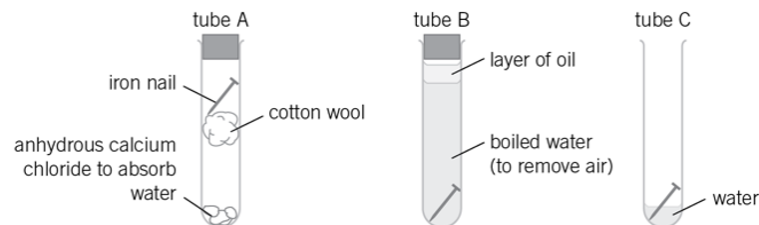
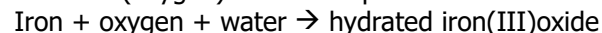


Section 1: Key Terms

| | |
|--------------------------|--|
| Corrosion | Breakdown of materials due to chemical reactions. It is a form of erosion . |
| Rusting | The corrosion of iron . |
| Rust | Rust is hydrated Iron(III)oxide. |
| Sacrificial protection | An effective way to prevent rusting whereby a metal more reactive than iron is attached to or coated on an object. |
| Galvanised | Iron or steel objects that have been protected from rusting by a thin layer of zinc metal at their surface. |
| Oxidation | Loss of electrons. |
| Reduction | Gain of electrons. |
| Reducing agent | Tend to get oxidised themselves (and hence reduce other species). |
| Alloy | A mixture of two or more elements, at least one of which is a metal. For e.g. Steel is an alloy of Iron and carbon. |
| Bronze | Alloy of copper and tin. |
| Brass | Alloy of copper and zinc. |
| Steels | Alloys of iron containing specific amounts of carbon and/or other metals. |
| Hydrated | A substance that contains water in its crystals. |
| Polymers | A substance made from very large molecules, polymers are made up of many repeating units. |
| Thermosoftening polymers | Soften and melt when they are heated. Can be remoulded. |
| Thermosetting polymers | Do not melt when they are heated. Cannot be remoulded. |
| Composites | Two materials combined to make a material with useful properties. |
| Ceramics | Materials made by heating clay to high temperatures making hard materials which are excellent insulators. |

Section 2: Rusting

For iron to rust, both **air** and **oxygen** are needed. Providing a barrier between iron either air (oxygen) and water protects the iron from rusting.



Tube A tests to see if air alone makes iron rust. Tube B tests to see if water alone will make iron rust. Tube 3 tests to see if air and water will make iron rust. **Rusting is only observed in tube 3** illustrating that both **air and water are needed** for iron to rust.

Sacrificial protection provides **protection against rusting**. The iron needs to be attached to a more **reactive metal (galvanising it)** for e.g. Zinc, magnesium or aluminium. The zinc is a **stronger reducing agent** than iron, so it has a stronger **tendency to form positive ions** by giving away electrons. As the zinc atoms lose electrons they become **oxidised**. Therefore any water or oxygen reacts with the zinc instead of the iron (protecting the iron from oxidation).


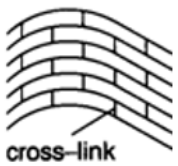
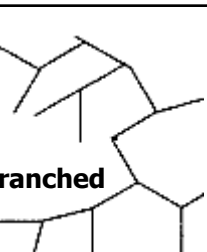

Section 3: Useful alloys

Alloys are **harder** than **pure** metals because the **regular layers** are **distorted** by **differently sized atoms** and hence **cannot slide**. **Pure iron** is too **soft** for it be useful in its pure form. Steel is an alloy of iron which contains **carefully controlled quantities of carbon** so that it's hardness is controlled.

| Steels | Properties | Uses |
|---------------------|---|---------------------------|
| High carbon steel | Very hard but brittle | Cutting tools (chisels) |
| Low carbon steel | Softer but easily shaped | Bodies of cars |
| Stainless steel | Chromium-nickel steels resistant to corrosion | Cooking utensils, cutlery |
| Nickel steel alloys | Resistant to stretching | Bridges, bicycle chains |

Section 4: The properties of polymers

The properties of polymers depends on what monomers they are made from the conditions under which they are made.

| | | |
|--------------------------|--|---|
| Thermosoftening polymers | Soften or melt easily when heated because their intermolecular forces between the chains are weak . |  |
| Thermosetting polymers | Contain crosslinks (strong covalent bonds) between chains so they do not soften or melt easily. |  |
| High density polyethene | Made using very high pressures and trace of oxygen. Polymer chains are randomly branched , can't pack closely together resulting in a low density . |  |
| Low density polyethene | Made using a catalyst at 50°C and a slightly raised pressure. Made of straight chain molecules which are closely packed , stronger and more dense . |  |

