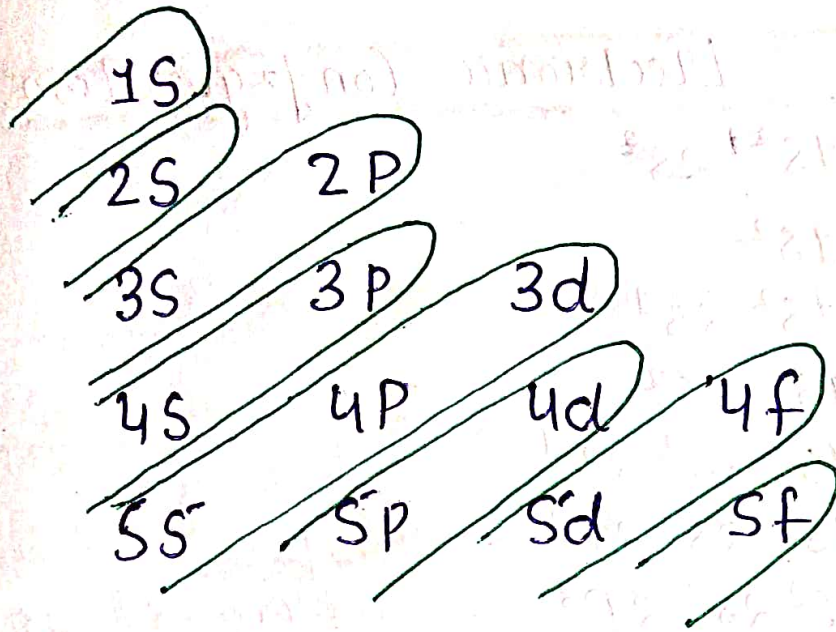


METHOD OF ELECTRONIC CONFIGURATION



1s 2s 2p 3s 3p 4s 3d 4p 5s

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ELECTRONIC CONFIGURATION

H (Atom)	Atomic No ^o	Electronic Configuration
H	1	$1s^1$
He	2	$1s^2$
Li	3	$1s^2 2s^1$
Be	4	$1s^2 2s^2$
B	5	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^1$
C	6	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^2$
N	7	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^3$
O	8	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^4$
F	9	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^5$
Ne	10	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6$
Na	11	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^1$
Mg	12	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2$
Al	13	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^1$
Si	14	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^2$
P	15	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^3$
S	16	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^4$
Cl	17	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^5$
Ar	18	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6$
K	19	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^1$
Ca	20	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^2$
Sc	21	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^3$
Ti	22	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^4$
V	23	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^5$
Cr	24	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^5, 4s^1$
Mn	25	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^7$
Fe	26	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^8$
Co	27	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^9$
Ni	28	$1s^2 2s^2 2p^6 3s^2 3p^6 3d^8, 4s^2$

20 Oct MOLECULAR ORBITAL THEORY

UNIT-I

- This theory is given by Hund & Mulliken.
- it is just Modification of Valance bond theory (V.B.T)

• Main Assumptions of M.O.T are:

- Atomic orbital of same energy and suitable symmetry combine and form molecular orbitals.
- These molecular orbitals may be homoatomic Mo and heteroatomic Mo.

Homoatomic M.O \rightarrow formed by same atoms (H_2, N_2)

Heteroatomic M.O \rightarrow formed by different atoms.
e.g. (NO, CO, HF)

- In this theory bonding should be delocalized i.e. should be spread over whole molecule.
- No. of Molecular orbitals should be equal to atomic orbitals. But Molecular orbitals are classified as:

- Bonding Molecular orbital [BMO] • They have lower energy than Parental orbital.
and represented as (σ, π)
elec.
mulliken
p.p.
- Anti Bonding Molecular orbital [ABO] • They have higher energy than. Parental orbital.
It is represented as $\rightarrow (\sigma^*, \pi^*)$

- Linear Combination of Atomic Orbitals (LCAO)
- Molecular orbitals formed by linear combination of atomic orbitals. For this combination atomic orbitals must follow some conditions.

(a) Conditions: -

(A) Atomic orbital must have same energy.

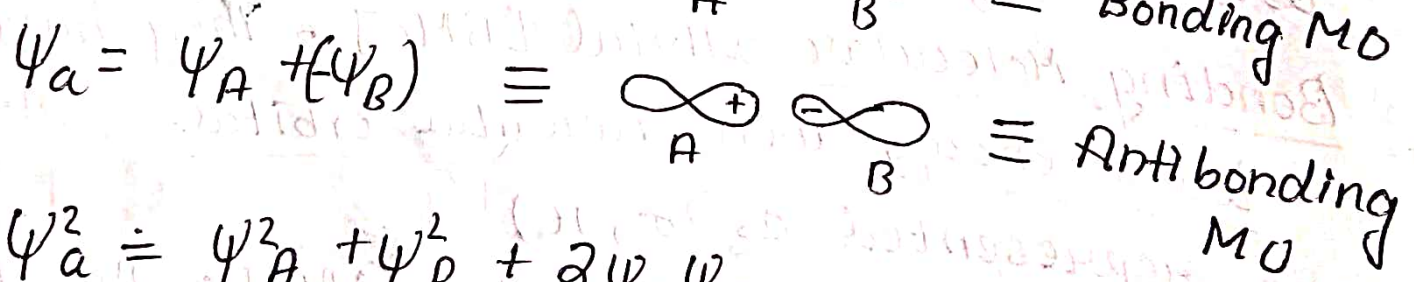
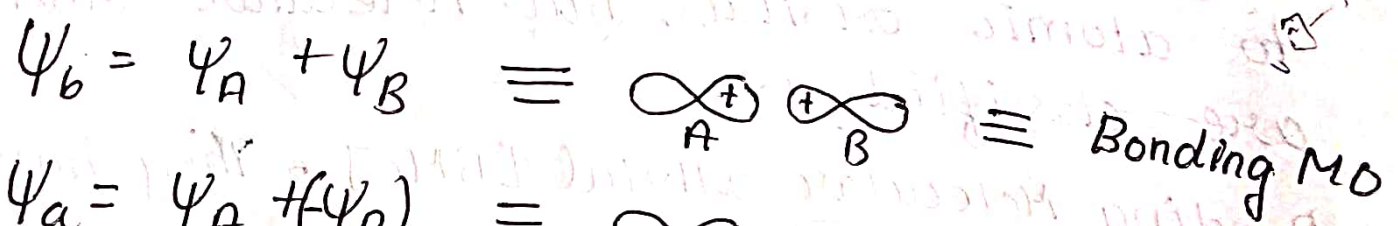
(B) Atomic orbital must have proper symmetry

(C) Overlapping of atomic orbital should be in such extent (manage) to minimize the repulsion b/w molecules/orbitals.

(d) Bonding molecular orbital (BMO) supports their formation thus, they are stable. And A.M.O oppose their formation thus, they are unstable.

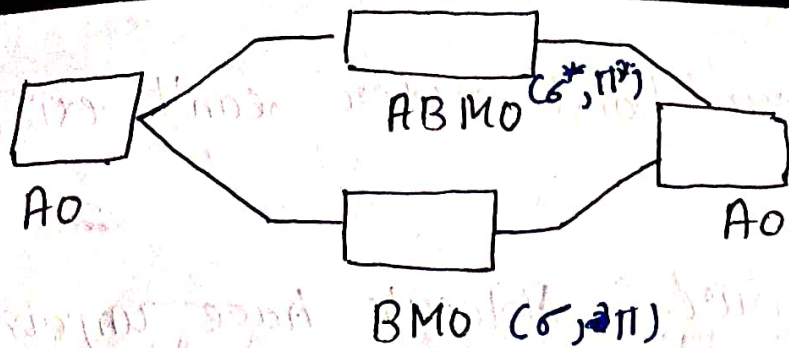
ee In this way probability of finding an electron is greater in BMO than ABMO

(e) LCAO represented as ψ
 ψ = wave function



$$\psi_a^2 = \psi_A^2 + \psi_B^2 + 2\psi_A\psi_B$$

$$\psi_b^2 = \psi_A^2 + \psi_B^2 - 2\psi_A\psi_B$$

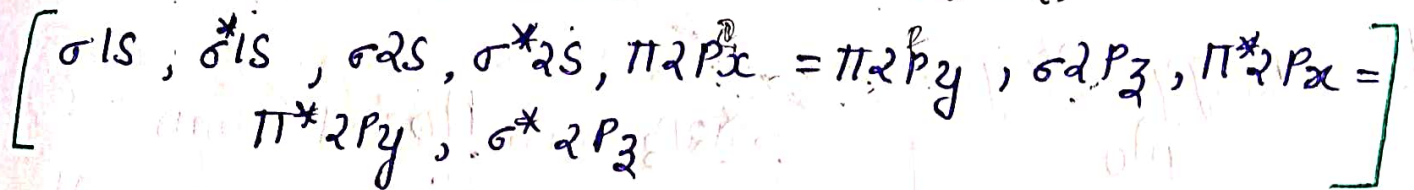


APPLICATION OF MOT

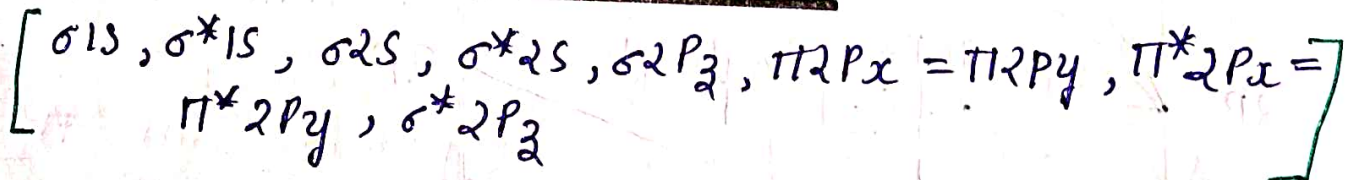
a) Electronic Configuration:

Case Ist

- upto 1ue⁻ in molecule (N₂, CO, C₂, B₂)



- Above 1ue⁻ in molecule (O₂, NO)



b) Bond Order

- Half of difference of bonding e⁻ — Antibonding

$$\left[\text{Bond order [BO]} = \frac{N_b - N_a}{2} \right]$$

N_b = No of bonding of electron

N_a = No of Antibonding of electron.

- Relation b/w Bond order & bond length.

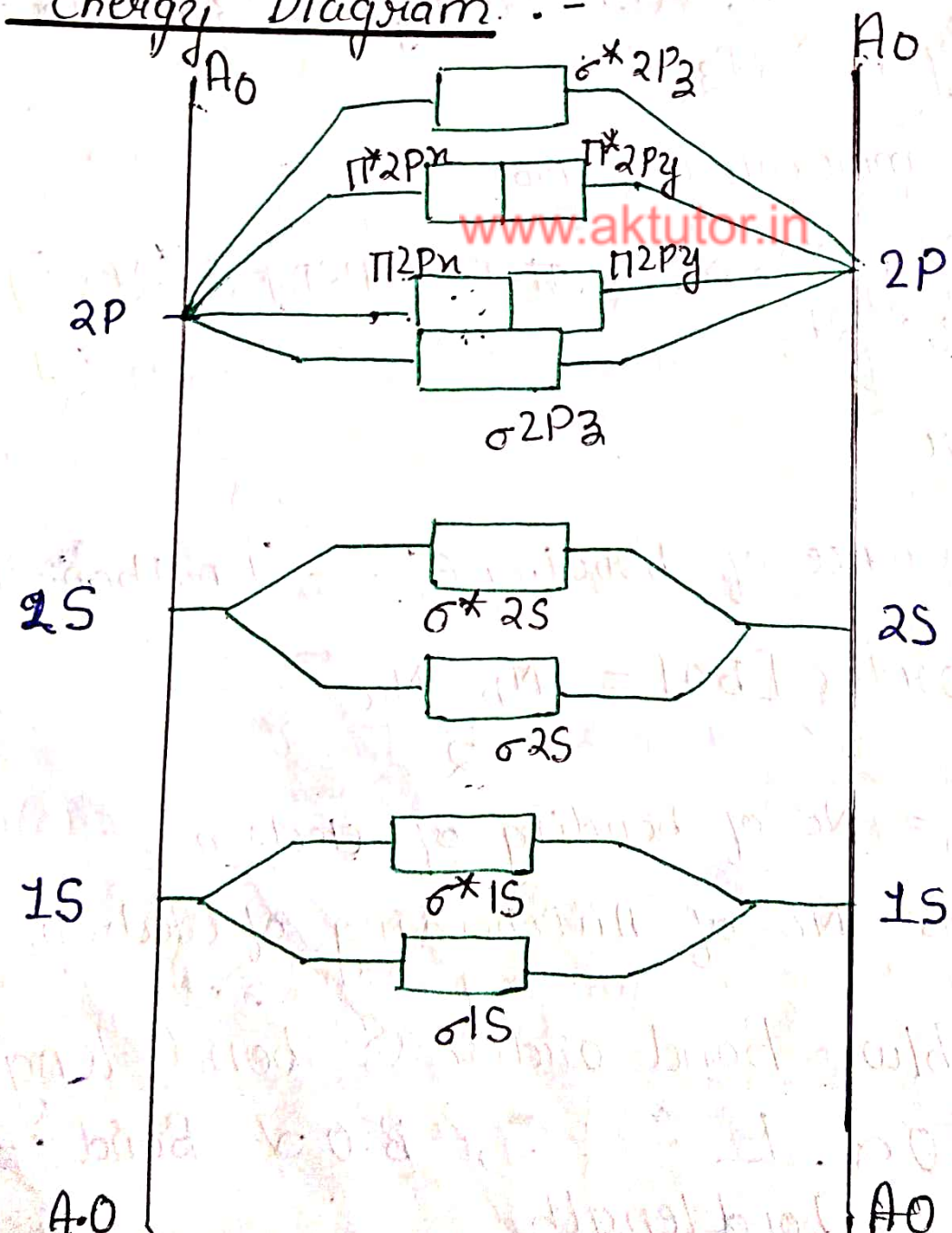
$$\left[\text{B.O} \propto \frac{1}{\text{bond length}} \right], \left[\text{B.O} \propto \text{Bond strength} \right]$$

- Molecules have zero bond order can't exist.
(e.g. \rightarrow He)

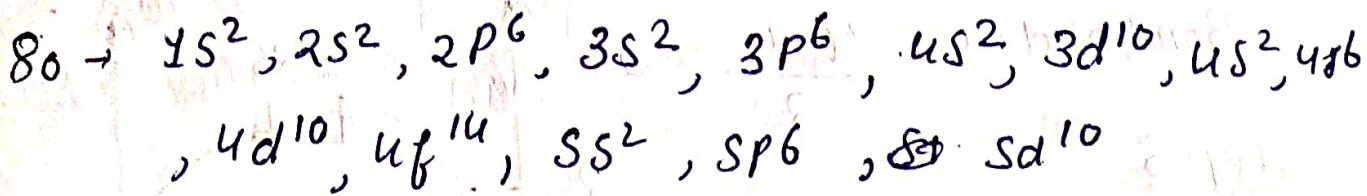
c] Magnetic Behaviour: Molecules have unpaired electrons in configuration are "Paramagnetic" [react in magnetic field]

Molecules have paired electrons in configuration are "Diamagnetic" [neutral in magnetic field]

d] Energy Diagram :-



In D group of element the last orbital of electron go in d orbital

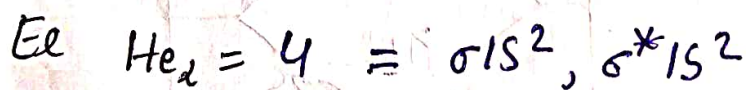
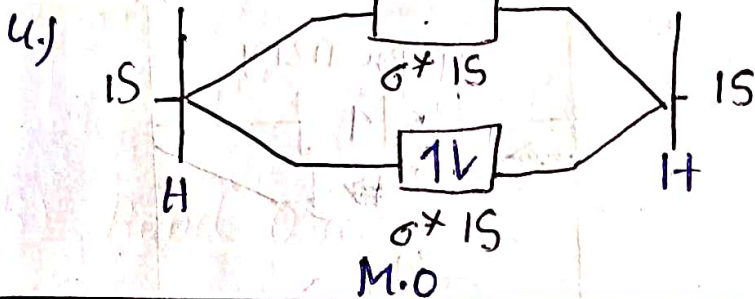


