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Structural isomerism questions pdf full

Remember - your arrows must be curly! If they look too straight, then you will lose the mark!Remember that your arrows will always go from a lone pair, a negative charge or a bond which has high electron density and will move towards a species or area of a molecule which has positive charge!Page 2 Page 3 Loading PreviewSorry, preview is currently unavailable. You can download the paper by clicking the button above. Increases with concentration Graham's Law of Diffusion Graham's law of diffusion relates the rate of diffusion of a gas to its density It states that the rate of diffusion of a gas at constant temperature and pressure is inversely proportional to the square root of its density Evaporation, boiling and kinetic theory On heating particles gain kinetic energy and move faster In evaporation and boiling the highest kinetic energy molecules can 'escape' from the attractive forces of the other liquid particles The particles lose any order and become completely free to form a gas or vapour Energy is needed to overcome the attractive forces in the liquid and is taken in from the surroundings This means heat is taken in, so evaporation or boiling are endothermic (require energy input) processes If the temperature is high enough boiling takes place Boiling is rapid evaporation anywhere in the bulk liquid and at a fixed temperature called the boiling point and requires continuous addition of heat The rate of boiling is limited by the rate of heat transfer into the liquid Evaporation takes place more slowly at any temperature between the melting point and boiling point, and only from the surface, and results in the liquid becoming cooler due to loss of higher kinetic energy particles Differences between evaporation and boiling Factors that affect the rate of evaporation Evaporation occurs at all temperatures at the surface of the liquid It happens more rapidly when: i) The temperature is higher, since then more molecules in the liquid are moving fast enough to escape from the surface, ii) The surface area of the liquid is large so giving more molecules a changes to escape because more are near the surface, and iii) Wind or draught is blowing over the surface carrying vapour molecules away from the surface thus stopping them from returning to the liquid and making it easier for more liquid molecules to break free Kinetic Theory and Gas Laws Due to the kinetic theory we begin to understand why gases exert pressure The molecules of a gas are far apart and in continuous random motion, colliding with each other and with the walls of the vessel in which the gas is held The molecules have mass, so they have energy hence they exert force on each collision and hence pressure If the temperature of the gas is increased at constant volume, the molecules gain more energy and move faster, hitting the walls with more force and exerting greater pressure If the volume of the gas is increased at constant temperature, the molecules have more space in which to move The frequency of collisions decreases reducing the pressure Boyle's law The pressure of a fixed mass of gas is inversely proportional to its volume if its temperature is kept constant Consider a gas trapped in a container as shown The mass, hence number of moles are constant and do not change during the course of the investigation The piston is frictionless and moves smoothly without allowing the gas to escape When the pressure changes, the volume of the gas changes as shown Graphical representation of Boyle's law Graph between P & V at constant temperature is a smooth curve known as "parabola" Graph between 1/P & V at constant temperature is a straight line If pressure, p is doubled, the volume is halved That is, p is inversely proportional to V In symbols P ∝ 1/V or p = constant X 1/V PV = constant p1V1 = p2V2 = constant.This is Boyle's law Charles' Law The volume of a fixed mass of gas is directly proportional to its absolute temperature if the pressure is kept constant We can then say that the volume V is directly proportional to the absolute temperature T, ie doubling T doubles V, etc Therefore V ∝ T or V = constant X T Or V/T = Constant Volume V1 = 1dm3 V2 = 2dm3 V3= 3 dm3 Temperature (OC) 0 ºC 273 ºC 546 ºC Temp (K) 273 K 546K 819K Volume/Temp 1/273 2/546 3/819 Equation ∴ V1/T1 = V2/T2 = V3/T3 ∴ V/T = constant Graphical representation Graph between Volume and absolute temperature of a gas at constant pressure is a "straight line" Absolute scale of temperature or absolute zero If the graph between V and T is extrapolated, it intersects T-axis at -27316 0C At -27316 0C volume of any gas theoretically becomes zero as indicated by the graph But practically volume of a gas can never become zero Actually no gas can achieve the lowest possible temperature and before -273.16 0C all gases are condensed to liquid This temperature is referred to as absolute scale or absolute zero At -273.16 0C all molecular motions are ceased This temperature is called Absolute Zero Degrees on this scale are called Kelvin's and are denoted by K while θ stands for a Celsius scale temperature They are exactly the same size as Celsius degrees Since –273 0C = 0K, conversions from 0C to K are made by adding 273 T = 273 + θ 0 0C = 273K 15 0C = 273 + 15 = 288K The letter T represents Kelvin or absolute temperatures and θ stands for a Celsius scale temperature Pressure law The pressure of a fixed mass of gas is directly proportional to its absolute temperature if the volume is kept constant p ∝ T or p = constant X T Or p/T = Constant The three equations can be combined giving Pv = constant T For cases in which p, V and T all change from say p1, V1 and T1 to p2, V2 and T2, then P1V1 = p2V2 T1 T2 Gases and the Kinetic Theory The kinetic theory can explain the behaviour of gases (a) Causes of gas pressure All the molecules in a gas are in rapid motion, with a wide range of speeds, and repeatedly hit the walls of the container in huge numbers per second The average force and hence the pressure they exert on the walls is constant since pressure is force on unit area (b) Boyle's law If the volume of a fixed mass of gas is halved by halving the volume of the container, the number of molecules per cm3 will be doubled There will be twice as many collisions per second with the walls, i.e the pressure is doubled This is Boyle's law (c) Temperature When a gas is heated and its temperature rises, the average speed of its molecules increases If the volume of the gas is to remain constant, its pressure increases due to more frequent and more violent collisions of the molecules with the walls If the pressure of the gas is to remain constant, the volume must increase so that the frequency of collisions does not 13.0.0 The Mole: Formulae and Chemical Equations Mole Concept What is a Mole? A mole is a word which represents a number Like the word "dozen" represents the number 12, so "mole" represents the number 6 x 1023 This number is also called Avogadro's number It is a very very big number (6 followed by 23 zeros) In the same way that you can have a dozen atoms, or cars, or apples, so you can also have a mole of atoms, or cars, or apples Needless to say, chemists are concerned with atoms, ions, molecules and compounds A mole is defined as the number of atoms in exactly 12 grams of 12C (carbon twelve) The number is called Avogadro's number In the above definition, 12 is the mass number of carbon So, one mole of carbon atoms has a mass of 12 grams The relative atomic mass, which can be written as Ar or RAM, is the number just above the element in the periodic table Relative atomic mass(r.a.m) and moles Just as one mole of carbon atoms has a mass of 12 g, so the mass of one mole of the atoms of any element is its "relative atomic mass" in grams For example, look up the relative atomic mass of sodium (Na), (the larger number above it in the periodic table) One mole of sodium has a mass of 23 g One mole of helium has a mass of 4 g, One mole of neon has a mass of 20 g, One mole of magnesium has a mass of 24 g, One mole of calcium has a mass of 40 g This is easy for elements which exist as atoms As discussed ealier, the number of protons added to the number of neutrons is known as the relative atomic mass This is the mass of 1 mol of an atom relative to the mass of 1 mol of C atoms that have 6 protons and 6 neutrons, which is taken to be 12.00 g However there are complications due to isotopes and so very accurate atomic masses are not whole numbers Isotopes are atoms of the same element with different masses due to different numbers of neutrons The very accurate atomic mass scale is based on a specific isotope of carbon, carbon-12, 12C = 12.0000 units exactly, for most purposes C = 12 is used for simplicity The strict definition of relative atomic mass (Ar) is that it equals average mass of all the isotopic atoms present in the element compared to 1/12th the mass of a carbon-12 atom Examples of relative atomic mass calculations Example 1: chlorine consists of 75% chlorine-35 and 25% chlorine-37 Think of the data based on 100 atoms, so 75 have a mass of 35 and 25 atoms have a mass of 37 The average mass = [(75 x 35) + (25 x 37)] / 100 = 35.5 So the relative atomic mass of chlorine is 35.5 or Ar(Cl) = 35.5 What about elements which exist as molecules or compounds? Relative formula mass of a compound (R.F.M): To calculate the mass of one mole of a compound, the number of each type of atom in the compound is multiplied by that atoms relative atomic mass and all those numbers added together This value is called the relative formula mass (or relative molecular mass or molar mass) of a compound Notice that r.f.m, r.m.m, or Mr have no units because they are ratios The molar mass is obtained from r.f.m, r.m.m, or Mr by simply adding g (grams) If all the individual atomic masses of all the atoms in a formula are added together you have calculated the relative formula mass (for ionic compounds) or molecular mass (for covalent elements or compounds), Mr. can be used for any element or compound Whereas relative atomic mass (above) only applies to a single atom, anything with at least two atoms requires the term relative formula/molecular mass The most common error is to use atomic/proton numbers instead of atomic masses, unfortunately, except for hydrogen, they are different! Examples of formula/molecular mass calculations: Example 1: The diatomic molecules of the elements hydrogen H2 and chlorine Cl2 relative atomic masses, Ar: H = 1, Cl = 35.5 Formula masses, Mr, are H2 = 2 x 1 = 2, Cl2 = 2 x 35.5 = 71 respectively Example 2: The compound calcium hydroxide Ca (OH)2(ionic) Relative atomic masses are Ca=40, H=1 and O=16 Mr = 40 + 2 x (16+1) = 74 (2) Mass from amount: The key mathematical equation needed here is - mass (g) = relative formula mass (g mol-1) x amount (mol) Using the triangular relationship from above if the mass section is covered over then the amount multiplied by the relative formula mass gives the mass Example (i) What is the mass of 0.25 mol of NaCl? 0.25 mol of NaCl = 58.5 g mol-1 × 0.25 mol = 14.63 g (ii) What is the mass of 3 mol of Al2(SO4)3? 