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PEN205 MODERN PHYSICS

Atomic Physics

Prof. Dr. H. Gül YAĞLIOĞLU – Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çağıl KADEROĞLU

In this chapter, we apply quantum mechanics to atomic systems.

A large portion of the chapter is focused on the application of quantum mechanics to the study of the <u>hydrogen atom</u>.

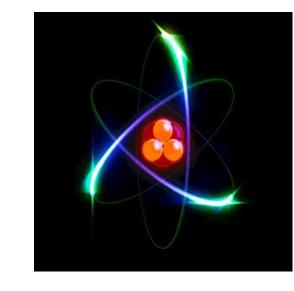
Understanding the hydrogen atom, the simplest atomic system, is important for several reasons:

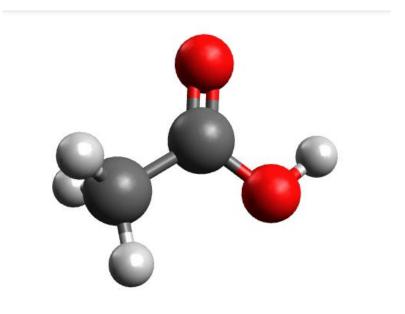
- The hydrogen atom is the only atomic system that can be solved exactly.
- Much of what was learned about the hydrogen atom can be extended to such single-electron ions as He⁺ and Li²⁺.

• The hydrogen atom is an ideal system for performing precise tests of theory against experiment and for improving our overall understanding of atomic structure.

• The quantum numbers that are used to characterize the allowed states of hydrogen can also be used to investigate more complex atoms, and such a description enables us to understand the periodic table of the elements. This understanding is one of the greatest triumphs of quantum mechanics.

• The basic ideas about atomic structure must be well understood before we attempt to deal with the complexities of molecular structures and the electronic structure of solids.





OUTLINE

- Atomic Spectra of Gases
- Early Models of the Atom
- The Quantum Model of the Hydrogen Atom
- The Wave Functions for Hydrogen
- Physical Interpretation of the Quantum Numbers
- The Exclusion Principle and the Periodic Table
- More on Atomic Spectra: Visible and X-Ray
- Spontaneous and Stimulated Transitions
- Lasers

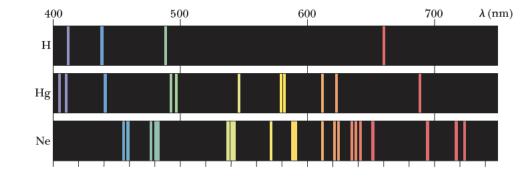
Atomic Spectra of Gases

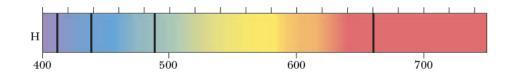
Emission Spectroscopy → when a low-pressure gas undergoes an electric discharge, a discrete line spectrum is observed

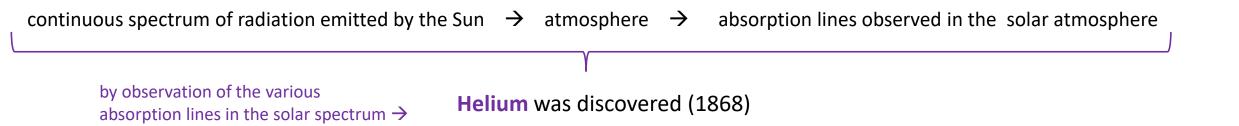
- Electric discharge occurs when the gas is subject to a potential difference that creates an electric field greater than the dielectric strength of the gas.
- Consist of a few bright lines of color on a generally dark background

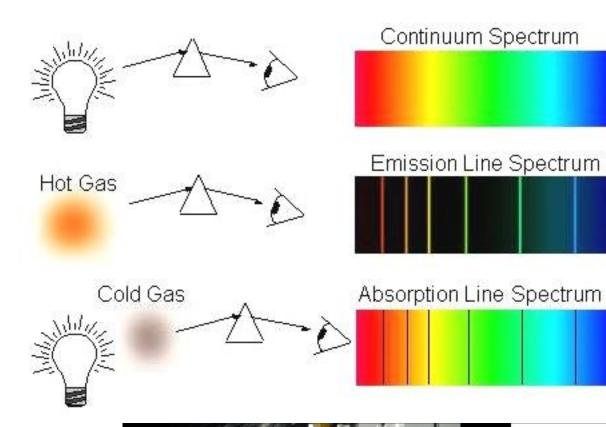
Absorption Spectroscopy \rightarrow obtained by passing white light from a continuous source through a gas or a dilute solution of the element

- consists of a series of dark lines superimposed on the continuous spectrum of the light source

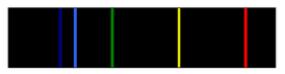








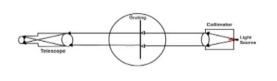
(i) Line spectra - these are emitted from hot monatomic gases - the atoms are not linked to each other in any way.

