

CHEMISTRY

FORM 3 NOTES

(0714497530)

(a) Gas laws

1. Matter is made up of small particles in accordance to Kinetic Theory of matter:

Naturally, there are basically **three** states of matter: **Solid, Liquid and gas**:

(i) A solid is made up of particles which are very closely packed with a definite/fixed shape and fixed/definite volume /occupies definite space. It has a very high density.

(ii) A liquid is made up of particles which have some degree of freedom. It thus has no definite/fixed shape. It takes the shape of the container it is put. A liquid has fixed/definite volume/occupies definite space.

(iii) A gas is made up of particles free from each other. It thus has no definite /fixed shape. It takes the shape of the container it is put. It has no fixed/definite volume/occupies every space in a container.

2. Gases are affected by **physical conditions**. There are **two** physical conditions:

(i) **Temperature**

(ii) **Pressure**

3. The SI unit of temperature is **Kelvin(K)**.

Degrees Celsius/Centigrade($^{\circ}\text{C}$) are also used.

The two units can be interconverted from the relationship:

$$^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \text{K}$$

$$\text{K} - 273 = ^{\circ}\text{C}$$

Practice examples

1. Convert the following into Kelvin.

(i) 0°C

$$^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \text{K substituting} : 0^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \mathbf{273\text{ K}}$$

(ii) -273°C

$$^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \text{K substituting} : -273^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \mathbf{0\text{ K}}$$

(iii) 25°C

$$^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \text{K substituting} : 25^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \mathbf{298\text{ K}}$$

(iv) 100°C

$$^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \text{K substituting} : 100^{\circ}\text{C} + 273 = \mathbf{373\text{ K}}$$

2. Convert the following into degrees Celsius/Centigrade($^{\circ}\text{C}$).

(i) 10 K

$$\text{K} - 273 = ^{\circ}\text{C substituting} : 10 - 273 = \mathbf{-263^{\circ}\text{C}}$$

(ii) (i) 1 K

$$\text{K} - 273 = ^{\circ}\text{C substituting} : 1 - 273 = \mathbf{-272^{\circ}\text{C}}$$

(iii) 110 K

$$\text{K} - 273 = ^{\circ}\text{C substituting} : 110 - 273 = \mathbf{-163^{\circ}\text{C}}$$

(iv) -24 K

$$\text{K} - 273 = ^{\circ}\text{C substituting} : -24 - 273 = \mathbf{-297^{\circ}\text{C}}$$

The standard temperature is $\mathbf{273\text{K} = 0^{\circ}\text{C}}$.

The room temperature is assumed to be $\mathbf{298\text{K} = 25^{\circ}\text{C}}$

4. The SI unit of pressure is Pascal(**Pa**) / Newton per metre squared (**Nm⁻²**) . Millimeters' of mercury(**mmHg**) ,centimeters of mercury(**cmHg**) and **atmospheres** are also commonly used.

The units are **not** interconvertible but Pascals(Pa) are equal to Newton per metre squared(Nm⁻²).

The standard pressure is the **atmospheric** pressure.

Atmospheric pressure is **equal** to about:

(i) 101325 Pa

(ii) 101325 Nm⁻²

(iii) 760 mmHg

(iv) 76 cmHg

(v) one atmosphere.

5. Molecules of gases are always in continuous random motion at high speed. This motion is affected by the physical conditions of temperature and pressure.

Physical conditions change the volume occupied by gases in a **closed** system.

The effect of physical conditions of temperature and pressure was investigated and expressed in both Boyles and Charles laws.

6. Boyles law states that

"the **volume** of a fixed mass of a gas is **inversely** proportional to the **pressure** at constant/fixed **temperature**"

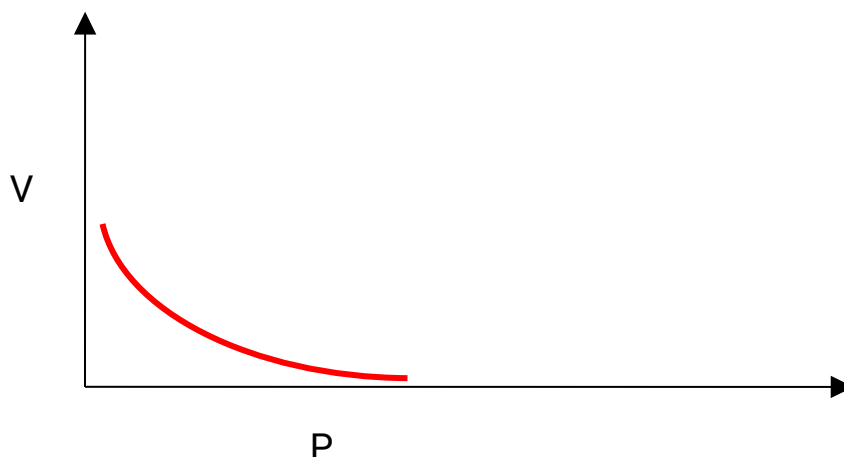
Mathematically:

$$\text{Volume} \propto \frac{1}{\text{Pressure}} \text{ (Fixed /constant Temperature)}$$

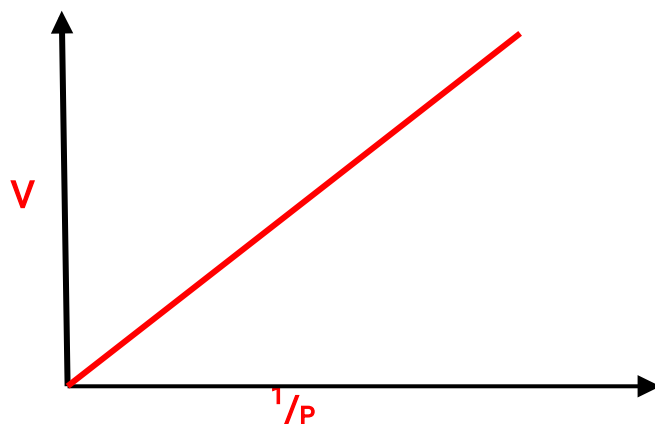
$$V \propto \frac{1}{P} \text{ (Fixed /constant T) i.e. } PV = \text{Constant}(k)$$

From Boyles law , an **increase** in pressure of a gas cause a **decrease** in volume. i.e **doubling** the pressure cause the volume to be **halved**.

Graphically therefore a plot of volume(V) **against** pressure (P) produces a **curve**.



Graphically a plot of volume(V) **against** inverse/reciprocal of pressure (1/p) produces a **straight line**



For **two** gases then **$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2$**

P_1 = Pressure of gas 1

V_1 = Volume of gas 1
 P_2 = Pressure of gas 2
 V_2 = Volume of gas 2

Practice examples:

1. A fixed mass of gas at 102300Pa pressure has a volume of 25cm³. Calculate its volume if the pressure is doubled.

Working

$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2 \quad \text{Substituting : } 102300 \times 25 = (102300 \times 2) \times V_2$$

$$V_2 = \frac{102300 \times 25}{(102300 \times 2)} = 12.5 \text{ cm}^3$$

2. Calculate the pressure which must be applied to a fixed mass of 100cm³ of Oxygen for its volume to triple at 100000Nm⁻².

$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2 \quad \text{Substituting : } 100000 \times 100 = P_2 \times (100 \times 3)$$

$$P_2 = \frac{100000 \times 100}{(100 \times 3)} = 33333.3333 \text{ Nm}^{-2}$$

3. A 60cm³ weather balloon full of Hydrogen at atmospheric pressure of 101325Pa was released into the atmosphere. Will the balloon reach stratosphere where the pressure is 90000Pa?

$$P_1 V_1 = P_2 V_2 \quad \text{Substituting : } 101325 \times 60 = 90000 \times V_2$$

$$V_2 = \frac{101325 \times 60}{90000} = 67.55 \text{ cm}^3$$

The new volume at 67.55 cm³ exceed balloon capacity of 60.00 cm³. It will burst before reaching destination.

7. Charles law states that "the **volume** of a fixed mass of a gas is **directly** proportional to the **absolute temperature** at constant/fixed **pressure** "

Mathematically:

Volume $\propto$ Pressure (Fixed /constant pressure)

$V \propto T$ (Fixed /constant P) i.e. $\frac{V}{T} = \text{Constant (k)}$

From Charles law , an **increase** in temperature of a gas cause an **increase** in volume. i.e **doubling** the temperature cause the volume to be **doubled**.

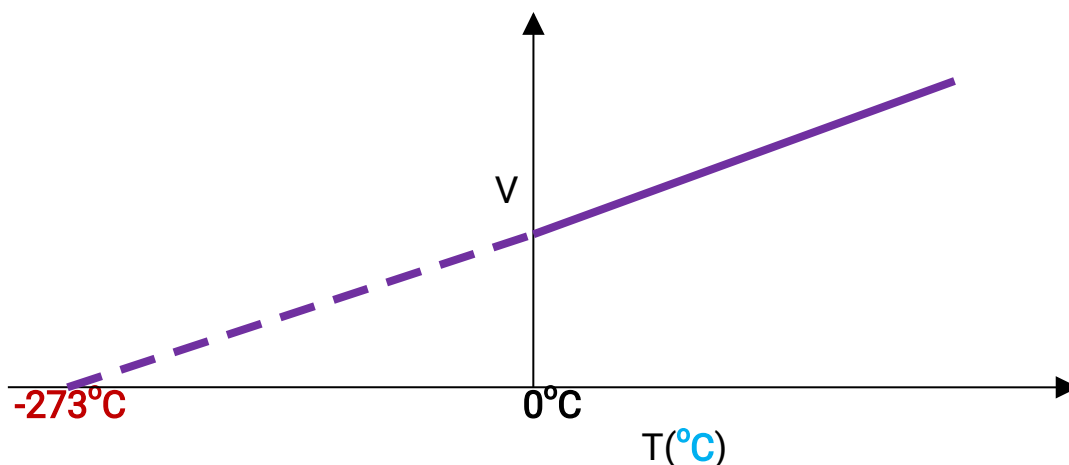
Gases expand/increase by $\frac{1}{273}$ by volume on heating. Gases contract/decrease by $\frac{1}{273}$ by volume on cooling at constant/fixed pressure.

The volume of a gas continue decreasing with decrease in temperature until at **-273°C / 0 K** the volume is **zero**. i.e. there is no gas.

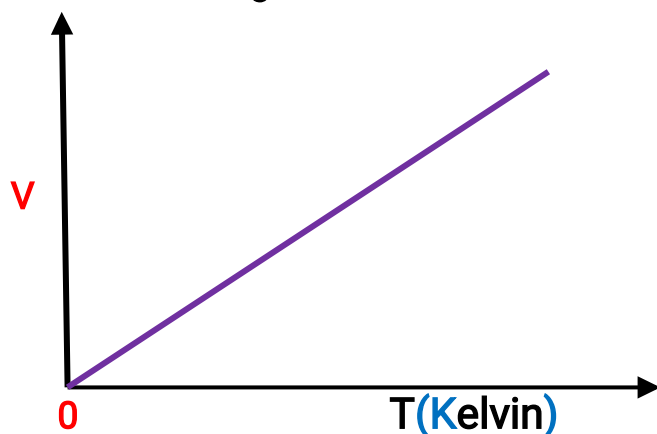
This temperature is called **absolute zero**. It is the **lowest** temperature at which a gas **can** exist.

Graphically therefore a plot of volume(V) **against** Temperature(T) in:

(i) °C produces a **straight line** that is **extrapolated** to the absolute zero of **-273°C**.



(ii) Kelvin/K produces a **straight line** from absolute zero of **0 Kelvin**



For **two** gases then $\frac{V_1}{T_1} = \frac{V_2}{T_2}$

T_1 = Temperature in Kelvin of gas 1

V_1 = Volume of gas 1

T_2 = Temperature in Kelvin of gas 2

V_2 = Volume of gas 2

Practice examples:

1. 500cm³ of carbon(IV)oxide at 0°C was transferred into a cylinder at -4°C. If the capacity of the cylinder is 450 cm³, explain what happened.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_1}{T_1} &= \frac{V_2}{T_2} \text{ substituting } \frac{500}{(0+273)} = \frac{V_2}{(-4+273)} \\ &= \frac{500 \times (-4 \times 273)}{(0+273)} = \mathbf{492.674cm^3} \end{aligned}$$

The capacity of cylinder (500cm³) is **less** than new volume(492.674cm³).

7.326cm³(500-492.674cm³)of carbon(IV)oxide gas did not fit into the cylinder.

2. A mechanic was filling a deflated tyre with air in his closed garage using a hand pump. The capacity of the tyre was 40,000cm³ at room temperature. He rolled the tyre into the car outside. The temperature outside was 30°C.Explain what happens.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_1}{T_1} &= \frac{V_2}{T_2} \text{ substituting } \frac{40000}{(25+273)} = \frac{V_2}{(30+273)} \\ &= \frac{40000 \times (30 \times 273)}{(25+273)} = \mathbf{40671.1409cm^3} \end{aligned}$$

The capacity of a tyre (40000cm³) is **less** than new volume(40671.1409cm³).

The tyre thus bursts.

3. A hydrogen gas balloon with 80cm³ was released from a research station at room temperature. If the temperature of the highest point it rose is -30°C , explain what happened.

$$\begin{aligned} \frac{V_1}{T_1} &= \frac{V_2}{T_2} \text{ substituting } \frac{80}{(25+273)} = \frac{V_2}{(-30+273)} \\ &= \frac{80 \times (-30 \times 273)}{(25+273)} = \mathbf{65.2349cm^3} \end{aligned}$$

The capacity of balloon (80cm³) is **more** than new volume (65.2349cm³).
The balloon thus remained intact.

8. The continuous random motion of gases differ from gas to the other. The movement of molecules (of a gas) from region of high concentration to a region of low concentration is called **diffusion**.

The rate of diffusion of a gas depends on its density. i.e. **The higher the rate of diffusion, the less dense the gas.**

The density of a gas depends on its molar mass/relative molecular mass. i.e. **The higher the density the higher the molar mass/relative atomic mass and thus the lower the rate of diffusion.**

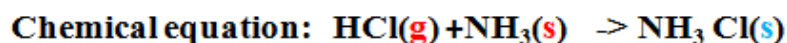
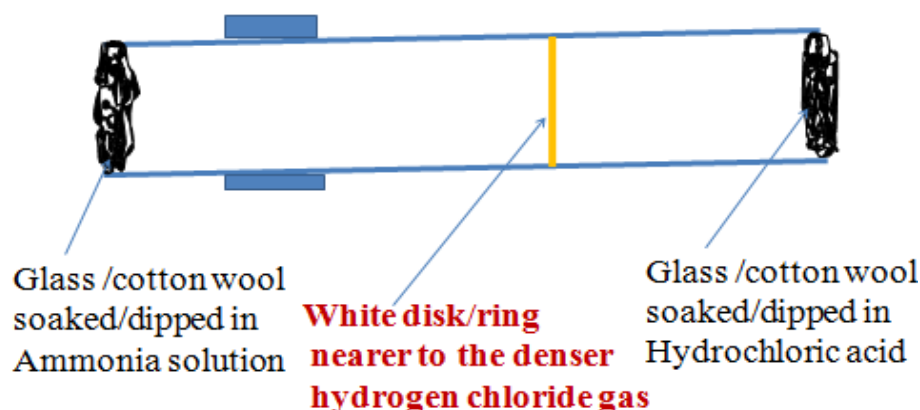
Examples

1. Carbon (IV) oxide (CO₂) has a molar mass of 44g. Nitrogen (N₂) has a molar mass of 28g. (N₂) is thus lighter/less dense than Carbon (IV) oxide (CO₂). N₂ diffuses faster than CO₂.

2. Ammonia (NH₃) has a molar mass of 17g. Nitrogen (N₂) has a molar mass of 28g. (N₂) is thus about **twice** lighter/less dense than Ammonia (NH₃). Ammonia (NH₃) diffuses twice faster than N₂.

3. Ammonia (NH₃) has a molar mass of 17g. Hydrogen chloride gas has a molar mass of 36.5g. Both gases on contact react to form **white fumes** of ammonium chloride. When a glass/cotton wool dipped in ammonia and another glass/cotton wool dipped in hydrochloric acid are placed at opposite ends of a glass tube, both gases diffuse towards each other. A white disk appears near to glass/cotton wool dipped in hydrochloric acid. This is because hydrogen chloride is heavier/denser than Ammonia and thus its rate of diffusion is lower.

Diffusion of ammonia and hydrogen chloride



The rate of diffusion of a gas is in accordance to **Grahams law of diffusion**. Grahams

law states that:

“the rate of diffusion of a gas is inversely proportional to the square root of its density, at the same/constant/fixed temperature and pressure”

Mathematically

$$R \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{p}} \quad \text{and since density is proportional to mass then} \quad R \propto \frac{1}{\sqrt{m}}$$

For two gases then:

$$\frac{R_1}{\sqrt{M_2}} = \frac{R_2}{\sqrt{M_1}} \quad \text{where: } R_1 \text{ and } R_2 \text{ is the } \underline{\text{rate}} \text{ of diffusion of } 1^{\text{st}} \text{ and } 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ gas.}$$

$$M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ is the } \underline{\text{molar mass}} \text{ of } 1^{\text{st}} \text{ and } 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ gas.}$$

Since rate is inverse of time. i.e. the higher the rate the less the time:

For two gases then:

$$\frac{T_1}{\sqrt{M_1}} = \frac{T_2}{\sqrt{M_2}} \quad \text{where: } T_1 \text{ and } T_2 \text{ is the } \underline{\text{time taken}} \text{ for } 1^{\text{st}} \text{ and } 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ gas to diffuse.}$$

$$M_1 \text{ and } M_2 \text{ is the } \underline{\text{molar mass}} \text{ of } 1^{\text{st}} \text{ and } 2^{\text{nd}} \text{ gas.}$$

Practice examples:

1. It takes 30 seconds for 100cm³ of carbon(IV)oxide to diffuse across a porous plate. How long will it take 150cm³ of nitrogen(IV)oxide to diffuse across the same plate under the same conditions of temperature and pressure. (C=12.0,N=14.0=16.0)

$$\text{Molar mass CO}_2=44.0 \quad \text{Molar mass NO}_2=46.0$$

Method 1

$$\begin{array}{lcl} 100\text{cm}^3 \text{ CO}_2 & \text{takes} & 30\text{seconds} \\ 150\text{cm}^3 & \text{takes} & \frac{150 \times 30}{100} = 45\text{seconds} \end{array}$$

$$\frac{T_{\text{CO}_2}}{T_{\text{NO}_2}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{molar mass CO}_2}}{\sqrt{\text{molar mass NO}_2}} \Rightarrow \frac{45\text{seconds}}{T_{\text{NO}_2}} = \frac{\sqrt{44.0}}{\sqrt{46.0}}$$

$$T_{\text{NO}_2} = \frac{45\text{seconds} \times \sqrt{46.0}}{\sqrt{44.0}} = \underline{46.0114 \text{ seconds}}$$

Method 2

$$\begin{array}{lcl} 100\text{cm}^3 \text{ CO}_2 & \text{takes} & 30\text{seconds} \\ 1\text{cm}^3 & \text{takes} & \frac{100 \times 1}{30} = \underline{3.3333\text{cm}^3\text{sec}^{-1}} \end{array}$$

$$R_{\text{CO}_2} = \sqrt{\text{molar mass NO}_2} \Rightarrow \underline{3.3333\text{cm}^3\text{sec}^{-1}} = \sqrt{46.0}$$

$$R \text{ NO}_2 \quad \sqrt{\text{molar mass CO}_2} \quad R \text{ NO}_2 \quad \sqrt{44.0}$$

$$R \text{ NO}_2 = \frac{3.3333 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ sec}^{-1} \times \sqrt{44.0}}{\sqrt{46.0}} = \underline{3.2601 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ sec}^{-1}}$$

$$\frac{3.2601 \text{ cm}^3}{150 \text{ cm}^3} \text{ takes } \frac{1 \text{ seconds}}{\frac{150 \text{ cm}^3}{3.2601 \text{ cm}^3}} = \underline{46.0109 \text{ seconds}}$$

2. How long would 200cm³ of Hydrogen chloride take to diffuse through a porous plug if carbon(IV)oxide takes 200seconds to diffuse through.

Molar mass CO₂ = 44g Molar mass HCl = 36.5g

$$\frac{T \text{ CO}_2}{T \text{ HCl}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{molar mass CO}_2}}{\sqrt{\text{molar mass HCl}}} \Rightarrow \frac{200 \text{ seconds}}{T \text{ HCl}} = \frac{\sqrt{44.0}}{\sqrt{36.5}}$$

$$T \text{ HCl} = \frac{200 \text{ seconds} \times \sqrt{36.5}}{\sqrt{44.0}} = \underline{182.1588 \text{ seconds}}$$

3. Oxygen gas takes 250 seconds to diffuse through a porous diaphragm. Calculate the molar mass of gas Z which takes 227 second to diffuse.

Molar mass O₂ = 32g Molar mass Z = x g

$$\frac{T \text{ O}_2}{T \text{ Z}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{molar mass O}_2}}{\sqrt{\text{molar mass Z}}} \Rightarrow \frac{250 \text{ seconds}}{227 \text{ seconds}} = \frac{\sqrt{32.0}}{\sqrt{x}}$$

$$\sqrt{x} = \frac{227 \text{ seconds} \times \sqrt{32}}{250} = \underline{26.3828 \text{ grams}}$$

4. 25cm³ of carbon(II)oxide diffuses across a porous plate in 25seconds. How long will it take 75cm³ of Carbon(IV)oxide to diffuse across the same plate under the same conditions of temperature and pressure. (C=12.0,O=16.0)

Molar mass CO₂ = 44.0 Molar mass CO = 28.0

Method 1

$$\frac{25 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ CO}}{75 \text{ cm}^3} \text{ takes } \frac{25 \text{ seconds}}{\frac{75 \times 25}{25}} = \underline{75 \text{ seconds}}$$

$$\frac{T \text{ CO}_2}{T \text{ CO}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{molar mass CO}_2}}{\sqrt{\text{molar mass CO}}} \Rightarrow \frac{T \text{ CO}_2 \text{ seconds}}{75} = \frac{\sqrt{44.0}}{\sqrt{28.0}}$$

$$T \text{ CO}_2 = \underline{75 \text{ seconds} \times \sqrt{44.0}} = \underline{94.0175 \text{ seconds}}$$

$$\sqrt{28.0}$$

Method 2

$$\begin{array}{lcl} 25\text{cm}^3 \text{ CO}_2 & \text{takes} & 25\text{seconds} \\ 1\text{cm}^3 & \text{takes} & \frac{25 \times 1}{25} = \underline{1.0\text{cm}^3\text{sec}^{-1}} \end{array}$$

$$\frac{R \text{ CO}_2}{R \text{ CO}} = \frac{\sqrt{\text{molar mass CO}}}{\sqrt{\text{molar mass CO}_2}} \Rightarrow \frac{x \text{ cm}^3\text{sec}^{-1}}{1.0\text{cm}^3\text{sec}^{-1}} = \frac{\sqrt{28.0}}{\sqrt{44.0}}$$

$$R \text{ CO}_2 = \frac{1.0\text{cm}^3\text{sec}^{-1} \times \sqrt{28.0}}{\sqrt{44.0}} = \underline{0.7977\text{cm}^3\text{sec}^{-1}}$$

$$\begin{array}{lcl} 0.7977\text{cm}^3 & \text{takes} & 1 \text{ seconds} \\ 75\text{cm}^3 & \text{takes} & \frac{75\text{cm}^3}{0.7977\text{cm}^3} = \underline{94.0203\text{seconds}} \end{array}$$

(b)Introduction to the mole, molar masses and Relative atomic masses

1. The mole is the **SI** unit of the **amount** of substance.
2. The number of particles e.g. atoms, ions, molecules, electrons, cows, cars are all measured in terms of moles.

3. The number of particles in one mole is called the **Avogadro's Constant**. It is denoted "**L**".

The Avogadro's Constant contains 6.023×10^{23} particles. i.e.

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ mole} &= 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles} &= 6.023 \times 10^{23} \\ 2 \text{ moles} &= 2 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles} &= 1.205 \times 10^{24} \\ 0.2 \text{ moles} &= 0.2 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles} &= 1.205 \times 10^{22} \\ 0.0065 \text{ moles} &= 0.0065 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles} &= 3.914 \times 10^{21} \end{aligned}$$

3. The mass of one mole of a substance is called **molar mass**. The molar mass of:

(i) an **element** has mass equal to relative atomic mass /RAM (in grams) of the element e.g.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Molar mass of carbon (C)} &= \text{relative atomic mass} = 12.0 \text{ g} \\ 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles of carbon} &= 1 \text{ mole} = 12.0 \text{ g} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Molar mass of sodium (Na)} &= \text{relative atomic mass} = 23.0 \text{ g} \\ 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles of sodium} &= 1 \text{ mole} = 23.0 \text{ g} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Molar mass of Iron (Fe)} &= \text{relative atomic mass} = 56.0 \text{ g} \\ 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles of iron} &= 1 \text{ mole} = 56.0 \text{ g} \end{aligned}$$

(ii) a **molecule** has mass equal to relative molecular mass /RMM (in grams) of the molecule. Relative molecular mass is the **sum** of the relative atomic masses of the elements making the molecule.

The number of atoms making a molecule is called **atomicity**. Most **gaseous** molecules are **diatomic** (e.g. O_2 , H_2 , N_2 , F_2 , Cl_2 , Br_2 , I_2) noble gases are **monoatomic** (e.g. He, Ar, Ne, Xe), Ozone gas (O_3) is **triatomic** e.g.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Molar mass Oxygen molecule (O}_2\text{)} &= \text{relative molecular mass} = (16.0 \times 2) \text{ g} = 32.0 \text{ g} \\ 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles of Oxygen molecule} &= 1 \text{ mole} = 32.0 \text{ g} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Molar mass chlorine molecule (Cl}_2\text{)} &= \text{relative molecular mass} = (35.5 \times 2) \text{ g} = 71.0 \text{ g} \\ 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles of chlorine molecule} &= 1 \text{ mole} = 71.0 \text{ g} \end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Molar mass Nitrogen molecule (N}_2\text{)} &= \text{relative molecular mass} = (14.0 \times 2) \text{ g} = 28.0 \text{ g} \\ 6.023 \times 10^{23} \text{ particles of Nitrogen molecule} &= 1 \text{ mole} = 28.0 \text{ g} \end{aligned}$$

(ii) a **compound** has mass equal to relative formula mass /RFM (in grams) of the molecule. Relative formula mass is the **sum** of the relative atomic masses of the elements making the compound. e.g.

$$\text{(i) Molar mass Water (H}_2\text{O)} = \text{relative formula mass} = [(1.0 \times 2) + 16.0] \text{ g} = 18.0 \text{ g}$$

6.023×10^{23} particles of Water molecule = 1 mole = 18.0 g

6.023×10^{23} particles of Water molecule has:

- $2 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Hydrogen atoms

- $1 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Oxygen atoms

(ii) Molar mass **sulphuric(VI)acid(H_2SO_4)** = relative formular mass

$$= [(1.0 \times 2) + 32.0 + (16.0 \times 4)]\text{g} = 98.0\text{g}$$

6.023×10^{23} particles of sulphuric(VI)acid(H_2SO_4) = 1 mole = 98.0g

6.023×10^{23} particles of sulphuric(VI)acid(H_2SO_4) has:

- $2 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Hydrogen atoms

- $1 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Sulphur atoms

- $4 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Oxygen atoms

(iii) Molar mass **sodium carbonate(IV)(Na_2CO_3)** = relative formular mass

$$= [(23.0 \times 2) + 12.0 + (16.0 \times 3)]\text{g} = 106.0\text{g}$$

6.023×10^{23} particles of sodium carbonate(IV)(Na_2CO_3) = 1 mole = 106.0g

6.023×10^{23} particles of sodium carbonate(IV)(Na_2CO_3) has:

- $2 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Sodium atoms

- $1 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Carbon atoms

- $3 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Oxygen atoms

(iv) Molar mass **Calcium carbonate(IV)(CaCO_3)** = relative formular mass

$$= [(40.0 + 12.0 + (16.0 \times 3)]\text{g} = 100.0\text{g}$$

6.023×10^{23} particles of Calcium carbonate(IV)(CaCO_3) = 1 mole = 100.0g

6.023×10^{23} particles of Calcium carbonate(IV)(CaCO_3) has:

- $1 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Calcium atoms

- $1 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Carbon atoms

- $3 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Oxygen atoms

(v) Molar mass **Water(H_2O)** = relative formular mass

$$= [(2 \times 1.0) + 16.0]\text{g} = 18.0\text{g}$$

6.023×10^{23} particles of Water(H_2O) = 1 mole = 18.0g

6.023×10^{23} particles of Water(H_2O) has:

- $2 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Hydrogen atoms

- $1 \times 6.023 \times 10^{23}$ particles of Oxygen atoms

Practice

1. Calculate the number of moles present in:

(i) 0.23 g of Sodium atoms

Molar mass of Sodium atoms = 23g

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{Molar mass}} = > \frac{0.23\text{g}}{23} = 0.01\text{moles}$$

(ii) 0.23 g of Chlorine atoms

Molar mass of Chlorine atoms = 35.5 g

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{Molar mass}} = > \frac{0.23\text{g}}{35.5} = 0.0065\text{moles} / 6.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

(iii) 0.23 g of Chlorine molecules

Molar mass of Chlorine molecules = (35.5 x 2) = 71.0 g

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{Molar mass}} = > \frac{0.23\text{g}}{71} = 0.0032\text{moles} / 3.2 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

(iv) 0.23 g of dilute sulphuric(VI) acid

Molar mass of H_2SO_4 = [(2 x 1) + 32 + (4 x 14)] = 98.0g

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{Molar mass}} = > \frac{0.23\text{g}}{98} = 0.0023\text{moles} / 2.3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

2. Calculate the number of atoms present in: (Avogadro's constant $L = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$)

(i) 0.23 g of dilute sulphuric (VI) acid

Method I

Molar mass of H_2SO_4 = [(2 x 1) + 32 + (4 x 14)] = 98.0g

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{Molar mass}} = > \frac{0.23\text{g}}{98} = 0.0023\text{moles} / 2.3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

1 mole has 6.0×10^{23} atoms

$$2.3 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles has } \frac{(2.3 \times 10^{-3} \times 6.0 \times 10^{23})}{1} = 1.38 \times 10^{21} \text{ atoms}$$

Method II

Molar mass of H_2SO_4 = [(2 x 1) + 32 + (4 x 14)] = 98.0g

98.0g = 1 mole has 6.0×10^{23} atoms

$$0.23 \text{ g therefore has } \frac{(0.23 \text{ g} \times 6.0 \times 10^{23})}{98} = 1.38 \times 10^{21} \text{ atoms}$$

(ii) 0.23 g of sodium carbonate(IV) decahydrate

Molar mass of $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$ =

$$[(2 \times 23) + 12 + (3 \times 16) + (10 \times 1.0) + (10 \times 16)] = 276.0\text{g}$$

Method I

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{Molar mass}} = > \frac{0.23\text{g}}{276} = \frac{0.00083\text{moles}}{8.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles}}$$

1 mole has 6.0×10^{23} atoms

$$8.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles has } \frac{(8.3 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles} \times 6.0 \times 10^{23})}{1} = 4.98 \times 10^{20} \text{ atoms}$$

Method II

276.0g = 1 mole has 6.0×10^{23} atoms

$$0.23 \text{ g therefore has } \frac{(0.23 \text{ g} \times 6.0 \times 10^{23})}{276.0} = 4.98 \times 10^{20} \text{ atoms}$$

(iii) 0.23 g of Oxygen gas

Molar mass of $\text{O}_2 = (2 \times 16) = 32.0 \text{ g}$

Method I

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{Molar mass}} = > \frac{0.23\text{g}}{32} = \frac{0.00718\text{moles}}{7.18 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}}$$

1 mole has $2 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ atoms in O_2

$$7.18 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles has } \frac{(7.18 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles} \times 2 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23})}{1} = 8.616 \times 10^{21} \text{ atoms}$$

Method II

32.0g = 1 mole has $2 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ atoms in O_2

$$0.23 \text{ g therefore has } \frac{(0.23 \text{ g} \times 2 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23})}{32.0} = 8.616 \times 10^{21} \text{ atoms}$$

(iv) 0.23 g of Carbon(IV)oxide gas

Molar mass of $\text{CO}_2 = [12 + (2 \times 16)] = 44.0 \text{ g}$

Method I

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{mass in grams}}{\text{Molar mass}} = > \frac{0.23\text{g}}{44} = \frac{0.00522\text{moles}}{5.22 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}}$$

1 mole has $3 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ atoms in CO_2

$$5.22 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles has } \frac{(5.22 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles} \times 3 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23})}{1} = 9.396 \times 10^{21} \text{ atoms}$$

Method II

44.0g = 1 mole has $3 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ atoms in CO_2

$$0.23 \text{ g therefore has } \frac{(0.23 \text{ g} \times 3 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23})}{44.0} = 9.409 \times 10^{21} \text{ atoms}$$

(c)Empirical and molecular formula

1.The empirical formula of a compound is its simplest formula. It is the simplest whole number ratios in which atoms of elements combine to form the compound. 2.It is mathematically the lowest common multiple (LCM) of the atoms of the elements in the compound

3.Practically the empirical formula of a compound can be determined as in the following examples.

To determine the empirical formula of copper oxide

(a)Method 1:From copper to copper(II)oxide

Procedure.

Weigh a clean dry covered crucible (M_1). Put two spatula full of copper **powder** into the crucible. Weigh again (M_2). Heat the crucible on a strong Bunsen flame for five minutes. Lift the lid, and swirl the crucible carefully using a pair of tong. Cover the crucible and continue heating for another five minutes. Remove the lid and stop heating. Allow the crucible to cool. When cool replace the lid and weigh the contents again (M_3).

Sample results

Mass of crucible (M_1)	15.6g
Mass of crucible + copper before heating (M_2)	18.4
Mass of crucible + copper after heating (M_3)	19.1

Sample questions**1. Calculate the mass of copper powder used.**

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 \text{Mass of crucible + copper before heating } (M_2) & = & 18.4 \\
 \text{Less Mass of crucible } (M_1) & = & - 15.6g \\
 \hline
 \text{Mass of copper} & & 2.8 \text{ g}
 \end{array}$$

2. Calculate the mass of Oxygen used to react with copper.

Method I

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 \text{Mass of crucible + copper after heating } (M_3) & = & 19.1g \\
 \text{Mass of crucible + copper before heating } (M_2) & = & - 18.4g \\
 \hline
 \text{Mass of Oxygen} & = & 0.7 \text{ g}
 \end{array}$$

Method II

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 \text{Mass of crucible + copper after heating } (M_3) & = & 19.1g \\
 \text{Mass of crucible} & = & - 15.6g \\
 \hline
 \text{Mass of copper(II)Oxide} & = & 3.5 \text{ g} \\
 \\
 \text{Mass of copper(II)Oxide} & = & 3.5 \text{ g} \\
 \text{Mass of copper} & = & - 2.8g \\
 \hline
 \text{Mass of Oxygen} & = & 0.7 \text{ g}
 \end{array}$$

3. Calculate the number of moles of:**(i) copper used** ($\text{Cu} = 63.5$)

$$\text{number of moles of copper} = \frac{\text{mass used}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{2.8}{63.5} = \underline{\underline{0.0441 \text{ moles}}}$$

(ii) Oxygen used ($\text{O} = 16.0$)

$$\text{number of moles of oxygen} = \frac{\text{mass used}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.7}{16.0} = \underline{\underline{0.0441 \text{ moles}}}$$

4. Determine the mole ratio of the reactants

$$\frac{\text{Moles of copper}}{\text{Moles of oxygen}} = \frac{0.0441 \text{ moles}}{0.0441 \text{ moles}} = \frac{1}{1} \Rightarrow \text{Mole ratio Cu: O} = 1:1$$

5. What is the empirical formula of copper oxide formed.

CuO (copper(II)oxide)

6. State and explain the observations made during the experiment.ObservationColour change from **brown** to **black**Explanation

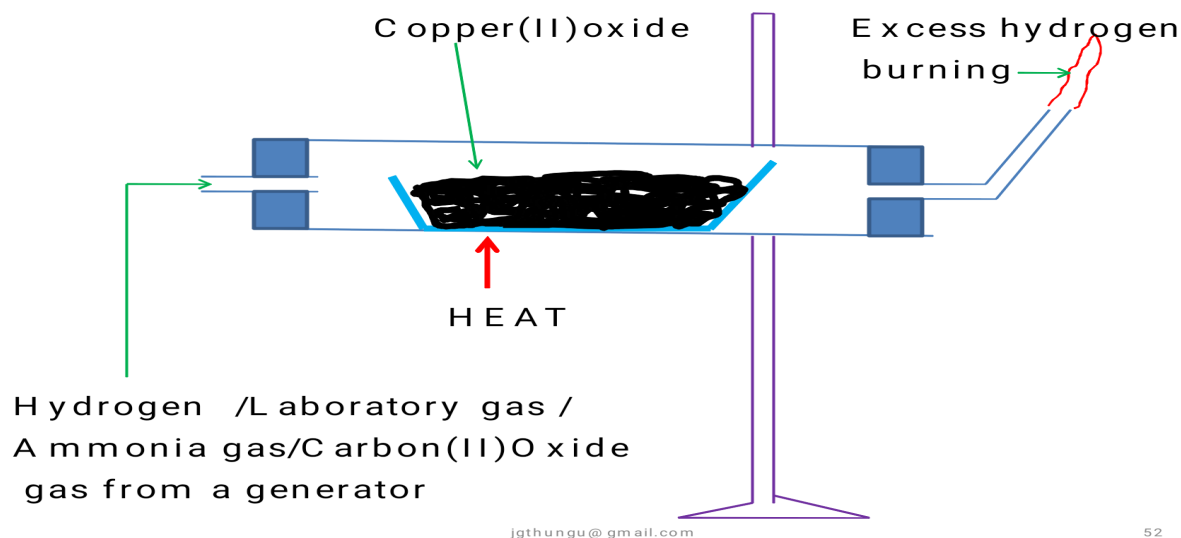
Copper powder is **brown**. On heating it reacts with oxygen from the air to form **black** copper(II)oxide

7. Explain why magnesium ribbon/shavings would be unsuitable in a similar experiment as the one above.

Hot magnesium generates enough heat energy to react with **both** Oxygen and Nitrogen in the air forming a white solid mixture of Magnesium **oxide** and magnesium **nitride**. This causes experimental mass errors.

(b) Method 2: From copper(II)oxide to copper**Procedure.**

Weigh a clean dry porcelain boat (**M₁**). Put two spatula full of copper(II)oxide **powder** into the crucible. Reweigh the porcelain boat (**M₂**). Put the porcelain boat in a glass tube and set up the apparatus as below;

Determining empirical formula from copper(II)oxide to copper

Pass slowly(to prevent copper(II)oxide from being blown away)a stream of either dry Hydrogen /ammonia/laboratory gas/ carbon(II)oxide gas for about two minutes from a suitable generator.

When all the in the apparatus set up is driven out ,heat the copper(II)oxide strongly for about five minutes until there is no further change. Stop heating.

Continue passing the gases until the glass tube is cool.

Turn off the gas generator.

Carefully remove the porcelain boat form the combustion tube.

Reweigh (M_3).

Sample results

Mass of boat(M_1)	15.6g
Mass of boat before heating(M_2)	19.1
Mass of boat after heating(M_3)	18.4

Sample questions

1. Calculate the mass of copper(II)oxide used.

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 \text{Mass of boat before heating}(\mathbf{M_2}) & = & 19.1 \\
 \text{Mass of empty boat}(\mathbf{M_1}) & = & - 15.6\text{g} \\
 \hline
 \text{Mass of copper(II)Oxide} & & \mathbf{3.5\text{ g}}
 \end{array}$$

2. Calculate the mass of

(i) Oxygen.

$$\begin{array}{rcl}
 \text{Mass of boat before heating}(\mathbf{M_2}) & = & 19.1
 \end{array}$$

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Mass of boat after heating (M}_3\text{)} & & = - 18.4\text{g} \\ \text{Mass of oxygen} & & = \underline{0.7 \text{ g}} \end{array}$$

(ii)Copper

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Mass of copper(II)Oxide} & & = 3.5 \text{ g} \\ \text{Mass of oxygen} & & = \underline{0.7 \text{ g}} \\ \text{Mass of oxygen} & & = \underline{2.8 \text{ g}} \end{array}$$

3. Calculate the number of moles of:**(i) Copper used (Cu = 63.5)**

$$\text{number of moles of copper} = \frac{\text{mass used}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{2.8}{63.5} = \underline{\underline{0.0441\text{moles}}}$$

(ii) Oxygen used (O = 16.0)

$$\text{number of moles of oxygen} = \frac{\text{mass used}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.7}{16.0} = \underline{\underline{0.0441\text{moles}}}$$

4. Determine the mole ratio of the reactants

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{Moles of copper} & = \frac{0.0441\text{moles}}{0.0441\text{moles}} = \frac{1}{1} & \Rightarrow \text{Mole ratio Cu: O} = 1:1 \\ \text{Moles of oxygen} & & \end{array}$$

5.What is the empirical, formula of copper oxide formed.

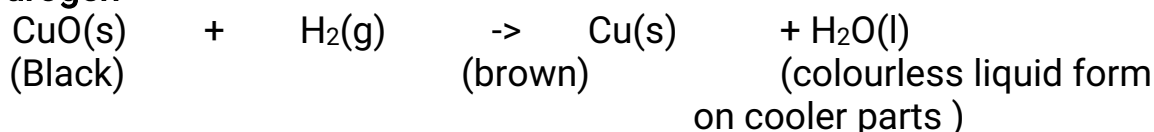
CuO (copper(II)oxide)

6. State and explain the observations made during the experiment.ObservationColour change from **black** to **brown**Explanation

Copper(II)oxide powder is **black**. On heating it is reduced by a suitable reducing agent to **brown** copper metal.

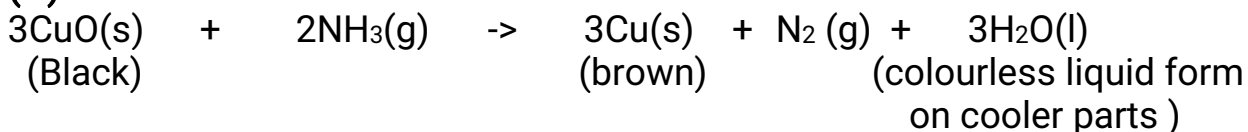
7. Explain why magnesium oxide would be unsuitable in a similar experiment as the one above.

Magnesium is high in the reactivity series. None of the above reducing agents is strong enough to reduce the oxide to the metal.

8. Write the equation for the reaction that would take place when the reducing agent is:**(i) Hydrogen****(ii)Carbon(II)oxide**

(Black)

(brown)

(colourless gas, form
white ppt with lime water)**(iii)Ammonia**

9. Explain why the following is necessary during the above experiment;

(i)A stream of dry hydrogen gas should be passed before heating copper (II) Oxide.

Air combine with hydrogen in presence of heat causing an explosion

(ii)A stream of dry hydrogen gas should be passed after heating copper (II) Oxide has been stopped.

Hot metallic copper can be re-oxidized back to copper(II)oxide

(iii) A stream of excess carbon (II)oxide gas should be ignited to burn

Carbon (II)oxide is highly poisonous/toxic. On ignition it burns to form less toxic carbon (IV)oxide gas.

10. State two sources of error in this experiment.

(i)All copper(II)oxide may not be reduced to copper.

(ii)Some copper(II)oxide may be blown out the boat by the reducing agent.

4.Theoretically the empirical formula of a compound can be determined as in the following examples.

(a)A oxide of copper contain 80% by mass of copper. Determine its empirical formula. (Cu = 63.5, 16.0)

% of Oxygen = 100% - % of Copper => 100- 80 = **20%** of Oxygen

Element	Copper	Oxygen
Symbol	Cu	O
Moles present = $\frac{\% \text{ composition}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{80}{63.5}$	$\frac{20}{16}$
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{1.25}{1.25}$	$\frac{1.25}{1.25}$

Mole ratios	1	1
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Empirical formula is **CuO**

(b) 1.60g of an oxide of Magnesium contain 0.84g by mass of Magnesium. Determine its empirical formula (Mg = 24.0, 16.0)

Mass of Oxygen = 1.60 – 0.84 => 0.56 g of Oxygen

Element	Magnesium	Oxygen
Symbol	Mg	O
Moles present = $\frac{\% \text{ composition}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{0.84}{24}$	$\frac{0.56}{16}$
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{0.35}{0.35}$	$\frac{0.35}{0.35}$
Mole ratios	1	1

Empirical formula is **MgO**

(c) An oxide of Silicon contain 47% by mass of Silicon. What is its empirical formula (Si = 28.0, 16.0)

Mass of Oxygen = 100 – 47 => 53% of Oxygen

Element	Silicon	Oxygen
Symbol	Si	O
Moles present = $\frac{\% \text{ composition}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{47}{28}$	$\frac{53}{16}$
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{1.68}{1.68}$	$\frac{3.31}{1.68}$
Mole ratios	1	1.94 = 2

Empirical formula is **SiO₂**

(d) A compound contain 70% by mass of Iron and 30% Oxygen. What is its empirical formula (Fe = 56.0, 16.0)

Mass of Oxygen = 100 – 70 => 30% of Oxygen

Element	Silicon	Oxygen
Symbol	Si	O
Moles present = $\frac{\% \text{ composition}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{47}{28}$	$\frac{53}{16}$

Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{1.68}{1.68}$	$\frac{3.31}{1.68}$
Mole ratios	1	1.94 = 2

Empirical formula is SiO_2

2. During heating of a hydrated copper (II) sulphate(VI) crystals, the following readings were obtained:

Mass of evaporating dish = 300.0g

Mass of evaporating dish + hydrated salt = 305.0g

Mass of evaporating dish + anhydrous salt = 303.2g

Calculate the number of water of crystallization molecules in hydrated copper (II) sulphate(VI)

(Cu = 64.5, S = 32.0, O = 16.0, H = 1.0)

Working

Mass of Hydrated salt = 305.0g - 300.0g = 5.0g

Mass of anhydrous salt = 303.2 g - 300.0g = 3.2 g

Mass of water in hydrated salt = 5.0g - 3.2 g = 1.8g

Molar mass of water(H_2O) = 18.0g

Molar mass of anhydrous copper (II) sulphate(VI) (CuSO_4) = 160.5g

Element/compound	anhydrous copper (II) sulphate(VI)	Oxygen
Symbol	CuSO_4	O
Moles present = <u>composition by mass</u>	$\frac{3.2}{160.5}$	$\frac{1.8}{18}$
Molar mass		
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{0.0199}{0.0199}$	$\frac{0.1}{18}$
Mole ratios	1	5

The **empirical formula** of hydrated salt = $\text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Hydrated salt has five/5 molecules of water of crystallizations

4. The molecular formula is the actual number of each kind of atoms present in a **molecule** of a compound.

The empirical formula of an ionic compound is the same as the chemical formula but for simple molecular structured compounds, the empirical formula may not be the same as the chemical formula.

The molecular formula is a multiple of empirical formula .It is determined from the relationship:

- (i) $n = \frac{\text{Relative formular mass}}{\text{Relative empirical formula}}$
 where n is a whole number.

- (ii) Relative empirical formula $\times n =$ Relative formular mass
 where n is a whole number.

Practice sample examples

1. A hydrocarbon was found to contain 92.3% carbon and the remaining Hydrogen. If the molecular mass of the compound is 78, determine the molecular formula(C=12.0, H =1.0)

Mass of Hydrogen = 100 – 92.3 => 7.7% of Oxygen

Element	Carbon	Hydrogen
Symbol	C	H
Moles present = $\frac{\% \text{ composition}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{92.3}{12}$	$\frac{7.7}{1}$
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{7.7}{7.7}$	$\frac{7.7}{7.7}$
Mole ratios	1	1

Empirical formula is **CH**

The molecular formular is thus determined :

$$n = \frac{\text{Relative formular mass}}{\text{Relative empirical formula}} = \frac{78}{13} = 6$$

The molecular formula is (C H) $\times 6 = \underline{\text{C}_6\text{H}_6}$

2. A compound of carbon, hydrogen and oxygen contain 54.55% carbon, 9.09% and remaining 36.36% oxygen.

If its relative molecular mass is 88, determine its molecular formula(C=12.0, H =1.0, O= 16.0)

Element	Carbon	Hydrogen	Oxygen
Symbol	C	H	O
Moles present = $\frac{\% \text{ composition}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{54.55}{12}$	$\frac{9.09}{1}$	$\frac{36.36}{16}$
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{4.5458}{4.5458}$	$\frac{9.09}{9.09}$	$\frac{2.2725}{2.2725}$

	2.2725	2.2725	2.2725
Mole ratios	2	4	1

Empirical formula is **C₂H₄O**

The molecular formula is thus determined :

$$n = \frac{\text{Relative formular mass}}{\text{Relative empirical formula}} = \frac{88}{44} = 2$$

The molecular formula is (C₂H₄O) × 2 = **C₄H₈O₂**.

4.A hydrocarbon burns completely in excess air to form 5.28 g of carbon (IV) oxide and 2,16g of water.

If the molecular mass of the hydrocarbon is 84, draw and name its molecular structure.

Since a hydrocarbon is a compound containing Carbon and Hydrogen only. Then:

Mass of carbon in CO₂ = $\frac{\text{Mass of C in CO}_2}{\text{Molar mass of CO}_2} \times \text{mass of CO}_2 \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{12}{44} \times 5.28 = 1.44\text{g} \checkmark$$

Mass of Hydrogen in H₂O = $\frac{\text{Mass of C in H}_2\text{O}}{\text{Molar mass of H}_2\text{O}} \times \text{mass of H}_2\text{O} \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{2}{18} \times 2.16 = 0.24\text{g} \checkmark$$

Element	Carbon	Hydrogen
Symbol	C	H
Moles present = $\frac{\text{mass}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{1.44\text{g}}{12}$	$\frac{0.24\text{g} \checkmark}{1}$
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{0.12}{0.12}$	$\frac{0.24}{0.12}$
Mole ratios	1	2 $\checkmark$

Empirical formula is **CH₂** $\checkmark$

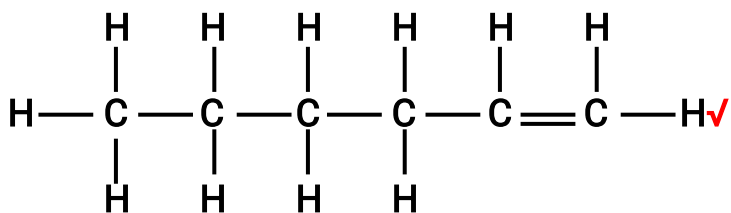
The molecular formular is thus determined :

$$n = \frac{\text{Relative formular mass}}{\text{Relative empirical formula}} = \frac{84}{14} = 6 \checkmark$$

The molecular formula is (CH₂) × 6 = **C₆H₁₂**. $\checkmark$

molecular name **Hexene** $\checkmark$ / **Hex-1-ene** (or any position isomer of Hexene)

Molecular structure



5. Compound A contain 5.2% by mass of Nitrogen .The other elements present are Carbon, hydrogen and Oxygen. On combustion of 0.085g of A in excess Oxygen,0.224g of carbon(IV)oxide and 0.0372g of water was formed. Determine the empirical formula of A (N=14.0, O=16.0 , C=12.0 , H=1.0)

$$\text{Mass of N in A} = 5.2\% \times 0.085 = \underline{0.00442 \text{ g}}$$

$$\text{Mass of C in A} = \frac{12}{44} \times 0.224 = \underline{0.0611 \text{ g}}$$

$$\text{Mass of H in A} = \frac{2}{18} \times 0.0372 = \underline{0.0041 \text{ g}}$$

$$\text{Mass of O in A} = 0.085 \text{ g} - 0.00442 \text{ g} = \underline{0.0806 \text{ g}} \text{ (Mass of C,H,O)}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0.0611 \text{ g} + 0.0041 \text{ g} = \underline{0.0652 \text{ g (Mass of C,H)}}$$

$$0.0806 \text{ g (Mass of C,H,O)} - 0.0652 \text{ g (Mass of C,H)} = \underline{0.0154 \text{ g}}$$

Element	Nitrogen	Carbon	Hydrogen	Oxygen
Symbol	N	C	H	O
Moles present = $\frac{\text{mass}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{0.00442 \text{ g}}{14}$	$\frac{0.0611 \text{ g}}{12}$	$\frac{0.0041 \text{ g}}{1}$	$\frac{0.0154 \text{ g}}{16}$
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{0.00032}{0.00032}$	$\frac{0.00509}{0.00032}$	$\frac{0.0041 \text{ g}}{0.00032}$	$\frac{0.00096}{0.00032}$
Mole ratios	1	16	13	3

Empirical formula = C₁₆H₁₃NO₃

(d)Molar gas volume

The volume occupied by one mole of all gases at the same temperature and pressure is a constant.It is:

(i) 24dm³/24litres/24000cm³ at room temperature(25°C/298K)and pressure(r.t.p).

i.e. 1 mole of all gases =24dm³/24litres/24000cm³ at r.t.p

Examples

1mole of O₂ = 32g =6.0 x10²³ particles= 24dm³/24litres/24000cm³ at r.t.p

1mole of H₂ = 2g =6.0 x10²³ particles =24dm³/24litres/24000cm³ at r.t.p

1mole of $\text{CO}_2 = 44\text{g} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ particles = $24\text{dm}^3/24\text{litres}/24000\text{cm}^3$ at r.t.p
 1mole of $\text{NH}_3 = 17\text{g} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ particles = $24\text{dm}^3/24\text{litres}/24000\text{cm}^3$ at r.t.p
 1mole of $\text{CH}_4 = 16\text{g} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ particles = $24\text{dm}^3/24\text{litres}/24000\text{cm}^3$ at r.t.p

(ii) $22.4\text{dm}^3/22.4\text{litres}/22400\text{cm}^3$ at standard temperature($0^\circ\text{C}/273\text{K}$) and pressure(s.t.p)

i.e. 1mole of all gases = $22.4\text{dm}^3/22.4\text{litres}/22400\text{cm}^3$ at s.t.p

Examples

1mole of $\text{O}_2 = 32\text{g} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ particles = $22.4\text{dm}^3/22.4\text{litres}/22400\text{cm}^3$ at s.t.p

1mole of $\text{H}_2 = 2\text{g} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ particles = $22.4\text{dm}^3/22.4\text{litres}/22400\text{cm}^3$ at s.t.p

1mole of $\text{CO}_2 = 44\text{g} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ particles = $22.4\text{dm}^3/22.4\text{litres}/22400\text{cm}^3$ at s.t.p

1mole of $\text{NH}_3 = 17\text{g} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ particles = $22.4\text{dm}^3/22.4\text{litres}/22400\text{cm}^3$ at s.t.p

1mole of $\text{CH}_4 = 16\text{g} = 6.0 \times 10^{23}$ particles = $22.4\text{dm}^3/22.4\text{litres}/22400\text{cm}^3$ at s.t.p

The volume occupied by one mole of a gas at r.t.p or s.t.p is commonly called the **molar gas volume**. Whether the molar gas volume is at r.t.p or s.t.p must always be specified.

From the above therefore a less or more volume can be determined as in the examples below.

Practice examples

1. Calculate the number of particles present in:

(Avogadro's constant = $6.0 \times 10^{23} \text{ mole}^{-1}$)

(i) 2.24dm^3 of Oxygen.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 22.4\text{dm}^3 & \rightarrow 6.0 \times 10^{23} \\ 2.24\text{dm}^3 & \rightarrow \frac{2.24 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23}}{22.4} \end{array}$$

$$= \underline{6.0 \times 10^{22}} \text{ molecules} = 2 \times 6.0 \times 10^{22} = \underline{1.2 \times 10^{23}} \text{ atoms}$$

(ii) 2.24dm^3 of Carbon(IV)oxide.

$$\begin{array}{ll} 22.4\text{dm}^3 & \rightarrow 6.0 \times 10^{23} \\ 2.24\text{dm}^3 & \rightarrow \frac{2.24 \times 6.0 \times 10^{23}}{22.4} \end{array}$$

$$= \underline{6.0 \times 10^{22}} \text{ molecules} = (\text{CO}_2) = 3 \times 6.0 \times 10^{22} = \underline{1.8 \times 10^{23}} \text{ atoms}$$

2. 0.135 g of a gaseous hydrocarbon X on complete combustion produces 0.41g of carbon(IV)oxide and 0.209g of water. 0.29g of X occupy 120cm^3 at room temperature and 1 atmosphere pressure. Name X and draw its molecular structure. (C=12.0, O=

16.0, H=1.0, 1 mole of gas occupies 24dm³ at r.t.p)

Molar mass CO₂ = 44 gmole⁻¹ ✓ Molar mass H₂O = 18 gmole⁻¹ ✓

Molar mass X = $\frac{0.29 \times (24 \times 1000) \text{ cm}^3}{120 \text{ cm}^3} = 58 \text{ gmole}^{-1}$ ✓

Since a hydrocarbon is a compound containing Carbon and Hydrogen only. Then:

Mass of carbon in CO₂ = $\frac{\text{Mass of C in CO}_2}{\text{Molar mass of CO}_2} \times \text{mass of CO}_2 \Rightarrow$
 $\frac{12 \times 0.41}{44} = 0.1118 \text{ g}$ ✓

Mass of Hydrogen in H₂O = $\frac{\text{Mass of H in H}_2\text{O}}{\text{Molar mass of H}_2\text{O}} \times \text{mass of H}_2\text{O} \Rightarrow$
 $\frac{2 \times 0.209}{18} = 0.0232 \text{ g}$ ✓

Element	Carbon	Hydrogen
Symbol	C	H
Moles present = $\frac{\% \text{ composition}}{\text{Molar mass}}$	$\frac{0.1118}{12}$	$\frac{0.0232 \text{ g}}{1}$ ✓
Divide by the smallest value	$\frac{0.0093}{0.0093}$	$\frac{0.0232}{0.0093}$ ✓
Mole ratios	1 x 2	2.5 x 2
	2	5 ✓

Empirical formula is **C₂H₅** ✓

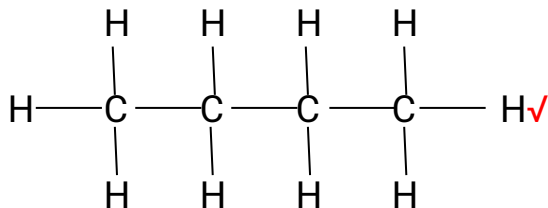
The molecular formula is thus determined :

$$n = \frac{\text{Relative formula mass}}{\text{Relative empirical formula}} = \frac{58}{29} = 2 \text{ ✓}$$

The molecular formula is (C₂H₅) x 2 = **C₄H₁₀** ✓

Molecule name **Butane**

Molecular structure

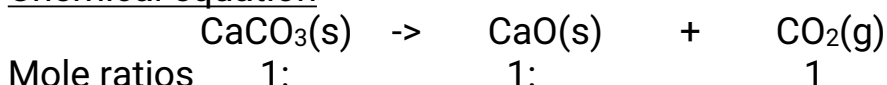


(e) Gravimetric analysis

Gravimetric analysis is the relationship between reacting masses and the volumes and /or masses of products. All reactants are in mole **ratios** to their products in accordance to their stoichiometric equation. Using the mole ratio of reactants and products any volume and/or mass can be determined as in the examples:

1. Calculate the volume of carbon(IV)oxide at r.t.p produced when 5.0 g of calcium carbonate is strongly heated.(Ca=40.0, C= 12.0,O = 16.0,1 mole of gas =22.4 at r.t.p)

Chemical equation



Molar Mass $\text{CaCO}_3 = 100\text{g}$

Method 1

100g $\text{CaCO}_3(\text{s}) \rightarrow 24\text{dm}^3 \text{CO}_2(\text{g})$ at r.t.p

5.0 g $\text{CaCO}_3(\text{s}) \rightarrow \frac{5.0 \text{ g} \times 24\text{dm}^3}{100\text{g}} = \underline{1.2\text{dm}^3/1200\text{cm}^3}$

Method 2

Moles of 5.0 g $\text{CaCO}_3(\text{s}) = \frac{5.0 \text{ g}}{100 \text{ g}} = 0.05 \text{ moles}$

Mole ratio 1:1

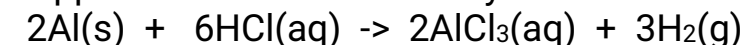
Moles of $\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) = 0.05 \text{ moles}$

Volume of $\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) = 0.05 \times 24000\text{cm}^3 = \underline{1200\text{cm}^3 / 1.2\text{dm}^3}$

2. 1.0g of an alloy of aluminium and copper were reacted with excess hydrochloric acid. If 840cm³ of hydrogen at s.t.p was produced, calculate the % of copper in the alloy.(Al =27.0,one mole of a gas at s.t.p =22.4dm³)

Chemical equation

Copper does not react with hydrochloric acid

**Method 1**

$3\text{H}_2(\text{g}) = 3 \text{ moles} \times (22.4 \times 1000)\text{cm}^3 \Rightarrow 2 \times 27 \text{ g Al}$
 $840\text{cm}^3 \Rightarrow \frac{840\text{cm}^3 \times 2 \times 27}{3 \times 22.4 \times 1000} = \underline{0.675\text{g}}$ of Aluminium

Total mass of alloy – mass of aluminium = mass of copper
 $\Rightarrow 1.0\text{g} - 0.675\text{g} = \underline{0.325\text{g}}$ of copper

$$\% \text{ copper} = \frac{\text{mass of copper} \times 100\%}{\text{Mass of alloy}} = \mathbf{32.5\%}$$

Method 2

Mole ratio $2\text{Al} : 3\text{H}_2 = 2:3$

$$\text{Moles of Hydrogen gas} = \frac{\text{volume of gas}}{\text{Molar gas volume}} \Rightarrow \frac{840\text{cm}^3}{22400\text{cm}^3} = \mathbf{0.0375\text{moles}}$$

$$\text{Moles of Al} = \frac{2}{3} \text{ moles of H}_2 \Rightarrow \frac{2}{3} \times 0.0375\text{moles} = \mathbf{0.025\text{moles}}$$

$$\text{Mass of Al} = \text{moles} \times \text{molar mass} \Rightarrow 0.025\text{moles} \times 27 = \mathbf{0.675\text{g}}$$

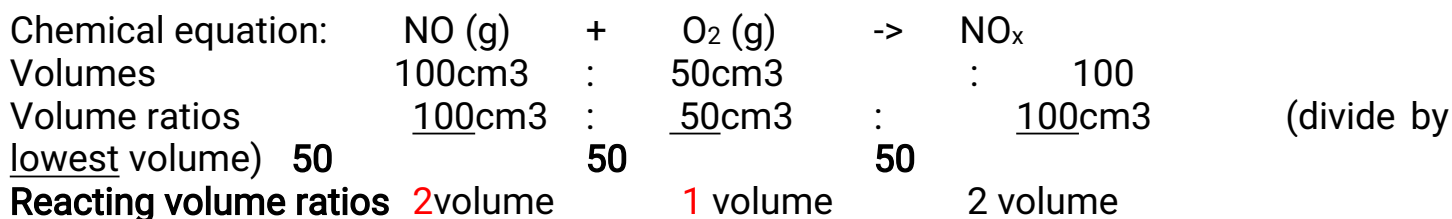
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Total mass of alloy} - \text{mass of aluminium} &= \text{mass of copper} \\ \Rightarrow 1.0\text{g} - 0.675\text{g} &= \mathbf{0.325\text{ g of copper}} \end{aligned}$$

$$\% \text{ copper} = \frac{\text{mass of copper} \times 100\%}{\text{Mass of alloy}} = \mathbf{32.5\%}$$

(f)Gay Lussac's law

Gay Lussacs law states that **"when gases combine/react they do so in simple volume**

4. 100cm³ of nitrogen (II) oxide NO combine with 50cm³ of Oxygen to form 100cm³ of a single gaseous compound of nitrogen. All volumes measured at the same temperature and pressure. Obtain the equation for the reaction and name the gaseous product.



Balanced chemical equation: $2 \text{NO (g)} + \text{O}_2 \text{(g)} \rightarrow 2 \text{NO}_x \text{(g)}$

Thus (i) chemical formula of the nitrogen compound = 2NO_2

(ii) chemical name of compound = Nitrogen(IV)oxide

5. When 15cm³ of a gaseous hydrocarbon was burnt in 100cm³ of Oxygen, the resulting gaseous mixture occupied 70cm³ at room temperature and pressure. When the gaseous mixture was passed through potassium hydroxide its volume decreased to 25cm³.

(a) What volume of Oxygen was used during the reaction. (1mk)

Volume of Oxygen used = 100 - 25 = 75cm³✓

(P was completely burnt)

(b) Determine the molecular formula of the hydrocarbon (2mk)



15cm³ : 75cm³

15 15

1 : 3✓

=> 1 atom of C react with 6 (3x2) atoms of Oxygen

Thus x = 1 and y = 2 => P has molecular formula CH₄✓

(g) Ionic equations

An ionic equation is a chemical statement showing the movement of ions (cations and anions) from reactants to products.

Solids, gases and liquids do not ionize/dissociate into free ions. **Only** ionic compounds in **aqueous/solution** or **molten** state ionize/dissociate into free cations and anions

(ions)

An ionic equation is usually derived from a stoichiometric equation by using the following guidelines

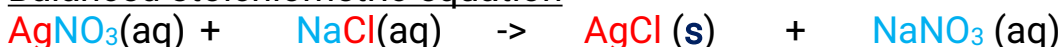
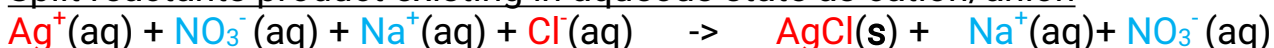
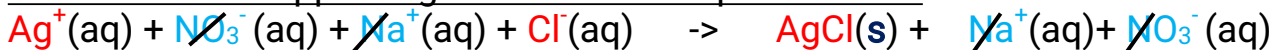
Guidelines for writing ionic equations

1. Write the balanced stoichiometric equation
2. Indicate the state symbols of the reactants and products
3. **Split** into cations and anions all the reactants and products that exist in **aqueous** state.
4. **Cancel out** any cation and anion that appear on **both** the product and reactant side.
5. Rewrite the chemical equation. It is an ionic equation.

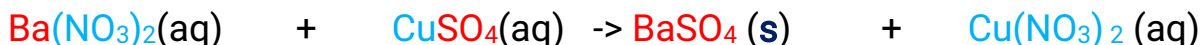
Practice(a) Precipitation of an insoluble salt

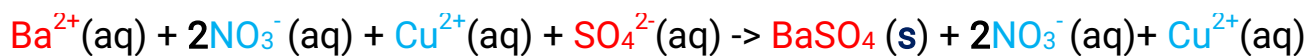
All insoluble salts are prepared in the laboratory from double decomposition /precipitation. This involves mixing **two soluble** salts to form **one soluble** and **one insoluble** salt

1. When silver nitrate(V) solution is added to sodium chloride solution, sodium nitrate(V) solution and a white precipitate of silver chloride are formed.

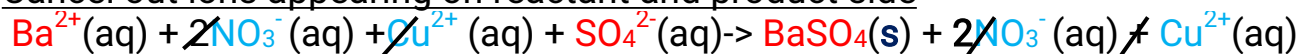
Balanced stoichiometric equationSplit reactants product existing in aqueous state as cation/anionCancel out ions appearing on reactant and product sideRewrite the equation

2. When barium nitrate(V) solution is added to copper(II)sulphate(VI) solution, copper(II) nitrate(V) solution and a white precipitate of barium sulphate(VI) are formed.

Balanced stoichiometric equationSplit reactants product existing in aqueous state as cation/anion



Cancel out ions appearing on reactant and product side

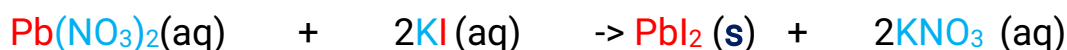


Rewrite the equation

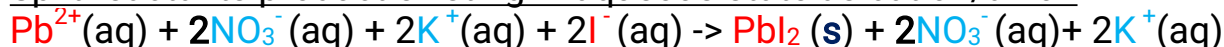


3.A yellow precipitate of Potassium Iodide is formed from the reaction of Lead(II)nitrate(v) and potassium iodide.

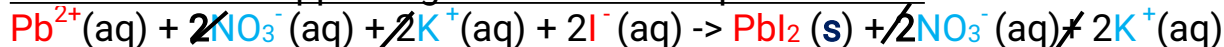
Balanced stoichiometric equation



Split reactants product existing in aqueous state as cation/anion



Cancel out ions appearing on reactant and product side



Rewrite the equation



(b)Neutralization

Neutralization is the reaction of an acid with a **soluble** base/alkali or **insoluble** base.

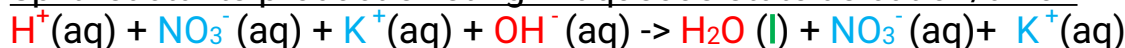
(i)Reaction of alkalis with acids

1.Reaction of nitric(V)acid with potassium hydroxide

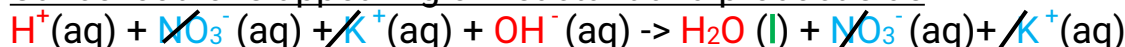
Balanced stoichiometric equation



Split reactants product existing in aqueous state as cation/anion



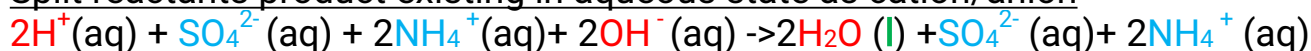
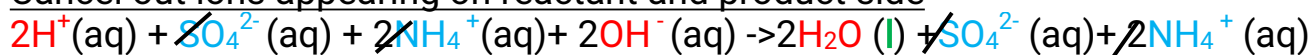
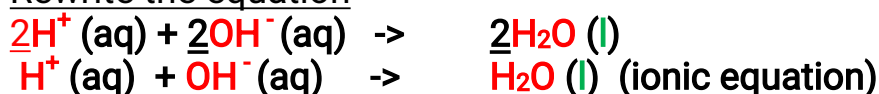
Cancel out ions appearing on reactant and product side



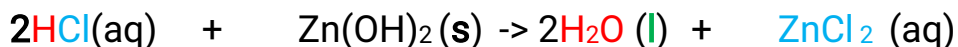
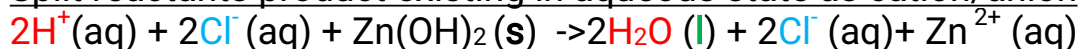
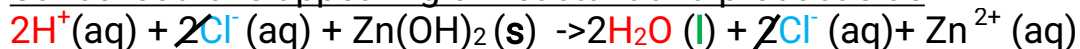
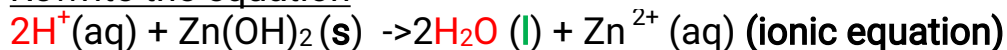
Rewrite the equation



2. Reaction of sulphuric(VI) acid with ammonia solution

Balanced stoichiometric equationSplit reactants product existing in aqueous state as cation/anionCancel out ions appearing on reactant and product sideRewrite the equation

3. Reaction of hydrochloric acid with Zinc hydroxide

Balanced stoichiometric equationSplit reactants product existing in aqueous state as cation/anionCancel out ions appearing on reactant and product sideRewrite the equation**(h) Molar solutions**

A molar solution is one whose concentration is known. The SI unit of concentration is **Molarity** denoted **M**.

Molarity may be defined as the number of moles of solute present in **one cubic decimeter** of solution.

One cubic decimeter is equal to **one litre** and also equal to **1000cm³**.

The higher the molarity the higher the concentration and the higher/more solute has been dissolved in the solvent to make one cubic decimeter/ litre/1000cm³ **solution**.

Examples

2M sodium hydroxide means 2 moles of sodium hydroxide solute is dissolved in enough water to make one cubic decimeter/ litre/1000cm³ uniform solution mixture of sodium hydroxide and water.

0.02M sodium hydroxide means 0.02 moles of sodium hydroxide solute is dissolved in enough water to make one cubic decimeter/ litre/1000cm³ uniform solution mixture of sodium hydroxide and water.

"2M" is **more concentrated** than "0.02M".

Preparation of molar solution

Procedure

Weigh accurately 4.0 g of sodium hydroxide pellets into a 250cm³ volumetric flask.

Using a wash bottle add about 200cm³ of distilled water.

Stopper the flask.

Shake vigorously for three minutes.

Remove the stopper for a second then continue to shake for about another two minutes until **all** the solid has dissolved.

Add more water slowly upto exactly the 250 cm³ mark.

Sample questions

1. Calculate the number of moles of sodium hydroxide pellets present in:

(i) 4.0 g.

$$\text{Molar mass of NaOH} = (23 + 16 + 1) = 40\text{g}$$

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{4.0}{40} = 0.1 / 1.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles}$$

(ii) 250 cm³ solution in the volumetric flask.

$$\text{Moles in 250 cm}^3 = 0.1 / 1.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles}$$

(iii) one decimeter of solution

Method 1

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Moles in decimeters} &= \text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3/1\text{dm}^3}{\text{Volume of solution}} \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{1.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3}{250\text{cm}^3} = \end{aligned}$$

$$= \underline{0.4 \text{ M} / 0.4 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

Method 2

250cm³ solution contain 1.0×10^{-1} moles

$$1000\text{cm}^3 \text{ solution} = \text{Molarity} \text{ contain } \frac{1000 \times 1.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles}}{250 \text{ cm}^3}$$

$$= \underline{0.4 \text{ M} / 0.4 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

Theoretical sample practice

1. Calculate the molarity of a solution containing:

(i) 4.0 g sodium hydroxide dissolved in 500cm³ solution

$$\text{Molar mass of NaOH} = (23 + 16 + 1) = 40\text{g}$$

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{4.0}{40} = 0.1 / 1.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles}$$

Method 1

$$\text{Moles in decimeters} = \text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3/1\text{dm}^3}{\text{Volume of solution}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3}{500\text{cm}^3}$$

$$= \underline{0.2 \text{ M} / 0.2 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

Method 2

$$500 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ solution contain } 1.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles}$$

$$1000\text{cm}^3 \text{ solution} = \text{Molarity} \text{ contain } \frac{1000 \times 1.0 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles}}{500 \text{ cm}^3}$$

$$= \underline{0.2 \text{ M} / 0.2 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

(ii) 5.3 g anhydrous sodium carbonate dissolved in 50cm³ solution

$$\text{Molar mass of Na}_2\text{CO}_3 = (23 \times 2 + 12 + 16 \times 3) = 106 \text{ g}$$

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{5.3}{106} = 0.05 / 5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}$$

Method 1

$$\text{Moles in decimeters} = \text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3/1\text{dm}^3}{\text{Volume of solution}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1.0 \text{ moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3}{50\text{cm}^3}$$

$$= \underline{1.0 \text{ M}}$$

Method 2

50 cm³ solution contain 5.0×10^{-2} moles

$$1000\text{cm}^3 \text{ solution} = \text{Molarity} \times \frac{1000 \times 5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}{50 \text{ cm}^3} \\ = \underline{1.0\text{M} / 1.0 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

(iii) 5.3 g hydrated sodium carbonate decahydrate dissolved in 50cm³ solution

Molar mass of Na₂CO₃·10H₂O = (23 × 2 + 12 + 16 × 3 + 20 × 1 + 10 × 16) = 286g

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{5.3}{286} = 0.0185 / 1.85 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}$$

Method 1

$$\text{Moles in decimeters} = \text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3/1\text{dm}^3}{\text{Volume of solution}} \\ \Rightarrow \frac{1.85 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3}{50\text{cm}^3} \\ = \underline{0.37 \text{ M}/0.37 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

Method 2

50 cm³ solution contain 1.85×10^{-2} moles

$$1000\text{cm}^3 \text{ solution} = \text{Molarity} \times \frac{1000 \times 1.85 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}{50 \text{ cm}^3} \\ = \underline{3.7 \times 10^{-1} \text{ M} / 3.7 \times 10^{-1} \text{ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

(iv) 7.1 g of anhydrous sodium sulphate(VI) was dissolved in 20.0 cm³ solution. Calculate the molarity of the solution.

Method 1

20.0cm³ solution → 7.1 g

$$1000\text{cm}^3 \text{ solution} \rightarrow \frac{1000 \times 7.1}{20} = \underline{3550 \text{ g dm}^{-3}}$$

Molar mass Na₂SO₄ = 142 g

$$\text{Moles dm}^{-3} = \text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Molar mass}} \times \frac{3550}{142} = \underline{2.5 \text{ M}/ \text{molesdm}^{-3}}$$

Method 2

Molar mass Na₂SO₄ = 142 g

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{7.1}{142} = 0.05 / 5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}$$

Method 2(a)

$$\text{Moles in decimeters} = \text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Moles} \times 1000\text{cm}^3/1\text{dm}^3}{\text{Volume of solution}}$$

$$\Rightarrow 5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} \times \frac{1000 \text{ cm}^3}{20 \text{ cm}^3}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{2.5 \text{ M}/2.5 \text{ moles dm}^{-3}}}$$

Method 2(b)

20 cm³ solution contain 5.0×10^{-2} moles

$$1000 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ solution} = \text{Molarity} \text{ contain } \frac{1000 \times 5.0 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}{20 \text{ cm}^3}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{2.5 \text{ M}/2.5 \text{ moles dm}^{-3}}}$$

(iv) The density of sulphuric(VI) is 1.84 g cm^{-3} Calculate the molarity of the acid.

Method 1

1.0 cm³ solution $\rightarrow$ 1.84 g

$$1000 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ solution} \rightarrow \frac{1000}{1} \times 1.84 = \underline{\underline{1840 \text{ g dm}^{-3}}}$$

Molar mass $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 = 98 \text{ g}$

$$\text{Moles dm}^{-3} = \text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Molar mass}} = \frac{1840}{98}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{18.7755 \text{ M/ moles dm}^{-3}}}$$

Method 2

Molar mass $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 = 98 \text{ g}$

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Molar mass}} \Rightarrow \frac{1.84}{98} = 0.0188 / 1.88 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}$$

Method 2(a)

$$\text{Moles in decimeters} = \text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Moles} \times 1000 \text{ cm}^3 / 1 \text{ dm}^3}{\text{Volume of solution}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{1.88 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} \times 1000 \text{ cm}^3}{1.0 \text{ cm}^3}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{18.8 \text{ M}/18.8 \text{ moles dm}^{-3}}}$$

Method 2(b)

20 cm³ solution contain 1.88×10^{-2} moles

$$1000 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ solution} = \text{Molarity} \text{ contain } \frac{1000 \times 1.88 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}{1.0 \text{ cm}^3}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{18.8 \text{ M}/18.8 \text{ moles dm}^{-3}}}$$

2. Calculate the mass of :

(i) 25 cm³ of 0.2M sodium hydroxide solution (Na = 23.0, O = 16.0, H = 1.0)

Molar mass NaOH = **40g**

$$\text{Moles in } 25 \text{ cm}^3 = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.2 \times 25}{1000} = \frac{0.005}{5.0 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Mass of NaOH} = \text{Moles} \times \text{molar mass} = 5.0 \times 10^{-3} \times 40 = \underline{\underline{0.2 \text{ g}}}$$

(ii) 20 cm³ of 0.625 M sulphuric(VI) acid (S =32.0.0 =16.0, H=1.0)

Molar mass H₂SO₄ = **98g**

$$\text{Moles in } 20 \text{ cm}^3 = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.625 \times 20}{1000} = \frac{0.0125}{1.25.0 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Mass of H}_2\text{SO}_4 = \text{Moles} \times \text{molar mass} \Rightarrow 5.0 \times 10^{-3} \times 40 = \underline{\underline{0.2 \text{ g}}}$$

(iii) 1.0 cm³ of 2.5 M Nitric(V) acid (N =14.0.0 =16.0, H=1.0)

Molar mass HNO₃ = **63 g**

$$\text{Moles in } 1 \text{ cm}^3 = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{2.5 \times 1}{1000} = \frac{0.0025}{2.5. \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Mass of HNO}_3 = \text{Moles} \times \text{molar mass} \Rightarrow 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \times 40 = \underline{\underline{0.1 \text{ g}}}$$

3. Calculate the volume required to dissolve :

(a)(i) 0.25moles of sodium hydroxide solution to form a 0.8M solution

$$\text{Volume (in cm}^3\text{)} = \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{Molarity}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.25 \times 1000}{0.8} = \underline{\underline{312.5 \text{ cm}^3}}$$

(ii) 100cm³ was added to the sodium hydroxide solution above. Calculate the concentration of the solution.

$C_1 \times V_1 = C_2 \times V_2$ where:

C_1 = molarity/concentration before diluting/adding water

C_2 = molarity/concentration after diluting/adding water

V_1 = volume before diluting/adding water

V_2 = volume after diluting/adding water

$$\Rightarrow 0.8 \text{ M} \times 312.5 \text{ cm}^3 = C_2 \times (312.5 + 100)$$

$$C_2 = \frac{0.8 \text{ M} \times 312.5 \text{ cm}^3}{412.5} = \underline{\underline{0.6061 \text{ M}}}$$

412.5

(b)(ii) 0.01M solution containing 0.01moles of sodium hydroxide solution .

$$\text{Volume (in cm}^3\text{)} = \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{Molarity}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.01 \times 1000}{0.01} = \underline{1000 \text{ cm}^3}$$

(ii) Determine the quantity of water which must be added to the sodium hydroxide solution above to form a 0.008M solution. $C_1 \times V_1 = C_2 \times V_2$ where: C_1 = molarity/concentration before diluting/adding water C_2 = molarity/concentration after diluting/adding water V_1 = volume before diluting/adding water V_2 = volume after diluting/adding water

$$\Rightarrow 0.01\text{M} \times 1000 \text{ cm}^3 = 0.008 \times V_2$$

$$V_2 = \frac{0.01\text{M} \times 1000\text{cm}^3}{0.008} = \underline{1250\text{cm}^3}$$

$$\text{Volume added} = 1250 - 1000 = \underline{250\text{cm}^3}$$

(c)Volumetric analysis/Titration

Volumetric analysis/Titration is the process of determining unknown concentration of one reactant from a known concentration and volume of another.

Reactions take place in simple mole ratio of reactants and products.

Knowing the concentration/ volume of one reactant, the other can be determined from the relationship:

$$\frac{M_1 V_1}{n_1} = \frac{M_2 V_2}{n_2} \text{ where:}$$

 M_1 = Molarity of 1st reactant M_2 = Molarity of 2nd reactant V_1 = Volume of 1st reactant V_2 = Volume of 2nd reactant n_1 = number of moles of 1st reactant from stoichiometric equation n_2 = number of moles of 2nd reactant from stoichiometric equation**Examples**

1. Calculate the molarity of MCO_3 if 5.0cm³ of MCO_3 react with 25.0cm³ of 0.5M hydrochloric acid. (C=12.0, O =16.0)

Stoichiometric equation: $\text{MCO}_3(\text{s}) + 2\text{HCl}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \text{MCl}_2(\text{aq}) + \text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$

Method 1

$$\frac{M_1 V_1}{n_1} = \frac{M_2 V_2}{n_2} \rightarrow \frac{M_1 \times 5.0 \text{ cm}^3}{1} = \frac{0.5 \text{ M} \times 25.0 \text{ cm}^3}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow M_1 = \frac{0.5 \times 25.0 \times 1}{5.0 \times 2} = \underline{1.25 \text{ M} / 1.25 \text{ moledm}^{-3}}$$

Method 2Moles of HCl used = molarity x volume

$$\Rightarrow \frac{0.5}{1000} \times \frac{25.0}{1000} = \underline{0.0125 / 1.25 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}$$

Mole ratio $\text{MCO}_3 : \text{HCl} = 1:2$

$$\text{Moles } \text{MCO}_3 = \frac{0.0125 / 1.25 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}{2} = \underline{0.00625 / 6.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Molarity } \text{MCO}_3 = \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{Volume}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.00625 / 6.25 \times 10^{-3} \times 1000}{5}$$

$$= \underline{1.25 \text{ M} / 1.25 \text{ moledm}^{-3}}$$

2. 2.0cm³ of 0.5M hydrochloric acid react with 0.1M of M₂CO₃. Calculate the volume of 0.1M M₂CO₃ used.

Stoichiometric equation: $\text{M}_2\text{CO}_3 (\text{aq}) + 2\text{HCl}(\text{aq}) \rightarrow 2\text{MCl} (\text{aq}) + \text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$ Method 1

$$\frac{M_1 V_1}{n_1} = \frac{M_2 V_2}{n_2} \rightarrow \frac{0.5 \times 2.0 \text{ cm}^3}{2} = \frac{0.1 \text{ M} \times V_2 \text{ cm}^3}{1}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_2 = \frac{0.5 \times 2.0 \times 1}{0.1 \times 2} = \underline{1.25 \text{ M} / 1.25 \text{ moledm}^{-3}}$$

Method 2Moles of HCl used = molarity x volume

$$\Rightarrow \frac{0.5}{1000} \times \frac{2.0}{1000} = \underline{0.0125 / 1.25 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}$$

Mole ratio $\text{M}_2\text{CO}_3 : \text{HCl} = 1:2$

$$\text{Moles } \text{M}_2\text{CO}_3 = \frac{0.0125 / 1.25 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}{2} = \underline{0.00625 / 6.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Molarity } \text{M}_2\text{CO}_3 = \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{Volume}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.00625 / 6.25 \times 10^{-3} \times 1000}{5}$$

$$= \underline{1.25 \text{ M} / 1.25 \text{ moledm}^{-3}}$$

3. 5.0cm³ of 0.1M sodium iodide react with 0.1M of Lead(II)nitrate(V). Calculate(i) the volume of Lead(II)nitrate(V) used.

(ii)the mass of Lead(II)iodide formed
(Pb=207.0, I =127.0)

Stoichiometric equation: $2\text{NaI}(\text{aq}) + \text{Pb}(\text{NO}_3)_2(\text{aq}) \rightarrow 2\text{NaNO}_3(\text{aq}) + \text{PbI}_2(\text{s})$

(i)Volume of Lead(II)nitrate(V) used

Method 1

$$\frac{M_1V_1}{n_1} = \frac{M_2V_2}{n_2} \rightarrow \frac{5 \times 0.1\text{cm}^3}{2} = \frac{0.1\text{M} \times V_2\text{cm}^3}{1}$$

$$\Rightarrow V_2 = \frac{0.1 \times 5.0 \times 1}{0.1 \times 2} = \underline{1.25\text{M} / 1.25 \text{moledm}^{-3}}$$

Method 2

Moles of HCl used = $\frac{\text{molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{0.1 \times 5.0}{1000} = \underline{0.0125 / 1.25 \times 10^{-2} \text{moles}}$$

Mole ratio $\text{M}_2\text{CO}_3 : \text{HCl} = 1:2$

$$\text{Moles } \text{M}_2\text{CO}_3 = \frac{0.0125 / 1.25 \times 10^{-2} \text{moles}}{2} = \underline{0.00625 / 6.25 \times 10^{-3} \text{moles}}$$

$$\text{Molarity } \text{M}_2\text{CO}_3 = \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{Volume}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.00625 / 6.25 \times 10^{-3} \times 1000}{5}$$

$$= \underline{1.25\text{M} / 1.25 \text{moledm}^{-3}}$$

4. 0.388g of a monobasic organic acid B required 46.5 cm³ of 0.095M sodium hydroxide for complete neutralization. Name and draw the structural formula of B

Moles of NaOH used = $\frac{\text{molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{0.095 \times 46.5}{1000} = \underline{0.0044175 / 4.4175 \times 10^{-3} \text{moles}}$$

Mole ratio B : NaOH = 1:1

$$\text{Moles B} = \underline{0.0044175 / 4.4175 \times 10^{-3} \text{moles}}$$

$$\text{Molar mass B} = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{moles}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.388}{0.0044175 / 4.4175 \times 10^{-3} \text{moles}}$$

$$= \underline{87.8324 \text{ gmole}^{-1}}$$

X-COOH = 87.8324 where X is an alkyl group

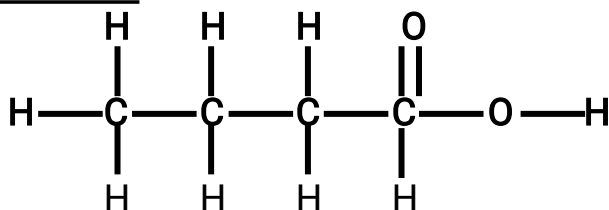
$$X = 87.8324 - 42 = 45.8324 = 43$$

By elimination: $\text{CH}_3 = 15$ $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2 = 29$ $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2 = 43$

Molecular formula : $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$

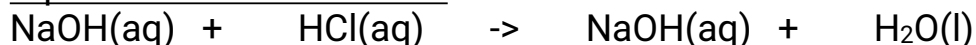
Molecule name : Butan-1-oic acid

Molecular structure



5. 10.5 g of an impure sample containing ammonium sulphate (VI) fertilizer was warmed with 250cm³ of 0.8M sodium hydroxide solution. The excess of the alkali was neutralized by 85cm³ of 0.5M hydrochloric acid. Calculate the % of impurities in the ammonium sulphate (VI) fertilizer. (N=14.0, S=32.0, O=16.0, H=1.0)

Equation for neutralization

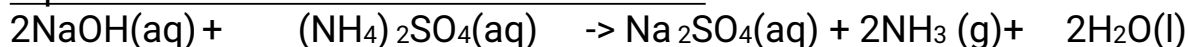


Mole ratio NaOH(aq):HCl(aq) = 1:1

$$\text{Moles of HCl} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.5 \times 85}{1000} = \underline{0.0425 \text{ moles}}$$

Excess moles of NaOH(aq) = 0.0425 moles

Equation for reaction with ammonium salt



Mole ratio NaOH(aq): (NH₄)₂SO₄(aq) = 2:1

$$\text{Total moles of NaOH} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.8 \times 250}{1000} = \underline{0.2 \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Moles of NaOH that reacted with } (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 = 0.2 - 0.0425 = \underline{0.1575 \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Moles } (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 = \frac{1}{2} \times 0.1575 \text{ moles} = \underline{0.07875 \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Molar mass } (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 = \underline{132 \text{ gmole}^{-1}}$$

$$\text{Mass of pure sample} = \text{moles} \times \text{molar mass} \Rightarrow 0.07875 \times 132 = 10.395 \text{ g}$$

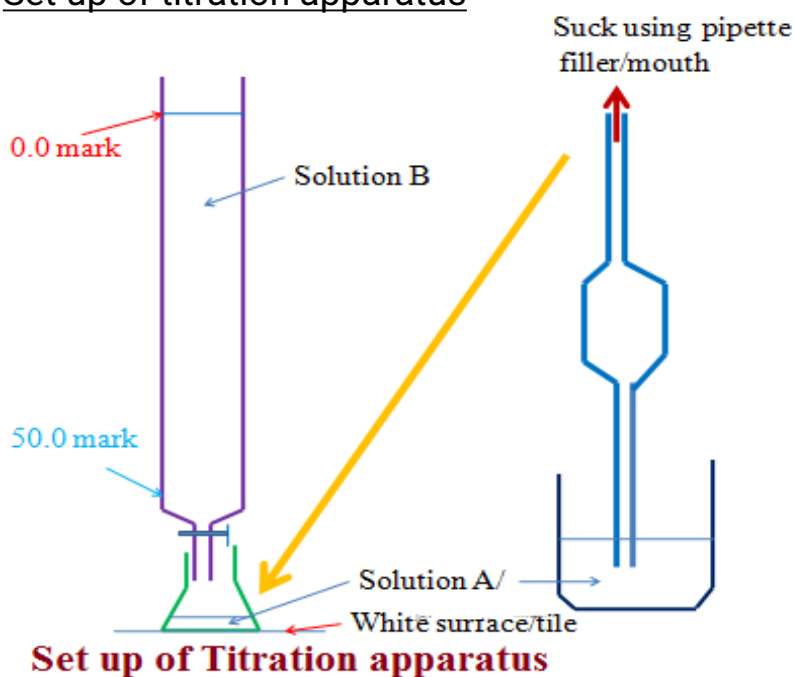
$$\text{Mass of impurities} = 10.5 - 10.395 = \underline{0.105 \text{ g}}$$

$$\% \text{ impurities} = \frac{0.105 \times 100}{10.5} = \underline{1.0 \%}$$

Practically volumetric analysis involves **titration**.

