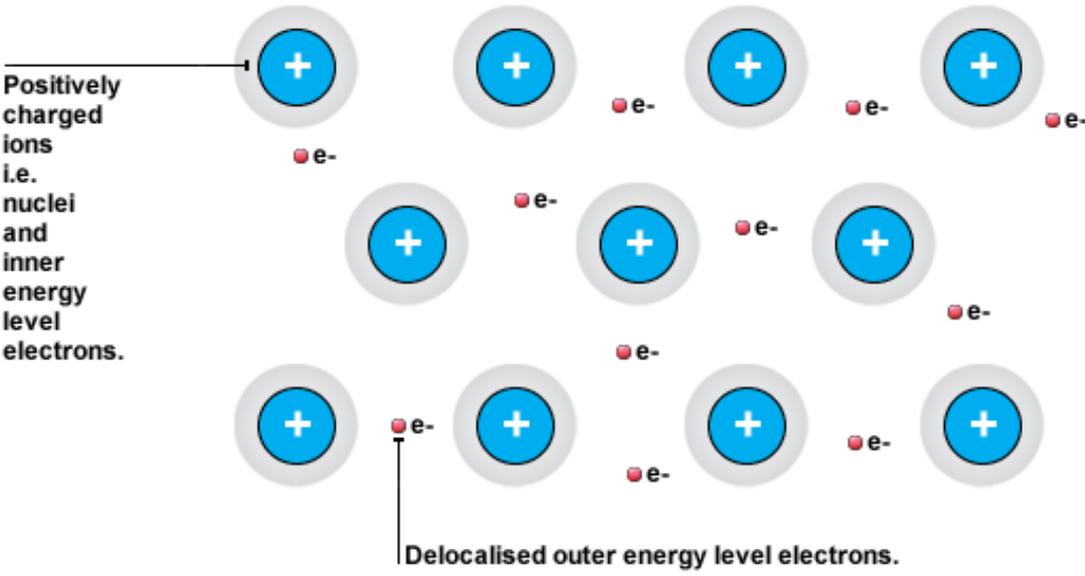


# Dalkeith High School

## National 5 Chemistry

### Unit 3: Chemistry in Society

#### Key Area: Metals

Learning Statement			😊	😐	😞			
Metals are found on the left side of the zig-zag line on the Periodic Table.								
Metallic bonding holds metal atoms together.								
Metallic bonds are the electrostatic attraction between negatively charged delocalised electrons and the positively charged metal ion lattice.								
								
Delocalised electrons are electrons that are not 'attached' to a particular atom. They are free to move.								
<b>Physical Properties of Metals</b>								
Strong			Conduct electricity					
Are <b>malleable</b> (can be shaped)			Conduct heat					
Are <b>ductile</b> (can be drawn into wires)			High melting and boiling points					
Are shiny			Are mostly solid, except mercury.					
Unreactive metals such as gold and silver are found uncombined in the Earth's crust.								
Other metals are found in the ground in the form of metal ores. Metal ores are naturally occurring metal compounds.								
Metals can be extracted from their ores by: <b>heating</b> , <b>heating with Carbon or Carbon monoxide</b> , or by <b>electrolysis</b> .								
<b>Method</b>	Electrolysis			Heat With Carbon		Heat Alone		
<b>Metals Made This Way</b>	Potassium	Sodium	Lithium	Zinc	Iron	Copper	Mercury	Silver
	Calcium	Magnesium	Aluminium	Tin	Lead		Gold	Platinum
<b>Reason</b>	most reactive metals			medium reactive metals		least reactive metals		
The extraction of a metal from an ore is an example of a <b>reduction</b> reaction.								

The percentage of a metal in a metal ore can be calculated using the formula:

$$\text{Percentage Mass} = \frac{\text{Mass of Element in Formula}}{\text{Gram Formula Mass}} \times 100\%$$

Calculate mass of 1 mole	Find mass of element	Percentage Fe in Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> calculation
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> = (2x56) + (3x16) = 112 + 48 = 160g	2 x Fe = (2x56) = 112g	$\frac{112g}{160g} \times 100 = 70\%$

Metals can be placed in a reactivity series. The most reactive metals are placed at the top and the least reactive are at the bottom.

