



Chemistry

GCSE (9–1) | AQA | 8462



2016 specification
first exams in 2018

Stretch and Challenge Articles

For GCSE AQA Chemistry

Pack 1 (Topics 1-5)

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Teacher's Introduction

These 'Stretch and Challenge' articles are designed to be complementary to the new (9-1) GCSE Chemistry specifications. They contain 15 articles that cover areas of topical interest to chemists, where there are significant links to the GCSE specification. These articles cover the first half of the specification (topics 1-5).

They are designed to give higher-ability students a challenge, providing information about chemistry in the wider world, and bolstering interest in the subject as a whole.

For each article, the following activities are included:

- Keyword identification to ensure important concepts are recognised.
- Comprehension questions to ensure understanding of and participation in the task.
- Discussion questions to encourage debate of topical issues and wider scientific and ethical questions.
- Extension tasks, encouraging students to conduct further research and teaching them to structure a written piece, such as a newspaper article, a letter to government or advice to doctors.
- Further reading, where content is aimed at an appropriate level, allows enthusiastic students to broaden their knowledge further.

Each article has a direct link to the specification, which is given on the contents page, but also goes beyond the specification too, including recent discoveries, case studies of diseases and application of theories to the wider natural world.

The articles are between 500 and 1,000 words each, and are expected to take a student approximately 15 minutes to read. The keywords and comprehension questions are expected to be short, and the discussion questions can be whole-class activities, guided by the teacher, or small-group activities to encourage less-confident students to take part.

Extension tasks can be given as homework together with the suggested further reading tasks that are included. All resources can be copied into black and white.

We hope you enjoy reading and using these resources.



A web page containing all the links listed in the Further reading sections in this resource is conveniently provided on ZigZag Education's website at **zzed.uk/7710**

You may find this helpful for accessing the websites rather than typing in each URL.

September 2017

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* resulting from minor specification changes, suggestions from teachers and peer reviews, or occasional errors reported by customers

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Specification Information

Article	Specific
Elements (and Compounds) of Life	4.1 Atoms, Elements
Periodic Updates	4.1.1.3 Development
Aurora Borealis	4.1.1.7 Electronic Stru
What Do You Call a Noble Gas?	4.1.2.4 Group 0
Mete-Ores	4.1.3.2 Properties of
Silicon Lifeforms	4.2.1.4 Covalent bond
Trapped Gas	4.2.2 How bonding a the properties of subs
Seventeenth-century Nanoscience	4.2.4 Bulk and surfac including nanoparticl
Biopolymers	4.2.2.5 Polymers
The Hip New Joint in Town	4.2.2.7 Properties of
Applications of Graphene	4.2.3.3 Graphene and
It's Not Rocket Science! Oh wait, it is.	4.3 Quantitative Chem
Acidophiles and Alkaliphiles	4.4.2.4 Acids and Alka
Making Heavy Water	4.4.3 Electrolysis
Shocking New Development	4.5.2 Chemical cells a

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Elements (and Compounds) of

Could life ever have existed on Mars?

4.1 Atoms, elements and compounds

Keywords

Element – a substance made from only one type of atom

Compound – a substance made from multiple types of atom, chemically bonded

Mixture – a substance which is a combination of elements and compounds

Organic compound – a compound made mostly from carbon and hydrogen

Could life ever have existed on Mars? In order to find out, we need to know which elements and compounds are on Mars. NASA sent a rover called 'Curiosity' to Mars to analyse the elements, compounds and mixtures found on the planet. The rover was launched in November 2011, and landed on Mars in August 2012.

Martian atmosphere

An important part of the Curiosity rover mission is to analyse the Martian atmosphere.

A planet's atmosphere is made up of a **mixture** of different gases. For example, on Earth, our atmosphere is a mixture of the **elements** nitrogen, N_2 , oxygen, O_2 , and argon, Ar. The **compounds** carbon dioxide and methane are also found in the atmosphere in smaller amounts. Humans rely on oxygen, O_2 , in order to live.

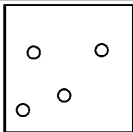
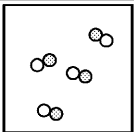

Mars' atmosphere is made up of 95 % nitrogen and 3 % carbon dioxide, and has 100 times fewer particles as the atmosphere of Earth, because the atmosphere has been slowly lost over time. One way to track the speed of the loss is by tracking two **elements**, Xenon and Krypton. These are both in group 0 of the periodic table. They are gases found in Mars' atmosphere in very low amounts. The discovery of these compounds suggest that Mars has lost its atmosphere slowly and steadily over time. Scientists think Mars had an atmosphere which could support living organisms.

Martian soils

The Curiosity rover is also able to drill holes in the planet's surface and detect compounds in the soil and rocks.

From the drilled samples, the Curiosity rover found **water, carbon dioxide, oxygen, sulfur dioxide and hydrogen sulfide**.

Scientists think that these compounds are everything life would need to have developed on Mars, which means that the planet could once have been home to bacterial life.

Key chemistry		
A pure element, Xe	A pure compound, NO	A mixture of elements
		
<i>Xe is useful for predicting the history of Mars' atmosphere.</i>	<i>The element nitrogen was discovered bonded to oxygen.</i>	<i>Earth's atmosphere is a mixture of elements and compounds.</i>



The weather on Mars is very different from Earth's atmosphere.

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Organic compounds

NASA has particularly focused on looking for **organic compounds**, which are mostly made of carbon. They can contain other elements such as oxygen, nitrogen, phosphorous and sulfur. Life on Earth is based on organic molecules. On Earth, organic compounds can be made by organisms such as bacteria and plants, or they are thought to be made by chemical reactions in water, or by arriving on an asteroid or comet.

One simple organic compound found on Mars is methane, CH_4 . NASA has been specifically looking for it. If it exists in Mars' atmosphere it would increase the chance of life having once existed there. Other than methane, there have been **chlorinated** organic molecules. These compounds contain chlorine, as well as carbon and hydrogen. The chlorinated organic molecules found on Mars are shown below.

dichloroethane	dichloropropane
	
$\begin{array}{c} \text{Cl} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{Cl} \end{array}$	$\begin{array}{c} \text{Cl} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{Cl} \end{array}$

Curiosity's achievements

Since landing on Mars, the Curiosity rover has driven over 15 km and has discovered evidence of water, as well as enough of the elements and compounds required for life to exist. In 2015, NASA discovered nitrogen for the first time, as nitric oxide, NO , and more recently, Boron, B, was found. Scientists want to find out if there is – or ever was – life on Mars, and the discovery of these elements and compounds suggests life could certainly have existed on Mars.



Comprehension questions

- Organic compounds have been found on Mars. Explain how these could have formed.
- Recently, Curiosity has found nitrous oxide and boron. Are these elements essential for life?
- Curiosity found water (H_2O), carbon dioxide (CO_2), oxygen (O_2), sulfur dioxide (SO_2) and hydrogen sulfide (H_2S) on Mars. Represent these as particle diagrams like the ones in the article.



Discussion questions

Could there be life on Mars? Could there ever have been life on Mars?



Extension

NASA wants to send humans to Mars in 2030. Design a resources list for a space mission. List the elements, compounds and mixtures you'll need to take, and what you'll be able to produce on Mars' atmosphere.



Further reading

The Curiosity rover has discovered three main types of rock on the surface of Mars: basalt, gabbro, pyroxene and olivine.

See if you can find out which elements make up these types of rock. Do the types of rocks have unique elements within them?

The University of Minnesota has a website covering many types of minerals and rocks. Visit esci.umn.edu/courses/1001/minerals

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Periodic Updates

A brief history (and future) of the periodic table

4.1.1.3 Development of the periodic table

Key words

Element – a substance made from only one type of atom

Atomic number – the number of protons that an atom has in its nucleus

Relative atomic mass – the total mass of the protons and neutrons in an atom the mass of ^{12}C .

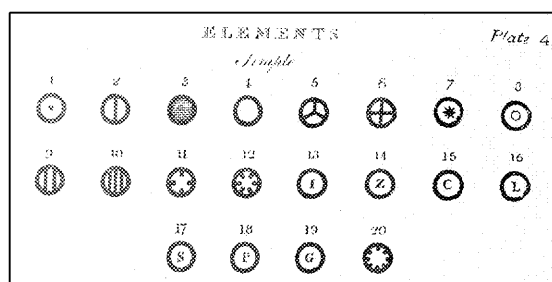
Alchemist – a person who searches for a way to create gold from other metals

Early discovery of elements

Copper was the first element known to humans. In 9000 BC humans were using copper weapons, tools, ornaments and jewellery. Other elements, such as lead, zinc and tin, have been known to humans for thousands of years. Yet we are still discovering elements today.

Hennig Brand

Hennig Brand was a bankrupt German merchant who was an alchemist searching for a way to make gold from other metals (and also cure all illnesses). He was convinced that if he boiled down human urine he could create a material which would make him incredibly rich. In the end, he created a strange, stinking substance, much to the upset of his wife. When he burnt it, however, it gave out an amazing glow and he named the substance 'phosphorous', which means 'light-bearing'. This is the first recorded discovery of an element.



Dalton assigned symbols to different elements.

Lavoisier

A Frenchman named Lavoisier is known to have claimed that oxygen, nitrogen, hydrogen and sulfur were 'simple substances'. This is the basic idea of elements. Lavoisier also discovered 'caloric' (heat), which we now know is energy.

Unfortunately, before he could take his head chopped off during the French Revolution.

Mendeleev

Mendeleev was the first person to organise the elements in a way similar to the modern periodic table. Mendeleev had organised elements in order of their atomic mass, but Mendeleev was the first to use another pattern to the elements.

Mendeleev wrote the name of every element he knew on pieces of card, and organised them to find a way to arrange them.

He awoke the next day and wrote in his diary:

'In a dream I saw a table where all the elements fell into place as required. Awoke the next day, and found down on a piece of paper.'

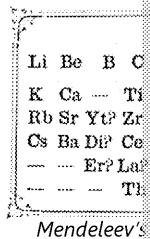
Mendeleev set to work, and finally managed to turn his list into a table, where columns of elements were arranged. Using his table, Mendeleev was able to predict the existence of some elements. Look at the periodic table. He noticed that there were elements missing between Zn (zinc) and As (arsenic). He predicted that these elements would perform the same reactions as Al (aluminium) and Si (silicon). Mendeleev called these elements 'eka-aluminium' and 'eka-silicon'.

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Mendeleev used **relative atomic mass** to order elements, but, since 1914, we have ordered them by **atomic number** (the number of protons in the nucleus).



