

AQA A-LEVEL CHEMISTRY NOTEBOOK

**ALL THE KEY CONTENT
IN 50 PAGES!**



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3.1.1 ATOMIC STRUCTURE

KEY PRINCIPLES:

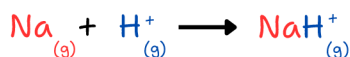
- Atom** - simplest particle that forms an **element**.
- Atoms consist of a nucleus which contains **protons** and **neutrons**.
- Atoms are surrounded by **electrons** which swarm around the atom in their relative **sub-shells/orbitals/energy-levels**.
- The different types of orbital that you will be exposed to during your A-Level studies are: **s, p, and d** and they each have a **fixed** number of electrons.
- Atomic number** - number of protons within an element. Usually the bottom number next to the element in the periodic table.
- Atomic mass** - number of protons and neutrons within an element. Usually the number above the element in the periodic table.
- Isotope** - atom with the **same** number of **protons** but a **different** number of **neutrons**.
- For example, you may get ^{35}Cl or ^{37}Cl . Their mass numbers are different because each isotope contains a different number of neutrons.

TIME OF FLIGHT MASS SPECTROMETRY (TOFMS):

- Determines the **Mr of molecules, abundance** and **relative mass of isotopes** of elements using a mass spectrometer.
- 4-step process: **ionisation, acceleration, drift, detection**.
- 2 methods of ionisation: **electron impact** and **electrospray**.
- Electron impact ionisation**: sample injected into machine → sample is vaporised → gaseous sample passed through an electron gun → sample attacked by high energy electrons → molecules become ionised. Suitable for **small** molecules. Can cause fragmentation.



- Electrospray ionisation**: sample dissolved in a volatile liquid. Sample injected through a hypodermic needle to produce a fine mist → tip of needle is attached to the positive terminal of a high voltage power supply → molecules gain a positive charge once they leave the needle. Better for larger molecules. Limited fragmentation.
- Remember** to subtract 1 when calculating the mass of a molecule ionised this way due to the additional H^+ .



- Acceleration**: positive ions are accelerated by a positively charged plate. The ions gain kinetic energy. Larger particles will have a lower velocity.
- Drift**: sample enters the drift region and the ions travel at a constant velocity according to velocity. Low mass ions reach the detector first.
- Detection**: positive ions gain a negative charge from a negatively charged plate. Flow of electrons creates a current. Abundance is determined by the size of the current.

TOFMS EQUATIONS AND WORKED EXAMPLE:

- The key equations you'll need to know and how to rearrange are:

$$\text{KE} = \frac{1}{2}mv^2 \quad \text{where } m = \text{mass}, v = \text{velocity}, \text{KE} = \text{Kinetic Energy}$$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2\text{KE}}{m}} \quad \text{time of flight (s)}$$

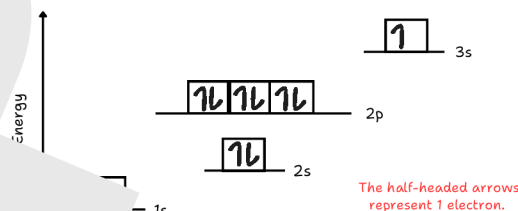
Q - $\text{A}^{133}\text{Cs}^+$ ion has a kinetic energy of $3.65 \times 10^{-16} \text{ J}$ and takes $2.71 \times 10^{-5} \text{ s}$ to reach the detector. Calculate the length of the drift tube in metres to an appropriate number of significant figures. (Mass of Cs^+ is $2.209 \times 10^{-25} \text{ kg}$)

Subatomic	Relative mass	Relative charge
Proton	1	+1
Neutron	1	0
Electron	$\frac{1}{1836}$ (approx 0.0005)	-1

ELECTRON CONFIGURATION:

- Let's take sodium (Na) as an example.
- It consists of 11 electrons.
- S sub-shell - contains a maximum of 2 electrons.
- P sub-shell - contains a maximum of 6 electrons.
- D sub-shell - contains a maximum of 10 electrons.

Each sub-shell has a fixed number of orbitals. The s sub-shell has 1 orbital, the p sub-shell has 3 orbitals, and the d sub-shell has 5 orbitals.



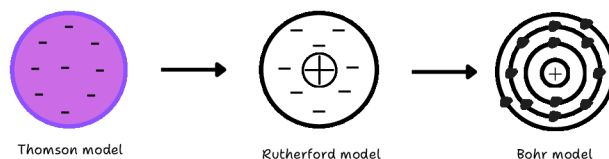
EVOLUTION OF THE ATOM:

Plum Pudding Model - first model of the atom. Atoms were thought of as small spherical particles which were all identical in their properties if of the same element.

- The **Thomson Model** - further experimenting concluded that atoms contain negatively charged electrons. This led to the idea of a 'plum pudding' where the electrons sat in a positively charged 'pudding' filled with protons.

Rutherford Model - the atom is mostly empty space with a positively charged nucleus surrounded by negatively charged electrons. The infamous 'gold foil' experiment confirmed this where positively charged alpha particles were fired at a thin sheet of gold. Based on the previous model, it was hypothesised that most particles would be deflected due to the positive centre. However, most passed straight through contradicting the theory. This then became the **nuclear model** of the atom.

- The **Bohr Model** - currently used model and describes how electrons exist in shells which have a fixed energy. It incorporates the ideas from the previous models.



Rearranging: $d = t \times v$

$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2\text{KE}}{m}}$$

$$133/1000 = 0.133 \text{ kg}$$

$$m = 0.133/6.022 \times 10^{23} \quad v = 5.749 \times 10^4 \text{ m s}^{-1}$$

$$m = 2.209 \times 10^{-25} \text{ kg}$$

$$d = 2.71 \times 10^{-5} \times 5.749 \times 10^4$$

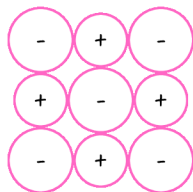
$$v = \sqrt{\frac{2 \times 3.65 \times 10^{-16}}{2.209 \times 10^{-25}}}$$

$$= 1.56 \text{ m (to 3 s.f.)}$$

3.1.3 BONDING

IONIC BONDING:

- Ionic bond** = the strong electrostatic force of attraction between oppositely charged ions.
- They are usually formed between metals and non-metals.
- Cation** = positively charged ions formed upon loss of electrons from metals e.g. Ca^{2+} .
- Anion** = negatively charged ions formed by non-metals gaining electrons e.g. Cl^- .
- These ions are held together in a giant ionic lattice structure.



A 2D representative of an ionic lattice structure.

- You may be asked to recall the formulae of ionic compounds. You do this by balancing the charges of the ions involved (page 3).
- Properties of ionic compounds:
- High melting and boiling points** - strong electrostatic forces of attraction between oppositely charged ions which require a lot of energy to overcome.
- Brittle** - Layers of ions slide past each other causing the lattice to break as ions of the same charge arrange themselves together.
- Conduct electricity ONLY when molten or in solution** - ions dissociate and are free to carry a charge.

Worked example:

Q- Magnesium oxide is known for its high melting point and robust structure. Identify the type of chemical bonding present in magnesium oxide and explain in terms of structure and bonding why it has such a high melting point.

Magnesium oxide has a giant ionic lattice structure. The strong electrostatic forces of attraction exist between the oppositely charged ions, giving it a high melting point.

