

Advanced Theories of

Atomic Structure:

Atomic Orbitals



What are the more advanced theories of atomic structure?

(O):

 Richard Feynman, 1918 – 1988.
 Winner of the 1965
 Nobel Prize in Physics.

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 The modern scientific understanding of atomic structure

 in which electrons are assumed to behave like waves, and orbit the nucleus of the atom in atomic orbitals – is based on quantum mechanics.

 Quantum mechanics is the branch of physics that deals with mathematical descriptions of how subatomic particles behave and interact.

 Richard Feynman introduced volume III of The Feynman Lectures on Physics with the words: "I think I can safely say that nobody understands quantum mechanics".

 At the beginning of his classic undergraduate textbook series *The Feynman Lectures on Physics*, Richard Feynman felt the need to be perfectly honest about the counterintuitive nature of quantum theory. Subatomic particles, Feynman wrote, "do not behave like waves, they do not behave like particles, they do not behave like clouds or billiard balls, or weights, or springs, or like anything that you have ever seen."

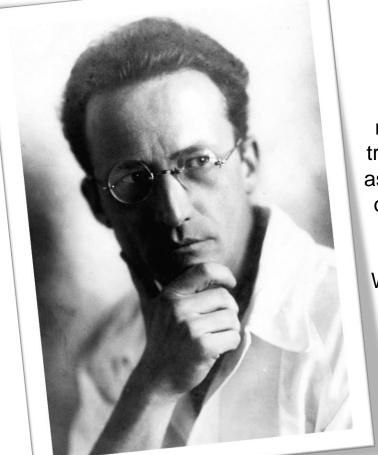
 Fortunately, following the rules of quantum mechanics is far simpler than trying to visualise what they actually mean. The ability to follow through the consequences of a particular set of assumptions carefully, without getting too hung up on the philosophical implications, is one of the most important skills a scientist can learn.

 When deriving theories related to quantum mechanics, scientists set out their initial assumptions and compute their consequences. If they arrive at a set of predictions that agree with their observations of the natural world around them, then they accept the theory as good.

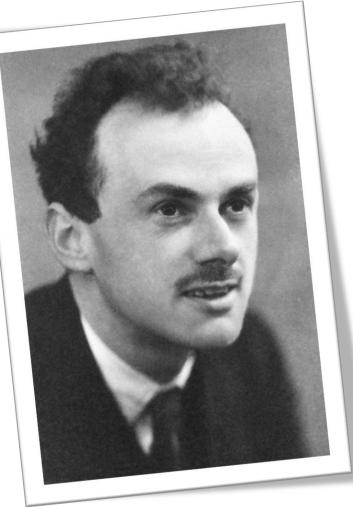
 Many problems in quantum mechanics are far too difficult to solve in a single mental leap, and deep understanding rarely emerges in *eureka* moments.

 The trick is for scientists to make sure that they understand each little step and, after a sufficient number of steps, the bigger picture starts to emerge. If this is not the case, then the scientists need to go back to the drawing board and start to derive a new theory.

 This is true for a scientific understanding of the atomic orbital structure of the atom. It should be attempted one step at-a-time until the big picture of how electrons orbit the nucleus of the atom starts to emerge.



 Schrödinger and Dirac
 mathematically
 treated electrons
 as waves instead
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 Schrödinger's
 Wave Equation.

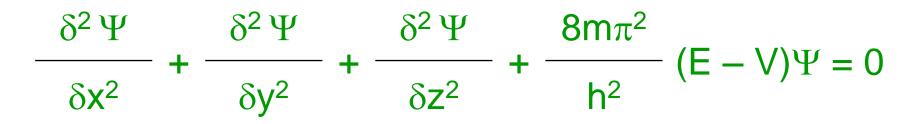


Erwin Schrödinger 1887 – 1961 Awarded the Nobel Prize for Physics in 1933. Paul Dirac 1902 – 1984 Awarded the Nobel Prize for Physics in 1933.

Advanced Theories of Atomic Structure Schrödinger's Wave Equation

 In 1924, Louis de Broglie made the bold suggestion that *electrons* may have the properties of *waves* as well as the properties of *particles*.

 Schrödinger and Dirac mathematically treated electrons as waves instead of particles and formulated Schrödinger's Wave Equation.



 Graphical solutions for this complex equation give rise to *atomic orbitals*.

Advanced Theories of Atomic Structure Atomic Orbitals

An atomic orbital is the volume of space around the nucleus of an atom in which there is a high probability (95%) of finding an electron.

 An atomic orbital can hold a maximum number of two electrons.

• The location of an electron in an atom (*i.e.* which atomic orbital it belongs to) is given by *four electronic quantum numbers*.

• *Pauli's Exclusion Principle* states that no two electrons in the same atom can have the same set of electronic quantum numbers.

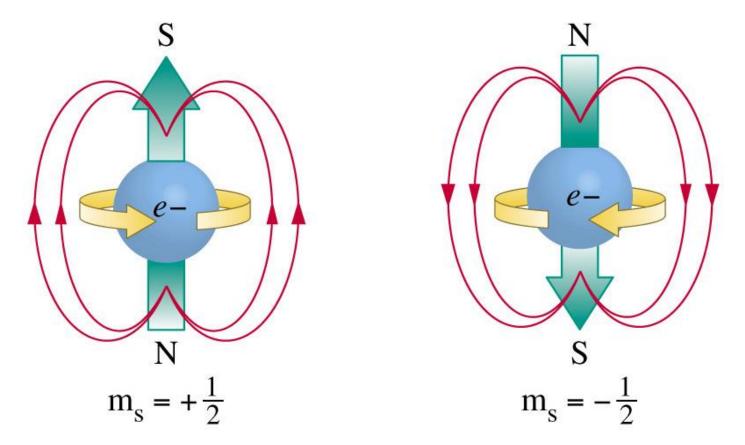
• In simple terms, the four electronic quantum numbers are:

 \rightarrow First (*n*): Principle quantum number – the principle quantum shell that the electron occupies.

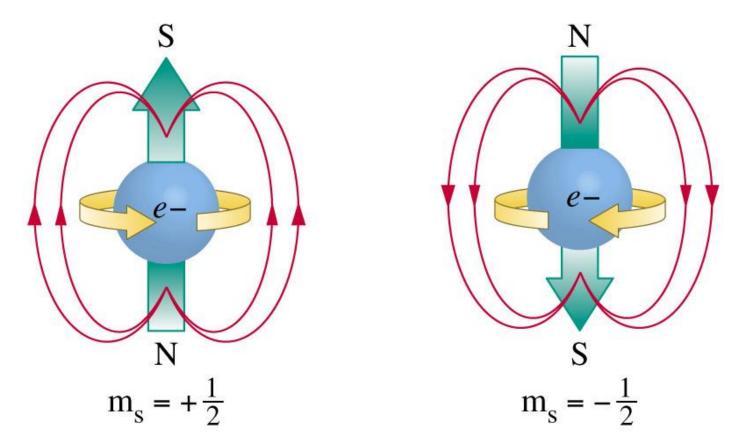
 \rightarrow Second (*l*): The sub-shell within the quantum shell that the electron occupies, *e.g. s*-*orbitals*, *p*-*orbitals* or *d*-*orbitals*.

→ Third (*m*): The orbital within the sub-shell that the electron occupies, *e.g. p-orbitals* are always arranged in groups of three, so if an electron occupies a *p-orbital*, this electronic quantum number states exactly which one, the p_x -orbital, the p_y -orbital or the p_z -orbital.

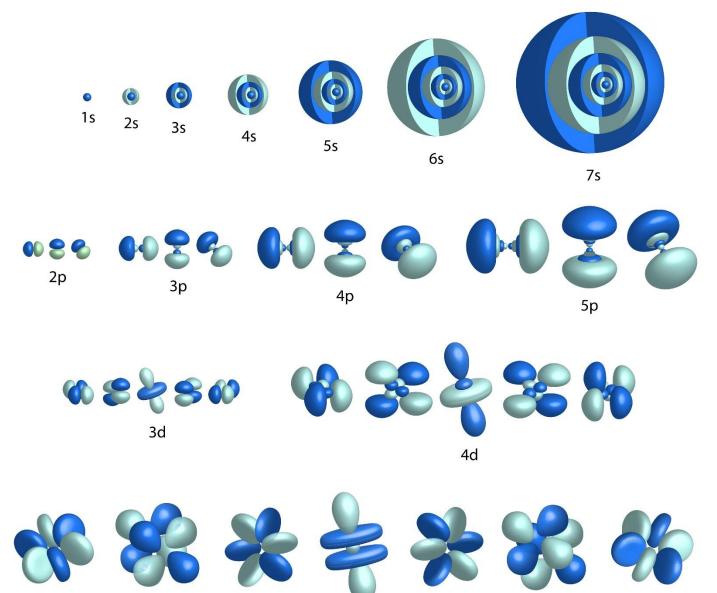
→ Fourth (s): For two electrons to occupy exactly the same orbital, they must have opposite spin. This electronic quantum number (spin quantum number) states whether the electron has a spin of +¹/₂ or -¹/₂.



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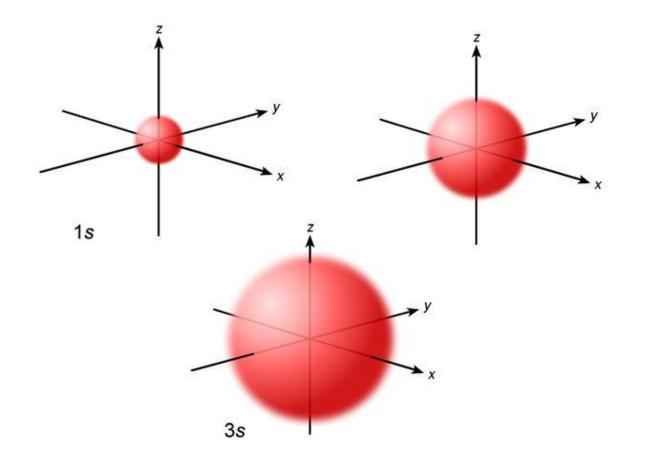


→ Fourth (s): The spin quantum number describes the intrinsic angular momentum of the electron. Because angular momentum is a vector quantity, it has both magnitude (1/2) and direction (either + or –).

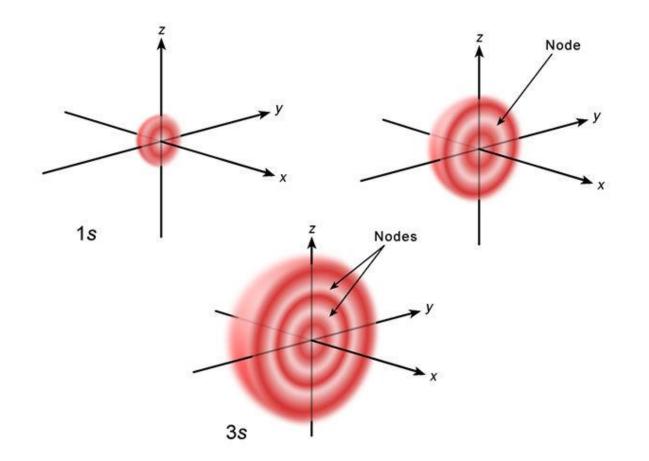


4f

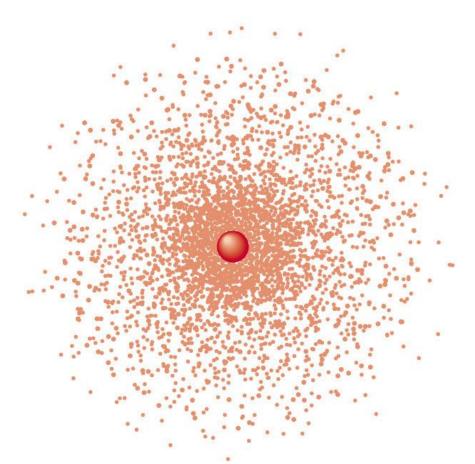
Different numerical values for the various electronic quantum numbers n, l and m give rise to orbitals with different shapes and different properties.



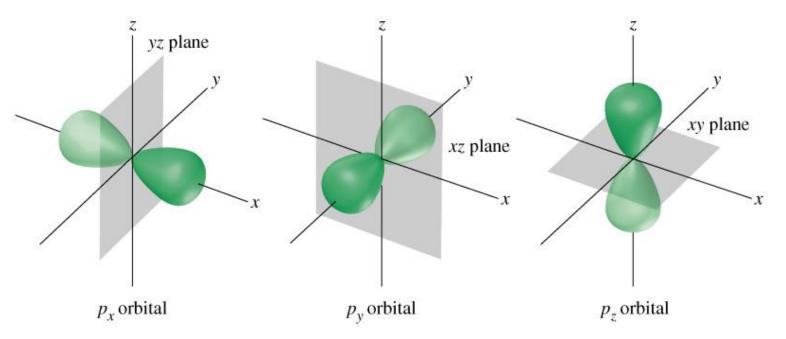
 A graphical solution to Schrödinger's Wave Equation – s-orbitals.



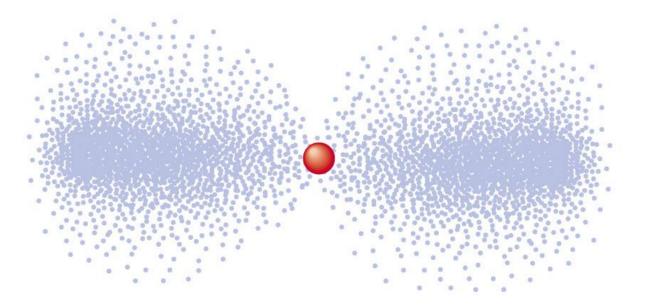
 A graphical solution to Schrödinger's Wave Equation – s-orbitals.



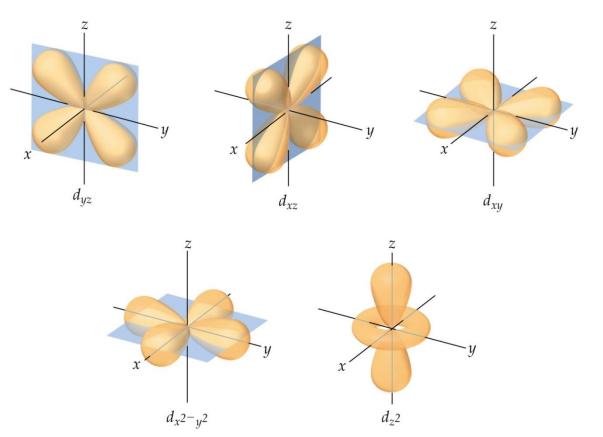
• An *s-orbital*. The closer the dots are placed together, the greater the probability of an electron being located at that position.



 A graphical solution to Schrödinger's Wave Equation – *p-orbitals*. The orbitals have been drawn separately for clarity. In reality, it is assumed that the three *p*-orbitals are superimposed on top of each other.



• A *p-orbital*. The closer the dots are placed together, the greater the probability of an electron being located at that position.



 A graphical solution to Schrödinger's Wave Equation – d-orbitals. The orbitals have been drawn separately for clarity. In reality, it is assumed that the five d-orbitals are superimposed on top of each other.

