

1. Symmetry, Group Theory, and Electronic Structure

2. Ground State Spectroscopic Methods

3. Excited State Spectroscopic Methods

- 3.1 Valence Electronic Spectroscopy
- **3.2 Core Electronic Spectroscopy**



3.2 Core Level Electronic Spectroscopy

Core Level Spectroscopy

- probe deeper binding energy electron
- e⁻ not directly involved in bonding
 - radial distribution of atomic orbitals is too small to allow for good overlap
- three types of processes expected
 - photoionisation \rightarrow XPS, EXAFS
 - bound state excitation $\rightarrow XANES$
 - photoionisation + relaxation
 - X-ray photoemission \rightarrow XES
 - Auger electron emission $\rightarrow \mathsf{AES}$
- each provides different information



Energy

-932 -952



Relaxation Processes in X-ray Photoexcitation Processes

- Two basic mechanisms (like regular spectroscopy)
- Radiative (photoemission/fluorescence)
 - can be extremely informative
 - dominates at higher Z
 - more efficient in K-shell decay
- Non-radiative (electron ejection)
 - Auger decay (dominant at low Z)
 - Coster-Kronig decay
- measurements of 'absorption' are often made using secondary decay
 - fluorescence yield measurements
 - electron yield measurements



3.2 Core Level Electronic Spectroscopy

Nomenclature for X-ray Spectroscopy \rightarrow living with history...

- still use old physics terminology... Shell_{Line#}
 - use first atomic quantum number labels: *K* = 1, *L* = 2, *M* = 3, *etc*.
 - line number simply by energy ordering of different components

- higher energy = lower number
- very important more absorption lines than orbitals...
 - excited state Spin-Orbit Coupling!
 - e.g. 2p splits into 2p_{1/2} and 2p_{3/2}

- XES \rightarrow second labels are given α_i , β_i numbering based on origin of decay
- AES \rightarrow three labels describing origin of each electron involved...











3.2 Core Level Electronic Spectroscopy

XES



AES



X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

- aka ESCA (electron spectroscopy for chemical analysis)
 - binding energies are distinct for specific core orbitals element specific!
 - often used for elemental analysis of complex systems
- ionisation of core "atomic" levels
 - core electrons are perturbed through shielding/deshielding
 - binding energy is obtained from Einstein equation: $E_k = h\nu E_b$
 - shift in binding energy from 'reference' give chemical shift
- core binding energies unique for each element
 - generally assume that binding energy is energy of atomic orbital in initial species → Koopmans' theorem
 - no change in electronic structure due to ionisation
 - this is never really true but generally not bad



3.2.1 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

Selected Electron Binding Energies

Element	K 1 s	L ₁ 2s	L ₂ 2p _{1/2}	L ₃ 2p _{3/2}	M ₁ 3s	M ₂ 3p _{1/2}	M ₃ 3p _{3/2}
1 H	13.6						
2 He	24.6*						
3 Li	54.7*						
4 Be	111.5*						
5 B	188*						
6 C	284.2*						
7 N	409.9*	37.3*					
8 O	543.1*	41.6*					
9 F	696.7*						
10 Ne	870.2*	48.5*	21.7*	21.6*			
11 Na	1070.8†	63.5†	30.65	30.81			
12 Mg	1303.0†	88.7	49.78	49.50			
13 A1	1559.6	117.8	72.95	72.55			
14 Si	1839	149.7*b	99.82	99.42			
15 P	2145.5	189*	136*	135*			
16 S	2472	230.9	163.6*	162.5*			
17 Cl	2822.4	270*	202*	200*			
18 Ar	3205.9*	326.3*	250.6†	248.4*	29.3*	15.9*	15.7*
19 K	3608.4*	378.6*	297.3*	294.6*	34.8*	18.3*	18.3*
20 Ca	4038.5*	438.4†	349.7†	346.2†	44.3 †	25.4†	25.4†
21 Sc	4492	498.0*	403.6*	398.7*	51.1*	28.3*	28.3*
22 Ti	4966	560.9†	460.2†	453.8†	58.7†	32.6†	32.6†



