Readings for today: Section 1.9 - Atomic Orbitals. Section 1.10 - Electron Spin, Section 1.11 The Electronic Structure of Hydrogen. (Same sections in $4^{\text {th }} \mathrm{ed}$.)
Read for Lecture \#7: Section 1.12 - Orbital Energies (of many-electron atoms), Section 1.13 The Building-Up Principle. (Same sections in $4^{\text {th }}$ and $5^{\text {th }} \mathrm{ed}$.)

| Topics: | I. Wavefunctions (Orbitals) for the Hydrogen Atom <br>  <br>  <br>  <br> II. Shape and Size of S and P Orbitals <br> III. Electron Spin and the Pauli Exclusion Principle |
| :--- | :--- |

## I. WAVEFUNCTIONS (ORBITALS) FOR THE HYDROGEN ATOM

Solving the Schrödinger Equation provides values for $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{n}}$ and $\Psi(\mathrm{r}, \theta, \phi)$.
A total of 3 quantum numbers are needed to describe a wavefunction in 3D.

1. $\mathrm{n} \equiv$ principal quantum number
$\mathrm{n}=$
determines binding energy (energy level or shell)
2. $\quad l \equiv$ angular momentum quantum number
$l=$ $\qquad$
$l$ is related to n, determines angular momentum, describes subshell, shape of orbital largest value of $l=n-1$
3. $m \equiv$ magnetic quantum number
$\mathrm{m}=$ $\qquad$
m is related to $l$, determines behavior in magnetic field, describes the specific orbital
To describe an orbital, we need to use all three quantum numbers:

$$
\Psi_{\mathrm{n} l \mathrm{~m}}(\mathrm{r}, \theta, \phi)
$$

The wavefunction describing the ground state is $\qquad$ .

Using the terminology of chemists:
The $\Psi_{100}$ orbital is instead called the $\qquad$ orbital.
$\mathrm{n} \quad$ designates the shell or energy level (1,2,3...)
$l \quad$ designates the subshell (shape of orbital)
( $s, p, d, f \ldots$ )
m designates orbital orientation (specific orbital) $\left(p_{x}, p_{y}, p_{z} \ldots\right)$
$\ell=\mathbf{0} \Rightarrow$ $\qquad$ orbital $\ell=1 \Rightarrow$ $\qquad$ orbital $\ell=\mathbf{2} \Rightarrow$ $\qquad$ orbital $\ell=\mathbf{3} \Rightarrow$ $\qquad$ orbital
for $\ell=1: \quad \mathrm{m}=0$ is $\mathbf{p}_{\mathrm{z}}$ orbital, $\mathrm{m}= \pm 1$ are the $\mathbf{p}_{\mathrm{x}}$ and $\mathbf{p}_{\mathrm{y}}$ orbitals

|  | State label | wavefunction | orbital | H atom $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{n}}$ | H atom $\mathrm{E}_{\mathrm{n}}[\mathrm{J}]$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{n}=1 \\ & \ell=0 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=0 \end{aligned}$ |  | $\psi_{100}$ |  |  | $-2.18 \times 10^{-18} \mathrm{~J}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{n}=2 \\ & \ell=0 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=0 \end{aligned}$ |  | $\psi_{200}$ |  |  | $-5.45 \times 10^{-19} \mathrm{~J}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{n}=2 \\ & \ell=1 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=+1 \end{aligned}$ |  | $\psi_{211}$ |  |  | $-5.45 \times 10^{-19} \mathrm{~J}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{n}=2 \\ & \ell=1 \\ & \mathrm{~m}=0 \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | 210 | $\psi_{210}$ |  | $-\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{H}} / 2^{2}$ | $-5.45 \times 10^{-19} \mathrm{~J}$ |
| $\begin{aligned} & \mathrm{n}=2 \\ & \ell=1 \end{aligned}$ | 21-1 | $\psi_{21-1}$ |  | $-\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{H}} / 2^{2}$ | $-5.45 \times 10^{-19} \mathrm{~J}$ |

What is the corresponding orbital for a 5,1,0 state?

