



Targeting a Top Grade

in GCSE AQA Chemistry

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Teacher's Introduction

The aim of this resource is to provide your students with revision materials, guidance and practice to help them secure a grade 9 in **GCSE (9–1) AQA Chemistry**.

Remember!

Always check the exam board website for new information, including changes to the specification and sample assessment material.

As teachers, we always want our students to attain the highest grades possible. For many of your students entered for the Higher Tier paper, the challenge is to secure a grade 9. It is interesting as professionals to reflect that, on average, around 15% of candidates taking the Higher Tier paper will achieve grade 9, and around 18% will achieve grade 8. Data from AQA suggests that in both Paper 1 and Paper 2 candidates perform relatively poorly on questions associated with practical activities, working scientifically skills, and some mathematical skills such as graph interpretation, and for Paper 2 extended responses can be an area where marks are often lost. As such, these resources focus additional attention on these areas and provide activities for your students to build their confidence in these key areas of assessment. Practice for answering questions based on practical work appears within relevant topic chapters, as well as specific chapters focusing on working scientifically skills and graphical interpretation skills.

Alongside general examination advice, reminders about good exam practice and an overview of the command words, the specification has been divided into 14 units. Each unit consists of the following:

- A student-focused introduction, setting out the key knowledge required to obtain a grade 9.
- Explanations, worked examples, challenges, tips and interesting facts – forming the main content of each unit.
- A set of tasks, questions and have-a-go ideas that help students to test their knowledge, understanding and application.
- Exam-style questions – a chance to practise.
- Answers to the exam-style questions.

All of these photocopiable sections are designed to be used either in class, during a tutorial, during one-to-one sessions or by the students working alone in self-study. They are equally valuable for students currently working at grades 6 and 7 and aiming for grade 8 or 9. Although the primary focus is on securing that 9, any Higher Tier student will find valuable support in these materials.

April 2025

Chapter 1: Periodic Table

Introduction

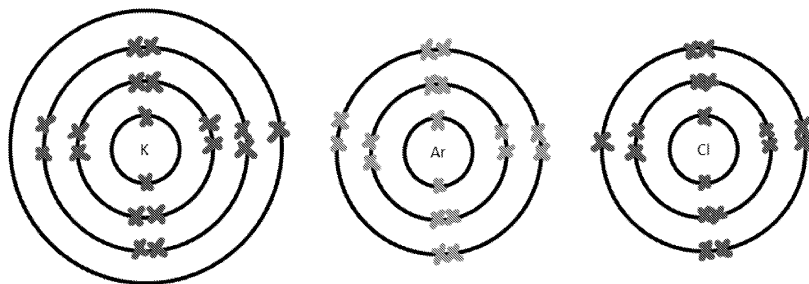
Describing trends in the periodic table, and using your knowledge to explain them, are key skills needed for the exam. Clarity is key: how does electron structure link to an element's reactivity? Whilst group 1 metals **lose** electrons, group 7 elements **gain** electrons, and this leads to reactivity down the group. Extended-answer questions often focus on these trends, so **making predictions** using your knowledge, so confidence in your understanding is essential.

Required prior knowledge

Before starting this chapter, you should know:

- How to draw dot-and-cross diagrams
- The basic structure of the periodic table
- The reactions of group 1 elements with water
- The reactivity and physical properties of group 17 elements

A good way of explaining the difference between the chemical behaviours of groups 1 and 7 elements is by comparing their electron structures to group 0 elements. Let's look at the electron structure of potassium, K (left), and chlorine, Cl (right), comparing them to the electron structure of argon, Ar (middle):



Electrons are arranged in shells. They fill the inner shells first, then move on to the next shell. Spherically shaped shells explain why group 1 elements are so reactive and why group 7 elements are slightly less so. These outer electrons, called valence electrons, are the ones that are involved in chemical reactions. They are the 'valence' electrons, and they are the ones that are 'down' the group. You can see this at A...

Use the task below to help you consolidate these ideas.

Task A

1. The shortened electron structure of argon can be written as (2, 8, 8). Write the shortened electron structures of potassium and chlorine.
2. Look at the electron structure of potassium.
 - a. How can the electron structure of potassium become like the electron structure of argon?
 - b. How does this explain the way group 1 elements form ions?
 - c. Give the shortened electron structure of a potassium ion.
3. Look at the electron structure of chlorine.
 - a. How can the electron structure of chlorine become like the electron structure of argon?
 - b. How does this explain the way group 7 elements form ions?
 - c. Give the shortened electron structure of a chloride ion.

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Trends down the groups

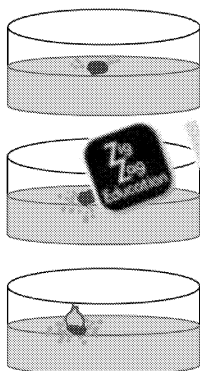
We know that potassium and chlorine react very differently to form ions. Elements in the same group of the periodic table react in the **same way**, but the *ease* with which they form ions will vary.

Group 1: The alkali metals

These elements **lose one electron** to form **positive ions**. You will have seen this happen on a macroscopic scale when watching the demonstration of group 1 metals in water.

Macroscopic scale: The reactions can be observed with the naked eye. Experiments can be carried out on the macroscopic scale, but the underlying reasons can only be explained by looking at the sub-microscopic electron structures.

The first three group 1 metals are added to a trough containing water. The observations are as follows:

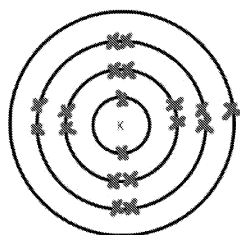
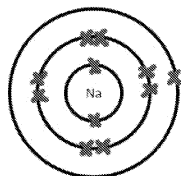
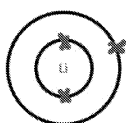


Group 1 element	Observations when added to water
Lithium	Fizzes slowly, moving on the surface of the water.
Sodium	Fizzes, moving quickly on the surface of the water. The sodium metal melts.
Potassium	Fizzes vigorously, moving quickly on the surface of the water. A lilac flame is seen.

The reactions become **more vigorous** as we descend the group.

How can this trend be explained?

The electron structures of the first three group 1 metals are shown below.



As we descend the group:

- The atom's radius increases as there are more electron shells
- The valence electrons are further away from the nucleus
- The valence electrons experience **less 'pull'** from the positively charged nucleus
- The valence electrons are more **shielded** from the nucleus by the inner shells
- Therefore, the electrons become **easier** to lose

Exam tips

When answering questions on reactivity trend down the group, following the 'RACE' mnemonic can help:

- ☐ **R**adius of atom
- ☐ **A**tttraction of electron to the nucleus
- ☐ **S**hielding
- ☐ **E**ase of losing/gaining electrons

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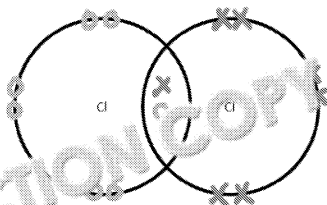
Group 7: The halogens

These elements **gain one electron** to form **negative ions**.
The halogens react with metals to form **halide salts**. They will also react with hydrogen to form hydrogen halides.

Halogen or halide?

When the halogens are in the **elemental form**, their names end in '-ine'. When they have formed their negative ions, we change their name to end in '-ide'.

In their elemental form, the halogens are **diatomic molecules**: two atoms in each molecule are joined by a single covalent bond:



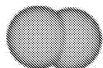
As the elements are in the same **group**, they have **low melting and boiling points**. The molecules follow a clear trend in their **physical properties**:

Halogen	Appearance at room temperature	Melting point
Fluorine	Yellow gas	-188°C
Chlorine	Pale yellow-green gas	-35°C
Bromine	Red-brown liquid which readily vaporises	-7°C
Iodine	Black shiny crystals which sublime to a purple vapour	114°C

As we go down the group:



- The colour **intensifies and darkens**
- The number of electron shells in each atom increases



- This means that the size of the molecules **increases**



- The strength of the intermolecular forces increases



- It requires more **energy** to overcome these forces to melt or boil the substance
- The melting and boiling points therefore **increase**

The halogens are slightly soluble in water and soluble in organic solvents such as ethanol. You should know the colour of halogens in water for their reactions later. Luckily, you will not need to know the appearance of their vapours.

Halogen	Appearance of vapour	Appearance in water	Appearance in organic solvents
Chlorine	Pale yellow-green gas	Colourless	Pale yellow-green
Bromine	Red-brown gas	Red-brown	Red-brown
Iodine	Purple gas	Dark brown	Brown

Group 7

When M...
periodic...
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elements...
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group 17...
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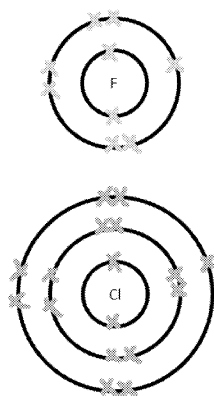
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Chemical properties of the halide ions are explained by the electron structures of the atoms. The electron structures of fluorine and chlorine atoms are shown below.



As we descend the group:

- The atom's radius increases as there are more electron shells
- The valence electrons are further away from the nucleus
- The valence electrons experience **less 'pull'** from the positively charged nucleus
- The valence electrons are more **shielded** from the nucleus
- Therefore, it is **much harder** to gain an electron to complete the outer shell and form an ion

Reminder. You could only be asked to draw electron structures of the first 20 elements. All the elements in group 17 will have **7 valence electrons**.

Key halogen reactions:

- 1. Reactions of halogens with metals**
These reactions will form halide salts: $\text{MX}_{(s)}$
- 2. Reactions of halogens with hydrogen**
These reactions will form hydrogen halides: $\text{HX}_{(g)}$
- 3. Reactions of halogens with silver**
These reactions will form silver halides, $\text{AgX}_{(s)}$, important chemicals in identification tests

Key exam skill

Using these trends in properties, you could be asked to **make predictions** of the properties of elements further down the periodic table: rubidium, caesium, astatine and

Task B

- Copy and complete the word equations:
 - Sodium + fluorine \rightarrow sodium _____
 - _____ + chlorine \rightarrow aluminium chloride
 - Silver + _____ \rightarrow silver bromide
 - Hydrogen + chlorine \rightarrow _____
- Write the formulae of the following halide compounds:
 - Iron(III) bromide
 - Silver chloride
 - Sodium iodide
 - Silver fluoride
- Write balanced equations for the reactions which form the four halide compounds above.

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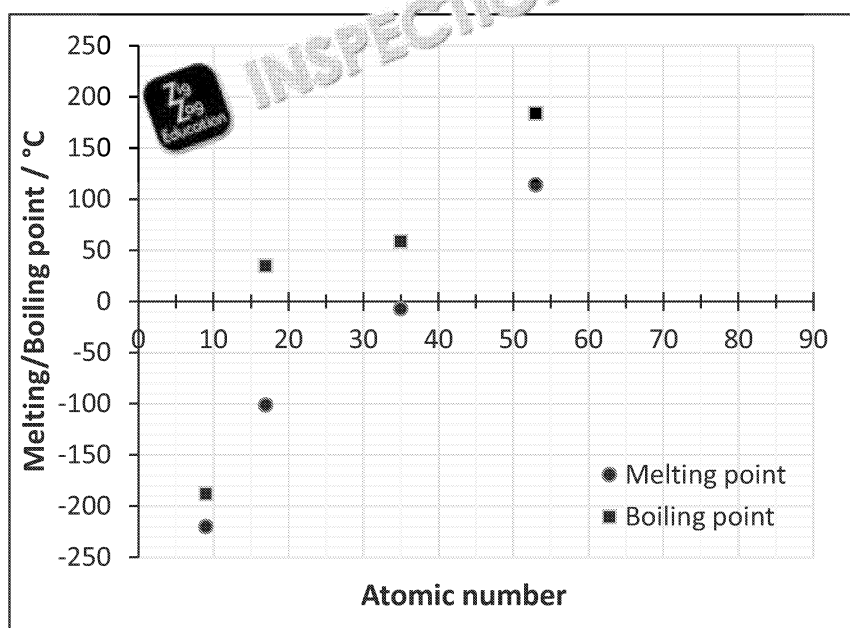
Making predictions

Using the trends you have studied is an essential skill at GCSE. It helps us to make predictions about chemical and physical properties of dangerously reactive elements such as caesium, and synthetic elements such as astatine and tennessine.

Physical properties	Chemical properties
Compare the <u>structure and bonding</u> of the elements	Compare the <u>electron structures</u> of the elements

Astatine
radioactive
cure
outside
of the
8 hours
have e

Consider the graph below, showing the melting and boiling points of the halogens. How could this be used to predict the physical state of astatine?



Steps:

1. Draw a line of best fit for the boiling points.
2. Extend the line of best fit to atomic number 85.
3. Use the line of best fit to predict the boiling point of astatine.
4. Work out the physical state of astatine at room temperature.
5. Repeat the process for the melting points.
6. Repeat the process for the melting points.

Task C

Tennessine was first identified by a group of scientists in 2010. Only six atoms have ever been identified, which is not enough to be able to observe the element at room temperature.

1. Give the expected formula of tennessine in its elemental form.
2. How many electrons would be in the outer shell of a tennessine atom?
3. Suggest the appearance of tennessine at room temperature.
4. Give the formula of the ion you would expect tennessine to form.
5. Predict the chemical formulae of the theoretical compounds formed from the elements below:
 - a. Iron(III)
 - b. Silver
 - c. Sulfur
6. Predict and explain whether tennessine would be more or less reactive than astatine.

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Exam-style questions: Trends

- Group 1 elements react in water.
 - Describe **three** observations that can be seen when potassium is added to water.
 - Explain the trend in reactivity as we descend group 1.
 - Write a balanced symbol equation for the reaction of sodium with water.
- The halogens are found in group 7 of the periodic table.
 - Describe **two** physical properties of iodine.
 - Explain the trend in boiling point as we descend group 7.
 - State which element in group 7 is the most reactive. Explain your answer.
- Caesium is a highly reactive element in group 1 of the periodic table.
 - Write a balanced equation for the reaction of caesium in water.
 - Predict one observation you would make when caesium is added to water. Caesium is **more** reactive than lithium.
 - Explain why caesium is more reactive than lithium.
- A theoretical reaction could occur between caesium and tennessine.
 - Write a balanced equation for the reaction.
 - Draw a dot-and-cross diagram to represent the bonding in the product. Draw the outer shell electrons only.

End of questions

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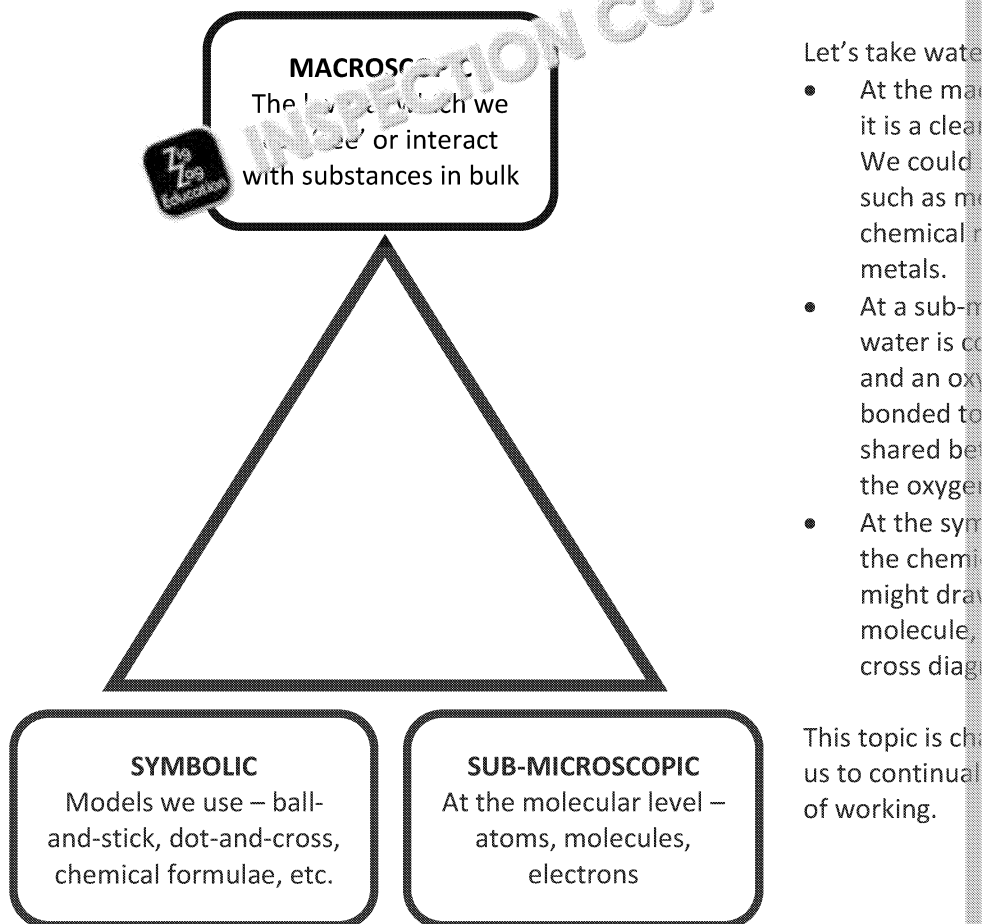


Chapter 2: Structure and Bonding

Introduction

A solid understanding of fundamental concepts of chemical bonding is the key to understanding chemistry. Bonding is the bedrock of chemistry: it influences the properties and behaviours of substances that we encounter in our daily lives. From simple water molecules to complex organic compounds, the primary structure underpins their behaviour and our ability to interact with them.

This topic often poses a challenge for students, as it is hard to visualise the abstract nature of bonding at the tiny scale, and how this impacts upon its properties and behaviour in bulk. It can be helpful to consider the three different levels upon which we will consider the structure of substances:



Let's take water as an example:

- At the macroscopic level, it is a clear liquid. We could observe its properties such as melting point, boiling point, chemical reactions with metals.
- At a sub-microscopic level, water is composed of two hydrogen atoms and an oxygen atom bonded together. The electrons are shared between the two hydrogen atoms and the oxygen atom.
- At the symbolic level, the chemical formula H_2O might draw a dot-and-cross diagram or a ball-and-stick model.

This topic is challenging for us to continually work on.

Required prior knowledge

- The three types of chemical bonds: ionic, covalent and metallic, and how they form.
- The types of structures: giant ionic, simple covalent, giant covalent, giant metallic.
- The typical chemical and physical properties of each structure type.

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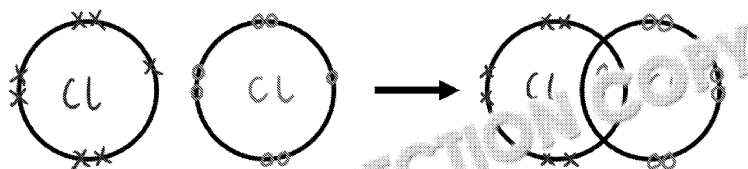
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Chemical bonding

There are three types of chemical bonds: covalent, ionic and metallic. Chemical bonding is about what is happening to the **electrons** when an atom bonds to another; are they shared? Remember, atoms bond to **achieve a full outer shell of electrons**. It is just the way atoms behave.

Covalent bonding occurs when two atoms share a pair (or more!) of electrons. Single bonds occur when one electron shell which are more than half-full, these are the atoms which bond covalently. An example is the molecule chlorine, Cl_2 . Both chlorine atoms have seven electrons in their outer shell. To achieve a full outer shell, they can share a pair of electrons:



Key skill: Draw a symbolic diagram for covalent bonding for the example of one atom, or show outer shells.

Symbolic diagram to show covalent bonding in chlorine molecules, Cl_2

Double bonds occur when **two** pairs of electrons are shared, and triple bonds occur when **three** pairs are shared. The hydrocarbons shown each contain just two carbon atoms.

Ethane (C_2H_6) contains a carbon–carbon single bond, shown by the shared pair in the overlap

Ethene (C_2H_4) has a carbon–carbon double bond, shown by the two shared pairs in the overlap

Ethyne (C_2H_2) has a carbon–carbon triple bond, shown by the three shared pairs in the overlap

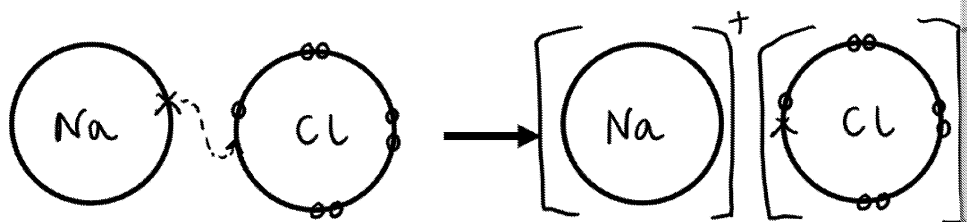
To work out how many chemical bonds an atom needs to make, simply look at its group number.

Group number	Electrons in outer shell	Electrons needed to complete the outer shell
4	4	4
5	5	3
6	6	2
7	7	1

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Ionic bonding occurs between metal atoms and non-metal atoms. The metal atom **loses** electrons – the electrons are transferred from the metal to the non-metal atom **gains** electrons – the electrons are transferred from the metal to the non-metal atom **full outer shell** for both atoms. For example, if we take our chlorine atom again, and a sodium atom:

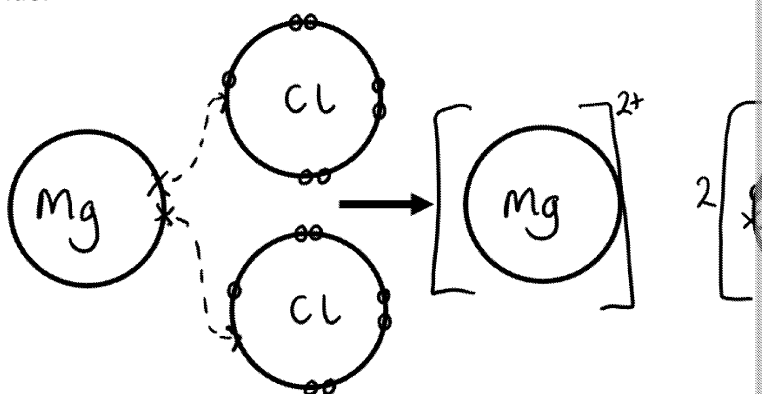


Symbolic representation of the formation of ions from a sodium atom and a chlorine atom

The sodium atom **loses one electron** to form a Na^+ ion, whilst the chlorine atom **gains one electron** to form a Cl^- ion. Both atoms have a full outer shell. The **ionic bond** is formed due to the attraction between the positive ions and the negative ions, over many layers in 3D.

Multiple charged ions can occur when more than one electron is lost or gained, e.g. calcium ions Ca^{2+} (lost two electrons) or oxide ions O^{2-} (gained two electrons).

More than one ion may be required if one atom needs to gain/lose more than the other. For example, magnesium chloride:



Symbolic representation of the formation of ions from a magnesium atom and two chlorine atoms

To work out the charge on the ion formed for an atom, simply look at its position in the periodic table.

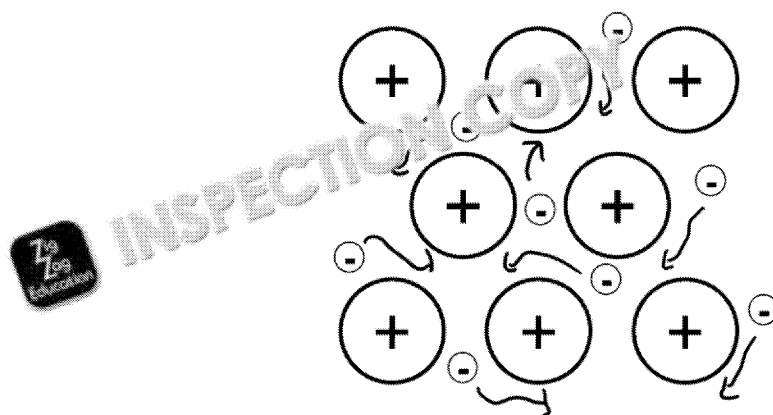
Group number	Electrons in outer shell	Electrons needed to be lost or gained for a full outer shell
1	1	Lose 1
2	2	Lose 2
3	3	Lose 3
5	5	Gain 3
6	6	Gain 2
7	7	Gain 1

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Metallic bonding occurs within a metal in its elemental form. The outer shell electrons are lost, forming positive metal ions. These are arranged in a regular form. The electrons are delocalised, which means they have no fixed position and are free to move around the structure. The attraction between the positive metal ions and the free-moving delocalised electrons holds the structure together.

The diagram shows an example for sodium – each sodium ion has a $1+$ charge, and one electron to the structure. If magnesium were used instead, the ions would have a $2+$ charge and two electrons to the structure. This would double the number of delocalised electrons present.



Symbolic diagram for the bonding in sodium metal

Task A

- For each substance given below, decide if the bonding is ionic, covalent or metallic.
 - Al
 - MgO
 - Br₂
 - BaCl₂
 - CH₄
 - O₂
 - Na₂O
 - Ca
- Copy and complete the table to summarise chemical bonding, placing the examples in the 'examples' row.

Type of chemical bond	Ionic	Covalent
What happens to the electrons?		
What type of atoms show this bonding?		
Examples		

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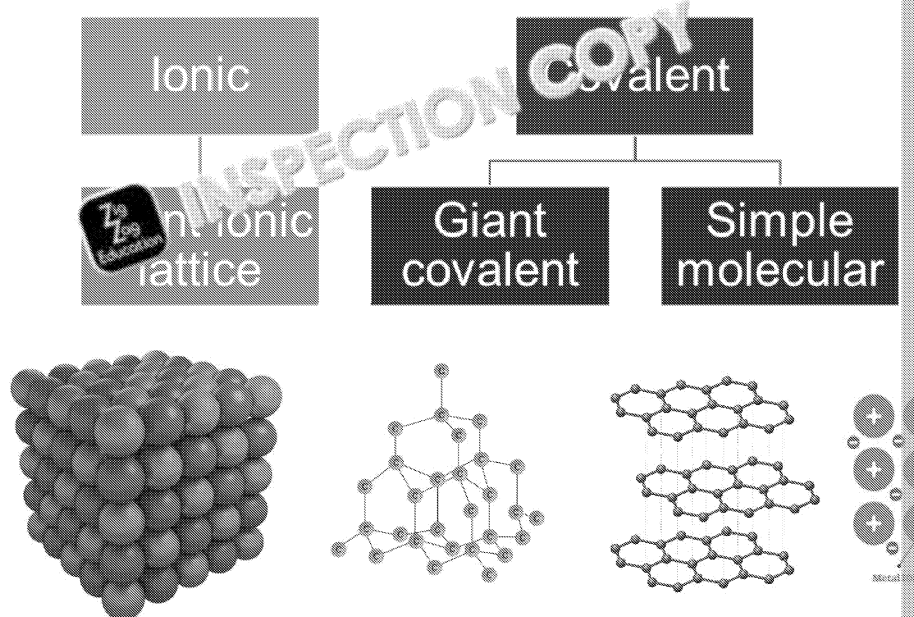


Structure types

Now we have considered the sub-microscopic level of bonding, representing it using models, think about how this builds up into macroscopic structures.

Structures can be simple, with fixed, defined numbers, or giant, extending over many particles. This means that, although there are only three types of bonding, there are four types of structure from these:

As you can see, ionic substances **always** form giant structures, as do metallic substances which could be simple or giant.



Each structure type is held together by a different **force**:

- Giant ionic lattice – held together by strong electrostatic forces of attraction between ions in three dimensions
- Giant covalent network – held together by a strong network of covalent bonds
- Simple molecular structures – held together by weak forces between each molecule
- Metallic lattice – held together by strong electrostatic forces of attraction between delocalised electrons

The stronger the force holding the substance together, the higher the melting point. This explains why sodium chloride, held together by many strong electrostatic forces of attraction, has a higher melting point than water, which is held together by weak intermolecular forces.

Task B

1. Sodium chloride has the formula NaCl.
 - a. What type of bonding does NaCl exhibit?
 - b. Draw the structure of sodium chloride.
2. Sodium is a metal. Describe the structure and bonding of sodium.
3. For each substance below, give its **structure type**:

a. Al	b. MgO
c. Br ₂	d. BaCl ₂
e. CH ₄	f. O ₂
g. Na ₂ O	h. Ca

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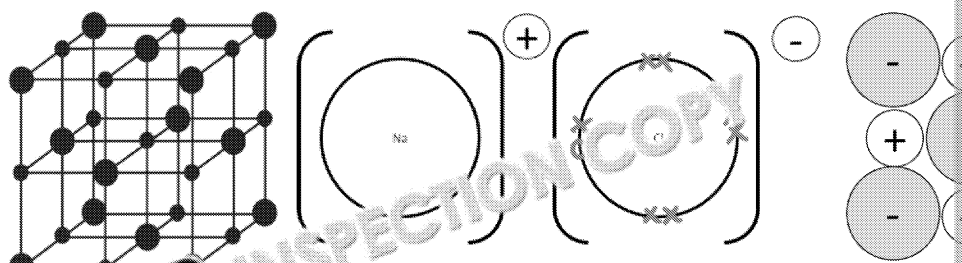
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Modelling substances

Models serve as tools for understanding the microscopic world of atoms and molecules. They are representations that aid comprehension. However, it's crucial to recognise that no model is perfect, and each has its own benefits and limitations.

Let us take the example of sodium chloride, which can be modelled using four main types: the ball-and-stick model, the dot-and-cross model, the 2D space-filling model, and the 3D space-filling model.



Task C

Look at the models above for sodium chloride. Use the list of statements below to identify a benefit or limitation for each model type.

- Could make it look like there are covalent bonds between the ions or that they are attracted to each other
- Clearly represents the electron structure of each ion
- By representing ions as balls and the 'bond' as a stick, it allows us to easily see the relationships in the structure
- Difficult to draw 3D objects in 2D!
- Doesn't show the 3D nature of the structure
- Gives a good representation of how the ions are packed in three dimensions
- Shows the relative sizes of each ion and is easy to draw
- Does not show the true number of ions within the structure (there are billions)

Model	Benefit	
Ball-and-stick model		
Dot-and-cross diagram		
3D space-filling diagram		
2D space-filling diagram		

Exam-style question

- This question is about lithium chloride.
 - Lithium chloride has the formula LiCl . Draw a dot-and-cross diagram to show the structure of lithium chloride.
 - Explain why lithium chloride is a solid at room temperature.
- Explain why ammonia, NH_3 , is a gas at room temperature, whereas diamond is a solid.
- Magnesium is a metal. Describe the structure of magnesium, and explain why it is a solid at room temperature.

End of paper

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Chapter 3: Essential Moles Calculations

Introduction

Moles calculations are essential to chemists; they are our bread and butter for understanding chemical equations! Calculations **will** crop up in the exam in some form or another. On this topic, we will look at the basic moles calculations you will need for the exam, and interconverting between quantities in masses, volumes and concentrations.

Equations used in this chapter

$$n \text{ (mol)} = \frac{\text{mass (g)}}{M_r}$$

$$n \text{ (mol)} = \frac{\text{number of particles}}{\text{Avogadro constant}}$$

$$n \text{ (mol)}$$

$$\text{concentration (mol dm}^{-3}\text{)} = \frac{\text{mass (g)}}{\text{vol (dm}^3\text{)}}$$

$$\text{concentration (mol dm}^{-3}\text{)}$$

Standard form is used throughout this topic.

Moles, masses and Avogadro

Imagine you are carrying out a chemical reaction in the lab. It would be completely impractical to work on the scale of just *one* molecule. As chemists, we work on the scale of **moles**.

Avogadro constant: The number of particles in one mole of a substance.

$$\text{Number of moles, } n \text{ (mol)} = \frac{\text{number of particles}}{\text{Avogadro constant}}$$

You will be given the Avogadro constant in the exam.

It is equal to 6.02×10^{23}

Worked example: How many particles are contained in 6.0 moles of water (H_2O)?

How many significant figures?

In this question, the number of moles was given to 2 sf.

Therefore, our answer should be given to **no more than 2 sf**.

$$6.0 \text{ moles} = \frac{\text{number of particles}}{\text{Avogadro constant}}$$

Rearranging the equation gives:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{number of particles} &= 6 \times \text{Avogadro constant} \\ &= 6.0 \times (6.02 \times 10^{23}) \\ &= 3.612 \times 10^{24} \\ &= 3.6 \times 10^{24} \text{ water particles (2 sf)} \end{aligned}$$

The mass of a mole of a substance will differ depending on which substance we have. We need to be able to convert between the two.

Worked example: What mass is the mass of 6.0 moles of water (H_2O)?

$$\text{Mass (g)} = \frac{n \text{ (mol)}}{M_r}$$

You will always have access to the periodic table in the exam!

Using the periodic table to look up the A_r for hydrogen and oxygen:

$$M_r \text{ of water} = (2 \times 1.0) + 16.0 = 18.0$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{So: mass} &= \frac{n \text{ (mol)}}{M_r} = \frac{6}{18.0} = 0.3333... \\ \text{mass} &= 0.33 \text{ g (2 sf)} \end{aligned}$$

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Task A: Moles, mass and Avogadro

You will need your calculator and your AQA GCSE Chemistry periodic table.

Avogadro constant = 6.02×10^{23}

1. How many moles of carbon atoms are in 12 g of carbon?
2. What is the mass of 0.5 moles of water?
3. Calculate the number of molecules in 2 moles of carbon dioxide.
4. How many moles of sodium ions are present in 1.5 g of sodium chloride?
5. If you have 4.82×10^{22} oxygen molecules, what is the mass of oxygen in grams?

Concentrations

When working with solutions, we use concentrations rather than masses. There are two ways of defining concentration and two equations you need to learn.

$$\text{Concentration (g dm}^{-3}\text{)} = \frac{\text{mass of solution (g)}}{\text{volume (dm}^3\text{)}}$$

$$\text{Concentration (mol dm}^{-3}\text{)} = \frac{n \text{ (mol)}}{\text{volume (dm}^3\text{)}}$$

IMPORTANT:

Volumes **must** be in dm^3 for these equations. To convert between cm^3 and dm^3 , divide by 1000.

Using our moles equation from earlier, to convert between the different concentration units:

Concentration
(g dm^{-3})

$\div M_r$

Concentration
(mol dm^{-3})

$\times M_r$

Concentrations are the amount of substance dissolved in a solvent they are measured in mol dm^{-3} as shown in the diagram above. If you use cm^3 the right would be mol cm^{-3} because there are 1000 cm^3 in dm^3 being placed into the denominator. We couldn't compare easily if the volumes were different which is why chemists use dm^3 .

Task B: Concentrations

You will need your calculator and your AQA GCSE Chemistry periodic table.

1. What is the concentration, in g dm^{-3} , of a 500 cm^3 solution containing 6 g of sodium chloride?
2. Calculate the concentration, in mol dm^{-3} , of a 100 cm^3 solution containing 0.5 g of potassium hydroxide.
3. If you dissolve 9 g of glucose ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$) in 750 cm^3 of water, what is the concentration of the glucose solution in mol dm^{-3} ?
4. A 250 cm^3 solution contains 5 g of sulfuric acid. What is the concentration of the sulfuric acid solution in:
 - a. g dm^{-3} ?
 - b. mol dm^{-3} ?
5. If 3.6 g of calcium chloride is dissolved in 300 cm^3 of water, what is the concentration of the calcium chloride solution in:
 - a. g dm^{-3} ?
 - b. mol dm^{-3} ?

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Gas volumes

Since particles are **so** tiny, and particles are **extremely** far apart in the gaseous state, the majority of the volume of a gas is actually empty space. We can therefore use the approximation that the volume of 1 mole of any gas occupies 24.0 dm^3 .

$$n \text{ (mol) of gas} = \frac{\text{volume of gas (dm}^3\text{)}}{24}$$

IMPORTANT:

Volumes **must** be in dm^3 for this equation.