### Reaction of Metals and Oxygen

When a metal reacts with oxygen, a metal oxide is formed.



### Reaction of Metals with Water

The Alkali Metals (Group 1) and the Alkaline Earth Metals (Group 2) react with water to form a metal hydroxide (an alkali) and hydrogen gas.



### Reaction of Metals with Acid

The MAZINTL metals (all metals above copper) react with acid to form a metal salt and hydrogen gas.



Copper does not react with dilute acid.

<b>Metal</b>	Potassium	Sodium	Lithium	Calcium	Magnesium	Aluminium	Zinc	Iron	Tin	Lead	Copper	Mercury	Silver	Gold	Platinum
Reaction With Oxygen	Burn In Oxygen to Form Metal Oxide								Slowly React With Oxygen		No Reaction With Oxygen				
Reaction With Water	Fast Reaction With Water		Slow Reaction With Water Faster Reaction With Steam						No Reaction with Water or Steam						
Reaction With Acids	Violent Reaction With Acids		React With Acids			Slow Reaction		No Reaction With Acids							

The reactions of metals can be explained by the loss of gain or electrons in the reaction.

A reaction in which electrons are gained is called **REDUCTION**.



Reduction reactions will always have the electrons on the left of the arrow.

A reaction in which electrons are lost is called **OXIDATION**.



Oxidation reactions will always have the electrons on the right of the arrow.

Reactions in which both **reduction** and **oxidation** occur are called **Redox** reactions.

The mnemonic: **OIL RIG** can be used to remember that **Oxidation Is Loss** and

**Reduction Is Gain of electrons.**

A list of reduction reactions can be found on page 10 of the data booklet.

### Electrochemical Cells

In a battery, the electricity comes from a chemical reaction.

- Electricity passing along metal wires is a flow of electrons
- Batteries run out when the chemicals in the battery are used up.

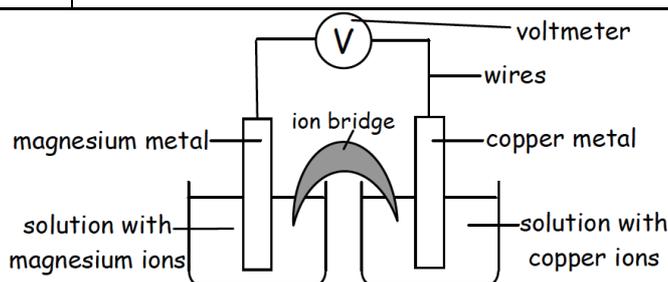
Some batteries are rechargeable.

- Nickel-Cadmium batteries can be recharged.
- Lead acid batteries in cars can be recharged.

Advantages of Batteries	Advantages of Mains Electricity
Easy to transport	Costs less than batteries
Low voltage, so safer	

A cell can produce electricity by connecting different metals together with an electrolyte

- a cell is usually created by connecting two different metals in solutions of their metal ions
- a cell can have half-cells which do not involve metal atoms



The voltage produced in a cell depends on:

- The bigger the difference between the metals on the electrochemical series, the bigger the voltage produced.
- Electrons always flow from the most reactive metal to the least reactive metal.

The purpose of the electrolyte is to complete the circuit.

- An electrolyte is an ionic solution usually stored on an ion bridge.
- Ion bridges are usually pieces of filter paper soaked in an ionic solution.
- Positive ions move towards negative charges due to electrostatic attractions.
- Negative ions move towards positive charges due to electrostatic attractions.

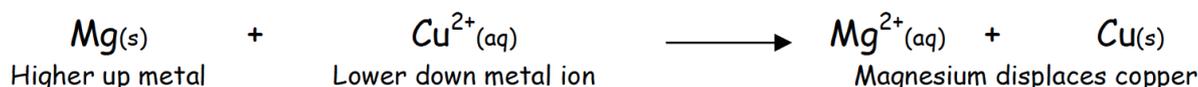
Fuel cells use electrochemistry to generate electricity.

Most fuel cells use hydrogen to generate electricity. The hydrogen reacts with water to form water and oxygen.

- The main advantage of using hydrogen fuel cells is that the products are non-polluting.
- The main disadvantage of using hydrogen fuels cells is that hydrogen gas is difficult to store and is explosive.