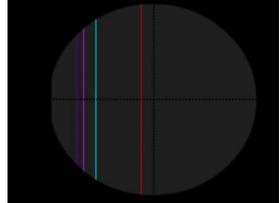


(ii) Band spectra - these are emitted by gases as well but from ones with more than one atom per molecule.









In your quantum phys. Lab.

In 1885, Johann Jacob Balmer (1825–1898), found an empirical equation that correctly predicted the wavelengths of four visible emission lines of hydrogen: H_{α} (red), H_{β} (blue-green), H_{γ} (blue-violet), and H_{δ} (violet)

$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\rm H} \left(\frac{1}{2^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right) \quad n = 3, 4, 5, \dots$$
Balmer series.
$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\rm H} \left(1 - \frac{1}{n^2} \right) \quad n = 2, 3, 4, \dots$$
Lyman series
$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\rm H} \left(\frac{1}{3^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right) \quad n = 4, 5, 6, \dots$$
Paschen series
$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\rm H} \left(\frac{1}{4^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right) \quad n = 5, 6, 7, \dots$$
Brackett series
$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\rm H} \left(\frac{1}{4^2} - \frac{1}{n^2} \right) \quad n = 5, 6, 7, \dots$$
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Brackett series
$$\frac{1}{\lambda} = R_{\rm H} \left(\frac{1}{4^2} -$$

No theoretical basis existed for these equations; they simply worked ©

 $R_{\rm H}$ is a constant now called the <code>Rydberg constant</code> $1.097\;373\;2\times10^{7}\;{\rm m}^{-1}$

Lyman 🛝



A nice website to see the spectroscopic lines of elements $\ensuremath{\mathfrak{O}}$

<u>http://chemistry.bd.psu.edu/jircitano/periodic4.html</u>



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1																	18	
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Na	Mg						-					Al	Si	Р	S	Cl	Ar	
22.990	24.305	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	26.982	28.086	30.974	32.065	35.453	39.948	
19	20	21	22 T	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	38	34	35	36	
К	Ca	Sc	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe	Co	Ni	Cu	Zn	Ga	Ge	As	Se	Br	Kr	
39.098 37	40.078	44.956 39	47.867	50.942 41	51.996 42	54.938 43	55.845 44	58.933 45	58.693 46	63.546 47	65.409 48	69.723 49	72.64 50	74.921 51	78.96	79.904 53	83.798 54	
Rb	- 38 Sr	Y	Zr	AI Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru	Rh	Pd	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I SO	Xe	
85.468	87.62	88.906	91.224	92.906	95.94	(98)	101.07	102.906		- U				121.760	127.60	126.904		
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95 Am (243)

94 Pu (244) 96 Cm (247)

91 Pa

227.028 232.038 231.036 238.029 237.048

90 Th

89 Ac 92 U 93 Np 99 Es (252)

98 Cf

(251)

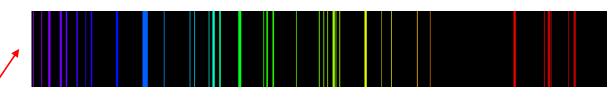
Bk (247) 100 Fm (257) 101 Md

(258)

102 No

(259)







Atomic spectra ↓ fingerprints of elements

Atomic Model & Theory Timeline

As scientists have learned more and more about atoms, the atomic model has changed.

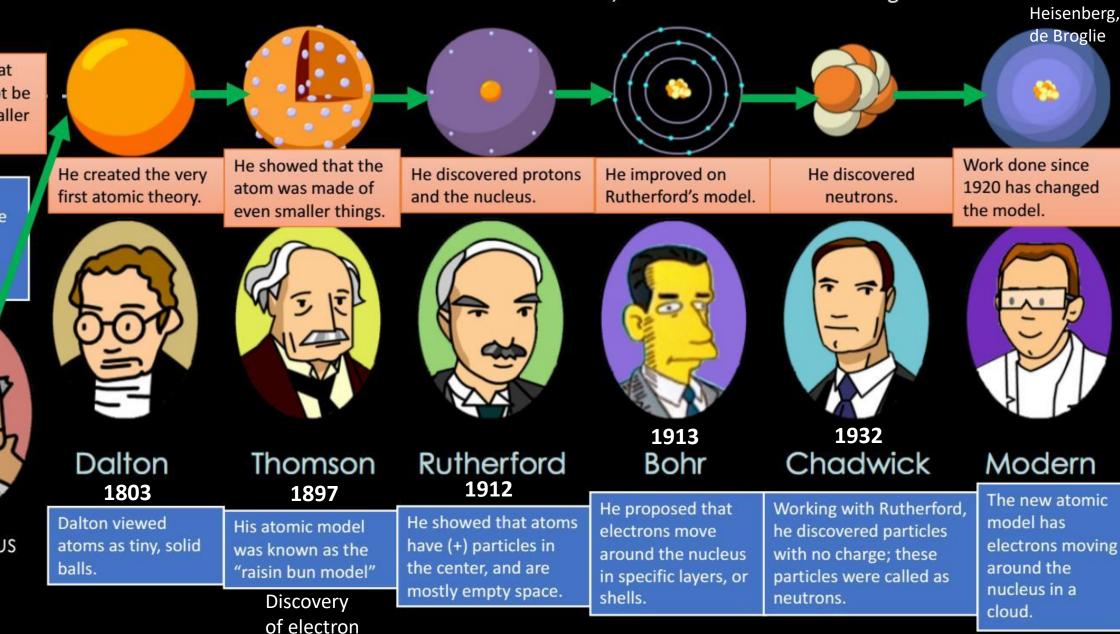
Einstein, Planck, Schrodinger, Heisenberg, de Broglie

