

SUBJECT: CHEMISTRY

TOPIC: WATER

CLASS: SS 1

ABILITY: MIXED

OBJECTIVE: At the end of the topic the students should be able to:

1. Identify some types of water;
2. Draw the water cycle;
3. Describe the process of treating town water supply;
4. Define hardness in water;
5. Write equations for removal of hardness in water;
6. Define water pollution;
7. Identify sources of water pollution;
8. Define solutions and solvents;
9. Differentiate between true and false solutions.

DEVELOPMENT

WATER

OCCURRENCE: Water occurs in vast quantities all over the world in water bodies. It does not occur in its pure form in nature.

TPYES OF WATER

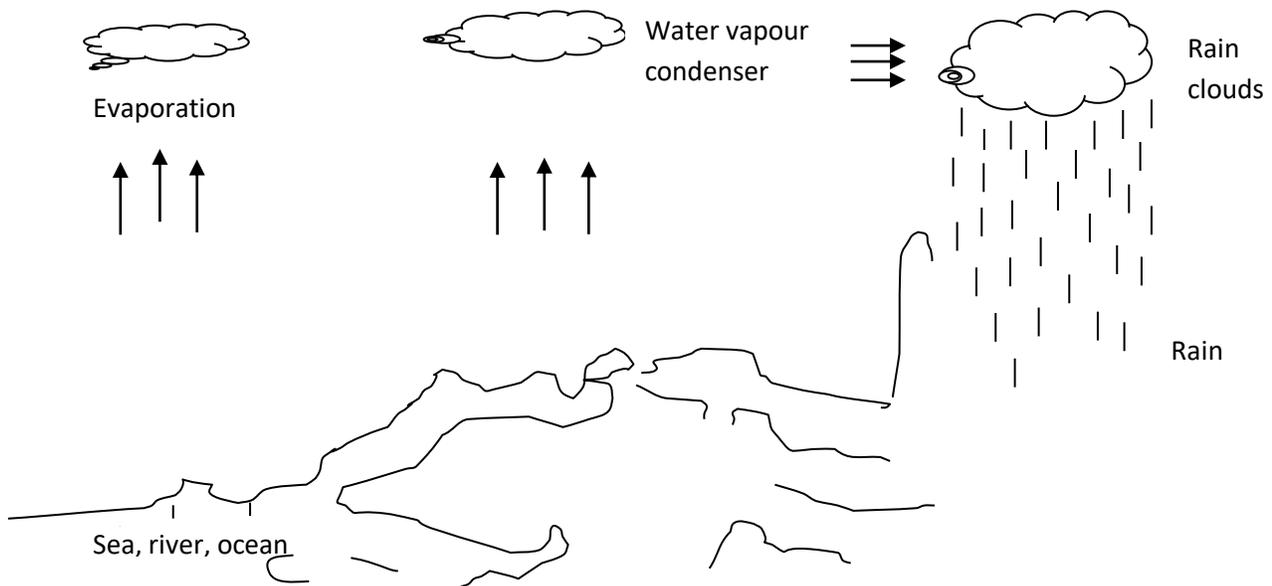
There are two major types of water: Natural and treated

1. RAIN WATER: Purest form of water. It is formed as a result of the condensation of water vapour in the atmosphere.
2. SPRING WATER: This is rain water which sinks through the porous soil layers but collects above an impervious layer. It is a good source of drinking water; with mineral salt.
3. WELL WATER: This is stagnant water. It contains a lot of clay, mineral salts and dead organisms.
4. RIVER WATER: Formed when spring or other running water come together.
5. LAKES, SEA, OCEAN: These form reservoirs for rivers and other running waters. They contain all sorts of substances including bacteria, mineral salts, air etc.

WATER CYCLE

All the different types of natural water are in constant circulation forming a gigantic water cycle. The largest collections of water are in the lakes, rivers, seas which are exposed to the atmosphere. Evaporation takes place continuously from them, and the

water vapour formed condenses to water droplets in the atmosphere, form clouds and fall as rain.



TREATED WATER

Treated water is usually prepared for special purposes: Example: distilled water and pipe-borne water for townships.

DISTILLED WATER: This is the purest form of water. It is prepared by condensing water vapour or steam. The apparatus used for the purpose is Liebig condenser.

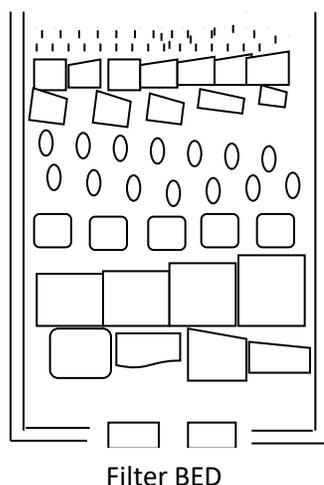
TREATMENT OF WATER SUPPLY

Water from the dams, lakes or rivers may contain high level of bacteria and undesirable micro-organisms. Hence there is the need for treatment to reduce these organisms. Also the water may contain clayed materials, mineral salt and other particles.

PROCEDURE

The procedure for treatment include:

1. Sedimentation/Flocculation/ Coagulation: By allowing the water to settle down or by use of flucculators to gather the particles or by addition of alum to coagulate the particles.
2. The water is then filtered using a filter bed
3. Aeration: Exposure to sunlight for dissolution of atmospheric oxygen which prevents anaerobic conditions that may produce foul odour. Sunlight also kills bacteria.
4. Addition of Chlorine: This acts as a germicide to kill bacteria. Others: $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ may be added to adjust the pH; fluoride may be added to prevent tooth decay and iodine may be added to prevent goiter. Water is now ready to be supplied to citizens.

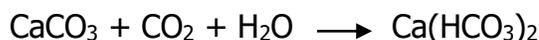


HARDNESS OF WATER

Water is said to be hard when it does not lather easily with soap.

