

# Quantum Theory and Atomic Structure

- Nuclear atom small, heavy, positive nucleus surrounded by a negative electron cloud
- Electronic structure arrangement of the electrons around the nucleus
- Classical mechanics fails in describing the electronic motion
- Quantum mechanics designed to describe the motion of microscopic particles





- Wavelength (λ) distance between two adjacent minima or maxima of the wave
- Frequency (ν) number of oscillations of the electric (or magnetic) field per second
   units hertz (Hz) → 1 Hz = 1 s<sup>-1</sup>
- **Amplitude** strength of the oscillation (related to the intensity of the radiation)
- **Speed of light (***c***)** rate of travel of all types of electromagnetic radiation (3.00×10<sup>8</sup> m/s)

 $\lambda \nu = c \qquad \uparrow \lambda \to \downarrow \nu$ 



98.9 MHz = 98.9×10<sup>6</sup> Hz = 98.9×10<sup>6</sup> s<sup>-1</sup>

$$\lambda = \frac{c}{v} = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{98.9 \times 10^6 \text{ s}^{-1}} = 3.03 \text{ m}$$





### The particle nature of light

- Blackbody radiation light emitted from solid objects heated to incandescence
  - The energy profile of the emitted light could not be explained by the classical mechanics which assumes that the energy of an object can be continuously changed
  - Plank (1900) explained the energy profiles by assuming that the energy of an object can be changed only in discrete amounts (quanta) → quantization of energy

$$\Delta E = n(h v)$$

 $h = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s}$ 

- h Planck's constant
- $\nu$  frequency of the emitted light
- n quantum number (positive integer 1, 2, 3, ...)
- $h\nu$  the energy of one quantum



- Explanation (Einstein, 1905) the ejection of e<sup>-</sup> is caused by particles (photons) with energy proportional to the frequency of the radiation
  - ⇒ Only photons with enough energy and therefore high enough frequency can eject electrons
  - $\Rightarrow$  Ejection results from an encounter of an e<sup>-</sup> with a single photon (not several photons), so no time delay is observed
- Energy of the photon (*E<sub>ph</sub>*):

 $E_{ph} = hc/\lambda$  $E_{nh} = hv$  $v = c/\lambda$ 

⇒ The photon is the **electromagnetic quantum** – the smallest amount of energy atoms can emit or absorb

• **Dual nature of light** – light has both wave and particle like properties – wave (refraction, interference, diffraction)

- particle (photoelectric effect)

### **Example:**

Calculate the energy of a photon of light with wavelength **514 nm**.

$$E_{ph} = h \frac{c}{\lambda} = 6.626 \times 10^{-34} \,\mathrm{J} \cdot \mathrm{s} \frac{3.00 \times 10^8 \,\mathrm{m/s}}{514 \times 10^9 \,\mathrm{m}} = 3.87 \times 10^{-19} \,\mathrm{J}$$

# 7.2 Atomic Spectra

- **Spectroscopy** studies the interaction of light with matter (emission, absorption, scattering, ...)
- **Spectrometer** instrument that separates the different colors of light and records their intensities
- **Spectrum** intensity of light as a function of its color (wavelength or frequency)
- Atomic emission spectrum the spectrum emitted by the atoms of an element when they are excited by heating to high temperatures (very characteristic for each element; used for identification of elements)



- Atomic emission spectra are line spectra consist of discrete frequencies (lines)
   Can't be explained by classical physics
- The **Rydberg equation** fits the observed lines in the hydrogen atomic emission spectrum

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

 $n_1, n_2$  – positive integers (1, 2, 3, ...) and  $n_1 < n_2$ 

R – the **Rydberg** constant (1.096776×10<sup>7</sup> m<sup>-1</sup>)



# The Bohr model of the H atom (1913)

- Explains the hydrogen atomic emission spectrum by using the idea of quantization
- Postulates:
  - The electron travels around the nucleus in circular orbits without loss of energy
  - The angular momentum of the electron is quantized  $\rightarrow$  only certain orbits are allowed
- Consequences:
  - The energy of the H atom is quantized → only certain **discrete energy levels** (stationary states) are allowed
  - Each circular orbit corresponds to one *E*-level

# • Consequences (cont.):

- A transition between two energy states generates a **photon** with energy equal to the difference between the two levels ( $\Delta E$ )

 $E_{ph} = E_{state 2} - E_{state 1} = h\nu \implies \Delta E = h\nu$ - A photon with a specific (discrete) frequency is

- emitted for each transition from a higher to a lower *E*-level
- $\Rightarrow$ Atomic emission spectra consist of discrete lines - Each orbit is labeled with a number, *n*, starting from the orbit closest to the nucleus (*n* = 1, 2, ...)
  - The same number is used to label the energy levels  $\rightarrow n$  is the quantum number