Recent discoveries

The most recent discoveries of the periodic table are all in the bottom right corner of the periodic table. Because the periodic table is in order of atomic number, the bottom right elements have very high numbers of protons, which makes them very **unstable**, and they fall apart very easily. Some of these are so unstable that they don't last for more than a few seconds! Francium, for example, is so unstable that there is only 30 g of it at any one time in the periodic table. It will say that some elements have been reported but not fully authenticated, but they have now been named:

Atomic number	113	115	117
Name	nihonium	Moscovium	Tennessee
Symbol	Nh	Mc	Ts
Named after	日本 'nihon', the Japanese word for Japan, where it was discovered	Moscow, the city where it was discovered	Tennessee, the state where many of its discoverers were from

Which elements will we discover next?

The most recently discovered elements have been difficult to confirm because they only exist for a few seconds. Scientists have predicted that slightly larger atoms are likely to be even more unstable. However, there is a 'island of stability' for atoms of much higher mass, around atomic number 164. Perhaps element 164 will be the first of a new series of stable elements.



Comprehension questions

1. Mendeleev predicted the existence of eka-aluminium and eka-silicon. Find them on the periodic table.
2. Mendeleev ordered the elements by atomic mass. How are they ordered now?
3. Why did Mendeleev put the elements in columns rather than in one long line?
4. Find an example on your periodic table of two elements ordered by atomic mass.



Discussion question

Will the periodic table ever be completed?



Extension

In 1817, before Mendeleev's periodic table had been invented, Johann Wolfgang Döbereiner grouped some elements into 'triads' (groups of three):

1. chlorine, bromine and iodine
2. calcium, strontium and barium
3. sulfur, selenium and tellurium
4. lithium, sodium and potassium

Write a paragraph which answers these questions:

- How do you think Döbereiner decided which elements to put in each triad?
- Are elements in a triad ordered in any way?
- How are these triads similar to the periodic table?



Further reading

A small mining town in Sweden called Ytterby has a 'claim to fame' relating to the periodic table. Find out what it is. Why could this only happen in a mining town? If you get stuck, try watching this video for help: www.youtube.com/watch?v=l6lGe5jgZgl

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Aurora Borealis

What even is it?

4.1.1.7 Electronic structure

Keywords

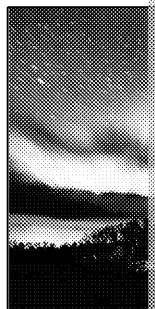
Solar wind – a stream of charged particles (protons and electrons) which are emitted from the sun.

Aurora borealis – also called the 'Northern Lights'. A natural light display only seen in the northern parts of the Earth.

Introduction

You may have heard of, or even seen, the Northern Lights. Also known as the 'aurora borealis', the Northern Lights are a natural light display which occasionally lights up the night sky in the Arctic and northern parts of Canada.

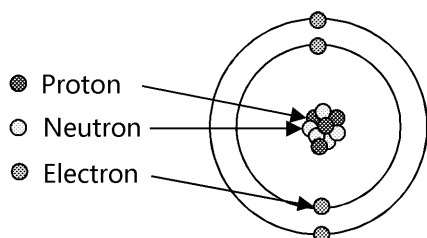
Aurora borealis was named by Galileo, who named it after Aurora, the Roman goddess of the wind, and Borealis, the Greek god of the northern wind.



Aurora borealis in the night sky in Northern Canada.

How does the aurora borealis occur?

Auroras are caused by solar winds bombarding Earth. The sun constantly emits charged particles, including protons and electrons into space, which is known as 'solar wind'. These are the same as the particles seen in diagrams of atoms. In atoms, protons are found in the nucleus of the atom, and electrons are found in shells around the nucleus.



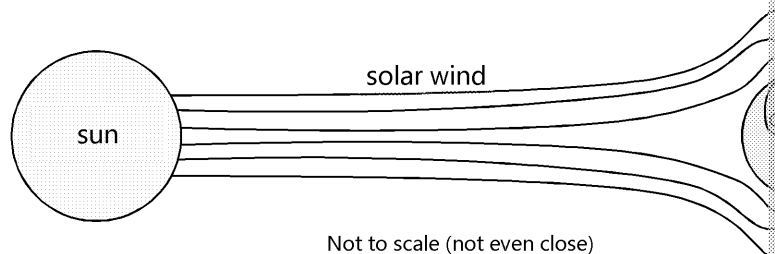
Subatomic particle

Proton

Neutron

Electron

In solar wind, protons and electrons do not form atoms, but travel independently. As they approach Earth, the charged particles are deflected towards the north and south poles by Earth's magnetic field.



When the **charged particles** come into contact with atoms and molecules in Earth's atmosphere, they cause the aurora borealis.

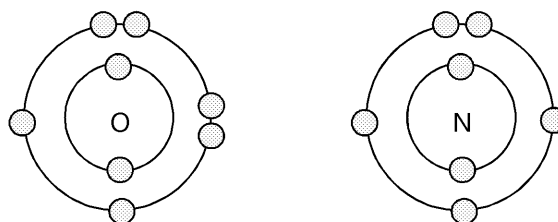
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Atoms in our atmosphere

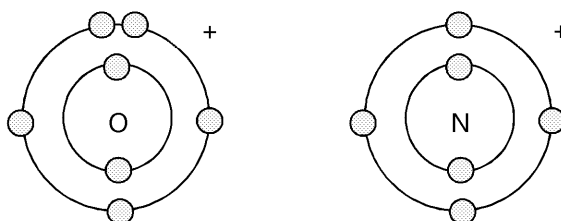
In Earth's upper atmosphere, some of the oxygen and nitrogen exists as atoms (O and N₂). These atoms have protons in their nuclei, and electrons in shells. The number of protons (+) is equal to the number of electrons (-), so the overall charge of the atoms is zero. In other words, they are neutral. Here are some electron shell diagrams of the atoms:



The chemistry of the aurora

When an electron from the solar wind collides with a nitrogen or oxygen atom, an ion is formed. When an electron from solar wind hits an atom of oxygen or nitrogen, it can remove an electron from the atom, and an ion is formed.

Both of these atoms now have a positive charge. This is because they have lost a negative electron. The number of protons (+) in the nucleus is now one more than the number of electrons (-), so, overall, they are positively charged.



Eventually (over a few seconds) the ion gains an electron, and the original atom is formed. This is why you see the aurora. Different gases emit different colours of light (in the same way as different colour flames in flame tests). Oxygen glows orange-red, and nitrogen glows blue-violet. Nitrogen and oxygen are the main atoms in the upper atmosphere.

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Comprehension questions

1. What kind of subatomic particles make up solar wind?
2. What charge is on each of these subatomic particles?
3. What does solar wind interact with in our atmosphere?
4. Explain how auroras happen.
5. Other atoms can light up when they interact with solar winds. These atoms form. Explain why these colours are not seen as regularly as the colours of hydrogen.



Discussion question

Other planets have different atoms in their atmosphere. How do you think the colours of auroras on other planets?



Extension

Neon lights work by electrons flowing through a tube of neon atoms. Neon is the reason that solar winds cause auroras.

Draw the electronic structure of an atom of neon and a Ne^+ ion.

Use your diagrams to explain how electrons can cause neon to light up in neon signs.



Further reading

This article has mostly referred to the auroras seen at the North Pole – the *borealis*. The diagram shows that the charged particles in solar wind also cause auroras at the South Pole. Find out what this is called.

If you're interested in seeing some auroras for yourself, AuroraWatch UK monitors aurora activity. You can set up email alerts to notify you when there may be an aurora.

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What Do You Call a Noble Gas

Whatever you want: it won't react

4.1.2.4 Group 0

Keywords

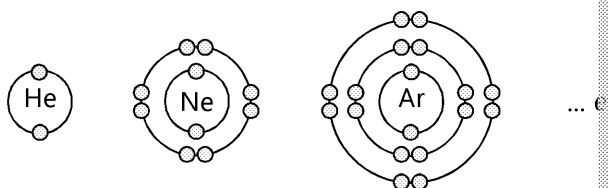
Boiling point – the temperature at which a substance changes from a liquid to a gas

Relative atomic mass – the total mass of the protons and neutrons in an atom, expressed as a multiple of one twelfth the mass of ^{12}C .

Inert – something which does not easily react

Noble gases

Noble gases are in group 0 of the periodic table. They all have eight electrons in their outer shell, except for helium, which has two.

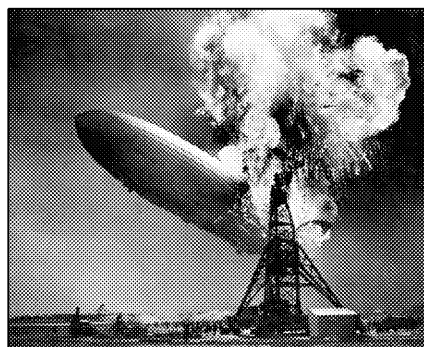


Noble gases are not very good at forming compounds. This is because they have a full outer shell. They cannot form ions, so cannot form ionic bonds or metallic bonds, and they cannot form covalent bonds.

Noble gases might not be very reactive, but that doesn't mean they aren't useful. They are so useful!

Noble gases are super-cool

MRI machines are used in hospitals as a safer alternative to X-rays. MRI machines which work better when they are very cold. Generally these magnets are cooled using noble gases. You will have learnt that noble gases lower in group 0 have a higher boiling point, and so has the lowest boiling point of all the noble gases: $-269\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. Helium is useful because it is still a gas at very low temperatures, and so it can be pumped around and used as a liquid.



The Hindenburg disaster, where a hydrogen airship ignited while it was docking

Airships

Another use for helium is in airships such as blimps. Hydrogen, H_2 , but hydrogen is very reactive. It was popular until the famous Hindenburg disaster in 1937, when almost 100 people ignited and crashed. This disaster led people to begin to think that airships were not safe. Airships and weather balloons are now filled with helium, so unreactive, there is no danger of a disaster like the Hindenburg happening again when noble gases are used.

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Lightbulbs

Noble gases are also found in lightbulbs. If a lightbulb's filament comes into contact with oxygen in the air, it will begin to burn. Instead, these bulbs are filled with argon gas, which means that there is no oxygen to react with the filament.

Just as in airships, noble gases are useful in light bulbs because they are inert, and so they do not react with the filament.

Dangers of noble gases

Just because noble gases are unreactive, doesn't mean they are safe. If a person breathes helium, they can lose their voice go very high because helium is lighter than air. This is also why helium balloons pop. Helium is lighter than air, so that helium will replace the oxygen needed by the body, causing dizziness and even unconsciousness.

Moving down group 0, the noble gases get heavier. Elements lower in group 0 have more protons and neutrons in their nuclei. If you filled a balloon with argon, it would be heavier than a balloon filled with exhaled air. One danger of working with argon is that it is heavier than air, so it sinks to the bottom of your lungs and it is very difficult to breathe the argon back out. Breathing argon can result in asphyxiation, because your body cannot get enough oxygen.



Comprehension questions

1. Draw the electron structure of argon.
2. Why are noble gases inert?
3. How does the boiling point of the noble gases change down group 0?



Discussion question

How would the world be different if there were no noble gases?



