

Chapter 7 Quantum Theory of Light, the Atom, and Atomic Structure
(Sections [6.1](#), [6.2](#), and [6.3](#) in OpenStax)

Electromagnetic Radiation

- Electromagnetic radiation consists of oscillations in electric and magnetic fields.
The oscillations can be described mathematically with a sine wave.
- Electromagnetic radiation has both wave-like and particle-like properties.
- Visible light is one form of electromagnetic radiation.
- The other forms of electromagnetic radiation are radio, microwave, infrared, ultraviolet, x-rays, and gamma rays.

Wavelength

- Symbolized by λ (lambda).
- Wavelength is the distance between two adjacent identical points on a wave.
For example, the crest-to-crest distance is one wavelength.
- The units are those for length, such as nm ($1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-9} \text{ m}$).

Frequency

- Symbolized by ν (nu).
- Frequency is the number of wavelengths (cycles) per unit time, which is seconds (s).
- The units are Hertz (Hz), which are cycles/s.
Cycles are normally omitted to give us s^{-1} (same as $\frac{1}{\text{s}}$).

Speed of Light (in a vacuum)

- Symbolized by c and is a constant: $c = 3.00 \times 10^8 \text{ m/s} = \text{length traveled per unit time}$
- Equal to wavelength times frequency: $c = \nu \lambda = (\text{waves per unit time}) \times (\text{length per wave})$
- The equation can also be rearranged: $\lambda = \frac{c}{\nu}$ and $\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda}$

Example 7.01 If frequency is $4.55 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}$, then what is the wavelength (and [color](#))?

- Review how to use scientific notation [here](#).
- $\lambda = \frac{c}{\nu} = \frac{(3.00 \times 10^8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}})}{(4.55 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1})} = 6.59 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$
- $(6.59 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}) \left(\frac{10^9 \text{ nm}}{1 \text{ m}} \right) = 659 \text{ nm}$ (orange)

Example 7.02 If wavelength is 554 nm, then what is the frequency (and color)?

- $\lambda = (554 \text{ nm}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ m}}{10^9 \text{ nm}} \right) = 5.54 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$ (green)
- $\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda} = \frac{(3.00 \times 10^8 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}})}{(5.54 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m})} = 5.42 \times 10^{14} \text{ s}^{-1}$

Electromagnetic Spectrum – The entire spectrum contains the full range of λ 's and ν 's.

- The equation for the energy of a cycle is $E = h\nu = hc/\lambda$, where h is Planck's constant (below).
- Radio waves have the lowest E , lowest ν , and highest λ .
- Gamma rays have the highest E , highest ν , and lowest λ .
- Visible is approximately in the middle, with wavelengths from 380 nm to 780 nm.

Diffraction

- Diffraction is a slight change in direction of a wave as it passes around the edge of an object. Objects make waves appear to “bend” or change their overall direction.
- Objects cause light to diffuse, or spread out in many directions.
- This shows that light can behave like a wave.

Vibrational Energy (Max Planck)

- Vibrational energy (E) of an atom causes it to oscillate back and forth like a spring.
- The energy can only have certain quantized values, and is not a continuous function.
- The atoms will have an oscillation frequency (ν), and E will be a function of ν .
- Max Planck found (in 1900) that $E = nh\nu$, where n is an integer called the vibrational quantum number, and h is Planck's constant: $h = 6.63 \times 10^{-34}$ J·s (or $\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}$).

Photoelectric Effect (Albert Einstein)

- Light behaves not only like a wave, but also like a particle.
- Light can be absorbed by an e^{-1} and can cause the e^{-1} to be ejected from its atom.
- But for an e^{-1} to be ejected, the E_{photon} must be larger than the “threshold value” for that e^{-1} . So, frequency (ν) must be greater than the value of the spectral line in the emission spectrum.
- In this case, light is behaving like a particle, where each particle contains a specific quantity (quantum) of energy, which must be above the threshold value in order to eject the e^{-1} .
- The energy of the absorbed photon equals the change in the energy of the e^{-1} .

$$\Delta E_{\text{electron}} = E_{\text{photon}} = h\nu = hc/\lambda.$$

Example 7.03 If wavelength is 456 nm, then what is the energy of the photon?

- $\lambda = (456 \text{ nm}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ m}}{10^{+9} \text{ nm}} \right) = 4.56 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}$ $\nu = c / \lambda = \frac{3.00 \times 10^{+8} \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}}}{4.56 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m}} = 6.58 \times 10^{+14} \text{ s}^{-1}$
- $E_{\text{photon}} = h\nu = (6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s})(6.58 \times 10^{+14} \text{ s}^{-1}) = 4.36 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$

Niels Bohr's Theory of the Hydrogen Atom (1913)

- Stability of atom is due to quantization of E .
- The e^{-1} does not fall into the nucleus because it has kinetic E , which can only be gained or lost in certain quantized amounts.
- Emission of light by a heated gaseous element shows only specific λ 's (lines), and this line spectrum is unique for each element.
- These λ 's are those of specific transitions for e^{-1} 's going from one E level to another.