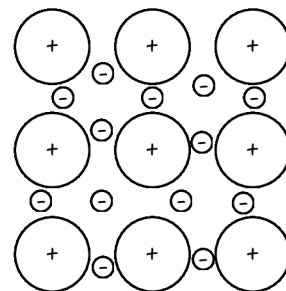
Q- When a water molecule reacts with a proton to form a hydronium ion, a co-ordinate bond is formed. Explain how this co-ordinate bond is formed.



A lone pair of electrons from the oxygen in the water molecule is donated to the proton.

METALLIC BONDING:

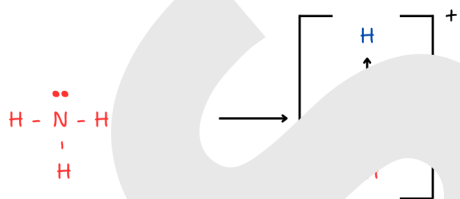
- Metallic bonding** is the strong electrostatic force of attraction between positive metal ions and delocalised electrons. Arranged in a lattice structure.
- Delocalised electrons** - electrons that are free to move and carry a charge.
- Properties of metals:
- Conduct electricity** - due to delocalised electrons.
- Malleable and ductile** - due to delocalised electrons allowing layers of ions to slide past each other.
- The strength of metallic bonding is dependent on the size of the ions and the number of delocalised electrons. The smaller the ion the stronger the attraction to the delocalised electrons.



Metallic bonding forming a lattice structure.

COVALENT + DATIVE COVALENT BONDING:

- Covalent bond** = the strong electrostatic force of attraction between shared pair(s) of electrons.
- They are usually found in small molecules and **macromolecular** structures.
- Dative covalent/co-ordinate bond** = formed when the shared pair of electrons in a molecule comes from only one bonding atom. An arrow is used to show the sharing of electrons.



A schematic showing the formation of a co-ordinate bond between ammonia and a hydrogen ion to form the ammonium ion. Nitrogen donates both of its electrons with hydrogen.

SMALL MOLECULES:

- Relatively weak structures.
- Covalent bonds between atoms but many weak intermolecular forces.
- Low melting and boiling points.
- Do not conduct electricity.
- Examples: water and iodine are examples.

MACROMOLECULES:

Very strong structures due to many covalent bonds between carbon atoms.

Diamond:

- Each carbon atom forms 4 covalent bonds.
- Tetrahedral lattice structure.
- High melting point due to strong covalent bonds and structure.
- Hard, rigid structure making it favourable to use in cutting tools.
- Non-conductor of electricity as no delocalised electrons.
- Insoluble.

Graphite:

- Each carbon atom forms 3 covalent bonds.
- Flat layers of hexagonal rings bonded by van der Waals forces making it slippery hence often used in lubricants.
- High melting point due to strong covalent bonds within layers.
- Conducts electricity due to delocalised electrons.
- Insoluble.

3.1.5 KINETICS

COLLISION THEORY:

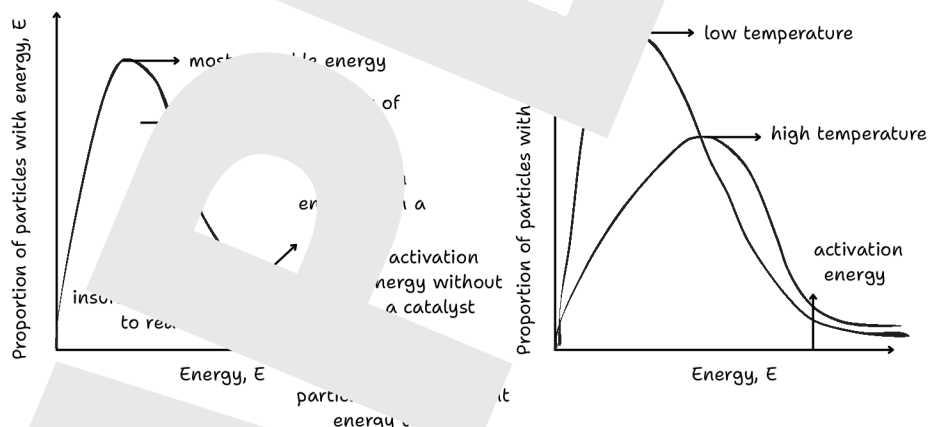
- **Activation energy** = the minimum energy required in order for a reaction to occur.
- In order for a collision to take place between particles, they must be in the **correct orientation** and have **adequate energy to overcome the activation energy**.
- **Collision frequency** = the number of collisions between particles per second.
- **Rate of reaction** = the change in concentration over time.
- Factors affecting collision frequency:

- Concentration
- Temperature
- Pressure
- Volume
- Surface area

- **Concentration** = a higher concentration means particles are **closer** together, **increasing the frequency of successful collisions**.
- **Temperature** is the **only** factor that affects collision **energy**. A **higher** temperature means particles have **more energy** and **move faster** hence there are **more frequent successful collisions**.
- **Pressure** = a **higher** pressure means particles are **closer** together therefore there are **more frequent successful collisions**.
- **Volume** = with **more particles** in a **given volume**, they are **closer** together **increasing the frequency of successful collisions**.
- **Surface area** = **increasing** the surface area by crushing a solid into a powder for example, **increases the frequency of successful collisions** as a **greater number of particles are at the surface**.
- Activation energy is **overcome** by **catalysts**.
- **Catalyst** = provides an **alternative route** with a **lower activation energy** therefore a **greater proportion of collisions are successful**. Remains **chemically unchanged** at the end of a reaction.

MAXWELL-BOLTZMANN DISTRIBUTION:

- The Maxwell-Boltzmann distribution is used for gas particles.
- If you have a container of gas, all particles will have differing kinetic energies.
- No particles will have 0 energy.
- The x-axis of the curve is the energy of the particle.
- The y-axis of the graph describes the proportion of particles with a certain energy.
- The peak of the curve is the most common energy.
- The area under the curve is the total number of particles within the container.
- The activation energy can be found on the x-axis. A catalyst can raise this.
- The area before the activation energy represents particles with insufficient energy to react.
- The area after the activation energy represents particles with sufficient energy greater than the activation energy which usually results in successful collisions.



REQUIRED

- This practical measures you the rate of reaction using temperature.
- You may investigate the 'disappearance of a cross' with sodium thiosulphate solution and hydrochloric acid.
- **Method:**
 - 1) Prepare a known concentration of hydrochloric acid in a beaker.
 - 2) Prepare a known concentration of sodium thiosulphate solution in a beaker.
 - 3) Place the beakers in a water bath at room temperature using a plastic container.
 - 4) Wait for the solutions to equilibrate with the temperature of the water bath.
 - 5) Record the initial temperature of the sodium thiosulphate solution in a suitable results table.
 - 6) Record the time it takes for the cross to disappear as well as the final temperature.
 - 7) Pour the reaction mixture into a 'stop bath' containing sodium carbonate solution. This neutralises the chemicals as sulphur dioxide is a toxic gas.
 - 8) Repeat the experiment at different temperatures by adding water from a kettle to the bath. **Do not exceed 55°C.**
 - 9) Calculate the mean temperatures and the rate of reaction (1/time).
 - 10) Plot a graph with 1/time on the y-axis and mean temperature on the x-axis.

Worked Example:

Q- The reaction between sodium thiosulphate and hydrochloric acid produces a cloudy solution. Which change will increase the rate of reaction?

