



Atomic Structure and Periodicity

Different Colored Fireworks





Questions to Consider

- Why do we get colors?
- Why do different chemicals give us different colors?



Electromagnetic Radiation

- One of the ways that energy travels through space.
- Three characteristics:
 - Wavelength
 - Frequency
 - Speed

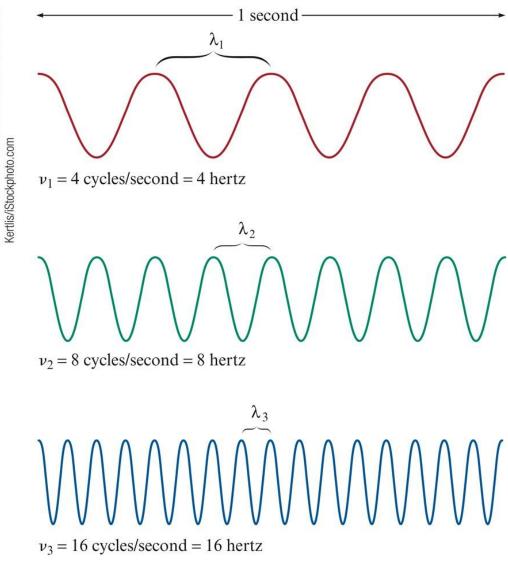


Characteristics

- Wavelength (λ) distance between two consecutive peaks or troughs in a wave.
- Frequency (v) number of waves (cycles) per second that pass a given point in space
- Speed (c) speed of light (2.9979 × 10⁸ m/s)

$$\boldsymbol{C} = \lambda \boldsymbol{V}$$

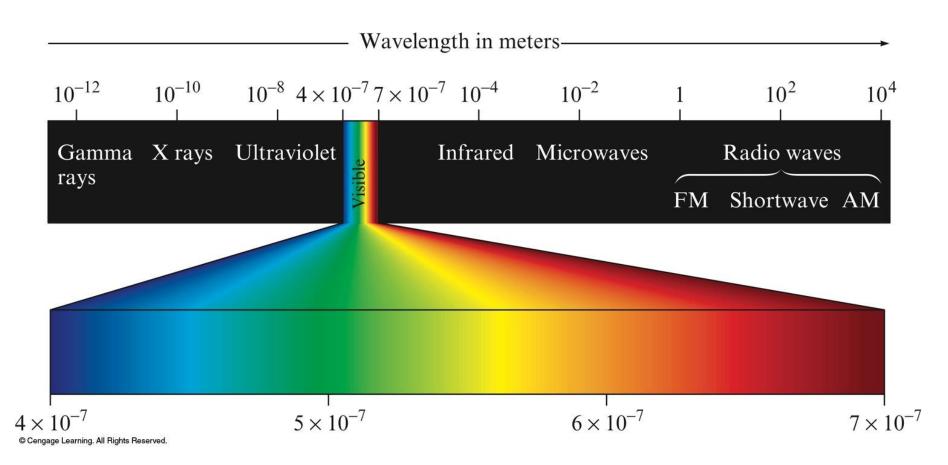




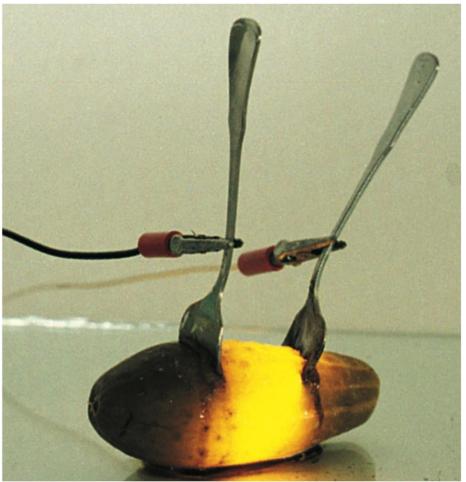
The Nature of Waves



Classification of Electromagnetic Radiation



Pickle Light



Donald W. Clegg





- Energy can be gained or lost only in whole number multiples of *hv*.
- A system can transfer energy only in whole quanta (or "packets").
- Energy seems to have particulate properties too.



- Energy is quantized.
- Electromagnetic radiation is a stream of "particles" called photons.

$$E_{\rm photon} = hv = \frac{hc}{\lambda}$$

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



The Photoelectric effect



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- Energy has mass $E = mc^2$
- Dual nature of light:
 - Electromagnetic radiation (and all matter) exhibits wave properties and particulate properties.





