

Atilim University

Faculty of Engineering

Chemical Engineering and Applied Chemistry



General Chemistry

Laboratory Manual



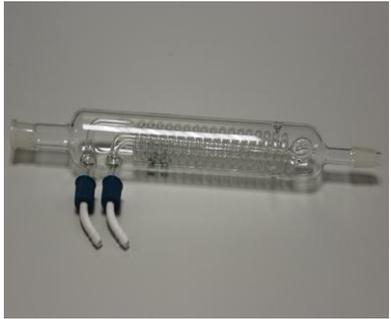
ATILIM UNIVERSITY

ANKARA

2021-2022 FALL SEMESTER CHE 105 GENERAL CHEMISTRY LABORATORY RULES

1. You are responsible for all safety rules in the lab manual.
2. You have to wear a **LAB COAT** and **safety goggles** and also have a **lab manual** and **calculator** while performing experiments in the laboratory. Without them you are not allowed to enter the lab section. **Safety goggles will be given by your assistants.**
3. Read the lab experiments and any suggested additional reading(s), before coming to lab.
4. You will take a **quiz** at the beginning of the experiment.
5. **EATING, DRINKING WATER, SMOKING, AND CELL PHONES** are forbidden in the laboratory at all times. Avoid unnecessary movement and talk in the laboratory.
6. Any accident involving even the most minor injury must be reported to the lab assistants.
7. Do not attempt any unauthorized experiment. Perform only lab operations and activities.
8. **Cheating will lead to a zero point for quizzes and lab reports. If it is repeated second time, you will fail from the course and get a disciplinary warning.**
9. You have to check your data sheet with your assistants at the end of the lab period.
10. **If you miss more than one of the experiments without an excuse, then you will fail from the lab and also fail from CEAC 105 course.**
11. In order to pass the lab, you have to get overall **50** points over 100 points (**Quizzes: 20%, Lab Reports: 50%, Opinion: 30%**).
12. Opinion point includes;
 - Appropriate attitudes during the lab hours (**no horseplay during the experiments etc.**)
 - Appropriate clothing (no short pants and skirts, tied hairs, no unsafe accessories such as pendant earrings, wristbands, rings, necklaces),
 - Wearing buttoned lab coat and safety goggles during the lab hours,
 - **Cleaning of lab set-up and washing of equipments at the end of the experiment (set-ups will be checked by assistants and attendance of the student will be accepted due to this clause),**
 - Obeying the all lab rules is also mandatory.
13. To be able to take a makeup from any laboratory experiments, you should bring an **approved medical report** to the assistants.
14. If you fail from the lab, you will also fail from the course.

LABORATORY EQUIPMENT

		
Beakers	Erlenmeyer Flask	Graduated Cylinder
		
Pipette	Thermometer	Burette
		
Test Tube	Condenser	Volumetric Flask

		
<p>Funnel</p>	<p>Test Tube Rack</p>	<p>Test Tube Holder</p>
		
<p>Crucible</p>	<p>Weighing Boat</p>	<p>Balance</p>
		
<p>Clamp</p>	<p>Lab Stand</p>	<p>Bunsen Burner</p>



Hood



Goggles



Glove

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Experiment 1
Introduction to Laboratory Techniques



Purpose: To reinforce the understanding of some common laboratory concepts and techniques while gaining knowledge in data treatment by reporting. In the first part of the experiment, potassium permanganate solution (solid KMnO_4 dissolved in water) will be separated into its constituents by distillation, and in the second part, determination of the solubility of a pure substance in a given liquid, or, in the case of two liquids, and the miscibility tests will be done. To reinforce the understanding of some common laboratory concepts and techniques while gaining knowledge in data treatment by reporting. In the first part of the experiment, potassium permanganate solution (solid KMnO_4 dissolved in water) will be separated into its constituents by distillation, and in the second part, determination of the solubility of a pure substance in a given liquid, or, in the case of two liquids, and the miscibility tests will be done.

Pre-laboratory Work

Before the experiment in the laboratory, you should be able to answer these questions.

- 1) List five physical properties.
- 2) What are the differences between physical and chemical changes?
- 3) Define solubility and discuss the factors affecting solubility.
- 4) What is density? How do you calculate it?

Theory

Separation of Substances

All material things which have mass and occupy space in universe referred to as **matter**. Every substance has a large number of physical and chemical properties. **Physical properties** are the characteristics of a substance that can be seen without changing the composition of it. Common physical properties include color, smell, taste, solubility, density, electrical conductivity, heat conductivity, melting and boiling points. When a physical change is observed, the substance retains its chemical identity, but loses only its appearance. For example, when ice is melted, only a change of the state occurs, no new substance is formed.

On the other hand, **chemical properties** represent the changes in the composition of a substance when it reacts with other substances or decomposing into new other pure substances. Chemical properties include decomposition by heating, and reactions of the substance with water, oxygen, acids, bases. When chemical changes are observed, new substances are formed that have totally different properties and compositions considering to starting material. For example, when methane, the main component of natural gas, burns by reacting with oxygen in the air, carbon dioxide and water are formed as the new products.

In other words, while physical changes are **reversible**, chemical changes are **irreversible** (not reversible).

Solutions

When a solid is mixed with a liquid and dissolves in that liquid, the resultant mixture formed is called a **solution**. This liquid solution may contain no visible solid particles and it may be colorless or have a characteristic color. Solutions are **homogenous mixtures**. When a solution forms, it can be stated that "The solid dissolves in the liquid" or "The solid is soluble in the liquid". The constituents of a solution are **solute** (minor fraction), and **solvent** (major fraction)

Solubility and Miscibility

Solubility can be defined as the amount of a particular substance that can dissolve in a particular solvent. The maximum amount of a particular substance that can be dissolved in 100 mL of pure water at a particular reference temperature is known as percent solubility. When a solid dissolves in a liquid, it is said to be **soluble** in that liquid. If the solid does not dissolve, then it is **insoluble**.

Miscibility is taken into account when two liquids are mixed. If this mixture is completely uniform in appearance, in this case the liquids are said to be **miscible**. If individual layers are formed when they are poured together, then these two liquids are not miscible at all, i.e. they are **immiscible**.

Density

Density is simply defined as “mass per unit volume”. If you wonder how dense a material is, you have to know the mass and volume of it. Then, you can easily find the density of the substance by using this formula: $\rho = m / V$

The unit of the density is g / mL or g / cm³.

In Part A, water will be separated from potassium permanganate by *distillation*. When the potassium permanganate solution is heated, water vapor will be driven off first, because the boiling point of potassium permanganate is much higher than that of water.

In Part B, The behavior of two substances on a solvent will be tested. For these two chemicals, solubility in water will be examined. For the dissolving one, solubility amount will be found. Then, miscibility of some liquids will be tested.

In Part C, Density of water will be measured in two different ways. Then, the density of an unknown solid will be calculated.

Materials

Potassium permanganate (KMnO ₄)	Diethyl ether	50 mL beakers
Starch	Ethyl alcohol	Balance
Sodium carbonate (Na ₂ CO ₃)	Bunsen burner	Graduated cylinder
Distilled water	One holed rubber stopper	Ring, clamp
Any solid particle	Boiling chips	

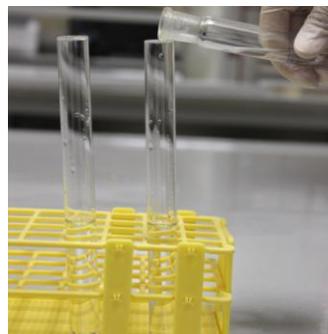
Procedure

Part A: Separation by Distillation	
<p>1. Pour 30 mL potassium permanganate solution (solid KMnO_4 dissolved in water) into a 100 mL round bottom flask. Add some boiling chips into the flask to make solution boil calmly.</p>	
<p>2. Set a simple distillation apparatus by inserting the short end of the glass tubing acting as condenser in a one-holed rubber stopper.</p>	
<p>3. Ask your assistant how to use the Bunsen burner. Light it and adjust until you have a small and continuous hot flame.</p>	
<p>4. Heat the KMnO_4 solution and observe the hot solvent vapors of the solution are cooled and dripped into the test tube. Continue distillation process until about 10 mL of liquid have distilled over. Observe the differences in color between the distillate and the original solution; write these observations on your data sheet.</p>	

Part B: Identifying Substances by Their Properties

B.1. Solubility in Water

1. Take clean two test tubes and fill them with 20 ml of water.

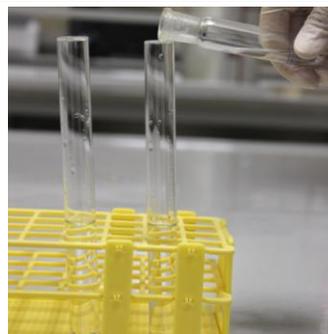


2. Take small amount (approximately half of a pea) of sodium carbonate; Na_2CO_3 , and starch and place them into test tubes that contain water. Shake the tubes gently and observe whether or not the substances dissolve. Some substances dissolve slowly, in this case set the test tube aside for few minutes and examine again. Are the compounds soluble or insoluble? Record your observations.