$[H_1 + H_1]$

2) $B.O = \frac{N_b - N_a}{2}$

$B.O = \frac{2 - 0}{2}, B.O = 1$

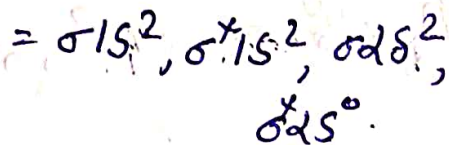
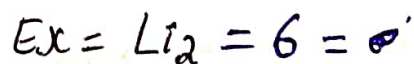
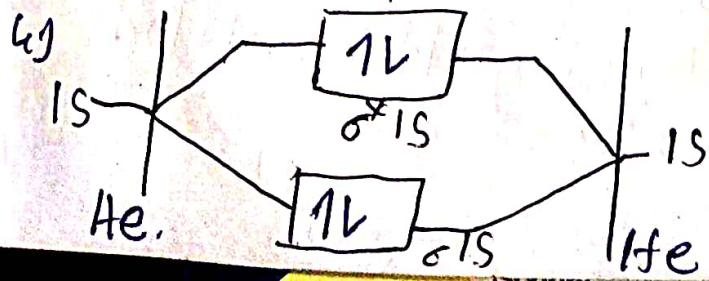
3) Diamagnetic



Step-2

$B.O = \frac{2 - 2}{2} = 0$

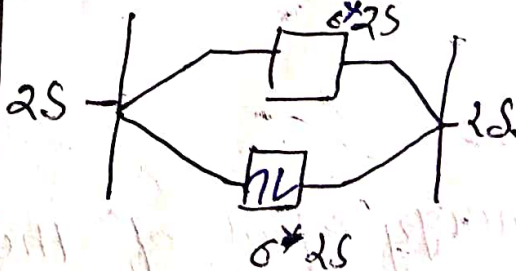
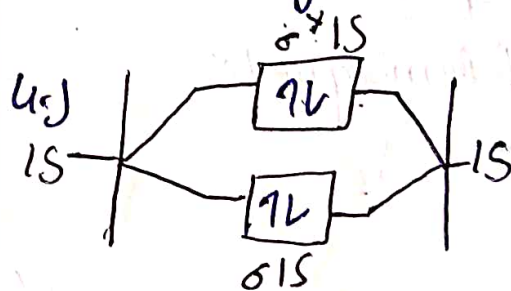
3) Diamagnetic



$B.O = \frac{4 - 2}{2} = \frac{2}{2} = 1$

$B.O = 1$

3) Diamagnetic



$Be_2 \rightarrow 8 = \sigma 1s^2, \sigma^* 1s^2, \sigma 2s^2, \sigma^* 2s^2$

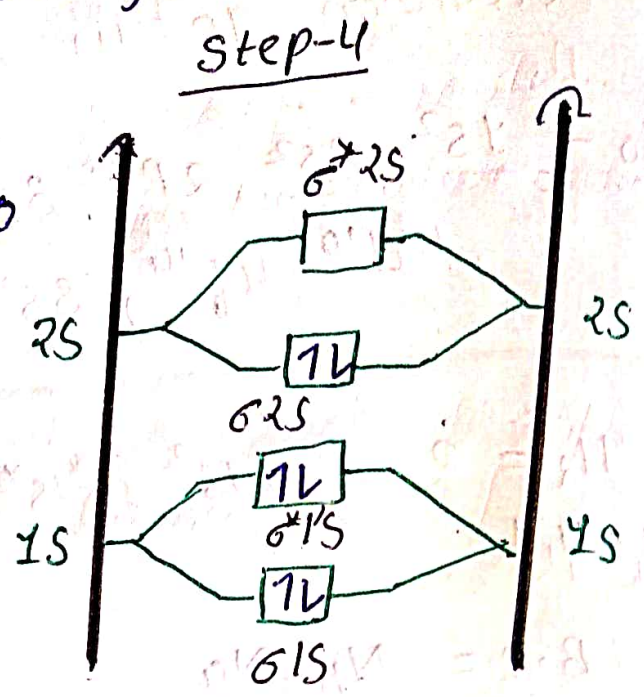
Step-2

Bond order = $\frac{4-4}{2} = 0$

Step-3

Diamagnetic

~~Step-4~~



s) $B_2 = 10 = \sigma 1s^2, \sigma^* 1s^2, \sigma 2s^2, \sigma^* 2s^2, \pi 2p_x = \pi 2p_y$

Step-2

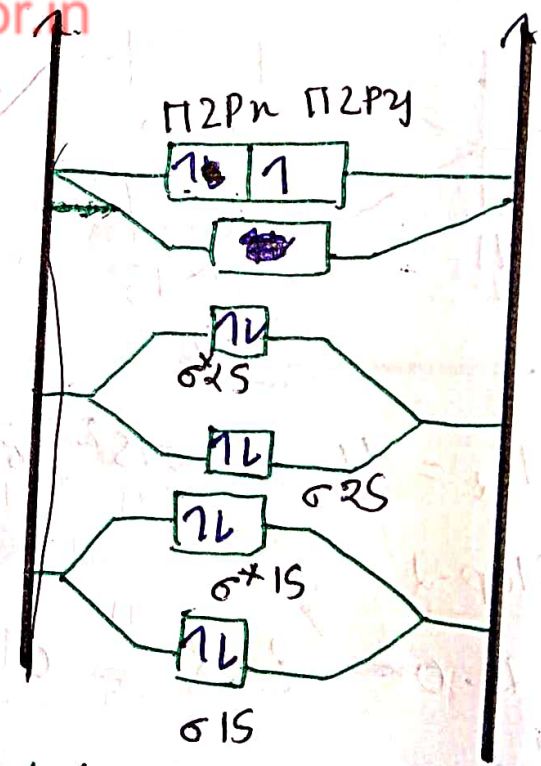
Bond order $\rightarrow \frac{6-4}{2} = 1$

Bond order = 1

Step-3

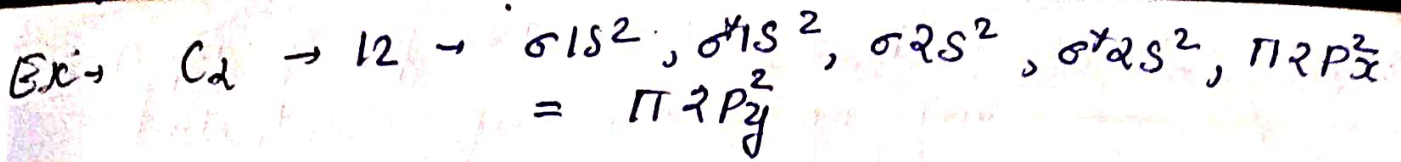
Para Diamagnetic

Step-4



notes:

if energy equal of the orbitals then share equal electrons.



Step-2

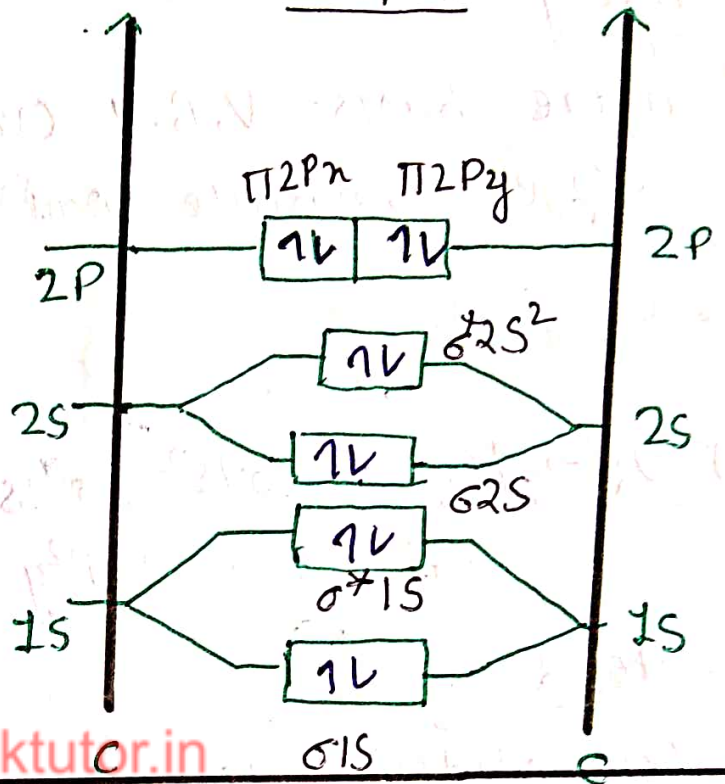
Bond order = $\frac{8-4}{2} = \frac{4}{2} = 2$.

B.O = 2

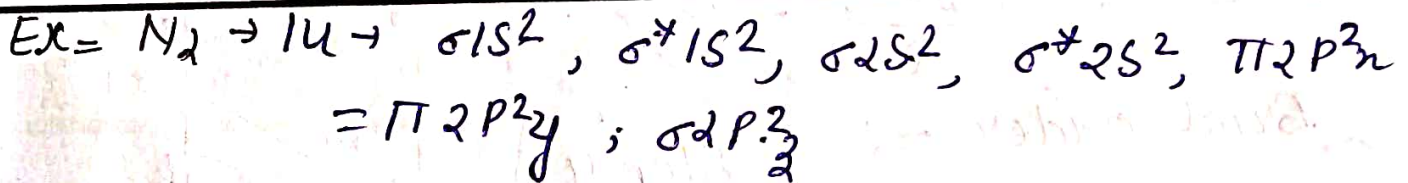
Step-3

Diamagnetic

Step-4



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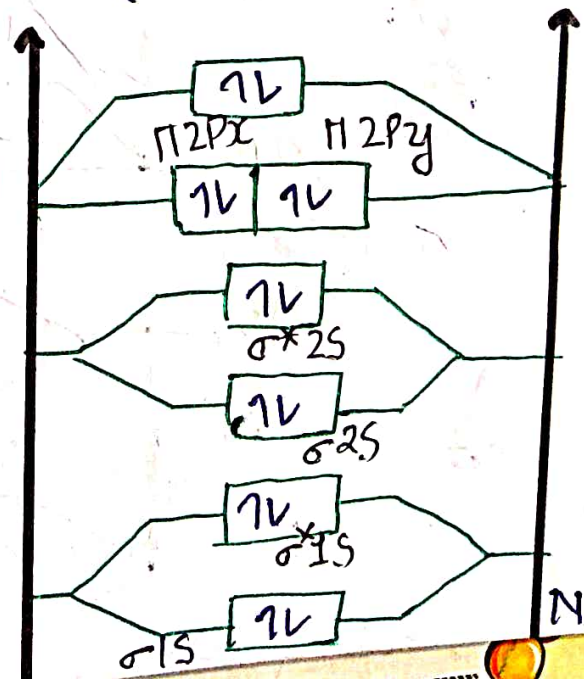


Step-3

Bond order = $\frac{10-4}{2} = \frac{6}{2} = 3$

Step-3

Diamagnetic

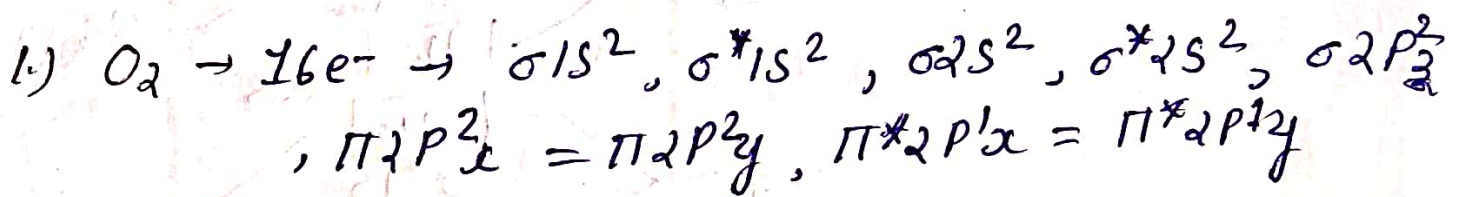


Oxygen Molecule

Paramagnetic behaviour of oxygen molecule explain on the basis of Molecular orbital theory

[On the basis V.B.T (valance bond theory) oxygen molecule was diamagnetic]

Above $14e^-$



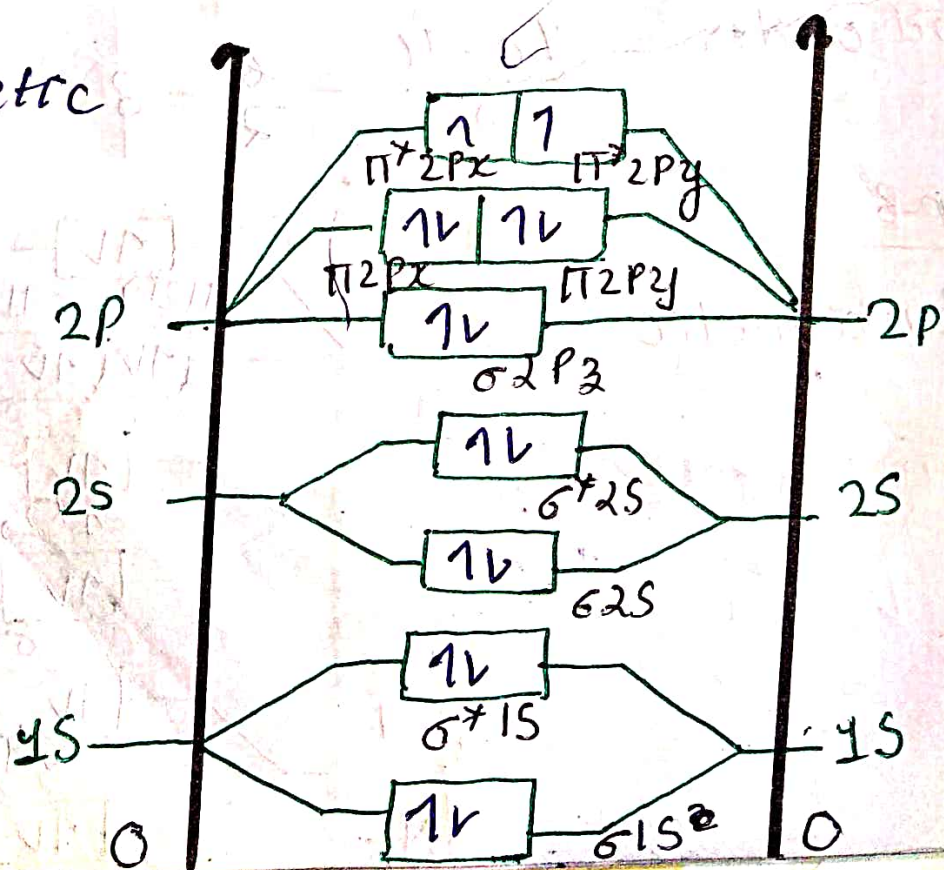
Step-1

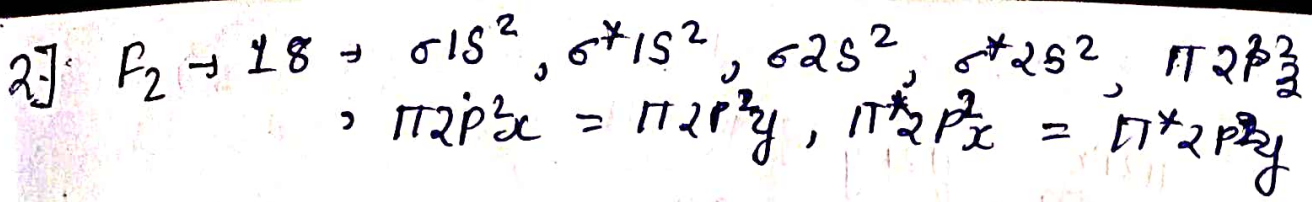
$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{10 - 6}{2} = 2$$