Extension

The world's supply of helium is running out, and it is impossible to make more. Write a letter to the prime minister to:

- explain how the world would be different if there was not enough helium
- persuade them to make new laws which could prevent the shortage of helium



Further reading

You'll learn in school (and here) that noble gases are completely unreactive. Try searching for noble gas compounds on the Internet. Over 100 exist! (You can't breathe them, though.)

This *New Scientist* article might get you started:

[newscientist.com/article/mg21328481-700-impossible-chemistry-for-noble-gases](http://www.newscientist.com/article/mg21328481-700-impossible-chemistry-for-noble-gases)

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Mete-Ores

Mining in space

4.1.3.2 Properties of metals

Keywords

Transition metal – elements from the middle of the periodic table, including cobalt, nickel and copper

Catalyst – something which can speed up a reaction, but is not used up

Introduction

Transition metals are very valuable materials. They are typically strong, less reactive than other metals, useful for catalysing reactions, and can form coloured compounds. But as we use transition metals in more applications, our supply of transition metals may begin to run out. Some people think that mining asteroids might be a good way to find more metals.

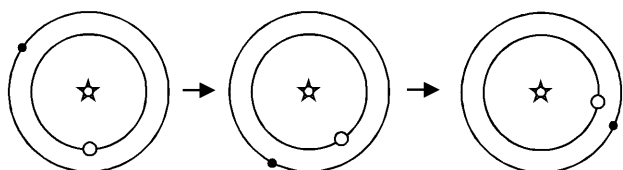
1 H					
2 He	3 Li	4 Be			
5 B	6 C	7 N	8 O	9 F	10 Ne
11 Na	12 Mg				
13 Al	14 Si	15 P	16 S	17 Cl	18 Ar
19 K	20 Ca	21 Sc	22 Ti	23 V	24 Cr
25 Mn	26 Fe	27 Co	28 Ni	29 Cu	30 Zn
31 Ga	32 Ge	33 As	34 Se	35 Br	36 Kr
37 Rb	38 Sr	39 Y	40 Zr	41 Nb	42 Mo
43 Tc	44 Ru	45 Rh	46 Pd	47 Ag	48 Cd
51 Sb	52 Te	53 I	54 Xe		
55 Cs	56 Ba		72 Hf	73 Ta	74 W
77 Ir	78 Pt	79 Au	80 Hg	81 Tl	82 Pb
83 Bi	84 Po	85 At	86 Rn	104 Rf	105 Db
				106 Sg	107 Bh

How to mine an asteroid

Asteroids are large objects in space which orbit the sun. Asteroids range from 6 m to 925 km. There are three types: carbon-rich (C-type), silicon-rich (S-type), and metal-rich (M-type).

Some companies think that if they can find a way to mine asteroids, especially M-type, they can make a lot of money selling the transition metals.

1: Find an asteroid and wait for it to get close to Earth

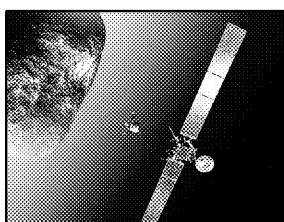


There are more than half a million known asteroids.

Only a small number of these are M-type asteroids.

These are worth mining because they contain a large amount of transition metals.

3: Get to the asteroid and drill into the surface



The only current mission going to an asteroid is the European Space Agency's *Rosetta* mission, which reached a comet in 2014. However, this was not a mining mission, and was just used to analyse the comet.

2: Build a rocket

There are many different types of rockets, but they are all expensive to build and launch.

4: Get the metals



Both NASA and the Japanese Space Agency (JAXA) have launched missions to asteroids. They hope to return samples to Earth for scientific study.

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How much is an asteroid worth?

NASA has recently said it wants to visit an asteroid which, if it could bring the whole thing to Earth, would be worth ten thousand quadrillion dollars (\$10,000,000,000,000,000). But NASA has no plans to mine this asteroid – they have said they just want to send a probe which can analyse it.

Asteroid
Ryugu, 1989 M ₁
Didymos, 1992 M ₂
SG10, 2002 M ₁
2011 UW
Anteros, 2000 M ₁

Which asteroids?

The Asterank database has put together a list of asteroids which could be mined for profit that could be made from them. These asteroids generally contain the transition metals. Some asteroids also contain platinum and aluminium.

Why are transition metals worth so much money?

Transition metals have some very important, large-scale applications:

- **Iron** is very important in engineering and construction because it is very **strong**.
- **Nickel** is a valuable **catalyst** in processes such as making margarine.
- **Platinum** is a very expensive **catalyst** used in catalytic converters in cars and in jewellery.
- **Cobalt** is used in pigments (colours) for art such as stained glass and pottery **coloured compounds**.

But the most exciting applications of transition metals are a bit more niche:

- Gold, one of the most iconic metals, has been valued throughout civilisations because of its colour other than grey and it doesn't corrode, making it perfect for decorative purposes. It is also an incredibly good electrical conductor, and is used in high-performance electronics. There is more gold in 10 tonnes of old computers than there is in 10 tonnes of gold ore.
- Silver, also known for its use in jewellery, is used for developing photographs. Silver bromide and silver chloride, change colour when exposed to light. This is how they make an image from the light that hits them, and then turned into photographs.
- An alloy of nickel and titanium, in a specific ratio of nickel to titanium, can be used to make smart alloys which will return to its shape after being bent. Smart alloys are used in dentistry to hold teeth into the desired position.



Comprehension questions

1. Space flight is very expensive. Explain why asteroid mining could still be viable.
2. Name a transition metal other than nickel that can be found on asteroids.
3. Describe **two** uses for nickel.
4. Why are C-type and S-type asteroids not good targets for asteroid mining?



Discussion question

What advantages and disadvantages are there to mining asteroids for more resources?



Extension

Design a robot which could be used to extract transition metals from an asteroid. How is it going to return to Earth? Will it only extract certain metals?



Further reading

NASA is planning an *Asteroid Redirect Mission* which will be the first mission to bring an asteroid sample to Earth. Read more about it on the NASA website.

[nasa.gov/content/what-is-nasa-s-asteroid-redirect-mission](https://www.nasa.gov/content/what-is-nasa-s-asteroid-redirect-mission)

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Silicon Lifeforms

It's life, Jim, just not as we know it

4.2.1.4 Covalent bonding

Keywords

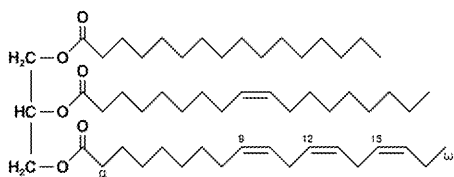
Carbon-based – something which is mostly made out of carbon. All life on Earth is carbon-based.

Covalent bond – the bond formed between two atoms when they share a pair of electrons.

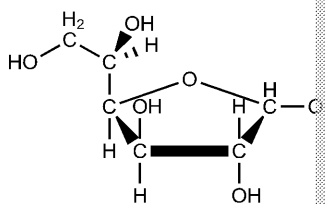
Introduction

Carbon and silicon are in the same group in the periodic table. This means that they have similar properties. Both make four covalent bonds to other atoms when they form compounds. They both have four electrons in their outer shell.

Fatty acids, sugars and amino acids are all based on carbon:



Fatty acids



Sugar

Despite their similarities, all life on Earth is **carbon-based**, and very little life on Earth is silicon-based. Silicon is the most similar to carbon, because they are in the same group in the periodic table. This is why, this, scientists think that if another element is used for life instead of carbon, it will be silicon. Will it be enough to carbon for this to happen?

Why is life carbon-based?

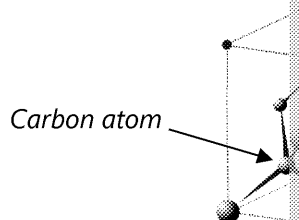
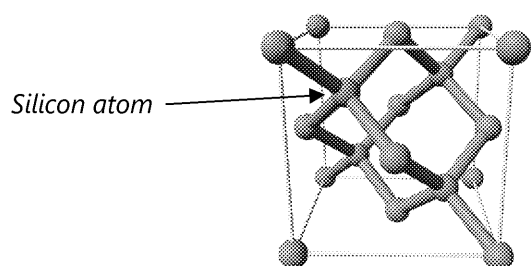
Life on Earth is based on carbon. Just about every molecule in your body is made of carbon. The plants and animals we eat are carbon-based too, because our food is our source of carbon. Carbon is used in the form of sugars, proteins and fats.

Scientists think that carbon is used for almost everything in life because it can form strong covalent bonds that are relatively stable, like carbohydrates, proteins and DNA.

Similarities between carbon and silicon

Carbon and silicon both form four covalent bonds with the atoms around them. As a result, they form similar structures.

For example, both diamond and silicon form structures like the ones below. Not all atoms are shown in the diagrams, so you have to imagine that the structure keeps on going outwards in all directions.

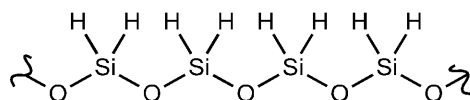


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Pure silicon cannot form polymers because it burns in oxygen. However, silicon can make long molecules, just like carbon is able to. An example of a silicon polymer section is shown below.



Because silicon is able to form molecules very similar to the molecules made from carbon, silicon probably could replace carbon in some places in biological life.

Silicon used by life

Despite the similarities between carbon and silicon, there are very few examples of natural life using silicon. Some algae use silica (silicon dioxide) to make their cell walls. Even though these algae have silicon in them, they do not have any carbon–silicon bonds, and the rest of their biological function is carbon-based.

Carbon–silicon bonds

Carbon–silicon bonds are very often made by scientists in laboratories, and have widespread uses. Carbon–silicon bonds are found in materials used for TV and computer screens, paints, glues and solar panels.

However, carbon–silicon bonds have never been found in nature. Scientists find this puzzling because silicon is readily available on Earth in rocks. Despite this, compounds containing silicon can have biological effects. For example, some silicon-containing carbon-based compounds are used as insecticides, to protect crops, and it is also known that some compounds with carbon–silicon bonds can affect bees.

Recent discovery by scientists

In 2016, scientists working at the California Institute of Technology in the USA were able to form carbon–silicon bonds. They found a protein in a bacterial cell which makes carbon–silicon bonds. The scientists took the DNA responsible for making the protein and put it into a new bacterial cell. They then selectively bred the bacteria until it could create carbon–silicon bonds.

This discovery is exciting because the bacteria they produced could make carbon–silicon bonds, a process humans have developed. This might be helpful for designing and building new materials. If bacteria can be made to do this on Earth, then because there are so many stars in the universe, people think that silicon-based lifeforms are inevitable.



This is a silicon chip.
The silicon chip is used in computers.

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Comprehension questions

1. Name an example of biological life using silicon.
2. What was new about the discovery made by the scientists at the California Institute of Technology?
3. How could the discovery be used in the future?
4. What non-biological uses are there for carbon–silicon bonds?
5. Draw a dot-and-cross diagram for
 - a. CH_4
 - b. SiH_4



Discussion questions

Could life ever incorporate silicon? Could silicon-based life exist?



