
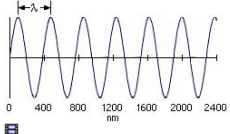


1

## Electromagnetic Radiation

- Most subatomic particles behave as **PARTICLES** and obey the physics of waves.





←


Syllabus Learning Outcomes : 12

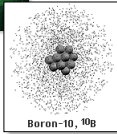
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## ATOMIC STRUCTURE





→




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## ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION

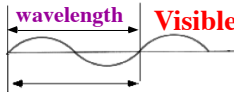
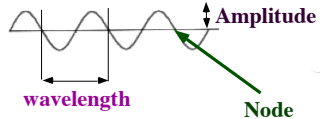
→



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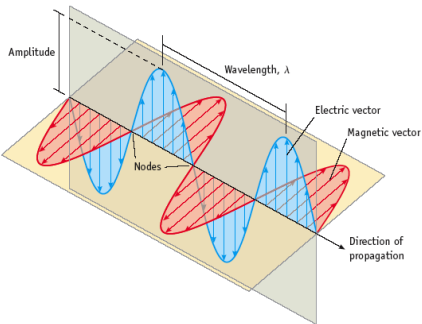
## Electromagnetic Radiation

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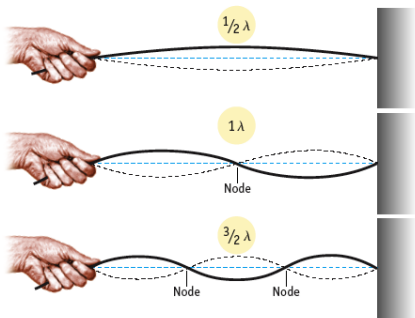
5

## Electromagnetic Radiation



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Wave motion: wave length and nodes

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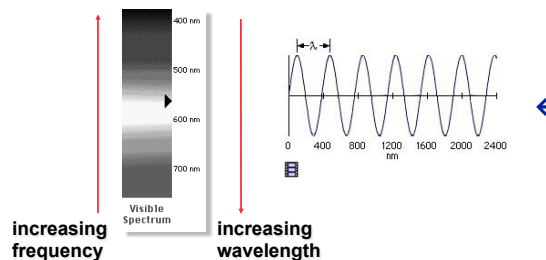
## Electromagnetic Radiation

- Waves have a frequency
- Use Greek letter “nu”,  $\nu$ , for frequency, and units are “cycles per sec” or hertz
- All radiation:  $\lambda \cdot \nu = c$
- $c$  = velocity of light =  $3.00 \times 10^8$  m/sec
- Long wavelength --> low frequency
- Short wavelength --> high frequency

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## Electromagnetic Radiation

Long wavelength --> low frequency  
Short wavelength --> high frequency



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## Electromagnetic Radiation

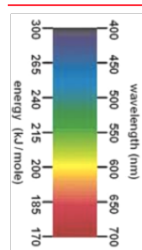
Red light has  $\lambda = 700$  nm. Calculate the frequency.

$$700 \text{ nm} \cdot \frac{1 \times 10^{-9} \text{ m}}{1 \text{ nm}} = 7.00 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$$

$$\text{Freq} = \frac{3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s}}{7.00 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}} = 4.29 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}$$

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## Electromagnetic Radiation

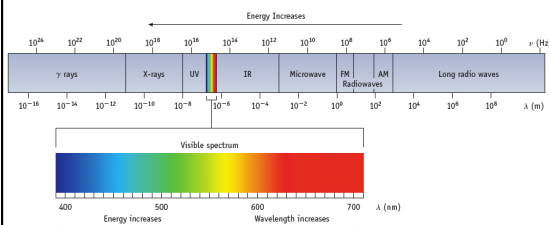


Short wavelength -->  
high frequency  
high energy

Long wavelength -->  
low frequency  
low energy

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## Electromagnetic Spectrum

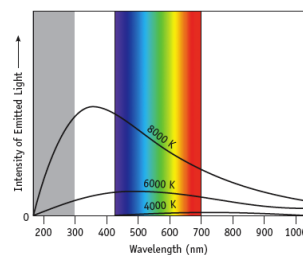
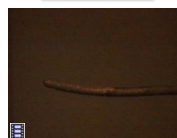


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## Quantization of Energy

Max Planck (1858-1947)  
Solved the “ultraviolet catastrophe”

In the UV,  
intensity drops



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### Quantization of Energy

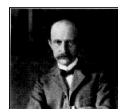
An object can gain or lose energy by absorbing or emitting radiant energy in **QUANTA**.