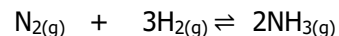
Section 5: Glass, ceramic and composites

| | |
|------------|---|
| Glass | The most common form of glass is Soda Glass which is made by heating a mixture of sand (SiO ₂), limestone (CaCO ₃) and sodium carbonate (soda) at 1500°C. As it cools down the glass turns into a solid. Different types of glass exist depending on amounts of each of the reactants; borosilicate glass involves an extra compound- B ₂ O ₃ . <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Atoms arranged irregularly • Transparent, brittle, high melting point, keeps its shape (not flexible) |
| Ceramics | Wet clay is moulded into a desired shape, then heated in a furnace to 1000°C <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Used in bricks, tiles, crockery, bathroom furniture • Atoms are held together in a giant covalent lattice, generally in a regular pattern • Hard but brittle, electrical insulators |
| Composites | Materials made from two or more different materials, with one material acting as a binder for the other material, reinforcing it . Usually fibres or fragments of one material are held in a 'matrix' (network of atoms) by the other. <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Glass-ceramic composites are very hard and tough (not brittle) • Fibreglass (polymer-ceramic) is a low density, tough, flexible material- e.g. used in kayaks • Plywood, carbon fibres and cement are other examples |

Section 6: The Haber process

The Haber process is used to manufacture ammonia, which can be used to produce nitrogen-based fertilisers. The **raw materials** are **nitrogen** (from the air) and **hydrogen** (from natural gas, mainly **methane**).

The nitrogen and hydrogen are purified then passed over an **iron catalyst** at a **high temperature** of 450°C and a **high pressure** (200 atmospheres) to make **ammonia** NH₃.



The reaction is **reversible** so ammonia can break down again into nitrogen and hydrogen. The ammonia is removed by cooling the gases so that the ammonia liquefies. It can then be separated from the unreacted nitrogen and hydrogen gas.

The unreacted nitrogen and hydrogen gases are recycled back into the reaction mixture so that they can react again on the surface of the iron catalyst.

Section 7: The Haber process key terms

| | |
|-------------------------------|--|
| Reversible reaction | A reaction in which the products can also form the reactants . Its symbol is \rightleftharpoons Shown as: $A + B \rightleftharpoons C + D$ |
| Exothermic | A reaction that transfers energy to the surroundings |
| Endothermic | A reaction that takes in energy from the surroundings |
| Equilibrium (HT) | Equilibrium is reached when the forward and backwards reactions occur at exactly the same rate . The amounts of reactants and products present remain constant . Requires a sealed container . |
| Le Chatelier's Principle (HT) | When a change in conditions is introduced to a system at equilibrium, the position of equilibrium shifts so as to cancel out the change . |

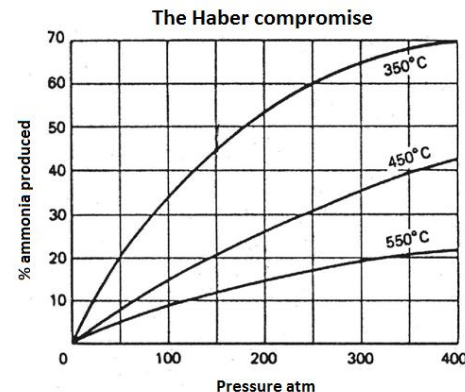
Section 8: Changing conditions in the Haber Process

Equation for the Haber process: $N_{2(g)} + 3H_{2(g)} \rightleftharpoons 2NH_{3(g)}$
 ΔH is negative (exothermic in forwards direction).

| | |
|-----------------------|--|
| Changing temperature | The Haber process is an exothermic process (ΔH is negative). If the temperature is decreased , the equilibrium moves to the exothermic side and more NH_3 is made. |
| Changing the pressure | Increasing the pressure results in the equilibrium moving to the right hand side as there are less gas molecules . |
| Catalyst | The iron catalyst speeds up the rate of the forwards and backwards reaction equally , hence it doesn't affect the yield of ammonia but does result in ammonia being produced quicker . |

Section 9: The Haber compromise (HT)

Lowering the temperature **slows** down the rate of reaction, taking **longer** for ammonia to be produced.
Increasing the pressure means stronger, more **expensive equipment** is needed. This **increases** the **cost** of producing ammonia.
Hence a **compromise** is reached achieving an **acceptable yield** in a **reasonable timeframe** while keeping **costs down**.
A pressure of **200 atmospheres** and a temperature of **450°C**.



Section 10: Fertilisers

Compounds of nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium are used as fertilisers to improve agricultural productivity.

| | |
|----------------------------|---|
| NPK fertilisers | NPK fertilisers contain compounds of all three elements. Nitrogen for cell growth and making proteins in plants Phosphorus needed to make DNA Potassium needed to make enzymes involved in respiration and photosynthesis. |
| Synthesis | Fertilisers are made by reacting an acid and base together e.g. Ammonia + nitric acid \rightarrow ammonium nitrate Ammonia + phosphoric acid \rightarrow ammonium phosphate Ammonia + sulphuric acid \rightarrow ammonium sulfate |
| Obtaining raw materials | Phosphates are obtained from phosphate rocks . Phosphate rocks all contains the phosphate ion PO_4^{3-} . The rocks are insoluble so cant be used directly as fertilisers , but react with acids to make the soluble phosphate compounds. Potassium chloride and potassium sulfate are obtained by mining and are soluble so can be directly used as fertilisers. Nitric acid is required to make nitrate fertilisers (ammonia from the Haber process is oxidised to make nitric acid). |
| Phosphate rock fertilisers | Phosphate rock + nitric acid \rightarrow phosphoric acid + calcium nitrate Phosphate rock + sulphuric acid \rightarrow calcium phosphate + calcium sulfate Phosphate rock + phosphoric acid \rightarrow calcium phosphate |