

## Paper = 1

### Inorganic Chemistry

#### Unit = 1

#### Atomic Structure

- The Atomic structure of an element refers to the constitution of its nucleus and the arrangement of the electrons around it. Primarily, the atomic structure of matter is made up of protons, electrons and neutrons.
- Atomic structure refers to the structure of an atom comprising a nucleus (centre), in which the protons (+ive) (positively charge) and neutrons (neutral) are present. The negatively charge particles electrons revolve around the centre of the nucleus.
- The protons and neutrons make up the nucleus of the atom, which is surrounded by the electron belonging to the atom.
- The atomic number of an element describes the total number of proton in its nucleus.



[The structure of an atom]



- Neutral atoms have equal numbers of protons or electrons. However, atoms may gain or lose electrons in order to increase their stability and the resulting charged entity is called an ion.
- Atoms of different elements have different atomic structure because they contain different numbers of protons and electrons. This is the reason for the unique characteristics of different elements.

<u>Property</u>	<u>Protons</u>	<u>Electrons</u>	<u>Neutron</u>
1. Symbol	$p^+$ or $p^+$	$e^-$ or $e^-$	$n$ or $n^0$
2. Charged	$+1$ or $+1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$	$-1$ or $-1.6 \times 10^{-19} \text{ C}$	Zero
3. Mass	$1.67 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$	$9.1 \times 10^{-31} \text{ kg}$	$1.675 \times 10^{-27} \text{ kg}$
4. Location	Present in nucleus	Present around the nucleus	Present in nucleus
5. Discovery	E. Gold Stein	J. J. Thomson	Chadwick

In the 18<sup>th</sup> and 19<sup>th</sup> centuries many scientists attempted to explain the structure of the atom with the help of atomic model.



(i) John Dalton

(ii) J. J. Thomson

(iii) Ernest Rutherford

(iv) Niels Bohr

- According to Rutherford's models, most of the mass of an atom is concentrated in a small, dense nucleus.
- The electrons are revolving along the nucleus and occupy most of the volume of the atom.
- The nucleus of the hydrogen atom is of proton.
- The nuclei of all other atoms are composed of protons and neutrons.
- To explain why the negatively charged electrons do not fall into the positively charged nucleus.
- Niels Bohr in 1913 proposed that the energy of electrons in atoms is quantized, that is, they can have only certain fixed values.
- Thus, Bohr's picture of the electrons has them revolving in orbit.



- Bohr's model of atom was successful in explaining atom spectrum of hydrogen atom.
- However, it failed to explain the spectrum of multielectron atom.
- Bohr's model of atom also failed to explain the splitting of spectral lines in the magnetic field (A phenomenon called Zeeman effect).
- As well as in electric field, a phenomenon called Stark effect.

The serious objection to Bohr's model of atom comes from the revolutionary ideas of de-Broglie and Heisenberg, who introduced the concept of wave character of electron in addition to the particle character to the electron.

- Within a short time a radically different model called the Quantum mechanical model.
- The quantum mechanical model of atomic structure was derived from the work of Louis de-Broglie.



## De-Broglie Ideas of Matter Wave

- According to de-Broglie, all material particles in motion possess wave characteristics. De-Broglie showed that just as electromagnetic wave could be created of streams of particles (photons), moving particles could also exhibit wave like properties. Thus, it is important to picture electron either as particles or as wave.
- Wave associated with a matter is called matter wave.
- According to de-Broglie, the wave length  $\lambda$  associated with a particle mass ( $m$ ), moving with a velocity ( $v$ ) is given by the relation.

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} \quad \text{①}$$

Where  $h$  = Planck's constant

$mv$  = momentum of the particle

$\lambda$  = wave length

$m$  = mass

$v$  = velocity

The waves associated with the material particles



are called the matter waves. The equation first is known as the de-Broglie equation.

### Derivation of de-Broglie equation

By combining the mass-energy relationship proposed by Max Planck and Albert Einstein, the de-Broglie relationship <sup>can be</sup> derived.

According to Planck, a photon of light has energy ( $E$ ). It is associated with the wave of frequency ( $\nu$ )  $h\nu$ .

$$E = h\nu \quad \text{II}$$

And according to Einstein mass and energy are related as,

$$E = mc^2 \quad \text{III}$$

$c =$  velocity of light

Equating the equation II and III

$$h\nu = mc^2$$

Since,  $\nu\lambda = c$  or  $\nu = \frac{c}{\lambda}$

$$\frac{hc}{\lambda} = mc^2$$

$\lambda$

$$\frac{h}{\lambda} = mc$$

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mc}$$

This equation is valid for a photon. de-Broglie suggested that on substituting the mass ( $m$ ) of the



particle and its velocity ( $v$ ) in place of velocity of light ( $c$ ), the equation can also be used in case of the material particle.