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Task C: Gas volumes

You will need your calculator and a GCSE Chemistry periodic table.

1. Calculate the number of moles in 96 cm^3 of carbon dioxide.
2. Calculate the number of moles in 36 cm^3 of steam.
3. A container holds 120 dm^3 of gas. How many moles of gas are present?
4. What is the volume of 3 moles of hydrogen?
5. A container holds a 60 cm^3 sample of nitrogen gas.
 - a. How many moles of nitrogen are present?
 - b. What is the mass of the sample?
 - c. How many nitrogen molecules are present in the sample?

Exam-style questions

1. Sulfur hexafluoride has the chemical formula SF_6 .
 - a. Determine the mass of 0.025 moles of sulfur hexafluoride.
 - b. How many molecules of sulfur hexafluoride are contained in the sample?
 - c. How many sulfur atoms and fluorine atoms are present in the sample?
2. 150 cm^3 of solution contains 4.25 g of ammonium nitrate. Calculate the concentration in:
 - a. g dm^{-3}
 - b. mol dm^{-3}
3. A sample of nitrogen gas has a volume of 500 cm^3 .
 - a. How many moles of gas are present in the sample?
 - b. How many grams of nitrogen are present in the sample?
 - c. How many atoms of nitrogen are present in the sample?
4. Determine the concentration in mol dm^{-3} of a 250 cm^3 of solution containing potassium permanganate (KMnO_4).

End of questions

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Chapter 4: More moles cal

Introduction

As well as being able to work out moles for quantities of substances we already have, chemists are interested in calculating moles for substances we originally started with or haven't yet formed during a chemical process. We do this by using **molar ratios** from chemical equations – using the balancing numbers from the symbol equation.

Equations used in this chapter

$$n(\text{mol}) = \frac{\text{mass (g)}}{M_r}$$

$$n(\text{mol}) = \frac{\text{number of particles}}{\text{Avogadro constant}}$$

$$n(\text{mol}) = \frac{\text{mass (g)}}{M_r}$$

$$\text{concentration (mol dm}^{-3}\text{)} = \frac{\text{mass (g)}}{\text{vol (dm}^3\text{)}}$$

$$\text{concentration (mol dm}^{-3}\text{)} = \frac{n(\text{mol})}{\text{vol (dm}^3\text{)}}$$

Standard form is used throughout this topic.

Reacting substances

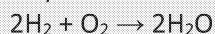
In industrial processes, we are interested in how much **product** can be made. The substance required for chemical processes is a core skill of a quantitative chemist. **methodical** in your approach, **showing your working** throughout **with units**: what is a concentration... Numbers can quickly get lost if it is not clear where they came from.

Having a step-by-step method to follow in multistep calculations can be really helpful if you find you often don't know where to start.

Worked example: Reacting masses

If 4.0 g of hydrogen gas reacts with an excess of oxygen to form water, what is the mass of water produced?

Step 1: Balanced equation



Step 2: Convert to moles

$$n(\text{H}_2) = 4.0 / (2 \times 1.0) = 2 \text{ moles of hydrogen}$$

Step 3: Reacting ratio

In the equation, hydrogen and oxygen are in the **same reacting ratio**, so 2 moles of hydrogen produces 2 moles of water.

$$n(\text{H}_2\text{O}) = 2$$

Step 4: Convert back to mass

$$\text{mass}(\text{H}_2\text{O}) = 2 \times 18.0 = 36.0 \text{ g of water produced}$$

Steps

1. Write the balanced equation
2. Calculate the moles of the substance you are given
3. Use the reacting ratio to find the moles of the substance you are asked to find
4. Calculate the mass of the substance you are asked to find

Some useful equations

$$n(\text{A}) \text{ mol} = \frac{\text{mass}(\text{A})}{M_r(\text{A})}$$

$$[A] \text{ mol dm}^{-3} = \frac{n(\text{A})}{\text{vol (dm}^3\text{)}}$$

You can use these equations to find the mass of a substance, the volume of a solution, or the number of moles of a substance.

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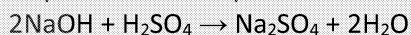


The same method can be used for reactions involving solutions, e.g. titrations.

Worked example: Titration calculation

A $0.125 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ solution of sulfuric acid is titrated with a sodium hydroxide solution of unknown concentration. If it takes 40.00 cm^3 of sodium hydroxide to neutralise 25.0 cm^3 of the acid, what is the concentration of the sodium hydroxide?

Step 1: Balanced equation



Step 2: Convert to moles

$$n(\text{HCl}) = 0.125 \times 25.0 / 1000 = 3.125 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

Step 3: Reacting ratio

In the equation, each mole of sulfuric acid reacts with double the number of moles of sodium hydroxide, so 3.125×10^{-3} moles react with 6.25×10^{-3} moles.

$$n(\text{NaOH}) = 2 n(\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4) = 2 \times 3.125 \times 10^{-3} = 6.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

Step 4: Convert back to concentration

$$[\text{NaOH}] = \frac{6.25 \times 10^{-3}}{40.00 / 1000} = 0.15625 = 0.156 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$$

Steps

1. Write the balanced equation
2. Calculate the number of moles of the known substance
3. Use the reacting ratio to find the number of moles of the unknown substance
4. Calculate the concentration of the unknown substance

Tip:

It is important to always give your answer to the correct number of significant figures. If you are unsure, look at the end of the chapter when you are given a question.

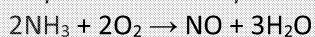
At GCSE, we focus on the basics of chemistry, so there are many examples throughout the book to help you with your production, and to ensure you are confident with the basics.

Reacting gas calculations are even easier! Since 1 mole of **any gas** occupies 24 dm^3 at room temperature and pressure, molar volumes are **molar volumes**, and can be used as reacting ratios!

Worked example: Reacting gases

Ammonia and oxygen form nitrogen monoxide and water. If you start with 48 cm^3 of ammonia and an excess of oxygen, what volume, in dm^3 , of nitrogen monoxide can be produced?

Step 1: Balanced equation



Step 2: Molar volume ratio

48 cm^3 of ammonia produces half the amount of nitrogen monoxide, so 24 cm^3 is produced

Step 3: Unit conversion

24 cm^3 is $24 / 1000 = 0.024 \text{ dm}^3$, so our final answer is 0.024 dm^3

Steps

1. Write the balanced equation
2. Use the reacting ratio to find the volume of the unknown gas
3. Convert the volume to the correct units

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Task A

Remember to use your AQA GCSE Chemistry periodic table and your calculator when working on these questions.

1. If 16.0 g of methane (CH_4) burns in oxygen to produce carbon dioxide and water, what mass of carbon dioxide is formed?
2. If 10.0 g of iron reacts with sulfur to form iron(II) sulfide, what mass of iron(II) sulfide is formed?
3. When 8.0 g of magnesium reacts with excess hydrochloric acid, what mass of hydrogen gas is formed?
4. If 5.0 g of calcium carbonate decomposes to produce calcium oxide and carbon dioxide, what mass of calcium oxide is formed?
5. A 0.1 mol dm^{-3} solution of hydrochloric acid is titrated with sodium hydroxide solution. If 25.0 cm^3 of sodium hydroxide is neutralised by 30.0 cm^3 of hydrochloric acid, what is the concentration of the sodium hydroxide?
6. A 0.5 mol dm^{-3} solution of sulfuric acid is titrated with a sodium hydroxide solution. It takes 35 cm^3 of sodium hydroxide to neutralise 15.0 cm^3 of sulfuric acid. What is the concentration of the sodium hydroxide?
7. When 3.0 dm^3 of hydrogen gas reacts with nitrogen gas, ammonia gas is produced at room temperature and pressure? What mass of ammonia is produced?

Limiting reagents

In chemical reactions, we rarely have **exactly** the right moles of each substance to exactly react with another amount. One reagent is in **excess**, and the other is **limiting** – it gets used up first.

Limiting reagent
is completely used up in a reaction. It determines the maximum amount of product that can be formed.

Imagine you are at a barbeque on a summer's day, and you are in charge of making up the burgers. You have 10 patties, but only 8 buns. How many complete burgers can you make?

Although we have 10 patties, **all of the buns have been used up**, so only 8 complete burgers can be made. This is the same for chemical reactions – one reactant **limits** the amount of product we can make.

Worked example: Limiting reagents

In a sealed reaction vessel, 32.0 g of oxygen is added to 2.0 g of hydrogen. The mixture is heated to produce water.

- a) Which is the limiting reagent?

Step 1: Balanced equation



Step 2: Calculate moles

$$n(\text{H}_2) = 2.0 / 2.0 = 1 \text{ mole}$$

$$n(\text{O}_2) = 32.0 / 32.0 = 1 \text{ mole}$$

Step 3: Required and actual ratios

Required ratio: 2 : 1

Actual ratio: 1 : 1

Step 4: Identify the limiting reagent

We can see there is **less hydrogen** than would be needed to react with all of the oxygen.

- b) How much product can be formed?

Step 5: How much product?

If only 1 mole of **hydrogen** is available, only 1 mole of water can be formed.

$$\text{Mass}(\text{H}_2\text{O}) = 1 \times 18.0 = 18.0 \text{ g of water formed}$$

Reaction
is complete when the limiting reagent is used up.

When
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2. ...
3. ...
4. ...
5. ...

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Task B

Remember to use your AQA GCSE Chemistry periodic table and your calculator for these questions.

- In a reaction between iron and oxygen, 56.0 g of iron is burned in 48 dm³ of oxygen.
 a. Balance the equation for the reaction:

$$\text{___ Fe} + \text{___ O}_2 \rightarrow \text{___ Fe}_2\text{O}_3$$

 b. Which reagent is limiting in the reaction?
 c. Calculate the mass of iron oxide which can be formed by the reaction.
- In the reaction between sulfuric acid and sodium hydroxide, 50.0 cm³ of 2.0 mol dm⁻³ sulfuric acid reacts with 75.0 cm³ of 4 mol dm⁻³ sodium hydroxide solution.
 a. Write a balanced symbol equation for the reaction between sulfuric acid and sodium hydroxide.
 b. Determine the limiting reagent in this reaction.
 c. Calculate the maximum mass of sodium sulfate which can be formed.
- In a chemical reaction, ammonia and oxygen react to produce nitrogen monoxide and water according to the equation below. If you started with 15 dm³ of ammonia and 18 dm³ of oxygen, what mass of nitrogen monoxide will be produced?

$$4\text{NH}_3 + 5\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 4\text{NO} + 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$$

Using moles to write balanced equations

If you know the masses of the reactants and products that took part in a reaction, you can write a balanced symbol equation.

Worked example: Using moles to write balanced equations

8.1 g of zinc oxide reacts completely with 0.60 g of carbon to form 2.2 g of carbon dioxide and 6.5 g of zinc. Use this information to write a balanced symbol equation for the reaction.

$$n(\text{ZnO}) = 8.1 / 71 = 0.10$$

$$n(\text{C}) = 0.6 / 12 = 0.050$$

$$n(\text{CO}_2) = 2.2 / 44 = 0.050$$

$$n(\text{Zn}) = 6.5 / 65 = 0.10$$

Dividing by the smallest number to get a whole number ratio:

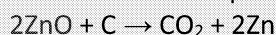
$$n(\text{ZnO}) = 0.10 / 0.050 = 2$$

$$n(\text{C}) = 0.050 / 0.050 = 1$$

$$n(\text{CO}_2) = 0.050 / 0.050 = 1$$

$$n(\text{Zn}) = 0.10 / 0.050 = 2$$

So the balanced equation becomes:



Task

Remember to use your AQA GCSE Chemistry periodic table and your calculator for these questions.

- Copper can form two oxides: copper(I) oxide (Cu₂O) and copper(II) oxide (CuO). One oxide of copper reacts with hydrogen according to the word equation:
 copper oxide + hydrogen → copper + water
 In the reaction, 2.54 g of copper and 0.72 g of water are produced. Determine which oxide of copper reacts, and write a balanced equation for the reaction.

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Chapter 5: Metals

Introduction

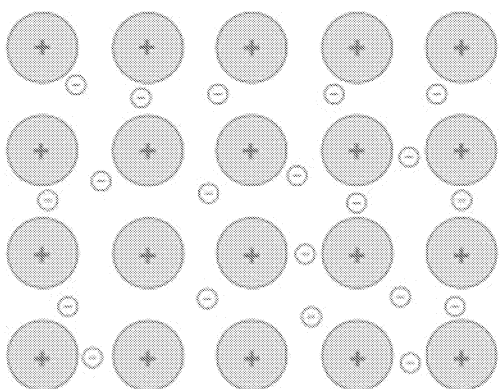
Metals are frequently the focus of exam questions at GCSE, as they cover a number of areas: from structure and bonding, reactions of metals and the reactivity series, methods of extraction, to alloys and their properties. Questions can be a challenge as they often involve redox processes.

Required prior knowledge

- Structure and bonding in metals
- Physical properties of metals and alloys
- How metals form ions
- The reactivity series and how it is used
- Definitions of 'oxidation' and 'reduction'
- Alternative methods of metal extraction

Structure and properties of metals and alloys

Metals are arranged in a regular lattice of positive ions, surrounded by a sea of delocalised electrons. This can be represented by the diagram shown.



Metallic bonds are three-dimensional – every positive ion is attracted to the delocalised electrons which surround it, and in turn, every delocalised electron is attracted to the positive ions surrounding it. Metallic bonds are therefore **strong** and difficult to overcome. This explains why metals have high **boiling points**.

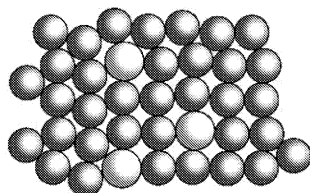
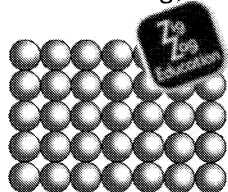
We can use the structure of metals to explain many of the properties of metals, too.

Malleability and ductility

Metals are highly malleable and ductile – they can be bent and hammered into sheets easily. When a force is applied to a metal, the layers of atoms can **move**, shifting and changing the shape of the metal overall.

Electrical and thermal conductivity

The delocalised electrons in the structure are free to move. This means they can carry thermal energy through the structure. This makes metals excellent conductors of heat and electricity.



Alloys are formed when a metal is mixed with another element; often carbon. As seen from the diagram, the addition of other elements **disrupts** the regular structure. As there are now **different** types of atoms, it is much more difficult for them to slide over one another. Alloys are therefore **stronger** than pure metals.

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Throughout our daily lives, we encounter alloys more often than pure metals (when in their pure form). Some examples are included in the table below.

Alloy	Elements it is made from	Key properties
Steel	Iron, carbon and other elements	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> High carbon steel is strong but brittle Low carbon steel is soft and easily shaped Stainless steel is hard and resistant to corrosion
Bronze	Copper and tin	Malleable
Brass	Copper and zinc	Sonorous (rings with a clear 'll'-like sound) Malleable Shiny and resistant to corrosion
Aluminium alloys	Aluminium and other elements	Unreactive Very low density
Gold alloys	Gold, copper, zinc	Shiny Malleable (but less malleable than pure gold)

In the exam, you will need to be able to explain how the properties of the alloy relate to its structure.

Task A

1. Compare the structure and bonding in **sodium** with the structure and bonding in **iron**.
2. Explain why steel is used in the construction of buildings in place of pure iron. You must refer to the structure of iron and steel.
3. The carat number of gold refers to how many gold atoms there are within a sample of 'pure' gold. 18 carat white gold is often an alloy of gold and palladium. Explain the percentage of gold and palladium atoms in a sample of 18 carat white gold.

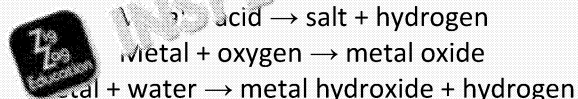
Reactions of metals

There are four main metal reactions which help us to determine a metal's reactivity:

1. Metal + acid reactions
2. Metal + oxygen reactions
3. Metal + water reactions
4. Metal displacement reactions

By observing the way in which metals react (or not!), they can be placed into a **reactivity series** from most (at the top) to least (at the bottom) reactive.

General equations



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Metal + acid

A metal will react with an acid if it is **higher** than **hydrogen** on the reactivity series. A salt solution and hydrogen gas is formed. Fizzing would be observed.

To name the salt formed, we keep the name of the metal and adapt the name of the acid it is formed from. Hydrochloric acid forms **chlorides**, sulfuric acid forms **sulfates** and nitric acid makes **nitrates**.

e.g. magnesium + hydrochloric acid → magnesium chloride + hydrogen

Metal + oxygen

Some metals burn in oxygen to form metal oxides. These reactions are **oxidation reactions**, since oxygen is added.

e.g. sodium + oxygen → sodium oxide

Metals + water

Some metals react with water, producing a metal hydroxide solution and bubbles of hydrogen gas. This happens quickly for group 1 metals, but much more slowly for other metals, such as magnesium.

e.g. potassium + water → potassium hydroxide + hydrogen

Iron reacts **very** slowly with water in a process called **rusting**.

Metal displacement reactions

These reactions occur when a **more reactive** metal displaces a **less reactive** metal. A good example of this is when copper wire is dipped into silver nitrate solution. It displaces the silver from the silver nitrate, forming silver and copper nitrate.

e.g. copper + silver nitrate → silver + copper nitrate

Formulae of the products

The products formed have overall neutral charges. To find their formulae, you need to work out how many of each ions are needed to balance out the charges. Some examples are given below.

Important formulae:

POSITIVE IONS

- Group 1 metals form 1+ ions
- Group 2 metals form 2+ ions
- Group 3 metals form 3+ ions
- Transition metals use Roman numerals to show you the charge on the ion

Magnesium hydroxide:

Positive ion: Mg^{2+}

Negative ion: OH^-

Formula of substance: $\text{Mg}(\text{OH})_2$

Sodium sulfate:

Positive ion: Na^+

Negative ion: SO_4^{2-}

Formula of substance: Na_2SO_4

Calcium nitrate

Positive ion: Ca^{2+}

Negative ion: NO_3^-

Formula of substance: $\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2$

Aluminium oxide

Positive ion: Al^{3+}

Negative ion: O^{2-}

Formula of substance: Al_2O_3

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Once you have worked out the chemical formulae required, balanced equations can be written.

Task B

- Write the chemical formulae of the following compounds:
 - Sodium sulfate
 - Barium nitrate
 -
- For each displacement reaction below, explain whether it will occur or not. Explain your answer in each case:
 - Copper + magnesium sulfate
 - Lithium + iron(III) nitrate
 -
- Write balanced symbol equations for the reactions:
 - Sodium is burned in oxygen
 - Lithium is reacted with sulfuric acid
 - Calcium reacts with water
 - Magnesium is added to zinc nitrate

Redox equations

Oxidation and reduction reactions can be defined in the following ways:

Oxidation	Reduction
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Gain of oxygen Loss of hydrogen Loss of electrons 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Loss of oxygen Gain of hydrogen Gain of electrons

A useful mnemonic for remembering oxidation and reduction is **OIL RIG**:
 Oxidation Is Loss
 Reduction Is Gain

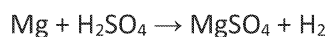
When oxidation and reduction occur within the same equation, it is called a **redox reaction (red-uction ox-igation)**. As well as balanced symbol equations, **redox equations** (sometimes called ionic equations) can be written to represent these processes more clearly by removing **spectator ions**. These can be further simplified into **half-equations**, which show the electron movement.

Example 1

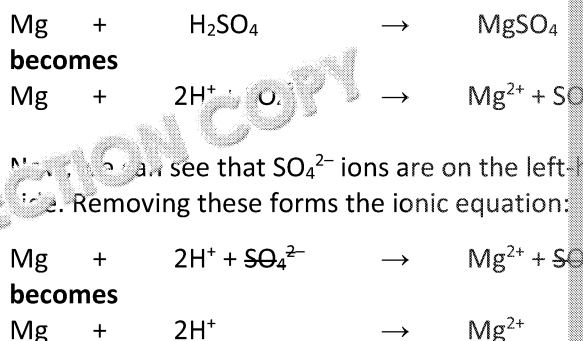
Magnesium reacts with sulfuric acid according to the equation:



It is hard to tell what is being oxidised and what is being reduced from this equation. To make it clearer, we can write the ionic equation for the reaction is:



By looking carefully at this equation, you may notice that magnesium **atoms** have become magnesium **ions** and hydrogen **ions** have formed hydrogen **atoms**. To represent this more clearly, we can write the ionic equation for the reaction is:



Forming redox equations

- Identify any ionic species
- Split these into their constituent ions
- Remove spectator ions

We can now look at each species individually to identify the oxidation and reduction:

Mg forming Mg^{2+} : for this to occur, one magnesium atom loses two electrons.

This is **oxidation**:



2H^+ forming H_2 : for this to occur, two hydrogen ions each gain an electron.

This is **reduction**:



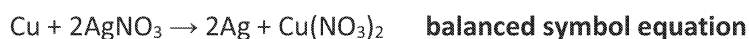
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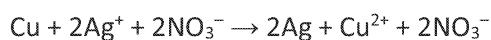


Example 2

Displacement reactions are also examples of redox reactions. Let's look at the copper + silver nitrate → silver + copper nitrate



Splitting into constituent ions:



Removing spectators (NO_3^-):



Finally, forming the half-equations:

**Task C**

- Identify which substance is oxidised and which substance is reduced in the following reactions:
 - Calcium reacts with oxygen.
 - Sodium reacts with chlorine.
 - Zinc reacts with silver ions.
- Write the redox half-equations for the following reactions:
 - Lithium reacts with oxygen.
 - Zinc reacts with silver ions.
 - Magnesium reacts with copper ions.

Metal extraction processes

Most metals are found as metal ores, unless they are inert such as gold and platinum.

'Traditional' extraction methods

Metal ores are rocks found within Earth's crust which contain enough metal-containing compounds to make it profitable to extract.

First, the rocks are quarried or mined and broken up into smaller pieces. The reactivity series can then be used to determine how the metal compound should be processed to extract the metal:

- Metals **above** carbon on the reactivity series are extracted by electrolysis.
- Metals **below** carbon on the reactivity series are extracted by reduction with carbon – a displacement reaction.

As supplies of metal ores run low, it is becoming more and more economically viable to extract metals from **low-grade ores**. Biological methods are favoured over quarrying for metal extraction in these cases:

- Phytomining** – using **plants** to extract metals from low-grade ores. As the plants grow, they absorb minerals from the ground in which they are growing. The metal compounds are taken up into the plants through the roots, and stored within the plants. The plants are harvested and burned, and the ash left behind contains a relatively high concentration of metal compound, which can then be extracted.
- Bioleaching** – using bacteria to extract metal ions from low-grade ores. Bacteria convert the metal compounds within the ores into a solution called a leachate. The metal can then be extracted from the leachate.

Task D

- State one advantage and one disadvantage of phytomining over traditional extraction methods.
- State one advantage and one disadvantage of bioleaching over traditional extraction methods.
- Explain how phytomining can be used to extract copper from its ore.
- Explain how bioleaching can be used to extract copper from its ore.

Exam-style questions

- This question is about calcium.
 - Calcium reacts with hydrochloric acid. Name the salt formed, and state the equation for this reaction.
 - Calcium reacts with copper nitrate solution in a displacement reaction. Name the products, and state which substance is oxidised and reduced.
 - Explain how calcium should be extracted from its ore.
- Evaluate the use of phytomining compared with quarrying.

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Chapter 6: Acids, Alkalis and Salts

Introduction

Acids and bases are important chemical compounds in the world around us. Being able to predict how substances will react, how they will react, and what products will form is critical in many processes in our bodies, in industry, and in the environment work.

Key definitions

An **acid** is a substance with a $\text{pH} < 7$. Acids react with bases and neutralise them, releasing sources of **H^+ ions**. Acids also react with metals.

A **base** is a substance with a $\text{pH} > 7$. Bases react with acids and neutralise them, releasing an amount of bases are soluble in water and these are called **alkalis**. Alkalis are used in many industrial processes.

Strong and weak acids

Strong acids are acids which **fully dissociate in solution** to release their H^+ ions. There are **three** strong acids which you need to know the formula for at GCSE. These are:

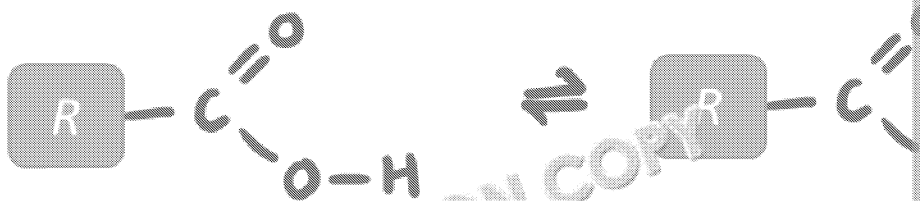
1. Hydrochloric acid, HCl , which dissociates into H^+ and Cl^- ions.
2. Sulfuric acid, H_2SO_4 , which dissociates into 2H^+ and SO_4^{2-} ions.
3. Nitric acid, HNO_3 , which dissociates into H^+ and NO_3^- ions.

If we consider the dissociation of hydrochloric acid as an equilibrium:



Since hydrochloric acid **fully dissociates**, the position of this equilibrium lies almost almost all of the acid molecules dissociate.

Weak acids, however, do **not** fully dissociate in solution. In fact, they barely dissociate. Sometimes known as 'organic acids', are examples of weak acids. They have general formulae as shown below, where 'R' represents the rest of the carbon chain (the *residual group*). They dissociate in the same way:



Notice how this is very similar to strong acids – releasing H^+ ions and a negative ion. However, the position of equilibrium lies almost 100 % to the **left-hand side** – very few acid molecules dissociate.

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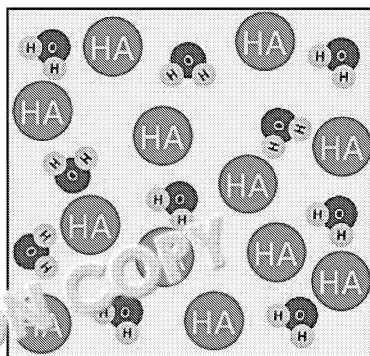
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Concentrated and dilute acids

All acids can be either concentrated or dilute, regardless of the type (and strength) of acid. Concentration is a measure of **how many acid molecules are present in a set volume of solution**. The unit for concentration has the units mol dm^{-3} or *moles per decimetre cubed*; how many moles of acid are present in one decimetre cubed of solution.

Consider the diagrams to the right. Here, the acid is represented by the general formula 'HA'. On the left, there are many more HA molecules than there are on the right. Note that the overall volume is the same in both cases. This means that the left is **more concentrated**, and the right is **dilute**.



Strength and Concentration

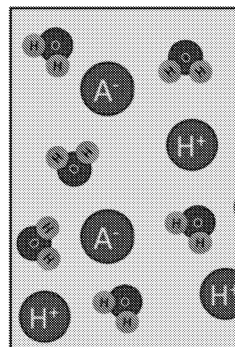
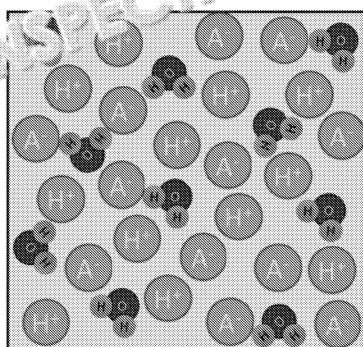
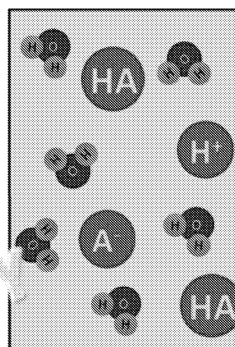
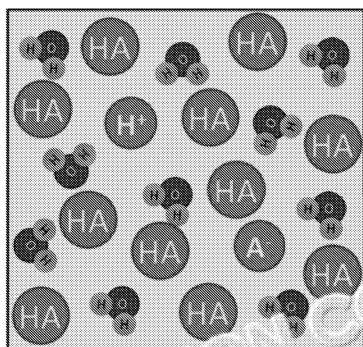
Combining these ideas together, you will need to be able to describe acids as strong or weak **and** concentrated or dilute.

- When considering acid strength, we **only** consider the type of acid present – it doesn't matter how much.
- When considering concentration, we **only** consider how many acid molecules are present per unit volume – it doesn't matter which type.

This means we could have any combination of strong, weak, concentrated and dilute. The strength and its concentration will have an impact on the pH: the stronger the acid, the more concentrated the acid, the lower the pH.

Task A

1. Label each acid below as **strong or weak**, and as **concentrated or dilute**.



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Reactions of acids

Acids react in a variety of ways, and you will need to be confident in:

Key skills:

1. Naming salts and writing word equations
2. Deducing chemical formulae of salts
3. Completing balanced symbol equations for reactions
4. HT: Writing ionic equations for reactions
5. HT: Writing redox half-equations for reactions

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Naming salts and writing word equations

When acids react, they produce **salts** – the H^+ ion in the acid is replaced by a metal ion. Salts are named after the metal and the acid which produced them.



Hydrochloric acid produces **chloride salts**
Sulfuric acid produces **sulfate salts**
Nitric acid produces **nitrate salts**
Ethanoic acid produces **ethanoate salts**

Depending on which metal-containing substance is reacted with the acid, different products are formed. You will need to know the following general equations to help you:

acid + metal \rightarrow salt + hydrogen
acid + metal hydroxide \rightarrow salt + water
acid + metal oxide \rightarrow salt + water
acid + metal carbonate \rightarrow salt + water + carbon dioxide

Example:

sodium hydroxide + hydrochloric acid \rightarrow

- The metal part of the salt will be **sodium**
- Hydrochloric acid produces **chloride**
- The salt is therefore sodium chloride
- Acid + metal hydroxide, so water is produced

Task B

Copy and complete the word equations for the reactions of hydrochloric acid (HCl), nitric acid (HNO_3) and ethanoic acid (CH_3COOH):

1. Hydrochloric acid + _____ \rightarrow zinc chloride + hydrogen
2. _____ + sodium hydroxide \rightarrow sodium sulfate + water
3. Sulfuric acid + magnesium carbonate \rightarrow _____ + water + _____
4. Nitric acid + potassium hydroxide \rightarrow potassium nitrate + water
5. _____ + calcium hydroxide \rightarrow calcium ethanoate + water
6. Nitric acid + iron \rightarrow _____ + _____



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Deducing chemical formulae of salts

To deduce the formula of the salts formed, we need to know the formula of the ion

Let's first consider our previous example:

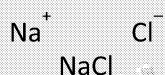
sodium hydroxide + hydrochloric acid →

We now know that the salt formed is **sodium chloride**.

Sodium is a group 1 metal, so the formula of its ion is Na^+

Chloride has the formula Cl^-

Both of these ions have **equal but opposite charges**, so only one of each ion is needed to produce a neutral salt:



The same would be true for Mg^{2+} and O^{2-} which have equal but opposite charges, so the salt is MgO – only one of each ion is required to produce a neutral salt.



Let's look at a harder example:

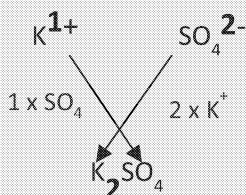
potassium + sulfuric acid → ?

The salt formed here would be **potassium sulfate**.

Potassium is a group 1 metal, so the formula of its ion is K^+

Sulfate has the formula SO_4^{2-}

These ions do not have equally sized charges, so we need to 'swap and drop'.



Take each ion charge and swap it over to the other species.

Drop it to a subscript in the formula

Note that we don't include '1', just like you don't write 1x in maths!

The salt formed is now neutrally charged: the 2 positive ions 'cancel out' the 2- ion. This can look confusing at first; it takes practice!

Final example:

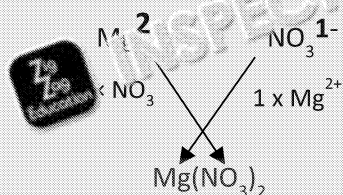
magnesium carbonate + nitric acid → ?

The salt formed here would be **magnesium nitrate**.

Magnesium is a group 2 metal, so the formula of its ion is Mg^{2+}

Nitrate has the formula NO_3^-

These ions do not have equally sized charges, so we need to 'swap and drop'.



Take each ion charge and swap it over to the other species.

Drop it to a subscript in the formula

Note that we don't include '1', just like you don't write 1x in maths!

The salt formed is now neutrally charged: the 2+ positive ion 'cancels out' the 2 negative ions. Here, a bracket is needed around the nitrate ion. Without this, we would have a very bizarre formula:



This makes it appear as though 32 oxygens are present, and only 1 nitrogen. In reality, magnesium nitrate has 2 nitrogens and 6 oxygens.

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Completing balanced equations

Balancing a chemical equation is an essential skill in chemistry that ensures that there are the same number of atoms within the products and the reactants.

This theory is known as the conservation of mass. It dates back to 1789 when Lavoisier and Laplace experimentally proved that mass is conserved in a chemical reaction. Matter is neither created nor destroyed.

How to balance a chemical equation

1. Write down the chemical equation for the reaction including the formulae of the reactants on the left side of the arrow, and the formulae of products on the right side of the arrow.
2. Count the number of atoms of each element on both sides. This can be done as a tally.
3. Identify the elements that are unbalanced.
4. Choose a *coefficient* to balance a reactant so that the number of atoms of that element is the same on both sides. It is often easiest to start with an element that only appears once on each side of the equation.
5. Repeat the process for other unbalanced elements.
6. Check the equation again to ensure the equation is balanced.

Let's write balanced equations for our three worked examples.

sodium hydroxide + hydrochloric acid → sodium chloride + water

First, we will write the formulae of all of the substances.

Underneath, we can tally how many atoms of each element there are on each side.

	NaOH	+	HCl	→	NaCl	H ₂ O
Na:						
O:						
H:						
Cl:						

In this example, we can see that there are the same number of atoms of each element on the left side and the right side. The equation is already balanced.

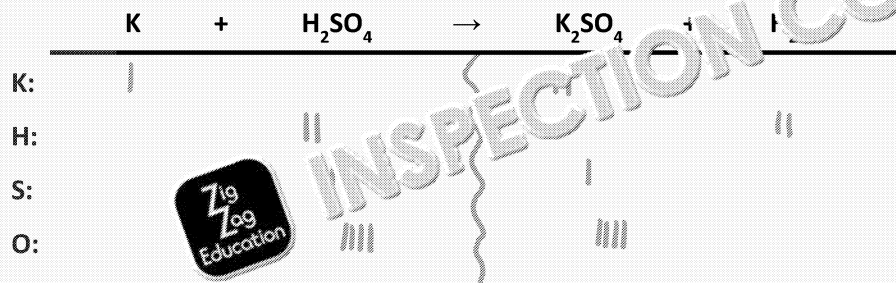
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potassium + sulfuric acid → potassium sulfate + hydrogen

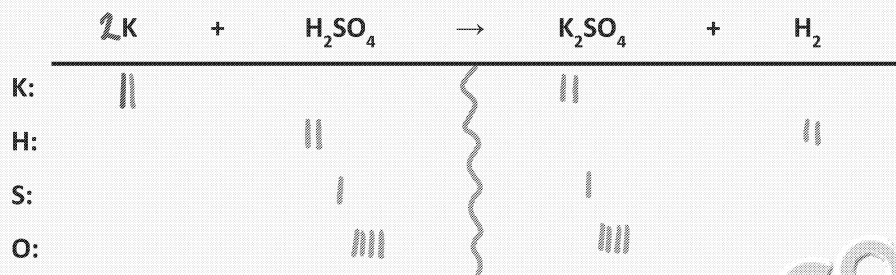
First, we will write the formulae of all of the substances.

