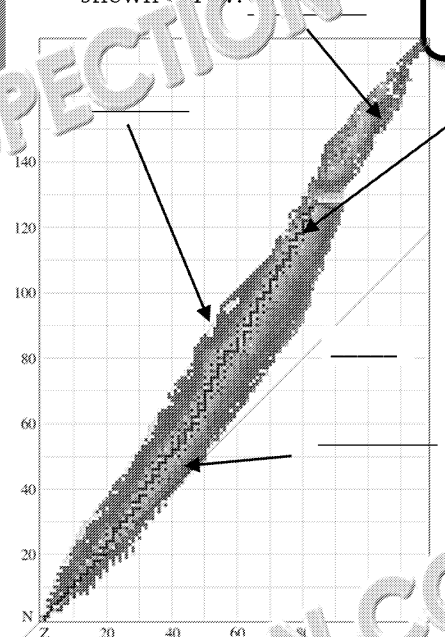
2. What is the mass defect in an atom of iron-53 ( ${}^{53}_{26}\text{Fe}$ )? The mass of its nucleus is  $8.79 \times 10^{-26}$  kg.

$$m_p = 1.673 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$$

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

## Nuclear Stability

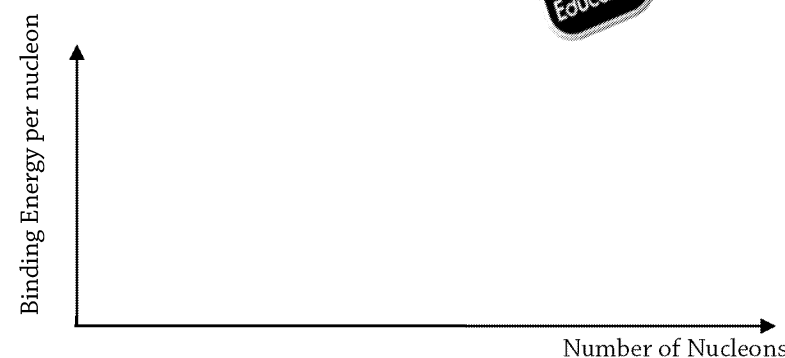
5. Label the areas and line on the graph shown below.



4. What is needed to keep an atom stable as  $Z$  increases?



6. Draw a graph of binding energy per nucleon against the number of nucleons. Label the areas where fusion and fission occur.



7. Describe one piece of evidence for the strong nuclear force.



## Radioactive Decay

8. Fill in the gaps to complete the sentences.

Radioactive decay occurs when an atom is \_\_\_\_\_ and emits \_\_\_\_\_ to obtain a more stable state.

Radioactive decay is a \_\_\_\_\_ process.

This means that we can't know which nucleus in a sample will decay next, or when.

9. A sample of uranium-235 contains  $1.0 \times 10^{24}$  atoms. Uranium-235 has a half-life constant of  $3.1 \times 10^{17} \text{ s}^{-1}$ . How many atoms are left in the sample after 10 half-lives?



$$A = \lambda N$$

$$\frac{\Delta N}{\Delta t} = -\lambda N$$

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

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

12. Scientists have determined that the half-life of today's carbon-14 is  $3.84 \times 10^4$  years. Calculate the decay constant of carbon-14.

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# Fission and Fusion

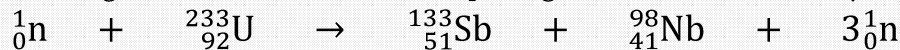
## What is Nuclear Fission?

1. Describe the difference between spontaneous fission and neutron-induced fission.

## How much energy is released during fission?

$$1\text{ u} = 1.661 \times 10^{-27}\text{ kg}$$

2. A uranium-233 atom undergoes neutron-induced fission, splitting into an atom of antimony, niobium, and 3 neutrons.



Given that the atomic mass of uranium-233 is 233.0396 u, of antimony-133 is 132.9153 u, of niobium-98 is 97.9103 u, and the mass of a neutron is 1.0087 u, calculate the energy released from this fission reaction.