A Increasing the concentration of sodium carbonate

B Increasing the concentration of sodium thiosulphate

C Adding water to the reaction mixture

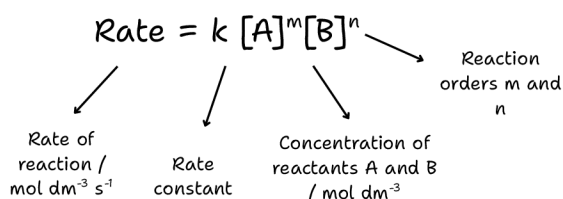
D Increasing the concentration of hydrochloric acid

The answer is **D**. Increasing concentration will increase the frequency of successful collisions while the other answers decrease the chances of these.

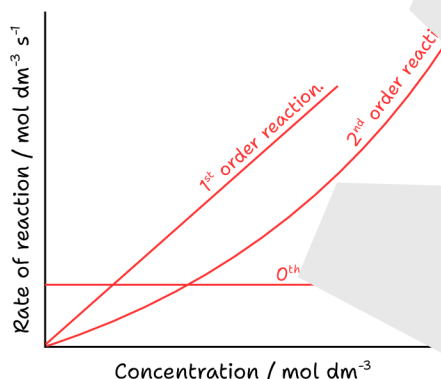
3.1.9 RATE EQUATIONS

KEY CONCEPTS:

- The rate of a chemical reaction is determined by the **concentration of its reactants**.
- This is expressed using the rate equation:



- Products** are **not** included in the rate equation.
- Catalysts** can be included in the rate equation.
- The **rate constant, k**, is **temperature dependent**.
- The reaction orders, **m** and **n**, can **only** be of values **0, 1 or 2**.
- Reaction order** = the power to which the concentration of a reactant is raised in the rate equation.
- 1st order** = the rate of reaction is directly proportional to $[A]$.
- 2nd order** = the rate of reaction is proportional to $[A]^2$.
- 0th order** = the rate of reaction is not affected by reactants with this order and so, these reactants do not appear in the equation.
- Overall order of reaction** = the sum of the orders of reactants in the rate equation.



- You may be required to work out the units for k. Here's an example:

$$\text{Rate} = k [A]^m [B]^n$$

$$k = \frac{\text{Rate}}{[A]^m [B]^n} = \frac{\text{mol dm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}}{(\text{mol dm}^{-3})^2 (\text{mol dm}^{-3})^2}$$

$$k = \text{mol}^{-3} \text{ dm}^9 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

RATE METHODS:

- Continuous method** = measures the rate of reaction continuously. Measures the amount of product or reactants used or the change in volume or mass. The y-axis of the graph is on the x-axis and the rate is constant.
- Initial rate method** = measures the initial rate of reaction at a specific point. When carrying out experiments where one variable is altered whilst the others remain constant, the time taken to reach the set point is the variable. This allows a graph to be constructed and the order of the reaction can be deduced.

Worked example:

Q- The table below shows the data gathered from a series of experiments investigating the reaction between compounds C and D.

Experiment	Concentration of C / mol dm^{-3}	Concentration of D / mol dm^{-3}	Rate / $\text{mol dm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}$
1	0.10	0.10	1.0×10^{-4}
2	0.10	0.20	1.0×10^{-4}
3	0.20	0.20	2.0×10^{-4}

Using the data above, deduce the rate expression for the reaction between C and D.

In order to find the order of a reactant in the rate equation, choose two experiments where the concentration of one reactant changes but the others remain constant.

Looking at experiments 1 and 2, the concentration of C remains constant, and the rate remains constant.

Therefore, the reaction is **zero order with respect to C**.

Looking at experiments 1 and 3, [C] remains constant, [D] doubles, and the rate doubles.

Therefore, the reaction is **first order with respect to D**.

$$\text{Rate} = k [C]^0 [D]^1$$

Using experiment 1, calculate a value for k and work out its units.

$$k = \frac{\text{Rate}}{[D]} = \frac{1.0 \times 10^{-4}}{[0.10]^1}$$

$$k = 0.001$$

$$k = \frac{\text{mol dm}^{-3} \text{ s}^{-1}}{(\text{mol dm}^{-3})^2 (\text{mol dm}^{-3})^1}$$

$$k = 0.025 \text{ mol}^{-2} \text{ dm}^6 \text{ s}^{-1}$$

DETERMINING STEP:

- Rate-determining step** = the slowest step of a chemical reaction. The overall reaction rate depends on this. The step before the rate-determining step will be the only step that occurs in the rate equation.
- Reaction intermediate** = the product from one step of the reaction that then goes on to further reacting to create a product of the overall reaction. Reaction intermediates **cannot** be included in the rate equation. The order of the reactants will be equivalent to the number of each reactant in or before the rate-determining step.

Worked example:

Q- The reaction between nitrogen dioxide and carbon monoxide proceeds according to the following equation:



The experimentally determined rate equation for the reaction is: $\text{rate} = k [\text{NO}_2]^2$

A proposed two-step mechanism for the reaction is:



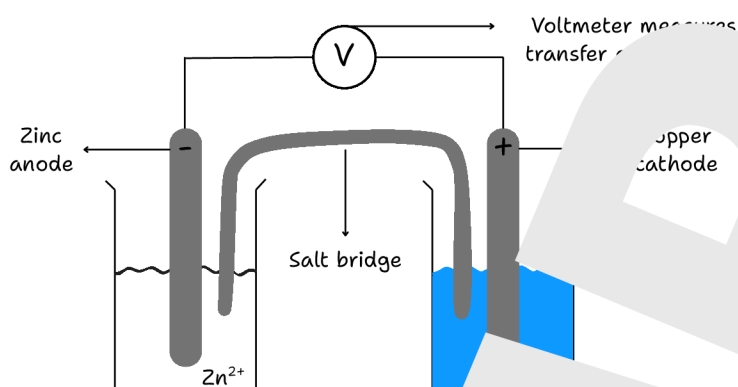
Suggest which one of the two steps is the rate-determining step and explain the reasoning behind your answer.

The answer is **step 1**. This is because only reactants in or before the rate-determining step appear in the rate equation. We can see that NO_2 appears twice in the rate equation and this occurs in step 1 of the mechanism.

3.1.11 ELECTRODE POTENTIALS & CELLS

ELECTROCHEMICAL CELLS:

- Electrochemical cells are composed of two **half-cells** linked together.
- Each half-cell consists of an electrode and a solution of the metal used as the electrode.
- Electrodes:**
 - Provide a surface for a reaction to take place.
 - They work by conducting electricity thus allowing the transfer of electrons.
 - They must be solid in form.
 - They may partake in reactions or remain inert. An example of this is the platinum electrode.
- The **positive** electrode is known as the **cathode**. It is positive as **reduction** occurs at the cathode.
- The **negative** electrode is known as the **anode**. It is negative as **oxidation** occurs at the anode.

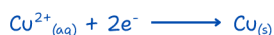


A visual representation of an electrochemical cell.

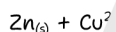
- Salt bridge** = completes the circuit and allows ions to prevent charge build-up around the electrodes. It must not react with charged particles in the solution to prevent the formation of insoluble salts.
- Half-equations are used to represent the processes inside an electrochemical cell:



This is the process that occurs at the anode. The zinc metal electrode is oxidised to zinc ions found in the solution.