Energy of radiation is proportional to frequency

$$E_{\text{photon}} = h \cdot \nu$$

$h$  = Planck's constant =  $6.6262 \times 10^{-34}$  J·s

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### Quantization of Energy

$$E_{\text{photon}} = h \cdot \nu$$

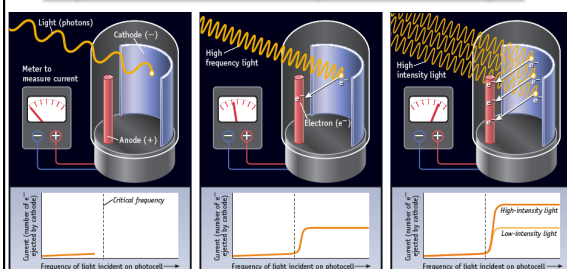
Light with long  $\lambda$  (low  $\nu$ ) has a low  $E$ .

Light with a short  $\lambda$  (high  $\nu$ ) has a high  $E$ .

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### Photoelectric Effect

Experiment demonstrates the particle nature of light.



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### Photoelectric Effect

Classical theory said that  $E$  of ejected electron should increase with increase in light intensity—not observed!

- No  $e^-$  observed until light of a certain minimum  $E$  is used.
- Number of  $e^-$  ejected depends on light intensity.



A. Einstein  
(1879-1955)

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### Photoelectric Effect

Understand experimental observations if light consists of particles called **PHOTONS** of discrete energy.

**PROBLEM:** Calculate the energy of 1.00 mol of photons of red light.

$$\lambda = 700. \text{ nm}$$

$$\nu = 4.29 \times 10^{14} \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

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### Energy of Radiation

Energy of 1.00 mol of photons of **red light**.

$$E = h \cdot \nu$$

$$= (6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})(4.29 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1})$$

$$= 2.85 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J per photon}$$

$$E \text{ per mol} =$$

$$(2.85 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J/ph})(6.02 \times 10^{23} \text{ ph/mol})$$

$$= 171.6 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

**This is in the range of energies that can break bonds.**

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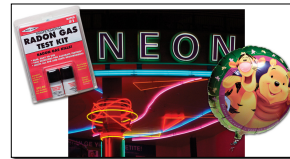
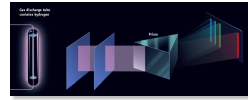
## Explain QT

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Excited Atoms  
& Atomic Structure

20



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Atomic Line Emission  
Spectra and Niels Bohr

21



Niels Bohr  
(1885-1962)

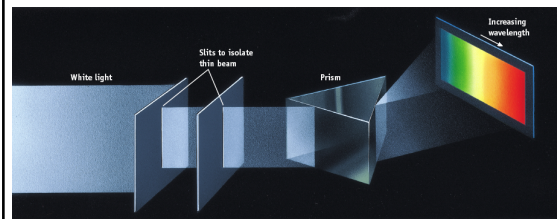
Bohr's greatest contribution to science was in building a simple model of the atom. It was based on an understanding of the **SHARP LINE EMISSION SPECTRA** of excited atoms.



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## Spectrum of White Light

22

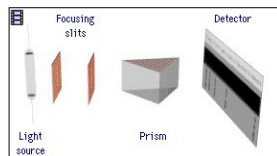


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Line Emission Spectra  
of Excited Atoms

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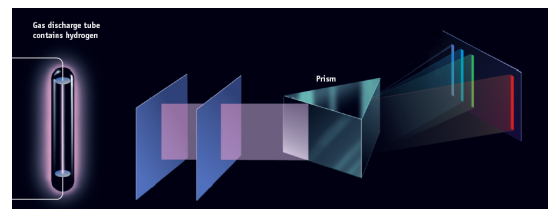
- Excited atoms emit light of only certain wavelengths
- The wavelengths of emitted light depend on the element.