Titration generally involves filling a burette with known/unknown concentration of a solution then adding the solution to unknown/known concentration of another solution in a conical flask until there is complete reaction. If the solutions used are both colourless, an **indicator** is added to the conical flask. When the reaction is over, a **slight/little** excess of burette contents **change** the colour of the indicator. This is called the **end point**.

Set up of titration apparatus



The titration process involve involves determination of **titre**. The titre is the volume of burette contents/reading **before** and **after** the end point. Burette contents/reading **before** titration is usually called the **Initial** burette reading. Burette contents/reading **after** titration is usually called the **Final** burette reading. The titre value is thus a sum of the **Final less Initial** burette readings.

To reduce errors, titration process should be repeated at least once more.

The results of titration are recorded in a **titration table** as below

Sample titration table

Titration number	1	2	3
Final burette reading (cm ³)	20.0	20.0	20.0
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of solution used(cm ³)	20.0	20.0	20.0

As **evidence** of a titration **actually** done examining body requires the candidate to record their burette readings before and after the titration.

For KCSE candidates burette readings **must** be recorded **in** a titration table in the **format provided** by the Kenya National Examination Council.

As **evidence** of all titration **actually** done Kenya National Examination Council require the candidate to record their burette readings before and after the titration to complete the titration table **in the format provided**.

Calculate the average volume of solution used

$$\frac{24.0 + 24.0 + 24.0}{3} = 24.0 \text{ cm}^3$$

As **evidence** of understanding the degree of accuracy of burettes , all readings must be recorded to **a** decimal point.

As **evidence** of accuracy in carrying the out the titration , candidates value should be **within 0.2** of the **school value** .

The school value is the **teachers** readings **presented** to the examining body/council based on the **concentrations** of the solutions s/he presented to her/his candidates.

Bonus mark is awarded for averaged reading **within 0.1** school value as Final answer.

Calculations involved after the titration require candidates **thorough** practical and theoretical **practice mastery** on the:

(i)relationship **among** the mole, molar mass, mole ratios, concentration, molarity.

(ii) mathematical application of 1st principles.

Very useful information which candidates forget appears usually in the beginning of the question paper as:

"You are provided with..."

All calculation must be to the **4th decimal point** unless they divide fully to a lesser decimal point.

Candidates are expected to use a non programmable scientific calculator.

(a)Sample Titration Practice 1 (Simple Titration)

You are provided with:

0.1M sodium hydroxide solution A

Hydrochloric acid solution B

You are required to determine the concentration of solution B in moles per litre.

Procedure

Fill the burette with solution B. Pipette 25.0cm³ of solution A into a conical flask. Titrate solution A with solution B using phenolphthalein indicator to complete the titration table 1

Sample results Titration table 1

Titration number	1	2	3
Final burette reading (cm ³)	20.0	20.0	20.0
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of solution B used(cm ³)	20.0	20.0	20.0

Sample worked questions**1. Calculate the average volume of solution B used**

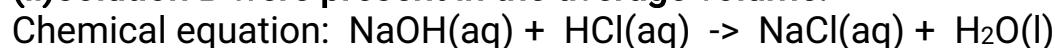
$$\text{Average titre} = \frac{\text{Titre 1} + \text{Titre 2} + \text{Titre 3}}{3} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{20.0 + 20.0 + 20.0}{3} \right) = \underline{20.0\text{cm}^3}$$

2. How many moles of:

(i)solution A were present in 25cm³ solution.

$$\text{Moles of solution A} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} = \frac{0.1 \times 25}{1000} = \underline{2.5 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles}$$

(ii)solution B were present in the average volume.



$$\text{Mole ratio 1:1} \Rightarrow \text{Moles of A} = \text{Moles of B} = \underline{2.5 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles}$$

(iii) solution B in moles per litre.

$$\text{Moles of B per litre} = \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{-3} \times 1000}{20} = \underline{0.1\text{M}}$$

(b)Sample Titration Practice 2 (Redox Titration)**You are provided with:**

Acidified Potassium manganate(VII) solution A

0.1M of an iron (II)salt solution B

8.5g of ammonium iron(II)sulphate(VI) crystals(NH₄)₂ SO₄FeSO₄.xH₂O solid C

You are required to

(i)standardize acidified potassium manganate(VII)

(ii)determine the value of x in the formula (NH₄)₂ SO₄FeSO₄.xH₂O.

Procedure 1

Fill the burette with solution A. Pipette 25.0cm³ of solution B into a conical flask. Titrate solution A with solution B until a pink colour just appears. Record your results to complete table 1.

Table 1: **Sample results**

Titration number	1	2	3
Final burette reading (cm ³)	20.0	20.0	20.0
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of solution A used(cm ³)	20.0	20.0	20.0

Sample worked questions

1. Calculate the average volume of solution A used

$$\text{Average titre} = \frac{\text{Titre 1} + \text{Titre 2} + \text{Titre 3}}{3} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{20.0 + 20.0 + 20.0}{3} \right) = \underline{20.0\text{cm}^3}$$

2. How many moles of:

(i) solution B were present in 25cm³ solution.

$$\text{Moles of solution A} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} = \frac{0.1 \times 25}{1000} = \underline{2.5 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles}$$

(ii) solution A were present in the average volume. Assume one mole of B react with five moles of B

Mole ratio A : B = 1:5

$$\Rightarrow \text{Moles of A} = \frac{\text{Moles of B}}{5} = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{-3}}{5} \text{ moles} = \underline{5.0 \times 10^{-4}} \text{ moles}$$

(iii) solution B in moles per litre.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Moles of B per litre} &= \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{-3} \times 1000}{20} \\ &= \underline{0.025 \text{ M /moles per litre /moles l}^{-1}} \end{aligned}$$

Procedure 2

Place all the solid C into the 250cm³ volumetric flask carefully. Add about 200cm³ of distilled water. Shake to dissolve. Make up to the 250cm³ of solution by adding more distilled water. Label this solution C. Pipette 25cm³ of solution C into a conical flask, Titrate solution C with solution A until a permanent pink colour just appears. Complete table 2.

Table 2: **Sample results**

Titration number	1	2	3
------------------	---	---	---

Final burette reading (cm ³)	20.0	20.0	20.0
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of solution A used(cm ³)	20.0	20.0	20.0

Sample worked questions

1. Calculate the average volume of solution A used

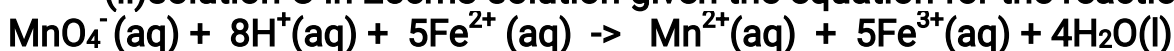
$$\text{Average titre} = \frac{\text{Titre 1} + \text{Titre 2} + \text{Titre 3}}{3} \Rightarrow \left(\frac{20.0 + 20.0 + 20.0}{3} \right) = \underline{20.0\text{cm}^3}$$

2. How many moles of:

(i) solution A were present in the average titre.

$$\text{Moles of solution A} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} = \frac{0.025 \times 20}{1000} = \underline{5.0 \times 10^{-4}} \text{ moles}$$

(ii) solution C in 25cm³ solution given the equation for the reaction:



$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mole ratio } \text{MnO}_4^- (\text{aq}) : 5\text{Fe}^{2+} (\text{aq}) &= 1:5 \Rightarrow & \text{Moles of} \\ 5\text{Fe}^{2+} (\text{aq}) &= \frac{\text{Moles of } \text{MnO}_4^- (\text{aq})}{5} = \frac{5.0 \times 10^{-4}}{5} \text{ moles} = \underline{1.0 \times 10^{-4}} \text{ moles} \end{aligned}$$

(iii) solution B in 250cm³.

$$\text{Moles of B per litre} = \frac{\text{moles} \times 250}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{1.0 \times 10^{-4} \times 250}{25} = \underline{1.0 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles}$$

3. Calculate the molar mass of solid C and hence the value of x in the chemical formula (NH₄)₂SO₄FeSO₄.xH₂O.

(N=14.0, S=32.0, Fe=56.0, H=1.0 O=16.0)

$$\text{Molar mass} = \frac{\text{mass per litre}}{\text{Moles per litre}} = \frac{8.5}{1.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}} = \underline{8500 \text{ g}}$$

$$\text{(NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O} = 8500$$

$$284 + 18x = 8500$$

$$8500 - 284 = \frac{8216}{18} = \frac{18x}{18} = \underline{454.4444}$$

$$x = \underline{454} \text{ (whole number)}$$

(c) Sample Titration Practice 3 (Back titration)

You are provided with:

- (i) an impure calcium carbonate labeled M
- (ii) Hydrochloric acid labeled solution N
- (iii) solution L containing 20g per litre sodium hydroxide.

You are required to determine the concentration of N in moles per litre and the % of calcium carbonate in mixture M.

Procedure 1

Pipette 25.0cm³ of solution L into a conical flask. Add 2-3 drops of phenolphthalein indicator. Titrate with dilute hydrochloric acid solution N and record your results in table 1(4mark)

Sample Table 1

	1	2	3
Final burette reading (cm ³)	6.5	6.5	6.5
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of N used (cm ³)	6.5	6.5	6.5

Sample questions

(a) Calculate the average volume of solution N used

$$\frac{6.5 + 6.5 + 6.5}{3} = 6.5 \text{ cm}^3$$

(b) How many moles of sodium hydroxide are contained in 25cm³ of solution L

Molar mass NaOH = 40g

$$\text{Molarity of L} = \frac{\text{mass per litre}}{\text{Molar mass NaOH}} \Rightarrow \frac{20}{40} = 0.5\text{M}$$

$$\text{Moles NaOH in 25cm}^3 = \frac{\text{molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.5\text{M} \times 25\text{cm}^3}{1000} = 0.0125 \text{ moles}$$

(c) Calculate:

(i) the number of moles of hydrochloric acid that react with sodium hydroxide in (b) above.

Mole ratio NaOH : HCl from stoichiometric equation = 1:1

Moles HCl = Moles NaOH $\Rightarrow$ 0.0125 moles

(ii) the molarity of hydrochloric acid solution N.

$$\text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{6.5} \Rightarrow \frac{0.0125 \text{ moles} \times 1000}{6.5} = 1.9231 \text{ M/mole dm}^{-3}$$

Procedure 2

Place the 4.0 g of M provided into a conical flask and add 25.0cm³ of the dilute hydrochloric acid to it using a clean pipette. Swirl the contents of the flask vigorously until effervescence stop. Using a 100ml measuring cylinder add 175cm³ distilled water to make up the solution up to 200cm³. Label this solution K. Using a clean pipette transfer 25.0cm³ of the solution into a clean conical flask and titrate with solution L from the burette using 2-3 drops of methyl orange indicator. Record your observations in table 2.

Sample Table 2

	1	2	3
Final burette reading (cm ³)	24.5	24.5	24.5
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of N used (cm ³)	24.5	24.5	24.5

Sample calculations

(a) Calculate the average volume of solution L used (1mk)

$$\frac{24.5 + 24.5 + 24.5}{3} = 24.5 \text{ cm}^3$$

(b) How many moles of sodium hydroxide are present in the average volume of solution L used?

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Moles} &= \frac{\text{molarity} \times \text{average burette volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.5 \times 24.5}{1000} \\ &= 0.01225 / 1.225 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} \end{aligned}$$

(c) How many moles of hydrochloric acid are present in the original 200cm³ of solution K?

Mole ratio NaOH: HCl = 1:1 $\Rightarrow$ moles of HCl = $0.01225 / 1.225 \times 10^{-2}$ moles

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Moles in 200cm}^3 &= \frac{200 \text{ cm}^3 \times 0.01225 / 1.225 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}}{25 \text{ cm}^3 (\text{volume pipetted})} \\ &= 0.49 / 4.9 \times 10^{-1} \text{ moles} \end{aligned}$$

(d) How many moles of hydrochloric acid were contained in original 25 cm³ solution N used

Original moles = $\frac{\text{Original molarity} \times \text{pipetted volume}}{1000\text{cm}^3} \Rightarrow$

$$\frac{1.9231\text{M}/\text{mole dm}^{-3} \times 25}{1000} = \underline{0.04807/4.807 \times 10^{-2}} \text{ moles}$$

(e) How many moles of hydrochloric acid were used to react with calcium carbonate present?

Moles that reacted = original moles – moles in average titre $\Rightarrow$

$$0.04807/4.807 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} - 0.01225 / 1.225 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}$$

$$= \underline{0.03582/3.582 \times 10^{-2}} \text{ moles}$$

(f) Write the equation for the reaction between calcium carbonate and hydrochloric acid.



(g) Calculate the number of moles of calcium carbonate that reacted with hydrochloric acid.

From the equation $\text{CaCO}_3(\text{s}) : 2\text{HCl}(\text{aq}) = 1:2$

$$\begin{aligned} \Rightarrow \text{Moles CaCO}_3(\text{s}) &= \frac{1}{2} \text{ moles HCl} \\ &= \frac{1}{2} \times 0.03582/3.582 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} \\ &= \underline{0.01791 / 1.791 \times 10^{-2}} \text{ moles} \end{aligned}$$

(h) Calculate the mass of calcium carbonate in 4.0g of mixture M (Ca=40.0, O = 16.0, C=12.0)

Molar mass $\text{CaCO}_3 = 100\text{g}$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Mass CaCO}_3 &= \text{moles} \times \text{molar mass} \Rightarrow 0.01791 / 1.791 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} \times 100\text{g} \\ &= \underline{1.791\text{g}} \end{aligned}$$

(i) Determine the % of calcium carbonate present in the mixture

$$\% \text{ CaCO}_3 = \frac{\text{mass of pure} \times 100\%}{\text{Mass of impure}} \Rightarrow \frac{1.791\text{g} \times 100\%}{4.0} = \underline{44.775\%}$$

(d) Sample titration practice 4 (Multiple titration)

You are provided with:

- (i) sodium L containing 5.0g per litre of a dibasic organic acid $H_2X.2H_2O$.
- (ii) solution M which is acidified potassium manganate(VII)
- (iii) solution N a mixture of sodium ethanedioate and ethanedioic acid
- (iv) 0.1M sodium hydroxide solution P
- (v) 1.0M sulphuric(VI)

You are required to:

- (i) standardize solution M using solution L
- (ii) use standardized solution M and solution P to determine the % of sodium ethanedioate in the mixture.

Procedure 1

Fill the burette with solution M. Pipette 25.0cm³ of solution L into a conical flask. Heat this solution to about 70°C (**but not to boil**). Titrate the hot solution L with solution M until a permanent pink colour just appears. Shake thoroughly during the titration. Repeat this procedure to complete table 1.

Sample Table 1

	1	2	3
Final burette reading (cm ³)	24.0	24.0	24.0
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of N used (cm ³)	24.0	24.0	24.0

Sample calculations

(a) Calculate the average volume of solution L used (1mk)

$$\frac{24.0 + 24.0 + 24.0}{3} = \underline{24.0} \text{ cm}^3$$

(b) Given that the concentration of the dibasic acid is 0.05molesdm⁻³. determine the value of x in the formula $H_2X.2H_2O$ (H=1.0, O=16.0)

$$\text{Molar mass } H_2X.2H_2O = \frac{\text{mass per litre}}{\text{Moles/litre}} \Rightarrow \frac{5.0\text{g/litre}}{0.05\text{molesdm}^{-3}} = \underline{100}\text{g}$$

$$H_2X.2H_2O = 100$$

$$X = 100 - ((2 \times 1) + 2 \times (2 \times 1) + (2 \times 16)) \Rightarrow 100 - 34 = \underline{66}$$

(c) Calculate the number of moles of the dibasic acid $H_2X.2H_2O$.

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{molarity} \times \text{pipette volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.5 \times 25}{1000} = \underline{0.0125/1.25 \times 10^{-2}} \text{ moles}$$

(d) Given the mole ratio manganate(VII)(MnO_4^-): acid H_2X is 2:5, calculate the number of moles of manganate(VII) (MnO_4^-) in the average titre.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Moles } \text{H}_2\text{X} &= \frac{2}{5} \text{ moles of } \text{MnO}_4^- \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{2}{5} \times 0.0125/1.25 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} \\ &= \underline{0.005/5.0 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles} \end{aligned}$$

(e) Calculate the concentration of the manganate(VII)(MnO_4^-) in moles per litre.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Moles per litre/molarity} &= \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{average burette volume}} \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{0.005/5.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles} \times 1000}{24.0} = \underline{0.2083} \text{ moles l}^{-1}/\text{M} \end{aligned}$$

Procedure 2

With solution M still in the burette, pipette 25.0 cm³ of solution N into a conical flask. Heat the conical flask containing solution N to about 70°C. Titrate while hot with solution M. Repeat the experiment to complete table 2.

Sample Table 2

	1	2	3
Final burette reading (cm ³)	12.5	12.5	12.5
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of N used (cm ³)	12.5	12.5	12.5

Sample calculations

(a) Calculate the average volume of solution L used (1mk)

$$\frac{12.5 + 12.5 + 12.5}{3} = 12.5 \text{ cm}^3$$

(b) Calculations:

(i) How many moles of manganate(VII) ions are contained in the average volume of solution M used?

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Moles} &= \frac{\text{molarity of solution M} \times \text{average burette volume}}{1000} \\ &\Rightarrow \frac{0.2083 \text{ moles l}^{-1} / \text{M} \times 12.5}{1000} = \underline{0.0026 / 2.5 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles} \end{aligned}$$

1000

(ii) The reaction between manganate(VII) ions and ethanedioate ions that reacted with is as in the equation:



Calculate the number of moles of ethanedioate ions that reacted with manganate (VII) ions in the average volume of solution M.

From the stoichiometric equation, mole ratio $\text{MnO}_4^- (\text{aq}) : \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} (\text{aq}) = 2:5$

$$\Rightarrow \text{moles } \text{C}_2\text{O}_4^{2-} = \frac{5}{2} \text{ moles } \text{MnO}_4^- \Rightarrow \frac{5}{2} \times 0.0026 / 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

$$= \underline{0.0065 / 6.5 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles}$$

(iii) Calculate the number of moles of ethanedioate ions contained in 250cm³ solution N.

$$\frac{25\text{cm}^3 \text{ pipette volume}}{250\text{cm}^3} \rightarrow \frac{0.0065 / 6.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}}{25}$$

$$\frac{0.0065 / 6.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles} \times 250}{25} = \underline{0.065 / 6.5 \times 10^{-2}} \text{ moles}$$

Procedure 3

Remove solution M from the burette and rinse it with distilled water. Fill the burette with sodium hydroxide solution P. Pipette 25cm³ of solution N into a conical flask and add 2-3 drops of phenolphthalein indicator. Titrate this solution N with solution P from the burette. Repeat the procedure to complete table 3.

Sample Table 2

	1	2	3
Final burette reading (cm ³)	24.9	24.9	24.9
Initial burette reading (cm ³)	0.0	0.0	0.0
Volume of N used (cm ³)	24.9	24.9	24.9

Sample calculations

(a) Calculate the average volume of solution L used (1mk)

$$\frac{24.9 + 24.9 + 24.9}{3} = 24.9 \text{ cm}^3$$

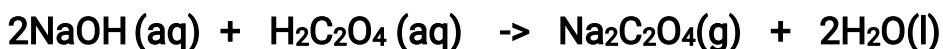
(b) Calculations:

(i) How many moles of sodium hydroxide solution P were contained in the average volume?

Moles = $\frac{\text{molarity of solution P} \times \text{average burette volume}}{1000}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{0.1 \text{ moles l}^{-1} \times 24.9}{1000} = 0.00249 / 2.49 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

(ii) Given that NaOH solution P reacted with the ethanedioate ions from the acid only and the equation for the reaction is:



Calculate the number of moles of ethanedioic acid that were used in the reaction

From the stoichiometric equation, mole ratio NaOH(aq): H₂C₂O₄ (aq) = 2:1

$$\Rightarrow \text{moles H}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4 = \frac{1}{2} \text{ moles NaOH} \Rightarrow \frac{1}{2} \times 0.00249 / 2.49 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

$$= 0.001245 / 1.245 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles.}$$

(iii) How many moles of ethanedioic acid were contained in 250 cm³ of solution N?

25 cm³ pipette volume $\rightarrow 0.001245 / 1.245 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$

$$\frac{250 \text{ cm}^3}{25} \rightarrow \frac{0.001245 / 1.245 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles} \times 250}{25} = 0.01245 / 1.245 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles}$$

(iii) Determine the % by mass of sodium ethanedioate in the mixture (H=1.0, O=16.0, C=12.0 and total mass of mixture = 2.0 g in 250 cm³ solution)

Molar mass H₂C₂O₄ = 90.0 g

Mass of H₂C₂O₄ in 250 cm³ = moles in 250 cm³ x molar mass H₂C₂O₄

$$\Rightarrow 0.01245 / 1.245 \times 10^{-2} \text{ moles} \times 90.0$$

$$= 1.1205 \text{ g}$$

% by mass of sodium ethanedioate

$$= \frac{(\text{Mass of mixture} - \text{mass of H}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4)}{\text{Mass of mixture}} \times 100\%$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{2.0 - 1.1205 \text{ g}}{2.0} = 43.975\%$$

2.0

Note

- (i) L is 0.05M Oxalic acid
- (ii) M is 0.01M KMnO₄
- (iii) N is 0.03M oxalic acid(without sodium oxalate)

Practice example 5.(Determining equation for a reaction)

You are provided with

- 0.1M hydrochloric acid solution A
- 0.5M sodium hydroxide solution B

You are to determine the equation for the reaction between solution A and B

Procedure

Fill the burette with solution A. Using a pipette and pipette filler transfer 25.0cm³ of solution B into a conical flask. Add 2-3 drops of phenolphthalein indicator. Run solution A into solution B until a permanent pink colour just appears. Record your results in Table 1. Repeat the experiment to obtain three concordant results to complete Table 1

Table 1(Sample results)

Titration	1	2	3
Final volume(cm ³)	12.5	25.0	37.5
Initial volume(cm ³)	0.0	12.5	25.0
Volume of solution A used(cm ³)	12.5	12.5	12.5

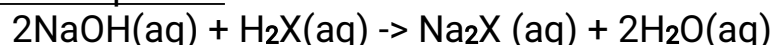
Sample questions

Calculate the average volume of solution A used.

$$\frac{12.5+12.5+12.5}{3} = 12.5\text{cm}^3$$

Theoretical Practice examples

1. 1.0g of dibasic acid HOOC(CH₂)_xCOOH was dissolved in 250cm³ solution. 25.0 cm³ of this solution reacted with 30.0cm³ of 0.06M sodium hydroxide solution. Calculate the value of x in HOOC(CH₂)_xCOOH. (C=12.0,H=1.0,O=16.)

Chemical equation

Mole ratio NaOH(aq) :H₂X(aq) = 2:1

Method 1

$$\frac{M_a V_a = n_a}{M_b V_b = n_b} \Rightarrow \frac{M_a \times 25.0}{0.06 \times 30.0} = \frac{1}{2} \Rightarrow M_a = \frac{0.06 \times 30.0 \times 1}{25.0 \times 2}$$

Molarity of acid = **0.036M/Mole l⁻¹**

$$\text{Mass of acid per litre} = \frac{1.0 \times 1000}{250} = \underline{\underline{4.0 \text{ g/l}}}$$

$$0.036\text{M/ Mole l}^{-1} \rightarrow 4.0 \text{ g /l}$$

$$1 \text{ mole} = \text{molar mass of HOOC(CH}_2)_x\text{COOH} = \frac{4.0 \times 1}{0.036} = \underline{\underline{111.1111}} \text{ g}$$

$$\text{Molar mass (CH}_2)_x = 111.1111 - (\text{HOOC-COOH} = 90.0) = \underline{\underline{21.1111}}$$

$$(\text{CH}_2)_x = 14x = \frac{21.1111}{14} = \underline{\underline{1.5}} = \underline{\underline{1}} \text{ (whole number)}$$

Method 2

$$\text{Moles of sodium hydroxide} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} = \frac{0.06 \times 30}{1000} = \underline{\underline{1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}}}$$

$$\text{Moles of Hydrochloric acid} = \frac{1}{2} \times 1.8 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles} = 9.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Molarity of Hydrochloric acid} = \frac{\text{moles} \times 1000}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{9.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles} \times 1000}{25}$$

Molarity of acid = **0.036M/Mole l⁻¹**

$$\text{Mass of acid per litre} = \frac{1.0 \times 1000}{250} = \underline{\underline{4.0 \text{ g/l}}}$$

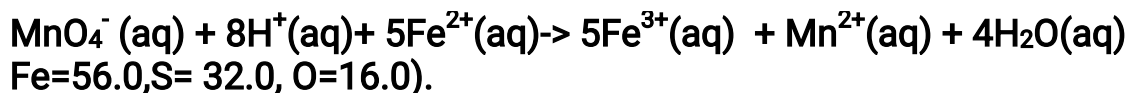
$$0.036\text{M/ Mole l}^{-1} \rightarrow 4.0 \text{ g /l}$$

$$1 \text{ mole} = \text{molar mass of HOOC(CH}_2)_x\text{COOH} = \frac{4.0 \times 1}{0.036} = \underline{\underline{111.1111}} \text{ g}$$

$$\text{Molar mass (CH}_2)_x = 111.1111 - (\text{HOOC-COOH} = 90.0) = \underline{\underline{21.1111}}$$

$$(\text{CH}_2)_x = 14x = \frac{21.1111}{14} = \underline{\underline{1.5}} = \underline{\underline{1}} \text{ (whole number)}$$

2. 20.0cm³ of 0.05 M acidified potassium manganate(VII)solution oxidized 25.0cm³ of Fe²⁺(aq) ions in 40.0g/l of impure Iron (II)sulphate(VI) to Fe³⁺(aq) ions. Calculate the percentage impurities in the Iron (II)sulphate(VI).



$$\text{Moles of MnO}_4^- (\text{aq}) = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} = \frac{0.05 \times 20.0}{1000} = \underline{0.001 \text{ Moles}}$$

Mole ratio $\text{MnO}_4^- (\text{aq}) : 5\text{Fe}^{2+} (\text{aq}) = 1:5$
 Moles $5\text{Fe}^{2+} (\text{aq}) = 5 \times 0.001 = \underline{0.005 \text{ Moles}}$

$$\text{Moles of } 5\text{Fe}^{2+} (\text{aq}) \text{ per litre/molarity} = \frac{\text{Moles} \times 1000}{\text{Volume}} = \frac{0.005 \times 1000}{25.0} = \underline{0.2 \text{ M/ Moles/litre}}$$

Molar mass = $\text{FeSO}_4 = \underline{152 \text{ g}}$

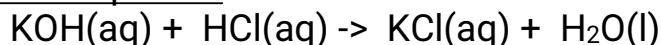
Mass of in the mixture = Moles x molar mass $\Rightarrow 0.2 \times 152 = \underline{30.4 \text{ g}}$

Mass of impurity = $40.0 - 30.4 = \underline{9.6 \text{ g}}$

% impurity = $\frac{9.6 \text{ g} \times 100}{40.0} = \underline{24.0 \% \text{ impurity}}$

3.9.7 g of a mixture of Potassium hydroxide and Potassium chloride was dissolved to make one litre solution. 20.0 cm³ of this solution required 25.0 cm³ of 0.12M hydrochloric acid for completed neutralization. Calculate the percentage by mass of Potassium chloride. (K=39.0, Cl= 35.5)

Chemical equation



$$\text{Moles of HCl} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.12 \times 25.0}{1000} = \underline{0.003 / 3.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}}$$

Mole ratio $\text{KOH} (\text{aq}) : \text{HCl} (\text{aq}) = 1:1$

Moles KOH = $\underline{0.003 / 3.0 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}}$

Method 1

Molar mass KOH = $\underline{56.0 \text{ g}}$

Mass KOH in 25 cm³ = $\frac{0.003}{3.0 \times 10^{-3}} \text{ moles} \times 56.0 = \underline{0.168 \text{ g}}$

Mass KOH in 1000 cm³ / 1 litre = $\frac{0.168 \times 1000}{20} = \underline{8.4 \text{ g/l}}$

Mass of KCl = $9.7 \text{ g} - 8.4 \text{ g} = \underline{1.3 \text{ g}}$

% of KCl = $\frac{1.3 \times 100}{9.7} = \underline{13.4021 \%}$

Method 2

$$\text{Moles KOH in } 1000\text{cm}^3 / 1 \text{ litre} = \frac{\text{Moles in } 20\text{cm}^3 \times 1000}{20} = \frac{0.003 \times 1000}{20} = \underline{0.15\text{M/Moles /litre}}$$

$$\text{Molar mass KOH} = \underline{56.0\text{g}}$$

$$\text{Mass KOH in } 1000/1 \text{ litre} = 0.15\text{M/Moles /litre} \times 56.0 = \underline{8.4\text{g/l}}$$

$$\text{Mass of KCl} = 9.7\text{g} - 8.4\text{g} = \underline{1.3 \text{ g}}$$

$$\% \text{ of KCl} = \frac{1.3 \times 100}{9.7} = \underline{13.4021\%}$$

4.A certain carbonate, GCO_3 , reacts with dilute hydrochloric acid according to the equation given below:



If 1 g of the carbonate reacts completely with 20 cm³ of 1 M hydrochloric acid, calculate the relative atomic mass of G (C = 12.0 = 16.0)

$$\text{Moles of HCl} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} = \frac{1 \times 20}{1000} = \underline{0.02 \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Mole ratio HCl; GCO}_3 = 2:1$$

$$\text{Moles of GCO}_3 = \frac{0.02 \text{ moles}}{2} = \underline{0.01 \text{ moles}}$$

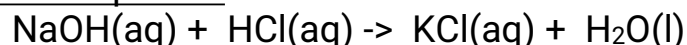
$$\text{Molar mass of GCO}_3 = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{moles}} = \frac{1}{0.01 \text{ moles}} = 100 \text{ g}$$

$$\text{G} = \text{GCO}_3 - \text{CO}_3 = 100\text{g} - (12 + 16 \times 3 = 60) = \underline{40(\text{no units})}$$

5. 46.0g of a metal carbonate MCO_3 was dissolved 160cm³ of 0.1M excess hydrochloric acid and the resultant solution diluted to one litre. 25.0cm³ of this solution required 20.0cm³ of 0.1M sodium hydroxide solution for complete neutralization. Calculate the atomic mass of 'M'

Equation

Chemical equation



$$\text{Moles of NaOH} = \frac{\text{Molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} = \frac{0.1 \times 20}{1000} = \underline{0.002 \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Mole ratio HCl; NaOH} = 1:1$$

$$\text{Excess moles of HCl} = \underline{0.002 \text{ moles}}$$

$$\begin{aligned} 25\text{cm}^3 &\rightarrow 0.002 \text{ moles} \\ 1000\text{cm}^3 &\rightarrow \frac{1000 \times 0.002}{25\text{cm}^3} = 0.08\text{moles} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Original moles of HCl} = \text{Molarity} \times \text{volume} \Rightarrow 1\text{M} \times 1\text{litre} = \underline{1.0 \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Moles of HCl reacted with } \text{MCO}_3 = 1.0 - 0.08 \text{ moles} = \underline{0.92\text{moles}}$$

Chemical equation



$$\text{Mole ratio } \text{MCO}_{3(s)} : \text{HCl}_{(aq)} = 1:2$$

$$\text{Moles of } \text{MCO}_3 = \frac{0.92\text{moles}}{2} \Rightarrow \underline{0.46\text{moles}}$$

$$\text{Molar mass of } \text{MCO}_3 = \frac{\text{mass}}{\text{moles}} \Rightarrow \frac{46\text{g}}{0.46\text{moles}} = \underline{100 \text{ g}}$$

$$M = \text{MCO}_3 - \text{CO}_3 \Rightarrow 100\text{g} - (12 + 16 \times 3 = 60) = \underline{40}$$

6. 25.0cm³ of a mixture of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ ions in an aqueous salt was acidified with sulphuric(VI) acid then titrated against potassium manganate(VI). The salt required 15cm³ of 0.02M potassium manganate(VI) for complete reaction.

A second 25cm³ portion of the Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ ion salt was reduced by Zinc then titrated against the same concentration of potassium manganate(VI). 19.0cm³ of potassium manganate(VI) solution was used for complete reaction. Calculate the concentration of Fe²⁺ and Fe³⁺ ion in the solution in moles per litre.

$$\text{Mole ratio } \text{Fe}^{2+} : \text{MnO}_4^- = 5:1$$

$$\text{Moles } \text{MnO}_4^- \text{ used} = \frac{0.02 \times 15}{1000} = 3.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Moles } \text{Fe}^{2+} = \frac{3.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles} \times 5}{1} = 6.0 \times 10^{-5} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Molarity of } \text{Fe}^{2+} = \frac{6.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles} \times 1000}{25} = \underline{2.4 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles l}^{-1}}$$

Since Zinc reduces Fe³⁺ to Fe²⁺ in the mixture:

$$\text{Moles } \text{MnO}_4^- \text{ that reacted with all } \text{Fe}^{2+} = \frac{0.02 \times 19}{1000} = 3.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Moles of all } \text{Fe}^{2+} = \frac{3.8 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles} \times 5}{1} = 7.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Moles of } \text{Fe}^{3+} = 3.8 \times 10^{-4} - 6.0 \times 10^{-5} = 1.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Molarity of } \text{Fe}^{3+} = \frac{1.6 \times 10^{-5} \text{ moles} \times 1000}{25} = \underline{4.0 \times 10^{-4} \text{ moles l}^{-1}}$$

Introduction to Organic chemistry

Organic chemistry is the branch of chemistry that studies carbon compounds present in living things, once living things or synthetic/man-made.

Compounds that makes up living things whether alive or dead mainly contain carbon. Carbon is tetravalent.

It is able to form stable covalent bonds with itself and many non-metals like hydrogen, nitrogen ,oxygen and halogens to form a variety of compounds. This is because:

(i) carbon uses all the four valence electrons to form four strong covalent bond.
(ii)carbon can covalently bond to form a single, double or triple covalent bond with itself.

(iii)carbon atoms can covalently bond to form a very long chain or ring.

When carbon covalently bond with Hydrogen, it forms a group of organic compounds called **Hydrocarbons**

A.HYDROCARBONS (HCs)

Hydrocarbons are a group of organic compounds containing /made up of hydrogen and carbon atoms only.

Depending on the type of bond that exist between the individual carbon atoms, hydrocarbon are classified as:

- (i) Alk**a**nes
- (ii) Alk**e**nes
- (iii) Alk**y**nes

(i) Alk**a**nes

(a)Nomenclature/Naming

These are hydrocarbons with a general formula C_nH_{2n+2} where **n** is the number of **Carbon** atoms in a molecule.

The carbon atoms are linked by single bond to each other and to hydrogen atoms.

They include:

n	General/	Structural formula	Name
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	Molecular formula		
1	CH ₄	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array} $	Methane
2	C ₂ H ₆	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	Ethane
3	C ₃ H ₈	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	Propane
4	C ₄ H ₁₀	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	Butane
5	C ₅ H ₁₂	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $ $\text{CH}_3 (\text{CH}_2)_3 \text{CH}_3$	Pentane
6	C ₆ H ₁₄	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $ $\text{CH}_3 (\text{CH}_2)_4 \text{CH}_3$	Hexane
7	C ₇ H ₁₆	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	Heptane

		$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$	
8	C_8H_{18}	$\begin{array}{cccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & & \\ & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$	Octane
9	C_9H_{20}	$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$	Nonane
10	$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{22}$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & \\ & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$	decane

Note

1. The **general formula/molecular formula** of a compound shows the number of each atoms of elements making the compound e.g.

Decane has a general/molecular formula $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{22}$; this means there are 10 carbon atoms and 22 hydrogen atoms in a molecule of decane.

2. The **structural formula** shows the arrangement/bonding of atoms of each element making the compound e.g.

Decane has the structural formula as in the table above; this means the 1st carbon from left to right is bonded to three hydrogen atoms and one carbon atom.

The 2nd carbon atom is joined/bonded to two other carbon atoms and two Hydrogen atoms.

3. Since carbon is **tetravalent**, each atom of carbon in the alkane **MUST** always be bonded using **four** covalent bond /four shared pairs of electrons.

4. Since Hydrogen is **monovalent**, each atom of hydrogen in the alkane **MUST** always be bonded using **one** covalent bond/one shared pair of electrons.

5. One member of the alkane differ from the next/previous by a CH_2 group.

e.g

Propane differ from ethane by one carbon and two Hydrogen atoms form ethane.

Ethane differ from methane also by one carbon and two Hydrogen atoms

6.A group of compounds that differ by a CH_2 group from the next /previous **consecutively** is called a **homologous series**.

7.A homologous series:

- (i) differ by a CH_2 group from the next /previous consecutively
- (ii) have similar chemical properties
- (iii) have similar chemical formula that can be represented by a general formula
e.g alkanes have the general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$.
- (iv) the physical properties (e.g.melting/boiling points) show steady gradual change)

8.The 1st four alkanes have the prefix **meth_**,**eth_**,**prop_** and **but_** to represent 1,2,3 and 4 carbons in the compound. All other use the numeral prefix **pent_**,**Hex_**,**hept_** , etc to show also the number of carbon atoms.

9.If one hydrogen atom in an alkane is removed, an alkyl group is formed.e.g

Alkane name	molecular structure $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$	Alkyl name	Molecular structure $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+1}$
methane	CH_4	methyl	CH_3
ethane	CH_3CH_3	ethyl	CH_3CH_2
propane	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$	propyl	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2$
butane	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$	butyl	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2$

(b)Isomers of alkanes

Isomers are compounds with the same molecular **general formula** but different molecular **structural formula**.

Isomerism is the existence of a compounds having the same general/molecular formula but different structural formula.

The 1st three alkanes do not form isomers.Isomers are named by using the IUPAC(International Union of **Pure and Applied Chemistry**) system of **nomenclature/naming**.

The IUPAC system of nomenclature uses the following basic rules/guidelines:

- 1.Identify the longest continuous carbon chain to get/determine the parent alkane.
- 2.Number the longest chain from the end of the chain that is near the branches so as the branch get the lowest number possible
3. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of carbon chains attached to the parent alkane. Name them fluoro-,chloro-,bromo-,iodo- if they are halogens
- 4.Use prefix di-,tri-,tetra-,penta-,hexa- to show the number of branches attached to the parent alkane.

Practice on IUPAC nomenclature of alkanes**(a) Draw the structure of:****(i) 2-methylpentane**

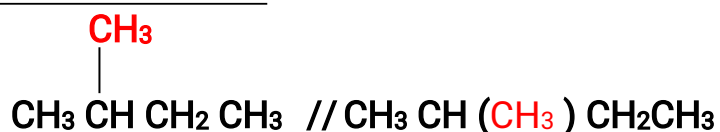
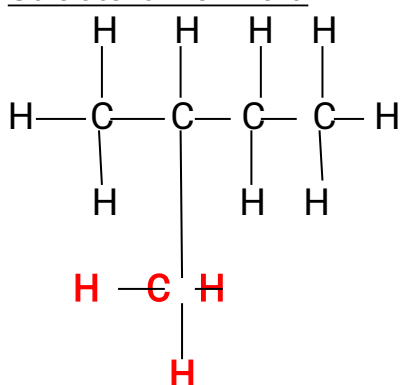
Procedure

1. Identify the longest continuous carbon chain to get/determine the parent alkane.
Butane is the parent name $\text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3$
2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain that is near the branches so as the branch get the lowest number possible
The methyl group is attached to Carbon "2"
3. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of carbon chains attached to the parent alkane i.e

Position of the branch at carbon "2"

Number of branches at carbon "1"

Type of the branch "methyl" hence

Molecular formulaStructural formula**(ii) 2,2-dimethylpentane**

Procedure

1. Identify the longest continuous carbon chain to get/determine the parent alkane.
Butane is the parent name $\text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3$
2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain that is near the branches so as

the branch get the lowest number possible
The methyl group is attached to Carbon "2"

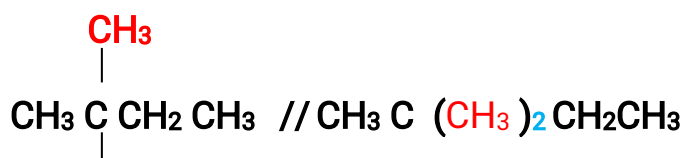
3. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of carbon chains attached to the parent alkane i.e

Position of the branch at carbon "2"

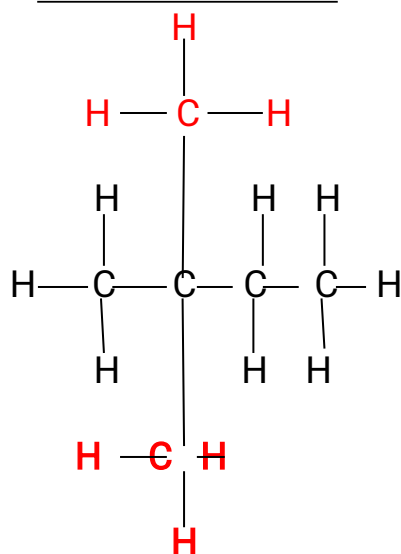
Number of branches at carbon "2"

Type of the branch two "methyl" hence

Molecular formular



Structural formula



(iii) 2,2,3-trimethylbutane

Procedure

1. Identify the longest continuous carbon chain to get/determine the parent alkane.

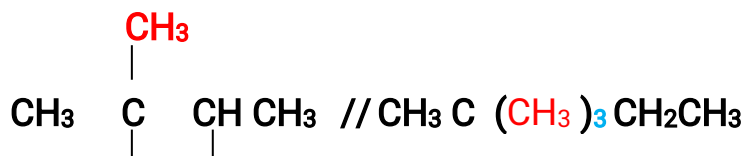
Butane is the parent name $\text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3$

2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain that is near the branches so as the branch get the lowest number possible

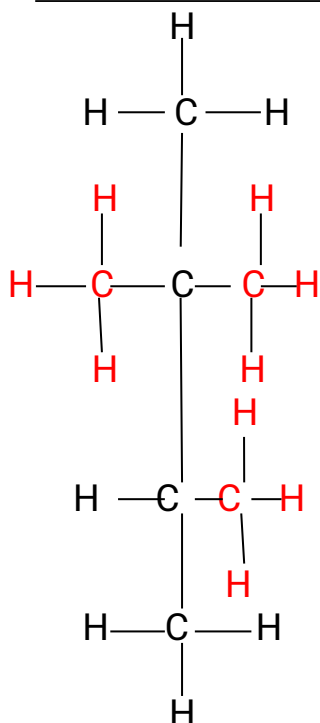
The methyl group is attached to Carbon "2 and 3"

3. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl,

propyl e.tc. according to the number of carbon chains attached to the parent alkane i.e
 Position of the branch at carbon "2 and 3"
 Number of branches at carbon "3"
 Type of the branch three "methyl" hence
Molecular formular



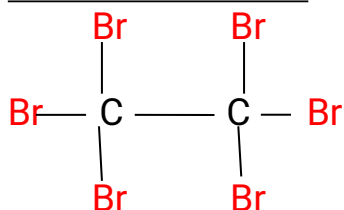
Structural formula



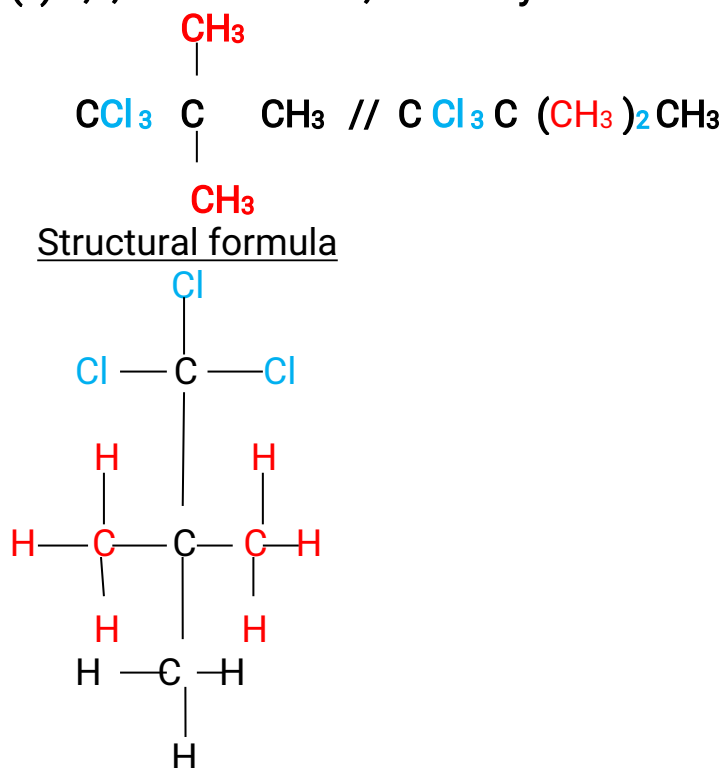
(iv) 1,1,1,2,2,2-hexabromoethane
Molecular formula



Structural formula



(v) 1,1,1-tetrachloro-2,2-dimethylbutane

(c) Occurrence and extraction

Crude oil, natural gas and biogas are the main sources of alkanes:

(i) Natural gas is found on top of crude oil deposits and consists mainly of methane.

(ii) Biogas is formed from the decay of waste organic products like animal dung and cellulose. When the decay takes place in absence of oxygen, 60-75% by volume of the gaseous mixture of methane gas is produced.

(iii) Crude oil is a mixture of many flammable hydrocarbons/substances. Using fractional distillation, each hydrocarbon fraction can be separated from the other. The hydrocarbon with lower /smaller number of carbon atoms in the chain have lower boiling point and thus collected first.

As the carbon **chain increase**, the **boiling point**, **viscosity** (ease of flow) and colour **intensity increase** as **flammability decrease**. Hydrocarbons in crude oil are not pure. They thus have no sharp fixed boiling point.

Uses of different crude oil fractions

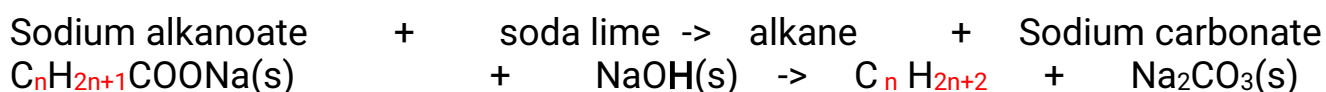
Carbon atoms in a	Common name of	Uses of fraction
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molecule	fraction	
1-4	Gas	L.P.G gas for domestic use
5-12	Petrol	Fuel for petrol engines
9-16	Kerosene/Paraffin	Jet fuel and domestic lighting/cooking
15-18	Light diesel	Heavy diesel engine fuel
18-25	Diesel oil	Light diesel engine fuel
20-70	Lubricating oil	Lubricating oil to reduce friction.
Over 70	Bitumen/Asphalt	Tarmacking roads

(d) School laboratory preparation of alkanes

In a school laboratory, alkanes may be prepared from the reaction of a sodium alkanoate with solid sodium hydroxide/soda lime.

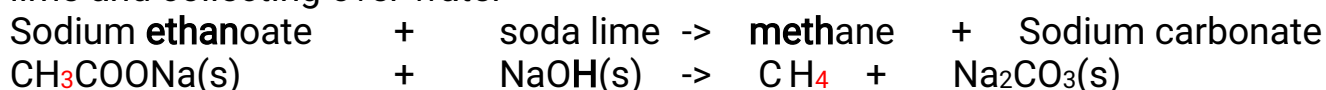
Chemical equation:



The "H" in NaOH is transferred/moves to the $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+1}$ in $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+1}\text{COONa(s)}$ to form $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+2}$.

Examples

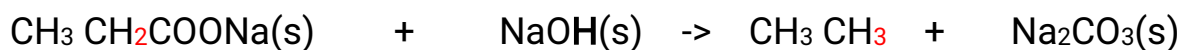
1. **Methane** is prepared from the heating of a mixture of sodium **ethanoate** and soda lime and collecting over water



The "H" in NaOH is transferred/moves to the CH_3 in $\text{CH}_3\text{COONa(s)}$ to form CH_4 .

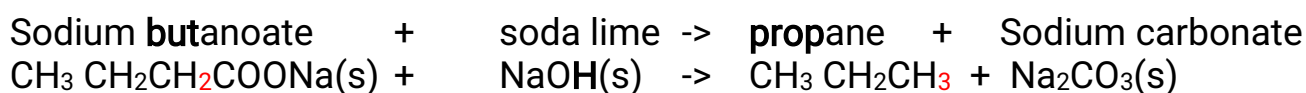
2. **Ethane** is prepared from the heating of a mixture of sodium **propanoate** and soda lime and collecting over water





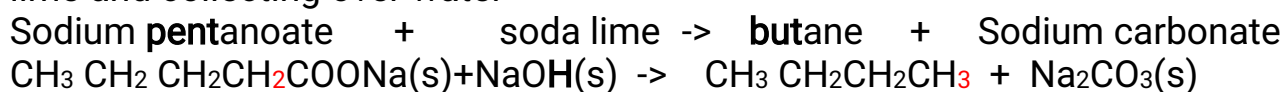
The "H" in NaOH is transferred/moves to the CH₃CH₂ in CH₃CH₂COONa (s) to form CH₃CH₃

3. **Propane** is prepared from the heating of a mixture of sodium **butanoate** and soda lime and collecting over water



The "H" in NaOH is transferred/moves to the CH₃CH₂CH₂ in CH₃CH₂CH₂COONa (s) to form CH₃CH₂CH₃

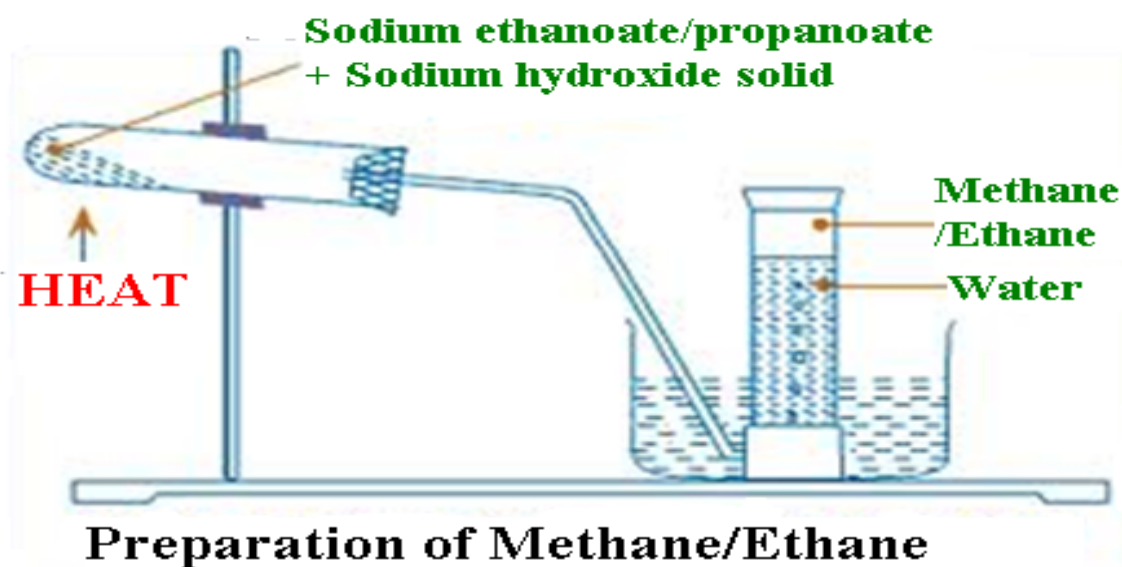
4. **Butane** is prepared from the heating of a mixture of sodium **pentanoate** and soda lime and collecting over water



The "H" in NaOH is transferred/moves to the CH₃CH₂CH₂CH₂ in CH₃CH₂CH₂CH₂COONa (s) to form CH₃CH₂CH₂CH₃

Laboratory set up for the preparation of alkanes

Laboratory set up for the preparation of alkanes



(d) Properties of alkanes

I. Physical properties

Alkanes are colourless gases, solids and liquids that are not poisonous.

They are slightly soluble in water.

The solubility decrease as the carbon chain and thus the molar mass increase

The melting and boiling point increase as the carbon chain increase.

This is because of the increase in van-der-waals /intermolecular forces as the carbon chain increase.

The 1st four straight chain alkanes (methane,ethane,propane and butane)are therefore gases ,the next six(pentane ,hexane, heptane,octane,nonane, and decane) are liquids while the rest from undecane(11 carbon atoms) are solids .

The density of straight chain alkanes increase with increasing carbon chain as the intermolecular forces increases.

This reduces the volume occupied by a given mass of the compound.

Summary of physical properties of alkanes

Alkane	General formula	Melting point(K)	Boiling point(K)	Density gcm ⁻³	State at room(298K) temperature and pressure atmosphere (101300Pa)
Methane	CH ₄	90	112	0.424	gas
Ethane	CH ₃ CH ₃	91	184	0.546	gas
Propane	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₃	105	231	0.501	gas
Butane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₂ CH ₃	138	275	0.579	gas
Pentane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₃	143	309	0.626	liquid
Hexane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₄ CH ₃	178	342	0.657	liquid
Heptane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₅ CH ₃	182	372	0.684	liquid
Octane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₆ CH ₃	216	399	0.703	liquid
Nonane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₇ CH ₃	219	424	0.708	liquid
Octane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₈ CH ₃	243	447	0.730	liquid

II. Chemical properties

(i) Burning.

Alkanes burn with a **blue**/non-luminous **non-sooty**/non-smoky flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Alkane + Air → carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)

Alkanes burn with a **blue**/non-luminous **no-sooty**/non-smoky flame in **limited** air to

form carbon(II) oxide and water.

Alkane + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(II) oxide + water (limited air)

Examples

1.(a) Methane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Methane + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $\text{CH}_4(\text{g}) + 2\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

(b) Methane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.

Methane + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(II) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $2\text{CH}_4(\text{g}) + 3\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{CO}(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

2.(a) Ethane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Ethane + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6(\text{g}) + 7\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 4\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 6\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

(b) Ethane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.

Ethane + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(II) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $2\text{C}_2\text{H}_6(\text{g}) + 5\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 4\text{CO}(\text{g}) + 6\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

3.(a) Propane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Propane + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $\text{C}_3\text{H}_8(\text{g}) + 5\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 3\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

(b) Ethane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.

Ethane + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(II) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $2\text{C}_3\text{H}_8(\text{g}) + 7\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 6\text{CO}(\text{g}) + 8\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

ii)Substitution

Substitution reaction is one in which a hydrogen atom is replaced by a halogen in presence of ultraviolet light.

Alkanes react with halogens in presence of ultraviolet light to form halogenoalkanes.

During substitution:

(i)the halogen molecule is split into free atom/radicals.

(ii)one free halogen radical/atoms knock /remove one hydrogen from the alkane

leaving an alkyl radical.

(iii) the alkyl radical combine with the other free halogen atom/radical to form halogenoalkane.

(iv) the chlorine atoms substitute repeatedly in the alkane. Each substitution removes a hydrogen atom from the alkane and form hydrogen halide.

(v) substitution stops when all the hydrogen in alkanes are replaced with halogens.

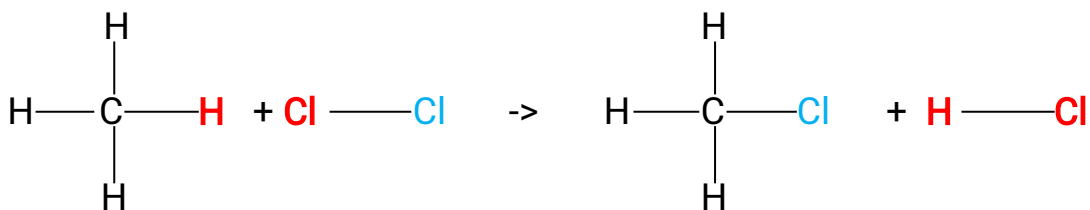
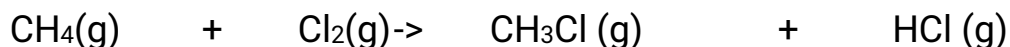
Substitution reaction is a highly **explosive** reaction in presence of **sunlight / ultraviolet** light that act as **catalyst**.

Examples of substitution reactions

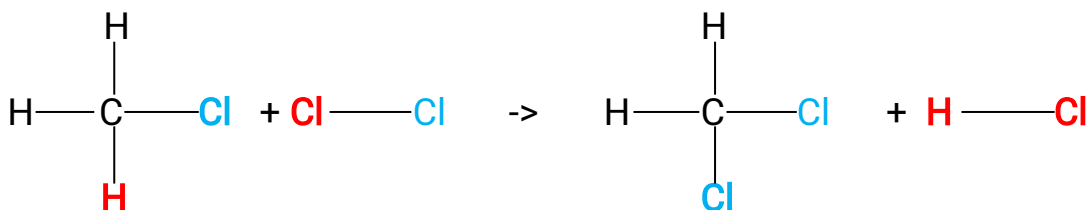
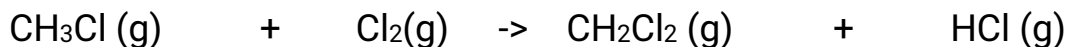
Methane has no effect on bromine or chlorine in diffused light/dark. In sunlight , a mixture of chlorine and methane explode to form colourless mixture of chloromethane and hydrogen chloride gas. The pale green colour of chlorine gas fades.

Chemical equation

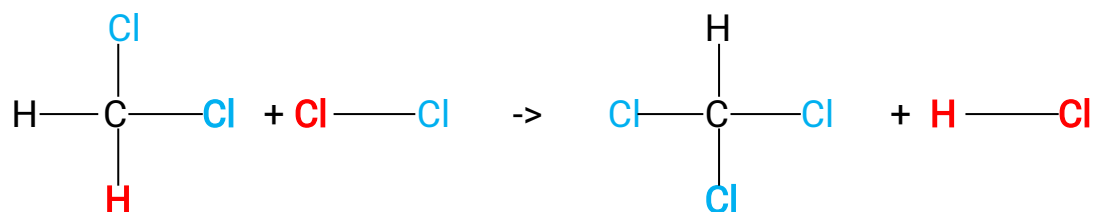
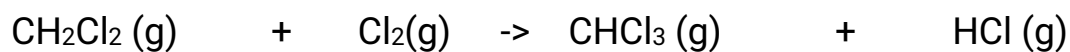
1.(a)Methane + chlorine -> Chloromethane + Hydrogen chloride



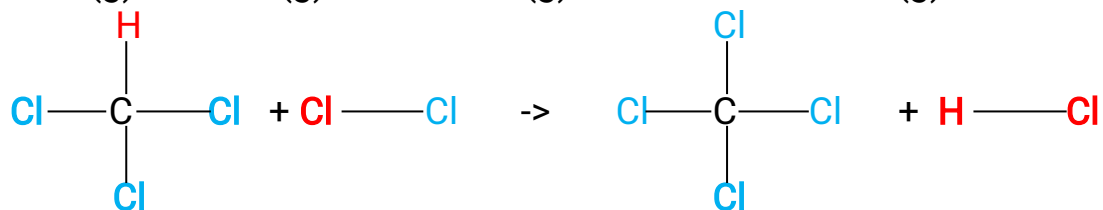
(b) Chloromethane + chlorine -> dichloromethane + Hydrogen chloride



(c) dichloromethane + chlorine -> trichloromethane + Hydrogen chloride



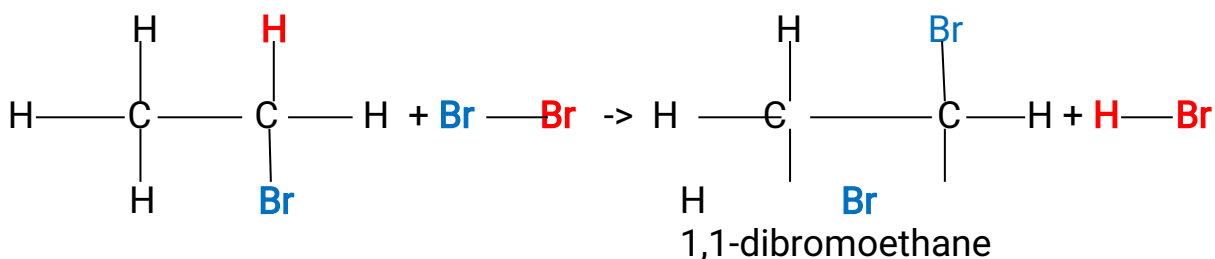
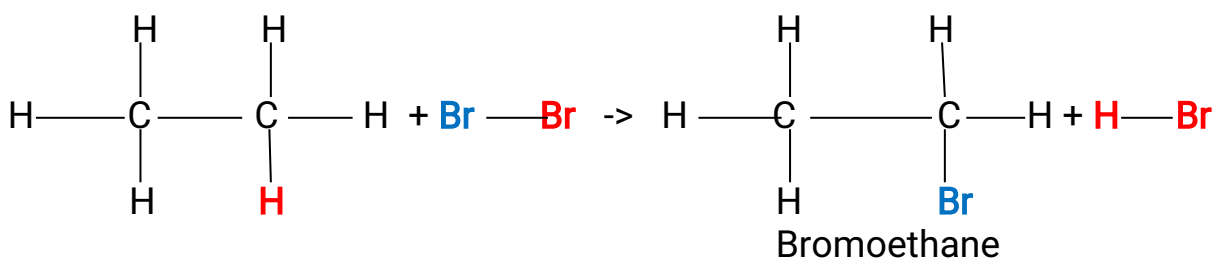
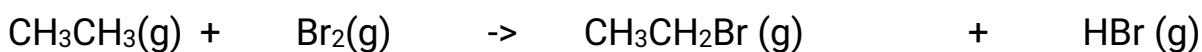
(c) trichloromethane + chlorine $\rightarrow$ tetrachloromethane + Hydrogen chloride

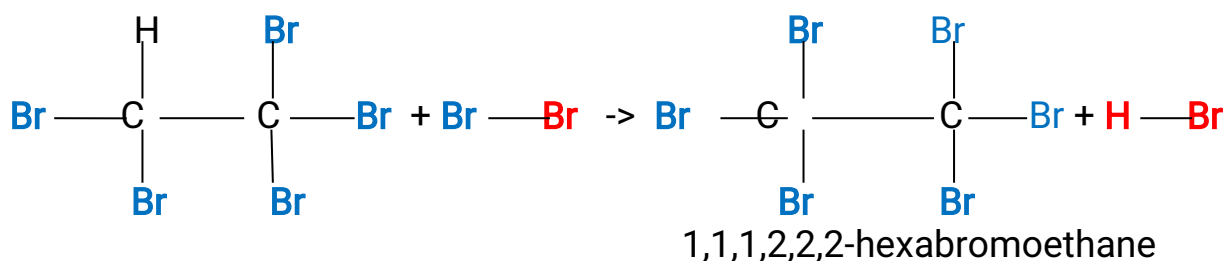
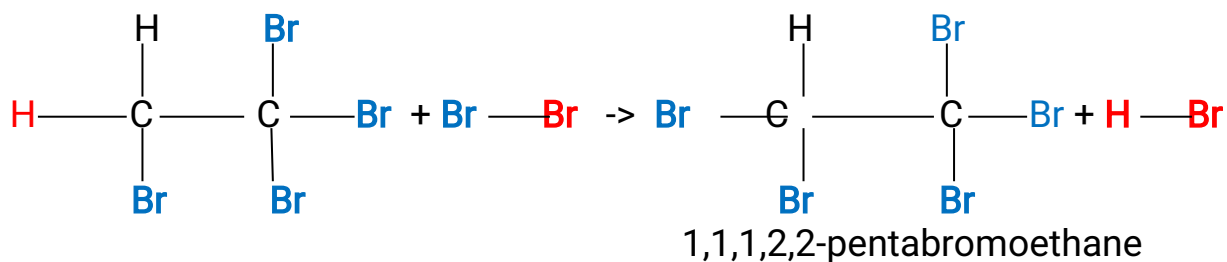
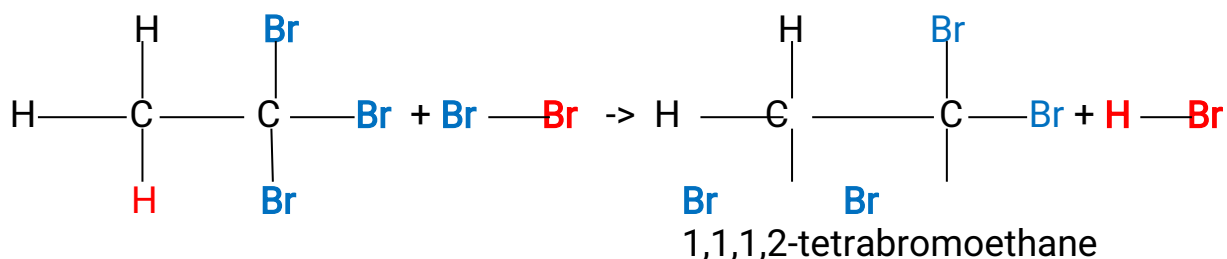
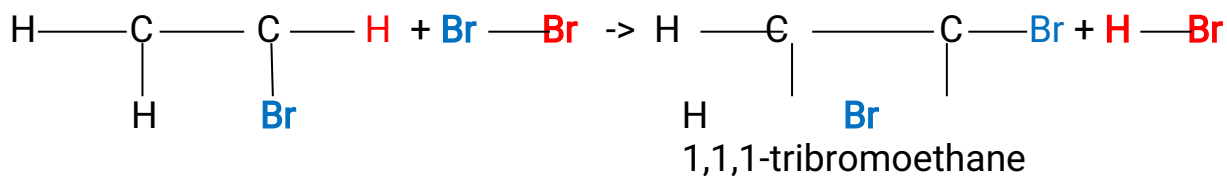


Ethane has no effect on bromine or chlorine in diffused light/dark. In sunlight, a mixture of bromine and ethane explodes to form a colourless mixture of bromoethane and hydrogen chloride gas. The red/brown colour of bromine gas fades.

Chemical equation

(a) Ethane + chlorine $\rightarrow$ Chloroethane + Hydrogen chloride





Uses of alkanes

1. Most alkanes are used as fuel e.g. Methane is used as biogas in homes. Butane is used as the Laboratory gas.
2. On cracking, alkanes are a major source of Hydrogen for the manufacture of ammonia/Haber process.
3. In manufacture of Carbon black which is a component in printers ink.
4. In manufacture of useful industrial chemicals like methanol, methanol, and chloromethane.

(ii) Alkenes

(a) Nomenclature/Naming

These are hydrocarbons with a general formula C_nH_{2n} and $=C - C$ double bond as the functional group. n is the number of Carbon atoms in the molecule.

The carbon atoms are linked by at least one **double** bond to each other and single bonds to hydrogen atoms.

They include:

n	General/ Molecular formula	Structural formula	Name
1		Does not exist	
2	C_2H_4	$ \begin{array}{c} H & & H \\ & & \\ H - C & = & C - H \end{array} $ $CH_2 CH_2$	Ethene
3	C_3H_6	$ \begin{array}{c} H & & H & & H \\ & & & & \\ H - C & = & C - & C - H \\ & & & \\ & & & H \end{array} $ $CH_2 CH CH_3$	Propene
4	C_4H_8	$ \begin{array}{c} H & H & H & H \\ & & & \\ H - C & = & C - C - C - H \\ & & & \\ & & H & H \end{array} $ $CH_2 CH CH_2CH_3$	Butene
5	C_5H_{10}	$ \begin{array}{c} H & H & H & H & H \\ & & & & \\ H - C & = & C - C - C - C - H \\ & & & & \\ & & H & H & H \end{array} $ $CH_2 CH (CH_2)_2CH_3$	Pentene
6	C_6H_{12}	$ \begin{array}{c} H & H & H & H & H & H \\ & & & & & \\ H - C & = & C - C - C - C - C - H \\ & & & & & \\ & & H & H & H & H \end{array} $	Hexene

		$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & - & \text{C} = & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{CH} (\text{CH}_2)_3 \text{CH}_3$	
7	C_7H_{16}	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H} - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{CH} (\text{CH}_2)_4 \text{CH}_3$	Heptene
8	C_8H_{18}	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} - & \text{C} = & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{CH} (\text{CH}_2)_5 \text{CH}_3$	Octene
9	C_9H_{20}	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} - & \text{C} = & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{CH} (\text{CH}_2)_6 \text{CH}_3$	Nonene
10	$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{22}$	$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} - & \text{C} = & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \text{H} & & \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{CH} (\text{CH}_2)_7 \text{CH}_3$	decene

Note

1. Since carbon is **tetravalent**, each atom of carbon in the alkene **MUST** always be

bonded using **four** covalent bond /four shared pairs of electrons including at the double bond.

2.Since Hydrogen is **monovalent**, each atom of hydrogen in the alkene **MUST** always be bonded using **one** covalent bond/one shared pair of electrons.

3.One member of the alkene ,like alkanes,differ from the next/previous by a CH_2 group.They also form a homologous series.

e.g

Propene differ from ethene by one carbon and two Hydrogen atoms from ethene. 4.A homologous series of alkenes like that of alkanes:

(i) differ by a CH_2 group from the next /previous consecutively

(ii)have similar chemical properties

(iii)have similar chemical formula represented by the general formula C_nH_{2n}

(iv)the physical properties also show steady gradual change

5.The $\text{C}=\text{C}$ double bond in alkene is the functional group. A functional group is the **reacting site** of a molecule/compound.

6. The $\text{C}=\text{C}$ double bond in alkene can easily be broken to accommodate more two more monovalent atoms. The $\text{C}=\text{C}$ double bond in alkenes make it thus **unsaturated**.

7. An unsaturated hydrocarbon is one with a double $\text{C}=\text{C}$ or triple $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ carbon bonds in their molecular structure. Unsaturated hydrocarbon easily reacts to be **saturated**.

8.A saturated hydrocarbon is one without a double $\text{C}=\text{C}$ or triple $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ carbon bonds in their molecular structure.

Most of the reactions of alkenes take place at the $\text{C}=\text{C}$ bond.

(b)Isomers of alkenes

Isomers are alkenes lie alkanes have the same molecular **general formula** but different molecular **structural formula**.

Ethene and propene do not form isomers. Isomers of alkenes are also named by using the IUPAC(International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry) system of **nomenclature/naming**.

The IUPAC system of nomenclature of naming alkenes uses the following basic rules/guidelines:

1.Identify the longest continuous/straight carbon chain which contains the $\text{C}=\text{C}$ **double** bond get/determine the **parent** alkene.

2.Number the longest chain from the end of the chain which contains the $\text{C}=\text{C}$ **double** bond so the $\text{C}=\text{C}$ **double** bond lowest number possible.

3 Indicate the positions by splitting "**alk-positions-ene**" e.g. but-2-ene, pent-1,3-diene.

4.The position **indicated** must be for the carbon atom at the **lower** position in the $\text{C}=\text{C}$ **double bond**.i.e

But-2-ene means the double $\text{=C}=\text{C=}$ is between Carbon "2" and "3"

Pent-1,3-diene means there are two double bond one between carbon "1" and "2" and another between carbon "3" and "4"

5. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of alkyl carbon chains attached to the alkene. Name them fluoro-,chloro-,bromo-,iodo- if they are halogens

6. Use prefix di-,tri-,tetra-,penta-,hexa- to show the number of **double** $\text{C}=\text{C}$ bonds and **branches** attached to the alkene.

7. Position isomers can be formed when the $\text{=C}=\text{C=}$ double bond is shifted between carbon atoms e.g.

But-2-ene means the double $\text{=C}=\text{C=}$ is between Carbon "2" and "3"

But-1-ene means the double $\text{=C}=\text{C=}$ is between Carbon "1" and "2"

Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene are position isomers of Butene

8. Position isomers are molecules/compounds having the same general formula but different position of the functional group.i.e.

Butene has the molecular/general formula C_4H_8 position but can form both But-1-ene and But-2-ene as position isomers.

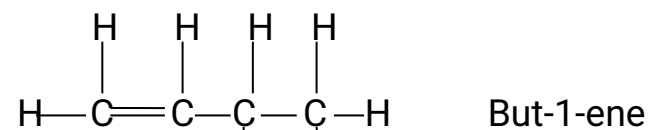
9. Like alkanes, an alkyl group can be attached to the alkene. Chain/branch isomers are thus formed.

10. Chain/branch isomers are molecules/compounds having the same general formula but different structural formula e.g

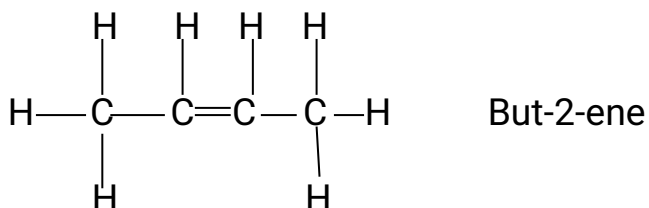
Butene and 2-methyl propene both have the same general formula but different branching chain.

Practice on IUPAC nomenclature of alkenes

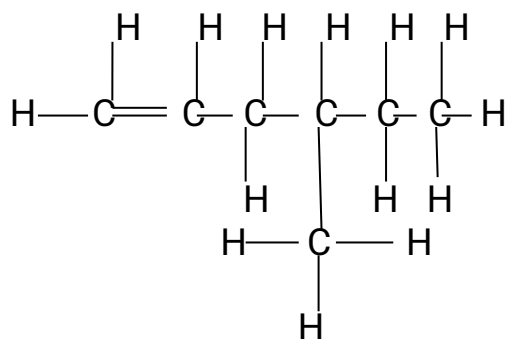
Name the following isomers of alkene



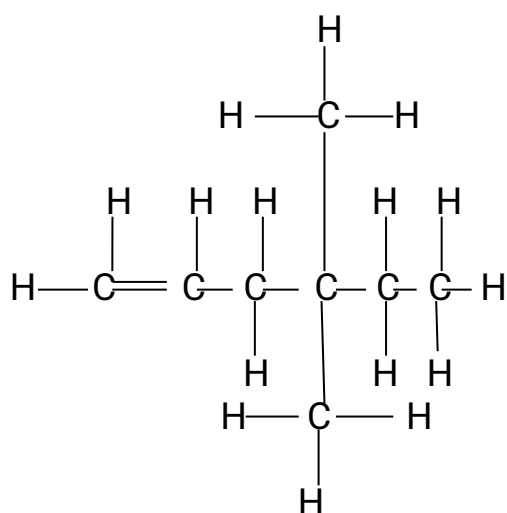
But-1-ene



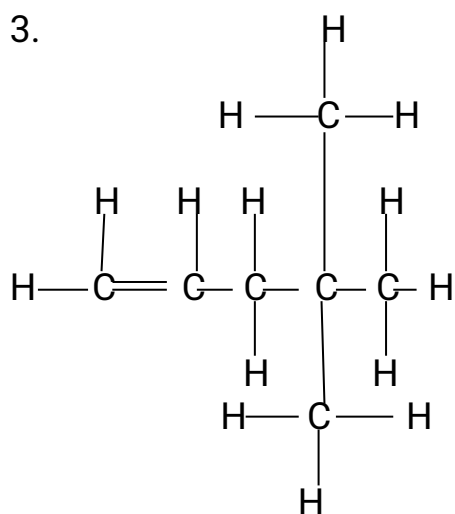
But-2-ene



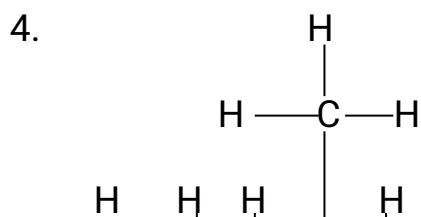
4-methylhex-1-ene

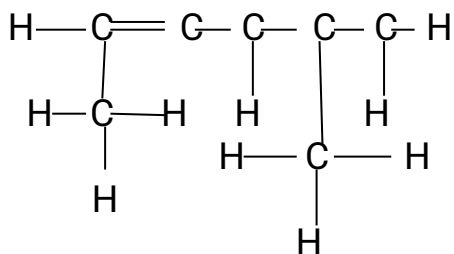


4,4-dimethylhex-1-ene

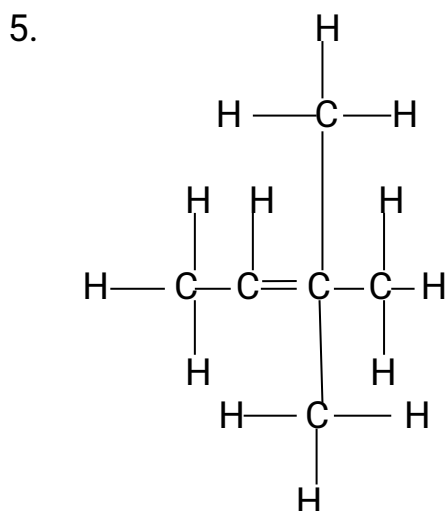


4,4-dimethylpent -1- ene





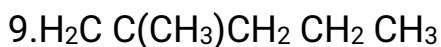
5,5-dimethylhex-2- ene



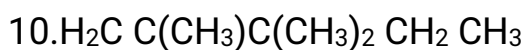
2,2-dimethylbut -2- ene



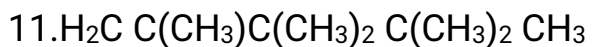
pent -1- ene



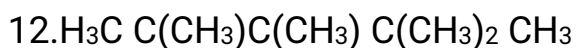
2-methylpent -1- ene



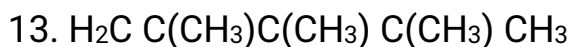
2,3,3-trimethylpent -1- ene



2,3,3,4,4-pentamethylpent -1- ene



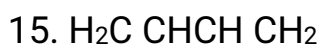
2,3,4,4-tetramethylpent -2- ene



2,3,4-trimethylpent -1,3- diene



2,3,4-tribromopent -1,3- diene



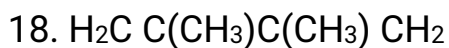
But -1,3- diene



1,1,2,3,4,4-hexabromobut -1,3- diene



1,1,2,3,4,4-hexaiodobut -1,3- diene



2,3-dimethylbut -1,3- diene

(c) Occurrence and extraction

At industrial level, alkenes are obtained from the cracking of alkanes. Cracking is the process of breaking long chain alkanes to smaller/shorter alkanes, an alkene and hydrogen gas at high temperatures.

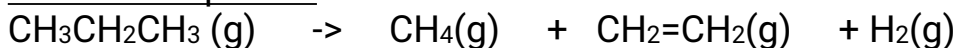
Cracking is a major source of useful hydrogen gas for manufacture of ammonia/nitric(V) acid/HCl i.e.

Long chain alkane $\rightarrow$ smaller/shorter alkane + Alkene + Hydrogen gas

Examples

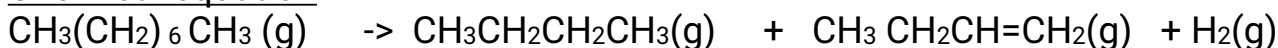
1. When irradiated with high energy radiation, Propane undergoes cracking to form methane gas, ethene and hydrogen gas.

Chemical equation



2. Octane undergoes cracking to form hydrogen gas, butene and butane gases

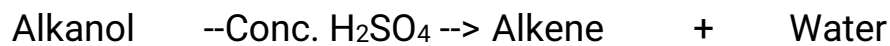
Chemical equation

**(d) School laboratory preparation of alkenes**

In a school laboratory, alkenes may be prepared from dehydration of alkanols using:

(i) concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid (H_2SO_4).

(a) aluminium(III) oxide (Al_2O_3) i.e

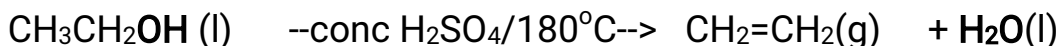


1.(a) At about 180°C , concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid dehydrates/removes water from ethanol to form ethene.

The gas produced contains traces of carbon(IV) oxide and sulphur(IV) oxide gas as impurities.

It is thus passed through concentrated sodium/potassium hydroxide solution to remove the impurities.

Chemical equation



(b) On heating strongly aluminium(III)oxide(Al_2O_3), it dehydrates/removes water from ethanol to form ethene.

Ethanol vapour passes through the hot aluminium (III) oxide which catalyses the dehydration.

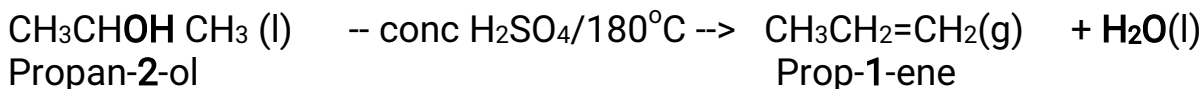
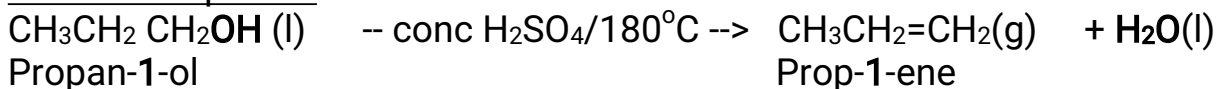
Activated aluminium(III)oxide has a very high affinity for water molecules/elements of water and thus dehydrates/ removes water from ethanol to form ethene.

Chemical equation



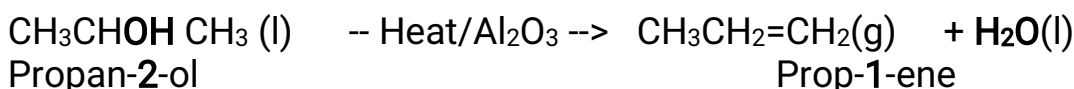
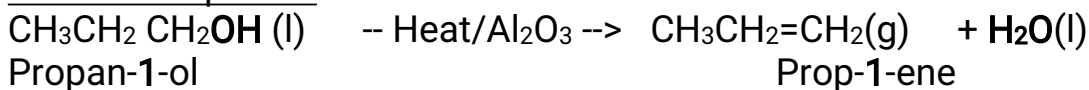
2(a) Propan-1-ol and Propan-2-ol(position isomers of propanol) are dehydrated by conc H_2SO_4 at about 180°C to propene(propene has no position isomers).

Chemical equation



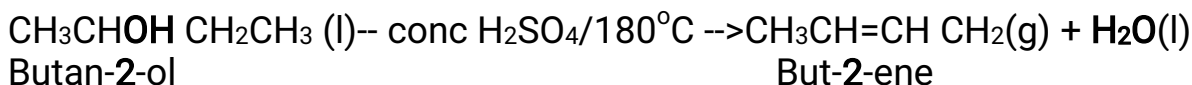
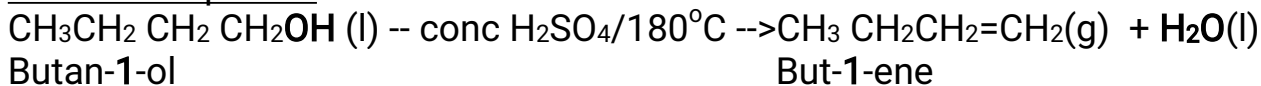
(b) Propan-1-ol and Propan-2-ol(position isomers of propanol) are dehydrated by heating strongly aluminium(III)oxide(Al_2O_3) form propene

Chemical equation



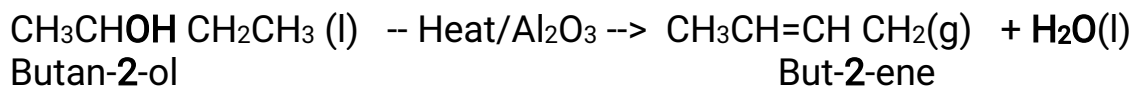
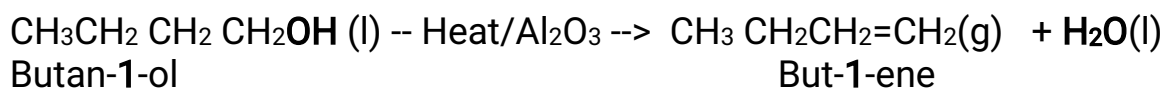
3(a) Butan-1-ol and Butan-2-ol(position isomers of butanol) are dehydrated by conc H_2SO_4 at about 180°C to But-1-ene and But-2-ene respectively

Chemical equation



(b) Butan-1-ol and Butan-2-ol are dehydrated by heating strongly aluminium (III) oxide (Al_2O_3) form But-1-ene and But-2-ene respectively.

Chemical equation

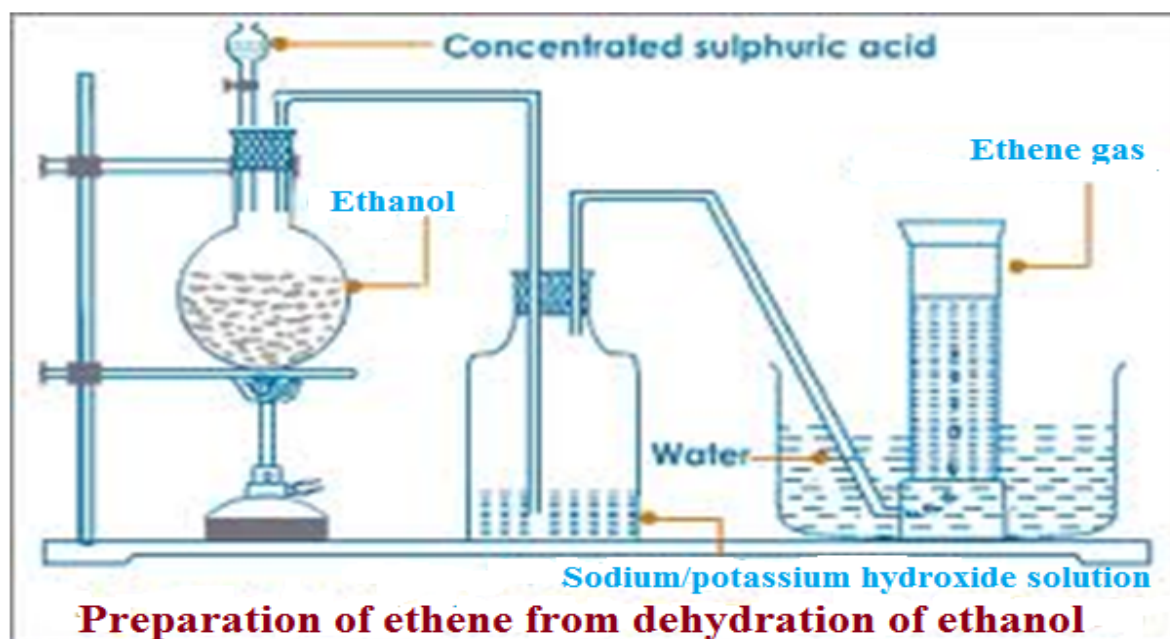


Laboratory set up for the preparation of alkenes/ethene

Caution

- (i) Ethanol is highly inflammable
- (ii) Conc H_2SO_4 is highly corrosive on skin contact.
- (iii) Common school thermometer has maximum calibration of 110°C and thus cannot be used. It breaks/cracks.

(i) Using concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid

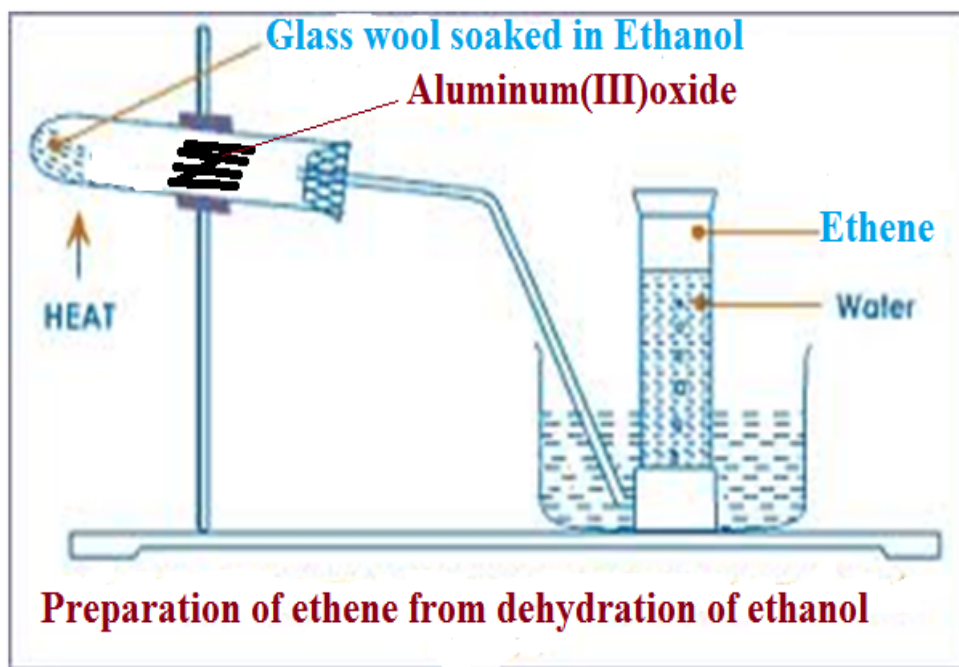


Some broken porcelain or sand should be put in the flask when heating to:

- (i) prevent bumping which may break the flask.
- (ii) ensure uniform and smooth boiling of the mixture

The temperatures should be maintained at above 160°C.

At lower temperatures another compound -**ether** is predominantly formed instead of ethene gas.

(ii) Using aluminium(III)oxide**(e) Properties of alkenes****I. Physical properties**

Like alkanes, alkenes are colourless gases, solids and liquids that are not poisonous. They are slightly soluble in water.

The solubility in water decreases as the carbon chain and as the molar mass increase but very soluble in organic solvents like tetrachloromethane and methylbenzene.

The melting and boiling point increase as the carbon chain increases.

This is because of the increase in van-der-Waals / intermolecular forces as the carbon chain increases.

The 1st four straight chain alkenes (ethene, propane, but-1-ene and pent-1-ene) are gases at room temperature and pressure.

The density of straight chain alkenes, like alkanes, increases with increasing carbon chain as the intermolecular forces increase, reducing the volume occupied by a given mass of the alkene.

Summary of physical properties of the 1st five alkenes

Alkene	General formula	Melting point(°C)	Boiling point(K)	State at room(298K) temperature and pressure atmosphere
--------	-----------------	-------------------	------------------	---

				(101300Pa)
Ethene	CH ₂ CH ₂	-169	-104	gas
Propene	CH ₃ CHCH ₂	-145	-47	gas
Butene	CH ₃ CH ₂ CHCH ₂	-141	-26	gas
Pent-1-ene	CH ₃ (CH ₂ CHCH ₂	-138	30	liquid
Hex-1-ene	CH ₃ (CH ₂ CHCH ₂	-98	64	liquid

II. Chemical properties

(a) Burning/combustion

Alkenes burn with a **yellow/** luminous **sooty/** smoky flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Alkene + Air → carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)

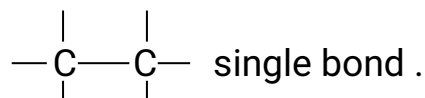
Alkenes burn with a **yellow/** luminous **sooty/** smoky flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.

Alkene + Air → carbon(II) oxide + water (limited air)

Burning of alkenes with a **yellow/** luminous **sooty/** smoky flame is a confirmatory test for the **presence** of the **=C=C=** double bond because they have **higher C:H ratio**.

A homologous series with $\text{C}=\text{C}$ double or $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ triple bond is said to be **unsaturated**.

A homologous series with $\text{C}-\text{C}$ single bond is said to be **saturated**. Most of the reactions of the unsaturated compound involve trying to be saturated to form a



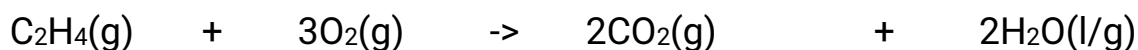
Examples of burning alkenes

1.(a) Ethene when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

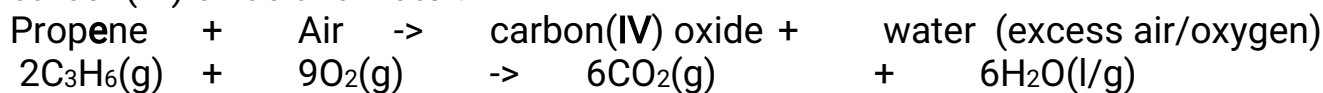
Ethene + Air → carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $\text{C}_2\text{H}_4(\text{g}) + 3\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

(b) Ethene when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.

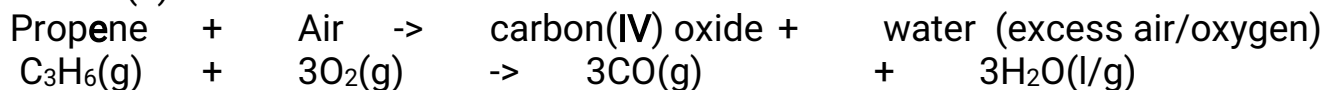
Ethene + Air → carbon(II) oxide + water (limited air)



2.(a) Propene when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.