- Continuous spectrum (results when white light is passed through a prism) – contains all the wavelengths of visible light
- Line spectrum each line corresponds to a discrete wavelength:
 - Hydrogen emission spectrum

Refraction of White Light



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The Line Spectrum of Hydrogen



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Significance

- Only certain energies are allowed for the electron in the hydrogen atom.
- Energy of the electron in the hydrogen atom is quantized.



CONCEPT CHECK!

Why is it significant that the color emitted from the hydrogen emission spectrum is not white?

How does the emission spectrum support the idea of quantized energy levels?



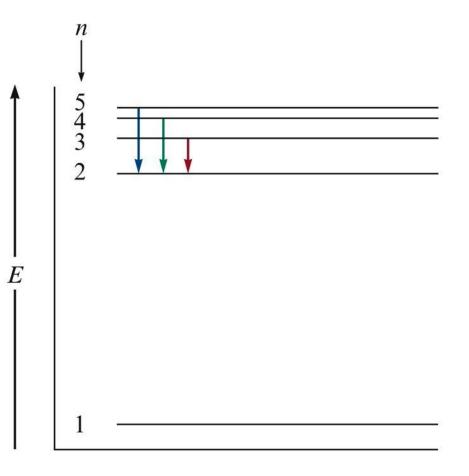


- Electron in a hydrogen atom moves around the nucleus only in certain allowed circular orbits.
- Bohr's model gave hydrogen atom energy levels consistent with the hydrogen emission spectrum.
- Ground state lowest possible energy state (n = 1)

Section 7.4 *The Bohr Model*

Electronic Transitions in the Bohr Model for the Hydrogen Atom

a) An Energy-Level Diagram for Electronic Transitions





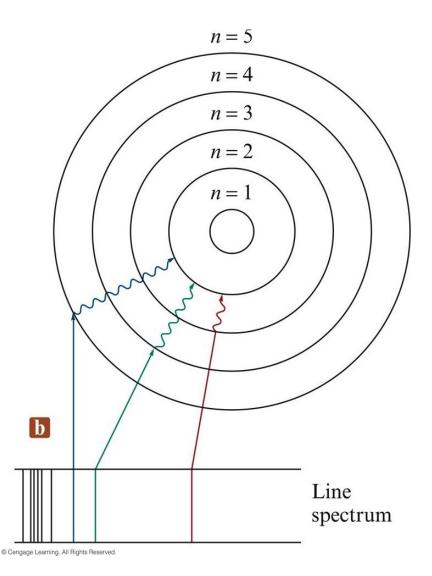
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Section 7.4 *The Bohr Model*



Electronic Transitions in the Bohr Model for the Hydrogen Atom

b) An Orbit-Transition Diagram,Which Accounts for theExperimental Spectrum







For a single electron transition from one energy level to another:

$$\Delta E = -2.178 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J} \left(\frac{1}{n_{\text{final}}^2} - \frac{1}{n_{\text{initial}}^2} \right)$$

 ΔE = change in energy of the atom (energy of the emitted photon)

 n_{final} = integer; final distance from the nucleus

 n_{initial} = integer; initial distance from the nucleus



- The model correctly fits the quantized energy levels of the hydrogen atom and postulates only certain allowed circular orbits for the electron.
- As the electron becomes more tightly bound, its energy becomes more negative relative to the zero-energy reference state (free electron). As the electron is brought closer to the nucleus, energy is released from the system.

Section 7.4 *The Bohr Model*



- Bohr's model is incorrect. This model only works for hydrogen.
- Electrons move around the nucleus in circular orbits.

Section 7.4 *The Bohr Model*



EXERCISE!

What color of light is emitted when an excited electron in the hydrogen atom falls from:

b)
$$n = 4$$
 to $n = 2$

c) n = 3 to n = 2

blue, λ = 434 nm

green,
$$\lambda$$
 = 486 nm

orange/red, $\lambda = 657$ nm

Which transition results in the longest wavelength of light?