ORIGIN OF HARD WATER

Water acquires hardness when it dissolves gypsum $\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ or limestone from the soil over which it passes. Gypsum is sparingly soluble in water but limestone is not. However, the water which contains some Carbon(iv) oxide can dissolve CaCO_3 according to the equation:



Soluble

HARD WATER AND SOAP

Soap is the sodium or potassium salt of an organic acid. e.g. $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{35}\text{COONa}$ (Sodium Octadecanoate). When soap is added to hard water the dissolved salt in the water will react with soap to give the insoluble calcium or magnesium salts called 'scum' which stick to clothes and is difficult to rinse away.



Scum

TYPES OF HARDNESS

There are two types of hardness in water

(1) Temporary hardness (2) Permanent hardness

TEMPORARY HARDNESS

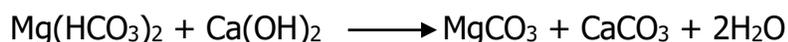
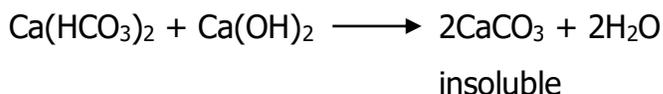
Temporary hardness is caused by the presence in water of calcium hydrogen trioxocarbonate(iv) $\text{Ca}(\text{HCO}_3)_2$ and magnesium hydrogen trioxocarbonate(iv) $\text{Mg}(\text{HCO}_3)_2$

REMOVAL OF TEMPORARY HARDNESS (SOFTENING)

(1) By Boiling – deposition of CaCO_3



(2) By adding calculated amounts of slaked lime $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$



(Note that if excess $\text{Ca}(\text{OH})_2$ is used, this will cause hardness in water).

EFFECT OF TEMPORARY HARDNESS

i. Furring of kettles and boilers

When a kettle or boiler has been used to boil temporarily hard water for sometime there will be deposits of CaCO_3 which are fur-like.

ii. Formation of stalagmites and stalactites

These are pillars of limestone (CaCO_3) growing from the roof and floor of hot caves in area of temporary hardness. Temporary hard water flowing through the rooftop of the cave gets hot and decomposes the $\text{Ca}(\text{HCO}_3)_2$ in the water. A Calcium trioxocarbonate(iv) deposit which grows downwards from the rooftop is called a stalactite while the one growing upwards from the floor is called a stalagmite.

PERMANENT HARDNESS

This is caused by the presence in water of Calcium and magnesium ions in the form of soluble tetraoxosulphate(vi), Chlorides – CaSO_4 , MgSO_4 , CaCl_2 etc.

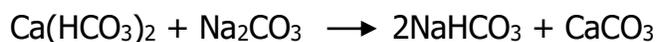
REMOVAL OF PERMANENT HARDNESS

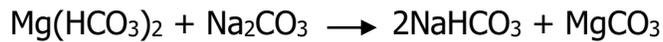
- Not easily removed by boiling.

1. Addition of washing Soda (Sodium trioxocarbonate(iv))

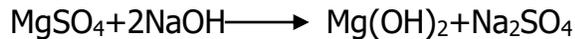


Also removes temporary hardness





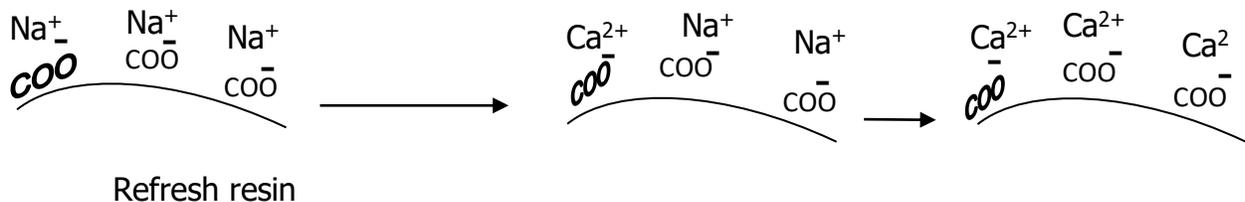
2. Addition Of Caustic Soda



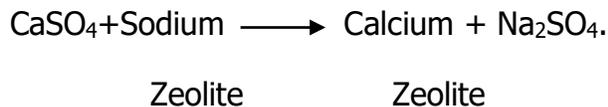
3. Distillation

4. Permutit or Zeolite or Ion-Exchange Method (resin)

An ion-exchange resin is an insoluble compound which has sodium ions (Na^+) attached to its surface. The most common types are sodium aluminium trioxosilicate(iv) (sodium zeolite) solid under the name of permutit. The resin in the form of beads is packed into a cylinder. When hard water is passed through the cylinder, calcium ions from the water takes the place of sodium ions on the resin. The water flows out without Ca^{2+} .



Reaction is:



After sometime the resin is spent to regenerate it, Conc NaCl is poured through the resin. The Na^+ replaces the Ca^{2+} and the resin can be reused.

ADVANTAGES OF HARD WATER

1. Tastes better due to dissolved minerals in it
2. The calcium salts in hard water help animals to build strong bone and teeth
3. Helps animals like crabs or snails to make their shells
4. Does not dissolve lead from lead pipes
5. It is better for some manufacturing processes like the brewery industry.

DISADVANTAGES OF HARD WATER

- i. It wastes soap
- ii.
- iii. It causes furring of kettles and boilers and wastes energy during heating (far act, as insulators)
- iv. It is not suitable for dyeing and tanning as the salts interfere with the dyeing process.

WATER POLLUTION

Water pollution is the contamination of water bodies (rivers, ocean, lakes etc) as a result of human activities.

WATER POLLUTANTS

The sources of water pollution include:

- Sewage and garbage – human wastes, sewers, garbage;
- Industrial waste from industries;
- Agricultural waste – fertilizers, pesticides, herbicides (weed growth);
- Oil spillage – oil producing areas;
- Thermal sources – breweries, iron and steel industries increase temperature and remove oxygen from river.