He proposed that matter could not be divided into smaller pieces forever.

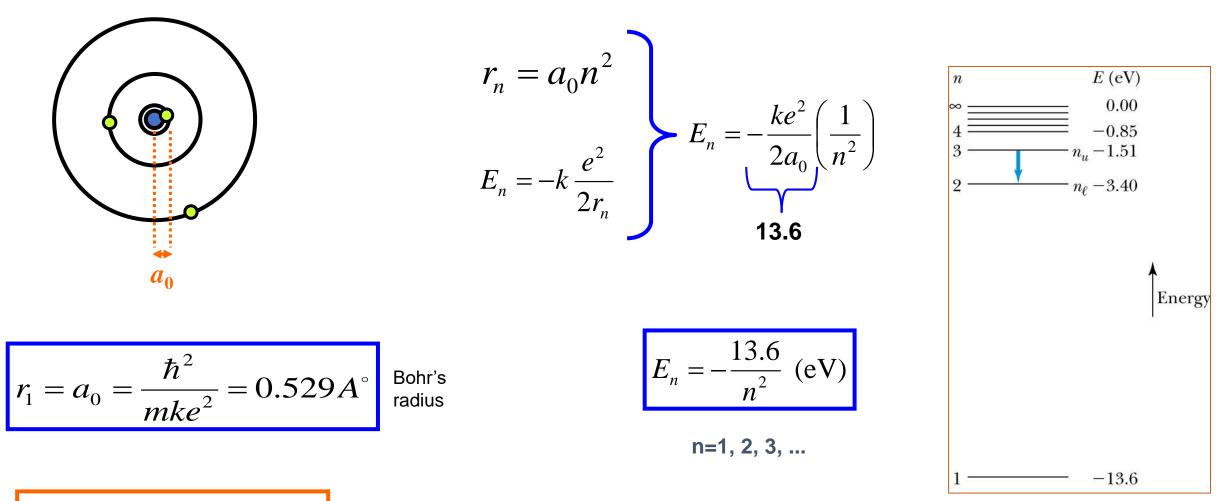
He claimed that matter was made of small, hard particles that he called "atoms".



Democritus BC 460



Let's remember the details of Bohr's model



Bohr radius is the radius of ground state of Hydrogen atom.

The Quantum Model of the Hydrogen Atom

Potential energy function of hydrogen atom

$$U(r) = -k_e \frac{e^2}{r}$$

 k_e : Coulomb constant r: Distance between proton and electron

Let's write this function in time independent Schrodinger wave equation:

$$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\frac{1}{\psi(x,y,z)}\left[\frac{\partial^2\psi(x,y,z)}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2\psi(x,y,z)}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2\psi(x,y,z)}{\partial z^2}\right]=E-U(r)$$

We won't solve this equation in this class. We will examine the solution of it.

• Solution of the Schrödinger equation gives the energy levels of allowed states in quantum mechanics.

$$E_n = -\left(\frac{k_e e^2}{2a_0}\right) \frac{1}{n^2} = -\frac{13,606}{n^2} \text{ eV } n = 1,2,3,\dots$$

A negative energy means that the electron and proton are bound together.

For three dimensional quantum mechanics there are three quantum numbers :

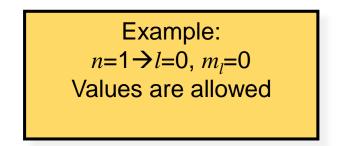
The three quantum numbers:

- *n*: Principal quantum number
- **C**: Orbital angular momentum quantum number
- *m_e*: Magnetic (azimuthal) quantum number
- \rightarrow The restrictions for the quantum numbers:
 - $n = 1, 2, 3, 4, \ldots$
 - $\ell = 0, 1, 2, 3, \ldots, n-1$
 - $m_{\ell} = -\ell, -\ell + 1, ..., 0, 1, ..., \ell 1, \ell$

