

# Chapter 6 – Electronic Structure

## Chapter Outline

Review of wave properties (What is a wave?)

Electromagnetic spectrum (What is "light"?)

Atomic spectra/photoelectric effect (What causes light?)

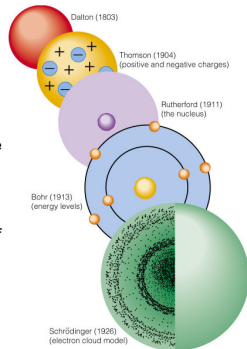
Bohr model of the atom (Simple model of the atom)

Rydberg equation (Describes light produced by hydrogen)

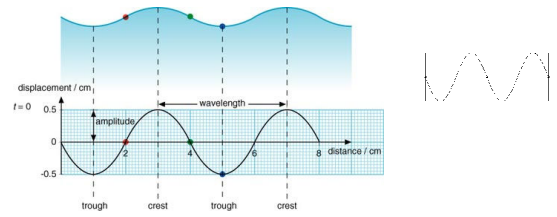
Wave mechanical model (Advanced model of the atom)

Quantum numbers

Periodic Trends



## Wave Properties:



**Velocity (distance/time):** Translational speed of the wave.  
**Frequency (Cycles/Second; Hertz (Hz)):** The number of cycles per second that pass by some reference point  
**Period (time):** Time required for one wave to pass (= 1/frequency)

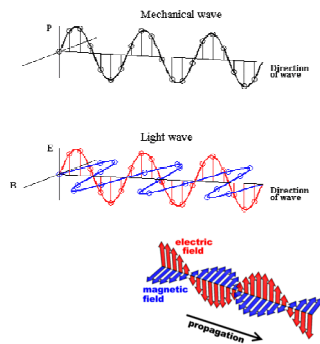
## Electromagnetic (Transverse) Waves: E and B Fields

Light can be thought of as a wave of alternating electrical and magnetic fields.

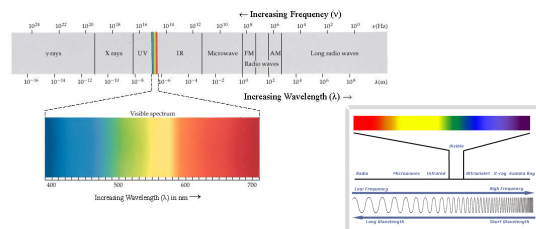
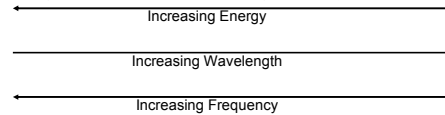
The "E" is the electrical field and "B" is the magnetic field component.

EM wave are "self-propagating"

The phenomenon of diffraction is a wave-like property of light



## Regions of the Electromagnetic Spectrum



Visible light runs between about 400-700nm

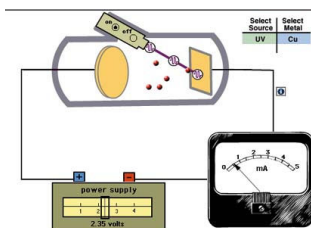
In mechanical waves, energy is carried on the amplitude of the wave

For light (EM radiation), energy is carried on the frequency of the wave.

This was determined through the photoelectric effect, explained by Einstein (1905)

Introduced the idea of the "photon" as a light "particle"

Light has both wave and particle properties

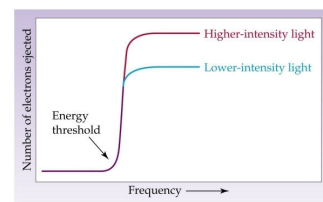


[Video Clip](#)

## In Summary:

The frequency of the incident photon determines whether or not an electron of a particular metal will be ejected or not (Frequency  $\propto$  Energy)

The amplitude of the photon (intensity) determines how many photons per unit time will be ejected (assuming they are ejected) (Intensity  $\propto$  Current)



## Summary of Equations:

$$c = \lambda \nu$$

Where:

$c$  = speed of light =  $3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}$

$\lambda$  = the wavelength (in meters)

$\nu$  = frequency (in  $\text{s}^{-1}$ , 1/s)

(Sometimes frequency is written with the symbol,  $f$ )

$$E = h\nu \text{ or } E = hc/\lambda$$

Where:

$E$  = Energy (in joules)

$h$  = Planck's constant ( $6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}$ )

**Example:** Determine the frequency of a light wave with a wavelength of 650.nm.

Answer:

$$\nu = c/\lambda$$

$$\nu = (3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) / (6.50 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m})$$

$$\nu = 4.62 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

**Example:** Calculate the energy of a photon with a wavelength of 500.nm. Express your answer in joules. How much energy is there in units of kJ/mol of photons?