Bond order = 2 Step-4

Step-3

Paramagnetic





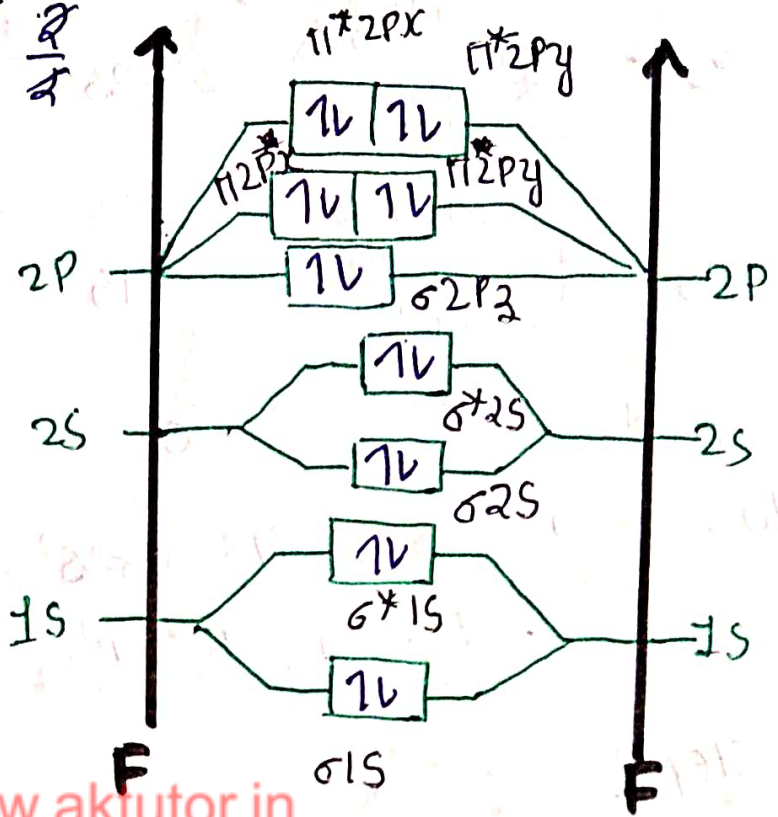
Step-2

$$B.O = \frac{10 - 8}{2} = \frac{2}{2} = 1$$

$$B.O = 1$$

Step-3

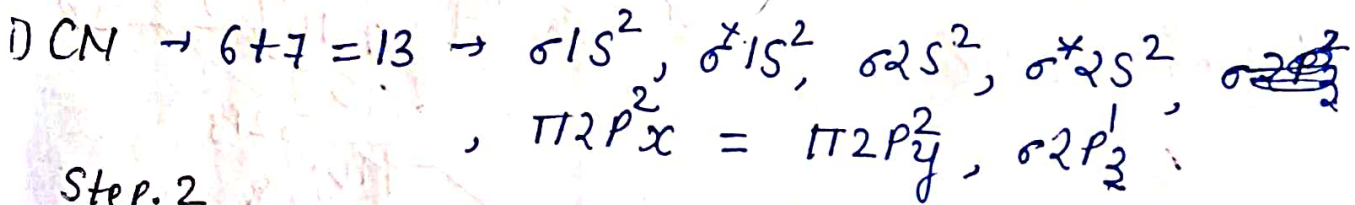
Diamagnetic



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HETROATOMIC

e.g. CN, NO, CO, CO⁺, HF exception.



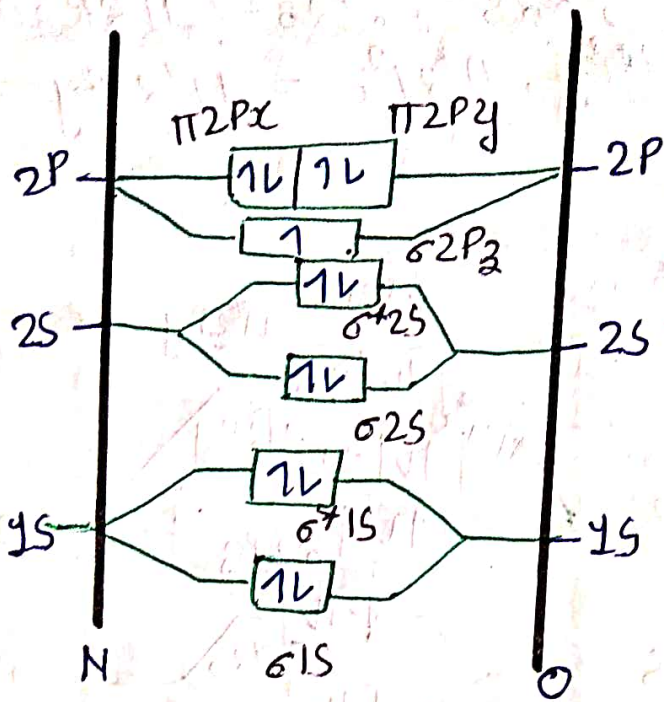
Step.2

$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{N_b - N_a}{2} = \frac{8 - 9}{2} = \frac{2}{2} = 1$$

$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{8}{2} = 4$$

Step-3

Paramagnetic.



NO: $1s \Rightarrow \sigma 1s^2, \sigma^* 1s^2, \sigma 2s^2, \sigma^* 2s^2, \sigma 2p^2, \pi 2p_x^2, \pi 2p_y^2, \pi^* 2p_x^1$

Step-2

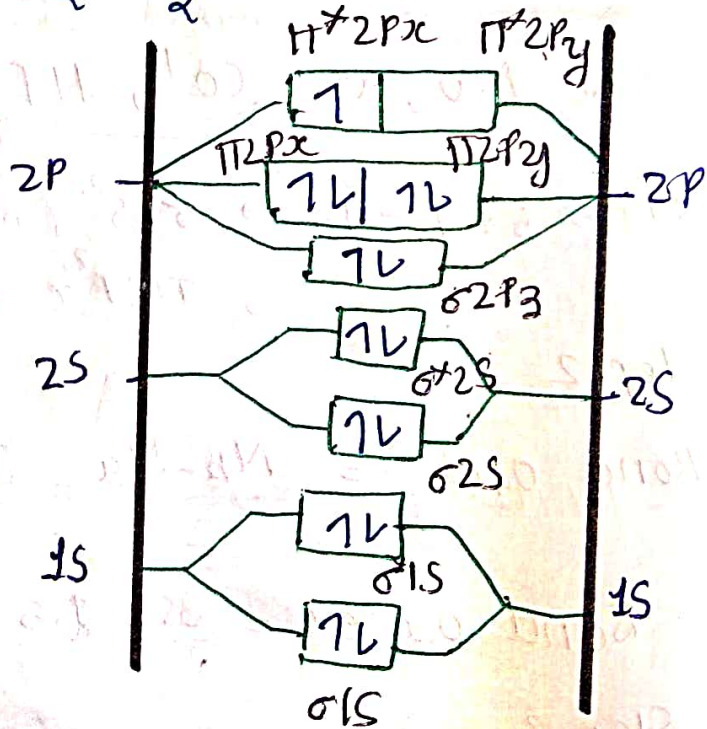
Bond order: $\frac{N_b - N_a}{2} = \frac{10 - 5}{2} = \frac{5}{2}$

B.O = 2.5

Step-3

Paramagnetic.

Step-4



$\text{NO}^+ = 14 \rightarrow \sigma 1s^2, \sigma^* 1s^2, \sigma 2s^2, \sigma^* 2s^2, \sigma 2p_z^2, \pi 2p_x^2$
 (above 14e-) = $\pi 2p_y^2$

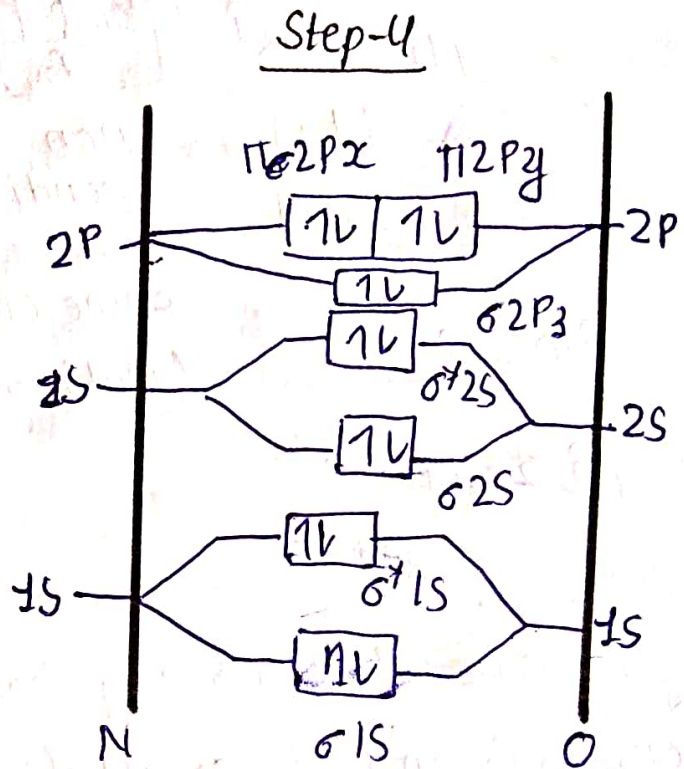
Step-2

$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{N_b - N_a}{2}$$

$$= \frac{10 - 4}{2} = 3$$

Step-3

Diamagnetic



• Special case Exception

$\text{CO} \rightarrow 14 \rightarrow \sigma 1s^2, \sigma^* 1s^2, \sigma 2s^2, \pi 2p_x^2 = \pi 2p_y^2, \sigma 2p_z^2, \sigma^* 2s^2$

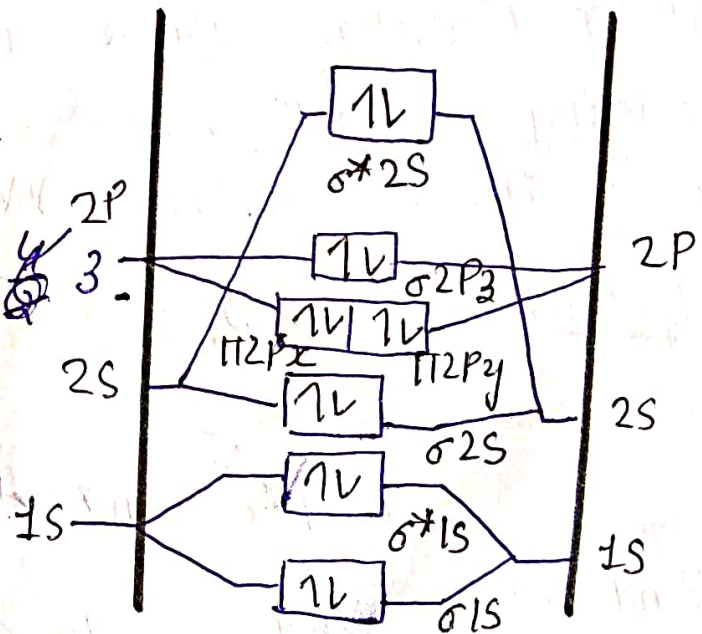
Step-2

$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{N_b - N_a}{2}$$

$$= \frac{10 - 4}{2} = 3$$

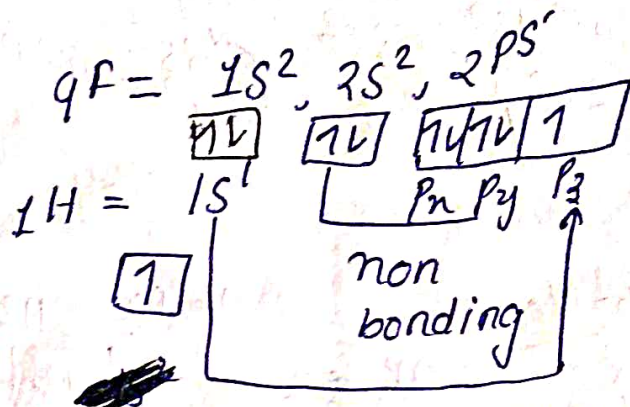
Step-3

Diamagnetic



- CO is exception case because $\sigma^* 2s^2$ is highly energy so that's why shifted after $\sigma 2p_z^2$
- CO^+ is also exception but nature is Paramagnetic

Hf $\rightarrow 10 \rightarrow$



$$B.O = \frac{2-0}{2}$$

$$B.O = 1$$

Same energy
(making bonding)

Reason:

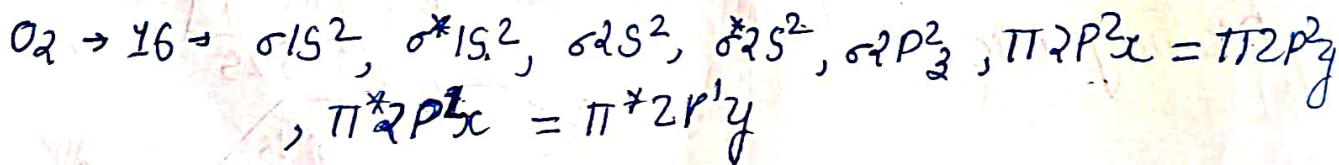
Why p_z and $1s$ making bonding

Because p_z and $1s$ orbital have same energy
that's why its making bonding

V.B.T www.aktutor.in

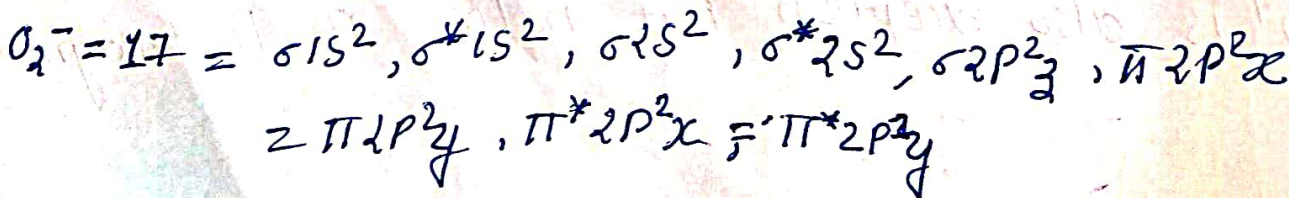
- In V.B.T Parental orbital retain their identity
- According to V.B.T follow LCAO
- In V.B.T Atomic orbital are Monocentric

Differentiate b/w O_2 and O_2^- find strength



Bond order: $\frac{N_b - N_a}{2} = \frac{10 - 6}{2} = 2$

• Di Paramagnetic



$$B.O = \frac{N_b - N_a}{2} = \frac{10 - 7}{2} = \frac{3}{2} = 1.5$$

$$B.O = 1.5$$

• Paramagnetic

We know that

• Bond order & strength

$$O_2 > O_2^-$$

B.O & Molecule stability

• find the bond strength of N_2 , N_2^- , N_2^+

• $N_2 \rightarrow 14 \rightarrow \sigma 1s^2, \sigma^* 1s^2, \sigma 2s^2, \sigma^* 2s^2, \pi 2p^2_x = \pi 2p^2_y$
 $\sigma 2p^2_z$

Step-IInd

$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{N_b - N_a}{2} = \frac{10 - 4}{2} = \frac{6}{2} = 3$$

$$\text{Bond order} = 3$$

Step-1

Step-IIIrd

Diamagnetic

• $N_2^- \rightarrow 15 \rightarrow \sigma 1s^2, \sigma^* 1s^2, \sigma 2s^2, \sigma^* 2s^2, \sigma 2p^2_z, \pi 2p^2_x = \pi 2p^2_y$
 $\sigma^* 2p^1_x$

Step-IInd

$$\text{Bond order} = \frac{N_b - N_a}{2} = \frac{10 - 5}{2} = 2.5$$

$$\text{Bond order} = 2.5$$

Bond strength

$$N_2 > N_2^- > N_2^+$$

Step-IIIrd

Paramagnetic

• $N_2^+ \rightarrow 13 \rightarrow \sigma 1s^2, \sigma^* 1s^2, \sigma 2s^2, \sigma^* 2s^2, \pi 2p^2_x = \pi 2p^2_y, \sigma 2p^1_z$