3 mol of Al2(SO4)3 = 342 g mol-1 × 3 mol = 1026 g or 1.026 kg(3) Amount from mass : The key mathematical equation needed here is - amount (mol) = mass (g) / relative formula mass (g mol-1) Using the triangular relationship from above if the amount section is covered over then the mass divided by the relative formula mass gives the amount - Exemplar calculations - (i) What amount is 117 g of NaCl? 117 g of NaCl = 117 g / 585 g mol-1 = 2 mol (ii) What amount is 684 g of Al2(SO4)2? 684 g of Al2(SO4)3 = 68.4 g / 342 g mol-1 = 0.2 mol (4) Molar mass from mass and amount: The key mathematical equation needed here is - Relative formula mass (g mol-1) = mass (g) / amount (mol) Using the triangular relationship from above if the molar mass section is covered over then the mass divided by the amount gives the relative formula mass Exemplar calculation What is the molar mass of a compound for which 0.2 mol of it has a mass of 42 g? molar mass of compound = 42 g / 0.2 mol = 210 g mol-1 Every mole of any substance contains the same number of the defined species The actual particle number is known and is called the Avogadro Constant and is equal to 6023 x 1023 'defined species' per mole This means there are that many atoms in 12g of carbon (C = 12) or that many molecules of water in 18g (H2O = 1+1+16 = 18, H = 1; O = 16) Note Relative is just a number based on the carbon-12 relative atomic mass scale Molar mass is a term used to describe the mass of one mole i.e the relative atomic/formula/molecular mass in grams (g) Examples: Example 1: 1 mole of ammonia, NH3, Consists of 1 mole of nitrogen atoms combined with 3 moles of hydrogen atoms Or you could say 2 moles of ammonia is formed from 1 mole of nitrogen molecules (N2) and 3 moles of hydrogen molecules (H2) Example 2: 1 mole of aluminium oxide, Al2O3, consists of 2 moles of aluminium atoms combined with 3 moles of oxygen atoms (or 1.5 moles of O2 molecules) For calculation purposes learn the following formula for 'Z' and use a triangle if necessary (1) mole of Z = g of Z / atomic or formula mass of Z, (2) or g of Z = mole of Z x atomic or formula mass of Z (3) or atomic or formula mass of Z = g of Z / mole of Z where Z represents atoms, molecules or formula of the particular element or compound defined in the question Example 1: How many moles of potassium ions and bromide ions in 0.25 moles of potassium bromide? 1 mole of KBr contains 1 mole of potassium ions (K+) and 1 mole of bromide ions (Br-) So there will be 0.25 moles of each ion Example 2: How many moles of calcium ions and chloride ions in 2.5 moles of calcium chloride? 1 mole of CaCl2 consists of 1 mole of calcium ions (Ca2+) and 2 moles of chloride ion (Cl-) So there will be 25 x 1 = 25 moles of calcium ions and 2.5 x 2 = 5 moles chloride ions mass of NaCl formed = moles x formula mass = 0 4 x 58.5 = 23.4g NaCl Using the Avogadro Constant, you can actually calculate the number of particles in known quantity of material Example 3: How many water molecules are there in 1g of water, H2O? Formula mass of water = (2 x 1) + 16 = 18 Every mole of a substance contains 6 x 1023 particles of 'it' (the Avogadro Constant) Moles water = 1 / 18 = 00556 Molecules of water = 0.0556 x 6 x 1023 = 3.34 x 1022 5.Percentage Composition in a Compound: 1. Calculating % Composition (from masses of each element) Divide the mass of each element by the total mass of the compound and multiply by 100 2. Calculating % Composition (from formula) Calculate formula mass Divide the total atomic mass of each element by the formula mass and multiply by 100 Example 1 What is the percentage of oxygen in carbon dioxide gas? mass of oxygen in one mole of carbon dioxide gas = 2×16 g = 32 g mass of one mole of carbon dioxide = 12 g + (2×16 g) = 44 g percentage of oxygen = (32 g/44 g) × 100 = 72.7 % Example 2 What is the percentage of water of crystallization in hydrated copper (II) sulphate, CuSO45H2O? mass of water present in one mole of hydrated copper(II) sulphate =(5×18 g) = 90 g mass of one mole of hydrated copper(II) sulphate = 64 g + 32 g + (4×16 g) + (5×18 g) = 250 g percentage of water of crystallization present = (90 g/250 g) × 100 = 36 % 6. Empirical formula of a compound : This technique covers essentially the reverse of the above process A typical question here involves the calculation of the lowest possible whole number ratio of atoms in an organic molecule, given the percentage elemental composition for that molecule Calculating Empirical Formula (from % Composition) convert % of each element to grams based on 100 grams of the compound multiply grams of each element by 1/molar mass that element compare ratio of moles of each element and divide each by the smallest if result in step 3 gives a ratio with decimal equivalent to 1/4, 1/3, 1/2, 2.3, 3/4 instead of whole numbers, convert to the fraction and multiply all ratios by the denominator or the fraction Calculating Empirical Formula (from experimentally determined masses) multiply the mass of each element (in grams) by 1/molar mass of that element Continue with steps 3 & 4 from IV above Example. An organic compound contains carbon and hydrogen only in the ratio of 85.7 % carbon to 14.3 % hydrogen What is the empirical formula for that compound? C H % composition 85.7 % 14.3 % mass of element in 100 g of compound 85.7 g 14.3 g amount of element in 100 g of compound 85.7 g/12 g mol-1 = 7.14 mol 14.3 g/1 g mol-1 = 14.3 mol lowest whole number ratio of element's amounts 7.14 mol/7.14 mol = 1 14.3 mol/7.14 mol = 2 The empirical formula for the compound is CH2 7. Molecular formula of a compound: The molecular formula for a compound is simply the empirical formulae multiplied by some whole number (1, 2, 3, etc) Knowing the molar mass of the compound enables the molecular formula of it to be found Finding Molecular Formulas (when molar mass is known) calculate the empirical formula use the equation : (empirical formula mass)x n = molar mass find value for n: n = molar mass/empirical formula mass multiply each subscript in empirical formula by value for n Example1 The actual molar mass of the compound in the previous example is 42 g mol-1 What is the molecular formula for this compound? The molar mass of CH2 = (12+(2×1)) g mol-1= 14 g mol-1 The molecular formula of this compound is (CH2)n, where n is a positive whole number The value of n = 42 g mol-1 / 14 g mol-1 = 3 The molecular formula is (CH2)3 or more properly C3H6 Examples of where the empirical formula is the same as the molecular formula Water H2O, methane CH4, propane C3H8 (these molecular formula cannot be 'simplified') Examples of where the molecular formula is different from the empirical formula Ethane C2H6 (CH3), phosphorus (V) oxide P4.O10 (P2O5), benzene C6H6 (CH) Three examples are set out below to illustrate all the situations The relative atomic masses of the elements (Ar) are given in the tabular format method of solving the problem Example 2: 1.35g of aluminium was heated in oxygen until there was no further gain in weight The white oxide ash formed weighed 2.55g Deduce the empirical formula of aluminium oxide Note: to get the mass of oxygen reacting, all you have to do is to subtract the mass of metal from the mass of the oxide formed Example 3: A chlorinated hydrocarbon compound when analysed, consisted of 2424% carbon, 404% hydrogen, 71.72% chlorine The molecular mass was found to be 99 from another experiment Deduce the empirical and molecular formula (you can 'treat' the %'s as if they were grams, and it all works out like examples 1 and 2) 8. Reacting Mass Calculations You can use the ideas of relative atomic, molecular or formula mass and the law of conservation of mass to do quantitative calculations in chemistry Underneath an equation you can add the appropriate atomic or formula masses This enables you to see what mass of what, reacts with what mass of other reactants It also allows you to predict what mass of products are formed (or to predict what is needed to make so much of a particular product) You must take into account the balancing numbers in the equation (e.g 2Mg), as well of course, the numbers in the formula (e.g O2) NOTE: The symbol equation must be correctly balanced to get the right answer! Example 1: (a) In a copper smelter, how many tonne of carbon (charcoal, coke) is needed to make 16 tonne of copper? (b) How many tones of copper can be made from 640 tones of copper oxide ore? (a) 2CuO(s) + C(s) 2Cu(s) + CO2(g) > (atomic masses Cu=64, O=16, C=12) Formula Mass ratio is 2 x (64+16) + (12) ==> 2 x (64) + (12 + 2x16) = Reacting mass ratio 160 + 12 ==> 128 + 44 (In the calculation, impurities are ignored) 12 of C makes 128 of Cu Scaling down numerically: mass of carbon needed = 12 x 16 / 128 = 15 tonne of C (b) 160 of CuO make 128 of Cu (or direct from formula 80 CuO 64 Cu) Scaling up numerically: mass copper formed = 128 x 640 / 160 = 512 tones Cu Example 2: What mass of carbon is required to reduce 20 tonne of iron(II) oxide ore if carbon monoxide is formed in the process as well as iron? (Atomic masses: Fe = 56, O = 16) Reaction equation: Fe2O3 + 3C 2Fe + 3CO Formula mass Fe2O3 = (2x56) + (3x16) = 160 160 mass units of iron oxide reacts with 3 x 12 = 36 mass units of carbon So the reacting mass ratio is 160: 36 So the ratio to solve is 20: x, scaling down, x = 36 x 20/160 = 45 tones carbon needed Note: Fe2O3 + 3CO 2Fe + 3CO2 is the other most likely reaction that reduces the iron ore to iron 9 Molar Volume of Gas Avogadro's Law states that equal volumes of gases under the same conditions of temperature and pressure contain the same number of