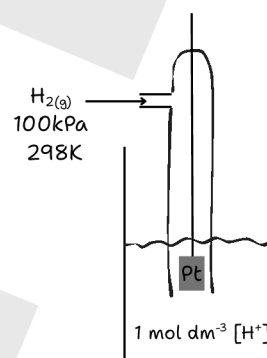
This is the process that occurs at the cathode. The copper ions in the solution gain electrons and are reduced to copper metal.



This is the overall redox reaction. Zinc is the reducing agent whilst copper(II) ions in solution is the oxidising agent.

ELECTRODES:

- There are a few different types of electrode.
- Standard electrode** = An electrode made of a metal immersed into a solution of the metal's ions. For example, the standard zinc electrode.
- Redox electrode** = An electrode that uses a gas instead of a metal. An example is the standard hydrogen electrode and consists of a platinum electrode and consists of a platinum wire to allow for the reaction to take place.
- Standard electrode** = known as the primary standard. It is used to make comparisons between half-cells. It has an electrode potential of +0.00 V.
- Redox electrode** = usually the platinum electrode and is used for redox reactions between ionic solutions. Platinum is used because it is inert and allows the movement of electrons without participating in the reaction.



The standard hydrogen electrode.

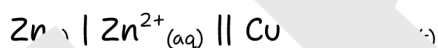
ELECTRODE POTENTIALS:

- Electrode potential:**
- The standard electrode potential refers to the standard conditions that are required for electrodes. These are: a **temperature of 298K**, **solutions at 1 mol dm⁻³**, and a **pressure of 100kPa**. Make sure you write out these conditions when drawing electrochemical cells.
- Electrode potentials are measured in volts.
- A more positive electrode potential signifies a high chance of the reduction reaction occurring.
- Electrode potentials are written in the **reduction direction ONLY**.
- More positive electrode potentials indicate reactions that undergo reduction easily - this will be the **cathode**.
- Less positive electrode potentials indicate reactions that are more likely to undergo oxidation - this will be the **anode**.
- Half-cell equations can be written more easily like this:



- From the electrode potentials above, we can see that copper is more likely to undergo reduction and zinc is more likely to undergo oxidation when the two half-cells are connected.
- Therefore, we say that **Cu²⁺ will be reduced by Zn**.
- Explain the reasoning for your answer by saying that the Cu²⁺/Cu electrode potential is more positive than the Zn²⁺/Zn electrode potential.

CONVENTIONAL CELL NOTATION



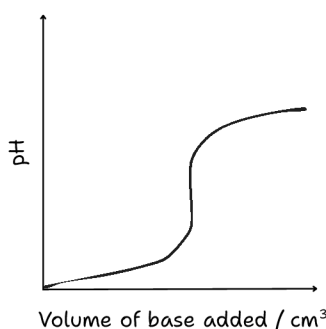
Most reduced species go on the left. The oxidised half-cell is always on the right.

- The species that are oxidised are the ones that have the highest oxidation numbers.
- When there are identical species on both sides, write them next to each other separated by a comma, then place the phase boundary. Make sure to also include the redox electrode e.g. Pt_(s) on either side of the phase boundary if you have two ionic solutions.

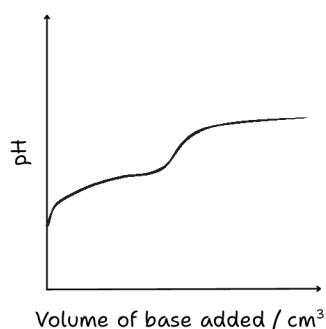
3.1.12 ACIDS & BASES PT. 4

TITRATION CURVES CONTINUED:

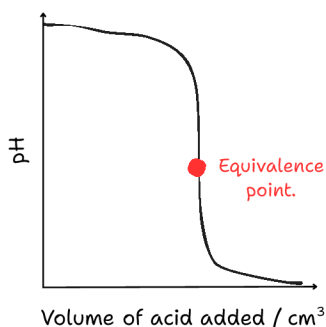
Weak base to strong acid



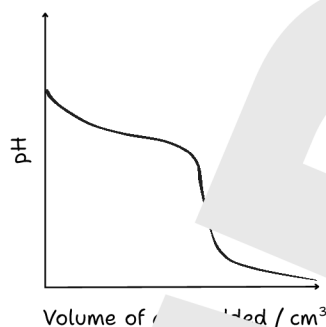
Weak base to weak acid



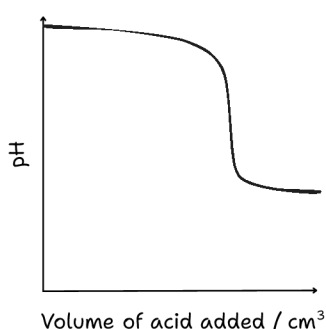
Strong acid to strong base



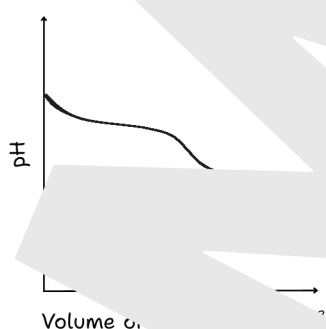
Strong acid to weak base



Weak acid to strong base



Weak acid to weak base



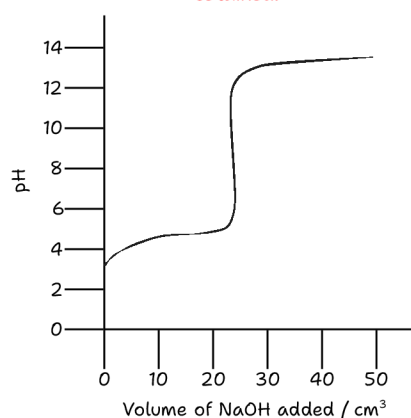
- The middle point of the vertical section found in each curve is the **equivalence point**.
- The weak acid to weak base titration is excluded from this rule as the vertical section of the curve is not as sharp.
- Half neutralisation point**
- We can use strong base-weak acid titration to find the pH at half neutralisation.
- Volume at half neutralisation = $\frac{\text{Volume of base added at the equivalence point}}{2}$.
- At half neutralisation, half of the weak acid has been used up and half of the salt of the weak acid has been formed meaning $[HA] = [A^-]$.
- Putting this into the K_a equation leads to $pH = pK_a$.
- Taking the logarithm of both sides gives us $pH = pK_a$. We can use this to calculate the pK_a at half neutralisation.
- Here are some ranges for indicators:
- Methyl orange = 3.1-4.4
- Phenolphthalein = 8.3-10.0
- Bromothymol blue = 6.0-7.6
- Litmus = 4.5-8.3
- If a question asks which indicator would be most suitable for a strong acid-strong base titration, the answer is bromothymol blue. This is because the pH range for its colour change is around the equivalence point for this titration in the curve.

REQUIRED PRACTICAL 9: INVESTIGATING PH CHANGE WHEN A WEAK ACID REACTS WITH A STRONG BASE AND WHEN A STRONG ACID REACTS WITH A WEAK BASE

- The aim of this practical is to focus on the acid-strong base titration.
- Method:**
 - Begin by calibrating the pH meter using distilled or deionised water. Make sure it is completely dry before using.
 - Place the meter in the pH 7.0 buffer solution and give it some time before recording the pH reading. Repeat steps 1 and 2 for the other chosen standard solutions.
 - Calculate the concentration of the solutions.
 - Plot a graph of pH against the readings recorded on the x-axis and the volume of base added on the y-axis. Do this on Excel and use the 'trendline' option to find the best fit which will provide the equation of the line.
 - Adjust the pH readings with an equation to adjust the pH readings.
 - Fill the burette with a known concentration of the strong base and then fill the burette with this strong base just below the tap.
 - Add a known volume of the weak acid into a beaker. Stir the solution with a glass rod into the beaker and insert the pH meter. Start stirring the solution slowly and record the pH.
 - Add the strong base from the burette in small increments.
 - After each addition, allow the solution to mix thoroughly before recording the pH.
 - Continue to add the base until well past the equivalence point.
 - Plot the pH with the volume of base added in cm^3 on the x-axis and the adjusted pH readings on the y-axis.