Answer:

$$E = hc/\lambda$$

$$E = (6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}) ( 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) / (5.00 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}) = 3.98 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/photon}$$

The energy per mole of photons is

$$(3.98 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/photon}) (6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ photons/mole}) = 2.40 \times 10^5 \text{ J/mol or } 240. \text{ kJ/mol}$$

**Example:** A 60.W, monochromatic laser beam gives off photons of wavelength 650.nm. How long does it take for 2.5moles of these photons to be given off? (Hint: Power (in watts) = work/time (in J/s))

b. How many moles of photons are given off per second?

Answer:

$$E = hc/\lambda = (6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}) (3.0 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}) / 6.50 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

$$= 3.06 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/photon}$$

$$(3.06 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/photon}) (6.022 \times 10^{23} \text{ photons/mol}) (2.5 \text{ mol}) =$$

$$4.60 \times 10^5 \text{ J}$$

$$4.60 \times 10^5 \text{ J} / 60 \text{ J/s} = 7673.4 \text{ s} \quad / 3600 \text{ s/h} = 2.13 \text{ h}$$

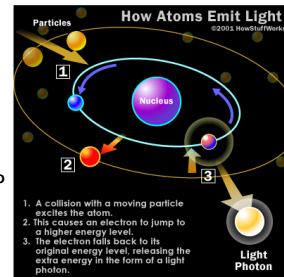
$$\text{b. } 2.5 \text{ mol} / 7673.4 \text{ s} = 3.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/s}$$

## What is light and how is it produced?

Light is pure energy that can be transported through space.

EM energy is produced when an electron in a lower orbit (energy state) is "excited" to a higher energy state by absorbing some form of energy (heat, electrical, etc.)

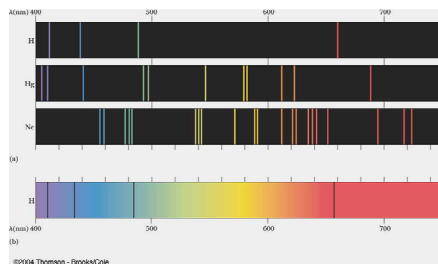
Upon the transition back down to its "ground state" (normal orbit), the energy that it loses in doing so is given off as some form of electromagnetic radiation, whose energy (frequency) depends on the energy "jump" the electron makes.



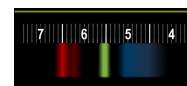
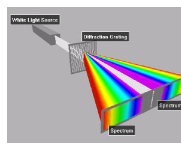
## Spectral Lines and the Quantum Model of the Atom

Classical physics predicted that when a rarefied (low pressure) gas is heated, it should give off light of all wavelengths (since all energy level transitions (jumps) should be possible)

In practice, only specific wavelengths appeared (spectral lines)



## Using a Spectroscope:



### "Blackbody Radiation" – Planck Curve

Max Planck

Energy must exist as tiny packets of energy which Planck called "quanta".

Blackbody Radiation Curves

Blackbody radiating at different temperatures:  
 Surface of the sun: 4800 K  
 Carbon arc lamp: 4000 K  
 Lamp filament max.: 3000 K

$E \propto \nu^3 kT$

### Bohr Model of the Atom

Explained spectral lines by predicting that orbits in an atom must be "quantized" (can only have specific orbits)

Niels Bohr

### The Balmer Series of Hydrogen

The difference in energy between the two levels equals the energy of the photon given off.  $\Delta E = h\nu$

For the hydrogen atom, the frequency of a photon emitted is given by the Rydberg equation:  
 $\Delta E = R_H (1/n_o^2 - 1/n_h^2)$  or  
 $\nu = R_H/h (1/n_o^2 - 1/n_h^2)$   
 $R_H = 2.180 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$      $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}$

The maximum number of electrons allowed in any ring is given by  $2n^2$ , where  $n$  is the ring number (1 = innermost ring).