**Displacement** reactions are when a metal higher up the electrochemical series pushes one lower down the electrochemical series out of solution.

*Higher Up Metals can displace Lower Down Metal Ions from Solutions*

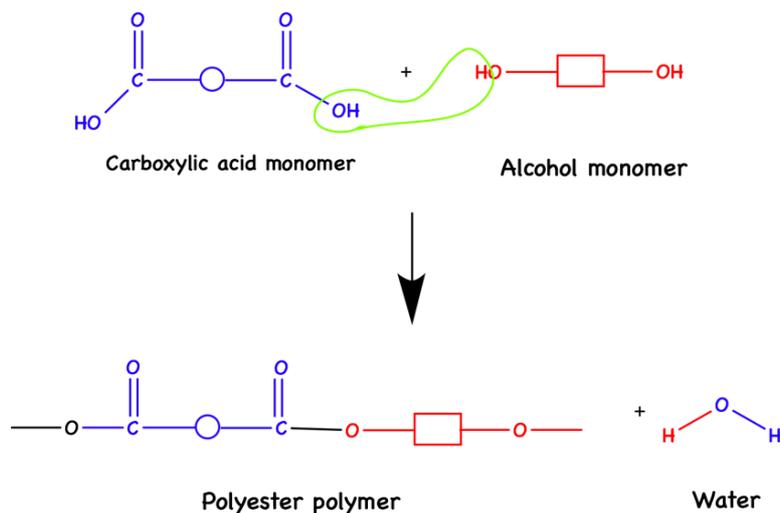


## Key Area: Properties of Plastics

Learning Statement	😊	😐	😞								
<p>Most plastics and synthetic fibres are made from crude oil.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Synthetic means that the fibre has been made by scientists and is not naturally occurring.</li> <li>Both natural and synthetic fibres are examples of polymers.</li> </ul>											
<p>There are advantages and disadvantages of using natural or synthetic materials.</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: left;">Advantages of Plastics over Natural Materials</th> <th style="text-align: left;">Disadvantages of Plastics over natural materials</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Lightweight and cheap</td> <td>Plastics made from finite resources (crude oil)</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Good thermal and electrical insulating properties</td> <td>Plastics burn to release toxic gases</td> </tr> <tr> <td>Plastics are non-biodegradable and can last a long time compared to natural alternatives</td> <td>Plastics are non-biodegradable and can be difficult to dispose of</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Advantages of Plastics over Natural Materials	Disadvantages of Plastics over natural materials	Lightweight and cheap	Plastics made from finite resources (crude oil)	Good thermal and electrical insulating properties	Plastics burn to release toxic gases	Plastics are non-biodegradable and can last a long time compared to natural alternatives	Plastics are non-biodegradable and can be difficult to dispose of			
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<p>Some plastics release toxic gases when they are burned.</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: left;">Toxic Gas</th> <th style="text-align: left;">Carbon Monoxide</th> <th style="text-align: left;">Hydrogen Chloride</th> <th style="text-align: left;">Hydrogen Cyanide</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>Source</td> <td>All plastics</td> <td>PVC /Poly(chloroethene)</td> <td>Polyurethane</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Toxic Gas	Carbon Monoxide	Hydrogen Chloride	Hydrogen Cyanide	Source	All plastics	PVC /Poly(chloroethene)	Polyurethane			
Toxic Gas	Carbon Monoxide	Hydrogen Chloride	Hydrogen Cyanide								
Source	All plastics	PVC /Poly(chloroethene)	Polyurethane								
<p>A biodegradable plastic is one that can be broken down by organisms such as bacteria.</p>											
<p>There are 2 types of plastic: thermoplastic and thermosetting.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Thermoplastics melt on heating, as their polymer chains are not cross-linked.</li> <li>Thermosetting plastics keep their shape on heating, as their chains are cross-linked.</li> </ul>											
<p><b>Polymers</b> are large molecules made from smaller molecules called <b>monomers</b>.</p> <table border="1" style="width: 100%; border-collapse: collapse;"> <thead> <tr> <th style="text-align: left;">Name</th> <th style="text-align: left;">Definition</th> </tr> </thead> <tbody> <tr> <td>monomer</td> <td>Small molecules which join together to form polymers</td> </tr> <tr> <td>polymer</td> <td>The long chain molecule made by the joining up of monomers</td> </tr> <tr> <td>polymerisation</td> <td>The process where monomers join together to form polymers</td> </tr> </tbody> </table>	Name	Definition	monomer	Small molecules which join together to form polymers	polymer	The long chain molecule made by the joining up of monomers	polymerisation	The process where monomers join together to form polymers			
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polymerisation	The process where monomers join together to form polymers										
<p>There are 2 types of polymerisation:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Addition</li> <li>Condensation</li> </ul>											
<p><b>Addition Polymerisation</b></p> <p>In addition polymerisation small unsaturated monomers containing a C=C undergo addition reactions to form a saturated polymer.</p> <p>e.g.</p> $  \begin{array}{ccccccc}  \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{Cl} \\   \quad   \\ \text{C}=\text{C} \\   \quad   \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} +   \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{Cl} \\   \quad   \\ \text{C}=\text{C} \\   \quad   \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} +   \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{Cl} \\   \quad   \\ \text{C}=\text{C} \\   \quad   \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} & \xrightarrow{\text{addition polymerisation}} &   \begin{array}{ccccccc}  \text{H} & \text{Cl} & \text{H} & \text{Cl} & \text{H} & \text{Cl} \\    &   &   &   &   &   \\  \text{---C---} & \text{---C---} & \text{---C---} & \text{---C---} & \text{---C---} & \text{---C---} \\    &   &   &   &   &   \\  \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H}  \end{array}  \end{array}  $ <p style="text-align: center;">chloroethene <span style="margin-left: 200px;"></span> poly(chloroethene)</p>											
<p>The polymer name starts with poly and then has the name of the monomer in brackets, for example ethene monomers polymerise to make poly(ethene).</p>											
<p><b>Condensation Polymerisation</b></p> <p>In condensation polymerisation monomers with functional groups at each end of the molecule undergo condensation reactions to form a polymer and water.</p>											