Ind step: Paramagnetic

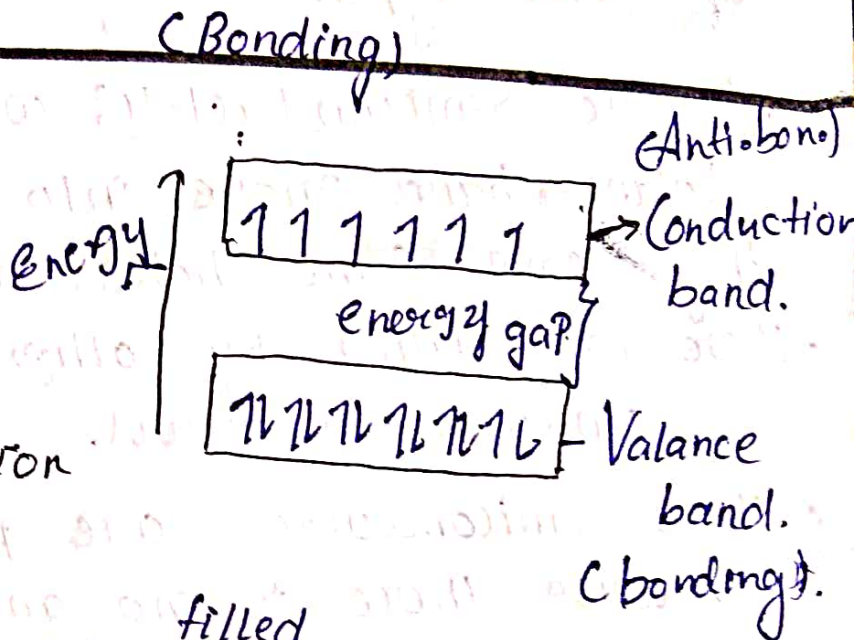
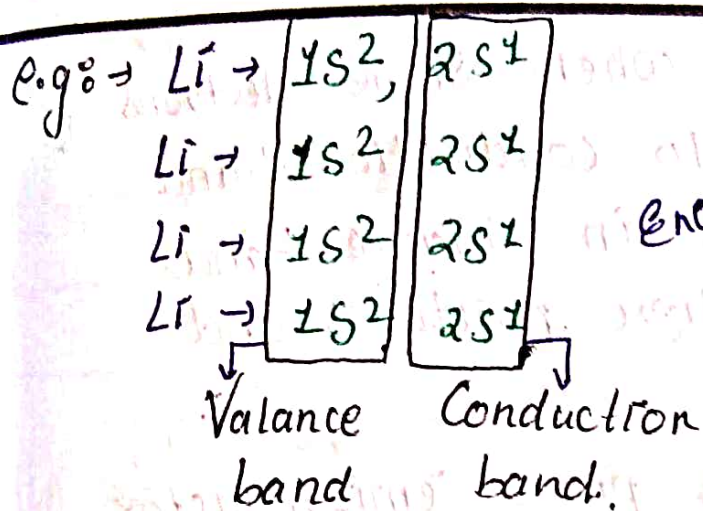
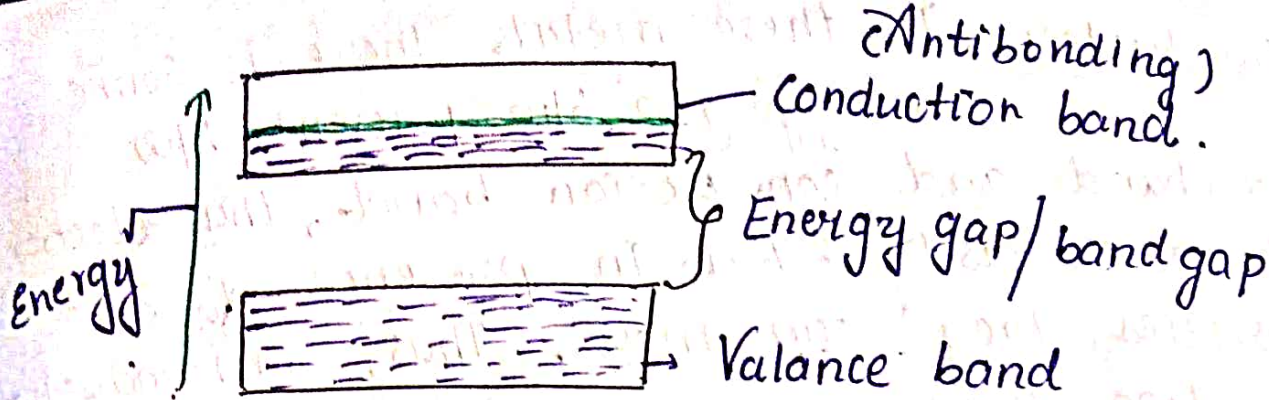
IInd step: B.order = $\frac{9 - 4}{2} = \frac{5}{2} = 2.5$

BAND THEORY OF METALS

- In M.O.T Atoms overlap and form bonding non-bonding and Antibonding orbitals. But metals are composed of large no of atoms and the no of Molecular orbitals are becomes so large. Thus they are merge into a band of energy levels.
- In these bands space is minimum and they are highly close together.
- The no of Individual molecular orbitals within band is equal to the no of contributing atomic orbitals.
- There are two bands types of bands are formed \rightarrow conduction band, valance band.
- Valance band: This is bonding band, and completely full filled.
- Conduction band: This is Antibonding band and will be empty, (vacant)

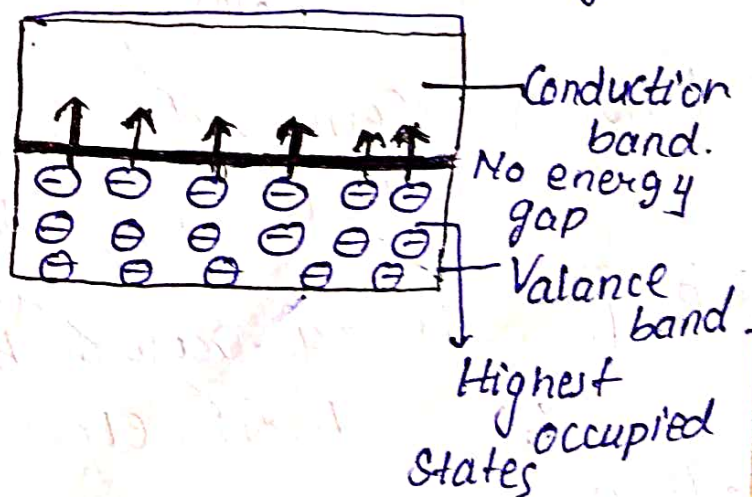
Note:

There are some gap occurs b/w these two bands and is known as, Energy gap or band gap.



Conductors: In these metals ^{filled} valance band and ^{filled} conduction band overlap with empty or half filled conduction band. There is no band gap b/w valance band and conduction band. Thus they are good electrical conductors.

In these metals empty or unfilled half filled energy states available just above the highest occupied states.

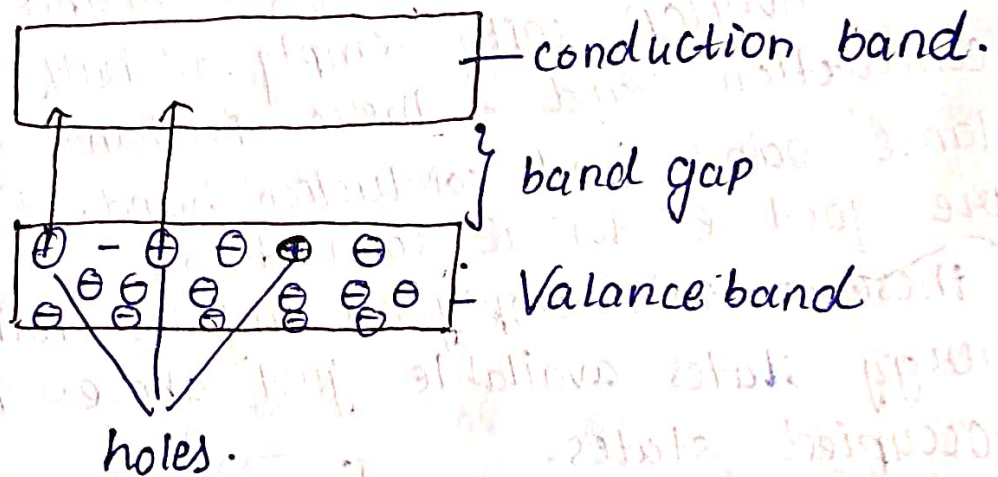


(12/5/21)

Semiconductor: In these metals there is some energy gap ~~between~~ present b/w Valance band and conduction band, thus electron can't move easily. But in presence of some impurities they can move. Thus, Semiconductor of two types.

Intrinsic Semiconductor: when some electrons of Valance band move into conduction band. they leave some holes in Valance band. These are filled by other particles and conductivity occurs.

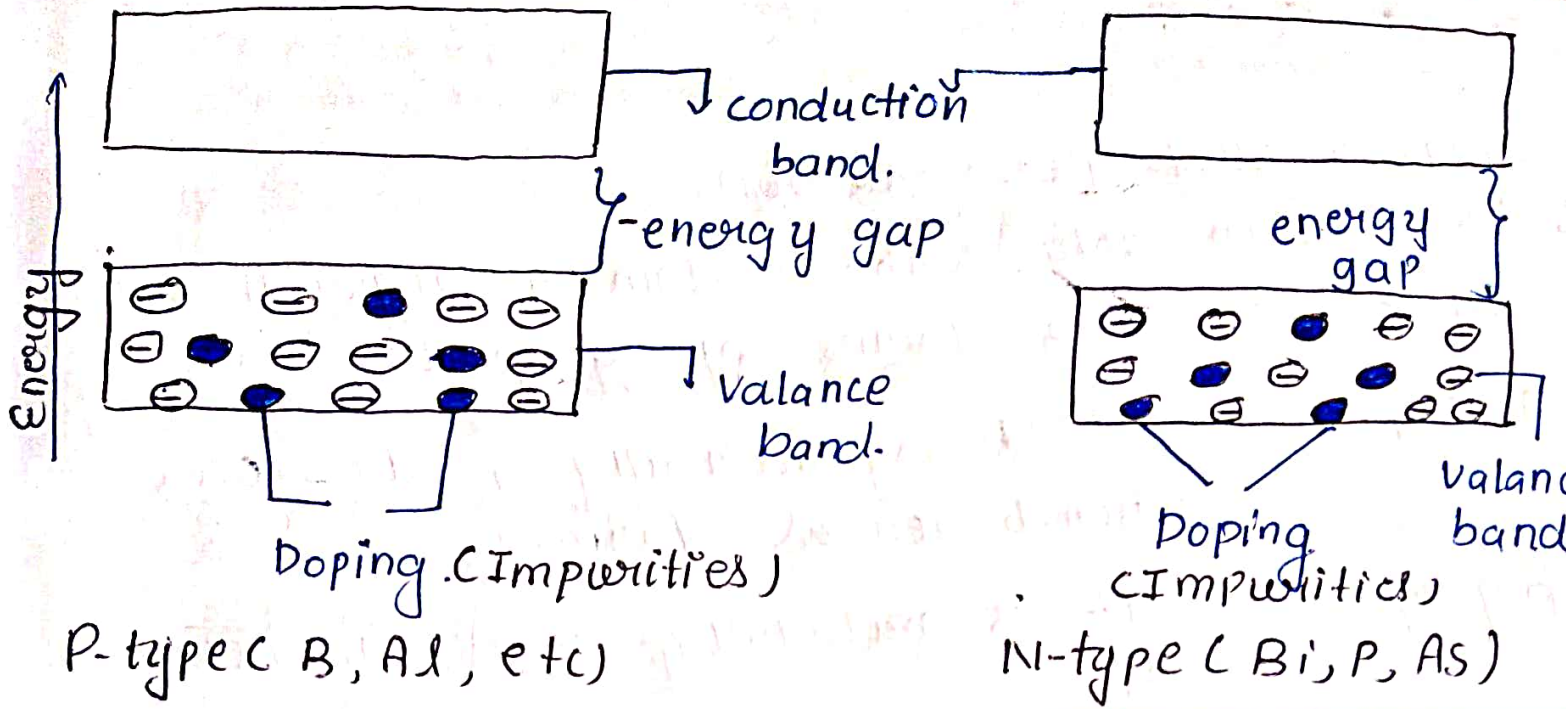
• These semiconductor are pure semiconductor because there is no any impurity occurs.



• Extrinsic Semiconductor: They are impure semiconductor form by doping of some elements

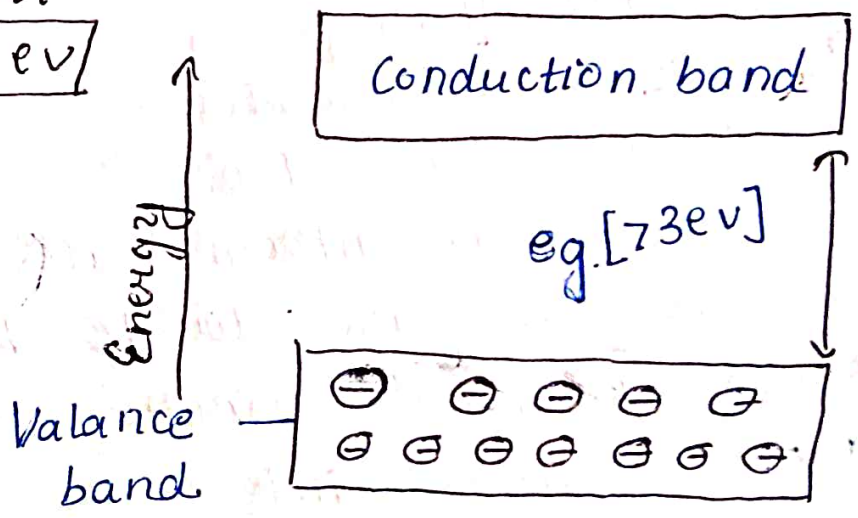
• P-type: doping occurs by group 3rd element B, Al etc.

• N-type: Doping occurs by group 5th elements.
 (b) Antimony, Bi, P, As. etc.



Insulator : In these www.ektutor.in electrons can't move from valance band to conduction band. Because energy gap ~~occur~~ b/w them is greater than 3 electron volt

$eg \gg 3 \text{ eV}$



STRUCTURE OF GRAPHITE

- It is a allotrope of carbon.
- It contain only carbon atom arranged in layers.
- There are two forms of graphite.

α -graphite : It is synthetically produce occurs in Rhombohedral. form.

β -graphite ; it is naturally occurs in hexagonal form.