molecules So the volumes have equal moles of separate particles in them One mole of any gas (or the formula mass in g), at the same temperature and pressure occupies the same volume This is 24dm3 (24 litres) or 24000 cm3, at room temperature and pressure (r.t.p) Avogadro's Law and Molar Volume Equal volumes of all gases contain the same number of molecules In this table, N =602 X 1023 molecules, while V= 24000 cm3 at room temperature and pressure (r.t.p), or 22400 cm3 at standard temperature and pressure (s.t.p) 1 mole of any gas always contains the same number of molecules (6.02 X 1023) and hence has the same volume (at the same temperature and pressure) When gases combine, they do so in small volumes which bear a simple ratio to one another and to the volume of product if gaseous All volumes must be measured at the same temperature and pressure Some handy relationships for substance Z below: moles Z = mass of Z gas (g) / atomic or formula mass of gas Z (g/mol) mass of Z in g = moles of Z x atomic or formula mass of Z atomic or formula mass of Z = mass of Z / moles of Z 1 mole = formula mass of Z in g gas volume of Z = moles of Z x molar volume moles of Z = gas volume of Z / molar volume Example 1: What is the volume of 35g of hydrogen? [Ar(H) = 1] Hydrogen exists as H2 molecules, so Mr(H2) = 2, so 1 mole or Formula mass in g = 2g So moles of hydrogen = 35/2 = 175 mol H2 So volume H2 = mol H2 x molar volume = 175 x 24 = 42 dm3 (or 42000 cm3) Example 4: Given the equation MgCO3(s) + H2SO4(aq) ==> MgSO4(aq) + H2O(l) +CO2(g) What mass of magnesium carbonate is needed to make 6 dm3 of carbon dioxide at r.t.p? [Ar's: Mg = 24, C = 12, O = 16, H =1 and S = 32] method (a): Since 1 mole = 24 dm3, 6 dm3 is equal to 6/24 = 0.25 mol of gas From the equation, 1 mole of MgCO3 produces 1 mole of CO2, which occupies a volume of 24 dm3 So 0.25 moles of MgCO3 is need to make 025 mol of CO2 Formula mass of MgCO3 = 24 + 12 + 3x16 = 84, So required mass of MgCO3 = mol x formula mass = 0.25 x 84 = 21g Method (b): Converting the equation into the required reacting masses Formula masses: MgCO3 = 84 (from above), CO2 = 12 + 2x16 = 44 MgCO3: CO2 equation ratio is 1 : 1 so 84g of MgCO3 will form 44g of CO2 44g of CO2 will occupy 24dm3 so scaling down, 6 dm3M of CO2 will have a mass of 44 x 8/24 = 11g if 84g MgCO3 ==> 44g of CO2, then 21g MgCO3 ==> 11g of CO2 by solving the ratio, scaling down by factor of 4 10.Reacting Gases Avogadro's Law states that 'equal volumes of gases at the same temperature and pressure contain the same number of molecules' or moles of gas This means the molecule ratio of the equation automatically gives us the gas volumes ratio of reactants and products, if all the gas volumes are measured at the same temperature and pressure This calculation only applies to gaseous reactants or products and if they are all at the same temperature and pressure Example 1: HCl(g) + NH3(g) NH4Cl(s) 1 volume of hydrogen chloride will react with 1 volume of ammonia to form solid ammonium chloride e.g 25cm3 + 25cm3 ==> products or 400dm3 + 400 dm3 ==> products (no gas formed) Example 2: N2(g) + 3H2(g) 2NH3(g) 1 volume of nitrogen reacts with 3 volumes of hydrogen to produce 2 volumes of ammonia e.g 50 cm3 nitrogen reacts with 150 cm3 hydrogen (3 x 50) ==> 100 cm3 of ammonia (2 x 50) Example 3: C3H8(g) + 5O2(g) CO2(g) + 4H3O(l) (a) What volume of oxygen is required to burn 25cm3 of propane, C3H8 Theoretical reactant volume ratio is C3H8 : O2 is 1 : 5 for burning the fuel propane so actual ratio is 25 : 5x25, so 125cm3 oxygen is needed (b) What volume of carbon dioxide is formed if 5dm3 of propane is burned? Theoretical reactant-product volume ratio is C3H8 : CO2 is 1 : 3 so actual ratio is 5 : 3x5, so 15dm3 carbon dioxide is formed (c) What volume of air (1/5th oxygen) is required to burn propane at the rate of 2dm3 per minute in a gas fire? Theoretical reactant volume ratio is C3H8 : O2 is 1 : 5 so actual ratio is 2 : 5x2, so 10dm3 oxygen per minute is needed, Therefore, since air is only 1/5th O2, 5 x 10 = 50dm3 of air per minute is required Stoichiometric and Ionic Equations Chemical word equations For any reaction, what you start with are called the reactants, and what you form are called the products So any chemical equation shows in some way the overall chemical change of REACTANTS -> PRODUCTS This can be written in words or symbols/formulae The arrow means the direction of change from reactants =to=> products No symbols or numbers are used in word equations Always try to fit all the words neatly lined up from left to right, especially if it is a long word equation The word equation is presented to summarise the change of reactants to products Stoichiometric Equations Consider the reaction between zinc sulphide and oxygen The equation can be written as; ZnS(s) + O2(g) ZnO(s) + SO2(g) This is an example of a stoichiometric, or normal chemical(or symbol) equation From this equation, we can deduce; What substances react(zinc sulphide (solid) and oxygen(gas) What products are formed (zinc oxide(solid) and sulphur dioxide(gas) Relative number of atoms and molecules taking part in the chemical reaction The state symbols(s), (l) or (g) to tell us the state of each reactant and each product Rules on Balancing Symbol equations 1. You should know what the reactants and products are, 2. write a word equation with appropriate reactants on the left and products on the right 3. Writing the correct symbol or formula for each equation componentNumbers in a formula are written as subscripts after the element concerned e.g H2SO4 means 2 H's, 1 S and 4 O's or the subscript number can double, treble etc a part of the formula e.g Ca(OH)2 means 1 Ca and 2 OH's (or 2 O's and 2 H's in total) Numbers before a formula double or treble it etc eg. 2NaCl means 2 Na's and 2 Cl's in total or 2H2SO4 means 2 x H2SO4 = 4 H's, 2 S's and 8 O's in total NOTE: If the number is 1 itself, by convention, no number is shown in a formula or before a formula 4 Using numbers if necessary to balance the equation 5 If all is correct, then the sum of atoms for each element should be the same on both side of the equation arrow a) in other words: atoms of products = atoms of reactants This is a chemical conservation law of atoms and later it may be described as the 'law of conservation of mass b) the equations are first presented in 'picture' style and then written out fully with state symbols c) The individual formulas involved and the word equations have already been presented above Ionic Equations In many reactions only certain ions change their 'chemical state' but other ions remain in exactly the same original physical and chemical state The ions that do not change are called 'spectator ions' The ionic equation represents the 'actual' chemical change and omits the spectator ions 1. Acid-base reactions: Acids can be defined as proton donors A base can be defined as a proton acceptor Any acid-alkali neutralisation involves the hydroxide ion is (base) and this accepts a proton from an acid 2. Insoluble salt formation: An insoluble salt is made by mixing two solutions of soluble compounds to form the insoluble compound in a process called 'precipitation' A precipitation reaction is generally defined as 'the formation of an insoluble solid on mixing two solutions or a gas bubbled into a solution' (a) Silver chloride is made by mixing solutions of solutions of silver nitrate and sodium chloride Ionically : Ca2+(aq) + CO32-(aq) -> CaCO3(s) The spectator ions are Cl- and Na+ (3) Redox reaction analysis: (a) Magnesium + iron (II) sulphate magnesium sulphate + iron Mg(s) + FeSO4(aq) MgSO4(aq) + Fe(s) This is the 'ordinary molecular' equation for a typical metal displacement reaction, but this does not really show what happens in terms of atoms, ions and electrons, so we use ionic equations like the one shown below The sulphate ion SO42-(aq) is called a spectator ion, because it doesn't change in the reaction and can be omitted from the ionic equation No electrons show up in the full equations because electrons lost by x = electrons gained by y!! 11. MOLARITY It is very useful to be known exactly how much of a dissolved substance is present in a solution of particular concentration or volume of a solution So we need a standard way of comparing the concentrations of solutions The concentration of an aqueous solution is usually expressed in terms of moles of dissolved substance per cubic decimetre, mol dm-3 , this is called molarity, sometimes denoted in shorthand as M Note: 1dm3 = 1 litre = 1000ml = 1000 cm3 , so dividing cm3 /1000 gives dm3 , which is handy to know since most volumetric laboratory apparatus is calibrated in cm3 (or ml), but solution concentrations are usually quoted in molarity, that is mol/dm3 (mol/litre) Equal volumes of solution of the same molar concentration contain the same number of moles of solute i.e the same number of particles as given by the chemical formula You need to be able to calculate: The number of moles or mass of substance in an aqueous solution of given volume and concentration The concentration of an aqueous solution given the amount of substance and volume of water You should recall and be able to use each of the following relationships (1) molarity of Z = moles of Z / volume in dm3 (2) molarity x formula mass of solute = solute concentration in g/dm3 , dividing this by 1000 gives the concentration in g/cm3 (3) (concentration in g/dm3) / formula mass = molarity in mol/dm3 , (4) moles Z = mass Z / formula mass of Z (5) 1 mole = formula mass in grams Example 1 What mass of sodium hydroxide (NaOH) is needed to make up 500 cm3 (0.5 dm3) of a 0.5M solution? [Ar's: Na = 23, O = 16, H = 1] 1 mole of NaOH = 23 + 16 + 1 = 40g for 1000 cm3 (1 dm3) of 0.5M you would need 0.5 moles NaOH which is 0.5 x 40 = 20g however only 500 cm3 of solution is needed compared to 1000 cm3 so scaling down: mass NaOH required = 20 x 500/1000 = 10g Example 2 How many moles of H2SO4 are there in 250cm3 of a 0.8M sulphuric acid solution? What mass of acid is in this solution? [Ar's: H = 1, S = 32, O = 16] formula mass of sulphuric acid = 2 + 32 + (4x16) = 98, so 1 mole = 98g if there was 1000 cm3 of the solution, there would be 0.8 moles H2SO4 but there is only 250cm3 of solution, so scaling down moles H2SO4 = 0,8 x (250/1000) = 0.2 mol mass = moles x formula mass, which is 02 x 98 = 19.6g of H2SO4 Example 