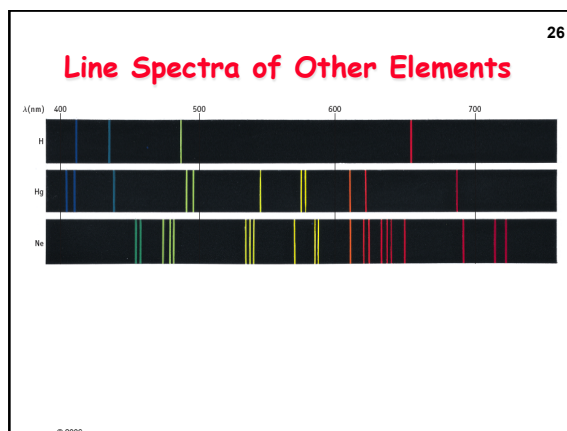
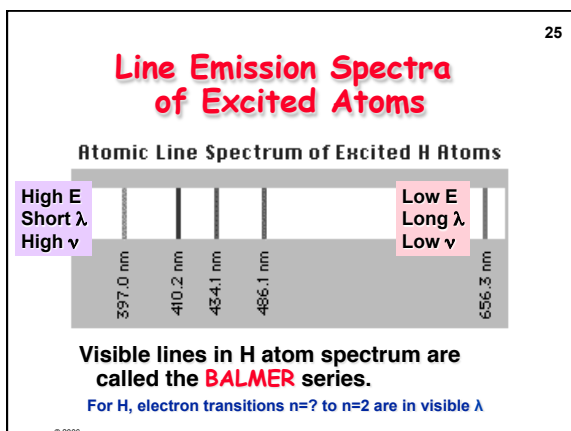
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Spectrum of  
Excited Hydrogen Gas

24



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### The Electric Pickle

→

- Excited atoms can emit light.
- Here the solution in a pickle is excited electrically. The  $\text{Na}^+$  ions in the pickle juice give off light characteristic of that element.

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### Atomic Spectra and Bohr

One view of atomic structure in early 20th century was that an electron ( $e^-$ ) traveled about the nucleus in an orbit.

- Any orbit should be possible and so is any energy.
- But a charged particle moving in an electric field should emit energy.

End result should be destruction!

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### Atomic Spectra and Bohr

Bohr said classical view is wrong.  
Need a new theory — now called **QUANTUM** or **WAVE MECHANICS**.  
 $e^-$  can only exist in certain discrete orbits — called **stationary states**.  
 $e^-$  is restricted to **QUANTIZED** energy states.

**Energy of state =  $-C/n^2$**   
where  $n$  = quantum no. = 1, 2, 3, 4, ....

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### Atomic Spectra and Bohr

**Energy of quantized state =  $-B/n^2$**

- Only orbits where  $n$  = integral no. are permitted.
- Radius of allowed orbitals =  $n^2 \cdot (0.0529 \text{ nm})$
- But note — **same eqns. come from modern wave mechanics approach.**
- Results can be used to explain atomic spectra of hydrogen.

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### Atomic Spectra and Bohr

If  $e^-$ 's are in quantized energy states, then  $\Delta E$  of states can have only certain values. This explains sharp line spectra.

$$E = -\frac{C}{2^2} \quad n=2$$

$$E = -\frac{C}{1^2} \quad n=1$$

$C = Rhc = 1312 \text{ kJ/mol}$

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### Energy Absorption/Emission

Ground state  $n=1$  → Excited state  $n=2$  → Ground state  $n=1$

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### Atomic Spectra and Bohr

$E = -C(1/2^2) \quad n=2$   
 $E = -C(1/1^2) \quad n=1$

Calculate  $\Delta E$  for  $e^-$  "falling" from high energy level ( $n=2$ ) to low energy level ( $n=1$ ).

$$\Delta E = E_{\text{final}} - E_{\text{initial}} = -C[(1/1^2) - (1/2^2)]$$

$\Delta E = -(3/4)C$

Note that the process is **EXOTHERMIC**

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### Atomic Spectra and Bohr

$E = -C(1/2^2) \quad n=2$   
 $E = -C(1/1^2) \quad n=1$

$\Delta E = -(3/4)C$   $E = h\nu$

$C$  has been found from experiment (and is now called **R**, the **Rydberg constant**)