3.2.1 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

- Effect of Excited State Spin Orbit Coupling...
 - splits transitions from orbitals that carry orbital angular momentum (p,d,f)
 - relative intensity of peaks depends on J-degeneracy (2J+1)



- magnitude of SOC changes little function of atomic orbitals not molecular species
 - some (generally small) effect from effective charge on atom and chemical shielding



Core Level Chemical Shifts

- directly related to effective nuclear charge (Z_{eff}) on atom
 - chemical shifts can be correlated with oxidation state of atom



3.2.1 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)



notice orientation of energy scale



3.2.1 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

 $4f_{7/2}$





Satellite Features in Core Level PES Spectra

- Additional features are often observed in a PES spectrum
- atomic orbital picture is simplistic two sources of complication
 - atomic multiplets (states not orbitals)
 - charge transfer effects (molecules not atoms)
- Ground State Atomic Term Symbols (a.k.a. atomic multiplets)

$$\begin{array}{l} 3d^{1} \rightarrow {}^{2}D \\ 3d^{2} \rightarrow {}^{3}F, {}^{1}G, {}^{3}P, {}^{1}D, {}^{1}S, \dots \\ 3d^{5} \rightarrow {}^{4}S, {}^{4}G, {}^{4}P, {}^{4}D, {}^{2}I, {}^{4}F, {}^{2}D, {}^{2}F, \dots \end{array}$$

- excited state terms are even more complicated
- coupling of core hole with valence electrons (e.g. 2p⁵3dⁿ)



Atomic Multiplets in XPS Spectra









- can dramatically complicate the spectrum
- largest effect when purely *atomic* spectra...
 - remember: multiplet effects come from electron-electron repulsion
 - repulsion decreases with electron delocalisation (covalency of metal-ligand bonds)



Effects of Metal-Ligand Covalency in XPS Spectra

- delocalization over ligands complicates GS and ES wavefunctions
- decreases effect of atomic multiplets (collapses multiplets)
- adds "charge transfer" terms to the wavefunctions
 - delocalization onto ligands is included by adding additional term

$$egin{aligned} \psi_{g}^{atomic} &= \left| 2p^{6}3d^{n}
ight
angle \ \psi_{g}^{CT} &= lpha \left| 2p^{6}3d^{n}
ight
angle \pm \sqrt{1-lpha^{2}} \left| 2p^{6}3d^{n+1}\underline{L}
ight
angle \ \psi_{e}^{CT} &= lpha \left| 2p^{5}3d^{n}
ight
angle \pm \sqrt{1-lpha^{2}} \left| 2p^{5}3d^{n+1}\underline{L}
ight
angle \end{aligned}$$

- additional states for transitions to occur...
 - formally forbidden (two-electron)
 - can only occur if *electronic relaxation* occurs
 - change in wavefunction upon ionisation





3.2.1 X-ray Photoelectron Spectroscopy (XPS)

• Core Fe $2p_{3/2}$ spectrum of $[FeX_4]^{2-,1-}$ complexes





The University of British Columbia Department of Chemistry

Auger Emission Spectroscopy

- E_k of emitted Auger electron is defined by:
- true for both Auger and Coster-Kronig
- independent of initial photoionisation
 - can use fixed frequency X-ray tubes
 - can also use electron gun (most common)
- AES is not very sensitive to environme
 - mostly effective for surface elemental anal
 - but will always show up in PES spectra!

$$\begin{split} E_k = & E_1 - E_2 - E_3 \\ & = \Delta E_{12} - E_b \end{split}$$



X-ray Absorption Spectroscopy

- Comparison with PES
 - lots of differences
 - somewhat analogous but different...
- three distinct regions defined in relation to ionisation energy:
 - pre-edge
 - (XANES)
 - edge jump
 - post-edge (EXAFS)

	PES	XAS
scan	E_k	$h\nu$
detect	primary e-	$h\nu$, all e^-
result	peaks	edges (+ peaks)