BIODEGRADABLE SUBSTANCES

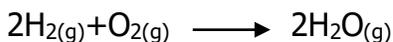
Pollutants that cannot be broken down into harmless substances are called non-biodegradables, detergents, plastics, some organic substances.

PREVENTION OF WATER POLLUTION

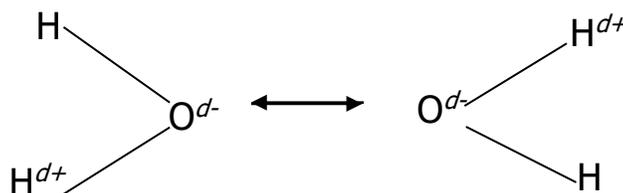
- Refuse should be burned or burnt in incinerators;
- Sewage should be processed and converted to useful organic fertilizers;
- Chemicals should be converted first to harmless substances before discharge to water;
- Care should be taken to avoid oil spillage;
- Educate the citizenry on dangers and effects of water pollution;
- Environmental protection agencies should carryout inspection of industries and ensure safety rules.

COMPOSITION OF WATER

Priestly (1781) observed that hydrogen and oxygen explode to form water vapour. Cavendish established ratio of H to O to be 2:1



Water is a polar solvent and can dissolve many substances.



PHYSICAL PROPERTIES

- Pure water is colourless, odourless and tasteless.
- It boils at 100°C at atmospheric pressure of 760mmHg.
- It freezes at 0°C .
- It has its maximum density of 1.0gcm^3 at 4°C .
- It is neutral to litmus.

CHEMICAL PROPERTIES

1. Reaction With Metal

Na and K react rigorously with cold water to give hydrogen gas

Ca reacts slowly with cold water.

Mg and Zn react only with steam

Al and Iron need to be red hot to react with steam

Cu, Hg, Ag and Au do not react with water under any condition.

Mnemonic For Reaction

Professor } liberate H₂ $2\text{Na} + 2\text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow 2\text{NaOH} + \text{H}_2$
S } with cold water
C } liberate H₂ slowly

M } liberate H₂ with
A } steam

Z } liberate H₂ at red hot
I } and steam
L }

Has } do not liberate
Conquered } H₂ under any
Mercury } condition
Stale }
Government }

2. With Non Metals

$\text{C} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{CO} + \text{H}_2$
White hot water gas.

$\text{Cl}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{HOCl} + \text{HCl}$.

3. With Metallic Oxides

$\text{Na}_2\text{O} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow 2\text{NaOH}$
Alkaline

4. With Non-Metallic Oxides

$\text{SO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{SO}_3$
Acids

$\text{CO}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{H}_2\text{CO}_3$
Acids

TEST FOR WATER

$\text{CuSO}_4 + 5\text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{CuSO}_4 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$

Anhydrous blue
white

$\text{CoCl}_2 + 6\text{H}_2\text{O} \longrightarrow \text{CoCl}_2 \cdot 6\text{H}_2\text{O}$
Blue pink

SOLUTIONS

A solution is a uniform or homogenous mixture of two or more substances.

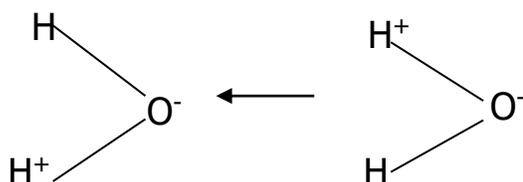
The substance that dissolves the other is called the solvent – usually water. The dissolved substance is called the solute. Solvent + Solute \longrightarrow Solution.

TYPES OF SOLUTIONS

- Solutions of solid in liquid e.g. NaCl in water.
- Solutions of liquid in liquid of ethanol and water – miscible liquids.
- Gas in liquid of CO₂ in water.
- Solutions of solid in solid of copper zinc to brass or copper and tin to form bronze.

SOLVENTS

The most common solvent is water. It is said to be polar because of its molecular structure. It is usually referred to as a universal solvent



When a solid substance dissolves in water the solution is said to be **aqueous**.

SUITABLE SOLVENTS FOR SOME SOLUTES

Solute	Solvent
Sodium Chloride	Water
Sugar	Water
Grease	Petrol
Sulphur	Carbon(iv) Sulphide
Rubber	Benzene
Paint	Turpentine.

Suspension:- A heterogeneous mixture of undissolved particles in a given medium.

USES OF SOLVENTS

- In laundries, some stains that cannot be removed by ordinary water could be subjected to other solvents like carbon tetrachloride, kerosene, borax (coffee)
- In manufacture of perfumes (ethanol)
- In dispensaries – iodine in ethanol
- In laboratory work – water and benzene
- Vulcanisers solution for mending patches/punctures (rubber in C₆H₆).

SUSPENSION

If chalk dust is added to water in a beaker, it will float for some time and settle at the bottom later. The particles will form sediments. The mixture is called a **Suspension**.

A suspension is a heterogeneous mixture of two substances.

In a suspension the solute particles are insoluble in the water e.g. harmatan dust, (2) fog – dust particles and water droplets, smoke etc.

Particles of suspension can be seen with the naked eyes and can be filtered.

COLLOIDS

Colloids are false solutions in which the individual solute particles are larger than the particles of the true solution but not large enough to be seen by the naked eyes.

TYPES OF COLLOIDS

In discussing colloids, the liquid solvent is known as the dispersing medium while the solid particles constitute the dispersed substances.

EXAMPLES OF COLLOIDS	SOLVENT DISPERSION MEDIUM	OR	SOLUTE OR DISPERSED SUBSTANCES
Fog	Air (gas)	Aerosol	Water particles (liquid) or solid
Smokey			Carbon particles (solid)
Foam or lather	Water (liquid)		Air bubbles (gas)
Emulation	Water (liquid)		Oil globules (liquid) – milk, hair cream, butter, paint
Sols/gels ^{conc}	Water (liquid)		Starch (solid), honey

TRUE AND FALSE SOLUTIONS

True Solution:- Solute particles dissolve and get in between the solvent particles – homogenous e.g. NaCl in water.