Enrichment: A Brief Note About the Values of the Four Electronic Quantum Numbers

• The electronic quantum number *n* takes on integer values (n = 1, 2, 3, and so on) and the energy of the electron increases as the value of *n* increases.

The electronic quantum number *l* must be an integer that is smaller than *n*. The electronic quantum number *l* can equal 0, but cannot have a value that is negative. For example, if *n* = 4, then *l* can be equal to 0, 1, 2 or 3. If *l* = 0, an *s*-orbital is present. If *l* = 1, a group of *p*-orbitals are present. If *l* = 2, a group of *d*-orbitals are present. If *l* = 3, a group of *f*-orbitals are present.

Enrichment: A Brief Note About the Values of the Four Electronic Quantum Numbers

The electronic quantum number *m* can equal any value from negative *l* to positive *l* in integer steps. For example, if *l* = 2, then *m* can be equal to -2, -1, 0, +1 or +2.

 If n = 1, then how many different atomic orbitals are there? Applying the rules, if n = 1, then l must equal 0 and m must also equal 0. So, when n has a value of 1, there is only one atomic orbital (one s-orbital).

Enrichment: A Brief Note About the Values of the Four Electronic Quantum Numbers

• If n = 2, then how many different atomic orbitals are there? Applying the rules, if n = 2, then *l* can have values of 0 or 1.

→ If l = 0, then *m* must also equal 0 (one *s*-orbital). → If l = 1, then *m* can have values of -1, 0 or +1(three *p*-orbitals).

So, when *n* has a value of 2, there are a total of four atomic orbitals (one *s*-orbital and three *p*-orbitals).

Enrichment: A Brief Note About the Values of the Four Electronic Quantum Numbers

• If n = 3, then how many different atomic orbitals are there? Applying the rules, if n = 3, then *l* can have values of 0, 1 or 2.

- \rightarrow If l = 0, then *m* must also equal 0 (one s-orbital).
 - \rightarrow If l = 1, then *m* can have values of -1, 0 or +1 (three *p*-orbitals).
- \rightarrow If l = 2, them *m* can have values of -2, -1, 0, +1 or +2 (five *d*-orbitals).

So, when *n* has a value of 3, there are a total of nine atomic orbitals (one *s*-orbital, three *p*-orbitals and five *d*-orbitals).

Enrichment: A Brief Note About the Values of the Four Electronic Quantum Numbers

• If n = 4, then how many different atomic orbitals are there? Applying the rules, if n = 4, then l can have values of 0, 1, 2 or 3.

 \rightarrow If l = 0, then *m* must also equal 0 (one s-orbital).

 \rightarrow If l = 1, then *m* can have values of -1, 0 or +1

(three *p*-orbitals).

 \rightarrow If l = 2, them *m* can have values of -2, -1, 0, +1 or +2 (five *d*-orbitals).

 \rightarrow If l = 3, then *m* can have values of -3, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2 or +3 (seven *f*-orbitals).

So, when *n* has a value of 4, there are a total of sixteen atomic orbitals (one *s*-orbital, three *p*-orbitals, five *d*-orbitals and seven *f*-orbitals).

Enrichment: A Brief Note About the Values of the Four Electronic Quantum Numbers

 The total number of electrons that can occupy an electron shell is given by the formula:

Electrons = $2n^2$

→ For n = 1, electrons = $2 \times 1^2 = 2 \times 1 = 2 e^-$ This is the 1s orbital ($2 e^-$)

→ For n = 2, electrons = $2 \times 2^2 = 2 \times 4 = 8 e^-$ These are the 2s ($2 e^-$) + 2p ($6 e^-$) orbitals

 \rightarrow For n = 3, electrons = 2 × $3^2 = 2 \times 9 = 18 e^-$ These are the 3s (2 e^-) + 3p (6 e^-) + 3d (10 e^-) orbitals

→ For n = 4, electrons = 2 × $4^2 = 2 \times 16 = 32 e^-$ These are the 4s (2 e^-) + 4p (6 e^-) + 4d (10 e^-) + 4f (14 e^-) orbitals

Shapes and Occurrence of Atomic Orbitals

l	0	1			2					3						
m_l	0	-1	0	1	-2	-1	0	1	2	-3	-2	-1	0	1	2	3
п	s	p _x	р _у	p _z	d _{xy}	d _{xz}	d_{z^2}	d _{yz}	$d_{x^2-y^2}$	f _{x(x²-3y²)}	f_{xz^2}	f_{xz^2}	f_{z^2}	f_{yz^2}	f _{z²}	$f_{y(3x^2-y^2)}$
1	•															
2	0		00	C												
3	0			9	S	\$	Y	8	60							
4	0	•	•	C	S	8	J.	8	88	%	\$	×	J.	×	8	×.
5	0	••	-	8	8	*	Y	\$	8-8							
6			2	¢												
7																

• Diagram showing the various orbitals that arise from different values of the electronic quantum numbers n, l and m.

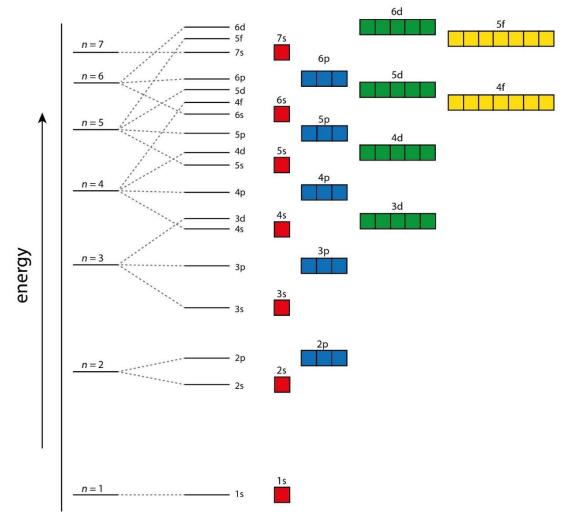


Diagram showing the energy levels of the various orbitals.
 Note: Orbitals fill from the lowest energy to the highest energy.

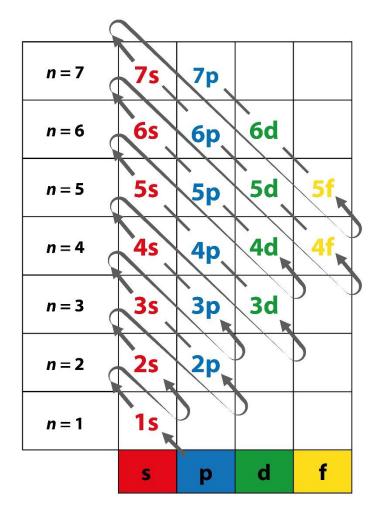
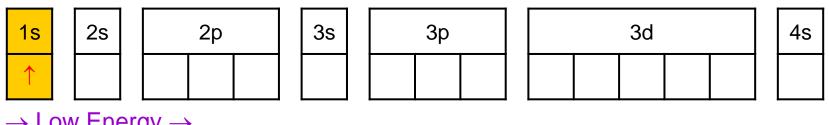


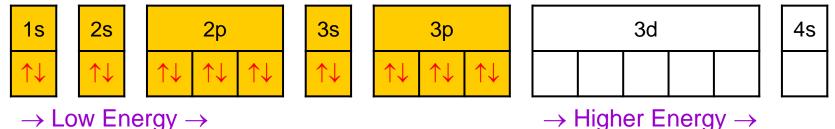
 Diagram showing the order in which atomic orbitals fill-up with electrons.

• Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle – It is not possible to determine both the position and the momentum of an electron at the same time. This gives rise to the idea that an electron's position in an atom is *uncertain*, and therefore scientists can only identify where there is the *highest probability* of finding an electron – which is how the atomic orbital is defined.

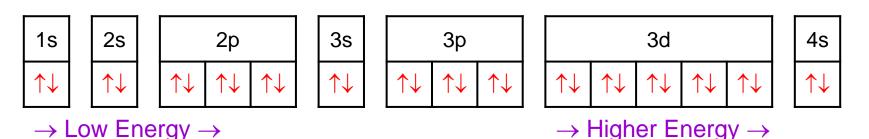
 The Aufbau Principle – Electrons fill-up atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. Left undisturbed, objects will tend to their lowest possible energy.



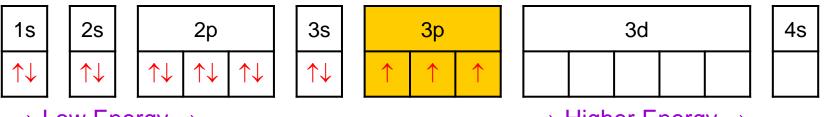
 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow



 Pauli's Exclusion Principle – No two electrons within the same atom can have the same values for all four quantum numbers, *i.e.* every electron in the same atom must have a unique combination of quantum numbers. As a consequence, electrons in the same orbital must spin in opposite directions. In atomic orbital diagrams, the spin quantum number is represented by an arrow (↑ or ↓). Two arrows pointing in opposite directions represent two electrons with opposite spin (↑ and ↓).



 Hund's Rule of Maximum Multiplicity – When placed in atomic orbitals of equal energy, electrons will remain unpaired. Electrons carry a charge of -1. There will be an electrostatic force of repulsion between electrons in the same orbital. Placing electrons in different atomic orbitals of the same energy will reduce the electrostatic force of repulsion between the electrons and make the system more stable.



 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

 \rightarrow Higher Energy \rightarrow

Advanced Theories of Atomic Structure Shapes and Occurrence of Atomic Orbitals

 Each principle quantum shell is divided into one or more sub-shells.

Principle Quantum Shell (<i>n</i>)	Sub-shell (<i>l</i>)	Maximum Number of Electrons			
1	1s	2			
2	2s, 2p	8			
3	3s, 3p, 3d	18			
4	4s, 4p, 4d, 4f	32			

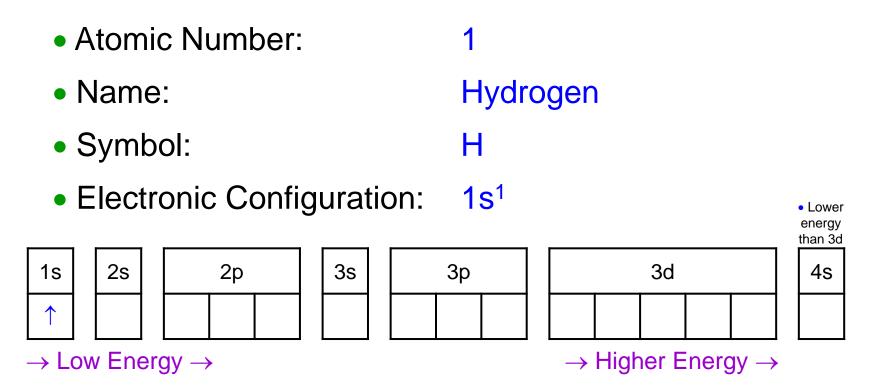
Shapes and Occurrence of Atomic Orbitals

• There are four sub-shells, arranged in increasing energy $s \rightarrow p \rightarrow d \rightarrow f$. Each sub-shell holds a different number of electrons

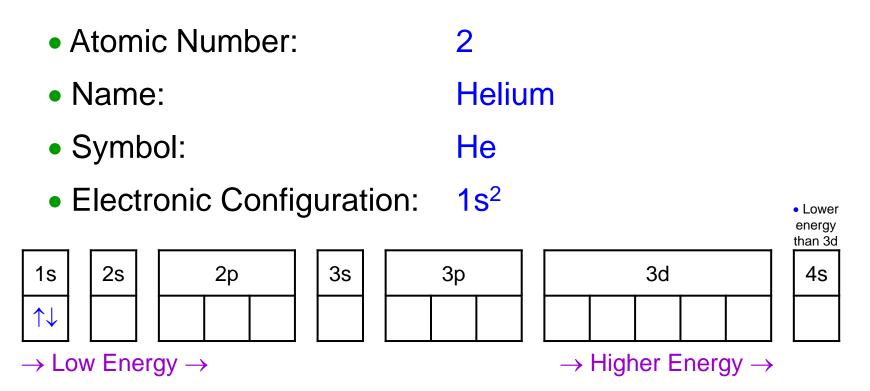
Principle Quantum Shell (<i>n</i>)	Sub-shell (<i>l</i>)	Maximum Number of Electrons
1	1s	2
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3	3s, 3p, 3d	18
4	4s, 4p, 4d, 4f	32

Advanced Theories of Atomic Structure Shapes and Occurrence of Atomic Orbitals

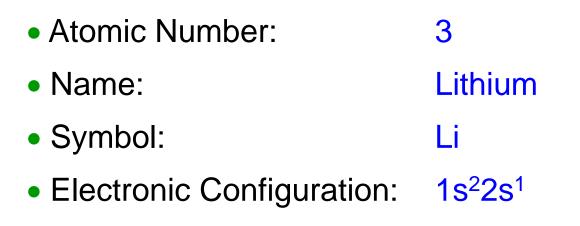
Orbital	Shape	Occurrence
S (sharp)	spherical	1 in every principle level
(principle)	dumb-bell or hour glass	3 in every level from 2 onwards
d (diffuse)	complex and various	5 in every level from 3 onwards
f (fundamental)	complex and various	7 in every level from 4 onwards

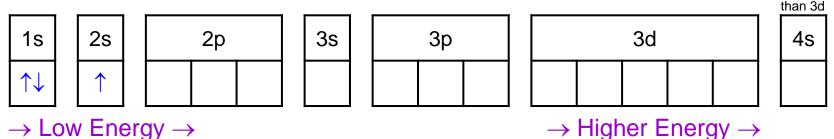


 Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.



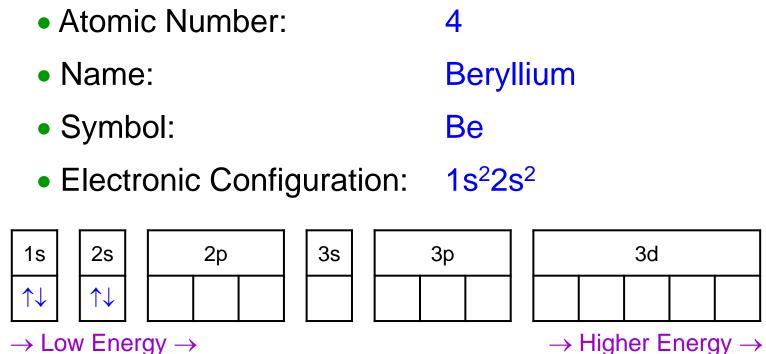
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 Lower energy

- Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.
- Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

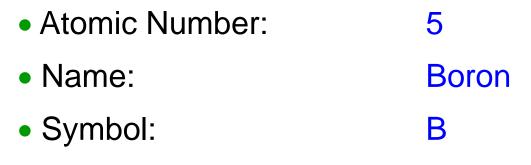


energy than 3d

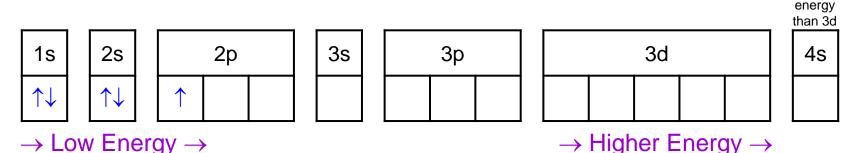
Lower

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[•] Electrons are represented by *arrows* (\uparrow and \downarrow) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by *boxes*.