Absolute energy for any level  $n$  is given by  $E = -R_H(1/n^2)$

Example:

In a hydrogen atom, an electron is excited from  $n_1 \rightarrow n_5$  level. The downward transition is composed of two jumps;  $n_5 \rightarrow n_2$  and  $n_2 \rightarrow n_1$ . Calculate the energy absorbed by the electron on the upward transition.

Calculate the energies and frequencies of the photons emitted on the downward transitions.

Comment on the relationship between the energy absorbed by the atom and the energy released by the photons.

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Calculate the energy absorbed by the electron on the upward transition.

Calculate the energies and frequencies of the photons emitted on the downward transitions.

Comment on the relationship between the energy absorbed by the atom and the energy released by the photons.

Answer:

$\Delta E = R_H (1/n_o^2 - 1/n_h^2) = 2.180 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J} (1/1^2 - 1/5^2) = 2.093 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$

$n_5 \rightarrow n_2 = 2.180 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J} (1/2^2 - 1/5^2) = 4.578 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$   
 $\nu = E/h = 4.578 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J} / 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js} = 6.909 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$

$n_2 \rightarrow n_1 = 2.180 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J} (1/1^2 - 1/2^2) = 1.635 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$   
 $\nu = E/h = 1.635 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J} / 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js} = 2.468 \times 10^{15} \text{ Hz}$

The energy out = energy in

Example:

In a hydrogen atom, a Balmer series line is produced corresponding to a photon with a frequency of  $6.909 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz}$ . From which Bohr orbit ring did the electron jump from?

$\Delta E = R_H (1/n_o^2 - 1/n_h^2)$  or  
 $\nu = (R_H/h) (1/n_o^2 - 1/n_h^2)$   
 $R_H = 2.180 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$      $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}$

Answer:

$6.909 \times 10^{14} \text{ Hz} = [2.180 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J} / 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}] (1/2^2 - 1/n_h^2)$

$n_h = 5$

### Wave Properties of the electron

If light has particle properties (photons), can particles have wave properties?

“Matter Waves” Based on the (Louis) DeBroglie Equation

Where,  $\lambda$  is the DeBroglie Wavelength,  $h$  is the Planck constant,  $6.626 \times 10^{-34}$  Js and  $mv$  is the momentum of the particle ( $m$  = mass in kg;  $v$  = velocity in m/s)

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

### DeBroglie's Interpretation of the Bohr Model of the Atom

Allowed orbits have a circumference related to  $n\lambda/2$   
 $2\pi r = n\lambda/2$ , where  $n$  is an integer number

Niels Bohr - Louis de Broglie atom, 1924

A B

#### Optional Detailed Explanation: Particle in a one-dimensional Box of Length, L.

Permitted Standing wavelengths  
 $\lambda = \frac{2L}{n} \quad n = 1, 2, 3 \quad \text{total nodes} = n + 1$

Wave function:  
 $\Psi_n(x) = \sqrt{\frac{2}{L}} \sin\left(\frac{n\pi x}{L}\right) \quad n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$

$\Psi_n^2(x) = \frac{2}{L} \sin^2\left(\frac{n\pi}{L} x\right)$   
 $\Psi^2$  function: Probabilities of particle in a one-dimensional box.

### Wave Mechanical Model of the Atom

#### Interpretation of the DeBroglie Wavelength

About the same time as DeBroglie (1927) Werner Heisenberg developed what became known as the **Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle**. It stated:

*There is a fundamental limit that nature puts on our ability to measure both the position and momentum of an object simultaneously.*

The equation is given by:

$$\Delta x \Delta mv \geq h/4\pi$$

where  $\Delta x$  is the uncertainty in the position and  $\Delta mv$  is the uncertainty in the momentum (often velocity).

*The result of these two ideas is that there is a certain “fuzziness” or statistical uncertainty associated with determining the position and/or momentum of an object.*

#### Analogy: When the race car is in motion, to what precision can you determine the instantaneous position of the vehicle?

Scatter Plot (probability density)

Example:

Calculate the wavelength associated with a neutron having a mass of  $1.675 \times 10^{-24} \text{ kg}$  and a kinetic energy of  $6.21 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J}$ . (Recall that the kinetic energy of a moving particle is  $E = \frac{1}{2} mv^2$ .)