## Energy Generation from Nuclear Fission

3. Connect the component in a nuclear power generator to its correct description.

<b>Moderator</b>	•	• stops dangerous nuclear radiation from leaving the reactor
<b>Control rods</b>	•	• extracts the heat and allows it to be transferred to produce electricity
<b>Heat exchanger</b>	•	• controls the speed of the neutrons
<b>Shielding</b>	•	• absorb neutrons to ensure that there is no free thermal neutrons to start the chain reaction

4. Fill in the gaps to complete the sentences.

Nuclear reactors produce nuclear \_\_\_\_\_. This \_\_\_\_\_ material that can remain dangerous for thousands of years. It is important for governments to consider what they will do with the waste from their nuclear \_\_\_\_\_, and how they will minimise its effect on the environment and people.

5. List the conditions necessary for fusion to occur, and why these conditions are needed.

## Where do stars get their energy from?

6. Explain how main sequence stars generate energy.

## The Life Cycle of a Star

7. Which of the following sequences of elements do stars use as fuel for fusion?
- ☐ a) hydrogen → helium
  - ☐ b) hydrogen → helium → carbon
  - ☐ c) helium → hydrogen
  - ☐ d) hydrogen → carbon

## Hertzsprung-Russell Diagram

9. Two stars known to be equal distance from Earth are compared. How much higher and larger are they compared to star 2?

$$L \propto R^2$$

$$L \propto T^4$$

$$1\text{ AU} = 1.50 \times 10^{15}\text{ m}$$

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# Structure of the Atom

The Atom

The Geiger-M

The experiment

The c

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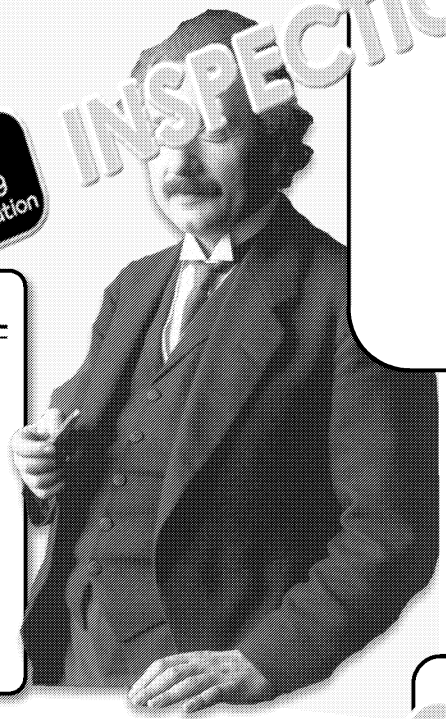
Photon Absorption and Emission

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Photoelectric Effect

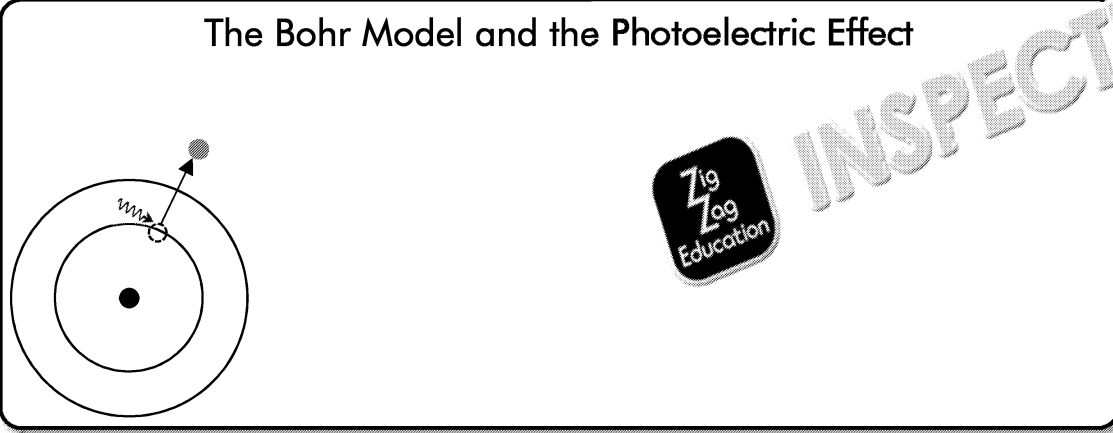


What evidence from the photoelectric effect shows that light does not always act like a wave?