## Making Polyester

Polyesters are chains of polymers that contain an ester functional group. They are made from a carboxylic acid monomer and an alcohol monomer.



## Creative and Smart Materials Made from Polymers

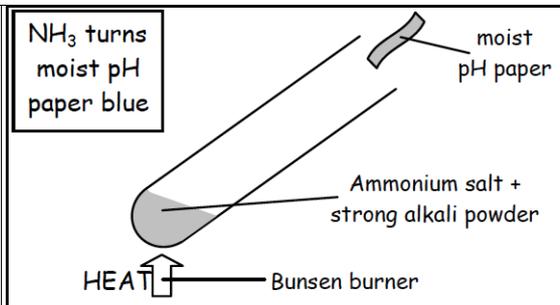
- **Kevlar** is made by condensation polymerisation and is used in bullet proof vests. It is a very strong fibre but is lighter than any other material with the same strength.
- **Polyvinyl Alcohol (PVA)** is a soluble plastic that can be used to make laundry bags.
- **Poly(acrylate)** is a **hydrogel** that has special water absorbing properties which allows hydrogels to be used in a variety of applications such as nappies, contact lenses and as medical bandages.
- **Colour changing plastics** can be used in food packaging to let consumers know the condition of food inside.
- **Conductive plastics** are currently being researched which allow the development of flexible touch screens and e-paper in the near future.

