

Atomic Structure

01 · SUBATOMIC PARTICLES

Particle	Charge	Rel. mass
proton	+1	1
neutron	0	1
electron	-1	1/1836

Notation A_ZX — Z = protons (= atomic number),
 A = mass number = $p + n$, so $n = A - Z$. Nucleus
holds nearly all the mass; charge = protons
– electrons.

02 · ISOTOPES

Same element, same Z , different number
of neutrons.

Same chemical properties (same electron
configuration). **Different** physical properties
— mass, density, rate of diffusion, boiling
point, radioactivity.

Uses: C-14 dating, Co-60 radiotherapy, I-131
thyroid imaging.

03 · RELATIVE ATOMIC MASS

$$A_r = \frac{\sum(\text{abundance} \times \text{mass})}{100}$$

Mass spectrum: x-axis = m/z , y-axis = relative
abundance. Weighted mean, so A_r sits nearer the
more abundant isotope.

Worked example. Cl-35 (75.8 %), Cl-37 (24.2
%):
 $(35 \times 75.8 + 37 \times 24.2) \div 100 = \mathbf{35.48}$
2 d.p., no units — A_r is a ratio.

04 · ELECTRON CONFIGURATION

Shell n holds max $2n^2$. Subshell capacity: s 2, p 6,
d 10, f 14.

Fill order
1s 2s 2p 3s 3p **4s 3d** 4p 5s 4d 5p 6s 4f 5d 6p

Aufbau lowest energy first · **Pauli** max $2e^-$ per
orbital, opposite spins · **Hund** singly fill
degenerate orbitals before pairing.

Condensed: Fe = $[Ar] 4s^2 3d^6$. Exceptions: Cr =
 $[Ar] 3d^5 4s^1$, Cu = $[Ar] 3d^{10} 4s^1$.

Ions: remove the outermost (highest n) electrons
first — $Fe^{3+} = [Ar] 3d^5$, not $3d^3 4s^2$.

05 · ORBITALS A2

An orbital is a region of high probability of finding
an electron; it holds up to $2e^-$.

s spherical, one per shell. **p** two-lobed, three per
shell along x, y, z, equal in energy. Draw orbital
diagrams as boxes with arrows, applying Hund.

06 · IONISATION ENERGY

1st IE: $X(g) \rightarrow X^+(g) + e^-$
Always endothermic; species must be
gaseous.

Across a period ↑ — greater nuclear charge,
same shell, similar shielding. **Down a group** ↓ —
outer electron further out and more shielded.

Dips: Be → B (electron enters a higher-energy
2p) and N → O (paired-electron repulsion in
one 2p orbital). These dips are the evidence
for sub-shells.

Successive IEs always rise; a large jump marks
the start of a new inner shell, so the number
of electrons removed before the jump gives the
group.

07 · EVIDENCE FOR SHELLS AND SUB-SHELLS

Plot $\log(IE)$ against the number of the electron
removed. The **large jumps** mark the start of each
new inner shell, and the number of electrons
removed before the first jump gives the group.

Within a shell the smaller steps mark sub-shells:
for Al the 3p electron leaves first, then the two 3s
electrons cost noticeably more.

Successive ionisation energies always rise —
each electron is pulled from an increasingly
positive ion.

08 · PERIODICITY

Property	→ period	↓ group
Atomic radius	↓	↑
Ionisation energy	↑	↓
Electronegativity	↑	↓
Electron affinity	more -ve	less -ve
Metallic character	↓	↑

Ionic radius: cations smaller than the atom,
anions larger. Across an isoelectronic series (N^{3-}
→ Al^{3+}) radius falls as charge rises.

Oxides across period 3: basic (Na_2O , MgO) →
amphoteric (Al_2O_3) → acidic (P_4O_{10} , SO_3). Melting
point peaks at Si (giant covalent) and collapses at
the noble gas.

09 · WORKED EXAMPLE — SUCCESSIVE IONISATION ENERGIES

An element has first five ionisation energies of
578, 1817, 2745, 11 578 and 14 831 kJ mol^{-1} .
Which group is it in?

The big jump comes between the 3rd and 4th
values, so three electrons are removed easily.
→ **Group 13**, and with these values the element is
aluminium.

Always quote the position of the jump, not just its
size.

DEFINITIONS TO QUOTE EXACTLY

First ionisation energy — the energy needed
to remove one mole of electrons from one mole
of gaseous atoms.

Electronegativity — the ability of an atom
to attract a shared pair of electrons in a
covalent bond.

Isotopes — atoms of the same element with
the same number of protons but different
numbers of neutrons.

Relative atomic mass — the weighted mean
mass of an atom relative to carbon-12 taken as
exactly 12.

MARKS LOST HERE

— Omitting (**g**) or the electron in an
ionisation equation.

— Writing 3d before 4s when 4s fills first,
or removing 3d electrons before 4s when
forming ions.

— Saying "shielding increases" across a period; it
stays roughly constant — nuclear charge is doing
the work.

— Explaining a trend by "more shells" when the
ions are isoelectronic.

Chemical Bonding

10 · WHICH BOND TYPE?

Δ electronegativity	Bond
< 0.4	non-polar covalent
0.4 – 1.8	polar covalent
> 1.8	ionic

Metal + non-metal → ionic · non-metal + non-metal → covalent · metal + metal → metallic. Bonding is a **continuum**, so treat the cut-offs as guides and use the bonding triangle when asked.

11 · IONIC BONDING

Electrostatic attraction between oppositely charged ions in a **giant lattice**. Formula is empirical — the ratio, not a molecule.