Regions of the XAS Spectrum

- The edge and pre-edge regions
 - generally known as X-ray Absorption Near Edge Structure (XANES)
 - region that occurs at or near the ionisation peak
 - bound state transitions (not complete ionisations!)
 - transitions handled in same way as Abs (except electron taken from core orbitals)
 - yields information about *electronic structure*
- The post-edge region
 - Extended X-ray Absorption Fine Structure (EXAFS)
 - oscillatory structure *after* ionization peak
 - results from *scattering* of photoelectrons with the surrounding atoms
 - yields geometric structure information



Scattering of Photoelectrons

- photoemission from an isolated atom:
 - ionisation edge jump
 - decay as you get away from resonance
- photoemission from an atom within a specific arrangement of other atoms:
 - additional regular oscillations
 - scattering from other atoms
- interference effect on photoabsorption causes by neighbouring atoms:
 - like diffraction
 - use scattering theory to get geometric inform









Obtaining XAS data

- measure the absorption of X-rays at different photon energies
- Three basic ways to measure absorption:
 - X-ray Transmission
 - direct measurement like UV/Vis Abs experiments
 - Total Fluorescence Yield (TFY) $I ~E ~\propto \sigma_{b
 u} ~E$
 - indirect measure assumes
 - Total Electron Yield (TEY) $I \ E \propto \sigma_{Auger} \ E$
 - indirect measure assumes



X-ray Diffraction (XRD)

- X-ray scattering
 - interaction with electrons
 - large penetration depth
- · external directional source
 - requires long-range order
 - sees all scatterers
- biggest problem
 - phase of scattering
 - use MAD/heavy atom replacement

• electron scattering

EXAFS

- interaction with electronic potential
- short penetration depth
- localized internal source
 - sees short-range order
 - only sees nearby scatterers
- biggest problem
 - phase of scattering
 - use references/ab initio calcs







Basic Theory of EXAFS

• oscillations are visualized as $\chi(k)$

$$\chi(E) = \frac{\mu(E) - \mu_0(E)}{\mu_0(E)}$$

- k relates to photoelectron wavefunction
 - $k = \sqrt{2m_e\hbar^2} E E_0$ known as wave vector
 - easily convert E to k



notice units of k space...

- more data means more periods of oscillation
 - getting higher k data is very useful (not always feasible)

 $k \propto \sqrt{\Delta E}$

e.g. k-range of 0-12 is good, but 0-15 is much better

gives ~40% more *k*-range



The EXAFS Equation

• semi-classical derivation of electron scattering for *K*-shell EXAFS:

$$\chi(k) = -S_0^2 \sum_i N_i \frac{|f_-\pi, k_-|}{kR_i^2} e^{-2\sigma_i^2 k^2} e^{-2R_i/\lambda_- k_-} \sin 2kR_i + 2\delta_1 + \varphi_i - \pi, k$$

 $S_0^2 \equiv$ amplitude reduction factor (due to electronic relaxation) $N_i \equiv$ number of scattering atoms of a particular type $e^{-2R_i/\lambda k} \equiv$ damping factor to account for electron mean free path (λ) $R_i \equiv$ distance to atom i $e^{-2\sigma_i^2k^2} \equiv$ Debye-Waller factor (accounts for disorder in the sample) $f \quad k \equiv$ scattering amplitude of atom i $\delta_1 \equiv$ phase shift of the photoelectron due to photoemitting atom $\varphi_i \quad k \equiv$ phase shift of the photoelectron due to scattering atom



Contributions to EXAFS oscillations

- the EXAFS is effectively *a sum of sinusoidal waves* that are affected by
 - the number of nearby scatterers (grouped by "geometric equivalence")
 - amplitude
 - the identity of the scatterers
 - phase
 - amplitude
 - the distance of the scatterers from the photoemitting atom
 - period of the wave
 - damping of amplitude
 - the disorder (both static and dynamic) of the scatterers
 - damping of amplitude