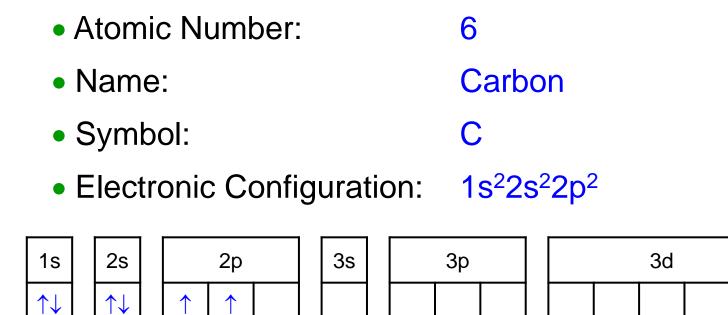


Electronic Configuration: 1s²2s²2p¹

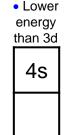


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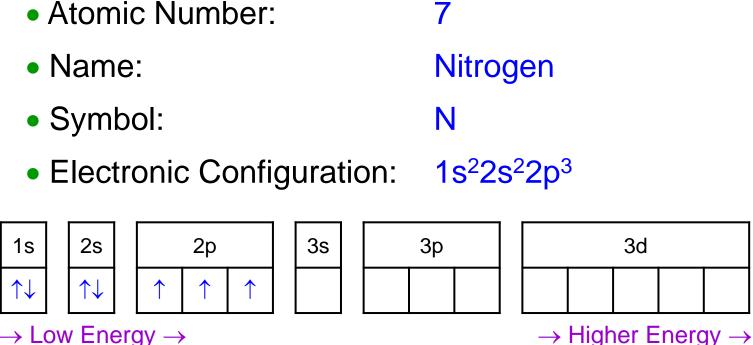


 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow



 $[\]rightarrow$ Higher Energy \rightarrow

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 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

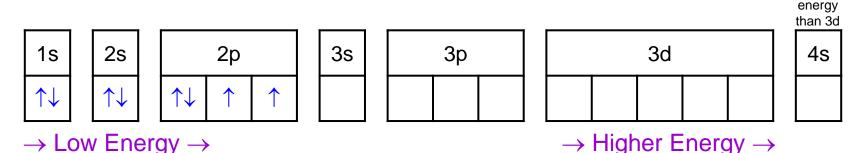
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 Lower energy than 3d

4s

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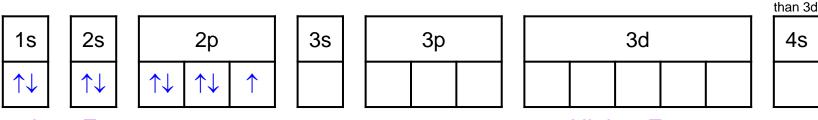
- Atomic Number: 8
 Name: Oxygen
 Symbol: O
- Electronic Configuration: 1s²2s²2p⁴



Lower

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- Atomic Number: 9
 Name: Fluorine
 Symbol: F
- Electronic Configuration: 1s²2s²2p⁵

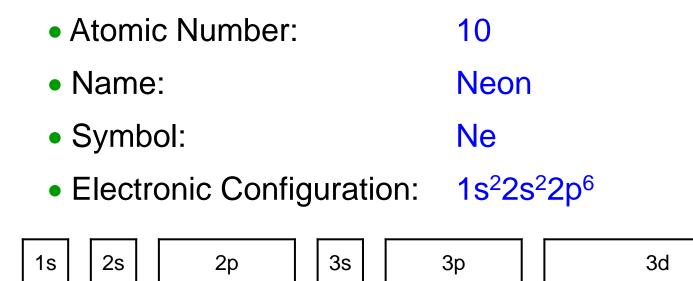


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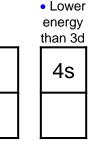
 $\uparrow\downarrow$

 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

∕↓

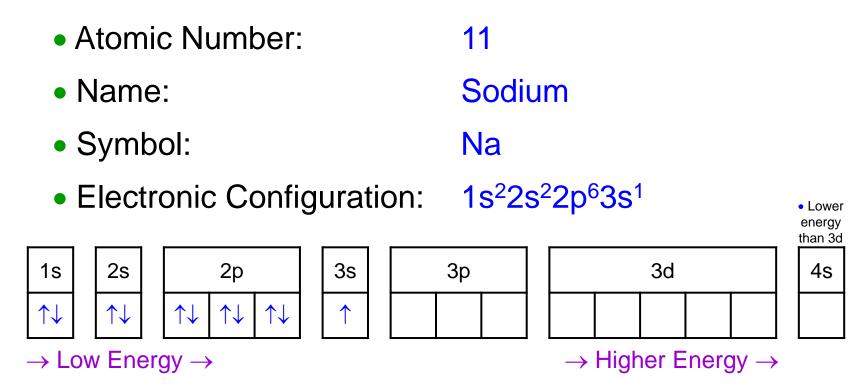
 $\uparrow\downarrow$

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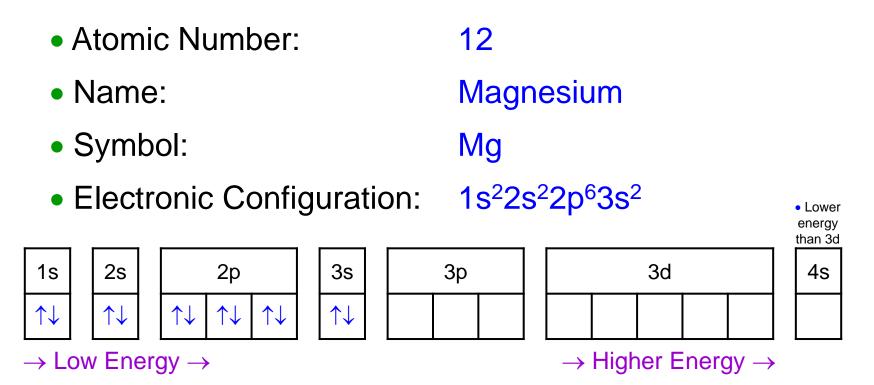


 $[\]rightarrow$ Higher Energy \rightarrow

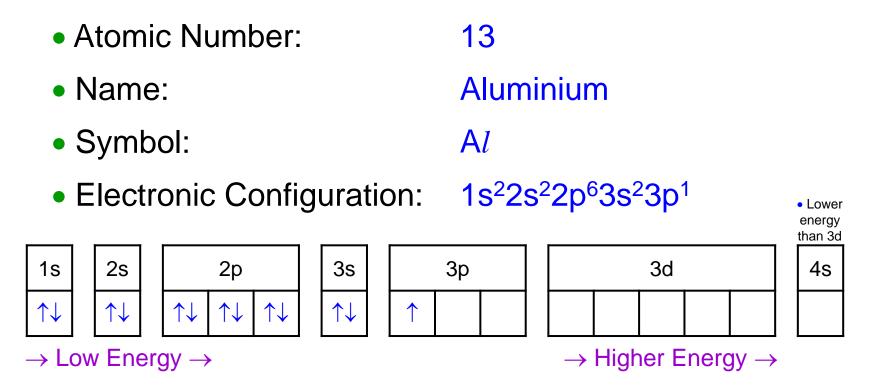
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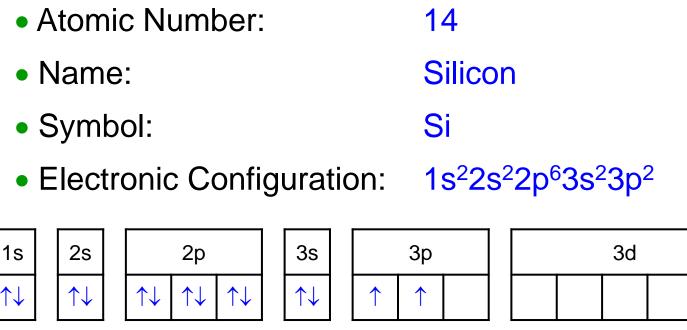
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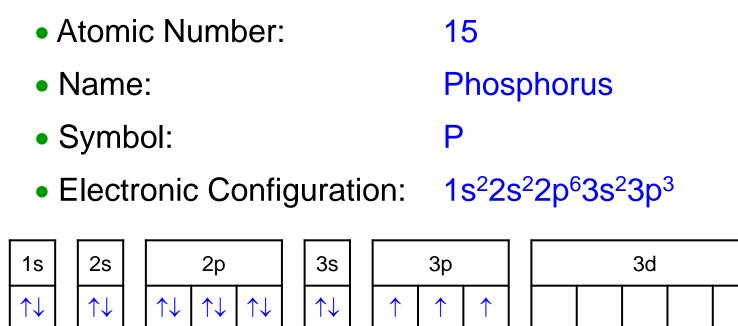
 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

 Lower energy than 3d

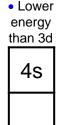
4s

 \rightarrow Higher Energy \rightarrow

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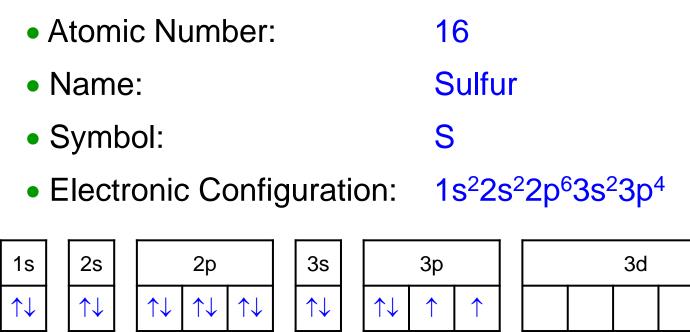


 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow



 $[\]rightarrow$ Higher Energy \rightarrow

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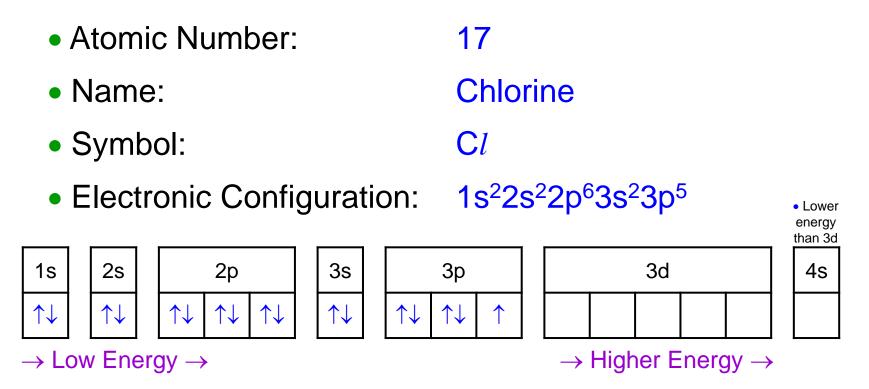
 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

energy than 3d

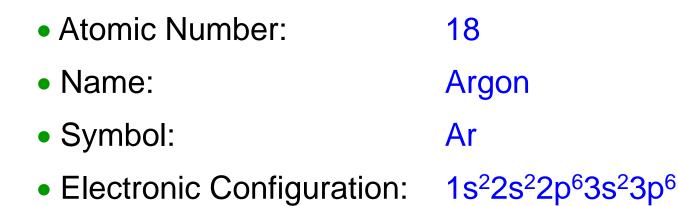
Lower

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3s

∕∖

1s

2s

∕↓

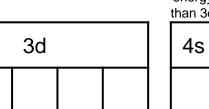
 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

2p

 $\uparrow\downarrow$

 $\uparrow\downarrow$

∕↓





Lower

 \rightarrow Higher Energy \rightarrow

• Electrons are represented by *arrows* (\uparrow and \downarrow) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.

 $\uparrow\downarrow$

3p

 $\uparrow\downarrow$

| ↑↓

 Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

Atomic Number: 19
Name: Potassium
Symbol: K

3s

∕∖

Electronic Configuration: 1s²2s²2p⁶3s²3p⁶4s¹

2p

 $\uparrow\downarrow$

↑↓

∕↓

1s

2s

∕↓

 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

3d 4

 \rightarrow Higher Energy \rightarrow



Lower

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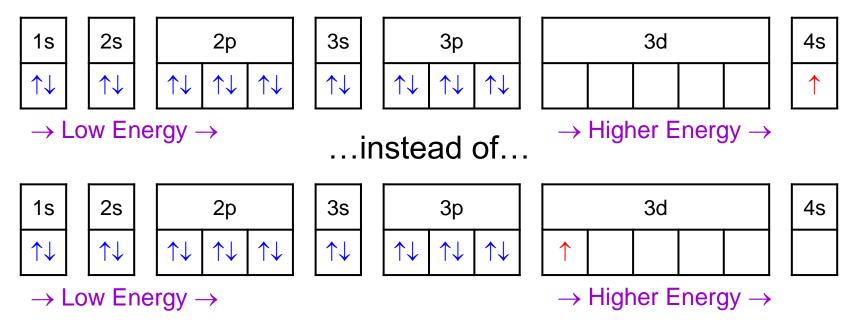
 $\uparrow\downarrow$

3p

 $\uparrow\downarrow$

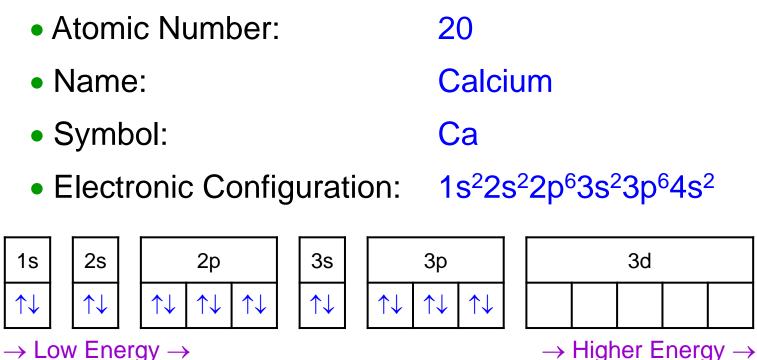
• Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

• Why is the electronic configuration of *potassium*...



• Although the 4s sub-shell is further from the nucleus than the 3d sub-shell, the 4s sub-shell is *lower in energy* than the 3d sub-shell.

 According to the Aufbau Principle (electrons fill-up atomic orbitals from lower energy to higher energy) the *lower energy* 4s sub-shell will fill with electrons before the *higher energy* 3d sub-shell.

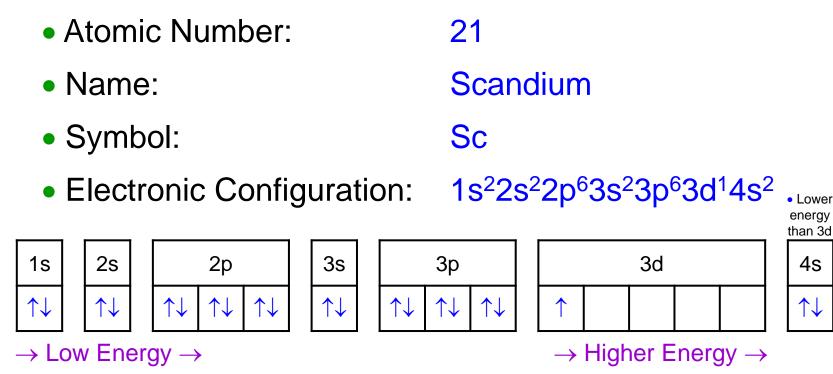


energy than 3d 4s ↑↓

Lower

 Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.