- We do not know the detailed pathway of an electron.
- Heisenberg uncertainty principle:
 - There is a fundamental limitation to just how precisely we can know both the position and momentum of a particle at a given time.

$$\Delta x \cdot \Delta(mv) \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

 Δx = uncertainty in a particle's position $\Delta(mv)$ = uncertainty in a particle's momentum h = Planck's constant

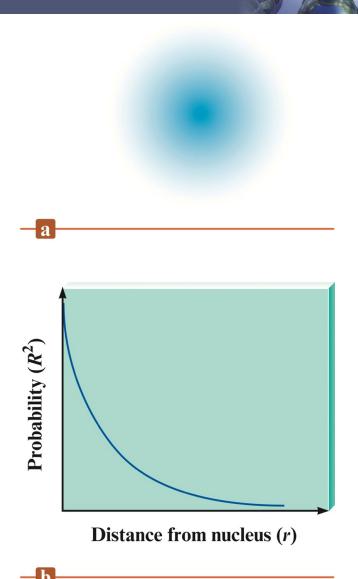


Physical Meaning of a Wave Function (Ψ)

- The square of the function indicates the probability of finding an electron near a particular point in space.
 - Probability distribution intensity of color is used to indicate the probability value near a given point in space.

Section 7.5 *The Quantum Mechanical Model of the Atom*

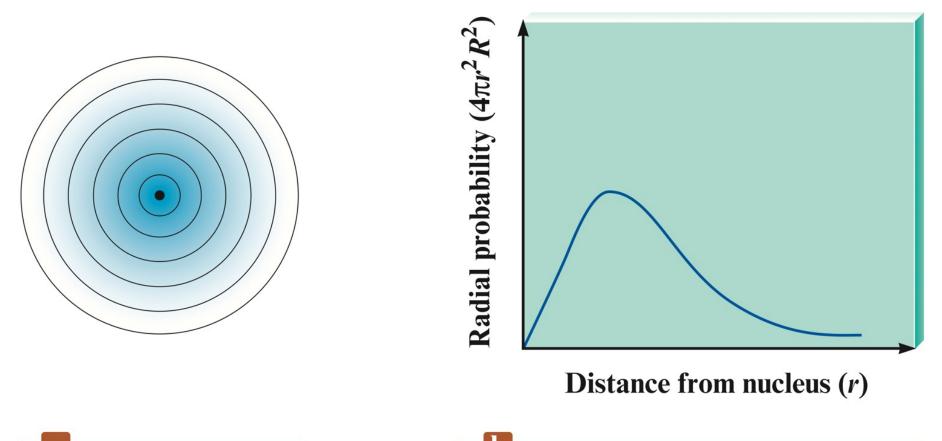
Probability Distribution for the 1*s* Wave Function



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The Quantum Mechanical Model of the Atom

Radial Probability Distribution



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Section 7.5

The Quantum Mechanical Model of the Atom

Relative Orbital Size

Section 7.5

- Difficult to define precisely.
- Orbital is a wave function.
- Picture an orbital as a three-dimensional electron density map.
- Hydrogen 1s orbital:
 - Radius of the sphere that encloses 90% of the total electron probability.



- Principal quantum number (n) size and energy of the orbital.
- Angular momentum quantum number (/) shape of atomic orbitals (sometimes called a subshell).
- Magnetic quantum number (m) orientation of the orbital in space relative to the other orbitals in the atom.

Section 7.6 *Quantum Numbers*



Quantum Numbers for the First Four Levels of Orbitals in the Hydrogen Atom

 Table 7.2
 Quantum Numbers for the First Four Levels of Orbitals in the Hydrogen Atom

n	ℓ	Sublevel Designation	m_ℓ	Number of Orbitals
1	0	1 s	0	1
2	0	2 <i>s</i>	0	1
	1	2 <i>p</i>	-1, 0, +1	3
3	0	3s	0	1
	1	3р	-1, 0, 1	3
	2	3 <i>d</i>	-2, -1, 0, 1, 2	5
4	0	4 <i>s</i>	0	1
	1	4 <i>p</i>	-1, 0, 1	3
	2	4 <i>d</i>	-2, -1, 0, 1, 2	5
	3	4 <i>f</i>	-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3	7

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Section 7.6 *Quantum Numbers*





For principal quantum level n = 3, determine the number of allowed subshells (different values of l), and give the designation of each.

of allowed subshells = 3
/= 0, 3s
/= 1, 3p
/= 2, 3d

Section 7.6 *Quantum Numbers*





For l = 2, determine the magnetic quantum numbers (m_j) and the number of orbitals.