B.2. Miscibility

1. Take clean two test tubes and fill half of them with water.



2. Now, to the first tube, put some amount of alcohol and to the second one, put diethyl ether. Shake the test tubes gently or mix the contents with stirring rod. Observe what happened. Which one is miscible, record your observations on your data sheet.



Part C: Density Measurement

C.1. Density of Water

1. Now take a clean and dry graduated cylinder and weigh it. Then put 20 mL water in it and weigh again to find the mass of water. Carry out the density calculation and find the density of water.



C.2. Density of a Solid

1. Take an irregular shape solid from your assistant and weigh it.



2. To find volume of the solid, put it into graduated cylinder that contains 20 ml water in the previous part and calculate the volume of the solid according to increase in the water level. Carry out the density calculation to find the density of the solid material.



DATA SHEET

Introduction to Laboratory Techniques

Student's Name :

Date:

Laboratory Section/Group No :

Assistant's Name and Signature:

A. Separation by Distillation:

- i. What was the color of the original (KMnO_4) solution?

- ii. What is the color of the distillate which is collected in the test tube?

- iii. Why did we collect water as distillate in test tube? (Hint: Consider the boiling point differences of distinct substances)

B. Identifying Substances by their Properties

	Solubility in water (soluble or insoluble)
Starch	
Na_2CO_3	

	Miscibility (miscible or immiscible)
Water - Alcohol	
Water- Diethyl ether	

C. Density

- i. Density of water while you use graduated cylinder:

- ii. Density of the irregular shape solid:

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Experiment 2
Titration of Acids and Bases



Purpose: To become familiar with the techniques of titration, a volumetric method of analysis; to determine the molarity and pH of an acid solution.

Prelaboratory Work

Before the experiment in the laboratory, you should be able to answer these questions.

1. What is the definition of standardization?
2. What is the definition of titration?
3. What is the definition of molarity?
4. Write the difference between equivalence points and end points.
5. Find the molarity of a solution that contains 3.78 g of $\text{H}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ in 100 mL of solution?

Theory

According to Arrhenius, **acid** is a chemical substance which gives hydronium ion, H_3O^+ , when dissolved in water. Also, Bronsted-Lowry defined that acid acts as a proton donor. On the other hand, Arrhenius defined **base** in a way that it gives hydroxide ion, OH^- , when dissolved in water. According to Bronsted-Lowry, base acts as a proton acceptor.

One of the most common and familiar reactions in chemistry is the reaction of an acid with a base. This reaction is named as **neutralization** reaction, and the essential feature of this process in aqueous solution is the combination of hydronium ions with hydroxide ions to form water.



In this experiment, you will perform this reaction to determine accurately the concentration of a sodium hydroxide solution that you have prepared. The process of determining the exact concentration (molarity) of a solution is called **standardization**. Next you will measure the concentration of the unknown acid solution. For this purpose you are expected to measure the volume of your standard base that is required to exactly neutralize the unknown acid solution. The technique of accurately measuring the volume of a solution required to react with another reagent is termed **titration**.

During titration, you will use an **indicator** solution to understand whether you could neutralize your acid with a base or vice versa. Indicators change colors at different pH values. For example, phenolphthalein changes color from colorless to pink at a pH of about 9; in slightly more acidic solutions it is colorless, whereas, in more alkaline solutions it is pink. The color change is termed the **end point** of the titration.

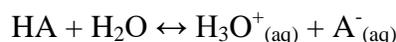
The point at which stoichiometrically equivalent quantities are brought together is known as the **equivalence point** of the titration. It should be noted that the equivalence point in a titration is a theoretical point.

Molarity (M) is used to define concentration of a solution more clearly, and it is defined as the number of moles of solute per liter of solution, or the number of millimoles of solute per milliliter of solution:

$$M = \frac{\text{moles.solute}}{\text{volume.of.solution}} = \frac{10^{-3} \text{ mole}}{10^{-3} \text{ liter}} = \frac{\text{mmol}}{\text{mL}} \quad [1]$$

Ph concept

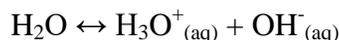
pH is a concept that is used to measure the acidity of a solution. It is related to concentration of H_3O^+ ion in molarity.



The concentration of $[\text{H}^+]$ may change over a wide range of values and these values are frequently expressed in terms of exponential numbers. For this reason, a simpler form of representation for $[\text{H}^+]$ is provided as follows: **pH = -log $[\text{H}^+]$**

There is another concept named as **pOH**. It is used to measure the basicity of the solution and related to concentration of OH^- in molarity: **pOH = -log $[\text{OH}^-]$**

When water is self ionized, hydronium and hydroxide ion formed in equal amounts:



$$K_w = [\text{H}^+][\text{OH}^-]$$

$$K_w = 1.0 \times 10^{-14} \text{ at } 25^\circ\text{C}$$

Therefore;

$$\text{pH} + \text{pOH} = 14$$

Example: What are the pH values for **a)** 0.1 M HCl and **b)** 0.1 M NaOH?

Solution:

a) HCl is a strong acid, it dissociates almost completely in aqueous solution. Therefore 0.1 M HCl gives 0.1 M H^+ and 0.1 M Cl^- .



$$[H^+] = 0.1 \text{ M}$$

$$pH = -\log(0.1) = 1.00$$

b) NaOH is a strong base; it dissociates almost completely in aqueous solution. 0.1 M NaOH gives 0.1 M Na^+ and 0.1 M OH^- .



$$[OH^-] = 0.1 \text{ M}$$

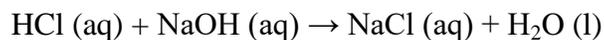
$$[H^+] = K_w / [OH^-] = 1 \times 10^{-14} / 0.1 = 1.0 \times 10^{-13} \text{ M.}$$

$$pH = -\log(1.0 \times 10^{-13}) = 13.00$$

or, $pH + pOH = 14$ $1 + pOH = 14$ then, $pOH = 13$

Strong Acid-Base Titration

As an example for neutralization reaction between strong acid (e.g. HCl) and a strong base (e.g. NaOH);



As a result, for a monoprotic acid and base at the end point;

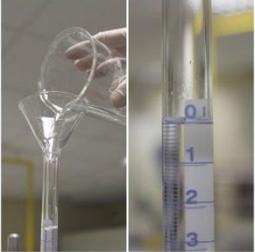
$$M_{\text{acid}} V_{\text{acid}} = M_{\text{base}} V_{\text{base}}$$

In this experiment, we use an acid-base indicator, phenolphthalein to determine the end point in the titration. We choose an indicator such that its color change occurs as closely as possible to the equivalence point.