Terms of the photoelectric effect

Wave-Particle Duality

Demonstration of wave-like and particle-like behaviour



Compton Scattering



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# Radioactive Decay

What is an Isotope?

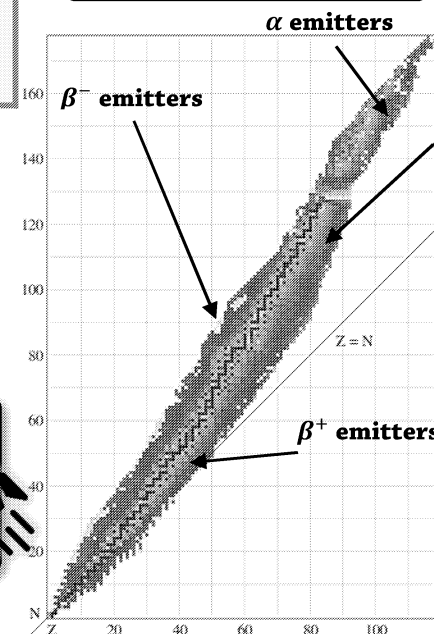
The Strong Nuclear Force

What is Radioactive Decay?

Mass and Energy

Radioactive Decay Equations

Nuclear Stability



Stable isotopes

For a low number of protons,  $Z$ , a nucleus is stable if

But as  $Z$  increases,

Beyond  $Z = 60$ , the binding energy is

The Dangers of Nuclear Radiation



Radiation Spectroscopy

Radioactive Decay

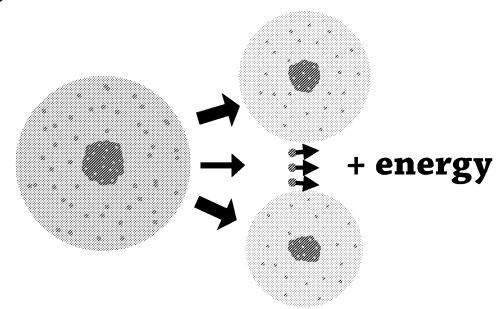
Activity,  $A$

The **half-life** ( $T_{1/2}$ ) of a radioactive substance is

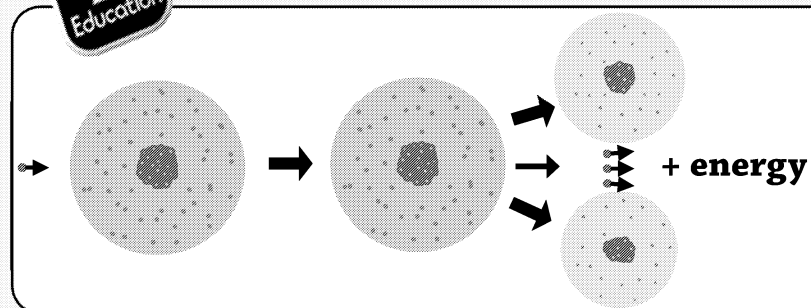


# Fission and Fusion

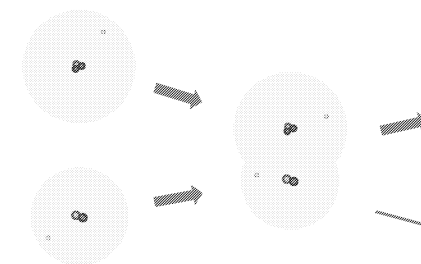
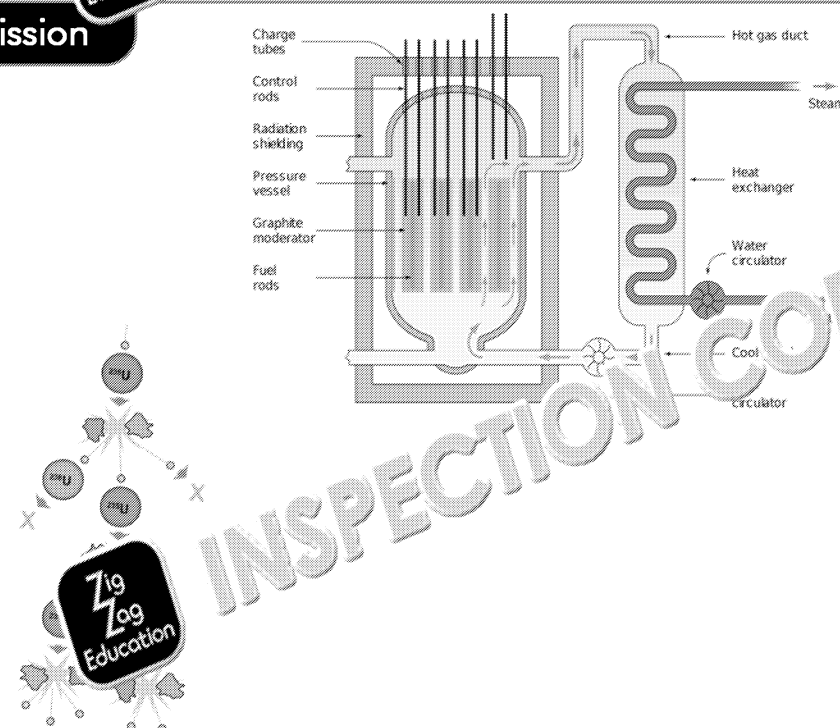
## What is Nuclear Fission?



How much energy is released during fission?



## Energy Generation from Nuclear Fission



Where do stars get their energy?

The L

Hertzsprung

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# IB Topic on a Page, Theme E: Mark

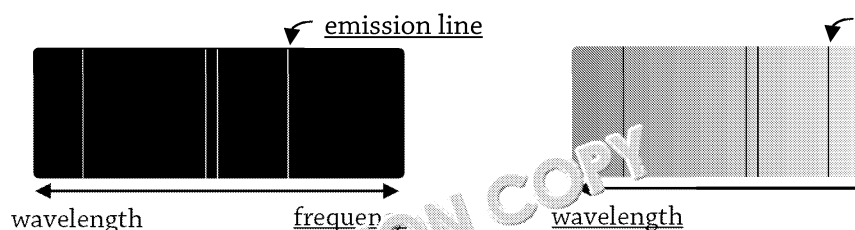
## E.1 Structure of the Atom

1. 

2.

Statement
An atom can have any number of protons or neutrons and exist for
There are 146 known elements.
An atom of ${}^7_3\text{Li}$ has 3 protons and 4 neutrons.
The mass number is equal to the number of neutrons in the nucleus
The symbol used for an element depends on the number of protons in

3.



4. White light that passes through a material can have some frequencies missing. This is because some frequencies are absorbed by the material. The missing frequencies appear as dark lines in the spectrum of the white light. This is called an emission spectrum. Excited electrons in a material will fall to a lower energy level and emit photons. These photons have specific frequencies, creating an emission spectrum.

