

Atomic Physics

Chapter 5 Structure of the Periodic system

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The spectra of helium

1. Two sets:

parahelium orthohelium

- 2. Orthohelium has fine structure
- 3. The energy difference
- between the ground state
- and the lowest excited

state in helium is relatively-207



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The helium in quantum mechanics

The potential energy of the electrons is

$$E_{\rm pot} = -\frac{e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0} \left(\frac{Z}{r_1} + \frac{Z}{r_2} - \frac{1}{r_{12}}\right)$$

The operator of the kinetic energy in the center of mass system is $\hat{E}_{kin} = -\frac{\hbar^2}{2\mu} (\Delta_1(r_1) + \Delta_2(r_2))$

with
$$\mu = \frac{m_{\rm e}m_{\rm K}}{m_{\rm e} + m_{\rm K}}$$

The Schrödinger equation is

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta_1\psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2) - \frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta_2\psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2) + E_{\text{pot}}\psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2) = E\psi(\mathbf{r}_1,\mathbf{r}_2).$$

 \vec{r}_{12}

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The helium in quantum mechanics

with approximation

$$\mu \approx m_{\rm e} = m$$

The relative distance

$$\mathbf{r}_{12}^2 = |\mathbf{r}_1 - \mathbf{r}_2|^2 = r_1^2 + r_2^2 - 2r_1r_2\cos\alpha.$$

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Therefore, this Schrödinger equation is no longer solvable analytically and we have to use approximations.

Because of the mutual repulsion, the charge distribution of the electrons will be such, that the total energy becomes a minimum. This means: The sum of kinetic energy and potential energy, due to electron-electron repulsion and attraction between the electrons and the nucleus becomes a minimum. On the time average is $\langle r_{12} \rangle > \langle r_1 \rangle = \langle r_2 \rangle$

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In a first crude approximation we can therefore neglect the last term in potential energy. Then we can separate the wave function into the product

$$\psi(\boldsymbol{r}_1, \boldsymbol{r}_2) = \psi_1(\boldsymbol{r}_1)\psi_2(\boldsymbol{r}_2)$$

Inserting this into the Schrödinger equation yields two separate equations for the two electrons

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta_1\psi_1(\mathbf{r}_1) - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\frac{Z}{r_1}\psi_1(\mathbf{r}_1) = E_1\psi_1(\mathbf{r}_1)$$
$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\Delta_2\psi_2(\mathbf{r}_2) - \frac{e^2}{4\pi\varepsilon_0}\frac{Z}{r_2}\psi_2(\mathbf{r}_2) = E_2\psi_2(\mathbf{r}_2)$$

with

$$E_1 + E_2 = E$$

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With Z = 2 we obtain in this approximation for the total energy of the two electrons in the lowest state with n = 1:

$$E_{\text{He}}(1s) = -2Z^2 E_{\text{H}} = -2 \cdot 4 \cdot 13.6 \,\text{eV}$$

= -108.8 eV.

The experimental value for this energy that is necessary to remove both electrons from the atom (this means to convert the He atom into the doubly charged ion He⁺⁺) is, however, only E_{exp} = 78.98 eV. The neglection of the electron repulsion therefore introduces an absolute error of 30 eV, i.e., a relative error of about 40%.

The approximation solutions



A much better approximation is obtained by a model that assumes that each of the two electrons moves in the Coulomb potential of the nucleus, shielded by the charge distribution of the other electron (which is assumed to have a spherically symmetric time average). The resulting potential for each electron is then a spherically symmetric Coulomb potential generated by the effective charge

$$Q_{\rm eff} = (Z - S)e$$



 $\rho_{el}(e_2) = -\psi_{1s}^{\star} \cdot \psi_{1s} \cdot e$

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For total shielding S = 1 one would need the energy E_{H} to remove the first electron from the atom. The remaining ion He⁺ now has the nuclear charge +2e and the binding energy of the second electron is therefore $-Z^{2}E_{H}=-4E_{H}$. The total ionization energy of the He atom is then

 $E_{\text{He}}(1s) = -E_{\text{H}} - 4E_{\text{H}} = -5E_{\text{H}} = -68 \,\text{eV}$

which comes much closer to the experimental value $E_{He} = -78.983$ eV. For a shielding constant S = 0.656 the experimental value is exactly reproduced. In our model the correct energy is therefore obtained for an effective nuclear charge of $Z_{eff} e = +1.344 e$.



