

Simple Atomic Structure (By Dr. Shankar Kumar, M.Sc., M.Phil., M.Tech., Ph.D.)

→ Determination of electronic charge by Millikan's method or Oil drop method

Charge on electron i.e., electronic charge was determined by Thomson in 1897. In 1909 Thomson invented a method to determine electronic charge based on the following:

If ionized gas is passed through moist atmosphere then very small droplets of water form cloud which can be seen by microscope. (i) These droplets move with different velocities in the presence & absence of electric field (ii) If downward velocity of the droplet charged with charge q and in the presence of electric force X , then velocity of downward fall is v_1 , then $\frac{q}{m} = \frac{mg}{X}$ [Here $m =$ mass of a drop, $e =$ electronic charge, $X =$ potential diff. $g =$ acceleration due to gravity]

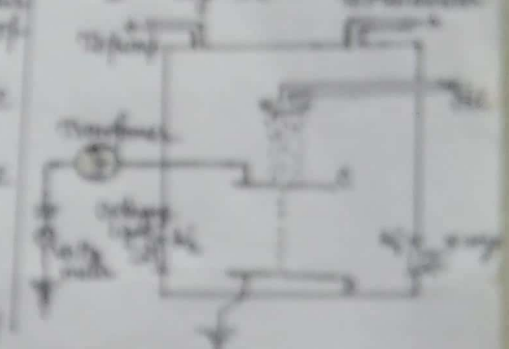
Thus, determining of X , electronic charge can be calculated.

On this theory, Millikan developed a method called oil drop or Millikan's method. In this method, the following modifications have been made:

(i) In place of water droplets, oil droplets are used (ii) Velocity of oil droplets is calculated in upward direction (in the presence of electric field) and the velocity is called v_2 . Thus, by using following formula, electronic charge (e) is calculated.

$$v_2 \frac{q}{m} = \frac{mg}{X} \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

Working principle: A cubical container chamber in which air is pumped out to create low pressure. Small oil droplets are dropped through a stopcock and oil droplets are charged by a source through a rod. Oil droplets are seen through microscope by passing ordinary light through window (W). In this apparatus, two metal plates are attached to high voltage electric source. Oil droplets come down through a pore present in the upper plate. The falling time of oil droplets from C to D is noted through microscope. Now, electric potential developed between C & D and the time of upward movement, i.e., D to C of the droplets is noted. After this



observation, it is seen that the time of downward flow of oil droplets is 17.6 sec, and the time of upward movement is 12.5 sec. Knowing the distance between the two plates, v_1 and v_2 are calculated. Then charge on electron/electronic charge is found by formula (1). The determined charge (by Millikan) on electron is found to be 4.8×10^{-10} esu or 1.6×10^{-19} Coulomb.

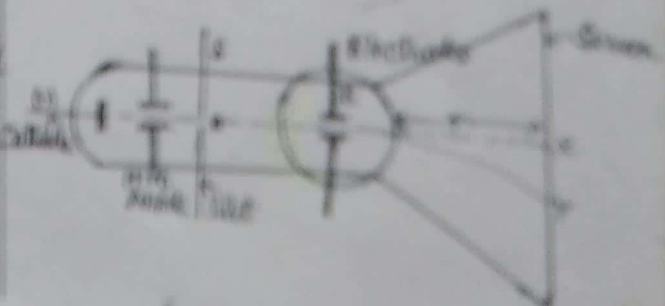
Charge on electron is also calculated by following formula: $e = \frac{F}{V}$ (where $F =$ quantity of electricity, 96500 coulomb = 96500 emu or $96500 \times 3 \times 10^9$ esu, $V =$ potential = 6.32×10^{10} V)

$$e = \frac{96500 \times 3 \times 10^9}{6.32 \times 10^{10}} = 4.802 \times 10^{-10} \text{ esu}$$

→ Determination of electronic charge using cathode ray (R/m) by Thomson's method

Thomson determined specific charge (e/m) & mass (m) of e^- by using a discharge tube except of cathode ray, i.e., fast moving electron. Cathode ray (fast moving electron) emitted from cathode. Cathode rays are deflected by magnetic and electric field. This principle was used in the determination.