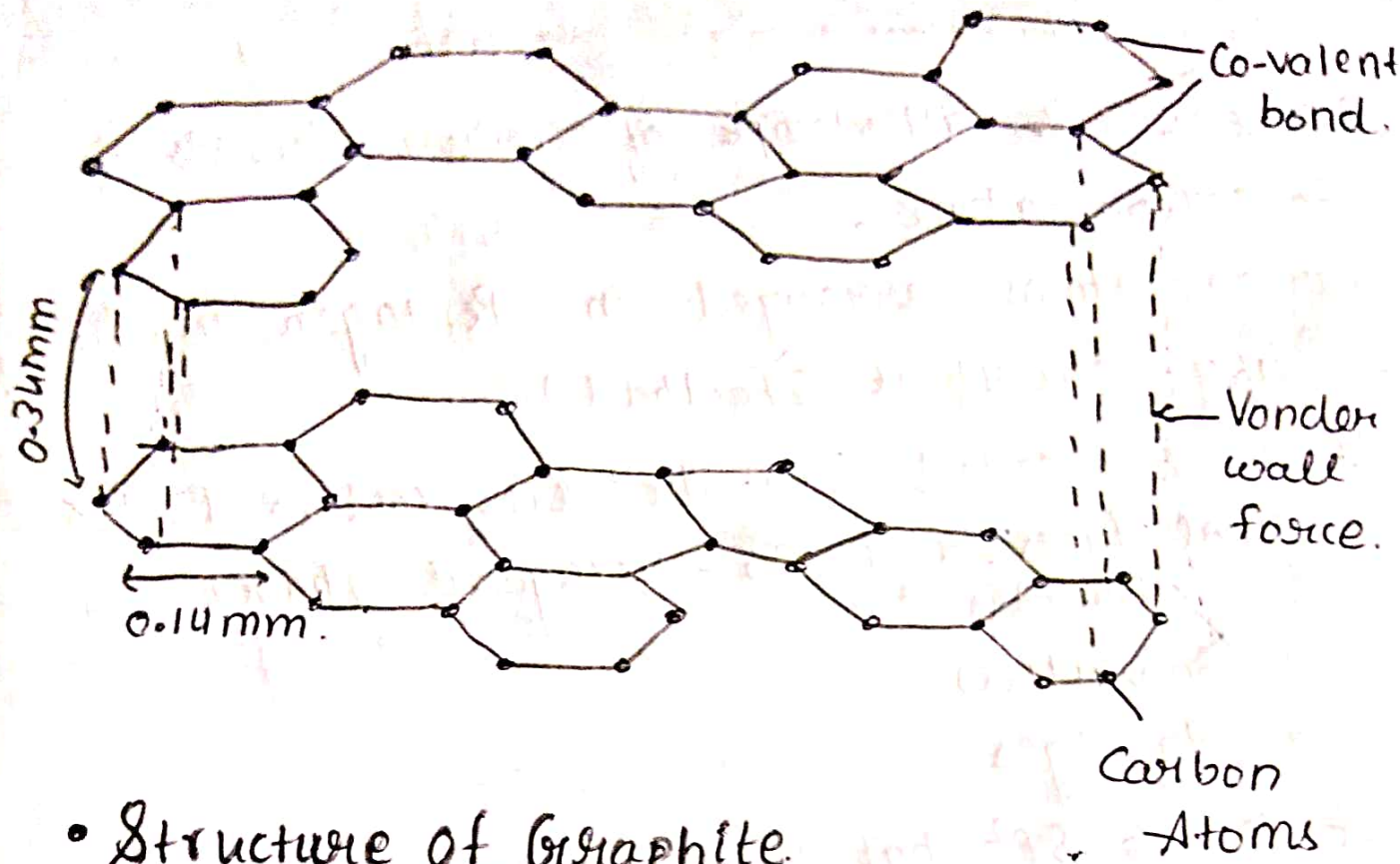
- β -graphite has hexagonal carbon atoms occurs in layers loosely bonded by Van der Waals forces

• There are —

- sp^2 hybridization.
- network is 2-dimensional.
- Bond angles are 120°
- Bond length is Intermediate b/w $C-C$ and $C=C$ or single bond and double bond.
- Shows Resonance structure.
- High Melting Point
- Graphite is soft and slippery substance, layers can slide over one another.

APPLICATIONS / CONDUCTIVITY

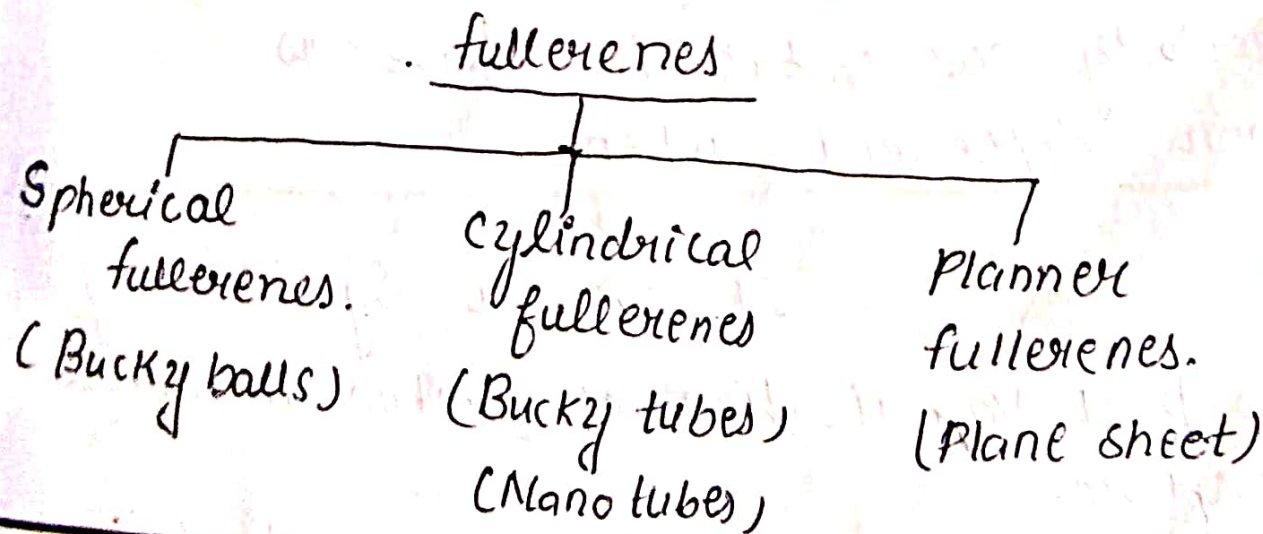
- Graphite largely used in pencils.
- Graphite is good conductor of heat and electricity because of delocalization of π -electrons, which form a π -cloud, conduct electricity.



• Structure of Graphite.

FULLERENES: • In 1985 Robert curl, Harold Kroto, Richard Smalley discovered a new form of carbon. Known as fullerenes or Richard Buckminster (C₆₀).

• Fullerenes occurs in three forms.



STRUCTURE OF FULLERENS

- Fullerenes is Allotrope of Carbon. Consists of 60 carbon atoms.
- Carbon atoms arranged in Pentagon and hexagon like Soccerball (Football)
- it is Truncated Icosahedron. contain 12 Pentagonal faces, and 20 - hexagonal phases
 - 60 vertices
 - 90 edges.
- it is ~~sp~~ sp^2 hybridized.
- it is non-planar
- Bond angle is ~~101~~ 101.6°
- Molecule has two bond length - hexagonal ring ~~is~~ considered as (=) double bond, shorter than Pentagonal bonds.
- Poor electron delocalization occurs. thus, conductivity occurs but it behave as electron deficient alkene.

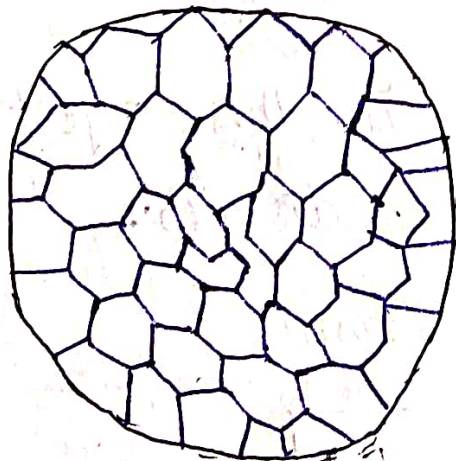
-
- ## SYNTHESIS:
- It can be synthesis by Laser vaporisation of carbon in inert atmosphere.
 - In Kratichmer synthesis fullerenes obtained from graphite.

PROPERTIES OF FULLERENES.

- It is odourless (smellless)
- C_{60} is Black solid.
- It is Sublime at 800K.
- It is Soluble in Benzene, Toluene, and chloroform
- It occurs in hexagonal cubic crystal form.
-

Applications of fullerenes

- Fullerene Nanotube has greater tensile strength.
- than other alloys
- It have Super Conductive property. thus, it can be used → Computer Memory, electronic wire, Material Science. www.aktutor.in
- It is Light ~~weight~~ ^{weight} thus. It can be used in Composite → Carbon fiber, epoxy resin, golf club, Tennis racket, bicycles, frame etc.
- Due to very small Diameter of tube could leads to high conductivity, use as nanowires



Football Structure (fullerenes)

note:

Q-1 why C fullerenes ^{have} sp^2 hybridized? or Conductivity in organic compounds.

Ans- Fullerenes have sp^2 hybridized because of delocalization of π electron.

Point Defect Imperfection in Solids / Crystals.

note: Crystal have definite geometry of ions.

Any deviation from the perfect atomic arrangement (geometry) in a crystal is known as Imperfection or defects.

Point defect occurs when one or more atoms of crystal solid leave their ~~site~~ ^{original} site or foreign atom occupy the interstitial space of crystal.

* Types of Point defect.

Stoichiometric: In this effect the ratio of units does not disturb.

It occurs in two forms

frankel defect

Shottky defect

Frankel : It occurs in those ionic solids where the size of anion is larger than size of cation.

Thus, a cation

a) Cation leave their original position and occupies in interstitial space of same crystal

• The overall density of the crystal remains unchanged.

Ex: ZnS (Zinc Sulphide), $AgCl$ (Silver chloride)

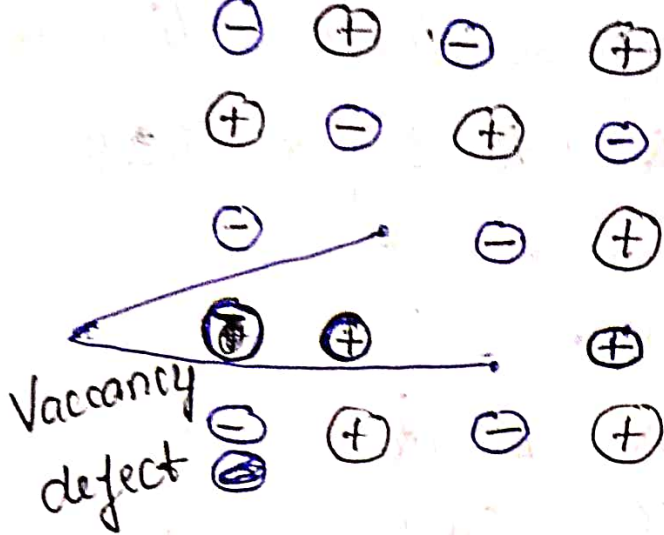


• Frankel defect

• Schottky Defect : It occurs in those ionic solid/crystal where size of anion and cation almost always same.

• In this defect both cation and anion leave their position and create vacancy defect.

• Thus, overall density of crystal reduces (decreases) e.g. $NaCl$, KCl



Sch = Schottky defect

Non-Stoichiometric Defect

- In this defect the ratio of unit may be disturb.
- It occurs in two forms. (types)

Non-Stoichiometric

Metal excess defect

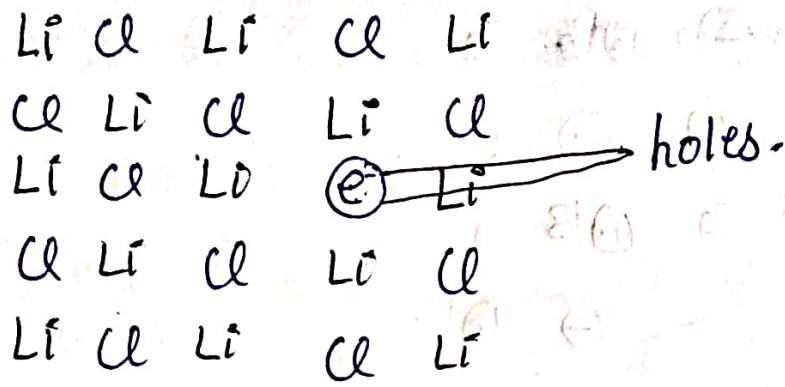
Due to extra metal cation. Deficiency defect

Metal Excess defect :

A.) Due to anionic Vacancy : (i) Negative (-ve) ions, Leave holes. By missing there position in crystal.

• Eg: Excess of Lithium (Li) make LiCl crystal Pink (LiCl crystal Pink)

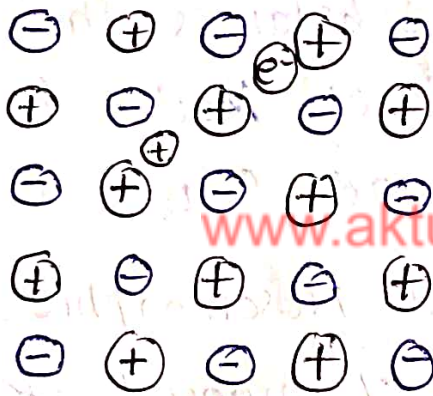
eg: Excess of Potassium (K) makes KCl violet.



(Excess of Li)

1) Due to extra cation: In this defect extra cation occupy in interstitial space in these cations leave their electron behind (remove e^-)

eg: ZnO (zinc oxide)

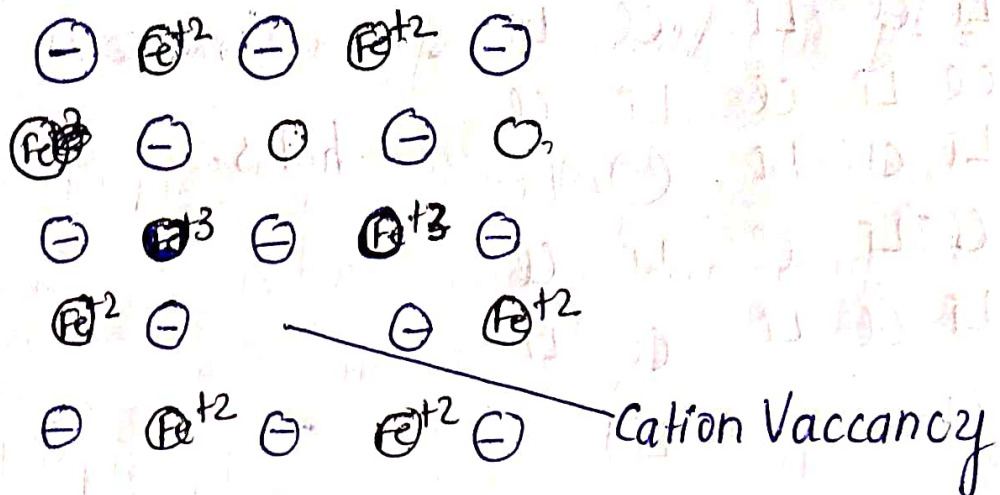


2.) Metal Deficiency defect: They contain less no of (+ve) ions than (-ve) ions.

• They occurs in two forms.

A.) Cation Vacancy: (+ve) ions may be missing from their lattice site (exact position) and this vacancy balanced by near-by metal ion acquire more (+ve) charge.

• Thus, this defect occurs in metals & shows Variable Valency.

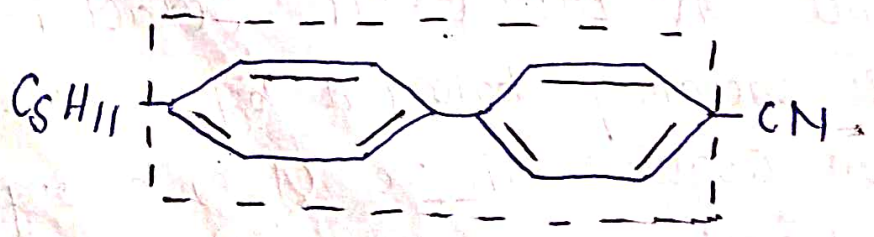


B.) Extra ^{anion} Cation in interstitial spaces

- These are rare & complicated.

◦ Liquid Crystal

-] Liquid crystal are substances that exhibit (exact position) a phase of Matter have Properties b/w Liquid and Crystal (solid)
-] These phases are called Mesomorphic phases.
-] Liquid crystal are made / composed of two parts → The rigid part → aligns in one direction, and contain aromatic (hard) compound known as Mesogen.
-] Flexible part + A liquid part contain organic ions



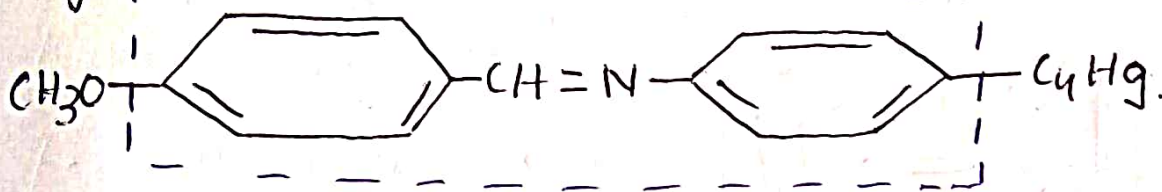
◦ Mesogen

• Classification of Liquid Crystal

→ On the basis of Mesogen.