Underneath, we can tally how many atoms of each element there are:



From this, we can see that potassium is unbalanced – there are two on the right side, but only one on the left side.

To balance this, we can add a coefficient to the left and recount.

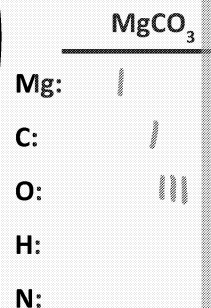


The equation is now balanced.

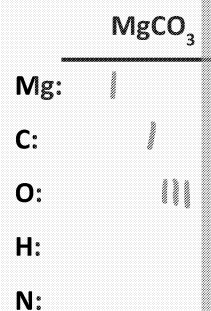
magnesium carbonate

First, we will write the formulae of all of the substances.

Underneath, we can tally how many atoms of each element there are:



Complicated! Here we have hydrogen and nitrogen. It is best to leave until we have balanced the other elements. Since there are two nitrogens on the right, we need to place a coefficient of 2 in front of the nitrogen gas.



Thankfully, this is a simple equation. The equation is balanced.

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Task D

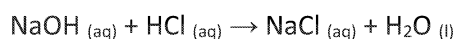
Balance the chemical equations:

- $\text{HCl} + \text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$
- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $\text{HNO}_3 + \text{CaCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
- $\text{HCl} + \text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{ZnCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$
- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{Fe}(\text{OH})_2 \rightarrow \text{FeSO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $\text{HNO}_3 + \text{CuCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{KOH} \rightarrow \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $\text{HCl} + \text{CaO} \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $\text{HNO}_3 + \text{MgCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Mg}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
- $\text{HCl} + \text{Al} \rightarrow \text{AlCl}_3 + \text{H}_2$

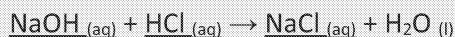
HT: Ionic equations and redox equations

This area of the specification is designed to stretch and challenge. It is crucial to understand how to form word equations, find formulae of substances, use these to construct balanced equations and balance them. Only when you have mastered these skills should you move on to ionic equations and redox.

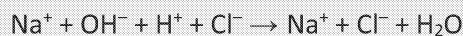
Let's consider a simple neutralisation reaction:



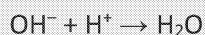
Following the steps to form an ionic equation:



The dissolved substances are underlined. Splitting these into the ions they are made up of gives:



We can now see that Na^+ and Cl^- are on both the left and the right sides of the equation – they are **spectator ions**. Removing these leaves us with:



This is the ionic equation for all neutralisation reactions.

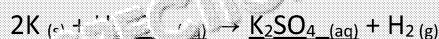
Forming an ionic equation

1. Make sure the equation is balanced.
2. For any substance that is dissolved, write its constituent ions on both sides of the equation.
3. Consider the spectator ions from the equation.
4. You should be left with the ionic equation.

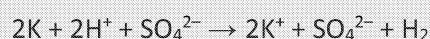
Ionic equations are simpler than full equations as they simply show the actual chemical reaction.

To form a redox reaction, we will consider our metal + acid equation.

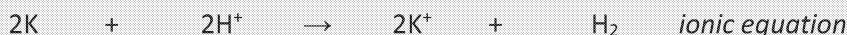
First, we will form an ionic equation in the same way.



The dissolved substances are underlined. Splitting these into the ions they are made up of gives:



We can now see that SO_4^{2-} is on both the left and the right sides of the equation – it is a **spectator ion**. Removing this leaves us with:

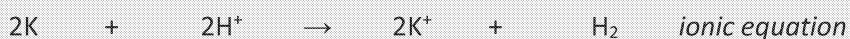


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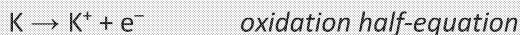
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Redox equations consider the oxidation and reduction processes occurring during redox half-equations, we need to consider what is happening to each element.



Potassium is going from its elemental form to a positive ion. This means it is **losing an electron**; it is **oxidised**:



Hydrogen, on the other hand, is going from hydrogen ions to elemental form. This means each ion is **gaining an electron**; it is **reduced**:



Task

1. Prove that the ionic equation for the neutralisation of sulfuric acid by sodium hydroxide is $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$.
2. Construct ionic equations for the following reactions:
 - a. $\text{HCl} + \text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$
 - b. $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 - c. $2\text{HNO}_3 + \text{CaCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
3. For reaction 2a, explain with the aid of equations which species is being oxidised and which is being reduced. Why is this reaction called a redox reaction?

Exam-style questions

1. Sulfuric acid reacts with calcium.
 - a. Write a balanced symbol equation for the reaction.
 - b. Convert the symbol equation into an ionic equation.
 - c. Identify and explain which species has been oxidised, using a half-equation.
 - d. Explain, in terms of electron transfer, why this is a redox equation.
2. A student reacts sodium hydroxide with hydrochloric acid in a titration.
 - a. Name the type of reaction which occurs.
 - b. The student adds sodium hydroxide until the substances have *completely reacted*. What chemical could be added to ensure this?
 - c. State the ionic equation for this reaction.

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Chapter 7: Energy to and from our surroundings

Introduction

Energy transfers are all around us; from the moment you wake up, you interact with energy. When you eat food, you are interacting with energy transfers as the chemicals react. By studying energy changes, we can calculate the energy transferred by a chemical reaction.

Equation used in this chapter

Energy transferred by a reaction (kJ mol⁻¹) = Energy required to break reactant bonds

Exothermic and endothermic reactions

During chemical reactions, bonds are broken within the reactant molecules, and new bonds are formed in the product. The energy change depends on the balance of these two processes.

Three key ideas:

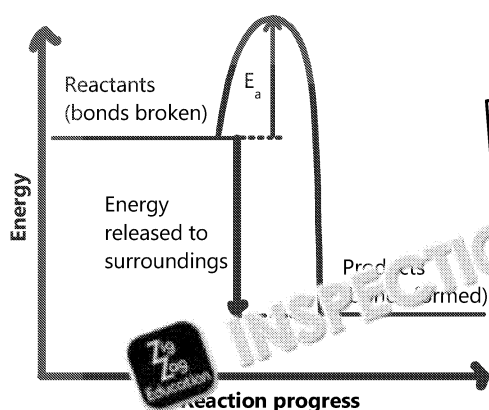
Activation energy (E_a) is the minimum energy required for a reaction to occur

Bond breaking is **endothermic** – it requires energy input from surroundings

Bond forming is **exothermic** – it releases energy to the surroundings

Key skill: Explaining why a reaction is exothermic or endothermic overall due to the balance of energy input and output

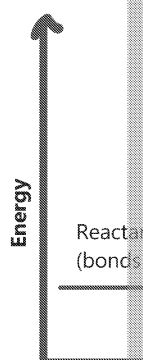
The **balance** between the energy required to break reactant bonds compared with the energy released when the product is formed tells us if an overall reaction is exothermic or endothermic. This is represented on a **reaction profile diagram**.



This reaction is **exothermic** – more energy is released when the product bonds are formed than was required to break reactant bonds.

Common pitfall: Remember, activation energy is the energy to get to the top of the curve!

Key skill: Drawing a labelled reaction profile diagram



This reaction is **endothermic** – more energy is required to break reactant bonds than is released when product bonds are formed.

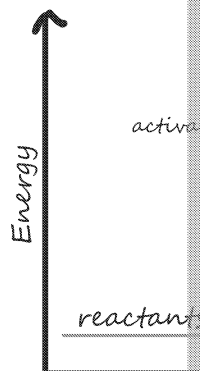
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Task A

1. Define 'activation energy'.
2. A reaction releases energy to the surroundings. State whether the reaction is exothermic or endothermic and explain why in terms of the balance of bond-breaking and bond-forming.
3. A student has drawn the reaction profile for the reaction described in Q2. Is the student's diagram correct? Explain why.



Bond energy calculations

We can calculate the overall energy transfer for a reaction using average bond energies.

Energy transferred by
a reaction (kJ/mol)

=

Energy required
to break reactant
bonds

-

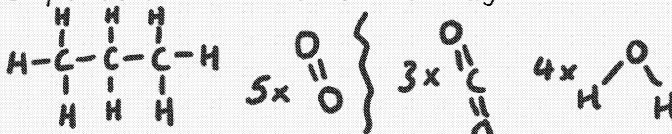
Energy released
when product
bonds form

Worked example 1: Use the average bond energies given to calculate the energy transferred when propane is burned

Step 1: Write a balanced equation for the reaction



Step 2: Draw out the molecules to identify the bonds



Step 3: Work out how many of each bond type you need



Step 4: Calculate the energy transfer

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{Bonds broken} = (8 \times 413) + (2 \times 347) + (5 \times 498) \\ \text{Bonds formed} = (6 \times 805) + (8 \times 464) \\ \hline = 6488 \quad \quad \quad = 8542 \end{array}$$

$$\text{Energy transferred} = 6488 - 8542 = -2054 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

The **negative** value indicates that the reaction is exothermic.

Bond

C-C

C-H

C=O

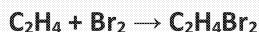
O-H

O=O

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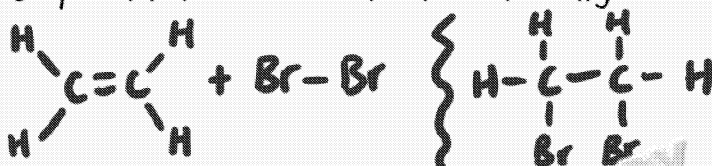
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Worked example 2: Ethene reacts with bromine as shown by the equation:



The overall energy transfer for the reaction is -122 kJ/mol . Calculate the bond energy of the C-Br bond.

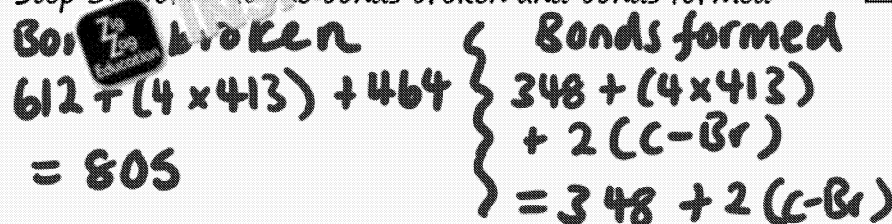
Step 1: Draw out the molecules to identify the bonds



Step 2: Work out how many of each bond you need



Step 3: Work out the bonds broken and bonds formed



Step 4: Rearrange the equation to find the unknown bond energy

Energy transferred = Bonds broken - Bonds formed

$$-122 = 805 - [348 + 2(\text{C}-\text{Br})]$$

$$2(\text{C}-\text{Br}) = 805 - 348 + 122 = 579$$

$$(\text{C}-\text{Br}) = 290 \text{ kJ/mol}$$

Task B

Use the mean bond energy in the table to carry out the calculations:

- Calculate the energy transfer when water is formed from hydrogen and oxygen.
 $2 \text{H}_2(\text{g}) + \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$
- Calculate the energy transfer when methanol, CH_3OH , is burned completely in oxygen.
 $\text{CH}_3\text{OH}(\text{l}) + \frac{3}{2} \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$
- Methane reacts with chlorine according to the equation:
 $\text{CH}_4(\text{g}) + \text{Cl}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{Cl} + \text{HCl}$
The overall energy transferred during this reaction is -122 kJ mol^{-1} .
Calculate the mean bond energy of the C-Cl bond.
- How much energy is required to break the bonds within water molecules?
How much energy is released when water is formed? Compare these values.

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Investigating temperature changes

The **Required Practical** in this topic investigates variables affecting temperature change.

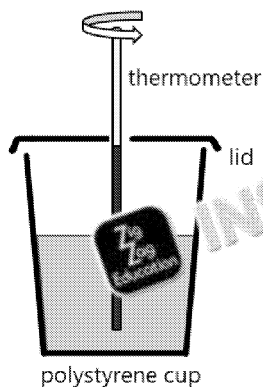
- Metal + acid
- Metal carbonate + acid
- Neutralisation
- Displacement of metals

Independent variable: the variable that is changed

Dependent variable: the variable that is measured

Control variables: variables that are kept the same

Calorimetry is the technique used to investigate temperature changes.



- A polystyrene cup and lid are used to **insulate** the reaction, preventing heat transfer to/from the surroundings
- A thermometer is used to monitor the temperature change
- Volumes of solution and masses of solids must be carefully measured
- The **initial** temperature is measured
- The substances are mixed and stirred
- The **maximum** or **minimum** temperature is measured
- The temperature change is determined.

Task C

1. A student carried out an experiment to investigate the temperature change when hydrochloric acid reacts with sodium hydroxide. The student added 25 cm³ of hydrochloric acid and measured the initial temperature. The student then quickly added 25 cm³ of sodium hydroxide and stirred. The highest temperature was recorded. The student's results are shown in the table below.
Starting temperature = 21 °C
Highest temperature = 32 °C
 - a. Calculate the change in temperature.
 - b. How can you tell from the student's results whether the reaction is exothermic or endothermic?
 - c. Identify an error in the student's experimental set-up.
2. A student investigated the reaction of magnesium with hydrochloric acid. The student added a piece of magnesium to a beaker of hydrochloric acid. The student repeated the experiment with different concentrations of hydrochloric acid.
 - a. Identify the independent variable in the student's experiment.
 - b. Suggest **two** control variables in this investigation.
 - c. Predict the trend the student will see as the concentration is increased.



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Chemical cells

As well as measuring **temperature** change, we can measure the energy carried by two substances in solution react by recording the voltage produced. This is achieved using electrochemical cells.

Two different metal electrodes are placed into an electrolyte. The electrodes are connected by a wire, allowing electrons to flow. A voltmeter can be added to measure the voltage.

A reaction occurs between the electrodes and the electrolyte, causing **oxidation** and **reduction**. The chemical reactions cause the flow of electrons – producing electricity. The bigger the difference in reactivity between the two electrodes, the larger the voltage.

You could be asked to write redox equations.

Conductor: a substance which can conduct electricity
Electrolyte: a conducting liquid containing ions
Oxidation: loss of electrons
Reduction: gain of electrons

Worked example: Interpreting cell voltages

A student investigated the reactivity series of some metals. The student set up an electrochemical cell as shown in the diagram. Electrode A is copper. Electrode B is changed each time, and the voltage of the cell is measured. The results are shown in the table. Place the metals in order of reactivity, from least reactive to most reactive.

Key points

- Cells which have produced a positive voltage are more reactive than copper.
- Cells which have produced a negative voltage are less reactive than copper.
- Electrode A is copper, so if Electrode B is also copper, no voltage can be produced.

Placing the metals in order:

Zinc – most reactive

Iron

Cobalt

Nickel

Copper

Silver – least reactive

Factors which could affect the cell voltage

- The metal used for the electrode – the bigger the difference in reactivity, the bigger the voltage.
- The **concentration** of the electrolyte solution – more concentrated solutions produce a bigger voltage.

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Batteries

Connecting multiple cells together **in series** creates a battery. The voltage of the battery is the sum of the voltage of the chemical cells combined.

- Non-rechargeable batteries have **irreversible** reactions, and the electrodes corrode down over time. Once one of the reactants is used up, the battery 'goes flat'.
- Rechargeable batteries have reactions which can be **reversed** by applying an electrical supply – a 'charger'. This reverses the reactions, allowing the reactants to be reformed.

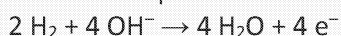
Fuel cells

Fuel cells work in a different way to chemical cells, but are still based on redox reactions. They produce electricity **continuously** when supplied with fuel and oxygen. The fuel becomes oxidised either through combustion (which requires a much higher temperature), and the energy is released.

Hydrogen fuel cell

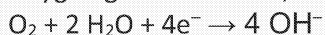
At the negative electrode:

Hydrogen gas is supplied as a fuel, where it releases electrons to produce H^+ ions:



At the positive electrode:

Oxygen gains electrons, becoming reduced to OH^- ions



Adding these two half-equations together forms the overall equation: $2\text{H}_2(\text{g}) + \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$

A key example of fuel cell is the **hydrogen fuel cell**. Water is the only product. Fuel cells are **very efficient**. Additionally, the hydrogen gas is clean and difficult to store.

You
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Task D

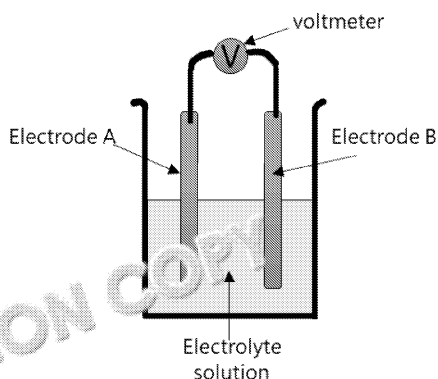
- Describe how to make a 12 V battery using 1.5 V cells.
- Why do non-rechargeable batteries stop producing electricity?
- The following chemical cells are set up, and voltage read. Using your knowledge, which cell (a, b or c) would produce the highest voltage?
 - Copper and iron
 - Iron and zinc
 - Zinc and copper
- The voltage produced by chemical cells depends on the type of electrodes used. Suggest **one** other factor that could affect the cell voltage.
- Suggest why batteries should not be put into household waste.
- Hydrogen fuel cells and rechargeable cells can be used to power electric vehicles. Suggest **one** advantage of using a hydrogen fuel cell compared with a rechargeable cell.

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Exam-style questions

1. This question is about electrochemical cells.
- a. A student investigated the voltage produced by different chemical cells. The apparatus shown.



Electrode A was made from copper. The student connected a metal to electrode A, measured the voltage, and repeated with a different metal.

Suggest **two** control variables for this investigation.

- b. The table shows the student's results.

Metal of Electrode B	Voltage (V)
Cobalt	+0.62
Copper	+0.00
Magnesium	+2.71
Nickel	+0.59
Silver	-0.46
Tin	+0.48

Place the six metals used for electrode B in order of reactivity. Justify your order.

- c. Hydrogen fuel cells and rechargeable lithium-ion batteries can be used to generate electricity. Copy and complete the balanced equation for the overall reaction in a hydrogen fuel cell.



- d. Why can a rechargeable cell be recharged?
- e. Another type of fuel cell uses methanol instead of hydrogen.
- $$2 \text{CH}_3\text{OH} + 3 \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2 \text{CO}_2 + 4 \text{H}_2\text{O}$$

The table shows the bond energies for the reaction.

Calculate the overall energy change for the reaction.

Bond	Mean bond energy (kJ mol ⁻¹)
C–C	348
C–H	413
C–O	358
C=O	805
O–H	464
O=O	498

End of paper

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Chapter 8: Graphical Skills

Introduction

If you have ever looked at the GCSE specification in detail (you should!), you may have noticed the importance of mathematical skills. This chapter focuses specifically on MS 4: Graphing skills, as it covers a range of different topics, and it is highly likely you will encounter a graph in one or more of these topics.

Maths Skill 4: Graphs

- Translate information between graphical and numerical form
- Understand that $y = mx + c$ represents a linear relationship
- Plot two variables from experimental or other data
- Determine the slope and intercept of a linear graph
- Draw and use the slope of a tangent to a curve as a measure of rate of change

At first glance, graphs can look confusing, and a little overwhelming. Reviewing this chapter will help you understand the uses of graphs throughout the GCSE specification, and demystify what could be expected of you.

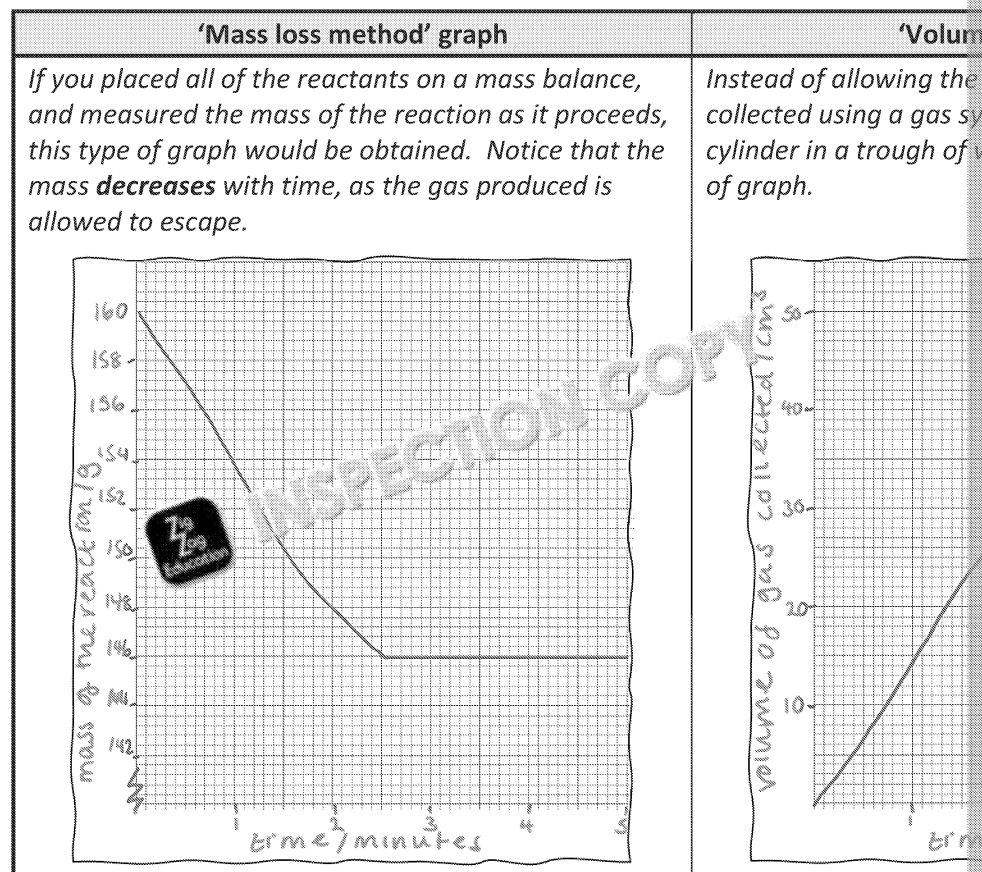
Rates of reaction graphs

Rate of reaction is a measure of how quickly a chemical reaction occurs.

$$\text{Rate of reaction} = \frac{\text{quantity (g or cm}^3\text{)}}{\text{time (seconds / minutes)}}$$

A relative rate of reaction can also be used, calculated by: $\frac{\text{quantity}}{\text{time taken for reaction}}$

Depending on the method used to measure the rate of reaction, the graphs will look different.



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'At what time is the reaction complete? Explain your answer.'

This is a common exam question. To find the time that the reaction has finished, we look for where the variable on the y-axis is **no longer changing** – in other words, where the graph plateaus (becomes flat). For both of our rates graphs, the reaction is finished at 2½ minutes.

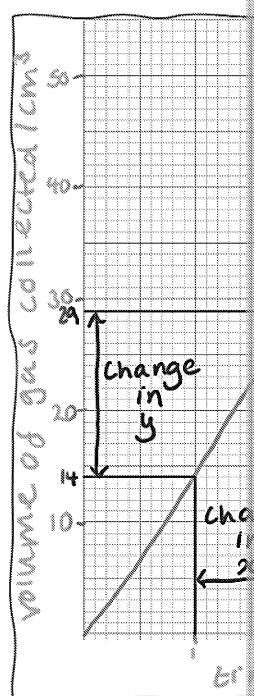
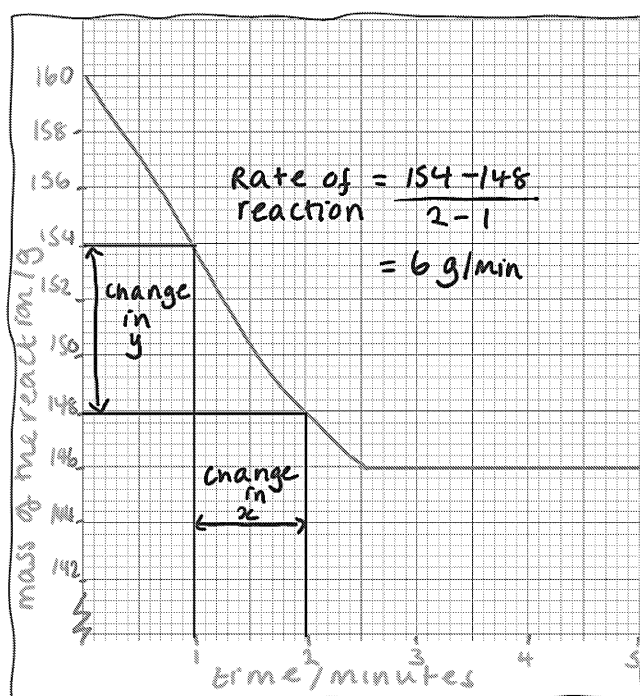
'Find the rate of reaction between 1 and 2 minutes.'

The key word here is 'between'. To find this, we need to draw two lines on the graph: one vertical line at 1 minute, and another vertical line at 2 minutes. Where these intersect our line of best fit, we then draw horizontal lines to the y-axis, and read off the values.

To calculate the rate, we need to use the formula:

$$\text{Rate} = \frac{\text{change in y}}{\text{change in x}}$$

where the change in y is the change in mass or volume, and the change in x is the change in time. In this case, the change in time is 1 minute.



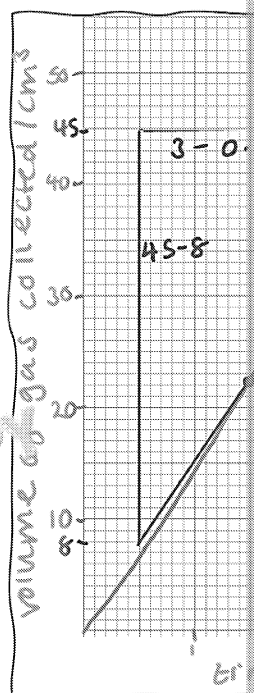
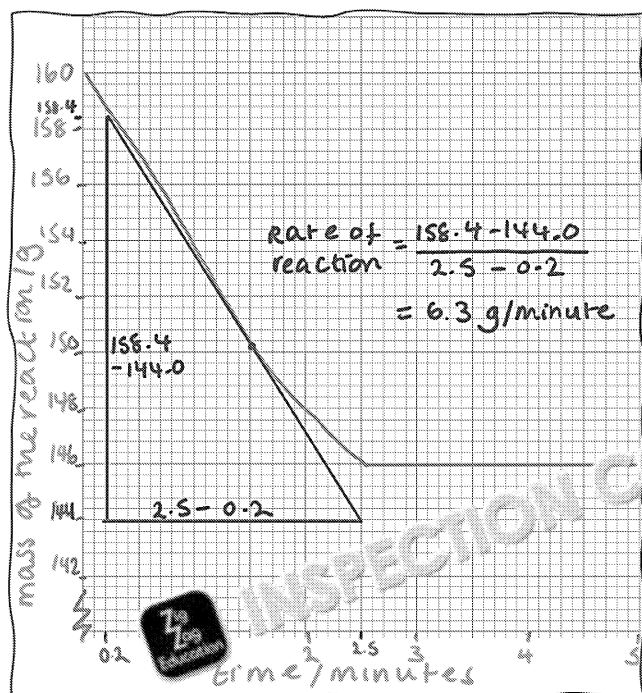
'Find the rate of reaction at 1½ minutes.'

The key word here is 'at', which signals that this question requires the use of a **tangent**. A tangent is a line that touches the curve at a single point. The tangent line has the same gradient as the curve at this point, so we can use it to find the rate of reaction.

Key skill: Drawing and using the slope of a tangent to a curve as a measure of rate is **MS 4e**

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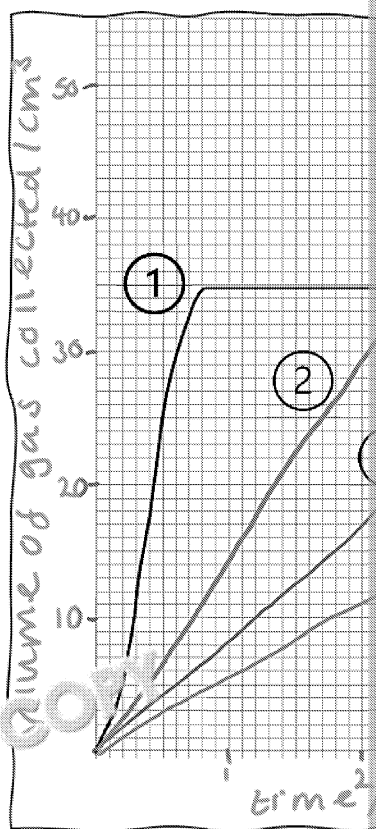
'Which reaction has the highest rate of reaction?'

The final interpretation you may need to do on rates graphs focuses on factors which speed up or slow down the rate of reaction. Multiple lines of best fit can be plotted on the same graph, and you need to be able to match the reaction conditions with each line.

Consider the 'Volume of gas' graph shown. The reaction was completed four times under different conditions. Which is fastest?

Line 1 has the steepest gradient, and produces the 35 cm³ of gas after around 45 seconds, whereas line 3 takes 4 minutes to produce the same volume. Therefore, line 1 has the highest rate of reaction.

A common misconception is that line 4 must be the slowest. However, something different is going on here. The amount of reactants used is smaller – and therefore a much lower volume of gas has been produced.



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Task A

A student reacted magnesium with hydrochloric acid, measuring the volume of gas produced every 30 seconds over 5 minutes, at 20 °C. The experiment was repeated twice at 30 °C, then 50 °C. The data is shown in the table below. Plot a graph and answer the questions which follow. *Graph paper is available to photocopy in the back of the book.*

Time (seconds)	Volume of gas produced at 20 °C / cm ³	Volume of gas produced at 30 °C / cm ³
0	0	0
30	6	10
60	12	18
90	18	27
120	24	30
150	30	40
180	36	45
210	40	50
240	44	50
270	48	50
300	50	50

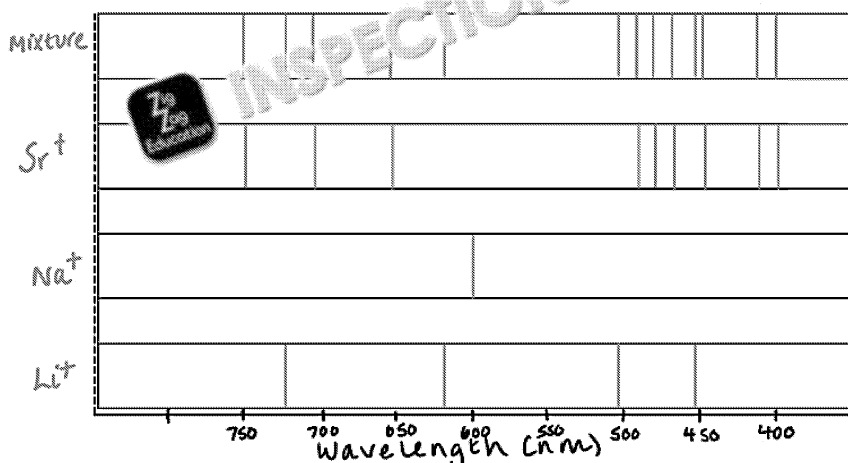
- At what time does each reaction finish? Explain how you used your graph to find this.
- Use your answer to Q1 to find the *relative rate* at each temperature.
- Find the rate of reaction at 90 seconds at each temperature.
- Find the rate of reaction during the first 30 seconds at each temperature.
- Explain which temperature had the highest rate of reaction. Use collision theory to explain your answer.

Flame emission spectra and calibration curves

We know from the Chemical Analysis topic that metal ions produce characteristic flame colours. This is because each type of metal ion absorbs and releases unique wavelengths of light. These can be analysed in a **spectrometer**, producing a line spectrum unique to each metal ion. This can be used to identify the metal ion by comparison to a computer database.

A flame spectrum of a metal ion is like a 'barcode' for that element. It is so precise that it even enables us to pick out component parts of a mixture! The emission spectra of some group 1 metal ions and a mixture, are given in the spectra below.

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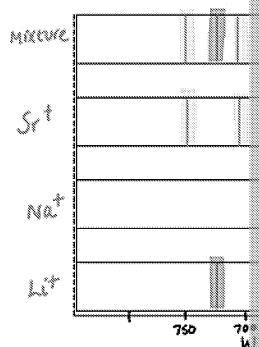
Making identifications from spectra

- a) Use the spectra to identify the two metal ions in the mixture.

To answer the question, it is a good idea to grab a highlighter and a ruler. Line up your ruler with each line in the barcode of the mixture, and see if these lines correspond to any lines in the known spectra. When we do this, we can clearly see that the spectrum overlaps for **strontium ions and lithium ions**. It is just as important to note the **absence** of any lines corresponding to **sodium ions**, too.

- b) Why would a flame test alone not identify these ions in the mixture?

Think carefully. Lithium ions produce a crimson flame, and strontium also produces a red flame. This test alone would **not** be able to distinguish between the two.



Many metal ions, such as strontium, produce a red flame, which makes it difficult to distinguish between them using a flame test alone.

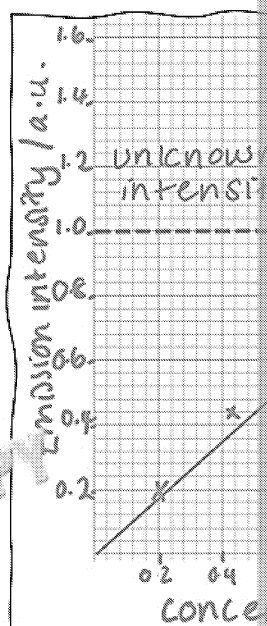
Flame emission spectra can also be used to determine **concentrations** of ions present. If the concentration of an ion is unknown, a calibration graph is plotted:

Sodium ions of unknown concentration produced an emission intensity of 1.0.

Find the unknown concentration.

1. Solutions of **known concentration** of sodium ions are made.
2. The emission intensity is measured for each known concentration.
3. A graph of the results is plotted, and a line of best fit drawn.
4. The emission intensity of the **unknown concentration** is read.
5. The graph is used to find the unknown concentration.

From the graph, we can see that the unknown concentration is 1.12 mol dm⁻³.



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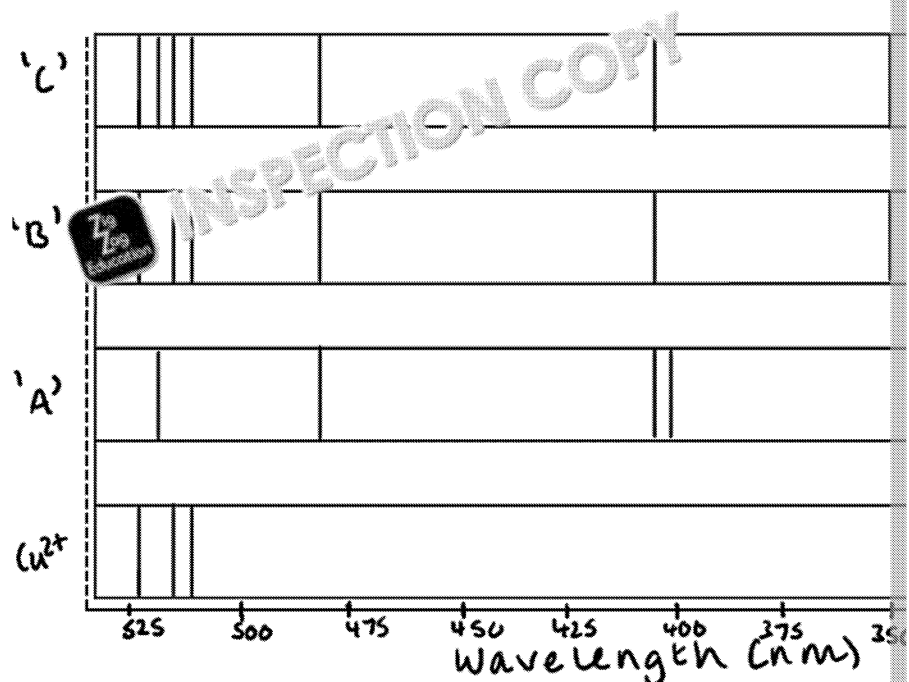


Task B

Copper ions play an important role in our body as enzyme cofactors, and are required for processes such as mitochondrial respiration. It is estimated that around 25 % of people may have a deficiency of Copper. Copper is often added to multivitamins as a result.