Answer:

$$KE = \frac{1}{2} mv^2 \quad 6.21 \times 10^{-21} \text{ J} = \frac{1}{2} (1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg})(v^2)$$

$$v = 2727.11 \text{ m/s}$$

$$\lambda = h / mv = (6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ Js}) / (1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg})(2727.11 \text{ m/s})$$

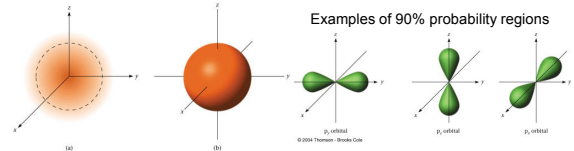
$$= 1.45 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m} = .145 \text{ nm} \text{ (1.45 \AA, angstroms)}$$

Note: 1 angstrom =  $10^{-10} \text{ m}$

### The Schrodinger Wave Equation

Erwin Schrodinger - Derived the wave function (a.k.a. wave equation), represented by  $\Psi$  (psi). This equation describes the **quantum energy state** of a particular electron in an atom.

**Psi squared ( $\Psi^2$ ) gives the 90% probability region** (3-dimensional space) for finding an electron with a particular quantum energy state (set of 4 quantum numbers). These regions are known as **orbitals**.



Electrons are not particles orbiting in a ring, but they are "waves of probability" that exist within a region of space around the nucleus.

Each electron's quantum state is determined by four fundamental properties

#### Principal Quantum Number (n)

**Description:** Determines the **overall energy** of the level. Analogous to the **average distance** away from the nucleus.

**Possible values:**  $n = 1, 2, 3, \dots$  (integer numbers)

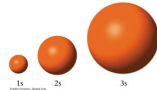
#### Angular Momentum (Azimuthal) Quantum Number (l)

**Description:** Determines the **shape** of the **sub-level** orbital

**Possible values:**  $l = 0$  to  $(n-1)$

There are also letters associated with the numbers of  $l$ : 0 (s), 1 (p), 2 (d), 3 (f), 4 (g), ...

s = sharp, p = principal, d = diffuse, f = fine.

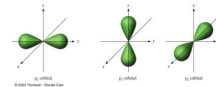


Note: There is a difference between an orbit and an orbital

#### Magnetic Quantum Number ( $m_l$ )

**Description:** Determines the **spatial orientation** of the sub-level orbital

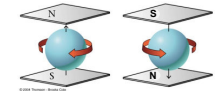
**Possible Values:**  $-l, \dots, 0, \dots, +l$



#### Spin Quantum Number ( $m_s$ )

**Description:** Determines the **spin orientation** of the electron in an orbital

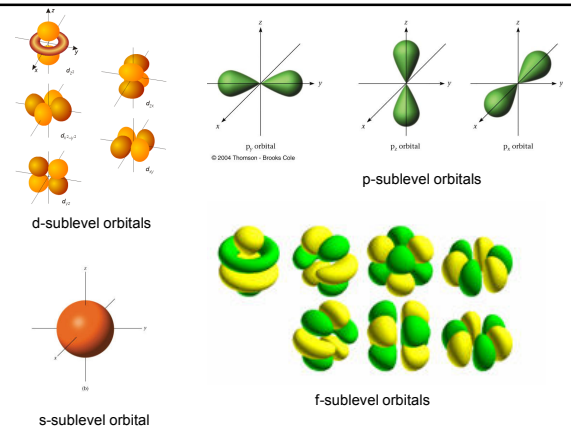
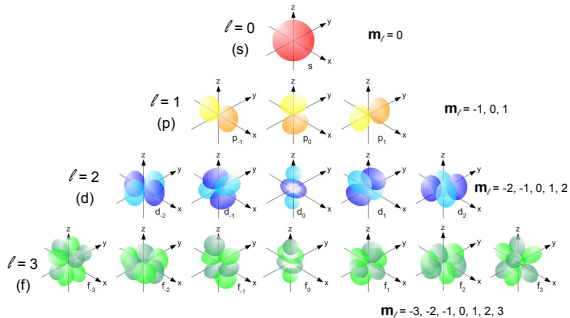
**Possible Values:**  $m_s = \pm \frac{1}{2}$



**Each orbital can contain a maximum of 2 electrons**

### Orbitals (90% probability regions)

Energy sub-levels (given by  $l$ ) and orbitals within the sub-levels (given by  $m_l$ )