(a) Propene when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.



(b) Addition reactions

An addition reaction is one which an unsaturated compound reacts to form a saturated compound. Addition reactions of alkenes are named from the reagent used to cause the addition/convert the double =C=C= to single C-C bond.

(i) Hydrogenation

Hydrogenation is an addition reaction in which **hydrogen** in presence of **Palladium/Nickel** catalyst at high temperatures react with alkenes to form alkanes.

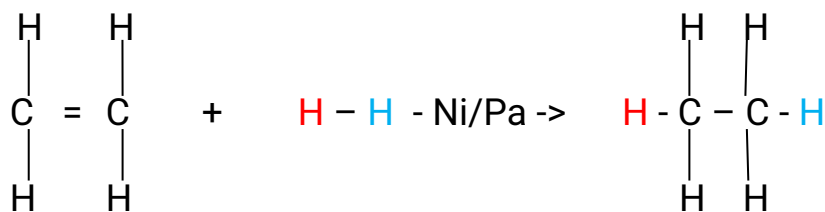
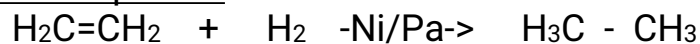
Examples

1. When Hydrogen gas is passed through liquid vegetable and animal **oil** at about 180°C in presence of Nickel catalyst, solid fat is formed.

Hydrogenation is thus used to **harden** oils to solid fat especially margarine.

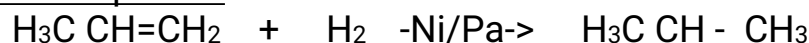
During hydrogenation, one hydrogen atom in the hydrogen molecule attach itself to one carbon and the other hydrogen to the second carbon breaking the double bond to single bond.

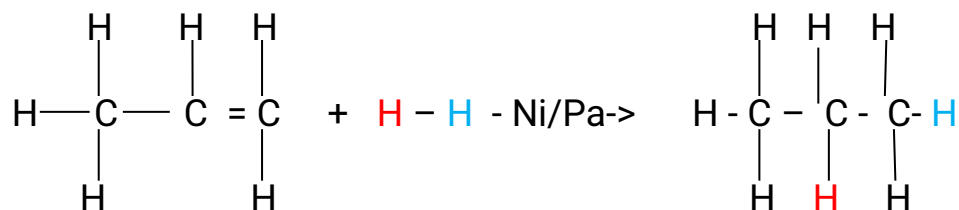
Chemical equation



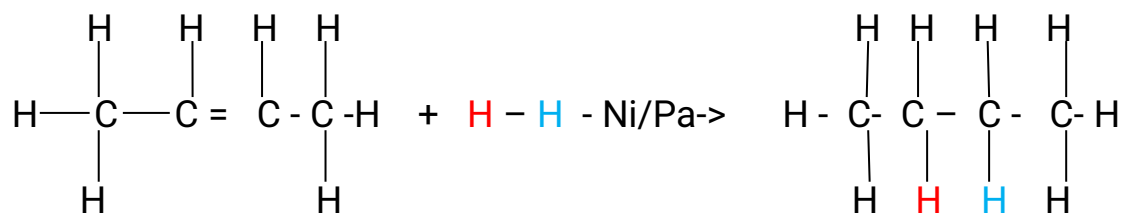
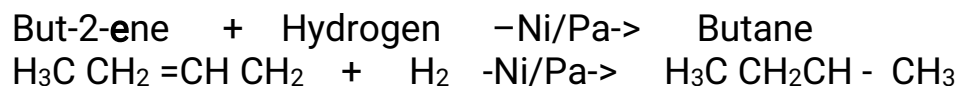
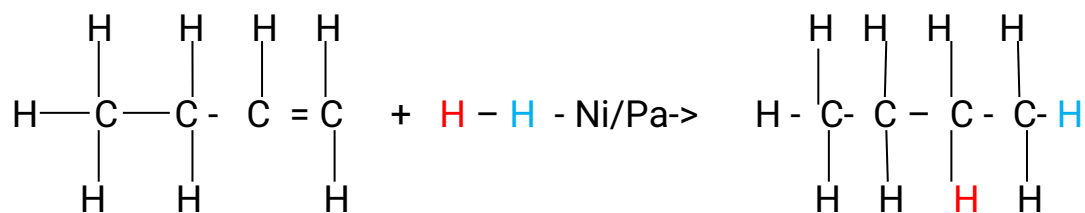
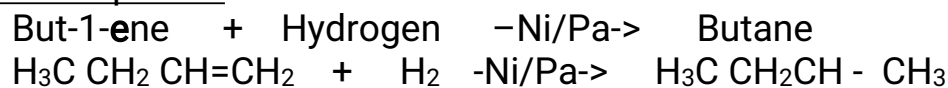
2. Propene undergo hydrogenation to form Propane

Chemical equation

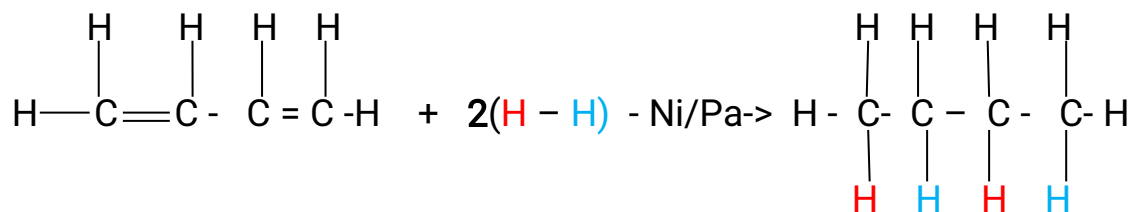
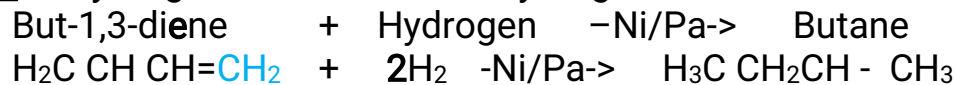




3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene undergo hydrogenation to form Butane
Chemical equation



4. But-1,3-diene should undergo hydrogenation to form Butane. The reaction uses **two moles** of hydrogen molecules/**four** hydrogen atoms to break the two double bonds.



(ii) Halogenation.

Halogenation is an addition reaction in which a halogen (Fluorine, chlorine, bromine, iodine) reacts with an alkene to form an alkane.

The double bond in the alkene breaks and forms a single bond.

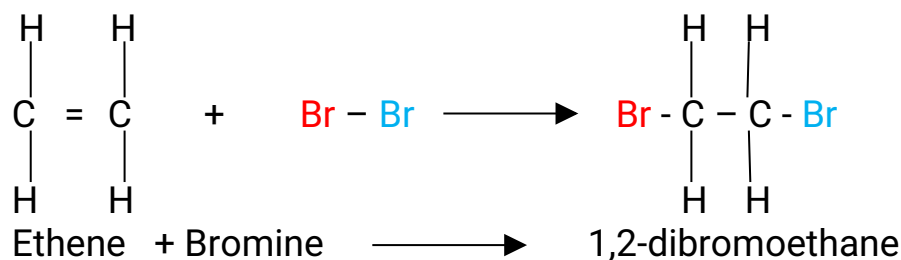
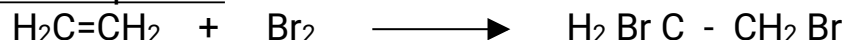
The colour of the halogen **fades** as the number of moles of the halogens remaining unreacted decreases/reduces.

One bromine atom bonds at the 1st carbon in the double bond while the other goes to the 2nd carbon.

Examples

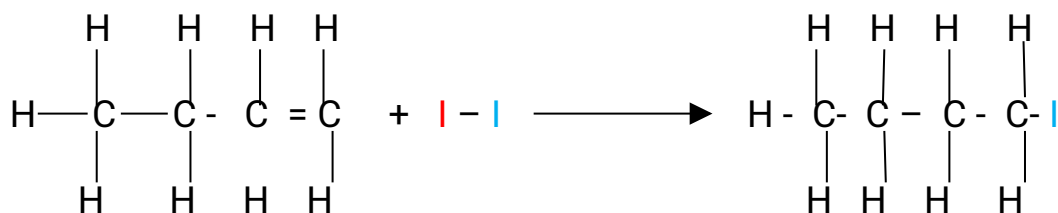
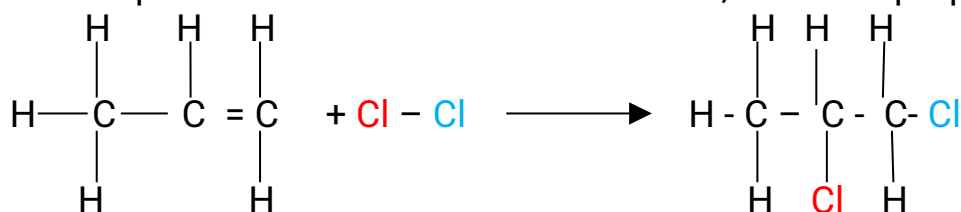
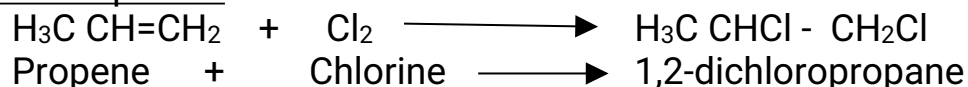
1. Ethene reacts with bromine to form 1,2-dibromoethane.

Chemical equation

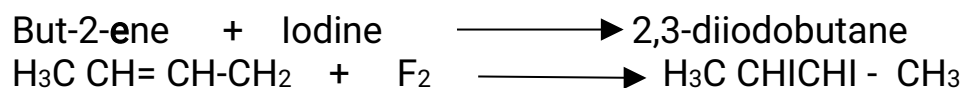
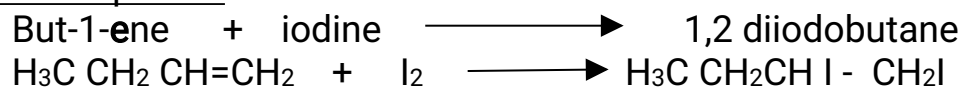


2. Propene reacts with chlorine to form 1,2-dichloropropane.

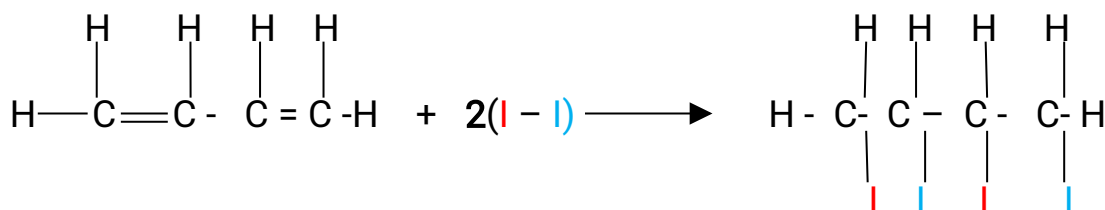
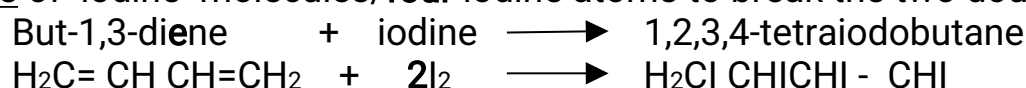
Chemical equation



3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene undergo halogenation with iodine to form 1,2-diiodobutane and 2,3-diiodobutane

Chemical equation

4. But-1,3-diene should undergo halogenation to form Butane. The reaction uses **two moles** of iodine molecules/**four** iodine atoms to break the two double bonds.

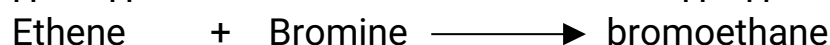
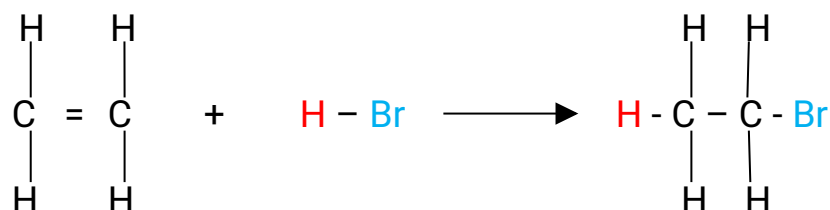
**(iii) Reaction with hydrogen halides.**

Hydrogen halides reacts with alkene to form a halogenoalkane. The double bond in the alkene break and form a single bond.

The main compound is one which the **hydrogen** atom bond at the carbon with **more hydrogen**.

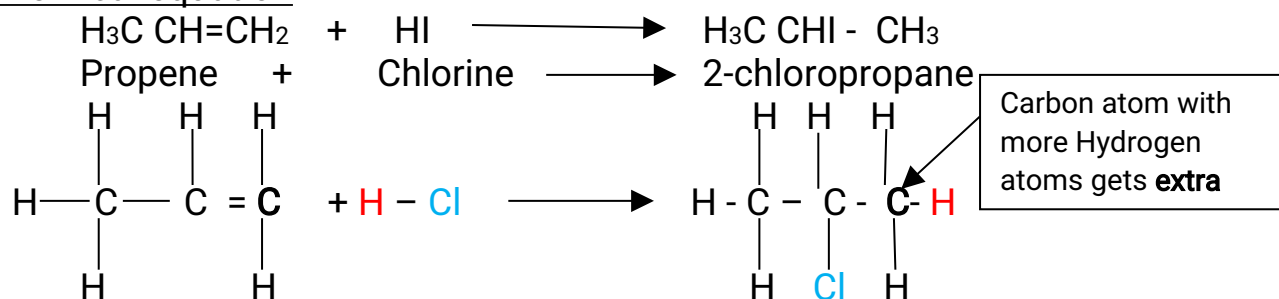
Examples

1. Ethene reacts with hydrogen bromide to form bromoethane.

Chemical equation

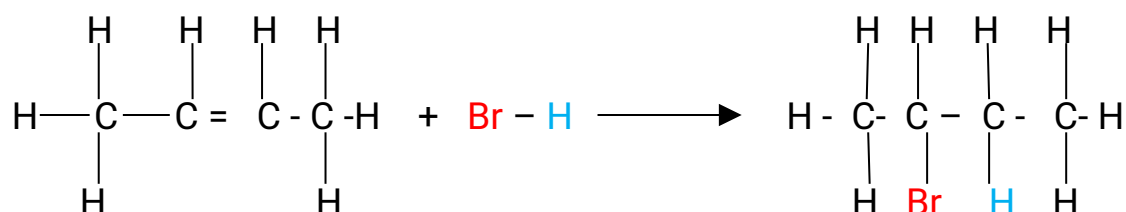
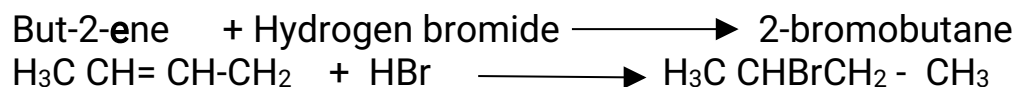
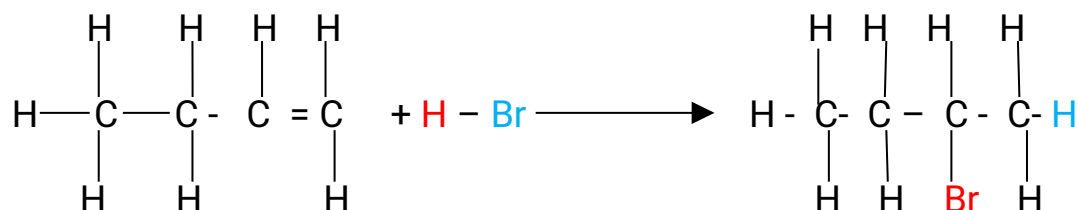
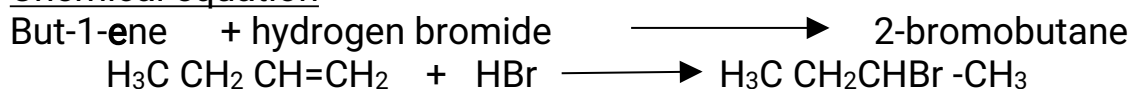
2. Propene reacts with hydrogen iodide to form 2-iodopropane.

Chemical equation

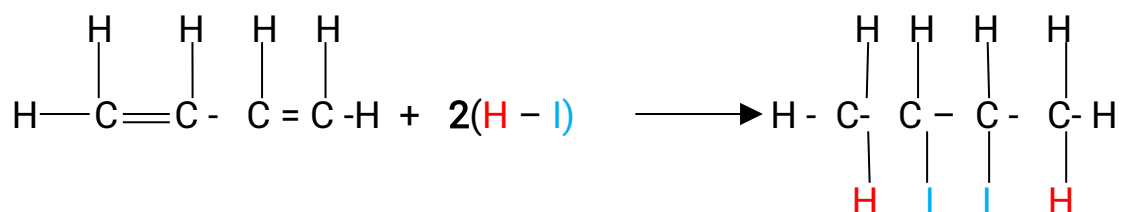
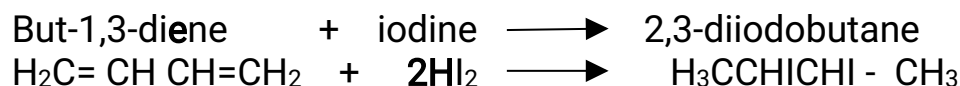


3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene reacts with hydrogen bromide to form 2-bromobutane

Chemical equation



4. But-1,3-diene react with hydrogen iodide to form 2,3- diiodobutane. The reaction uses **two moles** of hydrogen iodide molecules/**two** iodine atoms and two hydrogen atoms to break the two double bonds.



(iv) Reaction with bromine/chlorine water.

Chlorine and bromine water is formed when the halogen is dissolved in distilled water. Chlorine water has the formula HOCl (hypochlorous/chloric(I) acid). Bromine water has the formula HOBr (hydrobromic(I) acid).

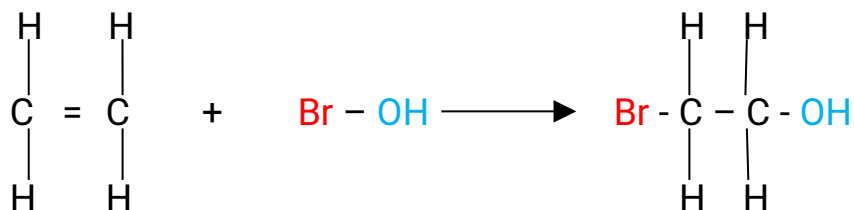
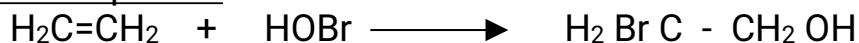
During the addition reaction, the halogen moves to one carbon and the OH to the other carbon in the alkene at the =C=C= double bond to form a **halogenoalkanol**.

Bromine water + Alkene $\rightarrow$ bromoalkanol

Chlorine water + Alkene $\rightarrow$ chloroalkanol

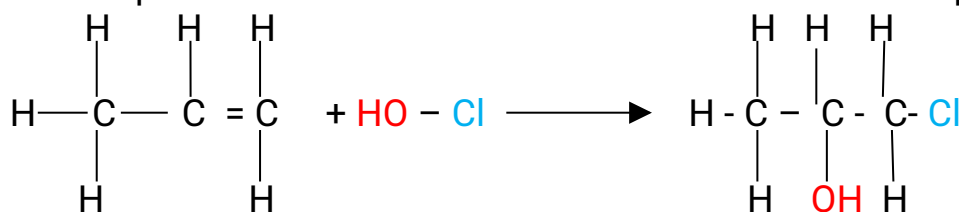
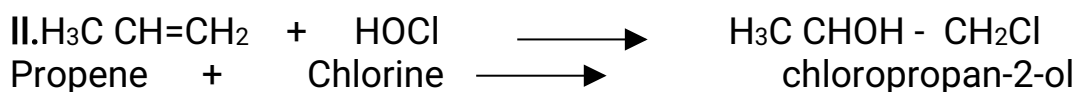
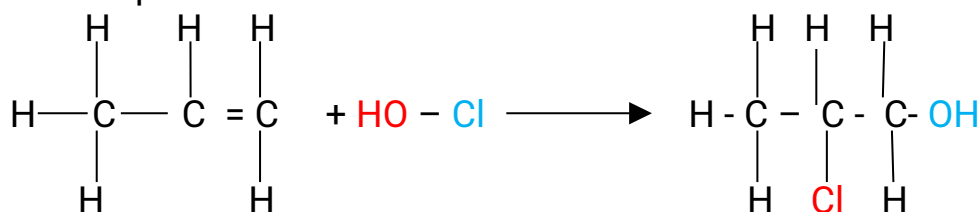
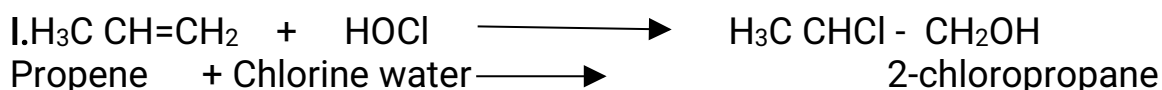
Examples

1 Ethene reacts with bromine water to form bromoethanol.

Chemical equation

Ethene + Bromine water $\longrightarrow$ bromoethanol

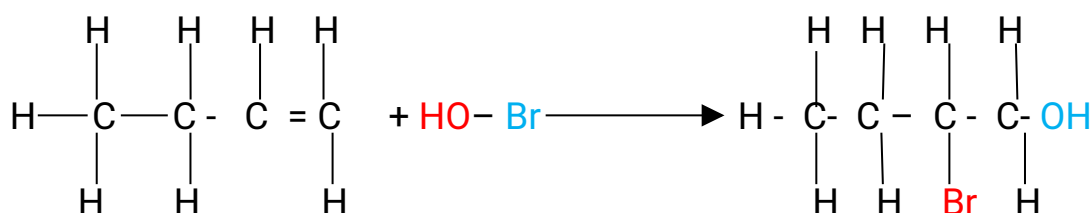
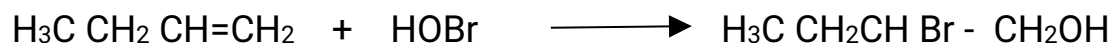
2. Propene reacts with chlorine water to form chloropropan-2-ol / 2-chloropropan-1-ol.

Chemical equation

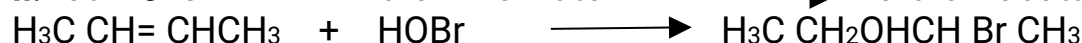
3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene react with bromine water to form 2-bromobutan-1-ol / 3-bromobutan-2-ol respectively

Chemical equation

I. But-1-ene + bromine water $\longrightarrow$ 2-bromobutan-1-ol



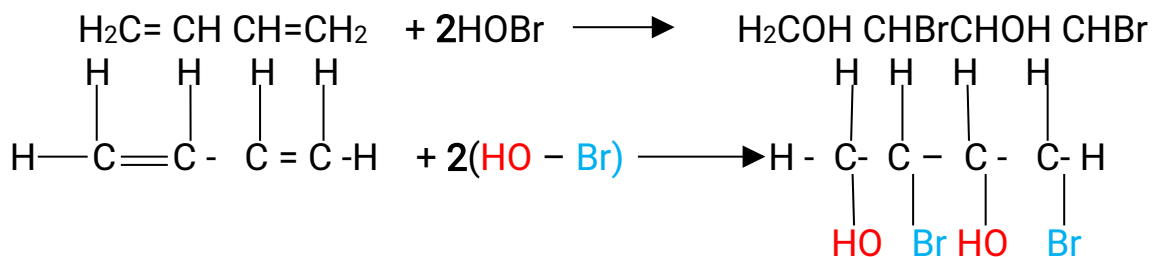
II. But-2-ene + bromine water $\longrightarrow$ 3-bromobutan-2-ol



4. But-1,3-diene reacts with bromine water to form Butan-1,3-diol.

The reaction uses **two moles** of bromine water molecules to break the two double bonds.

But-1,3-diene + bromine water $\longrightarrow$ 2,4-dibromobutan-1,3-diol



(v) Oxidation.

Alkenes are oxidized to alkanols with **duo/double** functional groups by oxidizing agents.

When an alkene is bubbled into orange acidified potassium/sodium dichromate (VI) solution, the colour of the oxidizing agent changes to green.

When an alkene is bubbled into purple acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII)

solution, the oxidizing agent is decolorized.

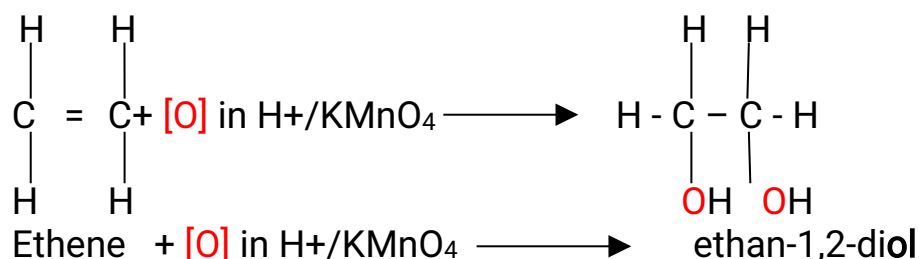
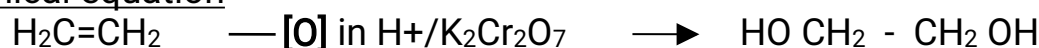
Examples

1 Ethene is oxidized to ethan-1,2-diol by acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution/ acidified potassium/sodium dichromate(VI) solution.

The purple acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution is decolorized.

The orange acidified potassium/sodium dichromate(VI) solution turns to green.

Chemical equation

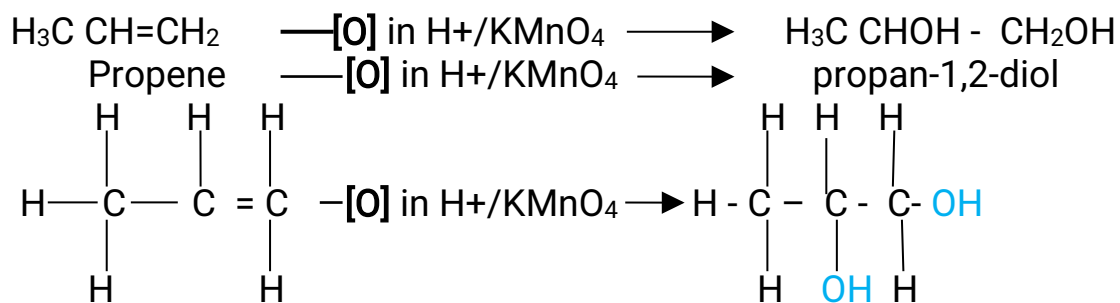


2. Propene is oxidized to propan-1,2-diol by acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution/ acidified potassium/sodium dichromate(VI) solution.

The purple acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution is decolorized.

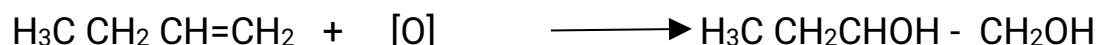
The orange acidified potassium/sodium dichromate(VI) solution turns to green.

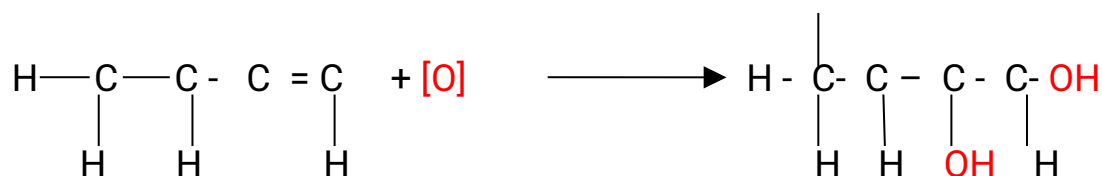
Chemical equation



3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene react with bromine water to form butan-1,2-diol and butan-2,3-diol

Chemical equation





(v) Hydrolysis.

Hydrolysis is the reaction of a compound with water/addition of H-OH to a compound. Alkenes undergo hydrolysis to form alkanols.

This takes place in two steps:

(i) Alkenes react with **concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid** at room temperature and pressure to form **alkylhydrogen sulphate(VI)**.

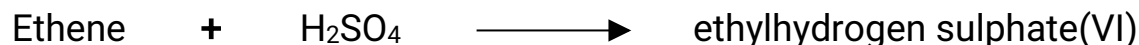
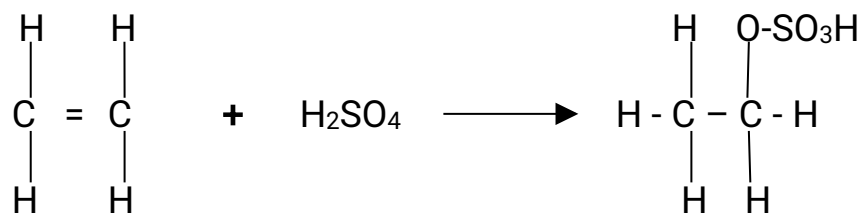
Alkenes + concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid $\rightarrow$ alkylhydrogen sulphate(VI)

(ii) On adding **water** to alkylhydrogen sulphate(VI) then warming, an alkanol is formed.
alkylhydrogen sulphate(VI) + water $\xrightarrow{\text{warm}}$ Alkanol.

Examples

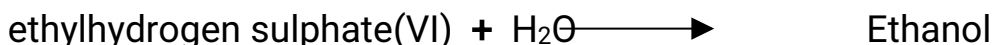
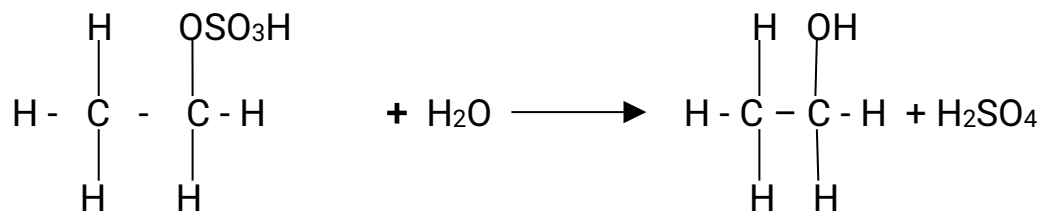
(i) Ethene reacts with cold concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid to form ethyl hydrogen sulphate(VI)

Chemical equation



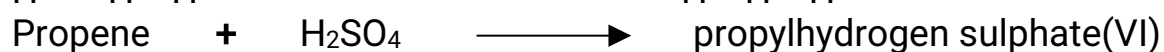
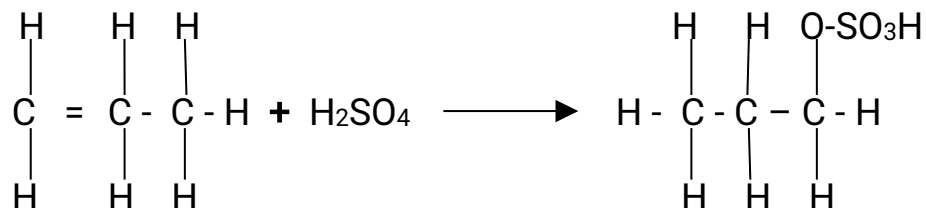
(ii) Ethylhydrogen sulphate(VI) is hydrolysed by water to ethanol

Chemical equation



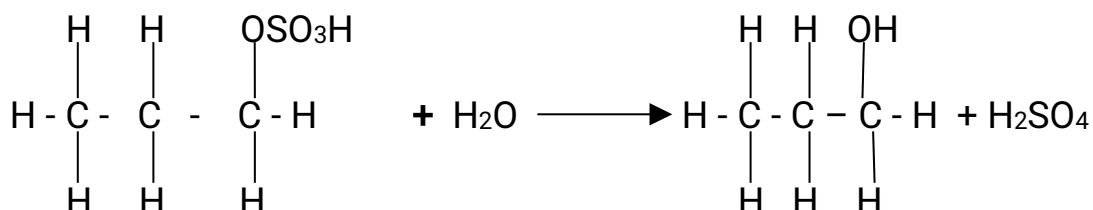
2. Propene reacts with cold concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid to form propyl hydrogen sulphate(VII)

Chemical equation



(ii) Propylhydrogen sulphate(VI) is hydrolysed by water to propanol

Chemical equation



(vi) Polymerization/self addition

Addition polymerization is the process where a small unsaturated monomer (alkene) molecule join together to form a large saturated molecule.

Only alkenes undergo addition polymerization.

Addition polymers are named from the alkene/monomer making the polymer and adding the prefix “**poly**” before the name of monomer to form a **polyalkene**

During addition polymerization

(i) the double bond in alkenes break

(ii) free radicals are formed

(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule.

The more collisions the larger the molecule.

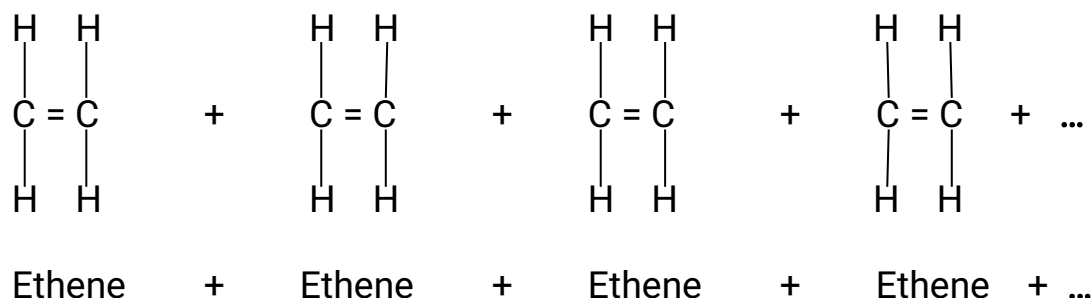
Examples of addition polymerization

1. Formation of Polyethene

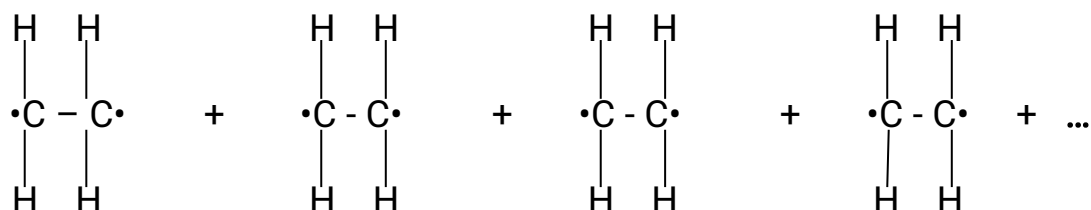
Polyethene is an addition polymer formed when ethene molecule/monomer join

together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

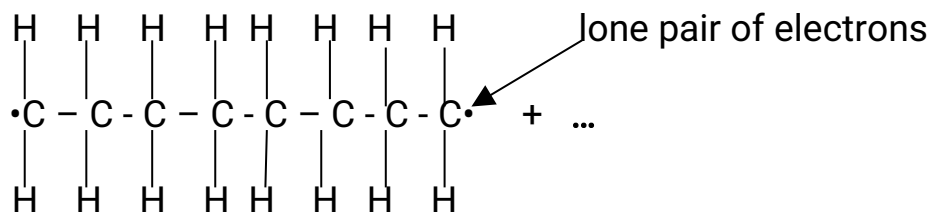


(ii) the double bond joining the ethane molecule break to free radicals

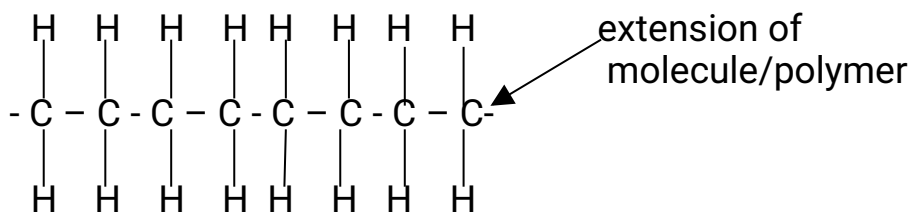


Ethene radical + Ethene radical + Ethene radical + Ethene radical + ...

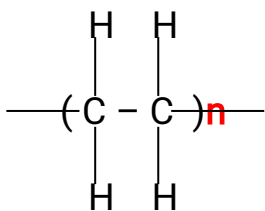
(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polyethene.
Polyethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a **repetition** of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Where **n** is the number of monomers in the polymer. The number of monomers in the polymer can be determined from the molar mass of the polymer and monomer from the relationship:

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

Examples

Polythene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of ethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0)

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in polyomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Molar mass ethene (C}_2\text{H}_4) = 28 \quad \text{Molar mass polyethene} = 4760$$

$$\text{Substituting} \quad \frac{4760}{28} = \underline{170 \text{ ethene molecules}}$$

The **commercial** name of polyethene is **polythene**.

It is an elastic, tough, transparent and durable plastic.

Polythene is used:

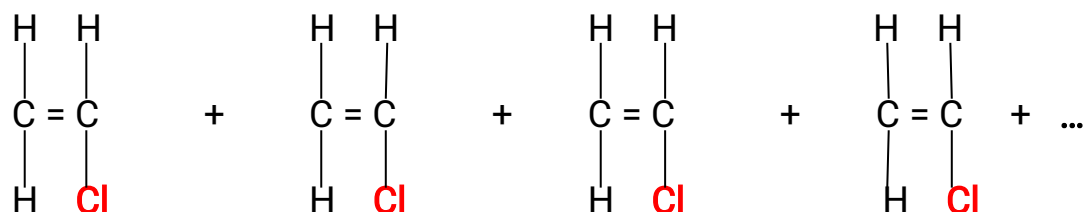
- (i) in making plastic bag
- (ii) bowls and plastic bags
- (iii) packaging materials

2. Formation of Polychlorethene

Polychloroethene is an addition polymer formed when chloroethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

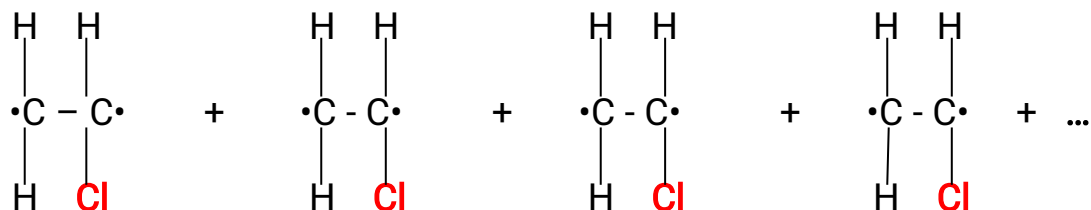
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

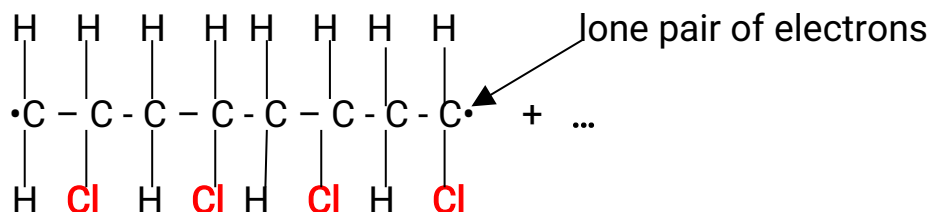


chloroethene + chloroethene + chloroethene + chloroethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the chloroethene molecule break to free radicals

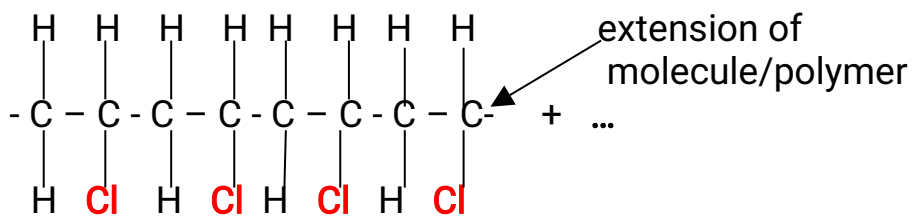


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

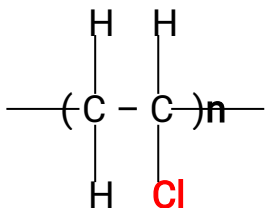


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polychloroethene.

Polychloroethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polychloroethene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of chloroethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0, Cl=35.5)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C_2H_3Cl) = 62.5 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{62.5} = 77.16 \Rightarrow 77$ polychloroethene molecules(whole number)

The **commercial** name of polychloroethene is **polyvinylchloride(PVC)**. It is a tough, non-transparent and durable plastic. PVC is used:

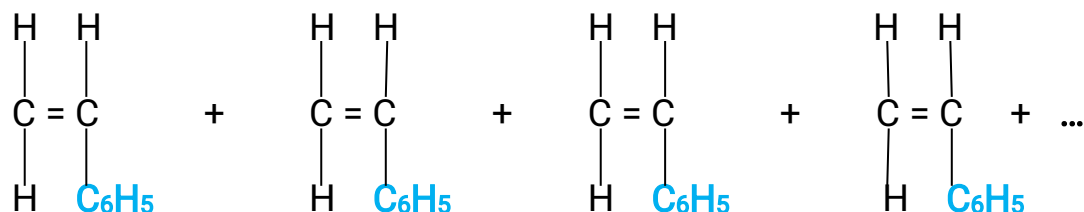
- (i) in making plastic rope
- (ii) water pipes
- (iii) crates and boxes

3. Formation of Polyphenylethene

Polyphenylethene is an addition polymer formed when phenylethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

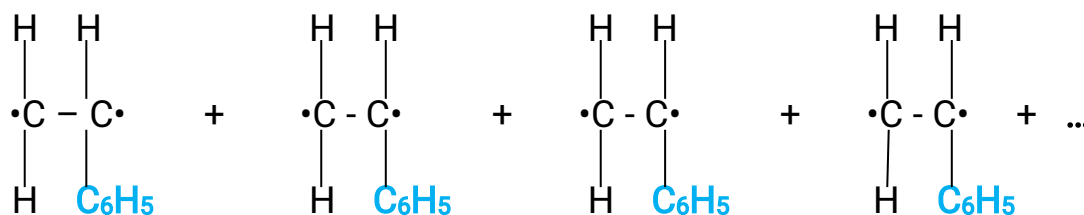
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure(which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

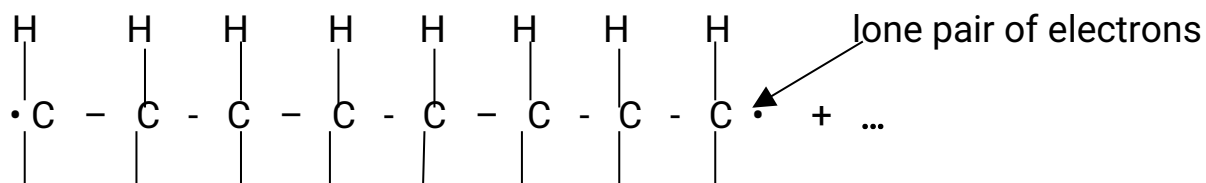


phenylethene + phenylethene + phenylethene + phenylethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the phenylethene molecule break to free radicals



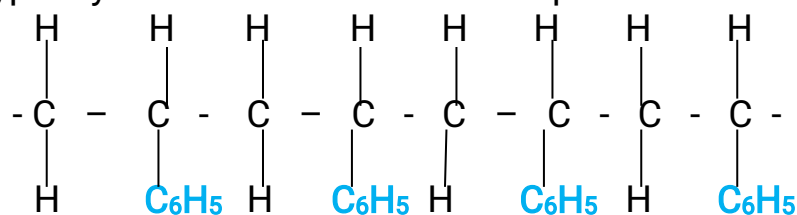
(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



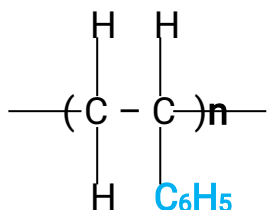


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polyphenylethene.

Polyphenylethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polyphenylthene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of phenylethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0,)

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Molar mass ethene (C}_8\text{H}_8) = 104 \quad \text{Molar mass polyethene} = 4760$$

$$\text{Substituting} \quad \frac{4760}{104} = 45.7692 \Rightarrow 45 \text{ polyphenylethene molecules (whole number)}$$

The **commercial** name of polyphenylethene is **polystyrene**. It is a very light durable plastic. Polystyrene is used:

- (i) in making packaging material for carrying delicate items like computers, radion, calculators.
- (ii) ceiling tiles
- (iii) clothe linings

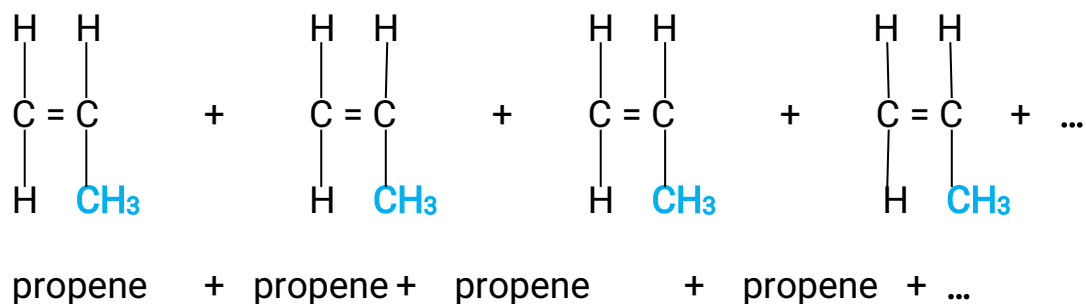
4. Formation of Polypropene

Polypropene is an addition polymer formed when propene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

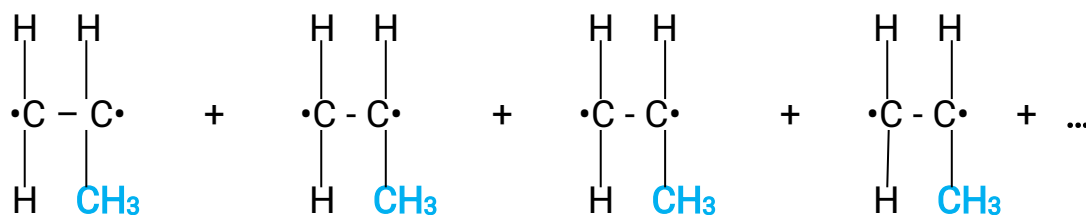
During polymerization:

- (i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which

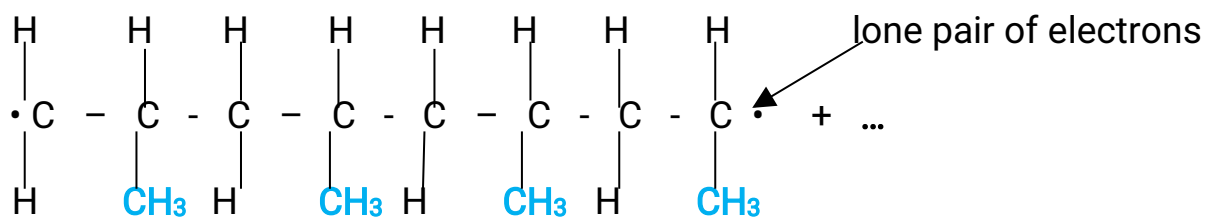
reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)



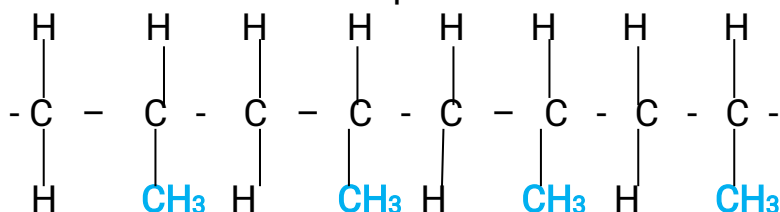
(ii) the double bond joining the propylene molecule break to free radicals



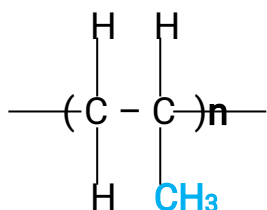
(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer propene. propene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polypropene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of propene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0,)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass propene (C₃H₆) = 44 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{44} = 108.1818 \Rightarrow 108$ propene molecules (whole number)

The **commercial** name of polyphenylethene is **polystyrene**. It is a very light durable plastic. Polystyrene is used:

(i) in making packaging material for carrying delicate items like computers, radion, calculators.

(ii) ceiling tiles

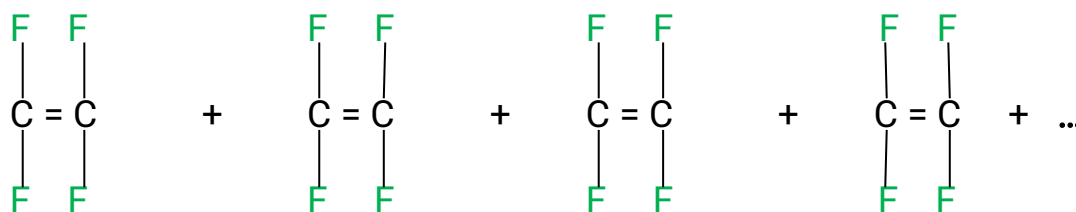
(iii) clothe linings

5. Formation of Polytetrafluoroethene

Polytetrafluoroethene is an addition polymer formed when tetrafluoroethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

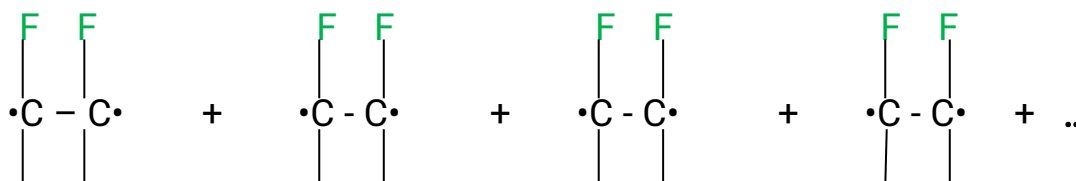
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)



tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the tetrafluoroethene molecule break to free radicals



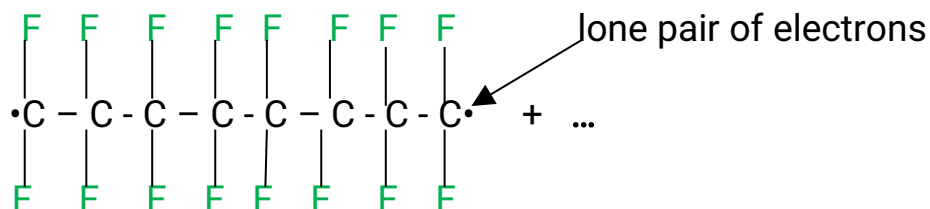
F F

F F

F F

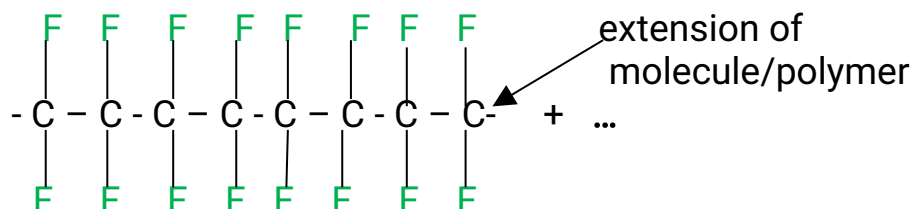
F F

(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

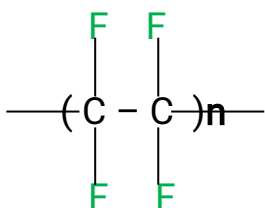


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polytetrafluoroethene.

polytetrafluoroethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polytetrafluoroethene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of tetrafluoroethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, F=19)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C₂F₄) = 62.5 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{62.5} = 77.16 \Rightarrow 77$ polychloroethene molecules (whole number)

The **commercial** name of polytetrafluorethene (P.T.F.E) is **Teflon (P.T.F.E)**. It is a tough, non-transparent and durable plastic. PVC is used:

- (i) in making plastic rope
- (ii) water pipes
- (iii) crates and boxes

6. Formation of rubber from Latex

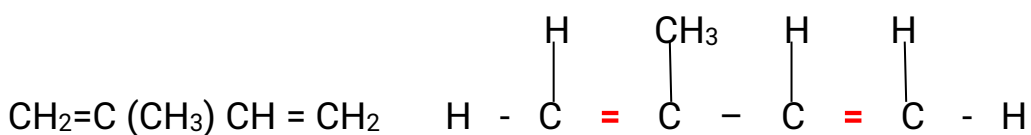
Natural rubber is obtained from rubber trees.

During harvesting an incision is made on the rubber tree to produce a milky white substance called **latex**.

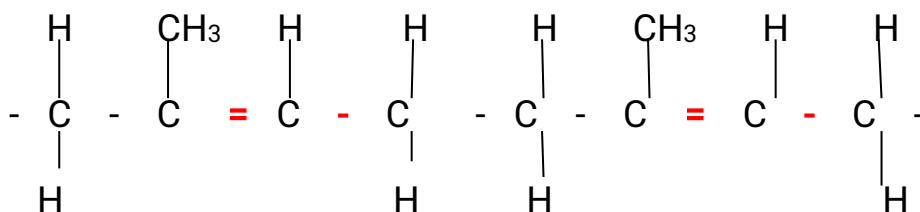
Latex is a mixture of rubber and lots of water.

The latex is then added an acid to coagulate the rubber.

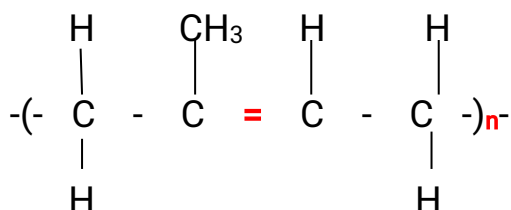
Natural rubber is a polymer of 2-methylbut-1,3-diene ;



During natural polymerization to rubber, one double C=C bond break to self add to another molecule. The double bond remaining move to carbon "2" thus;

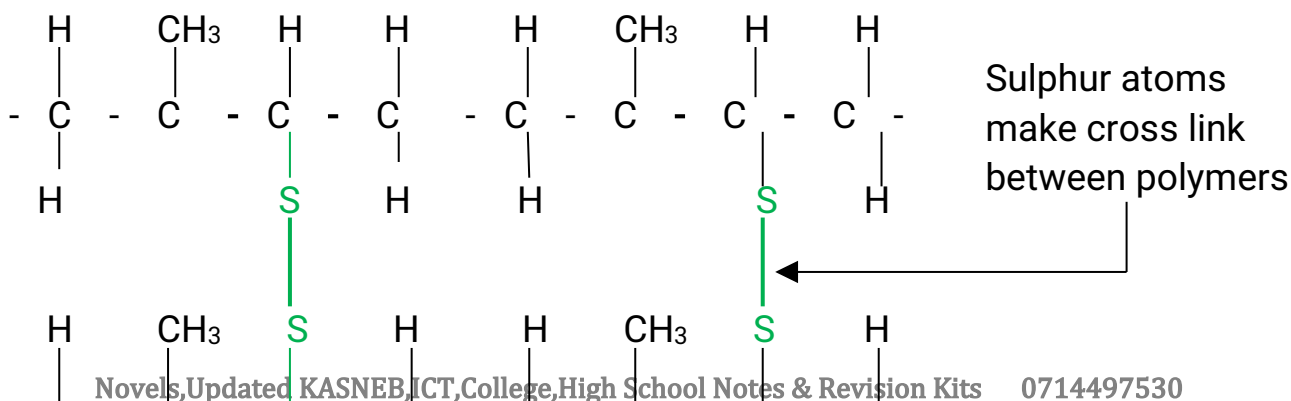


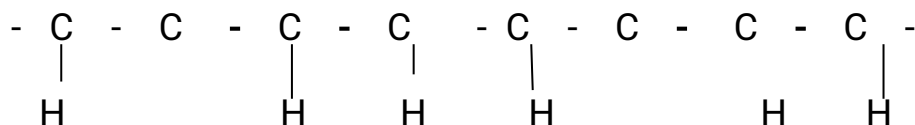
Generally the structure of rubber is thus;



Pure rubber is soft and sticky. It is used to make erasers, car tyres. Most of it is vulcanized. Vulcanization is the process of heating rubber with sulphur to make it harder/tougher.

During vulcanization the sulphur atoms form a cross link between chains of rubber molecules/polymers. This decreases the number of C=C double bonds in the polymer.



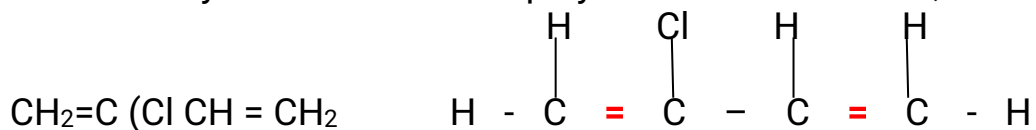


Vulcanized rubber is used to make **tyres, shoes** and **valves**.

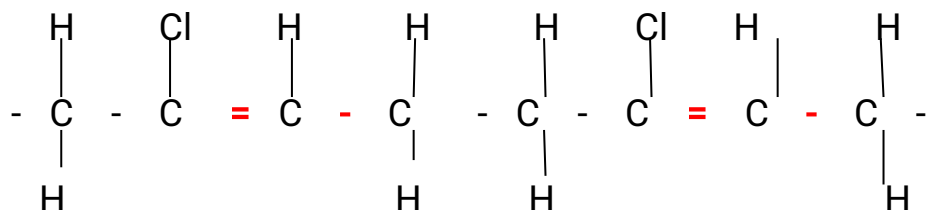
7. Formation of synthetic rubber

Synthetic rubber is able to resist action of oil, abrasion and organic solvents which rubber cannot.

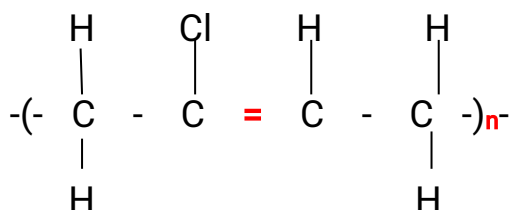
Common synthetic rubber is a polymer of 2-chlorobut-1,3-diene ;



During polymerization to synthetic rubber, one double C=C bond is broken to self add to another molecule. The double bond remaining move to carbon "2" thus;



Generally the structure of rubber is thus;



Rubber is thus strengthened through vulcanization and manufacture of synthetic rubber.

(c) Test for the presence of $\begin{array}{c} | \\ - \text{C} = \text{C} - \\ | \end{array}$ double bond.

(i) Burning/combustion

All unsaturated hydrocarbons with a $\begin{array}{c} | \\ - \text{C} = \text{C} - \\ | \end{array}$ or $\begin{array}{c} \text{=C} \\ | \end{array} = \begin{array}{c} | \\ \text{C} - \end{array}$ bond burn with a yellow sooty flame.

Experiment

Scoop a sample of the substance provided in a clean metallic spatula. Introduce it on

a Bunsen burner.

Observation	Inference
Solid melt then burns with a yellow sooty flame	$- \underset{ }{\text{C}} = \underset{ }{\text{C}} -$ $- \text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{bond}$

(ii) Oxidation by acidified $\text{KMnO}_4/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$

Bromine water, Chlorine water and Oxidizing agents acidified $\text{KMnO}_4/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ change to **unique** colour in presence of $-\underset{|}{\text{C}} = \underset{|}{\text{C}} -$

or $-\text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{bond}$.

Experiment

Scoop a sample of the substance provided into a clean test tube. Add 10cm³ of distilled water. Shake. Take a portion of the solution mixture. Add three drops of acidified $\text{KMnO}_4/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$.

Observation	Inference
Acidified KMnO_4 decolorized	$-\underset{ }{\text{C}} = \underset{ }{\text{C}} -$
Orange colour of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ turns green	$-\text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{bond}$
Bromine water is decolorized	
Chlorine water is decolorized	

(d) Some uses of Alkenes

1. In the manufacture of plastic
2. Hydrolysis of ethene is used in industrial manufacture of ethanol.
3. In ripening of fruits.
4. In the manufacture of detergents.

(iii) Alkynes(a) Nomenclature/Naming

These are hydrocarbons with a general formula C_nH_{2n-2} and $\equiv C - C$ double bond as the functional group. n is the number of Carbon atoms in the molecule.

The carbon atoms are linked by at least one **triple** bond to each other and single bonds to hydrogen atoms.

They include:

n	General/ Molecular formula	Structural formula	Name
1		Does not exist	-
2	C_2H_2	$ \begin{array}{c} H - C \equiv C - H \\ CH \quad CH \end{array} $	Eth y ne
3	C_3H_4	$ \begin{array}{c} H \\ \\ H - C \equiv C - C - H \\ \\ H \\ CH \quad C \quad CH_3 \end{array} $	Prop y ne
4	C_4H_6	$ \begin{array}{c} H \quad H \\ \quad \\ H - C \equiv C - C - C - H \\ \quad \\ H \quad H \\ CH \quad C \quad CH_2CH_3 \end{array} $	But y ne

5	C_5H_8	$ \begin{array}{ccccccc} & & H & H & H & & \\ & & & & & & \\ H & - & C \equiv C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & H \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & H & & H & & H & & \\ & & & & CH & C & (CH_2)_2CH_3 & & & & \end{array} $	Pent y ne
6	C_6H_{10}	$ \begin{array}{cccccccc} & & H & H & H & H & & \\ & & & & & & & \\ H & - & C \equiv C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & H \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & H & & H & & H & & H & & \\ & & & & CH & C & (CH_2)_3CH_3 & & & & & & \end{array} $	Hex y ne
7	C_7H_{12}	$ \begin{array}{ccccccccccc} & & H & H & H & H & H & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ H & - & C \equiv C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & H \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & H & H & H & H & H & & H & & H & & H & & \\ & & & & CH & C & (CH_2)_4CH_3 & & & & & & & & \end{array} $	Hept y ne
8	C_8H_{14}	$ \begin{array}{ccccccccccc} & & H & H & H & H & H & H & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ H & - & C \equiv C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & H \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & \\ & & & & CH & C & (CH_2)_5CH_3 & & & & & & & & & & \end{array} $	Oct y ne
9	C_9H_{16}	$ \begin{array}{ccccccccccc} & & H & H & H & H & H & H & H & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ H & - & C \equiv C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & H \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & \\ & & & & CH & C & (CH_2)_6CH_3 & & & & & & & & & & & & \end{array} $	Non y ne
10	$C_{10}H_{18}$	$ \begin{array}{ccccccccccc} & & H & H & H & H & H & H & H & H & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ H & - & C \equiv C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & C & - & H \\ & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & H & & \\ & & & & CH & C & (CH_2)_7CH_3 & & & & & & & & & & & & & & \end{array} $	Dec y ne

Note

1. Since carbon is **tetravalent**, each atom of carbon in the alkyne **MUST** always be bonded using **four** covalent bond /four shared pairs of electrons including at the triple bond.
2. Since Hydrogen is **monovalent**, each atom of hydrogen in the alkyne **MUST** always be bonded using **one** covalent bond/one shared pair of electrons.
3. One member of the alkyne ,like alkenes and alkanes, differ from the next/previous by a CH_2 group(molar mass of 14 **atomic mass units**).They thus form a homologous series.
e.g
Propyne differ from ethyne by (14 a.m.u) one carbon and two Hydrogen atoms from ethyne.
- 4.A homologous series of alkenes like that of alkanes:
 - (i) differ by a CH_2 group from the next /previous consecutively
 - (ii) have similar chemical properties
 - (iii)have similar chemical formula with general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n-2}$
 - (iv)the physical properties also show steady gradual change
- 5.The $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ - triple bond in alkyne is the functional group. The functional group is the **reacting site** of the alkynes.
6. The $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ - triple bond in alkyne can easily be broken to accommodate more /four more monovalent atoms. The $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ - triple bond in alkynes make it thus **unsaturated** like alkenes.
7. Most of the reactions of alkynes like alkenes take place at the $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ - triple bond.

(b)Isomers of alkynes

Isomers of alkynes have the same molecular **general formula** but different molecular **structural formula**.

Isomers of alkynes are also named by using the IUPAC(International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry) system of **nomenclature/naming**.

The IUPAC system of nomenclature of naming alkynes uses the following basic rules/guidelines:

1. Identify the longest continuous/straight carbon chain which contains the $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ - **triple** bond to get/determine the **parent** alkene.
2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain which contains the $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ - **triple** bond so as $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ - **triple** bond get lowest number possible.
- 3 Indicate the positions by splitting "**alk-positions-yne**" e.g. but-2-yne, pent-1,3-diyne.
- 4.The position **indicated** must be for the carbon atom at the **lower** position in the $\text{C}\equiv\text{C}$ - **triple bond**. i.e

But-2-yne means the triple $\text{C} \equiv \text{C}$ is between Carbon "2" and "3"

Pent-1,3-diyne means there are two triple bonds; one between carbon "1" and "2" and another between carbon "3" and "4"

5. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of alkyl carbon chains attached to the alkyne. Name them fluoro-,chloro-,bromo-,iodo- if they are halogens

6. Use prefix di-,tri-,tetra-,penta-,hexa- to show the number of **triple** $\text{C} \equiv \text{C}$ bonds and **branches** attached to the alkyne.

7. Position isomers can be formed when the $\text{C} \equiv \text{C}$ triple bond is shifted between carbon atoms e.g.

But-2-yne means the double $\text{C} = \text{C}$ is between Carbon "2" and "3"

But-1-yne means the double $\text{C} = \text{C}$ is between Carbon "1" and "2"

Both But-1-yne and But-2-yne are position isomers of Butyne.

9. Like alkanes and alkynes, an alkyl group can be attached to the alkyne.

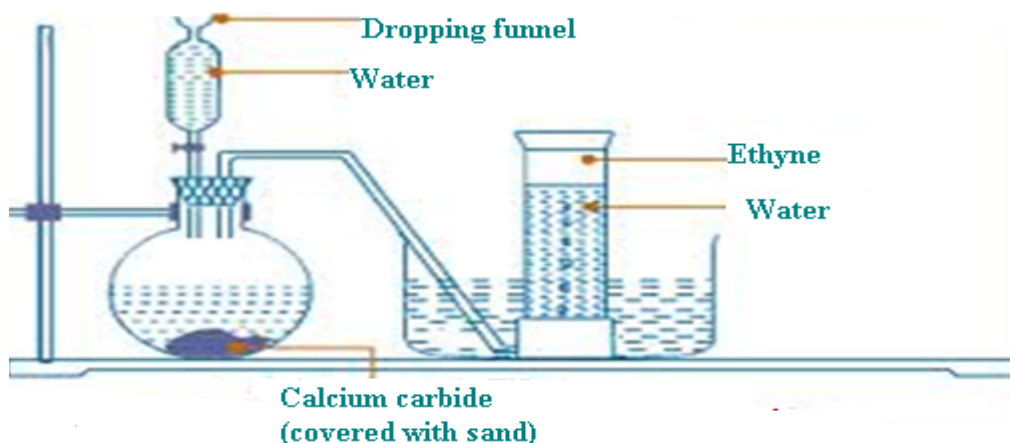
Chain/branch isomers are thus formed.

Butyne and 2-methyl propyne both have the same general formula but different branching chain.

(More on powerpoint)

(c) Preparation of Alkynes.

Ethyne is prepared from the reaction of water on calcium carbide. The reaction is highly exothermic and thus a layer of sand should be put above the calcium carbide to absorb excess heat to prevent the reaction flask from breaking. Copper(II)sulphate(VI) is used to catalyze the reaction



Preparation of Ethyne from Calcium carbide

Chemical equation



(d) Properties of alkynes

I. Physical properties

Like alkanes and alkenes, alkynes are colourless gases, solids and liquids that are not poisonous.

They are slightly soluble in water. The solubility in water decreases as the carbon chain and as the molar mass increase but very soluble in organic solvents like tetrachloromethane and methylbenzene. Ethyne has a pleasant taste when pure.

The melting and boiling point increase as the carbon chain increases.

This is because of the increase in van-der-Waals / intermolecular forces as the carbon chain increases. The 1st three straight chain alkynes (ethyne, propyne and but-1-yne) are gases at room temperature and pressure.

The density of straight chain alkynes increases with increasing carbon chain as the intermolecular forces increase, reducing the volume occupied by a given mass of the alkyne.

Summary of physical properties of the 1st five alkynes

Alkyne	General formula	Melting point(°C)	Boiling point(°C)	State at room(298K) temperature and pressure atmosphere (101300Pa)
Ethyne	$\text{CH} \equiv \text{CH}$	-82	-84	gas
Propyne	$\text{CH}_3 \text{C} \equiv \text{CH}$	-103	-23	gas
Butyne	$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2 \text{C} \equiv \text{CH}$	-122	8	gas

Pent-1-yne	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_2\text{CCH}$	-119	39	liquid
Hex-1-yne	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_3\text{CCH}$	-132	71	liquid

II. Chemical properties

(a) Burning/combustion

Alkynes burn with a **yellow**/ luminous very **sooty**/ smoky flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Alkyne + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)

Alkenes burn with a **yellow**/ luminous very **sooty**/ smoky flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide/carbon and water.

Alkyne + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(II) oxide /carbon + water (limited air)

Burning of alkynes with a **yellow**/ luminous **sooty**/ smoky flame is a confirmatory test for the **presence** of the **- C = C -** triple bond because they have very **high C:H ratio**.

Examples of burning alkynes

1.(a) Ethyne when ignited burns with a **yellow** very **sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Ethyne + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $2\text{C}_2\text{H}_2(\text{g}) + 5\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 4\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

(b) Ethyne when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **limited** air to form a mixture of unburnt carbon and carbon(II) oxide and water.

Ethyne + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(II) oxide + water (limited air)
 $\text{C}_2\text{H}_2(\text{g}) + \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + \text{C} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

2.(a) Propyne when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Propyne + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $\text{C}_3\text{H}_4(\text{g}) + 4\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 3\text{CO}_2(\text{g}) + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

(a) Propyne when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.

Propene + Air $\rightarrow$ carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $2\text{C}_3\text{H}_4(\text{g}) + 5\text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 6\text{CO}(\text{g}) + 4\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l/g})$

(b) Addition reactions

An addition reaction is one which an unsaturated compound reacts to form a saturated compound. Addition reactions of alkynes are also named from the reagent used to

cause the addition/convert the triple $\text{C} \equiv \text{C}$ to single $\text{C}-\text{C}$ bond.

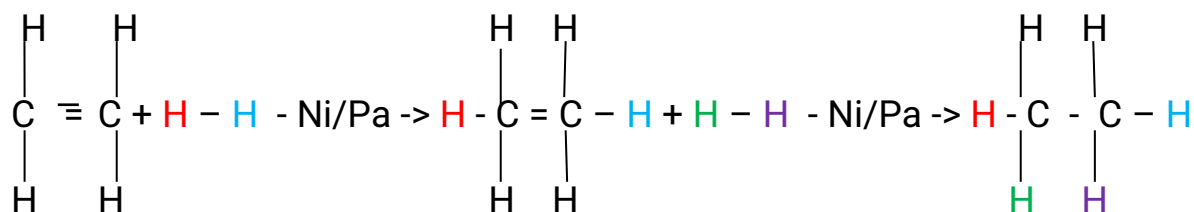
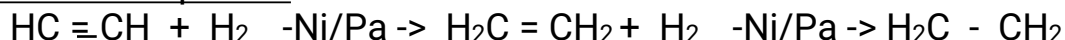
(i)Hydrogenation

Hydrogenation is an addition reaction in which **hydrogen** in presence of **Palladium/Nickel** catalyst at 150°C temperatures react with alkynes to form alkenes then alkanes.

Examples

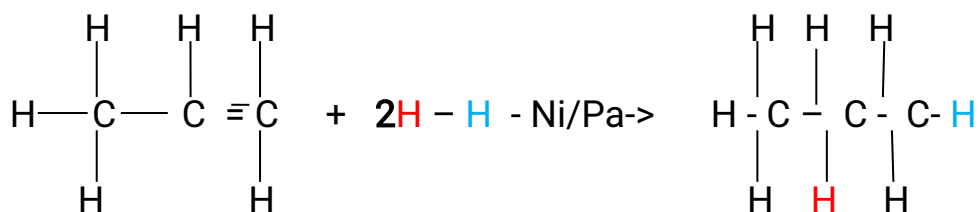
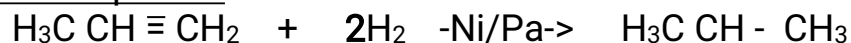
1. During hydrogenation, **two** hydrogen atom in the hydrogen molecule attach itself to one carbon and the other **two** hydrogen to the second carbon breaking the **triple** bond to **double** the **single**.

Chemical equation



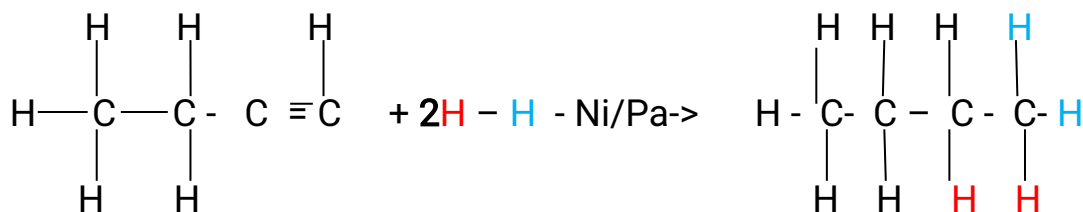
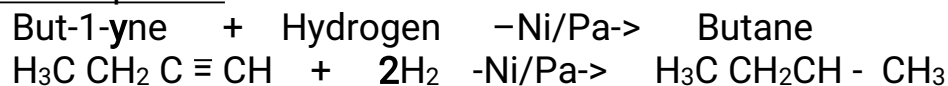
2. Propyne undergo hydrogenation to form Propane

Chemical equation

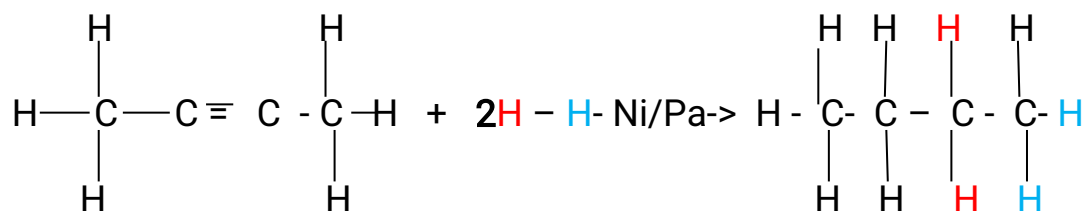
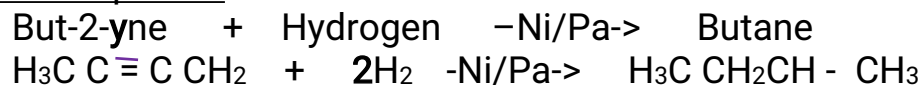


3(a) But-1-yne undergo hydrogenation to form Butane

Chemical equation



(b) But-2-yne undergo hydrogenation to form Butane

Chemical equation**(ii) Halogenation.**

Halogenation is an addition reaction in which a halogen (Fluorine, chlorine, bromine, iodine) reacts with an alkyne to form an alkene then alkane.

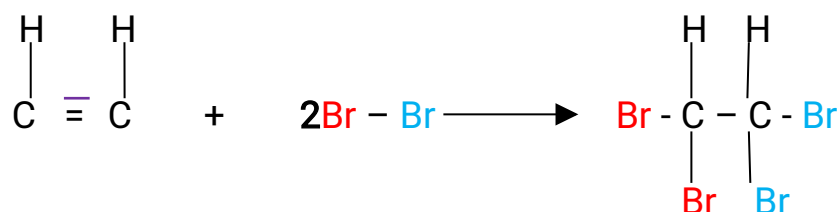
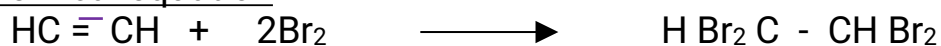
The reaction of alkynes with halogens with alkynes is **faster** than with alkenes. The triple bond in the alkyne break and form a double then single bond.

The colour of the halogen **fades** as the number of moles of the halogens remaining unreacted decreases.

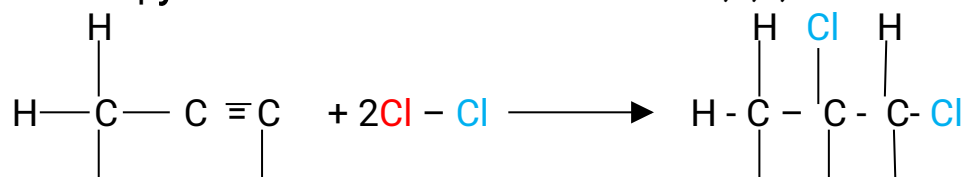
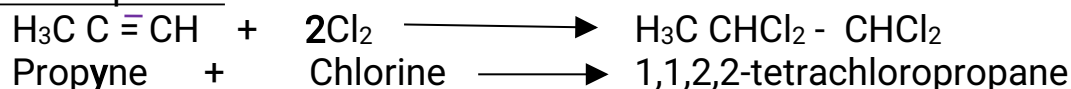
Two bromine atoms bond at the 1st carbon in the triple bond while the other two goes to the 2nd carbon.

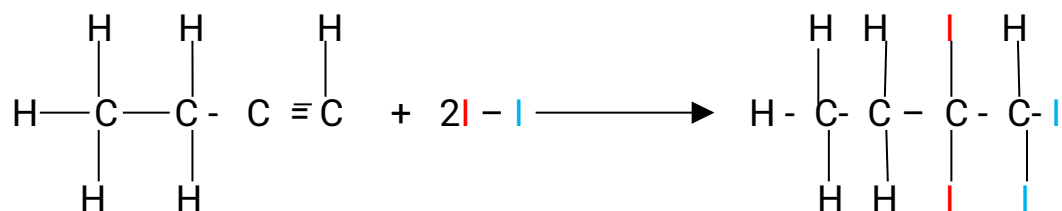
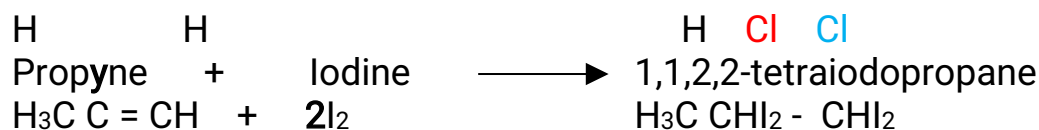
Examples

1 Ethyne reacts with brown bromine vapour to form 1,1,2,2-tetrabromoethane.

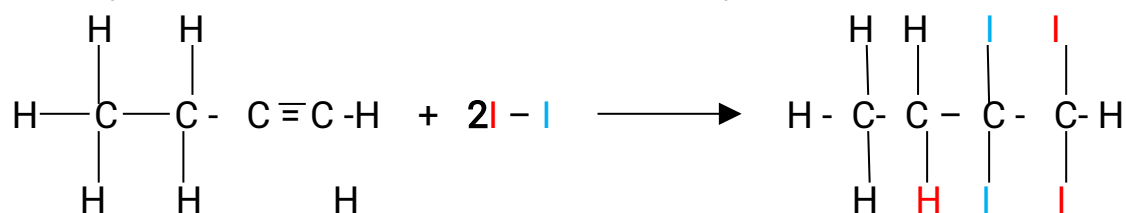
Chemical equation

2. Propyne reacts with chlorine to form 1,1,2,2-tetrachloropropane.

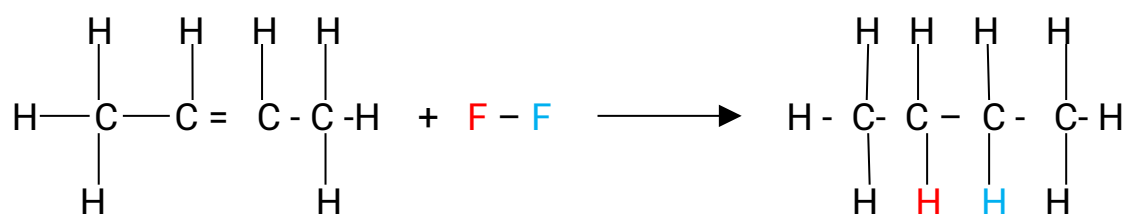
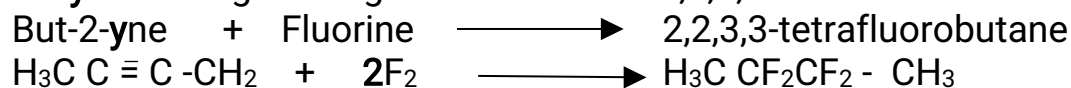
Chemical equation



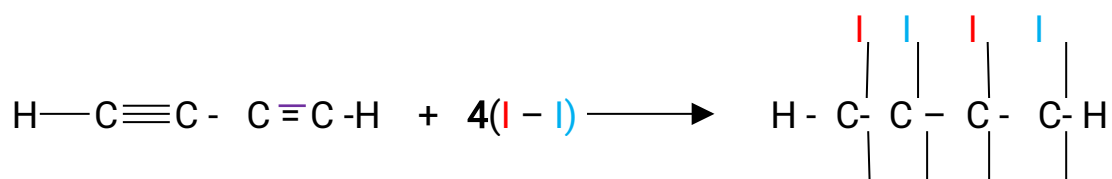
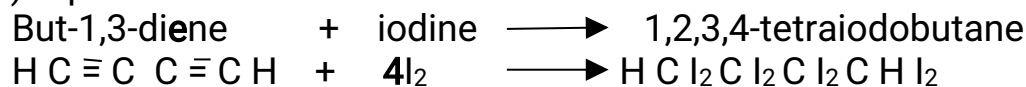
3(a) But-1-yne undergo halogenation to form 1,1,2,2-tetraiodobutane with iodine
Chemical equation



(b) But-2-yne undergo halogenation to form 2,2,3,3-tetrafluorobutane with fluorine



4. But-1,3-diyne should undergo halogenation to form 1,1,2,3,3,4,4 octaiodobutane. The reaction uses **four moles** of iodine molecules/**eight** iodine atoms to break the two(2) triple double bonds at carbon "1" and "2".





(iii) Reaction with hydrogen halides.

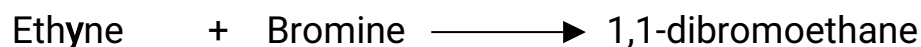
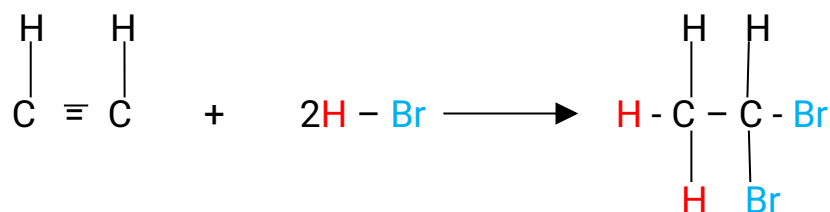
Hydrogen halides reacts with alkyne to form a halogenoalkene then halogenoalkane. The triple bond in the alkyne break and form a double then single bond.

The main compound is one which the **hydrogen** atom bond at the carbon with **more hydrogen**.

Examples

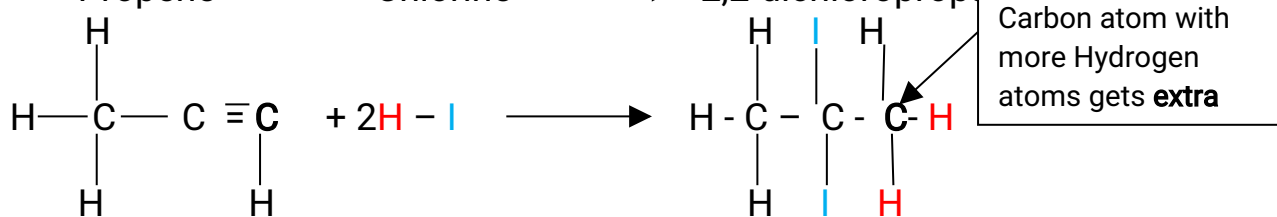
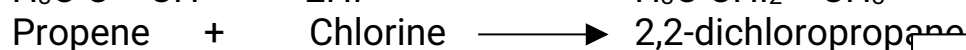
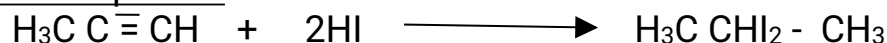
1. Ethyne reacts with hydrogen bromide to form bromoethane.

Chemical equation



2. Propyne reacts with hydrogen iodide to form 2,2-diiodopropane (as the main product)

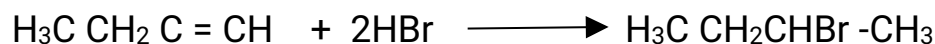
Chemical equation

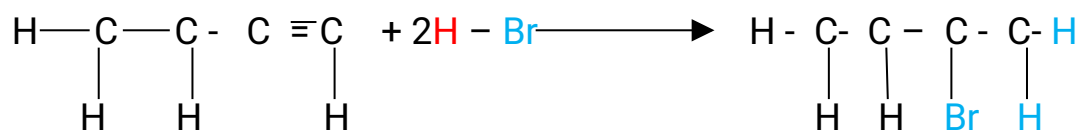


Carbon atom with more Hydrogen atoms gets **extra**

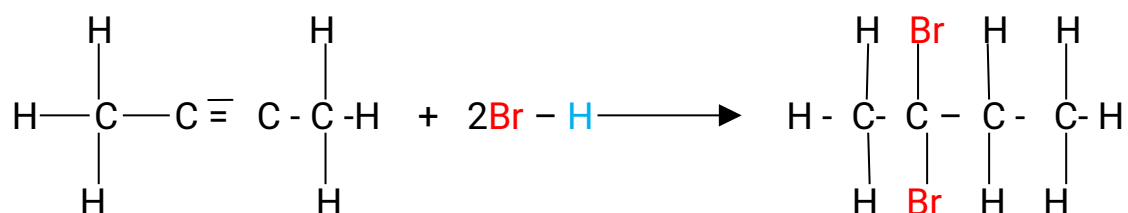
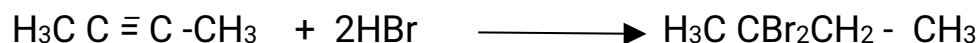
3. Both But-1-yne and But-2-yne reacts with hydrogen bromide to form 2,2-dibromobutane

Chemical equation



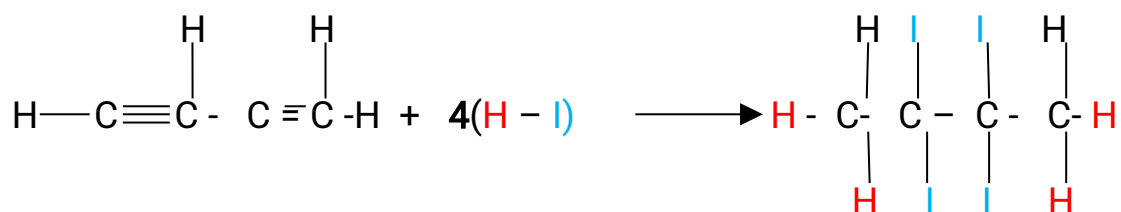


But-2-yne + Hydrogen bromide $\longrightarrow$ 2,2-dibromobutane



4. But-1,3-diene react with hydrogen iodide to form 2,3- diiodobutane. The reaction uses **four moles** of hydrogen iodide molecules/**four** iodine atoms and two hydrogen atoms to break the two double bonds.

But-1,3-diyne + iodine $\longrightarrow$ 2,2,3,3-tetraiodobutane



B.ALKANOLS(Alcohols)

(A) INTRODUCTION.

Alkanols belong to a homologous series of organic compounds with a general formula $C_nH_{2n+1}OH$ and thus $-OH$ as the functional group. The 1st ten alkanols include

n	General / molecular formular	Structural formula	IUPAC name
1	CH_3OH	$\begin{array}{c} H - C - O - H \\ \\ H \end{array}$	Methanol
2	CH_3CH_2OH C_2H_5OH	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \\ \quad \\ H - C - C - O - H \\ \quad \\ H \quad H \end{array}$	Ethanol
3	$CH_3(CH_2)_2OH$ C_3H_7OH	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \\ H - C - C - C - O - H \\ \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad H \end{array}$	Propanol
4	$CH_3(CH_2)_3OH$ C_4H_9OH	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ H - C - C - C - C - O - H \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad H \quad H \end{array}$	Butanol
5	$CH_3(CH_2)_4OH$ $C_5H_{11}OH$	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H - C - C - C - C - C - O - H \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \end{array}$	Pentanol
6	$CH_3(CH_2)_5OH$ $C_6H_{13}OH$	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H - C - C - C - C - C - C - O - H \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \end{array}$	Hexanol

		$ \begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \\ \end{array} $	
7	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_6\text{OH}$ $\text{C}_7\text{H}_{15}\text{OH}$	$ \begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H}-\text{C} & -\text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array} $	Heptanol
8	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_7\text{OH}$ $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{17}\text{OH}$	$ \begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H}-\text{C} & -\text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array} $	Octanol
9	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_8\text{OH}$ $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{19}\text{OH}$	$ \begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H}-\text{C} & -\text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array} $	Nonanol
10	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_9\text{OH}$ $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{21}\text{OH}$	$ \begin{array}{ccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H}-\text{C} & -\text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}- & \text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array} $	Decanol

Alkanols like Hydrocarbons(alkanes/alkenes/alkynes) form a homologous series where:

- (i)general name is derived from the alkane name then ending with “-ol”
- (ii)the members have –OH as the functional group
- (iii)they have the same general formula represented by R-OH where R is an alkyl group.
- (iv) each member differ by –CH₂ group from the next/previous.
- (v)they show a similar and gradual change in their physical properties e.g. boiling and melting points.
- (vi)they show similar and gradual change in their chemical properties.

B. ISOMERS OF ALKANOLS.

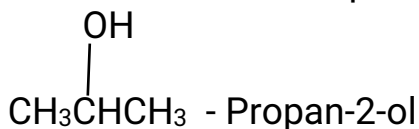
Alkanols exhibit both structural and position isomerism. The isomers are named by using the following basic guidelines:

- (i) Like alkanes, identify the **longest** carbon chain to be the parent name.
- (ii) Identify the position of the **-OH** functional group to give it the **smallest /lowest** position.
- (iii) Identify the type and position of the **side** branches.

Practice examples of isomers of alkanols

(i) Isomers of propanol C_3H_7OH

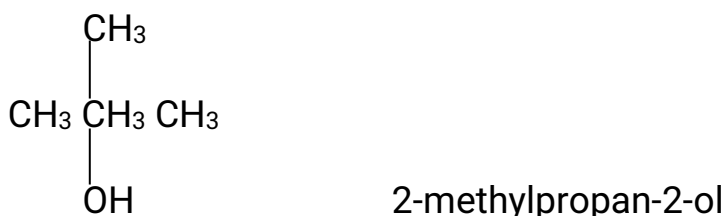
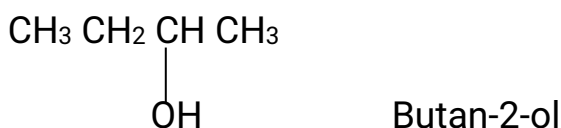
$CH_3CH_2CH_2OH$ - Propan-1-ol



Propan-2-ol and Propan-1-ol are position isomers because only the position of the $-OH$ functional group changes.

(ii) Isomers of Butanol C_4H_9OH

$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$ Butan-1-ol

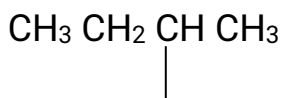


Butan-2-ol and Butan-1-ol are position isomers because only the position of the $-OH$ functional group changes.

2-methylpropan-2-ol is both a structural and position isomers because both the position of the functional group and the arrangement of the atoms in the molecule changes.