Extension

Design a planet for a silicon-based life form. Silicon compounds tend to be brittle because of the oxygen, so think carefully about which gases could be in the atmosphere. What sort of things would be different on the planet? What kinds of food would be available?



Further reading

The astronomer Carl Sagan predicted that if alien life exists, it may not be based on carbon. Other elements could be used. One of them was silicon. Can you predict what other elements could be used? What can you find out. Does your prediction match Carl Sagan's prediction?

This Wikipedia article has a comprehensive rundown of alternative elements:
en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Hypothetical_types_of_biochemistry

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Trapped Gas

Methane bubbles trapped in Abraham Lake

4.2.2 How bonding and structure are related to the properties of

Keywords

Particle diagram – a diagram used to show how particles, represented by spheres

Space-filling model – a model which shows how atoms are arranged in a molecule

State change – when a substance changes between state, e.g. solid, liquid, gas

Abraham Lake

This picture is of Abraham Lake in Canada. Canada gets cold enough in the winter that the lake freezes over, forming a layer of ice. But can you see anything unusual in this picture? In the bottom left corner there are a few white circles.



Abraham Lake in Canada. The white circles in the bottom left of this picture are methane gas trapped under the ice.

What are they?

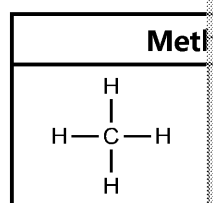
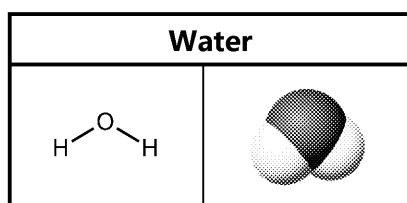
If you haven't figured it out already from the title of this article, these are bubbles of trapped gas. But the gas isn't just any gas – it's methane, a highly flammable gas.

Methane is produced by plants decomposing (rotting) on the lakebed. In the summer, the gas escapes, but in the winter the gas gets trapped under the ice layer. As more ice forms, more methane gets trapped under the ice, forming these bubbles.

Properties of water and methane

The temperature of Abraham Lake gets down to about $-15\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$. At this temperature water changes state from liquid (l) to solid (s). But methane, CH_4 , does not change state, and remains as a gas.

So why is it that water and methane have such different properties? After all, both are made of carbon and hydrogen atoms bonded only to hydrogen atoms. This is easy to see in diagrams, and in **space-filling** models.



The particles are clearly different sizes and shapes to each other, but this doesn't explain why they are in different states at the same temperature.

To figure out why this is the case, we need to think about what happens when some substances change state.

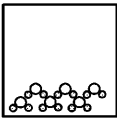
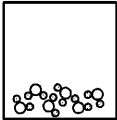
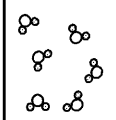
State changes

Both methane and water are substances made up of small covalent molecules. The forces between these molecules are strong. At higher temperatures, these forces start to break down. And when the forces break down, the molecules separate from each other and spread out. This is the reason that substances change state.

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Solid	Liquid	Gas
Regular forces between particles	Some of the forces between particles are broken	Very few forces between particles
		

The difference between water and methane is that water has **stronger forces** between particles. These forces are given their own name – ‘hydrogen bonds’.

These forces take more thermal energy to break, so water melts at 0 °C, and is liquid at room temperature. In comparison, methane has already melted at -182 °C, when there is much less thermal energy.

At -15 °C:

- water is below its melting point, so is a solid
- methane is well above its boiling point, so is a gas

Exploding lakes?

Abraham Lake releases methane very slowly, but there have been cases elsewhere where methane has escaped from under the water.

One of these is Lake Nyos in Cameroon, where large amounts of carbon dioxide built up under the lake. In 1986, a large landslide caused a huge cloud of over 100,000 tonnes of carbon dioxide to escape from the lake. A silent, invisible cloud of CO₂ swept over the surrounding village, which led to the death of many people and their livestock in their sleep. Lake Nyos is one of only three lakes in the world known to contain large amounts of dissolved gas.



Comprehension questions

1. Draw particle diagrams for methane, ice and liquid water.
2. Explain why methane is a gas at 25 °C, whereas water is a liquid.



Discussion question

In what situations will methane and water be in the same state? (Hint: think about the boiling point of water.)



Extension

Four students are having an argument on Twitter about why water has a higher boiling point than methane.

Angela: ‘It’s because water has stronger covalent bonds than methane.’

Barack: ‘The strength of the covalent bonds doesn’t matter.’

Theresa: ‘Water has stronger forces between molecules.’

Donald: ‘Water and methane are broken up into atoms when they boil.’

Who do you agree with? Write an explanation for each comment about why you agree or disagree.



Further reading

Molecules similar to water (H₂O), such as H₂S, H₂Se and H₂Te, do not have hydrogen bonds. How do you think their melting and boiling points compare to H₂O?

Find out more about hydrogen bonding here: chemguide.co.uk/atoms/bonding/hydrogen.html

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Seventeenth-century Nanoscience

Are nanotubes the secret to an ancient metal's strength?

4.2.4 Bulk and surface properties of matter including nanoparticles

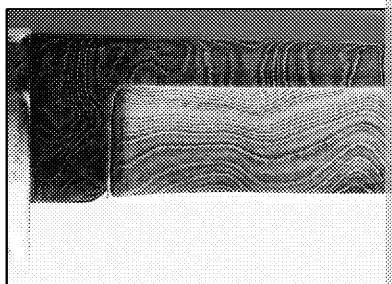
Keywords

Nanoparticle – any particle which is 1–100 nm (10^{-9} – 10^{-7} m)

Alloy – a mixture of metals

Nanotechnology

Back in the seventeenth century in the Near East, steelworkers had perfected a recipe for producing a very strong steel now known as Damascus steel. The legend went that the steel was so strong that Damascus swords could cut through other swords, and that they were so sharp that if a piece of silk fell on the blade, the weight of the silk was enough to cut the silk in two.



A Damascus steel blade, with characteristic wavy patterns. The exact method for recreating this pattern has been lost.

Since then, the process for making Damascus steel has been lost, and nobody has managed to replicate the process without using modern technology. Today, researchers are still interested in finding out why these swords are so strong, and what the exact method was.

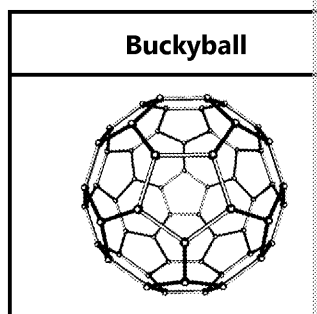
What is steel?

We know that Damascus steel was made mostly from iron, with small amounts of other impurities such as carbon. The carbon in the wood is incorporated into the iron. A mixture called an 'alloy' is formed. Many alloys are stronger than pure metals because of their different metal structure.

Why are Damascus swords so strong?

But Damascus steel isn't just any alloy. A recent discovery by German scientists found that the carbon in Damascus swords is arranged into carbon nanotubes.

A carbon nanotube is a type of fullerene. Fullerenes are hollow nanoparticles of carbon. Other fullerenes include buckyballs, which are nano-sized spheres of carbon atoms covalently bonded together. The pattern on a buckyball looks like the black and white sections on a football.



Nanoparticles like the ones above contain around 100 carbon atoms.

Scientists think that the nanotubes in Damascus steel are partly responsible for their strength. It was thought that the fibres of nanotubes hold the steel together more strongly without

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The future of nanomaterials

Nanotubes are well known for their high strength, and are being developed by scientists such as those used in the manufacture of **sports equipment** and in **building**, where they are strong and flexible.

Because of the regular arrangement of atoms in carbon nanotubes, scientists have developed materials where carbon nanotubes are incorporated to improve their strength. Some **baseball bats** are manufactured so that carbon nanotubes are added as they are created.

Carbon nanotubes could also be used for delivering **drug molecules** to very specific cells. Researchers are looking into creating nanotube 'needles' which can inject into individual cells with precision for delivering medicine. This may be useful for targeting individual cells, for example.



Comprehension questions

1. How large are nanoparticles? Give your answer in standard form, in metres.
2. Name and describe two nanoparticle structures.
3. Describe the composition of Damascus steel.
4. Explain what properties of Damascus steel make it better than normal steel.



Discussion questions

Could you make nanoparticles from other elements? Why do you think that you cannot make nanoparticles from carbon nanoparticles?



Extension

What other uses can you think of for nanotube-reinforced materials? Write down one use and explain how nanotubes improve the performance of that material.



Further reading

Carbon fullerenes have turned up in some unexpected places. Do some research to find out in any places where carbon nanostructures have developed naturally.

This article goes in-depth about one of the first discoveries of fullerenes in nature. universetoday.com/76732/buckyballs-could-be-plentiful-in-the-universe

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Biopolymers

The polymers which keep you alive

4.2.2.5 Polymers

Keywords

Synthetic – made by humans (not found naturally)

Polymer – a long molecule with a repeating structure

Monomer – one repeating unit of a polymer

Not just plastics

When you think of polymers, you probably think about plastics, and other *extreme* materials. But did you know that your body contains loads of different kinds of polymers which range from your cell walls to your skin to the sugar you eat is made of polymers.

What's a polymer?

Your textbook and your teacher will tell you that polymers are made of repeating monomers covalently bond together to form very large molecules. Some examples are polyethene (polythene), polyvinyl chloride and polystyrene.

polyethene	polyvinyl chloride
$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & \\ -\text{C} & -\text{C}- \\ & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array} \right]_n$	$\left[\begin{array}{cc} \text{Cl} & \text{H} \\ & \\ -\text{C} & -\text{C}- \\ & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array} \right]_n$

The small 'n' in the bottom right corner of the structures shows that everything will repeat many times. These diagrams show one **monomer**, which repeats to form a **polymer**.

Synthetic polymers can be manufactured to have very different properties:

- Kevlar is very hard, and is used for bulletproof vests.
- Polyethene is cheap, and is used in supermarket bags and plastic bottles.
- Polyvinyl chloride is very unreactive, so is used for making sewer pipes.
- Glues are also polymers. PVA and superglue are both polymers with very strong chains.

Where does the human body use polymers?

Just like synthetic polymers, natural polymers also have very different properties, but it's more exciting. The different properties of natural polymers are even more varied than synthetic ones as they do very specific things in nature.

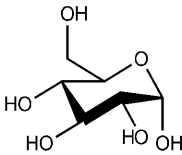
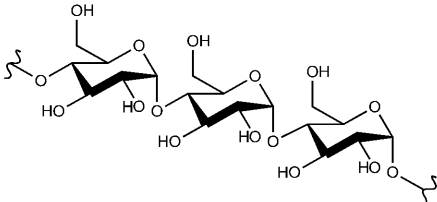
Polysaccharides

Polysaccharides are repeating chains of saccharide monomers, also known as 'sugars' as a way of storing sugars. When a plant performs photosynthesis, it produces glucose as a source of energy. The plant then converts the sugar monomers into polymers so that the energy is stored.