$R (= C) = 1312 \text{ kJ/mol}$  or  $3.29 \times 10^{15} \text{ cycles/sec}$

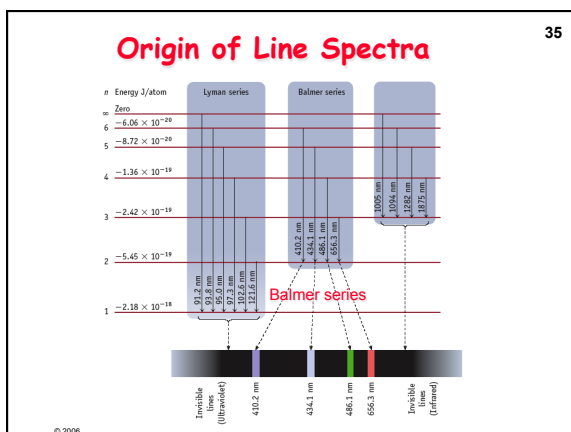
so,  $E$  of emitted light

$$= (3/4)R = 2.47 \times 10^{15} \text{ sec}^{-1}$$

and  $\lambda = c/\nu = \mathbf{121.6 \text{ nm}}$

**This is exactly in agreement with experiment!**

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### Atomic Line Spectra and Niels Bohr

**Niels Bohr**  
(1885-1962)

Bohr's theory was a great accomplishment.

Rec'd Nobel Prize, 1922


Problems with theory —

- theory only successful for H.
- introduced quantum idea artificially.
- So, we go on to **QUANTUM** or **WAVE MECHANICS**

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## Quantum or Wave Mechanics



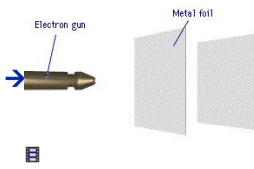
L. de Broglie  
(1892-1987)

de Broglie (1924) proposed that all moving objects have wave properties.  
For light:  $E = mc^2$   
 $E = h\nu = hc / \lambda$   
Therefore,  $\lambda = h / mc$   
and for particles,  $\lambda = h / mv$

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## Quantum or Wave Mechanics



Electron gun      Metal foil

115g baseball (0.115kg) at 100 mph  
 $\lambda = 1.3 \times 10^{-32} \text{ cm}$

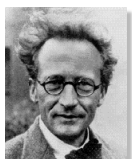
e- with velocity =  $1.9 \times 10^8 \text{ cm/sec}$   
 $\lambda = 0.388 \text{ nm}$

Experimental proof of wave properties of electrons

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## Quantum or Wave Mechanics



E. Schrodinger  
1887-1961

Schrodinger applied idea of e- behaving as a wave to the problem of electrons in atoms.  
He developed the **WAVE EQUATION**  
Solution gives set of math expressions called **WAVE FUNCTIONS,  $\Psi$**   
Each describes an allowed energy state of an e-  
**Quantization introduced naturally.**

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## WAVE FUNCTIONS, $\Psi$

- $\Psi$  is a function of distance and two angles ( $n, \ell, m_\ell$ ).
- Each  $\Psi$  corresponds to an **ORBITAL** — the region of space within which an electron is found.
- $\Psi$  does NOT describe the exact location of the electron.
- $\Psi^2$  is proportional to the probability of finding an e- at a given point.

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## Uncertainty Principle



W. Heisenberg  
1901-1976

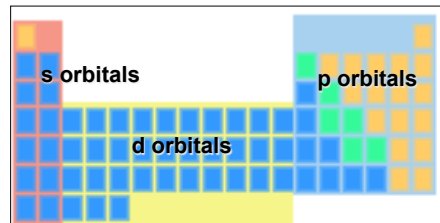
Problem of defining nature of electrons in atoms solved by W. Heisenberg.  
Cannot simultaneously define the position and momentum ( $= m \cdot v$ ) of an electron.  
We define e- energy exactly but accept limitation that we do not know exact position.