False Solution:- Solute particles are larger than the solvent particles e.g. starch in water.

DIFFERENCE BETWEEN FALSE AND TRUE SOLUTIONS

S/N	TRUE SOLUTION	FALSE SOLUTION
1	Solutes can pass through a filter paper	Solutes cannot pass through a filter paper
2	Solutes can diffuse through a medium	Solutes cannot diffuse through a medium
3	The solutes can exert an osmotic pressure	The solutes does not exert any observable osmotic pressure
4	The solutes can be dialysed. Solutes can pass through a semi permeable membrane	The solutes cannot be dialysed. The solutes cannot pass through a semi permeable membrane
5	The solutes do not scatter light – Do not exhibit tyndal effect	The solutes scatter light. They exhibit tyndal effect.

DEFINITION

A suspension is a heterogeneous mixture of undissolved substances/particles in a given medium. In a given suspension the solute particles are insoluble in a given solvent e.g. muddy water, fog, dust particles and water droplets harmattan dust. Particles of suspension can be seen with the naked eyes and can be filtered.

COLLOIDS

Colloids are false solutions in which the individual solute particles are larger than the particles of the true solution, but not large enough to be seen with the naked eyes.

TYPES OF COLLOIDS

In discussing colloids, the liquid solvent is known as the dispensing medium while the solid solute particles constitute the dispersed substances.

Examples of colloids	Solvent or dispersing medium	Solute or disperses substance
Fog (aerosol)	Air (gas)	Water particles (liquid) or solid
Smoke	Air (gas)	Carbon particles (solid)
Foam or lather	Water (liquid)	Air bubbles (gas)
Emulsion	Water (liquid)	Oil globules (liquid), milk, hair cream, butter, paint
Solid/gels	Water (liquid)	starch (solid), honey

TRUE AND FALSE SOLUTIONS

TRUE SOLUTION: Solute particles dissolve and get in between the solvent particles – homogenous mixture e.g. NaCl in water.

FALSE SOLUTION: Solute particles are larger than the solvent particles. Examples, starch in water.

DIFFERENCES BETWEEN TRUE AND FALSE SOLUTIONS

	TRUE SOLUTION	FALSE SOLUTION
1.	Solutes can pass through a filter paper	Solutes cannot pass through a filter paper
2.	Solutes can diffuse through a medium	Solutes cannot diffuse through a medium
3.	The solution can exert osmotic pressure	The solution does not exert any observable osmotic pressure
4.	The solutes can be dialysed – solutes can pass through a semi – permeable membrane	The solution cannot be dialysed the solutes cannot pass through a semi-permeable membrane.

5.	The solutes do not scatter light – do not exhibit Tyndale effect	The solutes scatter light – they exhibit tyndal effect.
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TOPIC: SOLUBILITY

CLASS: SS 2

ABILITY: MIXED

OBJECTIVE: At the end of the topic the students should be able to:

1. Define saturated and unsaturated solutions.
2. Define a supersaturated solution
3. Define solubility
4. Describe experiments to demonstrate solubility
5. Give some applications of solubility.
6. Perform some calculations involving solubility.

Previous knowledge: The students are conversant with water as a solvent and also solutes of various types.

SATURATED SOLUTION

Saturated solution of a solute at a particular temperature is one which contains as much solute as it can dissolve at that temperature in the presence of excess undissolved solute particles. The composition of a saturated solution is not affected by the presence of excess solute.

UNSATURATED SOLUTION

An unsaturated solution is one that has a lower concentration of solute than a saturated solution and can dissolve more solutes if added until it becomes saturated.

CONDITION

The concentration of a saturated solution varies with the (a) solute (b) solvent (c) temperature.

Generally solubility increases with increase in temperature. When a saturated solution is cooled, excess solute crystallize out at the lower temperature since solubility decreases with decrease in temperature.

Examples: Some substances whose saturated solution could be cooled without the solute particles crystallizing out include:

1. $\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 \cdot 10\text{H}_2\text{O}$. Sodium tetraoxosulphate (VI) decahydrate
2. $\text{Na}_2\text{S}_2\text{O}_3 \cdot 5\text{H}_2\text{O}$. Sodium trioxothiosulphate (II) Pentahydrate

Super saturated solutions are instable and excess solute will separate out if the solution is disturbed slightly or if a tiny crystal of the solute or even dust particle is dropped into it.

SOLUBILITY

The solubility of a solute in a solvent at a particular temperature is the maximum amount of solute that will saturate or dissolve in 1dm^3 of solvent at that temperature. Unit is mol dm^{-3} .

Or the maximum mass of solute in grams that will saturate or dissolve in 1 dm^3 of solvent unit is g dm^{-3} .

TO DETERMINE THE SOLUBILITY OF A GIVEN SOLUTE

The process involves two stages:

- (a) The preparation of a saturated solution at the temperature.
- (b) Heating a known mass of the saturated solution to dryness to determine the mass of the solvent and the mass of the solute in the saturated solution.

TO MEASURE THE SOLUBILITY OF POTASSIUM TRIOXONITRATES (V) AT ROOM TEMPERATURE (KNO_3).

Half fill a 50cm^3 beaker with distilled water. Add an excess of potassium trioxonitrate (V) to the water. Weigh a dry evaporating dish and pour in some of the saturated solution. Weigh the dish and the content. Heat the solution to dryness on a water bath. Cool the salt and dry in a desiccators. Weigh the content of the evaporating dish and hence calculate the amount of solute that dissolved and the mass of the solvent evaporated.