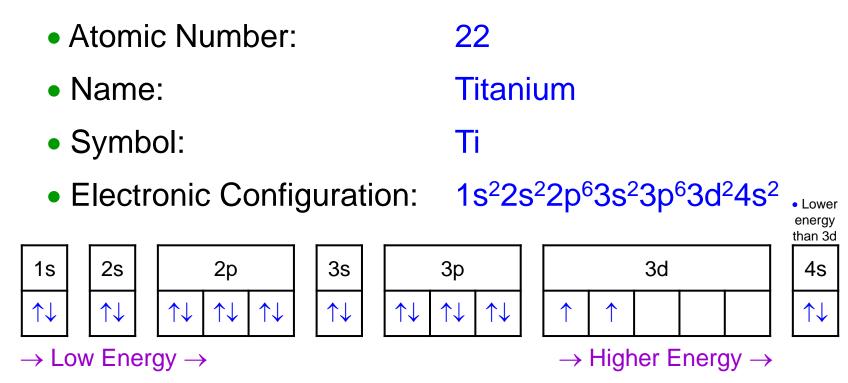


• Electrons are represented by *arrows* (\uparrow and \downarrow) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.

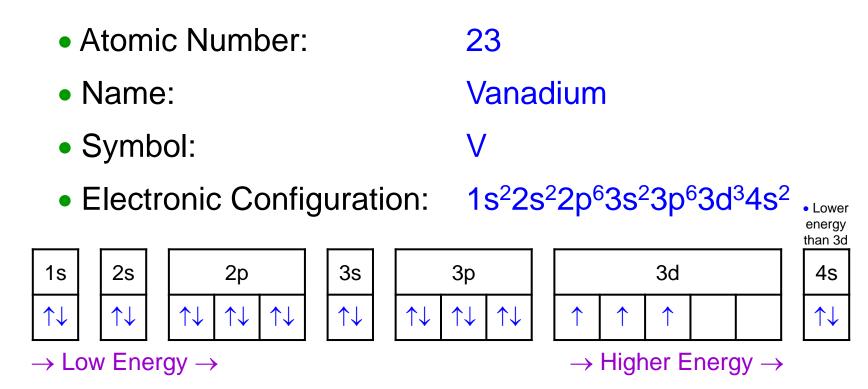
4s

∕↓

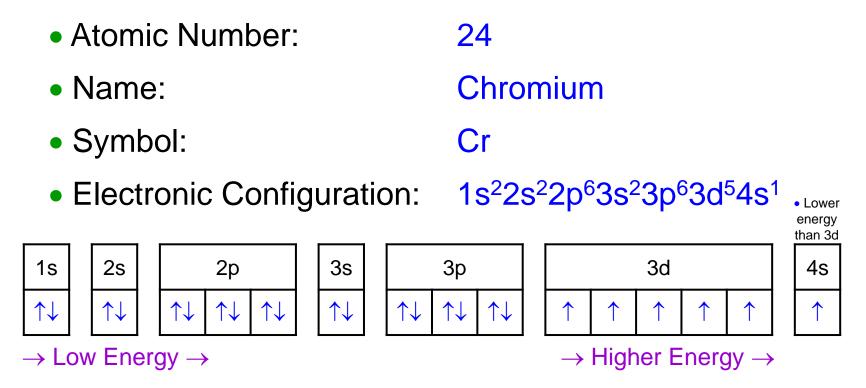
 Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.



- Electrons are represented by *arrows* (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by *boxes*.
- Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

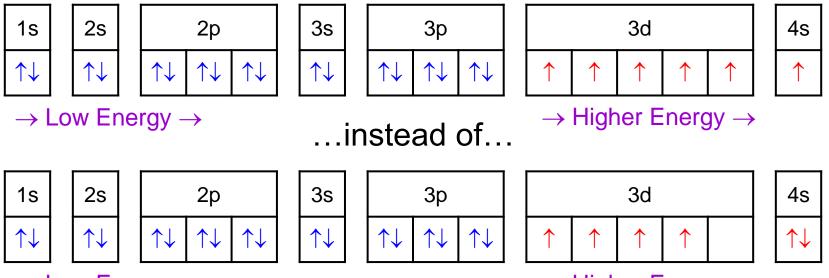


- Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.
- Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.



- Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.
- Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

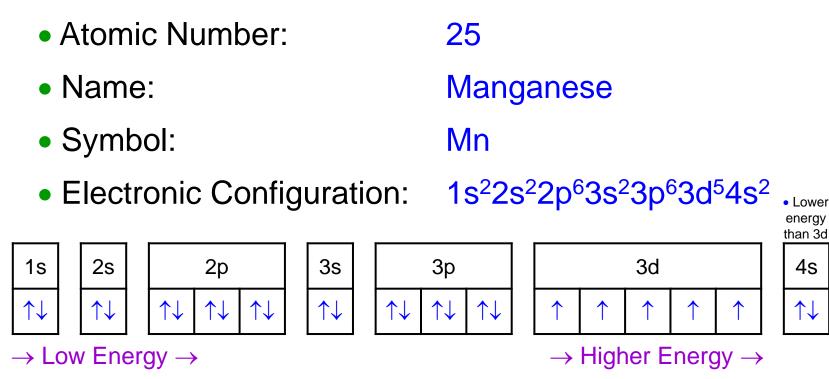
• Why is the electronic configuration of *chromium*...



 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

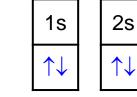
 \rightarrow Higher Energy \rightarrow

- Completely filled sub-shells are more stable than partially filled sub-shells.
- A sub-shell that is exactly half-filled is more stable than a sub-shell that is not exactly half-filled.
- An electron in the 4s orbital is transferred to an empty 3d orbital so as to obtain two stable half-filled sub-shells (3d⁵ and 4s¹) instead of one incomplete sub-shell (3d⁴) and one complete sub-shell (4s²).

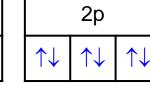


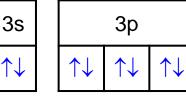
- Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.
- Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

- Atomic Number: 26
 Name: Iron
 Symbol: Fe
- Electronic Configuration: 1s²2s²2p⁶3s²3p⁶3d⁶4s²



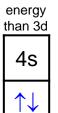
 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow





3d					
$\uparrow \downarrow$	1	1	1	1	

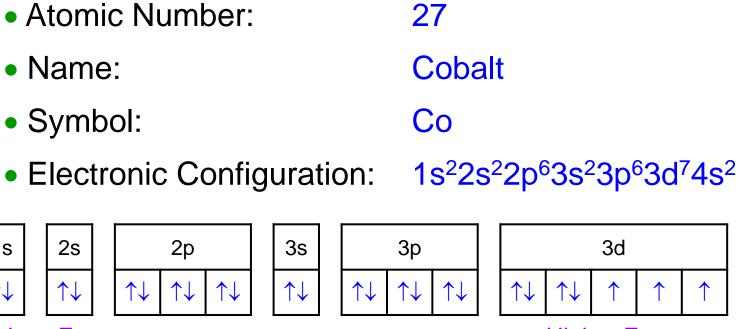
 \rightarrow Higher Energy \rightarrow



Lower

 Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.

• Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.



 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

1s

 Lower energy than 3d

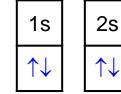
4s

∕↓

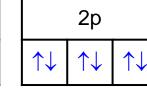
- Electrons are represented by *arrows* (\uparrow and \downarrow) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.
- Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

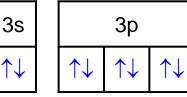
 $[\]rightarrow$ Higher Energy \rightarrow

- Atomic Number: 28
 Name: Nickel
 Symbol: Ni
- Electronic Configuration: 1s²2s²2p⁶3s²3p⁶3d⁸4s²



 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow





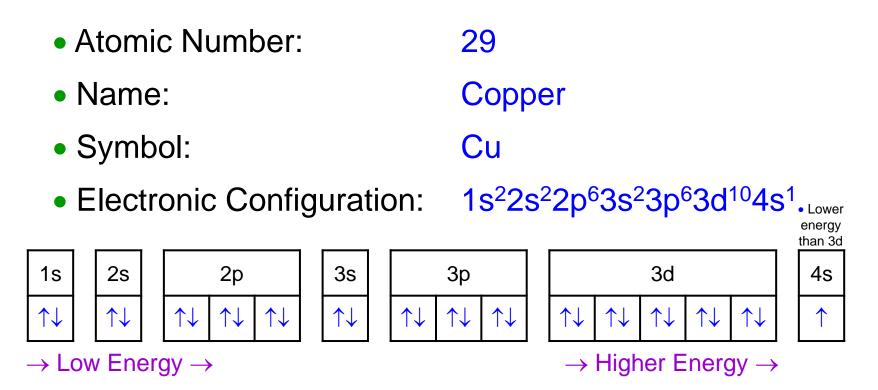
3d				
$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	1	1

 \rightarrow Higher Energy \rightarrow

energy than 3d 4s ↑↓

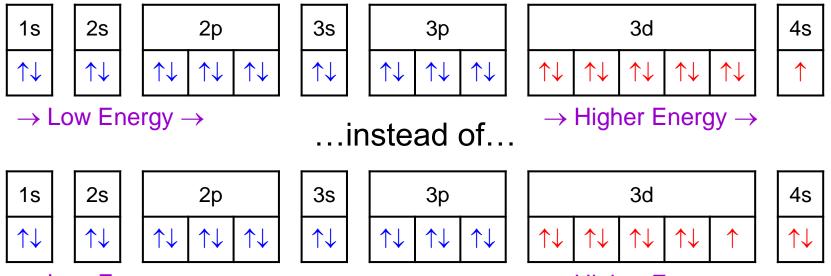
Lower

- Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.
- Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.



- Electrons are represented by arrows (↑ and ↓) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.
- Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

• Why is the electronic configuration of *copper...*

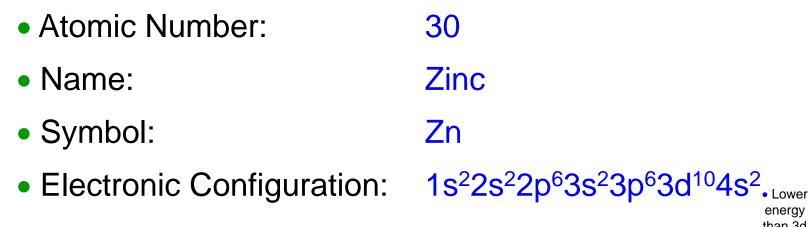


 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow

 \rightarrow Higher Energy \rightarrow

- Completely filled sub-shells are more stable than partially filled sub-shells.
- A sub-shell that is exactly half-filled is more stable than a sub-shell that is not exactly half-filled.

 An electron in the 4s orbital is transferred to a 3d orbital so as to obtain one stable complete sub-shell (3d¹⁰) and one stable half-filled sub-shell (4s¹) instead of one incomplete sub-shell (3d⁹) and one complete sub-shell (4s²).



2p

 $\uparrow\downarrow$

↑↓

3s

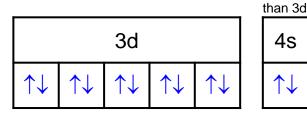
∕∖

1s

2s

∕↓

 \rightarrow Low Energy \rightarrow



energy

• Electrons are represented by *arrows* (\uparrow and \downarrow) which fill atomic orbitals that are represented by boxes.

∕↓

Зр

 $\uparrow\downarrow$

↑↓

 Electrons occupy atomic orbitals from the lowest energy to the highest energy. This is known as the *Aufbau Principle*.

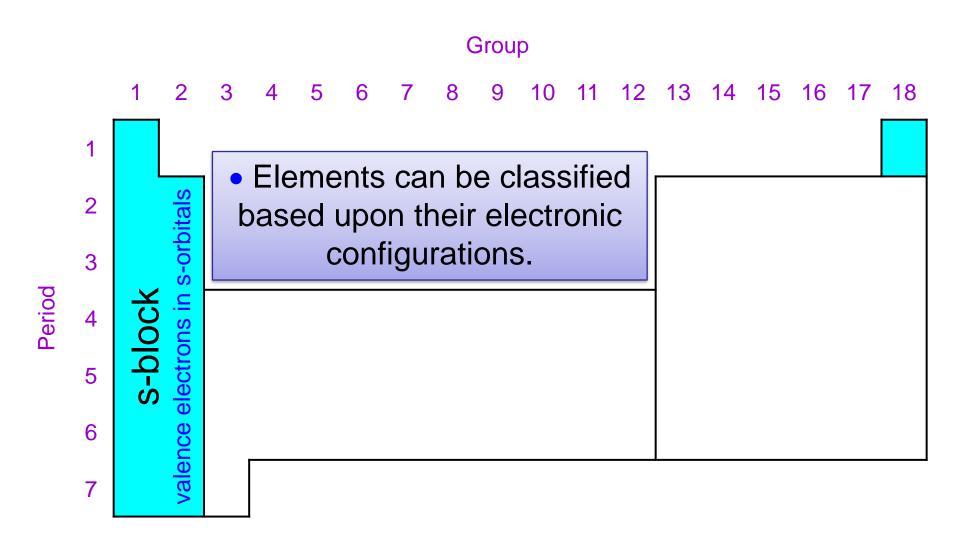
 $[\]rightarrow$ Higher Energy \rightarrow