(iii) Isomers of Pentanol $C_5H_{11}OH$

$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$ Pentan-1-ol (Position isomer)

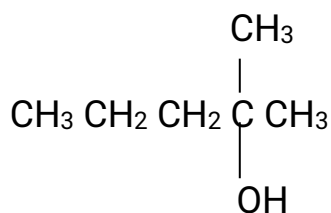




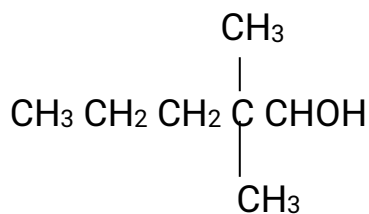
Pentan-2-ol (Position isomer)



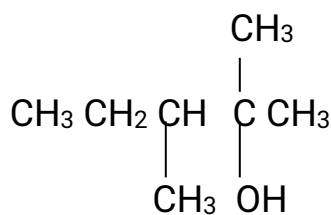
Pentan-3-ol (Position isomer)



2-methylbutan-2-ol (Position /structural isomer)

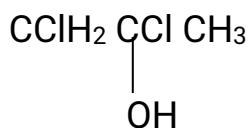


2,2-dimethylbutan-1-ol (Position /structural isomer)

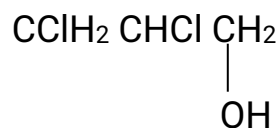


2,3-dimethylbutan-1-ol (Position /structural isomer)

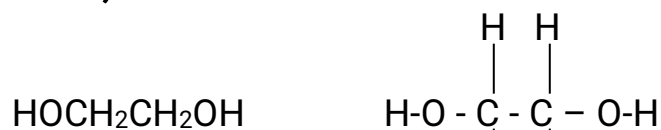
(iv) 1,2-dichloropropan-2-ol



(v) 1,2-dichloropropan-1-ol

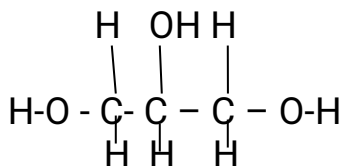


(vi) Ethan1,2-diol



H H

(vii) Propan1,2,3-triol

**C. LABORATORY PREPARATION OF ALKANOLS.**

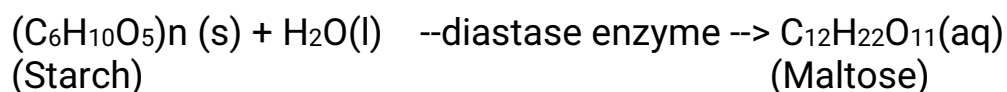
For decades the world over, people have been fermenting grapes juice, sugar, carbohydrates and starch to produce ethanol as a social drug for relaxation. In large amount, drinking of ethanol by mammals /human beings causes mental and physical lack of coordination.

Prolonged intake of ethanol causes permanent mental and physical lack of coordination because it damages vital organs like the liver.

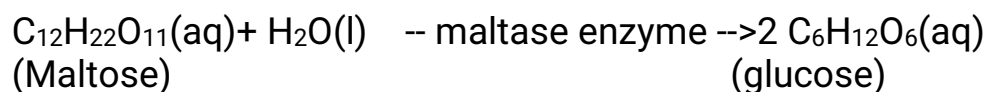
Fermentation is the reaction where sugar is converted to alcohol/alkanol using biological catalyst/enzymes in **yeast**.

It involves **three** processes:

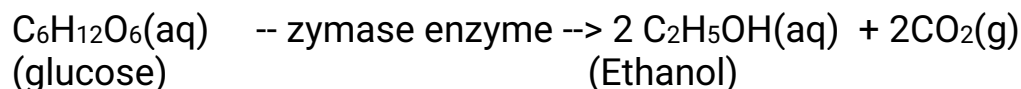
(i) Conversion of starch to maltose using the enzyme **diastase**.



(ii) Hydrolysis of Maltose to glucose using the enzyme **maltase**.



(iii) Conversion of glucose to ethanol and carbon(IV)oxide gas using the enzyme **zymase**.



At concentration greater than 15% by volume, the ethanol produced kills the yeast enzyme stopping the reaction.

To increase the concentration, fractional distillation is done to produce spirits (e.g. Brandy=40% ethanol).

Methanol is much more poisonous /toxic than ethanol.

Taken large quantity in small quantity it causes instant blindness and liver, killing the consumer victim within hours.

School laboratory preparation of ethanol from fermentation of glucose

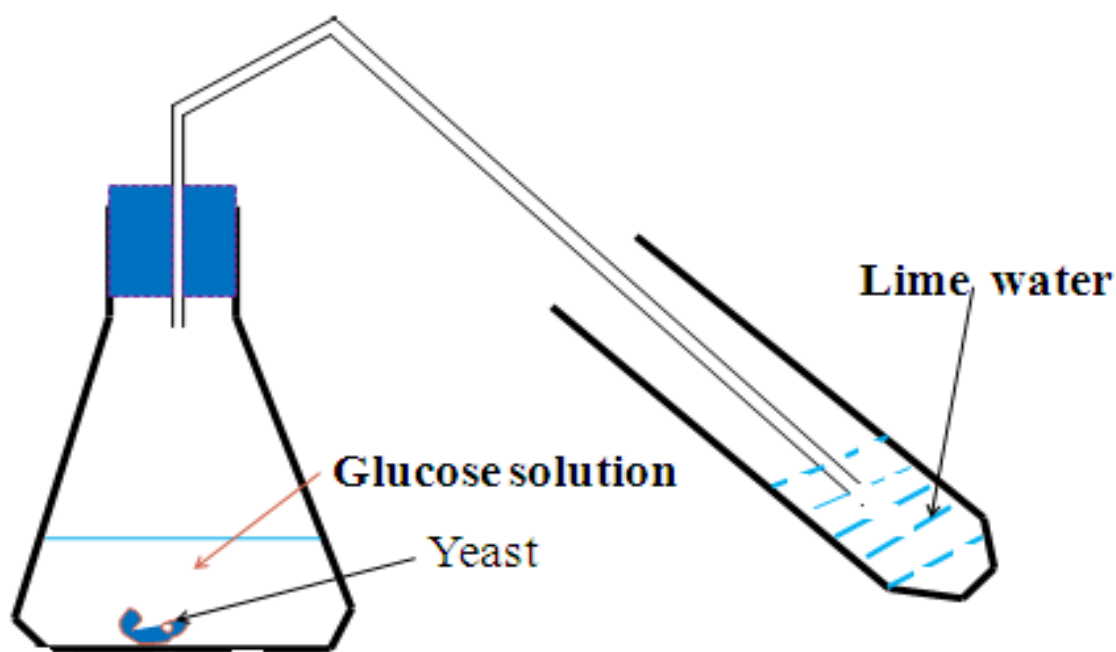
Measure 100cm³ of pure water into a conical flask.

Add about five spatula end full of glucose.

Stir the mixture to dissolve.

Add about one spatula end full of yeast.

Set up the apparatus as below.



Preserve the mixture for about **three** days.

D. PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF ALKANOLS

Use the prepared sample above for the following experiments that shows the characteristic properties of alkanols

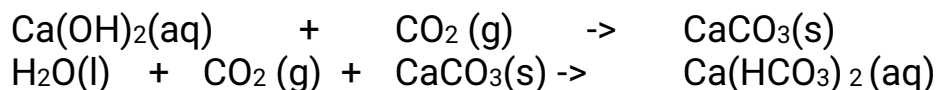
(a) Role of yeast

Yeast is a single cell fungus which contains the enzyme maltase and zymase that catalyse the fermentation process.

(b) Observations in lime water.

A white precipitate is formed that dissolve to a colourless solution later. Lime water/Calcium hydroxide reacts with carbon(IV)oxide produced during the fermentation to form insoluble calcium carbonate and water.

More carbon (IV) oxide produced during fermentation react with the insoluble calcium carbonate and water to form soluble calcium hydrogen carbonate.



(c) Effects on litmus paper

Experiment

Take the prepared sample and test with both blue and red litmus papers. Repeat the same with pure ethanol and methylated spirit.

Sample Observation table

Substance/alkanol	Effect on litmus paper
Prepared sample	Blue litmus paper remain blue Red litmus paper remain red
Absolute ethanol	Blue litmus paper remain blue Red litmus paper remain red
Methylated spirit	Blue litmus paper remain blue Red litmus paper remain red

Explanation

Alkanols are neutral compounds/solution that have characteristic sweet smell and taste.

They have no effect on both blue and red litmus papers.

(d) Solubility in water.

Experiment

Place about 5cm³ of prepared sample into a clean test tube Add equal amount of distilled water.

Repeat the same with pure ethanol and methylated spirit.

Observation

No layers formed between the two liquids.

Explanation

Ethanol is **miscible** in water. Both ethanol and water are polar compounds.

The solubility of alkanols decrease with increase in the alkyl chain/molecular mass.

The alkyl group is insoluble in water while –OH functional group is soluble in water.

As the molecular chain becomes **longer**, the effect of the **alkyl** group **increases** as the effect of the functional group **decreases**.

e) Melting/boiling point.

Experiment

Place pure ethanol in a long boiling tube. Determine its boiling point.

Observation

Pure ethanol has a boiling point of 78°C at sea level/one atmosphere pressure.

Explanation

The melting and boiling point of alkanols increase with increase in molecular chain/mass .

This is because the intermolecular/van-der-waals forces of attraction between the molecules increase.

More heat energy is thus required to weaken the longer chain during melting and break during boiling.

f)Density

Density of alkanols increase with increase in the intermolecular/van-der-waals forces of attraction between the molecule, making it very close to each other.

This reduces the volume occupied by the molecule and thus increase the their mass per unit volume (density).

Summary table showing the trend in physical properties of alkanols

Alkanol	Melting point (°C)	Boiling point (°C)	Density gcm ⁻³	Solubility in water
Methanol	-98	65	0.791	soluble
Ethanol	-117	78	0.789	soluble
Propanol	-103	97	0.803	soluble
Butanol	-89	117	0.810	Slightly soluble
Pentanol	-78	138	0.814	Slightly soluble
Hexanol	-52	157	0.815	Slightly soluble
Heptanol	-34	176	0.822	Slightly soluble
Octanol	-15	195	0.824	Slightly soluble
Nonanol	-7	212	0.827	Slightly soluble
Decanol	6	228	0.827	Slightly soluble

g)BurningExperiment

Place the prepared sample in a watch glass. Ignite. Repeat with pure ethanol and methylated spirit.

Observation/Explanation

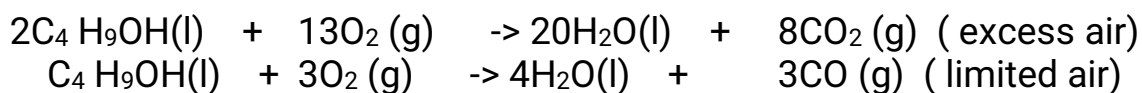
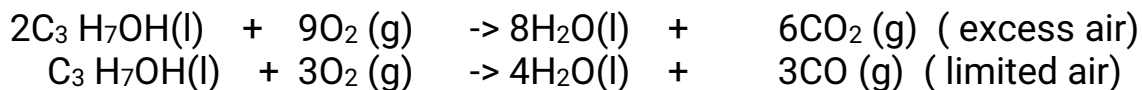
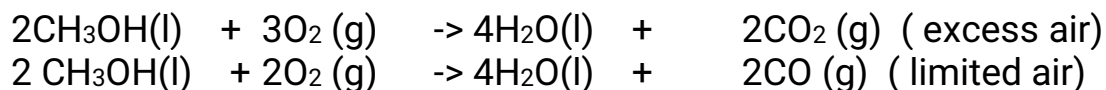
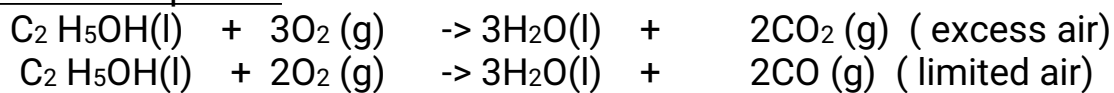
Fermentation produce ethanol with a lot of water(about a ratio of 1:3)which prevent the alcohol from igniting.

Pure ethanol and methylated spirit easily catch fire / highly flammable.

They burn with an almost colourless non-sooty/non-smoky **blue** flame to form

carbon(IV) oxide (in excess air/oxygen) or **carbon(II) oxide** (limited air) and **water**. Ethanol is thus a **saturated** compound like alkanes.

Chemical equation



Due to its flammability, ethanol is used;

- (i) as a fuel in spirit lamps
- (ii) as gasohol when blended with gasoline

(h)Formation of alkoxides

Experiment

Cut a very small piece of sodium. Put it in a beaker containing about 20cm³ of the prepared sample in a beaker.

Test the products with litmus papers. Repeat with absolute ethanol and methylated spirit.

Sample observations

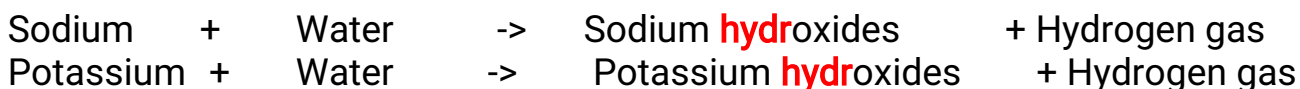
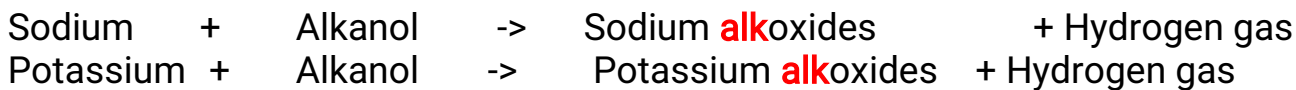
Substance/alkanol	Effect of adding sodium
Fermentation prepared sample	(i)effervescence/fizzing/bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that extinguish burning splint with explosion/ "Pop" sound (iii)colourless solution formed (iv)blue litmus papers remain blue (v)red litmus papers turn blue
Pure/absolute ethanol/methylated spirit	(i) slow effervescence/fizzing/bubbles (ii)colourless gas slowly produced that extinguish burning splint with explosion/ "Pop" sound (iii)colourless solution formed (iv)blue litmus papers remain blue

(v)red litmus papers turn blue

Explanations

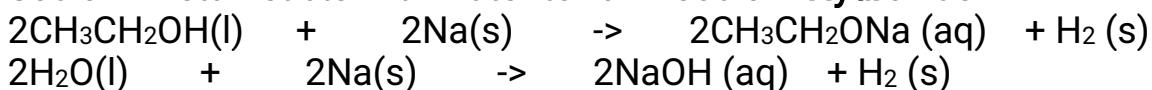
Sodium/potassium reacts slowly with alkanols to form basic solution called **alkoxides** and producing **hydrogen** gas.

If the alkanol has some water the metals react faster with the water to form **soluble hydroxides/alkalis** i.e.

Examples

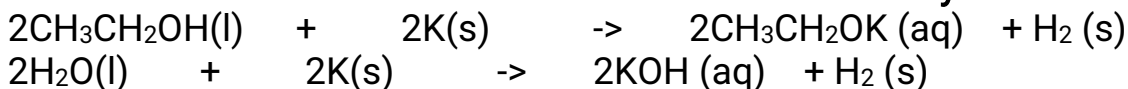
1.Sodium metal reacts with ethanol to form sodium **ethoxide**

Sodium metal reacts with water to form sodium **Hydroxide**



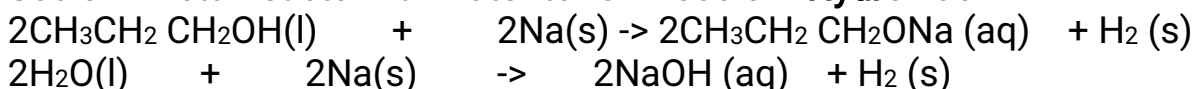
2.Potassium metal reacts with ethanol to form Potassium **ethoxide**

Potassium metal reacts with water to form Potassium **Hydroxide**



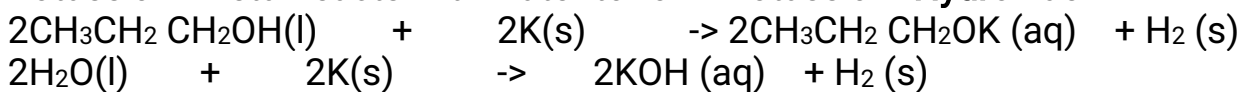
3.Sodium metal reacts with propanol to form sodium **propoxide**

Sodium metal reacts with water to form sodium **Hydroxide**



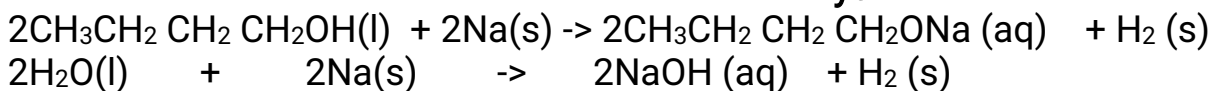
4.Potassium metal reacts with propanol to form Potassium **propoxide**

Potassium metal reacts with water to form Potassium **Hydroxide**



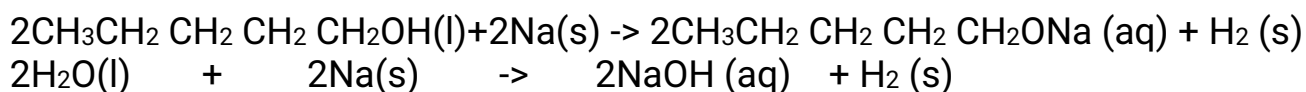
5.Sodium metal reacts with butanol to form sodium **butoxide**

Sodium metal reacts with water to form sodium **Hydroxide**



6.Sodium metal reacts with pentanol to form sodium **pentoxide**

Sodium metal reacts with water to form sodium **Hydroxide**



(i) Formation of Esters/Esterification

Experiment

Place 2cm³ of ethanol in a boiling tube.

Add equal amount of ethanoic acid. To the mixture add carefully 2 drops of concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid.

Warm/Heat gently.

Pour the mixture into a beaker containing about 50cm³ of cold water.

Smell the products.

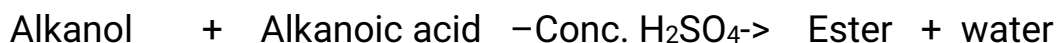
Repeat with methanol

Sample observations

Substance/alkanol	Effect on adding equal amount of ethanol/concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid
Absolute ethanol	Sweet fruity smell
Methanol	Sweet fruity smell

Explanation

Alkanols react with alkanoic acids to form a group of homologous series of sweet smelling compounds called esters and water. This reaction is catalyzed by concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid in the laboratory.

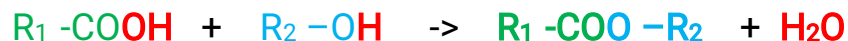


Naturally esterification is catalyzed by sunlight. Each ester has a characteristic smell derived from the many possible combinations of alkanols and alkanoic acids that create a variety of known natural (mostly in fruits) and synthetic (mostly in juices) esters.

Esters derive their names from the alkanol first then alkanoic acids. The alkanol "becomes" an **alkyl** group and the alkanoic acid "becomes" **alkanoate** hence **alkylalkanoate**. e.g.

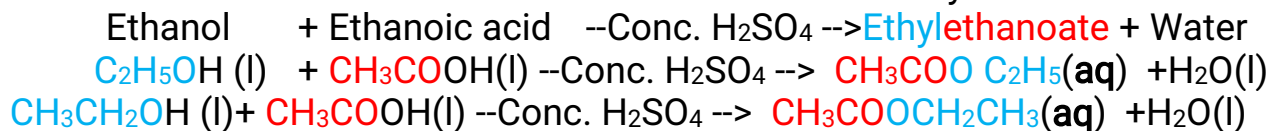
Ethanol	+	Ethanoic acid	->	Ethylethanoate	+	Water
Ethanol	+	Propanoic acid	->	Ethylpropanoate	+	Water
Ethanol	+	Methanoic acid	->	Ethylmethanoate	+	Water
Ethanol	+	butanoic acid	->	Ethylbutanoate	+	Water
Propanol	+	Ethanoic acid	->	Propylethanoate	+	Water
Methanol	+	Ethanoic acid	->	Methylethanoate	+	Water
Methanol	+	Decanoic acid	->	Methyldecanoate	+	Water
Decanol	+	Methanoic acid	->	Decylmethanoate	+	Water

During the formation of the ester, the "O" joining the alkanol and alkanoic acid comes from the alkanol.

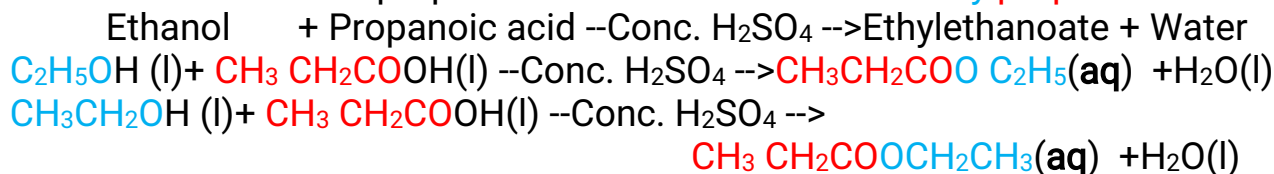


e.g.

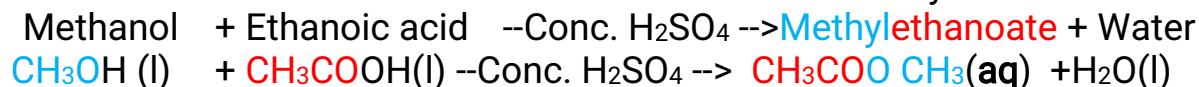
1. Ethanol reacts with ethanoic acid to form the ester ethyl ethanoate and water.



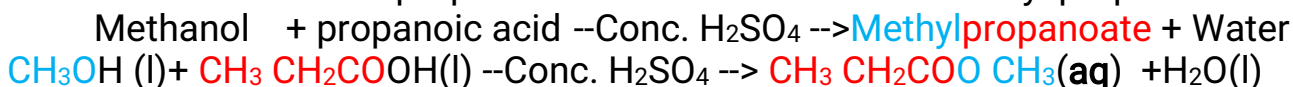
2. Ethanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester ethylpropanoate and water.



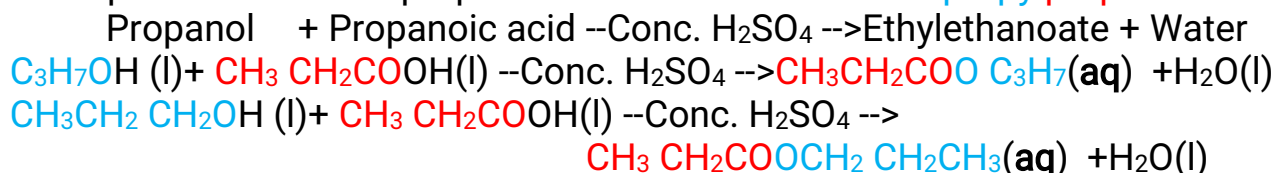
3. Methanol reacts with ethanoic acid to form the ester methyl ethanoate and water.



4. Methanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester methyl propanoate and water.



5. Propanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester propylpropanoate and water.



(i)Oxidation

Experiment

Place 5cm³ of absolute ethanol in a test tube. Add three drops of acidified potassium manganate(VII). Shake thoroughly for one minute/warm. Test the solution mixture using pH paper. Repeat by adding acidified potassium dichromate(VII).

Sample observation table

Substance/alkanol	Adding acidified KMnO ₄ /K ₂ Cr ₂ O ₇	pH of resulting solution/mixture	Nature of resulting solution/mixture
Pure ethanol	(i)Purple colour of KMnO ₄ decolorized	pH= 4/5/6	Weakly acidic

	(ii) Orange colour of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ turns green.	pH = 4/5/6	Weakly acidic
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Explanation

Both acidified $KMnO_4$ and $K_2Cr_2O_7$ are oxidizing agents (add oxygen to other compounds). They oxidize alkanols to a group of homologous series called alkanals then further oxidize them to alkanoic acids. The oxidizing agents are themselves reduced hence changing their colour:

(i) Purple $KMnO_4$ is reduced to colourless Mn^{2+}

(ii) Orange $K_2Cr_2O_7$ is reduced to green Cr^{3+}

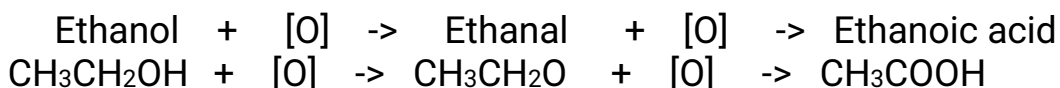
The pH of alkanoic acids show they have few H^+ because they are weak acids i.e



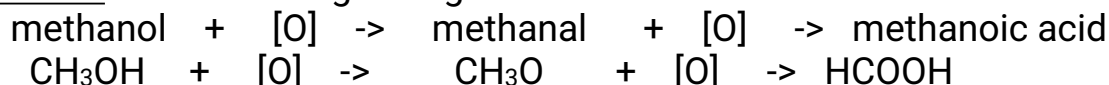
NB The $[O]$ comes from the oxidizing agents acidified $KMnO_4$ or $K_2Cr_2O_7$

Examples

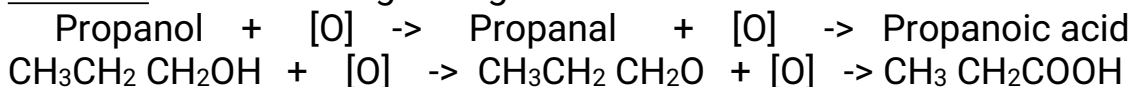
1. When ethanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $KMnO_4$ there is decolorization of $KMnO_4$



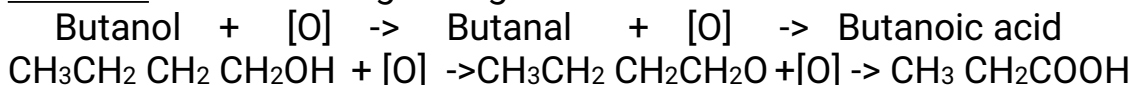
2. When methanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $K_2Cr_2O_7$, the orange colour of acidified $K_2Cr_2O_7$ changes to green.



3. When propanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $K_2Cr_2O_7$, the orange colour of acidified $K_2Cr_2O_7$ changes to green.



4. When butanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $K_2Cr_2O_7$, the orange colour of acidified $K_2Cr_2O_7$ changes to green.

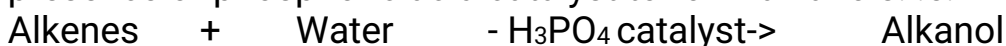


Air slowly oxidizes ethanol to dilute ethanoic acid commonly called **vinegar**. If beer is not tightly corked, a lot of carbon(IV)oxide escapes and there is slow oxidation of the beer making it "flat".

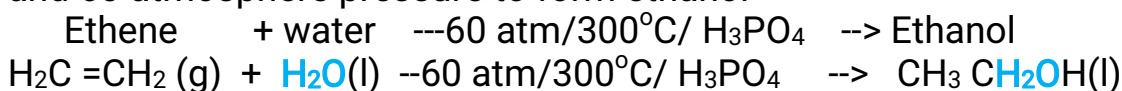
(k)Hydrolysis /Hydration and Dehydration

I. Hydrolysis/Hydration is the reaction of a compound/substance with water.

Alkenes react with water vapour/steam at high temperatures and high pressures in presence of phosphoric acid catalyst to form alkanols.i.e.

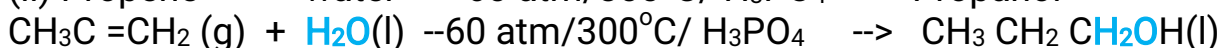
**Examples**

(i)Ethene is mixed with steam over a phosphoric acid catalyst at 300°C temperature and 60 atmosphere pressure to form ethanol

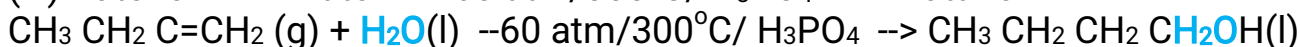


This is the main method of producing large quantities of ethanol instead of fermentation

(ii) Propene + water $\xrightarrow{60 \text{ atm}/300^\circ\text{C}/\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4}$ Propanol

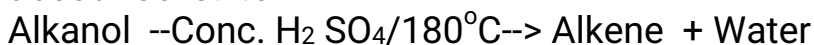


(iii) Butene + water $\xrightarrow{60 \text{ atm}/300^\circ\text{C}/\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4}$ Butanol

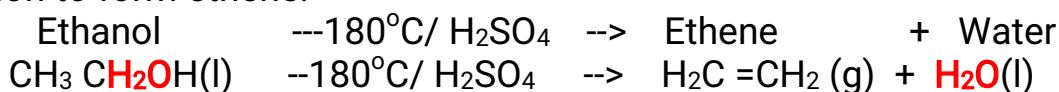


II. Dehydration is the process which concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid (**dehydrating agent**) removes water from a compound/substances.

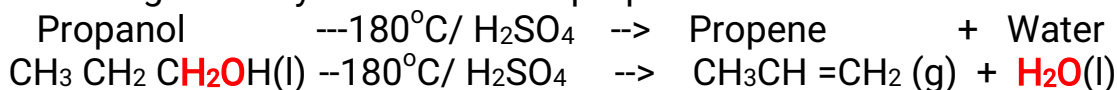
Concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid dehydrates alkanols to the corresponding alkenes at about 180°C. i.e

**Examples**

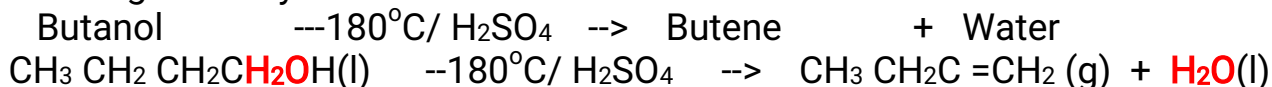
1. At 180°C and in presence of Concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid, ethanol undergoes dehydration to form ethene.



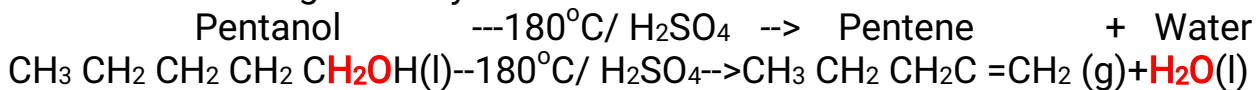
2. Propanol undergoes dehydration to form propene.



3. Butanol undergoes dehydration to form Butene.



3. Pentanol undergoes dehydration to form Pentene.

**(l)Similarities of alkanols with Hydrocarbons****I. Similarity with alkanes**

Both alkanols and alkanes burn with a **blue non-sooty flame** to form carbon(IV)oxide(in excess air/oxygen)/carbon(II)oxide(in limited air) and water. This shows they are

saturated with high C:H ratio. e.g.

Both ethanol and ethane ignite and burns in air with a **blue non-sooty flame** to form carbon(IV)oxide(in excess air/oxygen)/carbon(II)oxide(in limited air) and water.



II. Similarity with alkenes/alkynes

Both alkanols(R-OH) and alkenes/alkynes(with = C = C = double and $\text{--C}\equiv\text{C--}$ triple) bond:

(i) decolorize acidified KMnO_4

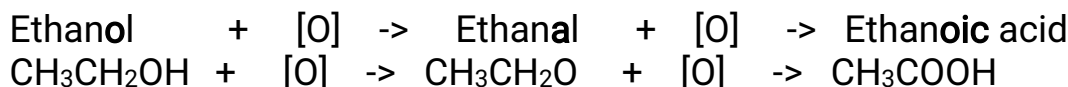
(ii) turns Orange acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ to green.

Alkanols(R-OH) are oxidized to alkanals(R-O) and then alkanolic acids(R-COOH).

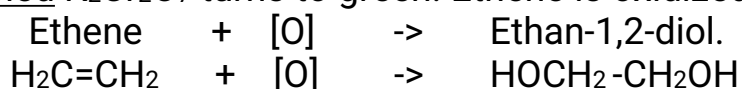
Alkenes are oxidized to alkanols with duo/double functional groups.

Examples

1. When ethanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ the orange of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ turns to green. Ethanol is oxidized to ethanal and then to ethanoic acid.



2. When ethene is bubbled in a test tube containing acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, the orange of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ turns to green. Ethene is oxidized to ethan-1,2-diol.



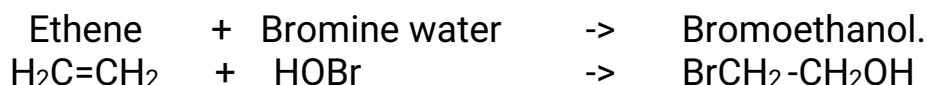
III. Differences with alkenes/alkynes

Alkanols do not decolorize bromine and chlorine water.

Alkenes decolorizes bromine and chlorine water to form halogenoalkanol

Example

When ethene is bubbled in a test tube containing bromine water, the bromine water is decolorized. Ethene is oxidized to bromoethanol.



IV. Differences in melting and boiling point with Hydrocarbons

Alkanols have higher melting point than the corresponding hydrocarbon (alkane/alkene/alkyne)

This is because most alkanols exist as **dimer**. A dimer is a molecule made up of two other molecules joined usually by van-der-waals forces/hydrogen bond or dative bonding.

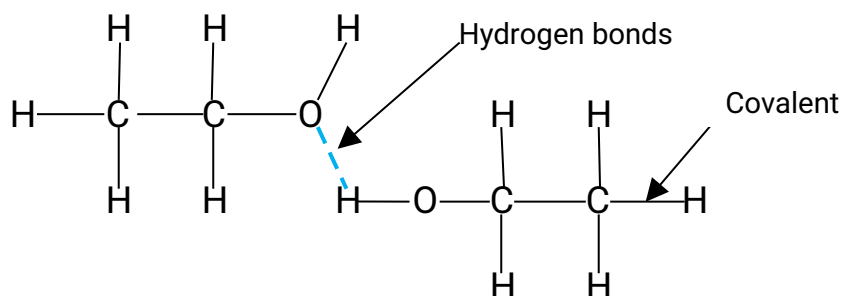
Two alkanol molecules form a dimer joined by hydrogen bonding.

Example

In Ethanol the oxygen atom attracts/pulls the shared electrons in the covalent bond more to itself than Hydrogen.

This creates a partial negative charge (δ^-) on oxygen and partial positive charge (δ^+) on hydrogen.

Two ethanol molecules attract each other at the partial charges through Hydrogen bonding forming a **dimer**.



Dimerization of alkanols means more energy is needed to break/weaken the Hydrogen bonds before breaking/weakening the intermolecular forces joining the molecules of all organic compounds during boiling/melting.

E. USES OF SOME ALKANOLS

(a) Methanol is used as industrial alcohol and making methylated spirit

(b) Ethanol is used:

1. as alcohol in alcoholic drinks e.g Beer, wines and spirits.
2. as antiseptic to wash wounds
3. in manufacture of vanishes, ink, glue and paint because it is volatile and thus easily evaporate
4. as a fuel when blended with petrol to make gasohol.

B. ALKANOIC ACIDS (Carboxylic acids)

(A) INTRODUCTION.

Alkanoic acids belong to a homologous series of organic compounds with a general

formula $C_nH_{2n+1}COOH$ and thus $-COOH$ as the functional group. The 1st ten alkanolic acids include:

n	General /molecular formula	Structural formula	IUPAC name
0	$HCOOH$	$\begin{array}{c} H - C - O - H \\ \\ O \end{array}$	Methanoic acid
1	CH_3COOH	$\begin{array}{c} H \\ \\ H - C - C - O - H \\ \quad \\ H \quad O \end{array}$	Ethanoic acid
2	CH_3CH_2COOH C_2H_5COOH	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \\ \quad \\ H - C - C - C - O - \\ \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad O \end{array}$	Propanoic acid
3	$CH_3CH_2CH_2COOH$ C_3H_7COOH	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \\ H - C - C - C - C - O - \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad H \quad O \end{array}$	Butanoic acid
4	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$ C_4H_9COOH	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ H - C - C - C - C - C - O - \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad O \end{array}$	Pentanoic acid
5	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$ $C_5H_{11}COOH$	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H - C - C - C - C - C - C - O - \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad O \end{array}$	Hexanoic acid
6	$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2COOH$ $C_6H_{13}COOH$	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H - C - C - C - C - C - C - C - O - \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad H \quad O \end{array}$	Heptanoic acid

		H H H H H H O	
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Alkanoic acids like alkanols /alkanes/alkenes/alkynes form a homologous series where:

(i) the general name of an alkanoic acid is derived from the alkane name then ending with “-oic” acid as the table above shows.

(ii) the members have $R-\text{COOH}/R-\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{O}-\text{H}$ as the functional group.

(iii) they have the same general formula represented by $R-\text{COOH}$ where R is an alkyl group.

(iv) each member differs by $-\text{CH}_2-$ group from the next/previous.

(v) they show a similar and gradual change in their physical properties e.g. boiling and melting point.

(vi) they show similar and gradual change in their chemical properties.

(vii) since they are acids they show similar properties with mineral acids.

(B) ISOMERS OF ALKANOIC ACIDS.

Alkanoic acids exhibit both structural and position isomerism. The isomers are named by using the following basic guidelines

(i) Like alkanes. identify the longest carbon chain to be the parent name.

(ii) Identify the position of the $-\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{O}-\text{H}$ functional group to give it the smallest

/lowest position.

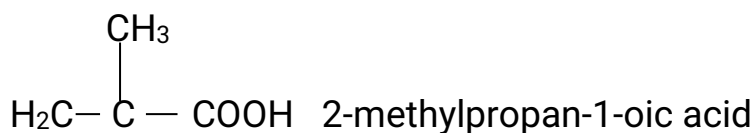
(iii) Identify the type and position of the side group branches.

Practice examples on isomers of alkanoic acids

1. Isomers of butanoic acid $\text{C}_3\text{H}_7\text{COOH}$

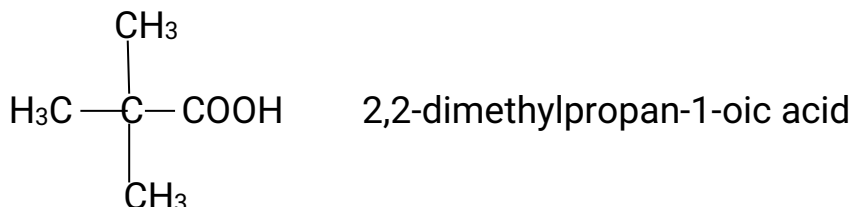
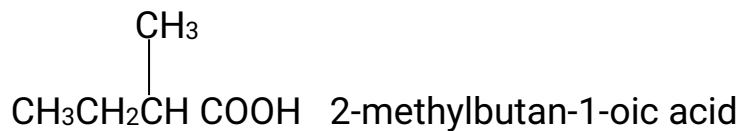
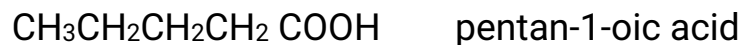


Butan-1-oic acid



2-methylpropan-1-oic acid and Butan-1-oic acid are structural isomers because the position of the functional group does not change but the arrangement of the atoms in the molecule does.

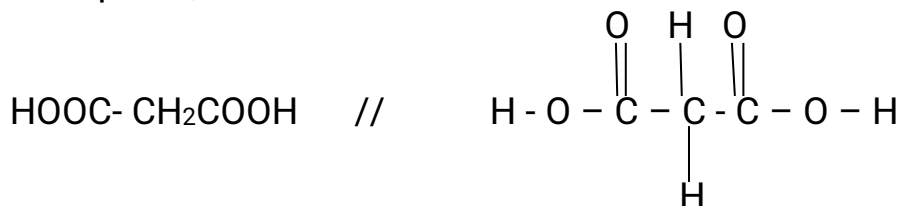
2. Isomers of pentanoic acid $\text{C}_4\text{H}_9\text{COOH}$



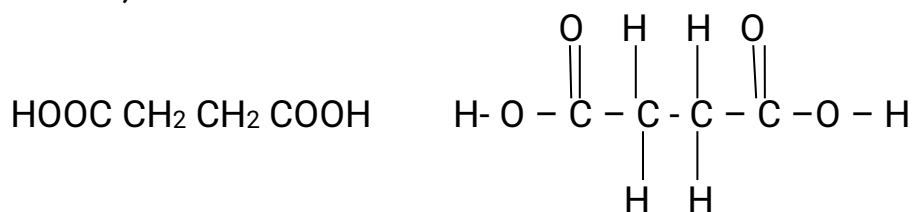
3.Ethan-1,2-dioic acid



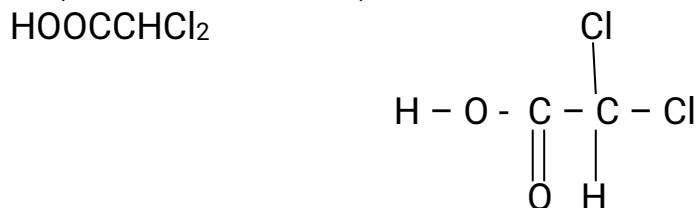
4.Propan-1,3-dioic acid



5.Butan-1,4-dioic acid



6.2,2-dichloroethan-1,2-dioic acid



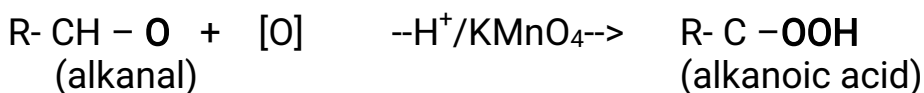
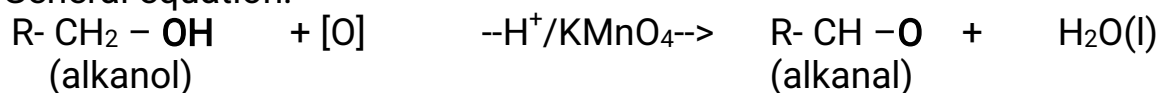
(C) LABORATORY AND INDUSTRIAL PREPARATION OF ALKANOIC ACIDS.

In a school laboratory, alkanolic acids can be prepared by adding an oxidizing agent (H^+/KMnO_4 or $\text{H}^+/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$) to the corresponding alkanol then warming.

The oxidation converts the alkanol first to an alkanal then the alkanoic acid.

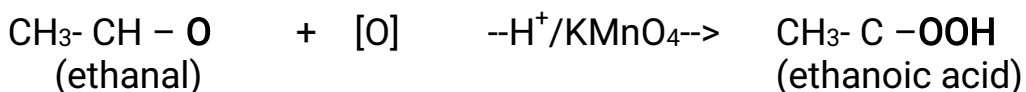
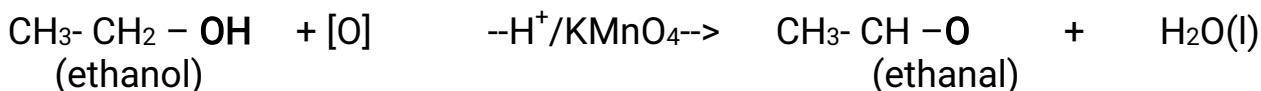
NB Acidified KMnO_4 is a stronger oxidizing agent than acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$

General equation:

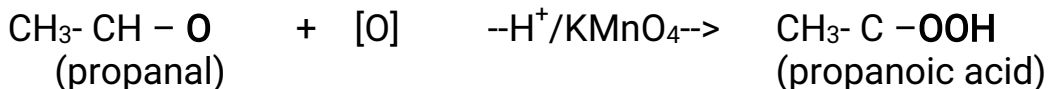
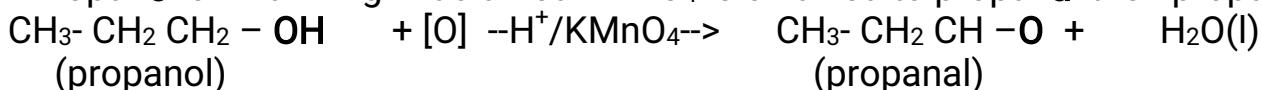


Examples

1. Ethanol on warming in acidified KMnO_4 is oxidized to ethanal then ethanoic acid.



2Propanol on warming in acidified KMnO_4 is oxidized to propanal then propanoic acid



Industrially, large scale manufacture of alkanoic acid like ethanoic acid is obtained from:

(a) Alkenes reacting with steam at high temperatures and pressure in presence of phosphoric(V) acid catalyst and undergo hydrolysis to form alkanols. i.e.

Alkenes + Steam/water -- H_2PO_4 Catalyst --> Alkanol

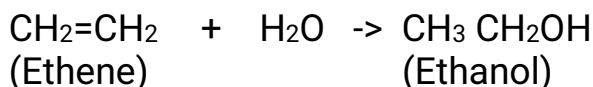
The alkanol is then oxidized by air at 5 atmosphere pressure with Manganese (II) sulphate(VI) catalyst to form the alkanoic acid.

$$\text{Alkanol} + \text{Air} \xrightarrow{\text{MnSO}_4 \text{ Catalyst/5 atm pressure}} \text{Alkanoic acid}$$

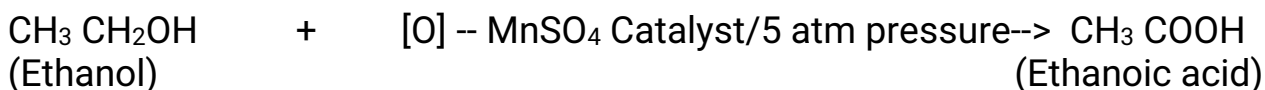
Example

Ethene is mixed with steam over a phosphoric(V) acid catalyst, 300°C temperature and

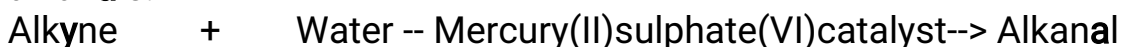
60 atmosphere pressure to form ethanol.



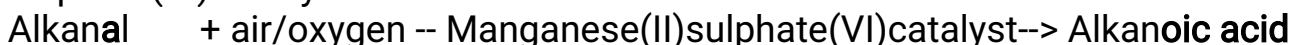
This is the industrial large scale method of manufacturing ethanol. Ethanol is then oxidized by air at 5 atmosphere pressure with Manganese (II)sulphate(VI) catalyst to form the ethanoic acid.



(b) Alkynes react with liquid water at high temperatures and pressure in presence of Mercury(II)sulphate(VI)catalyst and 30% concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid to form alkanals.

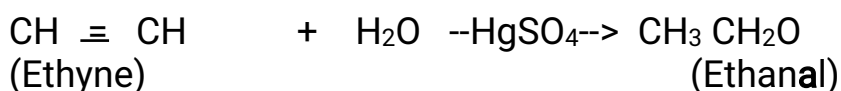


The alkanal is then oxidized by air at 5 atmosphere pressure with Manganese (II) sulphate(VI) catalyst to form the alkanoic acid.



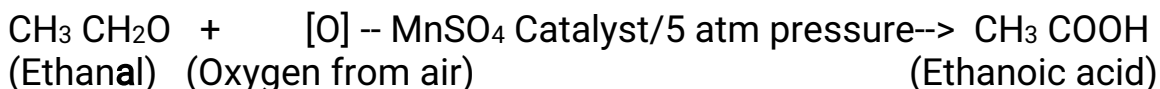
Example

Ethyne react with liquid water at high temperature and pressure with Mercury (II) sulphate (VI)catalyst and 30% concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid to form ethanal.



This is another industrial large scale method of manufacturing ethanol from large quantities of ethyne found in natural gas.

Ethanal is then oxidized by air at 5 atmosphere pressure with Manganese (II)sulphate(VI) catalyst to form the ethanoic acid.



(D) PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF ALKANOIC ACIDS.

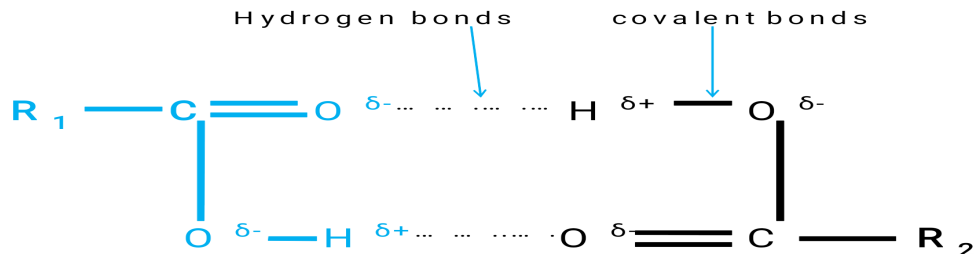
I. Physical properties of alkanoic acids

The table below shows some physical properties of alkanoic acids

Alkanol	Melting point($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Boiling point($^{\circ}\text{C}$)	Density(gcm^{-3})	Solubility in water
Methanoic acid	18.4	101	1.22	soluble
Ethanoic acid	16.6	118	1.05	soluble
Propanoic acid	-2.8	141	0.992	soluble
Butanoic acid	-8.0	164	0.964	soluble
Pentanoic acid	-9.0	187	0.939	Slightly soluble
Hexanoic acid	-11	205	0.927	Slightly soluble
Heptanoic acid	-3	223	0.920	Slightly soluble
Octanoic acid	11	239	0.910	Slightly soluble
Nonanoic acid	16	253	0.907	Slightly soluble
Decanoic acid	31	269	0.905	Slightly soluble

From the table note the following:

- (i) Melting and boiling point decrease as the carbon chain increases due to increase in intermolecular forces of attraction between the molecules requiring more energy to separate the molecules.
- (ii) The density decreases as the carbon chain increases as the intermolecular forces of attraction increases between the molecules making the molecule very close reducing their volume in unit mass.
- (iii) Solubility decreases as the carbon chain increases as the soluble $-\text{COOH}$ end is shielded by increasing insoluble alkyl/hydrocarbon chain.
- (iv) Like alkanols, alkanoic acids exist as dimers due to the hydrogen bonds within the molecule. i.e..

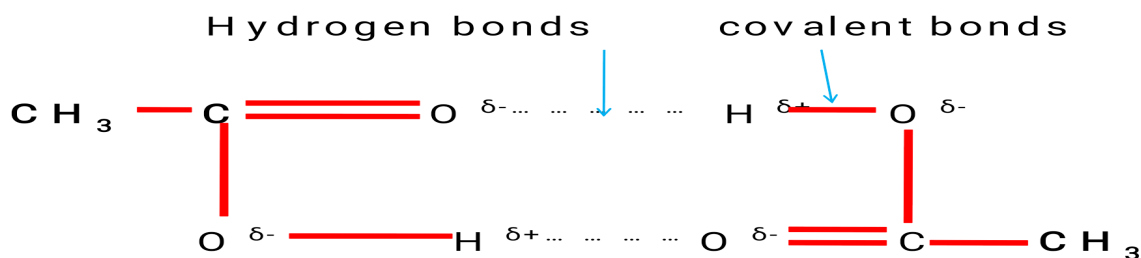


R_1 and R_2 are **extensions** of the molecule.

For ethanoic acid the extension is made up of $CH_3 -$ to make the structure;

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For ethanoic acid the extension is made up of $CH_3 -$ to make the structure;



Ethanoic acid has a **higher** melting/boiling point than ethanol. This is because ethanoic acid has **two/more** hydrogen bond than ethanol.

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II Chemical properties of alkanoic acids

The following experiments shows the main chemical properties of ethanoic (alkanoic) acid.

(a) Effect on litmus papers

Experiment

Dip both blue and red litmus papers in ethanoic acid. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute nitric(V) acid.

Sample observations

Solution/acid	Observations/effect on litmus papers	Inference
Ethanoic acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$H_3O^+/H^+(aq)$ ion
Succinic acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$H_3O^+/H^+(aq)$ ion

Citric acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Oxalic acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Tartaric acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Nitric(V)acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion

Explanation

All acidic solutions contains $\text{H}^+/\text{H}_3\text{O}^+(\text{aq})$ ions. The $\text{H}^+/\text{H}_3\text{O}^+(\text{aq})$ ions is responsible for turning blue litmus paper/solution to red

(b)pH

Experiment

Place 2cm³ of ethanoic acid in a test tube. Add 2 drops of universal indicator solution and determine its pH. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute sulphuric (VI)acid.

Sample observations

Solution/acid	pH	Inference
Ethanoic acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Succinic acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Citric acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Oxalic acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Tartaric acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Sulphuric(VI)acid	1/2/3	Strongly acidic

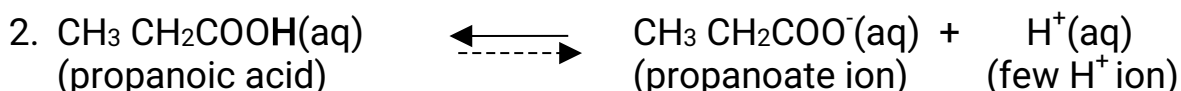
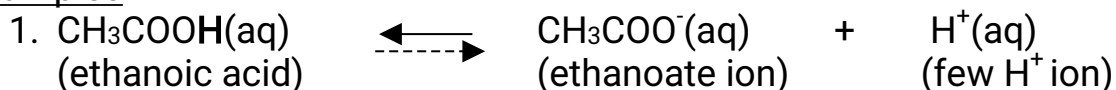
Explanations

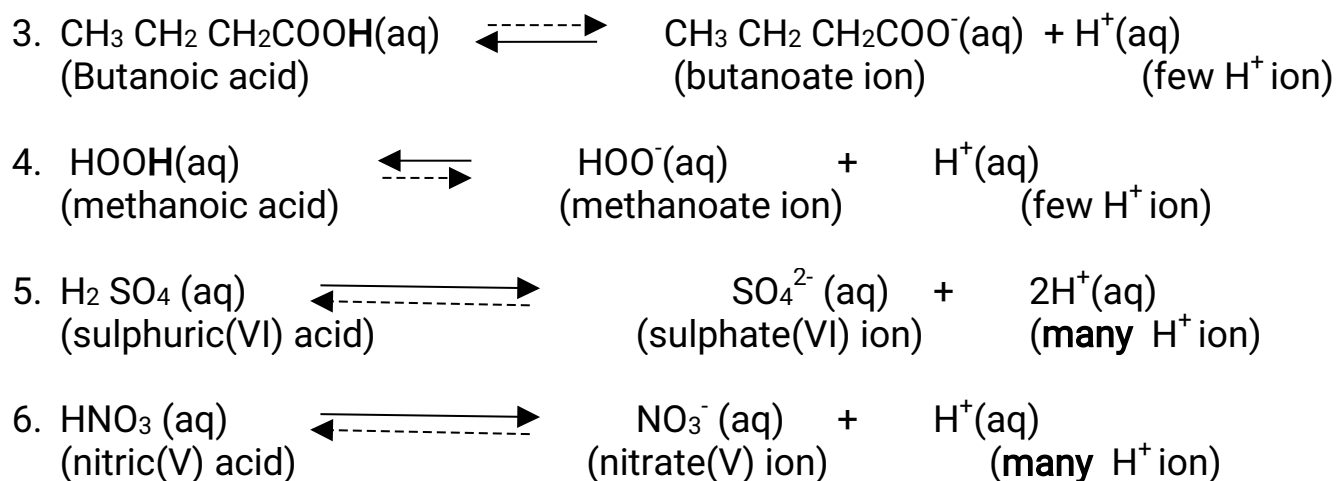
Alkanoic acids are weak acids that partially/partly dissociate to release few H^+ ions in solution. The pH of their solution is thus 4/5/6 showing they form weakly acidic solutions when dissolved in water.

All alkanoic acid dissociate to releases the "**H**" at the functional group in $-\text{COOH}$ to form the **alkanoate ion**; $-\text{COO}^-$

Mineral acids(Sulphuric(VI)acid, Nitric(V)acid and Hydrochloric acid) are strong acids that wholly/fully dissociate to release many H^+ ions in solution. The pH of their solution is thus 1/2/3 showing they form strongly acidic solutions when dissolved in water.i.e

Examples





(c) Reaction with metals

Experiment

Place about 4cm³ of ethanoic acid in a test tube. Put about 1cm length of polished magnesium ribbon. Test any gas produced using a burning splint. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute sulphuric (VI) acid.

Sample observations

Solution/acid	Observations	Inference
Ethanoic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with "pop" sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+\text{(aq)}$ ion
Succinic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with "pop" sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+\text{(aq)}$ ion
Citric acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with "pop" sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+\text{(aq)}$ ion
Oxalic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with "pop" sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+\text{(aq)}$ ion
Tartaric acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with "pop" sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+\text{(aq)}$ ion
Nitric(V)acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with "pop" sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+\text{(aq)}$ ion

Explanation

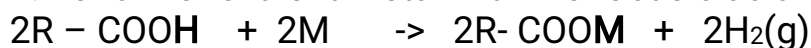
Metals higher in the reactivity series displace the hydrogen in all acids to evolve/produce hydrogen gas and form a salt. Alkanoic acids react with metals with

metals to form alkanoates salt and produce/evolve hydrogen gas .Hydrogen extinguishes a burning splint with a pop sound/explosion. Only the "H" in the functional group -COOH is /are displaced and not in the alkyl hydrocarbon chain.

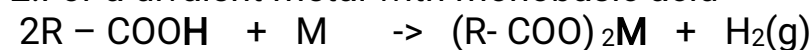
Alkanoic acid + Metal $\rightarrow$ Alkanoate + Hydrogen gas. i.e.

Examples

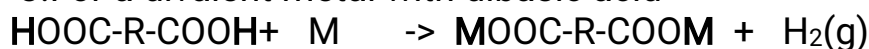
1. For a monovalent metal with monobasic acid



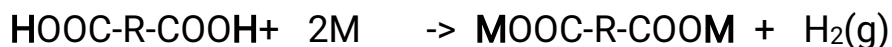
2. For a divalent metal with monobasic acid



3. For a divalent metal with dibasic acid

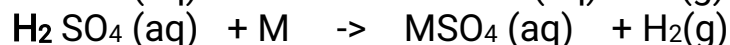
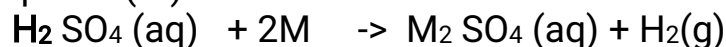


4. For a monovalent metal with dibasic acid

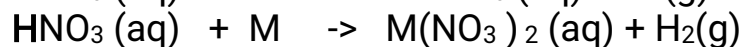
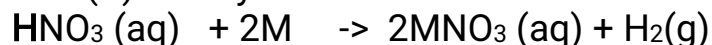


5 For mineral acids

(i) Sulphuric(VI) acid is a dibasic acid



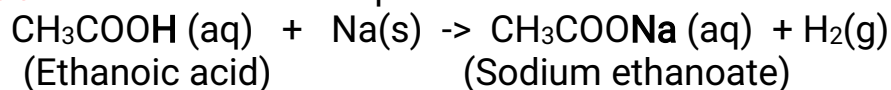
(ii) Nitric(V) and hydrochloric acid are monobasic acid



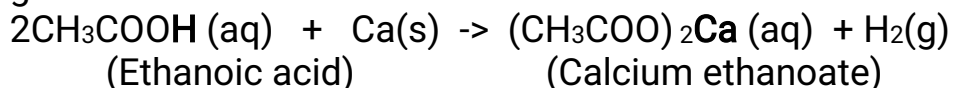
Examples

1. Sodium reacts with ethanoic acid to form sodium ethanoate and produce hydrogen gas.

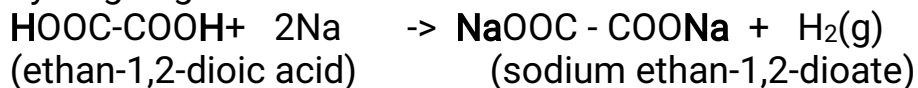
Caution: This reaction is explosive.



2. Calcium reacts with ethanoic acid to form calcium ethanoate and produce. hydrogen gas.

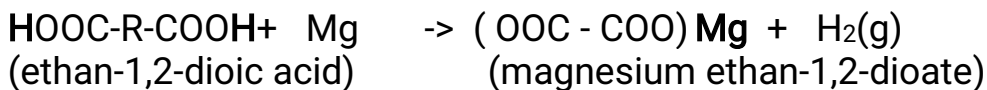


3. Sodium reacts with ethan-1,2-dioic acid to form sodium ethan-1,2-dioate and produce hydrogen gas.



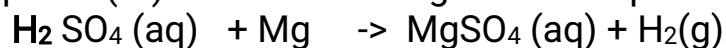
Commercial name of ethan-1,2-dioic acid is oxalic acid. The salt is sodium oxalate.

4. Magnesium reacts with ethan-1,2-dioic acid to form magnesium ethan-1,2-dioate and produce hydrogen gas.

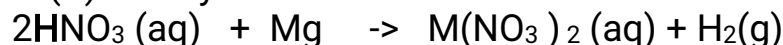


5. Magnesium reacts with

(i) Sulphuric(VI) acid to form Magnesium sulphate(VI)



(ii) Nitric(V) and hydrochloric acid are monobasic acid



(d) Reaction with hydrogen carbonates and carbonates

Experiment

Place about 3cm³ of ethanoic acid in a test tube. Add about 0.5g/ ½ spatula end full of sodium hydrogen carbonate/sodium carbonate. Test the gas produced using lime water. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute sulphuric (VI) acid.

Sample observations

Solution/acid	Observations	Inference
Ethanoic acid	(i) effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii) colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Succinic acid	(i) effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii) colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Citric acid	(i) effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii) colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Oxalic acid	(i) effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii) colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Tartaric acid	(i) effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii) colourless gas produced that	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion

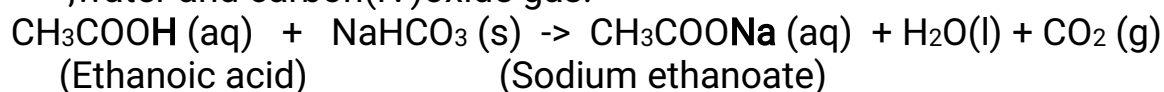
Alkanoic acids react with hydrogen carbonate/carbonate to form alkanoates ,water and evolve/produce bubbles of carbon(IV)oxide and water.

Alkanoic acid + hydrogen carbonate $\rightarrow$ alkanoate + water + carbon(IV)oxide

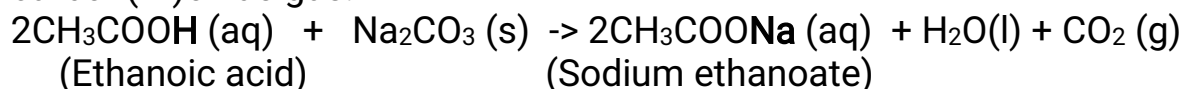
Alkanoic acid + carbonate $\rightarrow$ alkanoate + water + carbon(IV)oxide

Examples

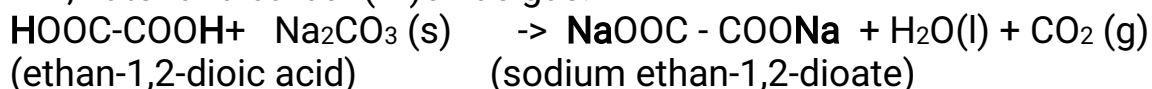
1. Sodium hydrogen carbonate reacts with ethanoic acid to form sodium ethanoate, water and carbon(IV)oxide gas.



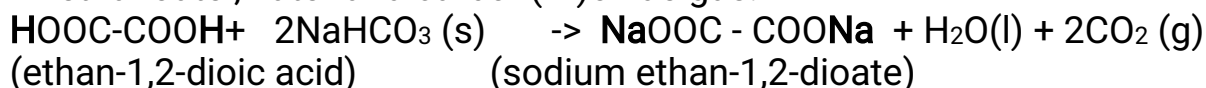
2. Sodium carbonate reacts with ethanoic acid to form sodium ethanoate, water and carbon(IV)oxide gas.



3. Sodium carbonate reacts with ethan-1,2-dioic acid to form sodium ethanoate, water and carbon(IV)oxide gas.



4. Sodium hydrogen carbonate reacts with ethan-1,2-dioic acid to form sodium ethanoate, water and carbon(IV)oxide gas.



(e) Esterification

Experiment

Place 4cm³ of ethanol acid in a boiling tube.

Add equal volume of ethanoic acid. To the mixture, add 2 drops of concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid **carefully**. Warm/heat gently on Bunsen flame.

Pour the mixture into a beaker containing 50cm³ of water. Smell the products. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute sulphuric (VI) acid.

Sample observations

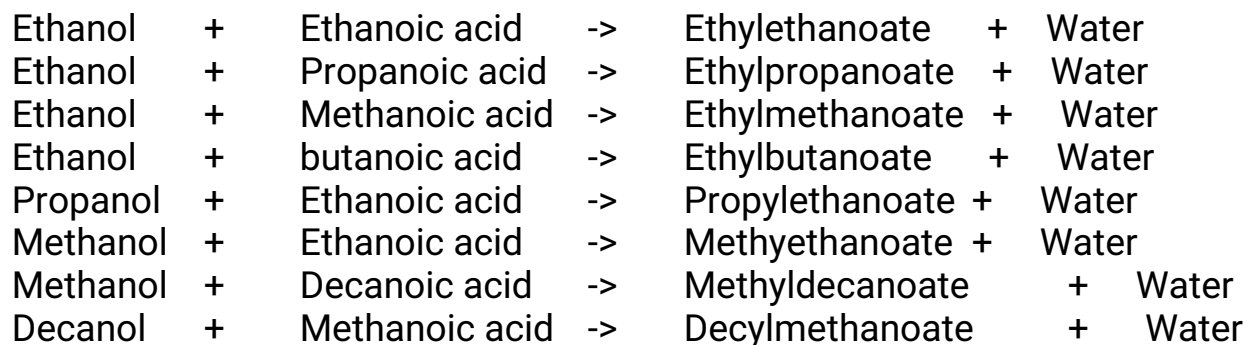
Solution/acid	Observations
Ethanoic acid	Sweet fruity smell
Succinic acid	Sweet fruity smell
Citric acid	Sweet fruity smell
Oxalic acid	Sweet fruity smell
Tartaric acid	Sweet fruity smell
Dilute sulphuric(VI) acid	No sweet fruity smell

Explanation

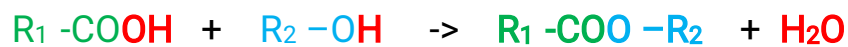
Alkanols react with alkanoic acid to form the sweet smelling homologous series of esters and water. The reaction is catalysed by concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid in the laboratory but naturally by sunlight /heat. Each ester has a characteristic smell derived from the many possible combinations of alkanols and alkanoic acids.



Esters derive their names from the alkanol first then alkanoic acids. The alkanol “becomes” an **alkyl** group and the alkanoic acid “becomes” **alkanoate** hence **alkylalkanoate**. e.g.

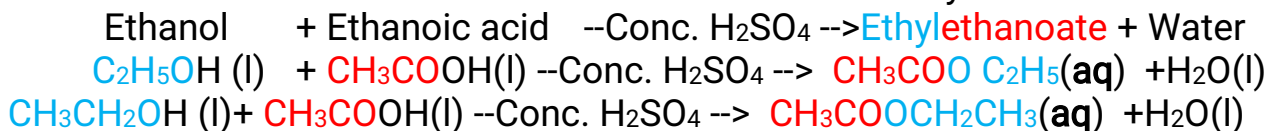


During the formation of the ester, the “O” joining the alkanol and alkanoic acid comes from the alkanol.

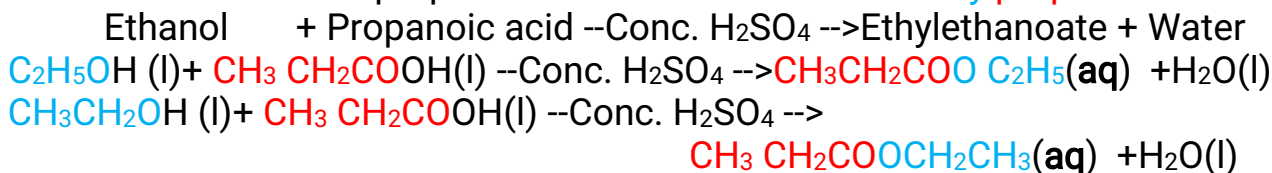


Examples

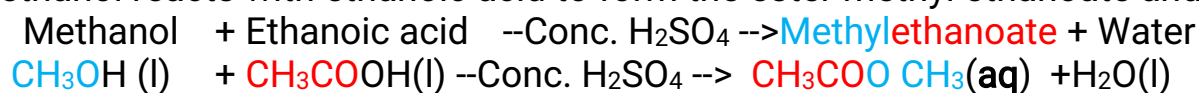
1. Ethanol reacts with ethanoic acid to form the ester ethyl ethanoate and water.



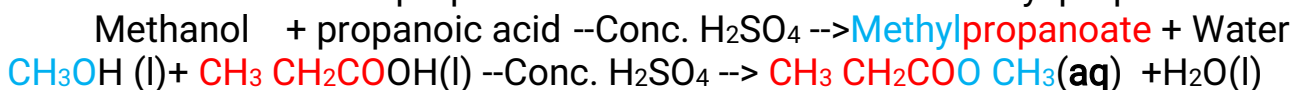
2. Ethanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester ethylpropanoate and water.



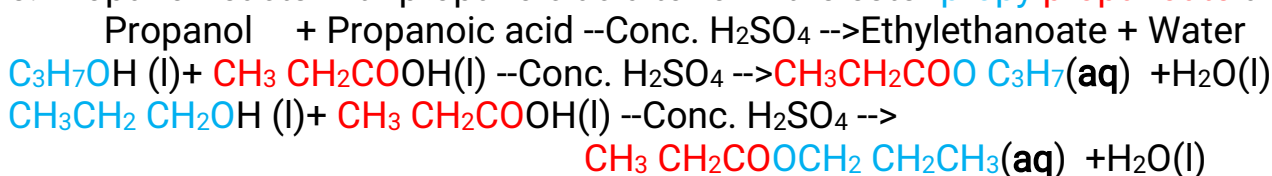
3. Methanol reacts with ethanoic acid to form the ester methyl ethanoate and water.



4. Methanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester methyl propanoate and water.



5. Propanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester propylpropanoate and water.



C. DETERGENTS

Detergents are cleaning agents that improve the cleaning power /properties of water. A detergent therefore should be able to:

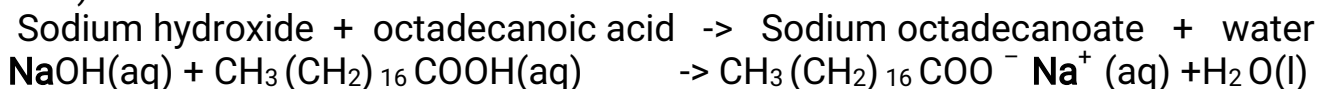
- (i) dissolve substances which water can not e.g grease ,oil, fat
- (ii) be washed away after cleaning.

There are two types of detergents:

- (a) Soapy detergents
- (b) Soapless detergents

(a) SOAPY DETERGENTS

Soapy detergents usually called soap is long chain salt of organic alkanoic acids. Common soap is sodium octadecanoate .It is derived from reacting concentrated sodium hydroxide solution with octadecanoic acid(18 carbon alkanoic acid) i.e.



Commonly ,soap can thus be represented ;

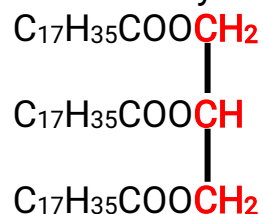


R is a long chain alkyl group and $-\text{COO}^- \text{Na}^+$ is the alkanoate ion.

In a school laboratory and at industrial and domestic level, soap is made by reacting concentrated sodium hydroxide solution with esters from (animal) **fat** and **oil**. The process of making soap is called **saponification**. During saponification ,the ester is **hydrolyzed** by the alkali to form sodium salt /soap and **glycerol/propan-1,2,3-triol** is produced.

Fat/oil(ester)+sodium/potassium hydroxide->sodium/potassium salt(soap)+ glycerol

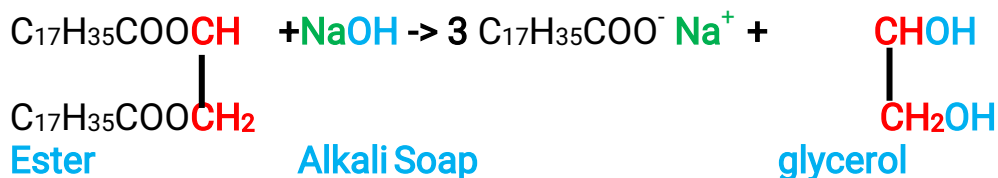
Fats/Oils are esters with fatty acids and glycerol parts in their structure;



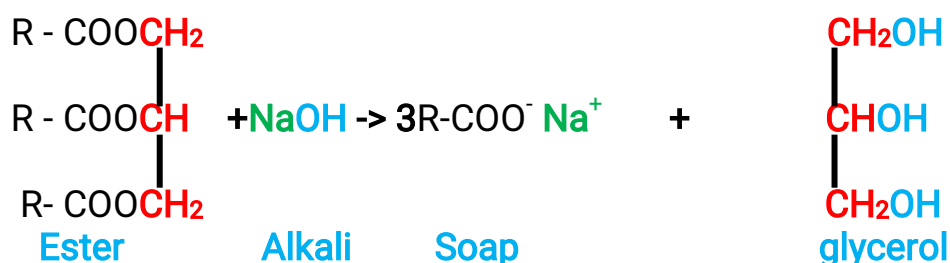
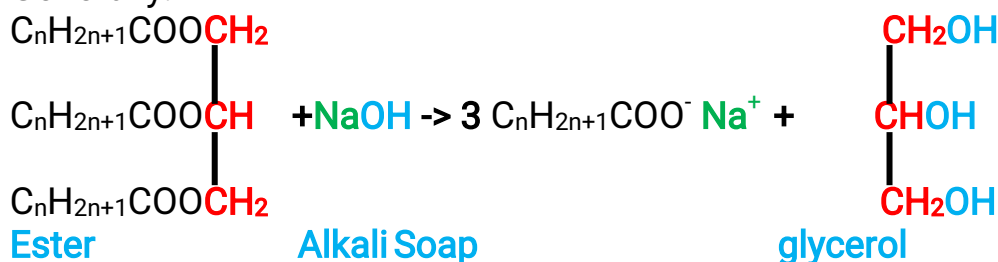
When boiled with concentrated sodium hydroxide solution NaOH;

- (i) NaOH ionizes/dissociates into Na^+ and OH^- ions
- (ii) fat/oil split into **three** $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{35}\text{COO}^-$ and **one** CH_2CHCH_2
- (iii) the three Na^+ combine with the three $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{35}\text{COO}^-$ to form the salt $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{35}\text{COO}^- \text{Na}^+$
- (iv) the three OH^- ions combine with the CH_2CHCH_2 to form an alkanol with three functional groups $\text{CH}_2\text{OHCH(OH)CH}_2\text{OH}$ (**propan-1,2,3-triol**)





Generally:



During this process a little sodium chloride is added to **precipitate** the soap by reducing its solubility. This is called **salting out**.

The soap is then added colouring agents ,perfumes and herbs of choice.

School laboratory preparation of soap

Place about 40 g of fatty (animal fat)beef/meat in 100cm³ beaker .Add about 15cm³ of 4.0M sodium hydroxide solution. Boil the mixture for about 15minutes.Stir the mixture .Add about 5.0cm³ of distilled water as you boil to make up for evaporation. Boil for about another 15minutes.Add about four spatula end full of pure sodium chloride crystals. Continue stirring for another five minutes. Allow to cool. Filter of /decant and wash off the residue with distilled water .Transfer the clean residue into a dry beaker. Preserve.

The action of soap

Soapy detergents:

(i)act by reducing the surface tension of water by forming a thin layer on top of the water.

(ii)is made of a **non-polar** alkyl /hydrocarbon tail and a **polar** -COO⁻Na⁺ head. The non-polar alkyl /hydrocarbon tail is **hydrophobic** (water hating) and thus does not dissolve in water .It dissolves in non-polar solvent like grease, oil and fat. The polar -COO⁻Na⁺ head is **hydrophilic** (water loving)and thus dissolve in water. When washing

with soapy detergent, the non-polar tail of the soapy detergent surround/dissolve in the dirt on the garment /grease/oil while the polar head dissolve in water.

Through **mechanical agitation**/stirring/squeezing/rubbing/beating/kneading, some grease is dislodged/lifted of the surface of the garment. It is immediately surrounded by more soap molecules It float and spread in the water as tiny droplets that scatter light in form of emulsion making the water cloudy and shinny. It is removed from the garment by rinsing with fresh water. The repulsion of the soap head prevent /ensure the droplets do not mix. Once removed, the dirt molecules cannot be redeposited back because it is surrounded by soap molecules.

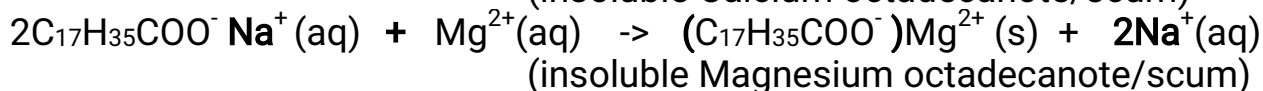
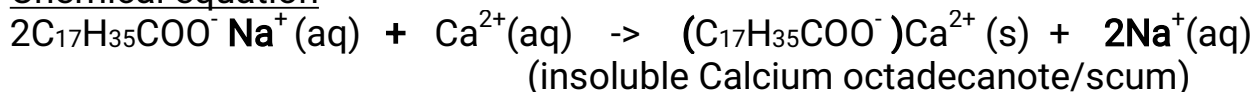
Advantages and disadvantages of using soapy detergents

Soapy detergents are biodegradable. They are acted upon by bacteria and rot. They thus do not cause environmental pollution.

Soapy detergents have the diadvantage in that:

- (i) they are made from fat and oils which are better eaten as food than make soap.
- (ii) forms an insoluble precipitate with hard water called **scum**. Scum is insoluble calcium octadecanoate and Magnesium octadecanoate formed when soap reacts with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} present in hard water.

Chemical equation



This causes wastage of soap.

Potassium soaps are better than Sodium soap. Potassium is more expensive than sodium and thus its soap is also more expensive.

(b) SOAPLESS DETERGENTS

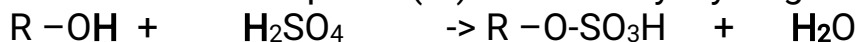
Soapless detergent usually called detergent is a long chain salt formed from by-products of fractional distillation of crude oil. Commonly used soaps include:

- (i) washing agents
- (ii) toothpaste
- (iii) emulsifiers/wetting agents/shampoo

Soapless detergents are derived from reacting:

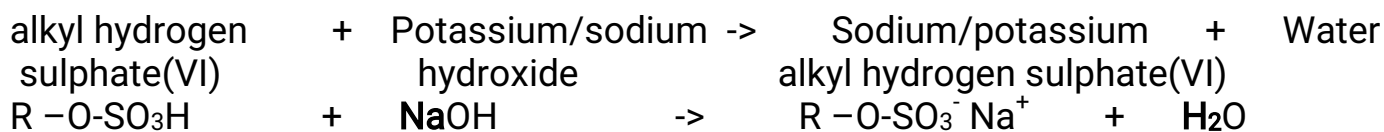
(i) concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid with a long chain alkanol e.g. Octadecanol (18 carbon alkanol) to form alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI)

Alkanol + Conc sulphuric(VI) acid $\rightarrow$ alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + Water



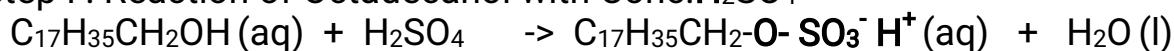
(ii) the alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) is then neutralized with sodium/potassium hydroxide to form sodium/potassium alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI)

Sodium/potassium alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) is the soapless detergent.



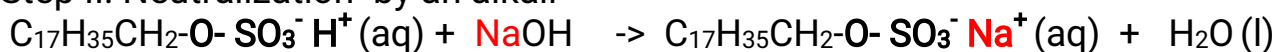
Example

Step I : Reaction of Octadecanol with Conc. H_2SO_4



octadecanol + sulphuric(VI)acid -> Octadecyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + water

Step II: Neutralization by an alkali



Octadecyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + sodium/potassium hydroxide -> sodium/potassium octadecyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + Water

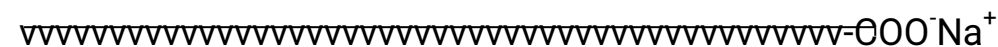
School laboratory preparation of soapless detergent

Place about 20g of olive oil in a 100cm³ beaker. Put it in a trough containing ice cold water.

Add dropwise carefully 18M concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid stirring continuously into the olive oil until the oil turns brown. Add 30cm³ of 6M sodium hydroxide solution. Stir. This is a soapless detergent.

The action of soapless detergents

The action of soapless detergents is similar to that of soapy detergents. The soapless detergents contain the hydrophilic head and a long hydrophobic tail. i.e.



(long hydrophobic /non-polar alkyl tail) (hydrophilic/polar/ionic head)

The tail dissolves in fat/grease/oil while the ionic/polar/ionic head dissolves in water. The tail stick to the dirt which is removed by the attraction of water molecules and the polar/ionic/hydrophilic head by mechanical agitation /squeezing/kneading/ beating/rubbing/scrubbing/scatching.

The suspended dirt is then surrounded by detergent molecules and repulsion of the anion head preventing the dirt from sticking on the material garment.

The tiny droplets of dirt emulsion makes the water cloudy. On rinsing the cloudy emulsion is washed away.

Advantages and disadvantages of using soapless detergents

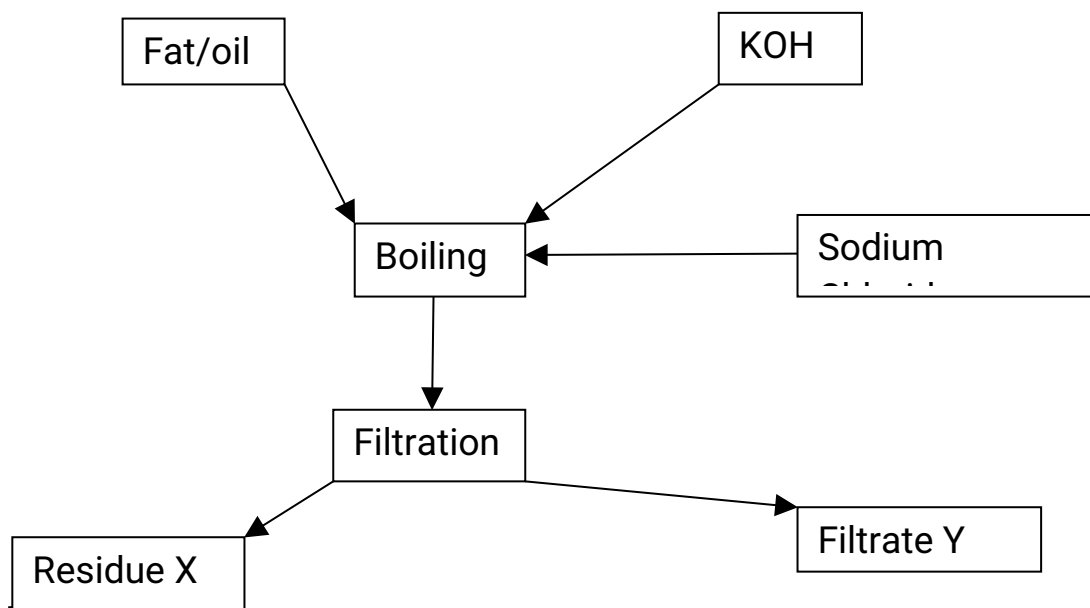
Soapless detergents are non-biodegradable unlike soapy detergents. They persist in water during sewage treatment by causing foaming in rivers, lakes and streams leading to marine /aquatic death.

Soapless detergents have the advantage in that they:

- (i) do not form scum with hard water.
- (ii) are cheap to manufacture/buying
- (iii) are made from petroleum products but soaps are made from fats/oil for human consumption.

Sample revision questions

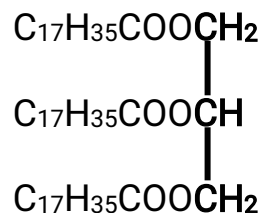
1. Study the scheme below



(a) Identify the process

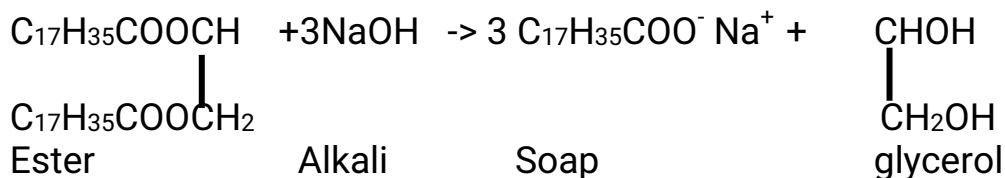
Saponification

(b) Fats and oils are esters. Write the formula of the a common structure of ester



(c) Write a balanced equation for the reaction taking place during boiling





(d) Give the IUPAC name of:

(i) Residue X

Potassium octadecanoate

(ii) Filtrate Y

Propan-1,2,3-triol

(e) Give one use of filtrate Y

Making paint

(f) What is the function of sodium chloride

To reduce the solubility of the soap hence helping in precipitating it out

(g) Explain how residue X helps in washing.

Has a non-polar hydrophobic tail that dissolves in dirt/grease /oil/fat

Has a polar /ionic hydrophilic head that dissolves in water.

From mechanical agitation, the dirt is plucked out of the garment and surrounded by the tail end preventing it from being deposited back on the garment.

(h) State one:

(i) advantage of continued use of residue X on the environment

Is biodegradable and thus do not pollute the environment

(ii) disadvantage of using residue X

Uses fat/oil during preparation/manufacture which are better used for human consumption.

(i) Residue X was added dropwise to some water. The number of drops used before lather forms is as in the table below.

	Water sample		
	A	B	C
Drops of residue X	15	2	15
Drops of residue X in boiled water	2	2	15

(i) State and explain which sample of water is:

I. Soft

Sample B .Very little soap is used and no effect on amount of soap even on boiling/heating.

II. Permanent hard

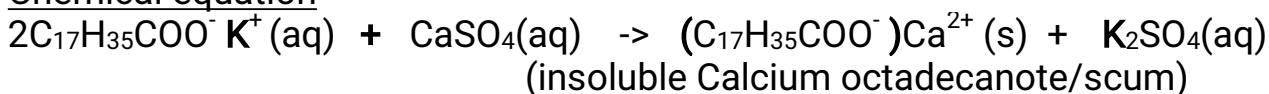
Sample C . A lot of soap is used and no effect on amount of soap even on boiling/heating. Boiling does not remove permanent hardness of water.

III. Temporary hard

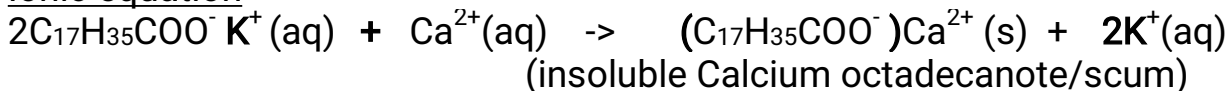
Sample A . A lot of soap is used before boiling. Very little soap is used on boiling/heating. Boiling remove temporary hardness of water.

(ii) Write the equation for the reaction at water sample C.

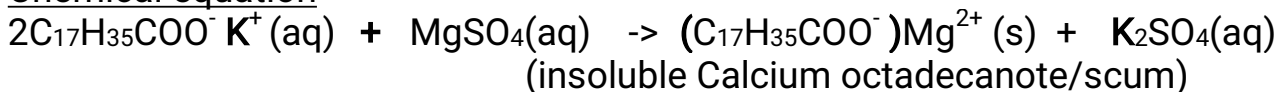
Chemical equation



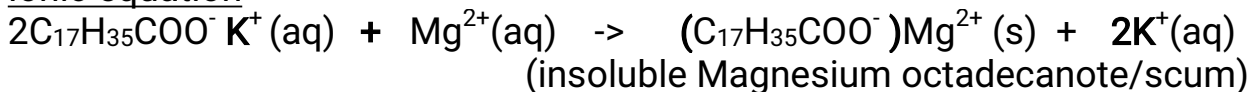
Ionic equation



Chemical equation

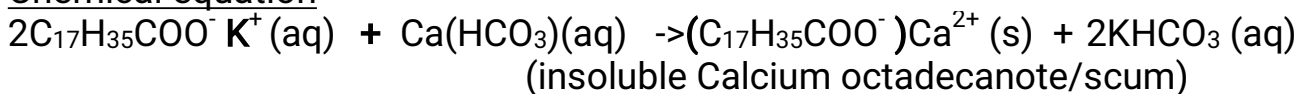


Ionic equation

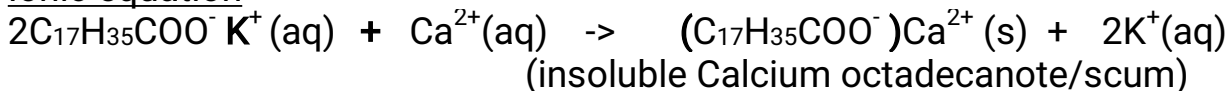


(iii) Write the equation for the reaction at water sample A before boiling.

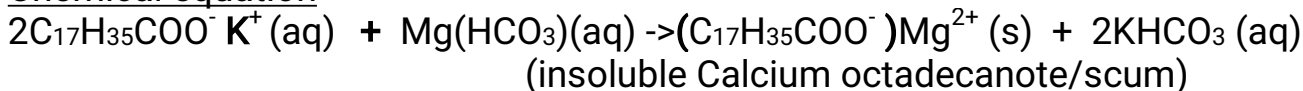
Chemical equation



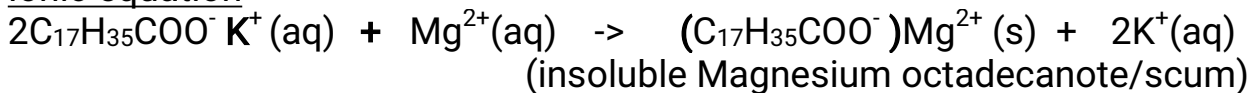
Ionic equation



Chemical equation



Ionic equation



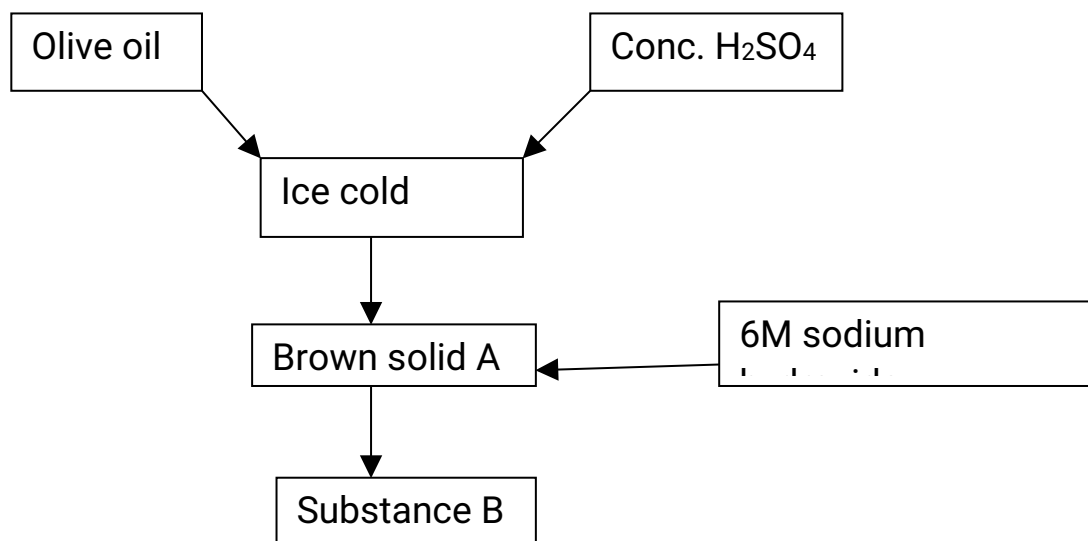
(iv) Explain how water becomes hard

Natural or rain water flowing /passing through rocks containing calcium (chalk, gypsum, limestone) and magnesium compounds (dolomite) dissolve them to form soluble Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} ions that causes water hardness.

(v) State two useful benefits of hard water

- Used in bone and teeth formation
- Coral polyps use hard water to form coral reefs
- Snails use hard water to make their shells

2. Study the scheme below and use it to answer the questions that follow.



(a) Identify :

(i) brown solid A

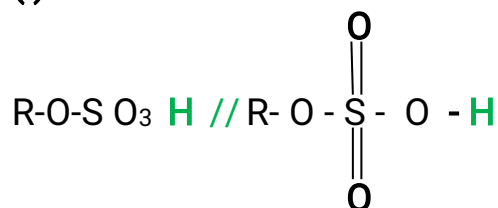
Alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI)

(ii) substance B

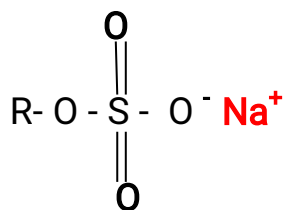
Sodium alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI)

(b) Write a general formula of:

(i) Substance A.