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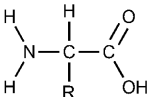
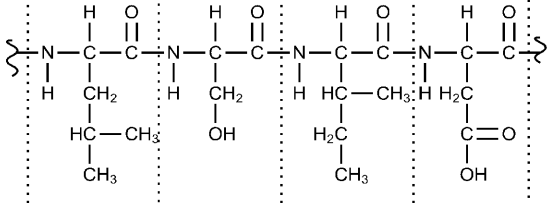
A saccharide monomer	A section of a polysaccharide	A
		

When an animal eats a plant, the animal digests the polysaccharides back into shorter sugars, such as glucose, as well as some molecules with two sugar monomers called 'disaccharides'. These shorter molecules are then used as an energy source.

Polypeptides

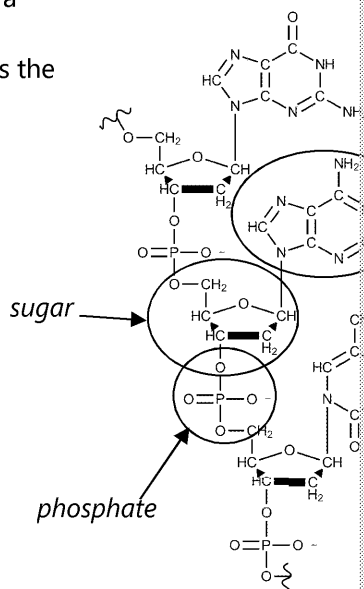
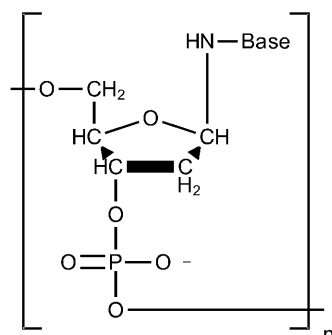
In your cells, enzymes are the molecules which do almost everything. They aid digestion and ensure that cells have the minerals they need. They are known as 'biological catalysts'.

An enzyme is a type of polymer called a polypeptides. A single peptide monomer join Polypeptides are special because they 'fold up' to form large 3D structures. The shape specific, and allows the polypeptide or enzyme to hold specific molecules and break

One amino acid	A polypeptide, with a repeating structure of amino acids
	

DNA

Every cell in your body has a complete copy of your DNA (deoxyribonucleic acid). It is made up of nucleotide monomers. Each nucleotide is made up of a phosphate, a sugar and a nitrogenous base. The phosphates and sugars join together to create a chain with a repeating structure. Two chains join together to form the famous 'double helix', which is the name for the type of spiral seen in DNA. The repeating structure is shown below:



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Comprehension questions

1. Give the monomers of each of these polymers:
 - a. polysaccharide
 - b. polypeptide
 - c. DNA
2. When are polysaccharides broken down into their monomers, and why?
3. What components make up a DNA monomer?
4. In DNA, there is an alternating chain of phosphates and sugars. What is the bond between the phosphate and the atoms in the sugar? Are these bonds weak or strong?
5. There is a specific way of drawing polymers showing only one repeating unit. Draw the structures of the polymers you have drawn. How do you draw the repeating unit? Show the bonds to the next repeating unit.



Discussion question

Why do you think there are so many kinds of polymer in biology?



Extension

It is difficult to separate these polymer molecules from the rest of a living cell. They are too small and too soluble in water to see them. But if you could, what do you think they would look like?

Write a short paragraph explaining what state you would expect these polymers to be in. Compare that to the state you would expect a monomer to be in. Consider intermolecular forces in your answer.



Further reading

Cellulose is another polymer found in biology. Look it up at scienceclarified.com/Ca-Ch/Cellulose.html or find out about it in a book.

Which of the polymers in this article is cellulose most like, and why? How does it have those differences?

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The Hip New Joint in Town

A new alloy has properties for artificial joints

4.2.2.7 Properties of metals and alloys

Keywords

Alloy – a mixture of metals

Hardness – how resistant a material is to being bent or shaped

Corrosion – when a material reacts with oxygen in the air. Corrosion can lead to

Alloys

An alloy is a mixture of metals. Alloys have been used for thousands of years; for example, bronze is an alloy of copper and tin, and the earliest bronze artefacts date from around 4500 BCE. To make bronze, both copper and tin must be melted and then added together in the correct amounts.

Why did people go to all this trouble thousands of years ago to create alloys? The answer is because of their properties. Pure metals such as copper and tin are very soft and are easily bent. Alloys such as bronze are much harder than the metals from which they are made. Bronze's improved properties made it useful in making armour and weaponry.

Forming an alloy can also change a metal's appearance. The different 'carats' of gold because they have different amounts of other metals mixed in. For instance, 18 carat metals. The Ancient Greeks liked to use an alloy called 'white gold' – for ornaments. 'stainless steel' which is an alloy of iron that includes chromium, is also used for its

Modern alloys

Nowadays we use alloys for many purposes. The most commonly alloyed metal is iron. Iron reacts easily with water, causing rust to build up. This process is called corrosion. Corroding than pure iron.

Alloys are often used in jewellery. Pure gold is very soft, and so can be worn down. Gold with silver and copper are commonly made to increase the hardness of the gold.



This X-ray image shows a titanium hip joint.

Alloys for artificial joints

What kind of material would you use for an artificial joint? It needs to be a material which does not **corrode**. An artificial joint would break down inside the body. It must be **durable**, because the two parts of the joint will be joined together as the joint was used. As the metal is used, the material must also be **non-toxic**.

Normally, artificial joints are made from alloys that are non-toxic and reasonably hard.

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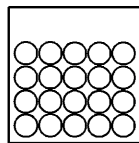
A new titanium alloy

In 2016, scientists at Rice University in Texas, USA, discovered a new alloy made from **titanium and gold**. When developing this compound, the scientists tested multiple different alloys of titanium, and found that the hardest titanium–gold alloy was when the material had a ratio of 3:1 titanium to gold and so the researchers imaginatively called it titanium-3-gold. This is almost 4 times harder than the pure metal – imagine kicking your toe on a piece of that! Even more importantly it is not toxic, so could be used for long lasting hip-replacements. It's basically the next step to creating Wolverine!

The scientists think that the new material would be very useful in applications which need a hard substance, e.g. in artificial joints. It could also be used to create materials for drills or in sports equipment. This is a bit of a surprise in store, however. Even though gold and titanium are not **magnetic**, and a catch is that it needs to be cooled to -237°C for this to be seen.

Alloys are harder than pure metal because of the layout of the atoms.

Pure metal



The layers can slide over each other.



Comprehension questions

1. Explain why titanium is used in medical implants such as artificial joints.
2. Draw particle diagrams of tin, copper and bronze.
3. Draw a diagram of the alloy gold–titanium. Remember that it has a ratio of 3:1.
4. Explain why this alloy is harder than pure titanium.



Discussion question

Why might or might not the NHS start using this new alloy?



Extension

Some private health companies may be interested in developing high-grade titanium alloys. Write an advert for medical implants made from this new alloy. This advert is for use by private medical companies.



Further reading

Current artificial joints aren't made of pure titanium. See if you can find out what they are alloyed with.

Supra Alloys have published information about the advantages of titanium in biomedical implants here: supraalloys.com/medical-titanium.php

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Applications of Graphene

Using graphene to generate electricity

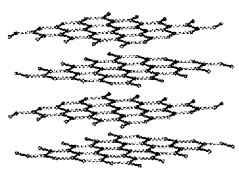

4.2.3.3 Graphene and fullerenes

Keywords

Graphene – a single layer of graphite

What is graphene?

Graphene is a single layer of carbon atoms. It was first discovered by scientists who used adhesive tape to remove a few layers at a time until there was only one layer left. Yes, it really is as simple as that!

Graphite	Graphene
	
Multiple layers of carbon atoms	A single layer of carbon atoms

After graphene was first made in this way, more methods were developed for its production, allowing it to be made in larger quantities. Since then, graphene has been used in a wide range of places, but its most interesting uses are still being developed.

Properties of graphene

Graphene has properties which scientists think will make it very useful. The most important properties of graphene are that it can **conduct electricity** and that it is **very strong** compared to its weight. It is much stronger than graphite because it does not have a layer structure, so it is not soft like graphite is.

It also has a very large surface area because all of the carbon atoms are exposed, unlike in graphite where carbon atoms on the inside layers are not.



Pencils contain graphite.

Why is graphene strong?

Comparing graphene to graphite, you might expect graphene to be very soft, just like graphite. However, the reason graphite is soft is that the layers can slide over each other. This is what happens when you write with a pencil: the layers slide off and are left behind on the paper. When this happens, the bonds within the layers are very strong. Graphene is strong because it is held together by these strong bonds between carbon atoms.

Why is graphene conductive?

Look closely at the diagram of graphene above. Each carbon atom has three covalent bonds in a plane around it. Carbon has four electrons in its outer shell, but only three of these are used in the covalent bonds. The fourth electron is able to move along the graphene layer, and so graphene can conduct electricity.

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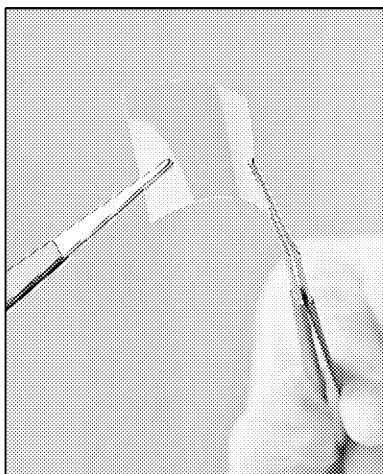
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Printing circuits

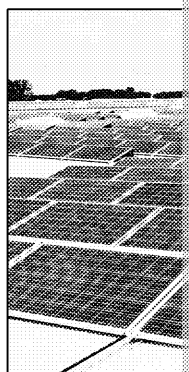
A company in China quickly found a use for graphene by utilising its electrical conductivity: printed electronic circuits.

The company makes see-through plastic films which have circuits printed onto them.

**Solar panels**

One potential use for graphene is in solar panels. Researchers have developed a material which can absorb light, but not

The researchers have created a textured layer that allows light to pass through the eyes. This textured layer can absorb more light than traditional solar panels. Researchers think this might be used in solar panels.

**Electricity from rain**

Another use for graphene's high conductivity could be in generating electricity from rain. Scientists have developed a graphene-based material which can use the salts dissolved in raindrops to generate electrical energy. The graphene material could be used as a coating on solar panels.

Graphene is so thin that the material is transparent and can let the light through, and so the solar panel is not affected. Having a layer of graphene on a solar panel would mean that the solar panels can generate electricity even when it's raining.