5. If the photon has the right energy, the electron will absorb the photon and move to a higher energy level. If the photon does not have the right energy, it will pass by and not be absorbed.

6. C

7.  $E = hf$

$$E = (6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js})(5.2 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz})$$

$$E = 3.7 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} = 2.3 \text{ eV}$$

8. An alpha source provided a **beam of alpha particles** that were aimed at a target. All alpha particles (positively charged) were of the **same energy** and were emitted in an **evacuated chamber**. The alpha particles were **detected** by a detector at a **radial distance** from the point of collision between the particles and the target. When the particles hit the detector, and these collisions of light could be seen.

9. c) and f)

10. (HL)  $R = R_0 A^{\frac{1}{3}}$

$$R = (1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}) A^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

$$R = (1.2 \times 10^{-15} \text{ m}) (5.4)^{\frac{1}{3}}$$

11. (HL)  $\frac{54.4}{n^2} \text{ eV}$

$$E_2 = -\frac{54.4}{2^2} \text{ eV} = -13.6 \text{ eV}$$

$$E_3 = -\frac{54.4}{3^2} \text{ eV} = -6.0 \text{ eV}$$

$$\Delta E = 7.6 \text{ eV}$$

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## E.2 Quantum Physics

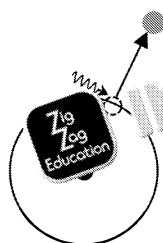
1. c)

$$2. \quad KE_{\max} = E_{\max} = hf - \phi$$

$$KE_{\max} = \frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js})(3.90 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz})}{1.602 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/eV}} - (3.74 \text{ eV})$$

$$KE_{\max} = 12.4 \text{ eV}$$

3.