Worked example:

A student titrated 25.0 cm^3 of a weak monoprotic acid (HA) with 0.1 mol dm^{-3} sodium hydroxide. The pH was measured after each addition of sodium hydroxide, and the following titration curve was obtained:



Use the graph to estimate the pK_a of the weak acid.

Half-neutralisation point = 12.5 cm^3 . At half neutralisation, $[HA] = [A^-]$, so $pH = pK_a$. pH is approximately 4.8 therefore $pK_a = 4.8$.

Suggest a suitable indicator that could be used to determine the end-point of this titration. Justify your choice using the graph.

Phenolphthalein as the pH range for its colour change is 8.3-10.0 which lies within the vertical section of the curve.

Explain why the pH at the equivalence point is greater than 7.

There is no more HA left so A^- reacts with water in a hydrolysis reaction to produce OH^- ions making the solution basic.

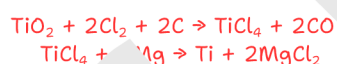
3.2.2 & 3.2.3 GROUP 2 AND GROUP 7

GROUP 2, THE ALKALINE EARTH METALS TRENDS:

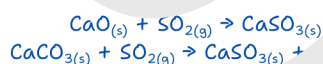
- **Atomic radius:** Increases as you descend the group as shielding increases.
- **1st ionisation energy:**
 - Decreases as you descend the group.
 - Shielding increases therefore there is a weaker attraction between the nucleus and outer shell electrons.
 - Less energy is required to remove an electron from the outer shell.
- **Melting point:** Generally decreases as metal ions get larger leading to a lower charge density. This means weaker metallic bonding.
- **Reactions with cold water:** Increases as you descend the group as shielding allows outer electrons to be lost more easily to water.
- **Beryllium** is the only element that does not react with water/steam.
- **Solubility:**
 - Group 2 **sulphates** get **less soluble** as you descend the group. **BaSO₄ is insoluble** and forms a **white precipitate**.
 - Group 2 **hydroxides** get **more soluble** as you descend the group. **Mg(OH)₂ and Ca(OH)₂ are insoluble**.
- **Testing for sulphate ions in solutions:**
 - Based on BaSO₄ being insoluble.
 - Mix acidified (with HCl) BaCl₂ solution with your chosen solution and if sulphate ions are present in your chosen solution, a white precipitate should form.
 - BaCO₃ is just like BaSO₄. The HCl reacts with carbonate ions so that BaSO₄ is different from it.
 - If carbonate ions are present, effervescence would be observed.

PRACTICAL USES OF GROUP 2:

- **BaSO₄** = Used in barium meals. It is swallowed to outline the gastrointestinal tract in X-rays to identify any issues. It is insoluble so it overrides the toxic effect of barium.
- **Mg(OH)₂** = Milk of magnesia. It is an antacid neutralising excess stomach acid.
- **Ca(OH)₂** = Slaked lime can be used in farming to reduce the acidity of soil.
- **Mg** = Used in titanium extraction.



- An expensive process due to the high temperature and the production of Mg by electrolysis.
- **SO₂** = Causes acid rain. It is a greenhouse gas but it is less harmful than CO₂.
- **CaO(s)** or **Ca(OH)₂** can be used to remove SO₂ from the atmosphere.



Element	Reaction with water/steam	Equation
Mg	No reaction with cold water. Burns with a white flame prod.	$\text{Mg(s)} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O(l)} \rightarrow \text{Mg(OH)}_2(\text{s}) + \text{H}_2(\text{g})$ $\text{Mg(s)} + \text{H}_2\text{O(g)} \rightarrow \text{MgO(s)} + \text{H}_2(\text{g})$
Ca	Fizzes and slowly soluble white precip.	$\text{Ca(s)} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O(l)} \rightarrow \text{Ca(OH)}_2(\text{s}) + \text{H}_2(\text{g})$
Sr	Fizzes and forms colourless solution.	$\text{Sr(s)} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O(l)} \rightarrow \text{Sr(OH)}_2(\text{aq}) + \text{H}_2(\text{g})$
Ba	Fizzes and forms a colourless solution.	$\text{Ba(s)} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O(l)} \rightarrow \text{Ba(OH)}_2(\text{aq}) + \text{H}_2(\text{g})$

WORKING WITH GROUP 2

Q- Barium sulphate is used in medicine to help doctors view the gut in X-rays.

Br- Explain why barium sulphate can be safely digested.

Fr- Barium sulphate is insoluble in water. Therefore, barium ions are not released into the body and cannot be absorbed.

Fr- How do you test for the presence of sulphate ions in a solution. Include any reagents and observations.

Fr- How do you test for the presence of carbonate ions in a solution. Include any reagents and observations.

GROUP 7 TRENDS:

- **Atomic radius:** Increases from fluorine to iodine exist as diatomic molecules.
- **1st ionisation energy:** Decreases as you descend the group. This is because the shielding increases hence there are stronger van der Waals forces between the atoms. A lot of energy is required to overcome these forces.
- **Electronegativity:** Decreases as you descend the group. This is because the atomic radius increases and so, a lower ability to attract a pair of electrons.
- **Oxidising power:** Decreases as you descend the group as it is correlated with electronegativity. The easier it is to attract a pair of electrons, the more reactive an element is.

GROUP 7 HALOGENS AS OXIDISING AGENTS:

- **Oxidising power:** Halogens are oxidising agents. This means they get reduced themselves. Oxidising power decreases as you descend the group. This is because the increased shielding makes it harder to gain electrons.

Displacement reactions:

- Display the oxidising power of halogens.
- A solution of the halogen is added to a solution of a halide.
- A more reactive halogen will displace a less reactive one.
- **Chlorine** = exists as a **pale yellow-green solution**.
- **Bromine** = exists as an **orange-brown solution**.
- **Iodine** = exists as a **brown solution** but as a **grey/black solid** when not in solution.

	Cl ⁻	Br ⁻	I ⁻
Cl ₂	Remains pale yellow-green	Solution turns orange	Solution turns brown
Br ₂	Remains orange	Remains orange	Solution turns brown
I ₂	Remains brown	Remains brown	Remains brown

A table displaying the displacement reactions of the halogens with halides.

3.2.5 TRANSITION METALS

KEY CONCEPTS:

- The transition metals are located around the middle of the periodic table.
- They have **variable oxidation states** which allows them to form different compounds.
- These compounds tend to be **coloured**.

Ion	Colour of ion in solution	Oxidation state of vanadium
V ²⁺	Violet	+2
V ³⁺	Green	+3
VO ²⁺	Blue	+4
VO ₂ ⁺	Yellow	+5

- Transition metals are d-block elements that can form one or more stable ions with a partially filled d-orbital.
- The splitting of the d-orbitals and adsorption of visible light cause wavelengths to be transmitted/reflected giving the complexes their distinct colours.
- Zinc is excluded from the transition metals as it has a completely filled d-orbital.
- Transition metals are **good catalysts**.
- Transition metals exist as **complex ions**.
- Make sure you remember the key features highlighted in bold for the exams.