**Body sensors**

One of the most exciting uses of graphene is in body sensors. Graphene is very flexible, and has been developed by the University of Surrey as a body monitor.

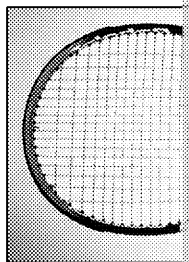
The researchers created a rubber chest strap sensor that allowed the team to measure the breathing rate. As the person's chest expanded, the graphene stretched, and the electrical conductivity changed. The researchers measured how fast the graphene stretched, and this allowed them to measure how fast a person was breathing.

Similar future uses for graphene could be to measure pulse, breathing rate or movement.

Sports equipment

Graphene's high strength has meant that many sports companies are interested in developing it so it can be used in high-performance sports equipment.

Graphene is currently being used in tennis racquets, and many cycling companies are developing graphene so that it can be used to reduce the weight of bicycles.



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Comprehension questions

1. Describe why graphene would be a suitable material for:
 - a. body sensors
 - b. high-performance sport equipment
 - c. a coating on solar panels
2. Describe the structure of graphene.
3. Use your answer from 2 to explain why graphene has the properties



Discussion question

What things in your home could be improved using graphene?



Extension

A dress made from graphene was unveiled in early 2017 which changes colour with heart beats. Design another item of clothing which incorporates graphene. Describe what it does, and why graphene is a suitable material for this purpose.



Further reading

Graphene has a huge number of applications across all of the sciences. Visit the website which allows you to explore the discovery and applications of graphene. graphene.manchester.ac.uk

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It's Not Rocket Science! Oh Wait,

Why NASA needs to know its moles

4.3 Quantitative chemistry

Keywords

In excess – a reactant which will not be used up when a reaction has completed

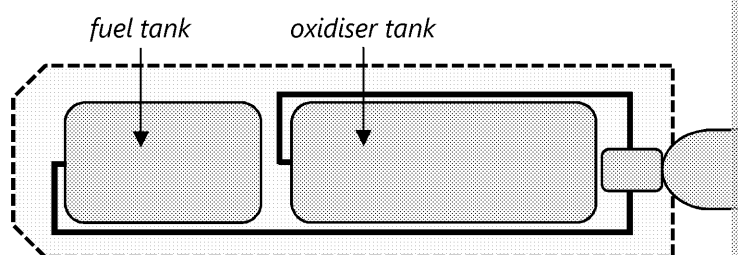
Limiting reactant – the reactant which is not in excess

Conservation of mass – the law that the total mass of products is the same as the total mass of reactants

Relative formula mass – the sum of the relative atomic masses of the atoms in a formula

How does a rocket work?

Rockets work by burning a fuel, and propelling the exhaust gas (burnt fuel) out the back. The exhaust gas being pushed out the back of the rocket pushes the rocket in the opposite direction. Rockets can reach speeds of up to 3.1 km / s in order to get into orbit.



Rocket scientists need to be very careful about the amount of fuel that goes into a rocket. They want the rocket to be as light as possible while also having enough fuel to propel it fast enough.

Limiting reactants

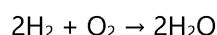
Rocket engines are usually fuelled by hydrogen. Rockets also carry their own oxygen because there's no oxygen in space! Both the fuel and the oxygen are cooled down and pressurised rather than a gas. This means that the fuel tanks can be smaller.

To figure out how much fuel to put in a rocket, rocket scientists have to calculate the amount of fuel needed to get the rocket to space. The amount of oxygen required to burn all of that fuel is then calculated. A ratio of fuel to oxygen is calculated, so that no fuel or oxygen is left over. In a perfect reaction, the fuel is a **limiting reactant**, and neither reactant is **in excess**.

How many moles of fuel?

Rocket scientists use moles to find the amount of oxygen required to completely burn a given amount of fuel. The fuel is hydrogen.

The equation for hydrogen burning in a rocket engine is:



106,261 kg of liquid hydrogen is required to lift the space shuttle into space. To find the amount of oxygen required, we need to do a mole calculation:

106,261 kg is 106,261,000 g of liquid hydrogen.

The relative formula mass of hydrogen is 2.

The number of moles of hydrogen is $\frac{106,261,000}{2} = 53\,130\,500$ moles.

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To find the number of moles of oxygen, we need to look at the ratio they react in. For every two moles of hydrogen react with one mole of oxygen. In other words, for every two moles of hydrogen, one mole of oxygen is required.

Half of 53,130,500 is $\frac{53,130,500}{2} = 26\,565\,250$ moles of oxygen.

Oxygen has a relative formula mass of 16.

The mass of oxygen required is $26\,565\,250 \times 32 = 850\,088\,000 \text{ g} = 850\,088 \text{ kg}$.

What mass of exhaust gas?

The whole reason rocket fuel is burnt is so that it is ejected from the rear of the rocket. Rocket scientists need to know what the mass of the exhaust gas is, so that they can tell how fast the rocket will accelerate. To find the mass of the exhaust gas we can do another mole calculation.

From the reaction, we know that every two moles of hydrogen is converted into two moles of water. In other words, there is a 1:1 ratio of hydrogen to water.

We know from earlier that the number of moles of hydrogen in the rocket is 53,130,500 moles.

This is the same as the number of moles of water produced.

The relative formula mass of water is 18.

The amount of exhaust gas produced is $53\,130\,500 \times 18 = 956\,349\,000 \text{ g} = 956\,349 \text{ kg}$.

Conservation of mass

Compare the mass of the reactants with the mass of the products. At the start, there was 106,261 kg of hydrogen and 850,088 kg of oxygen. In total there was $106,261 + 850,088 = 956,349 \text{ kg}$ of reactants.

This is the same mass as the mass of products (exhaust gas). This is because of a conservation of **mass**.

No atoms are made or destroyed when a rocket burns its fuel. As in all chemical reactions, atoms are rearranged to form new molecules. The same atoms are in the products and reactants. Atoms do not go up or down.

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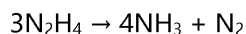




Comprehension questions

1. Hydrazine, N_2H_4 , is another rocket fuel. Unlike hydrogen, it does not need to be cooled, because it is a liquid.

Hydrazine reacts in the following equation:



- Explain why there are no limiting reactants in this reaction.
- 118,300 kg of hydrazine fuel was used to launch Titan II.
 - Calculate the relative formula mass of hydrazine (N_2H_4), ammonia and nitrogen.
 - Calculate the number of moles of hydrazine used in launching Titan II.
 - Calculate the mass of nitrogen produced during the launch.
 - Calculate the mass of ammonia produced during the launch.
 - Add up the masses of ammonia and nitrogen. Their total mass should be the same as the starting mass of hydrazine. Explain why.



Discussion question

In a rocket, it is important to calculate the exact amount of fuel and oxygen that neither is in excess. What would happen if one was in excess?



Extension

Research and write an informative blog post about the advantages and disadvantages of hydrazine or hydrogen-oxygen as rocket propellant.



Further reading

You may have noticed that the space shuttle in the picture in the article has the liquid fuel tank. These are solid rocket boosters, which give the rocket extra thrust at launch. Have a look at blogs.nasa.gov/Rocketology/2016/04/21/weve

See if you can find out which chemicals are used in the boosters, and which chemicals are produced.

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Acidophiles and Alkaliphiles

The bacteria which can survive at dangerous pH levels

4.4.2.4 Acids and alkalis

Keywords

Strong acid – an acid which completely ionises in water, releasing all of its H⁺ ions.

Extremophile – a bacteria which can survive under extreme conditions, e.g. very high or very low temperature.

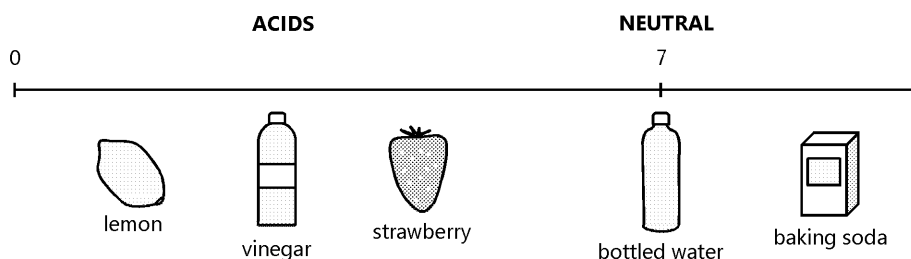
Acidophile – an 'acid lover'. Bacteria which can survive in very acidic (low pH) environments.

Alkaliphile – an 'alkali lover'. Bacteria which can survive in very alkaline (high pH) environments.

Acids and alkalis

You may have come across some acids and alkalis in your school laboratory. You may know that lemon juice (citric acid) and vinegar (ethanoic acid) are both acids, and that bleach and baking powder are both alkalis.

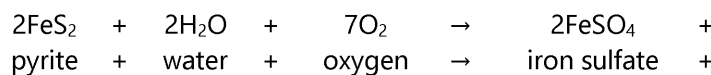
The level of acidity and alkalinity of a solution is measured using the pH scale. High pH is basic. Low pH is acidic. You probably know that very acidic solutions can be dangerous, but you may not know that it is true for very alkaline solutions. Some alkalis can corrode skin in the same way as acids.



Acidophiles

Acidic solutions can be found all over the world. The most acidic natural environments are in rivers flowing from abandoned mines. In these environments, people would not expect to find some bacteria – called **acidophiles** – which thrive in these environments. In one case, bacteria were found in water at pH 0!

The bacteria are actually responsible for producing the acids. Acidophiles convert pyrite to sulfuric acid.



The sulfuric acid is a **strong acid**, which means that it completely ionises in water, surrounding the acidophiles. As the acidophiles digest more pyrite rock, more sulfuric acid is produced and the environment's pH gradually lowers. Acidic pHs kill many of the organisms which would normally live there, but extremophiles continue living because they can easily control the pH inside their cells.

How do acidophiles survive?

The most amazing thing is, these bacteria are basically neutral pH inside their cells. The bacteria use a 'proton pump', which removes H⁺ ions from the cell. This lowers the pH inside the cell, and keeps the pH around 7.

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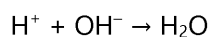
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Alkaliphiles

Strongly alkaline environments, once thought to be impossible for life to grow in, have recently been found to be full of bacterial life. Mono Lake in California is home to **alkaliphilic** bacteria which can survive up to pH 11. These bacteria, like acidophiles, manage to keep the pH inside their cells down to around pH 7.

Alkaliphiles also have to move H^+ ions across their cell membranes, but in the other direction to acidophiles. Alkaliphiles have to pump H^+ ions into their cells. This causes a neutralisation reaction between the OH^- ions and the H^+ ions, which lowers the pH.



Comprehension questions

1. Give the neutralisation reaction used by alkaliphiles to keep their cells at pH 7.
2. Explain why the digestion of pyrite leads to acidic conditions.
3. Sulfuric acid is a strong acid. Explain what this means.