### In Summary

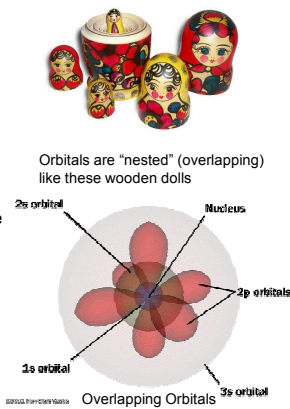
To describe the quantum state of an electron in an atom you must identify:

The energy level ( $n$ ) (given by the period on the periodic table)

The energy sub-level ( $l$ ) (given by the "group" position on the periodic table)

The spatial orientation of the electron ( $m_l$ ) (given by the orbital shapes)

The spin of the electron ( $m_s$ ) (one of two possible values)



### Examples of possible values

| Energy Level ( $n$ ) | Azimuthal Number ( $l$ ) (0 to $n-1$ ) | Magnetic Number ( $m_l$ ) ( $-l \dots 0 \dots +l$ ) | Spin Number ( $m_s$ ) ( $+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$ ) | Possibilities |
|----------------------|--|---|--|---------------|
| 1                    | 0 (s)                                  | 0   | $+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$                           | 2             |
| 2                    | 0 (s)                                  | 0   | $+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$                           | 2             |
|                      | 1 (p)                                  | -1, 0, +1   | $+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$                           | 6             |
| 3                    | 0 (s)                                  | 0   | $+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$                           | 2             |
|                      | 1 (p)                                  | -1, 0, +1   | $+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$                           | 6             |
|                      | 2 (d)                                  | -2, -1, 0, +1, +2                                   | $+\frac{1}{2}, -\frac{1}{2}$                           | 10            |

### Electron filling in an atom is governed by three principles:

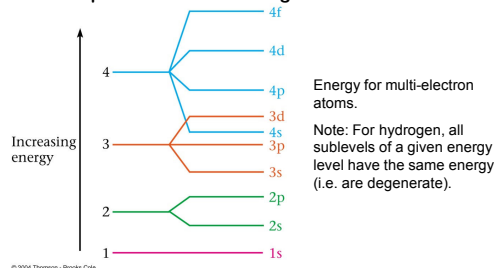
**Aufbau Principle** - Electrons fill energy positions from lowest to highest.

**Hund's Rule** - When filling orbitals within an energy sub-level, electrons fill orbitals singly before pairing.

**Pauli Exclusion Principle** - Each electron in an atom must have a unique set of quantum numbers for that atom. Put another way: **No two electrons in a given atom can possess the same set of four quantum numbers.**

Electrons within the same energy sub-level are said to be "**degenerate**" because their energies are all the same.

For atoms with more than one electron, the energy sub-levels are split into different energies.



### Spectroscopic Notation

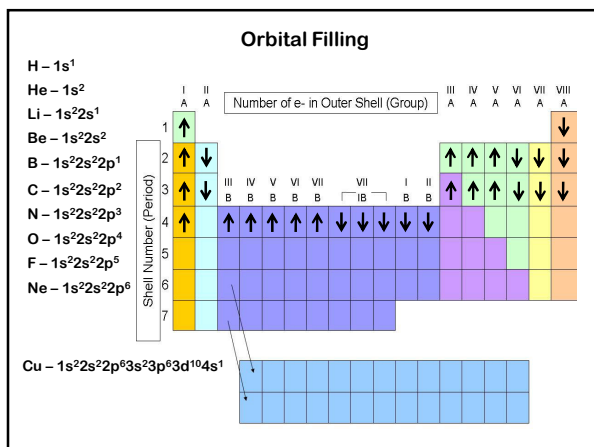
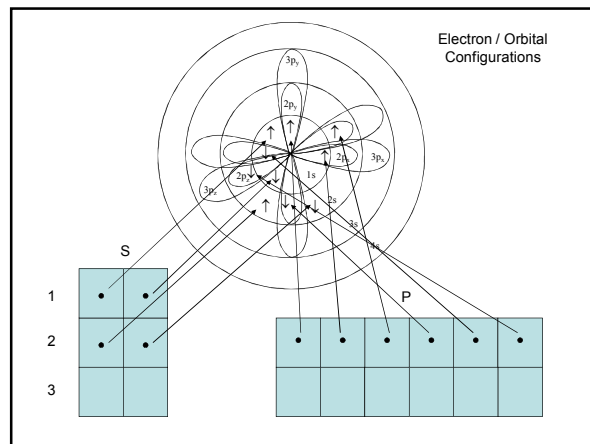
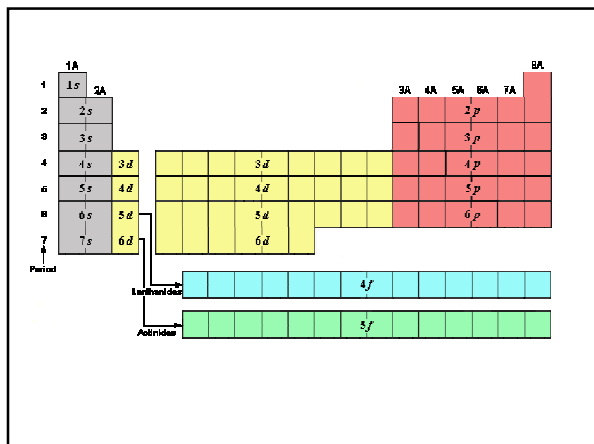
One way of designating the electron configuration in an atom denotes the principal energy level, sublevel and the number of electrons in the sublevel (written as a superscript). It does not differentiate between  $m_l$  and  $m_s$  values.