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## Orbitals

- No more than 2 e- assigned to an orbital
- Orbitals grouped in s, p, d (and f) subshells

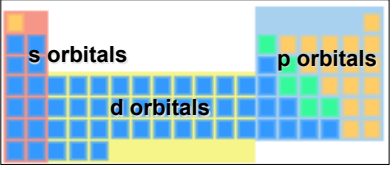


s orbitals      p orbitals      d orbitals

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	s orbitals	p orbitals	d orbitals
# orbitals	1	3	5
# e-	2	6	10

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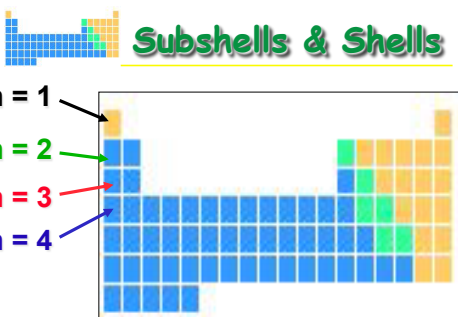
### Subshells & Shells

- Subshells grouped in shells.
- Each shell has a number called the **PRINCIPAL QUANTUM NUMBER,  $n$**
- The principal quantum number of the shell is the number of the period or row of the periodic table where that shell begins.

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### Subshells & Shells



$n = 1$   
 $n = 2$   
 $n = 3$   
 $n = 4$

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### QUANTUM NUMBERS

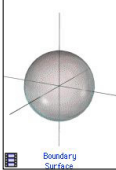
The **shape, size, and energy** of each orbital is a function of 3 quantum numbers:

**$n$  (major)** ---> shell (1,2,3,4,5,6,7,...)  
 **$\ell$  (angular momentum)** ---> subshell (shape)  
 **$m_\ell$  (magnetic)** ---> designates an orbital within a subshell (orientation)

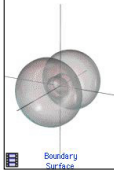
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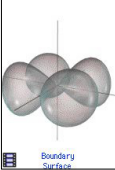
### $\ell$ gives shape of orbital