Materials

Sodium hydroxide (NaOH)	600 mL beaker	Ring stand
Hydrochloric acid (HCl)	250 mL Erlenmeyer flasks	Buret clamp
Phenolphthalein solution	50 mL buret	Balance
Wash bottle	500 mL erlenmeyer flask	

Procedure

Part A: Standardization of Sodium Hydroxide Solution	
<p>1. Fill the buret with the NaOH solution and remove the air from the tip by running out some of the liquid into an empty beaker. Make sure that the lower part of the meniscus is at the zero mark or slightly lower.</p>	
<p>2. Take 15.00 mL of standard HCl solution into a clean Erlenmeyer flask and add a few drops of phenolphthalein solution.</p>	
<p>3. Start to add the sodium hydroxide solution slowly to your flasks of HCl solution while gently swirling the contents of the flask. As the sodium hydroxide solution is added, a pink color appears where the drops of the base come in contact with the solution. This coloration disappears with swirling. As the end point is approached, the color disappears more slowly, at which time the sodium hydroxide should be added drop by drop. The end point is reached when the colour of the solution turns from colorless to pink.</p>	
<p>4. Read the buret and record it. Repeat this procedure for two times. From the data you obtain in the three titrations, calculate the molarity of the sodium hydroxide solution to four significant figures.</p>	

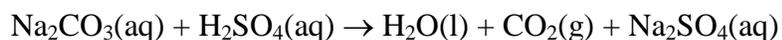
Part B: Analysis of an Unknown Acid

1. Obtain 15 mL of the unknown solutions. Add a few drops of phenolphthalein solution and titrate against the standard NaOH solution as in Part A.



Questions

1. Write the balanced chemical equation for the reaction of HCl with NaOH.
2. A solution of malonic acid, $\text{H}_2\text{C}_3\text{H}_2\text{O}_4$, was standardized by titration with 0.100 M NaOH solution. If 21.82 mL of the NaOH solution were required to neutralize completely 12.12 mL of the malonic acid solution, what is the molarity of the malonic acid solution?
3. Sodium carbonate is a reagent that may be used to standardize acids in the same way. In such standardization it was found that a 0.432-g sample of sodium carbonate required 22.3 mL of a sulfuric acid solution to reach the end point for the reaction.



What is the molarity of the H_2SO_4 ?

4. A solution contains 0.252 g of oxalic acid, $\text{H}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$, in 500 mL. What is the molarity of this solution?

DATA SHEET
Titration of Acids and Bases

Student's Name : _____ Date: _____

Laboratory Section/Group No : _____

Assistant's Name and Signature : _____

A. Standardization of Sodium Hydroxide Solution

1. Molarity of HCl solution:
2. Volume of HCl solution:
3. Volume of NaOH solution used for the titrations 1st:2nd:3rd:
4. Molarity of NaOH solution:

B. Analysis of an Unknown Acid I

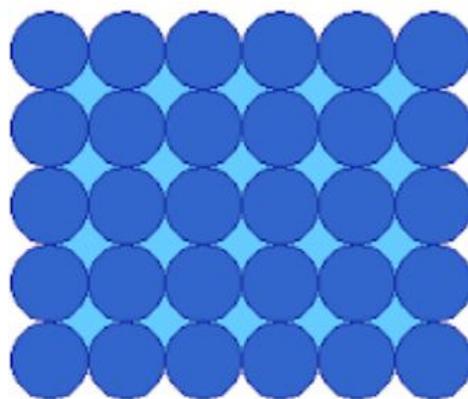
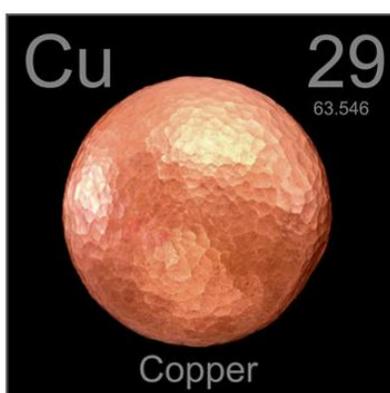
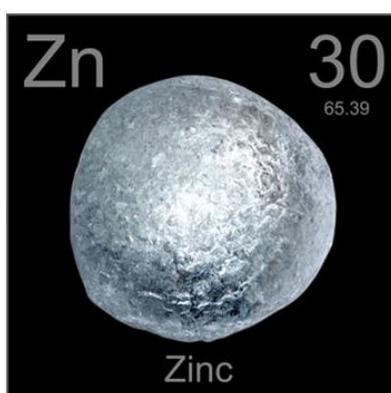
1. Volume of unknown acid solution:
2. Volume of NaOH solution used for the titration:
3. Molarity of unknown acid I:

C. Analysis of an Unknown Acid II

1. Volume of unknown acid solution:
2. Volume of NaOH solution used for the titration:
3. Molarity of unknown acid II:

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Experiment 3
Determination of the Atomic Weight of a Metal



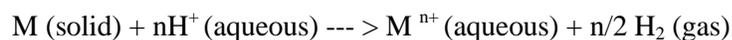
Purpose: To determine atomic weight of a metal by measuring the volume of the hydrogen gas liberated from the oxidation of a metal with an acid reaction.

MATERIALS:

A piece of metal	Beaker	Methyl orange
Cotton	Burette	Hydrochloric acid (HCl)

THEORY:

A metal, which is a good reducing agent, will react with hydrochloric acid, liberating hydrogen gas and forming a salt.



In this experiment, a weighted sample of metal will be completely dissolved in HCl solution, and the volume of hydrogen liberated will be determined from the volume of water that it displaces. From this data the atomic weight of the metal will be calculated. This calculated value is the experimental value of the atomic weight of the metal.

After the determination of the atomic weight of the metal, your assistant will tell you the name and the atomic weight of the metal (theoretical value). Now, you can calculate percentage error of atomic weight calculation. The valence of the metal is taken as $n+$ for the reaction given above.

A mole is defined as the amount of substance that contains the same number of chemical units as the number of atoms in exactly 12.0000 g of $^{12}_6\text{C}$

$$1 \text{ mole } ^{12}_6\text{C atoms} = 12.0000 \text{ g } ^{12}_6\text{C}$$

A mole of atoms, therefore, consists of Avogadro's number of atoms and has a mass in grams numerically equal to the atomic weight of the element, shortly.

$$\text{Number of moles of an atom} = \frac{\text{weight}}{\text{Atomic Weight}}$$

$$\text{Number of moles of a molecule} = \frac{\text{weight}}{\text{Molecular Weight}}$$

Before doing this experiment, it will be necessary for the student to review his knowledge about the ideal gas equation.

Ideal Gas Equation:

The behavior of an ideal gas is expressed by the well-known equation given below.

$$PV = nRT \quad \text{Ideal Gas Equation}$$

In the equation the units are under STP (1 atm and 0 °C, 273 K) 1 mole of ideal gas occupies 22.4 L volume. So;

$$R = \frac{(1 \text{ atm}) \times (22.4 \text{ L})}{(1 \text{ mol}) \times (273 \text{ K})} = 0.00823 \text{ L} \times \text{atm} / \text{mol} \times \text{K}$$

EXAMPLE 1:

Standard conditions are defined as 0°C and 1 atm for temperature and pressure, respectively. Using ideal gas equation, calculate the volume that is occupied by one mole of an ideal gas under the standard conditions (STP).

SOLUTION:

$$T = 0^{\circ}\text{C}$$

$$T = 0^{\circ}\text{C} + 273.15 = 273.15 \text{ K}$$

$$PV = nRT \quad V = nRT/P$$

$$V = (1 \text{ mole}) \cdot (0.082 \text{ L}\cdot\text{atm}\cdot\text{mole}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}) \cdot (273 \text{ K}) / 1 \text{ atm}$$

$$V = 22.4 \text{ L/mole}$$

EXAMPLE 2:

In a reaction, 334 mL of H₂ gas is liberated at a pressure of 674 mm Hg and a temperature of 17°C. Calculate the number of moles of H₂ gas liberated.

SOLUTION:

$$760 \text{ mm Hg} = 1 \text{ atm}$$

$$P = (674 \text{ mm Hg}) \cdot (1 \text{ atm} / 760 \text{ mm Hg}) = 0.887 \text{ atm}$$

$$T = 17^{\circ}\text{C} + 273.15 = 290.15 \text{ K}$$

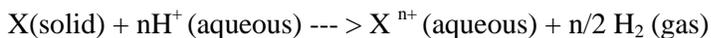
$$V = 0.334 \text{ L}$$

$$R = 0.082 \text{ L}\cdot\text{atm}\cdot\text{mole}^{-1}\cdot\text{K}^{-1}$$

$$n = \frac{PV}{RT} = \frac{0.887 \times 0.334}{0.082 \times 290.15} = 0.012 \text{ moles of H}_2$$

EXAMPLE 3:

0.26 g of an unknown metal is liberating 0.004 moles of H₂ gas. If the valence of this metal is 2+, find the atomic weight of this metal. Find the name of this metal using the periodic table.