• A transition between two *E*-levels with quantum numbers  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  will produce a photon with energy equal to the *E*-difference between the levels,  $\Delta E$ :  $\Delta E = E_{n_2} - E_{n_1} = \left(-\frac{B}{n_2^2}\right) - \left(-\frac{B}{n_1^2}\right) = B\left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2}\right)$  $\Delta E = E_{ph} = hv = \frac{hc}{\lambda} = B\left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2}\right)$  $\Rightarrow \frac{1}{\lambda} = \frac{B}{hc}\left(\frac{1}{n_1^2} - \frac{1}{n_2^2}\right) \leftarrow \text{Rydberg eq.}\left(\frac{B}{hc} = R\right)$ 

• Ionization energy (*I*) of the H atom – the energy needed to completely remove the electron from a H atom in its ground state (can be viewed as the energy change from  $E_1$ to  $E_{\infty}$ )

$$\Delta E = E_{\infty} - E_1 = \left(-\frac{B}{\infty^2}\right) - \left(-\frac{B}{1^2}\right) = 0 - (-B) = B$$

 $\Rightarrow$   $I = B = 2.18 \times 10^{-18}$  J/atom

• Limitations of the Bohr Model

 Applicable only to H-like atoms and ions (having a single electron) in the absence of strong electric or magnetic fields (H, He<sup>+</sup>, Li<sup>2+</sup>, ...)

# 7.3 The Wave-Particle Duality of Matter and Energy

• Mass-energy equivalency (Einstein)  $E = mc^2$ 

• For a photon with energy  $E = hv = hc/\lambda$ :

 $E = mc^2 = hc/\lambda \implies mc = h/\lambda \implies \lambda = h/mc$ 

 $\Rightarrow \lambda = h/p$  p – photon momentum

- The equation shows that the wave-like photons have particle-like mass and momentum

• Experimental evidence (Compton, 1923)

• **De Broglie's hypothesis** (1924) – all matter has wave-like properties (just as waves have particle-like properties)

- For a particle with mass, *m*, and velocity, *u*, the wavelength is:

#### $\lambda = h/mu$

- De Broglie's equation is equivalent to that for a photon ( $\lambda = h/mc$ )
- De Broglie's equation combines particle properties (*m*, *u*) with wave properties (λ)
- $\Rightarrow$  Matter and energy exhibit wave-particle duality

• Example: Calculate the wavelengths of an electron  $(m = 9.109 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg})$  with velocity  $2.2 \times 10^6 \text{ m/s}$  and a bullet (m = 5.0 g) traveling at 700. m/s.

$$\lambda(e^{-}) = \frac{h}{mu} = \frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34} \,\mathrm{J} \cdot \mathrm{s}}{9.109 \times 10^{-31} \,\mathrm{kg} \times 2.2 \times 10^{6} \,\mathrm{m/s}}$$

$$= 3.3 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m} = 0.33 \text{ nm} \rightarrow \text{comparable to atomic sizes}$$

 $\lambda(bul) = \frac{h}{mu} = \frac{6.626 \times 10^{-34} \,\mathrm{J} \cdot \mathrm{s}}{5.0 \times 10^{-3} \,\mathrm{kg} \times 700. \,\mathrm{m/s}}$  $= 1.9 \times 10^{-34} \,\mathrm{m} \quad \rightarrow \text{very short, undetectable}$ 

- Experimental evidence (Davisson and Germer, 1927)
  - Diffraction of electrons by crystal surfaces
  - Diffraction patterns are consistent with the wavelength predicted by de Broglie's relation
- The electron can be treated as a wave with a very short wavelength (similar to the wavelength of x-rays)
- The electron confined in the **H** atom can be treated as a **standing wave** having discrete frequencies (energies) like a guitar string



• Heisenberg's uncertainty principle (1927) – the exact position and momentum (velocity) of a particle can not be known simultaneously

### $\Delta x \cdot \Delta p \geq h/4\pi$

 $\Delta x$  and  $\Delta p = m\Delta u$  – uncertainty in position and momentum, respectively

- A consequence of the wave-particle duality of matter
- The exact location of very small particles is not well known due to their wave-like properties
- The probability to find a particle at a particular location depends on the amplitude (intensity) of the wave at this location

# 7.4 The Quantum-Mechanical Model of the Atom

- Bohr's model of the **H** atom
  - Assumes the quantization without explanation
  - Does not take into account Heisenberg's uncertainty principle
  - Limited success only for the  ${\bf H}$  atom
- Schrödinger's model
  - Based on the wave-particle duality of the electron
  - The quantization is logically derived from the wave properties of the electron
  - Formalism applicable to other atoms

# **Atomic Orbitals**

#### The Schrödinger equation

- The electron wave is described by a wavefunction
   (Ψ) a mathematical function of the wave's amplitude at different points (x, y, z) in space
- The equation provides solutions for the possible wavefunctions and energies of the electron
- Only certain solutions for the energy are allowed (waves fit in the atom only for certain energy values)

$$-\frac{\hbar}{2m}\left(\frac{\partial^2\Psi}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2\Psi}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2\Psi}{\partial z^2}\right)+V\Psi = E\Psi$$