HETEROGENOUS CATALYSTS:

- Transition metals and their compounds are able to act as catalysts due to their variable oxidation states.
- The metals and their compounds can act as both **homogenous** and **heterogenous catalysts**.
- Homogeneous catalyst** is in the same phase as the reactants.
- Heterogenous catalyst** is in a different phase to the reactants.

Heterogenous catalysts:

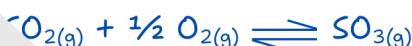
- Adsorption.** Reactant molecules adsorb onto the surface of the solid catalyst. This weakens the bonds in the reactant molecules, making them **more reactive**.
 - Bond breaking and bond forming.**
 - Desorption.** Product molecules leave the catalyst surface, freeing up active sites for new reactants to adsorb.
- The efficiency of the catalyst heavily relies on the strength of adsorption.
 - The elements that are good catalysts are: **Fe, Ru, Rh, Co, Ni, Pd, and Pt**.

Catalytic converters:

- Heterogenous catalysis occurs in catalytic converters.
- Platinum increases the surface area for catalysis and cost-effectiveness.
- Platinum is a good catalyst to maximise surface area by providing a thin layer of catalyst.
- Platinum catalysis to convert CO to CO₂ is an example but is expensive.
- Heterogenous catalysts can get **poisoned** by impurities which block the active sites. This reduces the efficiency of the catalyst and is an economical disadvantage.

The Contact Process:

- V₂O₅ is the catalyst used in the contact process and works to produce sulphuric acid from sulphur dioxide.



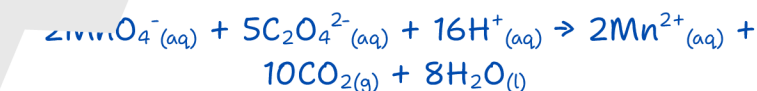
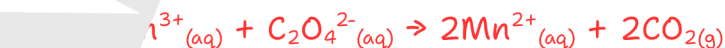
HOMOGENOUS CATALYSTS:

- As the homogenous catalyst is in the same phase as the reactants, an intermediate with a lower activation energy is formed for the reaction to proceed.
- Fe²⁺ ions catalyse the reaction between S₂O₈²⁻ ions in the Haber process. The catalyst is needed because without it there would be high repulsion between the two negative ions leading to a high activation energy and less chance of collisions occurring.
- This is a two-step process.

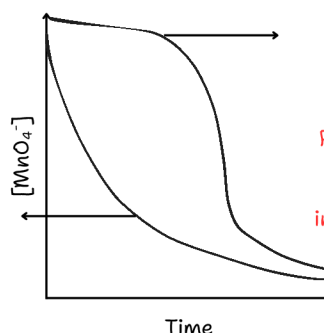


AUTOCATALYSTS:

- An autocatalyst is a substance that acts as a catalyst when the product of the reaction is also the catalyst.
- Mn²⁺ is an autocatalyst in the reaction between C₂O₄²⁻ with MnO₄⁻:



- The reaction rate decreases over time as MnO₄⁻ gets used up.
- Below is a graph showing the effects of Mn²⁺ being an autocatalyst in this reaction with ethanedioate:



This curve shows the effects of autocatalysis. The reactant is not getting reused hence the rate of reaction continues to fall steadily.

This curve shows the effects of autocatalysis. At first, the rate of reaction is very slow as there is not enough product which means not enough catalyst. As the amount of product increases, more catalyst is produced so the rate of reaction speeds up.

Worked example:

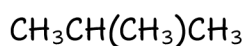
Q- Explain the colours of d-orbital complexes and why transition metal complexes are coloured.

D-orbitals are complex shapes. They have different energy levels. Electrons can move from a lower energy level to a higher energy level by absorbing light. The wavelengths of light absorbed are reflected, giving the complex its colour.

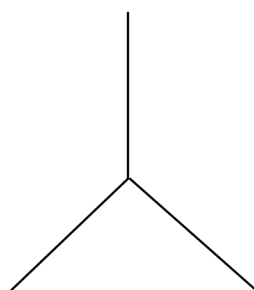
3.3.1 INTRO TO ORGANIC CHEMISTRY

KEY CONCEPTS:

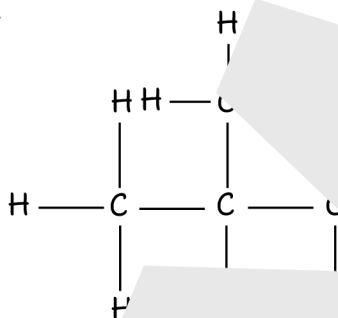
- Molecular formula** = shows the actual number of each type of atom in a molecule.
- Empirical formula** = shows the simplest whole number ratio of atoms of each element in a compound.
- General formula** = represents a homologous series using letters and numbers (algebraic form). An example is C_nH_{2n+2} for alkanes.
- Structural formula** = shows the arrangement of atoms in 2D form.
- Displayed formula** = shows all the atoms and bonds in a molecule using lines to represent the bonds.
- Skeletal formula** = shows the bonds of the carbon skeleton and functional groups attached. Doesn't show carbon and hydrogen atoms attached.
- Homologous series** = organic compounds with the same general formula, differing physical properties, same chemical properties, and each compound differs by CH_2 from the previous one. For example, alkanes and alkenes.
- Alkyl group** = contains only carbon and hydrogen atoms (hydrocarbon). Formed from alkanes by removing a hydrogen atom e.g. CH_3 , C_2H_5 , C_3H_7 .
- Functional group** = atom/group of atoms which give compounds their distinct chemical properties.
- Let's take a look at the different ways to represent methylpropane:



Structural formula



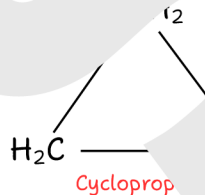
Skeletal formula



- Nomenclature:**
- When drawing/naming organic compounds, it is important to emphasise the significance of numbers, alphabetical order of functional groups according to IUPAC.
- Depending on the length of the carbon chain, the alkyl group could fall on different carbons. For example, you could have 2-methylbutane or 3-methylbutane.
- If you have two alkyl groups, you would have to write them in alphabetical order.
- The two alkyl groups could fall on the same carbon atom. In this case you would write the number of the carbon atom they fall on twice, separated by a comma. For example, 2,2-dimethylbutane.
- Numbers and letters are separated by a space.
- When naming organic compounds with multiple functional groups, the highest priority functional group is named first. This is the order of priority: Carboxylic acid > Ester > Aldehyde > Ketone > Alcohol > Amine > Alkene > Halogenoalkane > Alkane.

Carboxylic acid > Ester > Aldehyde > Ketone > Alcohol > Amine > Alkene > Halogenoalkane > Alkane

- Cyclic alkanes** = organic compounds with a ring structure. The number of carbons in the ring is indicated by a prefix on the number.



Cyclopropane

ALKENE:

Prefix: enyl
Suffix: ene

3,4-dimethylpent-2-ene.
Double bonds are between carbon atoms only.

HALOGENOALKANE:

Prefix: halo

1,2-dibromobutane.
A halogen atom is attached to a carbon atom.

ALDEHYDE:

Prefix: oxo

2-methylpropanal.
The carbonyl group is double bonded to a carbon atom attached to a hydrogen atom. Aldehydes are located at the ends of carbon chains.