## Key Area: Fertilisers

Learning Statement	😊	😐	😞					
The increasing population of Earth has led to a need for more efficient food production to grow enough food to feed the increasing number of people on Earth.								
Growing plants require nutrients including compounds of: <table border="1" data-bbox="97 405 1313 454" style="width: 100%; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="width: 33%;">nitrogen (N)</td> <td style="width: 33%;">phosphorus (P)</td> <td style="width: 33%;">potassium (K)</td> </tr> </table> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Different types of crops need fertilisers containing different proportions of N, P and K.</li> </ul>	nitrogen (N)	phosphorus (P)	potassium (K)					
nitrogen (N)	phosphorus (P)	potassium (K)						
Decomposition of protein in plants and animal remains recycles nitrogen in the nitrogen cycle.								
Fertilisers are substances that restore the essential element for plant growth. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Fertilisers need to be soluble to be absorbed through plant roots.</li> </ul> <table border="1" data-bbox="97 723 1313 763" style="width: 100%; text-align: center;"> <tr> <td style="width: 25%;">Soluble compounds of</td> <td style="width: 25%;">Ammonium salts</td> <td style="width: 25%;">Potassium salts</td> <td style="width: 25%;">Nitrates</td> <td style="width: 20%;">Phosphates</td> </tr> </table> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Overuse of fertilisers can result in unused fertiliser being washed into rivers and lochs causing damage to wildlife.</li> </ul>	Soluble compounds of	Ammonium salts	Potassium salts	Nitrates	Phosphates			
Soluble compounds of	Ammonium salts	Potassium salts	Nitrates	Phosphates				
Nitrifying bacteria in plant root nodules can convert (fix) nitrogen from the air into compounds containing nitrogen. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Plants with such root nodules include clover, peas and beans.</li> <li>• The nitrogen compounds formed are nitrates (NO<sub>3</sub>).</li> <li>• These bacterial methods for fixing nitrogen are cheaper than chemical methods.</li> </ul>								
Synthetic methods can be made from nitrogen compounds such as ammonia (NH <sub>3</sub> ) and nitric acid (HNO <sub>3</sub> ).								
Ammonia (NH <sub>3</sub> ) is made by the Haber Process. <p style="text-align: center;">Nitrogen + Hydrogen ⇌ Ammonia</p> $\text{N}_2(\text{g}) + 3\text{H}_2(\text{g}) \rightleftharpoons 2\text{NH}_3(\text{g})$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• The Haber Process is carried out at moderately temperature as high temperature (450 °C) leads to the breakdown of ammonia into nitrogen and hydrogen.</li> <li>• Not all the reactants turn into ammonia as eventually the ammonia breaks down as quickly as it is formed.</li> <li>• The catalyst used in the Haber Process is iron.</li> </ul> <p style="text-align: center;">** The ⇌ sign means that the reaction is reversible.**</p>								
Ammonia can be converted into ammonium compounds by reacting ammonia with a strong alkali.								

NH<sub>3</sub> can be converted to ammonium compounds:

- The alkali ammonium hydroxide is formed when ammonia is dissolved in water
  - $\text{NH}_3(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l}) \longrightarrow \text{NH}_4^+(\text{aq}) + \text{OH}^-(\text{aq})$
  - ammonia can be prepared in the laboratory by the reaction of ammonium compounds with alkali
- $$\text{NH}_4^+ + \text{OH}^- \longrightarrow \text{NH}_3(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}$$



Ammonia has the following properties.

Colourless gas.	Pungent Smell.	Soluble in Water.	Dissolves to form an alkali.
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Ammonia is NH<sub>3</sub>

Ammonium is NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup>

Nitric acid is made by the Ostwald Process.

- The Ostwald Process involves the catalytic oxidation of ammonia to form nitric acid.
  - Stage 1: Ammonia + Oxygen → Nitrogen monoxide + Water
  - Stage 2: Nitrogen monoxide + Oxygen → Nitrogen dioxide
  - Stage 3: Nitrogen dioxide + Oxygen + Water → Nitric Acid
- The Ostwald Process is carried out at moderate temperature (900 °C).
- The reaction is exothermic so once started, the reaction does not require further heating.
- A platinum catalyst is used in this process.
- When nitrogen dioxide is dissolved in water, nitric acid is formed.

The percentage mass of elements in fertilisers can be calculated.

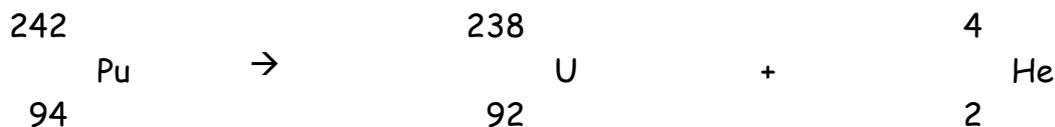
e.g. Calculate the percentage mass of nitrogen in ammonium nitrate, NH<sub>4</sub>NO<sub>3</sub>.