Discussion question

Acidophiles often develop in abandoned mine shafts, digesting pyrite and producing sulfuric acid. How might this affect the organisms living in the environment?



Extension

Mud volcanoes emit iron sulfide. Draw a picture of a mud volcano, and label the high, low and neutral pH levels if you were to test the soil around the volcano.



Further reading

Alkaliphiles can be categorised into obligate alkaliphiles, facultative alkaliphiles and extreme alkaliphiles. You can find out the difference between these categories using [en.wikipedia.org](https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Alkaliphile).

When you find out, predict which of these is likely to be the one at Mono Lake. What is the concentration of salt?

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Making Heavy Water

And other cool things you can do with electrolysis

4.4.3 Electrolysis

Keywords

Electrolyte – the liquid which has electrodes inserted into it

Anode – the electrode which anions are attracted to

Cathode – the electrode which cations are attracted to

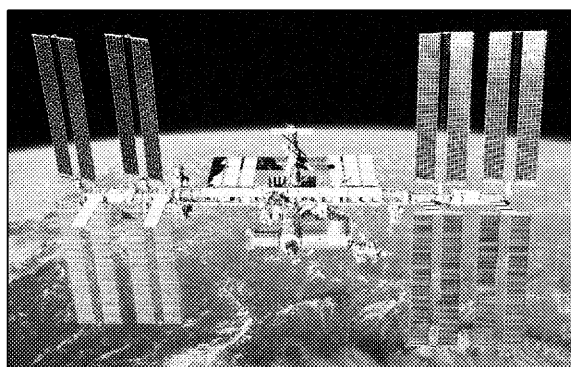
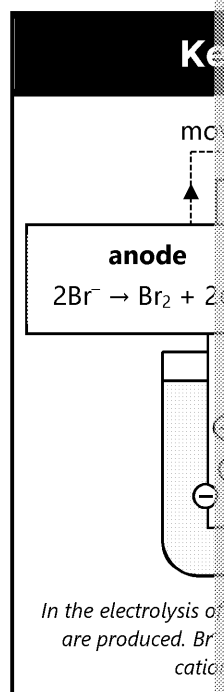
Electrolysis

Electrolysis is a process which uses electricity to separate the elements in a compound. Electrodes are placed into the electrolyte, and the ions in the electrolyte migrate to the electrodes depending on their charge.

Electrolysis can only happen when the ions in the compound are free to move, i.e. when the compound is in the liquid or aqueous state. When the compound is solid, the ions are fixed in place and so cannot move to the electrodes.

Common uses of electrolysis

Electrolysis of some compounds is easy. Lead bromide, for example, melts very easily, and so lead and bromine can easily be extracted. Aluminium oxide is a bit trickier because its melting point is over 2,000 °C, so much more energy is required to separate the aluminium. Scientists use a compound called cryolite in order to dissolve the aluminium oxide. Cryolite is a solid at room temperature, but melts at about 1,000 °C. When it melts, it is possible to dissolve solid aluminium oxide in it. This allows aluminium oxide to be dissolved at much lower temperatures, so less energy is required.



The International Space Station (ISS) uses large solar panels to generate electricity used to perform electrolysis of water to produce oxygen. The electricity is also used to power the exercise equipment, lights and life-support systems.

Power sources

Fossil fuels aren't the only option for electricity. In fact, because it uses water, electrolysis plants are developed in many areas. The most common source of power for electrolysis is hydroelectric power. Hydroelectric power stations use the energy of falling water to generate electricity. The water runs past a turbine which converts the movement of the water into electricity.

On the International Space Station, water is electrolysed to produce oxygen, which is used by the astronauts and cosmonauts on board. The hydrogen is jettisoned into space, hoping to use it to produce methanol.

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Separating water

Electrolysis was first used in 1785 to separate metals from their salts, and, only 15 years later, to separate the hydrogen and oxygen in water. Separating water is a very valuable process. The hydrogen produced can be used as a fuel in **fuel cell cars**. Generally, fossil fuels still need to be burned to produce electricity for the electrolysis process which produces hydrogen and oxygen, but because this occurs at each individual car, the process is much more energy efficient, and the carbon dioxide is captured and collected rather than released into the atmosphere.

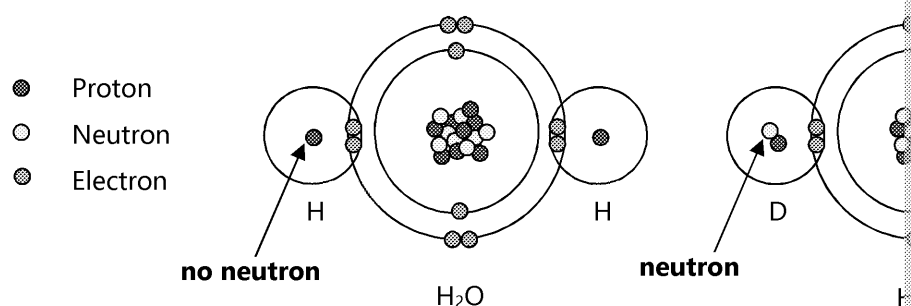
When water is electrolysed, the following half-equations occur:

Cathode	Anode
$2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$	$4\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 4\text{e}^-$

Producing deuterated water

An interesting outcome of electrolysis was developed at the Vemork hydroelectric power station in Norway. The hydroelectric plant was used to create a substance known as '**heavy water**'. When the electrolysis process ran for long enough, the water remaining in the electrolysis tank was found to be enriched with hydrogen with one neutron instead of two.

This isotope of hydrogen is known as **Deuterium**, which has the chemical symbol **D**. Water containing deuterium is called **deuterated water**, and its chemical formula can be written as HDO. The diagram below shows the difference between H_2O and HDO in terms of subatomic particles: the only difference is that deuterium has one neutron.



Deuterated water is separated much less easily than regular water, so HDO is left behind in the electrolysis process.

The scientists measured that 1 in 6,400 hydrogen atoms in water is deuterium. In the electrolysis process, about 1 in 40 hydrogen atoms was deuterium. The power station was used by the Allied forces in order to prevent Nazi forces from developing an atomic bomb using deuterium.

Deuterated water is now used to create deuterium (D_2), which can be used in nuclear reactors.

You can also buy deuterated water, starting at £18 for 10 g. Pricey!

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Comprehension questions

1. Explain why electrolysis must be performed on liquids or solutions and not on solids.
2. Describe how aluminium is extracted from its oxide, and explain why this process is so energy-intensive.
3. Explain how electrolysis is used on the International Space Station.
4. How is deuterated water produced?
5. Write the half-equations for the electrolysis of water.



Discussion question

Electrolysis is often used to separate metals from ions in their salts. What other methods do you know of? Can you think of any other methods that you think your GCSE course can you think of to separate copper metal from copper ions? What materials would you need? What equipment would you need? What would you need to come in handy.



Extension

D_2 , hydrogen gas with two deuterium isotopes of hydrogen, is produced by electrolysis of heavy water. Suggest a two-step electrolysis process to produce D_2 from ordinary water (one deuterium atom per 6,400 atoms of hydrogen).



Further reading

If you are interested in the production of heavy water in Norway, search for *Sabotage* on Wikipedia.

The article 'Breathing Easy on the Space Station', at science.nasa.gov/science-news/2000/ast13nov_1 has some more information about air management on the International Space Station.

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Shocking New Development

Is the future of electric cars in chemical or fuel cells?

4.5.2 Chemical cells and fuel cells

Keywords

Chemical cell – contains chemicals which can react to produce electricity

Fuel cell – constantly supplied fuel which can react to produce electricity

A brief history of electric cars

You might think that electric cars are a thing of the future. Almost every car you'll see on the road is powered by petrol or diesel, and occasionally you'll see a hybrid, which is powered partially by electricity.

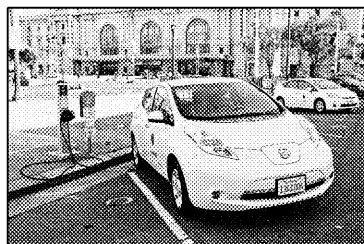
But in the late 1800s to early 1900s, the most popular cars ran on electricity. At that time, electric motors were more comfortable and easier to use than cars which used internal combustion engines (petrol engines).

But as the internal combustion engine became easier to use, electric cars became unpopular due to their limited top speed and range.

For about 100 years, internal combustion engines have ruled the road. But as people become more aware of the effects of global warming, electric cars are being developed again.



Thomas Edison invented.



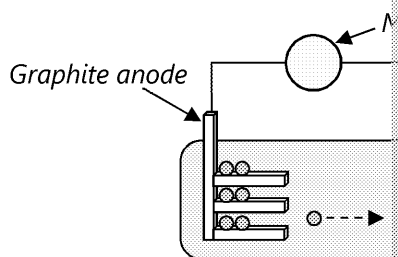
The Nissan Leaf is the most-sold electric car in the world.

Using chemical cells in electric cars

Many big car manufacturers are now developing electric cars to lead the electric car market, having sold over a quarter of a million. Nissan uses a rechargeable battery made from lithium ion cells. Each cell contains a graphite cathode and a lithium anode. The electrolyte is a gel polymer. This is a **chemical cell** because it contains its reactants.

When the cell is being charged, positive lithium ions build up on the graphite electrode. When the car is in use, the positive lithium ions move from the anode to the cathode (as shown in the diagram), and electrons move through the motor.

Lithium ion cells are rechargeable because the movement of lithium ions is a reversible chemical reaction. The recharging process for a car using these cells takes between four and eight hours.



The lithium ion chemical cell used in many electric cars. The dashed arrow shows the direction that lithium ions move during use. The solid arrow shows the way when the cell is being recharged.

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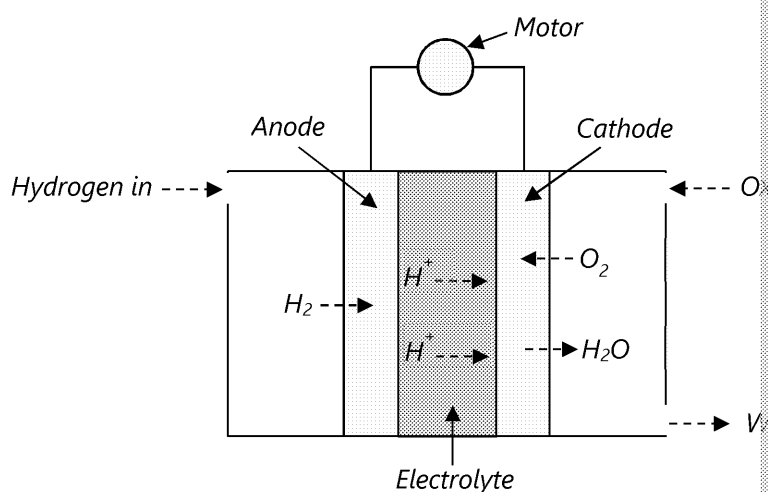
Fuel cells in electric cars

Some electric cars use fuel cells instead of chemical cells. Fuel cells also produce electricity, but they do not contain their reactant as chemical cells do. Instead, they may contain one reactant, such as hydrogen, and then use another one from the air, such as oxygen.