The presence of copper ions in the blood, and within multivitamins, could be measured using atomic emission spectroscopy. Copper ions typically show emission at wavelengths of 325, 327, 329, 331, 333, 335, 345, 350, 355, 360, 365, 375, 380, 385, 390, 395, 400, 405, 410, 415, 420, 425, 430, 435, 440, 445, 450, 455, 460, 465, 470, 475, 480, 485, 490, 495, 500, 505, 510, 515, 520, 525, 530, 535, 540, 545, 550, 555, 560, 565, 570, 575, 580, 585, 590, 595, 600, 605, 610, 615, 620, 625, 630, 635, 640, 645, 650, 655, 660, 665, 670, 675, 680, 685, 690, 695, 700, 705, 710, 715, 720, 725, 730, 735, 740, 745, 750, 755, 760, 765, 770, 775, 780, 785, 790, 795, 800, 805, 810, 815, 820, 825, 830, 835, 840, 845, 850, 855, 860, 865, 870, 875, 880, 885, 890, 895, 900, 905, 910, 915, 920, 925, 930, 935, 940, 945, 950, 955, 960, 965, 970, 975, 980, 985, 990, 995, 1000 nm.

- Three multivitamins, A, B and C, were tested for the presence of copper ions. The emission spectra produced are shown below.



- Which multivitamins contain copper ions?
 - What deductions can be made about the contents of multivitamins A, B and C?
- These spectra alone do not tell us the **concentration** of copper ions present. A series of standard solutions were used to produce a calibration curve of the emission intensity of **known** copper ions. This was compared with the emission intensity of the two multivitamins. The data is given in the table below.

Concentration / mol dm ⁻³	0	0.1	0.2	0.3	0.4	0.5
Emission intensity / au	0.0	0.25	0.32	0.44	0.58	0.81

- Plot the calibration curve on squared paper. **Graph paper is available** as a separate resource.
- Multivitamin B produced an emission intensity of 0.6, and multivitamin A produced an emission intensity of 0.4. Use your graph to determine which has the highest concentration of copper ions.

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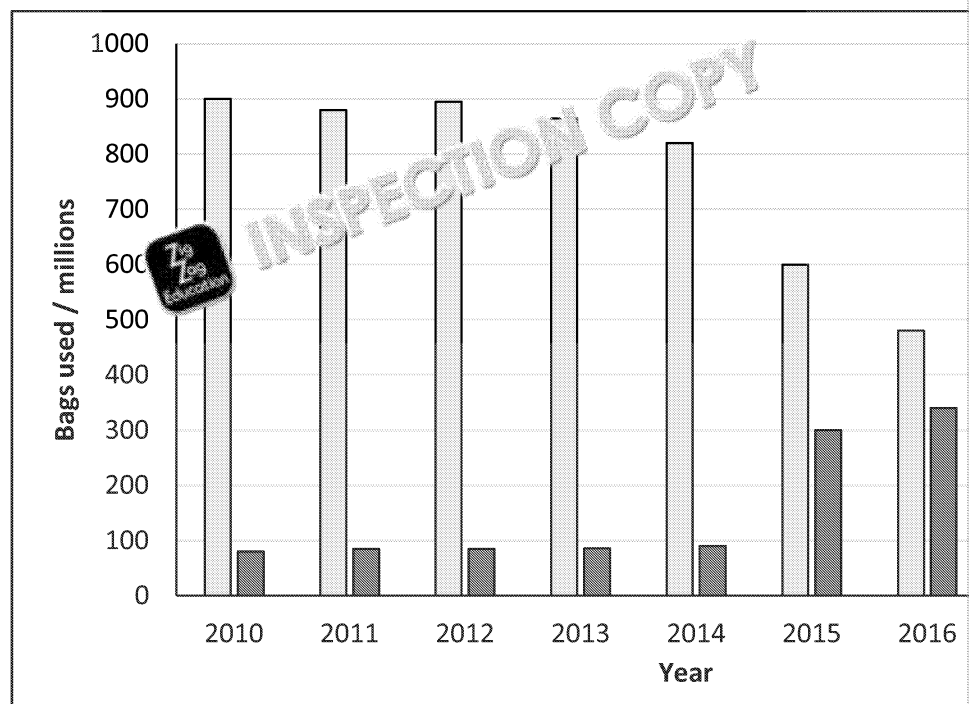


Describing and evaluating data from graphs

The examples we have looked at so far have been fairly familiar examples. It is also possible to encounter unfamiliar graphs and data. This is particularly true of the topics 'Chemical Resources' and 'Using Resources', where data plays a big role in understanding the chemistry of the world. Questions focus on your analysis skills, and your ability to use data, linking in your knowledge.

Let's look at an example.

In the UK, a 5p charge on single-use plastic carrier bags was introduced in 2015. The use of paper and plastic bag use has varied from 2010 to 2019.



Describing trends

Describe how the use of plastic and paper bags has changed in the years 2010 to 2019.

There are a number of key points we could pick out here:

- Generally, the use of plastic bags has more than halved between 2010 and 2019.
- The use of paper bags remained relatively constant until 2015.
- After 2015, the use of paper bags increased.
- From 2010 to 2017, more plastic bags were used than paper bags. From 2018–2019, more paper bags were used.

Notice that, since this question is a **describe question**, we do not need to bring in our own knowledge. We simply say what we see, using key points to support it. Things to consider:

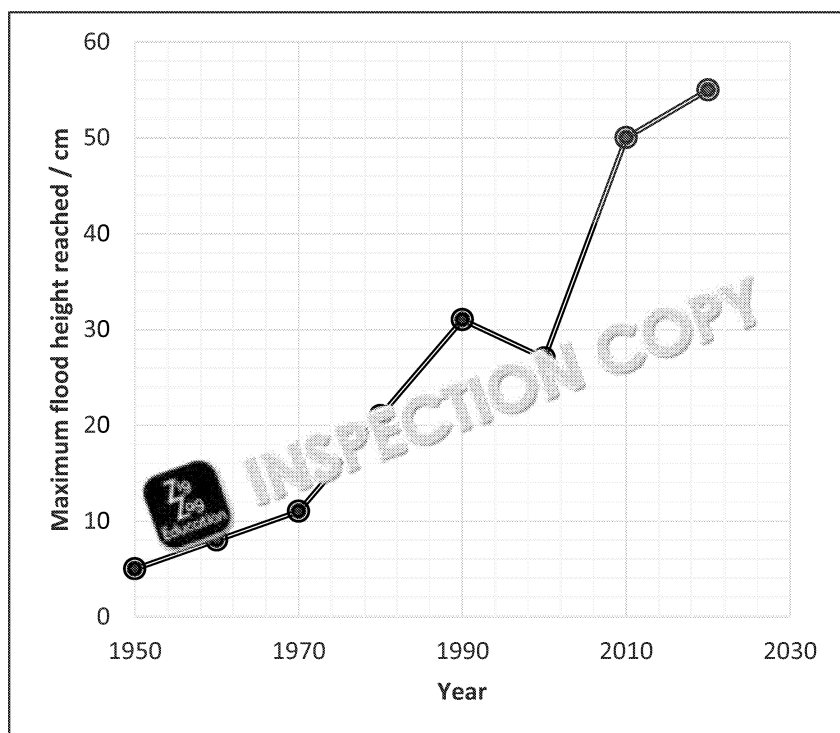
- ✓ What is the **general trend**?
- ✓ How much has the variable increased/decreased by?
- ✓ Is the **rate of change** consistent throughout, or are there rises and falls?
- ✓ Are there any **anomalies to the trend**? Where are they?

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Here's another example.

A small town in Cornwall began recording the height of flooding each year. The maximum flood height reached every 10 years is shown in the graph below. Describe the trend.



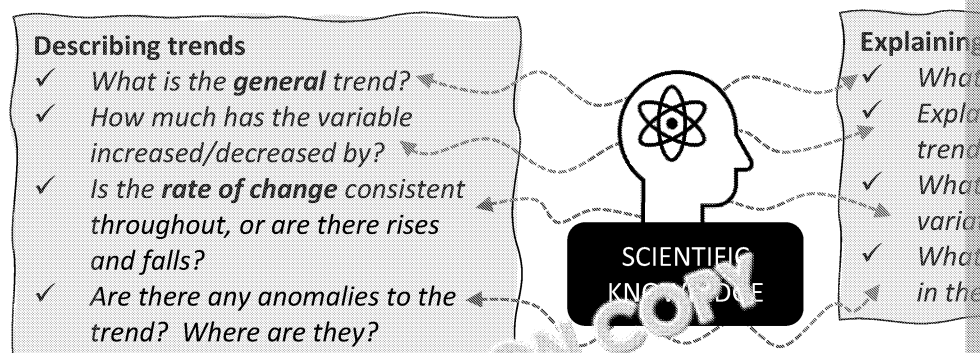
Describe the trend using the data.

- The maximum flood height reached every 10 years has increased from 1950 to 2020.
- The maximum flood height reached every 10 years has increased from 1950 to 2020.
- The maximum flood height reached every 10 years has increased from 1950 to 2020.
- The maximum flood height reached every 10 years has increased from 1950 to 2020.

Explaining and evaluating trends

When drawing a reasoned conclusion from a graph, we need to bring in our own knowledge of the changes we are observing in the data.

Looking at our flooding example above, instead of being asked to describe the trend, we are now asked to explain the trend.



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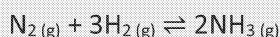


Atmospheric carbon dioxide levels have increased. Carbon dioxide is a greenhouse gas. Global warming causes melting of polar ice levels and rising of low-lying areas. This has caused the general increase from 1950-2020.

Between 1990 and 2000, the maximum flood height decreased. It may be that the average temperature for that year was not as high an increase as previous years. Between 2000 and 2010, the maximum flood height rose sharply. It may be that the average temperature rise has accelerated. This could be due to an increase in greenhouse gas contributing to greater CO₂ emissions.

Many examples of these questions focus on manufacture and **optimum condition** reasoned conclusion of suggested conditions for chemical processes. The graphs especially important to analyse them slowly!

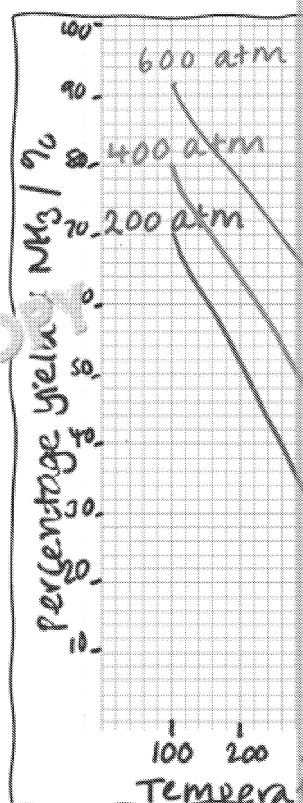
The Haber process is used to produce ammonia:



A temperature of 450 °C, a pressure of 200 atm and an iron catalyst are used in the Haber process.

The figure shows how the equilibrium yield of ammonia changes with temperature at different pressures.

- How does the graph show that the forwards reaction is exothermic?
- Explain the trends shown in the graph.
- A student suggests that a temperature of 400 °C and a pressure of 600 atm could be used instead of those used in the Haber process. Determine how much greater the percentage yield of ammonia obtained would be. Use the graph.
- Suggest why, despite your answer to c), the **optimum** reaction conditions of the Haber process are **not** 400 °C and 600 atm.



There is a **lot** of information to process and unpack here.

Key skill: Describing and explaining two different trends shown on the same graph

From the graph, we can see:

- As the temperature increases, the percentage yield of ammonia decreases.
- As the pressure increases, the percentage yield of ammonia increases.

It is sensible to mark on the graph where the **actual reaction conditions** are, so that we can refer to them later. Question c) also looks at some specific conditions, so again it is sensible to annotate the graph with these.

Using this information, and bringing in our own knowledge of equilibria, we can now answer the questions.

- How does the graph show that the forwards reaction is exothermic?
As the temperature increases, the percentage yield decreases.
- Explain the trends shown in the graph.
The forwards reaction is exothermic. Increasing the temperature causes the equilibrium to shift to the left, lowering the yield of ammonia. Therefore, as the temperature increases, the yield decreases.

Increasing the pressure causes the position of equilibrium to shift to the right, towards the gas. The reactant side has 4 moles, whereas the product side has 2 moles. Therefore, as the pressure increases, the yield increases.

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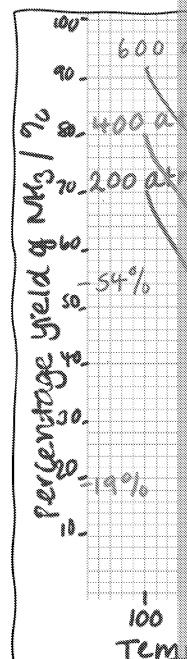


- c) A student suggested that a temperature of 400°C and a pressure of 600 atm could be used instead of those used in the Haber process. Determine how much greater the percentage yield of ammonia obtained would be. Use the graph.

Yield using suggested conditions = 54%

Yield using actual conditions = 19%

Yield would be 35% larger



The final question is a common 6-mark question on the Haber process and optimum conditions. Breaking up the answer into three short paragraphs is the best approach.

- ✓ Temperature: rate, equilibrium, energy and cost
- ✓ Pressure: rate, equilibrium, energy and cost
- ✓ Catalyst: rate, equilibrium and cost



- d) Suggest why, despite your answer to c), the **optimum** reaction conditions are 400°C and 600 atm .

A higher temperature would increase the rate of reaction, but would shift the equilibrium to the left, decreasing the yield. Higher temperatures require large amounts of energy, so are expensive. 450°C is used to balance the rate and the cost.

High pressure increases the rate of reaction and would shift the position of equilibrium to the left, towards fewer gas moles – the right-hand side, increasing the yield. However, high pressures require large amounts of energy and specialist equipment, and so is expensive. Therefore, a compromise is used.

An iron catalyst is used to speed up the rate of reaction, but has no impact on the equilibrium. Unreacted nitrogen and hydrogen are recycled over the hot gases.

Now you are prepared to approach any style of graph question

- ✓ Take the time to process what information the graph is telling you
- ✓ Make sure you read the question (and command words!) carefully
- ✓ Annotate the graph so that you have key information clearly marked
- ✓ Be methodical in your approach.
- ✓ Be aware you may need to bring in your own knowledge.



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Chapter 9: Organic Chemistry

Introduction

Organic chemistry is an important aspect of chemistry; it is chemistry of life and a lot of things behind it. This area of chemistry will feel quite different from what you are used to, like a minefield of new content, representations and language. Once you learn to recognise patterns and links to topics you have covered previously.

Required prior knowledge

This topic will assume some understanding of the following topics:

- Chemical bonding
- The structure and bonding of elements and allotropes
- The structure and bonding of small molecules vs giant networks
- Alkanes and alkenes

Organic chemistry primarily focuses on the chemistry of carbon-containing structures. Carbon is in **group 4** of the periodic table. It has the electron structure 2, 4; it has 4 electrons in its valence shell. It can form **four** covalent bonds with other atoms.

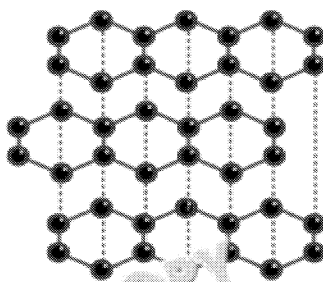
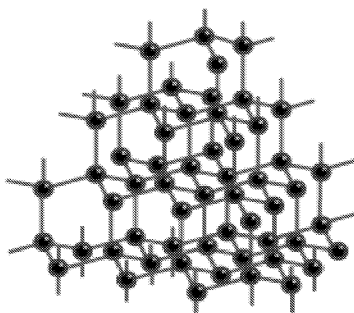
Allotropes of carbon

In its element form, carbon exists as a number of **allotropes**.

Key term: Allotropes

Different forms of the same element, in the same physical state, but with different bonding of atoms.

- In **diamond** (left, below) each carbon atom is bonded to 4 other carbon atoms. There are no electrons left over.
- In **graphite** (right, below) each carbon atom is only bonded to 3 other carbon atoms. This leaves one electron per atom left over. These electrons are **delocalised** and can move through the layers.



Task A

Sort the statements below into two categories: properties of diamond and properties of graphite. Properties that apply to **both** diamond and graphite.

High melting point

Electrical conductor

4 covalent bonds between atoms

Very hard substance

Soft and slippery substance

3 covalent bonds between atoms

Large network of atoms

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Alkanes

Compounds containing carbon and hydrogen **only** are known as the hydrocarbons (which are giant covalent networks), hydrocarbons form **small molecules** with weak forces of attraction between each molecule.

The first **homologous series** of hydrocarbons are alkanes, which have the general formula C_nH_{2n+2} . All alkane names end in '-ane'.

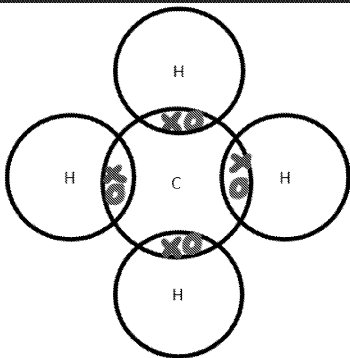
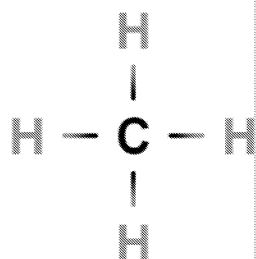
In alkanes, each carbon atom is bonded by a **single** covalent bond – one electron pair is shared between the carbon atom and its neighbour.

Different representations of compounds

You need to be able to represent the alkanes using all four representations, and evaluate the benefits and shortcomings of each.

- **Dot-and-cross diagrams** represent the valence electrons of each atom and how they are shared together.
- **Displayed formulae** represent each covalent bond with a single line. Double bonds are shown by two lines, and triple bonds with three.
- **Ball-and-stick diagrams** represent each atom as a ball, and covalent bonds with sticks. They show the 3D structure of the molecule.
- **Chemical formulae** only show the chemical symbol of each atom and how many of each is contained in the molecule.

This means that the same compound, methane, can be represented in four different ways, shown below.

Alkane	Chemical formula	Dot-and-cross diagram	Displayed formula
Methane	CH_4		

Task B

As chemists, we use different representations to talk about molecules, depending on the strengths and limitations of each model type.

Below are four scenarios. Suggest which of the four representations would be most useful for each scenario. Give a brief explanation for your answer.

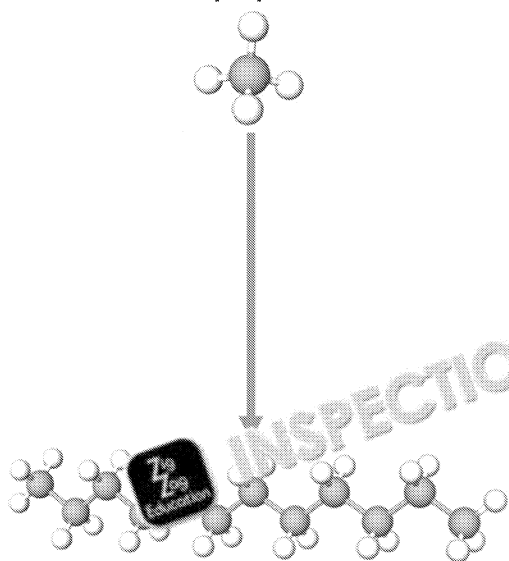
1. Jameel wants to compare alkanes and alkenes using their electron structures.
2. Ada wants to show the three-dimensional structure of the alkanes.
3. Thanusha wants to draw diagrams to compare the relative size of ethane with methane.
4. Michael is separating a mix of alkanes using fractional distillation. He needs to know their boiling points.
5. Maymuna wants to compare the number of carbon atoms in butane and octane.

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Properties of alkanes

The alkanes are small molecules, and so have **weak intermolecular forces**. They have similar properties. However, as the size of the molecule increases, there are **more** intermolecular forces. There is a **trend in properties** as the **size of the molecule increases**:



Smaller molecules:

- Lower melting and boiling points
- Tend to be **volatile** (vaporise easily)
- More flammable (burn with a blue flame)
- Viscous (the liquid form flows easily)

Larger molecules:

- Higher melting and boiling points
- Less volatile
- Less flammable (burn with a yellow flame)
- Low viscosity (thick and sticky)

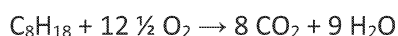
Reactions of alkanes

The main use of alkanes is as **fuels**. Alkanes release large amounts of energy when burnt, forming carbon dioxide and water.

Tip for balancing:

Balancing combustion equations can get very confusing: oxygen appears in **both** products. The easiest order to balance is: carbon, then hydrogen, then oxygen **last**.

e.g. the combustion of octane, the main component of petrol:

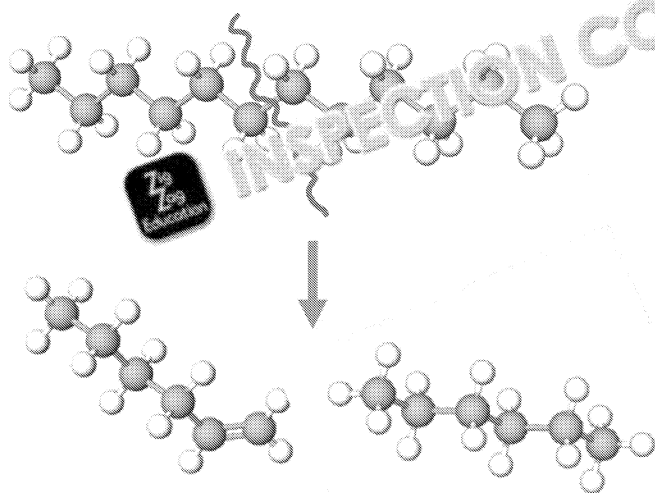


This process releases around 5470 kJ of energy per mole of fuel burned.

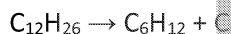
There is a **high demand** for shorter-chained alkanes.

However, a large component of crude oil consists of **longer-chain** alkanes. These large molecules are broken down in a process known as **cracking**.

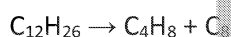
Cracking is exactly as it sounds – we take a larger molecule, ‘crack’ one of the bonds to produce two smaller products. Importantly, we still have the **same** number of each atom before and after the reaction. For example, we can crack a larger alkane into a smaller alkane, but also an **alkene**. The diagram shows an example of how dodecane can be cracked.



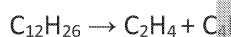
The equation for the cracking of dodecane is:



However, we have to remember that cracking occurs in the form of:



or even:



The process is **random** and the products are always different.

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Cracking can be done by various methods, including **catalytic cracking** and **steam cracking**.

Catalytic cracking	Steam cracking
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 550 °C Zeolite catalyst Reactants passed over hot catalyst 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 800 °C No catalyst Reactants mixed with steam under high pressure

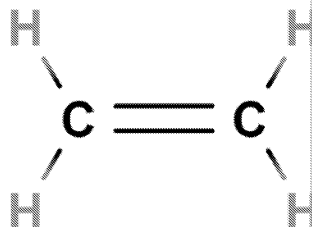
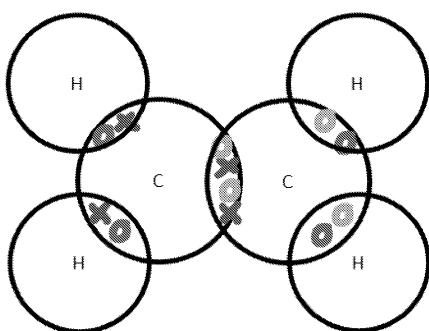
Cracking processes that use short-chain alkanes are also used to produce **feedstock** for petrochemicals.

Task C

- State the general formula for an alkane.
- What would the name and chemical formula of an alkane with three carbon atoms be?
- Give the displayed formula of butane.
- Describe and explain the trend in boiling points of the alkanes as the length of the chain increases.
- Petrol often contains heptane, C_7H_{16} . Write an equation for the complete combustion of heptane.
- An alkane containing 20 carbon atoms is cracked via catalytic cracking, forming ethene and octane. Write an equation for this reaction. Describe the process of catalytic cracking and write a balanced equation for the reaction.

Alkenes

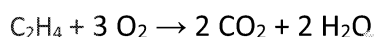
Alkenes contain *at least* one **carbon-carbon double bond** ($C=C$). For your GCSE, you only need to consider alkenes containing **one** $C=C$, but it is possible to have multiple double bonds within the same molecule. The simplest alkenes have the general formula C_nH_{2n} . All alkene names end in **-ene**, and they are named in the same way as alkanes. Note that the first alkene is **ethene** – ‘methene’ is impossible!



Since there are **four** electrons within the carbon-carbon double bond, alkenes are **more reactive** than alkanes.

Reactions of alkenes

Alkenes combust in oxygen, forming carbon dioxide and water:

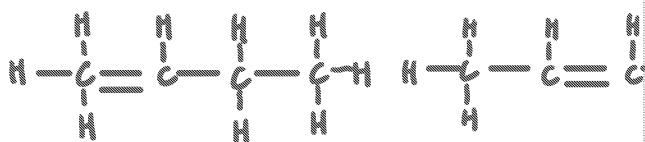


They release **less** energy per mole than their alkane counterparts, and usually **less** heat. Alkenes are **more** useful as a feedstock for other reactions.

Beyond GCSE: Naming alkenes

Take the alkene butene. The double bond could be in two possible places, for example:

This alkene has the double bond between the first and second carbons, so is called **but-1-ene**.

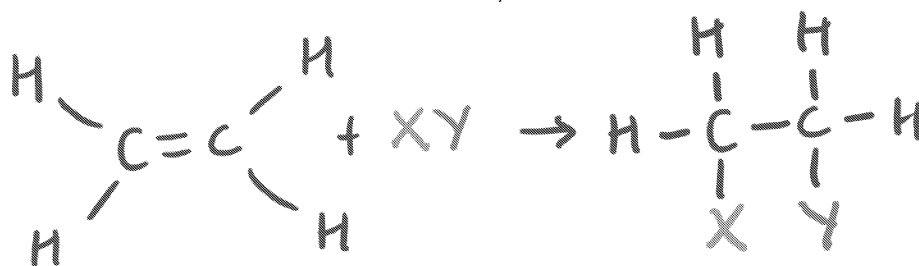


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All the reactions of alkenes are the same process:



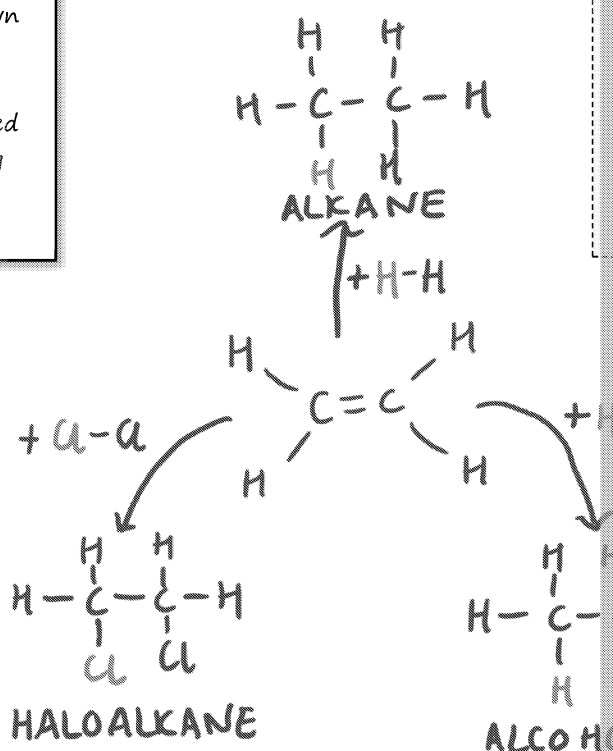
All that varies each time is what X-Y is!

1. Reaction with **hydrogen**, where X-Y is H₂. The reaction conditions are 60 °C and a catalyst.
2. Reaction with **halogens**, where X-Y is Cl₂, Br₂ or I₂. The reaction takes place at room temperature and a catalyst.
3. Reaction with **steam**, where X is H and Y is OH. The reaction conditions are 300 °C and a phosphoric acid catalyst.

We can form a variety of different products from these reactions.

Addition of hydrogen is known as **hydrogenation**. Saturated molecules are formed. This reaction is used in unsaturated oils – it increases the melting point of the oil, e.g. in the manufacture of margarine.

This is an **important chemical test** to confirm the presence of a carbon-carbon double bond. Only alkenes react with bromine water, decolourising the brown solution. Alkanes do not react with bromine water, and do not decolourise the solution.



Task D

1. Ethene is used as a starting material in the petrochemical industry. It is produced by cracking of larger hydrocarbons.
 - a. Ethene can be produced by the steam cracking of C₂₈H₅₈:

$$\text{C}_{28}\text{H}_{58} \rightarrow \text{C}_{11}\text{H}_{24} + \text{C}_{11}\text{H}_{22} + \text{C}_4\text{H}_8 + \text{C}_2\text{H}_4$$
One of the products is a different type of hydrocarbon to the other products. Identify the product that is different, and explain how the structure is different.
 - b. Ethene is used in the manufacture of ethanol. Write a balanced symbol equation for the reaction and draw the displayed formula of the product.
 - c. Describe a chemical test which could be used to distinguish ethene from ethane.
2. An alkane with 13 carbons is cracked. One product is pentane. Give the formula of the other product.
3. Give the formulae of the product(s) formed when:
 - a. butene reacts with chlorine
 - b. propene reacts with hydrogen
 - c. ethene reacts with chlorine

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Alcohols

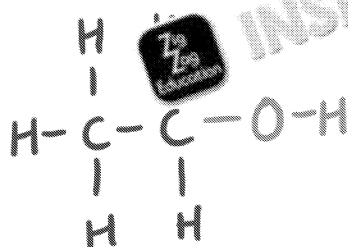
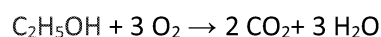
Alcohols have the functional group -OH . Alcohols are named in the same way as other organic molecules, ending in 'ol'.

The first four alcohols have important uses:

- **Methanol** is used extensively in the chemical industry. It is **toxic**, so is added **methylated spirit** to prevent people from drinking it.
- **Ethanol** is present in alcoholic drinks. It is a useful fuel and solvent.
- **Propanol** and **butanol** are used as solvents and fuels.

Reactions of alcohols

Alcohols burn readily in oxygen to form carbon dioxide and water:



Unlike other organic solvents, alcohols can react with sodium metal:



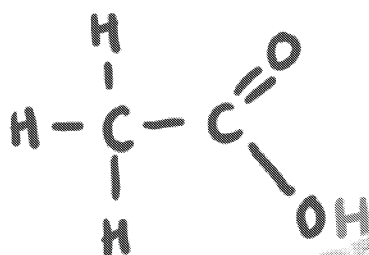
Short-chained alcohols also dissolve in water – another unusual property for organic substances! The solubility does decrease as the chain length increases.

Alcohols can be **oxidised** using an **oxidising agent** to produce carboxylic acids. For example, ethanol can be oxidised to form ethanoic acid and water.

Carboxylic acids and esters

Carboxylic acids have the **functional group** -COOH . They are named in the same way as alcohols, ending in 'oic acid'.

Ethanoic acid is a common carboxylic acid found in vinegar. It has the displayed formula shown.



The carboxylic acids partially dissociate in water, releasing the H^+ ion. They are **weak acids**. They still behave as normal acids do, reacting with metals, bases and carbonates, but the rate of reaction will be slower and the energy released will be less.

Carboxylic acid reactions

Like other acids you have seen, carboxylic acids react with metal carbonates:

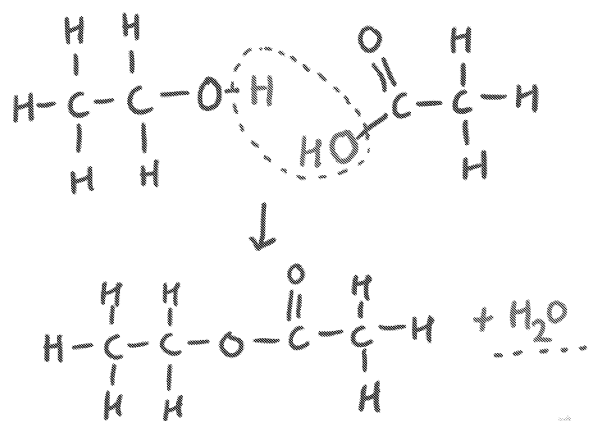
carboxylic acid + metal carbonate \rightarrow salt + water + carbon dioxide
e.g.

ethanoic acid + sodium carbonate \rightarrow sodium ethanoate + water + carbon dioxide

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Carboxylic acids react with alcohols, in the presence of concentrated sulfuric acid,



carboxylic acid + alcohol \rightarrow ester + water

For example, the reaction shows ethanol reacting to form the ester **ethyl ethanoate**. The water is released in this process.

Esters have the functional group $\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{O}$.

Esters are fruity-smelling, volatile liquids. They are used in flavourings, perfumes and adhesives. Esters are used to make polymers.

Key point: The reaction between **ethanol** and **ethanoic acid** to form **ethyl ethanoate** and **water** is the only esterification reaction you need to know.

Task 1

1. State one use of butanol.
2. Write a balanced equation for the combustion of propanol.
3. Name the carboxylic acid formed from butanol.
4. State an observation you would make when ethanol reacts with sodium.
5. Write the word equation for the reaction of ethanol with ethanoic acid.

Exam-style questions

1. Alkanes and alkenes are examples of hydrocarbons.
 - a. Define the term 'hydrocarbon'.
 - b. Describe the difference in chemical structure between an alkane and an alkene. How can bromine water be used to identify between an alkane and an alkene?
 - c. Alkanes are saturated hydrocarbons. Explain what is meant by the term 'saturated' and state whether alkenes are saturated or unsaturated.
2. Propene is an alkene containing three carbon atoms.
 - a. Draw the displayed structure of propene.
 - b. Propene reacts with bromine. Draw the displayed structure of the product.
 - c. Propene can undergo a hydration reaction when reacted with steam. Give the name of the catalyst required, and write a balanced symbol equation for the reaction.
3. Diamond and graphite are allotropes of carbon.
 - a. Describe the structure and bonding of diamond.
 - b. Explain why diamond is hard but graphite is soft and slippery.
 - c. Explain why diamond has a high melting point.

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Chapter 10: Chemical Identification

Introduction

Chemical analysis techniques are key skills for a chemist to help us understand the world around us. From analysing our medicines, to testing for traces of explosives at airports, and even detecting contaminants in our foods, these techniques play a crucial role in our everyday lives. At A Level, you will go further, so it is important to have a good understanding at GCSE level.

Since the nature of these techniques involves multiple steps (collecting samples, performing the experiment, examining the results), this area of the specification is tricky. As well as understanding how to perform an experiment and analyse results, **evaluating** procedures is important, too; you will need to know which step is important, and be able to **identify mistakes** in procedures and **explain how** to avoid them.

Equation used in this chapter



$$R_f \text{ (retention factor)} = \frac{\text{distance travelled by spot}}{\text{distance travelled by solvent}}$$

Chromatography

Paper chromatography and thin-layer chromatography are techniques for separating dissolved substances from one another. This is especially useful when the substances are **coloured**, e.g. inks, food colourings and plant dyes, but it can also be used when substances are colourless by viewing the chromatogram under UV light.