SPECIMEN RESULT

Mass of evaporating dish – Xg

Mass of dish saturated solution – yg

Mass of saturated solution – (y – x)g

Mass of dish + dry residue – zg

Mass of dry residue – (z-x)g

∴ Mass of water used – (y – z)g

Hence amount of salt that dissolved in 1000cm^3 (1dm^3) of solvent = $\frac{(z-x)}{(y-z)} \times \frac{100}{1}$

i.e. (z – x)g dissolved in (y – z)g of solvent

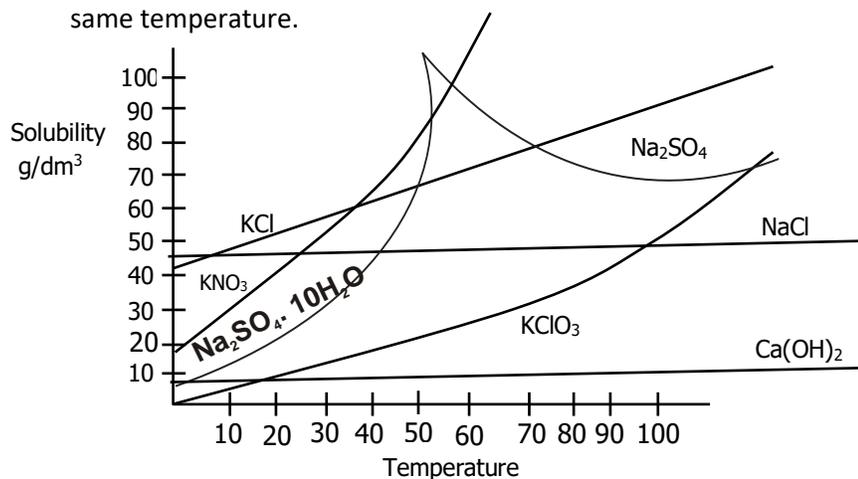
The value of mass of salt could be converted into moles/ dm^3 by using the relationship

$$\text{Amount} = \frac{\text{mass of substance}}{\text{molar mass}}$$

Assignment: Determine how you would determine the solubility of KNO_3 at 60°C

SOLUBILITY CURVES

If the solubilities of a solute in a given solvent are plotted against their respective temperatures, a graph, called solubility curve/graph is obtained. It is possible to plot the solubilities of different solutes at the same temperature.



DEDUCTIONS FROM THE GRAPH

For the temperature range of 0^{0c} to 100^{0c}

1. The solubilities of KClO₃ and KNO₃, KCl increase very rapidly with increase in temperature
2. The solubilities of NaCl and Ca(OH)₂ are fairly independent of temperature.
3. Na₂SO₄ · 10H₂O show a solubility curve with a sharp break at about 36^{0c}. Above 36^{0c} it gives up its water of crystallization and becomes anhydrous. The solubility decreases.
4. Ca(OH)₂ has the lowest solubility of the compounds.

APPLICATION OF SOLUBILITY

- Solubility enables drug manufacturers to determine the amount of solid drugs that must be dissolved together in a given quantity of solvent to give a prescribed drug mixture.
- Enables chemists to determine the most suitable solvent to be used at various temperatures for the extraction of essential chemicals from various natural sources
- Could help in separation of solutes or purified fractional crystallization, when saturated solutions are cooled. The fractions with low solubilities will be the first to crystallize out of solution.
- Enables us to determine the mass of solute that will crystallize out when a saturated solution at a higher temperature is cooled to a lower temperature.
- It enables us to predict the order at which solutes will separate when a mixed solution is cooled.
- It enables us to read solubilities any required temperatures covered by the graph.

CALCULATIONS OF SOLUBILITY

Calculate the solubility of the following in (a) g/dm³ (b) mole/dm³ salts from the following

	SUBSTANCE	MASS IN GRAMS	VOLUME OF WATER
(a)	NaCl	2.93	250cm ³
(b)	KNO ₃	12.64	500cm ³
(c)	NaOH	2.5	25cm ³
(d)	NaNO ₃	8.5	100cm ³
(e)	KCl	3.74	200cm ³

[Na=23; K=39; O=16; N=16; Cl=35.5; H=1]

1. 2.93g of NaCl dissolved or saturated 250cm³ of H₂O

Xg of NaCl will dissolved or saturated 1000cm³ of H₂O

$$250 \times x = 1000 \times 2.93$$

$$x(\text{mass}) = \frac{1000 \times 2.93}{250} = 11.72\text{g/dm}^3$$

In moles/dm³

Convert 2.93g of NaCl to moles = $\frac{2.93}{58.5} = 0.0050$ moles.

250cm³ of water dissolved 0.0050 moles.

$$\begin{aligned} \therefore 1000\text{cm}^3 \text{ of water will dissolve } & \frac{0.0050}{250} \times 1000 \\ & = 0.20 \text{ mol/dm}^3 \end{aligned}$$

Or convert 11.72g/dm³ to moledm⁻³ = $\frac{11.72}{58.5} = 0.20 \text{ mol/dm}^3$

2. 300cm³ of a saturated solution of potassium chloride contains 5.85g dissolved at room temperature. What is the solubility of the KCl at this temperature (K=39; Cl=35.5). Molar mass of KCl equal to 74.5gmol⁻¹

Amount of KCl in 5.85g = $\frac{5.85}{74.5} = 0.079$ mole.

300cm³ of solution dissolved 0.079 moles.

$$\therefore 1000\text{cm}^3 \text{ of solution will dissolve } \frac{0.079}{300} \times 1000 = 0.26 \text{ moldm}^{-3}.$$

3. Water was added to 80g of a salt MCl₂ to produce 30cm³ of a saturated solution at 25°C. The solubility of the salt at 25°C is 8.0 moldm⁻³. If the Atomic Mass of M = 29, calculate the mass of the undissolved salt.

Molar mass of MCl = 29 + 71 = 100 gmol⁻¹

i.e. 1 mole of MCl₂ = 100g

Solubility of MCl₂ = 8.0 moldm⁻³

Hence 800g of Salt Saturated 1000 Cm³ of water

∴ 30cm³ of water will saturate Xg

$$800 \times 30g = X \times 1000$$

$$Xg = \frac{800}{1000} \times 30 = 24g$$

∴ Mass of undissolved Salt = mass added – mass in 30cm³

$$80 - 24 = 56g$$

4. If the solubility of anhydrous sodium trioxocarbonate (IV) is 2.5 moles/dm³. Calculate the mass of Salt that dissolved in 10cm³ of water. [Na = 23, C = 12, O = 16].