The electron configuration is the distribution of electrons of an atom in atomic orbitals.

 $nl, nln'l', nln'l'n''l'', \ldots$

For the two-electron atom, we label the electrons 1 and 2. The total angular momentum *J* is the vector sum of the four angular momenta: $\vec{J}=\vec{l_1}+\vec{l_2}+\vec{s_1}+\vec{s_2}$

There are two schemes, called LS coupling and jj coupling, for combining the four angular momenta to form J. The decision of which scheme to use depends on relative strengths of the various interactions. We shall see that jj coupling predominates for heavier elements. Jinniu Hu 18/04/2022



The LS coupling scheme, also called Russell-Saunders coupling, is used for most atoms when the coupling between the orbital angular momenta of electrons is strong. If the interaction energies

$$W_{l_i l_j} = a_{ij} \boldsymbol{l}_i \cdot \boldsymbol{l}_j$$

between the orbital magnetic moments of electrons \mathbf{e}_i and \mathbf{e}_j and

$$W_{s_is_j} = b_{ij}s_is_j$$

between their spin moments are large compared to the interaction energy

$$W_{l_i\bar{s}_i} = c_{ii}\boldsymbol{l}_i\boldsymbol{s}_i$$

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The orbital angular momenta l_i of the different electrons couple to a total orbital momentum

$$L = \sum l_i$$
 with $|L| = \sqrt{L(L+1)}\hbar$

and the individual spins s_i to a total spin

$$S = \sum_{i} s_{i}$$
 with $|S| = \sqrt{S(S+1)}\hbar$

of the atomic state. The total angular momentum of the electron shell is then

$$J = L + S$$
 with $|J| = \sqrt{J(J+1)}\hbar$.

The coupling of two angular momenta

$$L_1 = \sqrt{l_1(l_1+1)}\hbar$$
$$L_2 = \sqrt{l_2(l_2+1)}\hbar$$
$$L = \sqrt{l(l+1)}\hbar$$



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where,

$$l = |l_1 - l_2|, |l_1 - l_2| + 1, |l_1 - l_2| + 2, \dots, |l_1 + l_2|$$

$$m = m_1 + m_2$$

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- For the case of two electrons in a single subshell, the total spin angular momentum quantum number may be S=O or 1.
- For a given value of L, there are 2S+1 values of J, because J goes from L-S to L+S (for L>S).
- The value of 2S+1 is called the multiplicity of the state.
- The notation nl discussed before for a single-electron atom becomes

$$n^{2S+1}L_J$$

The letters and numbers used in this notation are called spectroscopic or term symbols.







S=0 (Singlet state)

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The total electron spin S has three possible projections onto the quantization axis with quantum numbers $M_s = 0, \pm 1$.

$$\chi_1^{s}(1,2) = \chi^+(1)\chi^+(2); \quad M_s = m_{s_1} + m_{s_2} = +1$$

$$\chi_2^{s}(1,2) = \chi^-(1)\chi^-(2); \quad M_s = m_{s_1} + m_{s_2} = -1$$

$$\chi_3^{s}(1,2) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} \left[\chi^+(1)\chi^-(2) + \chi^+(2)\chi^-(1) \right] M_s = 0$$

An atomic state with total electron spin-quantum number S = 0 and therefore $M_s = 0$, which we call a singlet state $\chi^a = \chi^+(1)\chi^-(2) - \chi^+(2)\chi^-(1)$



For two electrons we have singlet states (S=O) and triplet states (S=1), which refer to the multiplicity 2S+1.

Consider two electrons: One is in the 4p and one is in the 4d subshell. For the atomic states shown

S	L	J	Spectroscopic Symbol
	1	1	$4^{1}P_{1}$
0 (singlet)	2	2	$4^{1}D_{2}$
	3	3	$4^{1}F_{3}$
		2	$4^{3}P_{2}$
1 (triplet)	1	1	$4^{3}P_{1}$
		0	$4^{3}P_{0}$
		3	$4^{3}D_{3}$
1 (triplet)	2	2	$4^{3}D_{2}$
		1	$4^{3}D_{1}$
		4	$4^{3}F_{4}$
1 (triplet)	3	3	$4^{3}F_{3}$
· · · /		2	$4^{3}F_{2}$

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The energy of a fine structure component is

 $E_J = E(n, L, S) + C \cdot L \cdot S,$

The energy of a fine structure component is where the last term gives the coupling energy of the interaction between total orbital angular momentum L and total spin S. The coupling constant C is given in units of $[1 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ m}^{-2}]$.