Fourier Transformation – moving to "real" space

• the *k*-space data can be transformed into *R*-space through FT:

 $FT(\chi(k)) = \operatorname{Re} \chi(k) + i \operatorname{Im} \chi(k)$

- each set of scatterers corresponds to a peak at a certain "distance"...
 - distance is NOT correct distance
 - distance has to be correctly for phase shift that occurs due to scatterers
 - phase shift is different for each type of atom!

sin
$$2kR_i$$
 $(2\delta_1 + \varphi_i \pi, k)$ for $n = 1$ atoms (N, O):
shift is usually ~ -0.5Å





Number of Scatterers



Distance from Photoemitter



Identity of Scatterers



Amount of disorder





Multiple Scattering Pathways

- scattering is not necessarily a single event...
- can also have more complex scattering paths
 - to/from the same atoms
 - connecting three or more atoms
- phase shifts for multiple scattering paths is more complex
- depends on angle between scatterers
 - 180° creates constructive interference
 - 90° creates destructive interference



single scattering



multiple scattering



General Approach to Fitting EXAFS Data





- e.g. EXAFS deconvolution Nature of Cu catalyst on ZnO surface
 - heterogeneous catalytic system for methanol synthesis



Figure 4. Fourier transforms of the EXAFS data over k = 3.3-12.3 Å⁻¹ for the calcined 5% Cu/ZnO sample at room temperature (dash) and at 77 K (solid).



• e.g. EXAFS deconvolution – protocathechuate dioxygenase



Figure 5. Spectroscopically effective structures for (A) $Fe^{III}PCD\{NO^-\}$ and (B) $Fe^{III}PCD\{PCA,NO^-\}$. The catecholate can either be the monoanion or the dianion depending on the pK_a at the $Fe^{III}-NO^-$ site.



Figure 2. (a) Fourier transform of data for $Fe^{III}PCD\{\}$ (—), $Fe^{III}PCD\{NO^-\}$ (…), and $Fe^{III}PCD\{PCA,NO^-\}$ (--). Inset: EXAFS data (—) and fits to the data (---) of $Fe^{III}PCD\{\}$ (top), $Fe^{III}PCD\{NO^-\}$ (middle), and $Fe^{III}PCD\{PCA,NO^-\}$ (bottom). Data for $Fe^{III}PCD\{\}$ and $Fe^{III}PCD\{NO^-\}$ have been offset by 12 and 6 units, respectively.

	Fe ^{III} PCD{}			$Fe^{III}PCD\{NO^{-}\}$			$Fe^{III}PCD{PCA,NO^{-}}$		
	CN	R (Å)	σ^2 (Å ²)	CN	<i>R</i> (Å)	σ^2 (Å ²)	CN	R (Å)	σ^2 (Å ²)
Fe-N/O	3	1.88	0.00220	1	1.91	0.00323	1	1.93	.00288
Fe-N/O	2	2.10	0.00114	4	2.11	0.00276	3	2.10	0.00328
Fe-N/O							2	2.44	0.00173
Fe-C/N SS ^a	4	3.01	0.00702	4	3.00	0.01008	4	2.82	0.00989
Fe-C MS ^a	6	3.33	0.00104	6	3.24	0.00705	7	3.39	0.00317
Fe-C MS	6	4.30	0.00737	6	4.33	0.00655	8	4.31	0.00800
avg. Fe—N/O <i>R</i> (Å)		1.97			2.07			2.19	
error ^b		0.91			0.40			0.50	

Table 2. EXAFS Fit Results for Fe^{III}PCD{}, Fe^{III}PCD{NO⁻}, and Fe^{III}PCD{PCA,NO⁻}

^a SS: single scattering. MS: multiple scattering. ^b Error is defined as $F = \sum [(\chi_{exp} - \chi_{obsd})^2 k^6] / \sum [\chi_{exp}^2 k^6]$.