KETONE:

Prefix: oxo
Suffix: one

Propanone.
Ketones are located in the middle of carbon chains. Oxygen is double bonded to a carbon atom.

ALCOHOL:

Prefix: hydroxy
Suffix: ol

2-methylpropan-2-ol.
The alcohol group (OH) is attached to a carbon atom.

CARBOXYLIC ACID:

Suffix: oic acid

Butanoic acid.
The carboxylic acid group (-COOH) is attached to the end of the carbon chain.

ESTER:

Suffix: oate

Methyl ethanoate.
The ester group (-COO) is found in the middle of carbon chains. The methyl group is attached to the singly bonded O whilst the ethyl group is attached to the double bonded O.

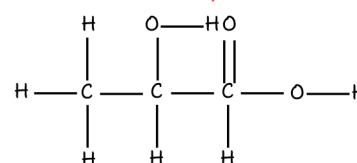
AMINE:

Prefix: amino
Suffix: amine

Butylamine.
The amine group is attached to a carbon atom.

Worked example:

What is the name of this compound in IUPAC form?

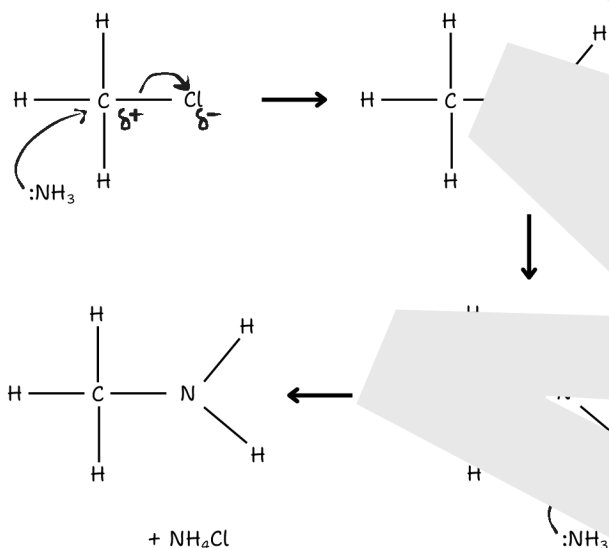


2-hydroxypropanoic acid.

3.3.3 + 4 HALOGENOALKANES PT 2 & ALKENES

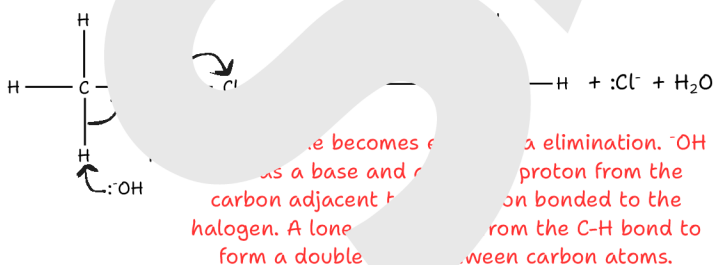
NUCLEOPHILIC SUBSTITUTION REAGENTS AND CONDITIONS:

- Reagent** = a substance added to a reaction to bring it about e.g. sodium hydroxide, potassium cyanide or ammonia.
- Reaction conditions** = conditions required to induce the reaction e.g. temperature, pressure, use of a catalyst.
- Halogenoalkanes with hydroxide (:OH^-) ions:**
 - Reagent = aqueous sodium/potassium hydroxide solution.
 - Conditions = reflux in aqueous sodium/potassium hydroxide solution.
 - Product = alcohol.
- Halogenoalkanes with cyanide (:CN^-) ions:**
 - Reagent = aqueous, alcoholic sodium/potassium hydroxide solution.
 - Conditions = reflux in aqueous, alcoholic sodium/potassium hydroxide solution.
 - Product = nitrile.
- Halogenoalkanes with ammonia (:NH_3):**
 - Reagent = aqueous, alcoholic ammonia (in excess) solution.
 - Conditions = reflux in aqueous, alcoholic ammonia solution under pressure.
 - Products = amine and ammonium halide salt.



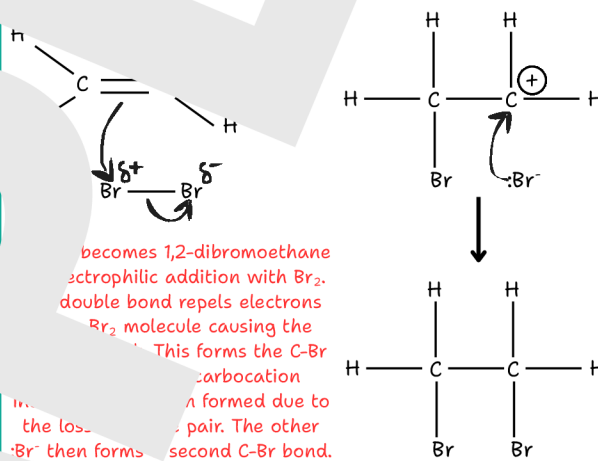
ELIMINATION:

- Elimination is very similar to nucleophilic substitution.
- OH^- acts as a **base** not a nucleophile.
- Reagent = concentrated alcoholic sodium/potassium hydroxide solution.
- Conditions = reflux in alcoholic sodium/potassium hydroxide solution.
- Products = alkene and water.

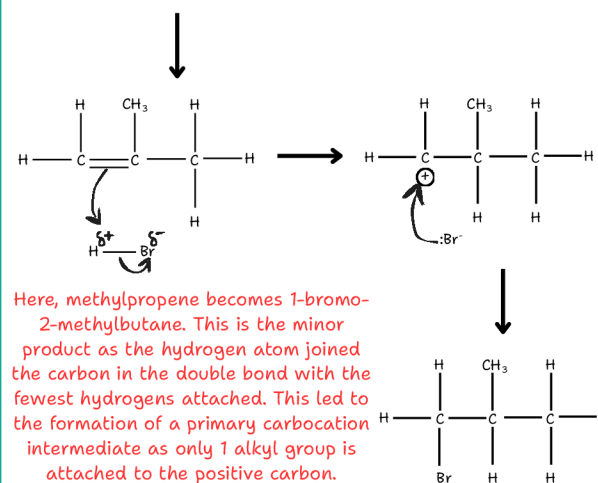
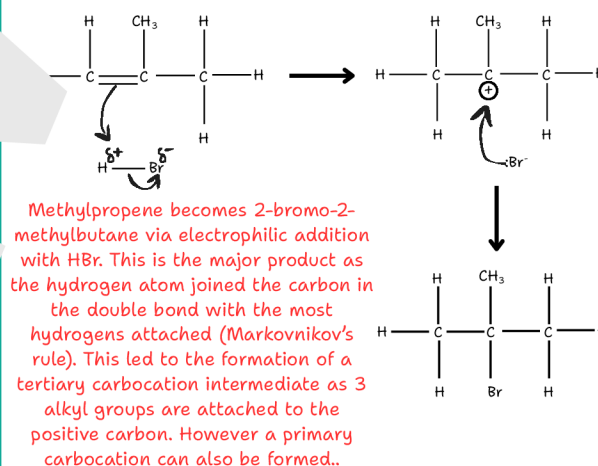


ALKENES INTRODUCTION:

- Alkenes are **unsaturated hydrocarbons** meaning they consist of **double bonds** between carbon atoms.
- Alkenes are **electrophilic** and there is a **high electron density** around them.
- Alkenes are **nucleophilic** as they have lone pairs/electrons.
- Alkenes undergo **electrophilic addition** reactions.
- The ones we will discuss are Br_2 , HBr , and H_2SO_4 .
- Alkene with Br_2 :**
 - Reagent = Br_2
 - Conditions = aqueous solution (bromine water).