The energy of a fine structure component is

$$J^2 = (L+S)^2 = L^2 + S^2 + 2L \cdot S$$

we obtain for the fine structure coupling energies $C \cdot L \cdot S$

$$= \frac{1}{2}C[J(J+1) - L(L+1) - S(S+1)]\hbar^2.$$

A schematic diagram showing the relative energies of these states appears

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- As an example of the optical spectra obtained from two electron atoms, we consider the energy-level diagram of magnesium.
- The choice rules of transitions (for LS coupling scheme) are

$$\Delta L = \pm 1 \qquad \Delta S = 0 \qquad ^{-5}$$

$$\Delta J=0,\pm 1 \quad (J=0
ightarrow J=0 \; \; {
m forbidden})_{-6}$$



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jj coupling scheme predominates for the heavier elements, where the nuclear charge causes the spin-orbit interactions to be as strong as the forces between the individual spin and the individual orbit angular momentum. The coupling order becomes $j_i = l_i + s_i$ $W_{l_i s_i} = c_{ii} l_i s_i$

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and then

$$J=\sum j_i.$$

In the limiting case of j-j coupling the total orbital angular momentum L and the total spin S are no longer defined, although the individual vectors l_i and s_i are known. There are no longer S, P, D . . . levels and also no distinction between singlet, doublet or triplet levels can be made.



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The allowed transitions for a single-electron atom are

1 1

$$\Delta l = \pm 1 \qquad \Delta m_j = 0, \ \pm 1$$
$$\Delta j = 0, \ \pm 1$$

The choice rules of transitions (for LS coupling scheme) are

$$\Delta L = \pm 1 \qquad \Delta S = 0$$

$$\Delta J = 0, \pm 1 \quad (J = 0 \rightarrow J = 0 \text{ forbidden})$$

he choice rules of transitions for jj coupling are
$$\Delta j = 0, \pm 1 \qquad \Delta J = 0, \pm 1$$

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$$(J = 0 \rightarrow J' = 0 \text{ forbidden})$$

The parity requirement

$$\frac{\sum l_i - \sum l_f = \pm 1}{\text{Jinniu Hu}}$$



A classical oscillating electric dipole

$$\boldsymbol{p} = q\boldsymbol{r} = \boldsymbol{p}_0 \sin \omega t$$

emits the average power, integrated over all directions $\boldsymbol{\theta}$ against the dipole axis

$$\overline{P} = \frac{2}{3} \frac{\overline{p^2} \omega^4}{4\pi \varepsilon_0 c^3} \quad \text{with} \quad \overline{p^2} = \frac{1}{2} p_0^2$$

In analogy to the classical expression for the average dipole moment we define the integral $M_{ik} = -e \int \psi_i^* \mathbf{r} \psi_k d\tau$

as transition dipole moment for a transition between the atomic states, i and k.

It follows that for the spontaneously emitted radi- ation only those transitions $|i\rangle \rightarrow |k\rangle$ are allowed for which the transition dipole matrix element is not zero. This means that at least one of the components

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$$(M_{ik})_x = e \int \psi_i^* x \psi_k \, \mathrm{d}\tau$$
$$(M_{ik})_y = e \int \psi_i^* y \psi_k \, \mathrm{d}\tau$$
$$(M_{ik})_z = e \int \psi_i^* z \psi_k \, \mathrm{d}\tau$$

must be different from zero.



The hydrogenous wave functions are

$$\psi_{n,l,m_l} = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} R_{n,l}(r) \Theta_m^l(\vartheta) \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{i}m_l \varphi}$$

Tor linearly polarized light with the electric field vector $E = \{0, 0, E_o\}$ only the z-component of M_{ik} contributes to the spontaneous emission. We choose the z-axis as quantization axis. With $z = r \cos \theta$ the z-component becomes

$$(M_{ik})_{z} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^{\infty} R_{i}R_{k}r^{3} dr \times \int_{\vartheta=0}^{\pi} \Theta_{m_{k}}^{l_{k}} \Theta_{m_{i}}^{l_{i}} \sin \vartheta \cos \vartheta d\vartheta$$
$$\times \int_{\varphi=0}^{2\pi} e^{i(m_{k}-m_{i})\varphi} d\varphi.$$

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Selection rules

For circularly polarized light emitted into the z-direction the x- and y-components of M_{ik} can contribute to the transition probability. The electric field vector for circularly polarized σ^* -light can be written as $E^+ = E_x + iE_y$ and for σ^- light is $E^- = E - iE$.