 \rightarrow Equivalently: • *n* > 0

- ℓ < n
- $|m_e| \leq \ell$

The energy levels are: $E_n = -\frac{E_0}{n^2}$

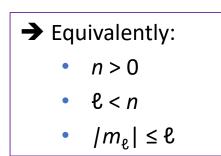


n	Shell symbol	e	Subshell symbol
1	К	0	S
2	L	1	р
3	М	2	d
4	N	3	f
5	0	4	g
6	Р	5	h

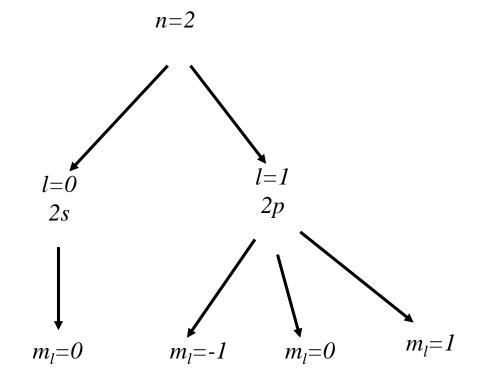
All states with the same principal quantum number **n** are said to form a **shell**, the states with given values of **n** and ℓ are said to form a **subshell**.

Example:	Questions:
$3p \rightarrow n=3, l=1$	Does 2d state allowed?
$2s \rightarrow n=2, l=0$	Why?

Example: How many allowed energy states are there for n=2 quantum number?



n	Shell symbol	e	Subshel symbol
1	К	0	S
2	L	1	р
3	Μ	2	d
4	N	3	f
5	0	4	g
6	Р	5	h

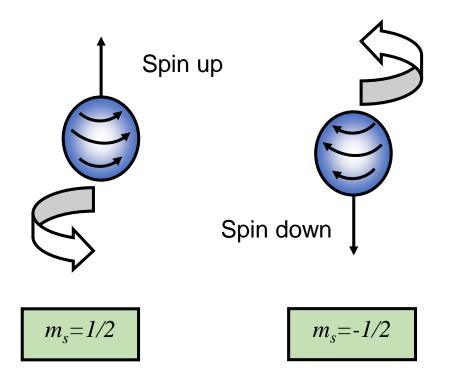


For n=2, we have for states. Energy of each state is;

$$E_2 = -\frac{13.606 \text{ eV}}{2^2} = -3.401 \text{ eV}$$

Spin magnetic quantum number (m_s)

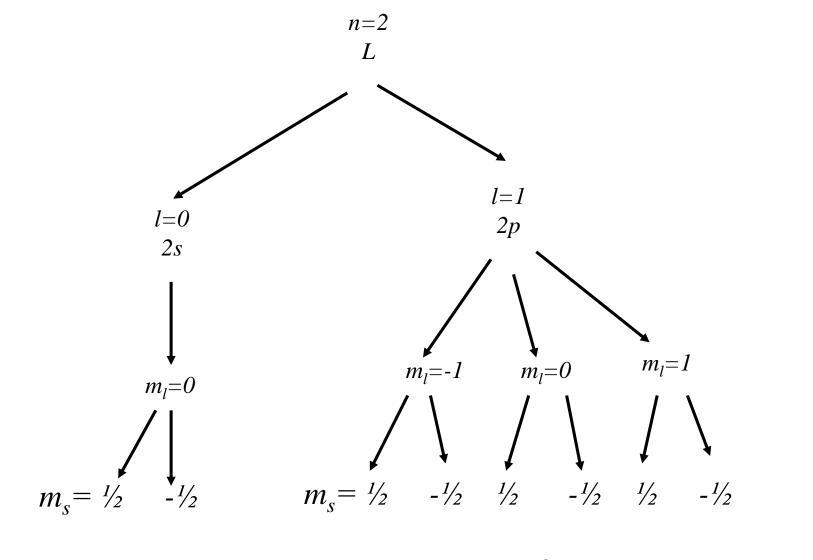
- Very high resolution spectrometers revealed that spectral lines of gases have **two very closely spaced lines** even in the absence of an external magnetic field.
- In 1925 Samuel Goudsmit and George Uhlenbeck introduced the idea of an electron spinning about its own axis to explain the origin of fine structure. The results of their work introduced yet another quantum number, m_s, called the spin magnetic quantum number.



The energy levels for these two cases are close to each other.

Sommerfield and Dirac, later showed that m_s quantum number is not the result of electrons spin, it is the result of electron's relativistic motion.

Example: How many allowed energy states are there for n=2 quantum number?



Number of electrons in subshell

6

n	1	m_l	Spectroscopic Notation	Number of States	Shell	
1	0	0	1 <i>s</i>	2	K	
2	0	0	2s	2	T	
2	1	-1, 0, 1	2p	$\left\{ \begin{array}{c} 2\\ 6 \end{array} \right\} = 8$	L	
3	0	0	3s	2)		
3	1	-1, 0, 1	3р	6 2 18	M	
3	2	-2, -1, 0, 1, 2	3 <i>d</i>	10		
4	0	0	4s	2)		
4	1	-1, 0, 1	4p	6	N	
4	2	-2, -1, 0, 1, 2	4d	10 32	N	
4	3	-3, -2, -1, 0, 1, 2, 3	4f	14		

Table 41.2 Quantum States of Electrons in the First Four Shells

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The Wave Functions for Hydrogen

If we do not consider electron's spin, the potential energy of Hydrogen atom depends only on the radial distance r between electron and the nuclei. Therfore, wave functions representing allowed states depends only r.