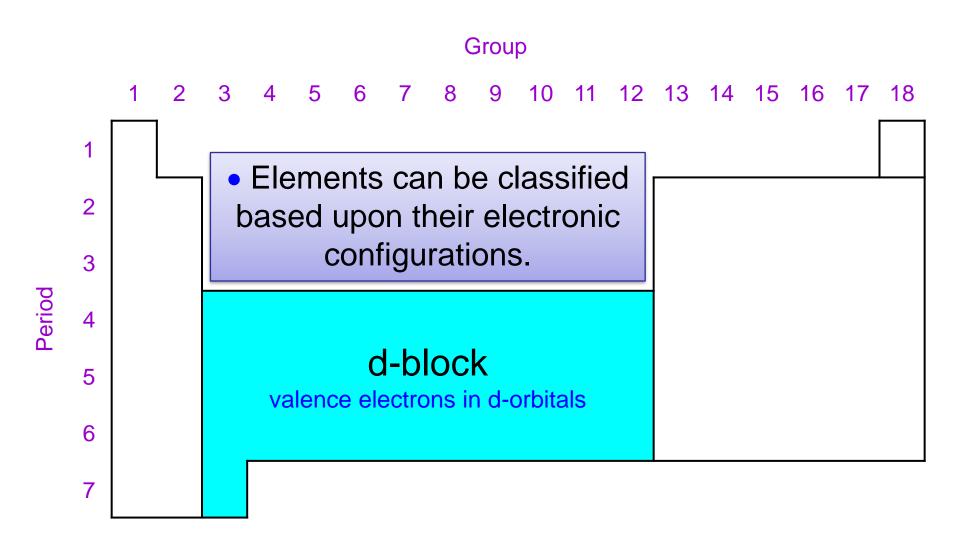
Group

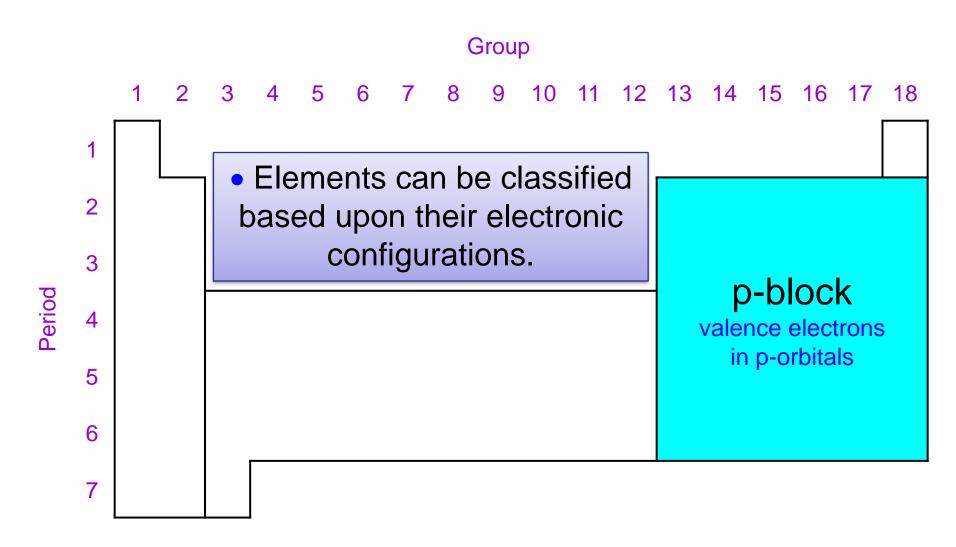
1 2 5 3 4 6 8 15 7 10 11 12 13 14 16 17 18 9 Н He 1 Elements can be classified 2 С Li Be В Ν 0 F Ne based upon their electronic configurations. 3 Si S Na Mg Al Ρ ClAr Period Sc Ti V Cr Mn Fe Ni Zn 4 Co Cu Ga Ge Se K Ca As Br Kr 5 Sr Y Zr Nb Rh Pd Cd Sn Sb Xe Rb Mo Tc Ru Ag Te In Т 6 Hf Cs W Pt Hg **T***l* Pb Bi Rn Ba La Ta Re Os Au Po At Ir 7 Fr Ra Ac

Group

2 1 3 4 5 6 15 7 8 10 11 12 13 14 16 17 18 9 1 **1s 1s** Elements can be classified 2 2s 2s 2p 2p 2p 2p 2p 2p based upon their electronic configurations. 3 3s 3s 3p 3p 3p **3**p 3p 3p Period 3d 4 **4s 4s** 4p 4p 4p 4p 4p 4p 5 **4**d 4d 4d 4d 4d **5**s **5s 4**d **4**d **4**d **4**d **4**d **5**p **5**p **5**p **5**p **5**p **5**p 6 5d 5d **5**d 5d 5d 5d 5d 5d 5d 5d **6**s **6**s **6**p **6**p **6**p **6**p **6**p 6p 7 **7**s **7**s 6d





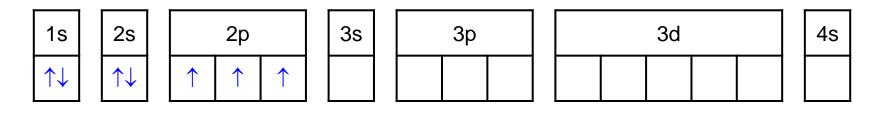


How are the electronic configurations of ions drawn using orbital notation?

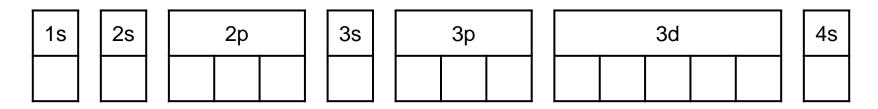
1

OF

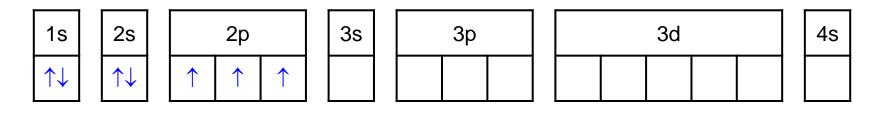
Electronic Configuration of a Nitrogen Atom



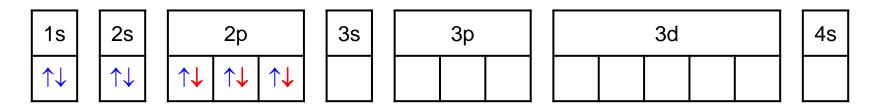
Electronic Configuration of a Nitride Ion – N^{3–}



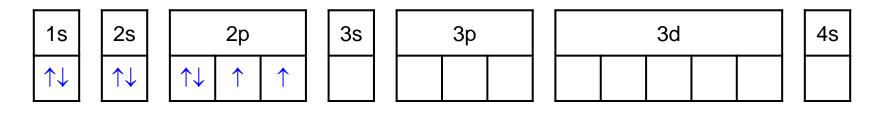
Electronic Configuration of a Nitrogen Atom



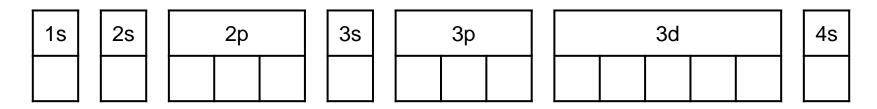
Electronic Configuration of a Nitride Ion – N^{3–}



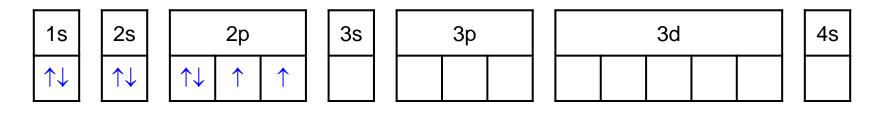
Electronic Configuration of an Oxygen Atom



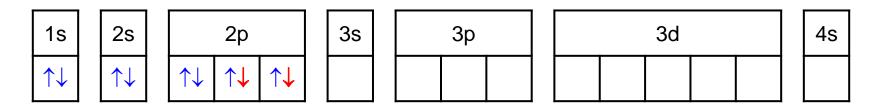
Electronic Configuration of a Oxide Ion – O^{2–}



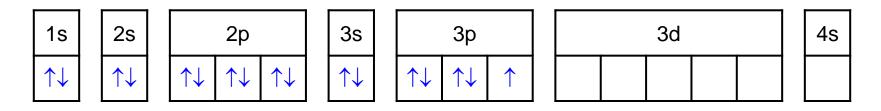
Electronic Configuration of an Oxygen Atom



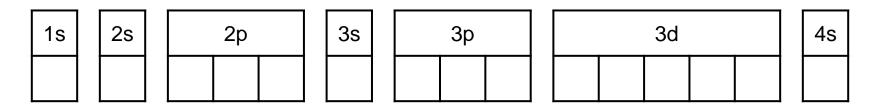
Electronic Configuration of a Oxide Ion – O^{2–}



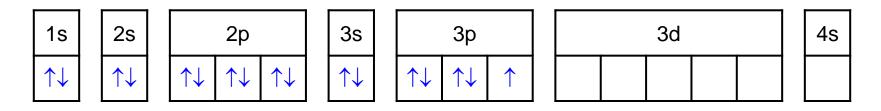
Electronic Configuration of a Chlorine Atom



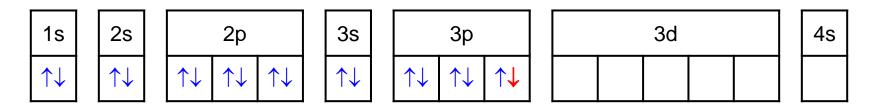
Electronic Configuration of a Chloride Ion – Cl-



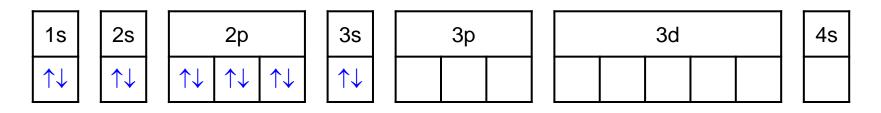
Electronic Configuration of a Chlorine Atom



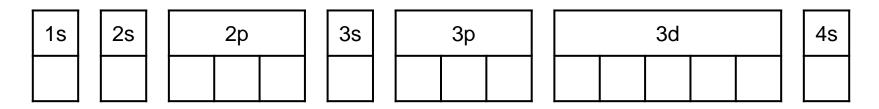
Electronic Configuration of a Chloride Ion – Cl-



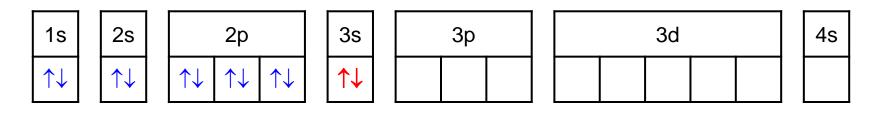
Electronic Configuration of a Magnesium Atom



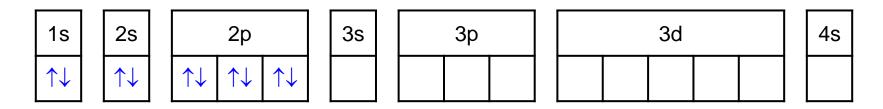
Electronic Configuration of a Magnesium Ion – Mg²⁺



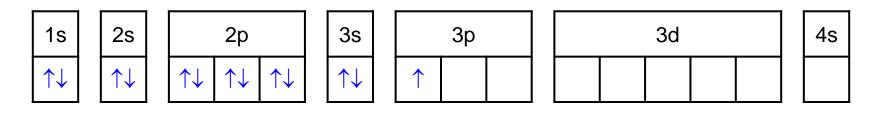
Electronic Configuration of a Magnesium Atom



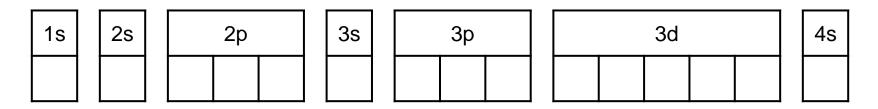
Electronic Configuration of a Magnesium Ion – Mg²⁺



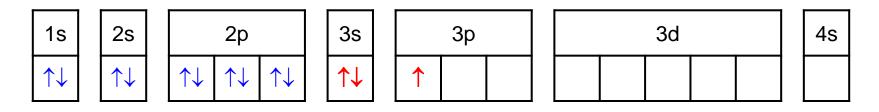
Electronic Configuration of an Aluminium Atom



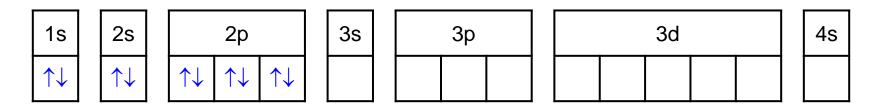
Electronic Configuration of a Aluminium Ion – Al³⁺



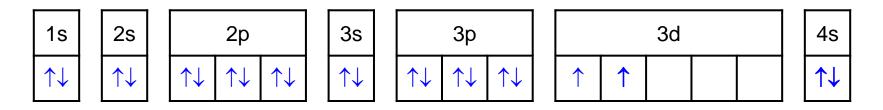
Electronic Configuration of an Aluminium Atom



Electronic Configuration of a Aluminium Ion – Al³⁺



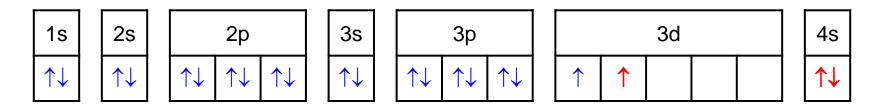
Electronic Configuration of a Titanium Atom



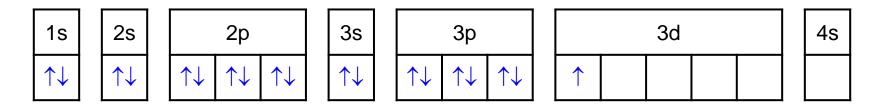
Electronic Configuration of a Titanium(III) Ion – Ti³⁺

1s	2s		2р		3s		3p 3d			4s					

Electronic Configuration of a Titanium Atom

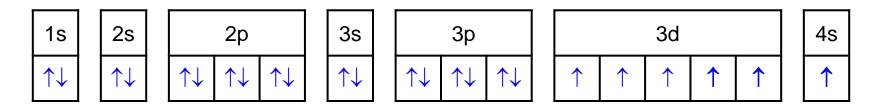


Electronic Configuration of a Titanium(III) Ion – Ti³⁺

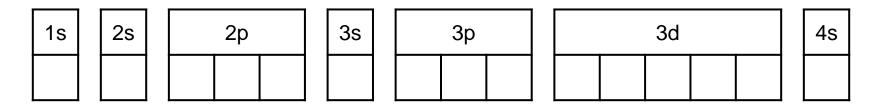


Note: When atoms of the transition metals react to form ions, electrons from the 4s orbital are the first to be removed.

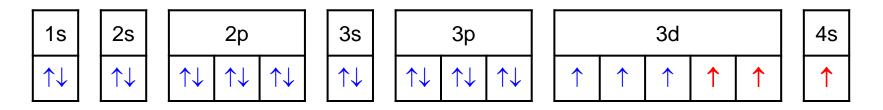
Electronic Configuration of a Chromium Atom



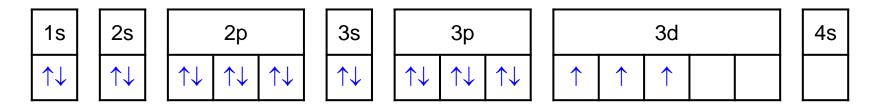
Electronic Configuration of a Chromium(III) Ion – Cr³⁺



Electronic Configuration of a Chromium Atom

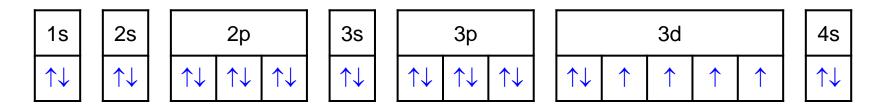


Electronic Configuration of a Chromium(III) Ion – Cr³⁺

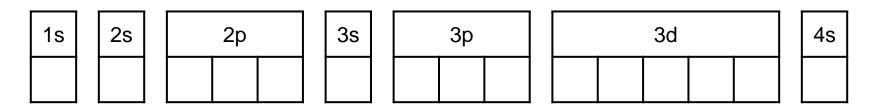


Note: When atoms of the transition metals react to form ions, electrons from the 4s orbital are the first to be removed.