**s orbital**  
 $\ell=0$



**p orbital**  
 $\ell=1$



**d orbital**  
 $\ell=2$

←

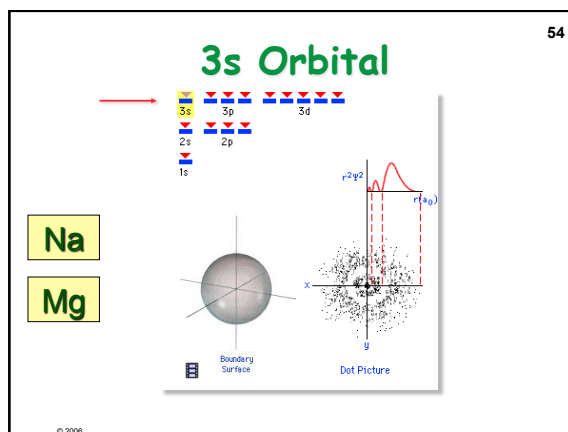
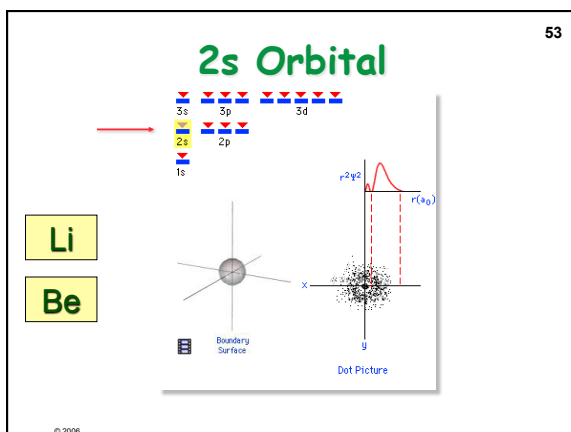
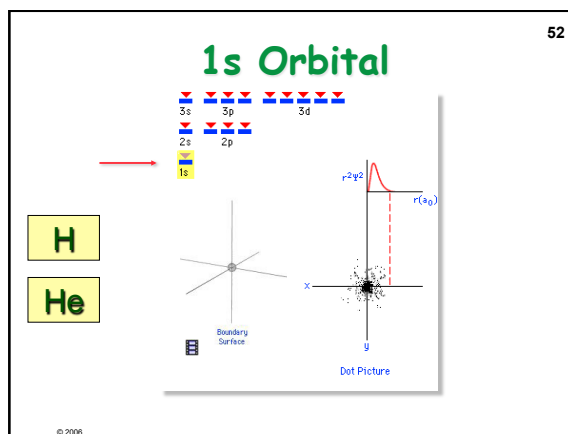
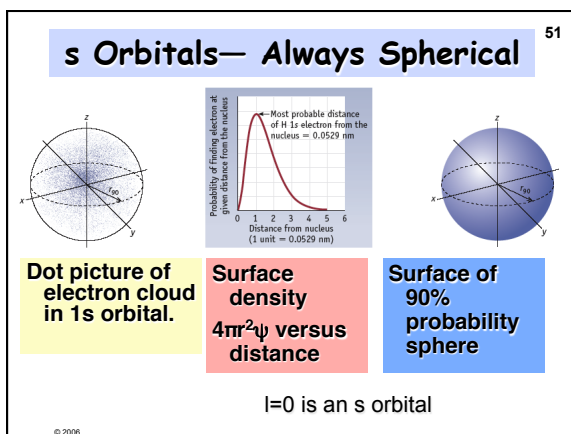
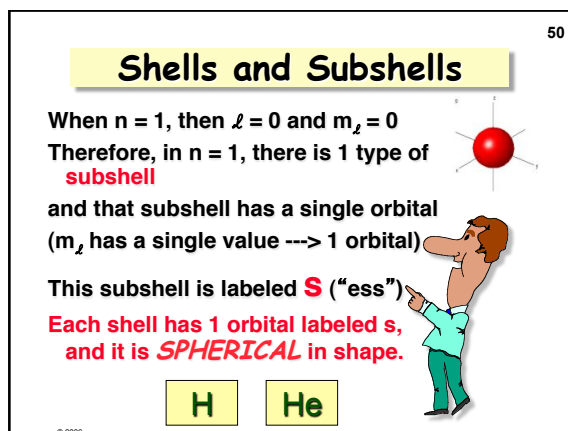
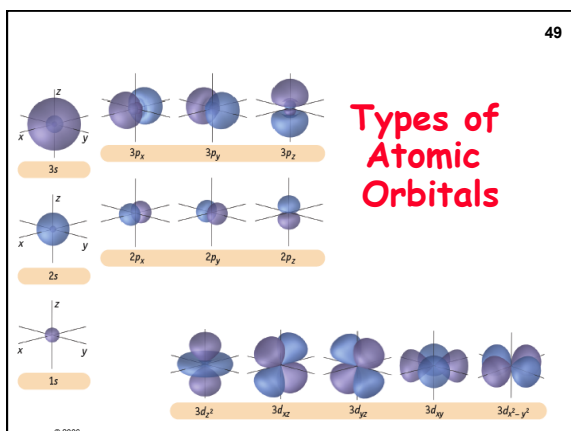
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QUANTUM NUMBERS		
Symbol	Allowed values	Description
$n$ (major)	1, 2, 3, ..	Orbital size and energy where $E = -B/n^2$
$\ell$ (angular)	0, 1, 2, .. $n-1$	Orbital shape or type (subshell)
$m_\ell$ (magnetic)	$-\ell..0..+\ell$	Orbital orientation # of orbitals in subshell = $2\ell + 1$

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### p Orbitals

When  $n = 2$ , then  $\ell = 0$  and 1  
Therefore, in  $n = 2$  shell there are 2 types of orbitals — 2 subshells

For  $\ell = 0$   $m_\ell = 0$   
this is an s subshell (2s)

For  $\ell = 1$   $m_\ell = -1, 0, +1$   
this is a **p subshell (2p)** with **3 orbitals**

Typical p orbital

planar node

When  $\ell = 1$ , there is a **PLANAR NODE** thru the nucleus.

Ne

Li Be B C N O F

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### p Orbitals

The three p orbitals lie  $90^\circ$  apart in space

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### 2p<sub>x</sub> Orbital

### 3p<sub>x</sub> Orbital

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### d Orbitals

When  $n = 3$ , what are the values of  $\ell$ ?  
 $\ell = 0, 1, 2$   
and so there are 3 subshells in the shell.

For  $\ell = 0$ ,  $m_\ell = 0$   
---> s subshell with single orbital

For  $\ell = 1$ ,  $m_\ell = -1, 0, +1$   
---> p subshell with 3 orbitals

For  $\ell = 2$ ,  $m_\ell = -2, -1, 0, +1, +2$   
---> **d subshell with 5 orbitals**

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### d Orbitals

s orbitals have no planar node ( $\ell = 0$ ) and so are spherical.

p orbitals have  $\ell = 1$ , and have 1 planar node, and so are “dumbbell” shaped.