Baseline: drawn in pencil, the samples are placed on this line.

Chromatography: the technique which separates dissolved substances from one another.

Chromatogram: the paper strip produced which contains the separated mixture. This is analysed to allow conclusions to be made.

Mobile phase: the phase in chromatography which travels up the chromatography paper – the solvent.

R_f (retention factor): a measurement from chromatography: it is the distance a spot of substance has been carried above the baseline divided by the distance of the solvent front.

Solvent front: the highest distance travelled by the solvent.

Stationary phase: the phase in chromatography which does not move – the paper.

Note that, although water is often used as the solvent, other solvents can be used. If solvents such as ethanol are used, a **lid** will need to be used to prevent **solvent evaporation**.

Chromatography works by separating substances having different **solubility in the solvent** and **attraction to the stationary phase**. This means that different components will travel different distances up the paper and have different R_f values:

- Substances with **high solubility** in the solvent and **low attraction** to the stationary phase will travel **high distances**. These substances will have **high R_f values**.
- Substances with **low solubility** in the solvent and **high attraction** to the stationary phase will travel **low distances**. These substances will have **low R_f values**.

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A student is trying to identify which of three water-soluble food colourings, A, B and C, are contained in some cupcake icing.

Method:

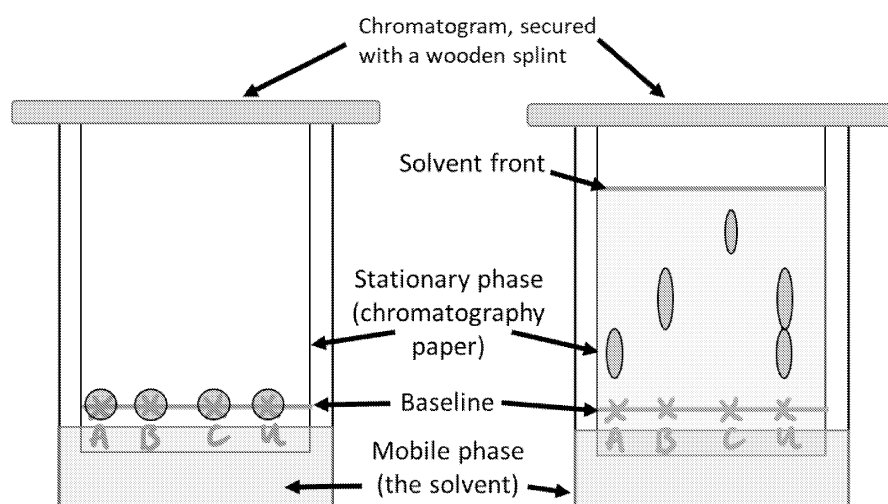
1. Draw a baseline in pencil around 2 cm from the bottom of the chromatography paper.
2. Using a capillary tube, place a small spot of each food colouring, and a small sample from the unknown, at evenly spaced intervals along the baseline. Label each sample in pencil.
3. Fill a beaker with water so that the water level is below the baseline.
4. Place the chromatogram in the beaker, securing it with a wooden splint.
5. Leave the chromatogram in the beaker until the water has travelled $\frac{3}{4}$ of the way up the paper. Remove the chromatogram, immediately marking the solvent front in pencil.
6. Using a ruler, measure the distance travelled by each component of the food colourings. Measure the solvent front. Use the values to calculate R_f values for each component part.

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Task A

Look at the experiment above, and the chromatogram produced.

1. State the stationary and mobile phases in this experiment.
2. Which substance is the most soluble? Explain why this substance is the most soluble.
3. Is the unknown a pure substance or a mixture? Explain your answer.
4. The student recorded the distances travelled by each substance. The solvent front was at 7.5 cm. Use this to calculate the R_f values.

Substance	Distance travelled / cm	
A	2.0	
B	3.5	
C	5.5	
U: Spot 1	2.0	
Spot 2	3.5	

5. What can the student conclude about the unknown substance?

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Testing for common gases

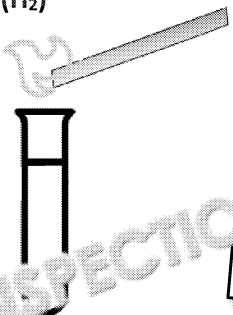
Many of the chemical reactions you have studied produce gases, but how can we tell which gas is being produced? There are four common gases you need to be able to identify: hydrogen (H_2), oxygen (O_2), carbon dioxide (CO_2) and chlorine (Cl_2).

Key skills

1. Describe
2. Give

Testing for hydrogen (H_2)

Hold a lit splint to the neck of the test tube



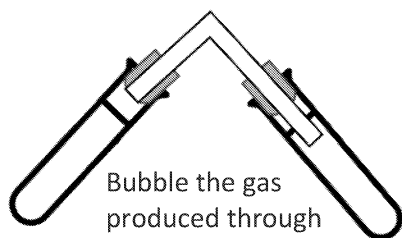
Positive result: A squeaky pop sound

Testing for oxygen (O_2)

IMPORTANT!
Note here the difference between testing for hydrogen and oxygen – hydrogen uses a lit splint, and the other a glowing splint. Easy to mix up!

Positive result:

Testing for carbon dioxide (CO_2)



Bubble the gas produced through limewater

Positive result: Limewater turns cloudy

Testing for chlorine (Cl_2)

Hold a piece of damp litmus paper in the neck of the tube

Positive result: Th

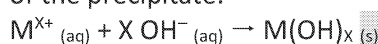
Task B

1. Name the gas produced when hydrochloric acid reacts with calcium carbonate. Confirm the presence of this gas.
2. Describe a safe method for distinguishing between oxygen and hydrogen gas.
3. Carbon dioxide gas is produced. Would the gas have any effect on a lit splint?
4. Magnesium carbonate reacts with sulfuric acid. Write a balanced equation for this reaction. Describe a method to test for the gas produced.

Identifying positive ions

There are two main tests for identifying metal ions:

1. The flame test involves **placing a sample of the ions into a flame**, and observing the **colour** produced.
2. The metal hydroxide test involves adding **hydroxide (OH^-)** ions into a solution and observing the **precipitate colour** formed. You should be able to write the ionic equation of the precipitate:



Note the state symbols for the equation – they are **essential**.

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Metal ion	Flame colour	Hydroxide p
Li^+	Crimson	
Na^+	Yellow	
K^+	Lilac	
Ca^{2+}	Orange-red	White
Cu^{2+}	Green	Blue
Al^{3+}		White precipitate, red
Mg^{2+}		White
Fe^{2+}		Green
Fe^{3+}		Brown

Task C

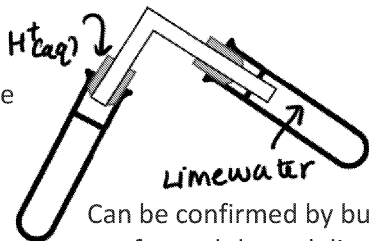
- Copper(II) ions produce characteristic flame colours and hydroxide precipitate.
 - Explain how the test could be used to identify copper(II) ions.
 - Describe how to carry out the hydroxide test to confirm this identity.
 - Write a balanced ionic equation for the reaction in part b.
- Suggest why flame tests are not useful for identifying components in mixtures.
- Explain how you would identify between aluminium and calcium using metal ions.

Identifying negative ions

You must be able to describe test tube reactions to identify **carbonate** (CO_3^{2-}), **sulfate** (SO_4^{2-}), **chloride** (Cl^-), **bromide** (Br^-) and **iodide** (I^-).

Testing for carbonate:

Add some drops of acid



Positive result: Fizzing, the limewater turns cloudy

Testing for sulfate:

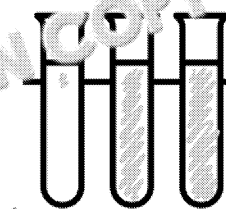
Add some drops of acid ($\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$) (nitric or sulfuric acid only)

Positive result: V

Testing for halides:

Add some drops of nitric acid ($\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$)

Add some drops of silver nitrate solution ($\text{AgNO}_3(\text{aq})$)



WHITE CREAM YELLOW

Positive results:
Chloride ions form white precipitate
Bromide ions form cream precipitate
Iodide ions form yellow precipitate

Task D

- Give the observations you would expect to see if the following chemical tests are carried out:
 - Acidified barium chloride is added to sodium sulfate
 - Hydrochloric acid is added to calcium carbonate
 - Acidified silver nitrate solution is added to sodium iodide
- Give the ionic equations for the formation of the precipitates.

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Exam-style questions

- A lab technician finds a bottle containing an unknown chemical. They suspect it is a calcium chloride solution. The technician uses chemical analysis tests to identify the ions present in the solution. Suggest why the technician would require tests to identify whether the positive ions are calcium ions.
 - The technician adds a few drops of **nitric acid** to test for the negative ions. Suggest why nitric acid is appropriate for the chemical test.
 - The technician adds silver nitrate to the solution in b), and identifies chloride ions. Write a balanced ionic equation, including state symbols, for the reaction which occurs with chloride ions.
- When testing for halides and sulfate ions, it is necessary to acidify the solution with analysis tests.
 - Why should hydrochloric acid not be used to acidify solutions before carrying out tests for halides? Complete the ionic equation, including state symbols, to explain your answer.
$$\text{Cl}^- + \text{Ag}^+ \rightarrow \text{AgCl} \downarrow$$
 - Complete the balanced ionic equation to show how barium chloride can be used to test for sulfate ions.
$$\text{Ba}^{2+} + \text{SO}_4^{2-} \rightarrow \text{BaSO}_4 \downarrow$$
 - State the observation made when the reaction in b) is carried out.
- Seawater contains a mixture of ions, including lithium chloride.
 - One way of identifying lithium chloride is using a flame test. State the colour of the flame that would be made.
 - State the reagents needed to identify chloride ions, and give the positive test.
- Calcium chloride is a salt made up of two ions.
 - Give the formulae of the ions present in calcium chloride.
 - Explain how to identify calcium ions. In your answer, you should include the tests used and the observations made, with state symbols.

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Chapter 11: Chemistry

Evolving Atmosphere

Introduction

This topic provides the insights into the composition and behaviour of the air we breathe, delving into the chemistry of our early atmosphere and its evolution over time. By studying its origins, we can appreciate how Earth's environment has shaped and been changed by how gradual changes in atmospheric composition due to natural phenomena and the delicate balance that sustains life on our planet. The issue of global warming highlights the understanding of the intricacy between atmospheric chemistry and climate change, and encourages rounded, informed discussions about the future. Many synoptic questions focus on your ability to understand not only the chemistry involved in the processes, but also the ability to draw conclusions from data.

Composition of the atmosphere: past and present

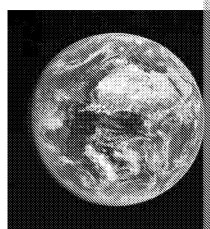
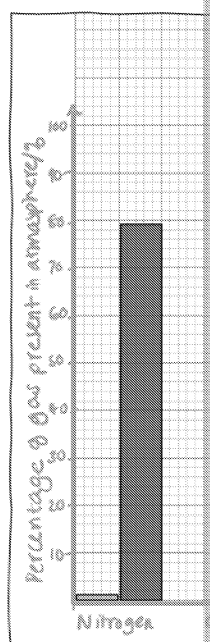
Earth's atmosphere is dynamic, and its composition can be influenced by a number of factors. The composition over the past 200 million years has remained relatively constant, at *approximately*:

- 80 % nitrogen
- 20 % oxygen
- Small proportions of other gases (carbon dioxide, water vapour and noble gases)

However, over the past 4.5 billion years, Earth's atmosphere has changed dramatically, and there are theories about how this has developed, utilising some **limited** evidence. The early atmospheric composition was likely to be *approximately*:

- 80 % water vapour
- 12 % carbon dioxide
- Small proportions of other gases (sulfur dioxide, methane, ammonia)

Consider the graph. You can see that the composition has changed dramatically. You will need to be able to state which gases have changed, and **compare** different atmospheric compositions.



As you can see, the composition of the atmosphere has changed dramatically. You will need to be able to state which gases have changed, and **compare** different atmospheric compositions. You will need to be able to state which gases have changed, and **compare** different atmospheric compositions.

Venus and Mars

The composition of Earth's early atmosphere is thought to have been comparable to that of Venus and Mars today. Many exam questions focus on this idea.

Approximate atmospheric composition of Venus

96 % carbon dioxide
3.5 % nitrogen
Small proportions of other gases (carbon monoxide, argon, sulfur dioxide, water vapour)

Approximate atmospheric composition of Mars

96 % carbon dioxide
2 % argon
<1 % oxygen
Small proportions of other gases (nitrous oxides, noble gases, water vapour)

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Worked example

Titan, a moon of Saturn, has an atmosphere composed of mainly nitrogen (95 %) and methane (<5 %), with the rest of the atmosphere composed of other gases such as hydrogen, carbon dioxide and argon.

- a) Compare the composition of the atmospheres of Earth and Titan.

To answer this question, we need to consider the **similarities** and the **differences** – the command word is 'compare'. It is important to think about the gases mentioned **AND** ones that may be missing...

Similarities	Differences
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Both atmospheres contain mostly nitrogen Both atmospheres contain trace amounts of the noble gases such as argon Both atmospheres contain carbon dioxide in small amounts 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Titan's atmosphere has a higher composition of nitrogen than Earth's atmosphere Titan's atmosphere contains more methane than Earth's atmosphere Titan's atmosphere contains no oxygen whereas Earth's atmosphere has around 20 %

Notice the use of **comparative language** such as 'both', 'more', 'higher'.

- b) Earth's **early** atmosphere is estimated to have been very different from how it is today. Explain why scientists cannot be sure of the **exact** composition of the early atmosphere.

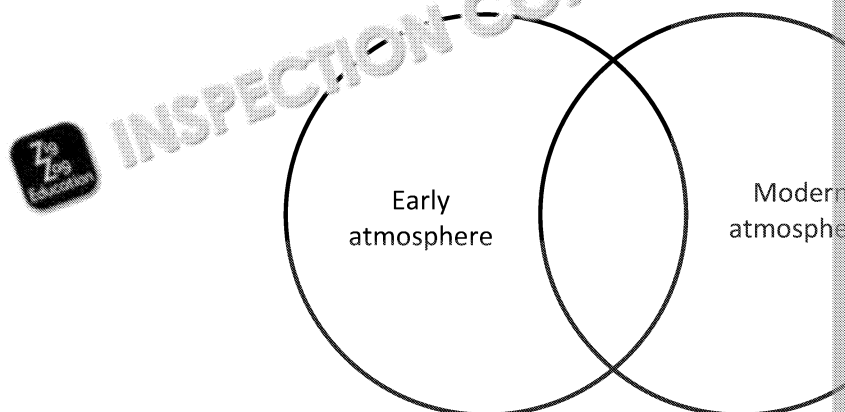
This question is much simpler than it seems!

Humans had not yet evolved... it was **billions** of years ago. Note that you cannot simply say it was a 'long time ago'; it is crucial you explain that it is an **extremely** long time ago!

Task A

1. Add the gases to the **Venn diagram** to show which gases were present in the early atmosphere only, or both.

nitrogen, ammonia, oxygen, carbon dioxide, water vapour



Task A

2. It is suggested that Earth's early atmosphere may have been similar to the atmosphere of Venus. The table below shows the compositions of the atmospheres on Earth and Venus.

Gas	Percentage composition on Earth today / %	Percentage composition on Venus today / %
Nitrogen	80	0
Oxygen	20	0
Carbon dioxide	<1 (traces)	96
Argon	<1 (traces)	0
Water vapour	<1 (traces)	0

The average surface temperatures on Earth and Venus today are 20 °C and 460 °C respectively.

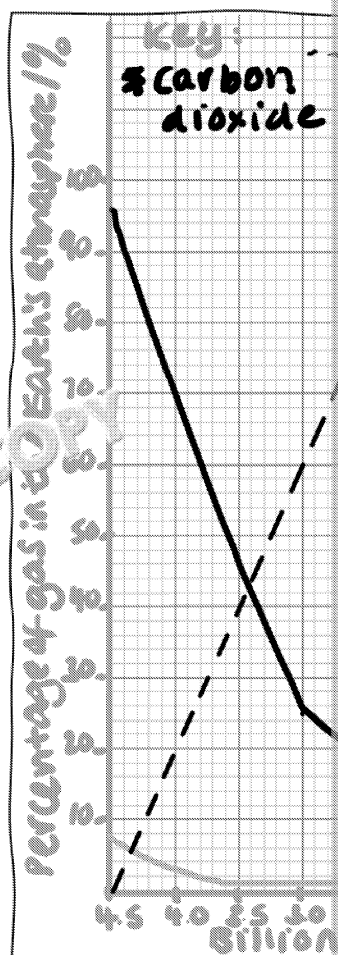
- State the name of a gas which is present in higher amounts in Earth's atmosphere than in Venus's early atmosphere.
- State the name of a gas present in Earth's atmosphere in a higher amount than in Venus's atmosphere today.
- Explain why there is unlikely to be life as we know it on Venus.
- Both the atmospheres of Earth and Venus contain water vapour. Much of Earth's surface is covered by water. Explain why the surface of Venus does **not** have water.

The evolution of Earth's atmosphere

The graph shows how the composition of the atmosphere has changed over the last 4.5 billion years. The four key gases which have changed significantly are oxygen, water vapour and carbon dioxide. You will need to be able to describe the changes in the percentage of these gases in the atmosphere over time.

Evidence?

It is important to remember that these are **theories** based on **scientific evidence**. It is difficult to know **exactly** which changes occurred **when** and **how**, because it was an **exceptionally** long time ago!



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Task B

Look at the table below and decide whether the event causes the four main gases to increase, decrease or stay the same (=).

Event	Effect on N ₂	Effect on O ₂
During Earth's first billion years, there was intense volcanic activity , releasing CO ₂ , CH ₄ , NH ₃ * and H ₂ O. <small>* Which later formed nitrogen through chemical processes</small>		
As Earth cooled, water vapour condensed to form oceans. Carbon dioxide dissolved in the water, and carbonates precipitated to produce sediments. Sedimentary rock formed.		
Around 2.7 billion years ago, plants and algae formed, undergoing photosynthesis. $6\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 + 6\text{O}_2$		
When plants and animals died and decayed, fossil fuels such as coal (from land biomass) and crude oil (from marine biomass) formed.		

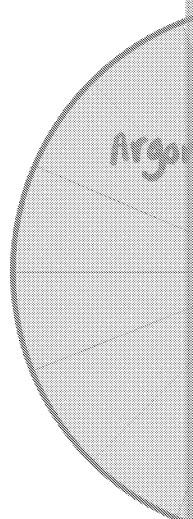
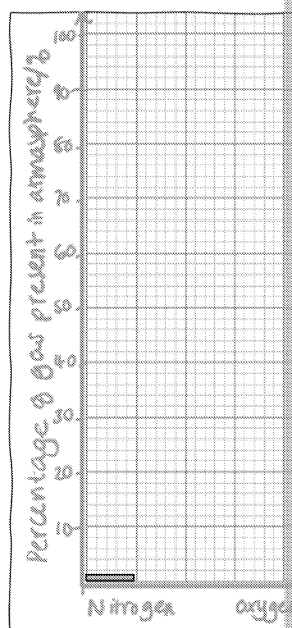
Task C

- The bar chart (right) shows the composition of gases in Earth's early atmosphere.
 - Complete the graph to show the approximate percentage of carbon dioxide in the early atmosphere.
 - The pie chart shows the composition of the atmosphere on Planet X.
 - Calculate the percentage composition for each gas.
 - Compare Earth's early atmosphere with the atmosphere on Planet X.
- The table below shows the composition of gases in the Earth's atmosphere.

Gas	Percentage / %
Nitrogen	
Oxygen	21
Argon	0.93
Carbon dioxide	0.04
Other gases	0.03

- Proportion of nitrogen in the atmosphere is approximately 39 parts in 50. Calculate the percentage of nitrogen in the atmosphere.
- If the total mass of the atmosphere is approximately 5×10^{18} kg, calculate the approximate mass of oxygen in the atmosphere.

Continued overleaf



Composition of

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- c. The role of plants and algae has caused the proportion of two gases to
 - i. Name the chemical process by which plants and algae altered the whether their amounts increased or decreased.
 - ii. Write a balanced chemical equation for the process.
 - iii. Explain how this process allows scientists to pinpoint the date when it occurred on Earth.
- d. Other gases make up small proportions of the modern atmosphere.
 - i. Name a gas included in the 'other gases' and state its origin.
 - ii. Describe and explain how the proportion of this gas has changed over time.
 - iii. Explain how this process impacted the proportion of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere.

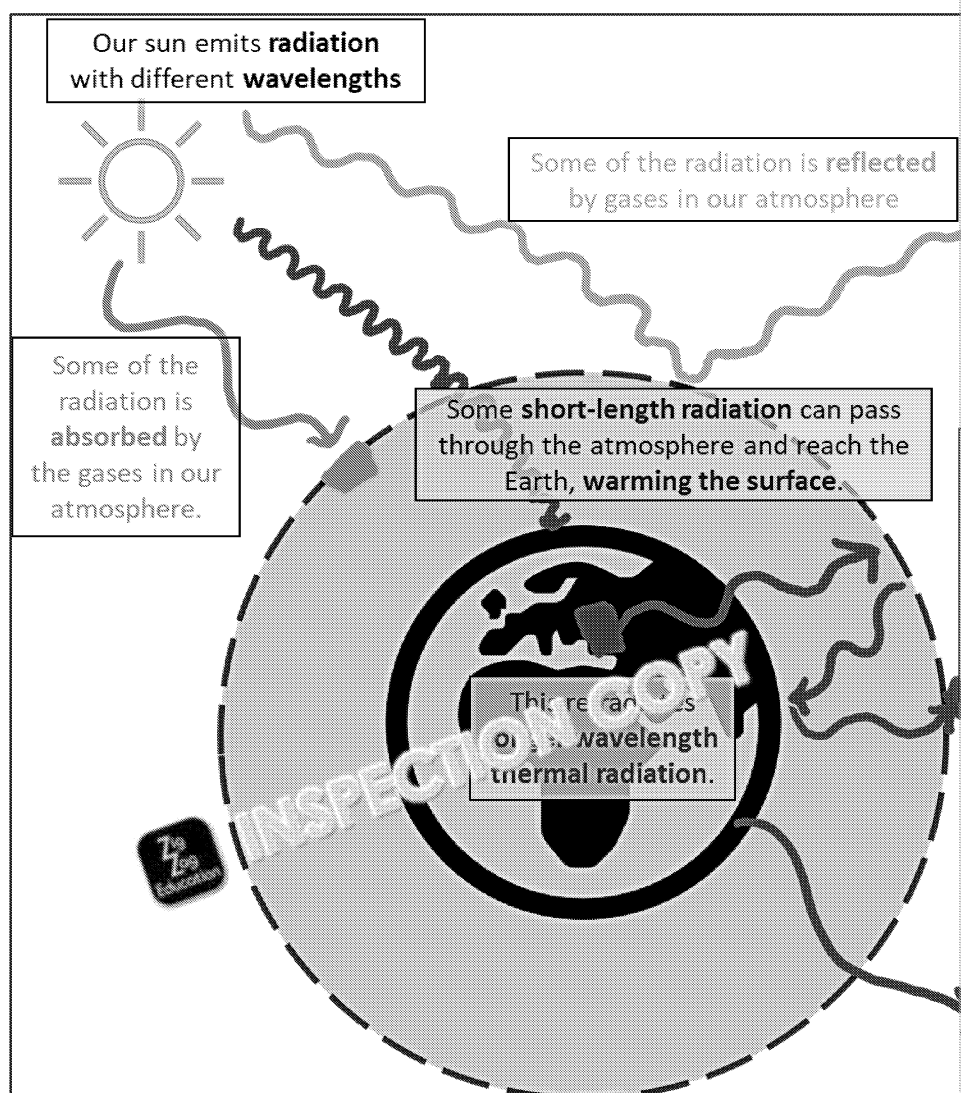
Greenhouse gases

Greenhouse gases in our atmosphere are essential to keep our planet warm enough for life – they help to maintain **habitable** temperatures on Earth. The three main greenhouse gases in our atmosphere are:

1. Methane, CH_4
2. Carbon dioxide, CO_2
3. Water vapour, H_2O

Short wavelength
UV radiation
gases in the atmosphere
Longer wavelength
as infrared radiation

The natural greenhouse effect is summarised below.



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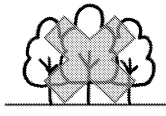
It is important to note that this is a **natural** and **essential** effect. However, human activities have increased greenhouse gas emissions, which **enhances the effect**, leading to increased warming.

Human activity

There are some key processes leading to the increase in greenhouse gas emissions.



Rice fields are a big source of **methane** emissions. Cattle and their decomposing waste also produce large amounts of **methane**.



Deforestation to clear space for crops and animal farming is **reducing carbon dioxide uptake** by plants.

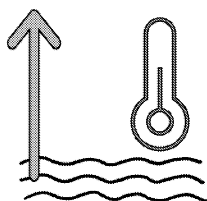


A larger population means a larger amount of waste. When it goes to **landfill**, this releases **methane**.

Fossil fuels are used to produce electricity, heat our homes, run our industries, and power our cars. All of these activities release **carbon dioxide** into our atmosphere.



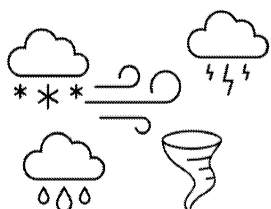
Evidence for climate change



Our oceans are getting **warmer**, and sea levels are **rising**.



Our ice sheets are **shrinking**, glaciers are **retreating**, and snow cover is **decreasing**.



Extreme weather events are **increasing in frequency**.

The Earth's climate is a **complex** system. Understanding it is **complex** and impacted by many **variables**. It is very difficult to predict and model. We **simplify** the system to predict with some **certainty** of climate change.

When analysing the evidence for the impact of climate change, you will need to:

- Evaluate the **quality of evidence** in a report about global climate change.
- Describe why there are **uncertainties** over the evidence for climate change.
- Recognise the importance of **peer-review** of results.

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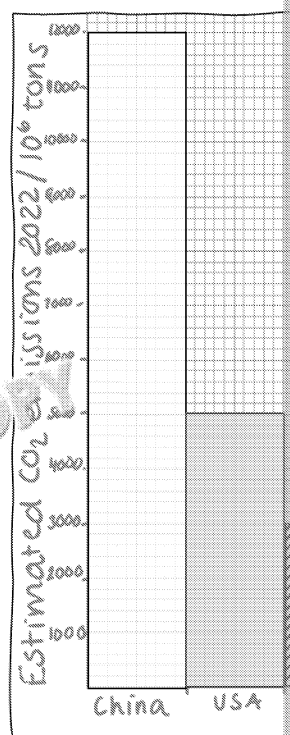
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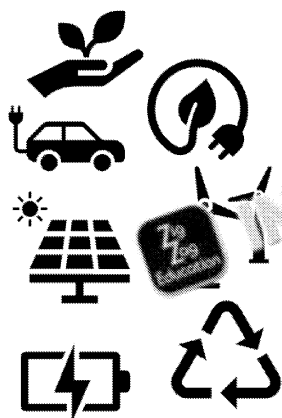
Task D

The graphs show the estimated CO₂ emissions by country, and their approximate percentage share of the world population in 2022. Use the graphs to answer the questions.

- Identify which country had the highest estimated CO₂ emissions in 2022, and state the approximate amount in tons.
- This question relates to the USA and India.
 - Compare the estimated CO₂ emissions of the USA and India.
 - Evaluate the CO₂ emissions of the USA and India, referring to their relative population size and other factors that may impact CO₂ emissions.
- Consider the data on China and India. Describe the relationship between the country's population size and its CO₂ emissions.
- This question relates to the USA, Russia, Germany and South Korea.
 - Calculate the combined percentage of the world population for the USA, Russia, Germany and South Korea.
 - Given this combined population percentage, discuss whether these countries' CO₂ emissions are proportional to their sizes, referring to the bar chart.
- From the bar chart, estimate the total CO₂ emissions from all six countries in 2022.
- Suggest two ways in which countries could reduce their CO₂ emissions.



Reducing our carbon footprint



A carbon footprint measures the total greenhouse gas emissions **indirectly** by a person, an organisation, an event or a product.

There are a number of steps which can be taken at an individual level to reduce carbon footprints.

Task E

- A school-aged student wants to limit their carbon footprint. Explain the meaning of this concept, and suggest actions which they could take.
- A clothing company wants to become more carbon-neutral. Explain the meaning of 'carbon-neutral' and suggest some actions the company could take. Explain why some actions might be challenging.

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Atmospheric pollutants

We know that human activity can contribute to the release of **greenhouse gases** into our environment. When a pure fuel burns, carbon dioxide and water vapour are produced:

An **atmospheric pollutant** is in the air and can be harmful to our climate and health. Pollutants are **contaminants** from human activities.

Worked example: Write a balanced equation for the combustion of butane:

When a hydrocarbon such as butane (an alkane) is burned, the carbon and hydrogen are **oxidised** to form their oxides – carbon dioxide and 'hydrogen oxide' or water:

butane + oxygen → carbon dioxide + water

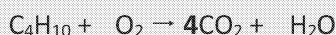
Converting this into a symbolic equation:



The equation is **unbalanced**. Counting the number of each atom type, we can see:

$\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10} + \text{O}_2$	$\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
C: 4	C: 1
H: 10	H: 2
O: 2	O: 3

We can see we need to multiply the carbon dioxide on the RHS by 4:



Checking the number of each atom type again:

$\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10} + \text{O}_2$	$4\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
C: 4	C: 4
H: 10	H: 2
O: 2	O: 9

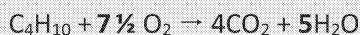
Note that we have impacted the number of oxygen atoms, too, but we will address that later. Now, we need to address the hydrogen. To get the same number on both sides, we need to multiply the water by 5:



Checking the number of each atom type again:

$\text{C}_4\text{H}_{10} + \text{O}_2$	$4\text{CO}_2 + 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$
C: 4	C: 4
H: 10	H: 10
O: 2	O: 13

All that remains is to balance the oxygen. If there is an **odd number**, don't forget to use a balancing number! To balance 13 oxygen atoms on the RHS, we need $7\frac{1}{2} \times 2 = 15$ oxygen atoms on the LHS:



The equation is now balanced.

Tip for balancing equations
To balance a chemical equation, the number of atoms of each element must be the same on both sides of the equation.

Tip for balancing equations
There are two ways to balance an equation with odd numbers. You can either multiply all the coefficients by 2, or multiply the odd numbers by 2. Either is fine, but multiplying by 2 is often easier.

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However, the fuels we burn are very rarely pure, and many contain **contaminants** oxidise when burned to form their oxides. We also **rarely burn fuels in pure oxygen** gases present in the air could react to form their oxides, too. **Incomplete combustion** supplies of oxygen. All of these lead to the formation of **pollutants** when a fuel is burned. To describe how each pollutant is formed and explain its effect on living organisms and the environment.

Task F

- Match the pollutant to its effect on living organisms and the environment.

Nitrous oxides, NO_x



Photochemical Smog
Smog is a form of air pollution which is harmful to our health



Harmful to the respiratory system



Sulfur dioxide, SO_2



Can cause damage to statues and buildings

Carbon monoxide, CO



Harmful to plants and animals, especially those which inhabit water



Small particles in the atmosphere reduce the amount of **radiation energy** reaching Earth's surface from the sun

Carbon particulates, C



Global dimming

- For each pollutant above, describe how it is formed.
- Incomplete combustion occurs when there is a poor supply of oxygen. Give an example of incomplete combustion of octane. State an environmental impact of the products of incomplete combustion.
- Fossil fuel power stations release sulfur dioxide.
 - State the source of the sulfur.
 - Explain the environmental impact of the release of sulfur dioxide.
 - Name the other cause of acid rain, explaining how it arises.



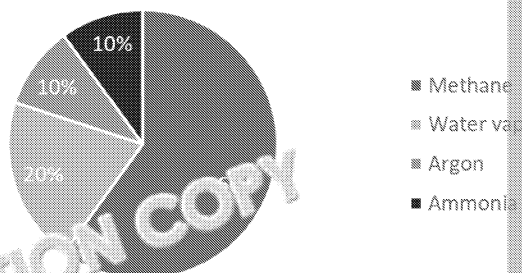
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Exam-style questions

1. An exoplanet, b-165, has an atmospheric composition shown below.

Percentage composition of exoplanet, b-165 / %



- a. Some scientists believe that living organisms could not have evolved on exoplanet b-165. Explain why.
- b. Exoplanet b-165 has an average surface temperature of 450 °C. Explain how the gases in its atmosphere could keep the surface temperature high.
2. Our world population has increased considerably over the past 50 years. Over this time, the composition of the atmosphere has also changed, and the average temperature of Earth's surface has increased.
- a. The increase in world population may have contributed to the changes in the atmosphere. Explain why.
- b. The increase in world population may have contributed to the changes in the atmosphere. Explain why.
- c. Describe two impacts of global warming.
- d. Some scientists dispute that global warming is due to the increase in greenhouse gases. Give one reason why some scientists dispute the theory.
3. Michelangelo's Statue of David originally stood outside the Piazza della Signoria in Florence. Soot has made the statue appear blackened, and it has become eroded by atmospheric pollutants.
- a. What causes the blackened surface? Explain how this pollutant is formed and how it is removed from the atmosphere.
- b. Car engines run on petrol or diesel. Explain how desulfurisation of these fuels can help reduce the blackening of statues such as Michelangelo's David.
- c. Nitrous oxides are pollutants formed inside car engines. Explain how they are formed and give an environmental impact.

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Chapter 12: Water (Required)


Introduction

It is impossible to understate how vital water is to our everyday lives. It is, however, easy to take for granted and forget about the myriad of processes required to get **clean, potable** water flowing from the tap. In this chapter, we will look at what potable water is, how it is obtained from different sources, and how to test for its purity.

Potable water is water which is safe for human consumption.

Pure water contains only H_2O molecules, with nothing else added to it.

We get our water from a variety of sources, and it is important to understand what may be contained in the water, what processes may be required to make the water potable, and why some are preferable over others.

Types of water	Sources of this type
Pure water is sometimes referred to as 'deionised' or 'distilled' water. It contains no dissolved substances.	This water is made by distillation, which involves boiling and condensation, removing any dissolved substances so that it contains only H_2O molecules.
Fresh water describes water with a low concentration of dissolved substances in it.	Groundwater is water found in underground rocks ('aquifers').
	Reservoirs are large natural or artificial lakes used as a source of water supply. They can be used to store fresh water for drier seasons.
	Rainwater, rivers, streams, lakes, ice caps and glaciers are also sources of fresh water.
Seawater contains high levels of dissolved salts and minerals	These natural saltwater supplies are found in seas and oceans.
Waste water may contain chemicals, organic matter, and dissolved substances, as well as insoluble solids.	Waste water is used water from homes, industry and agriculture. 

Analysis Test 1: pH testing water sources

1. Take a sample of the water to be tested and place it in a test tube.
2. Add a few drops of **universal indicator** to the sample.
3. Compare the colour of the solution to an indicator chart and decide on an approximate pH.

Pure water should have a neutral pH of around 7.

Saltwater has a slightly more alkaline pH of around 8.

Rainwater has a slightly more acidic pH, which can be as low as 5.5.