magnetic quantum numbers = -2, -1, 0, 1, 2 number of orbitals = 5

Section 7.7 Orbital Shapes and Energies

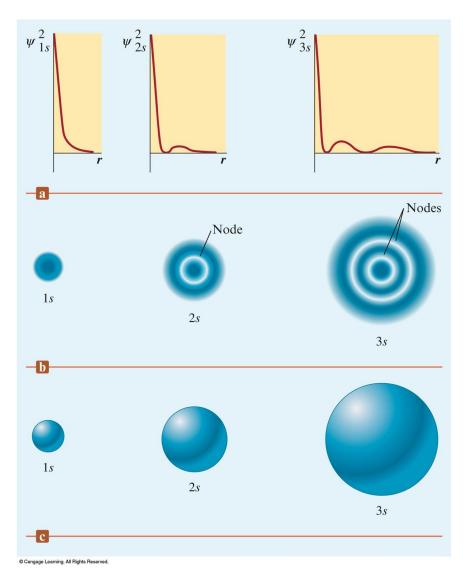


1s Orbital



To play movie you must be in Slide Show Mode PC Users: Please wait for content to load, then click to play Mac Users: <u>CLICK HERE</u> Section 7.7 *Orbital Shapes and Energies*

Three Representations of the Hydrogen 1*s*, 2*s*, and 3*s* Orbitals





Section 7.7 Orbital Shapes and Energies



2p_xOrbital



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2p_y Orbital



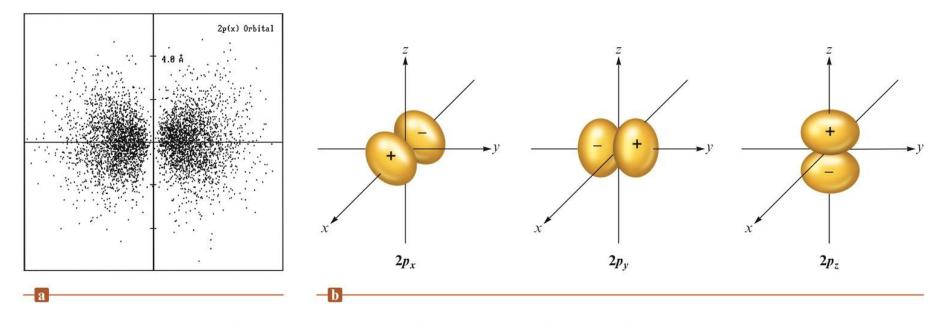


2p_z Orbital





The Boundary Surface Representations of All Three 2*p* Orbitals



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 $3d_{x-y}$ Orbital





$3d_{xy}$ Orbital





$3d_{xz}$ Orbital





$3d_{yz}$ Orbital



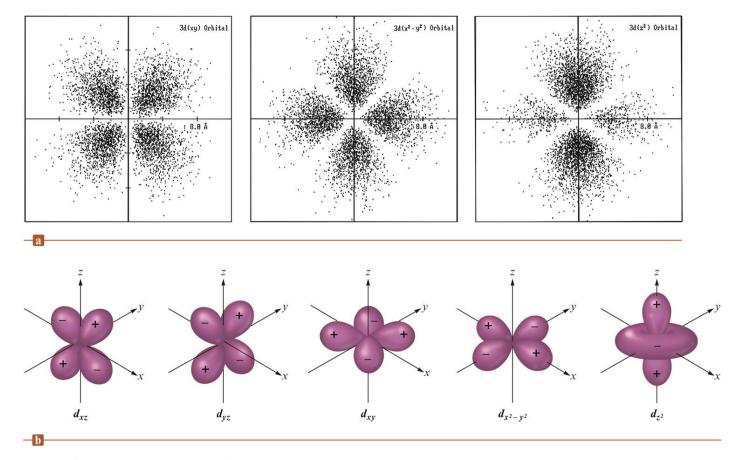


 $3d_z^2$





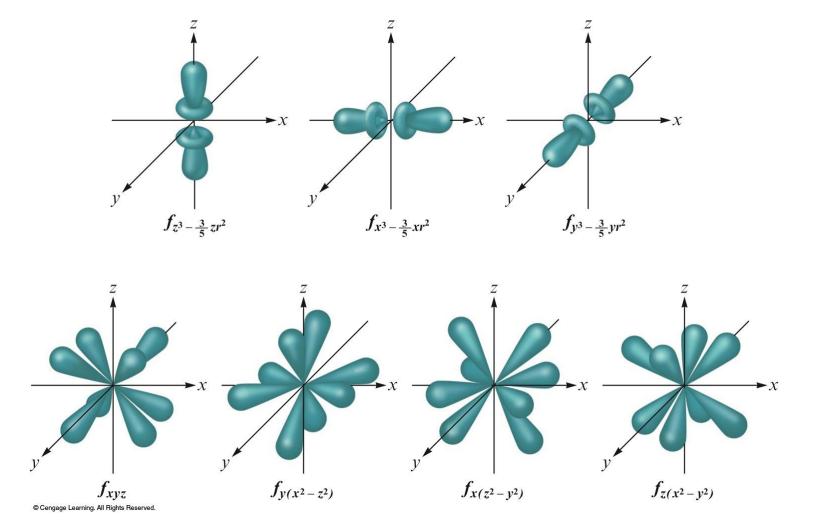
The Boundary Surfaces of All of the 3d Orbitals



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Representation of the 4fOrbitals in Terms of Their Boundary Surfaces