Thus, the wave length of the material particle is

$$\lambda = \frac{h}{mv}$$

This equation is known as the de-Broglie equation. Or the other words,

$$\lambda = \frac{\text{Planck constant}}{\text{mass of momentum}}$$

Since,  $h$  is a constant

$$\lambda \propto \frac{1}{\text{momentum}}$$

It means that the wave length is inversely proportional to the momentum of the particle.

### Significance of de-Broglie relationship

- Although the dual nature of matter is applicable to all material objects but it is significant for the microscopic bodies only.
- For large bodies, the wave length of the associated waves are very small and can not be measured.
- Therefore practically all the large body have no wave length.
- Thus, the any material body can have the wave length but



## Heisenberg's Uncertainty Principle

In 1927 Werner Heisenberg pointed out that one can not measure accurately both the position and velocity (momentum) of a microscopic particle. On the basis of this observation Heisenberg put forward a principle known as Heisenberg Uncertainty principle.

According to this principle "It is not possible to determine precisely both the position and the momentum of small moving particles with accuracy".

$$\Delta x \Delta p \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$$

Where,

$\Delta x$  uncertainty in position and  $\Delta p$  uncertainty in momentum.

The sign  $\geq$  means that the uncertainty can never be less than  $\frac{h}{4\pi}$ .

The constancy of the product of uncertainty means that -

If  $\Delta x$  is small that is the position of particle is measured accurately, then  $\Delta p$  would be large and thus the uncertainty in momentum will



be large.

(ii) On the other hand, if  $\Delta p$  is small the momentum of the particle can be measured accurately and the uncertainty in the position that is  $(\Delta x)$  will be large.

(iii) In Brief, it is impossible to determine simultaneously the position and momentum of a microscopic particle with absolute accuracy or certainty.

Werner Heisenberg the German physicist won the physics nobel prize in 1932 by for his contribution.

### Difference between Ab. Orbit and Orbitals

#### Orbit

- An orbit is a well defined circular path around the nucleus where electron revolves.
- It represents planar motion of the electron.
- All orbits are circular in shape.

#### Orbitals

- An Orbital represents the region where the probability of finding  $e^-$  is maximum.
- The electron exhibit the three dimensional motion.
- The shapes of orbitals are different.  
Ex - s-orbital is spherical shaped.  
p-orbital are dumb-bell shape  
d-orbital are double dumb-bell shaped



- No directional character is shown by the s-orbitals

- An orbit can accommodate electrons equal to  $2n^2$  where (n) represents the principle quantum number.

- An except s-orbitals, all remaining are directional in nature.

- An orbital can have a maximum of two electrons.

## Quantum Numbers

A set of four quantum numbers which determine completely the position and energy of an electron in an atom are called Quantum numbers.

These are -

- (i) Principle Quantum number (n)
- (ii) Azimuthal Quantum number (l)
- (iii) Magnetic Quantum number (m)
- (iv) Spin Quantum number (s)

(i) Principle Quantum Number : It is the most important quantum number as it determines the principle energy level or shell to which the electron belongs. It is denoted by the letter small (n) and can have any integral value starting from 1 to infinity except zero (0) (i.e.  $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, \dots, \infty$ ). The various principle energy levels or shells are also designated by the letter K, L, M, N, S, ..... etc.



starting from the nucleus.

(ii) Azimuthal or Angular Quantum Number :- Azimuthal or Angular Quantum number refers to the sub-shell or sub level in a given principle energy shell to which the  $e^-$  belongs.

It is also named as Secondary Quantum number and is designated by the symbol  $(l)$ .

This quantum number gives the energy of the  $e^-$  due to the angular momentum of the  $e^-$ . The magnitude of the angular momentum of the  $e^-$  is related to  $l$  by the expression.

$$\text{Angular momentum} = \frac{\sqrt{l(l+1)} \cdot h}{2\pi}$$

Where  $l = 0, 1, 2, 3, \dots, (n-1)$   
As value of  $l$  represent a particular sub shell or sub level

$l$  can be  
If  $n=1$  then  $l$  can have only one value  
 $l$  can be  $n=2$   $l$  can have two value  
 $n=3$  then  $l$  can have three value  
 $n=4$  then  $l$  can have four value

Thus, for each value of  $(n)$ , there are  $(n)$  different values of  $(l)$ .



The different value of  $l$  are coded by the letters s, p, d, f depending upon the value of  $l$ .