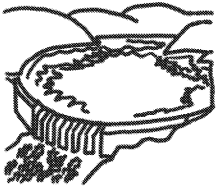
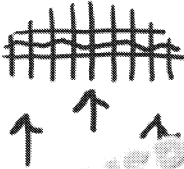

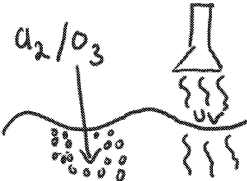
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Treating groundwater

In the UK, the silver lining of our often wet and rainy climate is that much of our tap water comes from groundwater. This is pumped to a water treatment works, where it goes through several processes to make it safe to drink.

	Water may be stored in reservoirs before the treatment process. This ensures we have enough water during the drier months.
	Screening involves passing the water through a mesh to remove large solids such as leaves and twigs.
	Settlement allows the water to pass through a tank where any further insoluble solids settle at the bottom.
	The water now needs to be made safe to drink. Chlorine or ozone are added to kill any bacteria within the water. UV light can also be used for disinfection.

Analysis test 2: Testing the boiling point

Pure substances have **fixed boiling points**, whereas impure substances will have a range of boiling points. Whether the water is 100 % pure, we check whether it boils at exactly 100 °C – this is a **definitive test** as it tells us if the water is pure or impure, not just if there are impurities.

Task A

- A sample of water is tested with universal indicator, and is found to have a pH of 8.
 - Suggest the source of the water.
 - Would you expect this water to have high or low concentrations of dissolved solids?
- Describe the process of screening, stating what is removed in this process.
- Explain how water is sterilised and what is achieved by this process.
- A student suggests that we should only drink **pure water**. Is this student correct? State the difference between pure water and potable water.
- State the sources of waste water. What might be contained in waste water?

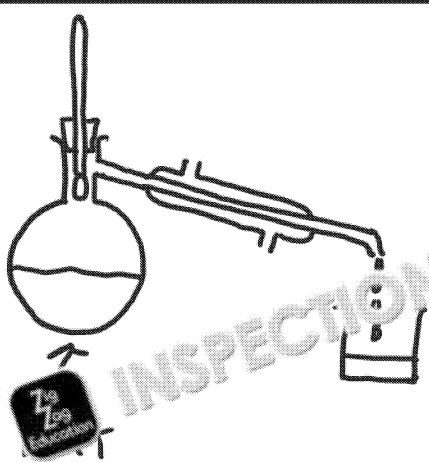
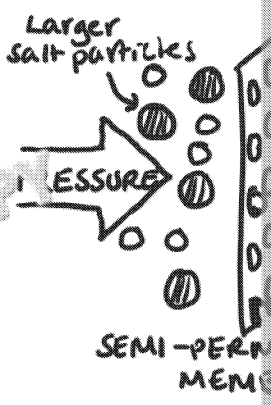
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Treating seawater

In countries with a much drier climate than the UK, desalination is used to obtain fresh water. It is done in two main ways: distillation and reverse osmosis.

Distillation	Reverse osmosis
	
<p>The water is heated to above 100 °C (the boiling point of water) which requires a large amount of energy. The steam produced passes into a condenser, where it cools and condenses to give pure water.</p>	<p>Under high pressure, water molecules pass through a semi-permeable membrane, but salt ions are blocked.</p>
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expensive – high amounts of heat energy required to heat the water. Harmful waste – since the waste produced is highly concentrated in salt, it is difficult to dispose of in a way which does not harm marine life. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Expensive – both the equipment and the energy required to obtain the high pressure are expensive. Inefficient – a large amount of water is produced from this process.

Clearly, both processes have a large energy cost associated with them when compared to other methods of water treatment, and so these methods are much more suited to drier climates such as Saudi Arabia where there are very low reserves of groundwater.

Analysis test 3: Identifying salt in a water sample

To check whether common salt, sodium chloride, is present in a water sample, we can carry out identification tests.

- Dip a clean nichrome wire into a sample of the water to be tested.
- Place the nichrome wire into a Bunsen burner flame and observe any changes to the flame colour. A bright yellow flame indicates the presence of sodium ions, Na^+ .
- To a different sample of the water, add a few drops of nitric acid, followed by a few drops of silver nitrate solution. Observe any changes. A white precipitate indicates that chloride ions, Cl^- , are present.

This technique tells us **if** there is salt present in the sample, but not **how much**.

Analysis test 4: Identifying dissolved salts

Different water sources contain different amounts of dissolved salts.

- Weigh an empty watch glass and record its mass.
- Take a 1 cm³ sample of the water and place it on the watch glass.
- Place the watch glass on a Bunsen burner and heat it until all the water has evaporated.
- Allow the watch glass to cool and weigh the bottom of the watch glass again.
- By comparing the masses, you can determine which water has the highest concentration of dissolved salts.

This technique can be used to compare the water purification process.

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Task B

1. A country with a hot climate produces drinking water in a different way to the UK. Do countries such as the UK not use this method routinely?
2. Explain in detail how seawater is purified by distillation in a laboratory.
3. Describe the differences between distillation and reverse osmosis.
4. Three students are testing an unknown liquid to determine if the water is likely to be potable. Student A suggests using cobalt chloride paper. Student B suggests testing the pH of the liquid. Student C suggests carrying out flame tests and the silver nitrate test. Which student, if any, will be correct? Why?

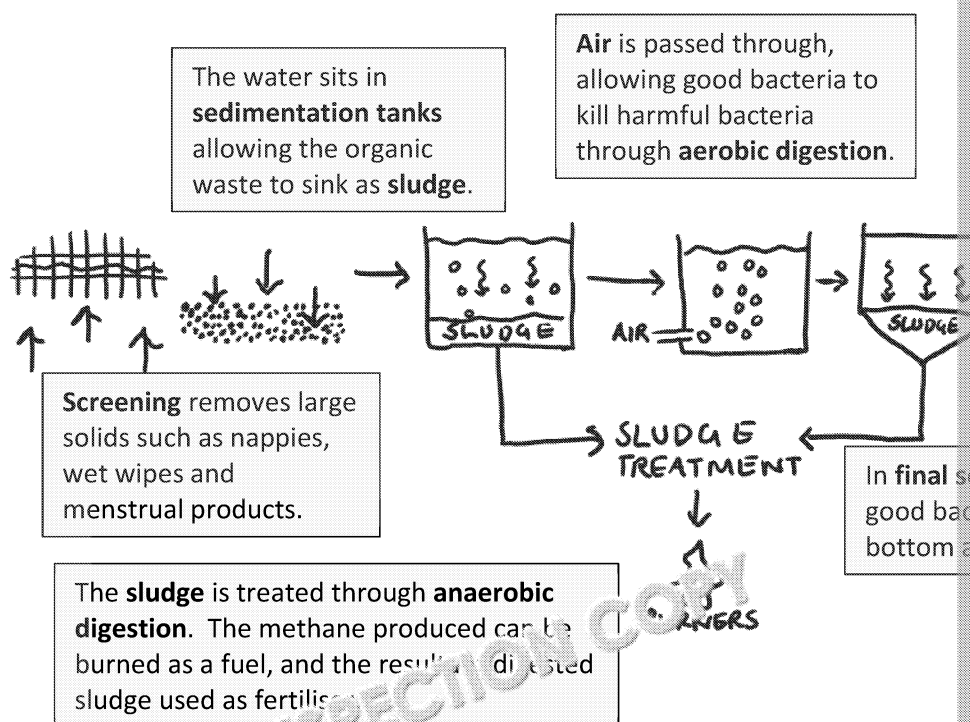
Treating waste water

To maintain a balanced water cycle, waste water from homes, industry and agriculture is collected and treated before being released into the environment.

Waste water contains a number of contaminants, including:

- Human and animal waste, which contains harmful bacteria
- Hazardous chemicals including toxic metal compounds
- Medicines and other drugs
- Fertilisers and pesticides

This means that the water requires more processing to make it potable.



Task

Sort the following statements into a Venn diagram of groundwater, waste water and treated water.

- | | |
|---------------------------------|--------------------------|
| • Contains dissolved solids | • Undergoes screening |
| • Contains organic waste | • Produces sludge |
| • Contains chemicals | • Requires aeration |
| • Sourced from rivers and lakes | • Requires sterilisation |
| • Low levels of bacteria | • Produces potable water |

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Exam-style questions

1. Potable water is crucial to our everyday lives.
 - a. Define the term 'potable water'.
 - b. Seawater can be changed into potable water by desalination. Name the seawater by desalination, and explain why desalination is only used when of potable water.
 - c. Two students investigated different water samples. The table below shows

Water	pH	Mass of dissolved
A	6.8	0.5
B	8.2	42
C	7.0	

- i. Copy and complete the table above to suggest the mass of dissolved
 - ii. Which sample is most likely to be tap water? Explain your answer.
 - iii. Identify two other sources of water.
2. Waste water treatment involves four key processes: screening, sedimentation
 - a. Give an example of a substance removed during screening.
 - b. Describe the process of aeration. Give a reason for this step.
 - c. What could be used to carry out the process of sterilisation? Give **two** examples.
 - d. The water produced through this process is **not** pure water. What is pure water?
 - e. How could water be tested to make sure that it is pure? Give the expected results for pure water.

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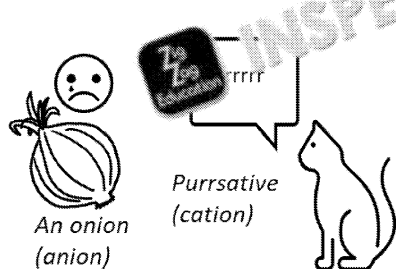
Chapter 13: Electrolysis

Introduction

Electrolysis is a fundamental topic in GCSE, as it bridges several key concepts, including properties of ionic substances, reactivity series, extraction of metals, redox reactions, and many practical applications that are crucial for understanding modern chemical processes, such as extracting aluminium, and the production of chemicals from brine.

Electrolysis is using **electricity** to **split / break up** the flow of electrical current through an electrolyte, which causes **chemical changes** to occur.

Two **electrodes** (conducting materials, usually graphite), are dipped into the electrolyte solution and connected to a power supply, causing the flow of electrons.

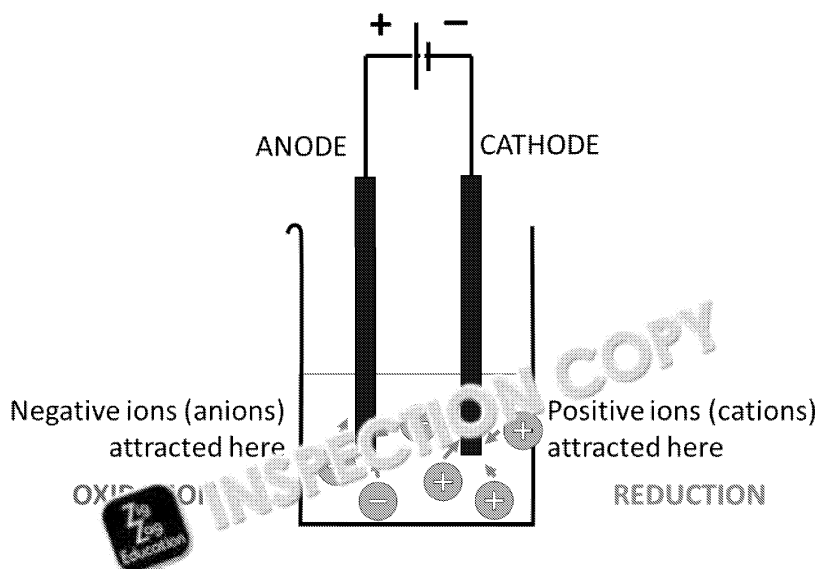


The **positive ions, cations**, are attracted towards the **negative** electrode (since opposites attract). **Negative ions, anions**, are attracted towards the **positive** electrode. An easy way to remember this is to think about **cutting on (an)ions** can make you **purr** - they are **purr-sative**!

Importantly, the ions have to be **free to move** for electrolysis to happen - the substance must be **molten or in solution**.

Once at the electrodes, **redox reactions** occur. One species will **lose electrons** and become **oxidised**, whilst the other will **gain electrons**, becoming **reduced**. A great way to remember the reactions occurring at each electrode is to think about an **onion** and a **red cat**. Yes, really!

ANode → **OX**idation, **RED**uction → **CATHode**. Pulling these ideas together:



You will need to be able to:

- Describe the process of electrolysis
- Predict the products of electrolysis of molten ionic compounds and solutions
- Explain how electrolysis is used to extract metals such as aluminium
- Write half-equations for the reactions occurring at each electrode during electrolysis

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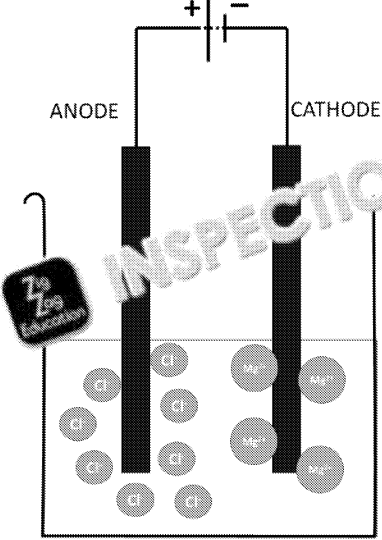
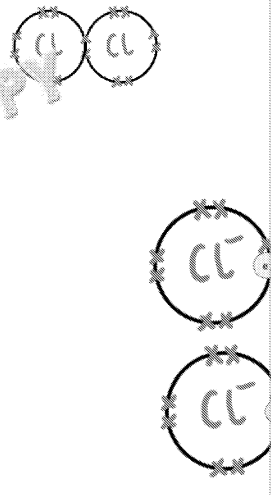
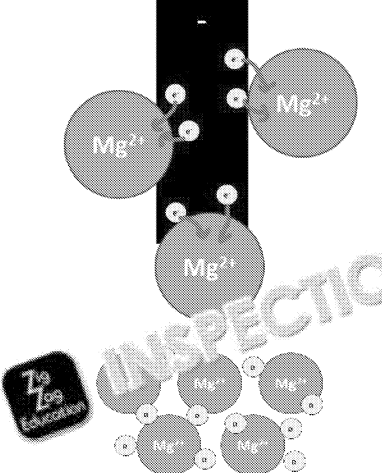


Electrolysis of molten ionic compounds

One way of producing an electrolyte solution is by melting an ionic compound. This enables the ions to be able to move towards the oppositely charged electrode. When the ionic compound is electrolysed:

- the metal is produced at the cathode
- the non-metal is produced at the anode

For example, if magnesium bromide is heated above its melting point and electrolysed:

	
<p>Magnesium chloride has a high melting point – 714 °C. The ions in molten magnesium bromide can <i>slide over one another</i> – they are liquid.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Magnesium ions are attracted to the -ve electrode (cathode) and move towards it. Chloride ions are attracted to the +ve electrode (anode) and move towards it. <p>This is because they are oppositely charged. When the electrodes are connected to an external power supply, electrons can begin to flow.</p>	<p>At the positive electrode:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Each chloride ion loses one electron from its outer shell to reform a chlorine atom. Two chlorine atoms combine to form a chlorine molecule (Cl₂), which has a full outer shell of electrons. Since chlorine is a gas, it rises and we see bubbles at the electrode.
	<p>Mg²⁺ + 2e⁻ → Mg</p> <p>OXIDATION</p> <p>2Cl⁻ → Cl₂</p> <p>REDUCTION</p>
<p>At the negative electrode:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Magnesium ions each gain two electrons. Magnesium reforms its metallic lattice structure, and the electrons become delocalised within the structure. We would see shiny metallic magnesium coating the outside of the electrode. 	<p>We can represent the electron transfer at each electrode using half equations.</p> <p>The magnesium ions are reduced.</p> <p>The chloride ions are oxidised.</p>

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Task A

The following questions relate to the electrolysis of **molten ionic compounds**.

1. Copy and complete the table by filling in the gaps.

Formula of ionic compound	Product at positive electrode	Product at negative electrode	Oxidation half-equation
NaBr	Br ₂ – bromine		
	O ₂ – oxygen	Fe – Iron	
Na ₂ O		Na – sodium	
		Al – aluminium	2Cl ⁻ (l) → Cl ₂
	Br ₂ – bromine	Pb – lead	

2. This question relates to the molten electrolysis of barium chloride.
- Why can barium chloride not be electrolysed in its solid state?
 - Give the name and formula of the product formed at the **positive** electrode. State an observation seen at this electrode.
 - Construct a half-equation to show the **oxidation** process occurring. Explain.

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Extracting aluminium by molten electrolysis

Some metals can be extracted by **reduction with carbon**. This only works if the metal is **less reactive** than carbon. For **more reactive** metals such as aluminium, electrolysis must be used.

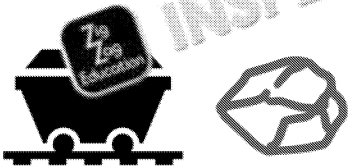
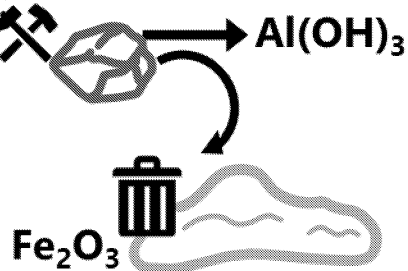
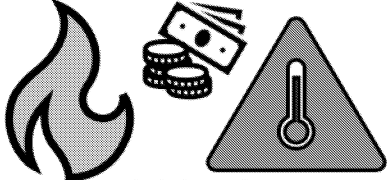
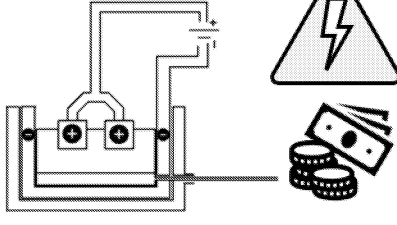
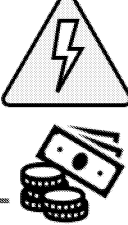
Aluminium is the **most abundant metal on Earth**, but it is very expensive. This is due to the high energy costs associated with its extraction.

The weight of aluminium is around one-third the weight of steel. It has a high strength : density ratio, making it ideal for many uses.

Key points

- The...
- The...
- Gra...
- but...
- rep...
- Liq...
- wh...

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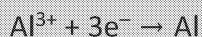
		<p>Al(OH)₃</p> <p>Al(OH)₃</p>
<p>Bauxite, an ore containing aluminium oxide, is mined by open-cast mining. An ore is a rock containing enough mineral to make it profitable to extract.</p>	<p>The ore is separated from rocky impurities, forming aluminium hydroxide. Waste material rich in iron(III) oxide must be stored in lagoons.</p>	<p>The a...</p> <p>heate...</p> <p>oxide...</p> <p>The m...</p> <p>extre...</p>
<p>Al₂O₃ + cryolite</p>  <p>900 °C</p>		
<p>The aluminium oxide is mixed with molten cryolite. This reduces the melting point to 900 °C. There is a high energy cost to heat the mixture.</p>	<p>The mixture is placed inside the electrolysis cell. Graphite electrodes are used, and the cell has a steel case. There is a high energy cost to produce the electrical current needed.</p>	<p>Alum...</p> <p>meta...</p> <p>costs...</p> <p>It is li...</p> <p>stron...</p> <p>uses...</p>

The electrolysis cell looks a little different as this is an **industrial process**, rather than a small scale within the lab. The principles of how it works are the same, though.

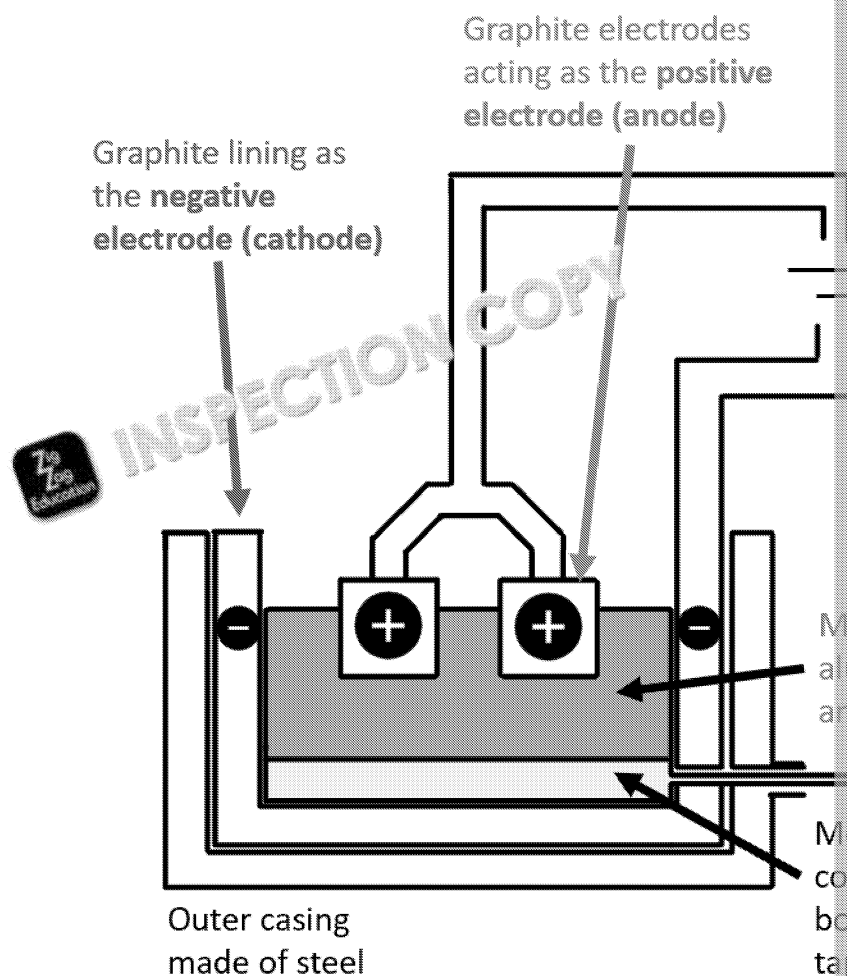
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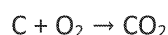
Molten aluminium is produced at the **negative electrode** (cathode); it is **reduced**



Oxygen is produced at the **positive electrode** (anode)



The problem: the electrodes are made out of **carbon (graphite)**. When oxygen is produced at the positive electrode, the high temperatures required, the electrodes **combust**:



This means that over time the electrodes get **worn down** and **need to be regularly replaced**, leading to a high cost of the process.

Task B

The process of metal extraction using molten electrolysis can be used to extract lithium.

- Write the equations for the reduction of lithium ions.
- Explain why a molten salt is often used as the molten electrolyte.
- Explain which electrode the lithium ions move towards during the process.
- Explain why the process has a high energy cost.
- Lithium is one of the key components in electrical vehicle batteries. Lithium is scarce. Explain why recycled lithium batteries should be used in place of lithium.
- The positive electrode in a lithium ion battery consists of LiCoO_2 . Calculate the percentage of lithium in this compound to the nearest whole number.
- Reports of lithium ion cell fires have raised concerns about the safety of the process. Explain why lithium shows this chemical behaviour.

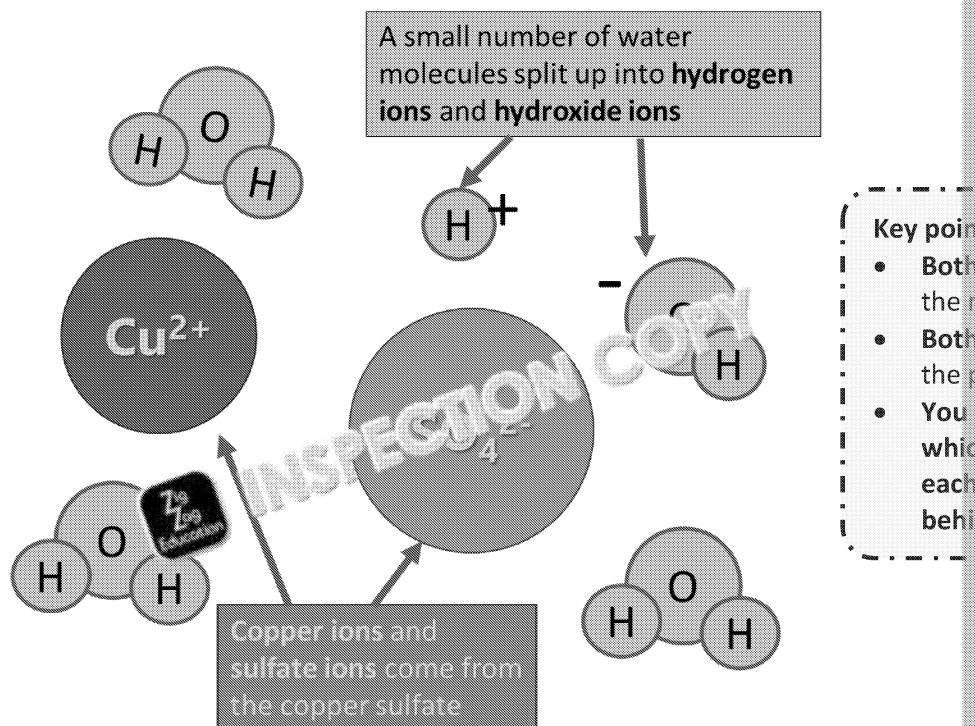
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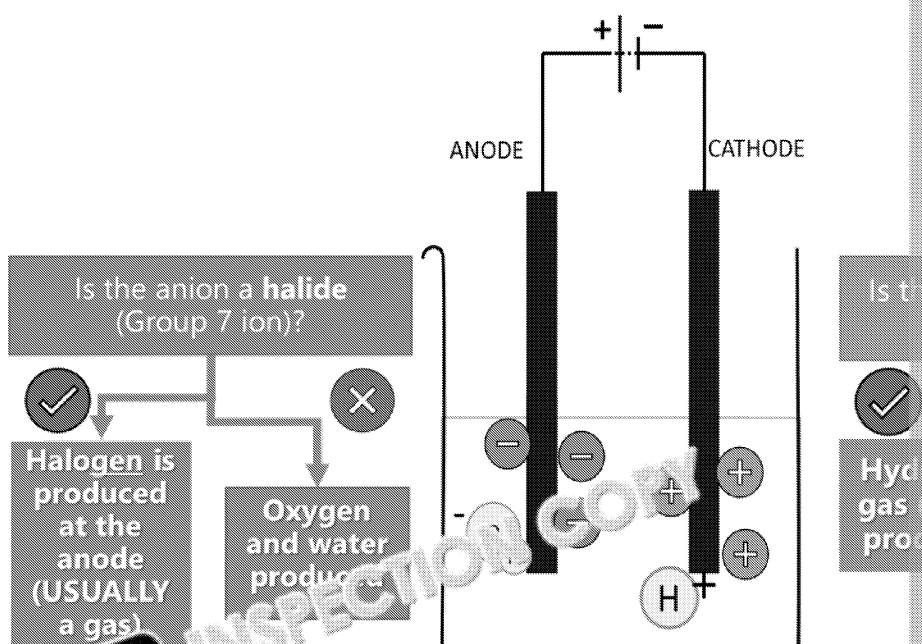


Electrolysis of aqueous solutions

Consider a solution of copper sulfate. There are **four** ions present in the solution:



What happens next depends on which ions are present. There are two rules; one



In our copper sulfate example:

- Copper is **less reactive** than hydrogen, so **copper** will be produced at the positive electrode
 $\text{Cu}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cu}$
- There are **no halide ions** present in the solution, so **oxygen and water** will be produced at the negative electrode
 $4\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 4\text{e}^-$

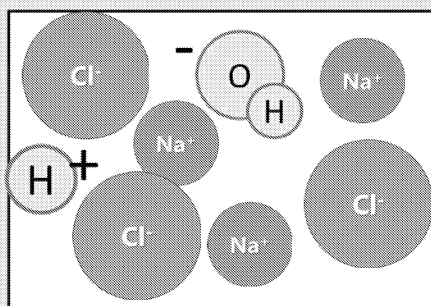
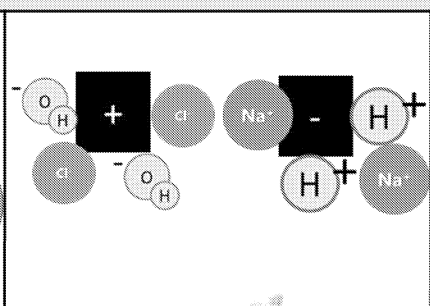
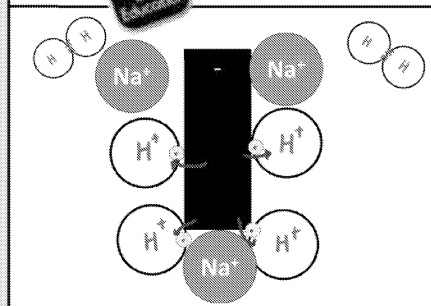
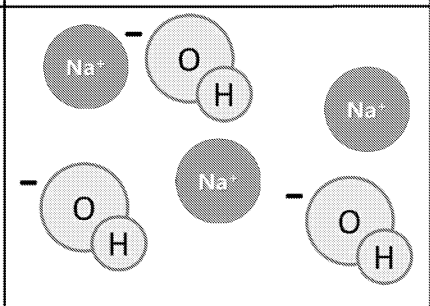
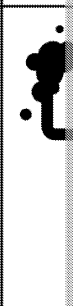
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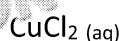
Application: The electrolysis of brine (concentrated sodium chloride solution)

Brine from seawater can be electrolysed to form three very useful products.

		
<p>Brine is a concentrated sodium chloride solution. When electrolysed, three useful products are produced. There are four ions present in the solution.</p>	<p>When an external voltage is applied, the ions move to the oppositely charged electrode.</p>	<p>At the (anode) since chlor... The... the s...</p>
		
<p>At the negative electrode (cathode), hydrogen is reduced, since sodium is more reactive. Fizzing of hydrogen gas would be seen. The sodium ions remain in solution.</p>	<p>Once the solution is electrolysed, all that is left behind in the solution is sodium hydroxide. The solution would be highly alkaline.</p>	<p>Sodium prod... Hydro... hydro... prod... Chlor... bleac...</p>

Task C

- For each of the substances below:
 - State which product is produced at each electrode.
 - Write half-equations to represent the oxidation and reduction processes.



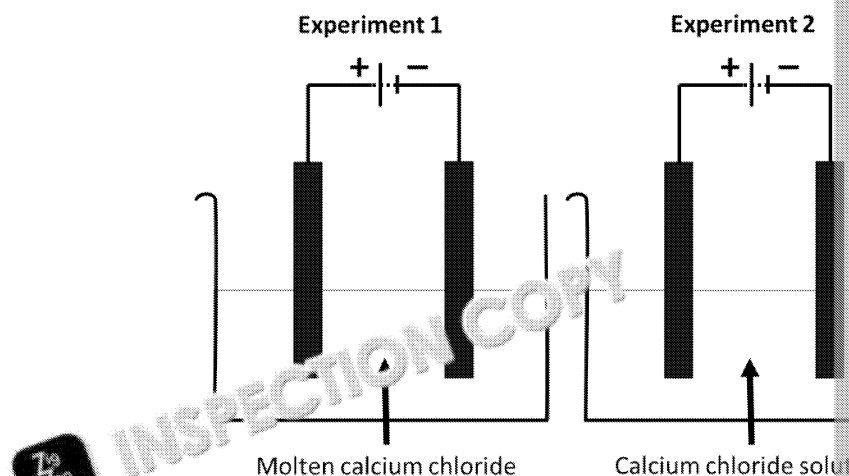
- During the electrolysis of an aqueous solution of calcium chloride:
 - Describe the observations you would make at each electrode.
 - Explain how you would confirm the identity of any gases produced.
 - Construct a half-equation representing the reduction reaction.

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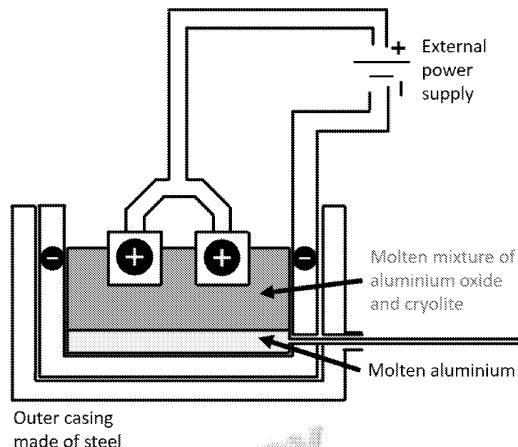


Exam-style questions

1. The ionic compound copper chloride is electrolysed in two experiments using shown below.



- The calcium chloride used in **Experiment 1** is molten, and in **Experiment 2** is in solution. Explain why this is necessary before carrying out electrolysis.
 - Explain how calcium is produced in **Experiment 1**.
 - Name the gas produced at the positive electrode in **both** experiments.
 - Construct a balanced half-equation for the reaction at the **negative electrode** in **Experiment 2**.
 - Is the product produced at the **negative electrode** the same in both experiments? Explain your answer and identify the product(s).
2. Aluminium is a very useful metal. It is not found in its elemental form, and must be extracted by electrolysis.



- Explain why aluminium **cannot** be extracted by reduction with carbon.
- At which electrode does aluminium form? Explain why, and construct a balanced half-equation for the reaction occurring at this electrode.
- Explain why the positive electrode needs to be regularly replaced.

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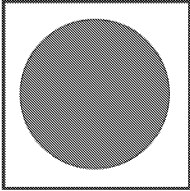

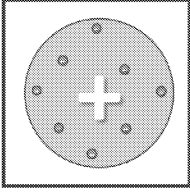
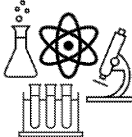
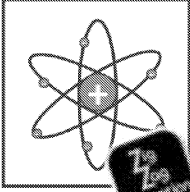

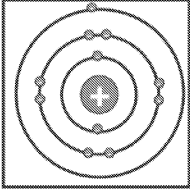

Chapter 14: How Scientific Theories and Theories Develop Over Time

Introduction

As well as key content knowledge, the AQA specification focuses on 'Working Scientifically'. This particularly emphasises the **development of scientific thinking**: how methods and why, limitations of science, and the importance of peer review in the scientific process. This section will focus on the development of the atomic model, the periodic table, and the evolution of the atmosphere.

Development of the atomic model

Now that you are approaching the end of your GCSE, it is easy to take the fundamental concepts for granted. Our concept of an atom has evolved over many years as **scientific understanding** has improved. This has enabled us to **draw conclusions**, as well as carry out **calculations** about the atom. Rather than just memorising facts, this topic focuses more on key comparisons between the models, and the transition from one model to the next.

Model	Scientist and year	What led to the change?	Key features
	Dalton 1803	 THEORY	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Atoms are solid spheres Each element has its own unique atoms
	Thomson 1904	 EXPERIMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Deflection experiment showed that atoms contain both positive and negative charges Atoms are a sphere of positive charge with electrons studded in it
	Rutherford (with Geiger and Marsden) 1911	 EXPERIMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Atoms are mostly empty space with a positively charged central nucleus Electrons orbit in shells This was discovered by experiment. Most α-particles went straight through, but some were deflected
	Bohr 1913	 EXPERIMENT	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Emission spectra led to the discovery of shells These are not all at the same energy level, but at fixed distances around the nucleus (hence planetary)

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Task A

- The first
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Similarly for the periodic table, you need to know the key changes which led to the table we use today. A broad overview of the early steps is given below, but the key changes relate to **Mendeleev** and the changes he made, and comparisons to the version in

Page 87 of 110

Mendeleev's periodic table

Mendeleev took some very important steps when developing his periodic table. Some of the modern-day version still in use today.



Mostly ordered by **atomic mass**...



...but swapped the elements he felt did not belong to the correct group (e.g. tellurium and iodine).



Once discovered, the Noble Gases fit perfectly into the table without disrupting the pattern.