(ii) Substance B



(c) State one

(i) advantage of continued use of substance B

- Does not form scum with hard water
- Is cheap to make
- Does not use food for human as a raw material.

(ii)disadvantage of continued use of substance B.

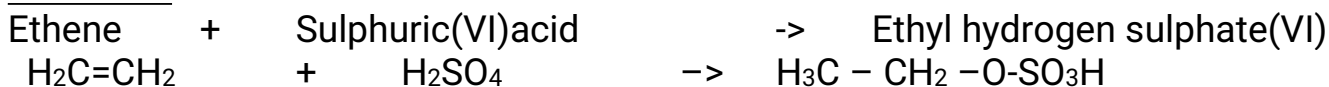
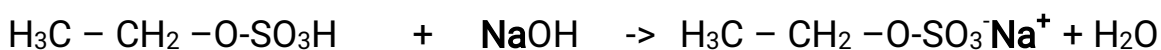
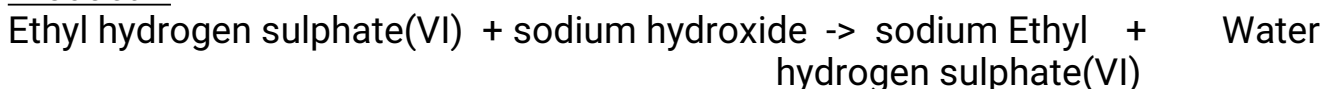
Is non-biodegradable therefore do not pollute the environment

(d)Explain the action of B during washing.

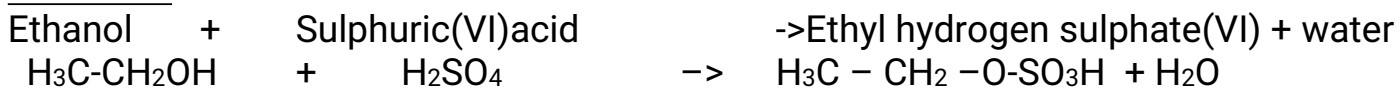
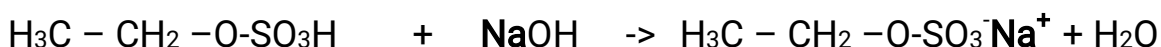
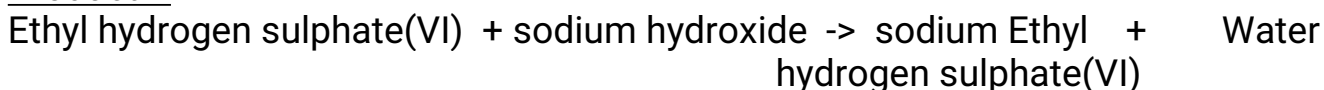
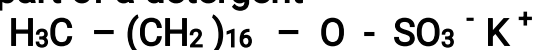
Has a non-polar hydrocarbon long tail that dissolves in dirt/grease/oil/fat.

Has a polar/ionic hydrophilic head that dissolves in water

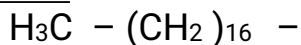
Through mechanical agitation the dirt is plucked /removed from the garment and surrounded by the tail end preventing it from being deposited back on the garment.

(e) Ethene was substituted for olive oil in the above process. Write the equation and name of the new products A and B.Product AProduct B

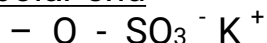
(f)Ethanol can also undergo similar reactions forming new products A and B.Show this using a chemical equation.

Product AProduct B**3.Below is part of a detergent****(a)Write the formular of the polar and non-polar end**

Polar end



Non-polar end



(b) Is the molecule a soapy or soapless detergent?

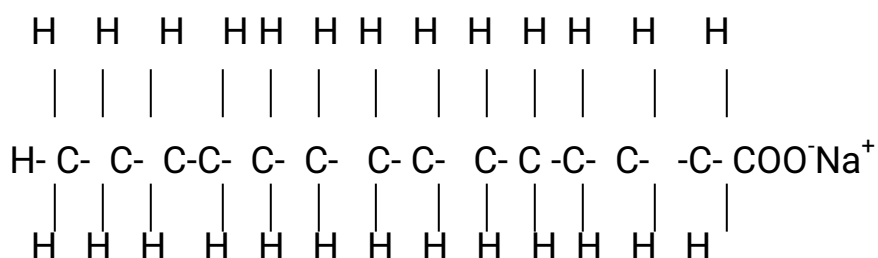
Soapless detergent

(c) State one advantage of using the above detergent

-does not form scum with hard water

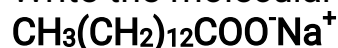
-is cheap to manufacture

4. The structure of a detergent is



a) Write the molecular formula of the detergent.

(1mk)

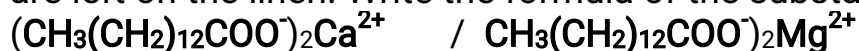


b) What type of detergent is represented by the formula?

(1mk)

Soapy detergent

c) When this type of detergent is used to wash linen in hard water, spots (marks) are left on the linen. Write the formula of the substance responsible for the spots



D. POLYMERS AND FIBRES

Polymers and fibres are giant molecules of organic compounds. Polymers and fibres are formed when **small** molecules called monomers join together to form **large** molecules called polymers at high temperatures and pressures. This process is called

polymerization.

Polymers and fibres are either:

- (a) **Natural** polymers and fibres
- (b) **Synthetic** polymers and fibres

Natural polymers and fibres are found in living things (plants and animals) Natural polymers/fibres include:

- proteins/polypeptides making amino acids in animals
- cellulose that make cotton, wool, paper and silk
- Starch that come from glucose
- Fats and oils
- Rubber from latex in rubber trees.

Synthetic polymers and fibres are man-made. They include:

- polyethene
- polychloroethene
- polyphenylethene (polystyrene)
- Terylene (Dacron)
- Nylon-6,6
- Perspex (artificial glass)

Synthetic polymers and fibres have the following characteristic advantages over natural polymers

1. They are light and portable
2. They are easy to manufacture.
3. They can easily be molded into shape of choice.
4. They are resistant to corrosion, water, air, acids, bases and salts.
5. They are comparatively cheap, affordable, colourful and aesthetic

Synthetic polymers and fibres however have the following disadvantages over natural polymers

1. They are non-biodegradable and hence cause environmental pollution during disposal
2. They give out highly poisonous gases when burnt like chlorine/carbon(II)oxide
3. Some on burning produce Carbon(IV)oxide. Carbon(IV)oxide is a green house gas that cause global warming.
4. Compared to some metals, they are poor conductors of heat, electricity and have lower tensile strength.
- 5.

To reduce environmental pollution from synthetic polymers and fibres, the following methods of disposal should be used:

1. Recycling: Once produced all synthetic polymers and fibres should be recycled to a new product. This prevents accumulation of the synthetic polymers and fibres in the

environment.

2. Production of biodegradable synthetic polymers and fibres that **rot** away.

There are two types of polymerization:

- (a) addition polymerization
- (b) condensation polymerization

(a) addition polymerization

Addition polymerization is the process where a small unsaturated monomer (alkene) molecule join together to form a large saturated molecule. Only alkenes undergo addition polymerization.

Addition polymers are named from the alkene/monomer making the polymer and adding the prefix "**poly**" before the name of monomer to form a **polyalkene**

During addition polymerization

- (i) the double bond in alkenes break
- (ii) free radicals are formed
- (iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule.

The more collisions the larger the molecule.

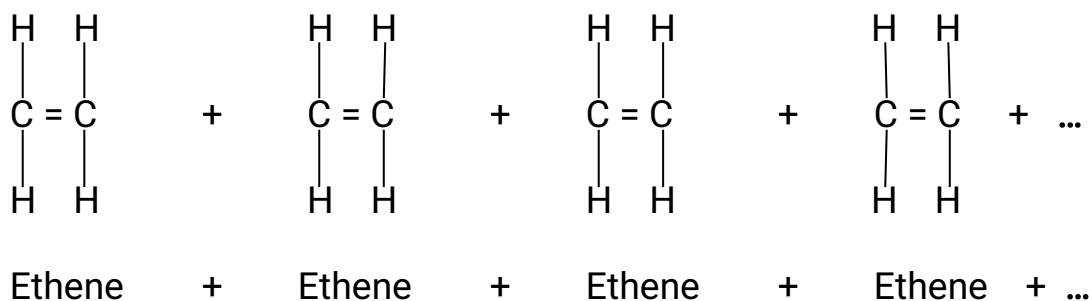
Examples of addition polymerization

1. Formation of Polyethene

Polyethene is an addition polymer formed when ethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

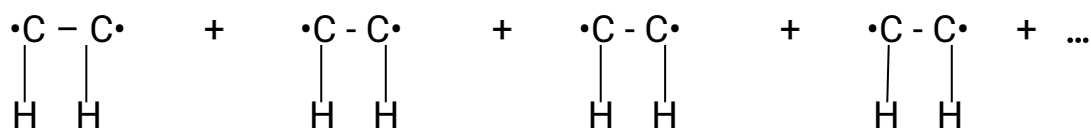
During polymerization:

- (i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)



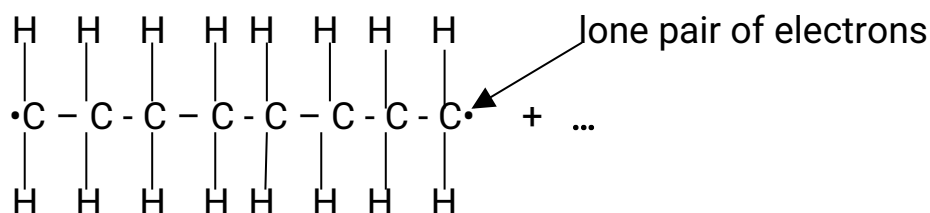
- (ii) the double bond joining the ethane molecule break to free radicals



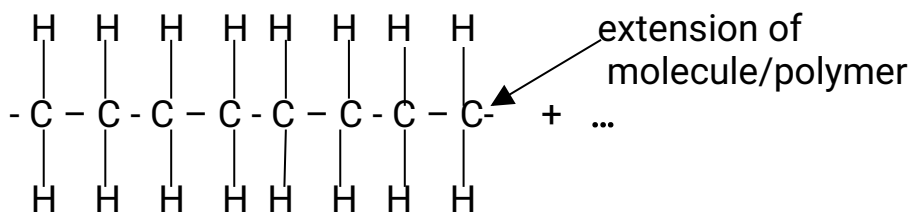


Ethene radical + Ethene radical + Ethene radical + Ethene radical + ...

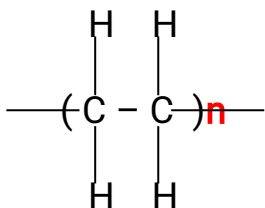
(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polyethene. Polyethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Where n is the number of monomers in the polymer. The number of monomers in the polymer can be determined from the molar mass of the polymer and monomer from the relationship:

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

Examples

Polythene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of ethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0)

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in polyomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Molar mass ethene (C}_2\text{H}_4) = 28 \quad \text{Molar mass polyethene} = 4760$$

Substituting $\frac{4760}{28} = \underline{170 \text{ ethene molecules}}$

The **commercial** name of polyethene is **polythene**. It is an elastic, tough, transparent and durable plastic. Polythene is used:

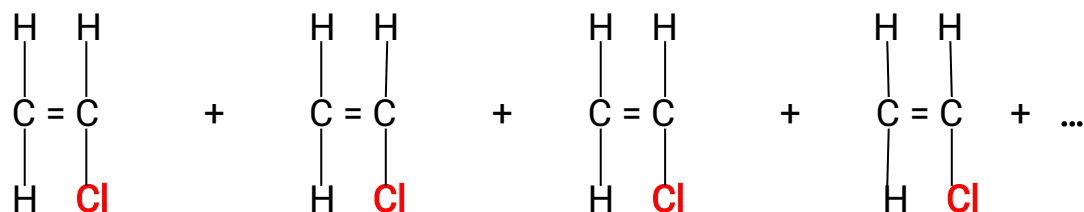
- (i) in making plastic bag
- (ii) bowls and plastic bags
- (iii) packaging materials

2. Formation of Polychlorethene

Polychloroethene is an addition polymer formed when chloroethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

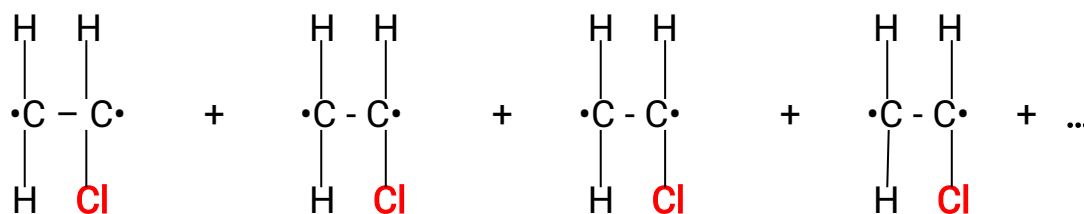
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

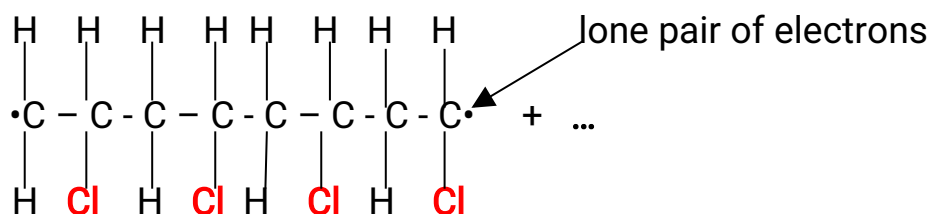


chloroethene + chloroethene + chloroethene + chloroethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the chloroethene molecule break to form free radicals



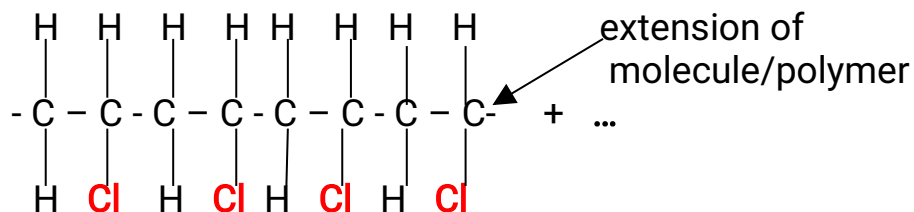
(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



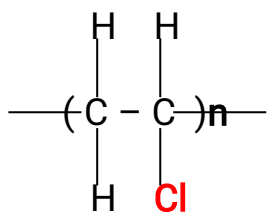
Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer

polychloroethene.

Polychloroethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polychloroethene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of chloroethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0, Cl=35.5)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C₂H₃Cl) = 62.5 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{62.5} = 77.16 \Rightarrow 77$ polychloroethene molecules (whole number)

The **commercial** name of polychloroethene is **polyvinylchloride (PVC)**. It is a tough, non-transparent and durable plastic. PVC is used:

- (i) in making plastic rope
- (ii) water pipes
- (iii) crates and boxes

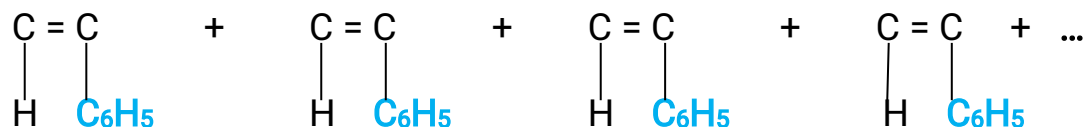
3. Formation of Polyphenylethene

Polyphenylethene is an addition polymer formed when phenylethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

During polymerization:

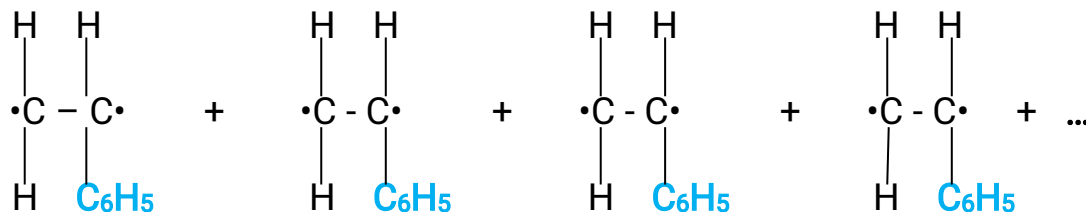
(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)



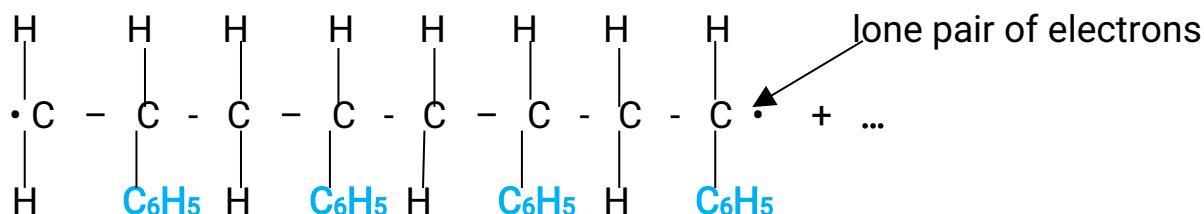


phenylethene + phenylethene + phenylethene + phenylethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the phenylethene molecule break to free radicals

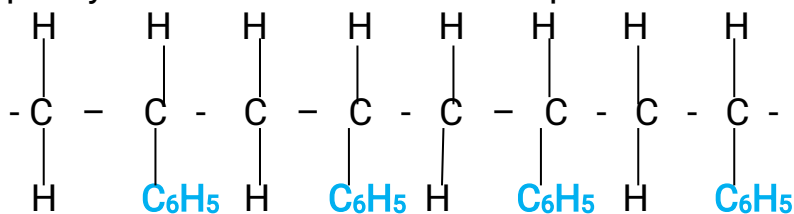


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

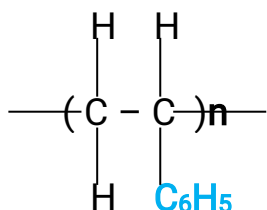


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polyphenylethene.

Polyphenylethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polyphenylthene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of phenylethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0,)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C_2H_4) = 104 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{104} = 45.7692 \Rightarrow 45$ polyphenylethene molecules(whole number)

The **commercial** name of polyphenylethene is **polystyrene**. It is a very light durable plastic. Polystyrene is used:

(i) in making packaging material for carrying delicate items like computers, radion, calculators.

(ii) ceiling tiles

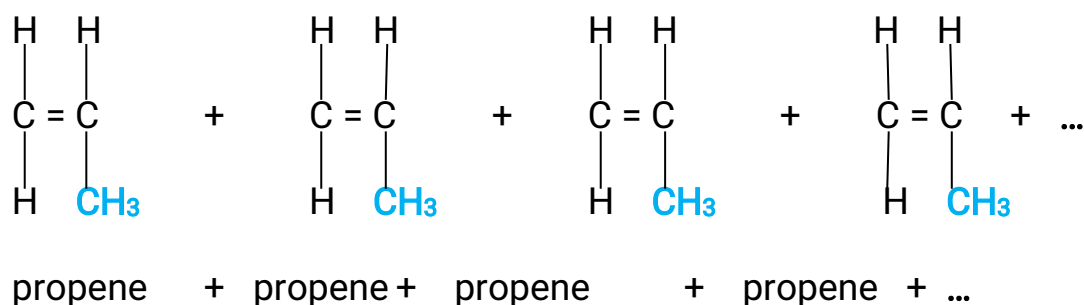
(iii) clothe linings

4. Formation of Polypropene

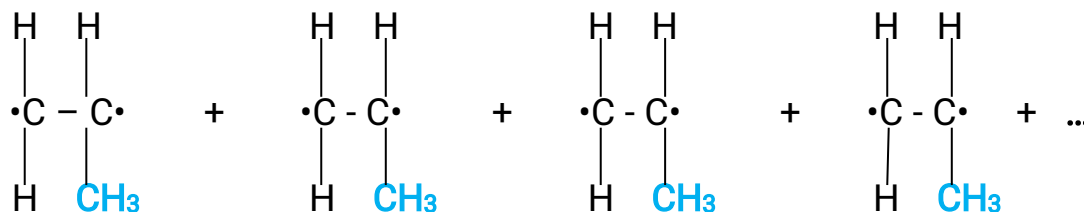
Polypropene is an addition polymer formed when propene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

During polymerization:

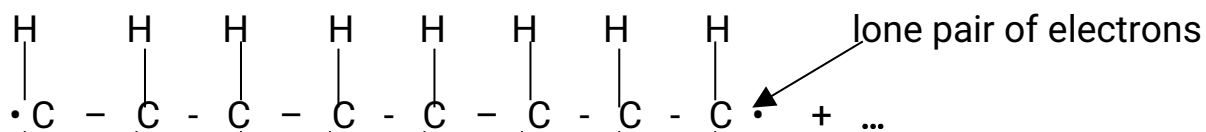
(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure(which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)



(ii) the double bond joining the phenylethene molecule break to free radicals

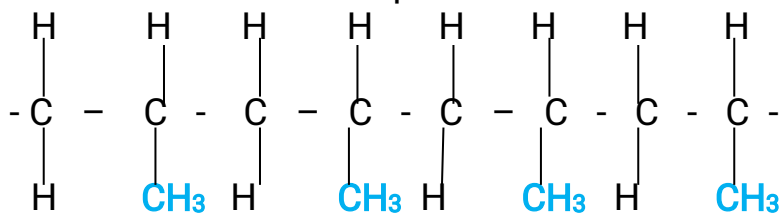


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

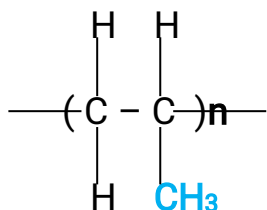


$\begin{array}{cccccccc} \text{H} & \text{CH}_3 & \text{H} & \text{CH}_3 & \text{H} & \text{CH}_3 & \text{H} & \text{CH}_3 \\ | & | & | & | & | & | & | & | \\ -\text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - & \text{C} & - \\ | & | & | & | & | & | & | & | \\ \text{H} & \text{CH}_3 & \text{H} & \text{CH}_3 & \text{H} & \text{CH}_3 & \text{H} & \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$

Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer propene. propene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polypropene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of propene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0,)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass propene (C₃H₆) = 44 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{44} = 108.1818 \Rightarrow 108 \text{ propene molecules (whole number)}$

The **commercial** name of polyphenylethene is **polystyrene**. It is a very light durable plastic. Polystyrene is used:

(i) in making packaging material for carrying delicate items like computers, radion, calculators.

(ii) ceiling tiles

(iii) clothe linings

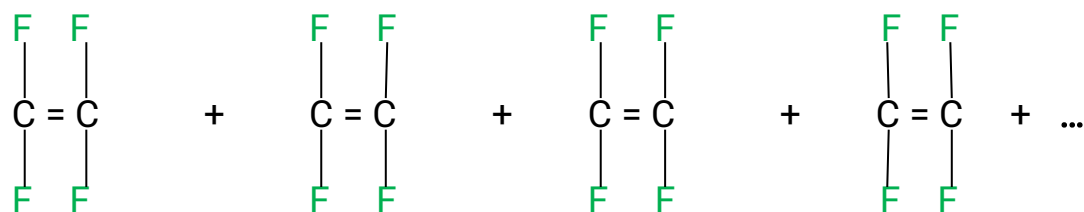
5. Formation of Polytetrafluoroethene

Polytetrafluoroethene is an addition polymer formed when tetrafluoroethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

During polymerization:

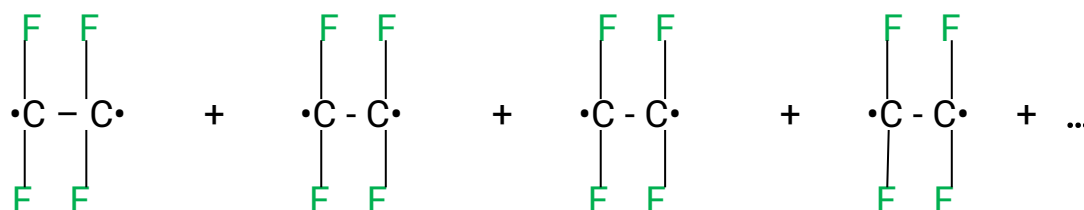
(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which

reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

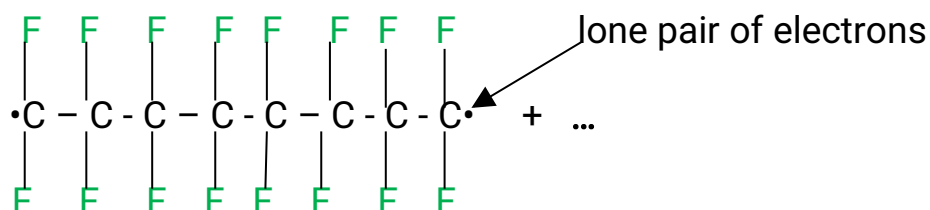


tetrafluoroethene+ tetrafluoroethene+ tetrafluoroethene+ tetrafluoroethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the tetrafluoroethene molecule break to free radicals

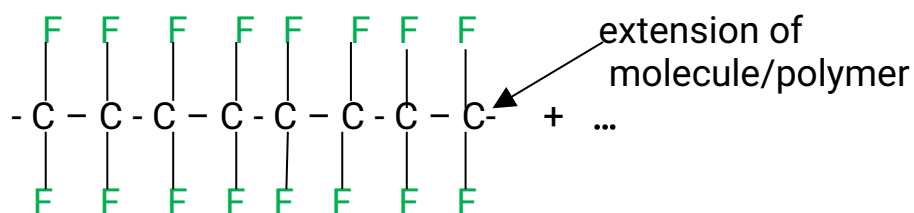


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

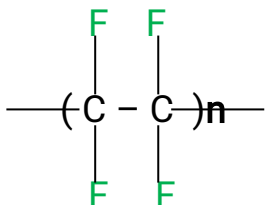


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polytetrafluoroethene.

polytetrafluoroethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polytetrafluoroethene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of tetrafluoroethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, F=19)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C₂F₄) = 62.5 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{62.5} = 77.16 \Rightarrow 77$ polychloroethene molecules (whole number)

The **commercial** name of polytetrafluorethene (P.T.F.E) is **Teflon (P.T.F.E)**. It is a tough, non-transparent and durable plastic. PVC is used:

- (i) in making plastic rope
- (ii) water pipes
- (iii) crates and boxes

5. Formation of rubber from Latex

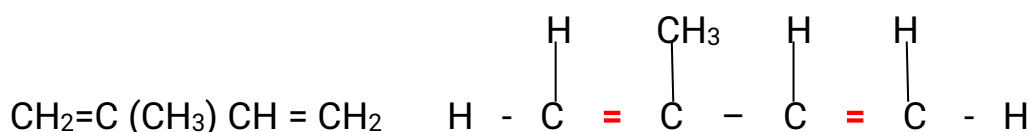
Natural rubber is obtained from rubber trees.

During harvesting an incision is made on the rubber tree to produce a milky white substance called **latex**.

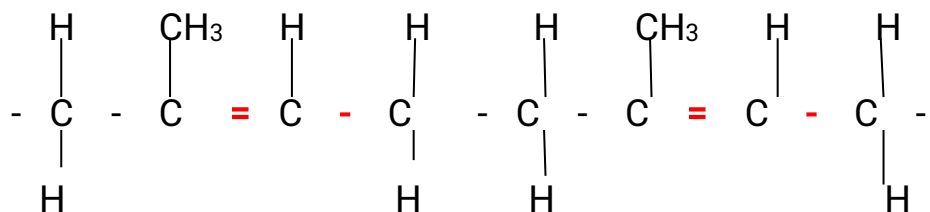
Latex is a mixture of rubber and lots of water.

The latex is then added an acid to coagulate the rubber.

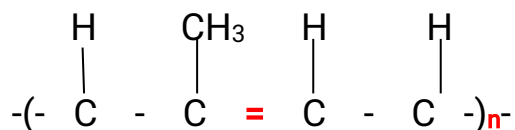
Natural rubber is a polymer of 2-methylbut-1,3-diene ;



During natural polymerization to rubber, one double C=C bond break to self add to another molecule. The double bond remaining move to carbon "2" thus;



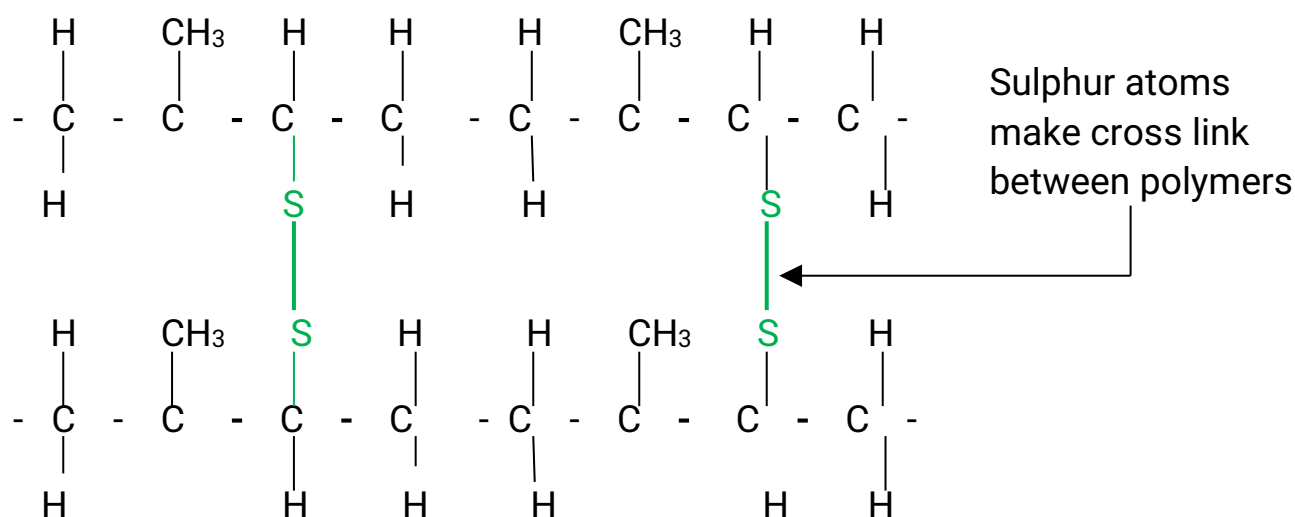
Generally the structure of rubber is thus;





Pure rubber is soft and sticky. It is used to make erasers, car tyres. Most of it is vulcanized. Vulcanization is the process of heating rubber with sulphur to make it harder/tougher.

During vulcanization the sulphur atoms form a cross link between chains of rubber molecules/polymers. This decreases the number of C=C double bonds in the polymer.

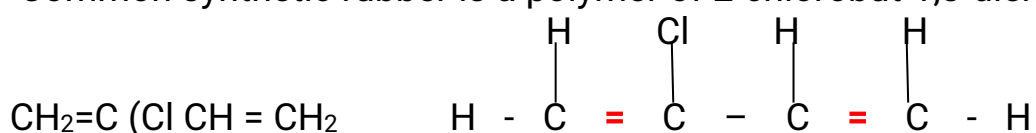


Vulcanized rubber is used to make **tyres, shoes** and **valves**.

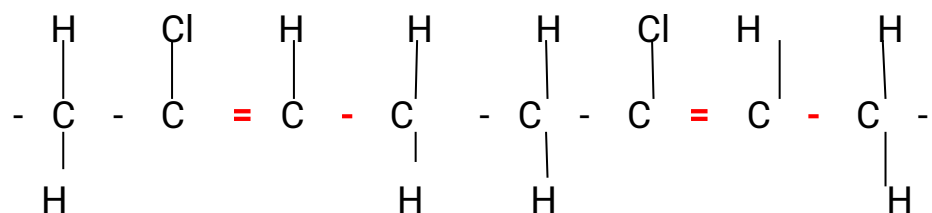
6. Formation of synthetic rubber

Synthetic rubber is able to resist action of oil, abrasion and organic solvents which rubber cannot.

Common synthetic rubber is a polymer of 2-chlorobut-1,3-diene ;

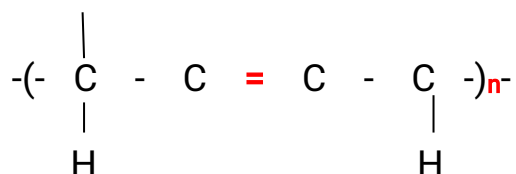


During polymerization to synthetic rubber, one double C=C bond is broken to self add to another molecule. The double bond remaining move to carbon "2" thus;



Generally the structure of rubber is thus;





Rubber is thus strengthened through vulcanization and manufacture of synthetic rubber.

(b)Condensation polymerization

Condensation polymerization is the process where two or more small monomers join together to form a larger molecule by elimination/removal of a simple molecule. (usually water).

Condensation polymers acquire a different name from the monomers because the two monomers are two different compounds

During condensation polymerization:

- (i)the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them.
- (ii)monomers realign themselves at the functional group.
- (iii)from each functional group an element is removed so as to form simple molecule (of usually H₂O/HCl)
- (iv)the two monomers join without the simple molecule of H₂O/HCl

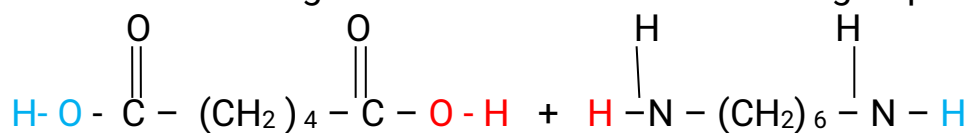
Examples of condensation polymerization

1.Formation of Nylon-6,6

Method 1: Nylon-6,6 can be made from the condensation polymerization of hexan-1,6-dioic acid with hexan-1,6-diamine. Amines are a group of homologous series with a general formula R-NH₂ and thus -NH₂ as the functional group.

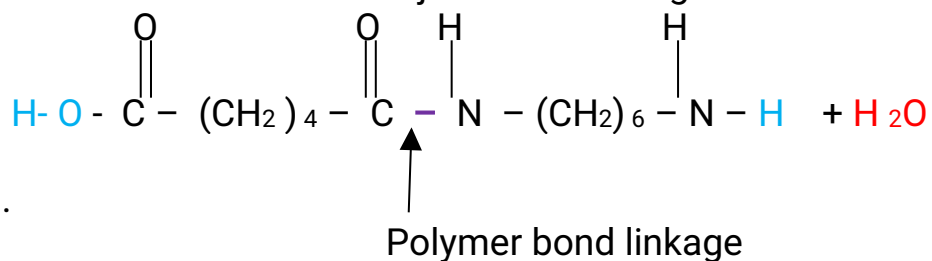
During the formation of Nylon-6,6:

- (i)the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them and realign themselves at the functional groups.



- (iii)from each functional group an element is removed so as to form a molecule

of H₂O and the two monomers join at the linkage .



Nylon-6,6 derive its name from the two monomers each with **six** carbon chain

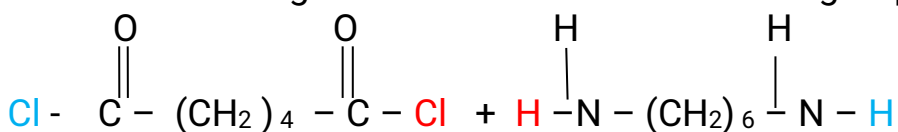
Method 2: Nylon-6,6 can be made from the condensation polymerization of hexan-1,6-dioyl dichloride with hexan-1,6-diamine.

Hexan-1,6-dioyl dichloride belong to a group of homologous series with a general formula R-OCl and thus -OCl as the functional group.

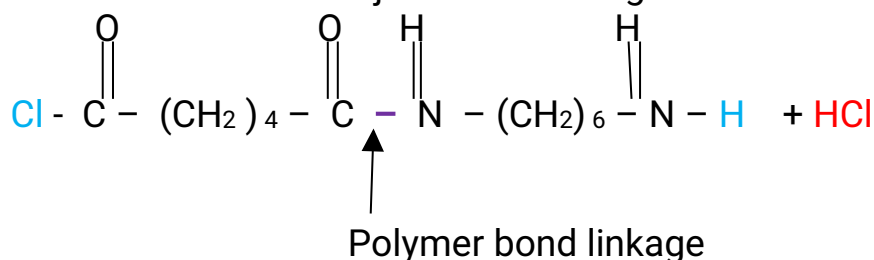
The R-OCl is formed when the "OH" in R-OOH/alkanoic acid is replaced by Cl/chlorine/Halogen

During the formation of Nylon-6,6:

(i) the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them and realign themselves at the functional groups.



(iii) from each functional group an element is removed so as to form a molecule of HCl and the two monomers join at the linkage .



The two monomers each has **six** carbon chain hence the name "nylon-6,6"

The commercial name of Nylon-6,6 is **Nylon** It is a a tough, elastic and durable plastic. It is used to make **clothes, plastic ropes** and **carpets**.

2. Formation of Terylene

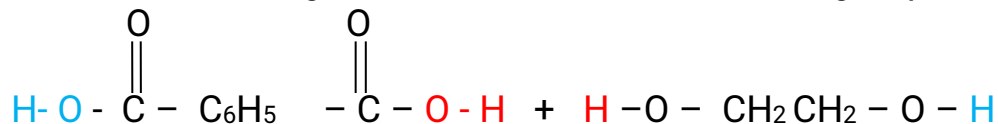
Method 1: Terylene can be made from the condensation polymerization of ethan-1,2-diol with benzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid.

Benzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid a group of homologous series with a general formula R-

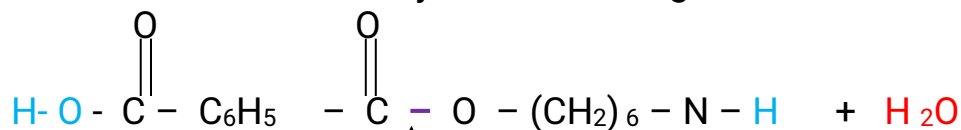
COOH where R is a ring of six carbon atom called Benzene ring .The functional group is -COOH.

During the formation of Terylene:

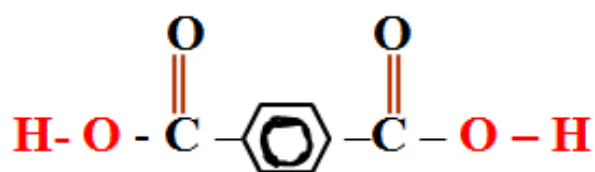
(i)the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them and realign themselves at the functional groups.



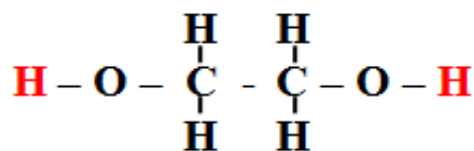
(iii)from each functional group an element is removed so as to form a molecule of H₂O and the two monomers join at the linkage .



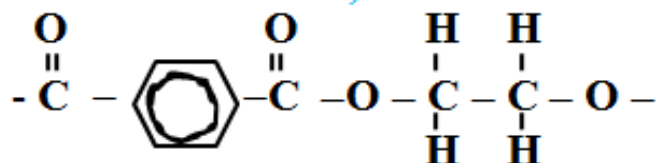
↑
Polymer bond linkage of terylene



benzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid



Ethan-1,2-diol



Terylene(Polyester/polyster)

Condensation polymerization of Benzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid and Ethan-1,2-diol to form Terylene

Method 2: Terylene can be made from the condensation polymerization of benzene-

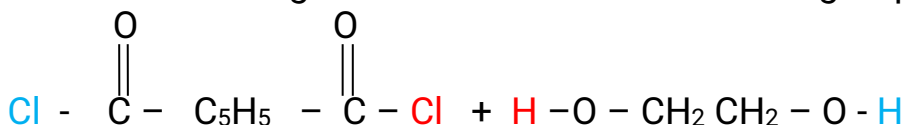
1,4-dioyl dichloride with ethan-1,2-diol.

Benzene-1,4-dioyl dichloride belong to a group of homologous series with a general formula R-OCl and thus -OCl as the functional group and R as a benzene ring.

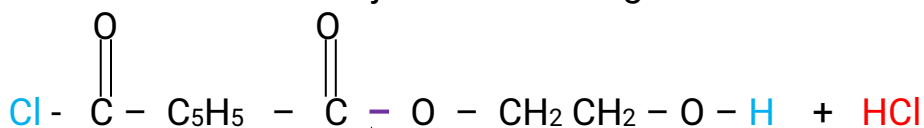
The R-OCl is formed when the "OH" in R-OOH is replaced by Cl/chlorine/Halogen

During the formation of Terylene

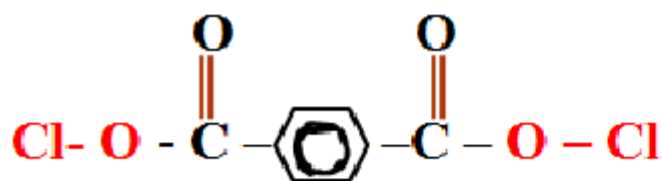
(i) the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them and realign themselves at the functional groups.



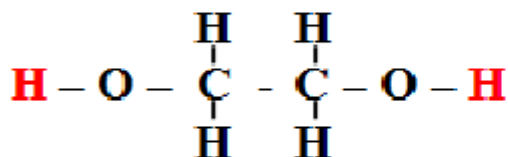
(iii) from each functional group an element is removed so as to form a molecule of HCl and the two monomers join at the linkage.



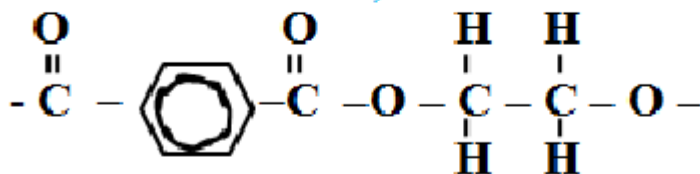
↑
Polymer bond linkage of terylene



benzene-1,4-dioyl dichloride



Ethan-1,2-diol



Terylene(Polyester/polyster)

Condensation polymerization of benzene-1,4-dioyl dichloride with Ethan-1,2-diol to form Terylene

The commercial name of terylene is **Polyester /polyster** It is a a tough, elastic and durable plastic. It is used to make **clothes, plastic ropes and sails** and **plastic model kits**.

Practice questions Organic chemistry

1. A student mixed equal volumes of Ethanol and butanoic acid. He added a few drops of concentrated Sulphuric (VI) acid and warmed the mixture

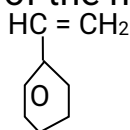
(i) Name and write the formula of the main products

Name.....

Formula.....

(ii) Which homologous series does the product named in (i) above belong?

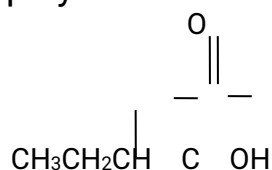
2. The structure of the monomer phenyl ethene is given below:-



- a) Give the structure of the polymer formed when four of the monomers are added together
- b) Give the name of the polymer formed in (a) above
3. Explain the environmental effects of burning plastics in air as a disposal method
4. Write chemical equation to represent the effect of heat on ammonium carbonate
5. Sodium octadecanoate has a chemical formula $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_6 \text{COO}^- \text{Na}^+$, which is used as soap.

Explain why a lot of soap is needed when washing with hard water

6. A natural polymer is made up of the monomer:



(a) Write the structural formula of the repeat unit of the polymer

(b) When 5.0×10^{-5} moles of the polymer were hydrolysed, 0.515g of the monomer

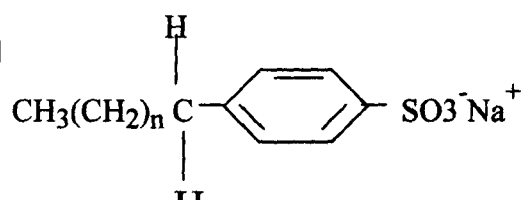
were obtained.

Determine the number of the monomer molecules in this polymer.

(C = 12; H = 1; N = 14; O = 16)

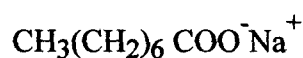
7. The formula below represents active ingredients of two cleansing agents **A** and **B**

Novels, Upd



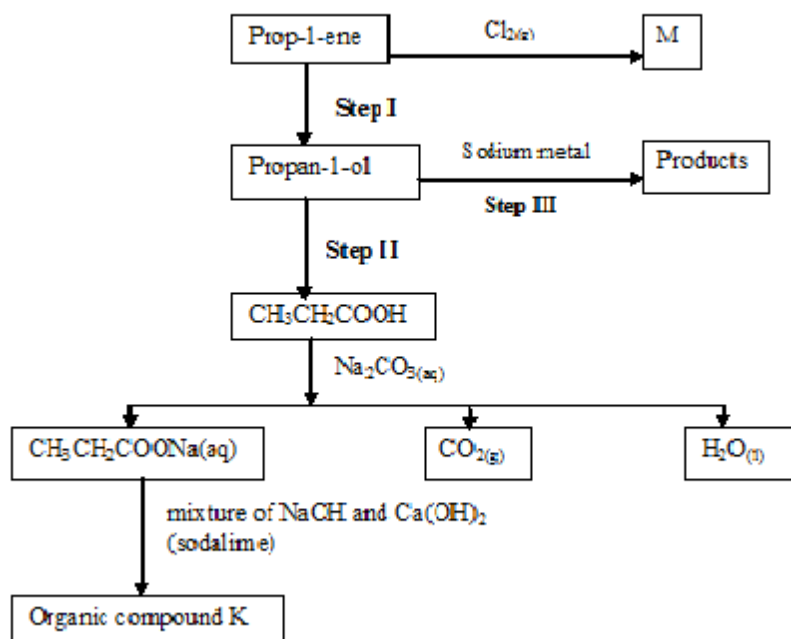
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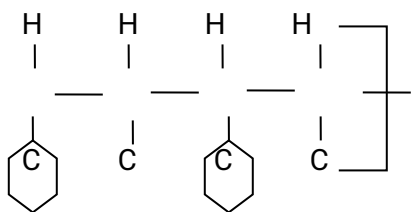


Which one of the cleansing agents would be suitable to be used in water containing magnesium hydrogen carbonate? Explain

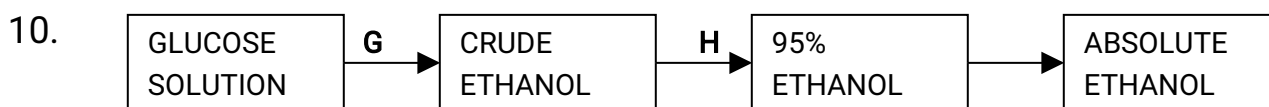
(b) Study the flow chart below and use it to answer the questions that follow:



8. Study the polymer below and use it to answer the questions that follow:



- (a) Give the name of the monomer and draw its structures
 - (b) Identify the type of polymerization that takes place
 - (c) State **one** advantage of synthetic polymers
9. Ethanol and Pentane are miscible liquids. Explain how water can be used to separate a mixture of ethanol and pentane



- (a) What is absolute ethanol?
 - (b) State **two** conditions required for process **G** to take place efficiently
11. (a) (i) The table below shows the volume of oxygen obtained per unit time when hydrogen

peroxide was decomposed in the presence of manganese (IV) Oxide. Use it to answer

the questions that follow:-

Time in seconds	Volume of Oxygen evolved (cm ³)
0	0
30	10
60	19
90	27
120	34
150	38
180	43
210	45
240	45
270	45
300	45

(i) Plot a graph of volume of oxygen gas against time

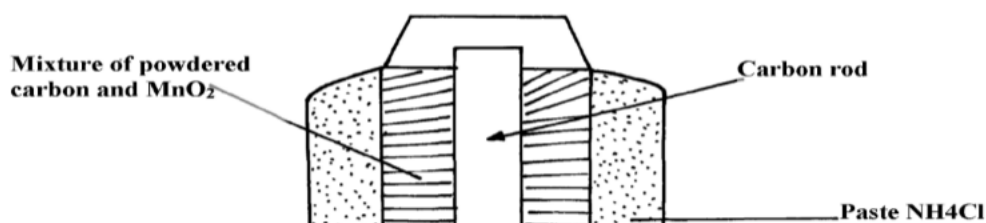
(ii) Determine the rate of reaction at time 156 seconds

(iii) From the graph, find the time taken for 18cm³ of oxygen to be produced

(iv) Write a chemical equation to show how hydrogen peroxide decomposes in the presence

of manganese (IV) Oxide

(b) The diagram below shows how a Le'clanche (Dry cell) appears:-

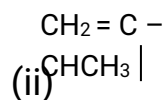


- (i) What is the function of MnO_2 in the cell above?
- (ii) Write the equation of a reaction that occurs at the cathode
- (iii) Calculate the mass of Zinc that is consumed when a current of 0.1 amperes flows through the above cell for 30 minutes ($1F = 96500\text{c}$ $\text{Zn} = 65$)

12. (a) Give the IUPAC names of the following compounds:

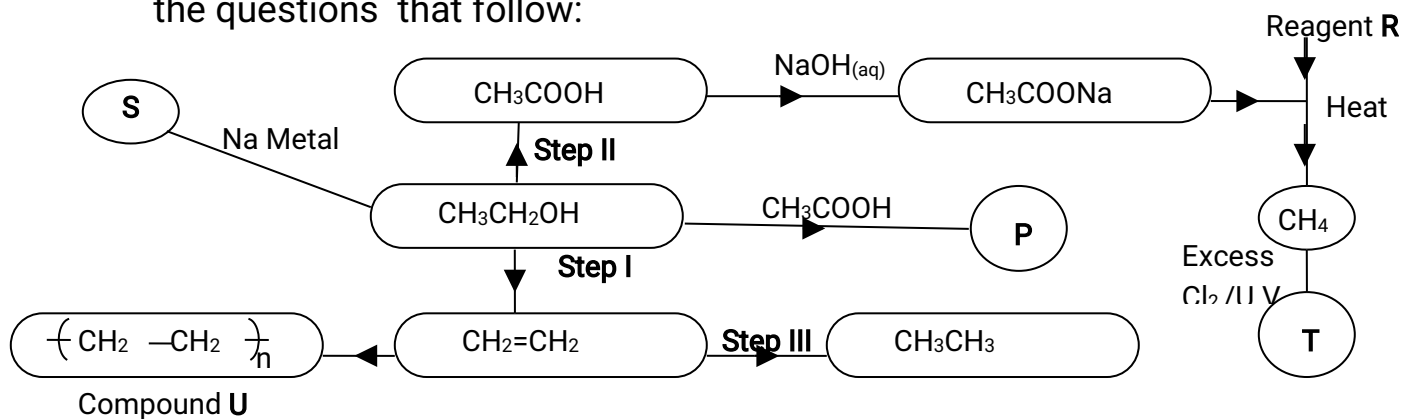


*



(b) The structure below shows some reactions starting with ethanol. Study it and answer

the questions that follow:



(i) Write the formula of the organic compounds **P** and **S**

*

(ii) Name the type of reaction, the reagent(s) and condition for the reactions in the following steps :-

(I) Step I

*

(II) Step II

*

(III) Step III

*

(iii) Name reagent **R**

*

(iv) Draw the structural formula of **T** and give its name

*

(v) (I) Name compound **U**.....

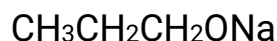
(II) If the relative molecular mass of **U** is 42000, determine the value of n ($\text{C}=12, \text{H}=1$)

(c) State why C_2H_4 burns with a more smoky flame than C_2H_6

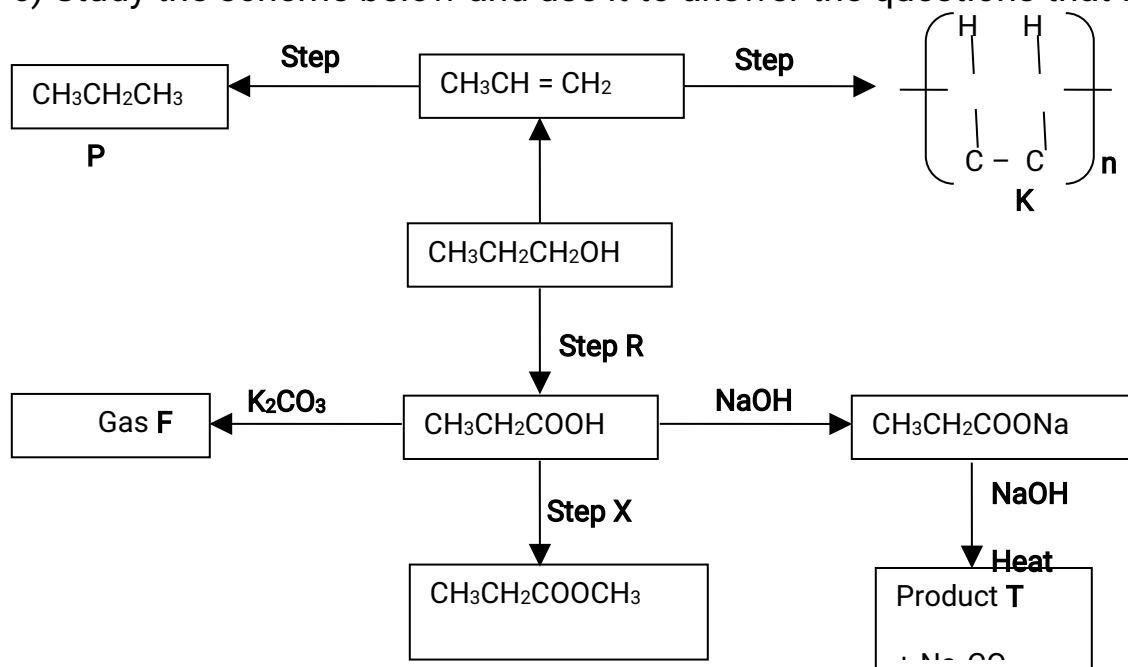
*

13. a) State **two** factors that affect the properties of a polymer

b) Name the compound with the formula below :



c) Study the scheme below and use it to answer the questions that follow:-



i) Name the following compounds:-

I. Product T II. K

ii) State **one** common physical property of substance **G**

iii) State the type of reaction that occurred in step **J**

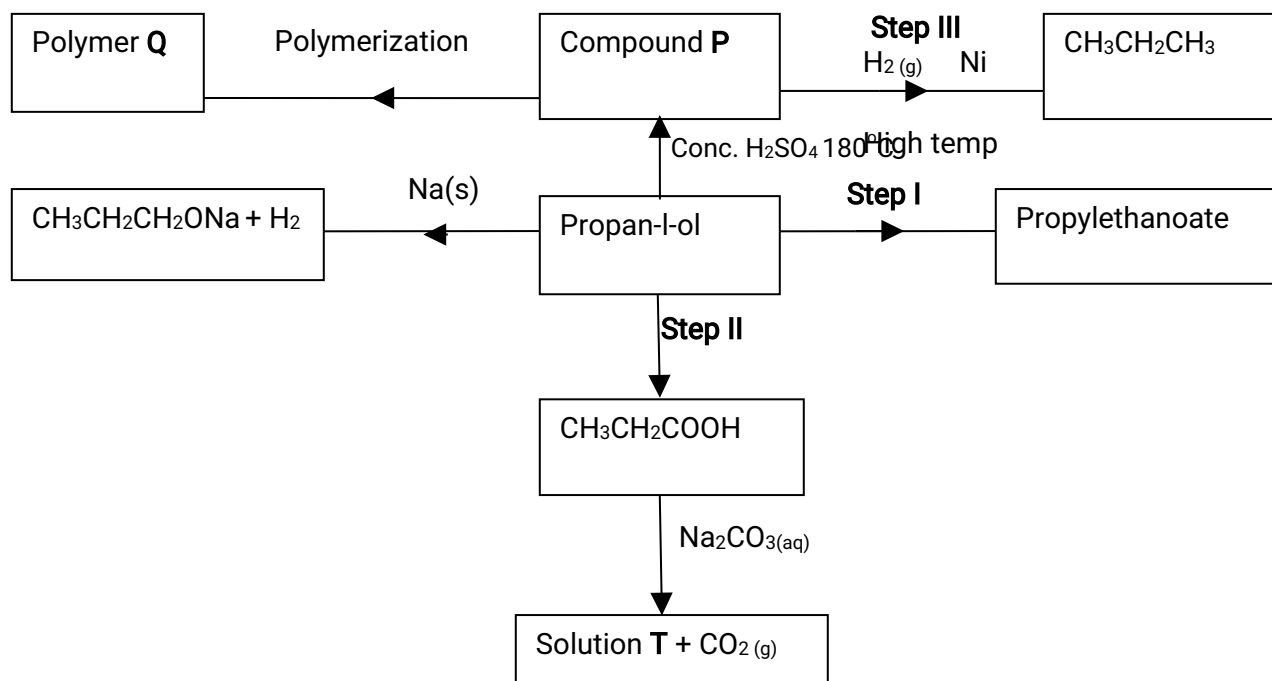
iv) Give **one** use of substance **K**

v) Write an equation for the combustion of compound **P**

vi) Explain how compounds $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$ and $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ can be distinguished chemically

vii) If a polymer **K** has relative molecular mass of 12,600, calculate the value of **n** ($\text{H}=1$ $\text{C}=12$)

14. Study the scheme given below and answer the questions that follow:-



(a) (i) Name compound **P**

(ii) Write an equation for the reaction between $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$ and Na_2CO_3

(b) State **one** use of polymer **Q**

(c) Name **one** oxidising agent that can be used in **step II**

(d) A sample of polymer **Q** is found to have a molecular mass of 4200. Determine the number of

monomers in the polymer (H = 1, C = 12)

(e) Name the type of reaction in **step I**

(f) State **one** industrial application of **step III**

(g) State how burning can be used to distinguish between propane and propyne. Explain your

answer

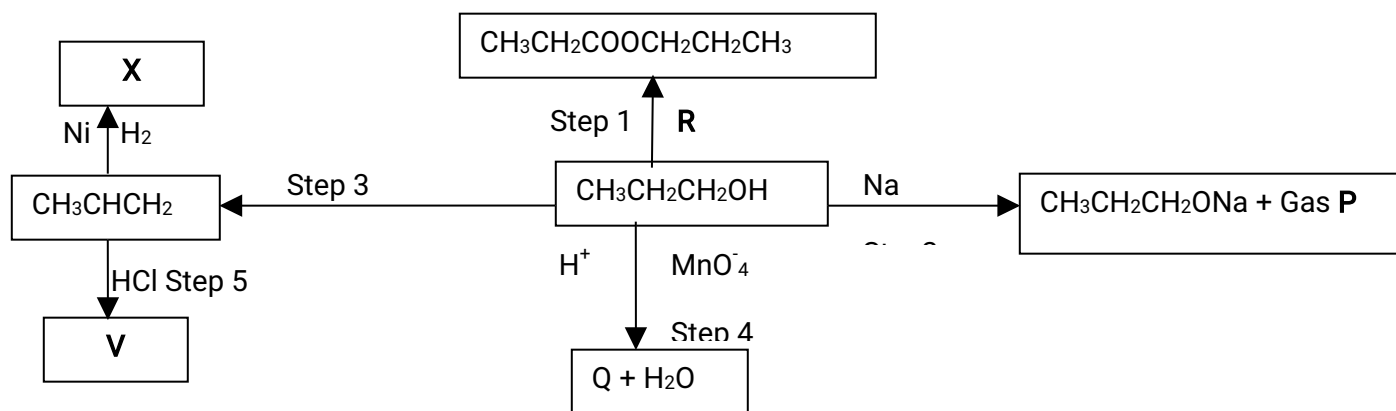
(h) 1000cm^3 of ethene (C_2H_4) burnt in oxygen to produce Carbon (II) Oxide and water vapour.

Calculate the minimum volume of air needed for the complete combustion of

ethene

(Air contains 20% by volume of oxygen)

15. (a) Study the schematic diagram below and answer the questions that follow:-



(i) Identify the following:

Substance Q

.....

Substance

R.....

Gas

P.....

(ii) Name:

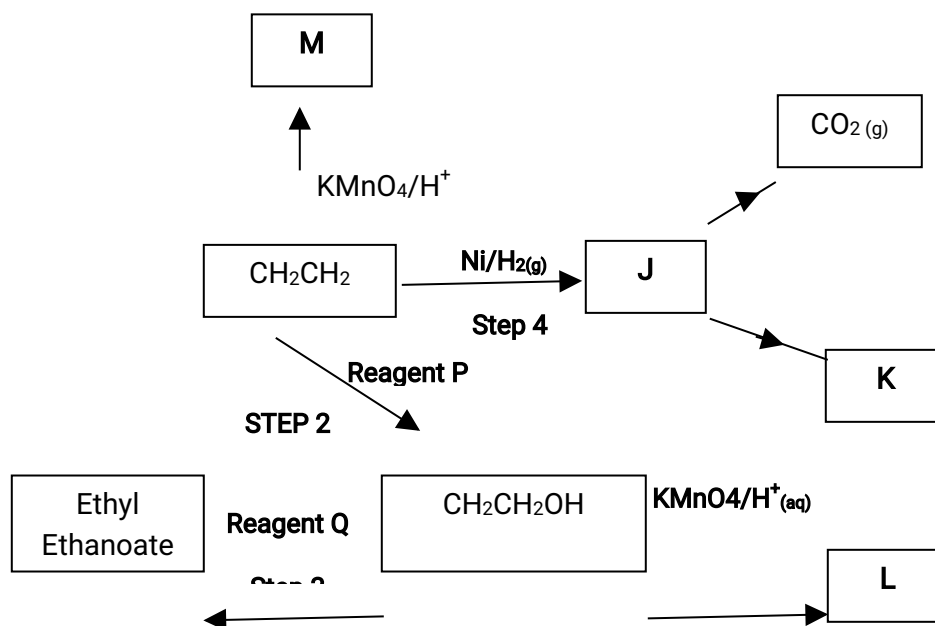
Step 1.....

Step 4.....

(iii) Draw the structural formula of the major product of step 5

(iv) State the condition and reagent in step 3

16. Study the flow chart below and answer the questions that follow



(a) (i) Name the following organic compounds:

M.....

L.....

(ii) Name the process in step:

Step 2

Step 4

(iii) Identify the reagent **P** and **Q**

(iv) Write an equation for the reaction between **CH₃CH₂CH₂OH** and sodium

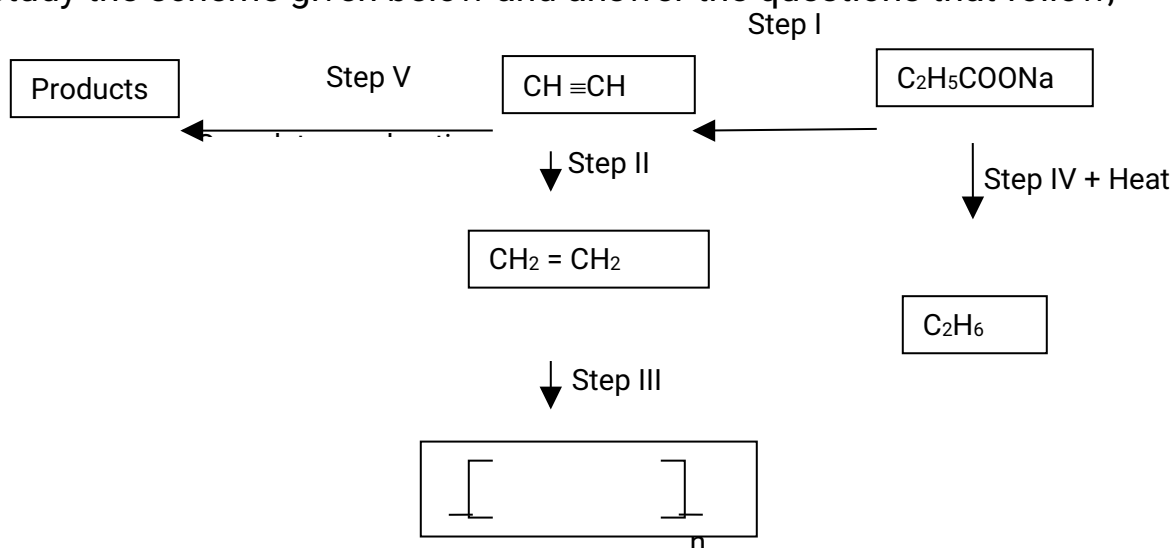
17. a) Give the names of the following compounds:

i) $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$

ii) $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$

iii) $\text{CH}_3\text{C} - \text{O} - \text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$

18. Study the scheme given below and answer the questions that follow;



i) Name the reagents used in:

Step I:

Step II

Step III

ii) Write an equation to show products formed for the complete combustion of $\text{CH} = \text{CH}$

iii) Explain **one** disadvantage of continued use of items made from the compound formed

in step III

19. A hydrated salt has the following composition by mass. Iron 20.2 %, oxygen

23.0%,

sulphur 11.5%, water 45.3%

i) Determine the formula of the hydrated salt (Fe=56, S=32, O=16, H=11)

ii) 6.95g of the hydrated salt in c(i) above were dissolved in distilled water and the total

volume made to 250cm³ of solution. Calculate the concentration of the resulting salt solution

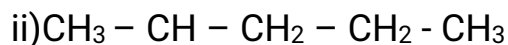
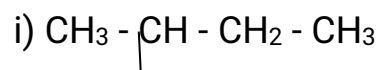
in moles per litre. (Given that the molecular mass of the salt is 278)

20. Write an equation to show products formed for the complete combustion of CH₃CH=CH₂

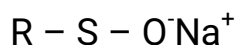
iii) Explain **one** disadvantage of continued use of items made from the compound formed

in step III

21. Give the IUPAC name for each of the following organic compounds;



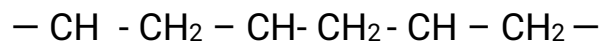
22. The structure below represents a cleansing agent.



a) State the type of cleansing agent represented above

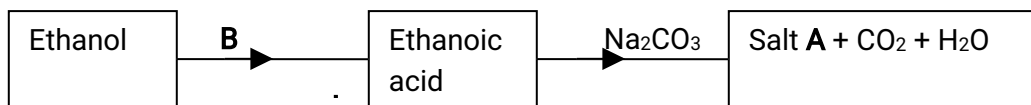
b) State **one** advantage and one disadvantage of using the above cleansing agent.

23. The structure below shows part of polymer. Use it to answer the questions that follow.



- a) Derive the structure of the monomer
- b) Name the type of polymerization represented above

24. The flow chart below represents a series of reactions starting with ethanoic acid:



(a) Identify substances **A** and **B**

(b) Name the process **I**

25. a) Write an equation showing how ammonium nitrate may be prepared starting with

ammonia gas

(b) Calculate the maximum mass of ammonium nitrate that can be prepared using 5.3kg of

ammonia (H=1, N=14, O=16)

26. (a) What is meant by the term, esterification?

(b) Draw the structural formulae of **two** compounds that may be reacted to form ethylpropanoate

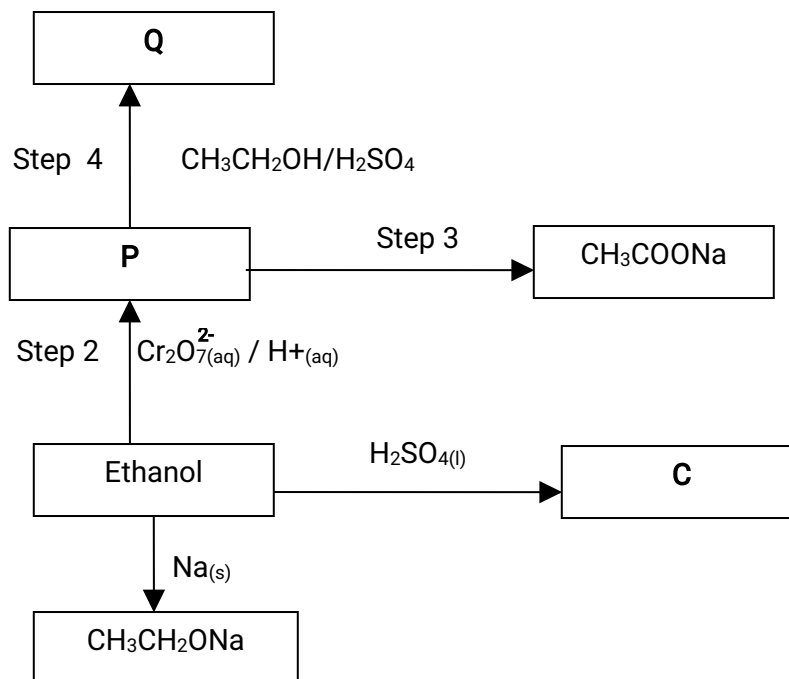
27. (a) Draw the structure of pentanoic acid

(b) Draw the structure and give the name of the organic compound formed when ethanol

reacts with pentanoic acid in presence of concentrated sulphuric acid

28. The scheme below shows some reactions starting with ethanol. Study it and answer the questions

that follow:-



(i) Name and draw the structure of substance **Q**

(ii) Give the names of the reactions that take place in **steps 2** and **4**

(iii) What reagent is necessary for reaction that takes place in step 3

29. Substances **A** and **B** are represented by the formulae **ROH** and **RCOOH** respectively.

They belong to two different homologous series of organic compounds. If both **A** and **B**

react with potassium metal:

(a) Name the common product produced by both

(b) State the observation made when each of the samples **A** and **B** are reacted with sodium

hydrogen carbonate

(i) **A**

(ii) **B**

30. Below are structures of particles. Use it to answer questions that follow. In each case only

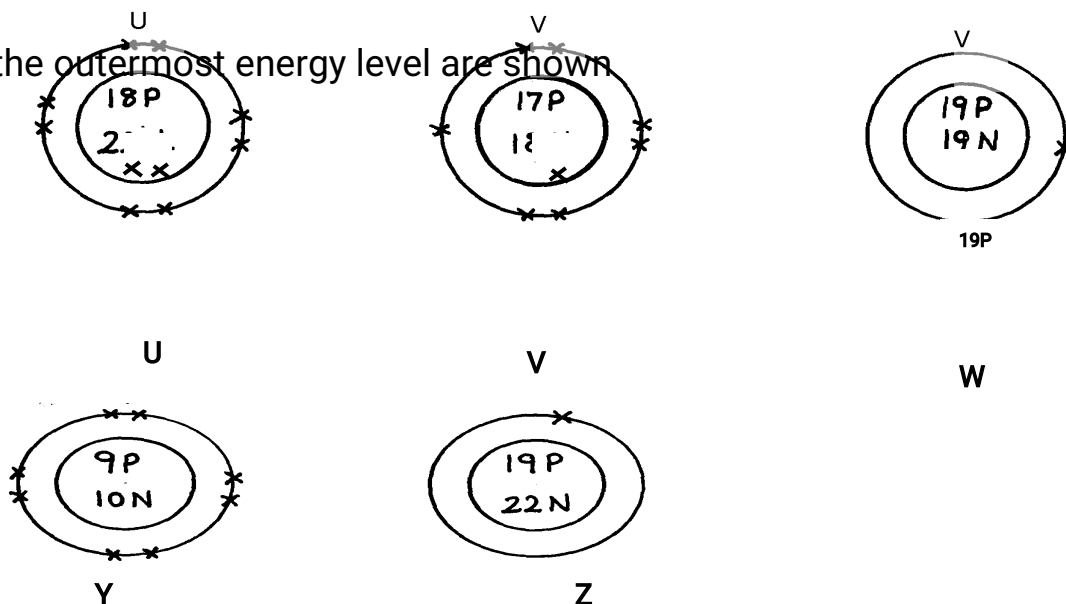
electrons in the outermost energy level are shown

key

P = Proton

N = Neutron

X = Electron



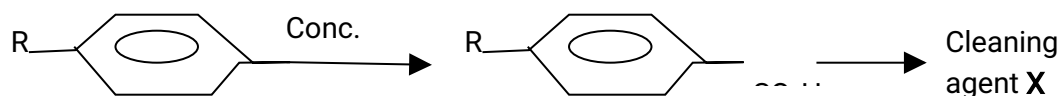
(a) Identify the particle which is an anion

31. Plastics and rubber are extensively used to cover electrical wires.

(a) What term is used to describe plastic and rubbers used in this way?

(b) Explain why plastics and rubbers are used this way

32. The scheme below represents the manufacture of a cleaning agent **X**



(a) Draw the structure of **X** and state the type of cleaning agent to which **X** belong

(b) State **one** disadvantage of using **X** as a cleaning agent

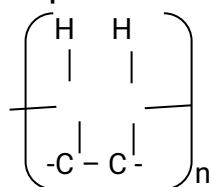
33. **Y** grams of a radioactive isotope take 120days to decay to 3.5grams. The half-life period

of the isotope is 20days

(a) Find the initial mass of the isotope

(b) Give **one** application of radioactivity in agriculture

34. The structure below represents a polymer. Study and answer the questions that follow:-



(i) Name the polymer above.....

(ii) Determine the value of **n** if giant molecule had relative molecular mass of

4956

35. RCOO^-Na^+ and $\text{RCH}_2\text{OSO}_3^-\text{Na}^+$ are two types of cleansing agents;

i) Name the class of cleansing agents to which each belongs

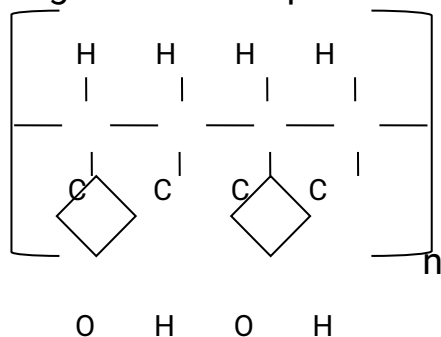
ii) Which one of these agents in (i) above would be more suitable when washing with water

from the Indian ocean. Explain

iii) Both sulphur (IV) oxide and chlorine are used bleaching agents. Explain the difference

in their bleaching properties

36. The formula given below represents a portion of a polymer



(a) Give the name of the polymer

(b) Draw the structure of the monomer used to manufacture the polymer

Contents

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A.NITROGEN

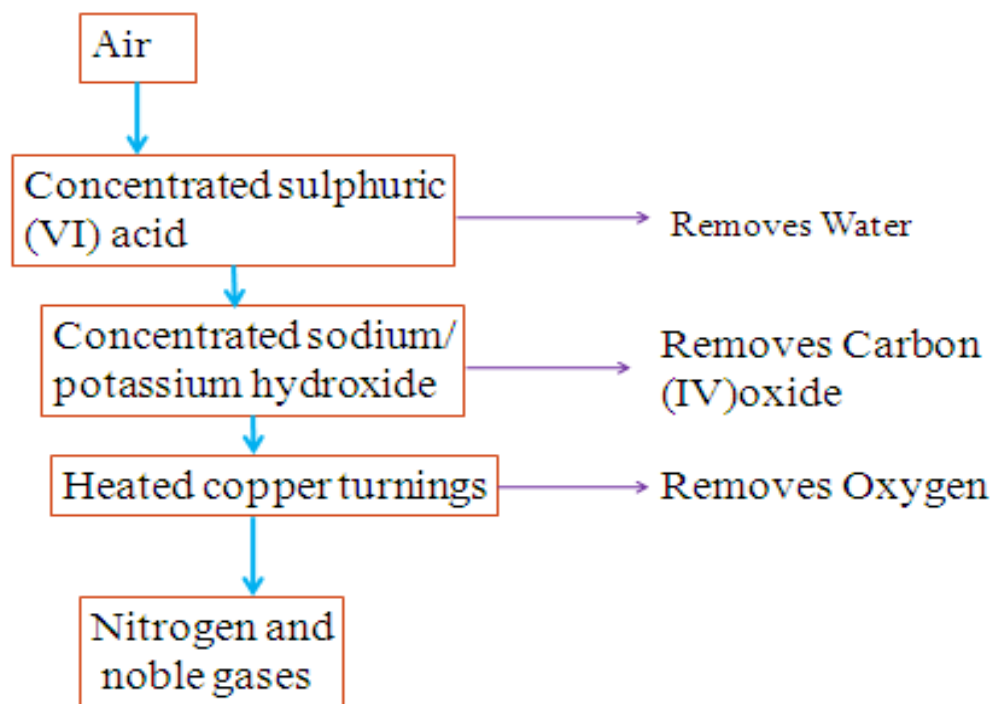
a) Occurrence:

Nitrogen is found in the atmosphere occupying about 78% by volume of air. Proteins, amino acids, polypeptides in living things contain nitrogen.

b) Isolation of nitrogen from the air.

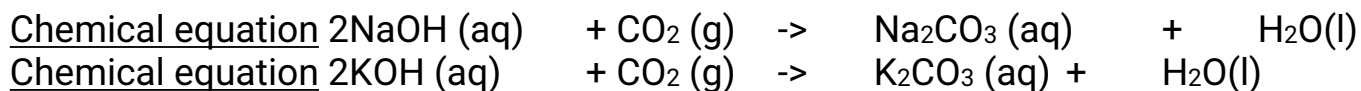
Nitrogen can be isolated from other gases present in air like oxygen, water (vapour), carbon (IV) oxide and noble gases as in the school laboratory as in the flow chart below:

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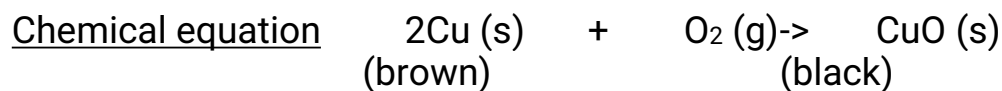


Water is added slowly into an “empty flask” which forces the air out into another flask containing concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid. Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is hygroscopic. It therefore absorb/remove water present in the air sample.

More water forces the air into the flask containing either concentrated sodium hydroxide or potassium hydroxide solution. These alkalis react with carbon (IV) oxide to form the carbonates and thus absorbs/remove carbon (IV) oxide present in the air sample.



More water forces the air through a glass tube packed with copper turnings. Heated brown copper turnings react with oxygen to form black copper (II) oxide.



The remaining gas mixture is collected by upward delivery/downward displacement of water/over water. It contains about 99% nitrogen and 1% noble gases.

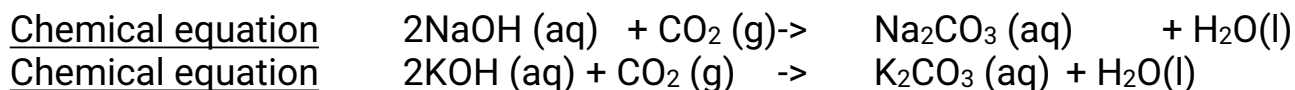
On a large scale for industrial purposes, nitrogen is got from fractional distillation of air.

c)Nitrogen from fractional distillation of air.

For commercial purposes nitrogen is got from the fractional of air.

Air is first passed through a dust precipitator/filter to remove dust particles.

The air is then bubbled through either concentrated sodium hydroxide or potassium hydroxide solution to remove/absorb Carbon(IV) oxide gas.

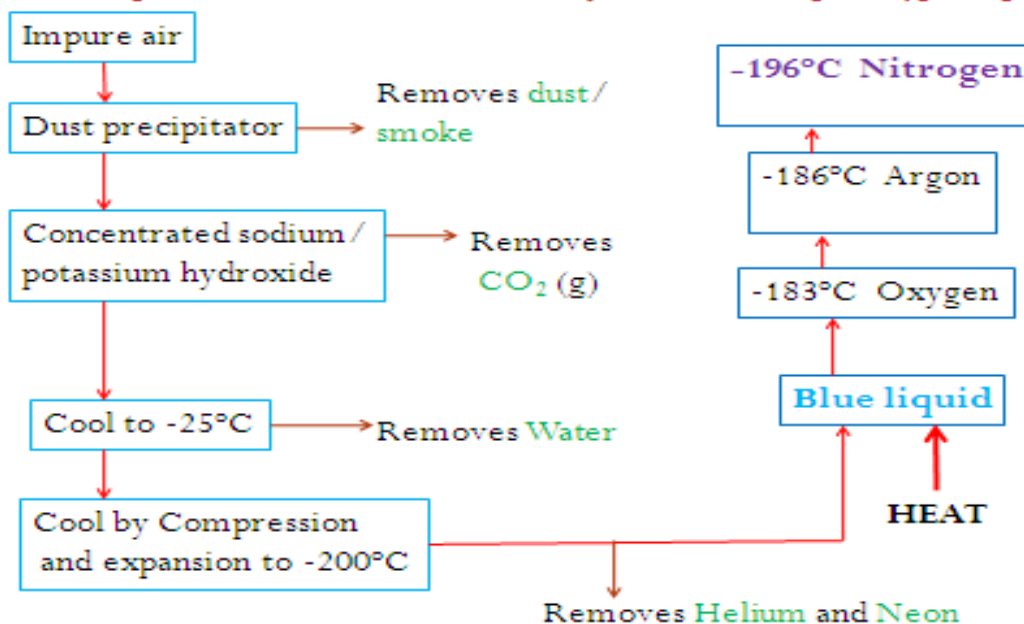


Air mixture is the cooled to -25°C . At this temperature, water (vapour) liquidifies and then solidify to ice and thus removed.

The air is further cooled to -200°C during which it forms a blue liquid.

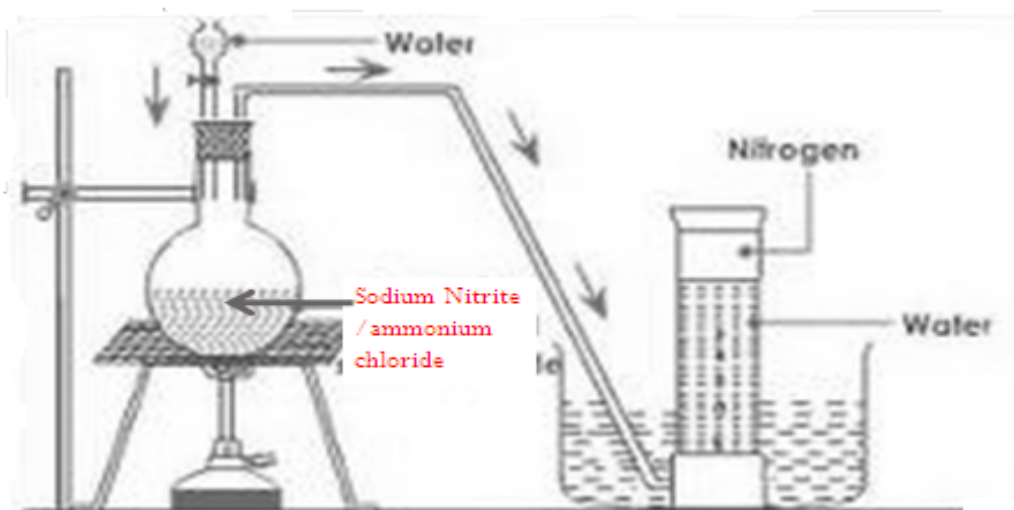
The liquid is then heated. Nitrogen with a boiling point of -196°C distils first then Argon at -186°C and then finally Oxygen at -183°C boils last.

Flow diagram showing fractional distillation of air/industrial production of Nitrogen/Oxygen/Argon



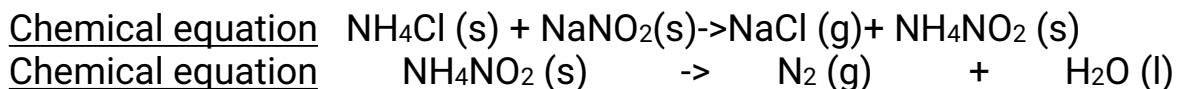
c) School laboratory preparation of Nitrogen.

The diagram below shows the set up of the school laboratory preparation of nitrogen gas.



d. Properties of Nitrogen gas(Questions)

1. Write the equation for the reaction for the school laboratory preparation of nitrogen gas.



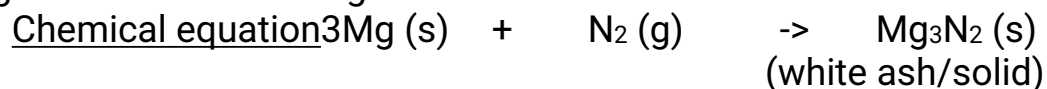
2. State three physical properties of nitrogen gas.

- colourless, odourless, less dense than air, neutral and slightly soluble in water

3. State and explain the observation made when a burning magnesium ribbon is lowered in a gas jar containing nitrogen gas.

Observation; It continues burning with a blight blinding flame forming white ash.

Explanation Magnesium burns to produce enough heat /energy to reacts with nitrogen to form white magnesium nitride.



4. State two main uses of nitrogen gas

- manufacture of ammonia from Haber process
- As a refrigerant in storage of semen for Artificial insemination.

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B. OXIDES OF NITROGEN

Nitrogen forms three main oxides:

- i) Nitrogen(I) oxide(N_2O)
- ii) Nitrogen(II) oxide (NO)
- iii) Nitrogen (IV) oxide(NO_2)

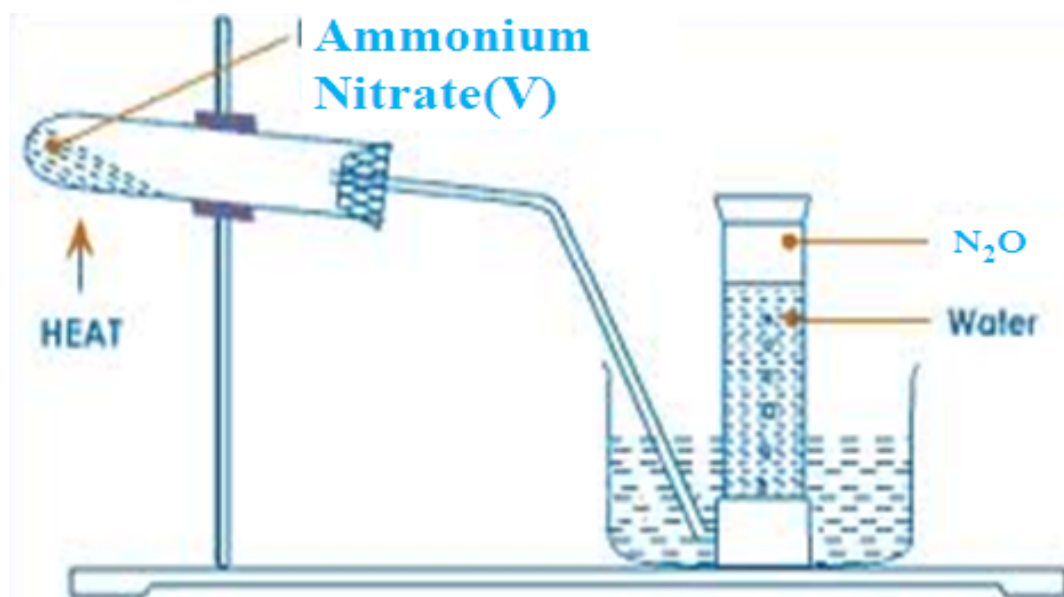
i) Nitrogen (I) oxide(N_2O)

a) Occurrence

Nitrogen (I) oxide does not occur naturally but prepared in a laboratory.

b) Preparation

The set up below shows the set up of apparatus that can be used to prepare Nitrogen (I) oxide in a school laboratory.



Preparation of Nitrogen(I)Oxide from ammonium nitrate(V)

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c) Properties of nitrogen (I) oxide (Questions)

1. Write the equation for the reaction for the school laboratory preparation of Nitrogen (I) oxide.

Chemical equation $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_2(\text{s}) \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{O} (\text{l}) + \text{N}_2\text{O} (\text{g})$

2.a) State and explain three errors made in the above set up

-Oxygen is being generated instead of Nitrogen (I) oxide.

Ammonium Nitrate(V) should be used instead of potassium manganate(VI) and manganese(IV)oxide.

b) State three physical properties of Nitrogen (I) oxide.

-slightly soluble in water.

-colourless

-odourless

-less dense than air

-slightly sweet smell

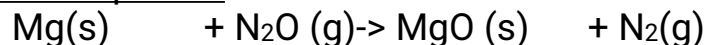
3. State and explain the observation made when a burning magnesium ribbon is lowered in a gas jar containing Nitrogen (I) oxide.

Observation - Continues to burn with a bright flame

-White solid/residue is formed

Explanation-Magnesium burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break Nitrogen (I) oxide gas into free Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form white solid/ash of Magnesium oxide.

Chemical equation



4. State and explain the observation made when the following non metals are burnt then lowered in a gas jar containing Nitrogen (I) oxide.

a) Carbon/charcoal

Observation - Continues to burn with an orange glow

-colorless gas is formed that forms white precipitate with lime water.

Explanation-Carbon/charcoal burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break Nitrogen (I) oxide gas into free Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form carbon (IV) oxide gas. Carbon (IV) oxide gas reacts to form a white precipitate with lime water.

Chemical equation $\text{C(s)} + 2\text{N}_2\text{O (g)} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2 \text{ (g)} + 2\text{N}_2\text{(g)}$

b) sulphur powder

Observation - Continues to burn with a blue flame

-colorless gas is formed that turn orange acidified potassium dichromate (VI) to green.

Explanation-Sulphur burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break Nitrogen (I) oxide gas into free Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form sulphur (IV) oxide gas. Sulphur (IV) oxide gas turns orange acidified potassium dichromate (VI) to green.

Chemical equation $\text{S(s)} + 2\text{N}_2\text{O (g)} \rightarrow \text{SO}_2 \text{ (g)} + 2\text{N}_2\text{(g)}$

5. State two uses of nitrogen (I) oxide

- As laughing gas because as anesthesia the patient regain consciousness laughing hysterically after surgery.
- improves engine efficiency.

6. State three differences between nitrogen (I) oxide and oxygen

- Oxygen is odourless while nitrogen (I) oxide has faint sweet smell
- Both relight/rekindle a glowing wooden splint but Oxygen can relight a feeble glowing splint while nitrogen (I) oxide relights well lit splint.
- Both are slightly soluble in water but nitrogen (I) oxide is more soluble.

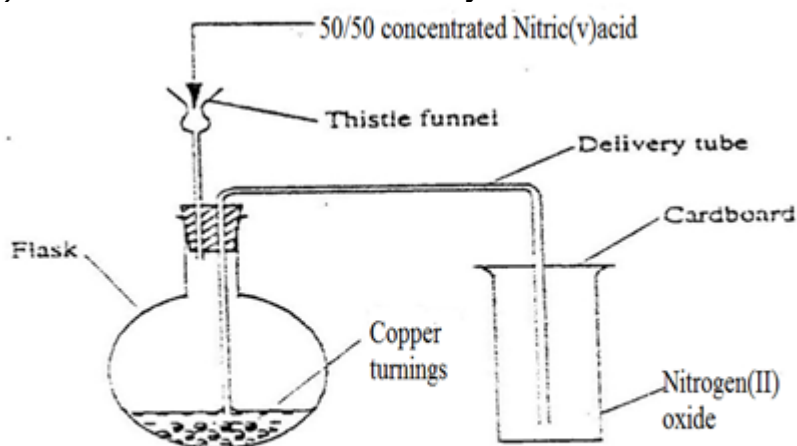
ii) Nitrogen (II) oxide (NO)

a) Occurrence

Nitrogen (II) oxide does not occur naturally but prepared in a laboratory.

b)Preparation

The set up below shows the set up of apparatus that can be used to prepare Nitrogen (II) oxide in a school laboratory.



Preparation of Nitrogen(II)Oxide from 50/50 dilute nitric(V)acid and copper turnings

c) Properties of nitrogen (II) oxide (Questions)

1. Write the equation for the reaction for the school laboratory preparation of Nitrogen (II) oxide.

Chemical equation $3\text{Cu(s)} + 8\text{HNO}_3\text{(aq)} \rightarrow 4\text{H}_2\text{O (l)} + 2\text{NO (g)} + 2\text{Cu(NO}_3)_2\text{(aq)}$

Chemical equation $3\text{Zn(s)} + 8\text{HNO}_3\text{(aq)} \rightarrow 4\text{H}_2\text{O (l)} + 2\text{NO (g)} + 2\text{Zn(NO}_3)_2\text{(aq)}$

Chemical equation $3\text{Mg(s)} + 8\text{HNO}_3\text{(aq)} \rightarrow 4\text{H}_2\text{O (l)} + 2\text{NO (g)} + 2\text{Mg(NO}_3)_2\text{(aq)}$

2. State three physical properties of Nitrogen (II) oxide.

- insoluble in water.
- colourless
- odourless
- denser than air
- has no effect on both blue and red litmus papers

2. State and explain the observation made when a burning magnesium ribbon is lowered in a gas jar containing Nitrogen (II) oxide.