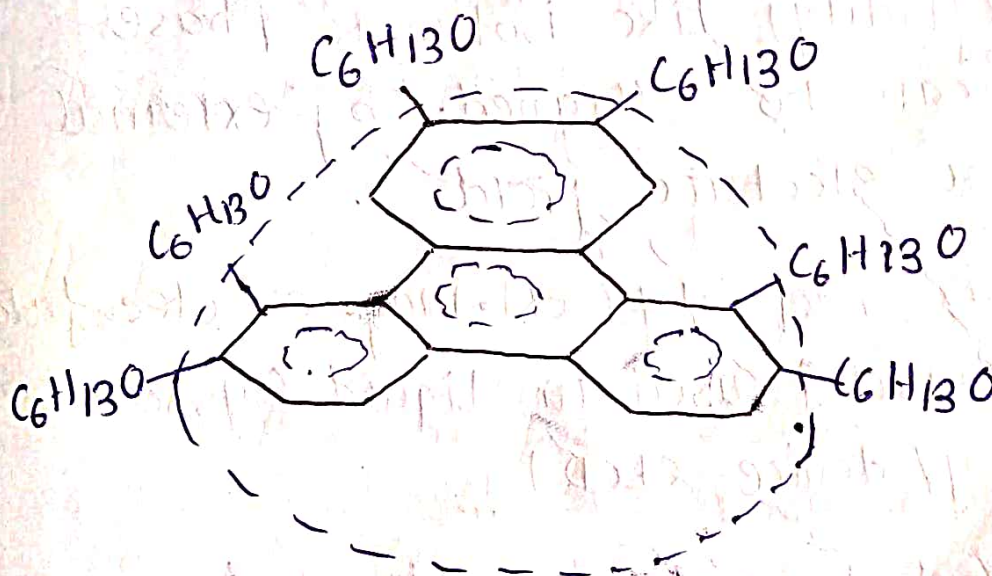
(i) Calamitic Liquid Crystal: Mesogen is rod like structure composed of two or more Aromatic and Aliphatic ^{groups} connected in one direction.

e.g.



Rod like Mesogen.

(ii) Discotic LC → Mesogen is flat shaped. Aromatic core that ^{www.aktutor.in} make molecule stack in one direction. (चिपकनी)



Disc Like Mesogen

On the basis of Transition phase

1) Thermotropic Liquid Crystal: Transition Occurs on the basis of change in temperature

- Again divided in four phases:

(A) Isotropic phase: Molecules Alligned Randomly
This phase has low viscosity. But it is crystal clear.



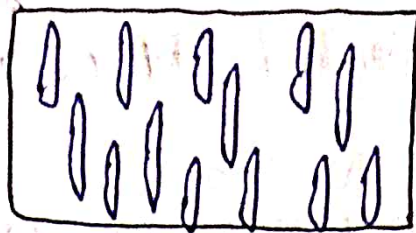
(B) Nematic phase: These are polarisable
a rod like organic molecules, 20 Angstrom (20Å)

- They flow (fluidity) like isotropic phases. But they can be aligned by external magnetic or electric field.
- Due to this property (ext. mag. or elec. field) they are widely used in liquid crystal display / device (LCD)

• Their orientation in one direction
e.g. Telescope lenses

Q = Why which liquid crystal used LCD.

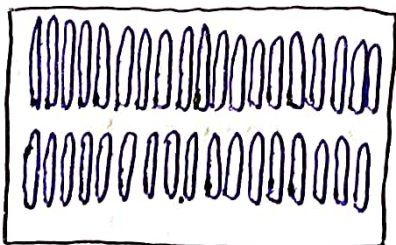
Ans = They are polarisable and they can be aligned by ext. mag. or elec. fields.



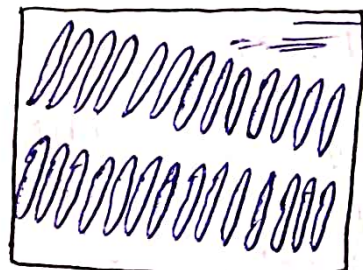
- Smectic phase: They found at low temperature ~~then~~ than Nematic
- They form layers (well define layers), slide over one another. Like Soap.
- They align in one direction But in two forms.

Smectic A → Molecule aligned perpendicular to layers / planes.

Smectic C → Molecule aligned arbitrary angle (any angle) to layers / planes.

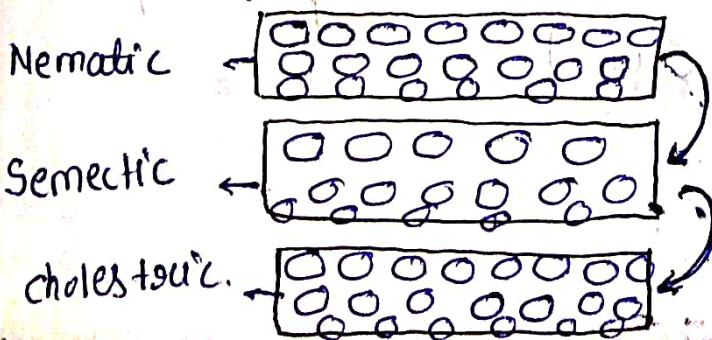


Smectic A



Smectic C

- Chiral phase: (cholesteric): Molecules twist (twist) slightly from one layer to next, resulting in spiral formation.



e.g. → cancer cells detect
 , tumor cells
 , blockage in the
 Veins.
 (thermography)

- They have no ~~and~~ orientational order and no positional order
- They have different orientation in each layer
- They are changed colour with temperature variation.
- They are arranged in layers.

• APPLICATION OF LIQUID CRYSTAL

1.) **LCD (Liquid crystal displays)** = Orientation of molecule and optical properties are the features; make LC useful in →
 wrist watches, laptop, LCD, LED, Digital calculator
LCD → react in electric field.

2.) **LC Thermometer**: chiral Nematic Liquid crystal
In Medical reflect light with a wave length equal to pitch. (Base).

- Pitch is depend on temperature. change in temp. Looking by colour of thermometer.
- chiral LC is also useful in → Moodring
 - [Display acc. to mood, sad, happy etc]
 - Tumours [Tumour cells have high temp. than other cells]

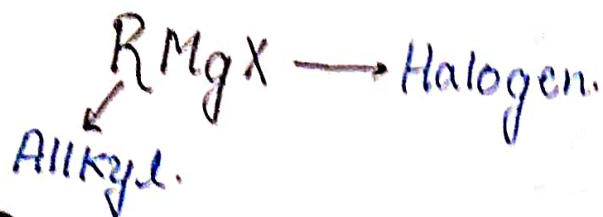
3) OPTICAL IMAGING → when

liquid crystal cells is placed b/w photoconductor, this increases (↑) material's conductivity.

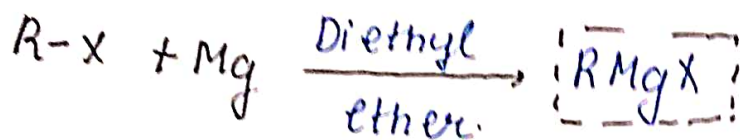
- Other Applications: RF → [Radio frequency]
- CAD → [Computer aided drawing]
- Sensor →, Colours electronic Imaging

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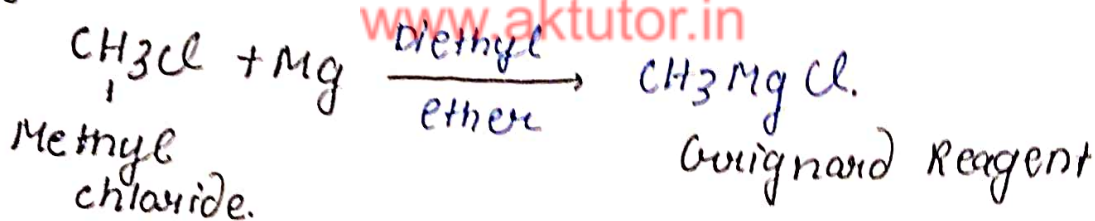
• UNIT-5 (GRIGNARD REAGENT • ORGANOMETALLIC COMPOUND)



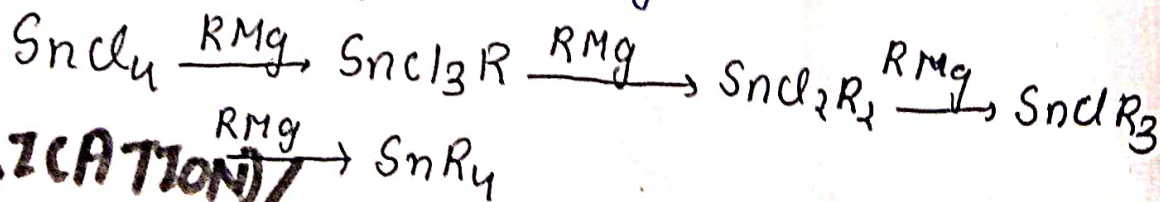
PREPARATION: Grignard reagent prepared by action of activated Magnesium on organic halide or alkyl halide in solvent like diethyl ether.



e.g:

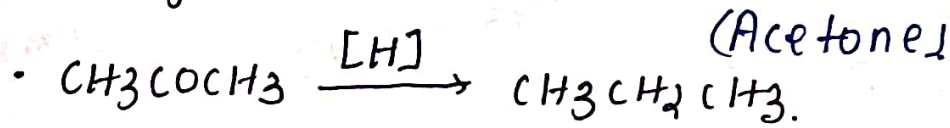


• Organometallic (Grignard) obtained by reaction of metallic halide with alkali metal or other other Grignard reagent.



(APPLICATION) $\xrightarrow{\text{RMg}} \text{SnR}_4$

• **(PROPERTIES):** Grignard reagent are highly basic (Bases) thus it react with water, acid, Alchole., gives Alkanes.

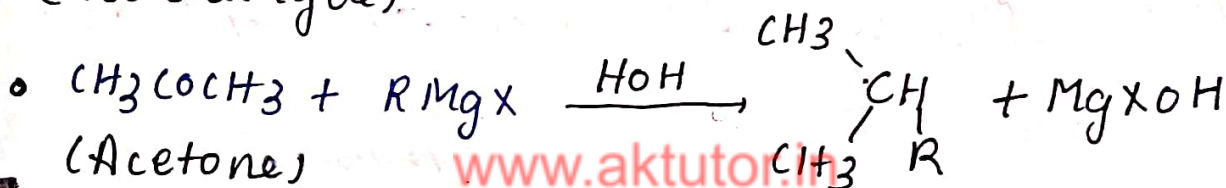
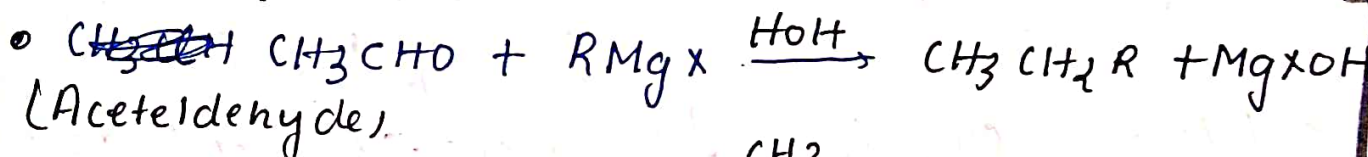
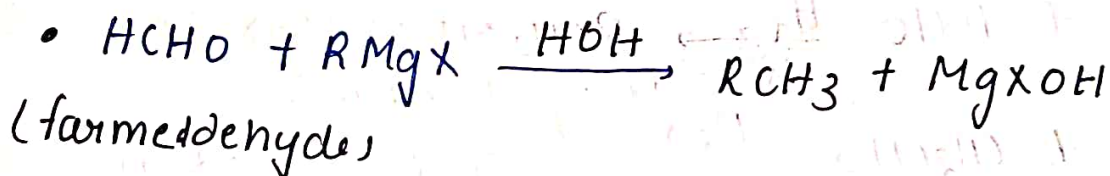


(Acetone)

Propane.

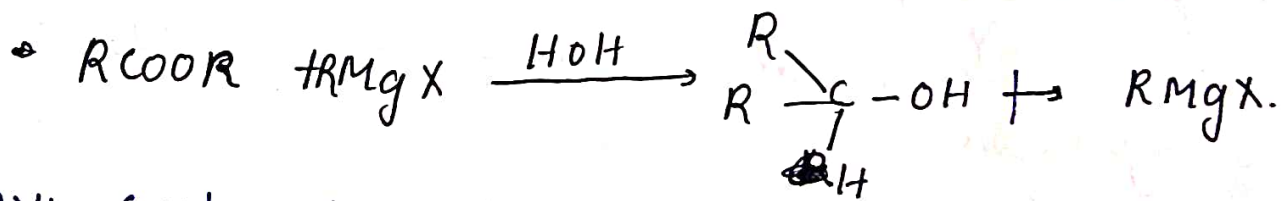
with Carbonic Compound [Aldehyde (CHO), ketone (CO)]

It form Alcohols Alkane.

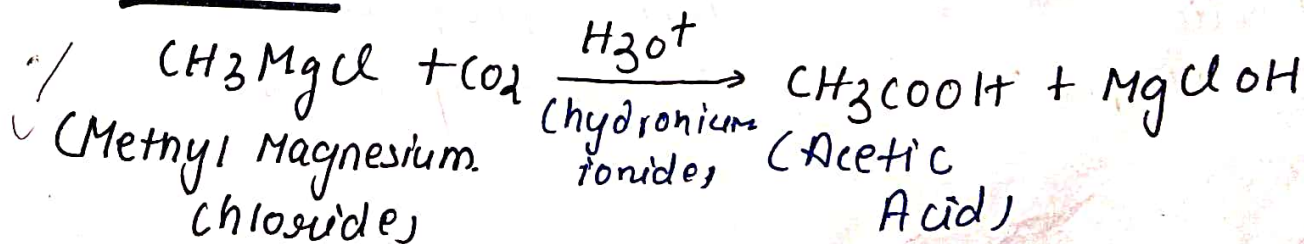


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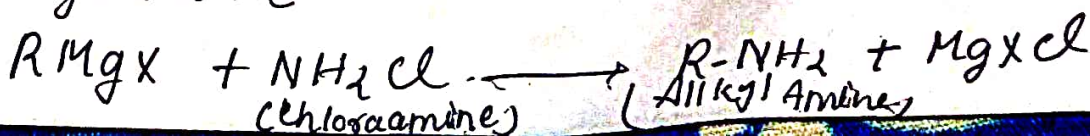
With Ester (COOR) Grignard Reagent form
Alcohol.



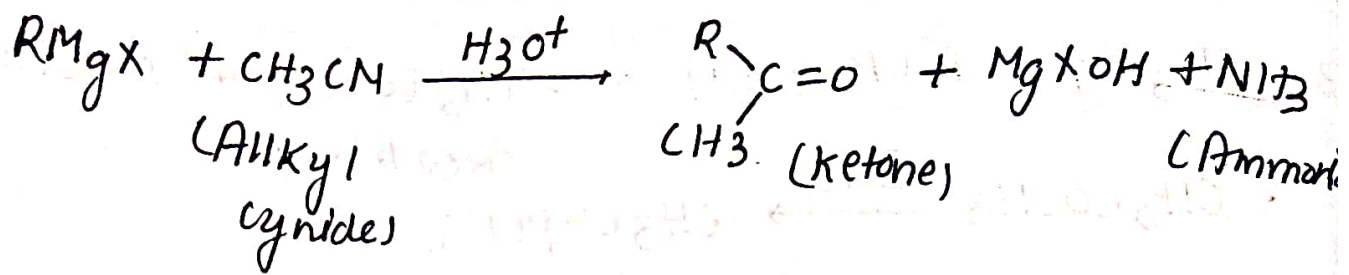
With Carbon di-oxide Grignard reagent form
Acid.