Section 7.8 *Electron Spin and the Pauli Principle*



Electron Spin

- Electron spin quantum number (m_s) can be +½ or -½.
- Pauli exclusion principle in a given atom no two electrons can have the same set of four quantum numbers.
- An orbital can hold only two electrons, and they must have opposite spins.



- Atoms with more than one electron.
- Electron correlation problem:
 - Since the electron pathways are unknown, the electron repulsions cannot be calculated exactly.
- When electrons are placed in a particular quantum level, they "prefer" the orbitals in the order s, p, d, and then f.



Penetration Effect

- A 2s electron penetrates to the nucleus more than one in the 2p orbital.
- This causes an electron in a 2s orbital to be attracted to the nucleus more strongly than an electron in a 2p orbital.
- Thus, the 2s orbital is lower in energy than the 2p orbitals in a polyelectronic atom.

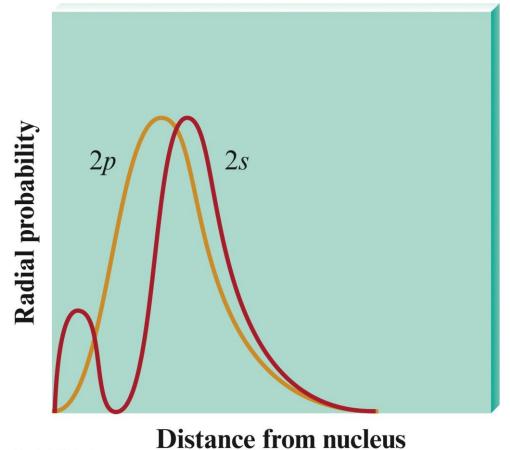
Orbital Energies





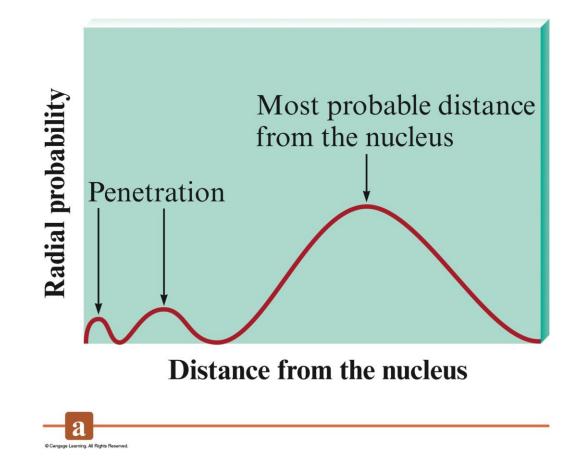


A Comparison of the Radial Probability Distributions of the 2*s* and 2*p* Orbitals



