AQA GCSE Chemistry (Combined Science) Unit 4: Chemical Changes Knowledge Organiser

The Reactivity Series

Here's a mnemonic to help you learn the order:

purple (potassium)
slime (sodium)
can (calcium)
make (magnesium)
a (aluminium)
careless (carbon)
zebra (zinc)
insane (iron)
try (tin)
learning (lead)
how (hydrogen)
camels (copper)
surprise (silver)
gorillas (gold)

potassium
sodium
calcium
magnesium
aluminium
carbon →
zinc
iron
tin
lead
hydrogen →
copper
silver
gold
platinum

The reactivity series is a league table for metals. The more reactive metals are near the top of the table with the least reactive near the bottom. In chemical reactions, a more reactive metal will displace a less reactive metal.

Reactions of Metals with Water

Metals, when reacted with water, produce a metal hydroxide and hydrogen.

lithium + water → lithium hydroxide + hydrogen

$2Li + 2H_2O \rightarrow 2LiOH + H_2$

The more reactive a metal is, the faster the reaction.

Reactions of Metals with Dilute Acid

Metals, when reacted with acids, produce a salt and hydrogen.

Sodium + hydrochloric acid → sodium chloride + hydrogen

$2Na + 2HCl \rightarrow 2NaCl + H_2$

Metals that are below hydrogen in the reactivity series **do not** react with dilute acids.

Reactions of Acids

The general formula for the reaction between an acid and a metal is:

acid + metal → salt + hydrogen

For example: hydrochloric acid + sodium → sodium chloride + hydrogen

$2HCl + 2Na \rightarrow 2NaCl + H_2$

When an acid reacts with an alkali, a neutralisation reaction takes place and a salt and water are produced.

The general formula for this kind of reaction is as follows:

acid + alkali → salt + water

hydrochloric acid + sodium hydroxide → sodium chloride + water

$HCl + NaOH \rightarrow NaCl + H_2O$

Naming Salts

The first part comes from the metal in the metal carbonate, oxide or hydroxide. The second part of the name comes from the acid that was used to make it.

Acid Used	Salt Produced
hydrochloric	chloride
nitric	nitrate
sulfuric	sulfate

For example, sodium chloride.

Redox Reactions (Higher Tier Only)

When metals react with acids, they undergo a redox reaction. A **redox reaction** occurs when both **oxidation** and **reduction** take place at the **same time.**

For example:

$2H^+ + Ca \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + H_2$

The ionic equation can be further split into two half equations.

$Ca \rightarrow Ca^{2+} + 2e^-$

Oxidation is loss of electrons.

$2H^+ + 2e^- \rightarrow H_2$

Reduction is gaining of electrons.

Reactions with Bases

The general formula for the reaction between an acid and a metal oxide is:

acid + metal oxide → salt + water

sulfuric acid + copper oxide → copper sulfate + water

$H_2SO_4 + CuO \rightarrow CuSO_4 + H_2O$

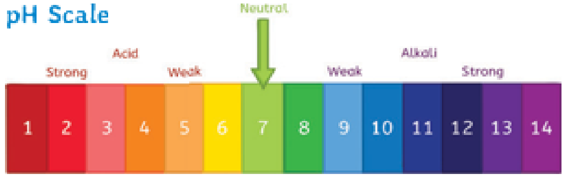
Reactions with Carbonates

The general formula for the reaction between an acid and a carbonate is:

acid + carbonate → salt + water + carbon dioxide

hydrochloric acid + calcium carbonate → calcium chloride + water + carbon dioxide

pH Scale



In aqueous solutions, acids produce H^+ ions and alkalis produce OH^- ions.

Neutral solutions are pH7 and are neither acids or alkalis.

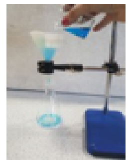
For example, in neutralisation reactions, hydrogen ions from an acid react with hydroxide ions from an alkali to produce water:

$H^+ + OH^- \rightarrow H_2O$

Making Soluble Salts

1. Make a saturated solution by stirring copper oxide into the sulfuric acid until no more will dissolve.

2. Filter the solution to remove the excess copper oxide solid.



3. Half fill a beaker with water and set this over a Bunsen burner to heat the water. Place an evaporating dish on top of the beaker.