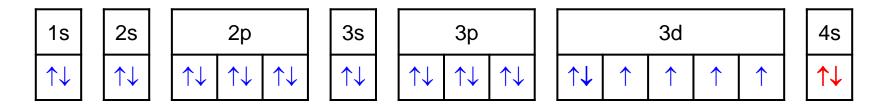
Electronic Configuration of an Iron Atom



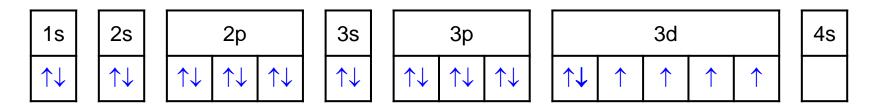
Electronic Configuration of a Iron(II) Ion – Fe²⁺



Electronic Configuration of an Iron Atom

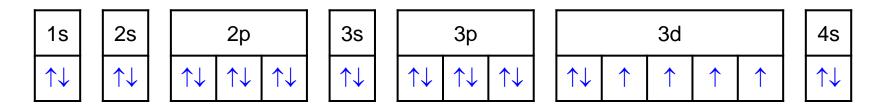


Electronic Configuration of a Iron(II) Ion – Fe²⁺

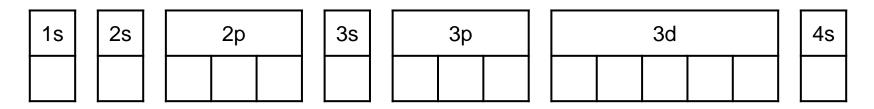


Note: When atoms of the transition metals react to form ions, electrons from the 4s orbital are the first to be removed.

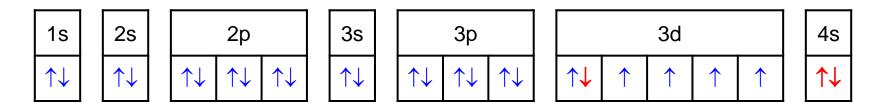
Electronic Configuration of an Iron Atom



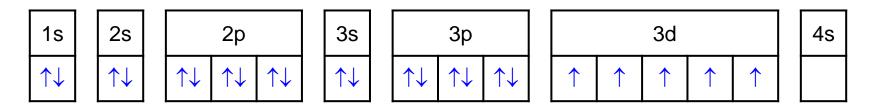
Electronic Configuration of a Iron(III) Ion – Fe³⁺



Electronic Configuration of an Iron Atom

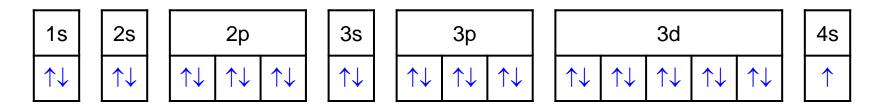


Electronic Configuration of a Iron(III) Ion – Fe³⁺

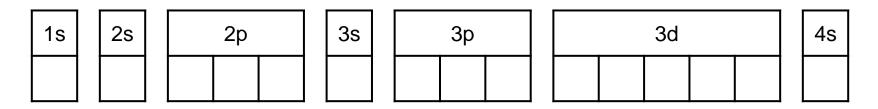


Note: When atoms of the transition metals react to form ions, electrons from the 4s orbital are the first to be removed. Note: In the iron(III) ion, the 3d orbital is half-full, and therefore stable.

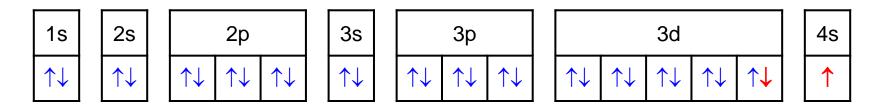
Electronic Configuration of a Copper Atom



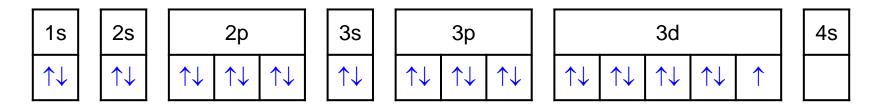
Electronic Configuration of a Copper(II) Ion – Cu²⁺



Electronic Configuration of a Copper Atom

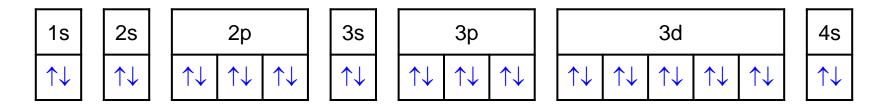


Electronic Configuration of a Copper(II) Ion – Cu²⁺

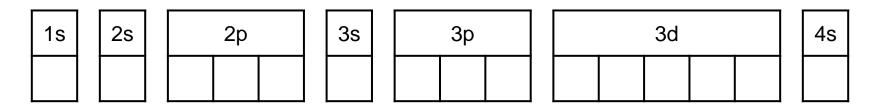


Note: When atoms of the transition metals react to form ions, electrons from the 4s orbital are the first to be removed.

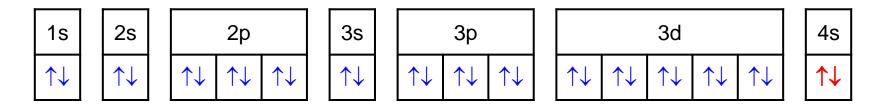
Electronic Configuration of a Zinc Atom



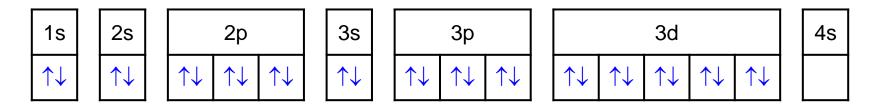
Electronic Configuration of a Zinc Ion – Zn²⁺



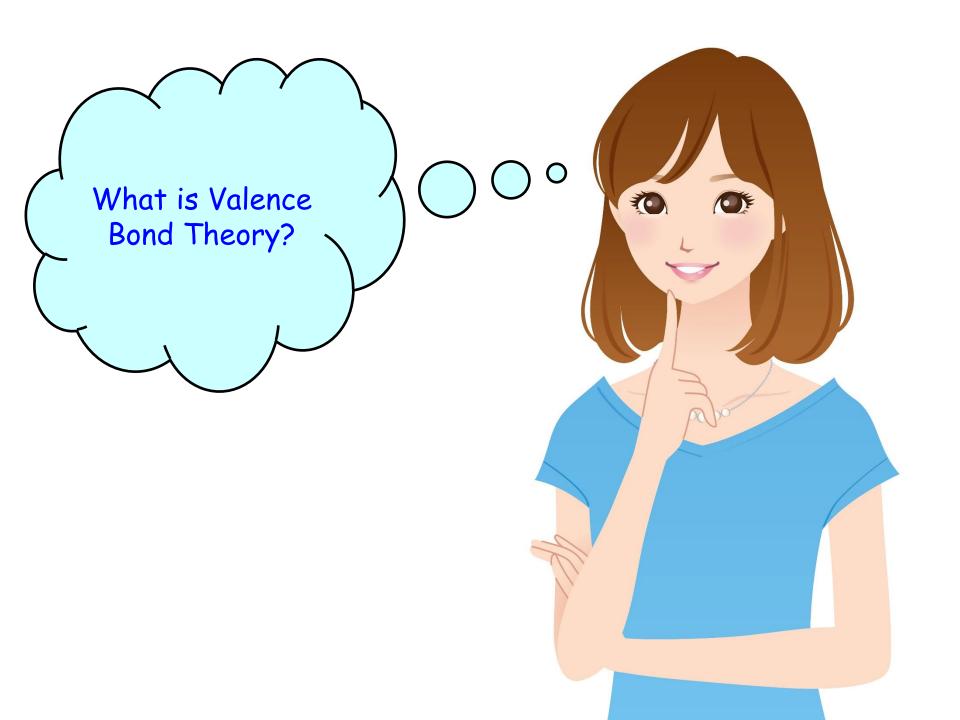
Electronic Configuration of a Zinc Atom



Electronic Configuration of a Zinc Ion – Zn²⁺



Note: When atoms of the transition metals react to form ions, electrons from the 4s orbital are the first to be removed.



Valence Bond Theory

• Valence bond theory describes a covalent bond as the overlap of half-filled atomic orbitals (each containing a single electron) that produce a pair of electrons shared between the two bonded atoms. Orbitals on two different atoms overlap when a portion of one orbital and a portion of a second orbital occupy the same region of space.

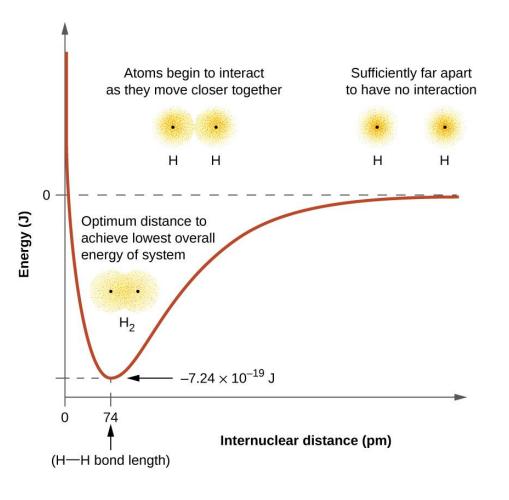
- According to valence bond theory, a covalent bond results when two conditions are met:
 - 1. An orbital on one atom overlaps an orbital on a second atom.
- 2. The single electrons in each orbital combine to form an electron pair.

Valence Bond Theory

• The electrostatic force of attraction between the negatively charged pair of electrons and the positively charged nuclei of the two atoms that are sharing them serves to physically link the two atoms together through a force we define as a *covalent bond*.

• The strength of a covalent bond depends on the extent of overlap of the orbitals involved. Orbitals that overlap extensively form bonds that are stronger than those that have less overlap.

Valence Bond Theory



 This diagram illustrates how the atomic orbitals of two hydrogen atoms interact. At a *large separation*, there is *no interaction* between the atomic orbitals. At a *very* small separation, the atoms *repel* each other. The two atoms are at their lowest energy, i.e. most stable, at a distance of 7.4×10^{-11} m, which is the H–H covalent bond length. How is bonding between atoms represented using orbital notation?

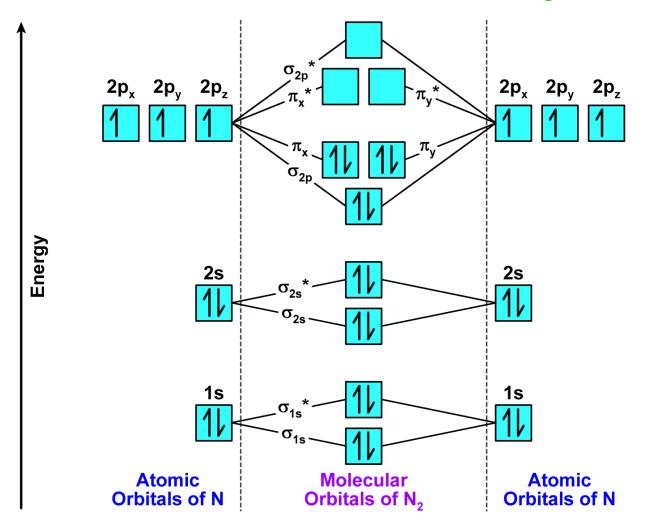
OF

• The *atomic orbitals* of two or more atoms can combine together to form *molecular orbitals*.

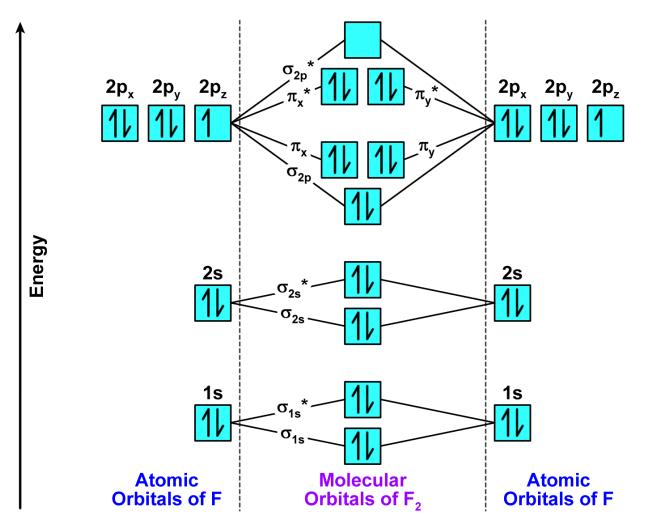
• The following diagrams show how the atomic orbitals of two atoms combine to form covalent bonds known as a σ -bonds (sigma-bonds) and π -bonds (pi-bonds).

 Note: To pair-up in a molecular orbital, electrons must have opposite spin.

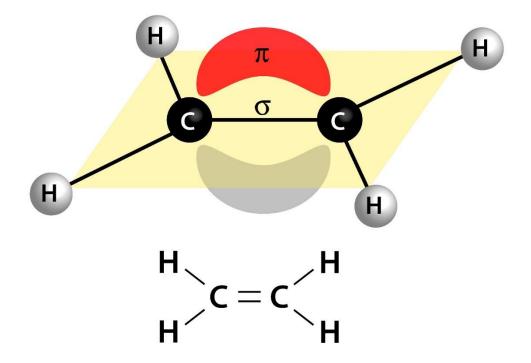
The Molecular Orbitals in Diatomic Nitrogen – N₂



The Molecular Orbitals in Diatomic Fluorine – F₂

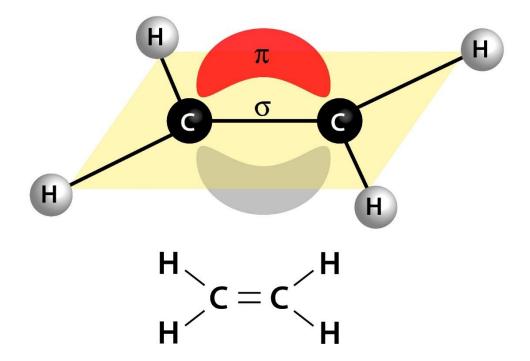


Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds



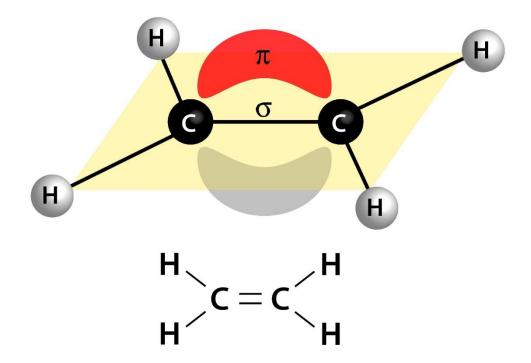
• Examples of σ -bonds and π -bonds in a molecule of ethene, $C_2H_{4.}$

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds



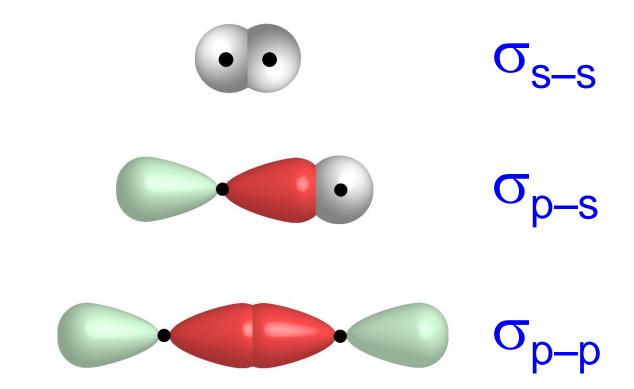
 A σ-bond is formed when two atomic orbitals overlap, and the region of overlap (region of highest electron density) lies on an imaginary straight line that connects the nuclei of the two bonding atoms.