3 5.95g of potassium bromide was dissolved in 400cm3 of water [Ar's: K = 39, Br = 80] moles = mass / formula mass, (KBr = 39 + 80 = 119) mol KBr = 5.95/119 = 0.05 mol 400 cm3 = 400/1000 = 0.4 dm3 molarity = moles of solute / volume of solution molarity of KBr solution = 0.05/0.4 = 0.125M Example 4 What is the concentration of sodium chloride (NaCl) in g/dm3 and g/cm3 in a 1.50 molar solution? At Masses: Na = 23, Cl = 35.5, formula mass NaCl = 23 + 35.5 = 58.5 Therefore concentration = 1.5 x 58.5 = 87.8 g/dm3 , and concentration = 87.75 / 1000 = 0.0878 g/cm3 Example 5 A solution of calcium sulphate (CaSO4) contained 0.5g dissolved in 2dm3 of water Calculate the concentration in (a) g/dm3 , (b) g/cm3 and (c) mol/dm3 (a) concentration = 0.5/2 = 0.25 g/dm3 , then since 1dm3 = 1000 cm3 (b) concentration = 0.25/1000 = 000025 g/cm3 (c) At.masses: Ca = 40, S = 32, O = 64, f mass CaSO4 = 40 + 32 + (4 x 16) = 136 moles CaSO4 = 0.5 / 136 = 0.00368 mol concentration CaSO4 = 0.00368 / 2 = 0.00184 mol/dm3 12. Titration: Acid and Alkali Titrations can be used to find the concentration of an acid or alkali from the relative volumes used and the concentration of one of the two reactants You should be able to carry out calculations involving neutralisation reactions in aqueous solution given the balanced equation or from your own practical results 1. Note again: 1dm3 = 1 litre = 1000ml = 1000 cm3 , so dividing cm3 /1000 gives dm3 2. and other useful formulae or relationships are: moles = molarity (mol/dm3) x volume (dm3 =cm3 /1000), molarity (mol/dm3) = mol / volume (dm3 =cm3 /1000), 1 mole = formula mass in grams In most volumetric calculations of this type, you first calculate the known moles of one reactant from a volume and molarity Then, from the equation, you relate this to the number of moles of the other reactant, and then with the volume of the unknown concentration, you work out its molarity Example 1: 25 cm3 of a sodium hydroxide solution was pipetted into a conical flask and titrated with 02M hydrochloric acid Using a suitable indicator it was found that 15 cm3 of acid was required to neutralise the alkali Calculate the molarity of the sodium hydroxide and concentration in g/dm3 equation NaOH(aq) + HCl(aq) NaCl(aq) + H2O(l) moles HCl = (15/1000) x 0.2 = 0.003 mol moles HCl = moles NaOH (1 : 1 in equation) so there is 0.003 mol NaOH in 25 cm3 scaling up to 1000 cm3 (1 dm3), there are 0.003 x (1000/25) = 0.12 mol NaOH in 1 dm3 molarity of NaOH is 0.12M or mol dm-3 since mass = moles x formula mass, and Mr(NaOH) = 23 + 16 + 1 = 40 concentration in g/dm3 is 012 x 40 = 4.41g/dm3 Example 2: 20 cm3 of a sulphuric acid solution was titrated with 0.05M potassium hydroxide If the acid required 36 cm3 of the alkali KOH for neutralisation what was the concentration of the acid? equation 2KOH(aq) + H2SO4(aq) K2SO4 + 2H2O(l) mol KOH = 0.05 x (36/1000) = 00018 mol mol H2SO4 = mol KOH / 2 (because of 1 : 2 ratio in equation above) mol H2SO4 = 0.0018/2 = 0.0009 (in 20 cm3) scaling up to 1000 cm3 of solution = 00009 x (1000/20) = 0.045 mol mol H2SO4 in 1 dm3 = 0045, so molarity of H2SO4 = 0.045M or mol dm-3 since mass = moles x formula mass, and Mr(H2SO4) = 2 + 32 + (4x16) = 98 Concentration in g/dm3 is 0045 x 98 = 4.41g/dm3 How to carry out a titration The diagrams show the typical apparatus (1)-(6) used in manipulating liquids and on the left a brief three stage description of titrating an acid with an alkali: Volumetric Analysis (Titrations) A titration is a laboratory procedure where a measured volume of one solution is added to a known volume of another reagent until the reaction is complete The operation is an example of volumetric (titrimetric) analysis The equivalence point is usually shown by the colour change of an indicator and is known as the end-point Volumetric analysis is a powerful technique, which is used in a variety of ways by chemists in many different fields Practical Aspects The practical aspects of titrations are required in the assessment of practical skills Knowledge of the techniques of titrations is expected but it would be normal to assume that all apparatus would have been washed with distilled/deionised water The description should include which reagent is placed in the burette, name of indicator (but no reason for choice of indicator), detection of endpoint and what should be observed, and repetition for accuracy When you have finished this section you should be able to: Perform titrations Record titration results in the form of a table Use of a Volumetric Flask To prepare a solution of precisely known concentration (a standard solution), a definite amount of solute must be dissolved in a solvent to give a definite volume of solution The definite amount of material is measured by weighing, and the definite volume of solution prepared in a volumetric flask A volumetric flask contains a definite volume when correctly filled to the calibration mark at the temperature stated on the flask Tip the solid from a weighing bottle into a large (250 cm3) beaker and add about 50 cm3 of distilled water from a wash bottle Stir well with a glass rod to dissolve Take great care not to lose any of the solution and remember to wash the solution off the stirring rod back into the beaker Rinse out the volumetric flask with distilled water and pour the cold solution into the flask through a clean filter funnel Wash out the beaker several times and add all the washings to the flask Now fill the flask to within about 1 cm of the calibration mark on the neck Finally add water dropwise until the meniscus just rests on the calibration mark Stopper the flask and invert a number of times to thoroughly mix the contents Use of a Pipette The pipette is designed to deliver a definite fixed volume of liquid when correctly filled to its calibration mark Before use, a pipette must be washed out with the solution it is to measure To fill the pipette, use a safety filler to suck solution up a few centimetres above the calibration mark Let the solution down until the bottom of the meniscus just touches the calibration mark For a titration the contents of the pipette are run into a conical flask, which has been well washed with distilled water Allow the pipette to drain for about 20 seconds, then touch the tip to the surface of the liquid in the conical flask The volume of solution delivered by the pipette is known as the aliquot Use of a Burette The burette is designed to deliver definite but variable volumes of liquid First rinse out the burette with the solution it is to contain Clamp the burette vertically in a stand Fill the burette carefully using a beaker and a filter funnel Open the tap briefly to fill the burette below the tap making sure there are no trapped air bubbles Read the burette scale by observing the position of the bottom of the liquid meniscus, making sure your eyes are level with the graduation mark To observe the meniscus more clearly, hold a white card behind the burette Record the volume reading to the nearest 0.05 cm3 Some common indicators Titration Technique When performing a titration, place the conical flask containing the aliquot on a white tile under the burette so that the tip of the burette is inside the mouth of the conical flask to avoid splashing Add a few drops of a suitable indicator to the solution in the conical flask First perform a 'rough' titration by taking the burette reading and running in the solution in approximately 1 cm3 portions, while swirling the flask vigorously When the end-point is reached, as shown by the indicator changing colour, quickly close the tap The new burette reading will give you a rough idea (to within about 1 cm3) of the volume to be added Now repeat the titration with a fresh aliquot As the rough end-point volume is approached, add solution from the burette one drop at a time until the indicator changes colour Record the volume The volume run out from the burette to reach the end point is known as the titre Recording Titration Results The results of a titration should be recorded; Immediately In ink In a table To the correct number of decimal places Record the titration results in the form of a table Accuracy Record burette readings to the nearest 0.05 cm3 (approximately 1 drop) Consecutive titrations should agree to within 0.10 cm3 and, strictly, you should repeat the titrations until this is achieved However you may not have either the time or materials available to do this With practice, your technique should improve so that you should not need to do more than 4 titrations (1 trial + 3 accurate) Calculate and use the mean (average) of the two (or preferably three) closest consecutive readings and quote this to the nearest 0.05 cm3 What do examiners look for in your answer sheet? Calculating the Concentration of a Solution from Titration Data When you have finished this section you should be able to: Calculate the concentration of a solution from titration data and the balanced equation Calculate the volume of solution required for titration from titration data and the balanced equation 14.0.0 Organic Chemistry 1 Products from Oil Coal, Oil and Natural Gas Formation - Fossil Fuels Just as coal has formed by the action of heat and pressure on the remains of trees and plants on land over millions of years, so oil and natural gas have formed by the action of heat and pressure on the remains of sea plants and animals over millions of years The remains were buried in sediments which excluded the air (kept out oxygen) and stopped them decaying More sediment buried the remains deeper and deeper until pressure and heat eventually turned them into coal, oil and natural gas They are called fossil fuels because they are buried underground (from Latin fossilis - dug up) Fossil fuels are a finite resource and non-renewable The oil deposits are formed in porous rock sediments Porous rock has pores in it Pores are small holes (see for example sandstone) The small holes allow the oil and natural gas to pass through the rock and rise until they are stopped by a layer of non-porous rock Non-porous rock (for example shale) has no holes, and acts as a barrier to prevent the oil and natural gas rising The oil and natural gas become trapped underground The oil is called crude oil (or petroleum, from Latin - rock oil), and has natural gas in it or in a pocket above it trapped by non-porous rock Drilling through the rock allows the oil and gas to escape to the surface Natural gas is mostly methane (CH4) Crude oil is a mixture of substances (mostly hydrocarbons) So what are Hydrocarbons? Crude oil is a mixture of substances which