Wave function corresponding 1s state:

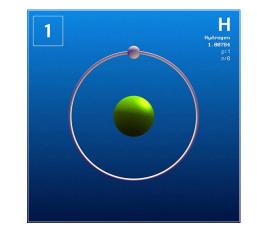
$$\psi_{1s}(r) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{\pi a_0^3}} e^{-r/a_0}$$

 a_0 :Bohr radius

If
$$r \rightarrow \infty$$
, $\Psi_{1s} \rightarrow 0$

The probability density for the 1s state is;

$$|\psi_{1s}|^2 = \left(\frac{1}{\pi a_0^{-3}}\right) e^{-2r/a_0}$$



radial probability density function P(r): the probability per unit radial length of finding the electron in a spherical shell of radius r and thickness dr.

probability can be written as;
$$P(r) dr = |\psi|^2 dV = |\psi|^2 4\pi r^2 dr$$
 $|\psi_{1s}|^2 = \left(\frac{1}{\pi a_0^3}\right) e^{-2r/4}$

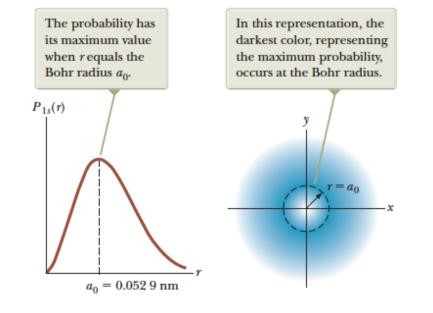
the radial probability density function for an s state is ; $P(r) = 4\pi r^2 |\psi|^2$

A spherical shell of radius r and infinitesimal thickness dr has a volume equal to 4π r² dr.

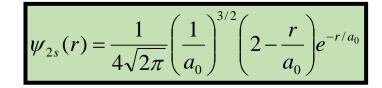
the radial probability density function for the hydrogen atom in its ground state:

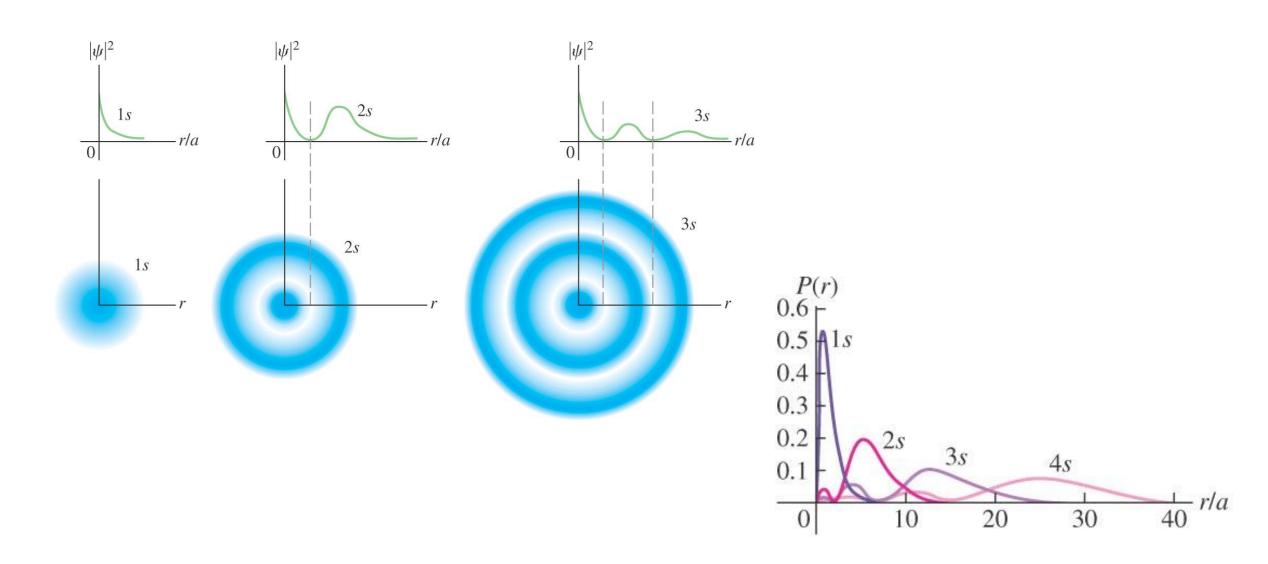
$$P_{1s}(r) = \left(\frac{4r^2}{a_0^3}\right)e^{-2r/a_0}$$

The probability of finding the electron as a function of distance from the nucleus for the hydrogen atom in the 1s (ground) state.