Observation - Continues to burn with a bright flame

-White solid/residue is formed

Explanation-Magnesium burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break Nitrogen (II) oxide gas into free Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form white solid/ash of Magnesium oxide.

Chemical equation $2\text{Mg(s)} + 2\text{NO (g)} \rightarrow 2\text{MgO (s)} + \text{N}_2\text{(g)}$

3. State and explain the observation made when the following non metals are burnt then lowered in a gas jar containing Nitrogen (II) oxide.

a) Carbon/charcoal

Observation - Continues to burn with an orange glow

-colorless gas is formed that forms white precipitate with lime water.

Explanation-Carbon/charcoal burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break Nitrogen (II) oxide gas into free Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form carbon (IV) oxide gas. Carbon (IV) oxide gas reacts to form a white precipitate with lime water.

Chemical equation $\text{C(s)} + 2\text{NO (g)} \rightarrow \text{CO}_2\text{(g)} + \text{N}_2\text{(g)}$

b) sulphur powder

Observation - Continues to burn with a blue flame

-colorless gas is formed that turn orange acidified potassium dichromate (VI) to green.

Explanation-Sulphur burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break Nitrogen (II) oxide gas into free Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form sulphur (IV) oxide gas. Sulphur (IV) oxide gas turns orange acidified potassium

dichromate (VI) to green.

Chemical equation $S(s) + N_2O(g) \rightarrow SO_2(g) + N_2(g)$

c) Phosphorus

Observation - Continues to produce dense white fumes

Explanation-Phosphorus burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break Nitrogen (II) oxide gas into free Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form dense white fumes of phosphorus (V) oxide gas.

Chemical equation $4P(s) + 10NO(g) \rightarrow 2P_2O_5(g) + 5N_2(g)$

5. State one use of nitrogen (II) oxide

As an intermediate gas in the Ostwalds process for manufacture of nitric(V) gas.

6. State and explain the observation made when nitrogen (II) oxide is exposed to the atmosphere.

Observation—brown fumes produced/evolved that turn blue litmus paper red.

Explanation- Nitrogen (II) oxide gas on exposure to air is quickly oxidized by the air/ oxygen to brown nitrogen (IV) oxide gas. Nitrogen (IV) oxide gas is an acidic gas.

Chemical equation $2NO(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2NO_2(g)$
(colorless) (brown)

ii) Nitrogen (IV) oxide (NO₂)

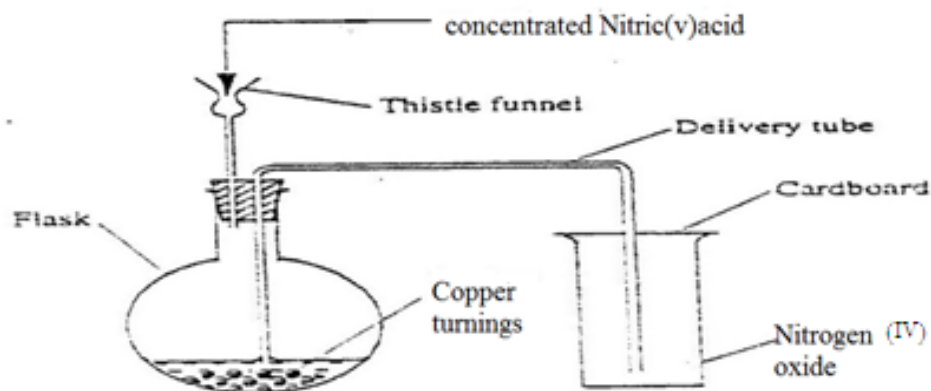
a) Occurrence

Nitrogen (IV) oxide occurs -naturally from active volcanic areas.

- formed from incomplete combustion of the internal combustion engine of motor vehicle exhaust fumes.
- from lightening

b)Preparation

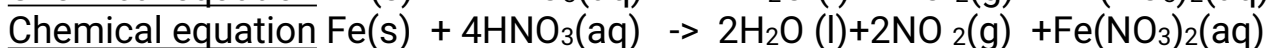
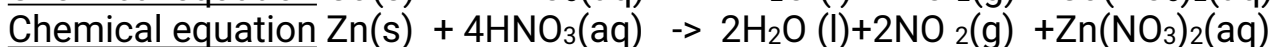
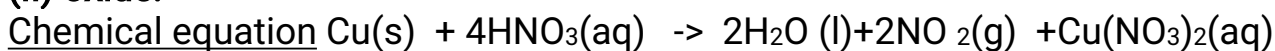
The set up below shows the set up of apparatus that can be used to prepare Nitrogen (IV) oxide in a school laboratory.



Preparation of Nitrogen(IV)oxide from Conc. Nitric(V)acid and Copper turnings

c) Properties of nitrogen (IV)oxide (Questions)

1. Write the equation for the reaction for the school laboratory preparation of Nitrogen (II) oxide.



2. State three physical properties of Nitrogen (IV) oxide.

- soluble/dissolves in water.
- brown in colour
- has pungent irritating poisonous odour/smell
- denser than air
- turns blue litmus papers to red

3. State and explain the observation made when Nitrogen (IV) oxide gas is bubbled in water.

Observation– The gas dissolves and thus brown colour of the gas fades

- A colourless solution is formed
- solution formed turns blue litmus papers to red
- solution formed has no effect on red

Explanation–Magnesium burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break Nitrogen (IV) oxide gas dissolves then react with water to form an acidic mixture of nitric(V) acid and nitric(III) acid.



brown Nitrogen (IV) oxide gas into free colourless Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form carbon (IV) oxide gas. Carbon (IV) oxide gas reacts to form a white precipitate with lime water.



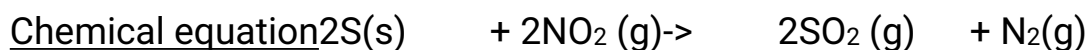
b) sulphur powder

Observation - Continues to burn with a blue flame

-Brown fumes/colour fades

-colorless gas is formed that turn orange acidified potassium dichromate (VI) to green.

Explanation-Sulphur burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break brown Nitrogen (IV) oxide gas into free colourless Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form sulphur (IV) oxide gas. Sulphur (IV) oxide gas turns orange acidified potassium dichromate (VI) to green.



c) Phosphorus

Observation- Continues to produce dense white fumes

-Brown fumes/colour fades

Explanation-Phosphorus burns in air to produce enough heat/energy split/break brown Nitrogen (IV) oxide gas into free colourless Nitrogen and oxygen then continues to burn in oxygen to form dense white fumes of phosphorus (V) oxide gas.



5. State two uses of nitrogen (IV) oxide

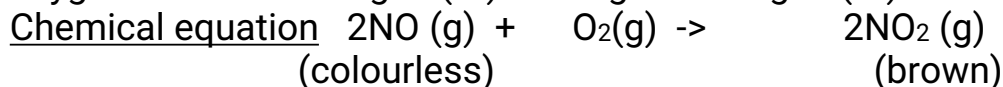
- In the Ostwald process for industrial manufacture of nitric (V) gas.

- In the manufacture of T.N.T explosives

6. State and explain the observation made when nitrogen (II) oxide is exposed to the atmosphere.

Observation—brown fumes produced/evolved that turn blue litmus paper red.

Explanation- Nitrogen (II) oxide gas on exposure to air is quickly oxidized by the air/oxygen to brown nitrogen (IV) oxide gas. Nitrogen (IV) oxide gas is an acidic gas.



C. AMMONIA (NH₃)

Ammonia is a compound of nitrogen and hydrogen only. It is therefore a hydride of nitrogen.

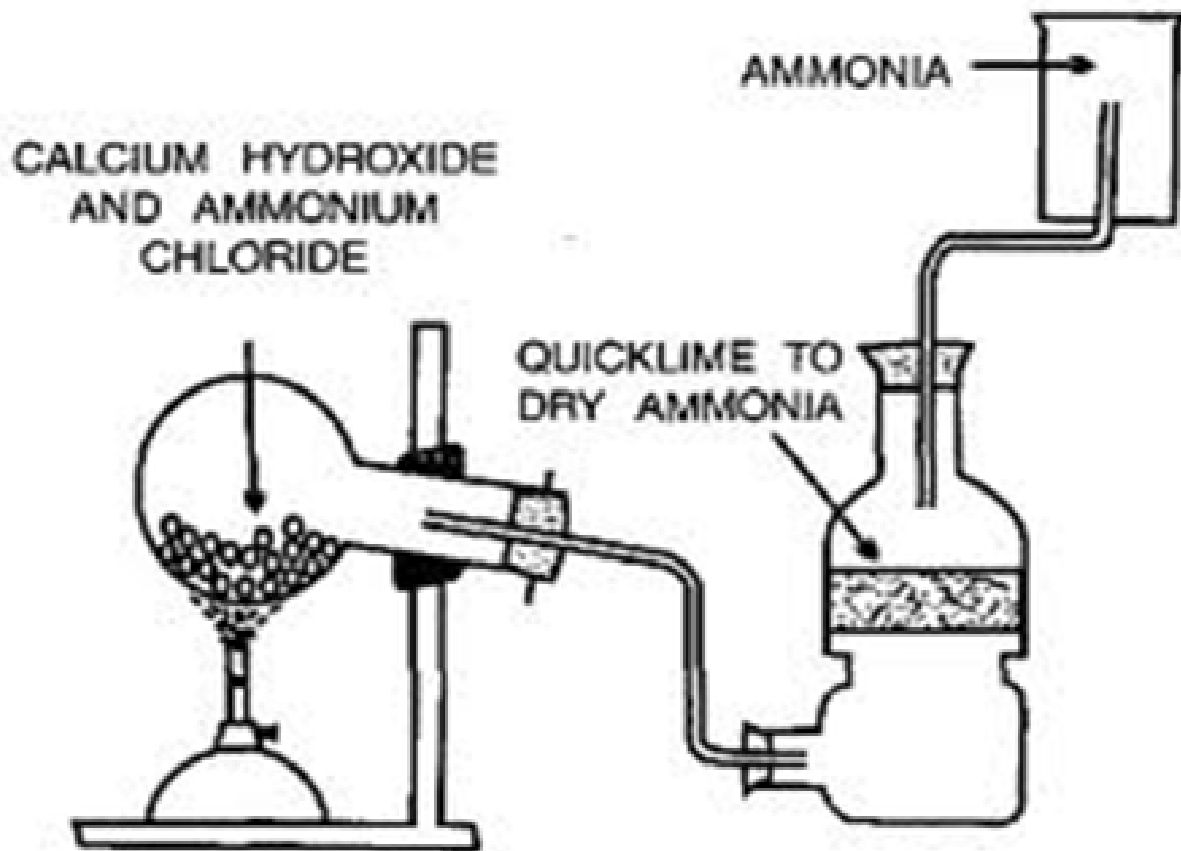
a) Occurrence

Ammonia gas occurs -naturally from urine of mammals and excretion of birds
-formed in the kidney of human beings

b)Preparation

The set up below shows the set up of apparatus that can be used to prepare dry Ammonia gas in a school laboratory.

Set up method 1



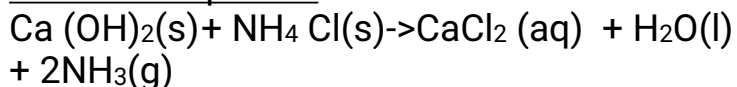
Preparation of ammonia from calcium hydroxide and ammonium chloride solids

c) P

1. Write the equation for the reaction taking place in:

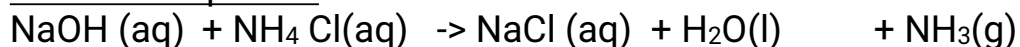
a) Method 1

Chemical equation



b)Method 2

Chemical equation



2. State three physical properties of ammonia.

- has a pungent choking smell of urine
- Colourless
- Less dense than air hence collected by upward delivery
- Turns blue litmus paper blue thus is the only naturally occurring basic gas (at this level)

3. Calcium oxide is used as the drying agent. Explain why calcium chloride and concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid cannot be used to dry the gas.

- Calcium chloride reacts with ammonia forming the complex compound $\text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 8\text{H}_2\text{O}$.

Chemical equation $\text{CaCl}_2 (\text{s}) + 8\text{NH}_3(\text{g}) \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_2 \cdot 8\text{NH}_3(\text{g})$

- Concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid reacts with ammonia forming ammonium sulphate(VI) salt compound

Chemical equation $2\text{NH}_3(\text{g}) + \text{H}_2\text{SO}_4(\text{l}) \rightarrow (\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4(\text{aq})$

4. Describe the test for the presence of ammonia gas.

Using litmus paper:

Dip moist/damp/wet blue and red litmus papers in a gas jar containing a gas suspected to be ammonia. The blue litmus paper remain blue and the red litmus paper turns blue. Ammonia is the only basic gas. (At this level)

Using hydrogen chloride gas

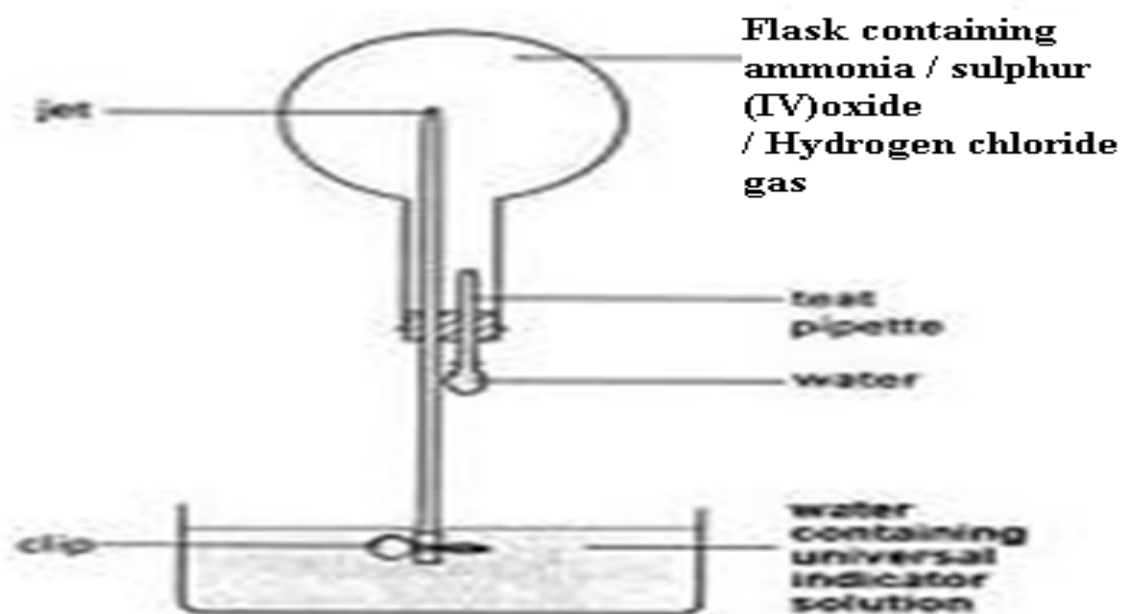
Dip a glass rod in concentrated hydrochloric acid. Bring the glass rod near the mouth of a gas jar suspected to be ammonia. White fumes (of ammonium chloride) are produced/evolved.

5. Describe the fountain experiment to show the solubility of ammonia.

Ammonia is very soluble in water.

When a drop of water is introduced into flask containing ammonia, it dissolves all the ammonia in the flask. If water is subsequently allowed into the flask through a small inlet, atmospheric pressure forces it very fast to occupy the vacuum forming a fountain.

If the water contains three/few drops of litmus solution, the litmus solution turns blue because ammonia is an alkaline/basic gas. If the water contains three/few drops of phenolphthalein indicator, the indicator turns pink because ammonia is an alkaline/basic gas. Sulphur(IV)oxide and hydrogen chloride gas are also capable of the fountain experiment. If the water contains three/few drops of phenolphthalein indicator, the indicator turns colourless because both Sulphur(IV) oxide and hydrogen chloride gas are acidic gases.



Set up of fountain experiment

6.State and explain the observation made when hot platinum /nichrome wire is placed over concentrated ammonia solution with Oxygen gas bubbled into the mixture.

Observations

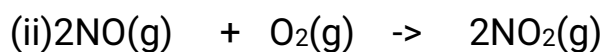
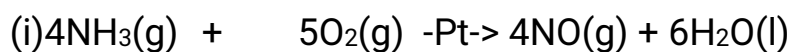
Hot platinum /nichrome wire continues to glow red hot.

Brown fumes of a gas are produced.

Explanation

Ammonia reacts with Oxygen on the surface of the wire .This reaction is exothermic producing a lot of heat/energy that enables platinum wire to glow red hot. Ammonia is oxidized to Nitrogen(II)oxide gas and water. Hot platinum /nichrome wire acts as catalyst to speed up the reaction. Nitrogen(II)oxide gas is further oxidized to brown Nitrogen(IV)oxide gas on exposure to air.

Chemical equation



7. Ammonia gas was ignited in air enriched with Oxygen gas. State and explain the observations made

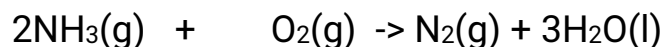
Observations

- Ammonia gas burns with a green flame
- Colourless gas produced

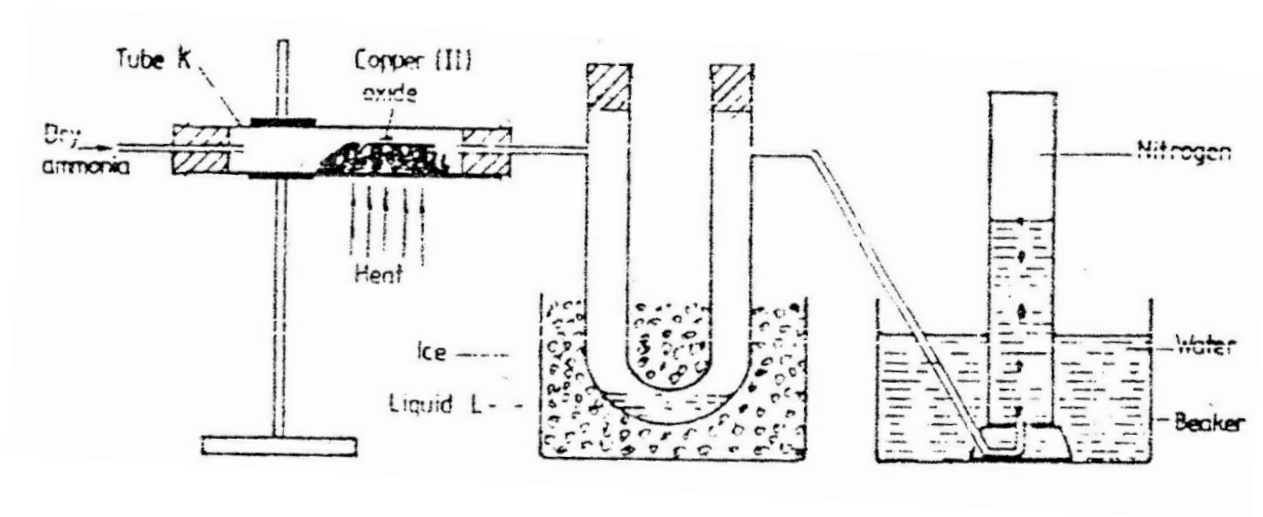
Explanation

Ammonia gas burns with a green flame in air enriched with Oxygen to form Nitrogen gas and water.

Chemical equation



8. Dry ammonia was passed through heated copper(II)Oxide as in the set up below.



(a) State the observations made in tube K

- Colour changes from black to brown
- Colourless liquid droplet form on the cooler parts of tube K

(b)(i) Identify liquid L.

- Water/ $\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l})$

(ii) Explain a chemical and physical test that can be used to identify liquid L.

Chemical test

- (i) Add three/few drops of liquid L into anhydrous copper(II)sulphate(VI).

Colour changes from white to blue.

Explanation-Water changes white anhydrous copper(II)sulphate(VI) to blue hydrated copper(II)sulphate(VI)

- (ii) Add three/few drops of liquid L into anhydrous cobalt(II)Chloride.

Colour changes from blue to pink.

Explanation-Water changes blue anhydrous cobalt(II)Chloride to pink hydrated cobalt(II)Chloride.

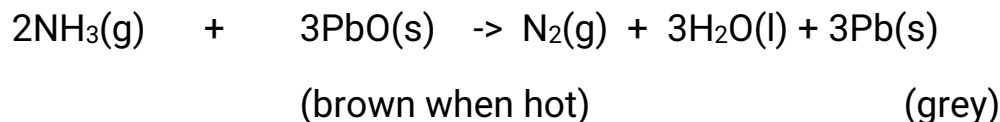
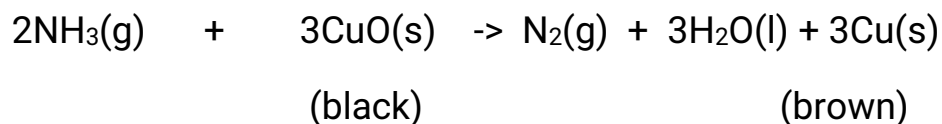
Physical test

(i)Heat the liquid. It boils at 100°C at sea level (1atmosphere pressure/760mmHg pressure, 101300Pa , 101300Nm^{-2}).

(ii)Cool the liquid. It freezes at 0.0°C .

(iii)Determine the density. It is 1.0gcm^{-3}

(c)Write the equation for the reaction that take place.

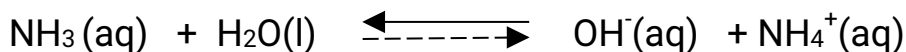


8.(a)What is aqueous ammonia

Aqueous ammonia is formed when ammonia gas is dissolved in water.



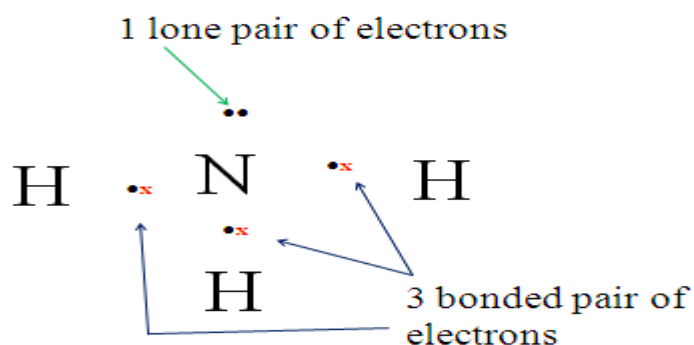
A little $\text{NH}_3(\text{aq})$ reacts with ammonia water to form ammonia solution(NH_4OH)



This makes a solution of aqueous ammonia is a weak base /alkali unlike other two alkalis.

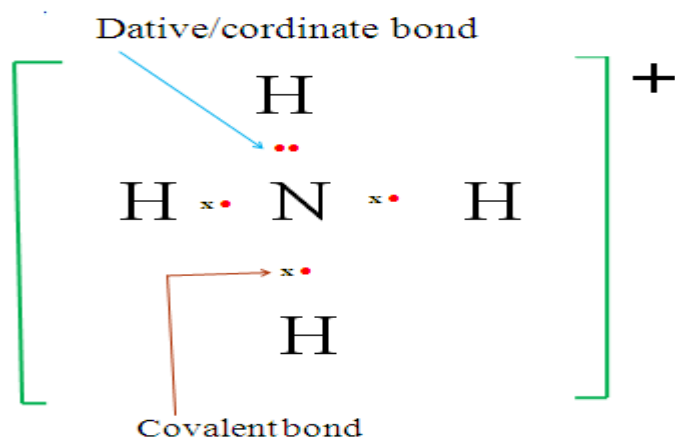
9.Using dot and cross to represent outer electrons show the bonding in:

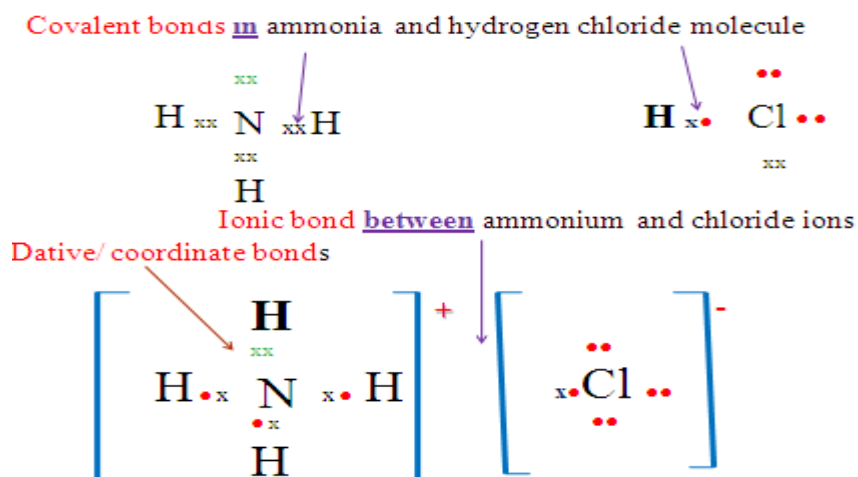
(a) NH_3



NH_3 (tetraatomic molecule)

(b) NH_4^+



(c) NH_4Cl 

10. Name four uses of ammonia

- (i) In the manufacture of nitrogenous fertilizers.
- (ii) In the manufacture of nitric(V) acid from Ostwald's process.
- (iii) As a refrigerant in ships and warehouses.
- (iv) In softening hard water.
- (v) In the Solvay process for the manufacture of sodium carbonate.
- (vi) In the removal of grease and stains.

11.(a) Calculate the percentage of Nitrogen in the following fertilizers:

(i) $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$

Molar mass of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 = 132\text{g}$

Mass of N in $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 = 28\text{g}$

% of N $\Rightarrow \frac{28}{132} \times 100 = 21.2121\%$

132

(ii) $(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{PO}_4$ Molar mass of $(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{PO}_4 = 149\text{g}$ Mass of N in $(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{PO}_4 = 42\text{g}$ % of N $\Rightarrow \frac{42}{149} \times 100 = 28.1879\%$

149

(b) State two advantages of fertilizer a (i) over a (ii) above.

(i) Has higher % of Nitrogen

(ii) Has phosphorus which is necessary for plant growth.

(c) Calculate the mass of Nitrogen in a 50kg bag of:**(i) $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$** % of N in $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 = 21.2121\%$ Mass of N in 50 kg $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4 = \frac{21.2121}{100} \times 50 = 10.6 \text{ kg}$

100

(ii) NH_4NO_3 Molar mass of $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3 = 80\text{g}$ Mass of N in $(\text{NH}_4)_3\text{PO}_4 = 28\text{g}$ % of N $\Rightarrow \frac{28}{80} \times 100 = 35\%$

80

% of N in NH_4NO_3 = 35%

Mass of N in 50 kg $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ = $\frac{35 \times 50}{100}$ = 17.5 kg

100

NH_4NO_3 therefore has a higher mass of Nitrogen than $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$

d).Manufacture of Ammonia /Haber process

Most of the Ammonia produced for industrial purposes uses the Haber process developed by the German Scientist Fitz Haber.

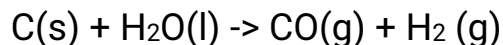
(i)Raw materials

The raw materials include:

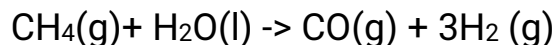
(i)Nitrogen from Fractional distillation of air from the atmosphere.

(ii)Hydrogen from:

I. Water gas-passing steam through heated charcoal



II .Passing natural gas /methane through steam.



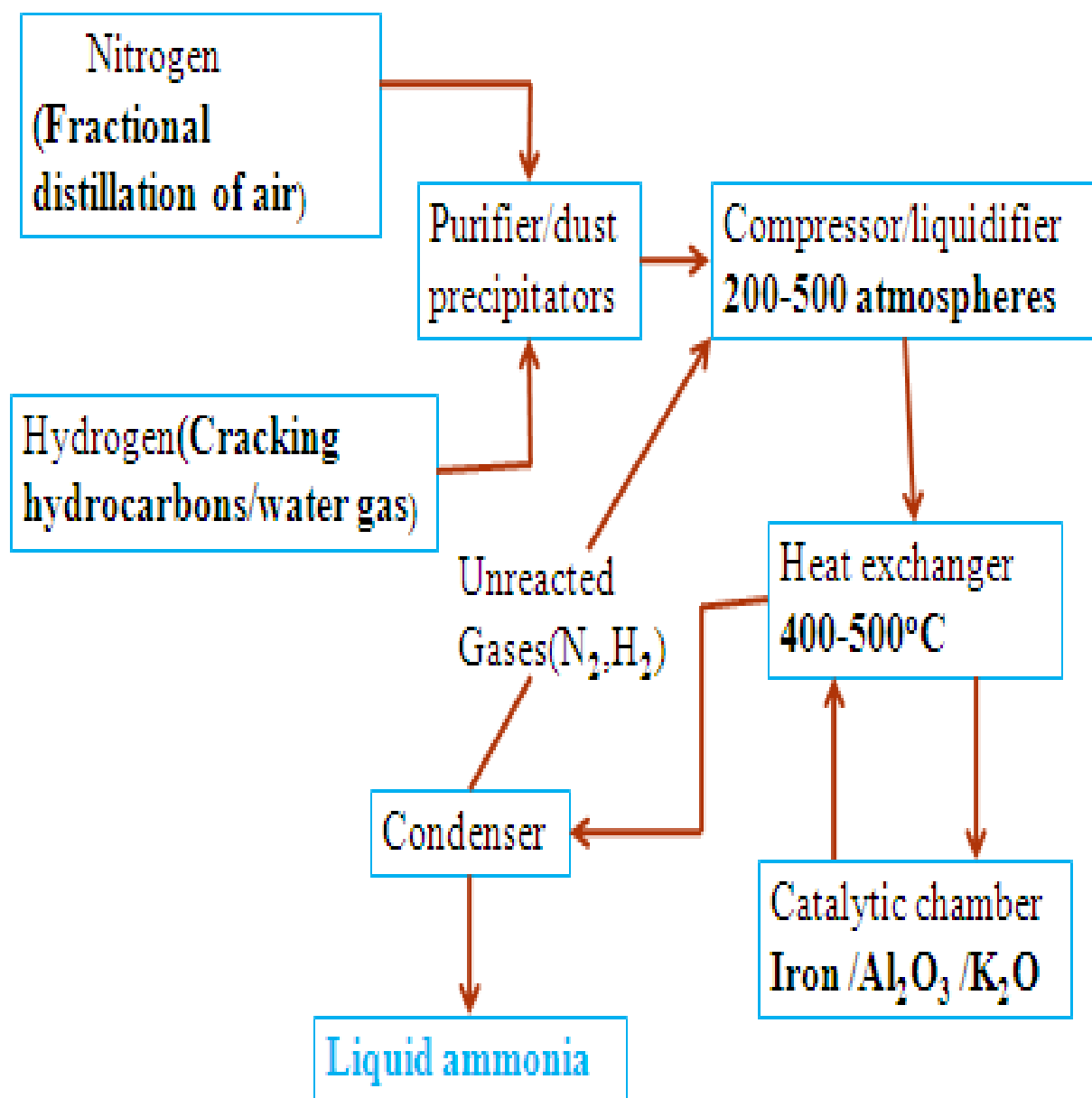
(ii)Chemical process

Hydrogen and Nitrogen are passed through a purifier to remove unwanted gases like Carbon(IV)oxide,Oxygen,sulphur(IV)oxide, dust, smoke which would poison the catalyst.

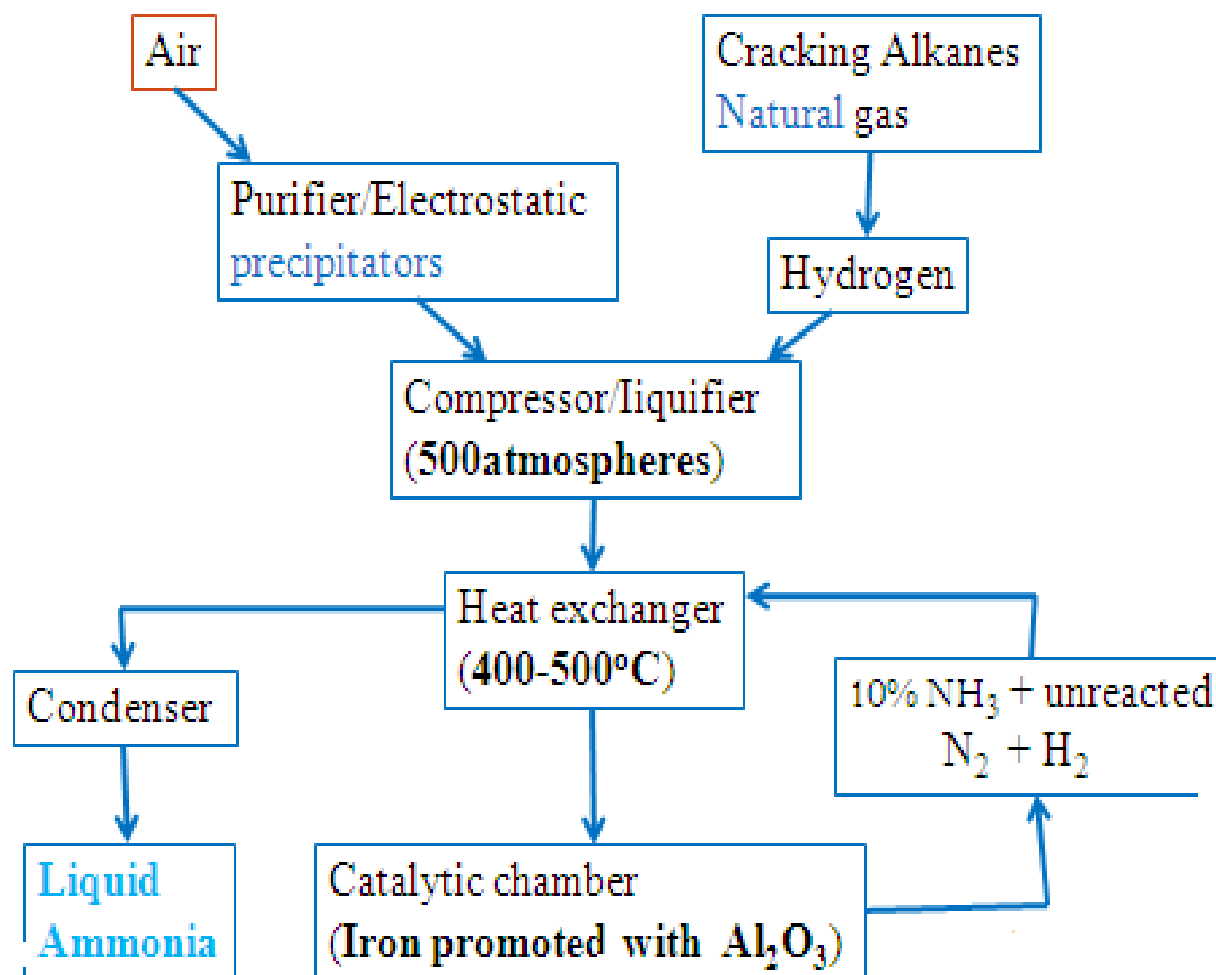
Hydrogen and Nitrogen are then mixed in the ratio of 3:1 respectively. The mixture is

compressed to 200-250atmosphere pressure to liquidify. The liquid mixture is then heated to 400- 450°C.The hot compressed gases are then passed over finely divided Iron catalyst promoted/impregnated with Al_2O_3 / K_2O .Promoters increase the efficiency of the catalyst.

Haber process for manufacture of Ammonia

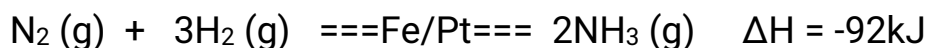


d). Manufacture of Ammonia /Haber process



Optimum conditions in Haber processs

Chemical equation



Equilibrium/Reaction rate considerations

(i) **Removing ammonia** gas once formed shift the equilibrium forward to the right to replace the ammonia. More/higher yield of ammonia is attained.

(ii) **Increase in pressure** shift the equilibrium forward to the right where there is less volume/molecules . **More/higher yield** of ammonia is attained. Very **high** pressures raises the **cost** of production because they are **expensive** to produce and maintain. An

optimum pressure of about 200 atmospheres is normally used.

(iii) **Increase in temperature** shift the equilibrium backward to the left because the reaction is exothermic ($\Delta H = -92\text{kJ}$). Ammonia formed **decomposes** back to Nitrogen and Hydrogen to remove excess heat therefore a **less** yield of ammonia is attained. Very **low** temperature decrease the collision frequency of Nitrogen and Hydrogen and thus the rate of reaction **too slow** and **uneconomical**.

An optimum temperature of about 450°C is normally used.

(iv) Iron and platinum can be used as catalyst. **Platinum** is a **better** catalyst but more **expensive** and easily **poisoned** by impurities than Iron. Iron is promoted /impregnated with Aluminium Oxide (Al_2O_3) to increase its surface area/area of contact with reactants and thus efficiency. The catalyst does not increase the yield of ammonia but it speed up its rate of formation.

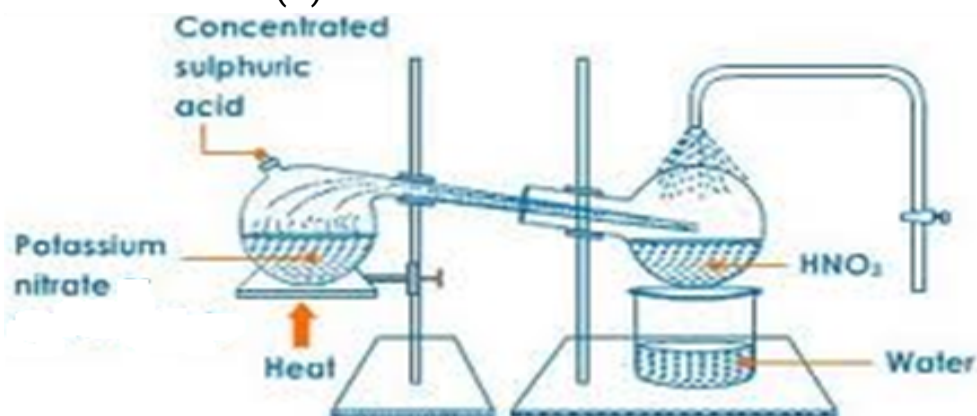
e) Nitric(V) acid (HNO_3)

a) Introduction.

Nitric(V) acid is one of the mineral acids. There are three mineral acids; Nitric(V) acid, sulphuric(VI) acid and hydrochloric acid. Mineral acids do not occur naturally but are prepared in a school laboratory and manufactured at industrial level.

b) School laboratory preparation

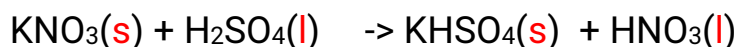
Nitric(V) acid is prepared in a school laboratory from the reaction of Concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid and potassium nitrate(V) below.



Preparation of Nitric(V) acid

(c) Properties of Concentrated Nitric (V) acid (Questions)

1. Write an equation for the school laboratory preparation of nitric(V) acid.



2. Sodium nitrate(V) can also be used to prepare nitric(V) acid. State two reasons why potassium nitrate(V) is preferred over Sodium nitrate(V).

(i) Potassium nitrate(V) is more volatile than sodium nitrate(V) and therefore readily displaced from the less volatile concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid

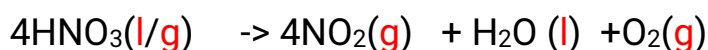
(ii) Sodium nitrate(V) is hygroscopic and thus absorbs water. Concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid dissolves in water. The dissolution is a highly exothermic process.

3. An all glass apparatus /retort is used during the preparation of nitric(V) acid. Explain.

Hot concentrated nitric(V) acid vapour is highly corrosive and attacks rubber cork apparatus if used.

4. Concentrated nitric(V) acid is colourless. Explain why the prepared sample in the school laboratory appears yellow.

Hot concentrated nitric(V) acid **decomposes** to brown nitrogen(IV) oxide and Oxygen gases.



Once formed the brown nitrogen(IV) oxide **dissolves** in the acid forming a yellow

solution .

5. State and explain the observation made when concentrated nitric (V) acid is heated.

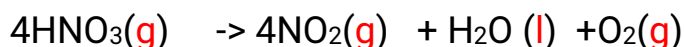
Observation

Brown fumes are produced.

Colourless gas that relights/rekindles glowing splint

Explanation

Hot concentrated nitric(V) acid **decomposes** to water, brown nitrogen(IV)oxide and Oxygen gases. Oxygen gas is not visible in the brown fumes of nitrogen (IV) oxide.



6. Explain the observations made when:

(a) About 2cm³ of Iron(II)sulphate(VI) solution is added about 5 drops of concentrated nitric(V) acid and the mixture then heated/warmed in a test tube.

Observation

(i) Colour changes from green to brown.

(ii) brown fumes /gas produced on the upper parts of the test tube.

Explanation

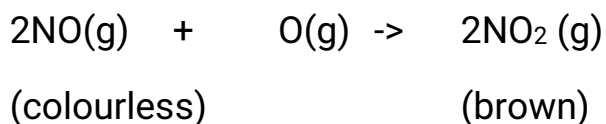
Concentrated nitric(V) acid is a powerful/strong **oxidizing** agent. It oxidizes green Fe²⁺ ions in FeSO₄ to brown/yellow Fe³⁺. The acid is reduced to colourless Nitrogen(II)oxide.

Chemical equation:



Colourless Nitrogen(II)oxide is rapidly further oxidized to brown Nitrogen(IV)oxide by atmospheric oxygen.

Chemical equation:



(b) A spatula full of sulphur powder in a clean dry beaker was added to 10cm³ concentrated nitric (V) acid and then heated gently/warmed.

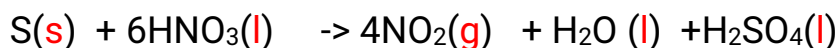
Observation

- (i) Yellow colour of sulphur fades .
- (ii) brown fumes /gas produced.

Explanation

Concentrated nitric(V) acid is a powerful/strong **oxidizing** agent. It oxidizes yellow sulphur to colourless concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid. The acid is reduced to brown Nitrogen(IV)oxide gas.

Chemical equation:



(c) A few/about 1.0g pieces of copper turnings/Zinc granules/ Magnesium ribbon are added 10cm³ of concentrated nitric(V) acid in a beaker.

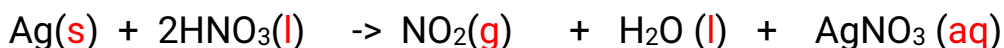
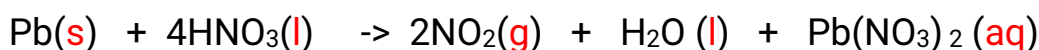
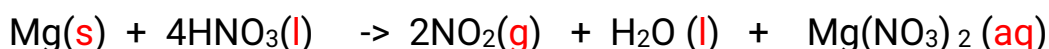
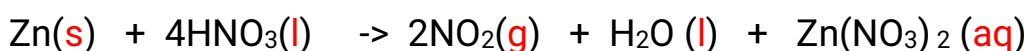
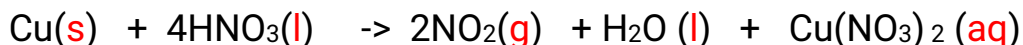
Observation

- (i) brown fumes /gas produced.
- (ii) blue solution formed with copper turnings
- (iii) colourless solution formed with Zinc granules/Magnesium ribbon

Explanation

Concentrated nitric (V) acid is a powerful/strong **oxidizing** agent. It oxidizes metals to their metal nitrate (VI) salts. The acid is reduced to brown Nitrogen (IV) oxide gas.

Chemical equation:



(d)Properties of Dilute Nitric (V)acid(Questions)

(i)What is dilute nitric(v)acid

When concentrated nitric(v)acid is added to over half portion of water ,it is relatively said to be dilute. A dilute solution is one which has more solvent/water than solute/acid. The number of moles of the acid are present in a large amount/volume of the solvent.This makes the molarity /number of moles present in one cubic decimeter of the solution to be low e.g. 0.02M.

If more water is added to the acid until the acid is too dilute to be diluted further then an **infinite** dilute solution is formed.

(ii) 1cm length of polished Magnesium ribbon was put in a test tube containing 0.2M dilute nitric(v) acid. State and explain the observation made.

Observation

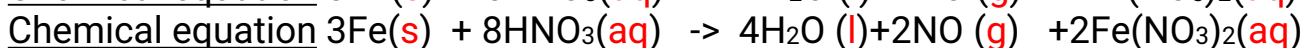
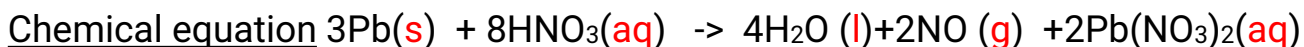
- Effervescence/bubbling/fizzing
- Colourless gas produced that extinguish burning splint with an explosion/pop sound
- Colourless solution formed
- Magnesium ribbon dissolves/decrease in size

Explanation

Dilute dilute nitric(v) acid reacts with Magnesium to form hydrogen gas.



With other reactive heavy metals, the hydrogen gas produced is rapidly oxidized to water.



Hydrogen gas therefore is usually not prepared in a school laboratory using dilute nitric (v) acid.

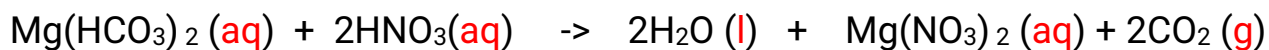
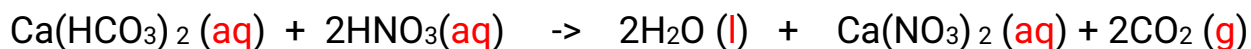
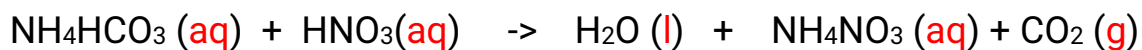
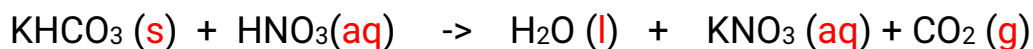
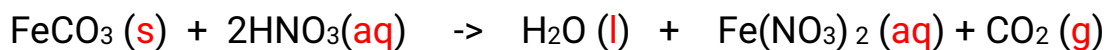
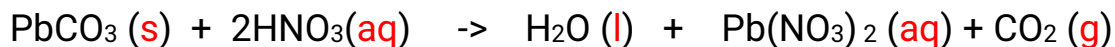
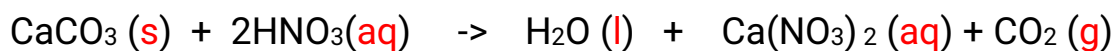
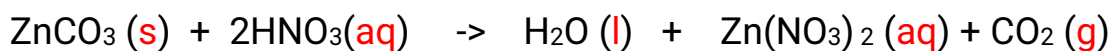
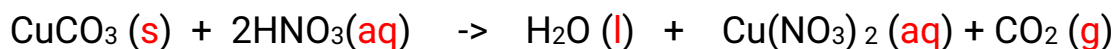
(iii) A half spatula full of sodium hydrogen carbonate and Copper(II) carbonate were

separately to separate test tubes containing 10cm³ of 0.2M dilute nitric (V) acid.
Observation

- Effervescence/bubbling/fizzing
- Colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water.
- Colourless solution formed with sodium hydrogen carbonate.
- Blue solution formed with Copper(II) carbonate.

Explanation

Dilute dilute nitric (v)acid reacts with Carbonates and hydrogen carbonates to form Carbon(IV)oxide, water and nitrate(V)salt



(iii) 25.0cm³ of 0.1M Nitric(V) acid was titrated with excess 0.2M sodium hydroxide solution using phenolphthalein indicator.

I. State the colour change at the end point

Colourless

II. What was the pH of the solution at the end point. Explain.

pH 1/2/3

A little of the acid when added to the base changes the colour of the indicator to show the end point. The end point therefore is acidic with low pH of Nitric(V) acid. Nitric(V) acid is a strong acid with pH 1/2/3.

III. Calculate the number of moles of acid used.

$$\text{Number of moles} = \frac{\text{molarity} \times \text{volume}}{1000} \Rightarrow \frac{0.1 \times 25}{1000} = 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ moles}$$

IV. Calculate the volume of sodium hydroxide used

Volume of sodium hydroxide in cm³

$$= \frac{1000 \times \text{Number of moles}}{\text{Molarity}} \Rightarrow \frac{1000 \times 2.5 \times 10^{-3}}{0.2} = 12.5 \text{ cm}^3$$

(e) Industrial large scale manufacture of Nitric (V) acid

(i) Raw materials

1. Air/Oxygen

Oxygen is got from fractional distillation of air

Ammonia from Haber process.

2. Chemical processes

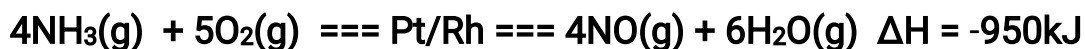
Air from the atmosphere is passes through electrostatic precipitators/filters to remove unwanted gases like Nitrogen,Carbon(IV)oxide,dust,smoke which may poison the catalyst.The ammonia -air mixture is compressed to 9 atmospheres to reduce the distance between reacting gases.

The mixture is passed through the heat exchangers where a temperature of 850°C-900°C is maintained.

The first reaction take place in the catalytic chamber where Ammonia reacts with the air to form Nitrogen(II)Oxide and water.

Optimum condition in Ostwalds process

Chemical equation



The reaction is reversible and exist in dynamic equilibrium where the products reform back the reactants. The following factors are used to increase the yield/amount of Notrogen(II)oxide:

(i)**Removing Nitrogen(II)oxide** gas once formed shift the equilibrium forward to the right to replace the Nitrogen(II) oxide.

More/higher yield of Nitrogen(II) oxide is attained as reactants try to return the equilibrium balance.

(ii)**Increase in pressure** shift the equilibrium backward to the left where there is less volume/molecules .

Less/lower yield of Nitrogen(II)oxide is attained.

Very **low** pressures increases the **distance** between reacting NH_3 and O_2 molecules.

An **optimum** pressure of about **9 atmospheres** is normally used.

Cooling the mixture condenses the water vapour to liquid water

(iii) **Increase in temperature** shift the equilibrium backward to the left because the reaction is exothermic ($\Delta H = -950\text{kJ}$).

Nitrogen(II)oxide and water vapour formed **decomposes** back to Ammonia and Oxygen to remove excess heat therefore a **less** yield of Nitrogen(II)oxide is attained.

Very **low** temperature decrease the collision frequency of Ammonia and Oxygen and thus the rate of reaction **too slow** and **uneconomical**.

An optimum temperature of about 900°C is normally used.

(iv) **Platinum** can be used as **catalyst**.

Platinum is very **expensive**. It is:

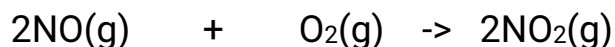
- promoted with Rhodium to increase the surface area/area of contact.

- added/coated on the surface of asbestos to form platinized –asbestos to reduce the amount/quantity used.

The catalyst does not increase the yield of Nitrogen (II)Oxide but it speed up its rate of formation.

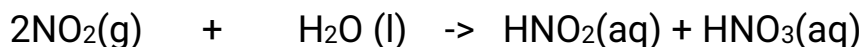
Nitrogen(II)oxide formed is passed through an oxidation reaction chamber where more air oxidizes the Nitrogen(II)Oxide to **Nitrogen(IV)Oxide** gas.

Chemical equation



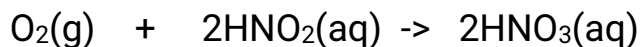
Nitrogen(IV)Oxide gas is passed up to meet a downward flow of water in the absorption chamber. The gas react with water to form a mixture of Nitric(V) and Nitric(III)acids

Chemical equation.



Excess air is bubbled through the mixture to oxidize Nitric(III)/ $\text{HNO}_2(\text{aq})$ to Nitric(V)/ $\text{HNO}_3(\text{aq})$

Chemical equation.



Overall chemical equation in the absorption chamber.

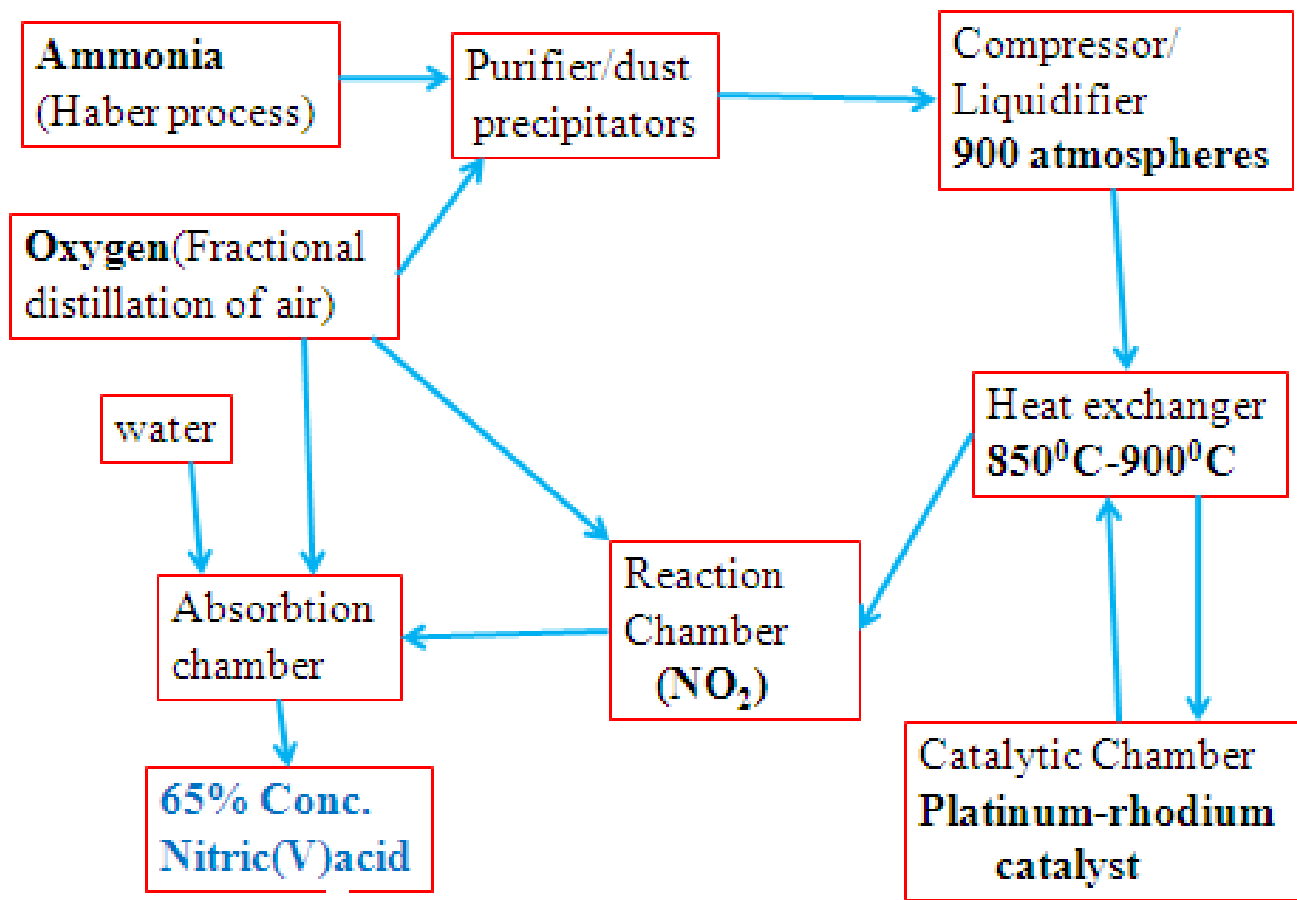


The acid is 65% concentrated. It is made 100% concentrated by either:

(i) fractional distillation or

(ii) added to concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid to remove the 35% of water.

Ostwalds process for manufacture of Nitric(V)acid



A factory uses 63.0 kg of 68% pure nitric(V)acid per day to produce an ammonium fertilizer for an agricultural county. If the density of the acid is 1.42 gcm^{-3} , calculate :

(i)the concentration of the acid used in moles per litre.

$$\text{Molar mass HNO}_3 = 63$$

Method 1

$$\text{Moles of HNO}_3 \text{ in } 1 \text{ cm}^3 = \frac{\text{Mass in } 1 \text{ cm}^3}{\text{Molar mass HNO}_3} = \frac{1.42}{63} = \underline{0.0225 \text{ moles}}$$

$$\text{Molarity} = \frac{\text{Moles} \times 1000}{1 \text{ cm}^3} = \frac{0.0225 \text{ moles} \times 10000}{1} = \underline{22.5 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}/\text{M}}$$

$$100\% = 22.5 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}/\text{M}$$

$$68\% = \frac{68 \times 22.5}{100} = \underline{15.3 \text{ M/ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

Method 2

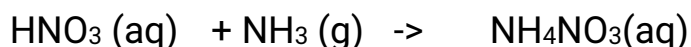
$$\begin{aligned} \text{Moles of HNO}_3 \text{ in } 1000 \text{ cm}^3 &= \frac{\text{Mass in } 1000 \text{ cm}^3}{\text{Molar mass HNO}_3} = \frac{1.42 \times 1000}{63} \\ &= \underline{22.5397 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}/\text{M}} \end{aligned}$$

$$100\% = 22.5397 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}/\text{M}$$

$$68\% = \frac{68 \times 22.5397}{100} = \underline{15.327 \text{ molesdm}^{-3}}$$

(ii) the volume of ammonia gas at r.t.p used. (H=1.0, N=14.0, O=16.0, one mole of gas = 24 dm³ at r.t.p)

Chemical equation

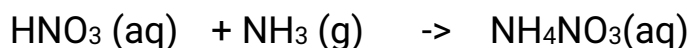


Mole ratio $\text{HNO}_3(\text{aq}) : \text{NH}_3(\text{g}) = 1 : 1$

1 mole $\text{HNO}_3(\text{aq}) \rightarrow 24 \text{ dm}^3 \text{ NH}_3(\text{g})$

$$15.327 \text{ mole HNO}_3(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \frac{15.327 \text{ mole} \times 24 \text{ dm}^3}{1 \text{ dm}^3} = \underline{\underline{367.848 \text{ dm}^3}}$$

(iii) the number of crops which can be applied the fertilizer if each crop require 4.0g.



Molar mass $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3 = 80 \text{ g}$

Mole ratio $\text{HNO}_3 : \text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3 = 1 : 1$

Mass of HNO_3 in 63.0 kg = 68% x 63 = **42.84kg**

1 mole $\text{HNO}_3(\text{aq}) = 63 \text{ g} \rightarrow 80 \text{ g NH}_4\text{NO}_3$

$$(42.84 \times 1000) \text{ g HNO}_3(\text{aq}) \rightarrow \frac{(42.84 \times 1000) \text{ g} \times 80}{63}$$

$$= \underline{\underline{54400 \text{ g}}}$$

$$\underline{\text{Mass of fertilizer}} = \frac{54400 \text{ g}}{4.0} = \underline{\underline{13600 \text{ crops}}}$$

Mass per crop 4.0

E. NITRATE(V) NO_3^- and NITRATE(III) NO_2^- Salts

Nitrate(V) / NO_3^- and Nitrate(III) / NO_2^- are salts derived from Nitric(V)/ HNO_3 and Nitric(III)/ HNO_2 acids. Both HNO_3 and HNO_2 are monobasic acids with only **one** ionizable hydrogen in a molecule.

Only KNO_2 , NaNO_2 and NH_4NO_2 exist. All metallic nitrate(V) salts exist.

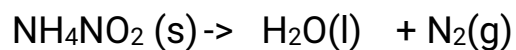
All Nitrate(V) / NO_3^- and Nitrate(III) / NO_2^- are soluble/dissolve in water.

(a) Effect of heat on Nitrate(V) / NO_3^- and Nitrate(III) / NO_2^- salts (Test for presence of Nitrate(V) / NO_3^- ions in solid state)

1. All Nitrate(III) / NO_2^- salts are not affected by gentle or strong heating **except** ammonium nitrate(III) NH_4NO_2 .

Ammonium nitrate(III) NH_4NO_2 is a colourless solid that decompose to form Nitrogen gas and water.

Chemical equation



This reaction is used to prepare small amounts of Nitrogen in a school laboratory.

2. All Nitrate(V) / NO_3^- salts decompose on strong heating:

Experiment

Put $\frac{1}{2}$ spatula full of sodium nitrate(V) into a test tube. Place moist blue/red litmus papers on the mouth of the test tube. Heat strongly when test tube is slanted.

Test the gases produced using glowing splint

Caution (i) Wear safety gas mask and hand gloves

(ii) Lead(II)nitrate(V)decomposes to Lead(II)oxide that react and fuses with the test tube permanently.

Repeat with potassium nitrate(V), copper(II) nitrate(V), Lead(II)nitrate(V), silver nitrate(V), Zinc nitrate(V), Magnesium nitrate(V) and Ammonium nitrate(V).

Observations

Cracking sound

Brown fumes/gas produced except in potassium nitrate(V) and Sodium nitrate(V)

Glowing splint relights/rekindles but feebly in Ammonium nitrate(V).

Black solid residue with copper(II) nitrate(V)

White residue/solid with sodium nitrate(V), potassium nitrate(V),silver nitrate(V), Magnesium nitrate(V)

Yellow residue/solid when hot but white on cooling with Zinc nitrate(V)

Brown residue/solid when hot but yellow on cooling with Lead(II)nitrate(V)

Explanation

1. Potassium nitrate(V) and Sodium nitrate(V) decomposes on strong heating to form potassium nitrate(III) and Sodium nitrate(III) producing Oxygen gas. Oxygen gas relights/rekindles a glowing splint.

Chemical equation.

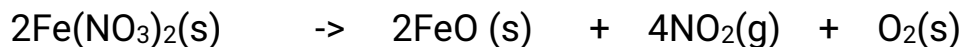
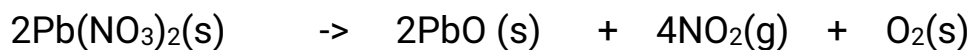
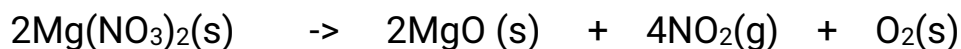
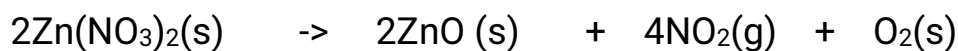
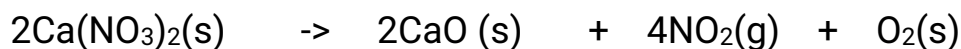
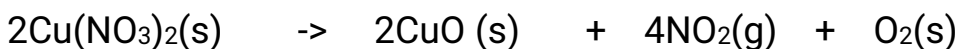


2. Heavy metal nitrate(V) salts decompose to form the oxide, brown nitrogen (IV) oxide and Oxygen gas.

Copper(II) oxide is black. Zinc oxide is yellow when hot and white when cool/cold. Lead(II) oxide is yellow when cold/cool and brown when hot/heated.

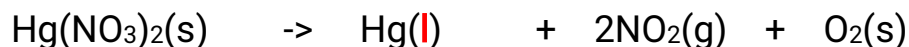
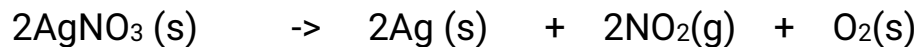
Hydrated copper(II) nitrate is blue. On heating it melts and dissolves in its water of crystallization to form a green solution. When all the water of crystallization has evaporated, the nitrate(V) salt decomposes to black Copper(II) oxide and a mixture of brown nitrogen(IV) oxide gas and colourless Oxygen gas.

Chemical equation



Silver nitrate(V) and Mercury(II) nitrate decompose to the corresponding metal and a mixture of brown nitrogen(IV) oxide gas and colourless Oxygen gas.

Chemical equation



The production/evolution of **brown fumes** of Nitrogen(IV) oxide gas on heating a salt is a confirmatory test for presence of **NO₃⁻ ions** of heavy metals

(b) Brown ring test (Test for presence of Nitrate(V) /NO₃⁻ ions in aqueous/ solution state)

Experiment

Place 5cm³ of Potassium nitrate(V) solution onto a clean test tube. Add 8 drops of freshly prepared Iron(II)sulphate(VI) solution. Swirl/ shake.

Using a test tube holder to firmly slant and hold the test tube, carefully add 5cm³ of Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid down along the side of test tube. Do not shake the test tube contents.

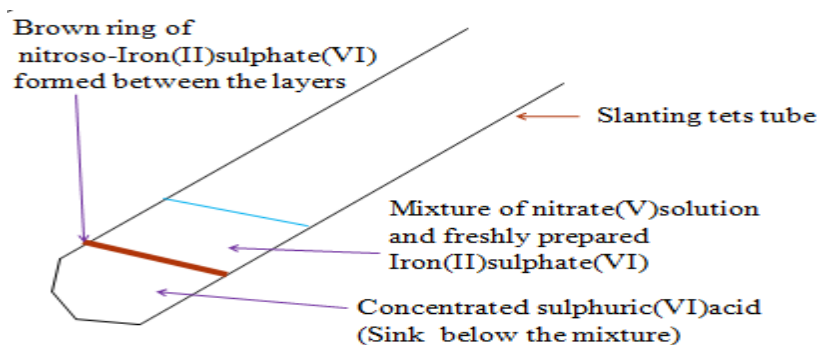
Caution: Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is highly corrosive.

Observation.

Both Potassium nitrate(V) and freshly prepared Iron(II)sulphate (VI) do not form layers.

On adding Concentrated Sulphuric(VI) acid, two layers are formed.

A brown ring is formed between the layers.



Brown ring test for nitrate(V) ions in solution/aqueous state

Explanation

All nitrate(V) salts are soluble. They form a miscible mixture when added freshly prepared Iron(II)sulphate(VI) solution. Concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid is denser than the miscible mixture thus settle at the bottom.

At the junction of the layers, the acid reacts with nitrate(V) salts to form Nitric(V) acid/HNO₃. Nitric(V) acid/HNO₃ is reduced to Nitrogen (II) oxide by the

Iron(II)sulphate(VI) salt to form the complex compound Nitroso-iron(II)sulphate(VI)/FeSO₄.NO . Nitroso-iron(II)sulphate(VI) is brown in colour. It forms a thin layer at the junction between concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid and the miscible mixture of freshly prepared Iron(II) sulphate(VI) and the nitrate(V) salts as a brown ring.

Chemical equation



The brown ring disappears if shaken because concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid mixes with the aqueous solution generating a lot of heat which decomposes Nitroso-iron(II)sulphate(VI)/FeSO₄.NO to iron(II)sulphate(VI) and Nitrogen(II)oxide.

Chemical equation



Iron(II)sulphate(VI) solution is easily/readily oxidized to iron(III)sulphate(VI) on exposure to air/oxygen. The brown ring test thus requires freshly prepared Iron(II) sulphate(VI) solution

(c) Devardas alloy test (Test for presence of Nitrate(V) /NO₃⁻ ions in aqueous/ solution state)

Experiment

Place 5cm³ of Potassium nitrate(V) solution into a clean test tube. Add 5 drops of sodium hydroxide solution. Swirl/ shake. Add a piece of aluminium foil to the mixture. Heat. Test any gases produced using both blue and red litmus papers.

Observation.

Inference

Effervescence/bubbles/fizzing

colourless gas that has a pungent smell of urine

NO_3^-

Blue limus paper remain blue

Red litmus paper turn red.

Explanation

The Devardas alloy test for NO_3^- ions in solution was developed by the Italian scientist Arturo Devarda(1859-1944)

When a NO_3^- salt is added sodium hydroxide and aluminium foil, effervescence of ammonia gas is a confirmatory test for NO_3^- ions.

G. ENVIRONMENTAL EFFECTS OF NITROGENOUS COMPOUNDS

A.SULPHUR (S)

Sulphur is an element in Group VI Group 16)of the Periodic table . It has atomic number 16 and electronic configuration 16 and valency 2 /divalent and thus forms the ion S^{2-}

A. Occurrence.

Sulphur mainly occurs :

- (i) as **free** element in Texas and Louisiana in USA and Sicily in Italy.
- (ii)**Hydrogen sulphide** gas in active volcanic areas e.g. Olkaria near Naivasha in Kenya
- (iii)as **copper pyrites**($CuFeS_2$) ,**Galena** (PbS),**Zinc blende**(ZnS))and **iron pyrites**(FeS_2) in other parts of the world.

B. Extraction of Sulphur from Fraschs process

Sulphur occurs about 200 metres underground. The soil structure in these areas is usually **weak** and can easily **cave** in.

Digging of tunnels is thus discouraged in trying to extract the mineral. Sulphur is extracted by drilling three concentric /round pipes of diameter of ratios 2:8:18 centimeters.

Superheated water at $170^{\circ}C$ and 10atmosphere pressure is forced through the outermost pipe.

The high pressures ensure the water remains as liquid at high temperatures instead of

vapour of vapour /gas.

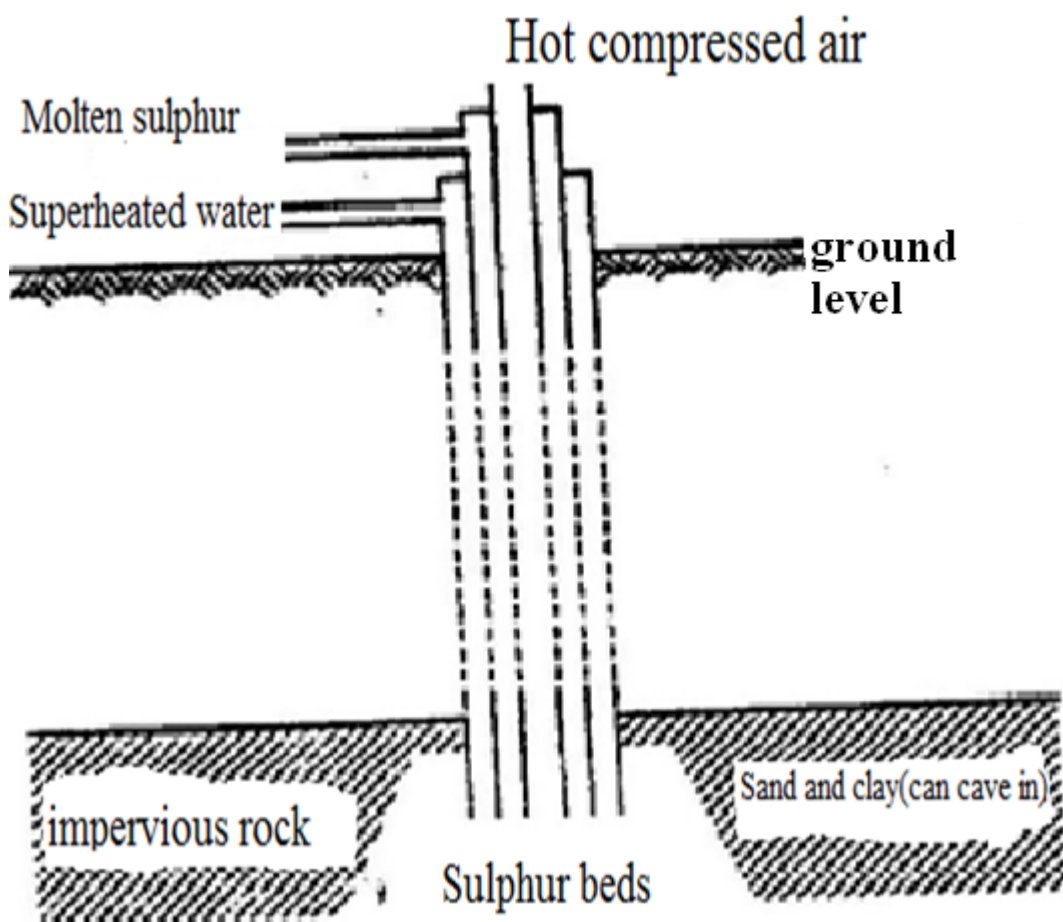
The superheated water melts the sulphur because the melting point of sulphur is lower at about at about 115°C.

A compressed air at 15 atmospheres is forced /pumped through the innermost pipe.

The hot air forces the molten sulphur up the middle pipe where it is collected and solidifies in a large tank.

It is about 99% pure.

Diagram showing extraction of Sulphur from Fraschs Process



C. Allotropes of Sulphur.

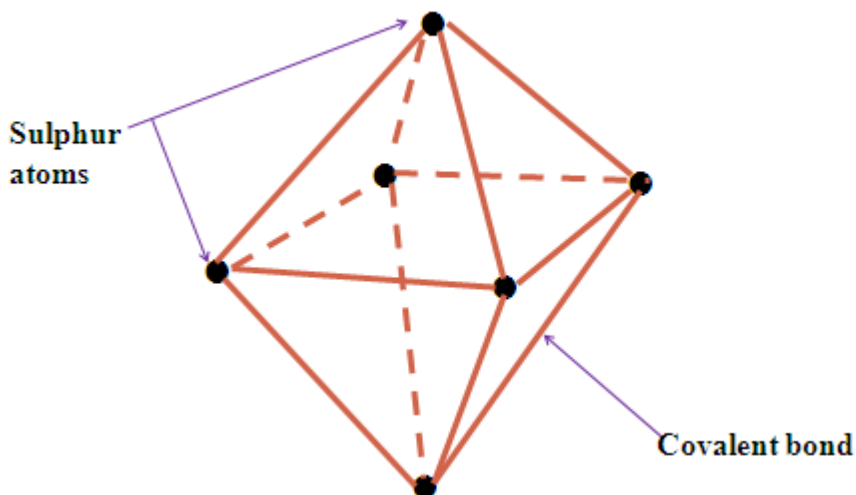
1. Sulphur exist as two crystalline allotropic forms:

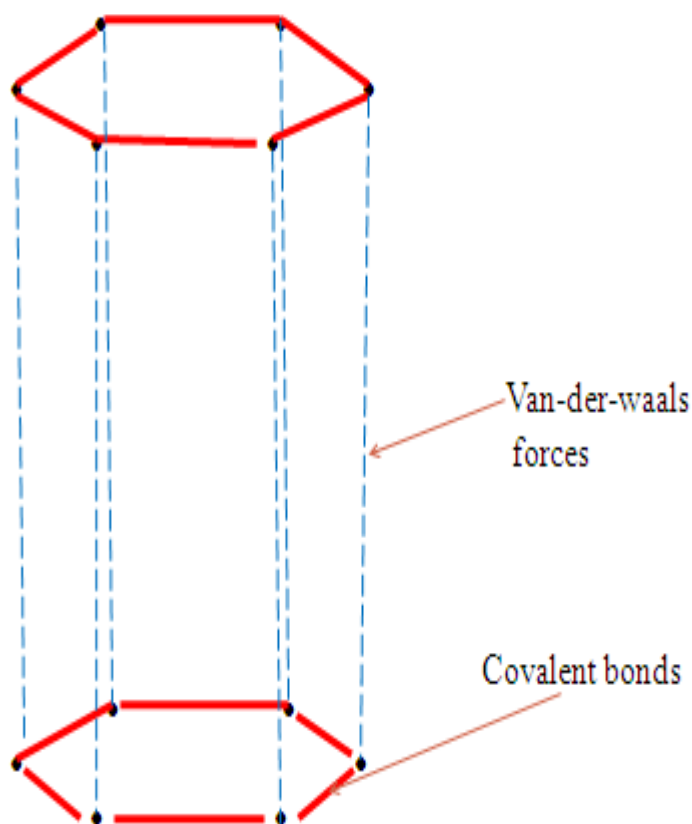
- (i) Rhombic sulphur
- (ii) Monoclinic sulphur

Rhombic sulphur	Monoclinic sulphur
Bright yellow crystalline solid	Pale yellow crystalline solid
Has a melting point of 113°C	Has a melting point of 119°C
Has a density of 2.06gcm^{-3}	Has a density of 1.96gcm^{-3}
Stable below 96°C	Stable above 96°C
Has octahedral structure	Has a needle-like structure

Rhombic sulphur and Monoclinic sulphur have a **transition** temperature of 96°C . This is the temperature at which one allotrope changes to the other.

Sketch of Octahedral structure of Rhombic sulphur





Sketch of the needle-like structure of monoclinic sulphur

2. Sulphur exists in non-crystalline forms as:

(i) Plastic sulphur-

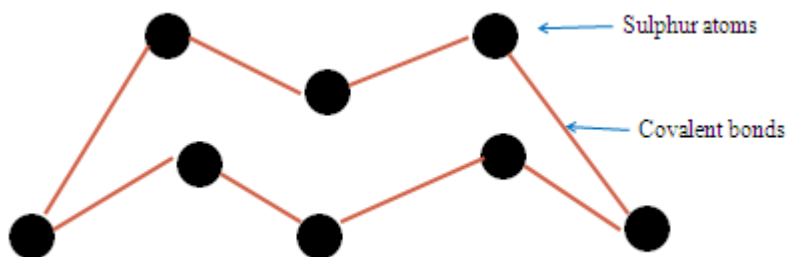
Plastic sulphur is prepared from heating powdered sulphur to boil then pouring a thin continuous stream in a beaker with cold water. A long thin elastic yellow thread of plastic sulphur is formed. If left for long it turns to bright yellow crystalline rhombic sulphur.

(ii) Colloidal sulphur-

Colloidal sulphur is formed when sodium thiosulphate ($\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3$) is added to hydrochloric acid to form a yellow precipitate.

D. Heating Sulphur.

A molecule of sulphur exists as puckered ring of eight atoms joined by covalent bonds as S_8 .



On heating the yellow sulphur powder melts at 113°C to clear amber liquid with low viscosity and thus flows easily.

On further heating to 160°C the molten liquid darkens to a brown very viscous liquid that does not flow easily.

This is because the S_8 rings break into S_8 chain that join together to form very long chains made of over 100000 atoms of Sulphur.

The long chains **entangle** each other reducing their mobility /flow and hence increases their viscosity.

On continued further heating to above 160°C , the viscous liquid darkens but becomes more mobile/flows easily and thus less viscous.

This is because the long chains break to smaller/shorter chains.

At 444°C , the liquid boils and forms brown vapour of a mixture of S_8 , S_6 , S_2 molecules that solidifies to S_8 ring of “flowers of sulphur” on the cooler parts.

Summary of changes on heating sulphur

Observation on heating	Explanation/structure of Sulphur
Solid sulphur	Puckered S_8 ring
Heat to 113°C Amber yellow liquid	Puckered S_8 ring in liquid form (low viscosity/flow easily)
Heat to 160°C	Puckered S_8 ring break/opens then join to form long chains that

Liquid darkens	entangle (very high viscosity/very low rate of flow)
Heat to 444°C Liquid boils to brown vapour	Mixture of S ₈ , S ₆ , S ₂ vapour
Cool to room temperature Yellow sublimate (Flowers of Sulphur)	Puckered S ₈ ring

E. Physical and Chemical properties of Sulphur.(Questions)

1. State three physical properties unique to Sulphur

Sulphur is a yellow solid, insoluble in water, soluble in carbon disulphide/tetrachloromethane/benzene, poor conductor of heat and electricity. It has a melting point of 115°C and a boiling point of 444°C.

2. Moist/damp/wet blue and red litmus papers were put in a gas jar containing air/oxygen. Burning sulphur was then lowered into the gas jar. State and explain the observation made.

Observations

- Sulphur melts then burns with a blue flame
- Colourless gas produced that has a pungent smell
- Red litmus paper remains red. Blue litmus paper turns red.

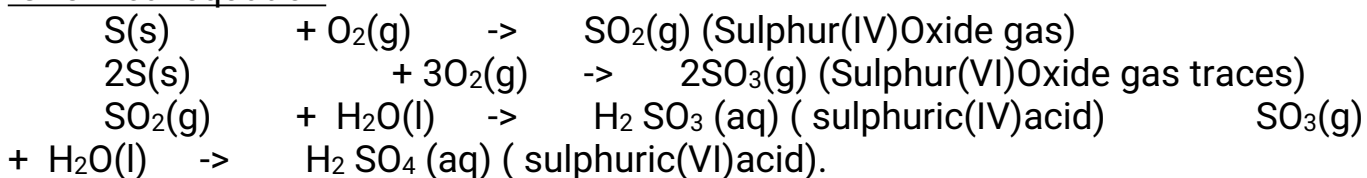
Explanation

Sulphur burns in air and faster in Oxygen to form Sulphur(IV)Oxide gas and traces/small amount of Sulphur(VI)Oxide gas. Both oxides react with water to form the corresponding acidic solution i.e

(i) Sulphur(IV)Oxide gas reacts with water to form sulphuric(IV)acid

(ii) Sulphur(VI)Oxide gas reacts with water to form sulphuric(VI)acid

Chemical equation



3. Iron filings were put in a test tube containing powdered sulphur then heated on a Bunsen flame. Stop heating when reaction starts. State and explain the observations made. Test the effects of a magnet on the mixture before and after heating. Explain.

Observations

Before heating, the magnet attracts iron filings leaving sulphur

After heating, the magnet does not attract the mixture.

After heating, a red glow is observed that continues even when heating is stopped..

Black solid is formed.

Explanation

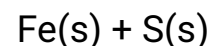
Iron is

attracted to a magnet because it is ferromagnetic.

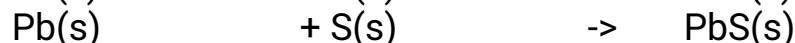
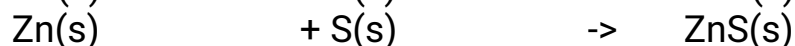
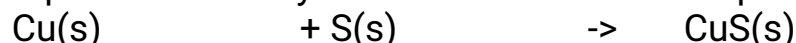
When a mixture of iron and sulphur is heated, the reaction is exothermic giving out heat energy that makes the mixture to continue glowing even after stopping heating.

Black Iron(II)sulphide is formed which is a compound and thus not ferromagnetic.

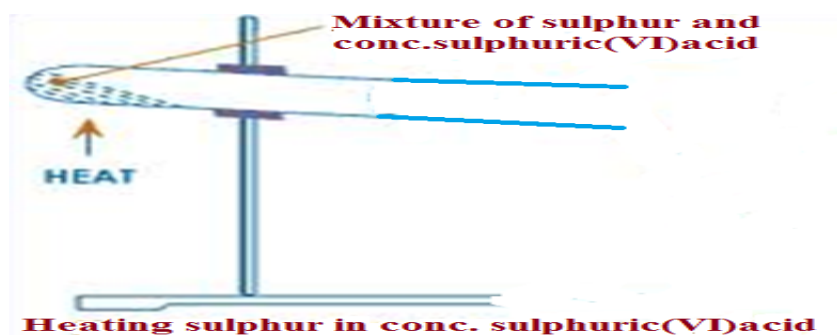
Chemical equation



Heated powdered heavy metals combine with sulphur to form **black** sulphides.



4. The set up below show the reaction of sulphur on heated concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid.



(i) State and explain the observation made.

Observation

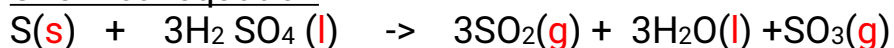
Yellow colour of sulphur fades

Orange colour of potassium dichromate(VI) paper turns to green.

Explanation

Hot concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid oxidizes sulphur to sulphur (IV) oxide gas. The oxide is also reduced to water. Traces of sulphur (VI) oxide is formed.

Chemical equation



Sulphur (IV) oxide gas turns Orange potassium dichromate(VI) paper to green.

(ii) State and explain the observation made if concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is replaced with concentrated Nitric (V) acid in the above set up.

Observation

Yellow colour of sulphur fades
Colourless solution formed
Brown fumes/gas produced.

Explanation

Hot concentrated Nitric(V) acid oxidizes sulphur to sulphuric (VI) acid. The Nitric (V) acid is reduced to brown nitrogen(IV) oxide gas.

Chemical equation



NB:

Hydrochloric acid is a weaker oxidizing agent and thus cannot oxidize sulphur like the other mineral acids.

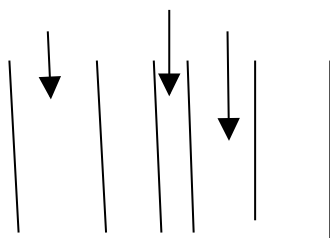
5.State three main uses of sulphur

Sulphur is mainly used in:

- (i) Contact process for the manufacture/industrial/large scale production of concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid.
- (ii) Vulcanization of rubber to make it harder, tougher, stronger, and more durable.
- (iii) Making gun powder and match stick heads
- (iv) As ointments to treat fungal infections

6. Revision Practice

The diagram below represents the extraction of sulphur by Frasch's process. Use it to answer the questions that follow.



(a) Name the substances that pass through:

- M Superheated water at 170°C and 10 atmosphere pressure
 L Hot compressed air
 N Molten sulphur

(b) What is the purpose of the substance that passes through L and M?

M- Superheated water at 170°C and 10 atmosphere pressure is used to melt the sulphur

L- Hot compressed air is used to force up the molten sulphur.

(c) The properties of the two main allotropes of sulphur represented by letters A and B are given in the table below. Use it to answer the questions that follow.

	A	B
Appearance	Bright yellow	Pale yellow
Density(gcm ⁻³)	1.93	2.08
Melting point(°C)	119	113
Stability	Above 96°C	Below 96°C

I. What are allotropes?

Different forms of the same element existing at the same temperature and pressure without change of state.

II. Identify allotrope:

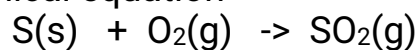
- A. Monoclinic sulphur
 B. Rhombic sulphur

III. State two main uses of sulphur.

- Manufacture of sulphuric(VI) acid
- as fungicide
- in vulcanization of rubber to make it harder/tougher/ stronger
- manufacture of dyes /fibres

(d) Calculate the volume of sulphur (IV) oxide produced when 0.4 g of sulphur is completely burnt in excess air. (S = 32.0, 1 mole of a gas occupies 24 dm³ at room temperature)

Chemical equation



Mole ratio S: SO₂ = 1:1

Method 1

32.0 g of sulphur → 24 dm³ of SO₂(g)

$$0.4 \text{ g of sulphur} \rightarrow \frac{0.4 \text{ g} \times 24 \text{ dm}^3}{32.0 \text{ g}} = \underline{\underline{0.3 \text{ dm}^3}}$$

Method 2

$$\text{Moles of sulphur used} = \frac{\text{Mass of sulphur}}{\text{Molar mass of sulphur}} \Rightarrow \frac{0.4}{32} = \underline{\underline{0.0125 \text{ moles}}}$$

Moles of sulphur used = Moles of sulphur(IV)oxide used ⇒ 0.0125 moles

Volume of sulphur(IV)oxide used = Moles of sulphur(IV)oxide x volume of one mole of gas ⇒ 0.0125 moles x 24 dm³ = 0.3 dm³

B.COMPOUNDS OF SULPHUR

The following are the main compounds of sulphur:

- (i) Sulphur(IV)oxide
- (ii) Sulphur(VI)oxide
- (iii) Sulphuric(VI)acid
- (iv) Hydrogen Sulphide
- (v) Sulphate(IV)/ SO_3^{2-} and Sulphate(VI)/ SO_4^{2-} salts

(i) Sulphur(IV)oxide(SO_2)

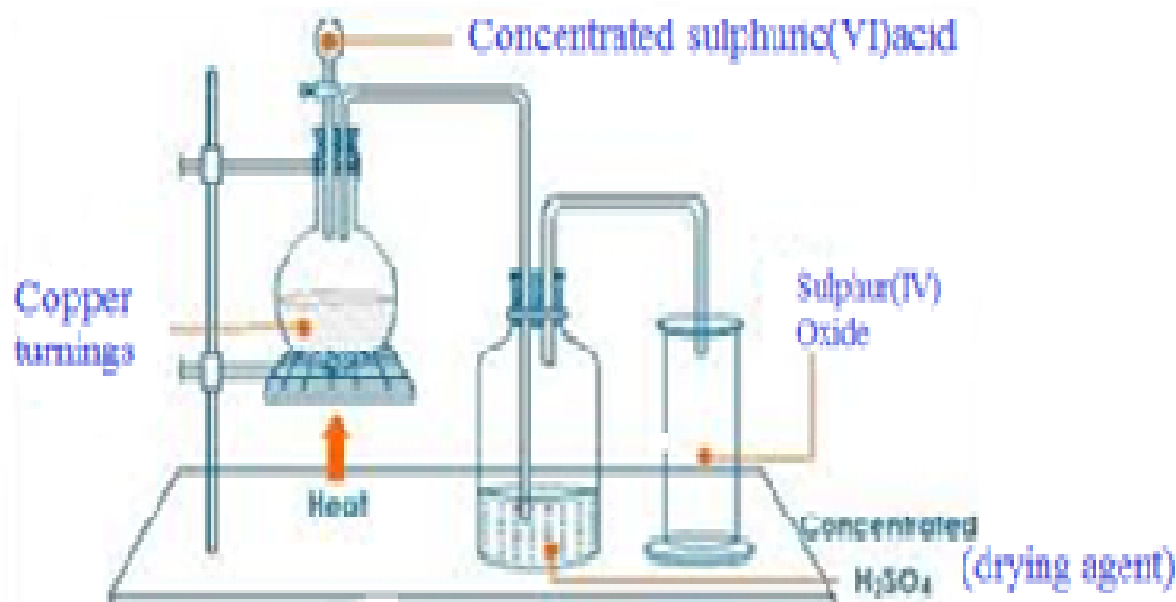
(a) Occurrence

Sulphur (IV)oxide is found in volcanic areas as a gas or dissolved in water from geysers and hot springs in active volcanic areas of the world e.g. Olkaria and Hells gate near Naivasha in Kenya.

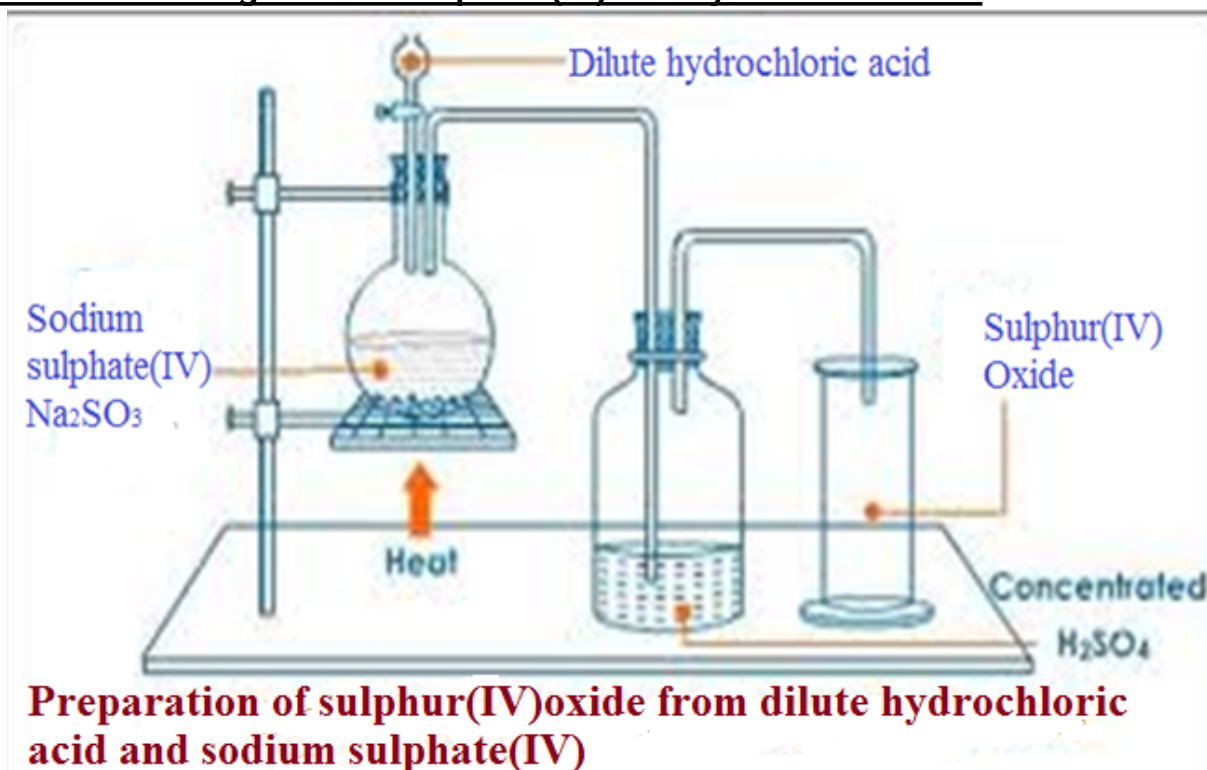
(b) School laboratory preparation

In a Chemistry school laboratory Sulphur (IV)oxide is prepared from the reaction of

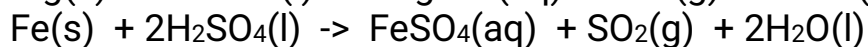
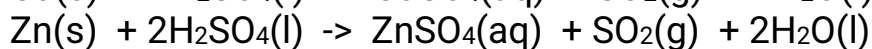
Method 1:Using Copper and Sulphuric(VI)acid.