phosphate, urea etc are manufactured with the help of ammonia 3) It is used in the manufacture of other ammonium salts, such as ammonium chloride, ammonium carbonate, ammonium nitrite etc 4) It finds use in the manufacture of nitrogen compounds such as sodium cynamide, plastics, rayon, nylon, dyes etc 5) It is used in the manufacture of sodium carbonate by Solvay's process (Ammonia and carbon dioxide are treated with aqueous sodium chloride, crystals of sodium hydrogen carbonate are formed They are heated to yield sodium carbonate) 6) Ammonia acts as refrigerant in ice plants Evaporation of a liquid needs heat energy About 17g of liquid ammonia absorb 5700 calories of heat from the surrounding water This cools the water and ultimately freezes it to ice 7) Ammonia is used to transport hydrogen Hydrogen is dangerous to transport, as it is highly combustible So it is converted to ammonia, liquefied, transported and then catalytically treated to obtain hydrogen 8) Many ammonium salts are used in medicines Inhaling the fumes produced by rubbing ammonium carbonate in the hands can revive people who have fainted 9) It is used as a cleansing agent Ammonia solution emulsifies fats, grease etc so it can be used to clean oils, fats, body grease etc from clothes It is also used to clean glassware, porcelain, floors etc 10) It is used as laboratory reagent Nitric acid: Nitric acid is produced industrially from ammonia by the Oswald process It is a strong acid, converting bases to salts called nitrates: CuO + 2HNO3 Cu(NOO3)2 + HO2O Copper(11) nitrate NaOH + HNOO3 NaNOO3 + HO2O Sodium nitrate Nitric acid is also a strong oxidizing agent and may be reduced to nitric oxide or nitrogen dioxide: Cu + 4HNOO3 Cu (NOO3)O2 + 2H2O + 2NO2 3Cu + 8HNOO3 3Cu (NOO3)O2 + 2NO +4HO2O Pure nitric acid slowly decomposes to form water, nitrogen dioxide and oxygen This causes the nitric acid to become yellow The process is accelerated on heating: 4HNOO3 2H2O + 4NOO2 + OO3 Oswald Process Nitric acid is prepared in large scale from ammonia and air (Fig.6.14) Reactants Pure dry ammonia (1 volume) and air (10 volumes) Reactions 1) 1st step - Catalytic oxidation of ammonia to form nitric oxide 2) 2nd step - Oxidation of nitric oxide to nitrogen dioxide 3) 3rd step - Absorption of nitrogen dioxide in water to give nitric acid Catalyst Platinum (for oxidation of NH3) Temperature 700o - 800oC Reactions of Nitric Acid Cuprous Oxide, Cu2O reacts with dilute Nitric Acid, HNO3, in the cold to form a solution of Cupric Nitrate, Cu (NO)2, and Copper, Cu Cu2O + 2 HNO3 Cu (NO3)2 + Cu + H2O Cuprous Oxide, Cu2O reacts with concentrated Nitric Acid, HNO3, or with dilute Nitric Acid, HNO3, on heating, when the Cuprous Oxide, Cu2O dissolves with evolution of Nitric Oxide, NO 3Cu2O + 14HNO3 6Cu (NO3)2 + 2NO + 7H2O Dinitrogen Pent oxide, N2O5, is best prepared by dehydrating concentrated Nitric Acid, HNO3, by Phosphorus Pent oxide, P2O5 2 HNO3 + P2O5 N2O5 + 2 HPO3 Nitric Oxide, NO is prepared by the action of Copper, Cu, or Mercury, Hg, on dilute Nitric Acid, HNO3, and was called Nitrous Air 3 Cu + 8 HNO3 3 Cu (NO3)2 + 2 NO + 4 H2O Nitrogen dioxide, NO2, is a mixed acid anhydride and reacts with water to give a mixture of nitrous and nitric acids 2 NO2 + H2 HNO2 + HNO3 If the solution is heated the nitrous acid decomposes to give nitric acid and nitric oxide 3 HNO2 HNO3 + 2 NO + H2O Sulphur Dioxide, SO2, and Nitrogen Oxides, NOx, are toxic acidic gases, which readily react with the Water, H2O in the atmosphere to form a mixture of Sulphuric Acid, H2SO4, Nitric Acid, HNO3, and Nitrous Acid, HNO2, The dilute solutions of these acids which result give rain water a far greater acidity than normal, and is known as Acid Rain Nitrates are the salts of nitric acid, and are strong oxidising agents The Oswald Process is the tree stage process by which Nitric Acid, HNO3, is manufactured Firstly, Ammonia, NH3, is oxidised, at high temperature (900 0C) over a platinum-rhodium catalyst, to form Nitrogen Monoxide, NO 4 NH3 (g) + 5O2 (g) 4 NO (g) + 6H2O The Nitrogen Monoxide, NO, cools and reacts with oxygen, O2, to produce Nitrogen Dioxide, NO2 2 NO (g) + O2 2 NO2 (g) Finally, the Nitrogen Dioxide, NO2 reacts with Water and Oxygen, O2, oxygen to produce Nitric Acid, 4 NO2 (g) + 2 H2O (l) + O2 4 HNO3 (l) Cu2O + 2 HNO3 Cu (NO3)2 + Cu + H2O Cuprous Oxide, Cu2O reacts with concentrated Nitric Acid, HNO3, or with dilute Nitric Acid, HNO3, on heating, when the Cuprous Oxide, Cu2O dissolves with evolution of Nitric Oxide, NO 3 Cu2O + 14 HNO3 6 Cu (NO3)2 + 2 NO + 7 H2O Nitrates: Salts of metals with nitric acid are called nitrates Most nitrates are soluble in water The nitrates of alkali metals form nitrites when strongly heated: 2NaNO3 2NaNO2 + O2 The nitrate of other metals decompose on heating to form nitrogen dioxide and the metal oxide, or, in the case of some metals such as silver and gold, the pure metal, nitrogen dioxide, and oxygen: 2Pb(NO3) 2PbO + 4NO2 + O2 2AgNO3 2Ag + 2NO2 + O2 Summary of Action of Heat on Nitrates Generally compounds of very reactive metals such as sodium and potassium are more stable to heat than the metals lower down in the reactivity series of metals Nitrogen pollution ?? 16.0.0 Sulphur and Its Compounds Sulphur It takes the form of a yellow solid naturally and can be found in this state near volcanoes Sulphur is also present in a number of metal ores, for example zinc blende (zinc sulphide, ZnS) Sulphur has chemical symbol S It has 16 protons and 16 neutrons An atom of S is represented as 3216S Sulphur is a non-metal and exists in the earth's crust either as pure sulphur or as a metal-sulphide Since S has 16 protons, it also has 16 electrons; the electronic configuration of S is 2, 8, 6 S is placed in Group VI A of the periodic table, just after phosphorus, and below oxygen The reaction of S is similar to oxygen Sulphur is found as a free element or in combined state in nature Free sulphur is found in at a large depth below the earth's surface Metal sulphides such as Zn, Fe, Ag, Ca, Pb, Cu are found in abundant quantities Mineral ores containing S are: Copper pyrites : CuFeS2 Galena : PbS Zinc blende : ZnS Iron pyrite : FeS2 Sulphur is found as H2 S gas in petroleum gas, coal gas H2S is the familiar pungent smell of onions It is present in hair, eggs, many proteins and wool Extraction of pure sulphur : Frasch process Since sulphur in free state is found at depths of more than 150 to 300 meters below the earth's surface, the method of extraction of sulphur differs from other metal or non-metal extractions Sulphur's relatively low melting point (115°C) is utilized in this process This is known as the Frasch process Here compressed super heated water (at 170°C) is pressed into a pipe which reaches up to the sulphur deposits The sulphur here melts Introducing hot compressed air through another pipe brings it up The molten sulphur and water mixture is forced up and is collected in a settling tank The sulphur is cooled and water is evaporated The sulphur extracted in this way is more than 99% pure The sulphur obtained by Frasch process is a yellow and brittle solid or powder Physical properties of sulphur : Since S has 6 electrons in its outermost shell, it needs 2 more electrons to complete its shell But S combines with 7 other atoms to make a sulphur molecule that has a total of 8 sulphur atoms Thus each S atom shares 2 electrons with its neighboring atom The bonds are covalent in nature A molecule of sulphur is represented as S8 It is a ringed molecule The structure is shown below These large molecules each have many electrons , so the Van der Waals forces are quite strong and the melting point is quite high (119oC) There are two ways of packing the sulphur rings, so solid sulphur exists in two crystalline forms, called rhombic and monoclinic Allotropes of sulphur Sulphur is a yellow crystalline solid It is tasteless and odourless The melting point of S is 115°C Sulphur is an insulator and is a poor conductor of heat and electricity S is insoluble in water but is soluble in CS2 Sulphur forms covalent bonds and shows allotropic forms The allotropes have different crystalline shapes such as rhombic and monoclinic There is another allotrope which has no shape and is called plastic sulphur Vapours of sulphur are pungent and although not poisonous, they can cause health problems to humans Chemical properties of sulphur : 1. Valence : Since S has 6 electrons in its outer shell Hence S does not give off its electrons easily It readily forms covalent bonds to complete its outer shell It shows variable valence of 2 or 6 S is quite a reactive element and forms oxides, chlorides and sulphides readily 2. Action of oxygen: Sulphur reacts with oxygen and burns with a blue flame It forms sulphur dioxide which is a colourless gas having a pungent smell Sulphur dioxide forms an acidic solution, sulphurous acid, when dissolved in water i.e it turns damp blue litmus paper red It will also react with oxidising agents to produce sulphate ions e.g Orange acidified dichromate (VI) ions are turned green and purple acidified manganese (VII) ions are turned colourless 3. S reacts with other non-metals also In all cases sulphur has to be heated or boiled for the reaction to take place 4. Reaction with metals : Heated S reacts with metals like Fe, Cu, Zn, Sb directly to give metal-sulphide A mixture of powdered zinc and sulphur, when heated up to a high temperature, will react together to produce an extremely exothermic change A few reactions are shown below 5. Reaction with acids : S is oxidized by strong concentrated oxidizing acids such as sulphuric acid and nitric acid In both the reactions S acts as a reducing agent Effect of heat on sulphur: A sulphur molecule consists of 8 atoms in a ring form When heated, S melts at 115°C and a pale yellow liquid is formed The S8 ringed molecules are connected to other molecules in a long chain On heating, the long chain breaks up The individual molecules can slip over each other when melted On further heating, the liquid becomes dark brown and viscous When the temperature rises beyond 160°C, the intra-molecular bonds break Sulphur boils at 444°C At this temperature the large