① Find the GFM	② Find the mass of N in the formula	③ Divide: ② mass in formula by ① GFM
NH <sub>4</sub> NO <sub>3</sub> . 2 X N = 2 X 14 = 28 4 X H = 4 X 1 = 4 3 X O = 3 X 16 = 48 Total = 80 g	2 X N = 2 X 14 = 28 g	% Mass = 28/80 x 100%  %Mass = 35%

## Key Area: Nuclear Chemistry

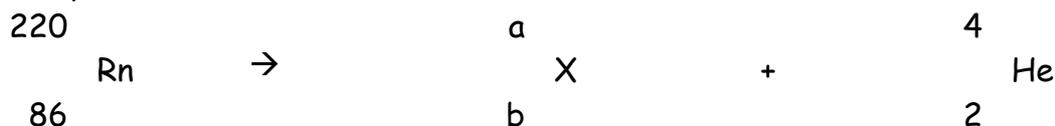
Learning Statement			😊	😐	😞
Atoms of most elements have isotopes.					
The nuclei of some of these isotopes are unstable and emit particles or rays called <b>radioactive emissions</b> .					
3 types of radioactive emissions are possible:					
Alpha ( $\alpha$ )	Beta ( $\beta$ )	Gamma ( $\gamma$ )			
<p><b>Alpha Particles (<math>\alpha</math>)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Alpha particles are helium ions.</li> <li>Alpha particles can be represented by:</li> </ul> $\begin{array}{ccc} 4 & & 4 \\ & \text{He} & \text{or} & & \text{He}^{2+} \\ 2 & & & & 2 \end{array}$ <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>They are heaviest type of radioactive emission.</li> </ul>					
<p><b>Beta Particles (<math>\beta</math>)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Beta particles are high-energy electrons.</li> <li>A beta particle can be represented by:</li> </ul> $\begin{array}{c} 0 \\ e \\ -1 \end{array}$					
<p><b>Gamma Radiation (<math>\gamma</math>)</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Gamma radiation does not exhibit particle-like behaviour.</li> <li>Gamma radiation is a high-energy ray that can travel long distances and has a high penetration power.</li> </ul>					
Properties of Radioactive Emissions					
<b>Emission</b>	<b>Distance Travelled and Penetrating Power</b>	<b>Charge</b>			
Alpha ( $\alpha$ )	Few centimetres in air. Stopped by paper.	Positive			
Beta ( $\beta$ )	Few metres in air. Stopped by thin aluminium.	Negative			
Gamma ( $\gamma$ )	Travels kilometres in air. Stopped by thick lead or concrete.	No charge			
Radioactive isotopes are also called <b>radioisotopes</b> .					
<p>Radioisotopes have uses in the home, in health and in industry.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li><b>Home:</b> Smoke alarms contain the radioisotope Americium-241.</li> <li><b>Health:</b> Cancer can be treated using the radioisotope Iodine-131</li> <li><b>Industry:</b> Radioisotopes can be used to gauge the thickness of materials.</li> </ul>					
The fear of radioactivity damaging healthy cells in our bodies, which can lead to cancer, is one of the main reasons people are concerned about the use of radioisotopes.					
Radioactive decay is when unstable nuclei breakdown into smaller particles which are more stable.					
Nuclear equations can be used to represent radioactive decay.					

For example: When plutonium-242 decays by an alpha emission, uranium-238 is formed.



Sometimes you will be given some of the values for a nuclear equation and will have to work the remaining ones.

For example:



Answer: The masses on the top must add up to the same value on each side of the arrow. So  $a = 220 - 4 = 216$ . Hence,  $a = 216$ .

The atomic numbers on the bottom must add up to the same value on each side of the arrow. So  $b = 86 - 2 = 84$ . Hence,  $b = 84$ .

X is the element symbol. The element has atomic number 84 so is Polonium, Po.

The **half-life** ( $t_{1/2}$ ) is time taken for the activity of a radioactive source to drop by a half.

A decay curve showing activity and time can be plotted to help work out half-life.

The mass of a radioisotope remaining after a certain period of time can also be calculated using half-life.

Example: Sodium-24 has a half-life of 15 hours. A sample of 0.8 g of Sodium-24 was found. What mass of Sodium-24 would be left after 60 hours?