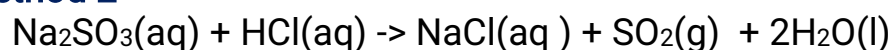
Preparation of sulphur(IV)oxide from Copper turnings and conc. Sulphuric(VI)acid

Method 2: Using Sodium Sulphate(IV) and hydrochloric acid.**(c) Properties of Sulphur(IV) oxide (Questions)**

1. Write the equations for the reaction for the formation of sulphur (IV) oxide using:
(i) Method 1



Calcium, Lead and Barium will form insoluble sulphate(VI) salts that will cover unreacted metals stopping further reaction thus producing very small amount/quantity of sulphur (IV) oxide gas.

(ii) Method 2

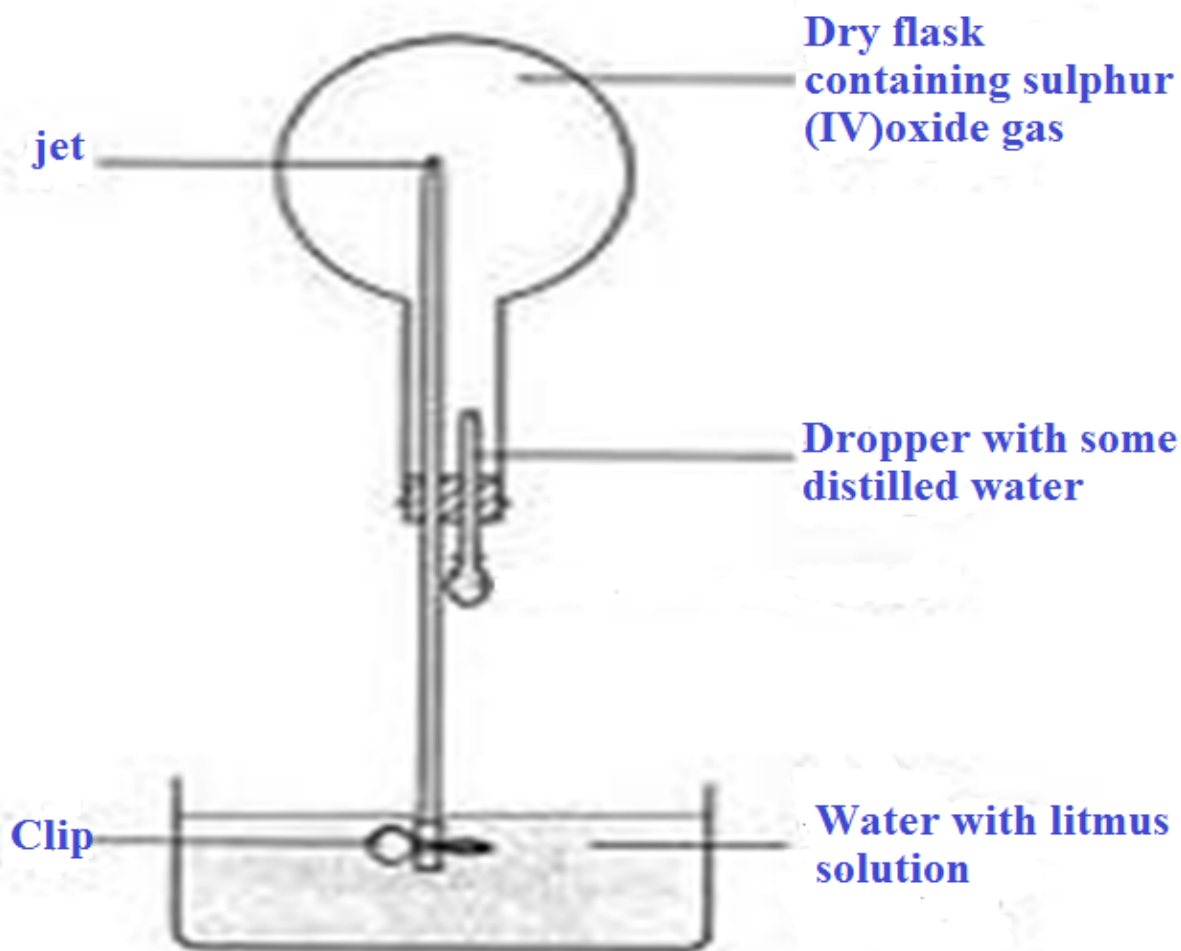


Lead(II)chloride is soluble on heating thus reactants should be heated to prevent it coating/covering unreacted $\text{PbSO}_3(\text{s})$

2.State the physical properties unique to sulphur (IV)oxide gas.

Sulphur (IV)oxide gas is a colourless gas with a pungent irritating and choking smell which **liquidifies** easily. It is about two times denser than air.

3. The diagram below show the solubility of sulphur (IV)oxide gas. Explain.



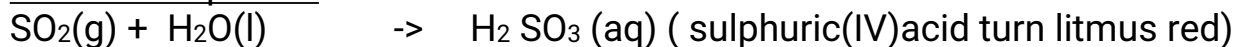
Sulphur(IV) oxide is very soluble in water.

One drop of water dissolves all the Sulphur (IV) oxide in the flask leaving a vacuum.

If the clip is removed, atmospheric pressure forces the water up through the narrow tube to form a fountain to occupy the vacuum.

An acidic solution of sulphuric (IV) acid is formed which turns litmus solution red.

Chemical equation



4. Dry litmus papers and wet/damp/moist litmus papers were put in a gas jar containing sulphur(IV) oxide gas. State and explain the observations made.

Observations

(i) Dry Blue litmus paper remains blue.

Dry red litmus paper remains red.

(ii) Wet/damp/moist blue litmus paper turns red.

Moist/damp/wet red litmus paper remains red.

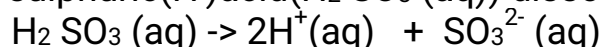
Both litmus papers are then bleached / decolorized.

Explanation

Dry sulphur(IV) oxide gas is a molecular compound that does not dissociate/ionize to release $\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ions and thus has no effect on dry blue/red litmus papers.

Wet/damp/moist litmus papers contain water that dissolves / reacts with dry sulphur(IV) oxide gas to form a solution of weak sulphuric(IV) acid ($\text{H}_2\text{SO}_3(\text{aq})$).

Weak sulphuric(IV) acid ($\text{H}_2\text{SO}_3(\text{aq})$) dissociates / ionizes into free $\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ions:



The free $\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ions are responsible for turning blue litmus paper turns red showing the gas is acidic.

The $\text{SO}_3^{2-}(\text{aq})$ ions in wet/damp/moist sulphur(IV) oxide gas is responsible for many reactions of the gas.

It is easily/readily oxidized to sulphate(VI) $\text{SO}_4^{2-}(\text{aq})$ ions making sulphur(IV) oxide gas act as a reducing agent as in the following examples:

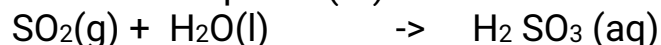
(a) Bleaching agent

Wet/damp/moist coloured flowers/litmus papers are bleached / decolorized when put in sulphur(IV) oxide gas.

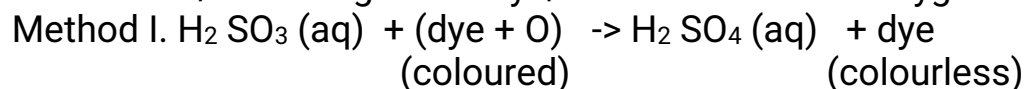
This is because sulphur(IV) oxide removes atomic oxygen from the coloured dye / material to form sulphuric(VI) acid.

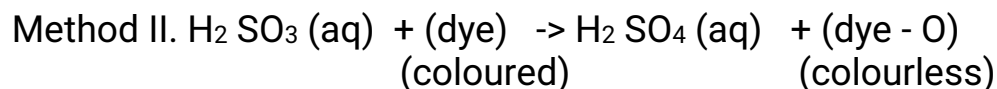
Chemical equations

(i) Formation of sulphuric(IV) acid



(ii) Decolorization/bleaching of the dye/removal of atomic oxygen.





Sulphur(IV) oxide gas therefore bleaches by reduction /removing oxygen from a dye unlike chlorine that bleaches by oxidation /adding oxygen.

The bleaching by removing oxygen from Sulphur(IV) oxide gas is temporary.

This is because the bleached dye regains the atomic oxygen from the atmosphere/air in presence of sunlight as catalyst thus regaining/restoring its original colour. e.g.

Old newspapers turn brown on exposure to air on regaining the atomic oxygen. The bleaching through adding oxygen by chlorine gas is permanent.

(b) Turns Orange acidified potassium dichromate(VI) to green

Experiment:

(i) Pass a stream of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas in a test tube containing acidified potassium dichromate(VI) solution. or;

(ii) Dip a filter paper soaked in acidified potassium dichromate(VI) into a gas jar containing Sulphur(IV) oxide gas.

Observation:

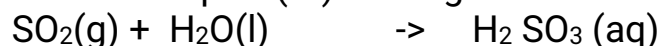
Orange acidified potassium dichromate(VI) turns to green.

Explanation:

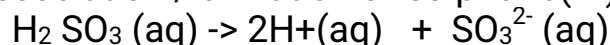
Explanation:
Sulphur(IV) oxide gas reduces acidified potassium dichromate(VI) from orange $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions to green Cr^{3+} ions without leaving a residue itself oxidized from SO_3^{2-} ions in sulphuric(IV) acid to SO_4^{2-} ions in sulphuric(VI) acid.

Chemical/ionic equation:

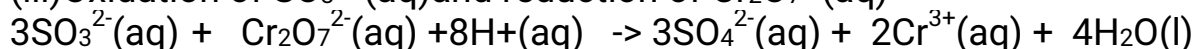
(i) Reaction of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas with water



(ii) Dissociation /ionization of Sulphuric(IV) acid.



(iii) Oxidation of $\text{SO}_3^{2-}(\text{aq})$ and reduction of $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}(\text{aq})$



This is a **confirmatory** test for the presence of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas.

Hydrogen sulphide also reduces acidified potassium dichromate(VI) from orange $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions to green Cr^{3+} ions leaving a yellow residue.

(c)Decolorizes acidified potassium manganate(VII)

Experiment:

(i)Pass a stream of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas in a test tube containing acidified potassium manganate(VII) solution. or;

(ii)Dip a filter paper soaked in acidified potassium manganate(VII) into a gas jar containing Sulphur(IV) oxide gas.

Observation:

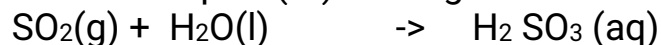
Purple acidified potassium manganate(VII) turns to colourless/ acidified potassium manganate(VII) is decolorized.

Explanation:

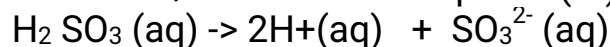
Sulphur(IV) oxide gas reduces acidified potassium manganate(VII) from purple MnO_4^- ions to green Mn^{2+} ions without leaving a residue itself oxidized from SO_3^{2-} ions in sulphuric(IV) acid to SO_4^{2-} ions in sulphuric(VI) acid.

Chemical/ionic equation:

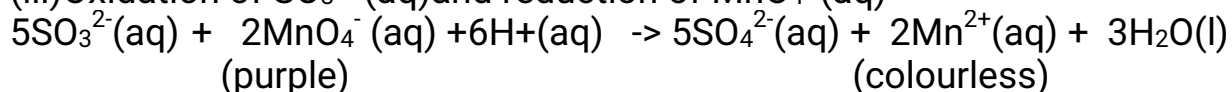
(i)Reaction of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas with water



(ii)Dissociation /ionization of Sulphuric(IV)acid.



(iii)Oxidation of $\text{SO}_3^{2-}(\text{aq})$ and reduction of $\text{MnO}_4^-(\text{aq})$



This is another test for the presence of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas.

Hydrogen sulphide also decolorizes acidified potassium manganate(VII) from purple MnO_4^- ions to colourless Mn^{2+} ions leaving a yellow residue.

(d)Decolorizes bromine water

Experiment:

(i)Pass a stream of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas in a test tube containing bromine water . or;

(ii) Put three drops of bromine water into a gas jar containing Sulphur(IV) oxide gas. Swirl.

Observation:

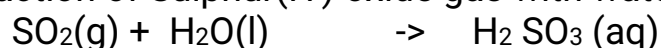
Yellow bromine water turns to colourless/ bromine water is decolorized.

Explanation:

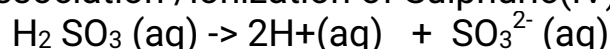
Sulphur(IV) oxide gas reduces yellow bromine water to colourless hydrobromic acid (HBr) without leaving a residue itself oxidized from SO_3^{2-} ions in sulphuric (IV) acid to SO_4^{2-} ions in sulphuric(VI) acid.

Chemical/ionic equation:

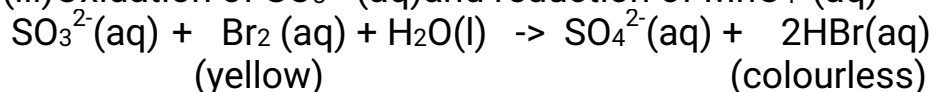
(i) Reaction of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas with water



(ii) Dissociation /ionization of Sulphuric(IV) acid.



(iii) Oxidation of $\text{SO}_3^{2-}(\text{aq})$ and reduction of $\text{MnO}_4^-(\text{aq})$



This can also be used as another test for the presence of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas.

Hydrogen sulphide also decolorizes yellow bromine water to colourless leaving a yellow residue.

(e) Reduces Iron(III) Fe^{3+} salts to Iron(II) salts Fe^{2+}

Experiment:

(i) Pass a stream of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas in a test tube containing about 3 cm³ of Iron (III) chloride solution. or;

(ii) Place about 3cm³ of Iron (III) chloride solution into a gas jar containing Sulphur(IV) oxide gas. Swirl.

Observation:

Yellow/brown Iron (III) chloride solution turns to green

Explanation:

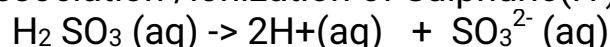
Sulphur(IV) oxide gas reduces Iron (III) chloride solution from yellow/brown Fe^{3+} ions to green Fe^{2+} ions without leaving a residue itself oxidized from SO_3^{2-} ions in sulphuric(IV) acid to SO_4^{2-} ions in sulphuric(VI) acid.

Chemical/ionic equation:

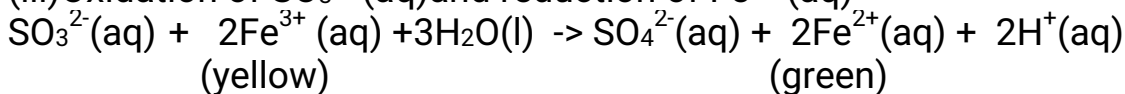
(i) Reaction of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas with water



(ii) Dissociation /ionization of Sulphuric(IV) acid.



(iii) Oxidation of $\text{SO}_3^{2-}(\text{aq})$ and reduction of $\text{Fe}^{3+}(\text{aq})$



(f) Reduces Nitric(V) acid to Nitrogen(IV) oxide gas

Experiment:

(i) Pass a stream of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas in a test tube containing about 3 cm³ of concentrated nitric(V) acid. or;

(ii) Place about 3 cm³ of concentrated nitric(V) acid into a gas jar containing Sulphur(IV) oxide gas. Swirl.

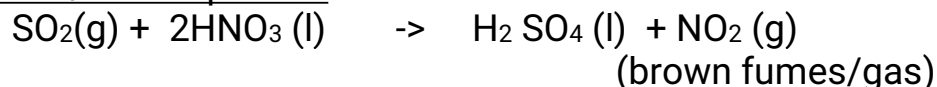
Observation:

Brown fumes of a gas evolved/produced.

Explanation:

Sulphur(IV) oxide gas reduces concentrated nitric(V) acid to brown nitrogen(IV) oxide gas itself oxidized from SO_3^{2-} ions in sulphuric(IV) acid to SO_4^{2-} ions in sulphuric(VI) acid.

Chemical/ionic equation:



(g) Reduces Hydrogen peroxide to water

Experiment:

(i) Pass a stream of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas in a test tube containing about 3 cm³ of 20 volume hydrogen peroxide. Add four drops of Barium nitrate(V) or Barium chloride followed by five drops of 2M hydrochloric acid/ 2M nitric(V) acid.

Observation:

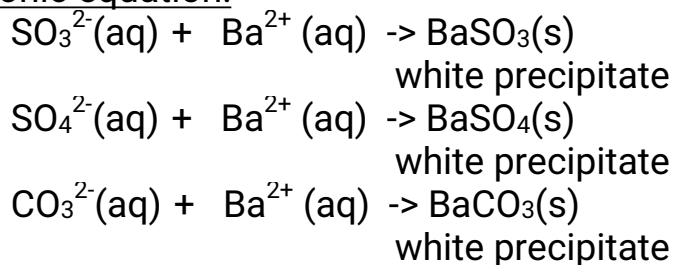
A white precipitate is formed that persists /remains on adding 2M hydrochloric acid/ 2M nitric(V) acid.

Explanation:

Sulphur(IV) oxide gas reduces 20 volume hydrogen peroxide and itself oxidized from SO_3^{2-} ions in sulphuric(IV) acid to SO_4^{2-} ions in sulphuric(VI) acid.

When Ba^{2+} ions in Barium Nitrate(V) or Barium chloride solution is added, a white precipitate of insoluble Barium salts is formed showing the presence of either SO_3^{2-} , SO_4^{2-} , CO_3^{2-} ions. i.e.

Chemical/ionic equation:

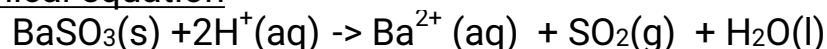


If nitric(V)/hydrochloric acid is added to the three suspected insoluble white precipitates above, the white precipitate:

- (i) persist/remains if $\text{SO}_4^{2-}(\text{aq})$ ions ($\text{BaSO}_4(\text{s})$) is present.
 - (ii) dissolves if $\text{SO}_3^{2-}(\text{aq})$ ions ($\text{BaSO}_3(\text{s})$) and $\text{CO}_3^{2-}(\text{aq})$ ions ($\text{BaCO}_3(\text{s})$) is present.
- This is because:

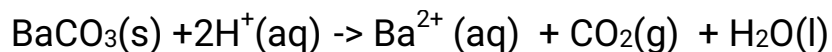
I. $\text{BaSO}_3(\text{s})$ reacts with Nitric(V)/hydrochloric acid to produce acidic SO_2 gas that turns Orange moist filter paper dipped in acidified Potassium dichromate to green.

Chemical equation



I. $\text{BaCO}_3(\text{s})$ reacts with Nitric(V)/hydrochloric acid to produce acidic CO_2 gas that forms a white precipitate when bubbled in lime water.

Chemical equation



5. Sulphur(IV) oxide also act as an oxidizing agent as in the following examples.

(a) Reduction by burning Magnesium

Experiment

Lower a burning Magnesium ribbon into a gas jar containing Sulphur(IV) oxide gas

Observation

Magnesium ribbon continues to burn with difficulty.

White ash and yellow powder/speck

Explanation

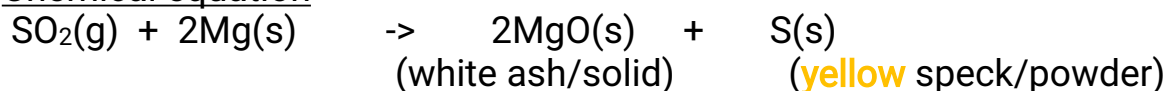
Sulphur(IV)oxide does not support burning/combustion. Magnesium burns to produce enough heat energy to decompose Sulphur(IV)oxide to sulphur and oxygen.

The metal continues to burn on Oxygen forming white Magnesium oxide solid/ash.

Yellow specks of sulphur residue form on the sides of reaction flask/gas jar.

During the reaction, Sulphur(IV)oxide is reduced(oxidizing agent)while the metal is oxidized (reducing agent)

Chemical equation



(b)Reduction by Hydrogen sulphide gas

Experiment

Put two drops of water into a gas jar containing dry Sulphur(IV)oxide gas

Bubble hydrogen sulphide gas into the gas jar containing Sulphur(IV)oxide gas.

Or

Put two drops of water into a gas jar containing dry Sulphur(IV)oxide gas

Invert a gas jar full of hydrogen sulphide gas over the gas jar containing Sulphur(IV)oxide gas. Swirl

Observation

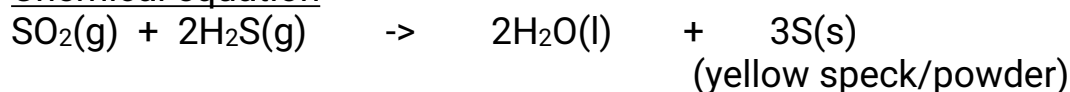
Yellow powder/speck

Explanation

Sulphur(IV)oxide oxidizes hydrogen sulphide to yellow specks of sulphur residue and itself reduced to also sulphur that form on the sides of reaction flask/gas jar.

A little moisture/water act as catalyst /speeds up the reaction.

Chemical equation



6.Sulphur(IV)oxide has many industrial uses. State three.

(i)In the contact process for the manufacture of Sulphuric(VI)acid

(ii)As a bleaching agent of pulp and paper.

(iii)As a fungicide to kill microbes'

(iv)As a preservative of jam, juices to prevent fermentation

(ii) Sulphur(VI)oxide(SO₃)

(a) Occurrence

Sulphur (VI)oxide is does not occur free in nature/atmosphere

(b) Preparation

In a Chemistry school laboratory Sulphur (VI)oxide may prepared from:

Method 1;Catalytic oxidation of sulphur(IV)oxide gas.

Sulphur(IV)oxide gas and oxygen mixture are first dried by being passed through Concentrated Sulphuric(VI)acid .

The dry mixture is then passed through platinised asbestos to catalyse/speed up the combination to form Sulphur (VI)oxide gas.

Sulphur (VI)oxide gas readily solidify as silky white needles if passed through a freezing mixture /ice cold water.

The solid fumes out on heating to a highly acidic poisonous gas.

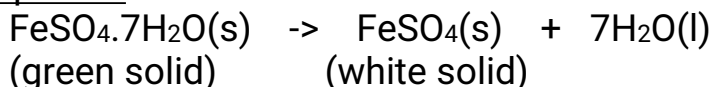
Chemical equation



Method 2; Heating Iron(II)sulphate(VI) heptahydrate

When green hydrated Iron(II)sulphate(VI) heptahydrate crystals are heated in a boiling tube ,it loses the water of crystallization and colour changes from green to white.

Chemical equation

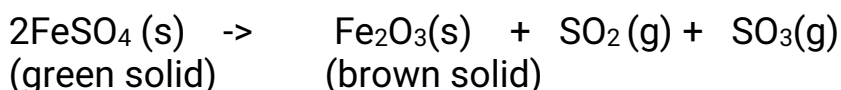


On further heating ,the white anhydrous Iron(II)sulphate(VI) solid decomposes to a mixture of Sulphur (VI)oxide and Sulphur (IV)oxide gas.

Sulphur (VI) oxide readily / easily solidify as white silky needles when the mixture is passed through a freezing mixture/ice cold water.

Iron(III)oxide is left as a brown residue/solid.

Chemical equation



Caution

On exposure to air Sulphur (VI)oxide gas produces highly corrosive poisonous fumes of concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid and thus its preparation in a school laboratory is very risky.

(c) Uses of sulphur(VI)oxide

One of the main uses of sulphur(VI)oxide gas is as an intermediate product in the contact process for industrial/manufacture/large scale/production of sulphuric(VI)acid.

(iii) Sulphuric(VI)acid(H_2SO_4)

(a) Occurrence

Sulphuric (VI)acid(H_2SO_4) is one of the three mineral acids. There are three mineral acids;

Nitric(V)acid

Sulphuric(VI)acid

Hydrochloric acid.

Mineral acids do not occur naturally but are prepared in a school laboratory and manufactured at industrial level.

(b)The Contact process for industrial manufacture of H_2SO_4 .

I. Raw materials

The main raw materials for industrial preparation of Sulphuric(VI)acid include:

(i)**Sulphur** from Fraschs process or from heating metal sulphide ore like Galena(PbS),Zinc blende(ZnS)

(ii)**Oxygen** from fractional distillation of air

(iii)**Water** from rivers/lakes

II. Chemical processes

The contact process involves four main chemical processes:

(i)Production of Sulphur (IV)oxide

As one of the raw materials, Sulphur (IV)oxide gas is got from the following sources;

I. Burning/roasting sulphur in air.

Sulphur from Fraschs process is roasted/burnt in air to form Sulphur (IV)oxide gas in the **burners**

Chemical equation



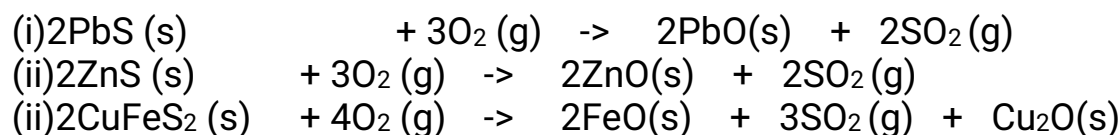
II. Burning/roasting sulphide ores in air.

Sulphur (IV)oxide gas is produced as a by product in extraction of some metals like:

- Lead from Lead(II)sulphide/Galena,(PbS)
- Zinc from zinc(II)sulphide/Zinc blende, (ZnS)
- Copper from Copper iron sulphide/Copper pyrites, (CuFeS₂)

On roasting/burning, large amount /quantity of sulphur(IV)oxide is generated/produced.

Chemical equation



Sulphur(IV)oxide easily/readily liquefies and thus can be transported to a far distance safely.

(ii)Purification of Sulphur(IV)oxide

Sulphur(IV)oxide gas contain dust particles and Arsenic(IV)oxide as impurities. These impurities “poison”/impair the catalyst by adhering on/covering its surface.

The impurities are removed by electrostatic precipitation method .

In the contact process Platinum or Vanadium(V)oxide may be used. Vanadium(V)oxide is preferred because it is :

- (i) cheaper/less expensive
- (ii) less easily poisoned by impurities

(iii)Catalytic conversion of Sulphur(IV)oxide to Sulphur(VI)oxide

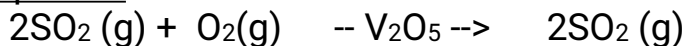
Pure and dry mixture of Sulphur (IV)oxide gas and Oxygen is heated to 450°C in a heat exchanger.

The heated mixture is passed through long pipes coated with pellets of Vanadium (V)oxide catalyst.

The close “contact” between the reacting gases and catalyst give the process its name.

Vanadium (V)oxide catalyse the conversion/oxidation of Sulphur(IV)oxide to Sulphur(VI)oxide gas.

Chemical equation



This reaction is exothermic (-ΔH) and the temperatures need to be maintained at around 450°C to ensure that:

- (i)reaction rate/time taken for the formation of Sulphur(VI)oxide is not too **slow/long** at **lower** temperatures below 450°C
- (ii) Sulphur(VI)oxide gas does not **decompose** back to Sulphur(IV)oxide gas and Oxygen gas at **higher** temperatures than 450°C.

(iv) Conversion of Sulphur(VI)oxide of Sulphuric(VI)acid

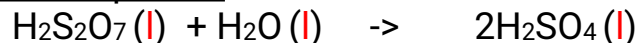
Sulphur(VI)oxide is the acid anhydride of concentrated Sulphuric(VI)acid. Sulphur(VI)oxide reacts with water to form thick mist of fine droplets of very/highly corrosive concentrated Sulphuric(VI)acid because the reaction is highly exothermic. To prevent this, Sulphur (VI)oxide is passed up to meet downward flow of 98% Sulphuric(VI)acid in the absorption chamber/tower. The reaction forms a very **viscous oily** liquid called **Oleum/fuming Sulphuric (VI) acid/ pyrosulphuric (VI) acid**.

Chemical equation



Oleum/fuming Sulphuric (VI) acid/ pyrosulphuric (VI) acid is diluted carefully with distilled water to give concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid .

Chemical equation



The acid is stored ready for market/sale.

III. Environmental effects of contact process

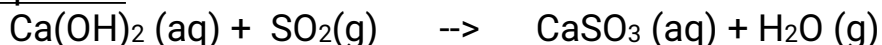
Sulphur(VI)oxide and Sulphur(IV)oxide gases are atmospheric pollutants that form acid rain if they escape to the atmosphere.

In the Contact process, about 2% of these gases do not form sulphuric (VI) acid. The following precautions prevent/minimize pollution from Contact process:

- (i) recycling back any unreacted Sulphur(IV)oxide gas back to the heat exchangers.
- (ii) dissolving Sulphur(VI)oxide gas in concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid instead of water.
This prevents the formation of fine droplets of the corrosive/ toxic/poisonous fumes of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid.

(iii) **scrubbing**-This involves passing the exhaust gases through very tall chimneys lined with quicklime/calcium hydroxide solid. This reacts with Sulphur (VI)oxide gas forming harmless calcium(II)sulphate (IV) /CaSO₃

Chemical equation

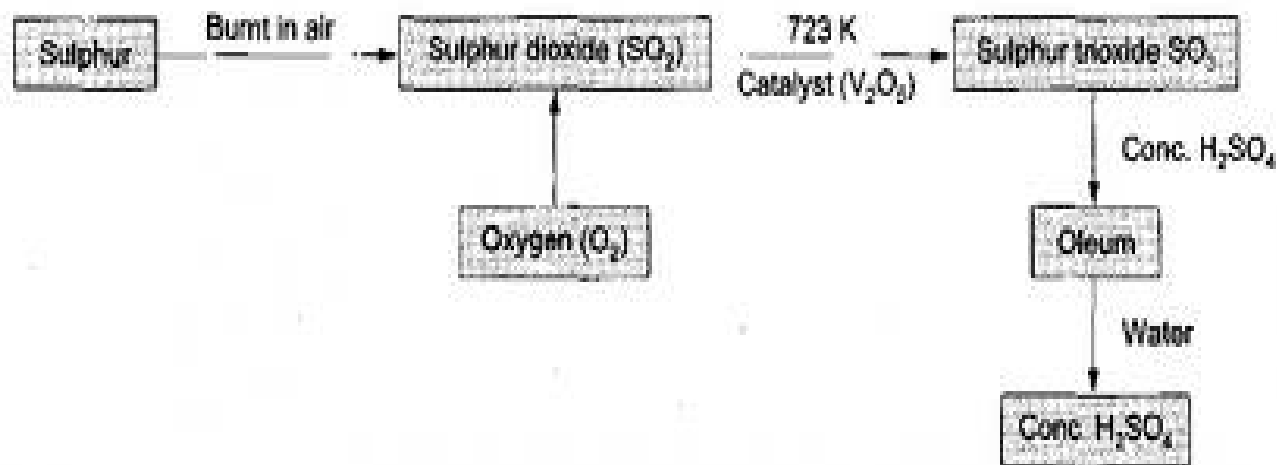


IV. Uses of Sulphuric(VI)acid

Sulphuric (VI) acid is used:

- (i) in making dyes and paint
- (ii) as acid in Lead-acid accumulator/battery
- (iii) for making soapless detergents
- (iv) for making sulphate agricultural fertilizers

VI. Sketch chart diagram showing the Contact process



(c) Properties of Concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid (i) Concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid is a colourless oily liquid with a density of 1.84gcm⁻³. It has a boiling point of 338°C.

(ii) Concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid is very soluble in water. The solubility /dissolution of the acid very highly exothermic. The concentrated acid should thus be diluted slowly in excess water. Water should never be added to the acid because the hot acid scatters highly corrosive fumes out of the container.

(iii) Concentrated sulphuric (VI)acid is a covalent compound. It has no free H⁺ ions. Free H⁺ ions are responsible for turning the blue litmus paper red. Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid thus do not change the blue litmus paper red.

(iv) Concentrated sulphuric (VI)acid is hygroscopic. It absorbs water from the atmosphere and do not form a solution. This makes concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid very suitable as drying agent during preparation of gases.

(v) The following are some chemical properties of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid:

I. As a dehydrating agent

Experiment I:

Put about four spatula end fulls of brown sugar and glucose in separate 10cm³ beaker. Carefully add about 10cm³ of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid. Allow to stand for about 10 minutes.

Observation:

Colour (in brown sugar) change from brown to **black**.

Colour (in glucose) change from white to **black**.

10cm³ beaker becomes very hot.

Explanation

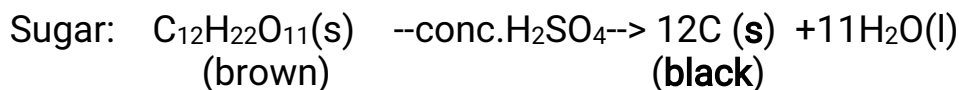
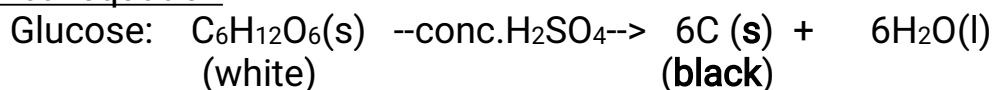
Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is strong dehydrating agent.

It removes chemically and physically combined elements of water (Hydrogen and Oxygen in ratio 2:1) from compounds.

When added to sugar /glucose a vigorous reaction that is highly exothermic takes place. The sugar/glucose is **charred** to **black mass** of carbon because the acid dehydrates the sugar/glucose leaving carbon.

Caution

This reaction is highly exothermic that starts slowly but produces fine particles of carbon that if inhaled cause quick suffocation by blocking the lung villi.

Chemical equation**Experiment II:**

Put about two spatula end full of hydrated copper(II)sulphate(VI) crystals in a boiling tube. Carefully add about 10cm³ of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid. Warm.

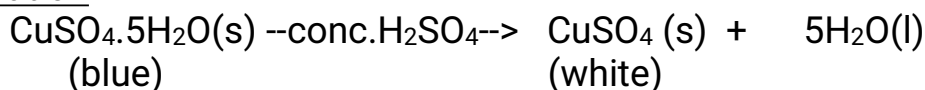
Observation:

Colour change from blue to white.

Explanation

Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is strong dehydrating agent. It removes physically combined elements of water (Hydrogen and Oxygen in ratio 2:1) from hydrated compounds.

The acid dehydrates blue copper(II)sulphate to white anhydrous copper(II)sulphate.

Chemical equation

Experiment III:

Put about 4cm³ of absolute ethanol in a boiling tube .Carefully add about 10cm³ of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid.

Place moist/damp/wet filter paper dipped in acidified potassium dichromate(VI)solution on the mouth of the boiling tube. Heat strongly.

Caution:

Absolute ethanol is highly flammable.

Observation;

Colourless gas produced.

Orange acidified potassium dichromate (VI) paper turns to green.

Explanation

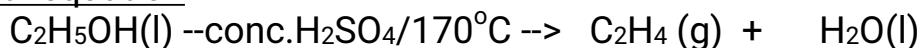
Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is strong dehydrating agent.

It removes chemically combined elements of water(Hydrogen and Oxygen in ratio 2:1)from compounds.

The acid dehydrates ethanol to ethene gas at about 170°C.

Ethene with =C=C= double bond turns orange acidified potassium dichromate (VI) paper turns to green.

Chemical equation



NB: This reaction is used for the school laboratory preparation of ethene gas

Experiment IV:

Put about 4cm³ of methanoic acid in a boiling tube .Carefully add about 6 cm³ of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid. Heat gently

Caution:

This should be done in a fume chamber/open

Observation;

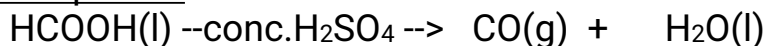
Colourless gas produced.

Explanation

Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is strong dehydrating agent. It removes chemically combined elements of water (Hydrogen and Oxygen in ratio 2:1)from compounds.

The acid dehydrates methanoic acid to poisonous/toxic carbon(II)oxide gas.

Chemical equation



NB: This reaction is used for the school laboratory preparation of small amount carbon (II)oxide gas

Experiment V:

Put about 4cm³ of ethan-1,2-dioic/oxalic acid in a boiling tube .Carefully add about 6 cm³ of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid. Pass any gaseous product through lime water.Heat gently

Caution:

This should be done in a fume chamber/open

Observation;

Colourless gas produced.

Gas produced forms a white precipitate with lime water.

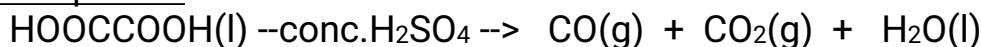
Explanation

Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is strong dehydrating agent.

It removes chemically combined elements of water (Hydrogen and Oxygen in ratio 2:1)from compounds.

The acid dehydrates ethan-1,2-dioic/oxalic acid to a mixture of poisonous/toxic carbon(II)oxide and carbon(IV)oxide gases.

Chemical equation



NB: This reaction is also used for the school laboratory preparation of small amount carbon (II) oxide gas.

Carbon (IV) oxide gas is removed by passing the mixture through concentrated sodium/potassium hydroxide solution.

II. As an Oxidizing agent

Experiment I

Put about 2cm³ of Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid into three separate boiling tubes. Place a thin moist/damp/wet filter paper dipped in acidified potassium dichromate (VI)solution on the mouth of the boiling tube. Put about 0.5g of Copper turnings, Zinc granule and Iron filings to each boiling tube separately.

Observation;

Effervescence/fizzing/bubbles

Blue solution formed with copper,

Green solution formed with Iron

Colourless solution formed with Zinc

Colourless gas produced that has a pungent irritating choking smell.

Gas produced turn orange moist/damp/wet filter paper dipped in acidified potassium dichromate (VI)solution to green.

Explanation

Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is strong oxidizing agent.

It oxidizes metals to metallic sulphate(VI) salts and itself reduced to sulphur(IV)oxide gas.

Sulphur (IV) oxide gas turn orange moist/damp/wet filter paper dipped in acidified potassium dichromate (VI)solution to green.

$\text{CuSO}_4(\text{aq})$ is a blue solution. $\text{ZnSO}_4(\text{aq})$ is a colourless solution. $\text{FeSO}_4(\text{aq})$ is a green solution.

Chemical equationExperiment II

Put about 2cm³ of Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid into two separate boiling tubes. Place a thin moist/damp/wet filter paper dipped in acidified potassium dichromate (VI)solution on the mouth of the boiling tube.

Put about 0.5g of powdered charcoal and sulphur powder to each boiling tube separately.

Warm.

Observation;

Black solid charcoal dissolves/decrease

Yellow solid sulphur dissolves/decrease

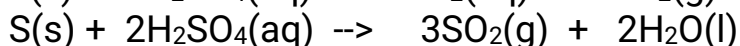
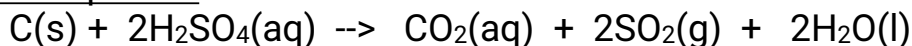
Colourless gas produced that has a pungent irritating choking smell.

Gas produced turn orange moist/damp/wet filter paper dipped in acidified potassium dichromate (VI)solution to green.

Explanation

Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is strong oxidizing agent. It oxidizes non-metals to non metallic oxides and itself reduced to sulphur(IV)oxide gas. Sulphur (IV) oxide gas turn orange moist/damp/wet filter paper dipped in acidified potassium dichromate (VI)solution to green.

Charcoal is oxidized to carbon(IV)oxide. Sulphur is oxidized to Sulphur(IV)oxide .

Chemical equation**III. As the least volatile acid**

Study the table below showing a comparison in boiling points of the three mineral acids

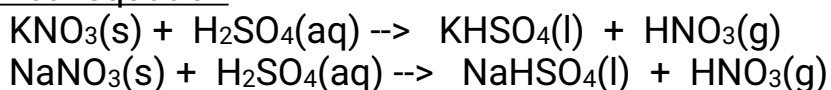
Mineral acid	Relative molecular mass	Boiling point(°C)
Hydrochloric acid(HCl)	36.5	35.0
Nitric(V)acid(HNO ₃)	63.0	83.0
Sulphuric(VI)acid(H ₂ SO ₄)	98.0	333

1. Which is the least volatile acid? Explain

Sulphuric(VI)acid(H₂SO₄) because it has the largest molecule and joined by Hydrogen bonds making it to have the highest boiling point/least volatile.

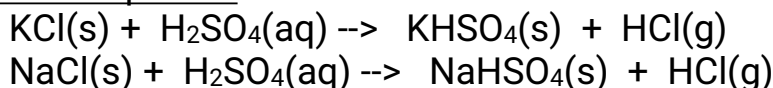
2. Using chemical equations, explain how sulphuric(VI)acid displaces the less volatile mineral acids.

(i) Chemical equation



This reaction is used in the school laboratory preparation of Nitric(V) acid (HNO₃).

(ii) Chemical equation



This reaction is used in the school laboratory **preparation** of Hydrochloric acid (HCl).

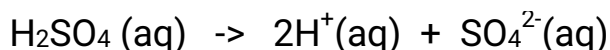
(d) Properties of dilute sulphuric(VI)acid.

Dilute sulphuric(VI)acid is made when about 10cm³ of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is carefully added to about 90cm³ of distilled water.

Diluting concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid should be done carefully because the reaction is highly exothermic.

Diluting concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid decreases the number of moles present in a given volume of solution which makes the acid less corrosive.

On diluting concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid, water ionizes /dissociates the acid fully/wholly into two(**dibasic**) free H⁺(aq) and SO₄²⁻(aq)ions:



The presence of free H⁺(aq)ions is responsible for ;

(i) turn litmus red because of the presence of free H⁺(aq)ions

(ii) have pH 1/2/3 because of the presence of many free H⁺(aq)ions hence a strongly acidic solution.

(iii) Reaction with metals

Experiment:

Place 5cm³ of 0.2M dilute sulphuric(VI) acid into four separate clean test tubes. Add about 0.1g of Magnesium ribbon to one test tube. Cover the mixture with a finger as stopper. Introduce a burning splint on top of the finger and release the finger "stopper". Repeat by adding Zinc, Copper and Iron instead of the Magnesium ribbon.

Observation:

No effervescence/ bubbles/ fizzing with copper

Effervescence/ bubbles/ fizzing with Iron, Zinc and Magnesium

Colourless gas produced that extinguishes burning splint with a "pop" sound.

Colourless solution formed with Zinc and Magnesium.

Green solution formed with Iron

Explanation:

When a metal higher than hydrogen in the reactivity/electrochemical series is put in a test tube containing dilute sulphuric(VI) acid, effervescence/ bubbling/ fizzing takes place with evolution of Hydrogen gas.

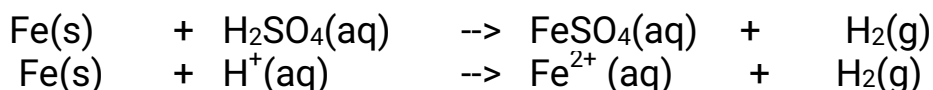
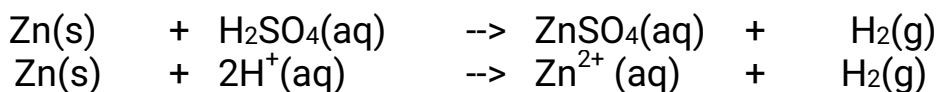
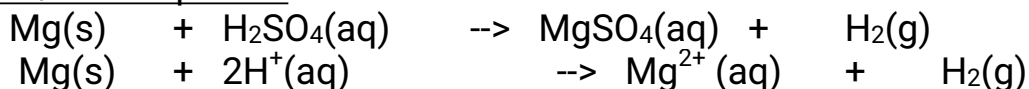
Impure hydrogen gas extinguishes burning splint with a "pop" sound.

A sulphate (VI) salt is formed. Iron, Zinc and Magnesium are higher than hydrogen in the reactivity/electrochemical series.

They form Iron (II) sulphate(VI), Magnesium sulphate(VI) and Zinc sulphate(VI).

When a metal lower than hydrogen in the reactivity/electrochemical series is put in a test tube containing dilute sulphuric(VI) acid, there is no effervescence/ bubbling/ fizzing that take place.

Copper thus does not react with dilute sulphuric(VI) acid.

Chemical/ionic equation

NB:(i) Calcium, Lead and Barium forms insoluble sulphate(VI) salts that cover/coat the unreacted metals.

(ii) Sodium and Potassium react explosively with dilute sulphuric(VI) acid

(iv) Reaction with metal carbonates and hydrogen carbonates

Experiment:

Place 5cm³ of 0.2M dilute sulphuric(VI) acid into four separate clean boiling tubes. Add about 0.1g of sodium carbonate to one boiling tube. Introduce a burning

splint on top of the boiling tube. Repeat by adding Zinc carbonate, Copper (II) carbonate and Iron(II) Carbonate in place of the sodium hydrogen carbonate.

Observation:

Effervescence/ bubbles/ fizzing.

Colourless gas produced that extinguishes burning splint.

Colourless solution formed with Zinc carbonate, sodium hydrogen carbonate and sodium carbonate.

Green solution formed with Iron(II) Carbonate

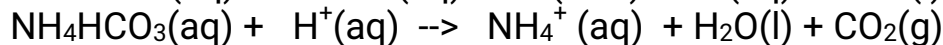
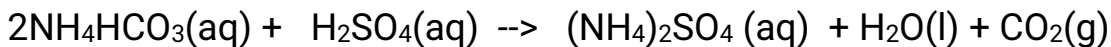
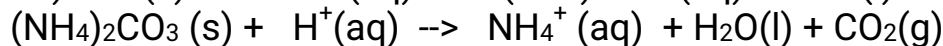
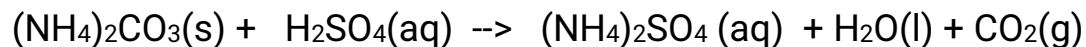
Blue solution formed with Copper(II) Carbonate

Explanation:

When a metal carbonate or a hydrogen carbonates is put in a test tube containing dilute sulphuric(VI) acid, effervescence/ bubbling/ fizzing takes place with evolution of carbon(IV) oxide gas. carbon(IV) oxide gas extinguishes a burning splint and forms a white precipitate when bubbled in lime water.

A sulphate (VI) salts is formed.

Chemical/ionic equation



NB:

Calcium, Lead and Barium carbonates forms insoluble sulphate(VI) salts that cover/coat the unreacted metals.

(v)Neutralization-reaction of metal oxides and alkalis/basesExperiment I:

Place 5cm³ of 0.2M dilute sulphuric(VI)acid into four separate clean boiling tubes. Add about 0.1g of copper(II)oxide to one boiling tube. Stir.

Repeat by adding Zinc oxide, calcium carbonate and Sodium (II)Oxide in place of the Copper(II)Oxide.

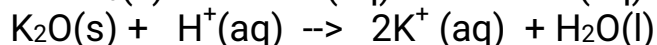
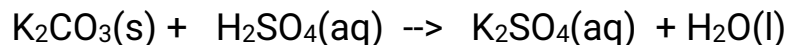
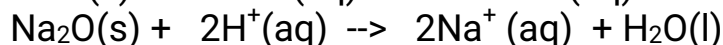
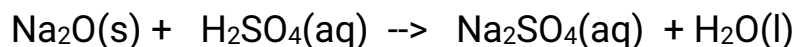
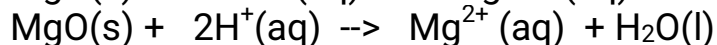
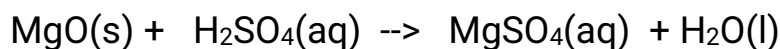
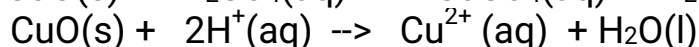
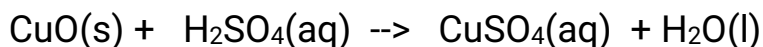
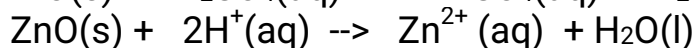
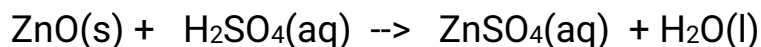
Observation:

Blue solution formed with Copper(II)Oxide

Colourless solution formed with other oxides

Explanation:

When a metal oxide is put in a test tube containing dilute sulphuric(VI)acid, the oxide dissolves forming a sulphate (VI) salt.

Chemical/ionic equation

NB:

Calcium, Lead and Barium oxides forms insoluble sulphate(VI)salts that cover/coat the unreacted metals oxides.

Experiment II:

Fill a burette wuth 0.1M dilute sulphuric(VI)acid. Pipette 20.0cm³ of 0.1Msodium hydroxide solution into a 250cm³ conical flask. Add three drops of phenolphthalein indicator. Titrate the acid to get a permanent colour change.Repeat with0.1M potassium hydroxide solution inplace of 0.1Msodium hydroxide solution

Observation:

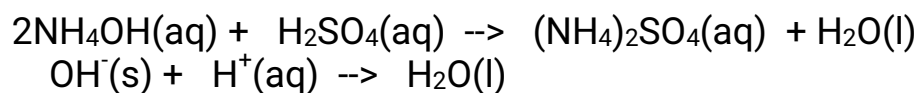
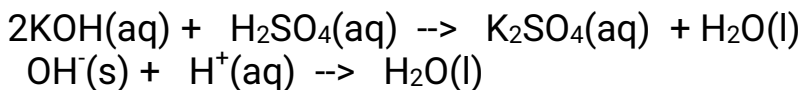
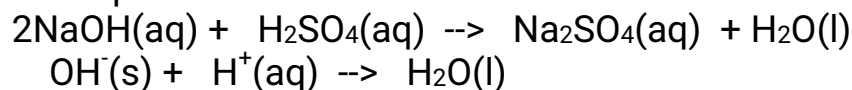
Colour of phenolphthalein changes from pink to colourless at the end point.

Explanation

Like other (mineral) acids dilute sulphuric(VI) acid neutralizes bases/alkalis to a sulphate salt and water only.

Colour of the indicator used changes when a slight excess of acid is added to the base at the end point

Chemical equation:



(iv) Hydrogen sulphide(H_2S)

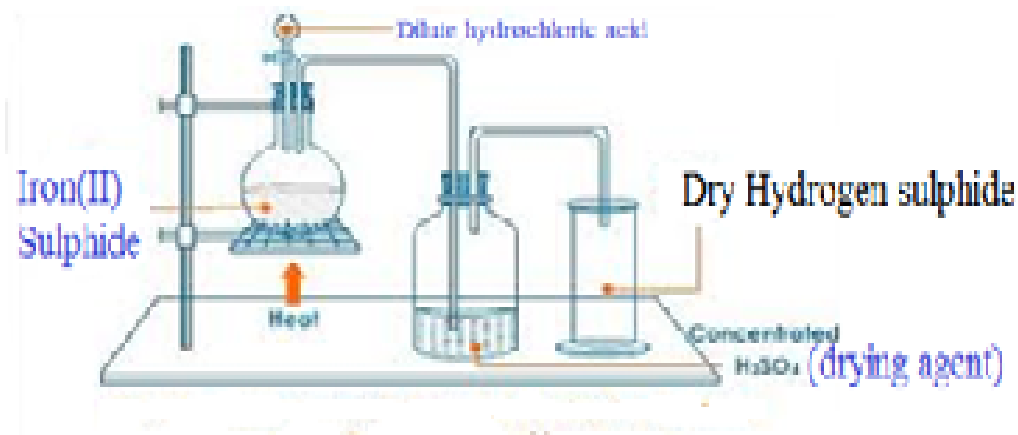
(a) Occurrence

Hydrogen sulphide is found in volcanic areas as a gas or dissolved in water from geysers and hot springs in active volcanic areas of the world e.g. Olkaria and Hells gate near Naivasha in Kenya.

It is present in rotten eggs and human excreta.

(b) Preparation

Hydrogen sulphide is prepared in a school laboratory by heating Iron (II) sulphide with dilute hydrochloric acid.



(c) Properties of Hydrogen sulphide(Questions)

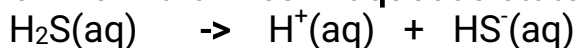
1. Write the equation for the reaction for the school laboratory preparation of Hydrogen sulphide.

Chemical equation: $\text{FeS (s)} + 2\text{HCl (aq)} \rightarrow \text{H}_2\text{S (g)} + \text{FeCl}_2 \text{ (aq)}$

2. State three physical properties unique to Hydrogen sulphide.

Hydrogen sulphide is a colourless gas with characteristic pungent poisonous smell of rotten eggs. It is soluble in cold water but insoluble in warm water. It is denser than water and turns blue litmus paper red.

3. Hydrogen sulphide exist as a dibasic acid when dissolved in water. Using a chemical equation show how it ionizes in aqueous state.



Hydrogen sulphide therefore can form both normal and acid salts e.g Sodium hydrogen sulphide and sodium sulphide both exist

4. State and explain one gaseous impurity likely to be present in the gas jar containing hydrogen sulphide above.

Hydrogen/ H_2

Iron(II)sulphide contains Iron as impurity .The iron will react with dilute hydrochloric acid to form iron(II)chloride and produce hydrogen gas that mixes with hydrogen sulphide gas.

5. State and explain the observations made when a filter paper dipped in Lead(II) ethanoate /Lead (II) nitrate(V) solution is put in a gas jar containing hydrogen sulphide gas.

Observations

Moist Lead(II) ethanoate /Lead (II) nitrate(V) paper turns black.

Explanation

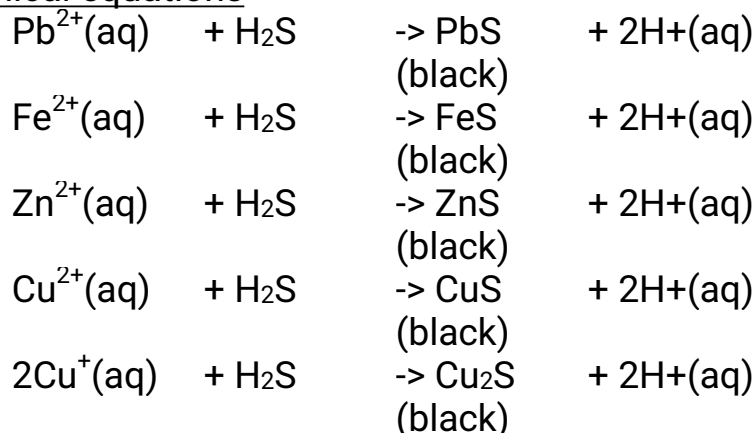
When hydrogen sulphide is bubbled in a metallic salt solution, a metallic sulphide is formed.

All sulphides are insoluble black salts except sodium sulphide, potassium sulphide and ammonium sulphides.

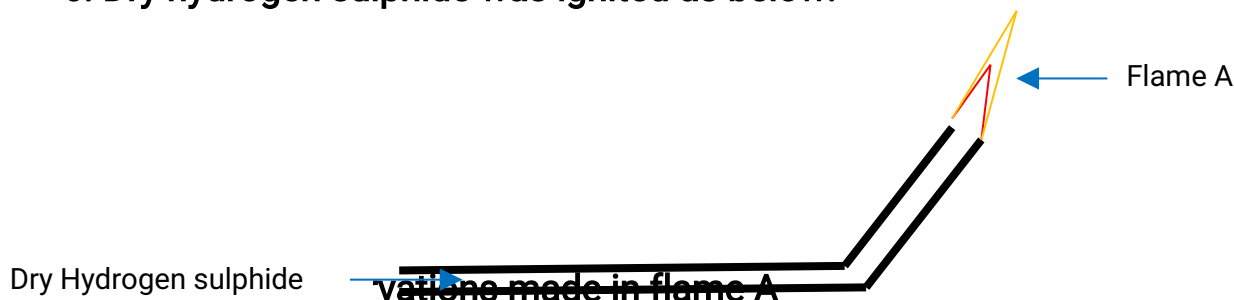
Hydrogen sulphide gas blackens moist Lead (II) ethanoate /Lead (II) nitrate(V) paper . The gas reacts with Pb^{2+} in the paper to form black Lead(II)sulphide.

This is the chemical test for the presence of H_2S other than the physical smell of rotten eggs.

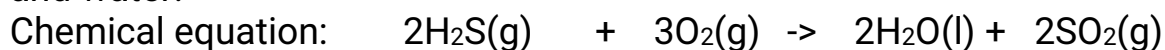
Chemical equations



6. Dry hydrogen sulphide was ignited as below.



Hydrogen sulphide burns in excess air with a blue flame to form sulphur(IV)oxide gas and water.



Hydrogen sulphide burns in limited air with a blue flame to form sulphur solid and

water.

Chemical equation: $2\text{H}_2\text{S}(\text{g}) + \text{O}_2(\text{g}) \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O}(\text{l}) + 2\text{S}(\text{s})$

7. Hydrogen sulphide is a strong reducing agent that is oxidized to yellow solid sulphur as precipitate. The following experiments illustrate the reducing properties of Hydrogen sulphide.

(a) Turns Orange acidified potassium dichromate(VI) to green

Experiment:

(i) Pass a stream of Hydrogen sulphide gas in a test tube containing acidified potassium dichromate (VI) solution. or;

(ii) Dip a filter paper soaked in acidified potassium dichromate (VI) into a gas jar containing Hydrogen sulphide gas.

Observation:

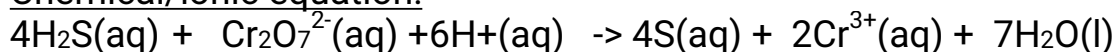
Orange acidified potassium dichromate (VI) turns to green.

Yellow solid residue.

Explanation:

Hydrogen sulphide gas reduces acidified potassium dichromate(VI) from orange $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions to green Cr^{3+} ions leaving a yellow solid residue as itself is oxidized to sulphur.

Chemical/ionic equation:



This test is used for differentiating Hydrogen sulphide and sulphur (IV) oxide gas.

Sulphur(IV) oxide also reduces acidified potassium dichromate(VI) from orange $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ ions to green Cr^{3+} ions without leaving a yellow residue.

(b) Decolorizes acidified potassium manganate(VII)

Experiment:

(i) Pass a stream of Sulphur(IV) oxide gas in a test tube containing acidified potassium manganate(VII) solution. or;

(ii) Dip a filter paper soaked in acidified potassium manganate(VII) into a gas jar containing Hydrogen Sulphide gas.

Observation:

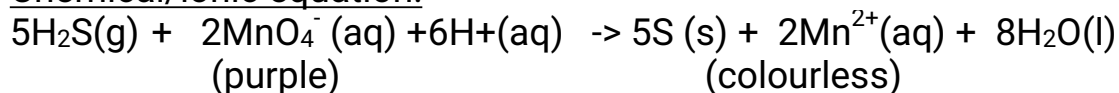
Purple acidified potassium manganate(VII) turns to colourless/ acidified potassium

manganate(VII) is decolorized.
Yellow solid residue.

Explanation:

Hydrogen sulphide gas reduces acidified potassium manganate(VII) from purple MnO_4^- ions to green Mn^{2+} ions leaving a residue as the gas itself is oxidized to sulphur.

Chemical/ionic equation:



This is another test for differentiating Hydrogen sulphide and Sulphur(IV) oxide gas. Sulphur(IV) oxide also decolorizes acidified potassium manganate(VII) from purple MnO_4^- ions to colourless Mn^{2+} ions leaving no yellow residue.

(c)Decolorizes bromine water

Experiment:

- (i)Pass a stream of Hydrogen sulphide gas in a test tube containing bromine water . or;
- (ii)Put three drops of bromine water into a gas jar containing Hydrogen sulphide gas. Swirl.

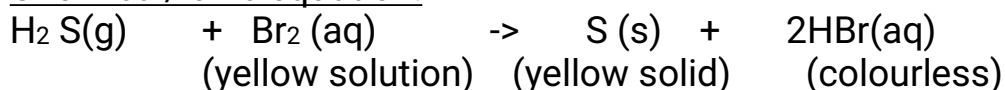
Observation:

Yellow bromine water turns to colourless/ bromine water is decolorized.
Yellow solid residue

Explanation:

Hydrogen sulphide gas reduces yellow bromine water to colourless hydrobromic acid (HBr) leaving a yellow residue as the gas itself is oxidized to sulphur.

Chemical/ionic equation:



This is another test for differentiating Hydrogen sulphide and Sulphur(IV) oxide gas. Sulphur(IV) oxide also decolorizes acidified potassium manganate(VII) from purple MnO_4^- ions to colourless Mn^{2+} ions leaving no yellow residue.

(d)Reduces Iron(III) Fe^{3+} salts to Iron(II) salts Fe^{2+}

Experiment:

- (i)Pass a stream of Hydrogen sulphide gas in a test tube containing about 3 cm³ of Iron (III)chloride solution. or;
- (ii)Place about 3cm³ of Iron (III)chloride solution into a gas jar containing Hydrogen

sulphide gas. Swirl.

Observation:

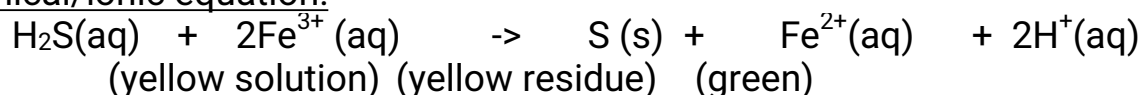
Yellow/brown Iron (III)chloride solution turns to green.

Yellow solid solid

Explanation:

Hydrogen sulphide gas reduces Iron (III)chloride solution from yellow/brown Fe^{3+} ions to green Fe^{2+} ions leaving a yellow residue. The gas is itself oxidized to sulphur.

Chemical/ionic equation:



(e)Reduces Nitric(V)acid to Nitrogen(IV)oxide gas

Experiment:

(i)Pass a stream of Hydrogen sulphide gas in a test tube containing about 3 cm³ of concentrated nitric(V)acid. or;

(ii)Place about 3cm³ of concentrated nitric(V)acid into a gas jar containing Hydrogen sulphide gas. Swirl.

Observation:

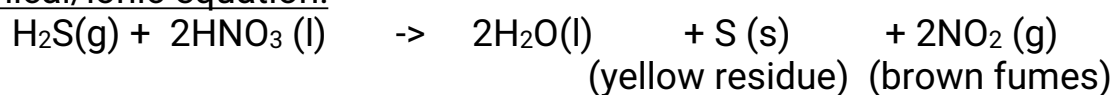
Brown fumes of a gas evolved/produced.

Yellow solid residue

Explanation:

Hydrogen sulphide gas reduces concentrated nitric(V)acid to brown nitrogen(IV)oxide gas itself oxidized to yellow sulphur.

Chemical/ionic equation:



(f)Reduces sulphuric(VI)acid to Sulphur

Experiment:

(i)Pass a stream of Hydrogen sulphide gas in a test tube containing about 3 cm³ of concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid. or;

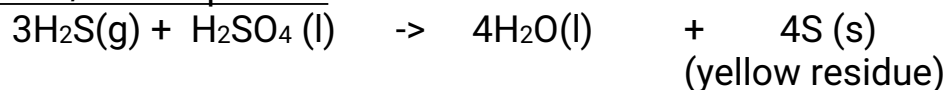
(ii)Place about 3cm³ of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid into a gas jar containing Hydrogen sulphide gas. Swirl.

Observation:

Yellow solid residue

Explanation:

Hydrogen sulphide gas reduces concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid to yellow sulphur.

Chemical/ionic equation:(g) Reduces Hydrogen peroxide to waterExperiment:

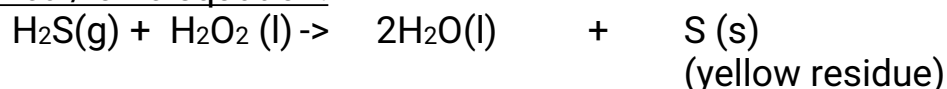
(i) Pass a stream of Hydrogen sulphide gas in a test tube containing about 3 cm³ of 20 volume hydrogen peroxide.

Observation:

Yellow solid residue

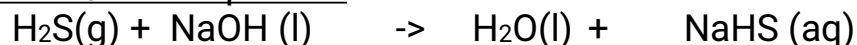
Explanation:

Hydrogen sulphide gas reduces 20 volume hydrogen peroxide to water and itself oxidized to yellow sulphur

Chemical/ionic equation:**8. Name the salt formed when:**

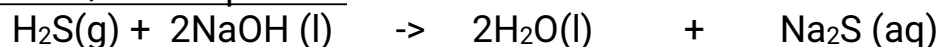
(i) equal volumes of equimolar hydrogen sulphide neutralizes sodium hydroxide solution:

Sodium hydrogen sulphide

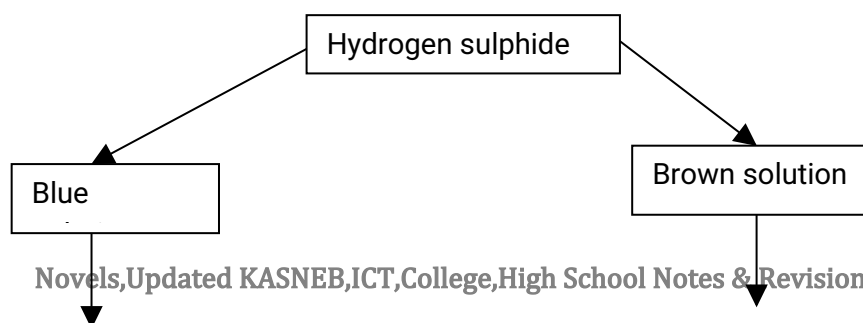
Chemical/ionic equation:

(ii) hydrogen sulphide neutralizes excess concentrated sodium hydroxide solution:

Sodium sulphide

Chemical/ionic equation:**Practice**

Hydrogen sulphide gas was bubbled into a solution of metallic nitrate(V) salts as in the flow chart below



(a) Na₂S (Black solid) solid

Copper(II) sulphate (Green solution)

(b) Identify the cation responsible for the formation of:

I. Blue solution $\text{Cu}^{2+}(\text{aq})$

II. Green solution $\text{Fe}^{2+}(\text{aq})$

III. Brown solution $\text{Fe}^{3+}(\text{aq})$

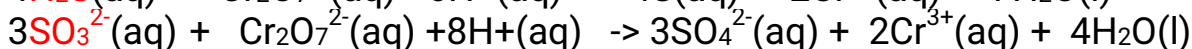
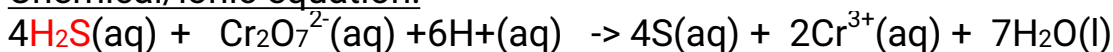
(c) Using acidified potassium dichromate(VI) describe how you would differentiate between sulphur(IV) oxide and hydrogen sulphide

-Bubble the gases in separate test tubes containing acidified Potassium dichromate(VI) solution.

-Both changes the Orange colour of acidified Potassium dichromate(VI) solution to green.

-Yellow solid residue/deposit is formed with Hydrogen sulphide

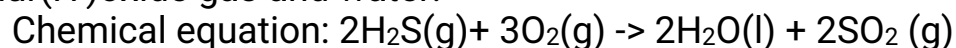
Chemical/ionic equation:



(d) State and explain the observations made if a burning splint is introduced at the mouth of a hydrogen sulphide generator.

Observation Gas continues burning with a blue flame

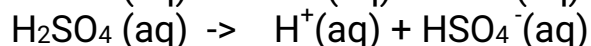
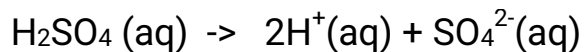
Explanation: Hydrogen sulphide burns in excess air with a blue flame to form sulphur(IV) oxide gas and water.



(v) Sulphate (VI) (SO_4^{2-}) and Sulphate(IV) (SO_3^{2-}) salts

1. Sulphate (VI) (SO_4^{2-}) salts are normal and acid salts derived from Sulphuric (VI) acid H_2SO_4 .
2. Sulphate(IV) (SO_3^{2-}) salts are normal and acid salts derived from Sulphuric (IV) acid H_2SO_3 .
3. Sulphuric (VI) acid H_2SO_4 is formed when sulphur(VI) oxide gas is bubbled in water. The acid exists as a dibasic acid with two ionisable hydrogens. It forms therefore the Sulphate (VI) (SO_4^{2-}) and hydrogen sulphate (VI) (HSO_4^-) salts.

i.e.



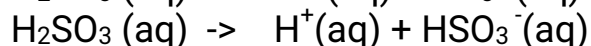
All Sulphate (VI) (SO_4^{2-}) salts **dissolve** in water/are soluble except Calcium (II) sulphate (VI) (CaSO_4), Barium (II) sulphate (VI) (BaSO_4) and Lead (II) sulphate (VI) (PbSO_4)

All Hydrogen sulphate (VI) (HSO_4^-) salts **exist** in solution/dissolved in water. Sodium (I) hydrogen sulphate (VI) (NaHSO_4), Potassium (I) hydrogen sulphate (VI) (KHSO_4) and Ammonium hydrogen sulphate (VI) (NH_4HSO_4) exist also as solids.

Other Hydrogen sulphate (VI) (HSO_4^-) salts do not **exist** except those of Calcium (II) hydrogen sulphate (VI) ($\text{Ca}(\text{HSO}_4)_2$) and Magnesium (II) hydrogen sulphate (VI) ($\text{Mg}(\text{HSO}_4)_2$).

4. Sulphuric (IV) acid H_2SO_3 is formed when sulphur(IV) oxide gas is bubbled in water. The acid exists as a dibasic acid with two ionisable hydrogens. It forms therefore the Sulphate (IV) (SO_3^{2-}) and hydrogen sulphate (IV) (HSO_3^-) salts.

i.e.



All Sulphate (IV) (SO_3^{2-}) salts **dissolve** in water/are soluble except Calcium (II) sulphate (IV) (CaSO_3), Barium (II) sulphate (IV) (BaSO_3) and Lead (II) sulphate (IV) (PbSO_3)

All Hydrogen sulphate (IV) (HSO_3^-) salts **exist** in solution/dissolved in water. Sodium (I) hydrogen sulphate (IV) (NaHSO_3), Potassium (I) hydrogen sulphate (IV) (KHSO_3) and Ammonium hydrogen sulphate (IV) (NH_4HSO_3) exist also as solids.

Other Hydrogen sulphate (IV) (HSO_3^-) salts do not **exist** except those of Calcium (II) hydrogen sulphate (IV) ($\text{Ca}(\text{HSO}_3)_2$) and Magnesium (II) hydrogen sulphate (IV) ($\text{Mg}(\text{HSO}_3)_2$).

$(\text{HSO}_3)_2$.

5. The following experiments show the effect of heat on sulphate(VI) (SO_4^{2-}) and sulphate(IV) (SO_3^{2-}) salts:

Experiment:

In a clean dry test tube place separately about 1.0g of :

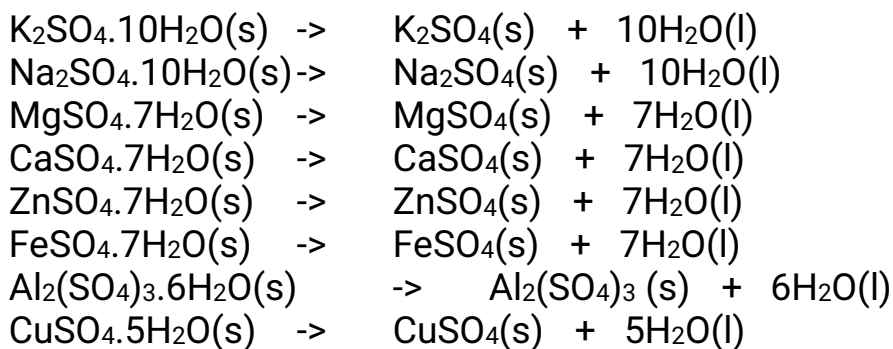
Zinc(II)sulphate (VI), Iron(II)sulphate(VI), Copper(II)sulphate(VI), Sodium (I) sulphate (VI), Sodium (I) sulphate (IV). Heat gently then strongly. Test any gases produced using litmus papers.

Observations:

- Colourless droplets of liquid forms on the cooler parts of the test tube in all cases.
- White solid residue is left in case of Zinc (II)sulphate(VI), Sodium (I) sulphate (VI) and Sodium (I) sulphate (IV).
- Colour changes from green to brown /yellow in case of Iron (II)sulphate(VI)
- Colour changes from blue to white then black in case of Copper (II) sulphate (VI)
- Blue litmus paper remain blue and red litmus paper remain red in case of Zinc(II)sulphate(VI), Sodium (I) sulphate (VI) and Sodium (I) sulphate (IV)
- Blue litmus paper turns red and red litmus paper remain red in case of Iron (II)sulphate(VI) and Copper (II) sulphate (VI).

Explanation

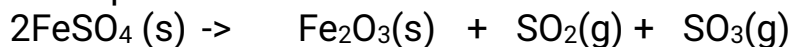
(i) All Sulphate (VI) (SO_4^{2-}) salts exist as **hydrated** salts with water of crystallization that condenses and collects on cooler parts of test tube as a colourless liquid on gentle heating. e.g.



All Sulphate (VI) (SO_4^{2-}) salts do not decompose on heating **except** Iron (II) sulphate (VI) and Copper (II) sulphate (VI).

(i) Iron (II) sulphate (VI) decomposes on strong heating to produce acidic sulphur (IV) oxide and sulphur(VI) oxide gases. Iron(III) oxide is formed as a brown /yellow residue.

Chemical equation



This reaction is used for the school laboratory preparation of small amount of

sulphur(VI)oxide gas.

Sulphur (VI) oxide readily /easily solidifies as white silky needles when the mixture is passed through freezing mixture/ice cold water.

Sulphur (IV) oxide does not.

(ii) Copper(II)sulphate(VI) decomposes on strong heating to black copper (II) oxide and Sulphur (VI) oxide gas.

Chemical equation



This reaction is used for the school laboratory preparation of small amount of sulphur(VI)oxide gas.

6. The following experiments show the test for the presence of sulphate (VI) (SO_4^{2-}) and sulphate(IV) (SO_3^{2-}) ions in a sample of a salt/compound:

Experiments/Observations:

(a)Using Lead(II)nitrate(V)

I. To about 5cm³ of a salt solution in a test tube add four drops of Lead(II)nitrate(V)solution. Preserve.

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt	SO_4^{2-} , SO_3^{2-} , CO_3^{2-} , Cl^- ions

II. To the preserved sample in (I) above, add six drops of 2M nitric(V) acid . Preserve.

Observation 1

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt persists	SO_4^{2-} , Cl^- ions

Observation 2

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt dissolves	SO_3^{2-} , CO_3^{2-} , ions

III.(a)To the preserved sample observation 1 in (II) above, Heat to boil.

Observation 1

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt persists on boiling	SO_4^{2-} ions

Observation 2

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt dissolves on boiling	Cl^- ions

.(b)To the preserved sample observation 2 in (II) above, add 4 drops of acidified potassium manganate(VII) /dichromate(VI).

Observation 1

Observation	Inference
(i)acidified potassium manganate(VII)decolorized (ii)Orange colour of acidified potassium dichromate(VI) turns to green	SO_3^{2-} ions

Observation 2

Observation	Inference
(i)acidified potassium manganate(VII) not decolorized (ii)Orange colour of acidified potassium dichromate(VI) does not turns to green	CO_3^{2-} ions

Experiments/Observations:

(b)Using Barium(II)nitrate(V)/ Barium(II)chloride

I. To about 5cm³ of a salt solution in a test tube add four drops of Barium(II) nitrate (V) / Barium(II)chloride. Preserve.

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt	SO_4^{2-} , SO_3^{2-} , CO_3^{2-} ions

II. To the preserved sample in (I) above, add six drops of 2M nitric(V) acid . Preserve.

Observation 1

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt persists	SO_4^{2-} , ions

Observation 2

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt dissolves	SO_3^{2-} , CO_3^{2-} , ions

III. To the preserved sample observation 2 in (II) above, add 4 drops of acidified potassium manganate(VII) /dichromate(VI).

Observation 1

Observation	Inference
(i) acidified potassium manganate(VII) decolorized (ii) Orange colour of acidified potassium dichromate(VI) turns to green	SO_3^{2-} ions

Observation 2

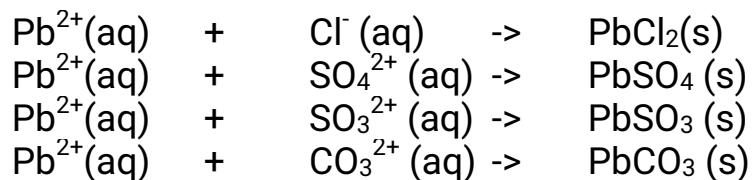
Observation	Inference
(i) acidified potassium manganate(VII) not decolorized (ii) Orange colour of acidified potassium dichromate(VI) does not turn to green	CO_3^{2-} ions

Explanations

Using Lead(II)nitrate(V)

(i) Lead(II)nitrate(V) solution reacts with chlorides(Cl^-), Sulphate (VI) salts (SO_4^{2-}), Sulphate (IV) salts (SO_3^{2-}) and carbonates(CO_3^{2-}) to form the insoluble white precipitate of Lead(II)chloride, Lead(II)sulphate(VI), Lead(II) sulphate (IV) and Lead(II)carbonate(IV).

Chemical/ionic equation:

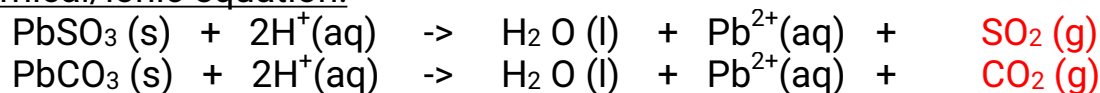


(ii) When the insoluble precipitates are acidified with nitric(V) acid,
 - Lead(II)chloride and Lead(II)sulphate(VI) do not react with the acid and thus

their white precipitates remain/ persists.

- Lead(II) sulphate (IV) and Lead(II)carbonate(IV) reacts with the acid to form **soluble** Lead(II) nitrate (V) and produce/effervesces/fizzes/bubbles out **sulphur(IV)oxide** and **carbon(IV)oxide** gases respectively.

.Chemical/ionic equation:



(iii)When Lead(II)chloride and Lead(II)sulphate(VI) are heated/warmed;

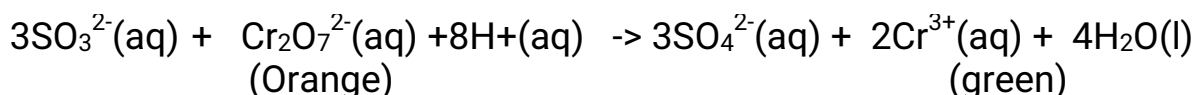
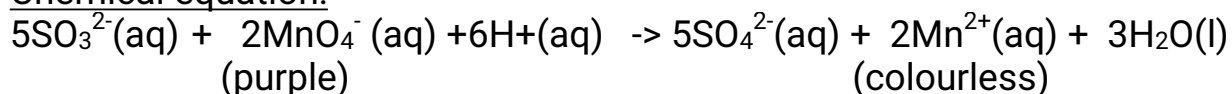
- Lead(II)chloride dissolves in hot water/on boiling(recrystallizes on cooling)

- Lead(II)sulphate(VI) do not dissolve in hot water thus its white precipitate persists/remains on heating/boiling.

(iv)When sulphur(IV)oxide and carbon(IV)oxide gases are produced;

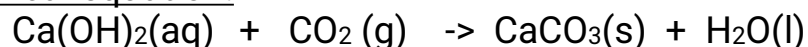
- **sulphur(IV)oxide** will decolorize acidified potassium manganate(VII) and / or Orange colour of acidified potassium dichromate(VI) will turns to green.
Carbon(IV)oxide will not.

Chemical equation:



- **Carbon(IV)oxide** forms an insoluble white precipitate of calcium carbonate if three drops of lime water are added into the reaction test tube when effervescence is taking place. **Sulphur(IV)oxide will not.**

Chemical equation:

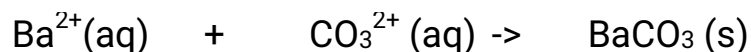
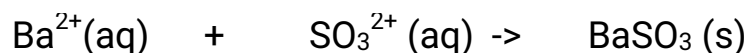
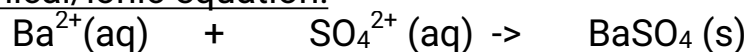


These tests should be done immediately after acidifying to ensure the gases produced react with the oxidizing agents/lime water.

Using Barium(II)nitrate(V)/ Barium(II)Chloride

(i) Barium(II)nitrate(V) and/ or Barium(II)chloride solution reacts with Sulphate (VI) salts (SO_4^{2-}), Sulphate (IV)salts (SO_3^{2-}) and carbonates(CO_3^{2-}) to form the insoluble white precipitate of Barium(II)sulphate(VI), Barium(II) sulphate (IV) and Barium(II)carbonate(IV).

Chemical/ionic equation:

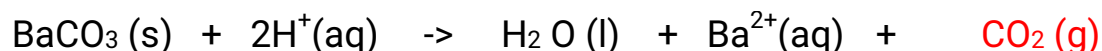
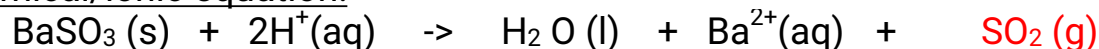


(ii) When the insoluble precipitates are acidified with nitric(V) acid,

- Barium (II)sulphate(VI) do not react with the acid and thus its white precipitates remain/ persists.

- Barium(II) sulphate (IV) and Barium(II)carbonate(IV) reacts with the acid to form **soluble** Barium(II) nitrate (V) and produce /effervesces /fizzes/ bubbles out **sulphur(IV)oxide** and **carbon(IV)oxide** gases respectively.

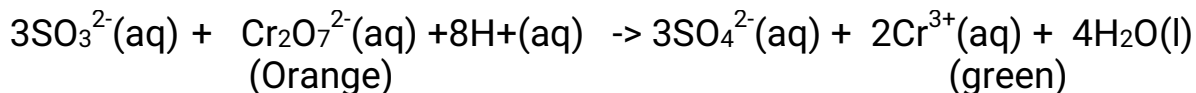
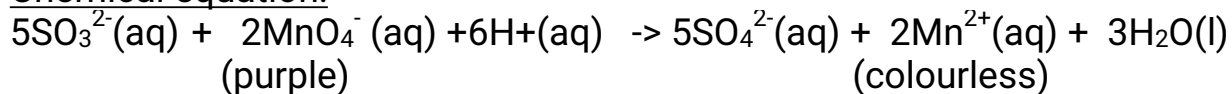
. Chemical/ionic equation:



(iii) When sulphur(IV)oxide and carbon(IV)oxide gases are produced;

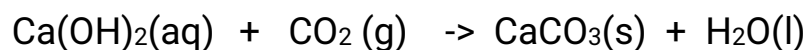
- **sulphur(IV)oxide** will decolorize acidified potassium manganate(VII) and / or Orange colour of acidified potassium dichromate(VI) will turns to green.
Carbon(IV)oxide will not.

Chemical equation:



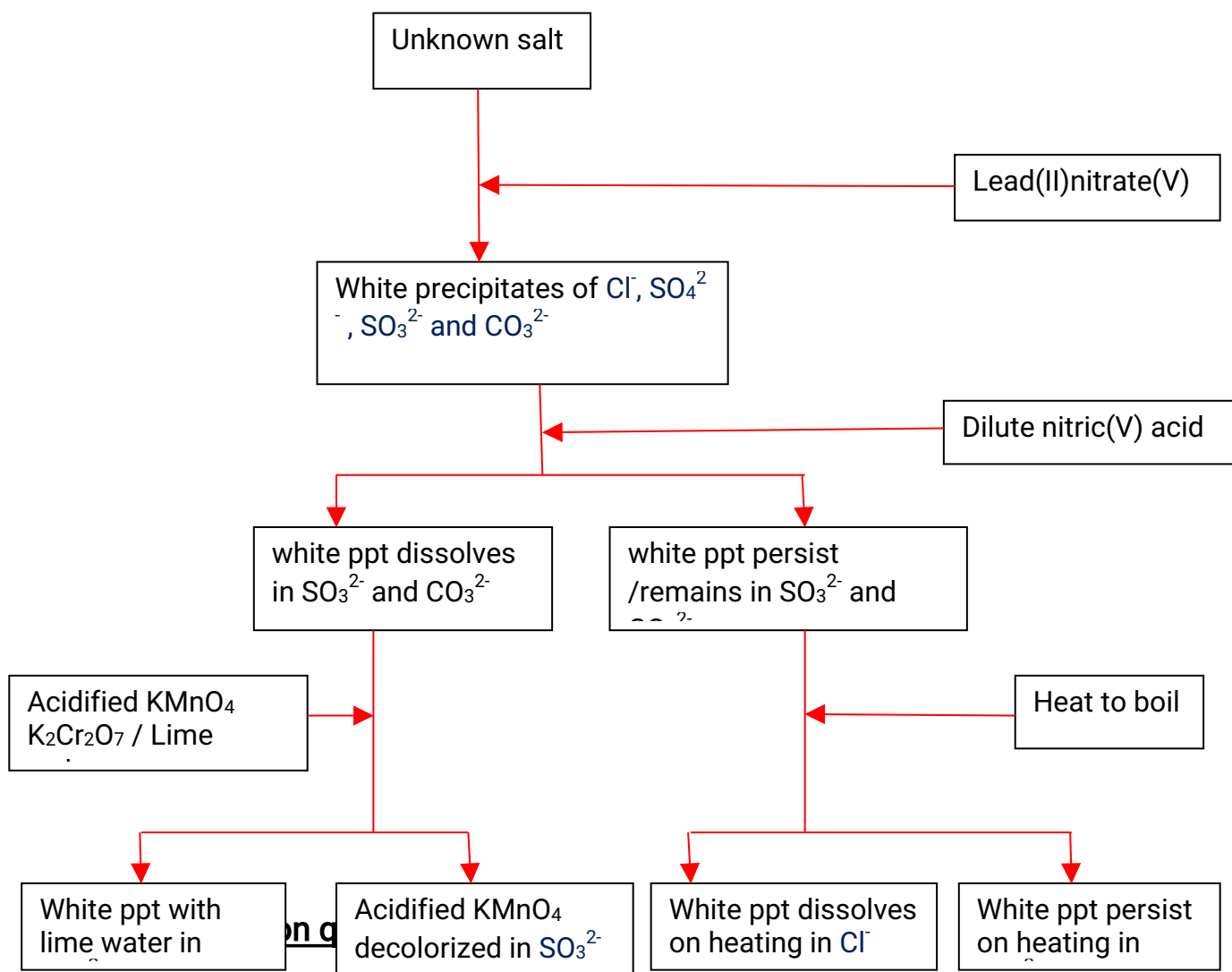
- **Carbon(IV)oxide** forms an insoluble white precipitate of calcium carbonate if three drops of lime water are added into the reaction test tube when effervescence is taking place. **Sulphur(IV)oxide will not.**

Chemical equation:

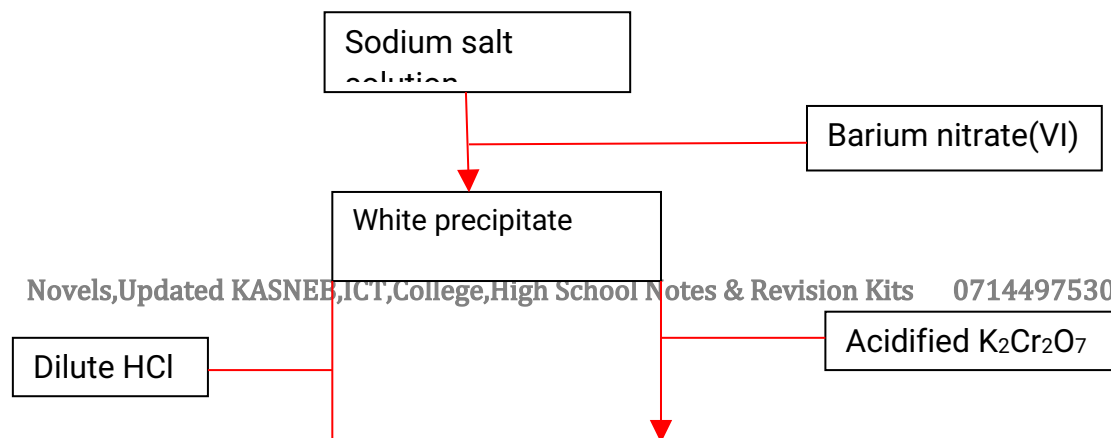


These tests should be done immediately after acidifying to ensure the gases produced react with the oxidizing agents/lime water.

Summary test for Sulphate (VI) (SO_4^{2-}) and Sulphate(IV) (SO_3^{2-}) salts



1. Study the flow chart below and use it to answer the questions that follow



(a) Identify the:

I: Sodium salt solution

Sodium sulphate(IV)/Na₂SO₃

II: White precipitate

Barium sulphate(IV)/BaSO₃

III: Gas G

Sulphur (IV)Oxide /SO₂

IV: Colourless solution H

Barium chloride /BaCl₂

(b) Write an ionic equation for the formation of:

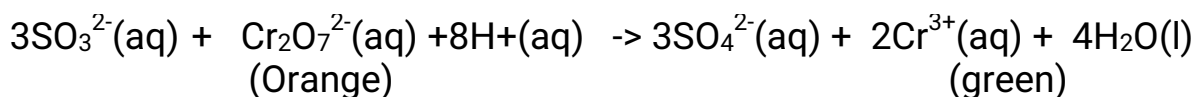
I. White precipitate

Ionic equation Ba²⁺(aq) + SO₃²⁻(aq) -> BaSO₃(s)

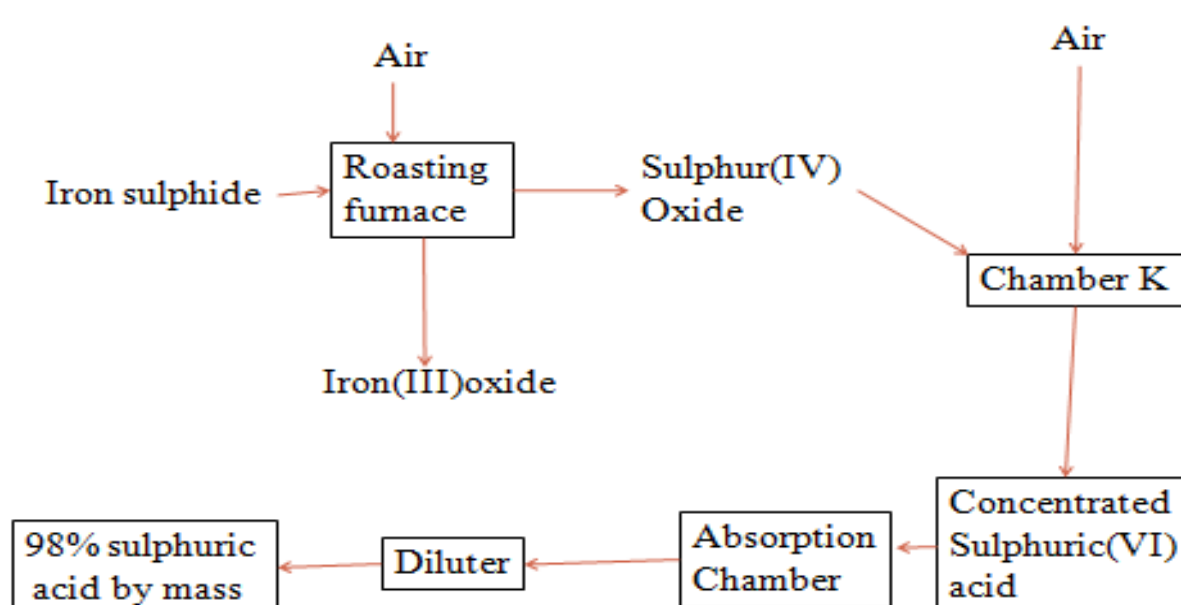
II. Gas G

Ionic equation BaSO₃(s) + 2H⁺(aq) -> SO₂ (g) + H₂O (l) + Ba²⁺(aq)

III. Green solution from the orange solution



2. Study the flow chart below and answer the questions that follow.



(i) Write equation for the reaction taking place at:

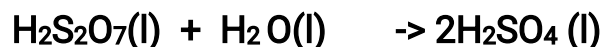
I. The roasting furnace (1mk)



II. The absorption tower (1mk)



III. The diluter (1mk)



(ii) The reaction taking place in chamber K is



I. Explain why it is necessary to use excess air in chamber K

To ensure all the SO_2 reacts

II. Name another substance used in chamber K

Vanadium(V)oxide

3.(a) Describe a chemical test that can be used to differentiate between sodium sulphate (IV) and sodium sulphate (VI).