- Alkene with HBr :**
 - Reagent = HBr
 - Conditions = aqueous HBr solution.



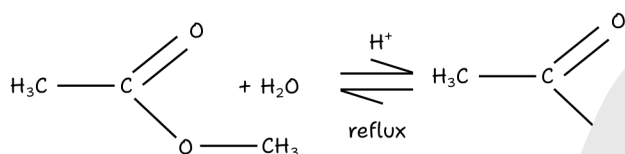
3.3.9 CARBOXYLIC ACIDS & DERIVATIVES PT.2

USES OF ESTERS:

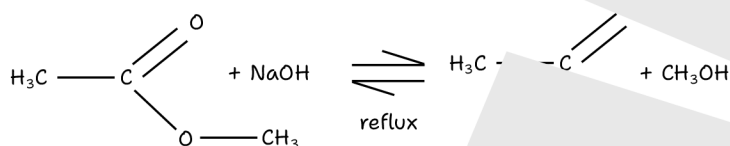
- Esters are sweet smelling making them useful as perfumes or sweeteners in the food industry.
- They are polar molecules making them useful as solvents.
- They can be used as plasticisers to make plastics more flexible due to their short chains.

ESTER HYDROLYSIS:

- Esters can undergo either acid or base hydrolysis.
- **Acid hydrolysis:**
- Ester and water are **refluxed** with a **dilute strong acid** to form a **carboxylic acid** and **an alcohol**:

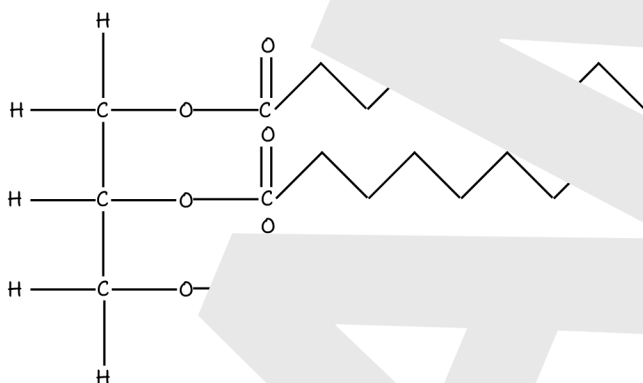


- **Base hydrolysis:**
- Ester and water are **refluxed** with a **dilute alkali** to form a **carboxylate ion** and an **alcohol**:

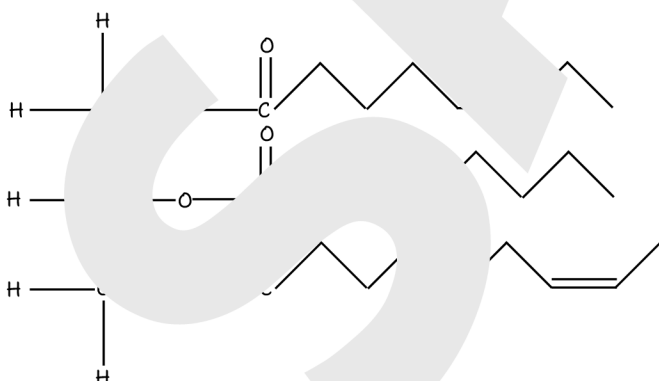


VEGETABLE OILS AND ANIMAL F.

- These are produced via esterification of glycerol (propan-1,2,3-triol) and long chain **saturated and unsaturated** fatty acids.
- **Fatty acids** are usually **saturated** giving them high melting due to the high number of van der

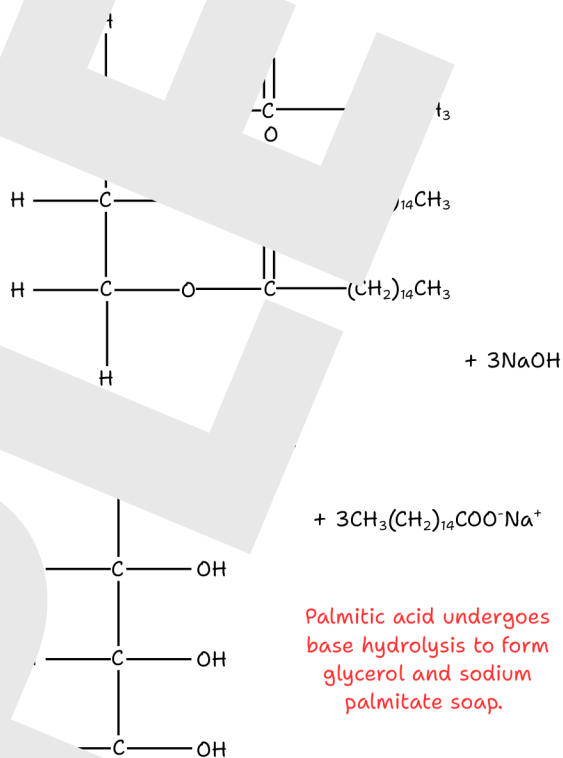


- **Oils** are usually **unsaturated** and have lower melting points as the chains are unable to pack closely.



SOAP:

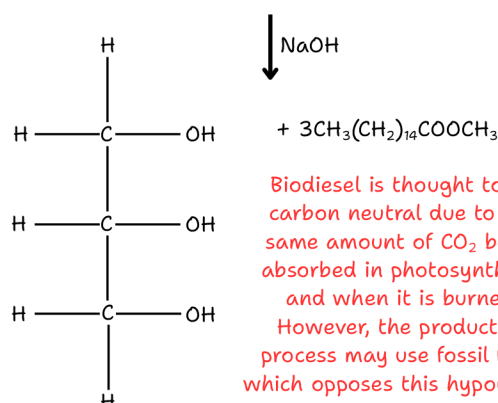
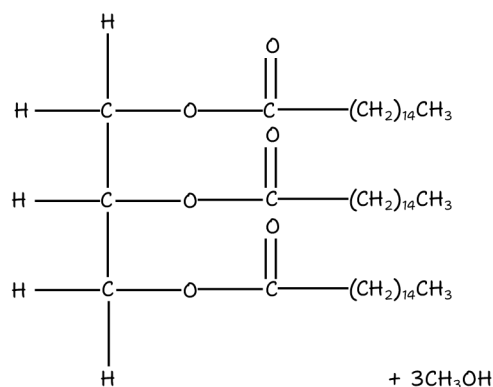
- Iodine undergoes base hydrolysis using NaOH, form glycerol and soap:



Palmitic acid undergoes base hydrolysis to form glycerol and sodium palmitate soap.

DIESEL:

- Biodiesel is a methyl ester made of long-chain fatty acids.
- The fat/oil is reacted with methanol using a strong alkali catalyst. The products are glycerol and biodiesel:



Biodiesel is thought to be carbon neutral due to the same amount of CO_2 being absorbed in photosynthesis and when it is burned. However, the production process may use fossil fuels which opposes this hypothesis.

A bright yellow square with a bold, black, sans-serif letter 'Z' centered inside it.

Z

MR. ZEE'S RESOURCES