**SOLUTION:**

According to the stoichiometry of the reaction;

Number of moles of metal equals to the number of moles of the metal

$$\text{Number of moles} = \frac{\text{weight}}{\text{Atomic Weight}} \longrightarrow \text{At. Wt.} = \frac{\text{weight}}{\text{number of moles}} = \frac{0.26}{0.004} = 65.0 \text{ g/mole}$$

Closest value to this experimental atomic weight value is 65.39, thus the metal is predicted to be Zinc.

Table 1: Conversion of pressure units

Units	Pa	psi	atm	bar	torr
Pa	1N/m ²	1.45 x 10 ⁻⁴	9.869 x 10 ⁻⁶	10 ⁻⁵	7.5 x 10 ⁻³
psi	6.894 x 10 ³	1 lb/in ²	6.8 x 10 ⁻²	6.894 x 10 ⁻²	51.714
atm	1.01325 x 10 ⁵	14.695	P ₀	1.01325	760
bar	10 ⁵	14.5	0.9869	10 ⁶ dyne/cm ²	750
torr	133.322	1.93 x 10 ⁻²	1.315 x 10 ⁻³	1.333 x 10 ⁻³	1 mmHg

Dalton's Law of Partial Pressure

Dalton's Law (also called Dalton's Law of Partial Pressures) states that the total pressure exerted by the mixture of non-reactive gases is equal to the sum of the partial pressures of individual gases. Mathematically, this can be stated as follows:

$$P_{total} = P_1 + P_2 + P_3 + \dots + P_n$$

where P₁, P₂ and P_n represent the partial pressures of each compound. It is assumed that the gases do not react with each other.

Collecting Gases Over Water

The amount of gas present can be determined by collecting a gas over water and applying Dalton's Law.

EXAMPLE 4:

O₂ gas is collected in a pneumatic trough with a volume of 0.155 L until the height of the water inside the trough is equal to the height of the water outside the trough. The atmospheric pressure is 754 torr, and the temperature is 295 K. How many moles of oxygen are present in the trough? (At 295 K, the vapor pressure of water is 19.8 torr.)

SOLUTION:

The total pressure in the tube can be written using Dalton's Law of Partial Pressures:

$$P_{total} = P_{H_2O} + P_{O_2}$$

Rearranging this in terms of P_{O_2} , we have:

$$P_{O_2} = P_{total} - P_{H_2O}$$

Because the height of the water inside the tube is equal to the pressure of the water outside the tube, the total pressure inside and outside the tube must be equal to the atmospheric pressure. With substitution, we have:

$$P_{O_2} = P_{total} - P_{H_2O} = 754 - 19.8 = 734 \text{ torr} = 0.966 \text{ atm}$$

Next, we apply the Ideal Gas Law:

$$n = \frac{P \times V}{R \times T} = \frac{(0.966 \text{ atm}) \times (0.155 \text{ L})}{(0.082 \text{ L} \cdot \text{atm} / \text{mol} \cdot \text{K}) \times (295 \text{ K})} = 0.00619 \text{ mol O}_2$$

Table 2: Partial pressure values of water at different temperature values

T(°C)	P(torr)	T(°C)	P(torr)
17	14.5	23	21.1
18	15.5	24	22.4
19	16.5	25	23.8
20	17.5	26	25.2
21	18.7	27	26.7
22	19.8	28	28.4

PROCEDURE:

1. Mix 20 mL of 3M HCl and 1 drop of methyl orange and pour it into a burette.



2. Add distilled water up to 5 mL scale of same burette.



3. Weigh out about 1 cm length of your metal.
Record this weight.



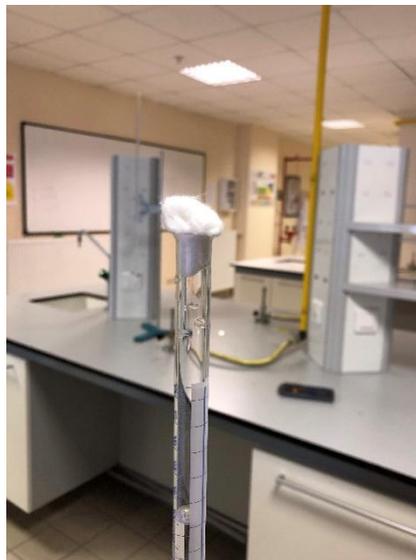
4. Take the sample and place it in a small bag made from a piece of cotton. (Wrap around the metal by a piece of cotton.)



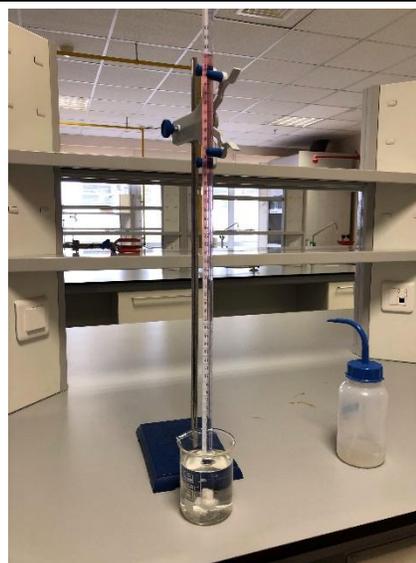
5. Tie this metal in cotton with a piece of thread and hang it a few centimeters above from the top of the liquid in the burette, providing that it does not come into contact with the acid solution. You may drop it into the solution as well.



6. Make sure your set-up look like in the figure.



7. Put some water in the beaker and set up the apparatus as shown in the figure, read and record the first height of pink acidic solution (V_1).



8. Make sure the cotton is stacked at the end of burette. When the system is shown to be airtight, wait until the acid solution comes in contact with the metal. You will see the hydrogen gas is being produced as bubbles near the metal, and some water will pour into the beaker.



9. After the metal has completely dissolved, read the volume of the water in the burette and record it (V_2). The displaced amount of water in mL will be taken as the amount of hydrogen gas liberated. Record the room temperature. Record the atmospheric pressure, P_{atm} and the vapor pressure of water, $P_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ at this temperature.



10. Calculate the partial pressure of H_2 gas, P_{H_2} , in the flask; express it in the units of atm.

11. Calculate the number of moles of H_2 .

12. What is the number of moles of metal?

13. Calculate the atomic weight of metal.

14. Ask your **assistant the name of the metal.**

15. Ask your assistant the exact atomic weight of the metal.

16. Calculate the percent error for the experimental atomic weight of the metal.

DATA SHEET

Determination of The Atomic Weight of a Metal

Student's Name:

Laboratory Section/Group Number:

Assistant's name and signature:

Date:

DATA

1. Weight of the metal (W) =g
2. Initial height of the water (V_1) = mL
3. Final height of the water (V_2) = mL
4. Volume of the water displaced ($V_{H_2O} = V_1 - V_2$) =mL
5. Volume of H_2 gas produced ($V_{H_2} = V_{H_2O}$) =L
6. Temperature ($T_{room} = T_{H_2}$) =°C
7. Vapor pressure of H_2O at $T = P_{H_2O}$ (Use Table 2) =mm Hg
8. Atmospheric pressure = P_{atm} (ask your assistant) =mm Hg
9. Partial pressure of H_2 gas $P_{H_2} = P_{atm} - P_{H_2O}$ =mm Hg
10. Number of moles of H_2 , $n_{H_2} = \frac{P_{H_2}V_{H_2}}{RT_{H_2}}$ =
11. Number of moles of metal =
12. Atomic Wt = $\frac{\text{Weight}}{\text{number of moles of metal}}$ = g/mole
13. Name of the metal =
14. Percent error for experimental Atomic Weight =%

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Experiment 4
**Stoichiometry: The Reaction of Iron with
Copper(II) Sulfate**



Purpose: To enhance the understanding of stoichiometry, a reaction between iron and copper (II) sulfate (CuSO_4) solution will be conducted. This will help you to differentiate limiting and excess reactant in a chemical reaction. Finally the theoretical and percent yield of this reaction will be calculated.