Example: Give the spectroscopic notation for the sodium atom (assume ground state electron configuration)

Answer:  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$

The periodic table is laid out to help you identify the "quantum state" for a particular electron in an atom. In most cases, each atom has the same electron configuration as the one that came before it, plus one more electron.

The periodic table is shown with the S-block (groups 1 and 2) and P-block (groups 13-18) highlighted. An arrow points from the text above to the P-block. The table includes element symbols, names, atomic numbers, and electron configurations for elements from H to Ar.



### Condensed Spectroscopic Notation

Uses the previously occurring noble gas as the starting point for writing the notation

For instance:  
 Sulfur can be written as  
 $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^4$   
 Or, since neon's notation is  $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$  you can write  
 $[\text{Ne}] 3s^2 3p^4$

Important: Only noble gases can be used in brackets!

### Alternate Method of Representing Electron Arrangements

#### Orbital Box Diagram

| Atom | Orbital diagram  | Electron configuration |
|------|--|------------------------|
| B    | $(\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow) ( ) ( )$   | $1s^2 2s^2 2p^1$       |
| C    | $(\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow) (\uparrow) ( )$                                      | $1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$       |
| N    | $(\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow) (\uparrow) (\uparrow)$                               | $1s^2 2s^2 2p^3$       |
| O    | $(\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow) (\uparrow)$                     | $1s^2 2s^2 2p^4$       |
| F    | $(\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow)$           | $1s^2 2s^2 2p^5$       |
| Ne   | $(\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow) (\uparrow\downarrow)$ | $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$       |

1s      2s      2p

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### Electron Arrangements in Monoatomic Ions

Noble gases have completely filled s and p (outermost) sublevels for a total of 8 electrons (known as an **octet**) [two for He since it has no p-sublevel]

Outermost electrons (highest n number) are known as **valence** electrons. Other electrons are known as **core** electrons

Bonding normally occurs at the valence electron level

Ions generally form to achieve a noble gas "octet"

For the main group elements (A groups) the group number gives the number of valence electrons in the atom.

Transition metals lose electrons from the outermost n level first (e.g. 4s electrons removed before 3d electrons) (Add e- by increasing energy take away e- by highest n)



Supplemental Question:

The ionization energy for fluorine is 1681kJ/mol.  
Calculate the energy in joules per atom.

Calculate the maximum photon wavelength that a  
fluorine atom could absorb to achieve this result.

$$1,681,000\text{J/mol} \left(1\text{mol} / 6.022 \times 10^{23}\text{atoms}\right)$$

$$= 2.791 \times 10^{-18}\text{J/atom}$$

$$E = hc/\lambda \quad \lambda = hc/E$$

$$\lambda = (6.626 \times 10^{-34}\text{Js})(3.00 \times 10^8\text{m/s}) / (2.791 \times 10^{-18}\text{J})$$

$$= 7.12 \times 10^{-8}\text{m} = 71.2\text{nm}$$