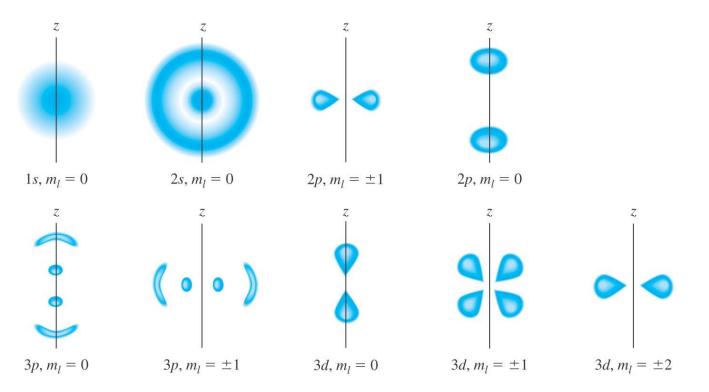


The cross section in the xy plane of the spherical electronic charge distribution for the hydrogen atom in its 1s state Wave function of the first excited state (2s) of a Hydrogen atom:





All *s* states have spherical symmetric wave functions but the other states do not have.



What if there are more than one electron?

Helium has a nuclei with 2p and two electrons.

Due to complexity of potential interactions, Schrödinger equation can not be solved but the approximate solution can be found in terms of single particle wave functions:

 $Y(\vec{r}_1, \vec{r}_2, ..., \vec{r}_N, t) = Y_1(\vec{r}_1, t) Y_2(\vec{r}_2, t) \cdots Y_N(\vec{r}_N, t)$

The Exclusion Principle and the Periodic Table

- the state of a hydrogen atom is specified by four quantum numbers: n, l, m₁, m_s
- the number of states available to other atoms may also be predicted by this same set of quantum numbers.

these four quantum numbers can be used to describe all the electronic states of an atom, regardless of the number of electrons in its structure.

How many electrons can be in a particular quantum state?

Pauli answered this important question in 1925;

No two electrons can ever be in the same quantum state; therefore, no two electrons in the same atom can have the same set of quantum numbers.

Pauli's Exclusion Principle



Wolfgang Pauli

Pauli's Exclusion Principle

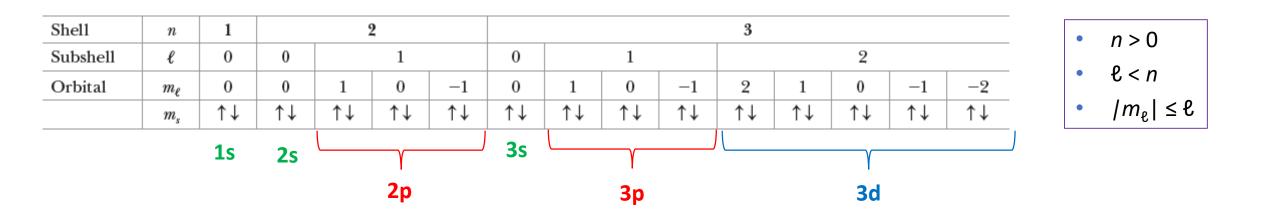
If this principle were not valid, an atom could radiate energy until every electron in the atom is in the lowest possible energy state and therefore the chemical behavior of the elements would be grossly modified. Nature as we know it would not exist.

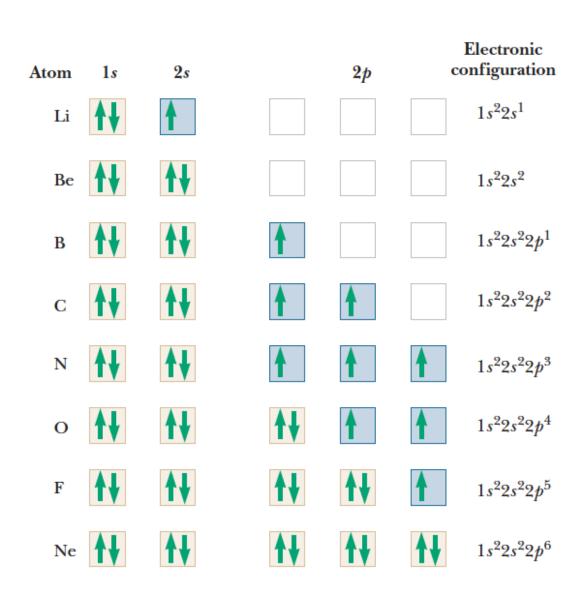
orbital : the atomic state characterized by the quantum numbers : n, ℓ, m_{ℓ}

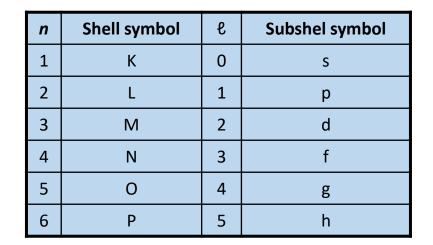
According to exclusion principle \rightarrow only two electrons can be present in any orbital.