Add acidified Barium nitrate(V)/chloride.

White precipitate formed with sodium sulphate (VI)

No white precipitate formed with sodium sulphate (IV)

(b) Calculate the volume of sulphur (IV) oxide formed when 120 kg of copper is reacted with excess concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid. (Cu = 63.5, 1 mole of a gas at s.t.p = 22.4 dm³)

Chemical equation



Mole ratio Cu(s) : SO₂ (g) = 1:1

Method 1

$$\begin{aligned} 1 \text{ Mole Cu} &= 63.5 \text{ g} & \rightarrow & 1 \text{ mole SO}_2 = 22.4 \text{ dm}^3 \\ (120 \times 1000) \text{ g} & & \rightarrow & \frac{(120 \times 1000) \text{ g} \times 22.4 \text{ dm}^3}{63.5 \text{ g}} \\ & & & = \underline{\underline{42330.7087}} \end{aligned}$$

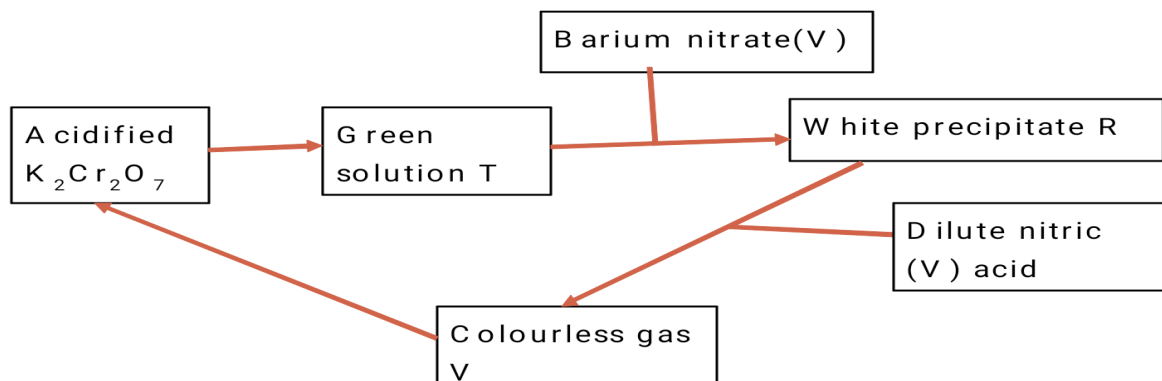
Method 2

$$\text{Moles of Cu} = \frac{(120 \times 1000) \text{ g}}{63.5} = 1889.7639 \text{ moles}$$

$$\text{Moles SO}_2 = \text{Moles of Cu} = 1889.7639 \text{ moles}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Volume of SO}_2 &= \text{Mole} \times \text{molar gas volume} = (1889.7639 \text{ moles} \times 22.4) \\ &= \underline{\underline{42330.7114}} \end{aligned}$$

4. Use the reaction scheme below to answer the questions that follow.



jgthungu@gmail.com

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(a) Identify the:

(i) cation responsible for the green solution T



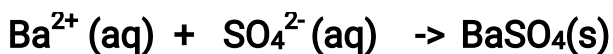
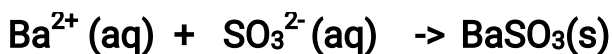
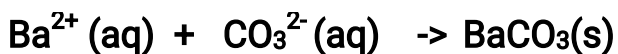
(ii) possible anions present in white precipitate R



(b) Name gas V

Sulphur (IV) oxide

(c) Write a possible ionic equation for the formation of white precipitate R.



CONTENTS

A. Chlorine.

B. The Halogens.

C. Hydrogen chloride.

D. Chloride (Cl^-) salts.

E. Comprehensive revision questions.

A.CHLORINE

Chlorine is a non-metallic element in group VII (Group 17) of the periodic table. It has electronic configuration 2:8:7. It gains one valence electron to form stable Cl^- ion, it belongs to the chemical family of halogens.

Occurrence

-As Brine-concentration sodium chloride solution dissolved in salty seas water, oceans and lakes e.g. Lake Magadi in Kenya is very salty.

-As rock-salt solid sodium chloride crystals in the earth's crust all over the world.

B) Preparation

Chlorine gas may be prepared in the school laboratory from the following:

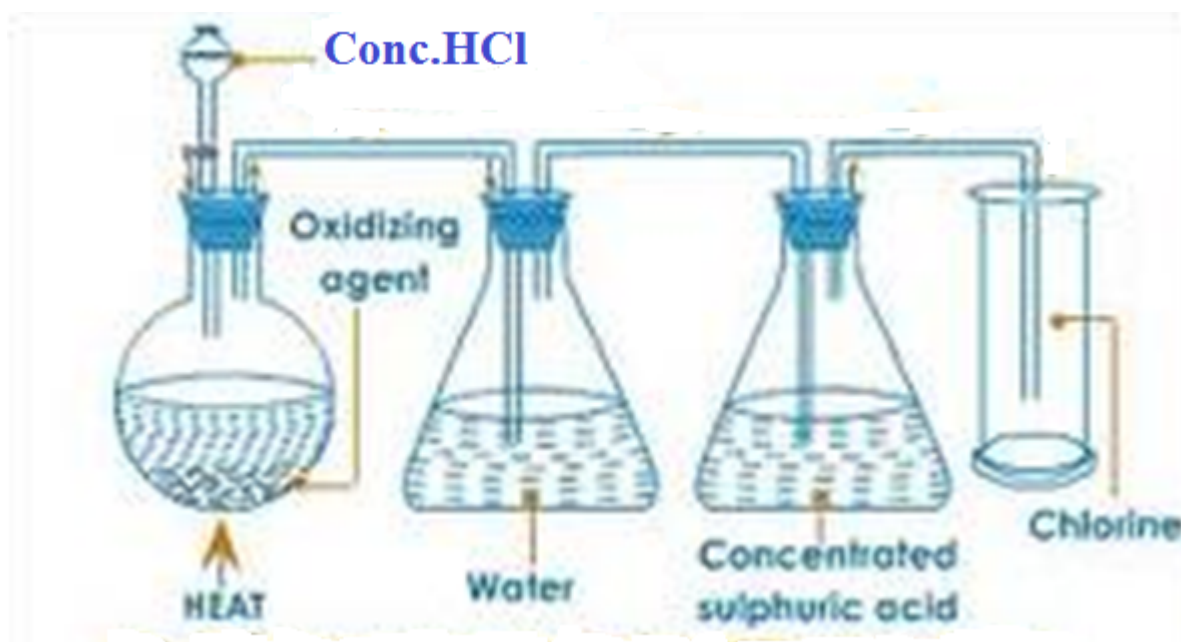
a) Heating solid Manganese (IV) Oxide and Concentrated Hydrochloric acid.

b) Heating Lead (IV) Oxide and concentrated hydrochloric acid.

c) Reacting Potassium Manganate (VII) with concentrated Hydrochloric acid

d) Reacting Potassium /sodium Dichromate (VI) Acid with Concentrated Hydrochloric acid.

Set up of school laboratory preparation of chlorine.



Preparation of Chlorine from Conc. HCl and Oxidizing agent

c) Properties of chlorine. (Questions)

1. What is the colour of chlorine?

Pale green.

2. Describe the smell of chlorine.

Pungent irritating smell.

3. What method is used in collection of chlorine gas explain.

-Downward delivery.

-Chlorine is $1\frac{1}{2}$ denser than air.

4.(i) What is the purpose of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid.

-To dry the gas.

(ii) Name two other substances that can be used in place of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid.

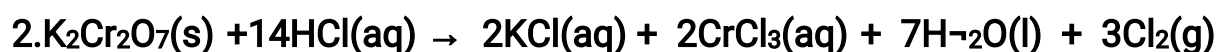
-Calcium chloride

-Silica gel

(iii) Name a substance that cannot be used in place of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid explain.

-Calcium oxide reacts with chlorine.

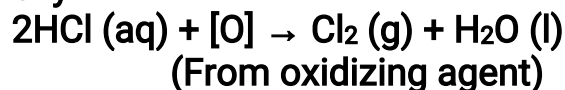
5.(a) Write three possible reactions between concentrated hydrochloric acid and the oxidizing agents.



(b) Why is Hydrochloric acid used in all the above cases?

Oxidizing agents $\text{KMnO}_4/\text{PbO}_2/\text{MnO}_2/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7/\text{Na}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ readily oxidize hydrochloric acid to chlorine themselves reduced to their chlorides.

Generally:



6. State and explain the observation made when chlorine is bubbled in water.

Observation

-Pale yellow colour of chlorine fades.

-yellow solution formed.

Explanation

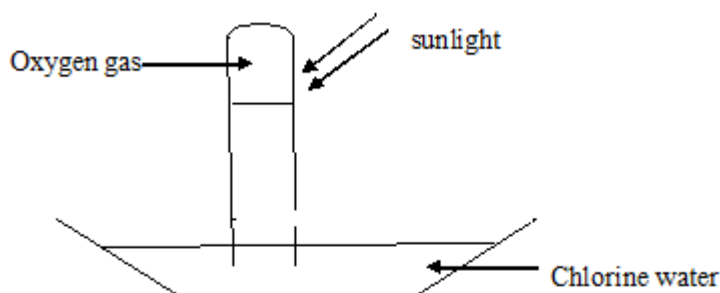
Chlorine dissolves then reacts with water to form yellow chlorine water. Chlorine water

is chemically a mixture of hydrochloric acid and chloric(I)acid (hypochlorous acid).
A mixture of hydrochloric acid and chloric(I)acid (hypochlorous acid) is commonly called Chlorine water

Chemical equation:



7. Chlorine water in a boiling tube inverted into a trough was exposed to sunlight for two hours. Using a well labeled diagram show and explain the observations made.



Chlorine (I) acid is an unstable compound.

After two hours the chloric (I) acid in chlorine water decomposes to hydrochloric acid and releases oxygen gas. This reaction takes place in sunlight.

Chemical equation



8. State and explain the observation made when chlorine gas is bubbled in gas jar containing damp/wet/moist litmus papers.

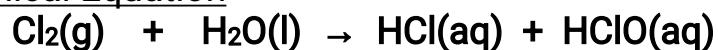
Observation

The blue litmus turns red then both the red/blue litmus papers are bleached/decolourized.

Explanation

Chlorine reacts with water in the litmus papers to form acidic hydrochloric acid and chloric (I) acid that turns blue litmus papers red.

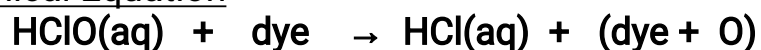
Chemical Equation

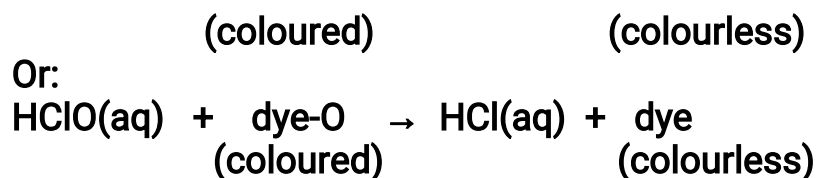


Explanation

Unstable chloric (I) acid oxidizes the dye/colored litmus paper to colourless material

Chemical Equation





NB Chlorine does not therefore bleach/decolourize dry litmus paper/dye because chloric(I) acid cannot be formed in absence of water.

9. Blue litmus papers were put in a flask containing cold dilute sodium hydroxide. Chlorine gas was bubbled into the solution. State and explain the observations made.

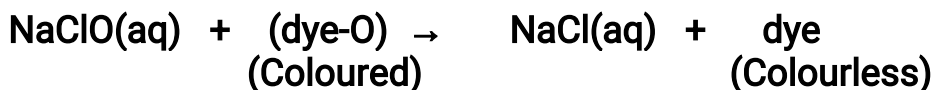
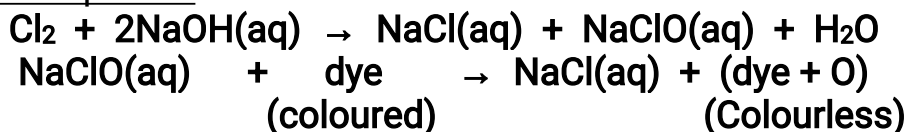
Observation

**blue litmus papers were bleached /decolorized.
Pale green colour of chlorine fades.**

Explanation

-Sodium hydroxide reacts with chlorine to form sodium chloride and sodium hypochlorite. Sodium hypochlorite bleaches dyes by oxidation.

Chemical Equation



10. Blue litmus papers were put in flask containing hot concentrated sodium hydroxide. Chlorine gas was bubbled into the solution. State and explain the observations made.

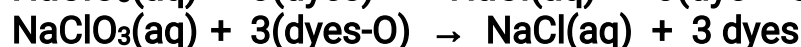
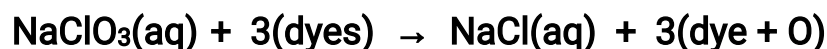
Observation.

**blue litmus papers were bleached.
Pale green colour of chlorine fades.**

Explanation

Hot concentrated sodium hydroxide reacts with chlorine to form sodium chloride and sodium chlorate (V). Sodium chlorate (V) bleaches by oxidation.

Chemical equation



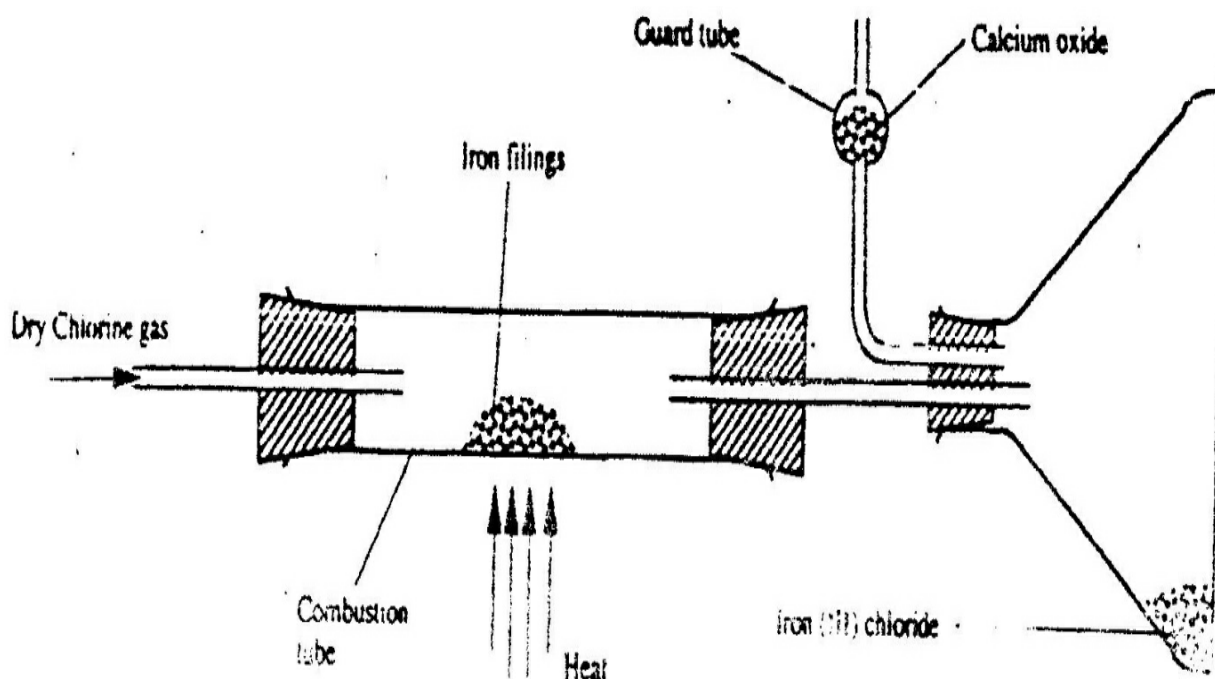
NaClO_3 is also a weed killer

11. State three main use of chlorine gas.

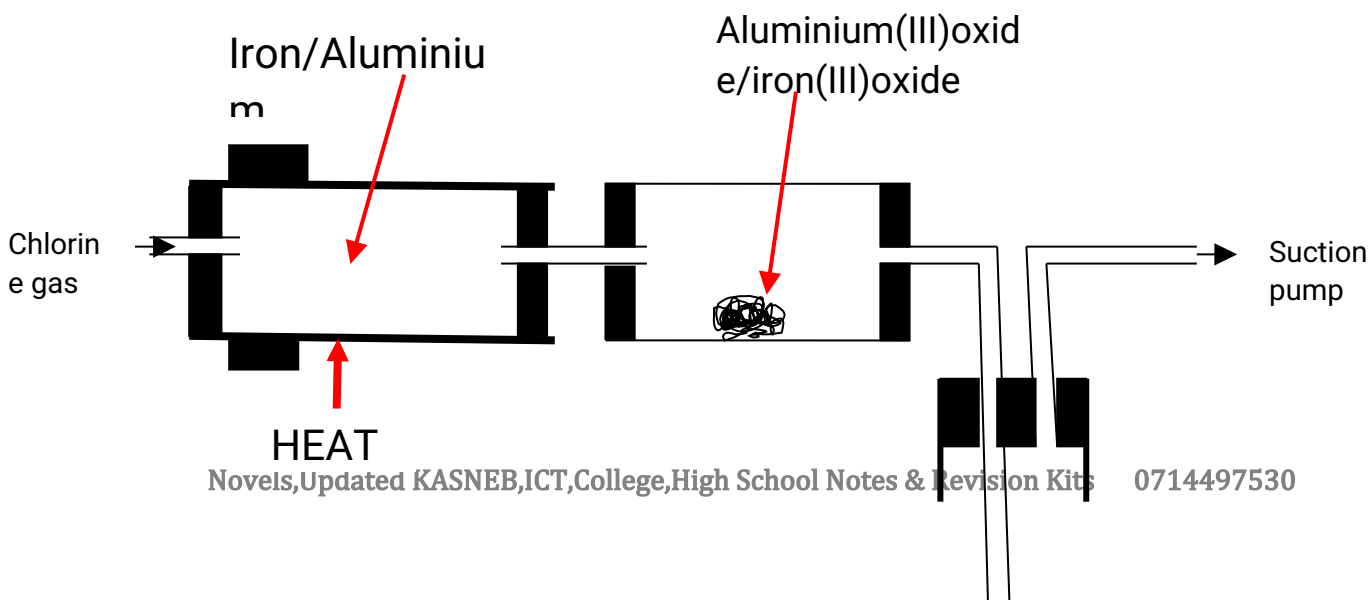
- Manufacture of polyvinyl chloride (P.V.C) // polychloroethene pipes.
- Manufacture of hydrochloric acid used in "Pickling" of metals.
- Manufacture of bleaching agents
- Chlorination of water to kill germs.

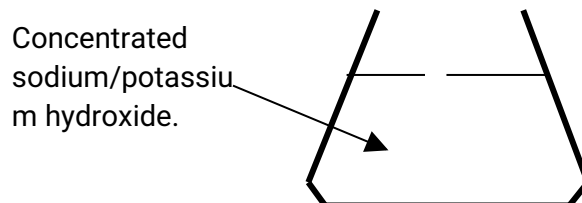
12. The diagram below shows the effect of chlorine on heated iron wool.

Method I



Method II





- a) Identify a suitable drying agent to dry chlorine gas.
 -Conc. H_2SO_4 / Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid.
 -Anhydrous Calcium (II) Chloride.
 -Silica gel
- b) State and explain the observations made in combustion tube in method I and II

Observation

Iron glows red hot
Brown crystals are formed

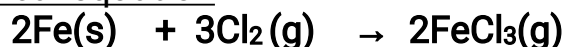
Explanation

Iron reacts with chlorine to form dark brown crystals of iron (III) Chloride.

This reaction is exothermic and requires no farther heating once started.

Iron (III) Chloride sublimates away ensuring the unreacted Iron completely reacts with chlorine gas.

Chemical equation



- c) (i) Why is the brown solid collected at the point as shown in method I and II.
-Heated iron (III) Chloride crystals sublime to gas and solidify on the cooler parts.

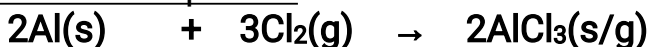
- (ii) Name another metal that can be used in place of iron to react with chlorine and collected at similar point on heating explain.

Metal Aluminum

Explanation

Aluminum reacts with chlorine to form a white sublimate of aluminum (III) chloride at the cooler parts

Chemical equation



- d) What is the purpose of suction pump?
To pull the gaseous products into the set up.

- e) What is the function of:
 (i) Sodium hydroxide in method II. Explain.

To absorb poisonous/toxic excess unreacted chlorine gas.

Sodium hydroxide reacts with chlorine to form sodium chloride, Sodium hypochlorite and water.

Chemical equation:



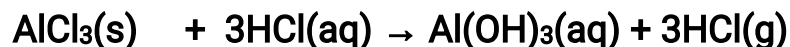
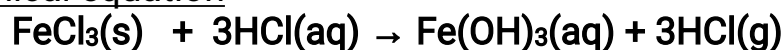
(ii) Anhydrous calcium chloride/calcium oxide in method I. Explain.

To absorb moisture/water in the set up to prevent it from hydrolyzing iron (III) chloride/aluminium oxide.

Explanation

Iron (III) chloride and Aluminium chloride fumes and reacts with small traces of water to form a solution of iron (III) hydroxide/aluminium hydroxide and hydrogen chloride gas.

Chemical equation



f) Based on e (i) and (ii) above what precaution should be made in:

(i) method II to ensure correct results.

-Tube B should be completely dry to prevent hydrolysis of iron (III) Chloride to iron (III) hydroxide.

(ii) Carrying out method I

-Should be done in a fume chamber or in the open because chlorine gas is poisonous/toxic.

(g) Name another substance that can be used place of Sodium hydroxide in method I
Potassium hydroxide

(h) Calcium oxide cannot be used in place of calcium chloride during preparation of chlorine. Explain.

Calcium oxide is a base. It reacts /absorbs water to form calcium hydroxide solution.

Calcium hydroxide reacts with chlorine to form a mixture of calcium chloride and calcium hypochlorite.

Chemical equation



13. (a) State and explain the observation made when a piece of burning magnesium ribbon is lowered in a gas jar containing chlorine gas.

-Magnesium ribbon continues burning with a bright flame.

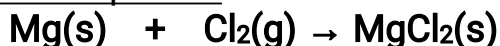
-White solid formed.

-Pale yellow colour of chlorine fades

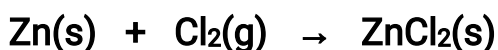
Explanation:

Magnesium reacts with chlorine forming a white solid of magnesium chloride.

Chemical equation



(b) Write the equation for the reaction that takes place if zinc is used.



14. Burning phosphorus was lowered in a gas jar containing chlorine gas.

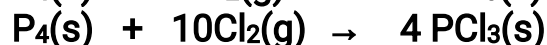
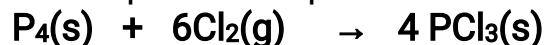
a) State the observations made.

-Phosphorus continues to burn.

-Dense white fumes formed.

-Pale green colour of chlorine fades.

b) Write two possible equations that take place.



(c) State two reasons why the deflagrating spoon with lid/cover should be used.

-Chlorine in the gas jar is poisonous/toxic.

-Burning phosphorus produces poisonous/toxic phosphorus (III) chloride // phosphorus (V) chloride.

-Ensure the reaction is not affected by air/oxygen from the atmosphere.

(d) After the reaction is complete, 2cm³ of distilled water were added. The solution formed was tested with both blue and red litmus papers.

(i) State the observations made.

-Blue litmus paper turns red

-Red litmus paper remain red

(ii) Explain the observation made in d(i) above

-Phosphoric (V) Chloride hydrolyze in water to phosphoric (V) acid and produce hydrogen chloride gas. Both hydrogen chloride and phosphoric (V) acid are acidic.

Chemical equation

15. State and explain the observations made when gas jar containing chlorine is inverted over another containing hydrogen sulphide gas.

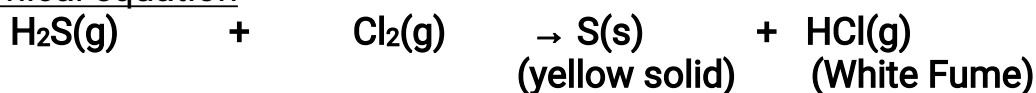
Observation

Yellow solid formed.

Pale colour of chlorine fades

Explanation

Chlorine oxidizes hydrogen sulphide to sulphur itself reduced to hydrogen chloride gas. A little water catalyzes the reaction.

Chemical equation

16. Chlorine was bubbled in aqueous ammonia solution in a beaker state and explain the observation made.

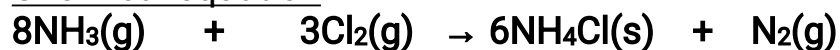
Observation:

White fumes evolved.

Pale green colour of chlorine fades.

Explanation

Chlorine reacts with ammonia gas to form a dense white fume of ammonia chloride and Nitrogen gas is produced.

Chemical equation

17. (a) Dry gas was bubbled in cold dilute sodium hydroxide solution. Explain the observations made:

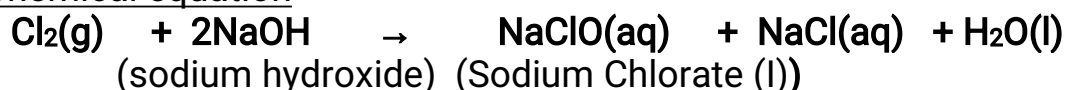
Observation

Pale green colour of chlorine fades.

Pale yellow solution is formed.

Explanation

Chlorine reacts with hot concentrated sodium hydroxide / Potassium hydroxide solution to form pale yellow solution of metal chlorate (V) and chlorides of the metal

Chemical equation

(b) The experiment in 17(a) was repeated with hot concentrated sodium hydroxide solution. Explain the observation made.

Observation

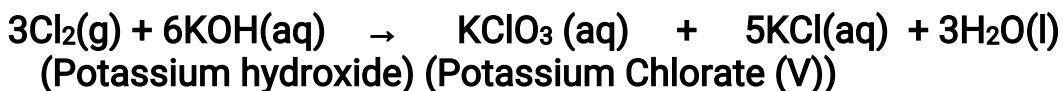
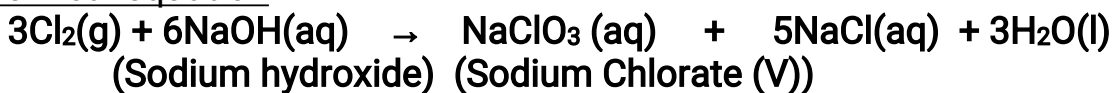
Pale green colour of chlorine fades.

Pale yellow solution is formed.

Explanation

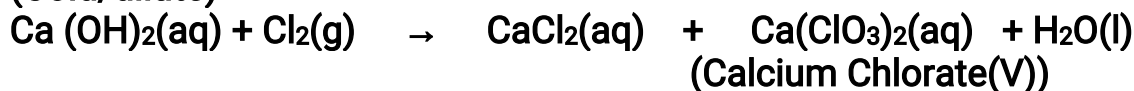
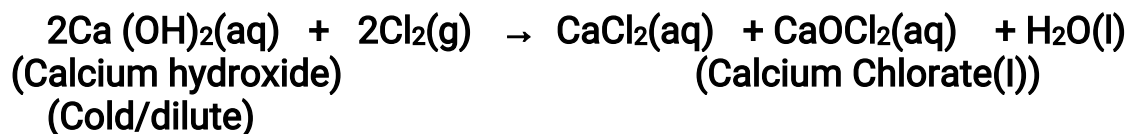
Chlorine reacts with hot concentrated Sodium hydroxide/Potassium hydroxide solution to form pale yellow solution of metal chlorate (v) and chlorides of metals.

Chemical equation



The products formed when chlorine reacts with alkalis depend thus on temperature and the concentration of alkalis.

(c) (i) Write the equation for the formation of calcium chlorite (I) and calcium chlorate (V).



B: THE HALOGENS

a) What are halogens?

These are elements in group VII of the periodic table. They include:

Element	Symbol	Atomic number	Electric configuration	Charge of ion	Valency	State at Room Temperature
Fluorine	F	9	2:7	F ⁻	1	Pale yellow gas
Chlorine	Cl	17	2:8:7	Cl ⁻	1	Pale green gas
Bromine	Br	35	2:8:18:7	Br ⁻	1	Red liquid
Iodine	I	53	2:8:18:18:7	I ⁻	1	Grey Solid
Astatine	At	85	2:8:18:32:18:7	At ⁻	1	Radioactive

- b) Compare the atomic radius and ionic radius of chloride ion and chlorine. Explain.
The radius of chlorine is smaller than the ionic radius of the chloride ion.
Effective nucleus attraction on outer energy level in chloride ion is less than chlorine atom because of extra gained electron gained electron that repelled thus causes the outer energy level to expand/increase.
- c) Compare the atomic radius of chlorine and fluorine Explain.
Atomic radius of Fluorine is smaller than that of chlorine.
Chlorine has more energy levels than fluorine occupied by more electrons.
- d) Chlorine is a gas, Bromine is a liquid, Iodine is a solid. Explain the above observations.
-Bromine, Chlorine and iodine exists as diatomic molecules bonded by strong covalent bond. Each molecule is joined to the other by weak intermolecular forces/ Van-der-waals forces.
-The strength of intermolecular/Van-der-waals forces of attraction increase with increase in molecular size/atomic radius. Iodine has therefore the largest atomic radius and thus strongest intermolecular forces to make it a solid.
- e) (i) What is electronegativity?
Electronegativity is the tendency/ease of acquiring /gaining electrons by an element during chemical reaction.
It is measured using Pauling's scale.
Fluorine with Pauling scale 4.0 is the most electronegative element in the periodic table and thus the highest tendency to acquire/gain extra electron.
- (ii) The table below shows the electronegativity of the halogens.

Halogen	F	Cl	Br	I	At
Electronegativity (Pauling's scale)	4.0	3.0	2.8	2.5	2.2

Explain the trend in electronegativity of the halogens.

Decrease down the group from fluorine to Astatine

Atomic radius increase down the group decreasing electron – attracting power down the group from fluorine to astatine.

- (f) (i) What is electron affinity
Electron affinity is the energy required to gain an electron in an atom of an element in its gaseous state.

(ii) Study the table below showing the electron affinity of halogens for the process



Halogen	F	Cl	Br	I
Electron affinity kJmol^{-1}	-333	-364	-342	-295

(iii) Explain the trend in electron affinity of the halogens.

-Decrease down the group

-Atomic radius of halogens increase down the group thus incoming/gained electron is attracted less strongly by the progressively larger atoms with a decreasing effective nuclear charge on outer energy level

(iv) Which is a more stable ion Cl^{-} or Br^{-} explain?

- Cl^{-} ion.

-Has a more negative/exothermic electron affinity than Br^{-}

(v) Differentiate between electron affinity and:

I. Ionization energy.

Ionization energy is the energy required to lose /donate an electron in an atom of an element in its gaseous state while electron affinity is the energy required to gain/acquire extra electron by an atom of an element in its gaseous state. Both are measured in kilojoules per mole.

II. Electronegativity.

-Electron affinity is the energy required to gain an electron in an atom of an element in gaseous state. It involves the process:



Electronegativity is the ease/tendency of gaining/ acquiring electrons by an element during chemical reactions.

It does not involve use of energy but theoretical arbitrary Pauling's scale of measurements.

(g) (i) 5cm^3 of sodium chloride, Sodium bromide and Sodium iodide solutions were put separately in test tubes. 5 drops of chlorine water was added to each test tube: state and explain the observation made.

Observation

Yellow colour of chlorine water fades in all test tubes except with sodium chloride.

-Coloured Solution formed.

Explanation

Chlorine is more electronegative than bromine and iodine. On adding chlorine water, bromine and iodine are displaced from their solutions by chlorine.

- (ii) The experiment in g (i) was repeated with 5 drops of bromine water instead of chlorine water .explain the observation made.

Observation

Yellow colour of bromine water fades in test tube containing sodium iodide.

- Brown solution formed in test tube containing sodium iodide

Explanation

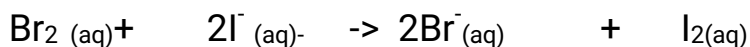
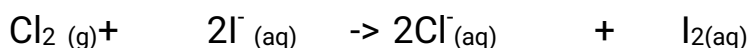
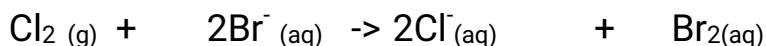
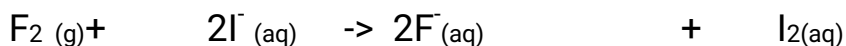
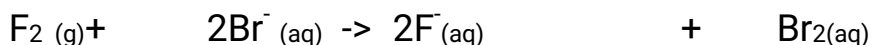
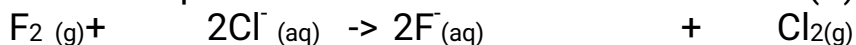
Bromine is more electronegative than iodide but less than chlorine.

On adding Bromine water, iodide displaced from its solution but not chlorine.

- (iii) Using the knowledge in g(i) and (ii) above,
I. Complete the table below using (X) to show no reaction and (✓) to show a reaction.

Halide ion Halogen ion in solution Halogen	F ⁻	Cl ⁻	Br ⁻	I ⁻
F ₂	X	✓	✓	✓
Cl ₂	X	X	✓	✓
Br ₂	X	X	X	✓
I ₂	X	X	X	✓

Write an ionic equation for the reaction where there is (V)



(h) State one uses of:

(i) Fluorine

Manufacture of P.T.F.E (Poly tetra fluoroethene) synthetic fiber.

Reduce tooth decay when added in small amounts/equations in tooth paste.

Note: large small quantities of fluorine /fluoride ions in water cause browning of teeth/flourosis.

Hydrogen fluoride is used to engrave word pictures in glass.

(ii) Bromine

Silver bromide is used to make light sensitive photographic paper/films.

(iii) Iodide

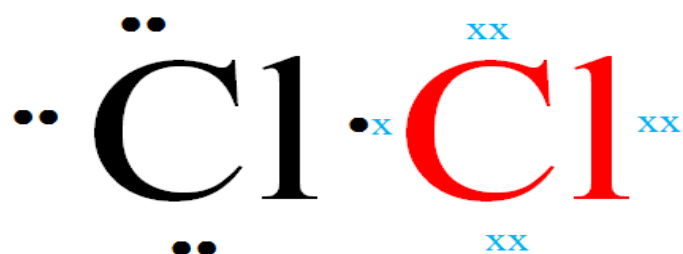
Iodine dissolved in alcohol is used as medicine to kill bacteria in skin cuts. It is called tincture of iodine.

(i) The table below to show some compounds of halogens.

Element \ Halogen	H	Na	Mg	Al	Si	C	P
F	HF	NaF	MgH ₂	AlF ₃	SiF ₄	CF ₄	PF ₃
Cl	HCl	NaCl	MgCl	AlCl ₃	SiCl ₃	CCl ₄	PCl ₃
Br	HBr	NaBr	MgBr ₂	AlBr ₃	SiBr ₄	CBr ₄	PBr ₃
I	HI	NaI	MgI ₂	AlI ₃	SiI ₄	Cl ₂	Pb ₃

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(j) (i) Using dot (.) and Cross (x) to represent electrons, show the bonding in chlorine molecule.



Cl₂ (diatomic molecule)

(ii) Name the type of bond formed.
Covalent.

(iii) Below is the table showing the bond energy of four halogens.

Bond	Bond energy k J mole ⁻¹
Cl-Cl	242
Br-Br	193
I-I	151

I. What do you understand by the term “bond energy”

Bond energy is the energy required to break/ form one mole of chemical bond

II. Explain the trend in bond Energy of the halogens above:

-Decrease down the group from chlorine to Iodine

-Atomic radius increase down the group decreasing the energy required to break the covalent bonds between the larger atom with reduced effective nuclear charge an outer energy level that take part in bonding.

(k) Some compounds of chlorine are in the table below the oxidation state of chlorine in each compound.

Compound	Oxidation state	Name of compound
NaClO ₃	+5	Sodium chlorate (V)

ClO_2	+4	Chloric (IV) oxide
KClO_2	+3	Potassium chlorate (III)
NaClO	+1	Sodium Chlorite (I)
Cl_2	0	Chlorine Molecule
NaCl	-1	Sodium Chloride (I)
MgCl_2	-1	Magnesium Chloride (I)

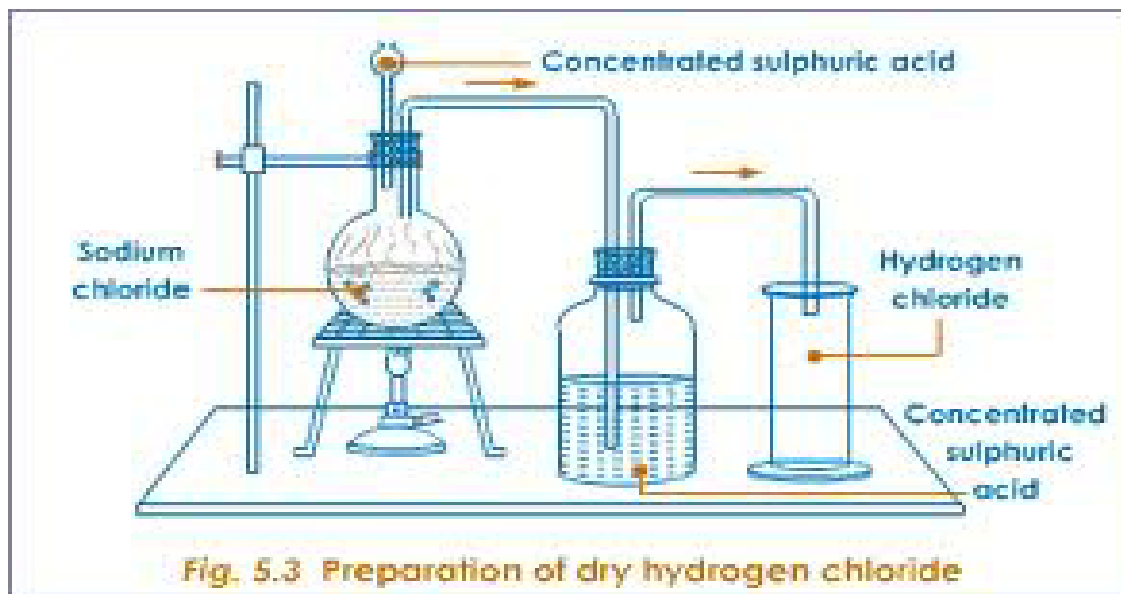
C. HYDROGEN CHLORIDE

a) Occurrence

Hydrogen Chloride does not occur free in the atmosphere or in nature

b) Preparation

Hydrogen chloride may be prepared in the school laboratory by reacting solid sodium/potassium chloride crystals with concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid as in the set up below.



c) Properties of hydrogen chloride gas(questions)

1. What precautions should be taken when handling concentrated sulphuric acid? Explain.

- Wear protective clothing/gloves to avoid accidental contact with skin.
- Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is highly corrosive-it causes painful wounds when in contact with skin.

2. What method of gas collection is used? Explain.

- Downward delivery// upward displacement of water
- Hydrogen chloride is denser than air.

3. a) Write the equation for the reaction that takes place.



NaCl is commonly used because it is cheaper than KCl

b) What property of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is used during the above reaction

- is the least volatile mineral acid, thus displace the more volatile hydrogen chloride from its salt (KCl/NaCl)

d)i)What is the purpose of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid.

-Drying agent / to dry the gas.

ii) What property of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is used during the above use.

-Is hygroscopic – absorbs water but do not form solution.

iii) Name another substance which can be used to dry chlorine gas.

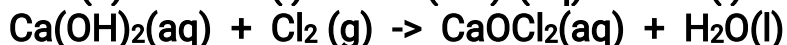
-anhydrous Calcium chloride

- silica gel

iv)Using a chemical equation, explain why anhydrous calcium oxide cannot be used in flask B

**-Calcium oxide reacts with water /moisture to form calcium hydroxide.
The calcium hydroxide formed reacts with chlorine to form calcium hypochlorite.**

Chemical equations:



This reduces the amount of Chlorine produced.

d)Blue and red litmus papers were dipped in the hydrogen chloride prepared above. The Procedure was repeated with damp/wet/moist litmus papers. Explain the differences in observations made.

-Dry blue litmus papers remain blue

-Dry red litmus papers remain red

-Damp/moist/wet blue litmus papers turn red

-Damp/moist/wet red litmus paper turns red.

-Dry hydrogen chloride is a **molecular compound that is joined by covalent bonds between the atoms. The gas is **polar** thus dissolves in water and ionize completely to free H^+ that are responsible to turning blue litmus paper red.**

e)Dry hydrogen chloride gas was bubbled in two separately beakers containing water and in methylbenzene.

(i)Classify the two solvents as either “polar” or “non-polar”

Water – **polar**

Methylbenzene – **non-polar**

(ii) State and explain the observations made in the beaker containing:

(i)Methylbenzene

Colour of litmus solution remain.

Hydrogen chloride is a molecular substance. When dissolved in **non-polar** solvent, it does not dissociate / ionize to release H^+ ions that changes the colour of litmus solution.

(ii)Water

Colour of litmus solution change to red.

Hydrogen chloride is a molecular substance. When dissolved in **polar** solvent like water, it dissociate/ionize to release H^+ ions that changes litmus solution to red.

(iii)Why should an inverted filter funnel be used to dissolve hydrogen chloride.

- The filter funnel is dipped just below the water surface to increase the surface area of dissolving the gas and prevent suck back.

(iv)Name the solution formed when hydrogen chloride dissolves in water.

Hydrochloric acid

(f) Describe the test for presence of hydrogen chloride gas.

-Dip a glass rod in ammonia. Bring it to the mouth of a gas jar containing a gas suspected to be hydrogen chloride

-White fumes of ammonia chloride are formed.

(g) Place 5cm^3 of dilute hydrochloric acid into a four separate test tubes. To separate test tube add zinc, magnesium iron and copper metals. State and explain the observations made.

Observation

- Effervescence/bubbles/fizzing in all cases except copper
- Colourless solution formed with zinc and magnesium.
- Green solution formed with iron.
- Gas produced that extinguishes splint with explosion.

Explanation

Metals above hydrogen in reactivity series react with hydrochloric and liberating hydrogen gas.

Chemical Equation:

Concentrated hydrochloric acid is a weak oxidizing agent than other concentrated acids i.e Sulphuric (VI) acid and nitric (V) acid that react with all metals even those lower in the reactivity series.

(h) Place 5cm^3 of dilute hydrochloric acid into five separate test tubes. To separate test tubes, add calcium carbonate, silver carbonate, copper carbonate, iron (II) carbonate and Sodium hydrogen carbonate. Explain the observations made.

Observation

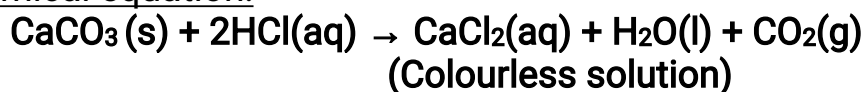
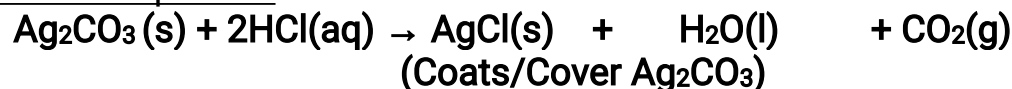
Effervescence/bubbles/fizzing vigorously except in silver carbonate and lead (II) carbonate that stop later.

- Colourless solution formed except with iron (II) carbonate and copper (II) carbonate
- Green solution formed with iron (II) carbonate
- Blue solution formed with copper (II) carbonate

Explanation.

Carbonates and hydrogen carbonate react with dilute hydrochloric acid to produce carbon (IV) oxide, water and form chlorides.

All chlorides formed are soluble Except Lead (II) Chloride (soluble on heating/warming) and silver chloride.

Chemical equation:Chemical equation:Chemical equation:Chemical equation:Chemical equation:

- (i) Place 5cm³ of dilute sodium hydroxide, Potassium hydroxide and aqueous ammonia solution into three separate test tubes. Add one drop of phenolphthalein indicator drop wise, add dilute hydrochloric acid. Explain the observations made.

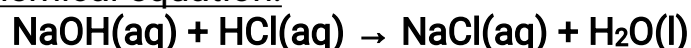
Observation

Colour of Phenolphthalein indicator change from pink to colourless.

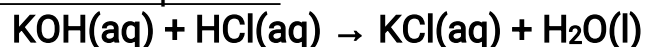
Explanation

Hydrochloric acid neutralizes alkalis to salt and water

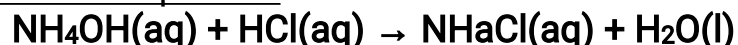
When all the alkali has reacted with the acid, An extra slight **excess** acid turns the indicator used to colourless.

Chemical equation:

Chemical equation:



Chemical equation:



- (j) Place 5cm³ of hydrochloric acid into four separate test tube tubes Separately add about 1g of each of copper (II) Oxide, Zinc (II) Oxide, Lead (II) Oxide< Calcium (II) Oxide. What happens to each test tube? Explain.

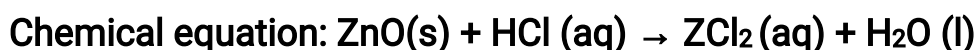
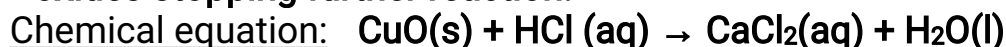
Observation:

All Solid dissolves except Lead (II) Oxide

Colourless solution formed with zinc Oxide and calcium (II) Oxide blue solution formed with copper (II) Oxide.

Explanation:

Metal oxides dissolves in dilute hydrochloric acid to form water and chloride salt Insoluble Lead (II) chloride and silver chloride once formed cover/coat unreacted oxides stopping further reaction.



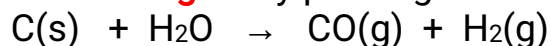
(k) Manufacture of Hydrochloric acid.

(i) Raw Materials

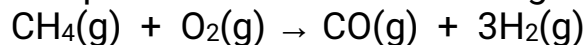
1. Hydrogen

(i) During **electrolysis** of Brine from the flowing mercury-cathode cell during the manufacture of sodium hydroxide solution.

(ii) From **water gas** by passing steam in heated charcoal.



(iii) From partial oxidation of natural gas/methane



2. Chlorine

(i) From electrolysis of **fused**/solid sodium chloride in the Downs process during extraction of sodium

(ii) From electrolysis of **brine**/concentrated sodium chloride solution in the

flowing mercury-cathode during the manufacture of sodium hydroxide solution.

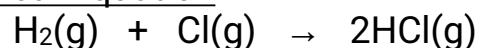
(ii) Chemical processes.

- Hydrogen and chlorine gases are separately passed through concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid to act as a **drying** agent.
- Small amount of pure hydrogen is continuously ignited in a chamber with **continous** supply of pure dry chlorine.

Large amount of hydrogen explodes.

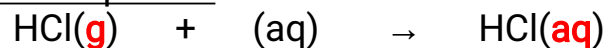
- Hydrogen burns in chlorine to form hydrogen chloride gas.

Chemical Equation



- The hydrogen chloride produced is then passed up to meet a downward flow of water in the **absorbtion** chambers. Hydrogen chloride is very soluble in water and dissolves to form **35%** concentrated hydrochloric acid.

Chemical Equation



The absorption chamber is shelved and packed with broken glass beads to

(i) Slow down the downward flow of water.

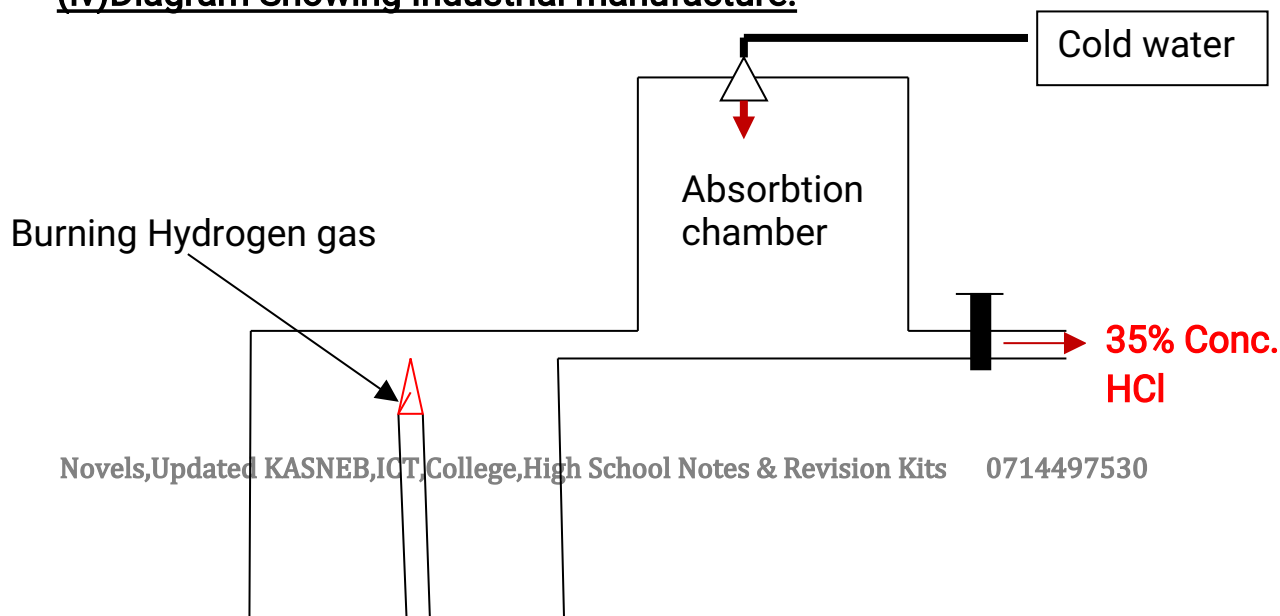
(ii) Increase surface area over which the water dissolves

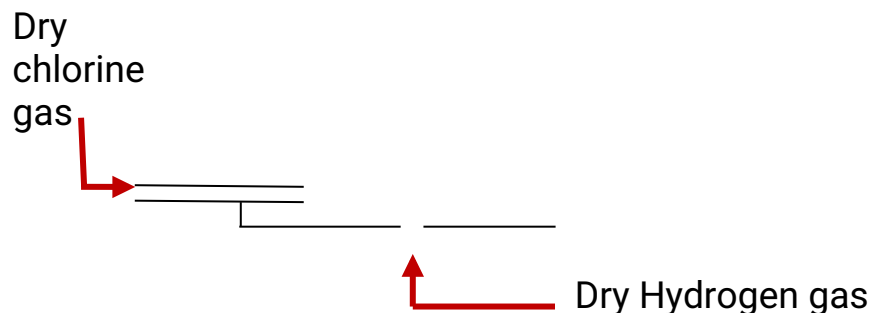
The hydrochloric acid is then transported in steel tanks lined with rubber for market

(iii) Uses of Hydrochloric Acid

- To standardize the pH of (alcohol and wines)
- Regenerating ion-exchange resin during removal of hardness of water.
- Pickling of metals to remove oxide layers on their surfaces.
- In the manufacture of dyes and drugs.
- Making zinc chloride for making dry cells.

(iv) Diagram Showing Industrial manufacture.





(ii) Environmental effects of manufacturing HCl.

- Hydrochloric acid is acidic. Any leakage from a manufacturing plant to nearby rivers/lake causes excess acidity that lowers pH of water killing marine life.
- Hydrogen chloride leakage into atmosphere dissolves to form “acidic rain” that accelerate corrosion in buildings, Breathing problems to human beings and kill fauna and flora around the plant.
- Chlorine leakage causes breathing and sight problems to human being. It accelerates bleaching of dyed metals.
- Hydrogen leakage can cause an explosion because impure hydrogen explodes on ignition.

(ii) Factors considered in setting hydrochloric acid manufacturing plant.

1. Nearness to the manufacturing of sodium hydroxide because the by products of electrolysis of brine are the raw materials for hydrochloric acid plant.
2. Availability of natural gas for extraction of hydrogen.
3. Nearness/Availability of water to dissolve the hydrogen chloride gas.
4. Availability of labour, market, capital and good means of transport.

D: CHLORIDE (Cl⁻) SALTS

(a) Occurrence.

1. Chlorides are salts derived from hydrochloric acid. Hydrochloric acid is a monobasic (HX) salt with only one ionizable/replaceable "H" in its molecule. All chlorides are therefore normal salts.
2. All metals exist as chloride salt except platinum and gold as below

Metal	K	Na	Li	Mg	Ca	Al	Zn	Fe	Pb	H.	Cu	Ag	Hg
Formula of chloride	KCl	NaCl	LiCl	MgCl ₂	CaCl ₂	AlCl ₃	ZnCl ₂	FeCl ₂ FeCl ₃	PbCl PbCl ₄	HCl	CuCl CuCl ₂	AgCl	Hg ₂ Cl ₂ HgCl ₂

(i) Both FeCl₂ and FeCl₃ exists but FeCl₂ is readily oxidized to FeCl₃ because it is more stable.

(ii) PbCl₂ and PbCl₄ exist but PbCl₄ is only oxidized to form PbCl₂ by using excess chlorine. It is less stable.

(iii) CuCl and CuCl₂ exists but CuCl₂ is (thermodynamically) more stable than CuCl. CuCl disproportionate to Cu and CuCl₂.

(iv) HgCl and HgCl₂ exists as molecular compounds.

3. All chlorides are soluble/dissolves in water **except** silver chloride (AgCl), Copper (I) chloride CuCl, Mercury (I) Chloride Hg₂Cl₂ and Lead (II) Chloride PbCl₂ that dissolves in **warm** water.
4. Most chlorides are very stable compounds. They **do not** decompose on gentle or strong bunsen burner heating in a school laboratory except **Ammonium Chloride**.

5. Heating ammonium chloride

Place about 2g of solid ammonium chloride crystals in a clean dry boiling tube. Heat gently then strongly.

Observation

- red litmus paper turn blue
- blue litmus paper remains blue

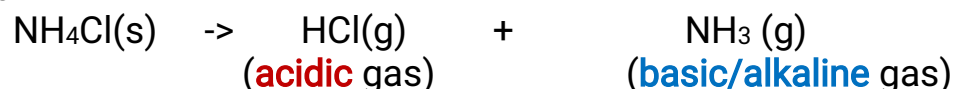
Then later:

- both blue litmus papers turn red

Explanation:

Ammonium chloride on heating decomposes through **chemical sublimation** to ammonia and hydrogen chloride gas. Ammonia gas is **less dense** than hydrogen chloride. It is a **basic** gas and diffuses out **faster** to turn red litmus paper to **blue**. Hydrogen chloride is an **acidic** gas. It is denser than ammonia gas and thus diffuses **slower** than ammonia gas to turn the already both blue litmus paper to **red**.

Chemical equation



(b) Test for Cl⁻ ions

1. The following experiment shows the test for the presence of Cl⁻ ions in **solids** chloride salts.

(a) Procedure:

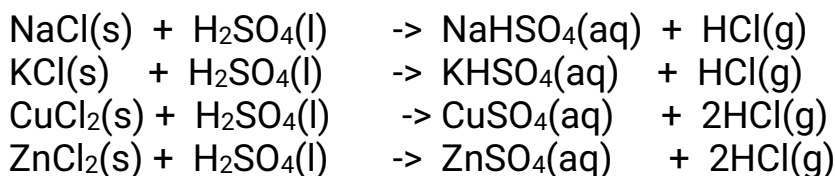
Place about 1g of sodium chloride, Zinc chloride and copper (II) chloride in separate boiling tubes. Place moist blue and red litmus papers on the mouth of the test tube. Carefully, add three drops of concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid. Dip a glass rod in aqueous ammonia solution then bring it to the mouth of the boiling tube.

observation	inference
-red litmus paper remain red	H ⁺ ions
-blue litmus paper turn red	
-vigorous effervescence/fizzing /bubbling	Cl ⁻ ions
-white fumes produced on	HCl gas suspected

(b)Explanation:

Concentrated sulphuric (VI) acid is the less volatile mineral acid.

It vigorously displaces chlorine in metal chlorides to evolve acidic hydrogen chloride gas fumes.

Chemical equation

Hydrogen chloride and ammonia gases react and form **white fumes** of ammonium chloride that confirms presence of **Cl⁻** ions in the **solid** substance.

Chemical equation

2. The following experiment shows the test for the presence of **Cl⁻ ions** in **solution** / **aqueous** chloride salts.

(i)Using aqueous Lead (II) nitrate(V)**(a)Procedure:**

I.Place about 5cm³ of sodium chloride, Iron (III) chloride and copper (II) chloride in separate boiling tubes. Add four drops of Lead (II) nitrate(V) solution to each. Preserve.

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt	SO_4^{2-} , SO_3^{2-} , Cl^- , CO_3^{2-}

II.To the preserved sample, add six drops of nitric (V) acid. Preserve.

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt persist	SO_4^{2-} , Cl^-

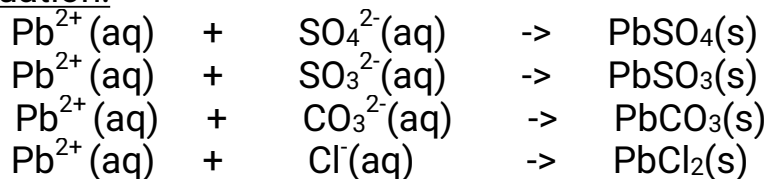
III. To the preserved sample, heat the mixture to boil

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt dissolves on boiling/warming	Cl^-

Explanation:

I. When Lead(II) nitrate(V) solution is added to an unknown salt, a **white precipitate/ppt** of Lead(II) sulphate(VI) Lead(II) carbonate(IV) Lead(II) sulphate(IV) Lead(II) chloride(I) are formed.

Ionic equation:



II. When the white precipitate/ppt formed is acidified with dilute **nitric(V) acid**, the white precipitate of Lead(II) sulphate(VI) and Lead(II) chloride(I) **persist/remain** while that of Lead(II) carbonate(IV) and Lead(II) sulphate(IV) **dissolves**.

III. On **heating /warming** Lead (II) chloride (I) **dissolves** but on cooling it **recrystallizes**. This shows the presence of **Cl⁻ ions** in **aqueous** solutions.

(ii) Using aqueous silver (I) nitrate(V)

Procedure

I. Place about 5cm³ of sodium chloride, Iron (III) chloride and copper (II) chloride in separate boiling tubes. Add four drops of silver(I) nitrate(V) solution to each. Preserve.

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt	Cl ⁻ , CO ₃ ²⁻

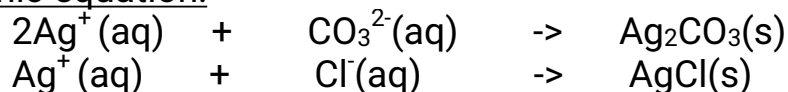
II. To the preserved sample, add six drops of nitric (V) acid. Preserve.

Observation	Inference
White precipitate/ppt persist	Cl ⁻

Explanation:

I. When silver(I) nitrate(V) solution is added to an unknown salt, a **white precipitate /ppt** of silver(I) carbonate(IV) and silver(I) chloride(I) are formed.

Ionic equation:



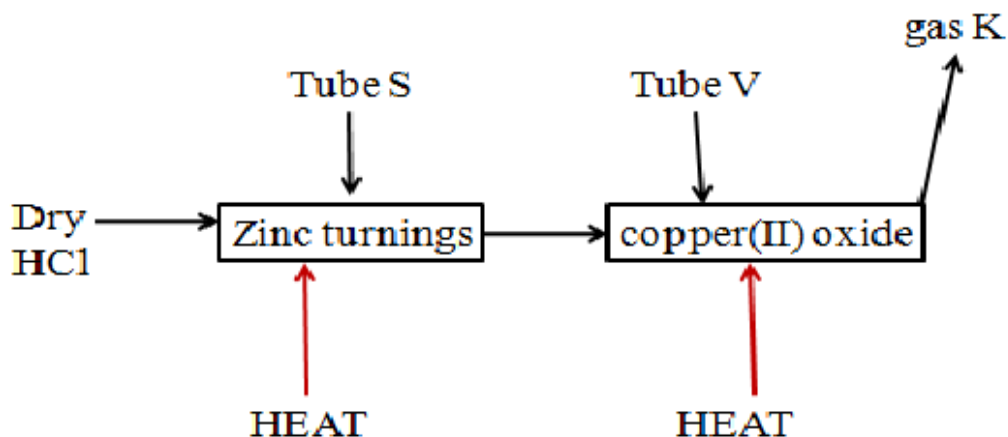
II. When the white precipitate/ppt formed is acidified with dilute **nitric (V) acid**, the white precipitate of silver (I) chloride (I) **persist/remain**. This shows the presence of

Cl⁻ ions in **aqueous solutions**.

Silver (I) carbonate (IV) **dissolves** when reacted with nitric (V) acid.

COMPREHENSIVE REVISION QUESTIONS

1. In an experiment ,dry hydrogen chloride gas was passed through heated zinc turnings as in the set up below.The gas produced was the passed through copper(II) oxide



a) Write the equation for the reaction :

(i) For the school laboratory preparation of hydrogen chloride gas.



(ii) in tube S



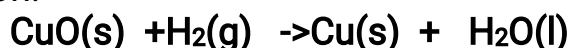
b) State and explain the observation made in tube V.

Observations-**colour of solid changes from black to brown**

-colourless liquid forms on the cooler parts of tube V

Explanation-**Hydrogen produced in tube S reduces black copper(II) oxide to brown copper metal and the gas oxidized to water vapour that condense on cooler parts..**

Chemical equation.



(c) How would the total mass of tube S and tube V and their contents compare before and after the experiment.

Tube S- **Mass increase/rise because Zinc combine with chlorine to form heavier Zinc Chloride.**

Tube V- **Mass decrease/falls/lowers because copper (II) oxide is reduced to lighter copper and oxygen combine with hydrogen to form water vapour that escape.**

2. Chlorine is prepared by using solid sodium chloride, concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid and potassium manganate(VII)

a) What is the role of the following in the reaction;

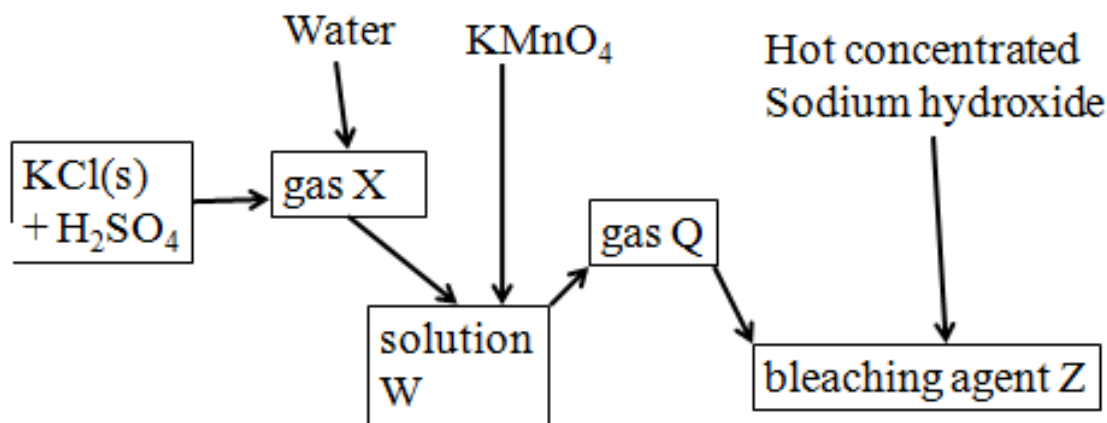
(i) concentrated sulphuric(VI)

To produce hydrogen chloride gas by reacting with the solid sodium chloride.

(ii) potassium manganate(VII)

To oxidize hydrogen chloride gas to chlorine

3. Use the flow chart below to answer the questions that follow.



a)(i) Name:

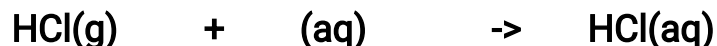
gas X	Hydrogen chloride
solution W	hydrochloric acid
gas Q	chlorine
bleaching agent Z	sodium chlorate(V)

b) Write the chemical equation for the formation of :

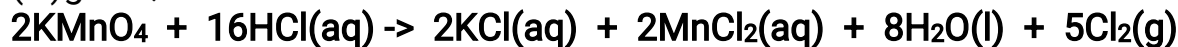
(i) gas X



(ii) solution W



(iii) gas Q



(iv) bleaching agent Z

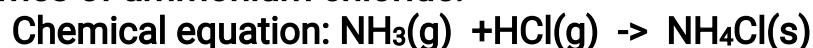


c) State and explain the following observations;

(i) a glass rod dipped in aqueous ammonia is brought near gas X

Observation: Dense white fumes

Explanation: Ammonia gas reacts with hydrogen chloride gas to form dense white fumes of ammonium chloride.

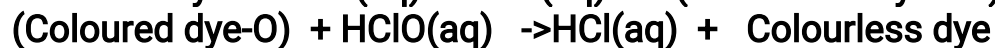
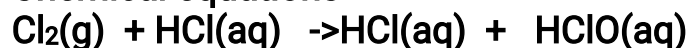


(ii) Wet blue and red litmus papers were dipped into gas Q

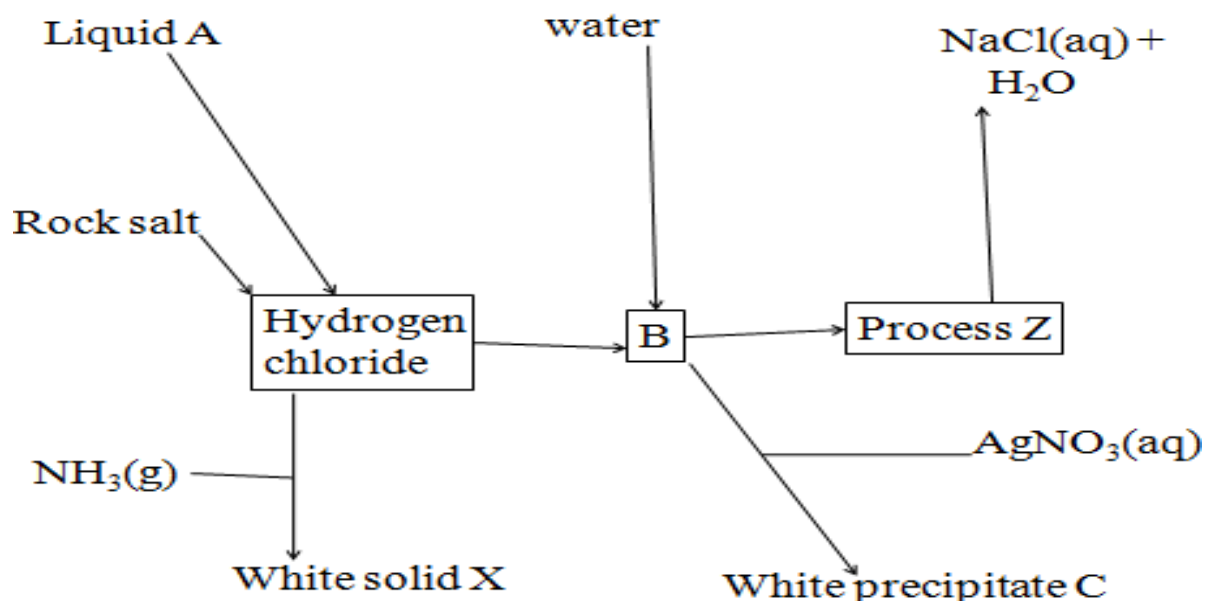
Observations: Blue litmus paper turned red the both are bleached /decolorized.

Explanations: chlorine reacts with water to form both acidic hydrochloric and chloric (I) acids that turn blue litmus paper red. Unstable chloric (I) acid oxidizes the dye in the papers to colourless.

Chemical equations



4. Use the flow chart below to answer the questions that follow



a) Name

Liquid A

Concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid

Process Z

Neutralization

White solid X

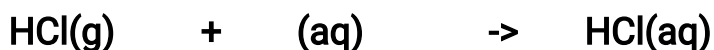
Ammonium chloride

b) Write the equation for the formation of:

(i) Hydrogen chloride



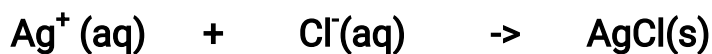
(ii) B



(iii) process Z (using ionic equation)



(iv) C (using ionic equation)



c) Describe how solution B is obtained.

Bubbling hydrogen chloride gas through inverted funnel into distilled water until no more dissolve.

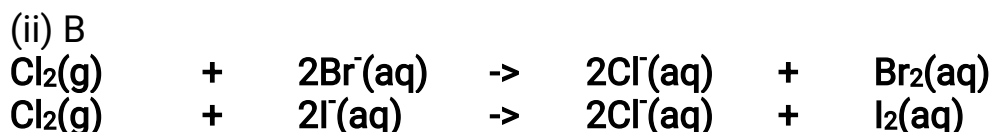
5 The results obtained when halogens are bubbled into test tubes containing solutions of halide A, B and C is as in the table below. Tick(v) means a reaction took place. Cross(x) means no reaction took place.

Halogens	Halide ions in solution		
	A	B	C
I ₂	x	-	x
Br ₂	x	v	-
Cl ₂	-	v	v

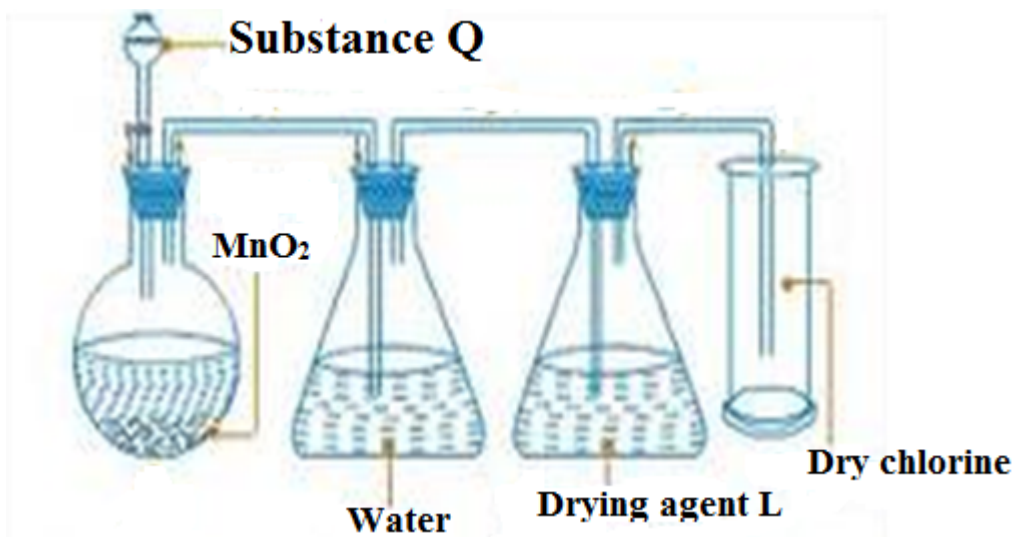
a) Identify the halide ions represented by letter

A Cl⁻
 B I⁻
 C Br⁻

b) Write the ionic equation for the reaction that take place with halide:



6. The diagram below shows a set up of apparatus for the school laboratory collection of dry chlorine gas.



a) Name:

(i) substance Q

Concentrated hydrochloric acid

(ii) suitable drying agent L

-Concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid

-anhydrous calcium chloride

-silica gel

b) State a missing condition for the reaction to take place faster.

-Heat/Heating

c) Red and blue litmus papers were dipped into the chlorine gas from the above set up. State and explain the observations made.

Observation: Blue litmus paper remain blue. Red litmus paper remain red.

Explanation: Dry chlorine has no effect on dry litmus papers.

d) Write the equation for the reaction taking place in the conical flask



e) Name two other substances that can be used in place of MnO_2

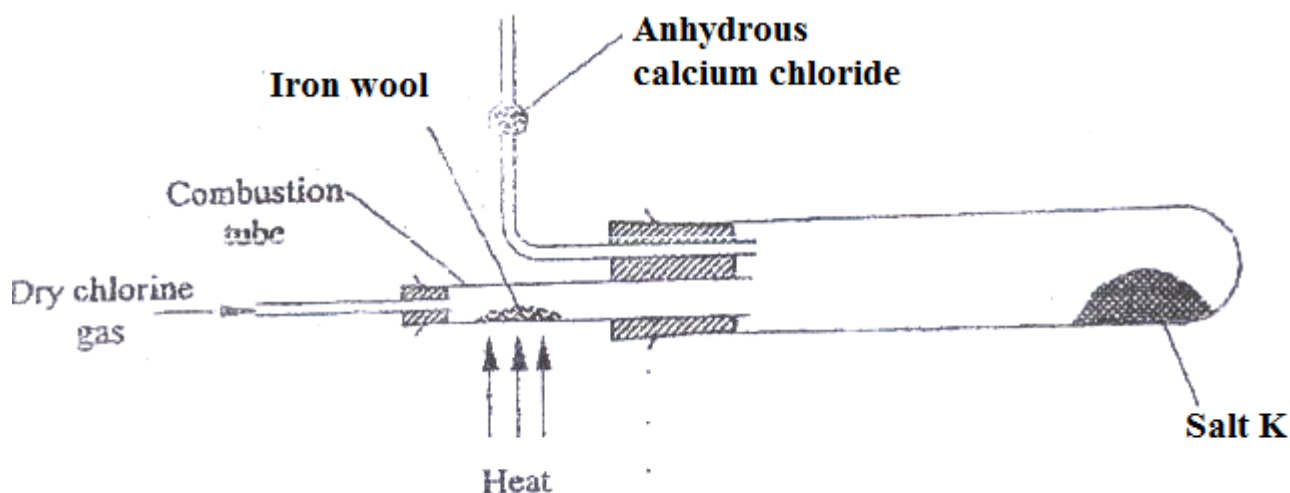
Lead(IV) oxide (PbO_2)

Potassium manganate(VI) (KMnO_4)

Potassium dichromate ($\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_4$)

Bleaching powder (CaOCl_2)

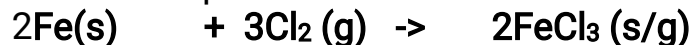
7. The set up below shows the apparatus used to prepare and collect anhydrous iron(III) chloride.



a) Name salt K

Iron(III) chloride

b) Write the equation for the reaction for the formation of salt K



c) State and explain the following

(i) Small amount of water is added to iron (II) chloride in a test tube then shaken

Solid dissolves to form a green solution. Iron(II) chloride is soluble in water

(ii) I. Three drops of aqueous sodium hydroxide is added to aqueous iron(II) chloride and then added excess of the alkali.

Observation:

Green precipitate is formed that persist/remain /insoluble in excess alkali.

Explanation:

Iron(II) chloride reacts with aqueous sodium hydroxide to form a green precipitate of iron(II) hydroxide.

Ionic equation:



II. Six drops of hydrogen peroxide is added to the mixture in d(ii) above.

Observation:

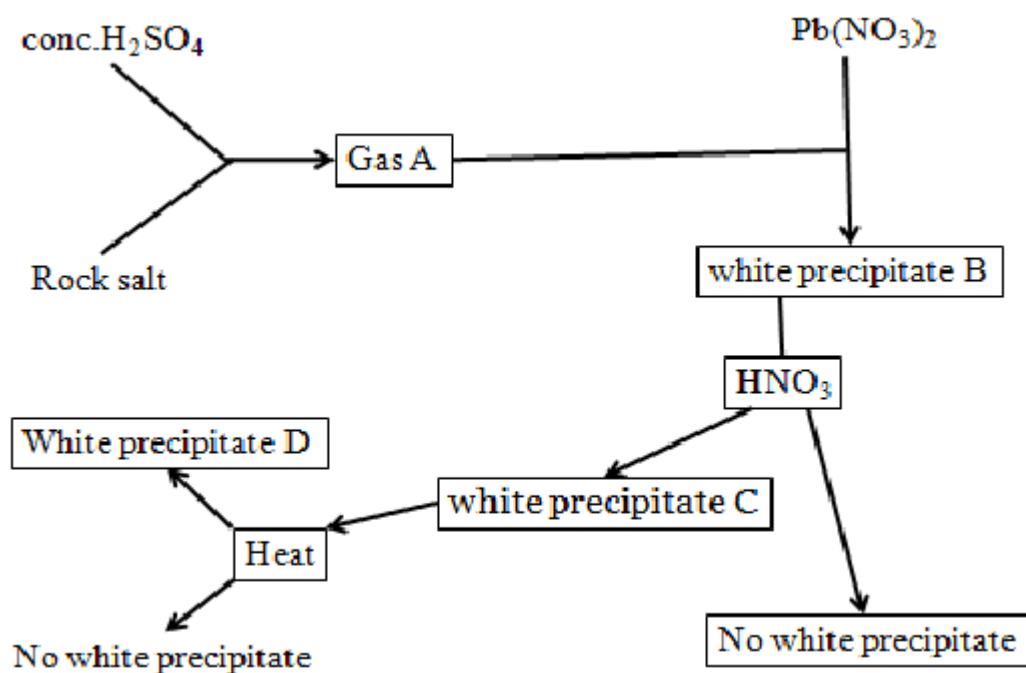
Effervescence/bubbling/fizzing take place and the green precipitate

dissolve to form a yellow/brown solution.

Explanation:

hydrogen peroxide oxidizes green Fe^{2+} to yellow/ brown Fe^{3+} solution.

9. Use the flow chart below to answer the questions that follow.

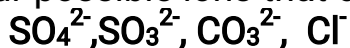


a) Write the chemical equation for the formation of gas A



b) Identify:

(i) four possible ions that can produce white precipitate B

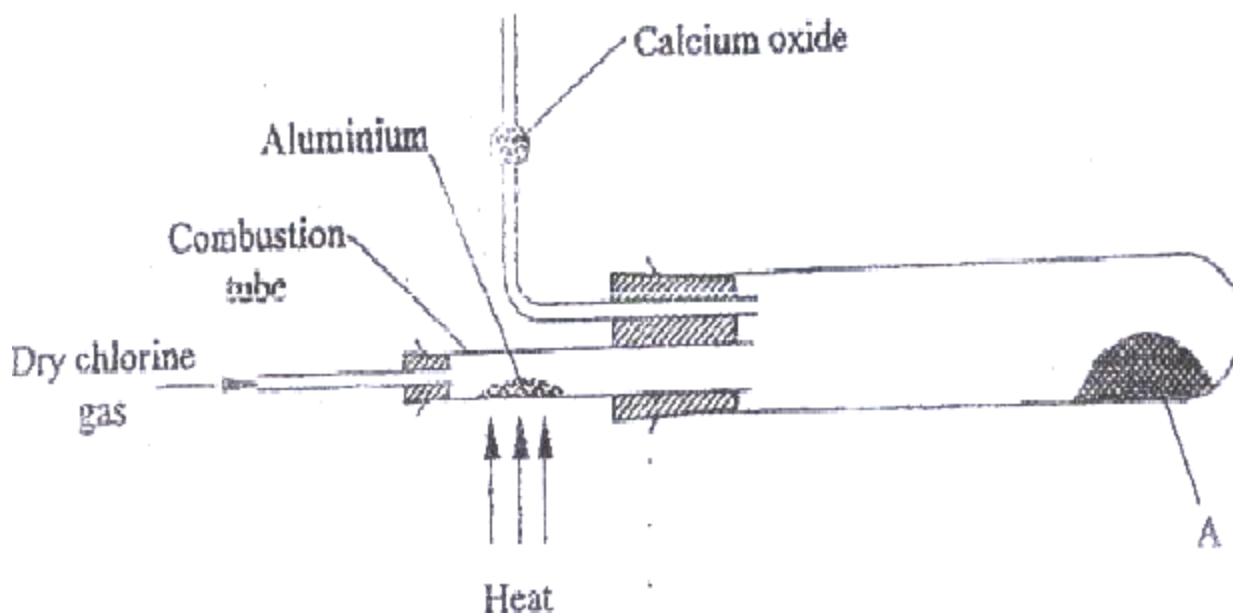


(ii) two possible ions that can produce;

I. White precipitate C

- $\text{SO}_4^{2-}, \text{Cl}^-$
 II.colourless solution D
 $\text{SO}_3^{2-}, \text{CO}_3^{2-}$
 (iii)possible ions present in
 I.White precipitate E
 SO_4^{2-}
 II.colourless solution F
 Cl^-

11. Below is a set up in the preparation of a particular salt. Study it and answer the questions that follow.



State the observation made when aluminium wool is heated.
Glows red hot.

b)(i) Identify salt A
aluminium(III) chloride// AlCl_3

(ii)Write the equation for the formation of salt A

$$2\text{Al(s)} + 3\text{Cl}_2\text{(g)} \rightarrow 2\text{AlCl}_3\text{(s/g)}$$

(iii)What property of salt A is exhibited as shown in the experiment.
It sublimes//sublimation.

(iv) Calculate the minimum volume of chlorine required to form 700kg of iron(III) chloride at room temperature. (Fe = 56.0, Cl = 35.5, 1 mole of a gas = 24000 cm³, 1000g = 1kg)

Mole ratio Fe : Cl₂ = 2: 3 molar mass FeCl₃ = 162.5g

Method 1

$$\begin{aligned} 2 \times 162.5 \text{ g FeCl}_3 &\rightarrow 3 \times 22400 \text{ cm}^3 \text{ Cl}_2 \\ 700 \times 1000 \text{ g FeCl}_3 &\rightarrow (700 \times 1000 \times 3 \times 22400) / (2 \times 162.5) \\ &= \underline{1.4474 \times 10^8 \text{ cm}^3} \end{aligned}$$

Method 2

Moles of FeCl₃ = mass / molar mass

$$\Rightarrow (700 \times 1000) / 162.5 = 4307.6923 \text{ moles}$$

Moles of Cl₂ = 3/2 moles of FeCl₃

$$\Rightarrow 3/2 \times 4307.6923 = 6461.5385 \text{ moles}$$

Volume of chlorine = moles x molar gas volume

$$\Rightarrow 6461.5385 \times 24000 = \underline{1.5508 \times 10^8 \text{ cm}^3}$$

c) Name another metal that can produce similar results as salt K.
Iron

d)(i) What is the purpose of anhydrous calcium chloride.

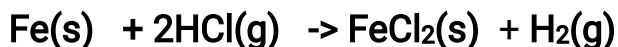
-ensure the apparatus are water free.

-prevent water from the atmosphere from entering and altering//hydrolysing salt A

(ii) Write the equation for the reaction that take place if anhydrous calcium chloride is not used in the above set up.



(iii) Write the equation for the reaction that take place when Iron metal is reacted with dry hydrogen chloride gas.



(iv) Calculate the mass of Iron(II)chloride formed when 60cm³ of hydrogen chloride at r.t.p is completely reacted. (1 mole of a gas = 24dm³ at r.t.p, Fe = 56.0, Cl = 35.5)



Mole ratio HCl: FeCl₂ = 1:1

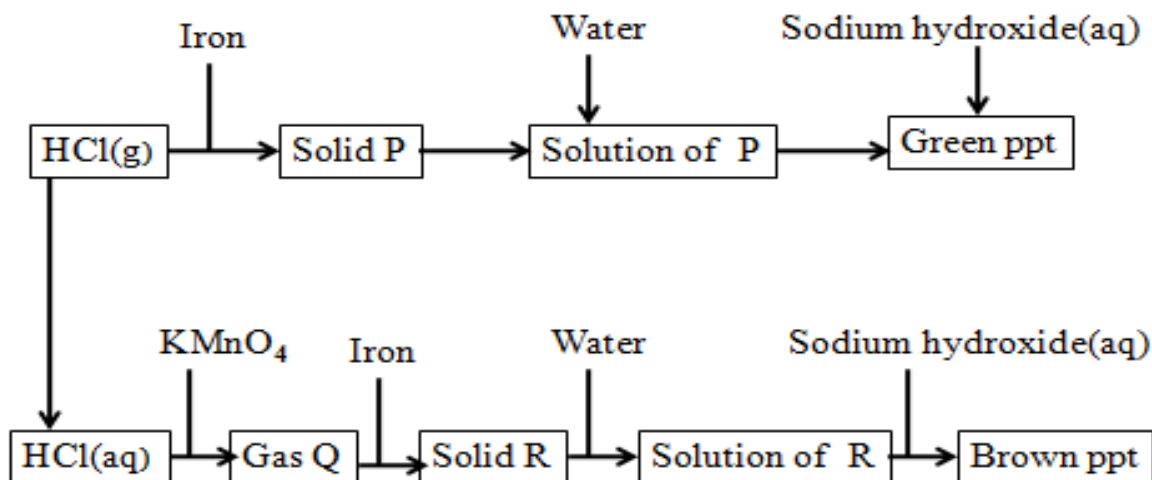
Molar mass $\text{FeCl}_2 = 127\text{g}$

Moles of HCl used = $60\text{cm}^3 / 24000\text{cm}^3 = 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ moles

Moles of $\text{FeCl}_2 = \text{Moles of HCl} \Rightarrow 2.5 \times 10^{-3}$ moles

Mass of $\text{FeCl}_2 = \text{moles} \times \text{molar mass} \Rightarrow 2.5 \times 10^{-3} \times 127 = \underline{0.3175\text{g}}$

12. Study the flow chart below and use it to answer the questions that follow



a) Identify substance:

P Iron(II) chloride// FeCl_2

Q Chlorine // Cl_2

R Iron(III) chloride// FeCl_3

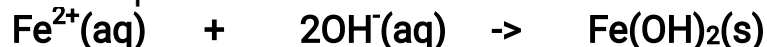
b) Write the equation for the reaction for the formation of:

(i) gas Q



(ii) the green precipitate (using ionic equation)

Ionic equation:



(ii) the brown precipitate (using ionic equation)

Ionic equation:



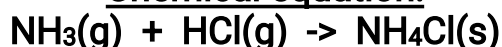
c) A glass rod was dipped in aqueous ammonia. The rod was then brought near hydrogen chloride. State and explain the observation made.

Observation:

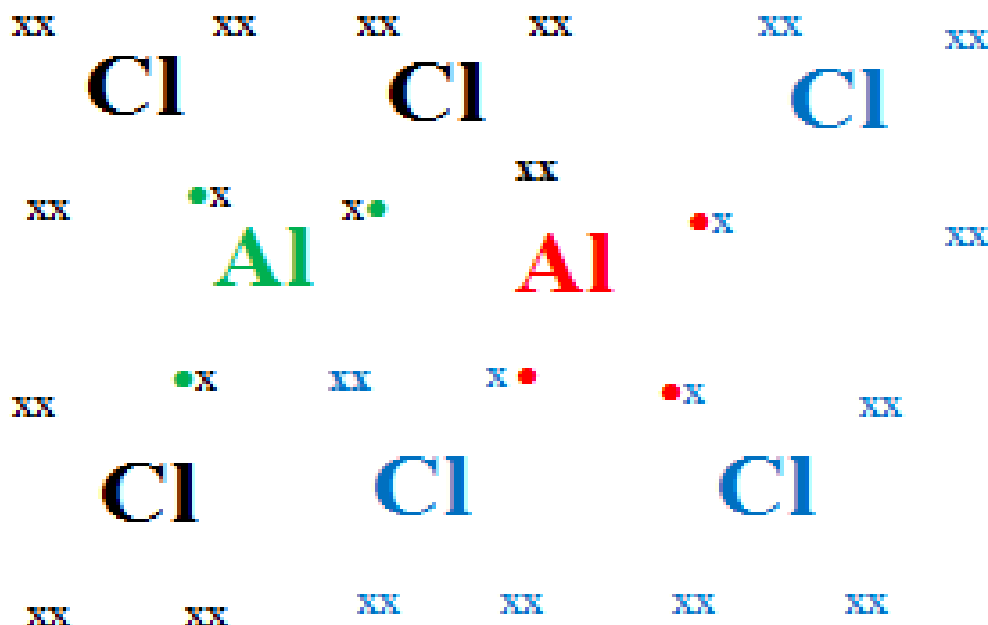
White fumes

Explanation:

Ammonia gas reacts with hydrogen chloride gas to form white fumes of ammonium chloride.

Chemical equation:

13. Using dot(.) and cross(x) to represent electrons, show the bonding in aluminium chloride in vapour phase.



(b) How many electrons in :

(i) aluminium atoms are used in bonding.

Six electrons (three valence electrons in each aluminium atom)

(ii) chlorine atoms are used in dative bonding.

four electrons (two lone pairs of valence electrons in two chlorine atoms)

(iii) the molecule are used in bonding.

Sixteen electrons

- six valence electrons from aluminium atom through covalent bond

- six valence electrons from chlorine atoms through covalent bond.

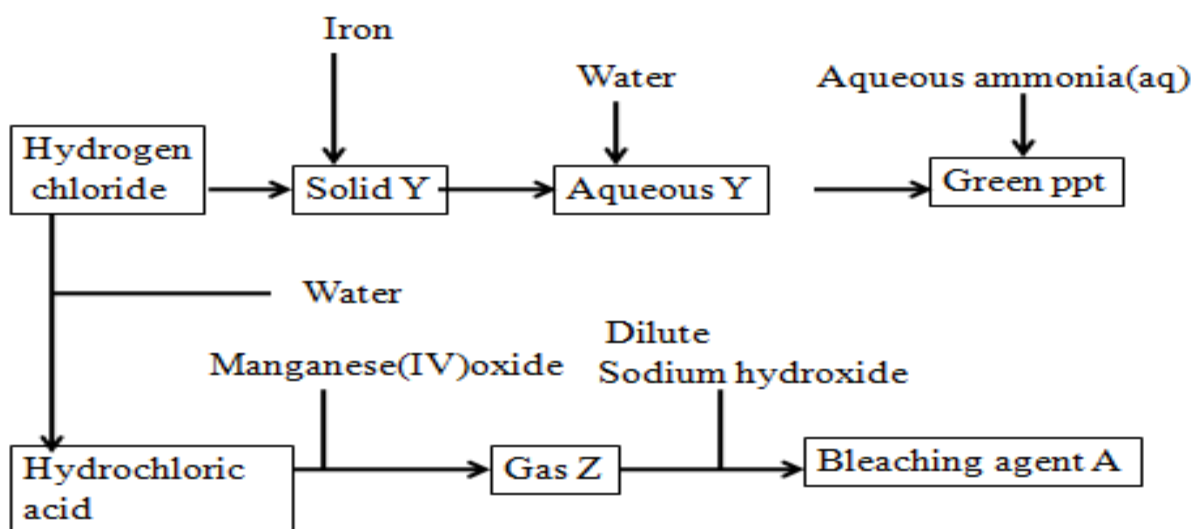
- four valence electrons from chlorine atoms through dative bond

(c) How many lone pair of electrons do not take part in bonding within the molecule.
Sixteen(16) lone pairs from six chlorine atoms(32 electrons)

(d) Aluminium chloride does not conduct electricity in molten state but Magnesium chloride conduct.

Aluminium chloride is a molecular compound that has no free mobile Al^{3+} and Cl^- ions which are responsible for conducting electricity. Magnesium chloride has free mobile Mg^{2+} and Cl^- ions because it is an ionic compound.

8. Use the flow chart below to answer the questions that follow:



a) Write an equation for the school laboratory formation of hydrogen chloride gas



b) Name:

I. solid Y Iron (II) chloride (FeCl_2)

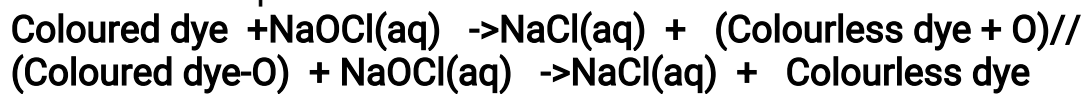
II green precipitate Iron (II) hydroxide (Fe(OH)_2)

III Gas Y Chlorine (Cl_2)

IV. Bleaching agent A Sodium hypochlorite (NaOCl)

c) Blue and red litmus papers were dipped into bleaching agent A. Write the equation

for the reaction that takes place.



d) State four uses of gas Z

1. Bleaching agent
2. Manufacture of hydrochloric acid
3. Chlorination of water to kill germs
4. Manufacture of PVC pipes