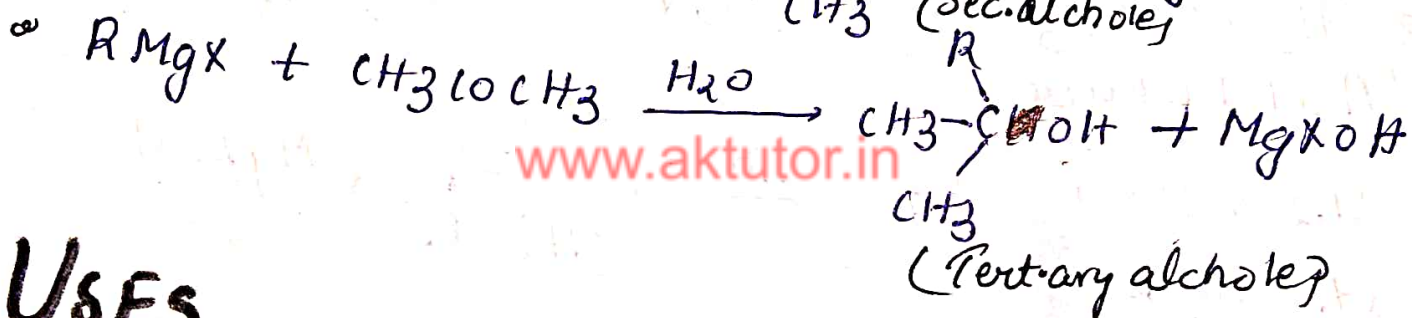
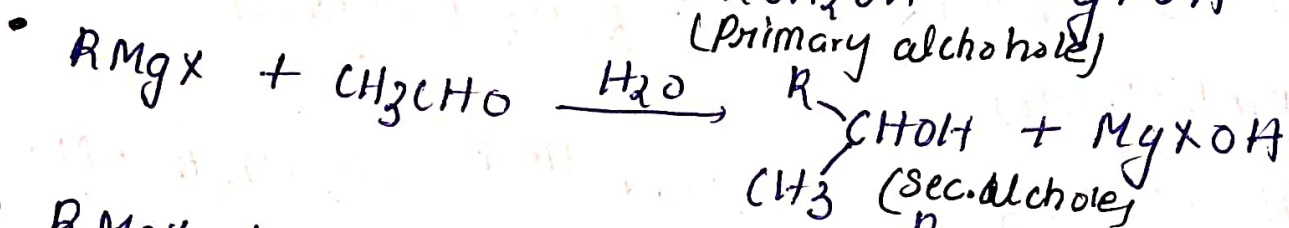
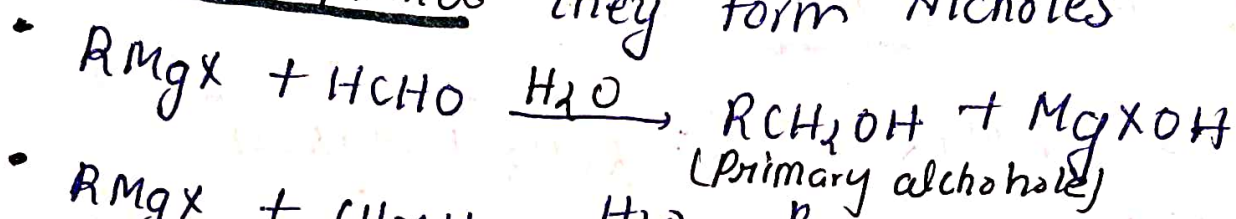
With chloramine Grignard reagent it form.
alkyl amine.



- With alkyl cyanide (R-CN) Grignard reagent form ketone (CO) and Ammonia (NH₃)

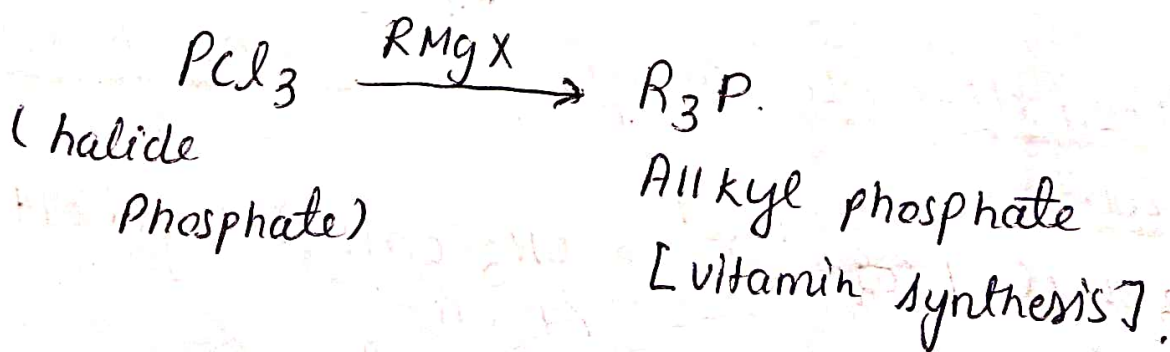


- Reaction of Grignard Reagent with carbonyl compound they form Alcholes



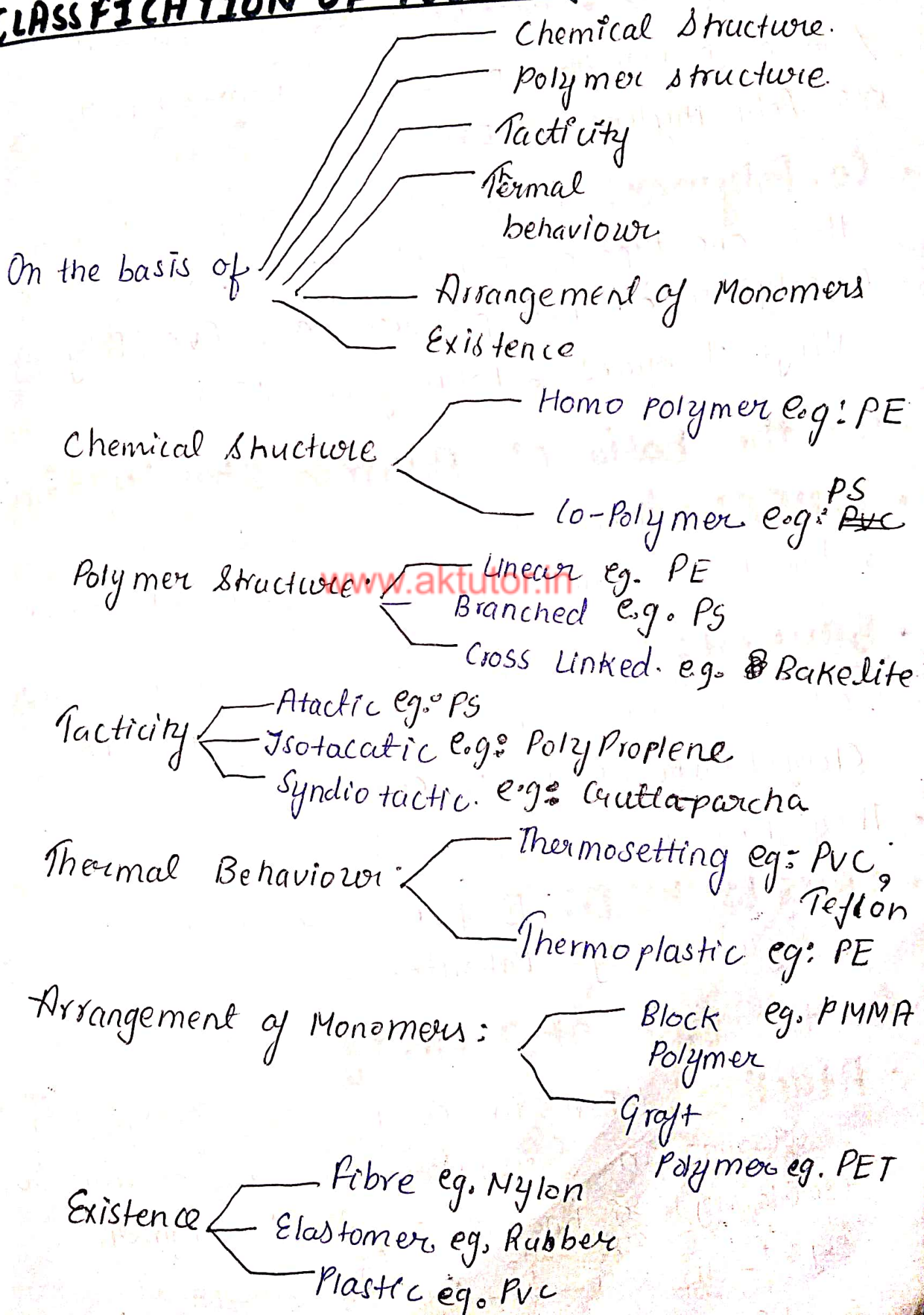
USES

- Grignard reagent react with halide phosphate form alkyl phosphate. Uses in Vitamin synthesis.

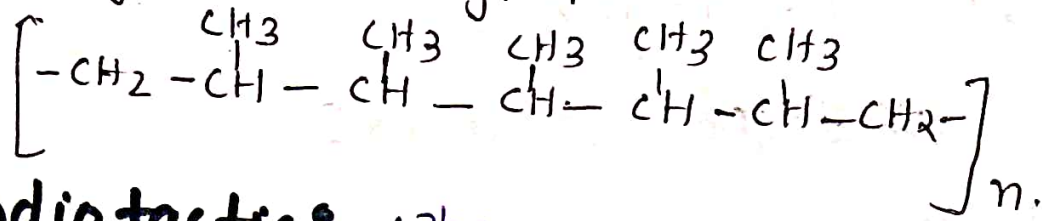


Polymer:

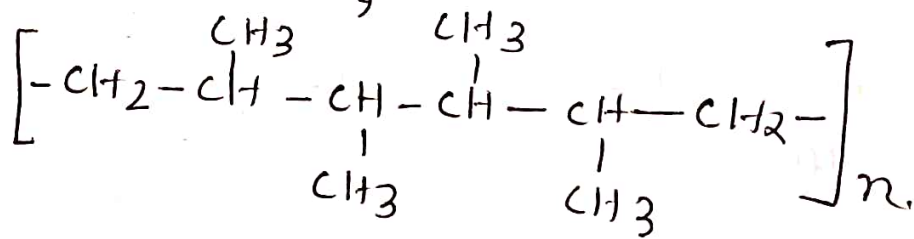
CLASSIFICATION OF POLYMER



Isotactic: when in polymer side groups arrange in same side of chain is known as Isotactic Polymer. ex: Polypropylene



-Syndiotactic: when an polymer side groups are arrange in alternate manner. is known as Syndiotactic. Polymer
ex: Gutta percha,



On the basis of thermal Behaviour:

• THERMOSETTING: These polymers cannot be reshaped or molded mulded (melt) because on heating because they have 3-dimensional cross-linked network.

- They are hard strong and brittle.
- They cannot be re-used from waste because they retain their shape and structure.
- They are insoluble in organic solvents
ex: PVC, Teylon

• THERMOPLASTIC: These polymers can be reshaped or remolded on heating because they are long chain linear polymers

- They are weak, soft and less brittle.

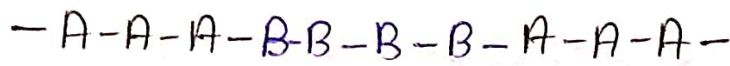
• They can be reused / (recycle) from waste -

• They are soluble in organic solvent.

Ex: PE, PVC, PS, Polypropylene.

• On the basis of Monomer:

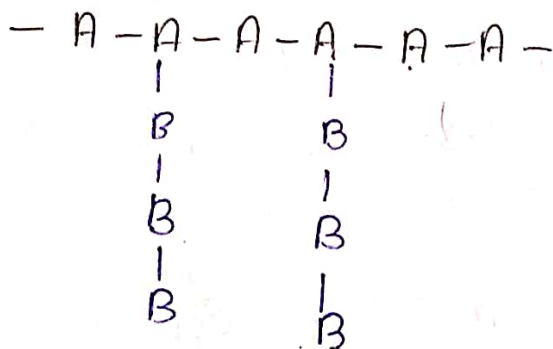
• BLOCK POLYMER: LINEAR polymers in which identical units occurs in long sequences known as Block Polymer. or Block co-polymers.



• eg: PMMA

• Graft Polymer: These are branched co-polymers in which backbone is form from one type of monomer and branches from other. i.e. Backbone & branches have different monomers.

e.g: PET



• On the Basis of Existence.

• ~~Rubber~~ Rubber:

• Elastomers: These are the polymers ^{are} capable of being stretched at least 150% of original length. without breaking and return to

there original shape. on release of stress.

ex: Rubber,

PLASTIC: Plastic these are the materials occurs in the form of resin molecules. These are synthesized materials occurs in different forms as Thermosetting, Thermoplastic.

Fibre: A thread from which a tissue, mineral substance or textile is formed.

ex:

AM

• POLYMERISATION

This is the process of attachment of one or more than one identical units in repeating manner. As a result of this process heavy molecule (macro-molecule) produce form a heavy molecular weight greater than 10,000 known as polymer.

- This repeating units are monomers.

DEGREE OF POLYMERISATION: The no of repeating units in polymer is degree of polymerisation.

- Polymer have high degree of polymerisation, known as ~~poly~~ high polymer.
- Polymer have low degree of polymerisation, known as oligo polymer.

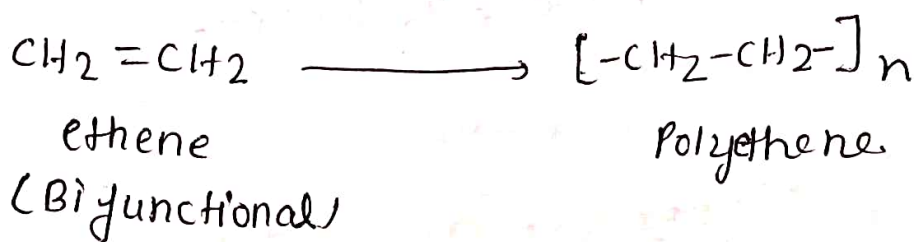
- **FUNCTIONALITY**: it represents Reactive.

sites of polymer.

• It should be at least 2. (two) sites.

• functional group, Multiple bond (double bond), Lone pair make reactive sites

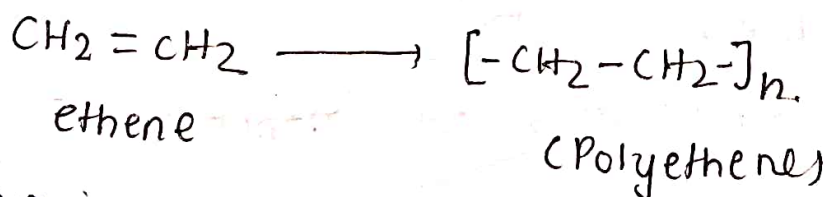
• On the basis of functionality: molecules are Bifunctional and Polyfunctional



• TYPES OF POLYMERISATION

• **ADDITIONAL POLYMERISATION (CHAIN POLYMERISATION)**: This process occurs

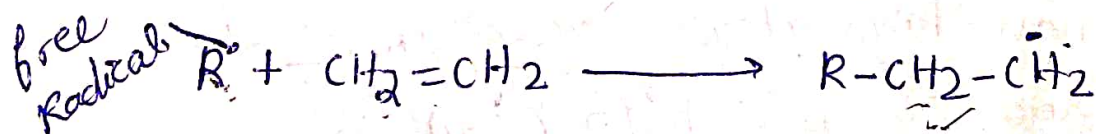
Via (केसर) & self Addition of monomers without any loss. ex:



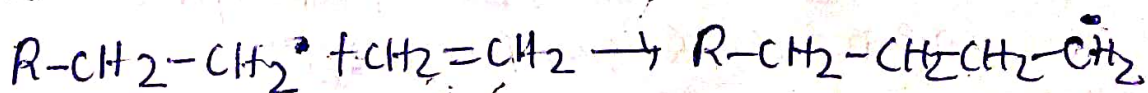
MECHANISM OF ADDITION POLYMERIZATION

: Occurs in three steps:

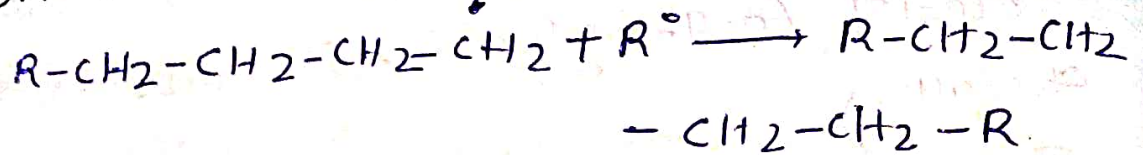
• **Initiation**: $\text{R}-\text{R} \xrightarrow{h\nu} 2\text{R}_2^\bullet$