4. Add some of the solution to the evaporating basin and heat until crystals begin to form.

5. Once cooled, pour the remaining liquid into a crystallising dish and leave to cool for 24 hours.

6. Remove the crystals with a spatula and pat dry between paper towels.

Strong and Weak Acids (Higher Tier Only)

A **strong** acid **completely dissociates** in a solution. For example: $HCl \rightarrow H^+ + Cl^-$

Hydrochloric acid is able to completely dissociate in solution to form hydrogen and chloride ions.

Examples of strong acids include nitric acid (HNO_3) and sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4).

Weak acids in comparison only partially dissociate.

For example acetic acid **partially dissociates** to form a hydrogen and acetate ion.

$CH_3COOH \rightleftharpoons CH_3COO^- + H^+$

The **double arrow** symbol indicates that the reaction is **reversible**. Both the forward and reverse reaction occur at the same time and the reaction never goes to completion.

The Process of Electrolysis

Electrolysis is the **splitting up** of an ionic substance using **electricity.**

On setting up an electrical circuit for electrolysis, two **electrodes** are required to be placed in the electrolyte. The electrodes are **conducting rods.** One of the rods is connected to the **positive** terminal and the other to the **negative** terminal.

The **electrodes** are **inert** (this means they do not react in the reaction) and are often made from **graphite** or platinum.

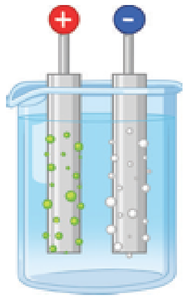
During the process of electrolysis, **opposites attract.** The positively charged ions will be attracted toward the negative electrode. The negatively charged ions will be attracted towards the positive electrode.

When ions reach the electrodes, the charges are lost and they become elements.

The **positive** electrode is called the **anode.**

The **negative** electrode is called the **cathode.**

Electrolysis of Aqueous Solutions



Gases may be given off or metals deposited at the electrodes. This is dependent on the reactivity of the elements involved.

If the metal is **more reactive** than **hydrogen** in the reactivity series, then **hydrogen** will be **produced** at the **negative cathode.** At the **positive anode,** negatively charged ions **lose** electrons. This is called **oxidation** and you say that the ions have been oxidised.

Using Electrolysis to Extract Metals

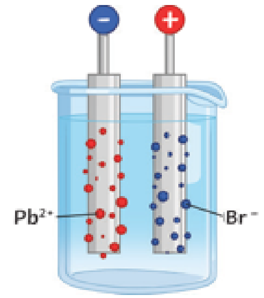
Metals are extracted by electrolysis if the metal in question reacts with carbon or if it is too reactive to be extracted by reduction with carbon. During the extraction process, large quantities of energy are used to melt the compounds.

Aluminium is manufactured by the process of electrolysis. Aluminium oxide has a high melting point and melting it would use large amounts of energy. This would increase the cost of the process, therefore molten **cryolite** is added to aluminium oxide to lower the melting point and thus reduce the cost.

Electrolysis of Molten Ionic Compounds – Lead Bromide

Lead bromide is an **ionic** substance. Ionic substances, when solid, are **not** able to conduct electricity. When molten or in solution, the ions are free to move and are able to carry a charge.

The **positive** lead ions are attracted toward the **negative cathode** at the same time as the **negative bromide** ions are attracted toward the **positive anode.**



Oxidation is the loss of electrons and reduction is the gaining of electrons. **OIL RIG** (Higher Tier Only).

We represent what is happening at the electrodes by using **half equations** (Higher Tier Only).