4. b)

5. If a photon with a high frequency interacts with a charged particle, such as an electron, it can transfer some of its energy to the electron. The photon **loses** energy and its wavelength increases. The electron gains energy in the form of kinetic energy and recoils away from the **photon**.

$$6. \quad \Delta\lambda = \left(\frac{h}{m_e c}\right)(1 - \cos(\theta))$$

$$\Delta\lambda = \left(\frac{(6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js})}{(9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})(3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ ms}^{-1})}\right)(1 - \cos(90^\circ))$$

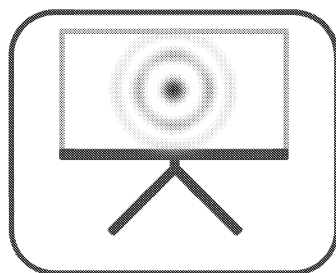
$$\Delta\lambda = 3.3 \times 10^{-13} \text{ m}$$

7. The work function is the energy needed by a photon to eject an electron from a metal. The existence of the work function shows that photons must act like particles. Multiple photons cannot eject an electron.

8. a), c) a)

9. Firing electrons through a small slit results in a **diffraction** pattern on a screen. This diffraction pattern shows that electrons can behave like **waves** in addition to particles. A particle's wavelength is called its **de Broglie** wavelength.

10.



$$11. \quad v = \frac{h}{m\lambda}$$

$$v = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}}{(9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})(7.15 \times 10^{-6} \text{ m})}$$

$$v = 1.0 \times 10^4 \text{ m/s}$$

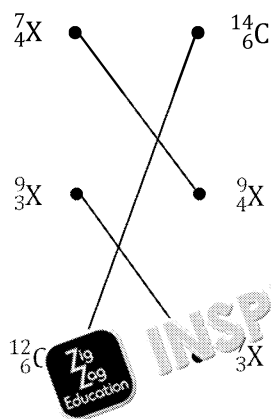
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### E.3 Radioactive Decay

1.

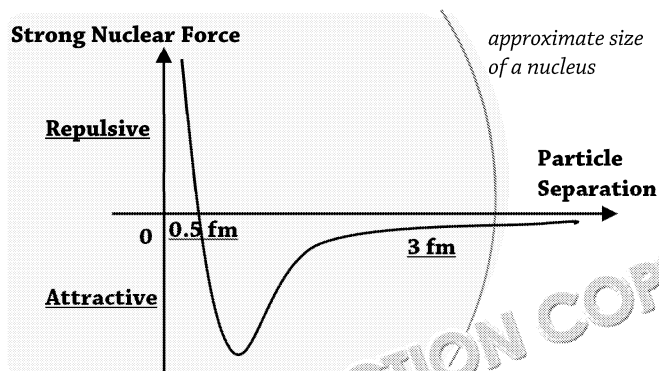


2.  $\Delta m = Zm_p + (A - Z)m_n - m_{\text{nucleus}}$

$$\Delta m = (26)(1.673 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}) + (53 - 26)(1.675 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}) - (8.79 \times 10^{-28} \text{ kg})$$