	H							
He	Li	Be	B	C	N	O	F	
Ne	Na	Mg	Al	Si	P	S	Cl	
Ar	K	Ca	Eka-B?	Ti	V	Cr	Mn	Fe
	Cu	Zn	Eka-Al?	Eka-Si?	As	Se	Br	
Kr	Rb	Sr	Y	Zr	Nb	Mo	Tc	Ru
	Ag	Cd	In	Sn	Sb	Te	I	
Xe	Cs	Ba	Di?	Pb	Bi	Po	At	Ra
	Au	Hg						
Rn								

Once protons were discovered, it was found that Mendeleev had **unknowingly** ordered elements by their atomic (proton) number!



Later, elements were discovered which matched his predictions!



So, he strengthened his theory by predicting the properties of missing elements.

Task B

- Describe how Mendeleev arranged elements in his periodic table. (3 marks)
- Explain why Mendeleev's periodic table was **not** initially accepted by the scientific community. (2 marks)
- Compare Mendeleev's periodic table with Newland's octaves. (4 marks)
- Compare Mendeleev's periodic table with the modern-day version. (4 marks)
- Describe and explain how the discovery of new elements and advancements in technology have contributed to the development of the modern periodic table, building on Mendeleev's version. (6 marks)

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Phelps w...
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The power and limitations of science

It is crucial to understand that science can be robust and founded on evidence, but it is not perfect. Science allows us to understand many aspects of the world around us through observation and experimentation. It enables the advancement of technology to find solutions to complex problems. Science is continuously evolving, which means that data may be incomplete, etc. due to limitations in methods. Additionally, scientific conclusions can change with new evidence. It is important that data is **reliable** to allow us to draw reasonable conclusions and make informed decisions. If scientific claims lack credibility, then it is crucial that any scientific claims are **peer-reviewed**.

There are also ethical considerations to take into account. New technologies are being developed, such as artificial intelligence, and new materials developed, such as nanoparticles. We need to ask questions about the impact on society and our environment. Balancing the benefits and risks of new technologies involves considering factors like safety, fairness, and the well-being of society.

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Task C

1. Explain why scientific data may sometimes be uncertain, incomplete or unreliable. Give examples in support of your explanation.
2. Discuss the ethical considerations that should be taken into account when choosing an alternative. Include both potential benefits and harms in your discussion.
3. Evaluate the use of nanoparticles in consumer products.
4. Explain why life cycle assessments are beneficial, and why they can be flawed.
5. Explain why an individual and industry should reduce their carbon footprint. Include ethical considerations in your arguments.
6. Explain why it can be difficult for an individual to reduce their carbon footprint. Explain why the methods used to measure carbon footprints can sometimes be flawed.

Exam-style questions

1. This question is about the development of the atomic model.
 - a. Describe the model of the atom presented by Dalton, giving the key features.
 - b. Describe the plum pudding model of the atom.
 - c. State the unexpected observation from the alpha particle scattering experiment. Explain the changes made to the atomic model as a result.
 - d. Compare the planetary model of the atom with the nuclear model of the atom.
2. This question is about the periodic table and its development.
 - a. Describe the key features of the modern periodic table.
 - b. Döbereiner arranged elements in triads. Describe the benefit and limitations of this approach.
 - c. Describe **two** things Mendeleev did which meant his periodic table was accepted by the scientific community.
 - d. Explain why there are differences between Mendeleev's periodic table and the modern periodic table.
3. This question is about scientific evidence.
 - a. Explain why scientists cannot be certain how the modern atmosphere evolved.
 - b. Explain why scientists cannot be sure about the long-term impacts of climate change.
 - c. Evaluate the role of life cycle assessments (LCAs) in reducing the carbon footprint. Explain why it can be challenging to conduct accurate LCAs.

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Challenges – A Level AQA Chemistry

Introduction

It is important to understand **that nothing in this section is required for the GCSE**. This is a set of challenges for students considering studying Chemistry at GCE Advanced Level.

There are no exam questions in this section; each part contains some information and some challenges. In each case it is the thinking and the effort to come up with your own answers that counts.

These are not tasks for the search engines of the Internet – they are tasks for your brain!

You don't have to be right all the time, but there is the effort that counts. At the end of this publication you will find some suggestions and possible answers and solutions, but remember, they are not the only answers. Like real science, not all the answers are valid and well tested by exploration and experimentation.

1. Molar volumes

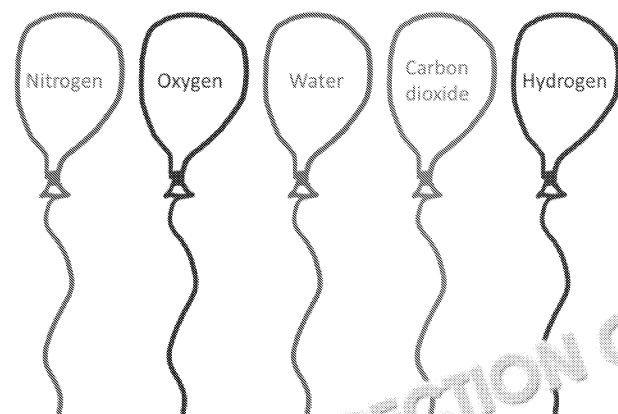
Avogadro's hypothesis on molar gas volume was based on previous laws by Boyle and Dalton. In liquids, which are packed tightly together, gas particles have vast distances between them. The actual size of the particles themselves is almost negligible; the majority of the volume is empty space, not the particles themselves.

This means that a given volume of Gas A would contain the same number of particles as a given volume of Gas B, even if the particles themselves are very different.

Challenge 1.1 – Moles of gas

Questions

Five 15 dm³ balloons were filled with five different gases, as shown below.



Have a go at completing the table below with information about each gas.

- What do you notice about the masses of the balloons?
- What do you notice about the volumes of the balloons?
- Which factors might need to be considered in the molar gas volume law?

Name of substance in balloon	Chemical formula of substance in balloon	M _r of substance in balloon	Number of moles of gas in balloon / mol	Mass of balloon / g
Nitrogen				
Oxygen				
Water				
Carbon dioxide				
Hydrogen				

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2. Ideal gases

When using the molar gas volume law, we have made a number of assumptions about the gas. We have also not considered two very important factors: temperature and pressure.

- What impact would increasing the temperature of the balloons have on their volume? Would this have changed the number of particles present?
- What impact would increasing the pressure of the balloons have on their volume? Would this have changed the number of particles present?

To take these important factors into account, Benoit Paul Emile Clapeyron combined Boyle's law and Charles' law to give us the **ideal gas law**.

$$PV = nRT$$

P is the pressure of the gas in Pa
V is the volume of gas in m³
n is the number of moles of the gas
R is the gas constant
T is the temperature in kelvin

Conversion factors
1 kPa = 1000 Pa
1 cm³ = 10⁻⁶ m³
R = 8.31 J K⁻¹ mol⁻¹
°C + 273 = K



Challenge 1.2 – Ideal gases

Let's look at our five balloons again. Assuming that the balloons are all kept at room pressure (101 kPa).

Questions

Calculate the moles of each gas again, and hence the mass of the balloon, the number of atoms. The gas constant, R, is equal to 8.31 J K⁻¹ mol⁻¹.

Name of substance	Pressure / Pa	Volume of balloon / m ³	Temperature / K	Moles in balloon / mol	Mass of balloon / g
Nitrogen					
Oxygen					
Water					
Carbon dioxide					
Hydrogen					

Further reading

Van der Waals equation, Redlich-Kwong equations, and if you really fancy a challenge, Benedict-Webb-Rubin equation. These are primarily for non-ideal gases!

What do you notice about these values? Are they reasonable? It might seem like a small difference, but it's the difference between the number of molecules! Even this value is based on a number of different assumptions which consider more approximations which consider real gases... Luckily, we only assume 'ideal' gases.

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Answers

Chapter 1

Task A

- Potassium: (2, 8, 8, 1)
Chlorine: (2, 8, 7)
- Potassium atoms need to **lose 1 electron** to achieve the electron structure of argon
 - Group 1 elements **lose 1 electron**, forming 1+ ions
 - (2, 8, 8)⁺
- Chlorine atoms need to **gain 1 electron** to achieve the electron structure of argon
 - Group 7 elements **gain 1 electron**, forming 1- ions
 - (2, 8, 8)⁻

Task B

- Sodium + fluorine → sodium fluoride
 - Aluminium** + chlorine → aluminium chloride
 - Silver bromide → silver bromide
 - Hydrogen + chlorine → **hydrogen chloride**
- Iron(III) bromide: FeBr₃
 - Silver chloride: AgCl
 - Sodium iodide: NaI
 - Hydrogen fluoride: HF
- 2Fe + 3Br₂ → 2FeBr₃
 - 2Ag + Cl₂ → 2AgCl
 - 2Na + I₂ → 2NaI
 - H₂ + F₂ → 2HF

Task C

- TS₂
- 7
- Solid, dark in colour
- TS⁻
- FeTS₃
 - HTs
 - NaTs
- Less** reactive, more electron shells, less attraction between the incoming electron and the nucleus, therefore harder to gain an electron to form an ion

Exam-style questions

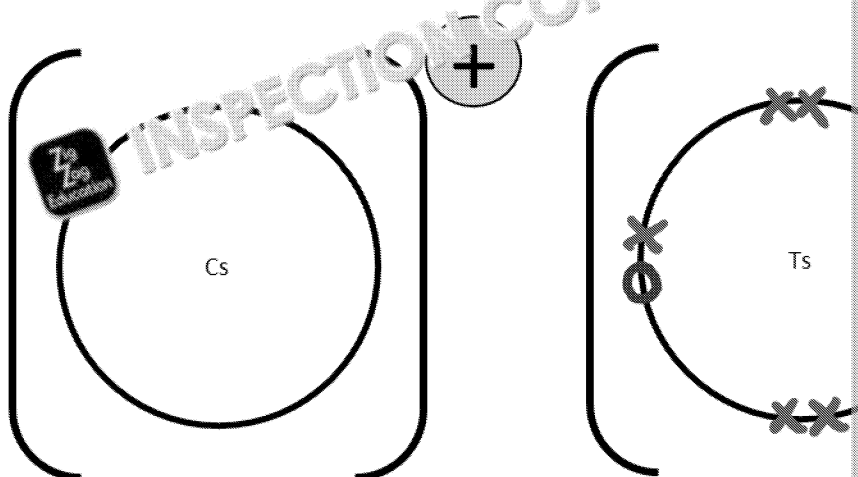
- Any three from the following (max. 3 marks):
 - Lilac flame (1)
 - Fizzes / gas produced / effervescence (1)
 - Moves on the surface of the water (1)
 - Floats (1)
 - Atoms get larger (1) **OR** shielding increases (1)
Attraction between nucleus and outer electrons decreases (1)
Therefore reactivity increases as easier to lose an electron (1)
 - 2Na + 2H₂O → 2NaOH + H₂
1 mark for correct species, 1 mark for balancing. Ignore state symbols.
- Any two from the following (max. 2 marks):
 - Shiny (1)
 - Black (1)
 - Solid/Crystalline (1)
 - Molecules increase in size / more electron shells (1)
Forces between molecules / intermolecular forces increase / become stronger (1)
Therefore more energy is required to overcome the forces (and boil the substance) (1)
 - Fluorine (1)
Smallest atoms / least electron shells (1)
Least shielding (1)
So strongest attraction between incoming/gained electron and the nucleus (1)

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3. a. $2\text{Cs} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow 2\text{CsOH} + \text{H}_2$
1 mark for correct species, 1 mark for balancing. Ignore state symbols.
- b. Any one from (max. 1 mark):
- Flame produced (1)
 - More gas produced / more fizzing (1)
 - Explosion (1)
- c. Any three from:
- Caesium is the largest atom (1)
 - Least attraction between valence/outer electrons and the nucleus (1)
 - More shielding (1)
 - Therefore easier to lose its outer electron (1)
4. a. $2\text{Cs} + \text{Ts}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{CsTs}$ 1 mark for correct formulae, 1 mark for correct balance
- b.



Cs showing empty electron shell (1)

Ts showing full shell (note: dots or crosses accepted, but it is **good practice** to use a different symbol) (1)

Square brackets showing the ion charges in the top right corner (1)

Chapter 2

Task A

1. a. Al – metallic
b. MgO – ionic
c. Br₂ – covalent
d. BaCl₂ – ionic
e. CH₄ – covalent
f. O₂ – covalent
g. Na₂O – ionic
h. Ca – metallic

2.

Type of chemical bond	Ionic	Covalent
What happens to the electrons?	Electrons are transferred from the metal to the non-metal	Electrons are shared between the atoms
What type of atoms show this bonding?	Metal + non-metal	Non-metals
Examples	MgO, Na ₂ O	Br ₂ , CH ₄ , O ₂


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Task B

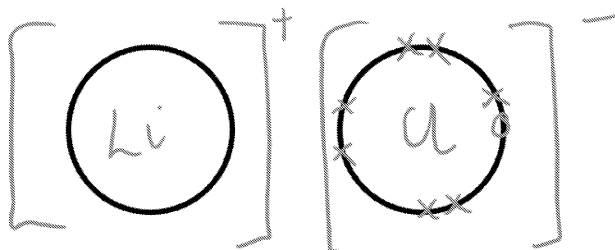
- Ionic bonding
 - Giant ionic lattice: regular arrangement of $1+$ and $1-$ ions (*must be specific to in 3D)
- Sodium is a metal. Sodium $1+$ ions arranged in regular arrangement, surrounded by
- Al – metallic
 - MgO – giant ionic lattice
 - Br₂ – simple molecular
 - BaCl₂ – giant ionic lattice
 - CH₄ – simple molecular
 - O₂ – simple molecular
 - Na₂O – giant ionic lattice
 - Ca – metallic

Task C

Model	Benefit	
 Ball and stick model	By representing ions as balls and the 'bond' as a stick, it allows us to easily see the geometric relationships in the structure	Could cover that each
Dot-and-cross diagram	Clearly represents the electron structure of each ion	Does ions billic
3D space-filling diagram	Gives a good representation of how the ions are packed in three dimensions	Diffic
2D space-filling diagram	Shows the relative sizes of each ion and is easy to draw	Does struc

Exam-style questions

-



Correct electron structures (note: can be dots or crosses shown) (1)

Square brackets and correct charges (1)

- Lithium chloride has a **giant ionic lattice** (1)
Held together by **strong electrostatic forces** (1)
Over 3D/many layers (1)
Which require lots of energy to overcome (1)
- MUST BE A COMPARISON**
Ammonia is simple molecular WHEREAS diamond is giant covalent network (1)
Ammonia held together by simple molecular forces (1)
Which are weak (1)
WHEREAS diamond is held together by strong covalent network (1)
With **many** strong bonds (1)
Which take more energy to overcome (1)
 - Positive ions arranged in a regular lattice (1)
Surrounded by a sea of electrons (1)
Which are delocalised (1)
And can move to carry charge/current (1)

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Chapter 3

Task A: Moles, mass and Avogadro

- A_r of carbon = 12.0 So 12 g of carbon = 1 mole
- M_r of H_2O = $(2 \times 1.0) + 16.0 = 18.0$
mass = $n \times M_r$
= 0.5×18.0
= 9.0 g (2 sf)
- Number of particles = $n \times 6.02 \times 10^{23}$
= $2 \times 6.02 \times 10^{23}$
= 1.20×10^{24} molecules (2 sf)
- M_r of NaCl = 23.0 + 35.5 = 58.5
 $n = \text{mass} / M_r = 1.5 / 58.5$
= 0.026 moles (2 sf)
- $n = 4.82 \times 10^{22} / 6.02 \times 10^{23}$
= 0.08007 moles
 M_r of oxygen (O_2) = $2 \times 16.0 = 32.0$ mass = $n \times M_r = 0.08007 \times 32.0 = 2.56$ g

Note: There is no need to round your answer during working, just the final answer.

Task B: Concentration

- $500 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.5 \text{ dm}^3$ concentration = $6 / 0.5 = 12 \text{ g dm}^{-3}$
- $250 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.25 \text{ dm}^3$ concentration = $0.025 / 0.25 = 0.1 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$
- M_r of glucose = $(6 \times 12.0) + (12 \times 1.0) + (6 \times 16.0) = 180.0$
 $n = 9 / 180 = 0.05 \text{ mol}$
 $750 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.75 \text{ dm}^3$
concentration = $0.05 / 0.75 = 0.0666666... = 0.67 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$
- $250 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.25 \text{ dm}^3$
 - concentration = $5 / 0.25 = 20 \text{ g dm}^{-3}$
 - M_r of sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) = $(2 \times 1.0) + 32.0 + (4 \times 16.0) = 98.0$
concentration = $20 / 98 = 0.20 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$
- $300 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.3 \text{ dm}^3$
 - concentration = $3.6 / 0.3 = 12 \text{ g dm}^{-3}$
 - M_r calcium chloride ($CaCl_2$) = $40 + (2 \times 35.5) = 111$
concentration = $12 / 111 = 0.11 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$

Note: It is important to use the correct chemical formula in these questions.

Task C: Gas volumes

- $96 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.096 \text{ dm}^3$ $n = 0.096 / 24 = 0.004$ moles
- $36 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.036 \text{ dm}^3$ $n = 0.036 / 24 = 0.0015$ moles
- $n = 120 / 24 = 5$ moles
- volume = $3 \times 24 = 72 \text{ dm}^3$
- $60 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.06 \text{ dm}^3$
 - $n = 0.06 / 24 = 0.0025$ moles
 - M_r of N_2 = $(2 \times 14.0) = 28.0$ mass = $0.0025 \times 28.0 = 0.07$ g
 - Number of molecules = $0.0025 \times 6.02 \times 10^{23} = 1.51 \times 10^{21}$ molecules

Exam-style questions

- M_r of SF_6 = $32 + (6 \times 19) = 146$ (1) mass = $0.025 \times 146 = 3.65$ g (1)
 - Number of molecules = $0.025 \times (6.02 \times 10^{23}) = 1.51 \times 10^{22}$ (1)
 - For every 1 molecule, there is 1 sulfur atom
So number of sulfur atoms = 1.51×10^{22} (1)
For every 1 molecule, there are 6 fluorine atoms
So number of fluorine atoms = 9.06×10^{22} (1)
- $150 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.15 \text{ dm}^3$
 - Concentration = $4.2 / 0.15 = 28.3 \text{ g dm}^{-3}$ (1)
 - M_r of ammonium nitrate NH_4NO_3 = $(14 \times 2) + (1 \times 4) + (3 \times 16) = 80$ (1)
Concentration = $28.3 / 80 = 0.354 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ (1)
- $500 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.5 \text{ dm}^3$
 - Number of moles = $0.5 / 24 = 0.021 \text{ mol}$ (1 mark for answer, 1 mark for 2 sf)
 - M_r of N_2 = $(14 \times 2) = 28$ (1)
Mass = $28 \times 0.021 = 0.59$ g (1) Accept 0.58 if 0.0208333... is used as number of moles
 - Number of molecules = $0.021 \times 6.02 \times 10^{23} = 1.26 \times 10^{22}$ (1)
Each molecule contains 2 nitrogen atoms, so number of atoms = 2.53×10^{22} atoms (1)
- $250 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.25 \text{ dm}^3$
 M_r of $KMnO_4$ = $39 + 55 + (4 \times 16) = 158$ (1)
Number of moles of $KMnO_4$ = $0.65 / 158 = 0.0041 \text{ mol}$ (1)
Concentration = $0.0041 / 0.25 = 0.016 \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$ (1)

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Chapter 4

Task A

- 44 g of carbon dioxide
- 15.7 g of iron(II) sulfide
- 31.7 g of magnesium chloride
- 2.8 g of calcium oxide
- 0.12 mol dm⁻³ sodium hydroxide
- 0.43 mol dm⁻³ sodium hydroxide
- 2.0 dm³ ammonia

Task B

- $4\text{Fe} + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3$
 - $n(\text{Fe}) = 1 \text{ mol}$
 $n(\text{O}_2) = 2 \text{ mol}$
Required ratio = 4 : 3
So 1 mol of iron would need 0.75 mol of oxygen – oxygen is in excess and iron is in deficit.
If only 1 mol of iron is available, only 0.5 mol of iron oxide can be produced, so
 $\text{Mass}(\text{Fe}_2\text{O}_3) = 150 \text{ g}$
- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 - $n(\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4) = 2 \times 50 / 1000 = 0.1 \text{ mol}$
 $n(\text{NaOH}) = 4 \times 75 / 1000 = 0.3$
Required ratio: 1 : 2
0.1 mol of H₂SO₄ would require only 0.2 mol of NaOH, so NaOH is in excess and H₂SO₄ is in deficit.
If only 0.1 mol of H₂SO₄, only 0.1 mol of Na₂SO₄ produced
 $\text{Mass}(\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4) = 0.1 \times 142.0 = 14.2 \text{ g}$
- $n(\text{NH}_3) = 15 / 24 = 0.625 \text{ mol}$
 $n(\text{O}_2) = 18 / 32 = 0.563 \text{ mol}$
Required ratio: 4 : 5
So 0.625 mol of NH₃ would require 0.781 mol of O₂ – but we have only 0.563, so O₂ is in deficit.
0.563 mol of O₂ would produce 0.45 mol of NO
 $v(\text{NO}) = 0.45 \times 24 = 10.8 \text{ dm}^3$

Task C

- 2.54 g of copper = 0.04 mol 0.72 g of water = 0.04 mol
If copper and water are in a 1 : 1 ratio of moles, they are in a 1 : 1 ratio in the equation
 $\text{Copper oxide} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{Cu} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
If copper and water are in a 1 : 1 ratio, copper and oxygen must also be in a 1 : 1 ratio.
 $\text{CuO} + \text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{Cu} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$

Chapter 5

Task A

- Similarities: both are pure metals, both have positive ions arranged in regular lattice, delocalised electrons. Differences: sodium has 1+ ions whereas magnesium has 2+ ions. For every delocalised electron, whereas for every one magnesium ion there are two delocalised electrons.
- Iron in its elemental form has atoms all the same size. This means that layers of atoms are regular. Steel is an alloy, with atoms of different sizes, disrupting the layers. Layers are therefore not regular. Steel is therefore much stronger than iron.
- 18 carat white gold contains 75 % gold ($18 / 24 \times 100$) and 25 % (6 / 24 × 100) palladium.

Task B

- Na
 - Ba(NO₃)₂
 - Cu(OH)₂
- Will not occur – copper is less reactive than magnesium, so cannot displace magnesium.
 - Will occur – lithium is more reactive than iron so displaces iron from iron nitrate.
 - Will not occur – zinc is less reactive than aluminium, so cannot displace aluminium.
- $4\text{Na} + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{Na}_2\text{O}$
 - $2\text{Li} + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{Li}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{H}_2$
 - $\text{Ca} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{Ca(OH)}_2 + \text{H}_2$
 - $\text{Mg} + \text{Zn(NO}_3)_2 \rightarrow \text{Zn} + \text{Mg(NO}_3)_2$

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Task C

- Calcium is oxidised, hydrogen ions are reduced
 - Sodium is oxidised, oxygen is reduced
 - Zinc is oxidised, copper ions are reduced
- $2\text{Li} + 2\text{H}^+ \rightarrow 2\text{Li}^+ + \text{H}_2$
 $\text{Li} \rightarrow \text{Li}^+ + \text{e}^-$ $2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$ *Accept multiple for the Li equation*
 - $3\text{Zn} + 2\text{Fe}^{3+} \rightarrow 3\text{Zn}^{2+} + 2\text{Fe}$
 $\text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{Zn}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^-$ $\text{Fe}^{3+} + 3\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Fe}$
 - $\text{Mg} + 2\text{H}^+ \rightarrow \text{Mg}^{2+} + \text{H}_2$
 $\text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^-$ $2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$

Task D

- Any one from: reduced carbon emissions, reduced environmental destruction, makes
- Biological methods are much slower
- Aluminium is more reactive than carbon and cannot be extracted by electrolysis
- Iron is less reactive than carbon and can be displaced by reduction with carbon

Exam-style question

- Calcium chloride (1), any one from: fizzing, calcium moves on the surface of the smelter, heat evolved (1)
 - $\text{Ca} + \text{Cu}^{2+} \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{Cu}$
 $\text{Ca} \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^-$ (1) oxidation (1)
 $\text{Cu}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{Cu}$ (1) reduction (1)
 - Calcium should be extracted by electrolysis (1) because it is more reactive than
- Must be a comparison. Any four from:
 Phytomining is less damaging to the environment than quarrying (1)
 Phytomining requires less energy usage than quarrying (1)
 Phytomining produces less wastage than quarrying (1)
 Phytomining results in smaller carbon dioxide emissions / carbon dioxide emissions a
 Phytomining is slower than quarrying (1)
 Both involve destroying natural environments (1)

Chapter 6**Task A**

Top left: concentrated weak acid

Top right: dilute weak acid

Bottom left: concentrated strong acid

Bottom right: dilute strong acid

Task B

- Hydrochloric acid + **zinc** → zinc chloride + hydrogen
- Sulfuric acid** + sodium hydroxide → sodium sulfate + water
- Sulfuric acid + magnesium carbonate → **magnesium sulfate** + water + **carbon dioxide**
- Nitric acid + **potassium hydroxide OR potassium oxide** → potassium nitrate + water
- Ethanoic acid** + calcium hydroxide → calcium ethanoate + water
- Nitric acid + iron → **iron nitrate** + **hydrogen**

Task C

- Magnesium chloride: MgCl_2
- Sodium sulfate: Na_2SO_4
- Copper(II) sulfate: CuSO_4
- Iron(III) nitrate: $\text{Fe}(\text{NO}_3)_3$
- Aluminium sulfate: $\text{Al}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3$

Task D

- $2\text{HCl} + \text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{MgCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$
- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $2\text{HNO}_3 + \text{CaCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
- $2\text{HCl} + \text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{ZnCl}_2 + \text{H}_2$
- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{Fe}(\text{OH})_2 \rightarrow \text{FeSO}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $2\text{HNO}_3 + \text{CuCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Cu}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{KOH} \rightarrow \text{K}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $2\text{HCl} + \text{CaO} \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $2\text{HNO}_3 + \text{MgCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Mg}(\text{NO}_3)_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
- $6\text{HCl} + 2\text{Al} \rightarrow 2\text{AlCl}_3 + 3\text{H}_2$

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Task E

- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 Splitting into ions gives: $2\text{H}^+ + \text{SO}_4^{2-} + 2\text{Na}^+ + 2\text{OH}^- \rightarrow 2\text{Na}^+ + \text{SO}_4^{2-} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 Removing spectators gives: $2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{OH}^- \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 Which simplifies to: $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- $2\text{H}^+ + \text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{Mg}^{2+} + \text{H}_2$
 - $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$
 - $2\text{H}^+ + \text{CaCO}_3 \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
- $2\text{H}^+ + \text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{Mg}^{2+} + \text{H}_2$
 $2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$ reduction
 $\text{Mg} \rightarrow \text{Mg}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^-$ oxidation
 Both oxidation and reduction are occurring in the same equation, so it is a redox equation

Exam-style questions

- $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{aq}) + \text{Ca}(\text{s}) \rightarrow \text{CaSO}_4(\text{aq}) + \text{H}_2(\text{g})$ (1 mark for reactants and products, 1 mark for products)
 - $2\text{H}^+ + \text{Ca} \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + \text{H}_2$ (1 mark for hydrogen species, 1 mark for calcium species)
 - $\text{Ca} \rightarrow \text{Ca}^{2+} + 2\text{e}^-$ (1)
Calcium has been oxidised (1) as it has lost electrons (1)
 - Calcium has been oxidised and hydrogen has been reduced (1) so electrons have been transferred (1)
- Neutralisation (1)
 - An indicator (1)
 - $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$ (1)

Chapter 7**Task A**

- Activation energy is the **minimum energy requirement** for a reaction to occur
- Exothermic, as energy is released to surroundings. This means the energy required to break bonds was less than the energy which was released when bonds were formed.
- The reaction shown is endothermic, not exothermic. The student has also mislabelled the y-axis. The energy should go from reactants to the top of the curve, not from the products.

Task B

- Balanced equation: $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 Bonds broken = $[2 \times (2 \times 436)] + (1 \times 498) = 2242 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 Bonds formed = $[2 \times (2 \times 464)] = 1856 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 Energy transferred = $+386 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
- Balanced equation: $2\text{CH}_3\text{OH} + 3\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_2 + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$
 Bonds broken = $2 \times [(3 \times 413) + (1 \times 464)] + (3 \times 498) = 4900 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 Bonds formed = $[2 \times (2 \times 805)] + ([4 \times (2 \times 464)]) = 6932 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 Energy transferred = $-2032 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
- Balanced equation: $\text{CH}_4 + \text{Cl}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_3\text{Cl} + \text{HCl}$
 Bonds broken = $(4 \times 413) + 243 = 1895 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 Bonds formed = $(3 \times 413) + 242 + 432 = 1913 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 Energy transferred = -18 kJ mol^{-1}
- Bond-breaking = $+928 \text{ kJ mol}^{-1}$
 Bond-forming = -928 kJ mol^{-1}
 The values are the same, one is positive and one is negative

Task C

- $32^\circ\text{C} - 21^\circ\text{C} = 11^\circ\text{C}$
 - Exothermic, as the temperature increased
 - The student used a beaker in place of an insulated container, such as a polystyrene cup with a lid
- Concentration of hydrochloric acid
 - Any two from: the volume of hydrochloric acid, the mass of magnesium / surface area of the magnesium strip, starting temperature
 - The more concentrated the acid, the higher the temperature change

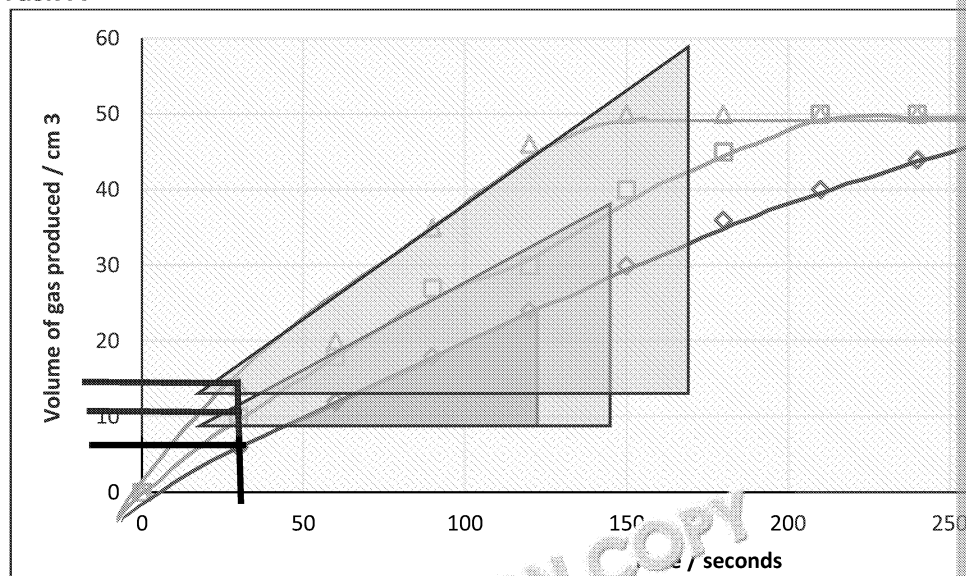
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Task D

- $8 \times 1.5 = 12 \text{ V}$. Connect eight cells in series.
- A reactant runs out and the reactions are irreversible
- Zinc and copper as they have the biggest difference in reactivity
- Concentration of electrolyte / temperature of electrolyte solution
- The chemicals contained in the battery could be harmful/toxic/corrosive
- Advantages – any one from: no toxic chemicals to dispose of at the end of the cell's life (unlike rechargeable cells); travel further before refuelling (than before recharging); efficiency (over time)
Disadvantages – any one from: hydrogen is made from fossil fuels / non-renewable resources; it is flammable/explosive; it costs more to refuel (than recharging); costs more to build hydrogen filling stations

Exam-style questions

- Any two from: concentration of electrolyte solution; temperature of electrolyte solution; the compounds/ions in the electrolyte solution
 - Order: (most) malleable, cobalt, nickel, tin, copper, silver (least) (2 – 1 mark for silver, 1 mark for correct order cobalt to copper)
Tin has a negative voltage, the more reactive the metal (1)
Silver has a negative voltage because it is less reactive than copper (1)
 - $2\text{H}_2 + \text{O}_2 (1) \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O} (1)$ balanced
 - The reaction is reversible (1)
 - Bonds broken = $2 \times [(3 \times 413) + 358 + 464] + [3 \times 498] = 5616$ (1)
Bond formed = $2 \times [2 \times 805] + 4 \times [2 \times 464] = 6932$ (1)
Energy transferred = $5616 - 6932 = -1316 \text{ kJ/mol}$ (1)

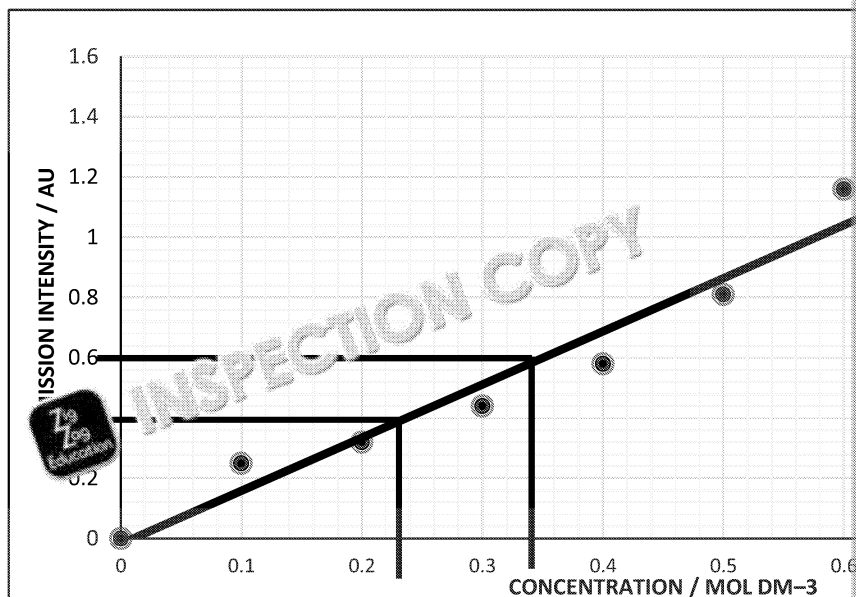
Chapter 8**Task A**

- The time the reaction is finished is the point where the line of best fit becomes flatter
At 20°C , this is at approximately 290 seconds
For 30°C is approximately 210 seconds
At 50°C at approximately 150 seconds
- Relative rate = $1 / \text{time taken to finish}$
At $20^\circ\text{C} = 3.45 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ At $30^\circ\text{C} = 4.76 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$ At $50^\circ\text{C} = 6.67 \times 10^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$
- At $20^\circ\text{C} = (25 - 10) / (125 - 50) = 0.20 \text{ cm}^3 / \text{s}$
At $30^\circ\text{C} = (40 - 10) / (150 - 25) = 0.24 \text{ cm}^3 / \text{s}$
At $50^\circ\text{C} = (55 - 15) / (175 - 25) = 0.27 \text{ cm}^3 / \text{s}$
- At $20^\circ\text{C} = 6 / 30 = 0.20 \text{ cm}^3 / \text{s}$ At $30^\circ\text{C} = 10 / 30 = 0.33 \text{ cm}^3 / \text{s}$ At $50^\circ\text{C} = 15 / 30 = 0.50 \text{ cm}^3 / \text{s}$
- At 50°C , the particles move with more energy. This leads to more frequent successful collisions which exceed the activation energy, increasing the rate of the reaction.