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$$(M_{ik})_{x} + i (M_{ik})_{y} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^{\infty} R_{i} R_{k} r^{3} dr \qquad (M_{ik})_{x} - i (M_{ik})_{y} = \frac{1}{2\pi} \int_{r=0}^{\infty} R_{i} R_{k} r^{3} dr$$

$$\times \int_{\vartheta=0}^{\pi} \Theta_{m_{i}}^{l_{i}} \Theta_{m_{k}}^{l_{k}} \sin^{2} \vartheta d\vartheta \qquad \qquad \times \int_{\vartheta=0}^{\pi} \Theta_{m_{i}}^{l_{i}} \Theta_{m_{k}}^{l_{k}} \sin^{2} \vartheta d\vartheta$$

$$\times \int_{\varphi=0}^{2\pi} e^{i(m_{k}-m_{i}+1)\varphi} d\varphi \qquad \qquad \qquad \times \int_{\varphi=0}^{2\pi} e^{i(m_{k}-m_{i}-1)\varphi} d\varphi.$$

 $x = r \sin \vartheta \, \cos \varphi \qquad y = r \sin \vartheta \, \sin \varphi$

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Pauli exclusion principle: No two electrons in an atom may have the same set of quantum numbers n, l, m_l, m_s

Pauli's exclusion principle applies to all particles of halfinteger spin, which are called fermions, and can be generalized to include particles in the nucleus.

The complete wave function of a system of n noninteracting particles can be expressed as the product of the wave functions

$$\psi(1, 2, 3, \dots, n) = \psi(1)\psi(2)\psi(3)\dots\psi(n)$$



Exchange symmetry of probability density for 2 states

$$|\psi|^2(1,2) = |\psi|^2(2,1)$$

Symmetric

$$\psi(1,2) = \psi(2,1)$$

Antisymmetric

$$\psi(1,2) = -\psi(2,1)$$

The corresponding wave functions

$$\psi_S = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\psi_a(1)\psi_b(2) + \psi_a(2)\psi_b(1)]$$
$$\psi_A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\psi_a(1)\psi_b(2) - \psi_a(2)\psi_b(1)]$$

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There are a number of important distinctions between the behavior of particles in systems whose wave functions are symmetric and that of particles in systems whose wave functions are antisymmetric.

In the antisymmetric case, if we set a=b, we find that $\psi_A = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} [\psi_a(1)\psi_a(2) - \psi_a(2)\psi_a(1)] = 0$

Hence the two particles cannot be in the same quantum state. Systems of electrons are described by wave functions that reverse sign upon the exchange of any pair of them.



The results of various experiments show that all particles which have odd half-integral spins have wave functions that are antisymmetric to an exchange of any pair of them.

Particles of odd half-integral spin are often referred to as fermions.

Particles whose spins are 0 or an integer have wave functions that are symmetric to an exchange of any pair of them. Particles of 0 or integral spin are often referred to as bosons





The ground state of Helium

The size of atom

The atom of metal

The independent motion of nucleon

The colors of quarks



The applications







The atomic electron structure leading to the observed ordering of the periodic table can be understood by the application of two rules:

- 1. The electrons in an atom tend to occupy the lowest energy levels available to them.
- 2. Only one electron can be in a state with a given (complete) set of quantum numbers (Pauli exclusion principle).

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Electrons that have the same principal quantum number n usually (though not always) average roughly the same distance from the nucleus. It is conventional to speak of such electrons as occupying the same atomic shell.

Electrons that share a certain value of I in a shell are said to occupy the same subshell.