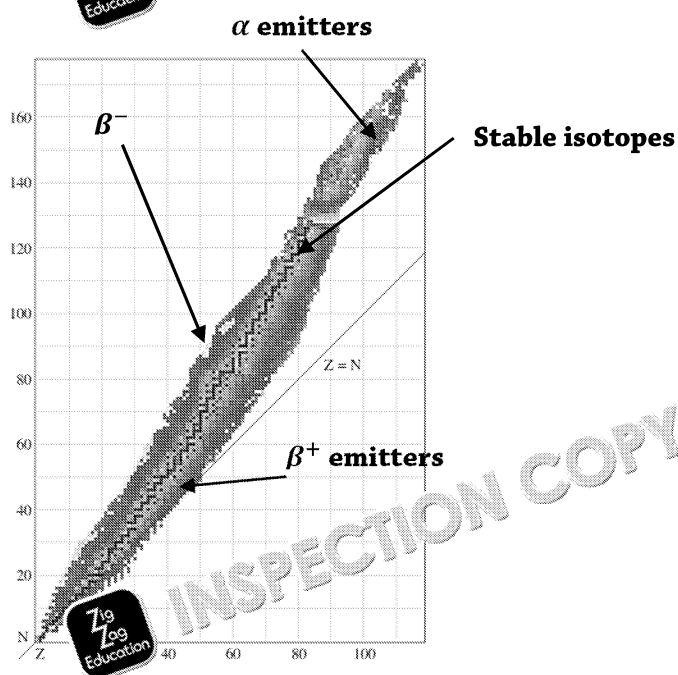
$$\Delta m = 8.23 \times 10^{-28} \text{ kg}$$

3.



4. (HL) As  $Z$ , the number of protons, increases, the number of neutrons,  $N$ , must be larger than  $Z$ . For all  $Z > 50$ ,  $N$  must be larger than  $Z$ .

5.

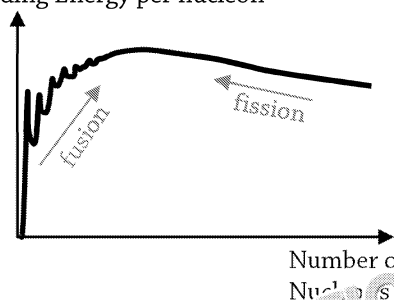


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6. Binding Energy per nucleon



7. (HL) Evidence for the existence of a nuclear force include the fact atoms exist, the binding energy being much larger than the electrostatic repulsion between protons, and the binding energy being much larger than the rest mass energy of the nucleons, significantly contributing to the nucleus's mass.

8. Radioactive decay occurs when an atom is **unstable** and emits **radiation** to reach a stable state. Radioactive decay is a **random** process. This means that we can't predict when a particular sample will decay next, or when.

9. (HL)  $N = N_0 e^{-\lambda t}$

$$N = (1.0 \times 10^{24}) e^{-(3.1 \times 10^{-17} \text{ s}^{-1})(60 \times 60 \times 24 \times 365.25 \times 10^9)}$$

$$N = 3.8 \times 10^{23} \text{ atoms}$$

10. (HL)

Radiation Name	Radiation Properties
Alpha, $\alpha$	It is made of two protons and two neutrons (a helium nucleus). It has a +2 charge and is relatively heavy. Shielded by paper.
Beta, $\beta$	It is an electron or a positron. Has a +1 or -1 charge, depending on the type, and is relatively light. Shielded by aluminium foil.
Gamma, $\gamma$	It is a high energy photon (EM radiation). Has no electric charge and no mass. Shielded by thick sheets of lead.

11. (HL) Scientists can analyse alpha and gamma radiation emitted from a particular isotope since the energy levels are discrete and specific to individual isotopes. They can't do this for beta radiation since the neutrino also emitted carries away some of the energy, hence the energy of the beta radiation is continuous and not specific.

12. First calculate the half-life of carbon-14:

$$T_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\ln 2}{\lambda}$$

$$T_{\frac{1}{2}} = \frac{\ln 2}{(3.84 \times 10^{-12} \text{ s}^{-1})}$$

$$T_{\frac{1}{2}} = 1.81 \times 10^{11} \text{ s} = 5730 \text{ years}$$

Then determine the number of half-lives that have passed for carbon-14 to decrease to 12.5% of its original amount:

$$12.5\% = \frac{125}{1000} = \frac{1}{8} = \left(\frac{1}{2}\right)^3$$

Therefore, 3 half-lives have passed. Finally, multiply the number of half-lives by the half-life to find the time taken for the sample to decay:

$$t = nT_{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$t = 3 \times 5730 \text{ years}$$

$$t = 17\,200 \text{ years}$$

So, the sample is around 17,000 years old!