The lead ions are attracted towards the negative electrode. When the **lead ions** (Pb^{2+}) reach the cathode, each ion **gains two electrons** and becomes a neutral atom. We say that the lead ions have been **reduced.**

$Pb^{2+} + 2e^- \rightarrow Pb$

The bromide ions are attracted towards the positive electrode. When the **bromide ions** (Br-) reach the anode, each ion **loses one electron** to become a neutral atom. Two bromine atoms are then able to bond together to form the covalent molecule Br_2.

$2Br^- \rightarrow Br_2 + 2e^-$

Science Chemistry: Learning Cycle 2

AQA Combined Science: Physics Topic 3 Particle Model of Matter

Required Practical

Measuring the density of a regularly shaped object:

- Measure the mass using a balance.
- Measure the length, width and height using a ruler.
- Calculate the volume.
- Use the density (p = m/V) equation to calculate density.

Measuring the density of an irregularly-shaped object:

- Measure the mass using a balance.
- Fill a eureka can with water.
- Place the object in the water - the water displaced by the object will transfer into a measuring cylinder.
- Measure the volume of the water. This equals the volume of the object.
- Use the density (p = m/V) equation to calculate density.

Density

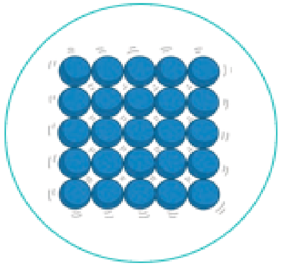
Density is a measure of how much mass there is in a given space.

Density (kg/m^3) = mass (kg) ÷ volume (m^3)

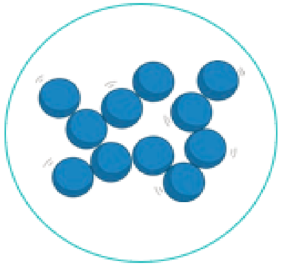
A more dense material will have more particles in the same volume when compared to a less dense material.

Particles

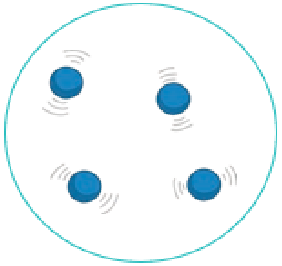
Solids have strong forces of attraction. They are held together very closely in a fixed, regular arrangement. The particles do not have much energy and can only vibrate.



Liquids have weaker forces of attraction. They are close together, but can move past each other. They form irregular arrangements. They have more energy than particles in a solid.



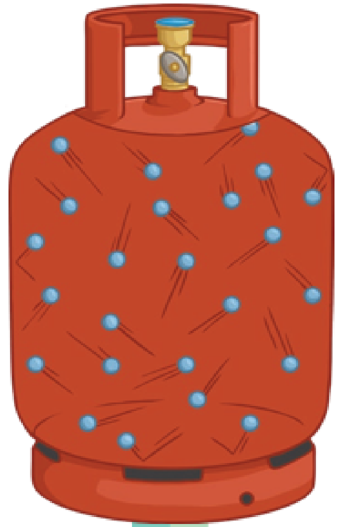
Gases have almost no forces of attraction between the particles. They have the most energy and are free to move in random directions.



Particles

Gas particles can move around freely and will collide with other particles and the walls of the container. This is the pressure of the gas.

If the temperature of the gas increases, then the pressure will also increase. The hotter the temperature, the more kinetic energy the gas particles have. They move faster, colliding with the sides of the container more often.



Density

The density of an object is 8050kg/m^3 and it has a volume of 3.4m^3 - what is its mass in kg?

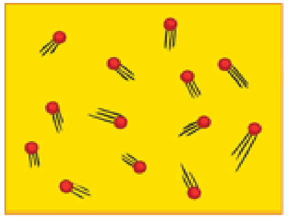
8050 = mass ÷ 3.4

8050 × 3.4 = mass

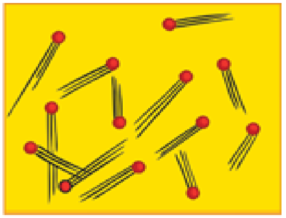
27 370kg

Internal Energy

Particles within a system have kinetic energy when they vibrate or move around. The particles also have a potential energy store. The total internal energy of a system is the kinetic and potential energy stores.