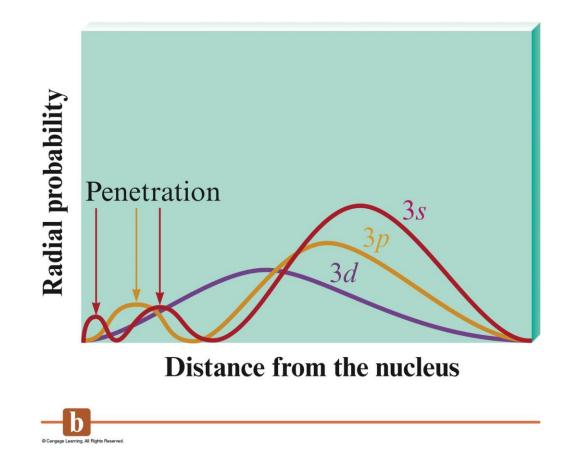


The Radial Probability Distribution of the 3*s* Orbital





A Comparison of the Radial Probability Distributions of the 3*s*, 3*p*, and 3*d* Orbitals



Section 7.10 *The History of the Periodic Table*

- Originally constructed to represent the patterns observed in the chemical properties of the elements.
- Mendeleev is given the most credit for the current version of the periodic table because he emphasized how useful the periodic table could be in predicting the existence and properties of still unknown elements.

Aufbau Principle

- As protons are added one by one to the nucleus to build up the elements, electrons are similarly added to hydrogen-like orbitals.
- An oxygen atom has an electron arrangement of two electrons in the 1s subshell, two electrons in the 2s subshell, and four electrons in the 2p subshell.

Oxygen: 1*s*²2*s*²2*p*⁴



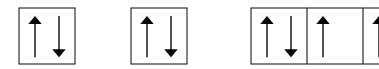
Hund's Rule

 The lowest energy configuration for an atom is the one having the maximum number of unpaired electrons allowed by the Pauli principle in a particular set of degenerate (same energy) orbitals.

Orbital Diagram

- A notation that shows how many electrons an atom has in each of its occupied electron orbitals.
 - Oxygen: 1*s*²2*s*²2*p*⁴

Oxygen: 1*s* 2*s* 2*p*



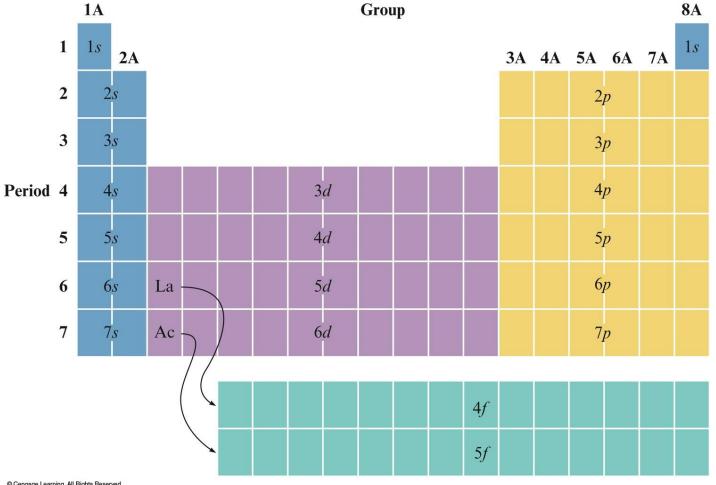
Valence Electrons

 The electrons in the outermost principal quantum level of an atom.

 $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$ (valence electrons = 8)

 The elements in the same group on the periodic table have the same valence electron configuration.

The Orbitals Being Filled for Elements in Various Parts of the Periodic Table





Determine the expected electron configurations for each of the following.

a) S $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^4$ or [Ne] $3s^2 3p^4$ b) Ba [Xe] $6s^2$ c) Eu [Xe] $6s^2 4f^7$

Periodic Trends

- Ionization Energy
- Electron Affinity
- Atomic Radius

Ionization Energy

- Energy required to remove an electron from a gaseous atom or ion.
 - $X(g) \rightarrow X^+(g) + e^-$

$$\begin{split} \mathsf{Mg} &\to \mathsf{Mg}^{+} + \mathrm{e}^{-} & \mathsf{I}_1 = 735 \; \mathsf{kJ/mol}(1^{\mathsf{st}} \, \mathsf{IE}) \\ \mathsf{Mg}^{+} &\to \mathsf{Mg}^{2+} + \mathrm{e}^{-} & \mathsf{I}_2 = 1445 \; \mathsf{kJ/mol} & (2^{\mathsf{nd}} \, \mathsf{IE}) \\ \mathsf{Mg}^{2+} &\to \mathsf{Mg}^{3+} + \mathrm{e}^{-} & \mathsf{I}_3 = 7730 \; \mathsf{kJ/mol} & ^*(3^{\mathsf{rd}} \, \mathsf{IE}) \end{split}$$

*Core electrons are bound much more tightly than valence electrons.