The development of fuel cell cars is at a much earlier stage than that of chemical cell cars. At the beginning of 2017, there were only three fuel cell cars in production, all of which use hydrogen fuel cells.

The advantage of a fuel cell is that the fuel can be topped up in a tank, and is immediately ready for use. In comparison, a chemical cell needs many hours to recharge.

In hydrogen fuel cells, hydrogen enters the side of the anode and oxygen enters the side of the cathode. Hydrogen ions (H^+) move across the electrolyte and water (H_2O) is formed at the cathode.



Putting hydrogen fuel cells in cars is difficult, because the hydrogen is very explosive. A small spark could lead to a rather large explosion! Owning a hydrogen car can be difficult because hydrogen pumps are not as common as petrol and diesel pumps, and so hydrogen cars are difficult to refuel.

This table shows what happens at each electrode. The electrons in the half-equations travel through the motor, and are used at the cathode to make water.

Electrode	Anode	Cathode
Role	Converts hydrogen (H_2) into hydrogen ions (H^+)	Converts oxygen into water (using hydrogen ions)
Half-equation	$2H_2 \rightarrow 4H^+ + 4e^-$	$O_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^- \rightarrow 2H_2O$
Full equation	$2H_2 + O_2 \rightarrow 2H_2O$	

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Comprehension questions

1. Some of the first vehicles ran on alkaline batteries which undergo an internal reaction when they generate electricity. Describe why lithium ion cells are better for running cars.
2. Give the half-equations occurring at each electrode in a hydrogen fuel cell.
3. What kind of ion moves through the electrolyte in a hydrogen fuel cell?
4. Why do people think it is important to develop electric cars?
5. Describe the difference between a chemical cell and a fuel cell.
6. What are the advantages and disadvantages of using a car running on a fuel cell rather than a hydrogen fuel cell?



Discussion question

Which of chemical cells or fuel cells is going to be the future of cars, and why?



Extension

Your local council wants to prepare your local area for the future. It has decided to build fuel stations for fuel cell cars, or to build electric power lines to refill chemical cells.

Write a letter to your councillor to persuade them of which you think they should do.



Further reading

The Union of Concerned Scientists explain how a plug-in hybrid car works. Visit ucsusa.org/clean-vehicles/electric-vehicles/how-do-plug-in-hybrid-cars-work

See if you can find out how plug-in hybrid cars work. Some people think they are a stepping stone towards introducing more all-electric cars. Why do you think that?

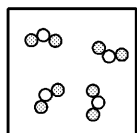
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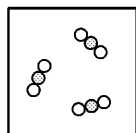
Answers

Elements (and Compounds) of Life

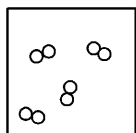
1. By chemical reactions in water
Arrived on a comet or asteroid
2. Nitrous oxide is a compound
Boron is an element
- 3.



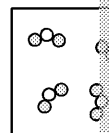
Water (H₂O)



Carbon dioxide
(CO₂)



Oxygen (O₂)



Sulfur dioxide

Periodic Updates

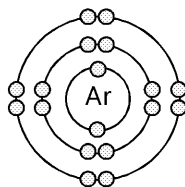
1. Gallium and germanium
2. By atomic number (number of protons)
3. Elements in columns (groups) have similar chemical properties
4. Argon (Ar) and Potassium (K) / Iodine (I) and Tellurium (Te) / Cobalt (Co) and Nickel

Aurora Borealis

1. Protons and electrons
2. Protons: +1
Electrons: -1
3. With atoms of nitrogen and oxygen
4. Charged particles like electrons from solar wind knock electrons off atoms, forming get their electrons back, light is emitted.
5. Nitrogen and oxygen are the most common atoms in our upper atmosphere.

What Do You Call a Noble Gas?

1.



2. They have a full outer shell, and do not form ionic, metallic or covalent bonds.
3. It increases down group 0 (with increasing atomic mass).

Mete-ores

1. Because asteroids are made from transition metals, which are worth a lot of money
2. Platinum/iron/cobalt
3.
 - Catalyst for margarine production
 - Alloyed with nickel to make smart alloys.
4. They do not contain transition metals (they contain carbon/silicon)

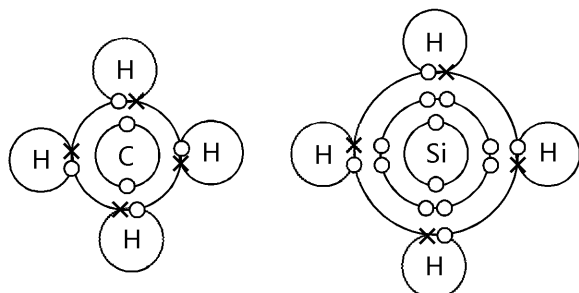
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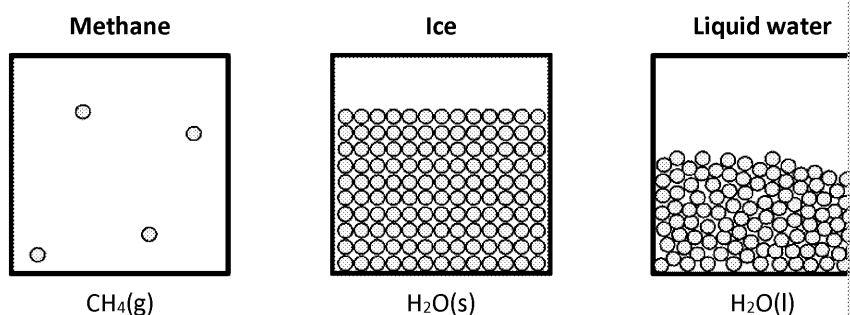
Silicon Lifeforms

1. Diatoms (algae), which use silica for their cell walls.
2. It was the first example of biological life producing a carbon–silicon bond.
3. To create carbon–silicon bonds in the manufacture of drugs and materials.
4. TV and computer screens, paints, glues and solar panels.
- 5.



Trapped Gas

1.



2. Methane has weaker forces between particles, so less thermal energy (a lower temperature) is needed to break the forces between molecules than in water, where the forces between molecules are stronger.

Seventeenth-century Nanoscience

1. 10^{-7} – 10^{-9} m
2. Buckyballs: spheres of carbon organised in hexagonal (and pentagonal) rings.
Carbon nanotubes: hollow tubes/cylinders of carbon organised in hexagonal rings.
3. Iron containing carbon organised into nanotubes.
4. The nanotubes run as fibres through the steel structure and increase the forces between particles, which increases the strength of the metal without causing it to become brittle.

Biopolymers

1.
 - a. saccharide or sugar
 - b. amino acid
 - c. nucleotide
2. During digestion, so that the sugar can be used for energy.
3. A base, a phosphate and a sugar
4. Covalent bonds, which are strong
5.
 - square brackets
 - n to show repeat
 - repeating monomer inside the brackets
 - bonds from the edge atoms to outside the brackets

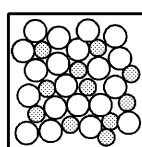
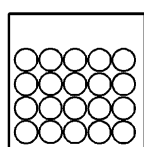
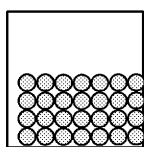
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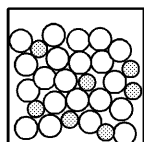
The Hip New Joint in Town

1. It is non-corrosive, hard and non-toxic.

2. Tin Copper Bronze



3. Titanium: ○ Gold: ●



Ratio of titanium to gold must be 3:1. Here, there are 21 titanium ions and seven gold ions.

4. In pure titanium, ions are in layers which can slide over each other. In the alloy, different layers, so the metal cannot easily be reshaped.

Applications of Graphene

- It can conduct electricity and is flexible
 - It is very strong
 - It is transparent, absorbs light and conducts electricity
- A single layer of graphite, with carbon atoms bonded in a hexagonal lattice. Every carbon atom has one delocalised electron from each carbon is delocalised.
- The regular, strong covalent bonds mean that graphene is very strong.
 - The delocalised electrons allow charge to flow, so graphene is conductive.
 - Graphene is flexible as it is in single layers.

It's not rocket science! Oh wait, it is.

- Hydrazine does not react with anything.
 - $\text{N}_2\text{H}_4: 2 \times 14 + 4 \times 1 = 32$
 $\text{NH}_3: 14 + 3 \times 1 = 17$
 $\text{N}_2: 14 \times 2 = 28$
 - $118\,300\text{ kg} = 118\,300\,000\text{ g}$
Moles of hydrazine = $\frac{11\,300\,000}{32} = 3\,696\,875\text{ mol}$
 - 3:1 ratio of hydrazine : nitrogen.
Moles of nitrogen = $\frac{3\,696\,875}{3} = 1\,232\,292\text{ mol}$
Mass of nitrogen = $1\,232\,292 \times 28 = 34\,504\,176\text{ g}$ (34 504 kg)
 - 3:4 ratio of hydrazine to ammonia.
Moles of ammonia = $\frac{3\,696\,875}{3} \times 4 = 4\,929\,167\text{ mol}$
Mass of ammonia = $3\,696\,875 \times 17 = 83\,795\,833\text{ g}$ (83 796 kg)
 - $34\,504 + 83\,796 = 118\,300\text{ kg}$
Conservation of mass – no atoms are created or destroyed.

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Acidophiles and Alkaliphiles

1. $\text{H}^+ + \text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O}$
2. FeS_2 is digested by bacteria to produce sulfuric acid.
3. It completely dissociates when dissolved in water. This leads to a high concentration of

Making Heavy Water

1. The ions must be able to move.
2. It is dissolved in molten cryolite. Cryolite melts at 1000°C , and aluminium oxide melting in cryolite is more energy efficient.
3. It is used to split water into oxygen and hydrogen. The hydrogen is not used but the oxygen is used by the astronauts.
4. Electrolysis of water over a long time, and it builds up.
5. $2\text{H}^+ + 2\text{e}^- \rightarrow \text{H}_2$
 $4\text{OH}^- \rightarrow \text{O}_2 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + 4\text{e}^-$

Shocking New Development

1. Lithium ion cells are rechargeable, so can be used more than once.
2. $2\text{H}_2 \rightarrow 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^-$
 $\text{O}_2 + 4\text{H}^+ + 4\text{e}^- \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
3. H^+
4. Electric cars do not use fossil fuels to run.
5. Chemical cells contain their reactants, whereas fuel cells contain a fuel and use a constant supply of oxygen from the air.
6. **Advantage:** Rechargeable cells are safer because they do not need to store hydrogen.
Disadvantage: Fuel cells are quicker to refuel than rechargeable cells because they do not need to be recharged. Chemical cells need to charge, which can take a long time.

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