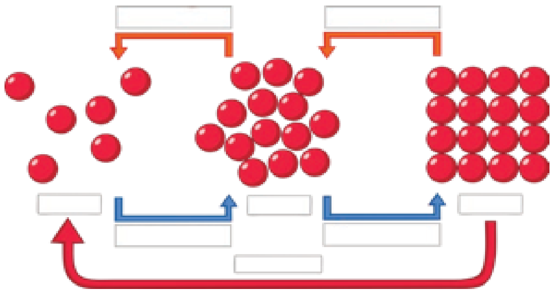
Low Temperature



High Temperature

If the system is heated, the particles will gain more kinetic energy, so increasing the internal energy.

Changing State

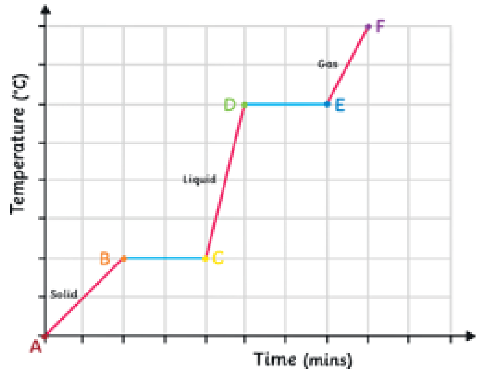


If a system gains more energy, it can lead to a change in temperature or change in state. If the system is heated enough, then there will be enough energy to break bonds.

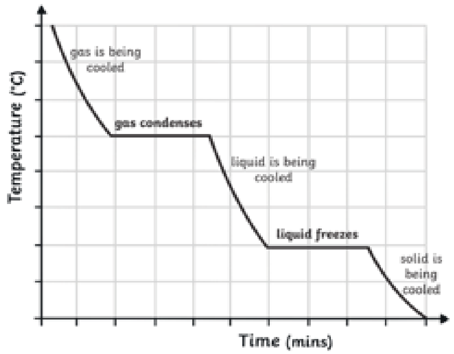
When something changes state, there is no chemical change, only physical. No new substance is formed. The substance will change back to its original form. The number of particles does not change and mass is conserved.

Specific Latent Heat

Energy is being put in during melting and boiling. This increases the amount of internal energy. The energy is being used to break the bonds, so the temperature does not increase. This is shown by the parts of the graph that are flat.



When a substance is condensing or freezing, the energy put in is used to form the bonds. This releases energy. The internal energy decreases, but the temperature does not go down.



The energy needed to change the state of a substance is called the latent heat.

Specific latent heat is the amount of energy needed to change 1kg of a substance from one state to another without changing the temperature. Specific latent heat will be different for different materials.

- solid ⟶ liquid - specific latent heat of fusion
- liquid ⟶ gas - specific latent heat of vaporisation

Specific Latent Heat Equation

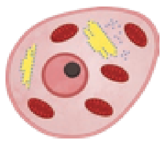
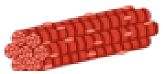
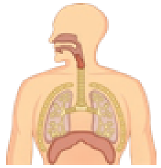
The amount of energy needed/released when a substance of mass changes state.

energy (E) = mass (m) × specific latent heat (L)

$E = mL$

AQA GCSE Biology (Combined Science) Unit 2: Organisation

Principles of Organisation

				
cell	tissue	organ	organ system	organism
Cells are the basic building blocks of all living things.	A group of cells with a similar structure and function is called a tissue.	An organ is a combination of tissues carrying out a specific function.	Organs work together within an organ system.	Organ systems work together to form whole living organisms.

Food Tests (Required Practical)

What are you testing for?	Which indicator do you use?	What does a positive result look like?
sugar	Benedict's reagent	Once heated, the solution will change from blue-green to yellow-red.
starch	iodine	Blue-black colour indicates starch is present.
protein	biuret	The solution will change from blue to pink-purple.
lipid	sudan III	The lipids will separate and the top layer will turn bright red.