Value of $l$	Symbol	Designation
0	s	sharp
1	p	Principal
2	d	diffuse
3	f	fundamental

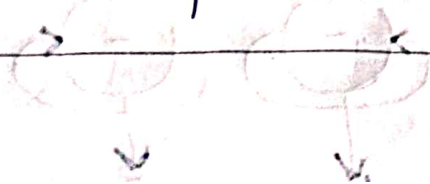
For all atoms (with the exception of Hydrogen) the energy of the sub shell within the increases slightly with increasing  $l$  in the order.

$$s < p < d < f$$

Example: In the fourth shell ( $n=4$ ), the energy of the sub shell increases as  $4s < 4p < 4d < 4f$ . For hydrogen atom, however all the sub-shells have equal energy. Energy have  $4s = 4p = 4d = 4f$ .

### (iii) Magnetic Quantum Number ( $m$ )

The quantum number describes the preferred orientation of the  $e^-$  in the presence of the magnetic field. An  $e^-$  is a charge particle and the movement of the  $e^-$  along the nucleus generates an electric field.





The magnetic quantum number determines the number of preferred orientation of the  $e^-$  present in a sub-shell. Since each orientation corresponds to an orbital. Therefore the magnetic quantum no. determines the no. the orbital present in any sub-shell.

The value of  $(m)$  depends upon the value of  $(l)$ . For a given value of  $(l)$ ,  $(m)$  can have integral values starting from  $-l, 0, +l$ .

Thus, for any value of  $(l)$ ,  $(m)$  can have a total of  $2l + 1$  values.

$$l = 1$$

$$m = -1, 0, +1$$

$$l = 2$$

$$m = -2, -1, 0, +1, +2$$

$$l = 3$$

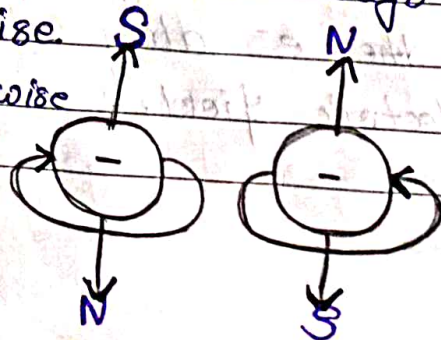
$$m = -3, -2, -1, 0, +1, +2, +3$$

#### (iv) Spin Quantum Number (s)

The electron is continuously revolving around the nucleus. In addition the  $e^-$  is revolving around its own axis.

The spinning also produces a small magnetic field. The  $e^-$  can spin in the two ways either clockwise or anticlockwise.

Clockwise and anticlockwise spin of about its own axis.





There is additional additional quantum number that describe the spin orientation of the  $e^-$  and is called the Spin Quantum Number ( $s$ ).

For any particular value of magnetic quantum no., spin quantum number can have two values, that is either  $+\frac{1}{2}$  or  $-\frac{1}{2}$ .

The  $+$  or  $-$  sign before  $\frac{1}{2}$  indicate the direction of speed, clockwise or anticlockwise.

Some times the spin values are represented by two arrows pointing in the opposite direction ( $\uparrow$  or  $\downarrow$ ).

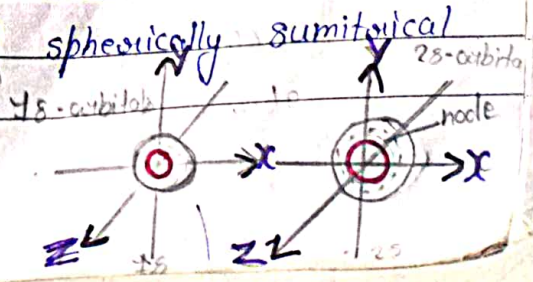
The spinning  $e^-$  behaves like the micromagnet and the magnitude of angular momentum due to the spin.

$$\text{Angular momentum due to spinning of } e^- = \frac{h}{2\pi} \cdot \sqrt{s(s+1)}$$

Where,  $s$  represent the spin of the electron

### Shapes of s, p, d-orbitals

(i) s-orbitals :- s-orbitals are spherical in shape because a sphere can be defined completely by the single value that is its radius. Hence, s-orbitals are non-directional and spherically symmetrical about the nucleus.





The size of orbitals depends upon the value of principle quantum number. The larger the value of  $(n)$ , the larger is size of the orbitals.

Therefore, 2s orbital is larger than the 1s orbital. Both these orbitals are non-directional and spherical in shape.

An important features are 2s orbital is that there is the spherical shell within this orbital where the probability of finding the  $e^-$  is zero (0). This is called the **node** or **The nodal surface**.