For this purpose, cathode ray was passed through an electric field (X) and deflection (X to Y) was noted on the screen. Simultaneously, magnetic field of intensity (H) is also applied on it so as adjusted that the deflection is reversed (rather back from Y to X).



If m_e , e and v are the mass of electron, charge of electron/electronic charge and velocity of moving electron/cathode ray respectively, Centrifugal force ($\frac{mv^2}{r}$), gives the deflection produced by electric field of intensity (X) and it is neutralized by magnetic field of intensity (H).

$$\therefore Hev = \frac{mv^2}{r} \dots (1)$$

$$\text{and, } Hev = Xe \dots (2)$$

From equation (1) & (2), $v = \frac{X}{H}$

Putting this value in equation (1), we get $e/m = \frac{X}{H^2 r} \dots (3)$

Thus, knowing the value of X & H , the value of e/m has been determined. r is the distance of the screen from the magnet.

The value of e/m was found to be 1.7×10^8 coulombs/gm.

→ Russel-Saunders Symbol/Term

It is an abbreviated description of the total angular momentum quantum numbers in a multi-electronic system. However, even a single electron can be described by a term symbol. The Russel-Saunders symbol or Term of a given system is represented as $^{2S+1}L_J$, where S = total or resultant spin angular momentum quantum no. ($= \sum m_s, m_s = \text{Spin Q.No.}$); $2S+1$ = Spin multiplicity; L = Total or resultant orbital angular momentum quantum no. ($= \sum m_l, m_l = \text{magnetic Q.No.}$); J = Total or resultant angular momentum = $|L+S|$ to $|L-S|$.

* Ground state term symbol for less than half filled orbital = $^{2S+1}L_{J_{min}}$ (i.e., $J = |L-S|$)

* Ground state term symbol for half/more than half filled orbital = $^{2S+1}L_{J_{max}}$ (i.e., $J = |L+S|$)

Determination of Russel-Saunders ground/excited state term symbol: The determination of Russel-Saunders term symbol for a given system (d^2) involves following steps:

1. First of all electronic configuration (outer) of given system is shown in box-representation according to Hund's rule. e.g., d^2 system as $\uparrow \uparrow \square \square \square$
2. The total spin angular momentum quantum no. (S) is known by $\sum m_s$ (where $m_s = \text{spin Q.No.}$, for unpaired electrons are taken consideration). $m_s = +\frac{1}{2}$ for clockwise spin (↑) and $m_s = -\frac{1}{2}$ for anticlockwise spin (↓). e.g., for d^2 system, $S = +\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} = 1$.
3. Then, spin multiplicity is known by $(2S+1)$. e.g., for d^2 system, spin multiplicity = $2 \times 1 + 1 = 3$.
4. The total orbital angular momentum quantum no. (L) is known by $\sum m_l$ (where $m_l = \text{magnetic quantum no.}$) The value of L ranges from $(l_1 + l_2)$ to $(l_1 - l_2)$. L value will decide spectroscopic symbol. The values of m_l for s, p, d & f orbitals are as follows:

$m_l = 0$	$m_l +1 \ 0 \ -1$	$m_l +2 \ +1 \ 0 \ -1 \ -2$	$m_l +3 \ +2 \ +1 \ 0 \ -1 \ -2 \ -3$
\square	$\square \ \square \ \square$	$\square \ \square \ \square \ \square$	$\square \ \square \ \square \ \square \ \square$
s-orbital ($l=0$)	p-orbital ($l=1$)	d-orbital ($l=2$)	f-orbital ($l=3$)

[L-value	0	1	2	3	4	5
Spectroscopic Symbol:	S	P	D	F	G	H

e.g., for d^2 system, $\uparrow \uparrow \square \square \square$ d-orbital; $L = +2+1 = 3$, So spectroscopic symbol is F

5. Now, total angular momentum quantum no. (J) is known. J arises due to $L-S$ coupling in multi-electronic system. J can have the values ranging from $|L+S|$ to $|L-S|$. For half filled or more than half filled, high J value, i.e., $|L+S|$ and for less than half filled, low J value, i.e., $|L-S|$ is used. e.g., for d^2 system $J = |L-S| = 3-1 = 2$ (since it is less than half filled system).
6. Finally, spin multiplicity ($2S+1$) is written as superscript on LHS and total angular momentum (J) as subscript on RHS of spectroscopic symbol corresponding to L -value as follows.