molecule breaks up into pieces of S2 molecule This molecule is pale yellowish-brown in colour The vapours of S contains S2 molecules Vulcanization of rubber : Natural rubber is a soft and sticky solid Rubber is a long chain polymer made out of isoprene (2 – methyl butadiene) monomer The long molecule forms a coil like structure The unique property of rubber is that it is elastic When rubber is stretched, the molecular bonds can be extended out When released, the molecules coil back to their original shape Natural rubber looses its rubber-like properties at temperatures above 60°C Also its wear resistance and tensile strengths are low The process of vulcanization can improve the quality of rubber Raw rubber is heated with sulphur during vulcanization This makes the rubber hard, more elastic and strong During the process of vulcanization, the sulphur atoms attach themselves to extra loose bonds in the rubber molecule and also cross-link the molecules The cross-linking locks the molecules in place and prevents slipping Thus making the vulcanized rubber more strong Vulcanized rubber is non-sticky and has higher elasticity It does not loose its properties easily and can be used in a temperature range of – 40°C to 100°C Uses of sulphur : S is used to make H2SO4 acid, which is used in the manufacture of many compounds such as detergents, plastics, explosives, etc S is used for making CS2 molecule, gun powder, matches etc S is used for manufacture of fire works S is used in the rubber industry for vulcanization of rubber S is used for making germicides, fungicides S is used in many medicines S is used in photographic development (sodium thiosulphate or hypo) S is used for making bleaching agents S is used in making artificial hair colours or dyes The Properties Of Sulphur: Non-metallic yellow solid at room temperature Brittle Insoluble in water Soluble in organic solvents, for example methylbenzene Non-conductor of electricity whether solid, molten of dissolved Relatively low melting point and boiling point Sulphur Dioxide Moist sulphur dioxide (or sulphurous acid) is a reducing agent This fact is used as a test for the detection of sulphur dioxide 1. There is a colour change from purple (pink in dilute solution) to colourless on the addition of the gas to a solution of potassium manganate (VII) (permanganate) 2MnO4- + 5SO + 2H2O 2Mn2+ + 5SO42- + 4H+ 2 There is a colour change from orange to blue on adding the gas to a solution of potassium dichromate (VI) Cr2O72- + 3SO2 +2H+ 2Cr3+ + 3SO42- + H2O Sulphurous acid and Sulphites Sulphur dioxide dissolves in water forming sulphuric (IV) acid (sulphurous acid) SO2 (aq) + H2O (l) H2SO3 (aq) This is a weak dibasic acid and ionises producing hydrogen ions and sulphite SO32- ions H2SO3 2H+ + SO32- 1. Sulphites give sulphur dioxide on heating with dilute acids Na2SO3+ 2HCl NaCl + SO2 + H2O 2. With barium chloride they give a white precipitate of barium sulphite which is soluble in dilute hydrochloric acid Ba2+ (aq) + SO32- (aq) BaSO3 (s) (White precipitate) BaSO3 (s) + 2HCl BaCl2 + SO2 (g) + H2O This reaction is used as a test for sulphite ions in solution Sulphur Dioxide Sulphur dioxide is a colourless gas, about 2.5 times as heavy as air, with a suffocating smell, faint sweetish odour Occurrence Sulphur dioxide occurs in volcanic gases and thus traces of sulphur dioxide are present in the atmosphere Other sources of sulphur dioxide are the combustion of the iron pyrites which are contained in coal Sulphur dioxide also results from various metallurgical and chemical processes Preparation of Sulphur Dioxide Sulphur dioxide is prepared by burning sulphur in oxygen or air S + O2 SO2 Sulphur dioxide is usually made in the laboratory by heating concentrated sulphuric acid with copper turnings Cu + 2 H2SO4 CuSO4 + SO2 + 2 H2O Sulphur dioxide is released by the action of acids on sulphites or acid sulphites (e.g by dropping concentrated sulphuric acid into a concentrated solution of sodium hydrogen sulphite) Sulphur dioxide is a colourless liquid or pungent gas, which is the product of the combustion of sulphur on air Its melting point is -72.7 0C, its boiling point is -100C and its relative density is 1.43 Sulphur Dioxide is an acidic oxide which reacts with water to give sulphurous acid SO2 + H2O H2SO3 Sulphur dioxide is a good reducing and oxidising agent Summary Uses of Sulphur Dioxide a). Sulphur dioxide is a reducing agent and is used for bleaching and as a fumigant and food preservative b). Large quantities of sulphur dioxide are used in the contact process for the manufacture of sulphuric acid c). Sulphur dioxide is used in bleaching wool or straw, and as a disinfectant d). Liquid sulphur dioxide has been used in purifying petroleum products e). It is used as a bleaching agent The Contact Process This page describes the Contact Process for the manufacture of sulphuric acid, and then goes on to explain the reasons for the conditions used in the process It looks at the effect of proportions, temperature, pressure and catalyst on the composition of the equilibrium mixture, the rate of the reaction and the economics of the process A brief summary of the Contact Process The Contact Process: Makes sulphur dioxide; Converts the sulphur dioxide into sulphur trioxide (the reversible reaction at the heart of the process); Converts the sulphur trioxide into concentrated sulphuric acid Making the sulphur dioxide This can either be made by burning sulphur in an excess of air: or by heating sulphide ores like pyrite in an excess of air: In either case, an excess of air is used so that the sulphur dioxide produced is already mixed with oxygen for the next stage Converting the sulphur dioxide into sulphur trioxide This is a reversible reaction, and the formation of the sulphur trioxide is exothermic A flow scheme for this part of the process looks like this: Converting the sulphur trioxide into sulphuric acid This can't be done by simply adding water to the sulphur trioxide - the reaction is so uncontrollable that it creates a fog of sulphuric acid Instead, the sulphur trioxide is first dissolved in concentrated sulphuric acid: The product is known as fuming sulphuric acid or oleum This can then be reacted safely with water to produce concentrated sulphuric acid - twice as much as you originally used to make the fuming sulphuric acid Summary Explaining the conditions The proportions of sulphur dioxide and oxygen The mixture of sulphur dioxide and oxygen going into the reactor is in equal proportions by volume Avogadro's Law says that equal volumes of gases at the same temperature and pressure contain equal numbers of molecules That means that the gases are going into the reactor in the ratio of 1 molecule of sulphur dioxide to 1 of oxygen That is an excess of oxygen relative to the proportions demanded by the equation According to Le Chatelier's Principle, Increasing the concentration of oxygen in the mixture causes the position of equilibrium to shift towards the right Since the oxygen comes from the air, this is a very cheap way of increasing the conversion of sulphur dioxide into sulphur trioxide Why not use an even higher proportion of oxygen? This is easy to see if you take an extreme case Suppose you have a million molecules of oxygen to every molecule of sulphur dioxide The equilibrium is going to be tipped very strongly towards sulphur trioxide - virtually every molecule of sulphur dioxide will be converted into sulphur trioxide Great! But you aren't going to produce much sulphur trioxide every day The vast majority of what you are passing over the catalyst is oxygen which has nothing to react with By increasing the proportion of oxygen you can increase the percentage of the sulphur dioxide converted, but at the same time decrease the total amount of sulphur trioxide made each day The 1: 1 mixture turns out to give you the best possible overall yield of sulphur trioxide The temperature Equilibrium considerations You need to shift the position of the equilibrium as far as possible to the right in order to produce the maximum possible amount of sulphur trioxide in the equilibrium mixture The forward reaction (the production of sulphur trioxide) is exothermic According to Le Chatelier's Principle, this will be favoured if you lower the temperature The system will respond by moving the position of equilibrium to counteract this - in other words by producing more heat In order to get as much sulphur trioxide as possible in the equilibrium mixture, you need as low a temperature as possible However, 400 - 450°C isn't a low temperature! Rate considerations The lower the temperature you use, the slower the reaction becomes A manufacturer is trying to produce as much sulphur trioxide as possible per day It makes no sense to try to achieve an equilibrium mixture which contains a very high proportion of sulphur trioxide if it takes several years for the reaction to reach that equilibrium You need the gases to reach equilibrium within the very short time that they will be in contact with the catalyst in the reactor The compromise 400 - 450°C is a compromise temperature producing a fairly high proportion of sulphur trioxide in the equilibrium mixture, but in a very short time The pressure Equilibrium considerations Notice that there are 3 molecules on the left-hand side of the equation, but only 2 on the right According to Le Chatelier's Principle, if you increase the pressure the system will respond by favouring the reaction which produces fewer molecules That will cause the pressure to fall again In order to get as much sulphur trioxide as possible in the equilibrium mixture, you need as high a pressure as possible High pressures also increase the rate of the reaction However, the reaction is done at pressures close to atmospheric pressure! Economic considerations Even at these relatively low pressures, there is a 995% conversion of sulphur dioxide into sulphur trioxide The very small improvement that you could achieve by increasing the pressure isn't worth the expense of producing those high pressures The catalyst Equilibrium considerations The catalyst has no effect whatsoever on the position of the equilibrium Adding a catalyst doesn't produce any greater percentage of sulphur trioxide in the equilibrium mixture Its only function is to speed up the reaction Rate considerations In the absence of a catalyst the reaction is