Shape of p-orbital :- (dumb-bell shape)

$$l = 1$$

$$m = -1, 0, +1$$

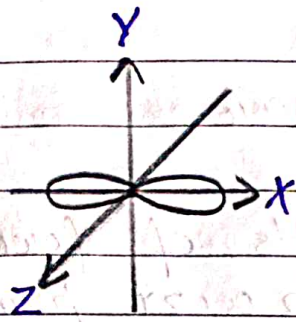
$$p = \begin{matrix} \boxed{p_x} & \boxed{p_y} & \boxed{p_z} \\ p_x & p_y & p_z \end{matrix}$$

For p-orbital ( $l = 1$ ), there are three values of  $m$ . It means p-sub-shell can have three possible orientation. These are represented by  $p_x, p_y, p_z$ .

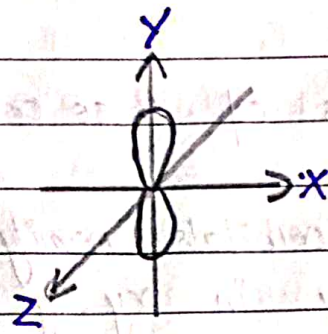
The distribution of  $e^-$  density for an  $e^-$  in the 2p orbitals is not distributed in a symmetrical manner as in an s-orbitals.

This three orbitals are equal in energy. As the p-orbital consist of two loops symmetrical about a particular axis.

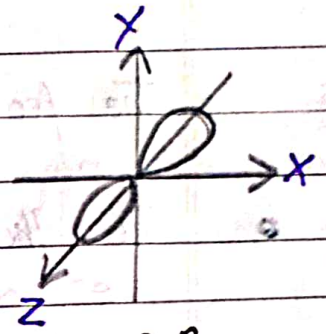




$2p_x$



$2p_y$



$2p_z$

The p-orbitals thus, is dumb-bell shaped and has a directional character.

The probability of finding the  $e^-$  is equal in both loops.

The p-orbitals of a higher energy level (3, 4, 5, etc) have similar shape although their sizes are bigger.

(iii) Shape of d-orbital :- (double dumb-bell shape)

$l = 2$

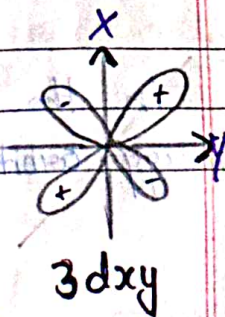
$m = -2, -1, 0, +1, +2$

$d = \boxed{1 \downarrow 1 \downarrow 1 \downarrow 1 \downarrow 1 \downarrow}$

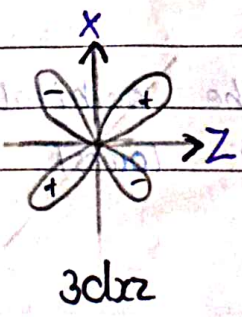
$3d_{xy}, 3d_{yz}, 3d_{zx}, 3d_{x^2-y^2}, 3d_{z^2}$

For d-orbitals, the value of (l) is 2, there are high possible 5 orientations corresponding to allowed values (m).

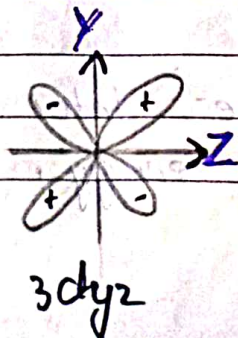
For 3D subshells, these are designated as orbitals. All these orbitals are designate. That is they possess the same energy.



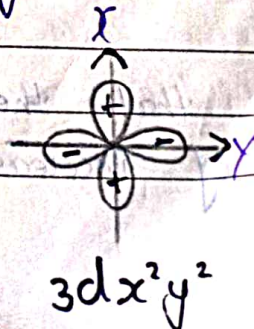
$3d_{xy}$



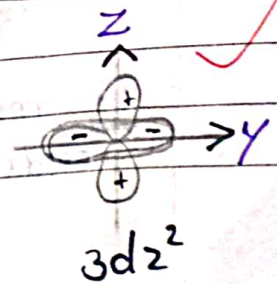
$3d_{xz}$



$3d_{yz}$



$3d_{x^2-y^2}$



$3d_{z^2}$



The features of these orbitals are

- The three orbitals namely consists of four lobes of  $e^-$  density in  $xy$ ,  $y^2$  and  $xz$  or  $zx$  planes respectively. Each lobes bisect the principle axis into two equal halves. These are double-bell dumb-bell in shape.
- The  $3dx^2-y^2$  orbitals have has four lobes of high  $e^-$  density along the principle axis  $x$  and  $y$ .
- The  $3dz^2$  orbital has a unique shape. It has two lobes along the  $z$  axis with a ring of  $e^-$  density around the nucleus in the  $z, y$  plane. In fact  $dz^2$  is formed by the linear combination of two orbitals  $3dxy^2$ ,  $3dxy^2z^2$ ,  $3dz^2x^2$  each of which has four lobes along the corresponding axis.