This means d orbitals (with  $\ell = 2$ ) have 2 planar nodes

typical d orbital

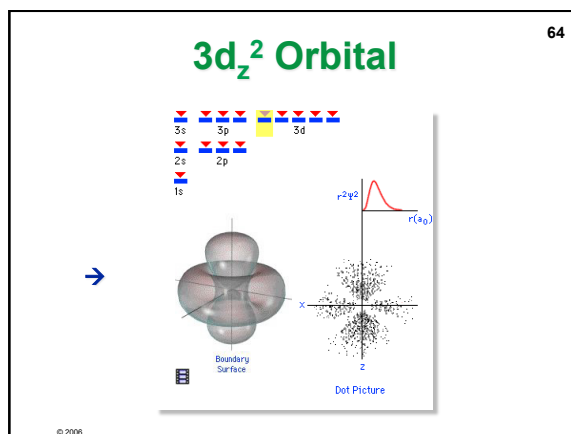
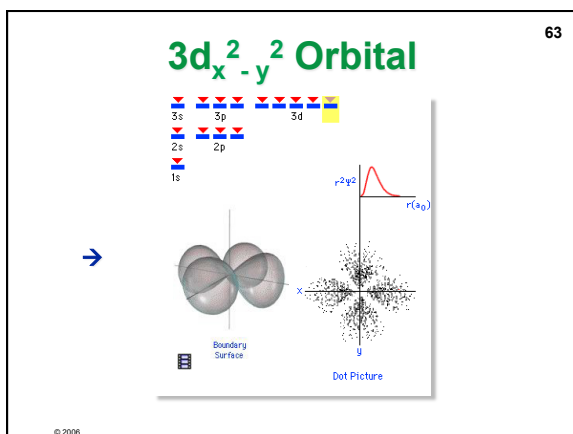
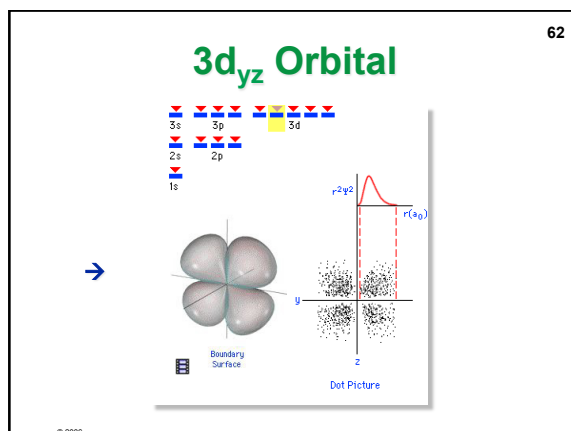
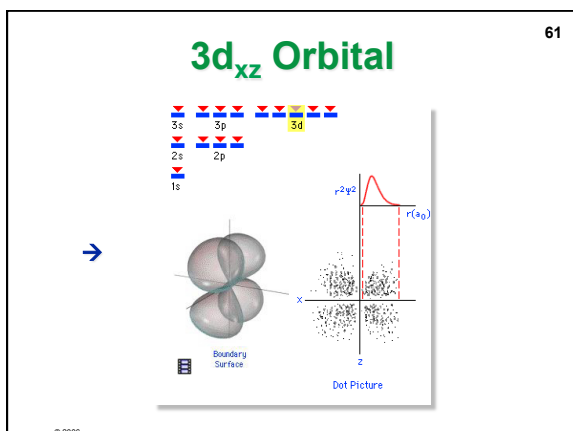
planar node

planar node

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### 3d<sub>xy</sub> Orbital

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**f Orbitals**

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When  $n = 4$ ,  $\ell = 0, 1, 2, 3$  so there are 4 subshells in the shell.

For  $\ell = 0$ ,  $m_\ell = 0$   
 ---> s subshell with single orbital

For  $\ell = 1$ ,  $m_\ell = -1, 0, +1$   
 ---> p subshell with 3 orbitals

For  $\ell = 2$ ,  $m_\ell = -2, -1, 0, +1, +2$   
 ---> d subshell with 5 orbitals

For  $\ell = 3$ ,  $m_\ell = -3, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, +3$   
 ---> f subshell with 7 orbitals

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**f — Orbitals**

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One of 7 possible f orbitals.  
 All have 3 planar surfaces.  
 Can you find the 3 surfaces here?

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