For a hydrogen atom, orbitals with the same $n$ value have the same energy: $E=-R_{H} / n^{2}$.
$\qquad$
$\equiv$ having the same energy

For any principle quantum number, $n$, there are

$\qquad$ degenerate orbitals in hydrogen (or any other 1 electron atom).

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## IN THEIR OWN WORDS

MIT graduate student Benjamin Ofori-Okai discusses how energy levels relate to research in nanoscale MRI (magnetic resonance imaging), a technique that allows 3-D imaging of biological molecules, such as proteins, and viruses.


## THE PHYSICAL INTERPRETATION OF A WAVEFUNCTION

The probability of finding a particle (the electron!) in a defined region is proportional to the square of the wavefunction.

$$
\left[\Psi_{\mathrm{nlm}}(\mathrm{r}, \theta, \phi)\right]^{2}=\text { PROBABLITY DENSITY }=
$$

$\qquad$
probability of finding an electron per unit volume at $\mathbf{r}, \theta, \phi$

## IIA. SHAPE OF S ORBITAL

To consider the shapes of orbitals, we can rewrite the wavefunction $\Psi_{n l m}$ as the product of a radial wavefunction, $\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{n} l}(\mathrm{r})$, and an angular wavefunction $\mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{lm}}(\theta, \phi)$

$$
\left.\Psi_{\mathrm{nlm}}(\mathrm{r}, \theta, \phi)\right]=\underset{\text { radial }}{\mathrm{R}_{\mathrm{nl}}(\mathrm{r})} \times \mathrm{x} \quad \mathrm{Y}_{\mathrm{lm}}(\theta, \phi)
$$

| (a) radial wave functions |  |  | (b) angular wave functions |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $n$ | $l$ | $R_{n l}(r)$ | $l$ | $m_{l}$ | $Y_{l, m l}(\theta, \phi)$ |
| 1 | 0 | $2\left(\frac{Z}{a_{0}}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}} e^{-Z r / a_{0}}$ | 0 | 0 | $\left(\frac{1}{4 \pi}\right)^{1 / 2}$ |
| 2 | 0 | $\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{2}}\left(\frac{Z}{a_{0}}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}\left(2-\frac{Z r}{a_{0}}\right) e^{-\frac{Z r}{2 a_{0}}}$ | 1 | $x$ | $\left(\frac{3}{4 \pi}\right)^{1 / 2} \sin \theta \cos \phi$ |
|  | 1 | $\frac{1}{2 \sqrt{6}}\left(\frac{Z}{a_{0}}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}\left(\frac{Z r}{a_{0}}\right) e^{-\frac{Z r}{2 a_{0}}}$ |  | $y$ | $\left(\frac{3}{4 \pi}\right)^{1 / 2} \sin \theta \sin \phi$ |
| 3 | 0 | $\frac{2}{9 \sqrt{3}}\left(\frac{Z}{a_{0}}\right)^{\frac{3}{2}}\left(3-\frac{2 Z r}{a_{0}}-2 \frac{Z^{2} r^{2}}{9 a_{0}^{2}}\right) e^{-\frac{Z r}{3 a_{0}}}$ |  | $z$ | $\left(\frac{3}{4 \pi}\right)^{1 / 2} \cos \theta$ |

where $\mathrm{a}_{0}=$ $\qquad$ $(a$ constant $)=52.9 \mathrm{pm}$
for a ground state H-atom:


For all s orbitals (1s, 2s, 3s, etc.), the angular wavefunction, $Y$, is a $\qquad$ .
s orbitals are spherically symmetrical - independent of $\qquad$ and $\qquad$ .

There are three common plots used to help us visualize an s orbital: (1) Probability density $\Psi^{2}$ plot of s orbitals in which density of dots represents probability density; (2) Wavefunction plotted again r (distance from nucleus); (3) Radial probability distribution as a function of radius.

RADIAL PROBABILITY DISTRIBUTION (RPD) reports on the probability of finding an electron in a spherical shell of thickness dr at a distance r from origin. Maximum probability or most probable value of $r$ is denoted $\qquad$ .