	$m_l = 0$	$m_l = -1$	$m_l = +1$	$m_{l} = -2$	<i>m</i> ₁ = +2	
l = 0: l = 1: l = 2:	$\downarrow\uparrow\\ \downarrow\uparrow\\ \downarrow\uparrow$	$\downarrow\uparrow\\\downarrow\uparrow$	$\downarrow\uparrow\\\downarrow\uparrow$	↓↑	$\downarrow\uparrow$	$ \begin{array}{l} \uparrow m_{\rm s} = +\frac{1}{2} \\ \downarrow m_{\rm s} = -\frac{1}{2} \end{array} $
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The occupancy of the various subshells in an atom is usually expressed with the help of electron configurations for the various quantum states of the hydrogen atom. For example, the electron configuration of sodium is written

 $1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$

which means that the 1s (n=1, l=0) and 2s (n=2, l=0) subshells contain two electrons each, the 2p (n=2, l=1) subshell contains six electrons, and the 3s (n=3, l=0) subshell contains one electron.



How many electrons may be in each subshell in order not to violate the Pauli exclusion principle? Total

For each m_ℓ : two values of m_s	2
For each ℓ : $(2\ell + 1)$ values of m_{ℓ}	$2(2\ell + 1)$

The maximum number of electrons a shell can hold is the sum of the electrons in its filled subshells. This number is

$$N_{\max} = \sum_{l=0}^{l=n-1} 2(2l+1) = 2n^2$$

Thus a closed K shell holds 2 electrons, a closed L shell holds 8 electrons, a closed M shell holds 18 electrons, and

so on.



The time-averaged total charge distribution of all 2n² electrons with the same principal quantum number n

$$e|\psi_n|^2 = e\sum_l \sum_{m_l} |\psi_{n,l,m_l}|^2 = C \cdot e\sum_l |R_{n,l}(r)|^2$$

is obtained by summation over the squares of all possible wave functions with l<n and −l≤m₁≤+l, where C is a normalization factor.

Such a spherically symmetric charge distribution is called an electron shell. The different shells are labeled as follows:

$$n = 1$$
: K-shell, $n = 4$: N-shell
 $n = 2$: L-shell, $n = 5$: O-shell
 $n = 3$: M-shell, $n = 6$: P-shell

Shell and subshell capacities





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Symbolic representation of the quantum numbers n, L and S for the ground state and some excited states of the helium atom.

m _{l2}	0	0	0	1	1	1
$\overrightarrow{S}(n=2)$		Ļ	Î			
$\overrightarrow{S}(n=1)$		Î	↑			
Coupling of angular momentum	• • S = 0, L = 0	• • S = 0, L = 0	S = 1, L = 0	S = 1, L = 1	S = 1, L = 1	$\overrightarrow{L} \qquad \overrightarrow{J} \qquad \overrightarrow{J} \qquad \overrightarrow{S} \qquad \overrightarrow{S} \qquad \overrightarrow{S} \qquad \overrightarrow{S} = 1, L = 1$
Total angular momentum	J = 0	J = 0	J = 1	J = 2	J = 0	J = 1
State	1 ¹ S ₀	2 ¹ S ₀	2 ³ S ₁	2 ³ P ₂	2 ³ P ₀	2 ³ P ₁

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The spectra of helium



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Equivalent electrons: those which belong to same (n,l) subshells

The coupling of two equivalent electrons: allowed combinations must of course be consistent with Pauli Exclusion Principle (all quantum numbers cannot be same)





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Slater diagram





Possible total angular momenta and resulting atomic levels for different two-electron configurations

Electron configuration	Quantur angula	m numb Ir mome	ers of nta	Level assignment
C C	L	S	J	
S	0	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	${}^{2}S_{1/2}$
s^2	0	0	0	$^{1}S_{0}$
	0	1	1	3S_1 for $n_1 \neq n_2$
sp	1	0	1	$^{1}P_{1}$
	1	1	0, 1, 2	${}^{3}P_{0}, {}^{3}P_{1}, {}^{3}P_{2}$
p^2	0	0	0	$^{1}S_{0}$
	1	1	0, 1, 2	${}^{3}P_{0}, {}^{3}P_{1}, {}^{3}P_{2}$
	2	0	2	$^{1}D_{2}$
				${}^{3}S_{1}$] and for
	0	1	1	$^{1}P_{1}$ { $n_{1} \neq n_{2}$
				${}^{3}D_{1,2,3}$ $\int n_1 \neq n_2$
	1	0	1	
	2	1	1, 2, 3	

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Electronic terms for atoms with equivalent electron