Ionization Energy

- In general, as we go across a period from left to right, the first ionization energy increases.
- Why?
 - Electrons added in the same principal quantum level do not completely shield the increasing nuclear charge caused by the added protons.
 - Electrons in the same principal quantum level are generally more strongly bound from left to right on the periodic table.

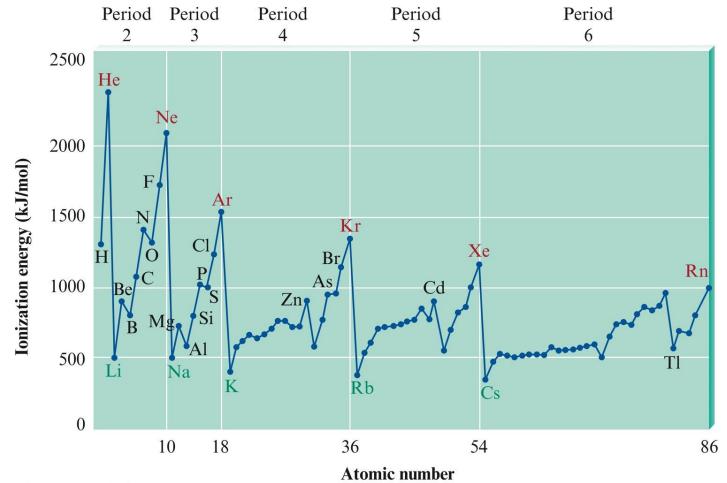


Ionization Energy

- In general, as we go down a group from top to bottom, the first ionization energy decreases.
- Why?
 - The electrons being removed are, on average, farther from the nucleus.



The Values of First Ionization Energy for the Elements in the First Six Periods





CONCEPT CHECK!

Explain why the graph of ionization energy versus atomic number (across a row) is not linear. electron repulsions Where are the exceptions? some include from Be to B and N to O



CONCEPT CHECK!

Which atom would require more energy to remove an electron? Why?

Na





CONCEPT CHECK!

Which atom would require more energy to remove an electron? Why?







Which has the larger second ionization energy? Why?

Lithium or Beryllium



Successive Ionization Energies (KJ per Mole) for the Elements in Period 3

	Element	<i>I</i> 1	I ₂	<i>I</i> ₃	<i>I</i> ₄	<i>I</i> ₅	I ₆	I ₇
— General decrease ——	Na Mg Al Si P S Cl Ar	495 735 580 780 1060 1005 1255 1527	4560 1445 1815 1575 1890 2260 2295 2665	7730 2740 3220 2905 3375 3850 3945	Core ele 11,600 4350 4950 4565 5160 5770	ectrons* <u>16,100</u> 6270 6950 6560 7230	21,200 8490 9360 8780	27,000 11,000 12,000

 Table 7.5
 Successive Ionization Energies (kJ/mol) for the Elements in Period 3

*Note the large jump in ionization energy in going from removal of valence electrons to removal of core electrons.

General increase -

Electron Affinity

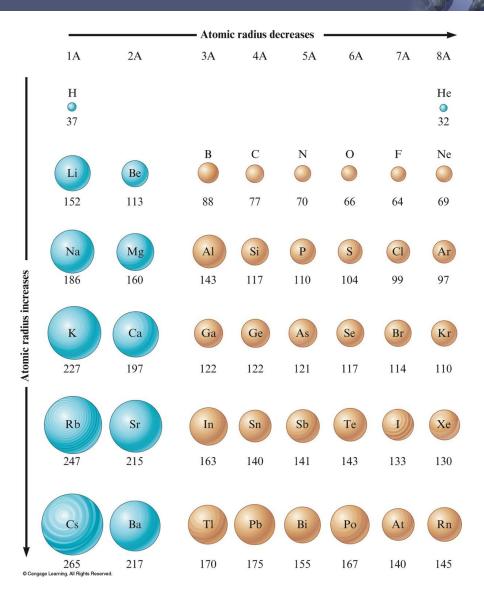
- Energy change associated with the addition of an electron to a gaseous atom.
 - $X(g) + e^- \rightarrow X^-(g)$
- In general as we go across a period from left to right, the electron affinities become more negative.
- In general electron affinity becomes more positive in going down a group.