Image by MIT OpenCourseWare.
Adapted from Oxtoby, D., et al. Principles of Modern Chemistry, fifth edition. Thomson Brooks/Cole, 2002. ISBN: 9780030353734.
NODE: A value for $\mathrm{r}, \theta$, or $\phi$ for which $\Psi\left(\right.$ and $\left.\Psi^{2}\right)=$ $\qquad$ .

RADIAL NODE: A value for $\qquad$ for which $\Psi\left(\right.$ and $\left.\Psi^{2}\right)=0$. In other words, a radial node is a distance from the radius for which there is no probability of finding an electron.

To calculate the number of radical nodes $\mathbf{n - 1} \mathbf{- 1}$
1s: 1-1-0=0 radial nodes
2s: $\qquad$ radial nodes

3s: $\qquad$ radial nodes

4 p : $\qquad$ radial nodes


Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

## IIB. THE SHAPE OF P ORBITALS

- Unlike s orbitals, p orbitals have $\theta, \phi$ dependence.
- P orbitals $\qquad$ spherically symmetrical.
- P orbitals consist of two lobes (of opposite sign) separated by a $\qquad$ plane on which $\Psi=0$ (and $\Psi^{2}=0$ ).
- There is zero probability of finding a p-electron in a nodal plane. Thus, there is $\qquad$ probability of finding a p-electron at the nucleus.

Probability density maps of $p$ orbitals:


Nodal planes: xy

yz

xz

Nodal planes (planes that have no electron density) arise from angular nodes in the wavefunction.

ANGULAR NODE: A value for $\qquad$ at which $\Psi\left(\right.$ and $\left.\Psi^{2}\right)=0$.

In general, an orbital has: n $\qquad$ total nodes
angular nodes
$\qquad$ radial nodes

2s: $\qquad$ angular nodes, $\qquad$ radial nodes

2p: $\qquad$ total nodes, $\qquad$ angular nodes, $\qquad$ radial nodes

3d: $\qquad$ total nodes, $\qquad$ angular nodes, $\qquad$ radial nodes


Figure by MIT OpenCourseWare.

As n increases (from 1 to 2 to 3 ), the orbital $\mathrm{r}_{\mathrm{mp}}$ "size" $\qquad$ .

As $l$ increases (from $s$ to $p$ to $d$ ) for a given $n$, the orbital $r_{m p}$ "size" $\qquad$ .

Only electrons in s states have a substantial probability of being very close to nucleus. This means that although the "size" (also called the boundry surface) of s orbitals is larger than p or d orbitals, s-electrons are the $\qquad$ shielded.

## III. ELECTRON SPIN: THE FOURTH QUANTUM NUMBER

A fourth quantum number describes the spin of an electron within an orbital: the spin magnetic quantum number, $\qquad$
There is no classical analogy to spin.

- An electron can have two spin states:

$$
\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{s}}=
$$

$\qquad$ (spin up) or $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{s}}=$ $\qquad$ (spin down).

- $\mathrm{m}_{\mathrm{s}}$ completes the description of an $\qquad$ and is NOT dependent on the orbital.

So we can describe a given orbital using three quantum numbers ( $\mathrm{n}, l, \mathrm{~m}_{l}$ ) and a given electron using 4 quantum numbers ( $\mathrm{n}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{m}_{l} \mathrm{~m}_{\mathrm{s}}$ ).
$\qquad$
$\Psi_{\mathrm{n} \mathrm{m}_{l}}$
describes an
$\underset{\text { describes an }}{\Psi_{n} \operatorname{lm}_{l} \mathrm{~m}_{\mathrm{s}}}$ $\qquad$

## PAULI EXCLUSION PRINCIPLE

No two electrons can be in the same orbital and have the same spin.
No two electrons in the same atom can have the same $\qquad$ quantum numbers.
$\overline{1 s^{2}} \quad \overline{2 S^{2}} \quad \overline{2 p_{x}^{2}} \quad \overline{2 p_{y}^{2}} \quad \overline{2 p_{z}^{2}}{ }^{2}$

Within each orbital, electrons are paired (one spin up and one spin down).
One orbital can hold no more than two electrons.

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