Theory

Stoichiometry is the measurement of quantitative relationships in chemical formulas and equations.

Mostly in chemical reaction two or more reactants (reagents) are placed. The reagent that is totally consumed before other reactants at that time reaction stops defined as **limiting reagent**. Limiting reagent is the reactant which is totally consumed before other reactants. The limiting reactant limits the amount of product that can be formed since the consumption of the reactant stops the reaction. The reactant that is remained once the limiting reagent is consumed is called as **excess reagent**.

Example : How many moles of Ag are in 1.75 mol of Ag_2CrO_4 ?

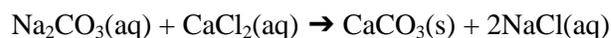
There are 2 moles of Ag atoms for each Ag_2CrO_4 formula unit

Therefore,

$$1.75 \text{ mol } \text{Ag}_2\text{CrO}_4 \times 2 = 3.5 \text{ mol Ag}$$

Example: Sodium carbonate, Na_2CO_3 , reacts with calcium chloride, CaCl_2 , to form calcium carbonate, CaCO_3 and sodium chloride, NaCl . In an experiment 53 grams of Na_2CO_3 and 44.4 grams of CaCl_2 were mixed and 23.6 gr CaCO_3 was obtained. Which is the limiting reactant? What is the percent yield of CaCO_3 ?

(Molecular weight of $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 = 106 \text{ g/mole}$, $\text{CaCl}_2 = 111 \text{ g/mole}$, $\text{CaCO}_3 = 100 \text{ g/mole}$, $\text{NaCl} = 58.5 \text{ g/mole}$)



Mole of Na_2CO_3 : $53 / 106 = 0.3$ moles of Na_2CO_3 are present.

Mole of CaCl_2 : $44.4 / 111 = 0.4$ moles of CaCl_2 are present.

1 mole of Na_2CO_3 reacts with 1 mole of CaCl_2 according to the above equation.

$$\frac{1 \text{ mole } \text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3}{0.3 \text{ mole } \text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3} = \frac{1 \text{ mole } \text{CaCl}_2}{x} \quad x = 0.3 \text{ moles of } \text{CaCl}_2 \text{ are needed.}$$

0.3 moles of CaCl_2 are needed and 0.4 moles of CaCl_2 are present. Therefore, CaCl_2 is excess reagent and Na_2CO_3 is limiting reactant.

Since Na_2CO_3 is limiting reactant it limits the amount of the product, CaCO_3 , that will be formed.

$$\frac{1 \text{ mole } \text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3}{0.3 \text{ mole } \text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3} = \frac{1 \text{ mole } \text{CaCO}_3}{x} \quad x = 0.3 \text{ moles of } \text{CaCO}_3 \text{ will be formed}$$

$0.3 * 100 = 30$ gr of CaCO_3 will be formed. This amount is theoretical yield. Since the actual yield is the amount of product given, the percent yield will be calculated by the formula given below;

$$\text{Percent yield} = \frac{\text{actual yield}}{\text{theoretical yield}} \times 100$$

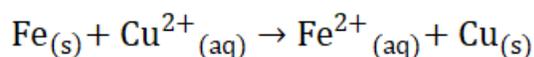
Then, percent yield for CaCO_3 is;

$$(23.6/30) \times 100 = 78.7\%$$

In this experiment stoichiometric principles will be used to obtain the appropriate equation between the reaction of iron metal and copper(II) sulfate solution. When the reaction starts, the formation of metallic copper, which is precipitating during reaction as a finely divided reddish-orange powder will be observed. This reaction is one of the examples of single substitution reaction in which one element “displaces” with another element in a compound. The element which has the ability of displacing another element from a compound is said to be “more active” than the displaced one. In this experiment, iron is more active than copper.

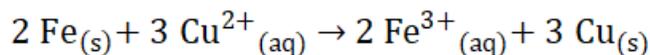
Two distinct forms of iron are present, namely Ferrous, Fe^{2+} and Ferric, Fe^{3+} . Stoichiometric principles will be used to determine which reaction is more dominant compared to the other by examining the reaction between iron and copper (II) sulfate solution. If Fe^{2+} is formed, then **equation (1)** is dominant, but **equation (2)** will be selected if Fe^{3+} is formed. This can be determined by taking the mole ratio of copper to iron. If the moles of copper is equal to the moles of iron, then equation (1) has taken place. If you obtain 1.5 moles of copper per mole of iron, in this case equation (2) should be selected. Find out which equation is corresponding to the results of the experiment you have done.

Equation (1) $\text{Fe}_{(s)} + \text{CuSO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{FeSO}_{4(aq)} + \text{Cu}_{(s)}$, other representation is



Equation (2) $2 \text{Fe}_{(s)} + 3 \text{CuSO}_{4(aq)} \rightarrow \text{Fe}_2(\text{SO}_4)_3(aq) + 3 \text{Cu}_{(s)}$,

other representation is

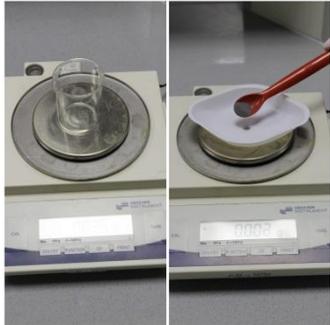
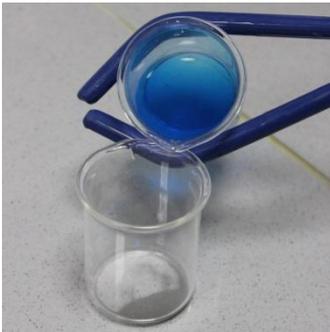


To the known amount of iron, excess of copper (II) sulfate solution will be added. The purpose of using excess solution is owing to provide the complete reaction of iron. The metallic copper produced will be weighed after washing and drying processes and these weighings will be used to calculate the moles of iron used and the moles of copper formed at the end of the reaction.

Materials

Fe powder	Acetone	Glass stick
Copper (II) Sulfate (CuSO_4)	Beaker	Bunsen burner

Procedure

The Reaction of Iron with Copper(II) Sulfate	
<p>1. Weigh a dry and clean 100 or 250 mL beaker and record the weight of it onto your data sheet. then, accurately weigh 1.00 gram of iron powder into this beaker. Do not exceed 1.01 grams.</p>	
<p>2. Measure 30 mL of 1.0 M CuSO_4 solution by using a graduated cylinder. Pour this solution into another beaker, and heat gently to almost boiling.</p>	
<p>3. Slowly add hot CuSO_4 solution to the beaker that contains the iron powder. Stir the mixture a few times until completeness of the reaction. You should see copper forming. When the reaction has finished, allow the copper product to cool.</p>	

<p>4. Then carefully decant the liquid from the copper into the waste container. Be careful not to lose any copper.</p>	
<p>5. Add about 10 mL of distilled water to the solid copper and swirl to wash any remaining ions from the copper. Decant the wash water from the copper and add 10 more mL of distilled water, swirl and decant again. Wash copper particles finally with several mL of acetone (CAUTION-Acetone is very flammable). Swirl and allow to stand a few minutes. Decant off the acetone.</p>	
<p>6. The acetone readily dissolves the water and helps the removal of it from the medium. Swirl the beaker gently on low heat flame. Copper product should be spread in a single layer on the bottom of the beaker. Grinding of aggregates with a spatula makes the copper easy to dry. Be sure not to remove any copper from the beaker.</p>	
<p>7. After drying, allow copper to cool and weigh the beaker plus copper to calculate the mass of copper formed. Record the mass on your data sheet. Finally, calculate the moles of iron used and the moles of copper formed to determine which reaction of iron is taking place, reaction (1) or reaction (2).</p>	

DATA SHEET

Stoichiometry: The Reaction of Iron with Copper(II) Sulfate

Student's Name : Date:

Laboratory Section/Group No :

Assistant's Name and Signature:

Data and Calculations

Mass of empty beaker :

Mass of iron used :

Moles of iron used :

Mass of beaker plus copper :

Mass of copper formed :

Moles of copper formed :

Moles of Cu divided by moles of Fe :

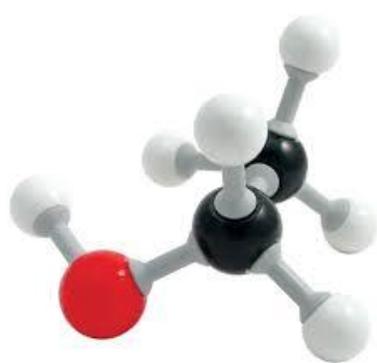
Reaction Equation :

Limiting Reagent :

Theoretical and Percent Yield :

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GENERAL CHEMISTRY

Experiment 5
Intermolecular Forces



Purpose: To learn and examine the effect of intermolecular forces on physical properties of different substances.