1000cm³ of water dissolved 2.5 mole of salt

∴ 10cm³ of water will dissolve $\frac{2.5}{1000} \times 10 = 0.025$ mole

NaCO₃ = 106g = 1 mole

∴ 0.025 mole = 0.025 × 106 = 2.65g

5. At a given temperature, 730Cm³ water were saturated with 6.355 moles of Zn(NO₃)₂. Calculate the solubility of the solute at that temperature in (a) moles dm⁻³ (b) gdm⁻³ [Zn = 65, N = 14, O = 16].
Solution: 730cm³ of Solution was Saturated by 6.35 moles.

∴ 1000 Cm³ of Solution will re-saturated by $\frac{6.35}{730} \times 1000$

= 8.69 moles

Molar mass of Zn (NO₃)₂ = 65 + (14 × 3) + (16 × 6) = 189g mole

Amount = $\frac{\text{mass}}{\text{molarmass}}$. 8.69 = $\frac{m}{189}$

Mass = 8.69 × 189 = 1642g/dm³.

6. The Solubility of CuSO₄ is 60g at 85^{0C} and 20g at 15^{0C}. Calculate the mass of CuSO₄ that will be deposited when 100g of the solution are cooled from

85 ^{0C} to 15 ^{0C}	Solvent +	Solute	Solution
Masses involved at 85 ^{0C}	100	60	160
Masses involved at 15 ^{0C}	100	<u>20</u>	120
Solute deposited at		40	

On cooling 160g of Saturated Solution 40g of Solute was deposited

∴ 100g of saturated solution will deposited $\frac{40}{160} \times 100 = 25g$

7. The solubility of XCl₂ is 1.5 moldm⁻³ at 60^{0C} and 0.95 moldm⁻³ at 10^{0C}. Calculate how much of XCl₂ in (a) moles (b) grams that will be deposited when 1.5moldm⁻³ solution is cooled from 60^{0C} to 10^{0C}

[X = 40, Cl = 35.5]

	Solvent	Solute	Solution
At 60 ^{0C}	1 dm ³	1.5	1 dm ³ of 1.50moldm ⁻³
At 10 ^{0C}	1 dm ³	<u>0.95</u> 0.55mol	1 dm ³ of 0.95 moldm ⁻³

If 1 dm³ of 1.5moldm⁻³ deposit 0.55 mil of solute

∴ 2 dm³ of 1.5 moldm⁻³ Solution deposit 0.55 × 2 mol of solute = 1.1 moldm⁻³

Molar mass of XCl₂ = 111g

∴ 1.1 mol = 1.1 × 111g = 1221g.

TOPIC: TYPES OF CHEMICAL REACTIONS

CLASS: SS2

ABILITY: MIXED

OBJECTIVES: At the end of the topic, the students should be able to:

- i. State different types of chemical reactions;
- ii. Write chemical equations to illustrate different types of chemical reactions;
- iii. Write the signs for reversible reactions.

TYPES OF CHEMICAL REACTIONS

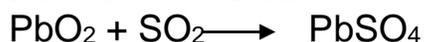
Chemical reactions are changes in which some new chemical substances are formed. The substances which undergo the chemical changes are known as reactants, while the new substances formed are called products.

CLASSIFICATION

Chemical reactions can be classified into several different groups. Some of the common types are:

1. Combination (2) Displacement (3) Decomposition (4) Double decomposition (5) catalytic reactions (6) Thermal desiccation (7) Redox reaction (8) reversible reactions.

1. **Combination:** This occurs when two or more substances combine to form a single compound. Eg.



2. **Decomposition:** Here a single compound splits up into two or more simpler substances. Very often heat is needed for the reaction.



3. **Displacement:** This occurs when one element has replaced another in a compound.



The ability of an element or radical to displace another is determined by their relative positions in the electrochemical series. A more

electropositive metal will displace a less electropositive one from a solution of its salt.

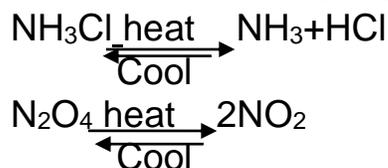


4. Double Decomposition: Here the two reactants are both decomposed to form two new substances by radical exchange.

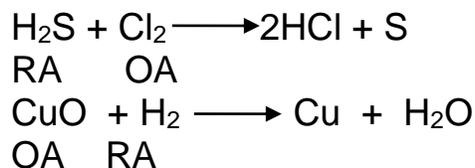


They are normally used to prepare insoluble salts or volatile compounds.

5. THERMAL DISSOCIATION: Here each molecule of a substance dissociates into two or more simpler molecules or atoms on application of heat. They are often reversible unlike thermal decomposition.



6. Redox Reaction: This involves two opposing yet complimentary processes Oxidation and reduction



H₂S is oxidized to sulphur and Cl₂ is reduced to HCl.

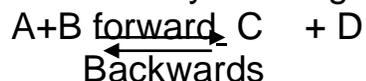
The oxidized substance is the reducing agent and the reduced.

Substance is the oxidizing agent.

7. CATALYTIC REACTIONS. Any chemical reaction which can be made to employ a catalyst is called catalytic reaction.

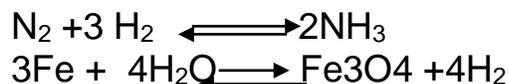


8. Reversible Reaction: This is a reaction which can be made to go in both directions by a change in the



Reversible reactions are identified by the sign

\rightleftharpoons Written between the reactants and products .e.g.



TOPIC: REDUCTION – OXIDATION

CLASS: SS2

ABILITY: MIXED

Objectives: at the end of the topic the students should be able to:

- (a) Define oxidation and reduction in terms of:
 - i. Oxygen and hydrogen;
 - ii. Electron loss or gain;
 - iii. Oxidation number.
- b. Write equations to illustrate oxidation and reduction;
- c. Write and balance redox equations;
- d. Define oxidizing and reducing agents;
- e. Give names of oxidizing and reducing agents.