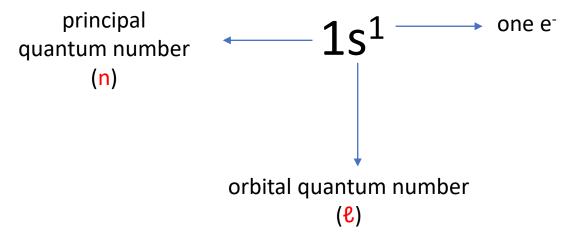
spin magnetic quantum number of these electrons are:

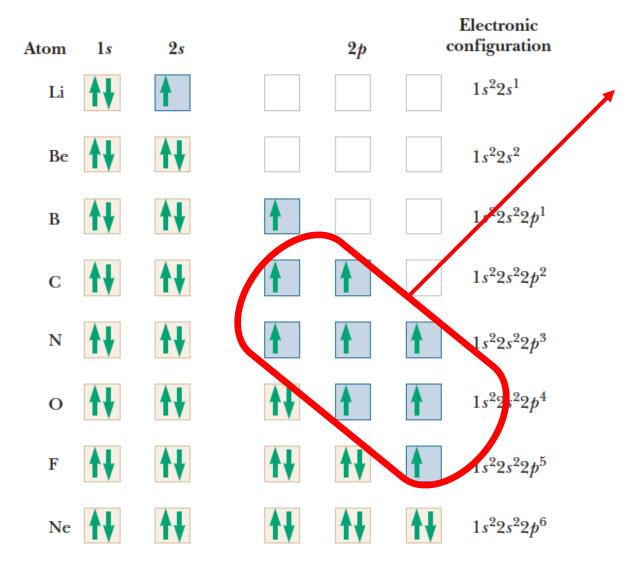
Because each orbital is limited to two electrons, the number of electrons that can occupy the various shells is also limited!











Carbon has 6 electrons.

Do they go into the same orbital with paired spins $(\uparrow \downarrow)$ or do they occupy different orbitals with unpaired spins $(\uparrow \uparrow)$

According to experiments \rightarrow most stable one is ($\uparrow \uparrow$)

Hund's Rule

when an atom has orbitals of equal energy, the order in which they are filled by electrons is such that a maximum number of electrons have unpaired spins.

Some exceptions to this rule occur in elements having subshells that are close to being filled or half-filled.

4 werthig	3 werthig	2 werthig	1 werthig
-	-	-	-
-	-	-	
C = 12,0	N = 14,04	0 = 16,00	Fl = 19,0
16,5	16.96	16,07	16,46
Si = 28,5	P = 31,0	S = 32,07	Cl = 35,46
$\frac{89.1}{2} = 44,55$	44,0	46,7	44,51
-	As =75,0	Se = 78,8	Br = 79,97
$\frac{89.1}{2}$ = 44.55	45,6]	49,5	46,8
Sn = 117,6	Sb = 120,6	Te = 128,3	J = 126,8
89.4 = 2.44.7	87,4, = 2.43,7		
Pb = 207,0	Bi =208,0		- 24

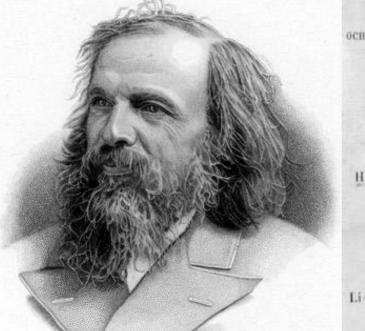
Julius Lothar Meyer

1860s - 1870s

Invention of Periodic Table

... before quantum mechanics...

Dimitri Mendeleev



опытъ системы элеме	НТОВЪ,
---------------------	--------

основанной на ихъ атомномъ въсъ и химическомъ сходств.

	Ti=50	Zr=90 ?=180.
	V=51	Nb=94 Ta=182
	Cr = 52	Mo-96 W-186.
22000 2001	Mn-55	Rh=104,4 Pt=197,4
	Fe-56	Ru=104,4 Tr=198.
	Ni=Co=59	Pl=106,6 Os=199.
H=1	Cu = 63,4	Ag = 108 Hg = 200
Be 9,4	Mg-24 Zn-65,2	Cd = 112
B-11	Al=27,1 ?=68	Ur=116 Au=1972
C=12	Si=28 ?=70	Sn=118
N-14_	P=31 As=75	Sb=122 Bi=210?
0 - 16	S=32 'Se=79,4	Te=128?
F = 19	Cl=35,5 Br=80,	1=127
Li=7 Na=23_	K=39 Rb=85,4	Cs=133 Tl=204
	Ca-40 Sr-87,6	Ba=137 Pb=207.
	2-45 Co-99	