MATERIALS:

Ruler	Beaker	Isopropanol
Paper towel	Burette	Ethanol
Acetone	Hexane	Pennies
Capillary		

THEORY:

Valence e- number:

The valence electrons (VE) are the electrons in the outer shell of an atom. The valence electrons are the ones involved in forming bonds to adjacent atoms. Therefore, the number of VE is important for determining the number of bonds an atom will form, the number of unpaired electrons, and an atom's formal charge.

How to find valence e⁻ number:

For neutral atoms, the number of valence electrons is equal to the atom's main group number. The main group number for an element can be found from its column on the periodic table.

number of valence electrons = main group number (neutral atoms)

For example, carbon is in group 4 and has 4 valence electrons. Oxygen is in group 6 and has 6 valence electrons.

For charged atoms, there is a deviation from the normal number of valence electrons. The charge on an atom tells you how much of a deviation there is from an element's normal valence number. Electrons are negatively charged. So, a negatively charged atom means that there are more electrons than the normal valence number. A positively charged atom has fewer electrons than the normal valence number.

number of valence electrons = (main group number) - (charge) (charged atoms)

For example, Ca⁺² has zero valence electrons. Ca normally has 2 valence electrons but with a 2+ charge it is missing two electrons. F⁻¹ has 8 valence electrons. S⁻² has 8 valence electrons.

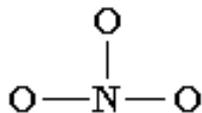
Drawing Lewis structure:

Drawing Lewis structure for NO₃⁻:

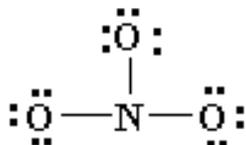
1. Determine the total number of valence electrons in a molecule.

N: 5 e⁻ O: (3x6 e⁻) = 18 e⁻ and 1 from formal charge; total = 24 e⁻

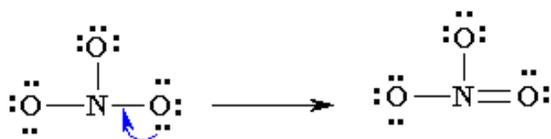
2. Draw a skeleton for the molecule which connects all atoms using only single bonds. In simple molecules, the atom with the most available sites for bonding is usually placed as central. The number of binding sites is determined by considering the number of valence electrons and the ability of an atom to expand its octet. As you become better, you will be able to recognize that certain groups of atoms prefer to bond together in a certain way.



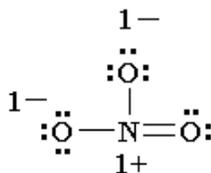
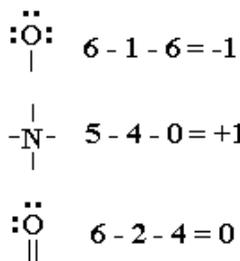
3. Of the 24 valence electrons in NO_3^- , 6 were required to make the skeleton. Consider the remaining 18 electrons and place them to fill the octets of as many atoms as possible (start with the most electronegative atoms first then proceed to the more electropositive atoms).



4. Are the octets of all the atoms filled? If not then fill the remaining octets by making multiple bonds (make a lone pair of electrons, located on a more electronegative atom, into a bonding pair of electrons that is shared with the atom that is electron deficient).



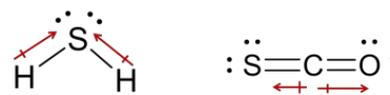
5. Check that you have the lowest **FORMAL CHARGES** possible for all the atoms, without violating the octet rule; (valence e-) - (1/2 bonding e-) - (lone electrons).



Determination of polarity of substances:

In chemistry, the concept of polarity refers to how some chemical bonds result in unequal sharing of electrons. This means shared electrons will be closer to one atom in a bond than another, which creates areas of positive and negative charge.

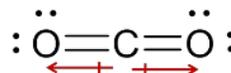
A covalent bond is polar if there is a difference in electronegativity between the bonded atoms. An entire molecule will be polar if the bond dipoles do not cancel. Polar molecules have a positive and a negative end and behave like tiny magnets. The shape of the molecule determines if dipoles cancel or not.



dipoles don't cancel

Polar molecules – bond dipoles do not cancel.

Have a lone pair on the central atom OR different outer atoms.



dipoles cancel

Non-polar molecules – bond dipoles cancel.

Have no lone pairs on the central atom AND have all outer atoms the same.

Intermolecular forces (IMFs)

IMFs hold molecules together into solids and liquids. The stronger the IMFs, the higher the boiling and melting point of a compound. The forces between covalent compounds are relatively weak, so covalent molecules tend to have low boiling and melting points. IMFs are summarized in the table below.

	IMFs	Found in	Description	Examples
found in covalent compounds strongest	hydrogen bonds	molecules with H-F, H-O, or H-N bonds	extreme case of dipole-dipole, occurs with small, highly electronegative atoms	H ₂ O, NH ₃
↑	dipole-dipole forces	polar molecules	attraction between δ ⁺ and δ ⁻	CH ₂ Br ₂ , PH ₃
weakest	dispersion forces	all molecules (only force in non-polar molecules)	attraction between temporary dipoles	CH ₄ , CO ₂

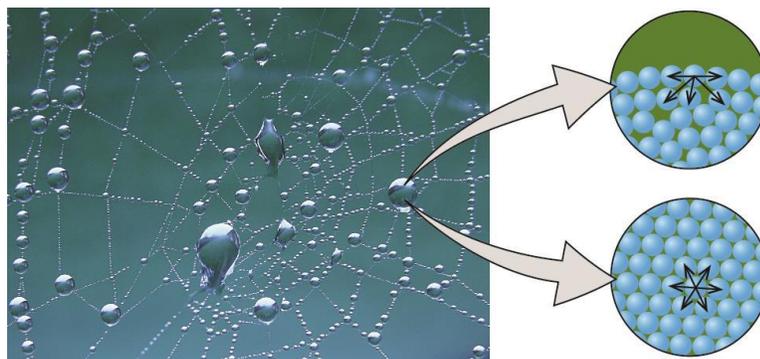
Intermolecular forces are the glue that holds covalent molecules together, the stronger they are, the stickier the molecules are. As a result, these intermolecular forces influence many properties of substances:

Stronger IMFs result in:

- Higher boiling and melting points
- Increased surface tension
- Lower evaporation rates and lower vapor pressure

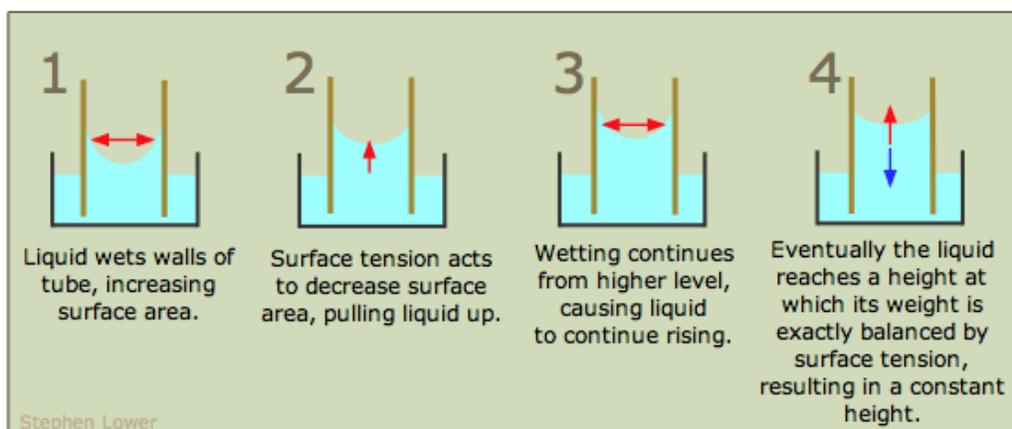
Surface Tension

Surface tension is the amount of energy required to stretch or increase the surface of a liquid. Molecules at the surface are less stable because they are only held together by molecules on one side. Surface tension results from the need to minimize the amount of surface to a liquid. The stronger the IMFs, the higher the surface tension.