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Task B

- Multivitamins B and C contain Cu^{2+} ions
 - B and C contain Cu^{2+} ions, A does not
A, B and C contain some common ingredients
C is likely to contain multivitamin B plus some further ingredients
-



- Multivitamin B has a copper ion concentration of approximately 0.36 mol dm^{-3} , ion concentration of approximately 0.24 mol dm^{-3} . Multivitamin B has the high

Chapter 9

Task A

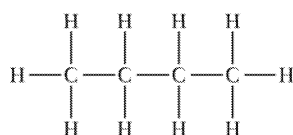
Properties of diamond	Properties of graphite
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 4 covalent bonds between atoms Large network of atoms Very strong covalent bonds High melting point Electrical insulator Very hard substance 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 3 covalent bonds between atoms Large network of atoms Very strong covalent bonds Weak forces between layers High melting point Electrical conductor Soft and slippery substance

Task B

- Dot-and-cross diagram is most appropriate as it is the only representation which shows the bonding in the molecule.
- Ball-and-stick diagrams are the only representation which shows the 3D structure of the molecule.
- Displayed formulae are easy to draw, and so would be the best option to compare the representations are also useful here, they are **not** easy to draw!
- Names or chemical formulae are most useful for quick labelling of hydrocarbon samples.
- The easiest option here would be the chemical formulae! If Maymuna wanted to explain the difference between the two, she could also draw the displayed formulae.

Task C

- $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$
- Propane
-



- As the length of the carbon chain increases, boiling point increases. This is because longer forces, which require more energy to overcome. Therefore, a higher temperature is required.
- $\text{C}_7\text{H}_{16} + 11 \text{ O}_2 \rightarrow 7\text{CO}_2 + 8 \text{ H}_2\text{O}$
- The alkane is heated to 550°C and passed over a hot zeolite catalyst
 $\text{C}_{20}\text{H}_{42} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12} + \text{C}_{14}\text{H}_{30}$

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Task D

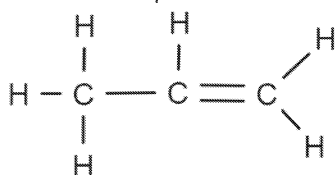
- $C_{11}H_{24}$ is different because it does not contain a carbon-carbon double bond
 - $C_2H_4 + H_2O \rightarrow C_2H_5OH$ (see structure on right)
 - Add bromine water. If $C=C$ is present, the bromine water will be decolourised.
- C_8H_{16}
- $C_4H_8Cl_2$
 - C_3H_8
 - C_3H_7OH

Task E

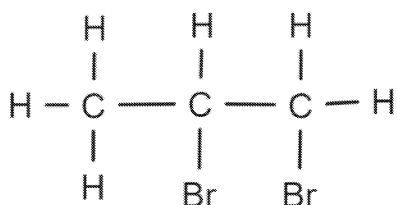
- Butanol is used as a solvent and fuel
- $C_3H_5OH + 4.5 O_2 \rightarrow 3 CO_2 + 3 H_2O$
- Butanoic acid
- Fizzing would be seen
- Ethanol + ethanoic acid \rightarrow ethyl ethanoate + water

Exam-style questions

- A compound contains only (1) contains carbon and hydrogen (1)
 - Alkanes contain only carbon-carbon single bonds (1)
Alkenes contain a carbon-carbon double bond (1)
Alkenes decolourise bromine water whereas alkanes do not (1)
 - Saturated alkanes contain only carbon-carbon single bonds / the maximum amount of hydrogen (1)
Alkenes are unsaturated (1)
Because they contain a carbon-carbon double bond (1)
- Propene: note the double bond can be on the left or the right. Bond angle does not matter (1)
3 carbons and 6 hydrogens (1)
Double bond represented correctly (1)



- 3 carbons and 6 hydrogens (1)
2 bromine atoms on **different carbons** (1)



- 300 °C (1)
60 atm pressure (1)
Phosphoric acid catalyst (1)
 $C_3H_6 + H_2O \rightarrow C_3H_7OH$ (1)
- Each carbon atom makes four (1) covalent bonds (1) to other carbon atoms. This means the structure is held together by rigid, strong covalent bonds (1).
- The structure is held together by many / a giant network (1) of strong covalent bonds. A large amount of energy to overcome (1) to melt the substance.

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Chapter 10

Task A

- Stationary phase: chromatography paper; mobile phase: solvent (water, in this case)
- C is the most soluble, as it has travelled the greatest distance up the chromatography paper, the greatest solubility, and the lowest attraction for the chromatography paper.
- The unknown is a mixture, as it is made up of two constituent parts
-

Substance	Distance travelled / cm	
A	2.0	
B	3.5	
C	5.5	
U: Spot 1	2.0	
Spot 2	3.5	

- The student can conclude that the unknown is a mixture of A and B, as the R_f values

Task B

- Hydrogen. Place a lit splint into a sample of the gas. A squeaky pop sound would be heard.
- First, place a glowing splint into the neck of both tubes. The tube which relights the splint contains oxygen. In the other tube, place a lit splint.
- Carbon dioxide gas would extinguish the splint – it is a common chemical in fire extinguishers.
- $\text{MgCO}_3 + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 \rightarrow \text{MgSO}_4 + \text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
Bubble the gas produced through limewater. The limewater should turn cloudy.

Task C

- Place a sample of copper(II) ions into a blue Bunsen flame. The flame colour should be blue.
 - Add sodium hydroxide solution to the solution containing copper(II) ions. A blue precipitate should form.
 - $\text{Cu}^{2+}(\text{aq}) + 2\text{OH}^{-}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{Cu}(\text{OH})_2(\text{s})$
- One colour could 'mask' the colour of another, e.g. Na⁺ ions produce a bright yellow flame, which could mask the blue of copper(II) ions. Other paler colours, such as lilac K⁺ ions.
- Add sodium hydroxide. Both would form white precipitates. When excess NaOH is added, the aluminium hydroxide precipitate would redissolve, the calcium hydroxide would not.

Task D

- White precipitate
 - Fizzing/effervescence seen
 - Pale yellow precipitate forms
- Formation of the white precipitate (1a):
 $\text{Ba}^{2+}(\text{aq}) + \text{SO}_4^{2-}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{BaSO}_4(\text{s})$
Formation of pale yellow precipitate (1c):
 $\text{Ag}^{+}(\text{aq}) + \text{I}^{-}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{AgI}(\text{s})$

Exam-style questions

- Calcium ions produce an orange-red flame and a white precipitate (1); the orange-red flame is characteristic of calcium ions, which would produce the precipitate (1)
 - Acid removes anions which would precipitate (1)
Methane gas is produced as other acids would form precipitates and give false positive results (1)
 - $\text{Ag}^{+}(\text{aq}) + \text{Cl}^{-}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{AgCl}(\text{s})$ (1 mark for correct species, 1 mark for state symbols)
- Hydrochloric acid would form a precipitate / silver chloride precipitate would form (1)
 $\text{HCl}(\text{aq}) + \text{AgNO}_3(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{AgCl}(\text{s}) + \text{HNO}_3(\text{aq})$ (1)
 - $\text{Ba}^{2+}(\text{aq}) + \text{SO}_4^{2-}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{BaSO}_4(\text{s})$ (1 mark for species, 1 mark for state symbols)
 - White precipitate (1)
- Crimson/red flame (1)
 - Silver nitrate (1), white precipitate (1)
- Ca²⁺ and Cl⁻
 - Add sodium hydroxide solution (1)
 $\text{Ca}^{2+}(\text{aq}) + 2\text{OH}^{-}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2(\text{s})$ (1 mark for species and state symbols, 1 mark for balancing)

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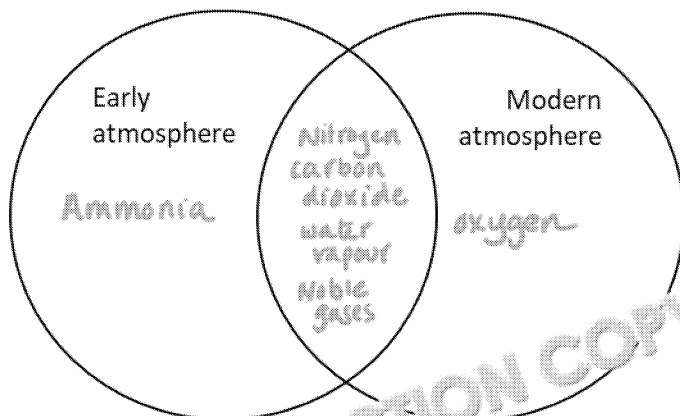
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Chapter 11

Task A

1.



2. a. Nitrogen or oxygen
b. Nitrogen or oxygen
c. The temperature was not high enough for oxygen to support life
d. The temperature would boil/evaporate OR the temperature is above 100 °C / boiling point

Task B

Event	Effect on N ₂	Effect on CO ₂
During Earth's first billion years, there was intense volcanic activity , releasing CO ₂ , CH ₄ , NH ₃ * and H ₂ O. <small>* Which later formed nitrogen through chemical processes</small>	↑	↑
As Earth cooled, water vapour condensed to form oceans. Carbon dioxide dissolved in the water, and carbonates precipitated to produce sediments. Sedimentary rock formed.	N/A	↓
Around 2.7 billion years ago, plants and algae formed, undergoing photosynthesis: $6\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 + 6\text{O}_2$	N/A	↓
When plants and animals died and decayed, fossil fuels such as coal (from land biomass) and crude oil (from marine biomass) formed.	N/A	N/A (but carbon becomes 'locked up')

Task C

1. a. Bar drawn at approximately 12 %
b. i. Carbon dioxide = $(15 / 16) \times 100 = 94 \%$
Argon = $(0.5 / 16) \times 100 = 3 \%$
Water vapour = 3 %
ii. Both atmospheres contain carbon dioxide, water vapour and noble gases. Earth's atmosphere had much more carbon dioxide than Planet X. Earth's atmosphere had much more water vapour than Planet X.
2. a. Percentage of nitrogen = $(39 / 50) \times 100 = 78 \%$
b. $0.2 \times 10^{18} \times 0.05 = 0.01 \times 10^{18} \text{ kg}$
c. i. Photosynthesis caused oxygen to increase and carbon dioxide to decrease
ii. $6\text{CO}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \rightarrow \text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6 + 6\text{O}_2$
iii. Photosynthesis allowed oxygen to be produced, which is vital for complex life. Fossilised plant remains, scientists can pinpoint when life was able to evolve.
d. i. Water vapour from volcanic eruptions
ii. The proportion decreased, as Earth cooled and water vapour condensed to form oceans.
iii. Carbon dioxide dissolved into oceans which caused its proportion in the atmosphere to decrease.

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Task D

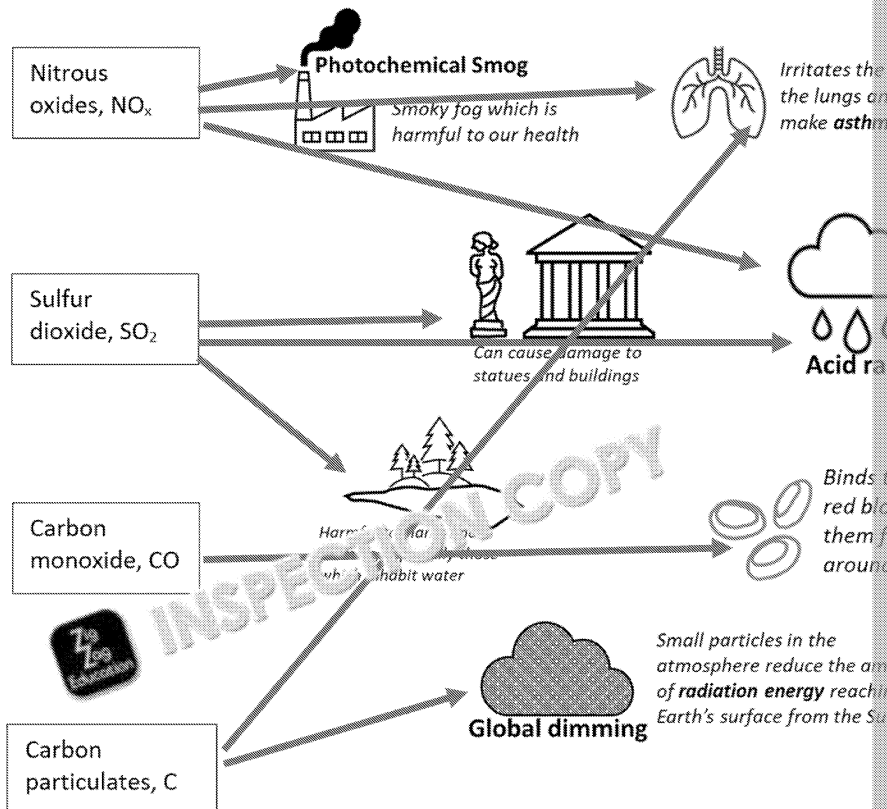
- China, approximately 11,000 million tons
- The USA has estimated CO₂ emissions of approximately 5000 million tons, where million tons
 - The USA emits almost double that of India. It has a population around a quarter of the world's, which means more green technology is available when compared to India. The USA contributes a large share of CO₂ emissions.
- Generally, the larger the population, the greater the CO₂ emissions. China and India are both within the top three CO₂ emitters.
- This question relates to the USA, Russia, Germany and South Korea.
 - $10 + 5 + 2 + 1 = 18\%$ share of the world's population
 - 18% share of the population, and approximately 8400 million tons of CO₂ emissions. This is double the emissions of India, which has more than double the population size!
- Approximately 2.24×10^{10} tons
- Countries could invest in more renewable energy sources such as wind, solar and tidal. They could also invest in hybrid vehicle technology to reduce reliance on fossil fuels. They could introduce incentives for recycling and encourage consumers to buy locally produced products.

Task E

- Carbon footprint is the total amount of carbon dioxide and other greenhouse gases emitted by a product, a service or an event. The student could ensure they recycle where possible, eat a sustainable diet (sourcing local food, eating less meat/rice). They could walk to school instead of taking the car.
- Carbon-neutral means no net effect on carbon dioxide (or equivalent greenhouse gas) emissions. A company could invest in cleaner energy technologies such as solar panels at factories. They could source materials locally in the UK instead of abroad, and make use of hybrid vehicles to transport product. They could use natural materials, such as cotton, rather than polymers. They might consider promoting recycling. However, recycling can be costly to maintain, and the technology and infrastructure may not be available for the materials used.

Task F

1.



- Nitrous oxides – nitrogen from the air reacts with oxygen in the heat of a combustion

Sulfur dioxide – sulfur impurities from fuel react with oxygen

Carbon monoxide – incomplete combustion of a fuel, in a limited oxygen supply

Carbon particulates – incomplete combustion of a fuel, in a limited oxygen supply

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3. $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{18} + 8.5\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 8\text{CO} + 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ – binds to haemoglobin in red blood cells, causing carbon monoxide poisoning
OR $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{18} + 4.5\text{O}_2 \rightarrow 8\text{C} + 9\text{H}_2\text{O}$ – particulates cause global dimming, can cause lung disease
4.
 - a. Sulfur comes from impurities in fossil fuels
 - b. Sulfur dioxide oxidises in the air to form SO_3 . This dissolves in rainwater in clouds to form sulfuric acid, which causes damage to buildings, and is harmful to living organisms and the environment
 - c. Acid rain can be caused by nitrous oxides. Nitrogen from the air reacts with oxygen in the air to form nitrous oxides. This dissolves in rainwater in clouds to form acid rain.

Exam-style questions

1.
 - a. Little/no oxygen [1]; therefore photosynthesis has not occurred / no plants/algae / no oxygen-using organisms cannot have evolved on b-165 [1]
 - b. Methane allows short wavelength / UV radiation to pass through [1] which warms the planet [1] / infrared radiation [1] which is absorbed by methane in the atmosphere [1]
2.
 - a. Increased population has higher energy requirements [1] so more fossil fuels burned [1] so more emissions [1]
 - b. Increased population has higher energy requirements [1] so more use of methane as cattle [1] and rice [1] and more waste going to landfill [1]
 - c. Any two from melting ice, rising sea levels, flooding, extreme weather events, etc. [1]
 - d. Answer is difficult to model; may be other reasons for the changes in the average temperature / cycles of temperature change in the past [1]
3.
 - a. Soot / carbon particulates, (solid) carbon (1). Incomplete combustion [1] due to low oxygen / low temperature [1]
 - b. Sulfur reacts with oxygen to form sulfur dioxide [1] which produces acid rain [1] which damages statues [1]. Less sulfur means fewer sulfur dioxide emissions [1].
 - c. In the high temperatures of combustion engines [1] nitrogen from the air reacts with oxygen [1] to form nitrous oxides [1]. Nitrous oxides can cause photochemical smog / can contribute to the formation of acid rain [1]

Chapter 12

Task A

1.
 - a. The water is likely to be salt water from the sea.
 - b. The water is likely to have a high concentration of dissolved substances.
2. Screening involves passing water through filter-like screens to remove large insoluble solids such as leaves and twigs.
3. Water is sterilised using chlorine, ozone, or UV light. This kills bacteria.
4. No, the student is not correct. Pure water contains only H_2O molecules. Potable water is safe for consumption, but may still contain small concentrations of dissolved substances such as minerals, which are beneficial for our health.
5. Waste water comes from domestic, agricultural and industrial uses. It may contain chemicals, oils, and drugs, dissolved substances and other contaminants.

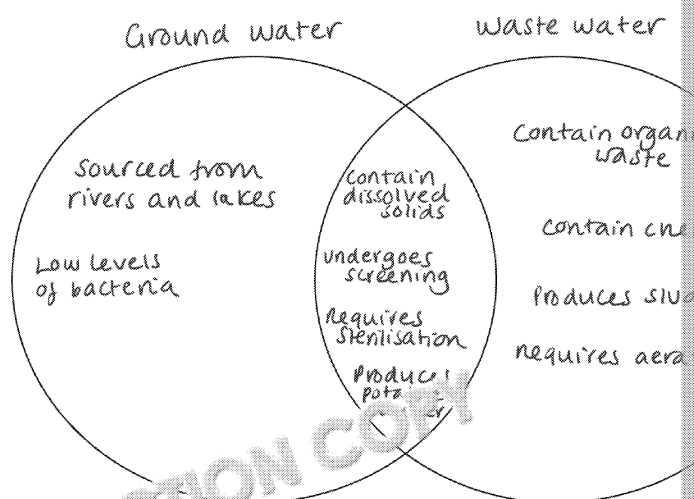
Task B

1. Hot countries tend to use distillation to produce drinking water, as they have low supplies of groundwater, and treating groundwater uses much less energy than desalination.
2. Water is heated in a round-bottomed flask over a Bunsen burner. The water **evaporates** more easily than salt. The steam passes into a condenser, which is cooled by water. As the vapour cools, it condenses and drips out into a receiver, where it is collected as pure water.
3. Distillation involves evaporation and condensation, and a high amount of energy is required. Reverse osmosis uses a **high pressure** and a semi-permeable membrane, whereby water molecules pass through the membrane, but salt ions do not. High pressures require a large energy expenditure.
4. Cobalt chloride paper tests for the presence of water, not whether the water is pure. Although measuring the pH of the water can tell us if the water is acidic, alkaline or neutral, it does not tell us how much is present. Testing for dissolved solids, or if it contains bacteria, so Student B's analysis testing only tests for the presence of salt, and doesn't tell us how much is present, or whether bacteria is present, and how much.

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Task C



Exam-style questions

- Pure water is water that is safe for human consumption [1]
 - Desalination removes **salt** [1]. This process involves large amounts of energy to be expensive. [1]
 - Missing entry should read '0' as this is pure water, with a pH of exactly 7.0
 - Sample A is likely to be tap water [1] as the pH is almost neutral, and the amount of bacteria is low
 - Sample B is seawater, sample C is pure (distilled) water
- Screening removes large objects such as nappies, wet wipes and menstrual products [1]
 - Aeration involves bubbling air through the water [1]; this allows bacteria to digest the organic matter [1]
 - Any **two** from: chlorine, ozone, UV light [2]
 - Pure water is 100 % water molecules with nothing else added [1]
 - Determine the boiling point [1] as pure water boils at exactly 100 °C [1]

Chapter 13

Task A

1.

Formula of ionic compound	Product at positive electrode	Product at negative electrode	Oxidation equation
NaBr	Br ₂ – bromine	Na – sodium	2Br ⁻ (l) → Br ₂ (g)
Fe ₂ O ₃	O ₂ – oxygen	Fe – iron	2O ²⁻ (l) → O ₂ (g)
Na ₂ O	O ₂ – oxygen	Na – sodium	2O ²⁻ (l) → O ₂ (g)
AlCl ₃	Cl ₂ - chlorine	Al – aluminium	2Cl ⁻ (l) → Cl ₂ (g)
ZnBr ₂	Br ₂ – bromine	Zn – zinc	2Br ⁻ (l) → Br ₂ (l)

- In solid state, ions are not free to move to the electrodes and cannot carry charge
 - Chlorine, Cl₂, is formed. Fizzing will be seen
 - 2Cl⁻ (l) → Cl₂ (g) + 2e⁻ oxidation as electrons are **lost**

Note the state symbols for the ions (l) as you would find them in the product

Task B

- Li⁺ + e⁻
- Using a molten salt lowers the melting point of the electrolyte, reducing energy costs
- Lithium ions move towards the negative electrode (cathode) as they are **oppositely charged** to the positive electrode
- High energy cost due to high melting point of the mixture, and high energy cost with recycling
- A shortage of lithium ores would make the use of lithium unsustainable. Using recycled lithium can help meet the demand for lithium.
- Mr (LiCoO₂) = 7 + 59 + (2 × 16) = 98 Ar (Li) = 7
So % by mass = (7 / 98) × 100 = 7 %
- Lithium is a group 1 metal; 1 electron in its outer shell. This electron is easy to lose and lithium is also reactive in contact with water, causing an exothermic reaction.

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Task C

1.

Substance	Product at +ve electrode (anode)	Product at -ve electrode (cathode)	Oxidation (loss of electrons)
CaBr ₂ (l)	Bromine, Br ₂	Hydrogen, H ₂	2Br ⁻ → Br ₂ + 2e ⁻
CuCl ₂ (aq)	Chlorine, Cl ₂	Copper, Cu	2Cl ⁻ → Cl ₂ + 2e ⁻
FeCl ₃ (l)	Chlorine, Cl ₂	Iron, Fe	2Cl ⁻ → Cl ₂ + 2e ⁻
NaOH (aq)	Oxygen, O ₂	Hydrogen, H ₂	4OH ⁻ → O ₂ + 2H ₂ O + 4e ⁻
H ₂ SO ₄ (aq)	Oxygen, O ₂	Hydrogen, H ₂	4OH ⁻ → O ₂ + 2H ₂ O + 4e ⁻
PtI ₂ (l)	Iodine, I ₂	Platinum, Pt	2I ⁻ → I ₂ + 2e ⁻
Ca(NO ₃) ₂ (aq)	Oxygen, O ₂	Hydrogen, H ₂	4OH ⁻ → O ₂ + 2H ₂ O + 4e ⁻
KNO ₃ (aq)	Oxygen, O ₂	Hydrogen, H ₂	4OH ⁻ → O ₂ + 2H ₂ O + 4e ⁻

2. a. At the positive electrode, fizzing is seen. At the negative electrode, fizzing is seen.
b. To identify the positive electrode, collect the gas and place a piece of **damp litmus** paper over the mouth of the tube. The paper will turn blue, confirming the identity of **chlorine gas**. To identify the negative electrode, collect the gas and hold a **lit splint** to the neck of the tube. A squeaky pop is produced.
c. $2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \rightarrow H_2$

Exam-style questions

1. a. So that ions can move (1) to the electrodes / to carry charge (1)
b. Calcium ions are attracted to the electrode (1) where they gain (1) two electrons
c. Chlorine (1) **NOT CHLORIDE**
d. $2H^{+} + 2e^{-} \rightarrow H_2$ (1) *Ignore state symbols*
e. No (1); calcium is produced in Experiment 1 (1), hydrogen is produced in Experiment 2 (1). Because in solutions, H⁺ (from water) are present (1). Calcium is more reactive than hydrogen, so hydrogen ions gain an electron (1).
2. a. Aluminium is more reactive than carbon / carbon is less reactive than aluminium (1)
b. Aluminium ions are positive (1) and are attracted to the negative electrode (1) where they gain electrons / are reduced (1).
 $Al^{3+} + 3e^{-} \rightarrow Al$ (1)
c. Because they are made of graphite/carbon (1). Oxygen is produced (1). Which reacts with the electrodes (1).

Chapter 14

Task A

1. Proton, electron, neutron
2. Dalton proposed all atoms are indivisible, solid spheres (1). Dalton stated all atoms are different from one another, and different from that of another element (1). In the modern model, atoms are made of **particles** called protons, neutrons and electrons (1).
3. Alpha particles were fired at thin gold foil (1). Most alpha particles passed straight through (1). Some were deflected (unexpected) (1). This suggested atoms have a small, dense, positively charged nucleus (1). Electrons surround the nucleus in shells (1). Being randomly studded within the atom (1).
4. Bohr proposed electrons orbit the nucleus in fixed shells (1). These shells are different in energy (1). Compared with the plum pudding model, where all shells are at the same distance (1).
5. In the plum pudding model, the atom is a sphere of positive charge, whereas the nucleus is concentrated in the nucleus (1). In the plum pudding model, electrons are embedded in the positive sphere (1). The nuclear model has electron shells (1). The nuclear model has a nucleus, the plum pudding model has neutrons (1).
6. Early atomic models like Dalton's were based on **theory** (1). J J Thomson, Rutherford and Bohr conducted **experiments** (1). J J Thomson discovered the electron (1). Rutherford's gold scattering experiment discovered the existence of a nucleus containing protons, and electrons orbiting in shells (1). Bohr's model gave distinct electron orbits at fixed distances (1). Advances in mathematics allowed Schrodinger's quantum model (1).

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Task B

1. Mendeleev arranged elements in order of increasing atomic weight (1). He placed elements in the same group/column (1) but left gaps and swapped elements where he felt the order was more appropriate (1).
2. Mendeleev left gaps in his periodic table (1) and reversed the 'accepted' order of elements based on atomic weights (1).
3. Both periodic tables were ordered based on atomic weights (1). Both attempted to group elements with similar properties (1). Newland did not leave gaps in his periodic table (1) and did not consider elements which meant they did not 'fit' in groups based on their properties (whereas Mendeleev did (1)).
4. Mendeleev's periodic table was ordered mostly by atomic weight whereas the modern-day table is ordered by atomic number (1). Mendeleev's table had gaps whereas the modern-day table does not (1). Mendeleev's table did not have regions for transition metals whereas the modern-day table does (1). Mendeleev's table had noble gases whereas previously they had not yet been discovered (1).
5. Mendeleev's table was based on predictions of elements and their properties (1). The discovery of elements such as the noble gases completed the periodic table (1). Discoveries of elements which filled the gaps he left (1). The discovery of protons and neutrons (and isotopes) explained the order of the periodic table (1). Synthetic elements have been created and filled gaps in the periodic table (1). Understanding of electron configuration of elements have enabled transition metals to be placed in the 'd-block' elements (1).

Task C

1. Data can be uncertain due to measurement limitations (1) and data can be incomplete if the method to obtain precise measurements is not available (1). Some concepts are too complex to measure, e.g. global warming (1) which has multiple variables leading to uncertainty in predictions (1). Medical research, where long-term data of effects of a new drug may not yet be available (1). Environmental impacts of plastics, such as biodegradability and pollution (1). Safety of new materials, e.g. ecosystems (1). Potential benefits could be reduction in plastic waste and dependence on fossil fuels (1). Harm could include the production of harmful by-products and the impact on existing ecosystems (1). Sustainability of the product and the life cycle of the alternative needs to be evaluated (1). Between immediate gains and long-term consequences (1).
2. Benefits: nanoparticles improve the effectiveness of products (e.g. enhancing drug delivery (1)), can provide unique properties such as increased strength / lightweight / improve surface area to volume ratio (1), only small amounts are needed compared to macroscopic materials (1). Cons: concerns over the potential health risks of nanoparticles, as their small size can enter the body and alter DNA (1), environmental impact is not fully understood, so they could damage the environment (1). Arise due to the limited data on the long-term use of nanoparticles (1).
3. Raw materials: paper straws produced from timber (a renewable resource) whereas plastic straws are products of crude oil (non-renewable) (1), transportation and processing of timber is less energy intensive than processing plastics, which are lightweight (1), lifetime of paper straws tends to be similar to plastic straws (1), plastic straws could be used more than once (1), paper straws are biodegradable whereas plastic straws are not (1). Benefit of LCAs is that they evaluate environmental impact to allow for more informed decisions (1). However, LCAs can be incomplete, simplified, or misused to mislead consumers (1).
4. Reducing carbon footprints is crucial to mitigate climate change and its impacts (1). Individuals have a responsibility to minimise their environmental impact for future generations (1). Actions to reduce carbon footprint by using public transport, reducing their energy consumption, utilising renewable energy sources such as solar panels and hybrid vehicles, and adopting more sustainable practices such as recycling, reducing food waste, etc. (1). Industries could implement energy efficient technologies such as LED lighting, improve resources, and improve the sustainability of their supply chains (1).
5. It can be challenging for individuals to change daily habits and routines such as reducing meat consumption (1). There are economic barriers such as affordability of organic food (1). There may be a lack of availability of facilities for recycling, which can impede individuals from recycling (1). Calculations can sometimes be based on incomplete or inaccurate data (1). Some companies may use 'greenwashing' to make products seem more sustainable than they are, by focusing on one aspect (e.g. raw materials) (1).

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Exam-style questions

- Solid sphere (1) which is indivisible (1). Each element has its own type of atoms (1).
 - Sphere of positive charge (1) with negative electrons embedded within it (1).
 - Some alpha particles were unexpectedly deflected (1). This led to the finding of the positive-charged nucleus (1) with electrons orbiting in shells (1).
 - Both models have electrons orbiting the nucleus in shells (1). Both models have the Planetary model has electron shells at fixed distances from the nucleus (1) whereas the Plum Pudding model has shells at the same distance from the nucleus (1).
- Elements are arranged in increasing atomic (proton) number (1). Elements are arranged in groups (1). There are eight groups, and transition metals (1).
 - Elements arranged in trios or 'triads' of similar properties (1). This didn't work (1).
 - Mendeleev made predictions of chemical and physical properties of elements which were later discovered (1). Mendeleev arranged elements in groups according to their properties (1). Elements which did not belong in particular groups (e.g. Te and Po) (1).
 - Mendeleev ordered by atomic weight, whereas the modern periodic table is ordered by atomic number (1). Elements which had not yet been discovered (1). Mendeleev left gaps for elements which had not yet been discovered (1). Noble gases had not been discovered (1). Transition metals were not fully understood (1). Electron arrangement (1).
- It took millions of years ago before life existed (1).
 - A lot of variables involved (1) and evidence is limited (1).
 - LCAs assess environmental impacts of products from production to eventual disposal (1). LCAs evaluate contributions to greenhouse gas emissions at each stage of the LCA (1). LCAs are often flawed due to lack of evidence/technology (1) as well as misleading data used (1).

Challenge 1.1

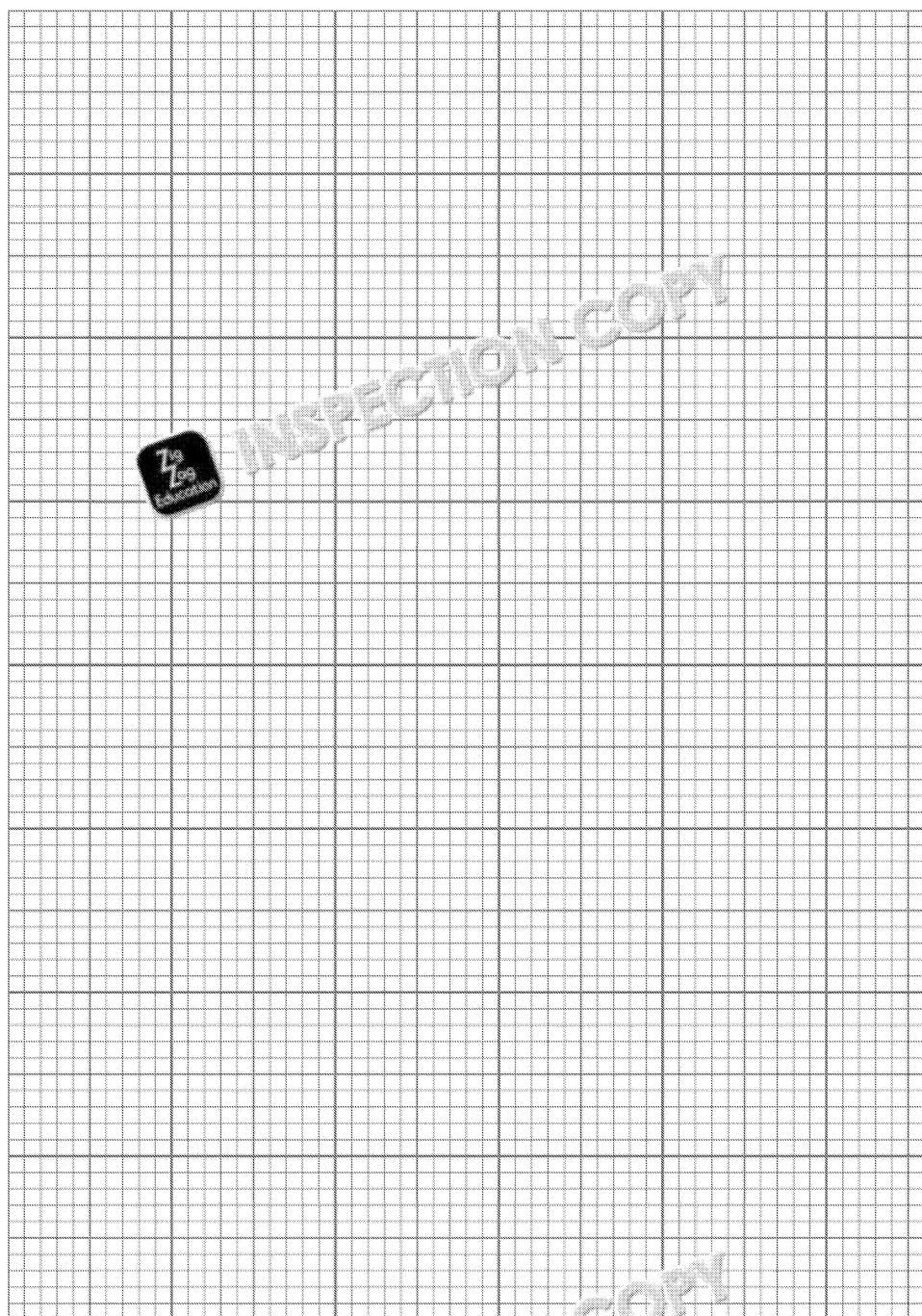
Name of substance in balloon	Chemical formula of substance in balloon	Mr of substance in balloon	Number of moles of gas in balloon / mol	Mass of balloon / g
Nitrogen	N ₂	28.0	0.625	17.5
Oxygen	O ₂	32.0	0.625	20.0
Water	H ₂ O	18.0	0.625	11.3
Carbon dioxide	CO ₂	44.0	0.625	27.5
Hydrogen	H ₂	2.0	0.625	1.25

Challenge 1.2

Name of substance	Pressure / Pa	Volume of balloon / m ³	Temperature / K	Moles in balloon / mol	Mass of balloon / g
Nitrogen	101 000	0.015	298	0.618	17.5
Oxygen	101 000	0.015	298	0.618	19.8
Water	101 000	0.015	298	0.618	11.3
Carbon dioxide	101 000	0.015	298	0.618	27.5
Hydrogen	101 000	0.015	298	0.618	1.25

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Appendix: Graph Pa



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