so slow that virtually no reaction happens in any sensible time The catalyst ensures that the reaction is fast enough for a dynamic equilibrium to be set up within the very short time that the gases are actually in the reactor Properties of Sulphuric Acid Sulphuric acid is a dense, oily liquid once known as oil of vitriol Pure sulphuric acid is almost twice as dense as water (1.98 g cm-2) As water is added the density drops Car batteries contain concentrated sulfuric acid As the battery is discharged, the concentration of the acid falls By measuring the density of the acid the driver can check whether the battery is flat or not Action as an oxidising agent It behaves as an oxidising agent only when hot and concentrated: Cu + 2H2SO4 CuSO4 + H2O + SO2 The sulphuric acid is reduced to sulphur dioxide Action as a dehydrating agent Concentrated sulphuric acid has a great affinity for water (It is important when diluting the concentrated acid to add the acid to water and NEVER water to acid) The reaction is highly exothermic So great is its affinity for water that it can dehydrate compounds containing hydrogen and oxygen: acid It is used for drying gases, especially SO2 and HCl, but cannot be used to dry a reducing gas such as H2S or an alkaline gas such as NH3 Action as a dehydrating agent The properties of acids are due to the hydrogen ions in solution Concentrated sulphuric acid contains molecules, rather than ions Since it contains very few hydrogen ions it does not react significantly with metals and can safely be stored in steel containers A piece of magnesium ribbon does not dissolve in concentrated sulphuric acid Diluted with water, sulphuric acid behaves as a typical acid: it reacts with metals to form sulphates plus hydrogen gas it reacts with metal carbonates to form metal sulphates plus carbon dioxide plus water It neutralises bases to form sulphates plus water Industrial uses 17.0.0 Chlorine and Its Compounds Chlorine Halogen is elements in group (vii) of the periodic table Chlorine is a halogen as well as fluorine, bromine, iodine and astatine Chlorine has a symbol 355 Cl because it is made up of two isotopes 37 Cl and 35 Cl It has an electronic arrangement of 2:8:7, hence justifying its position in group (vii) Laboratory preparation In order to convert hydrogen chloride to chlorine, it is necessary to remove hydrogen Removal of hydrogen is oxidation A powerful oxidizing agent such as manganese (IV) oxide converts hydrogen chloride (HCl) to chloride (Cl2) The most common laboratory method for preparation of Chlorine is to heat of Manganese Dioxide with concentrated Hydrochloric Acid The gas is bubbled through water to remove any traces of hydrochloric gas that may be present and then it is dried by bubbling it through concentrated sulphuric acid Chlorine may also be prepared by dropping cold concentrated Hydrochloric Acid on crystals of Potassium Permanganate 2 KMnO4 + 16 HCl 2 MnCl2 + 2 KCl + 8 H2O + 5 Cl2 The gas is also bubbled through water to remove any traces of Hydrochloric Acid gas that may be present and then it is dried by bubbling it through concentrated Sulphuric Acid Manufacture of Chlorine Membrane cell Chlorine is manufactured industrially as a by-product in the manufacture of Caustic Soda by the electrolysis of brine 2 NaCl + 2 H2O Cl2 + H2 + 2 NaOH The membrane cell has titanium anode and a nickel cathode Titanium is chosen because it is not attacked by chlorine The anode and the cathode compartments are separated by an ion exchange membrane The membrane is selective; it allows Na+ ions, H+ and OH- ions to flow but not Cl- ions These ions cannot flow backwards, so products are kept separate and cannot react with each other At anode, the Cl- ions are discharged more readily than OH- ions because they are in higher concentration and are hence preferred 2 Cl- Cl2 + 2e- A pale green gas is seen coming off at the anode At cathode, it is the H+ ions that accept electrons, as sodium is more reactive than hydrogen 2 H+ + 2e- H2 Bubbles of hydrogen are seen at the cathode The remaining ions of Na+ and OH- join up and come off as sodium hydroxide, NaOH Products and uses Properties of chlorine Test for Chlorine Gas, Cl2(g) 1) Will turn moist litmus or universal indicator paper red, and then bleach it white (2) Is green-yellow in colour (3) Has a pungent choking smell and is poisonous It is twice as dense as air (4) Will put out a lit splint Collecting Chlorine Chlorine is denser than air and can be collected by downward delivery or using a gas syringe Reactions 1.Chlorine is a highly reactive element, and undergoes reaction with a wide variety of other elements and compounds 2.Chlorine is a good bleaching agent, due to its oxidising properties 3.Chlorine is soluble in water (which solution is called Chlorine Water) and this loses its yellow colour on standing in sunlight, due to the formation of a mixture of Hypochlorous Acid and Hydrochloric Acid Cl2 + H2O HOCl + HCl 4.Chlorine gas supports the vigorous combustion of many elements to form their chlorides For example, Sulphur and Phosphorus burn in the gas Cl2 + S SCl2 Cl2 + P PCl3 + PCl5 Bleaching Action If chlorine is passed through water, it forms two acids, hydrochloric acid Cl2 (g) + H2O (l) HCl (aq) + HOCl (aq) Hypochlorous acid (the second acid) is the source of oxygen and is responsible for the bleaching of chlorine HClO (aq) + Dye HCl (aq) + oxidized Dye (Coloured) (Colourless) It is important to wash bleached clothes thoroughly to remove hydrochloric acid formed after the process Reaction of Chlorine with Hydrogen A mixture of Chlorine and Hydrogen explodes when exposed to sunlight to give Hydrogen Chloride In the dark, no reaction occurs, so activation of the reaction by light energy is required Hydrogen and chlorine gas also combine directly in presence of sunlight A jar of hydrogen is inverted and placed on a jar containing chlorine in the sun Soon hydrogen chloride is formed In diffused sunlight, the reaction slows down, and in the dark it is very slow Cl2 + H2 2 HCl Hydrogen chloride is highly soluble in water It dissolves to form hydrochloric acid This reaction can be used to produce hydrochloric when the hydrogen chloride gas produced is dissolved in water as shown 2. Reaction of Chlorine with Non-Metals Chlorine combines directly with most non-metals (except with Nitrogen, Oxygen and Carbon, C) 3. Reaction of Chlorine with Metals Thin foils of metals like sodium, copper, etc. when plunged into a jar of chlorine gas catch fire spontaneously to form their respective chlorides With yellow phosphorous Yellow phosphorus first melts and then catches fire spontaneously when introduced into a jar of chlorine gas It forms thick white fumes of phosphorus (III) chloride and phosphorus (V) chloride Reaction with hydrogen sulphide On passing chlorine and hydrogen sulphide through separate vents in a upright combustion tube hydrogen sulphide gets oxidised to hydrogen chloride and sulphur Hydrogen chloride comes out through the middle tube If chlorine is passed through a solution of hydrogen sulphide in water the solution turns turbid due to the formation of free sulphur Reaction with aqueous sodium sulphite When chlorine is passed through an aqueous solution of sodium sulphite it gets converted to sodium sulphate Chlorine first reacts with the water to form nascent oxygen Displacement of the Halogens by Chlorine Halogens are the most electronegative elements Fluorine is the most electronegative, followed by chlorine then bromine and then iodine The relative reactivity of the halogens, as described in group trends, can be shown by displacement reactions These are similar to the metal displacement reactions For example, Bromine gas bubbled through a solution of potassium iodide in water will displace (take the place of) the less reactive iodine, forming iodine and potassium bromide Bromine + potassium iodide potassium bromide + iodine Br2(g) + 2KI(aq) 2KBr(aq) + I2(s) Similarly, chlorine will displace less reactive halogens Chlorine will displace both bromine and iodine from the appropriate salt This can be used in the extraction of bromine from sea water Chlorine + potassium iodide potassium chloride + iodine Cl2(g) + 2KI(aq) 2KCl(aq) + I2(s) The equations can be written in terms of ions (called ionic equations)For example, the last equation can be written as Cl2(g) + 2I-(aq) 2Cl-(aq) + I2(s) Potassium iodide, on the left, exists as potassium ions (K+) and iodide ions (I-) and potassium chloride, on the right, exists as potassium ions (K+) and chloride ions (Cl-) Potassium ions (or other metal ions) can be left out of the ionic equation because they do not take part in the reaction They are called 'spectator ions', as though they just sit back and watch! Fluorine being the most electronegative halogen can displace all the other elements of this group (chlorine, bromine and iodine) from the aqueous solution of their salts Chlorine can displace bromine and iodine from bromides and iodides respectively However, it cannot displace fluorine from fluorides Bromine can displace iodine from iodides But it cannot displace chlorine or fluorine from chlorides or fluorides respectively Iodine being the least electronegative of the halogens cannot displace any other halogen from their respective halides Summary of Displacement Reactions Bleaching Action of Chlorine Chlorine bleaches (removes the color) organic colors by the process of oxidation in presence of moisture The bleaching action takes place in few steps: a) Chlorine first dissolves in water to give a mixture of hydrochloric acid and hypochlorous acid b) As mentioned earlier hypochlorous acid is very unstable and decomposes to give hydrochloric acid and nascent oxygen c) The nascent oxygen oxidises the coloring matter to colorless matter thereby bleaching them Bleaching by chlorine is permanent Chlorine bleaches cotton fabrics, wood pulp litmus etc However, it is not used to bleach delicate articles such as silk, wool etc, as it is a strong bleaching and oxidizing agent This dual action will damage the base material You must have noticed that in the very first stage, presence of water is essential to produce hypochlorous acid The dry coloured fabric does not bleach The coloured fabric soaked in water is bleached This shows that chlorine only bleaches in the presence of water If water is absent no bleaching can take place Dry chlorine