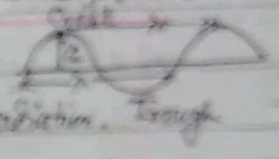
Thus, for d^2 system, Russel-Saunders ground state term/symbol = 3F_2 , while excited state term symbol = 3F_4 (Since R-S term symbol = $^3F_4, ^3F_3, ^3F_2$) 3F_4 \leftarrow 3F_2 \leftarrow 3F_3 \leftarrow 3F_4 \leftarrow 3F_5 \leftarrow 3F_6 \leftarrow 3F_7 \leftarrow 3F_8 \leftarrow 3F_9 \leftarrow $^3F_{10}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{11}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{12}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{13}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{14}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{15}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{16}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{17}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{18}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{19}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{20}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{21}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{22}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{23}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{24}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{25}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{26}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{27}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{28}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{29}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{30}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{31}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{32}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{33}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{34}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{35}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{36}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{37}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{38}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{39}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{40}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{41}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{42}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{43}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{44}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{45}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{46}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{47}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{48}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{49}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{50}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{51}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{52}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{53}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{54}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{55}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{56}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{57}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{58}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{59}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{60}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{61}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{62}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{63}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{64}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{65}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{66}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{67}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{68}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{69}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{70}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{71}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{72}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{73}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{74}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{75}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{76}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{77}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{78}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{79}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{80}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{81}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{82}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{83}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{84}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{85}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{86}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{87}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{88}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{89}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{90}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{91}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{92}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{93}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{94}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{95}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{96}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{97}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{98}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{99}$ \leftarrow $^3F_{100}$

12. Electromagnetic radiation: In 1856, James Clark Maxwell stated that light, x-ray, ray, heat etc. emit energy continuously in the form of waves or radiations. The energy is called radiant energy. These waves are associated with electric & magnetic fields, so called electromagnetic waves or radiations.

Different types of electromagnetic waves differ with respect to wavelength or frequency.

* Increasing order of electromagnetic radiations w.r to wavelength is Cosmic ray ($10^{16}m$) < γ ray ($10^{14}m$) < X-ray ($10^{12}m$) < UV (10^8m) < Visible (10^7m) < IR (10^6m) < Microwaves (10^3m) < Radiowaves (10^2-10^4m)

Characteristics of electromagnetic radiations: (i) They emit energy continuously in the form of radiations or waves (ii) In these radiations, electric & magnetic components are always perpendicular to each other. They are also perpendicular to the direction in which the wave is travelling (iii) They can travel even in vacuum i.e. medium is not necessary for their propagation (iv) The wavelength of these radiations varies from 10^{16} to 10^2m (v) They travel with the velocity of light ($= 3 \times 10^8 ms^{-1}$)



Characteristic terms: 1. Wavelength: The distance between any two consecutive crests / troughs is called wavelength of electromagnetic radiation. It is denoted by symbol ' λ ' (lambda) & expressed in \AA , μ (micron), mm (millimetre), pm, nm (nanometre), m, cm, m (SI) etc.

2. Frequency: The number of the wave lengths (oscillations) which pass through a point in one second is called frequency. It is denoted by symbol ' ν ' and units are sec^{-1} or Hz .

3. Amplitude: The height of the crest or depth of trough in electromagnetic wave is called amplitude. It is denoted by symbol ' a ' & its unit is of length i.e. (A.m)

4. Wave number: The number of wave lengths which can be accommodated in one cm length along the direction of propagation is called wave number. It is denoted by symbol ' $\bar{\nu}$ ' (nu bar) & expressed in reciprocal unit of length i.e. cm^{-1} or m^{-1} . ($\bar{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$)

5. Velocity: The linear distance travelled by the wave in one sec is called velocity. It is denoted by symbol ' c ' & expressed in $cm sec^{-1}$ or $m sec^{-1}$.