Issues to remember with EXAFS

- unique approach to get geometry in non-crystalline samples
- standard approach to data acquisition gives AVERAGE spectrum
 - contributions from multiple sites can be difficult to deconvolute
- there are LOTS of parameters
 - too many to give unique fit
 - get chemically reasonable fit based on information from other sources
 - use *ab initio* simulations to compare to data
- Sensitivity of data differs for different parameters:
 - very sensitive to bond distances (R_i error within 0.02Å)
 - very *insensitive* to coordination number (N_i is usually within +/- 1)

- edge jump for ionisation
- *Important*: transitions rely on overlap between initial and final states
 - 1s orbital is very localized transitions will be localized on absorber atom...

Chemistry 529 (2009-W2)

- ionisation edge characterised by jump in intensity with slow decay
- transitions to bound states discrete transitions to empty molecular orbitals
- also: transitions to Rydberg states
 - final state is similar to ionisation but electron is not actually removed
- intense transitions will be electric dipole allowed such that:
- for *K*-edge (1*s*) XAS, we can expect

 - strong transitions to valence orbitals that contain np character



 $\left\langle \Psi_{g}\left|\hat{r}\right|\Psi_{e}\right
angle \neq 0$

 $\Delta S = 0$

 $\Delta l = \pm 1$

 $q \rightarrow u$

520





Metal K-edge XANES Analysis

- Simplest example: Zn^{\parallel} (3 d^{10}) O_h system
 - Zn 3d orbitals are full
 - lowest energy bound state transitions are $1s \rightarrow 4p$ (4s are also empty but $s \rightarrow s$ not ED allowed)
 - look at atomic description of $1s \rightarrow 4p$ bound state transition:

$$\begin{vmatrix} 1s^{2}2s^{2}2p^{6}3s^{2}3p^{6}3d^{10}4s^{0}4p^{0} \rangle \xrightarrow{h\nu} | 1s^{1}2s^{2}2p^{6}3s^{2}3p^{6}3d^{10}4s^{0}4p^{1} \rangle \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \\ Is^{2}4p^{0} \rangle \xrightarrow{h\nu} | 1s^{1}4p^{1} \rangle \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \\ Ia^{2}A_{1g} \otimes {}^{1}A_{1g} = {}^{1}A_{1g} \xrightarrow{h\nu} {}^{2}A_{1g} \otimes {}^{2}T_{1u} = (T_{1u}) + {}^{3}T_{1u} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \\ Ia^{2}A_{1g} \xrightarrow{h\nu} {}^{1}A_{1g} \xrightarrow{h\nu} {}^{1}T_{1u} \\ \downarrow & \downarrow \\ Ia^{2}A_{1g} \xrightarrow{h\nu} {}^{1}T_{1u} \\ Ia^{2}A_{1g} \xrightarrow{h\nu} {}^{1}T_{1u} \\ \downarrow \\ Ia^{2}A_{1g} \xrightarrow{h\nu} {}^{1}T_{1u} \\ Ia^{2}A_{1g} \xrightarrow{h} {}^{1}T_{1u} \\ Ia^{2}A_{1g} \xrightarrow{h} {}^{1$$

- 4p orbital is very diffuse will have strong overlap with ligand orbitals...
 - get distribution of $1s \rightarrow 4p$ intensity to charge transfer (CT) peaks [remember PES!]
 - ligand interactions must have t_{2q} symmetry (GT allowed mixing with 4p orbitals in O_h)



Zn K-edge XANES

- contributions to 1s→4p are basicall at the 1s ionisation edge jump
- symmetry & nature of ligands changes effect of CT states

$$\Psi_{f} = \alpha \left| 1s^{1}4p^{1}L \right\rangle + \sqrt{1 - \alpha^{2}} \left| 1s^{1}4p^{2}\underline{L} \right\rangle$$

- not particularly informative
 - somewhat sensitive to symmetry
 - differences are relatively small





Cu K-edge XANES Analysis

- Cu^I is basically the same as $Zn^{II} \rightarrow 3d^{10}$
 - Cu 3d orbitals are full
 - $1s \rightarrow 4p$ + CT contributions at/near the 1s edge jump
 - 4*p* splitting and CT contributions provide reference points for specific geometries / coordination numbers
- Cu^{II} K-edge XANES is more interesting...
 - edge jump should be at different energy (ΔZ_{eff})
 - still have Cu $1s \rightarrow 4p$
 - Cu 3d⁹ system hole in 3d manifold, but...