REDUCTION- OXIDATION REACTION (REDOX REACTION)

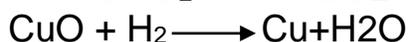
Oxidation-reduction reactions are two opposing yet complementary reactions. Every oxidation must be accompanied by a reduction and vice-versa.

DEFINITIONS

(A) IN TERMS OF OXYGEN AND HYDROGEN.

Oxidation is the addition of oxygen to a substance while reduction is the removal of oxygen from a substance.

Oxidation is the removal of Hydrogen from a substance while reduction is the addition of hydrogen to a substance.



Mg is oxidized to MgO

S is oxidized

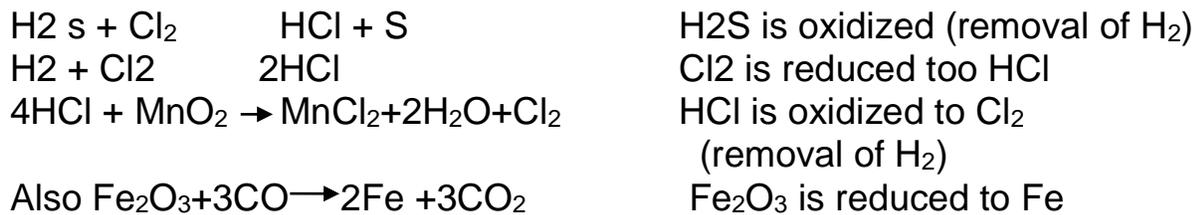
CuO is reduced to Cu

H₂ is oxidized to H₂O

C is oxidized to CO₂.

→

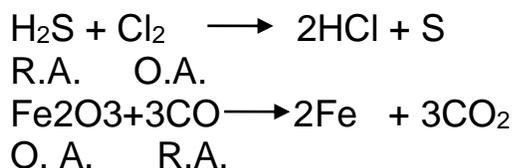
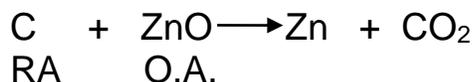
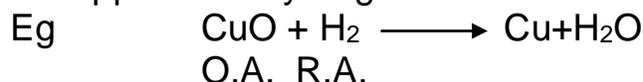
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OXIDIZING AND REDUCING AGENT

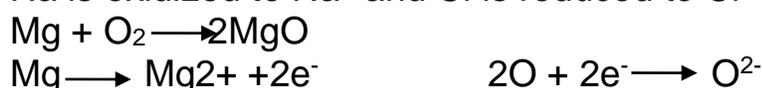
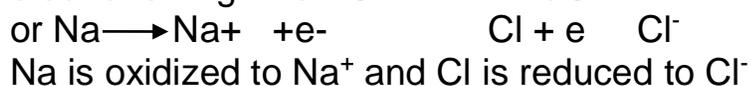
An oxidizing agent is the substance that donates the oxygen to another substance or that receives the hydrogen from another substance.

A reducing agent is a substance that removes the oxygen from a substance or supplies the hydrogen to another substance.



IN-TERMS OF ELECTRONS

Oxidation is the loss of electrons while reduction is the gain of electrons..E.g. $2Na + Cl_2 \rightarrow 2NaCl$



OXIDIZING AND REDUCING AGENT

The oxidizing agent is the substance that gains electrons, while the reducing agent is the substance that loses electron.

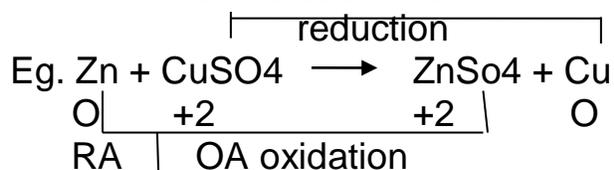
e.g Na is the reducing agent while Cl_2 is the oxidizing agent.

Mg is the reducing agent while O_2 is the oxidizing agent.

IN-TERMS OF OXIDATION NUMBER

Oxidation is increase in oxidation number.

Reduction is decrease in oxidation number.



Zn is oxidized to ZnSO₄ – increase in oxidation number.



Cu SO₄ is reduced to Cu. ___ decrease oxidation number



FeCl₂ is oxidized to FeCl₃ ___ increase in oxidation number

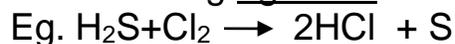
REDUCING AND OXIDIZING AGENT

The reducing agent is the substance whose oxidation number increases.

The oxidizing agent is the substance whose oxidation number decrease.

Note: The oxidizing agent is always oxidized.

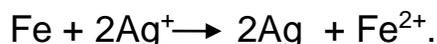
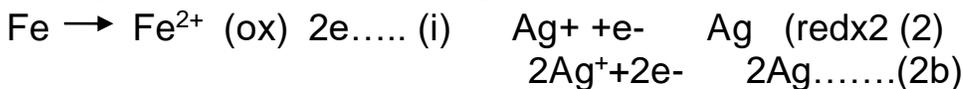
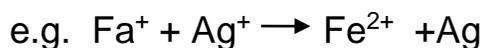
The reducing agent is always oxidized.



RA O.A Oxidized

BALANCING REDOX EQUATION _____ RULES

1. Assign oxidation number per atom of every element that changes.
2. Separate the change into half reactions.
3. Balance each half by (a) adding appropriate coefficients to balance various atoms (b) adding appropriate number of electrons to the side hearing more positive charges or less negative charges.
4. Multiply each half reaction by the appropriate coefficients to balance electron loss or gain.
5. Add the two half reactions



BALANCING COMPLEX IONIC EQUATION (ION ELECTRON METHOD) ACIDIC MEDIUM - RULES

1. Assign oxidation number par atom of every element that changes.
2. Separate the changes into half reactions.
3. Add appropriate coefficients to balance all atoms
4. Add appropriate number of water molecules (H₂O) to the side deficient of oxygen atoms.
5. Add H⁺ to balance H atoms.