therefore does not bleach Tests for Chlorine 1. Chlorine is a greenish yellow gas with a pungent and irritating odor 2. It turns wet blue litmus paper red and then bleaches it 3. Colored petals and the leaves of plants can be bleached by it 4. Chlorine turns wet starch potassium iodide paper blue by displacing the iodine from the potassium iodide, and causing iodine to turn the starch blue Oxidizing Reaction of Chlorine Chlorine is a strong oxidising agent Chlorine oxidises Iron (II) Chloride, FeCl2, to the salt containing Iron in the higher oxidation state Iron (III) Chloride, FeCl3 This is possible because Iron has a variable valency 2 FeCl2 + Cl2 2 FeCl3 Chlorine displaces the less electronegative Bromine and Iodine from their respective salts Cl2 + 2 KBr 2 KCl + Br2 Chlorine removes Hydrogen from the hydrides of non-metals, forming Hydrogen Chloride, and leaving the non-metal element Cl2 + H2S 2 HCl + S Affinity for Hydrogen Chlorine combines with free hydrogen to form hydrogen chloride It can also react with the hydrogen present in other compounds such as water, ammonia, hydrocarbon, hydrogen sulphide etc With water Chlorine dissolves in water to form chlorine water It slowly reacts with the water to form a mixture of hydrochloric acid and hypochlorous acid Hypochlorous acid is very unstable and in presence of sunlight it decomposes to give hydrochloric acid and a nascent oxygen atom Two such nascent oxygen atoms combine to form a molecule of oxygen So if a solution of chlorine in water is exposed to sunlight as shown in figure 1414, oxygen is formed With ammonia Depending on which of the two gases is in excess, chlorine reacts with ammonia in two ways (a) When ammonia is in excess the final products are ammonium chloride and nitrogen Hydrogen chloride thus produced reacts with excess of ammonia to produce ammonium chloride The overall reaction can be written as: (b) When chlorine is in excess the final product is an oily explosive liquid called nitrogen trichloride With alkalis Alkalis, at different temperatures and at different levels of concentration, behave differently with chlorine (i) With cold dilute alkalis Chlorine reacts with cold dilute alkalis to form their respective chlorides, hypochlorites and water (ii) With hot concentrated alkalis Chlorine reacts with hot concentrated alkalis to form their respective chlorides, chlorates and water Uses Chlorine is used For the manufacture of bleaching powder and liquid bleaches, To bleach fabrics (e.g linen and cotton), wood pulp and paper, For the direct manufacture of Hydrochloric Acid by the direct combination of its elements, H2 + Cl2 -> 2 HCl In the manufacture Sodium Hypochlorite (i.e domestic bleach), disinfectants, insecticides, plastics and Hydrochloric Acid, As a disinfectant used to kill bacteria in the preparation of drinking water Chlorine is also important in the manufacture of paints, aerosol propellants and plastics Also used to make some explosives, poison gases and pesticides Hydrogen Chloride Hydrogen chloride is an hydrogen compound of Chlorine Chlorine is a highly reactive element and is mainly found in combined state Its most important source is sodium chloride which is mainly found in large underground deposits, sea and lake such as lake Magadi Sodium chloride is the main source of chlorine which is used to make hydrogen chloride Preparation of hydrogen chloride Hydrogen Chloride may be prepared in the laboratory by heating Concentrated Sulphuric Acid, with Sodium Chloride Preparing and making a solution of hydrogen chloride It is prepared industrially by the combustion of Hydrogen, H2, in Chlorine, Cl2 H2 + Cl2 -> 2 HCl Other way of producing chlorine Chlorine, removes Hydrogen, from the hydrides of non-metals, forming Hydrogen Chloride, and leaving the non-metal element Cl2 + H2S 2 HCl + S When Chlorine Water, (i.e a solution of Chlorine gas, in Water) in a flask inverted in a basin of the same liquid is exposed to bright sunlight, the Chlorine is decomposed and a solution of Hypochlorous Acid remains H2O + Cl2 HCl + HClO The Hypochlorous Acid, is not very stable and the solution readily decomposes, especially when exposed to sunlight, yielding Oxygen, 2 HClO 2 HCl + O2 Chlorine is soluble in water (which solution is called Chlorine Water) and this loses its yellow colour on standing in sunlight, due to the formation of a mixture of Hypochlorous Acid, and Hydrochloric Acid Cl2 + H2O HOCl + HCl Properties of Hydrogen Chloride Hydrogen chloride in solution Hydrogen chloride is a colourless fuming gas The polar covalent gas Hydrogen Chloride is very soluble in Water In aqueous solution, the molecule exists in ionic form, as the positively charged Hydrogen Ion, H+, and the negatively charged Chloride Ion, Cl- HCl + aq H (+) + Cl (-) Hydrogen Hydrogen Chloride Chloride Ion Ion Its solution in water turns blue litmus paper red Hydrogen chloride has no effect on dry litmus paper as no ions are present in dry gas The importance of water The gas hydrogen chloride is made up of covalently bonded molecules If the gas is dissolved in an organic solvent, such as methylbenzene, it does not show any of the properties of an acid Dissolving hydrogen chloride in water and methylbenzene For example, it does not conduct electricity or turn a piece of blue litmus paper red However, when the gas is dissolved in water, a strongly acidic solution is produced The acidic oxides of sulphur, phosphorus and carbon are the similar They are covalent molecules when pure, but show acidic properties only when dissolved in water Reaction with Group 1 Alkali Metals Alkali metals burn very exothermically and vigorously when heated in chlorine to form colourless crystalline ionic salts e.g NaCl or Na+Cl- This is a very expensive way to make salt! It's much cheaper to produce it by evaporating sea water! E.g sodium + chlorine sodium chloride 2Na(s) + Cl2(g) 2NaCl(s) The sodium chloride is soluble in water to give a neutral solution pH 7, universal indicator is green The salt is a typical ionic compound i.e a brittle solid with a high melting point Similarly potassium and bromine form potassium bromide KBr, or lithium and iodine form lithium iodide LiI Again note the group formula pattern Hydrochloric acid reacts with metals above hydrogen in the reactivity series All of these metals react with hydrochloric acid liberating hydrogen which puts out a burning splint with a pop sound Zn(s) + 2HCl (aq) -> ZnCl2 (aq) + H2 (g) This is a common reaction for preparing hydrogen gas in the school laboratory The hydrogen can then be collected over water The salts produced can be obtained from the solution by filtration to obtain the filtrate which then transferred onto an evaporation dish for evaporation and crystallization No hydrogen is liberated when the acid is reacted with lead, copper and mercury Despite the fact that lead is above hydrogen in the reactivity series, the hydrogen chloride is not a strong enough oxidizing agent to liberate hydrogen Reaction with bases Hydrochloric acid is a strong acid as it is well ionized in solution It neutralizes bases and alkalis forming salts and water KOH (aq) + HCl (aq) -> KCl (aq) + H2O (l) CuO(s) + HCl (aq) -> CuCl2 (aq) + H2O (l) FeO(s) + 2 HCl (aq) -> FeCl2 (aq) + H2O (l) Reaction with carbonates Hydrogen chloride reacts with carbonates and hydrogen carbonates producing carbon dioxide, salt and water Carbon dioxide turns lime water milky CaCO3 (aq) + 2HCl (aq) CaCl2 (aq) + CO2 (g)+H2O (l) Ionic equation CO3/sub>2- (aq) + 2H+ (aq) CO2(g) + H2O (l) NaHCO3 (aq) + HCl (aq) NaCl (aq) + CO2 (aq) + H2O (l) Ionic equation HCO3-(aq) + H+ (aq) CO2(g) + H2O(l) Reaction with hydrogen H2 Halogens readily combine with hydrogen to form the hydrogen halides which are colourless gaseous covalent molecules E.g hydrogen + chlorine hydrogen chloride H2 (g) + Cl2 (g) -> 2HCl (g) The hydrogen halides dissolve in water to form very strong acids with solutions of pH1 e.g hydrogen chloride forms hydrochloric acid in water HCl(aq) or H+Cl-(aq) because they are fully ionised in aqueous solution even though the original hydrogen halides were covalent! An acid is a substance that forms H+ ions in water Bromine forms hydrogen bromide gas HBr (g), which dissolved in water forms hydrobromic acid HBr (aq) Iodine forms hydrogen iodide gas HI (g), which dissolved in water forms hydriodic acid HI (aq) Note the group formula pattern Oxidation of hydrochloric acid The most common laboratory method for preparation of Chlorine is to heat Manganese Dioxide, with concentrated Hydrochloric Acid MnO2 + 4 HCl MnCl2 + 2 H2O + Cl2 The gas is bubbled through water to remove any traces of hydrochloric gas that may be present and then it is dried by bubbling it through concentrated sulphuric acid Chlorine may also be prepared by dropping cold concentrated Hydrochloric Acid, on Potassium Permanganate 2KMnO4 + 16HCl 2MnCl2 + 2KCl + 8H2O + 5Cl2 Summary Defination of Common Terms in Chemistry Word Definition: Acid :A corrosive substance which has a pH lower than 7 Acidity is caused by a high concentration of hydrogen ions Acid rain: Acid rain is caused when sulphur dioxide - released by the burning of coil and oil - dissolves in rainwater to form sulphuric acid Activation energy: The minimum energy required for a collision between particles, in order for a reaction to occur Addition polymer: Addition polymers are made when monomers (simple molecules) add together across a double bond Addition reaction: A reaction in which a small molecule adds on across a double bond Alkali: A base, which is soluble in water Alkali metals The alkali metals are the elements in Group 1 of the periodic table They have one electron in the outer shell Alkanes: Alkanes are saturated hydrocarbons This means that each carbon atom has four bonds to other atoms Alkenes: Alkenes are unsaturated hydrocarbons with a double bond between the carbon atoms Allotropes: Allotropes are structurally different forms of an element They differ in the way the atoms bond with each other and arrange themselves into a structure Because of their different structures, allotropes have different physical and chemical properties Alloy: An alloy is a mof two or more elements, at least one of which is a metal Anode: An anode is the electrode (electrical conductor) attached to the positive terminal of a battery

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