	-									
configurations	Configuration	Electronic terms	Atoms							
•	$p p^5$	^{2}P	B, F							
	$p^{2} p^{4}$	${}^{1}S {}^{3}P {}^{1}D$	C, O, N^{+}							
	p^3	${}^{4}S {}^{2}P {}^{2}D$	N, O^+							
	p^6	${}^{1}S$	Ne							
	$d d^9$	^{2}D	Sc							
	$d^2 d^8$	${}^{1}S {}^{3}P {}^{1}D {}^{3}F {}^{1}G$	Ti, Ni							
	$d^3 d^7$	^{2}P ^{4}P $2^{2}D$ ^{2}F ^{4}F ^{2}G ^{2}H	V, Co							
	$d^4 d^6$	$2^{1}S \ 2^{3}P \ 2^{1}D \ ^{3}D \ ^{5}D \ ^{1}F$	Fe							
		$2^{3}F \ 2^{1}G \ ^{3}G \ ^{3}H \ ^{1}I$								
	d^{5}	${}^{2}S {}^{6}S {}^{2}P {}^{4}P 3^{2}D {}^{4}D 2^{2}F$	Mn							
		${}^{4}F \ 2^{2}G \ {}^{4}G \ {}^{2}H \ {}^{2}I$								
	d^{10}	${}^{1}S$	Zn							

Evalid terms for subshells of q electrons are the same as for subshells with N-q electrons where N is the closed (full) subshell complement

Periodic Table of Elements



Actinides

90

Th

91

Pa

 $5f^2 6d^1$

92

U

 $5f^{3} 6d^{3}$

93

Np

 $5f^4 6d$

94

Pu

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95

Am

96

Cm

 $5f^{7} 6d^{1}$

97

Bk

 $5f^{8} 6d$

98

Cf

99

Es

100

Fm

101

Md

102

No

103

Lr

 $5f^{14} 6d$

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The ionization energies of the element



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Atomic radii



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An atomic shell or subshell that contains its full quota of electrons is said to be closed. A closed s subshell (I=O) holds two electrons, a closed p subshell (I=1) six electrons, a closed d subshell (I=2) ten electrons, and so on.

The total orbital and spin angular momenta of the electrons in a closed subshell are zero, and their effective charge distributions are perfectly symmetrical.

The electrons in a closed shell are all very tightly bound, since the positive nuclear charge is large relative to the negative charge of the inner shielding electrons

Explaning the Periodic Table

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Shell and subshell capacities



n	l	Subshell	Subshell Capacity	Total Electrons in All Subshells	Energy	$\begin{array}{c} 6p \\ 5d \\ 4f \end{array}$	
1	0	1s	2	2	Î	65	
2	0	2 <i>s</i>	2	4		5p	
2	1	2p	6	10		4d	
3	0	$\frac{1}{3s}$	2	12		5s	
3	1	3p	6	18			
4	0	4s	2	20		4.1	
3	2	3d	10	30		4p 2d	
4	1	4p	6	36		3 <i>a</i> 4 <i>s</i>	
5	0	5s	2	38			
4	2	4d	10	48		0.	
5	1	5p	6	54		3p 3s	
6	0	6 <i>s</i>	2	56		53	
4	3	4f	14	70			
5	2	5d	10	80		2p	
6	1	6p	6	86		2s	
7	0	7 s	2	88			
5	3	5f	14	102			
6	2	6d	10	112		1s	

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Shell and subshell capacities



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The Diagonal Rule for Configurations



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The Diagonal Rule for Configurations