0 h	→	15 h	→	30 h	→	45 h	→	60 h
0.8 g		0.4 g		0.2		0.1 g		0.05 g

Radioisotopes can be used to date materials. Carbon dating of archaeological finds is a common example of this. Fossils can be dated using potassium-argon dating.

## Key Area: Chemical Analysis

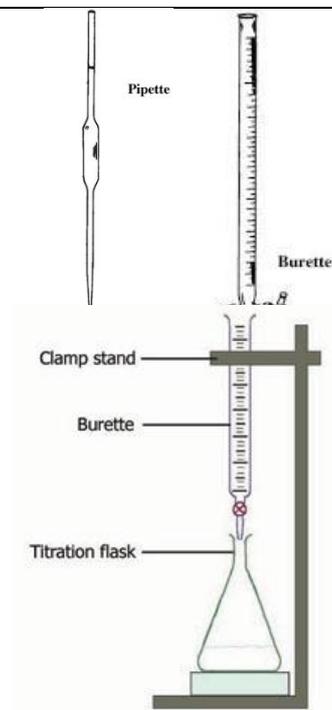
Learning Statement	😊	😐	😞
<p>There are two types of chemical analysis:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Qualitative analysis</li> <li>• Quantitative analysis.</li> </ul>			
<p>Qualitative analysis allows the presence of a substance to be detected.</p>			
<p>Quantitative analysis allows the presence of a substance to be detected and allows us to work how much of the substance there is.</p>			
<p><b>Qualitative Analytical Methods</b></p> <p><b>1. Flame Testing</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• When metal compounds are placed in a flame, characteristic colours are produced.</li> <li>• Different metals give different colours, therefore the presence of a metal in a compound can be detected using flame colour.</li> <li>• Flame colours can be found in the data booklet on page 6.</li> </ul> <p><b>2. Precipitation</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Metal ions can also be detected using precipitation reactions.</li> <li>• The colour of the precipitate formed (insoluble solid) allows us to determine which metal ion was present.</li> <li>• Non-metal ions can also be detected using precipitation.</li> </ul> <p><b>3. Chromatography</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Chromatography can be used to separate mixtures of substances.</li> <li>• Chromatography involves spotting small quantities of a substance on a piece of chromatography paper, then placing this chromatography paper vertically in a solvent. The solvent flows up the paper and separates the single spot for the substance into a spot for each component of the mixture.</li> </ul> <div data-bbox="954 1310 1289 1637" data-label="Image"> </div> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Advanced forms of chromatography are available that allow better separation of mixtures. High Performance Liquid Chromatography (HPLC) and Gas Phase Chromatography (GPC) and Liquid Chromatography Mass Spectrometry (LCMS) are all example of such techniques.</li> </ul>			
<p>Quantitative</p> <p><b>1. Titration</b></p> <p>A titration can be used to determine the concentration of acid or base used in a neutralisation reaction.</p>			

In a titration a pipette is used to transfer a known volume of acid or base into a conical flask. An indicator is then added to the conical flask. The indicator allows the end point of the titration to be easily observed.

A burette is filled with acid or base of a known concentration.

The burette is then used to accurately add known volumes of acid or base into the conical flask. When a colour change is observed, the reaction has reached its end point.

The measurements in a titration are often recorded in a table such as the following:



	1 <sup>st</sup> (Rough)	2 <sup>nd</sup>	3 <sup>rd</sup>
Initial Volume (cm <sup>3</sup> )			
End Volume (cm <sup>3</sup> )			
Titre (cm <sup>3</sup> )			

The average titre can be worked out using concordant values. Concordant values are values that are within 0.2 cm<sup>3</sup> of each other.

Using the values obtained from the titration experiment, the formula:

$$\frac{\text{ACID}}{V_1 C_1} = \frac{\text{BASE}}{V_2 C_2}$$

$\frac{\quad}{n_1} = \frac{\quad}{n_2}$

Where:

$V_1$ = Volume of acid	$V_2$ = Volume of base
$C_1$ = Concentration of acid	$C_2$ = Concentration of base
$n_1$ = Number of moles of acid from reaction equation.	$n_2$ = Number of moles of base from reaction equation.