- The solutions for the wavefunction,  $\Psi$ , in the H atom are called **atomic orbitals**
- Born's interpretation of the wavefunction the probability to find the electron at a certain point (x, y, z) in space is proportional to the square of the wave function, Ψ<sup>2</sup>, in this point
- Electron density diagrams three-dimensional plots of the probability to find the electron  $(\Psi^2)$  around the nucleus  $\rightarrow$  electron clouds
- **Contour diagrams** surround the densest regions of the electron cloud usually 90% of the total probability → 90% **probability contour**



# **Quantum Numbers**

• Solutions of the Schrödinger equation for the wavefunction of the electron in the **H** atom:

Atomic orbitals  $\rightarrow \Psi_{n,l,m_l}$ 

- Depend on three quantum numbers used as labels of each solution  $(n, l, m_l)$ 

• **Principal quantum number** (n) – specifies the energy  $(E_n)$  of the electron occupying the orbital and the average distance (r) of the electron from the nucleus (size of the orbital)

 $\uparrow n \Rightarrow \uparrow E_n \qquad \uparrow n \Rightarrow \uparrow r$ 

Angular momentum quantum number (l) – specifies the shape of the orbital
Magnetic quantum number (m<sub>l</sub>) – specifies the orientation of the orbital
A set of three quantum numbers (n, l, m<sub>l</sub>) unambiguously specifies an orbital (Ψn,l,m<sub>l</sub>)
Possible values of the quantum numbers: n = 1, 2, 3, ..., ∞ l = 0, 1, 2, ..., n-1 (restricted by n) m<sub>l</sub> = -l, ..., -1, 0, 1, ..., l (restricted by l)
Ψ<sub>3,2,-1</sub> (possible) Ψ<sub>2,2,2</sub> and Ψ<sub>3,0,1</sub> (impossible)



• All orbitals with the same value of <i>n</i> form a <b>principal level (shell)</b>
• All orbitals with the same value of <i>l</i> form a <b>sublevel (subshell)</b> within a principal shell
<ul> <li>Subshells are labeled with the value of <i>n</i> followed by a letter corresponding to the value of <i>l</i></li> </ul>
$l=0 \rightarrow s, l=1 \rightarrow p, l=2 \rightarrow d, l=3 \rightarrow f, l=4 \rightarrow g,$
- Each value of $m_i$ specifies an <b>orbital</b> in a subshell
<b>Example:</b> Label the subshell containing the orbital $\Psi_{3,2,1}$
$n=3$ $l=2 \rightarrow d \Rightarrow 3d$ -subshell

<b>Example:</b> What is the $\#$ of orbitals in the $4f$ subshell? Give the $m_l$ values of these orbitals.
$4f \rightarrow n=4, l=3 \rightarrow 2l+1=7$ orbitals
$l=3 \rightarrow m_l=-3, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, +3$
• Solutions of the Schrödinger equation for the
energy of the electron in the H atom:
$E_n = -\frac{B}{n^2}$ $n = 1, 2, 3,$
$\Rightarrow$ The energy levels of <b>H</b> depend only on the
principal quantum number, <i>n</i>
- Same as Bohr's energy levels ( $B = 2.18 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$ )
$-E_n$ increases with increasing <i>n</i>

## **Shapes of Orbitals**

### • *s*-Orbitals $\rightarrow l = 0$

- Spherical shape
- The electron density is highest at the nucleus (density decreases away from the nucleus)
- The radial distribution has a maximum slightly away from the nucleus
- The orbital size increases with increasing the energy of the orbital (1s < 2s < 3s ...)
- Higher energy orbitals have several **maxima** in the radial distribution and one or more spherical **nodes** (regions with zero probability to find the electron)  $2s \rightarrow 2$  max, 1 node;  $3s \rightarrow 3$  max, 2 nodes...



# • *p*-Orbitals $\rightarrow l = 1$

- Dumbbell-shaped (two-lobed)
- Positive sign of  $\Psi$  in one of the lobes of the orbital and negative in the other lobe
- Nodal plane going through the nucleus (surface with zero probability to find the electron)
- Three possible orientations in space:

$$m_l = -1, 0, +1 \rightarrow p_x, p_y, p_y$$

- -*p*-orbitals are possible only in the 2<sup>nd</sup> and higher principal shells
- The orbital size increases with increasing the energy of the orbital  $(2p < 3p < 4p \dots)$

### • *d*-Orbitals $\rightarrow l = 2$

- Cloverleaf-shaped (four-lobed, except  $d_{z^2}$ )
- Opposite signs of  $\Psi$  in the lobes laying beside each other
- Two perpendicular nodal planes going through the nucleus
- Five possible orientations in space:

 $m_l = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 \rightarrow d_{z^2}, d_{x^2-y^2}, d_{xy}, d_{zx}, d_{yz}$ 

- -d-orbitals are possible only in the 3<sup>rd</sup> and higher principal shells
- The orbital size increases with increasing the energy of the orbital (3*d* < 4*d* < 5*d* ...)