Modern Periodic Table

		p Transition elements									1	Group	1	Group	1	1	
I H 1	п 											III	IV	v	VI	VII H 1	0 He 2
$1s^1$																$1s^1$	$1s^2$
Li 3	Be 4											В 5	C 6	N 7	08	F9	Ne 10
2s ¹	$2s^2$											$2p^{1}$	$2p^2$	$2p^{3}$	$2p^{4}$	$2p^{5}$	$2p^{6}$
Na 11	Mg 12											A1 13	Si 14	P 15	S 16	Cl 17	Ar 18
3s ¹	3 <i>s</i> ²											$3p^{1}$	$3p^{2}$	$3p^3$	$3p^{4}$	3p ⁵	3p ⁶
K 19	Ca 20	Sc 21	Ti 22	V 23	Cr 24	Mn 25	Fe 26	Co 27	Ni 28	Cu 29	Zn 30	Ga 31	Ge 32	As 33	Se 34	Br 35	Kr 36
4 <i>s</i> ¹	$4s^{2}$	$3d^{1}4s^{2}$	$3d^{2}4s^{2}$	$3d^{3}4s^{2}$	$3d^{5}4s^{1}$	$3d^{5}4s^{2}$	3d ⁶ 4s ²	$3d^{7}4s^{2}$	$3d^{8}4s^{2}$	3d ¹⁰ 4s ¹	$3d^{10}4s^2$	$4p^{1}$	$4p^{2}$	$4p^{3}$	$4p^{4}$	$4p^{5}$	$4p^{6}$
Rb 37	Sr 38	Y 39	Zr 40	Nb 41	Mo 42	Tc 43	Ru 44	Rh 45	Pd 46	Ag 47	Cd 48	In 49	Sn 50	Sb 51	Te 52	153	Xe 54
5s ¹	$5s^{2}$	$4d^{1}5s^{2}$	$4d^25s^2$	$4d^{4}5s^{1}$	$4d^{5}5s^{1}$	$4d^55s^2$	$4d^{7}5s^{1}$	$4d^{8}5s^{1}$	$4d^{10}$	$4d^{10}5s^{1}$	$4d^{10}5s^2$	$5p^{1}$	$5p^{2}$	$5p^{3}$	$5p^{4}$	$5p^{5}$	5p ⁶
Cs 55	Ba 56	57–71*	Hf 72	Ta 73	W 74	Re 75	Os 76	Ir 77	Pt 78	Au 79	Hg 80	T1 81	Pb 82	Bi 83	Po 84	At 85	Rn 86
6 <i>s</i> ¹	6 <i>s</i> ²		$5d^{2}6s^{2}$	$5d^{3}6s^{2}$	$5d^46s^2$	$5d^{5}6s^{2}$	5 <i>d</i> ⁶ 6s ²	$5d^{7}6s^{2}$	$5d^{9}6s^{1}$	$5d^{10}6s^{1}$	$5d^{10}6s^2$	$6p^{1}$	$6p^{2}$	6p ³	$6p^{4}$	6p ⁵	6p ⁶
Fr 87	Ra 88	89–	Rf 104	Db 105	Sg 106	Bh 107	Hs 108	Mt 109	Ds 110	Rg 111	Cn 112	113	Fl 114	115	Lv 116	117	118
$7s^1$	7 <i>s</i> ²	103**	$6d^27s^2$	$6d^{3}7s^{2}$	$6d^{4}7s^{2}$	$6d^{5}7s^{2}$	6d ⁶ 7s ²	6d ⁷ 7s ²	$6d^{9}7s^{1}$								
*Lan	thanide s	eries	La 57	Ce 58	Pr 59	Nd 60		Sm 62				Dy 66				Yb 70	
			$5d^{1}6s^{2}$	$5d^{1}4f^{1}6s^{2}$	$4f^{3}6s^{2}$	$4f^{4}6s^{2}$	$4f^{5}6s^{2}$	$4f^{6}6s^{2}$	$4f^{7}6s^{2}$	$5d^{1}4f^{7}6s^{2}$	$5d^{1}4f^{8}6s^{2}$	$4f^{10}6s^2$	$4f^{11}6s^2$	$4f^{12}6s^2$	$4f^{13}6s^2$	$4f^{14}6s^2$	$5d^{1}4f^{14}6s^{2}$

 $6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 6d^{2}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{2}6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{3}6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{4}6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{6}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{7}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{7}6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{8}6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{10}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{11}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{12}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{13}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{14}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{14}6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{14}6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{14}6d^{1}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{10}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{10}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{10}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{11}7s^{2} \quad 5f^{1$

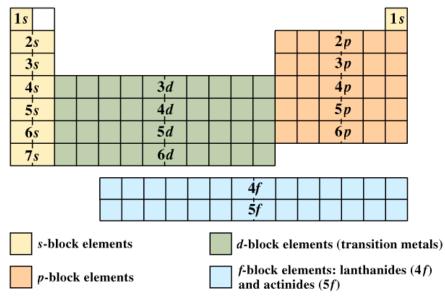
Am 95 Cm 96 Bk 97 Cf 98 Es 99 Fm 100 Md 101 No 102 Lr 103

Ac 89 Th 90 Pa 91 U 92 Np 93 Pu 94

**Actinide series

elements in a column have similar chemical properties

Electron configuration and the periodic table



THE GENIUS OF MENDELEEV'S PERIODIC TABLE

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