 $\begin{array}{l} \left| 1s^2 3d^9 4p^0 \right\rangle \rightarrow \left| 1s^1 3d^9 4p^1 \right\rangle \text{ is electric dipole allowed} \\ \left| 1s^2 3d^9 4p^0 \right\rangle \rightarrow \left| 1s^1 3d^{10} 4p^0 \right\rangle \text{ is electric dipole forbidden} \end{array}$





Cu["] K-edge XANES Analysis

- XANES spectra are very different
 - edge jump is at higher energy in Cu^{II} since Cu 1s is at deeper binding energy







8975

8985



Pre-edge features in Metal K-edge XAS Spectra

- peaks are generally very weak
- result from $1s \rightarrow 3d$ transitions: $|1s^2 3d^n \rangle \rightarrow |1s^1 3d^{n+1} \rangle$
- possible final states can be decomposed into two terms



- therefore, can use d^{n+1} Tanabe Sugano diagrams
- but why can we see these transitions?
 - 1s→3d transitions are electric quadrupole allowed
 - proven by angle-dependence of peak intensities in $\mathrm{Cu}^{\scriptscriptstyle ||}$ system \rightarrow





- e.g. analysis of pre-edge features for O_h Fe^{II} Complexes
 - start with low-spin ferrous complexes
 - look for spin-allowed one-electron transitions



all other LF states are from forbidden two-electron transitions

no other ²E to mix with so there should only be one pre-edge peak...



Figure 8. Fe K-edge XAS spectra, pre-edge fits, and theoretical analysis of octahedral low-spin Fe^{II} complexes. (A) Fe K-edge spectra of Fe(HB(pZ)₃)₂ (-), Fe(prpep)₂ (---), and K₄[Fe(CN)₆]·3H₂O (···) where the inset is an expansion of the 1s \rightarrow 3d pre-edge region, with the normalized absorption scale being 0.0–0.1. (B) Fit to the Fe K-edge pre-edge region of Fe(prpep)₂ including the experimental data (-), a fit to the data (- - -), the background function (- -), and the individual pre-edge peak from the fit (···). An edge peak was also needed in the fit of this data and is shown (- -; see the text). The inset displays the second derivative of the data (- -). (C) The single many-electron d⁽ⁿ⁺¹⁾ excited state.





- what about high-spin ferrous complexes?
 - more complex...

ground state configuration

+↓ + - +

 $(t_{2g})^2(e_g)^2$



other LF states result from forbidden two-electron transitions

intensity of peaks will depend on covalency but it's not easy since peaks are so weak...





Effect of lower symmetry and "3d-4p mixing"

- $1s \rightarrow 3d$ are very weak because they are not ED allowed
- are there situations where this is not true?
 - if final states include some 4p character (even just a little)

remember: $\langle \Psi_{g} | \hat{r} | \Psi_{e} \rangle \gg \langle \Psi_{g} | \hat{r}^{2} | \Psi_{e} \rangle$ by 2 orders of magnitude!

- how can we get 3d-4p mixing? (think back to Abs!)
 - centrosymmetric (*i.e.*, with inversion symmetry) cannot have 4p mixing

$$O_h \rightarrow \frac{3d \equiv e_g + t_{2g}}{4p \equiv t_{1u}} \qquad \qquad D_{4h} \rightarrow \frac{3d \equiv a_{1g} + b_{1g} + b_{2g} + e_g}{4p \equiv a_{2u} + e_u}$$

but non-centrosymmetric can...

$$T_d
ightarrow rac{3d \equiv e + t_2}{4p \equiv t_2}$$
 $C_{4v}
ightarrow rac{3d \equiv a_1 + b_1 + b_2 + e}{4p \equiv a_1 + e}$