Capillary Effect

Capillary action is the flow of liquid up a narrow tube against the force of gravity. It depends on both the IMFs between the liquid molecules (cohesive forces) and the IMFs between the liquid and the tube surface (adhesive forces). As liquid spreads on the tube surface it creates more surface area, the liquid then rises to reduce the surface area. This continues until a balance is reached between gravity pulling liquid down and surface tension pulling it up. The final height depends upon the surface tension of the liquid, the attraction between the liquid and tube surface, and the tube diameter.



Prelaboratory Study

Complete the following table.

Table A. Intermolecular forces and polarity properties of some substances

Formula	Valence e ⁻ :	Lewis Structure	Polarity	Intermolecular Forces
Water (H ₂ O)				
Hexane (CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₃)				
Acetone (CH ₃ COCH ₃)				
Ethanol (CH ₃ CH ₂ OH)				
Isopropanol (CH ₃ CHOHCH ₃)				

PROCEDURE:
A. Polarity of Liquids

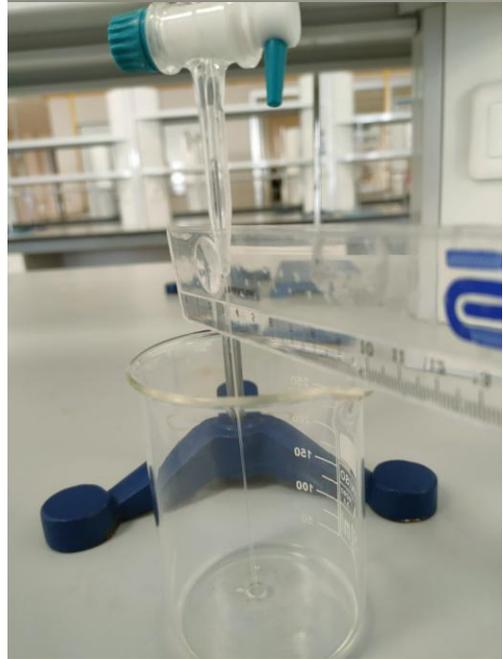
1. Take two different burettes. Add water into one beaker and hexane to another burette.



2. Place 2 different beakers under burettes and turn on burettes to allow a fine stream of liquid.

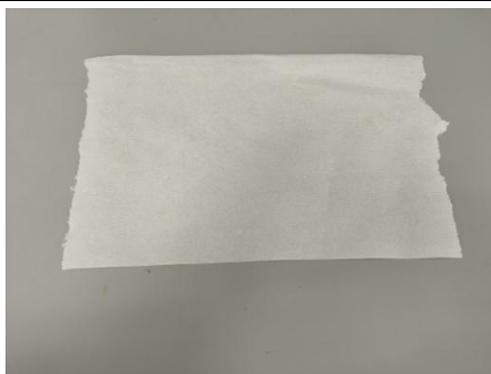


3. Rub a ruler on your hair or lab coat, bring it near each liquid and record your observations.

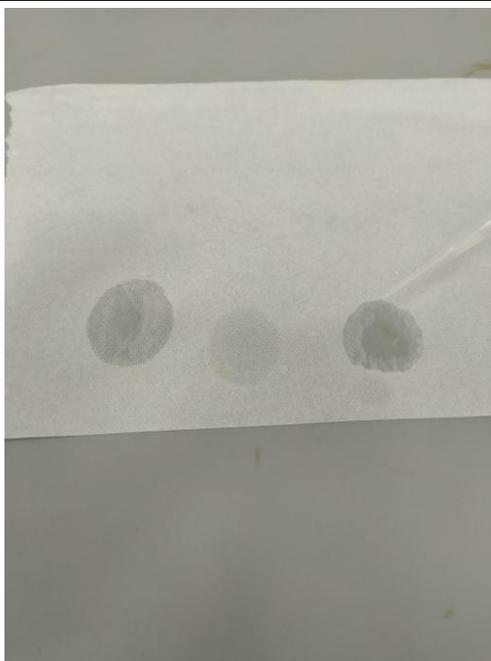


B. Evaporation Rate

1. Place a paper towel on bench.



2. Put two drops of acetone, two drops of ethanol and two drops of water on paper towel. Observe their evaporation rates.



C. Surface Tension

1. Take three dry pennies and lay them face up.



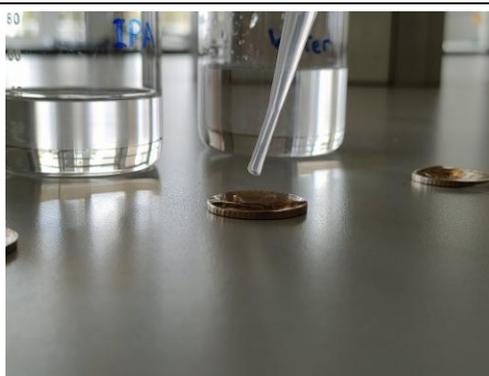
2. Take three different beakers and pour some water, isopropanol, and hexane, separately.



3. Get a Pasteur pipettes and take some water in it. Count how many drops of water you can add to the top of one penny before the liquid spills onto the table surface.



4. Repeat the same procedure with isopropanol with different Pasteur pipette on different penny. Record the number of droplets until the liquid spills onto the table surface.



5. Repeat the same procedure with hexane with different Pasteur pipette on different penny. Record the number of droplets until the liquid spills onto the table surface.

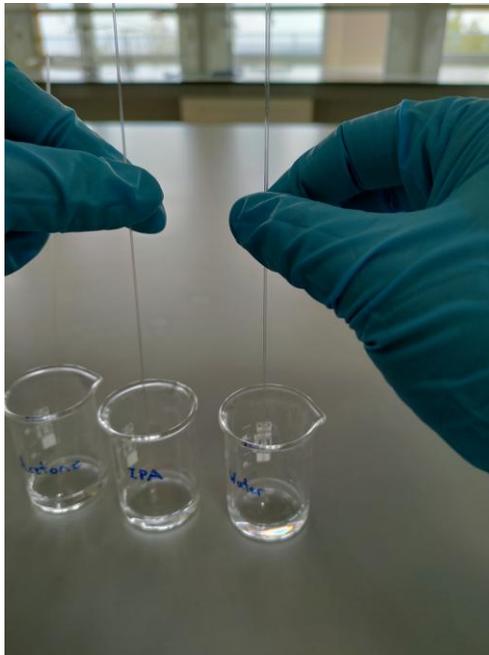


D. Capillary Action

1. Measure and pour 3 mL of water, isopropanol, and acetone into 3 different small beakers.



2. Put a capillary tube in each beaker and compare the heights of the liquids. Record your observations.



DATA SHEET
Intermolecular Forces

Student's Name:

Laboratory Section/Group Number:

Assistant's name and signature:

Date:

Part A:

1. What happened when the charged ruler was brought near water?

2. What happened when the charged ruler was brought near hexane?

3. Using the properties in Table A, explain why the liquids behaved differently.

Part B:

1. Which liquid has a faster evaporation rate, acetone, water, or ethanol?

2. Using the properties in Table A, explain why one evaporated faster.

Part C:

Fill the table below according to your experimental results.