Atomic Radius

- In general as we go across a period from left to right, the atomic radius decreases.
 - Effective nuclear charge increases, therefore the valence electrons are drawn closer to the nucleus, decreasing the size of the atom.
- In general atomic radius increases in going down a group.
 - Orbital sizes increase in successive principal quantum levels.

Atomic Radii for Selected Atoms





CONCEPT CHECK!

Which should be the larger atom? Why? Na Cl



CONCEPT CHECK!

Which should be the larger atom? Why? Li Cs

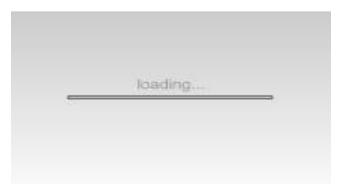
CONCEPT CHECK!

Which is larger?

- The hydrogen 1s orbital
- The lithium 1s orbital
- Which is lower in energy?
- The hydrogen 1s orbital

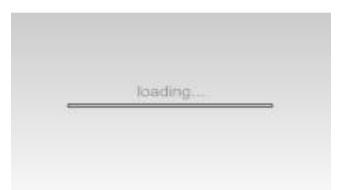
The lithium 1*s* orbital

Atomic Radius of a Metal



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Atomic Radius of a Nonmetal



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EXERCISE!

Arrange the elements oxygen, fluorine, and sulfur according to increasing:

Ionization energy

S, O, F

Atomic size

F, O, S

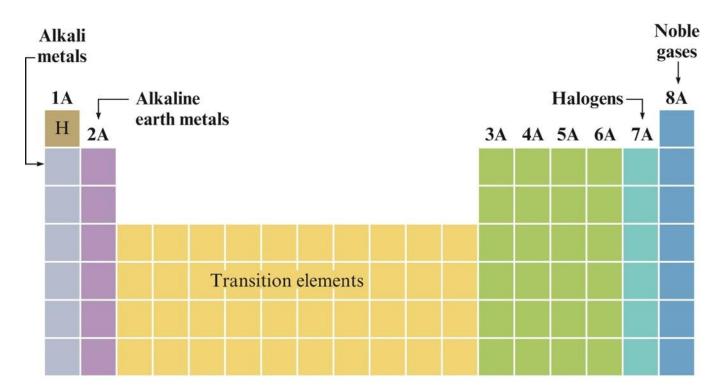


The Periodic Table – Final Thoughts

- 1. It is the number and type of valence electrons that primarily determine an atom's chemistry.
- 2. Electron configurations can be determined from the organization of the periodic table.
- 3. Certain groups in the periodic table have special names.

Section 7.13 *The Properties of a Group: The Alkali Metals*

Special Names for Groups in the Periodic Table



Lanthanides	
Actinides	

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Section 7.13 *The Properties of a Group: The Alkali Metals*

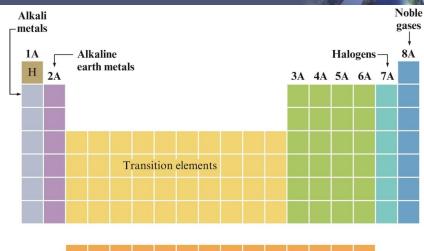


The Periodic Table – Final Thoughts

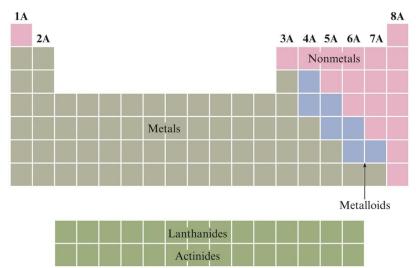
4. Basic division of the elements in the periodic table is into metals and nonmetals.

Section 7.13 <u>The Properties of a Group: The Alkali Metals</u>

Metals Versus Nonmetals







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Section 7.13 *The Properties of a Group: The Alkali Metals*

The Alkali Metals

- Li, Na, K, Rb, Cs, and Fr
 - Most chemically reactive of the metals
 - React with nonmetals to form ionic solids
 - Going down group:
 - Ionization energy decreases
 - Atomic radius increases
 - > Density increases
 - Melting and boiling points smoothly decrease