Shel	1		Κ	L		Μ			0	She	ell		Κ	L M			Ν			0			
Ζ		Element	1 <i>s</i>	2 <i>s</i>	2p	3 <i>s</i>	3 <i>p</i>	3 <i>d</i>	4 <i>s</i>	Ζ		Element	1 <i>s</i>	2 <i>s</i>	2 <i>p</i>	3 <i>s</i>	3 <i>p</i>	3 <i>d</i>	4 <i>s</i>	4 <i>p</i>	4d	5 <i>s</i>	5 <i>p</i>
1	Н	Hydrogen	1							28	Ni	Nickel	2	2	6	2	6	8	2				
2	He	Helium	2							29	Cu	Copper	2	2	6	2	6	10	1				
3	Li	Lithium	2	1						30	Zn	Zink	2	2	6	2	6	10	2				
4	Be	Beryllium	2	2						31	Ga	Gallium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	1			
5	В	Boron	2	2	1					32	Ge	Germanium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	2			
6	С	Carbon	2	2	2					33	As	Arsenic	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	3			
7	Ν	Nitrogen	2	2	3					34	Se	Selenium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	4			
8	0	Oxygen	2	2	4					35	Br	Bromium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	5			
9	F	Fluorine	2	2	5					36	Kr	Krypton	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6			
10	Ne	Neon	2	2	6					37	Rb	Rubidium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6		1	
11	Na	Sodium	2	2	6	1				38	Sr	Strontium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6		2	
12	Mg	Magnesium	2	2	6	2				39	Y	Yttrium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	1	2	
13	Al	Aluminum	2	2	6	2	1			40	Zr	Zirconium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	2	2	
14	Si	Silicon	2	2	6	2	2			41	Nb	Niobium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	4	1	
15	Р	Phosphorus	2	2	6	2	3			42	Mo	Molybdenum	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	5	1	
16	S	Sulfur	2	2	6	2	4			43	Tc	Technetium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	6	1	
17	Cl	Chlorine	2	2	6	2	5			44	Ru	Ruthenium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	7	1	
18	Ar	Argon	2	2	6	2	6			45	Rh	Rhodium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	8	1	
19	Κ	Potassium	2	2	6	2	6		1	46	Pd	Palladium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10		
20	Ca	Calcium	2	2	6	2	6		2	47	Ag	Silver	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	1	
21	Sc	Scandium	2	2	6	2	6	1	2	48	Cd	Cadmium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	2	
22	Ti	Titanium	2	2	6	2	6	2	2	49	In	Indium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	2	1
23	V	Vanadium	2	2	6	2	6	3	2	50	Sn	Tin	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	2	2
24	Cr	Chromium	2	2	6	2	6	5	1	51	Sb	Antimony	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	2	3
25	Mn	Manganese	2	2	6	2	6	5	2	52	Те	Tellurium	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	2	4
26	Fe	Iron	2	2	6	2	6	6	2	53	Ι	Iodine	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	2	5
27	Co	Cobalt	2	2	6	2	6	7	2	54	Xe	Xenon	2	2	6	2	6	10	2	6	10	2	6

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Hund's rules which are empirical state (the first and second) that the term structure with the maximum possible S and the largest possible L for the given S compatible with the Pauli exclusion Principle has the lowest energy.

Hund's third rule (which applies for atoms or ions with a single unfilled shell) states that if the unfilled shell is not more than half-filled the lowest value of J has the lowest energy while if it is more than half-filled the largest value of J has the lowest energy

Hund's rules



Element	Atomic Number	Configuration	Spins of <i>p</i> Electrons					
Boron	5	$1s^22s^22p^1$	\uparrow					
Carbon	6	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$	\uparrow	\uparrow				
Nitrogen	7	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^3$	\uparrow	\uparrow	\uparrow			
Oxygen	8	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^4$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	\uparrow	\uparrow			
Fluorine	9	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^5$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	\uparrow			
Neon	10	$1s^22s^22p^6$	$\uparrow \downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$	$\uparrow\downarrow$			

AI: 1s ² 2s ² 2p ⁶ 3s ² 3p ¹	1s 2s	1111 2p	1) 3s	1 Зр	Cr: [Ar]4 <i>s</i> ¹ 3 <i>d</i> ⁵	[Ar] [] 4s	1 1 1 1 1 3d
Al ³⁺ : $1s^22s^22p^6$		11			Cr^{2+} [Ar]3d ⁴	[Ar]	111111
13	25 Ζμ				0 [/]04	49	3d

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Since separation of energies for states of different J arises from spin-orbit term

$$egin{aligned} &\langle |J,m_J,L,S| \sum_i \xi_i(r_i) \hat{\mathbf{L}}_i \cdot \hat{\mathbf{S}}_i |J,m_J,L,S
angle \ &= rac{\zeta(L,S)}{2} [J(J+1) - L(L+1) - S(S+1)] \end{aligned}$$

separation between pair of adjacent levels in a fine structure multiplet is proportional to larger of two J values,

$$\Delta_J \propto J(J+1) - (J-1)J = 2J$$

e.g. separation between ${}^{3}P_{2}$ and ${}^{3}P_{1}$, and ${}^{3}P_{1}$ and ${}^{3}P_{0}$ should be in ratio 2:1.





The Physics of Atoms and Quanta

17.2, 17.3, 17.5, 19.1, 19.4, 19.6, 19.7