6. Add enough electrons to side with more positive charges.
7. Multiply the half reactions by appropriate coefficient to balance electron loss or gain.
8. Add the two half reactions and subtract any duplication on both side.

TOPIC: REDUCTION – OXIDATION

CLASS: SS2

ABILITY: MIXED

Objectives: at the end of the topic the students should be able to:

- (a) Define oxidation and reduction in terms of:
 - i. Oxygen and hydrogen;
 - ii. Election loss or gain;
 - iii. Oxidation number.
- b. Write equations to illustrate oxidation and reduction;
- c. Write and balance redox equations;
- d. Define oxidizing and reducing agents;
- e. Give names of oxidizing and reducing agents.

REDUCTION- OXIDATION REACTION (REDOX REACTION)

Oxidation-reduction reactions are two opposing yet complementary reactions. Every oxidation must be accompanied by a reduction and vice-versa.

DEFINITIONS

(B) IN TERMS OF OXYGEN AND HYDROGEN.

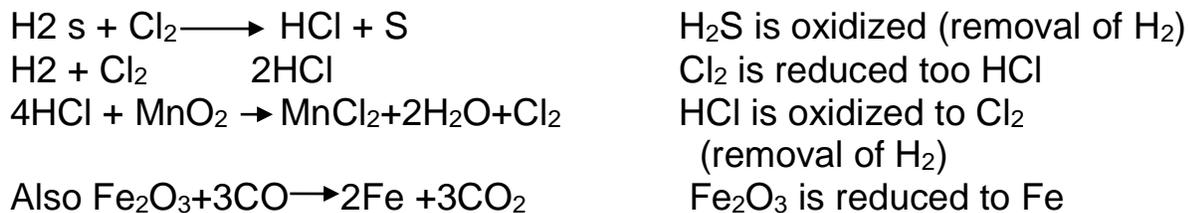
Oxidation is the addition of oxygen to a substance while reduction is the removal of oxygen from a substance.

Oxidation is the removal of Hydrogen from a substance while reduction is the addition of hydrogen to a substance.

Eg. $2\text{Mg} + \text{O}_2 \longrightarrow 2\text{MgO}$ mg is oxidized to MgO

$\text{S} + \text{O}_2 \longrightarrow \text{SO}_2$ S is oxidized

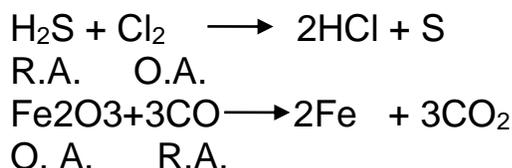
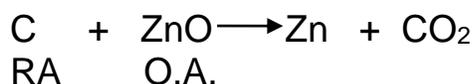
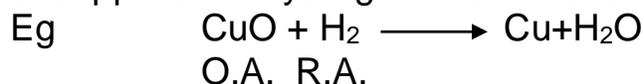
$\text{CuO} + \text{H}_2 \longrightarrow \text{Cu} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$ CuO is reduced to Cu



OXIDIZING AND REDUCING AGENT

An oxidizing agent is the substance that donates the oxygen to another substance or that receives the hydrogen from another substance.

A reducing agent is a substance that removes the oxygen from a substance or supplies the hydrogen to another substance.

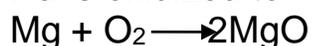


IN-TERMS OF ELECTRONS

Oxidation is the loss of electrons while reduction is the gain of electrons..E.g. $2\text{Na} + \text{Cl}_2 \longrightarrow 2\text{NaCl}$



Na is oxidized to Na⁺ and Cl is reduced to Cl⁻



OXIDIZING AND REDUCING AGENT

The oxidizing agent is the substance that gains electrons, while the reducing agent is the substance that loses electron.

e.g Na is the reducing agent while Cl₂ is the oxidizing agent.

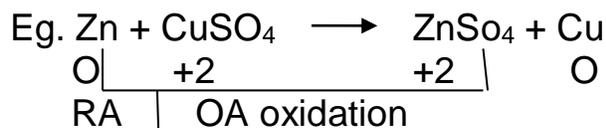
Mg is the reducing agent while O₂ is the oxidizing agent.

IN-TERMS OF OXIDATION NUMBER

Oxidation is increase in oxidation number.

Reduction is decrease in oxidation number.





Zn is oxidized to ZnSO₄ – increase in oxidation number.



Cu SO₄ is reduced to Cu. ___ decrease oxidation number



+2 RA O +3

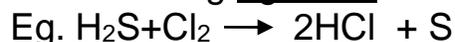
FeCl₂ is oxidized to FeCl₃ ___ increase in oxidation number

REDUCING AND OXIDIZING AGENT

The reducing agent is the substance whose oxidation number increases.
The oxidizing agent is the substance whose oxidation number decrease.

Note: The oxidizing agent is always oxidized.

The reducing agent is always oxidized.

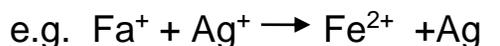


-2	O	-1	O

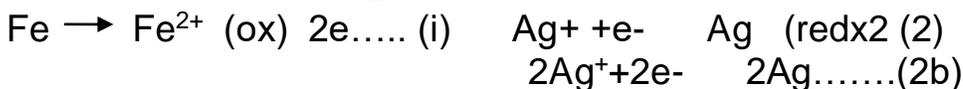
RA O.A Oxidized

BALANCING REDOX EQUATION _____ RULES

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4. Multiply each half reaction by the appropriate coefficients to balance electron loss or gain.
5. Add the two half reactions



O +1 +2 O



BALANCING COMPLEX IONIC EQUATION (ION ELECTRON METHOD)

ACIDIC MEDIUM - RULES

1. Assign oxidation number par atom of every element that changes.

2. Separate the changes into half reactions.
3. Add appropriate coefficients to balance all atoms
4. Add appropriate number of water molecules (H_2O) to the side deficient of oxygen atoms.
5. Add H^+ to balance H atoms.
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