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds



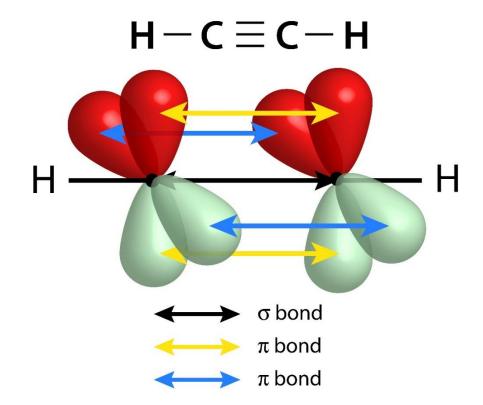
A π-bond is formed when two atomic orbitals (usually p-orbitals) overlap, and the region of overlap (region of highest electron density) lies above and below an imaginary straight line that connects the nuclei of the two bonding atoms.

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds



• Different ways of forming σ -bonds. Note that the region of orbital overlap (region of highest electron density) is directly in-between the nuclei of the two bonding atoms.

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds



Bonding in a molecule of ethyne, C₂H₂. The two carbon atoms are bonded together by one *σ*-bond and two *π*-bonds. A single *σ*-bond joins each carbon to hydrogen.

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

• Two atoms can be held together by a maximum number of one σ -bond, but by one or more π -bonds.

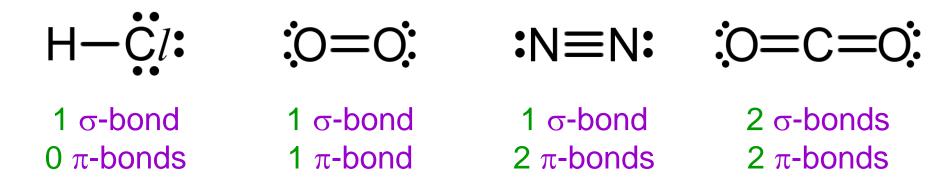
- σ-bonds are always formed between two atoms before any π-bonds are formed.
- How many σ -bonds and how many π -bonds are there in each one of the molecules shown below?

$$H - \dot{C} : : O = O : : N \equiv N : : O = C = O :$$

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

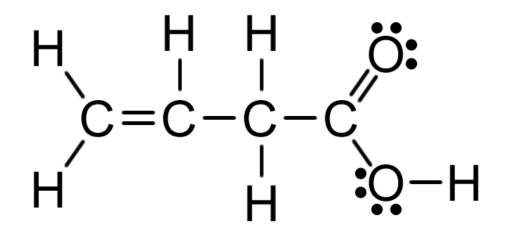
• Two atoms can be held together by a maximum number of one σ -bond, but by one or more π -bonds.

- σ-bonds are *always* formed between two atoms *before* any π-bonds are formed.
- How many σ -bonds and how many π -bonds are there in each one of the molecules shown below?



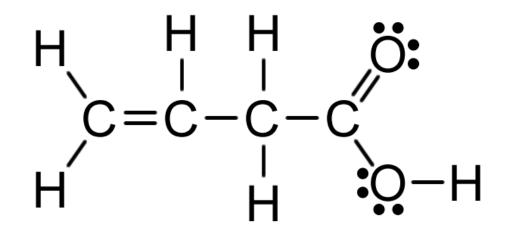
Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

• How many σ -bonds and how many π -bonds are there in the molecule shown below?



Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

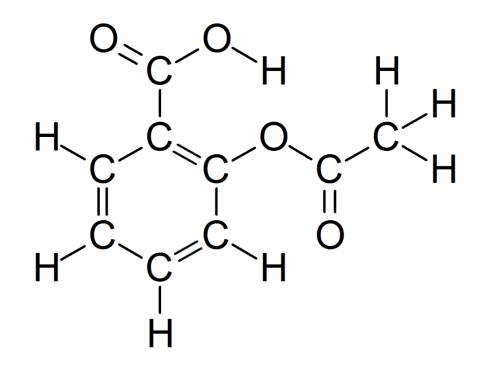
• How many σ -bonds and how many π -bonds are there in the molecule shown below?



 There are 13 covalent bonds in total: 11 σ-bonds 2 π-bonds

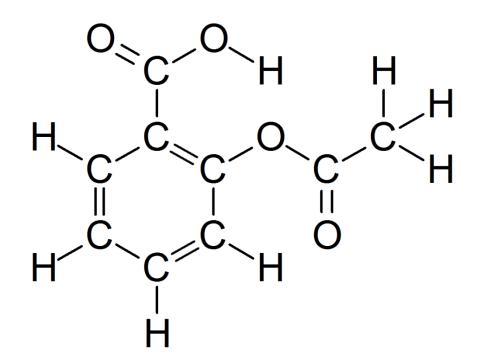
Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

 How many *σ*-bonds and how many *π*-bonds are there in the molecule of *aspirin* shown below?



Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

 How many *σ*-bonds and how many *π*-bonds are there in the molecule of *aspirin* shown below?



• There are 26 covalent bonds: 21 σ -bonds and 5 π -bonds

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

Is a carbon-to-carbon *double* covalent bond (one σ-bond and one π-bond) *twice the strength* of a carbon-to-carbon *single* covalent bond (one σ-bond)?

• C=C bond energy = 602 kJ/mol

• C–C bond energy = 346 kJ/mol

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

Is a carbon-to-carbon *double* covalent bond (one σ-bond and one π-bond) *twice the strength* of a carbon-to-carbon *single* covalent bond (one σ-bond)?

• C=C bond energy = 602 kJ/mol

OR

• $346 \times 2 = 692 \text{ kJ/mol}$ and 692 > 602

... A C=C bond is less than twice the strength of a C–C bond.

Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

• C=C bonds are less than twice the strength of C–C bonds, illustrating that π -bonds are weaker then σ -bonds.

• The strength of a σ -bond is 346 kJ/mol

• The strength of a π -bond is 602 – 346 = 256 kJ/mol

• For σ -bonds, the region of orbital overlap is directly between the nuclei of the two bonding atoms. The volume of orbital overlap is *relatively large*, and hence the *electrostatic forces of attraction are relatively strong, and a large amount of energy is required to break the* σ -bond.

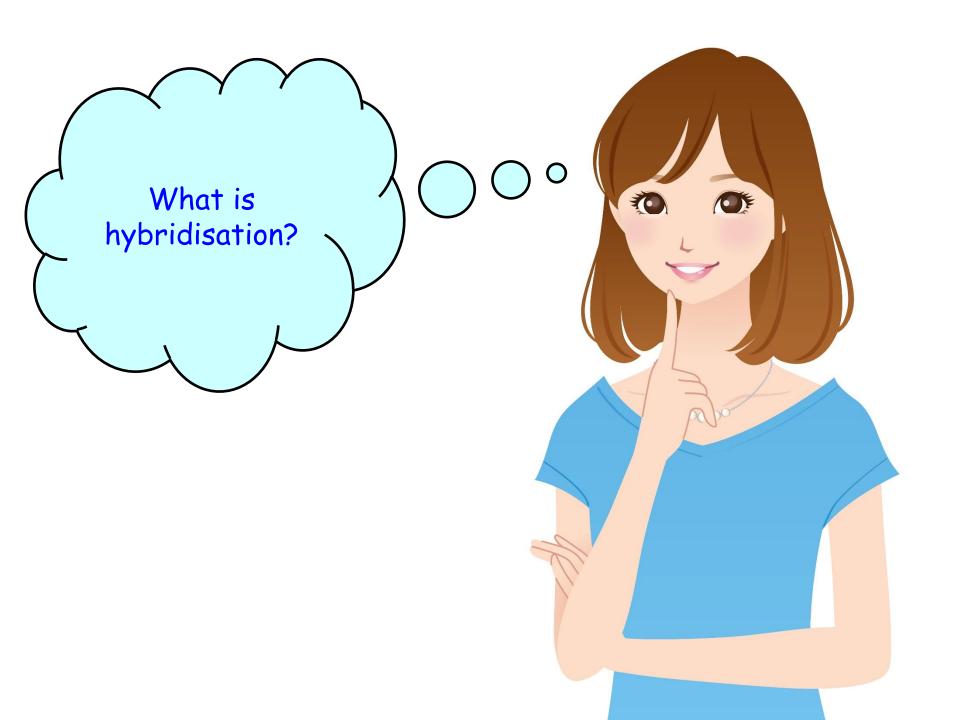
Pi-Bonds and Sigma-Bonds

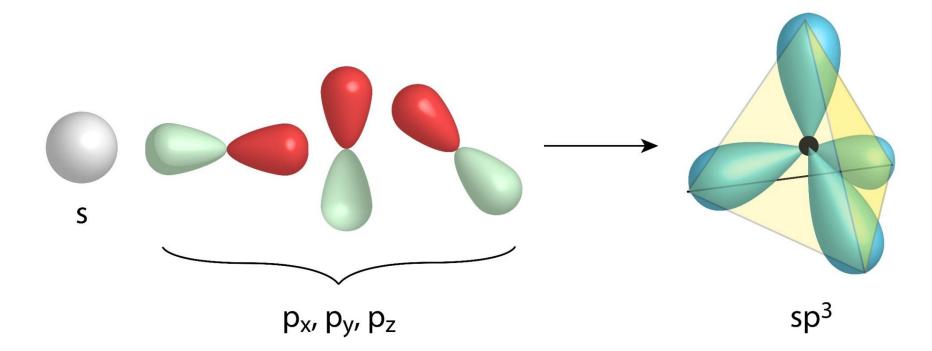
• C=C bonds are less than twice the strength of C–C bonds, illustrating that π -bonds are weaker then σ -bonds.

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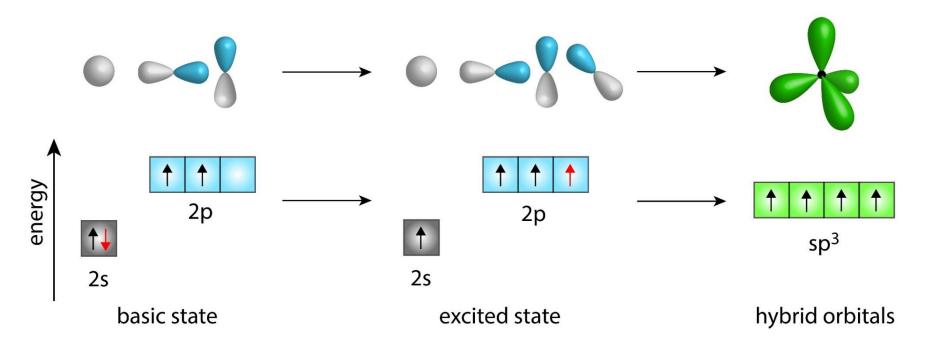
• The strength of a π -bond is 602 – 346 = 256 kJ/mol

• For π -bonds, the region of orbital overlap is not directly between the nuclei of the two bonding atoms. The volume of orbital overlap is *relatively small*, and hence the *electrostatic forces of attraction are relatively weak, and only a small amount of energy is required to break the* π -bond.

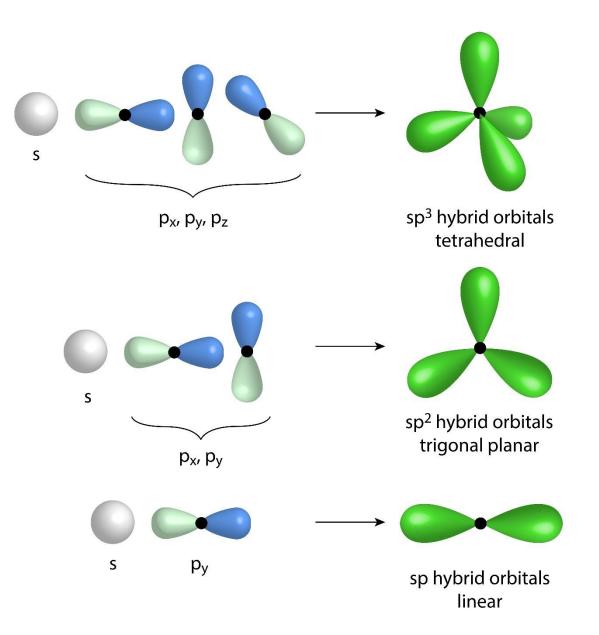




 In chemistry, *hybridisation* is the concept of combining atomic orbitals to form new *hybrid* orbitals that have different shapes and energies compared to the original atomic orbitals.



 Once hybridisation of atomic orbitals has occurred, electrons in the new hybrid orbitals can be shared with other atoms to form *covalent bonds*. Hybridisation is very useful in explaining the *molecular geometry* or shapes of certain molecules, *e.g.* the *tetrahedral* shape of methane – CH₄.



What are some periodic trends that can be explained using orbital theory?

1

OF

 The force of attraction between oppositely charged particles is given by Coulomb's Law:

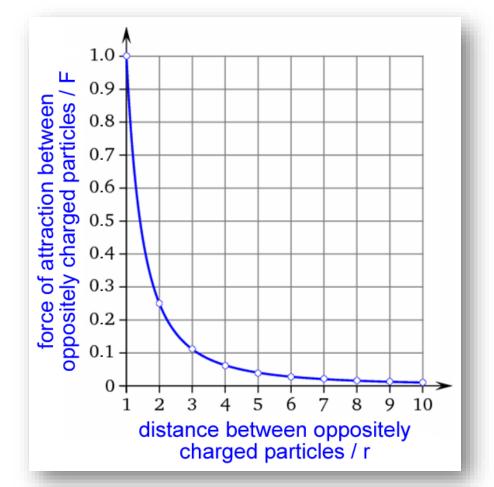
$$\mathsf{F} = \frac{1}{4 \times \pi \times \varepsilon_0} \times \frac{\mathsf{q}_1 \times \mathsf{q}_2}{\mathsf{r}^2}$$

 $\begin{aligned} \mathsf{F} &= \text{force of attraction between oppositely charged particles, N} \\ \boldsymbol{\epsilon}_0 &= \text{permittivity of free space, } \mathbf{C}^2 \text{ m}^{-2} \text{ N}^{-1} \\ \mathbf{q}_1 &= \text{charge on particle one, C} \\ \mathbf{q}_2 &= \text{charge on particle two, C} \\ \mathbf{r} &= \text{distance between particle one and particle two, m} \end{aligned}$

 The force of attraction between oppositely charged particles is given by Coulomb's Law:

$$F \propto \frac{q_1 \times q_2}{r^2}$$

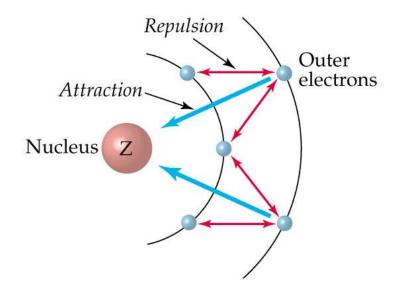
The force of attraction (F) between a proton and an electron in an atom is related to their charge (q₁ and q₂), and it decreases rapidly as the distance between the particles (r) increases (inverse square law).