• Effect of C_{4v} distortions in ferrous complexes...









distortion from O_h along z-axis causes:

splitting of final states 4p mixing into $3d_{z^2}$ orbital

can be used to track distortions in metal active sites



Summary of Metal K-edge XANES

- energy of edge jump is related to oxidation state (Z_{eff})
- $1s \rightarrow 3d$ transitions are very weak unless 4p mixing can occur
 - can use intensity and splitting to investigate ligand field surrounding metal
- $1s \rightarrow 4p$ transitions are very strong but masked by the edge jump (difficult to interpret)
- can be very useful in determining coordination number of metal complexes
 - good complement to EXAFS!
- biggest problems
 - intensity of pre-edge features is very weak (EQ mechanism)
 - edge jump is huge compared to electronic transitions
- solution use metal *L*-edges (M 2*p* ionisation) instead of *K*-edges...
 - $2p \rightarrow 3d$ transitions are electric dipole allowed
 - edge jump is much weaker



Metal L-edge XANES

- biggest problem final state analysis is more complicated
 - metal 2*p* hole is no longer *benign* $|2p^{6}3d^{n}\rangle \rightarrow |2p^{5}3d^{n+1}\rangle$
 - must include both spin and orbital coupling to $3d^{n+1}$
 - spin-orbit coupling!
- simplest case *L*-edges for Cu^{II} (3*d*⁹) complexes
 - intensity of the L-edge peaks is directly related to the amount of 3*d* character in the singly-occupied orbital...

$$\begin{split} \Psi_{SOMO} &= \alpha \left| \left. 3d \right\rangle - \sqrt{1 - \alpha^2} \left| \left. L \right\rangle \right. \\ I &\propto \left| \left\langle \Psi_f \left| \hat{r} \right| \Psi_i \right\rangle \right|^2 = \left| \left\langle \Psi_{2p} \left| \hat{r} \right| \Psi_{SOMO} \right\rangle \right|^2 = \left| \left\langle \Psi_{2p} \left| \hat{r} \right| \alpha \Psi_{3d} \right\rangle \right|^2 \\ I &= \alpha^2 I_{2p \to 3d} \end{split}$$



[#]HOMO = √1 - α² Cu d₂²,

Figure 1. Intensity variation of Cu 2p to 3d Ψ_{HOMO} transition. Top left panel: Energy level diagram illustrating the observed Cu 2p to 3d Ψ_{HOMO} transition. Top right panel: Total integrated intensity of the L₂ and L₃ peaks normalized to the continuum intensity plotted as a function of estimated Cu 3d_{x²y²} character in the HOMO; 5% error bars are included. Lower panel: Cu L-edge spectra of (from top to bottom) D_{2d}-Cs₂CuCl₄, D_{4h}-(N-mph)₂CuCl₄, Cu(II) plastocyanin, and Cu(I) plastocyanin. The spectra have been normalized to the continuum intensity. Features marked with an asterisk (*) in the Cu(I) plastocyanin data arise from incomplete reduction.



K-edge XANES Spectra of non-metals

- for C, N, O often called NEXAFS
- use similar approaches to understanding bound state transitions
- electric dipole allowed transitions dominate $(s \rightarrow p)$
 - good, because valence orbitals are often np orbitals
 - C,N,O,F $\rightarrow 2p$
 - P,S,Cl \rightarrow 3p
- comparisons of free vs. bound ligands is often extremely informative
 - shifts in valence orbital energies
 - quantify charge donation into metal (e.g., π -backbonding)
 - direct measure of covalency into metal
- gives alternative viewpoint to bonding
 - can see electronic structure from different perspectives
 - very useful since spectroscopy always perturbs system and each approach looks at things in a slightly different way



Summary of XANES Spectroscopy

- edge jump directly related to Z_{eff}
- effective probe of empty valence orbitals
 - electron delocalisation
 - covalency of species
 - energetic effect of bonding
- element specific
 - look directly at a particular component of a complex system
 - can often see system from several different perspectives