* Relation among wavelength/wave number frequency/velocity:

$$\lambda \nu = \frac{c}{\bar{\nu}} = c \bar{\nu} \quad (\text{where } \nu = \text{frequency, } c = \text{velocity of light } (3 \times 10^8 ms^{-1}), \lambda = \text{wavelength, } \bar{\nu} = \text{wave number})$$

Wave mechanical Concept of the Atom:

1. de Broglie's equation / wave-particle dualism (or dual behaviour of matter): In 1923, Louis de Broglie (French physicist) advanced the hypothesis that all forms of matter like electron, proton, neutron, atom, molecule etc. show dual character i.e. particle (Corpuscular) as well as wave nature. The waves associated with such particles are called a 'matter wave' which is different from electromagnetic wave.

He gave correlation between momentum (particle nature) and wavelength (wave nature) of a particle in the form of one equation, known as de Broglie's wave equation. According to the relation, $\lambda = \frac{h}{mv} = \frac{h}{p}$ (where λ = wavelength, p = momentum, m = mass of particle, v = velocity)

(3)
Derivation: The de-Broglie equation can be easily derived using Einstein mass-energy relationship. Consider the case of an electron. If it is supposed to have wave nature. Its energy will be given by $E = h\nu$ (Planck's equation)
 or, $E = h\frac{c}{\lambda}$ (since $c = \nu\lambda$ or $\nu = c/\lambda$)

(Where $E =$ Energy, $\nu =$ frequency of electronic wave, $\lambda =$ wavelength, $c =$ velocity of light
 $h =$ Planck's Constant)

On the other hand, if electron is supposed to have particle nature, its energy is given by Einstein mass-energy relation, $E = mc^2$ — (3)

From eq. (2) & (3), $\frac{hc}{\lambda} = mc^2$ or, $\lambda = \frac{h}{mc} = \frac{h}{p}$ [$\because p = \text{mass} \times \text{velocity} (mc)$]

This is the de-Broglie's wave equation.

Limitations: (i) It is true only for microscopic particles (e.g. e, p, n). It has no relevance for moving semimicro or macroparticles e.g. ball.

Evidences to support wave & particle nature or dual nature: For particle nature — It has all characteristics of particle; mass, charge, energy & also momentum. (ii) It strikes a zinc coated plate/screen, a bright spot (scintillation) is produced. (iii) Black body radiation & photoelectric effect. For wave nature — (i) Davison & Germer expt (ii) Thomson expt.

2. Heisenberg Uncertainty principle: In 1927, Werner Heisenberg (German physicist) developed the uncertainty principle which is an important consequence of the dual nature of microscopic particles e.g. electron. It states as "It is impossible to measure simultaneously both the position & momentum of a microscopic particle (e.g. electron) with absolute accuracy or certainty."

The product of uncertainty (or error in measurement) in position & uncertainty in momentum of a microscopic particle is always constant & is equal to or greater than $\frac{h}{4\pi}$, i.e. $\Delta x \cdot \Delta p \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$ or, $\Delta x \cdot m \cdot \Delta v \geq \frac{h}{4\pi}$ — (1)

(Where $\Delta x =$ uncertainty or error in determining its position, $\Delta p =$ uncertainty in measuring momentum, $\Delta v =$ uncertainty in measuring velocity, $m =$ mass of particle) From eq. (1), it is evident that if Δx is small, i.e. the position of the particle is known almost exactly, Δp or Δv would be large, i.e. there would be large uncertainty or error in its measured value.

This principle has no impact on our daily life since it is concern with microscopic particles, not macroparticles.

3. Schrodinger's wave equation: In 1926, Erwin Schrodinger (Austrian physicist) proposed that since an electron behaves as a wave, it should obey the same equation of motion which all other known types of waves obey. On the basis of this simple idea, he derived an equation which describes the wave motion of an electron wave propagating in three dimensions (x, y & z) in space. This wave equation is known as Schrodinger's wave equation & is written as $\frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial x^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial y^2} + \frac{\partial^2 \psi}{\partial z^2} + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} (E - V) \psi = 0$ (Differential form)
 (Where $\psi =$ wave function & represent amplitude of wave, $m =$ mass of particle, $E =$ total energy of particle describing wave motion, $V =$ potential energy, $h =$ Planck's Constant)