• The force of attraction (F) between two oppositely charged particles decreases rapidly as the distance between the particles (r) increases – inverse square law.

• A note about *effective nuclear charge*.

 In an atom with many electrons, the negatively charged electron(s) in the valence shell is simultaneously attracted towards the positively charged nucleus and repelled by the negatively charged electrons of the inner electron shells.



• A note about *effective nuclear charge*.

 The effective nuclear charge is the overall charge that an electron(s) in the valence shell of an atom experiences. This takes into account:

→ The number of positively charged protons in the nucleus of the atom (atomic number) that are *attracting* the negatively charged valence electron(s).

→ The number of negatively charged electrons occupying the inner electron shells that are *repelling* the negatively charged valence electron(s). This is often referred to as the *shielding effect*, as these electrons *shield* the valence electron(s) from attractive force of the positively charged nucleus.

• A note about *effective nuclear charge*.

 $Z_{\rm eff} = Z - S$

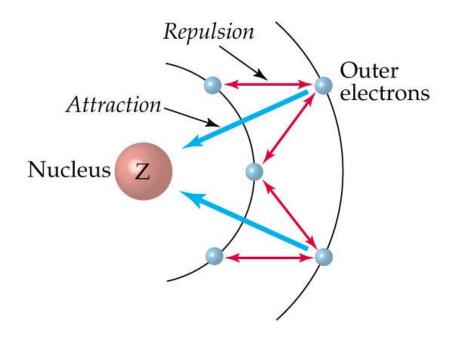
Where:

 $Z_{\rm eff}$ = the effective nuclear charge.

Z = the number of positively charged protons in the nucleus of the atom (atomic number).

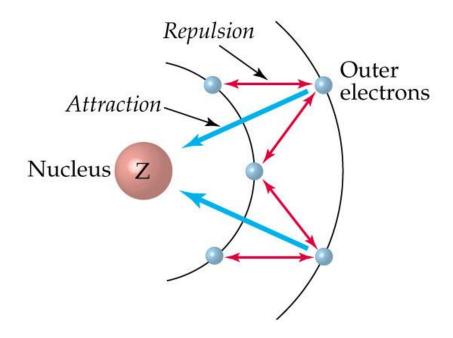
S = the number of electrons in-between the positively charged nucleus and negatively charged valence electron(s), *i.e.* the number of non-valence electrons, which give rise to the *shielding effect*.

• A note about *shielding effect*.



 Electrons in the valence shell of the atom are *shielded* from the positively charged nucleus by negatively charged electrons of the inner electron shells. *Shielding* results in the valence electrons experiencing a *weaker effective nuclear charge*.

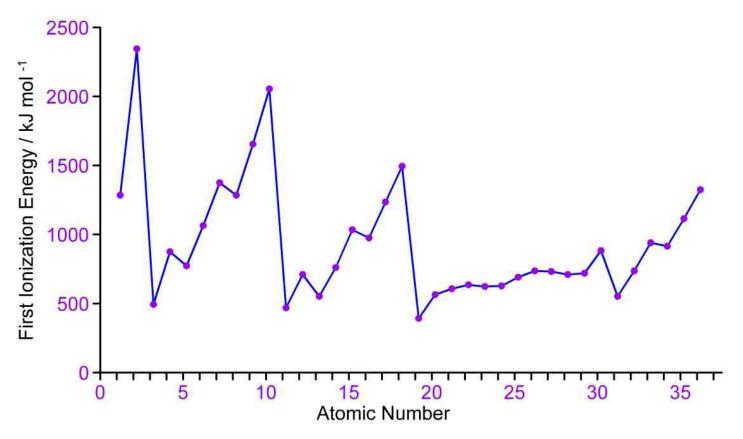
• A note about *shielding effect*.



• Due to the *shielding effect*, the *electrostatic force of attraction* between the positively charged protons in the nucleus and negatively charged electron(s) in the valence shell of the atom is *reduced*.

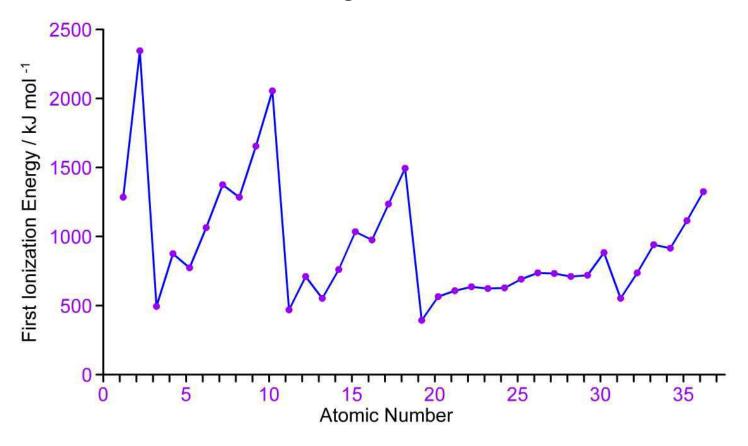
• First ionization energy is the energy required to convert 1 mole (6×10^{23}) of gaseous atoms into one mole (6×10^{23}) of unipositive (1+) gaseous ions.

 $E(g) \rightarrow E^+(g) + e^-$

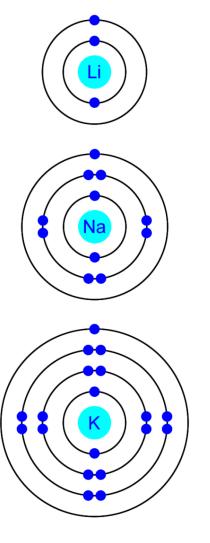




 Essentially, first ionization energy gives an indication of the amount of energy that is required to remove a single electron from the valence shell of a single atom.



• First ionization energy *decreases down a Group*.

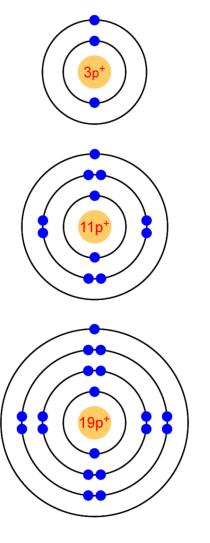


 The number of protons in the nucleus of an atom (nuclear charge) and the number of electron shells around the nucleus of the atom *both increase* down a Group.

 Moving down a Group, there is no significant change in the effective nuclear charge that the electron(s) in the valence shell of the atom experience, as the increasing nuclear charge and increasing shielding effect cancel each other *e.g.*

$$Z_{
m eff}$$
 (Li) = 3 – 2 = +1
 $Z_{
m eff}$ (Na) = 11 – 10 = +1
 $Z_{
m eff}$ (K) = 19 – 18 = +1

• First ionization energy *decreases down a Group*.

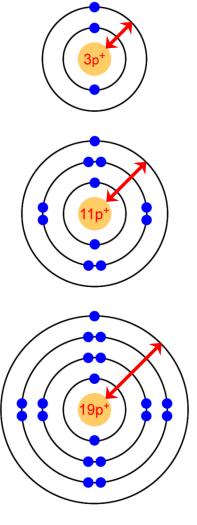


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• First ionization energy *decreases down a Group*.



• The addition of a new electron shell to the atoms is significant because it means that the electron(s) in the valence shell (lost during ionization) is *further from the nucleus*.

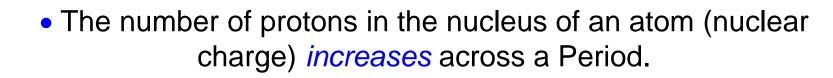
• This *reduces the electrostatic force of attraction* between the positively charged nucleus and negatively charged electron(s) in the valence shell (inverse square law).

• Less energy is required to remove an electron from the valence shell of the atom, therefore *first ionization energy decreases down a Group*.

• First ionization energy *increases across a Period*.

Ν

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С

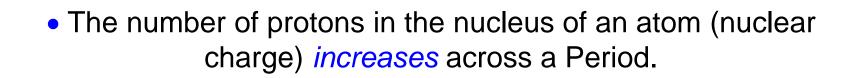
В

Be

- The number of electron shells *remains constant* across a Period and therefore the number of inner shell electrons available to *shield* electrons in the valence shell from the attractive force of the nucleus *remains constant* across a Period.
 - Moving across a Period, electrons in the valence shell of the atom experience a greater effective nuclear charge. Z_{eff} (Li) = 3 - 2 = +1 Z_{eff} (Ne) = 10 - 2 = +8

• First ionization energy *increases across a Period*.

7p⁺

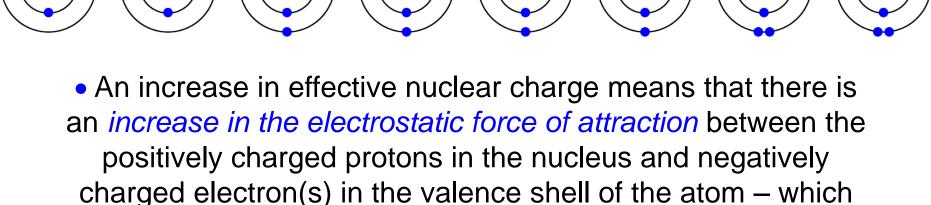


6p⁺

5p⁺

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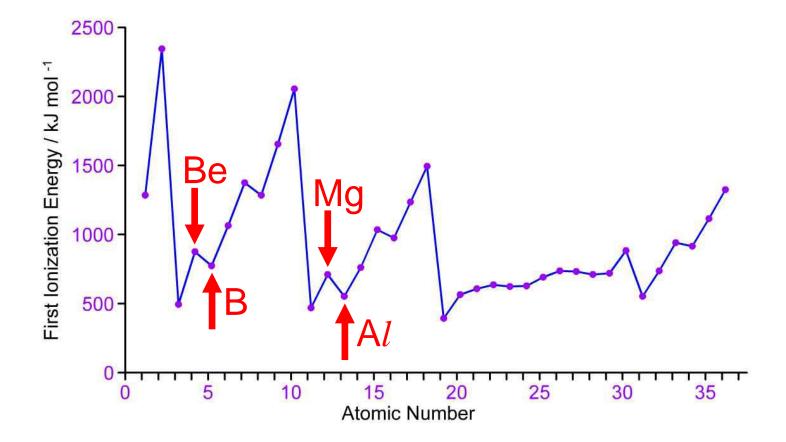
• First ionization energy *increases across a Period*.



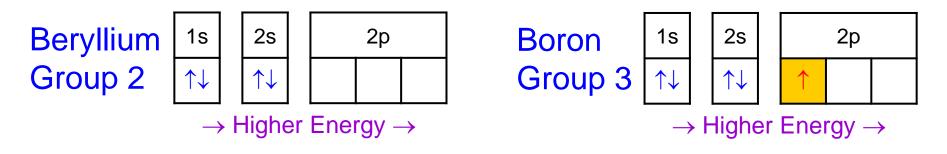
are the electrons that are lost during ionization.

 Moving across a Period, more energy is required to remove an electron from the valence shell of an atom, hence *first ionization energy increases across a Period*.

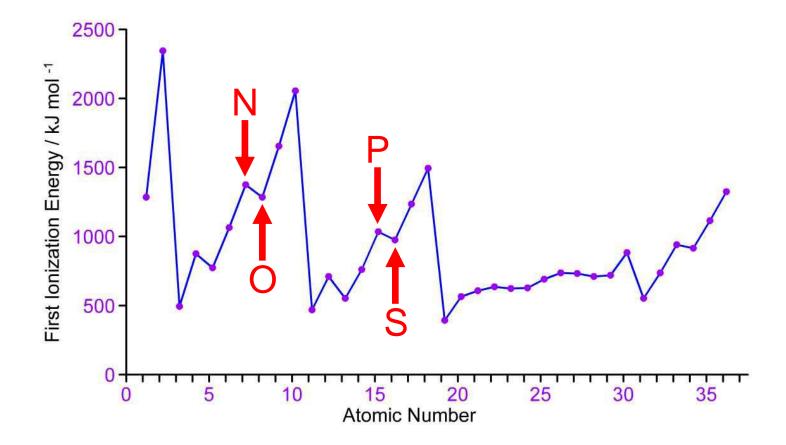
• First ionization energy *decreases* slightly between *Group 2 and Group 13* elements.



- First ionization energy *decreases* slightly between *Group 2 and Group 13* elements.
- Moving from Group 2 to Group 13, the additional electron enters a *p*-orbital of the same principle quantum shell.
- An electron in a *p*-orbital is *higher in energy* than an electron in the *s*-orbital of the same principle quantum shell.
 Consequently, *less energy* is required to remove the *p*-orbital electron (ionization) compared to an electron in the corresponding *s*-orbital, and first ionization energy *decreases* slightly between Group 2 and Group 13.



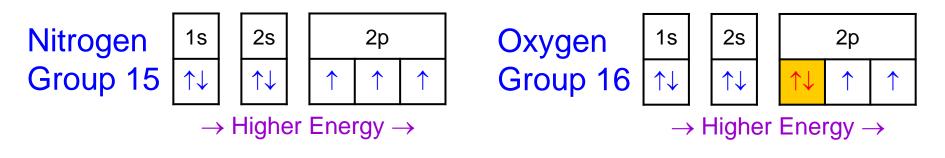
• First ionization energy *decreases* slightly between *Group 15* and *Group 16* elements.



 First ionization energy decreases slightly between Group 15 and Group 16 elements.

 Moving from Group 15 to Group 16, the additional electron must spin pair with an existing electron in one of the atom's *p*-orbitals.

 An *electrostatic force of repulsion* between the two spin paired electrons that share the same *p*-orbital means that *less energy* is required to remove (ionization) an electron from the *p*-orbital, and first ionization energy *decreases* slightly between Group 15 and Group 16.





End of Presentation





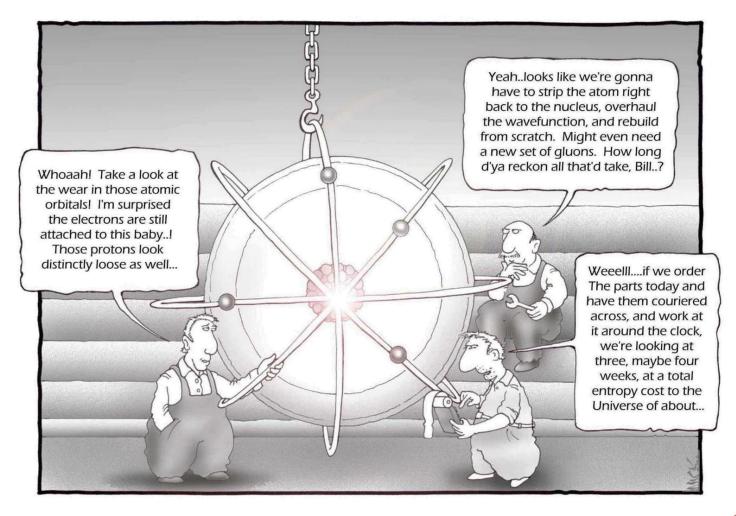
Presentation on Advanced Theories of Atomic Structure by Dr. Chris Slatter christopher_john_slatter@nygh.edu.sg

Nanyang Girls' High School

2 Linden Drive Singapore 288683

8th January 2017





Quantum mechanics.