Effect of pH on the Rate of Reaction of Amylase (Required Practical)

Iodine is used to test for the presence of **starch**. If starch is present, the colour will change to blue-black.

The **independent variable** in the investigation is the pH of the buffer solution.

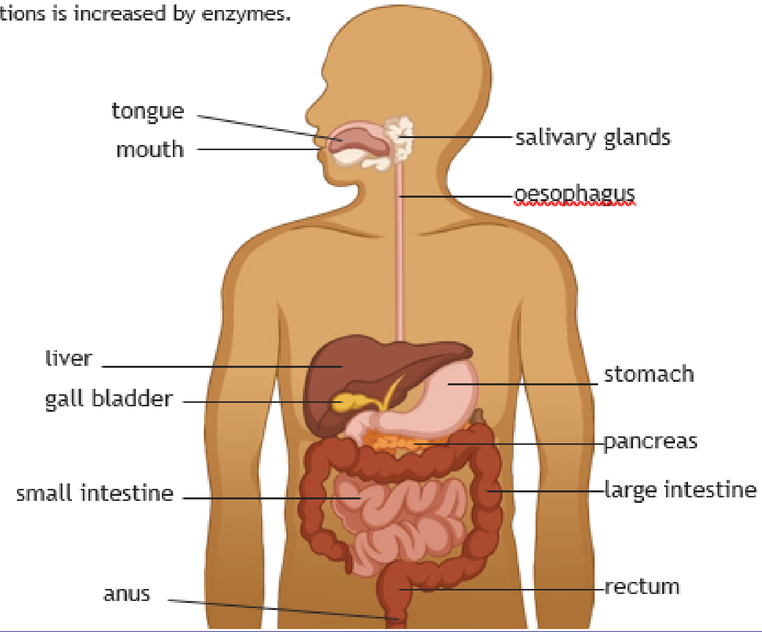
The **dependent variable** in the investigation is the time taken for the reaction to complete (how long it takes for all the starch to be digested by the amylase).

Method:

1. Use the marker pen to label a test tube with t e of pH buffer solution (pH 4) and stand it in the test tube ra
2. Into each well of the spotting tiles, place a drop of iodine.
3. Using a measuring cylinder, measure 2cm³ of amylase and pour into the test tube.
4. Using a syringe, measure 1cm³ of the buffer solution and pour into the test tube.
5. Leave this to stand for five minutes and then use the thermometer to measure the temperature. Make a note of the temperature.
6. Add 2cm³ of starch solution into the test tube, using a different measuring cylinder to measure, and begin a timer (leave the timer to run continuously).
7. After 10 seconds, use a pipette to extract some of the amylase/starch solution, and place one drop into the first well of the spotting tile. Squirt the remaining solution back into the test tube.
8. Continue to place one drop into the next well of the spotting tile, every 10 seconds, until the iodine remains orange.
9. Record the time taken for the starch to be completely digested by the amylase by counting the wells that were tested positive for starch (indicated by the blue/black colour change of the iodine). Each well represents 10 seconds of time.
10. Repeat steps 1 to 8 for pH values 7 and 10.

The Digestive System

The purpose of the digestive system is to break down large molecules into smaller, soluble molecules, which are then absorbed into the bloodstream. The rate of these reactions is increased by enzymes.



AQA GCSE Biology (Combined Science) Unit 2: Organisation

Enzymes

An enzyme is a biological **catalyst**; enzymes speed up chemical reactions without being changed or used up.
This happens because the enzyme lowers the **activation energy** required for the reaction to occur. Enzymes are made up of chains of amino acids folded into a globular shape.