Rydberg formula

- In 1885, J.J. Balmer found a mathematical equation that fits the wavenumbers (m^{-1}) for the [visible spectral lines](#) emitted by hydrogen. In 1888, Johannes Rydberg found that Balmer's equation could be rewritten using integers.

$$(1/\lambda) = (1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}) \left(\frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right)$$

- These wavenumbers are directly proportional to energy also, because $E = hc \times (1/\lambda)$.

Bohr's Postulates (1913)

1. An e^{-1} can only have specific E levels, such that $E = -\frac{R_H}{n^2}$.

The n is an integer called the principal quantum #, and it corresponds to the primary E level.

2. An e^{-1} can change its E only by a transition from one E level to another, with a ΔE .

Bohr's Postulates explain why the Rydberg and Balmer formulas work for hydrogen

- The energy of an e^{-1} at energy level n is found by $E = -R_H/n^2$, where $R_H = 2.179 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}$.
- When an e^{-1} goes from higher E to lower E, [a photon is emitted](#).
- The energy of the emitted photon is equivalent to the energy of the transition.

$$E_{\text{photon}} = -\Delta E_{\text{electron}} = - (E_f - E_i)$$

$$E_{\text{photon}} = R_H \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right) \quad \text{and} \quad 1/\lambda = \left(\frac{R_H}{hc} \right) \left(\frac{1}{n_f^2} - \frac{1}{n_i^2} \right)$$

- R_H/hc is the Rydberg constant and equals $1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}$, as in the Rydberg equation above.
- E values are negative because bond energy between e^{-1} and nucleus stabilizes the atom.

This is similar to the negative ΔH for exothermic reactions.

- The e^{-1} is ejected when there is no stabilization left, that is when $E = 0$.
- J.J. Balmer could only observe transitions that have visible λ 's, which is where $n_f = 2$.

Example 7.04 Find λ and E_{photon} for a Transition (Where an e^{-1} Changes its Energy Level)

- The transition is from $n = 4$ to $n = 2$ for an e^{-1} in a hydrogen atom.
- $(1/\lambda) = \left(\frac{R_H}{hc} \right) \left(\frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{4^2} \right) = \left(\frac{R_H}{hc} \right) \left(\frac{1}{4} - \frac{1}{16} \right) = (1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}) \left(\frac{3}{16} \right)$
- $\lambda = \left(\frac{1}{1.097 \times 10^7 \text{ m}^{-1}} \right) \left(\frac{16}{3} \right) = 4.86 \times 10^{-7} \text{ m} \times \left(\frac{10^9 \text{ nm}}{1 \text{ m}} \right) = 486 \text{ nm}$ (blue-green)
- $E_{\text{photon}} = (R_H) \left(\frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{4^2} \right) = (2.179 \times 10^{-18} \text{ J}) \left(\frac{3}{16} \right) = 4.086 \times 10^{-19} \text{ J}$

Atomic Spectra (emission and absorption)

- Emission occurs when an e^{-1} goes from a higher E level to a lower E level, which causes a photon (or light) to be released.
- Absorption occurs when an e^{-1} absorbs a photon and goes to a higher E level (an excited state).

Quantum Mechanics

- Quantum mechanics describes the wave-like properties of submicroscopic particles.
- Louis de Broglie's relation is $\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$, where m is mass and v is velocity.
- This shows that matter, like light, has wave-like properties.
- A smaller mass possesses a larger λ . As a result, a tiny e^{-1} can have a λ that is in the visible, ultraviolet, or x-ray ranges. For this reason, an electron microscope ([image c](#)) can work by using an x-ray detector to detect e^{-1} 's diffracted by the object being imaged.

Example 7.05 The de Broglie relation for a baseball (0.145 kg) and an electron (9.11×10^{-31} kg)

a. $v = (135 \text{ km/hr}) \left(\frac{1 \text{ hr}}{3600 \text{ s}} \right) \left(\frac{1000 \text{ m}}{\text{km}} \right) = 37.5 \text{ m/s}$

$$\lambda = h/mv = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J}\cdot\text{s}}{(0.145 \text{ kg}) \left(37.5 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \right)} = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34} (\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2)\cdot\text{s}}{(0.145 \text{ kg}) \left(37.5 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \right)} = 1.22 \times 10^{-34} \text{ m}$$

b. $\lambda = h/mv = \frac{6.63 \times 10^{-34} (\text{kg}\cdot\text{m}^2/\text{s}^2)\cdot\text{s}}{(9.11 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}) \left(3.45 \times 10^6 \frac{\text{m}}{\text{s}} \right)} = 2.11 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}$

$$\lambda = (2.11 \times 10^{-10} \text{ m}) \left(\frac{10^{12} \text{ pm}}{1 \text{ m}} \right) = 211 \text{ pm (in the x-ray range)}$$

Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle

- An e^{-1} in an atom does not have a precise orbit, and we cannot simultaneously know its precise position (x) and momentum (p).
- The Δ 's represent error magnitudes, and there is a minimum combined uncertainty.
$$(\Delta x)(\Delta p_x) \geq h/(4\pi)$$
- Also, momentum is mass times velocity ($p = mv$), so we can say $\Delta p_x = m(\Delta v_x)$.
$$(\Delta x)(\Delta v_x) \geq h/(4\pi m)$$
- If one value (x or v) is known precisely, the uncertainty for the other value must be large as a consequence.

Wave Function

- The wave equation describes position (x) and velocity (v) for a particle, like an electron, within a given energy level. The overall equation is symbolized by the Greek letter psi (Ψ).
- Ψ^2 gives the [probability density function](#) for finding the particle (e^{-1}) within a given volume around the nucleus. To obtain probability vs. distance from nucleus, we integrate:

$$\text{Probability} = \int (\Psi^2) \delta V, \text{ where } V \text{ is volume.}$$

- Since $V = (4/3)\Pi r^3$ and $\delta V = (4\Pi r^2)\delta r$, we can put the equation in terms of atomic radius:

$$\text{Probability} = \int (\Psi^2) (4\Pi r^2) \delta r$$

- Integrating this equation for the hydrogen atom's one electron gives a [simple curve](#) with a single maximum probability.
- Volume is very small near the nucleus, so the probability of the electron being very near to the nucleus is very low. Probability approaches zero at the nucleus.
- Probability reaches a maximum at approximately 50 pm, then declines.
- Probability approaches 0 again near 200 pm.

Atomic Orbital

- An atomic orbital is a space around the nucleus where two electrons reside. That is, it is the space which has the highest probability for the e^{-1} 's locations.
- The wave function (Ψ) is the mathematical description of an atomic orbital.

Quantum Numbers and Atomic Orbitals

A wave function, which describes an atomic orbital, is determined by four quantum numbers.

1. Principle Q # is symbolized by n , where $n \in \{1, 2, 3, \dots\}$. All n values are positive integers. The n value determines most of the e^{-1} 's energy, and corresponds with its **shell number**. The shell number of the outermost e^{-1} corresponds with atom's **row** in periodic table.
2. Angular Momentum Q # is symbolized by L , where $L \in \{0, 1, 2, 3 \dots (n - 1)\}$. L includes nonnegative integers up to $(n - 1)$ and $L < n$ for all values. L corresponds with **subshells (s, p, d, f, and g)** within a shell. The "s" subshell (where $L = 0$) has an [orbital](#) with a spherical shape. The "p" subshell (where $L = 1$) has [orbitals](#) with *two* elliptical lobes. The "d" subshell (where $L = 2$) has [orbitals](#) with *four* elliptical lobes.
3. Magnetic Q # is symbolized by m_L , where $m_L \in \{-L \dots 0 \dots +L\}$. The values include positive and negative integers with the absolute value $\leq L$. m_L values correspond to **orbitals** in a subshell. The s subshell has only one orbital ($m_L = 0$), p has three orbitals ($m_L = -1, 0, +1$), and d has five orbitals ($m_L = -2, -1, 0, +1, +2$).
4. Spin Q # is symbolized by m_S , where $m_S \in \{-1/2 \text{ and } +1/2\}$. The two m_S values correspond to each of **two e^{-1} 's** in an orbital. No more than two e^{-1} 's can fit in an orbital, and they will have opposing spin directions.

This [chart](#) shows what values are allowed for electrons, according to their shells and subshells.

Example 7.06 Applying the Rules for the Four Quantum Numbers

- a. $n = 2$ and $L = 2$: If $n = 2$ (shell 2), then L cannot be larger than $n - 1$, which is $2 - 1 = 1$. This leaves only $L = 0$ (s subshell) and $L = 1$ (p subshell). So, $L = 2$ is not permissible.
- b. $n = 2$, $L = 1$, and $m_L = -3$: If $L = 1$ (p subshell), then m_L can only be $-1, 0$, or $+1$. So, $m_L = -3$ is not permissible.
- c. $m_S = 0$: Value for m_S can only be $-1/2$ or $+1/2$. So, $m_S = 0$ is never permissible.
- d. $n = 3$, $L = 2$, and $m_L = -1$: If $n = 3$, then $L = 2$ (d subshell) is allowed because $3 - 1 = 2$. If $L = 2$, then $m_L = -1$ is allowed because $m_L \in \{-2, -1, 0, +1, +2\}$ for $L = 2$.