Properties: high melting point, brittle, conducts when molten or aqueous but not solid (ions fixed), generally soluble in polar solvents.

Lattice enthalpy ↑ with larger ionic charges and smaller ionic radii — $\text{MgO} \gg \text{NaCl}$.

12 · COVALENT BONDING

A shared pair of electrons attracted by both nuclei. As **bond order rises, length falls and strength rises**: $\text{C}-\text{C} > \text{C}=\text{C} > \text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ in length, reversed in enthalpy.

Coordinate (dative) bond: both electrons from one atom — NH_4^+ , H_3O^+ , Al_2Cl_6 . Identical to a normal covalent bond once formed.

13 · LEWIS STRUCTURES

1 · Count valence electrons (add for negative charge, subtract for positive). 2 · Least electronegative atom central. 3 · Single bonds, complete octets, then multiple-bond the leftovers. 4 · Show **all** lone pairs and the charge in brackets.

Formal charge = valence – (lone-pair e^- + $\frac{1}{2}$ bonding e^-). The best structure keeps formal charges nearest zero, negative on the most electronegative atom.

Resonance (O_3 , NO_3^- , CO_3^{2-} , benzene): delocalised electrons, all bonds equal and intermediate in length and strength.

A2 Period-3 atoms can exceed an octet: PCl_5 , SF_6 , ClF_3 , XeF_4 .

14 · VSEPR — SHAPES & ANGLES

Dom.	lp	Shape	Angle	Ex.
2	0	linear	180°	CO_2
3	0	trigonal planar	120°	BF_3
3	1	bent	$<120^\circ$	SO_2
4	0	tetrahedral	109.5°	CH_4
4	1	trigonal pyramidal	107°	NH_3
4	2	bent	104.5°	H_2O
5	0	trigonal bipyramidal	$90/120^\circ$	PCl_5
5	1	see-saw	$<90/ <120^\circ$	SF_4
5	2	T-shaped	$<90^\circ$	ClF_3
5	3	linear	180°	XeF_2
6	0	octahedral	90°	SF_6
6	1	square pyramidal	$<90^\circ$	BrF_5
6	2	square planar	90°	XeF_4

Rows with 5 or 6 domains are **A2**. Repulsion **lp–lp** > **lp–bp** > **bp–bp**; each lone pair closes the angle by $\sim 2.5^\circ$. Count domains, not atoms — a double bond is one domain.

15 · POLARITY

A bond is polar if $\Delta\chi > 0 \rightarrow$ dipole $\delta^+ \rightarrow \delta^-$. A **molecule** is polar only if the bond dipoles do not cancel.

Non-polar despite polar bonds (symmetrical): CO_2 , CCl_4 , BF_3 , CH_4 , SF_6 . **Polar:** H_2O , NH_3 , CHCl_3 , SO_2 .

Symmetry beats bond count — check the shape first, then add the vectors.

16 · INTERMOLECULAR FORCES

Weakest → strongest:

1 London (dispersion) — in everything; stronger with more electrons (higher M_r) and greater surface contact, so pentane boils above 2,2-dimethylpropane.

2 Dipole–dipole — between permanent dipoles in polar molecules.

3 Hydrogen bonding — H bonded directly to N, O or F, plus a lone pair to accept. Explains the anomalous boiling points of H_2O , NH_3 and HF , and ice being less dense than water.

Melting and boiling points break **intermolecular** forces, never covalent bonds. "Like dissolves like" for solubility.

17 · METALLIC & GIANT COVALENT

Metallic: lattice of cations in a sea of delocalised electrons. Strength ↑ with ionic charge and ↓ with radius ($\text{Na} < \text{Mg} < \text{Al}$). Conducts, malleable, high melting point; alloys are harder because different sizes disrupt the layers.

Giant covalent: diamond — tetrahedral, 4 bonds, very hard, non-conductor. Graphite — hexagonal layers, 3 bonds + 1 delocalised e^- , conducts along layers, soft lubricant. SiO_2 resembles diamond; C_{60} is molecular, not giant.

18 · HYBRIDISATION, Σ & Π **A2**

Hybrid	Domains	Geometry	Ex.
sp^3	4	tetrahedral 109.5°	CH_4
sp^2	3	trigonal planar 120°	C_2H_4
sp	2	linear 180°	C_2H_2

σ = head-on overlap along the internuclear axis. π = side-on overlap of parallel p orbitals. Double bond = $1\sigma + 1\pi$; triple = $1\sigma + 2\pi$. π bonds block rotation, giving cis/trans isomers.

Delocalisation: in benzene the six p orbitals overlap sideways into one π system above and below the ring, so all six carbon–carbon bonds are identical and intermediate between a single and a double bond.

19 · WORKED EXAMPLE — DEDUCE THE SHAPE

Predict the shape and bond angle of SF_4 .

S has 6 valence electrons; four bond to F, leaving one lone pair.

5 electron domains → trigonal bipyramidal arrangement

The lone pair takes an equatorial position → **see-saw**

Angles slightly under 90° and 120° .

DATA BOOKLET & MARKS LOST

Look up, never memorise: electronegativity values, ionic and covalent radii, bond enthalpies and lengths, first ionisation energies, the electromagnetic spectrum, and the periodic table itself.

— Confusing electron domain geometry with molecular shape: NH_3 is tetrahedral in domains, **trigonal pyramidal** in shape.

— Calling a molecule with polar bonds polar without checking symmetry.

— Saying covalent bonds break on boiling a simple molecular substance.

— Drawing Lewis structures without lone pairs or the ion's charge bracket.