Enzymes have an **active site** which the **substrate** (reactants) fits into. Enzymes are very specific and will only catalyse one specific reaction. If the reactants are not the complimentary shape, the enzyme will not work for that reaction.
Enzymes also work optimally at specific conditions of pH and temperature. In extremes of pH or temperature, the enzyme will **denature**. This means that the bonds holding together the 3D shape of the active site will break and the active shape will deform. The substrate will not be able to fit into the active site anymore and the enzyme cannot function.

amylase	starch	sugars (glucose)
protease	protein	amino acids
lipase	lipid	glycerol and fatty acids

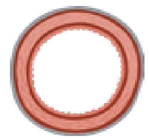
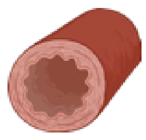
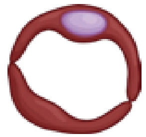
The products of digestion are used to build new carbohydrates and proteins and some of the glucose is used for respiration.

Bile is produced in the **liver** and stored in the gall bladder. It is an **alkaline** substance which neutralises the hydrochloric acid in the stomach. It also works to **emulsify** fats into small droplets. The fat droplets have a higher **surface area** and so the rate of their digestion by lipase is increased.

The Heart and Blood Vessels

The **heart** is a large muscular organ which **pumps blood** carrying oxygen or waste products around the body. The **lungs** are the site of **gas exchange** where oxygen from the air is exchanged for waste carbon dioxide in the blood. Oxygen is used in the **respiration** reaction to release energy for the cells and carbon dioxide is made as a waste product during the reaction.

glucose + oxygen ⟶ carbon dioxide + water + [energy]

		
vein		capillary

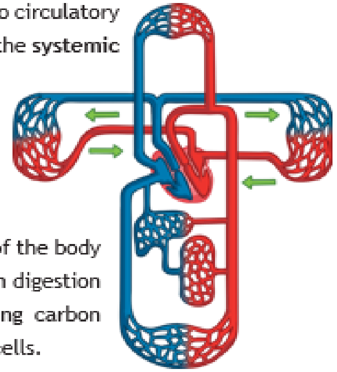
The three types of blood vessels, shown above, are each adapted to carry out their specific function.

Capillaries are narrow vessels which form networks to closely supply cells and organs between the veins and arteries. The walls of the capillaries are only **one cell thick**, which provides a short **diffusion pathway** to increase the rate at which substances are transferred.

The table below compares the structure and function of arteries and veins:

	Artery	Vein
direction of blood flow	away from the heart	towards the heart
oxygenated or deoxygenated blood?	oxygenated (except the pulmonary artery)	deoxygenated (except the pulmonary vein)
pressure	high	low (negative)
wall structure	thick, elastic, muscular, connective tissue for strength	thin, less muscular, less connective tissue
lumen (channel inside the vessel)	narrow	wide (with valves)

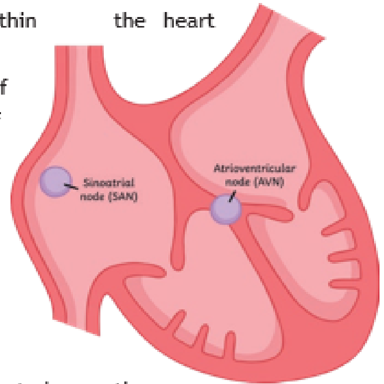
The Heart as a Double Pump



The heart works as a **double pump** for two circulatory systems; the **pulmonary** circulation and the **systemic** circulation.
The pulmonary circulation serves the lungs and bring deoxygenated blood to exchange waste carbon dioxide gas for oxygen at the **alveoli**.
The systemic circulation serves the rest of the body and transports oxygen and nutrients from digestion to the cells of the body, whilst carrying carbon dioxide and other waste away from the cells.
The systemic circulation flows through the whole body. This means the blood is flowing at a much higher pressure than in the pulmonary circuit.

The Heart as Pacemaker

The rate of the heart beating is very carefully, and automatically, controlled within the heart itself.
Located in the muscular walls of the heart are small groups of cells which act as pacemakers. They produce electrical impulses which stimulate the surrounding muscle to contract, squeezing the chambers of the heart and pumping the blood.



The **sino-atrial node** (SAN) is located near the right atrium and it stimulates the atria to contract.
The **atrio-ventricular node** (AVN) is located in between the ventricles and stimulates them to contract.