Name of the material	Number of droplets
Water	
Isopropanol	
Hexane	

1. Sort the materials according to the surface tension.

2. Using the properties in the table A, explain why it had more surface tension.

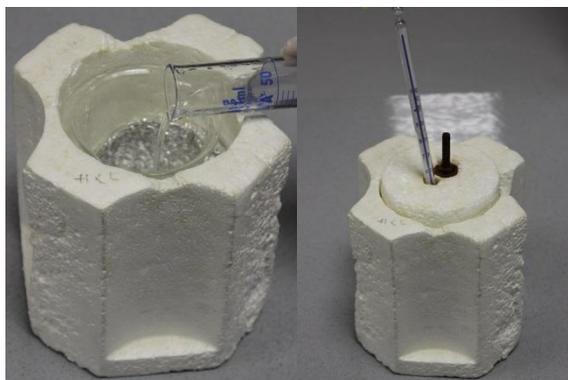
Part D:

1. Sort the materials according to the height of liquids in capillary.

2. Given that glass is highly polar, and the properties in the table A, explain the height difference.

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Experiment 6
Heat of Neutralization



Purpose: To calculate enthalpy change of a reaction by using calorimeter and understand the difference between endothermic and exothermic reactions

Prelaboratory Work

Before the experiment in the laboratory, you should be able to answer these questions.

1. Calculate the volume of solution of 1.50 M HNO_3 required in part (A) of the procedure.
2. Calculate the mass of NH_4NO_3 required in part (B) of the procedure. Show your reasoning.
3. Explain in stepwise fashion (number the steps) how you will determine the ΔH of formation of NH_4NO_3 from your data and information given in the experiment. Use actual numbers whenever possible.
4. How many joules are required to change the temperature of 80.0 g of water from 23.3°C to 38.8°C ?

Theory

In chemical reactions, energy change is observed. This energy change is usually in the form of heat and at constant pressure it is defined as **heat of reaction** or **enthalpy change (ΔH)**. To form 1 mole of compound from its constituent elements, necessary amount of enthalpy change occurs and this change is defined as **enthalpy of formation**. If heat is released during the reaction, ΔH is shown with negative sign

and the reaction is called **exothermic reaction**. If heat is absorbed during the reaction, ΔH is shown with positive sign and the reaction is called **endothermic reaction**.

Direct measurement of enthalpies of formation is difficult experimentally, so indirect methods involving enthalpies of reaction are used. Hess's Law states that the change in a thermodynamic property such as enthalpy depends on the initial and final states and is independent of path followed. An example for Hess's Law is given below.



Assume that ΔH_1 and ΔH_2 are known. If first and second reactions are added, net reaction becomes;



which is also formation reaction of $\text{NH}_3(\text{aq})$.

Given that $\Delta H_1 = -45.8 \text{ kJ/mol}$ and $\Delta H_2 = -35.4 \text{ kJ/mol}$, we can calculate the ΔH formation of $\text{NH}_3(\text{aq})$ as -81.2 kJ/mol .

The heat is measured experimentally by allowing the reaction to take place in a thermally insulated vessel called as **calorimeter**. If the calorimeter is perfectly insulated, no heat change occurs between system and surrounding and the system is defined as adiabatic ($Q=0$). Consequently, at constant pressure, ΔH_{system} is also equal to zero. The formulation of enthalpy change of the system, ΔH_{system} , is shown as in Equation (1).

$$\Delta H_{\text{system}} = \Delta T (\text{heat capacity of calorimeter} + \text{heat capacity of contents}) \quad (1)$$

For endothermic reaction in adiabatic system, Equation (1) can be written as below.

$$\Delta H_{\text{system}} = n\Delta H_{\text{reaction}} + C_p\Delta T$$

$$0 = n\Delta H_{\text{reaction}} + C_p\Delta T$$

$$n\Delta H_{\text{reaction}} = -C_p\Delta T$$

In a similar manner, for exothermic reaction in an adiabatic system, Equation (1) can be simplified as:

$$\Delta H_{\text{system}} = -n\Delta H_{\text{reaction}} + C_p\Delta T$$

$$0 = -n\Delta H_{\text{reaction}} + C_p\Delta T$$

$$n\Delta H_{\text{reaction}} = C_p\Delta T$$

In this experiment, you will determine the heat of formation of various ammonium salts $\text{NH}_4\text{X}(\text{s})$ where X is Cl, NO_3 or SO_4 by combining measurements of the heat for the neutralization reaction;



And the heat of the dissolution reaction;

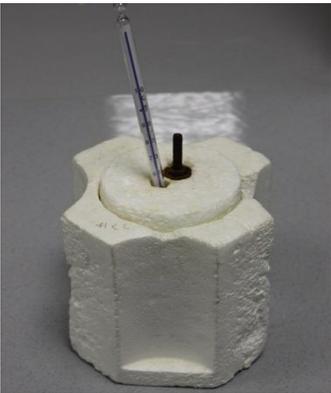
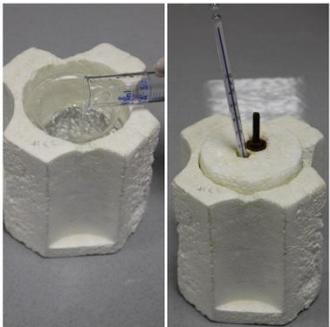


with known heats of formation of $\text{NH}_3(\text{aq})$ and $\text{HX}(\text{aq})$.

Materials

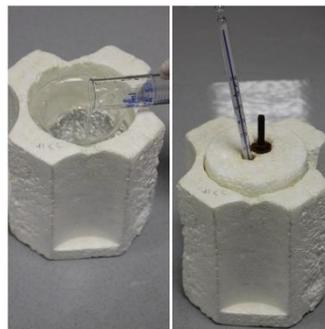
Nitric acid (HNO ₃)	250 mL beaker	Graduated cylinder
Ammonia (NH ₃)	Thermometers	
Ammonium nitrate (NH ₄ NO ₃)	Styrofoam cups	

Procedure

PART A: Heat of Neutralization	
<p>1. Obtain a styrofoam cup. In the first cup, place 50 mL of 1.5 M NH₃.</p>	
<p>2. Place a thermometer in the cup containing the NH₃ and record temperature at 30 seconds intervals.</p>	
<p>3. Add the acid solution to the NH₃ and swirl to mix. Continue taking temperature data at 30 seconds intervals while swirling the solution occasionally.</p>	

PART B: Dissolving

1. Place a volume of distilled water equal to the final volume of solution from part (A) in a Styrofoam cup and record temperature data at 30 seconds intervals.



2. Weigh out that mass of NH_4NO_3 salt into a clean, dry beaker.



3. Immediately, add the weighed amount of salt, swirl to dissolve (use stirring rod if necessary), and continue taking temperature data at 30 seconds intervals.



Calculations

1. Plot temperature versus time graph using your data and determine ΔH_{neut} for (a) and ΔH_{diss} for (b).
2. Take ΔH_f of 1.5 M NH_3 as -81.2 kJ/mol and ΔH_f of 1.5 M HCl as -165.1 kJ/mol , calculate the ΔH_f of $\text{NH}_4\text{Cl}(s)$.
3. Do the same calculations for $\text{NH}_4\text{NO}_3(s)$ using -206.0 kJ/mol for the ΔH_f of 1.5 M HNO_3 .
4. Calculate ΔH_f of $(\text{NH}_4)_2\text{SO}_4$ using -884.2 kJ/mol for the ΔH_f of 1.5 M H_2SO_4 . [Note that all ΔH_f are per mol (not per 1.5 mol)]

DATA SHEET

Heat of Neutralization

Student's Name : _____ Date: _____

Laboratory Section/Group No : _____

Assistant's Name and Signature : _____

Prelaboratory Work

1. Volume of 1.5 M HNO₃ solution: _____

2. Mass of NH₄NO₃: _____

Time (s)	Temperature of NH ₃ solution in °C before adding 1.5 M HNO ₃	Temperature of distilled water in °C before NH ₄ NO ₃
0		
30		
60		
90		
120		
150		
180		
Time (s)	Temperature of NH ₃ + 1.5 M HNO ₃ solution in °C	Temperature of NH ₄ NO ₃ solution in °C
0		
30		
60		
90		
120		
150		
180		

Results

1. Calculate $\Delta H_{\text{neutralization}}$:

2. Calculate $\Delta H_{\text{dissociation}}$:

3. Calculate $\Delta H_{\text{formation}}$ of NH_4NO_3 :