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## E.4/5 Fission and Fusion

- Spontaneous fission is when an atom randomly splits with no external neutron-induced fission is when an atom splits due to absorbing a neutron.
- First calculate the change in mass (aka the mass defect) from the fission reaction.

$$\Delta m = m_f - m_i$$

$$\Delta m = (132.9153 \text{ u} + 97.9103 \text{ u} + 3(1.0087 \text{ u})) - (238.0396 \text{ u} + 1.0087 \text{ u})$$

$$\Delta m = -0.1966 \text{ u}$$

Next, convert this change in mass into energy:

$$\Delta E = \Delta mc^2$$

Here,  $\Delta m$  should be in kg units.

$$\Delta E = (-0.1966 \text{ u}) (1.661 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg/u}) (2.998 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s})^2$$

$$\Delta E = -1.83 \times 10^{-11} \text{ J}$$

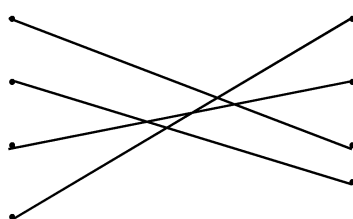
So, 183.2 MeV of energy is released in this fission reaction.

- Moderator**

**Control rods**

**Heat exchanger**

**Shielding**



stops dangerous neutrons from leaving the reactor  
extracts the heat and transfers it to produce electricity  
controls the speed of the reaction  
absorb neutrons to prevent the reactor from becoming a thermal neutron reactor

- Nuclear reactors produce nuclear **waste**. This is **radioactive** material that can remain dangerous for thousands of years. It is important for governments to consider what to do with this waste from their nuclear **reactors**, and how they will minimise its effect on the environment.
- The material whose atoms are to be fused should be at a high temperature so that the nuclei of atoms overcome their repulsive forces.
- The outward pressure from fusion in the star's core balances the inward pressure from the star's mass.

- b)

- a)

- The scientists measure that  $L_{\text{star } 1} \approx 2L_{\text{star } 2}$ , so:

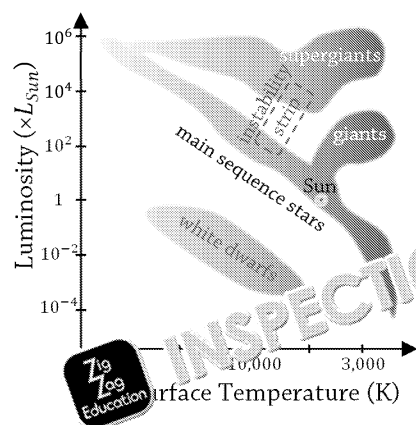
$$L \propto R^2 \rightarrow (R_{\text{star } 1})^2 \approx 2(R_{\text{star } 2})^2$$

$$R_{\text{star } 1} \approx \sqrt{2}R_{\text{star } 2}$$

$$L \propto T^4 \rightarrow (T_{\text{star } 1})^4 \approx 2(T_{\text{star } 2})^4$$

$$T_{\text{star } 1} \approx \sqrt[4]{2}T_{\text{star } 2}$$

- 



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11. Angle,  $p$  is half the change in angular position of the star during the sidereal year.

$$p = \frac{7''}{2}$$

$$p = 3.5''$$

Convert this into radians and substitute into the equation:

$$p = \frac{(3.5'')}{(3600''/^{\circ})} \times \left(\frac{\pi}{180^{\circ}}\right)$$

$$p = 1.7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ rad}$$

Now substitute into the given equation:

$$d \approx \frac{1 \text{ AU}}{1.7 \times 10^{-5} \text{ rad}}$$

$$d \approx 1.2 \times 10^5 \text{ AU}$$

Finally, convert this into light years:

$$d = (1.2 \times 10^5 \text{ AU}) \left( \frac{1.50 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}}{9.46 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}} \text{ ly/AU} \right)$$

$$d = 1.9 \times 10^4 \text{ ly}$$

And parsecs:

$$d = (1.2 \times 10^5 \text{ AU}) \left( \frac{1.50 \times 10^{15} \text{ m}}{3.09 \times 10^{16} \text{ m}} \text{ pc/AU} \right)$$

$$d = 5.8 \times 10^3 \text{ pc}$$

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