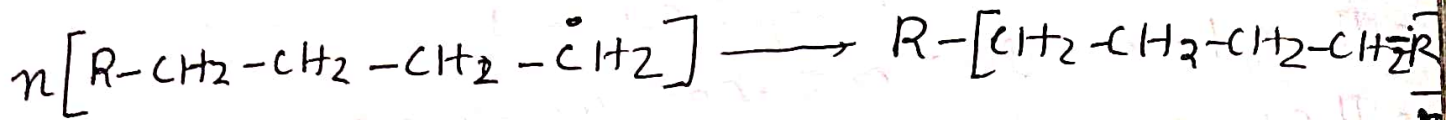
• **Propagation**:



Termination \Rightarrow



OR



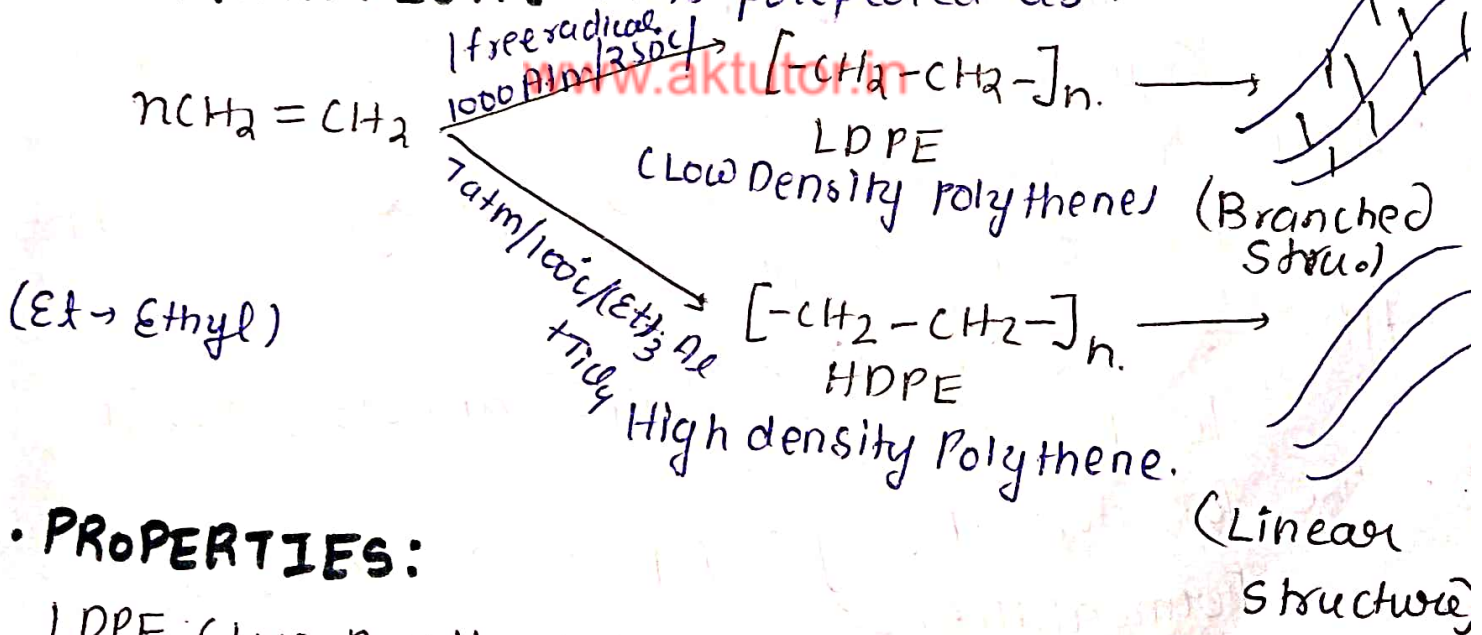
CONDENSATION POLYMERISATION: This

polymerization occurs with elimination of some small molecules like H_2O and NH_3 (Ammonia) etc

Ex \rightarrow Formation of Nylon-6,6

POLYETHENE:

• **PREPARATION:** It is prepared as:



• PROPERTIES:

LDPE (Low Density Polythene): They have low density. $0.91 g/cm^3$

- They are 50% crystalline.
- They are transparent polymer.
- They are chemically inert (react not)
- They are poor electrical conductors.
- They are moisture resistant.

• HDPE: (High density Polyethylene): • They have high density (0.965 g/cm^3) • They have high tensile strength.

- They are chemically resistant.
- They have low gas and water permeability
- They are insulators.
- They are 90% crystalline.

Uses:

• LDPE: These their films use for packing and wrapping. frozen foods.

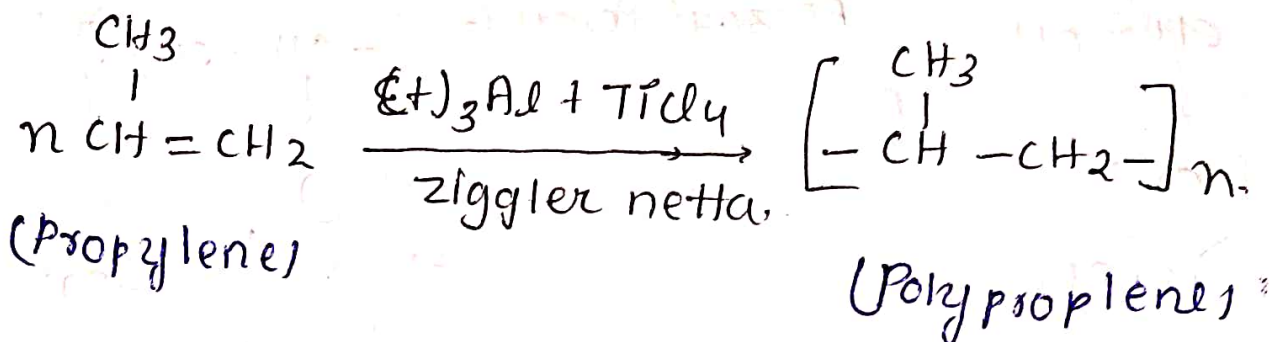
- Due to poor conductivity they are use for as insulation of electric wire and cables.
- Due to chemical resistant they are use in. Squeeze bottles.
- They are use for making pipe for agriculture and chemical plants.

• HDPE: Use in toys, caps, buckets, due to its toughness.

- Use for domestic gas piping. Due to low permeability.
- Use in manufacture of water tank.
- Use for manufacturing of bottles for milk, and households chemical.
- Use for drug packaging.

POLYPROPYLENE:

PREPARATION: It is prepared by polymerizing ~~in~~ ~~poly~~ propylene. In presence of Ziegler-Natta



PROPERTIES: It is an isotactic polymer. (I.P.P).

- Melting Point 170°C .
- It is highly stiff (hard)
- It is moisture resistant

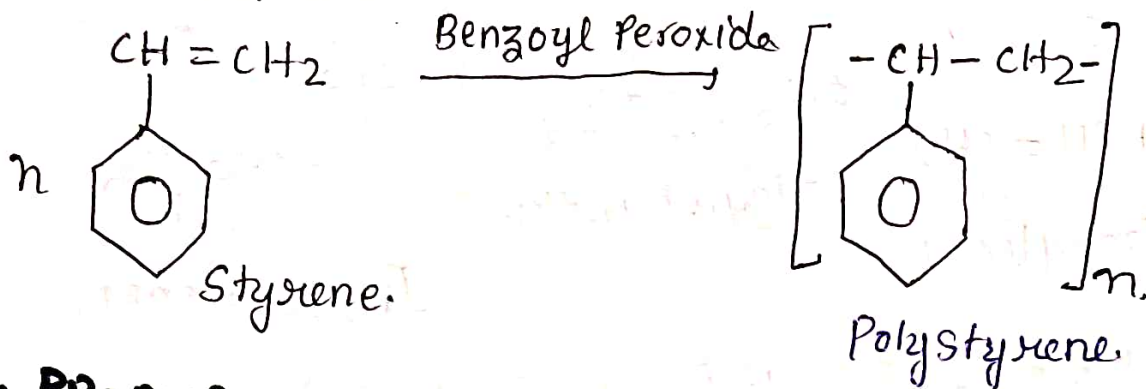
APPLICATION:

- Due to high melting point it can be steam sterilized. thus used in Baby bottles.
- Due to high tensile strength use in making Robes & filaments.
- Use in the preparation for textile machinery parts.
- Due to high clarity (transparency) use in Wrapping bread and biscuits (confectionary items)



• POLY-STYRENE :

PREPARATION: It is prepared by Polymerisation of styrene in presence of Benzoyl Peroxide.



• PROPERTIES

- It is transparent. It cannot be sterilized in Steam.
- Resistant to alkalis, ^{Acid} oxidizing agent, and Reducing agent.
- High moisture resistant.
- It is insulator. It can be dyed (colours).
- It has property of transmitting light of all wave length.

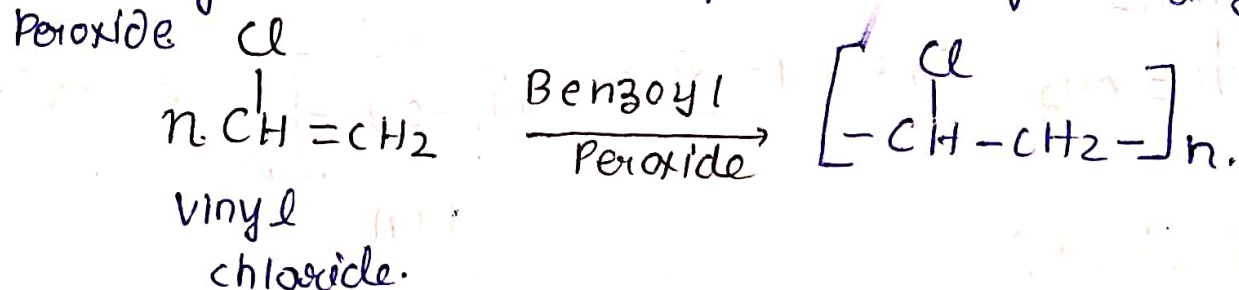
• Application (USES)

- In the ~~man~~ manufacturing of foam for packing materials.
- EPS (Expandable Polystyrene) is used in disposable.
- HIPS (Highly Impact Polystyrene) and SBR used in door liners and inner liners of refrigerator.
- Preparing Synthetic ion exchange resin.

- In the formation of Jar, bottle, comb, Brush, handle, Radio, hand television cabinet.

- POLYVINYL CHLORIDE [PVC]:

- It can be prepared by polymerization of Vinyl chloride in presence of Benzoyl Peroxide



PROPERTIES

- It is Low Crystalline
- It degrade (decomposition) at 200°C
- It is water proof and washable.
- It is lighter than glass.
- It is moisture resistant, impervious.
- It is insulator.

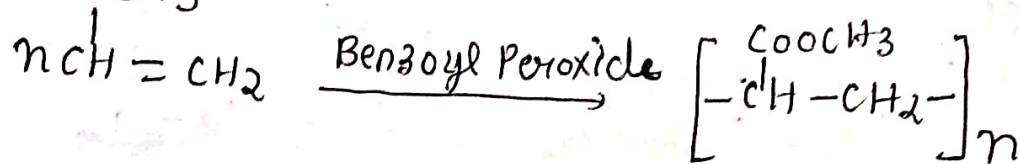
USES:

- **Rigid PVC USED in** → Tank linings, Safety helmet, nutguard, Window frame, Container for cosmetics, mineral water.
- Due to oil resistant property use for storing edible oil.
- **PLASTICIZED PVC USE in:** Bathroom curtain, hand bag, Insulating material, Transparent vehicle's ~~sheet~~ seats, Membrane separation technology.

• Polyvinyl Acetate

PREPARATION: It can be prepared by polymerization of Vinyl Acetate in presence of benzoyl

~~chloride~~ Peroxide
C₆H₅COOCH₃



PVA

PROPERTIES:

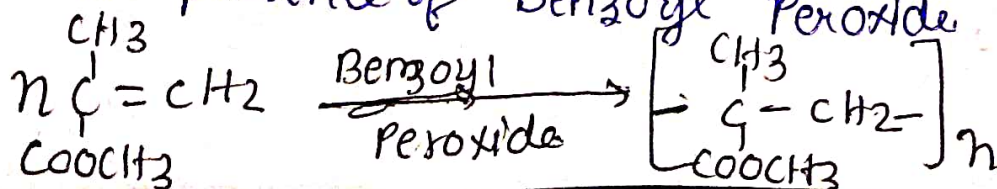
- It is solid and clear resin
- It is soft, sticky materials
- Not absorb by digestive system.
- Resistant to air, water, chemicals.

USES:

- Its used as adhesive in textile leather, Paper Industry.
- Use as a basic material for chewing gums.
- Finishing of Textile fabrics
- Preparation of Polyvinyl alcohol.
- Surgical dressing
- In the Polyvinyl butyral, used in laminating safety glass.

POLYMETHYL METHA ACRYLATE [PMMA]

PREPARATION: It is prepared by polymerization of methyl metha Acrylate in presence of Benzoyl Peroxide



• PROPERTIES

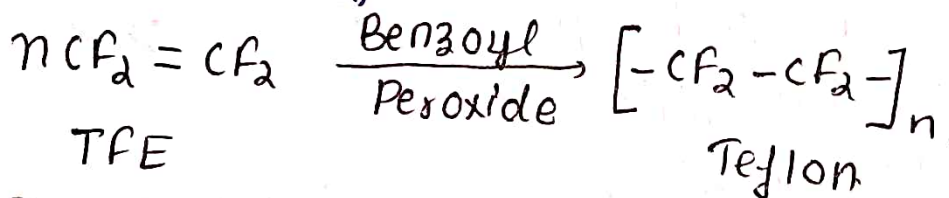
- Amorphous in nature.
- Optical transparency.
- Good mechanical properties.
- High chemical resistance but low resistant to acids and alkalis.

• USES

- Alternate of glass.
- making contact lenses.
- Bath tub making, in making TV screen, Artificial eyes, jewellery

• TEFLON: (Polytetra Fluoro Ethylene)

^{It} **PREPARATION:** It is prepared by Polymerization of tetra fluoro ethylene in presence of Benzoyl peroxide.



• PROPERTIES

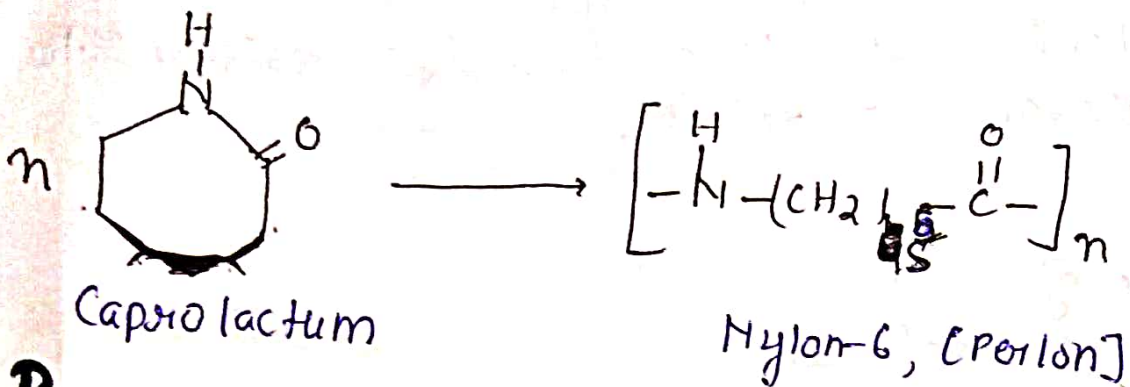
- Highly crystalline
- Highly tough
- Dense polymer.
- chemically inert
- Slippery and Vaxy. (स्निग्ध और चिकनी)

USES

- Non stick cookware (pots)
- Gas ~~jet~~ chemical pipe, belt, cable wire, Transformers

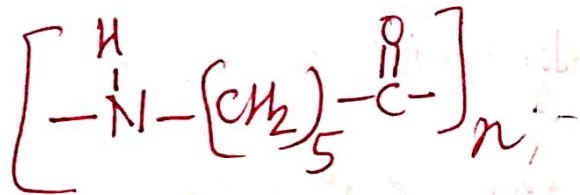
POLYAMIDE :-

NYLON-6: It is prepared by polymerization of caprolactam.



PROPERTIES:

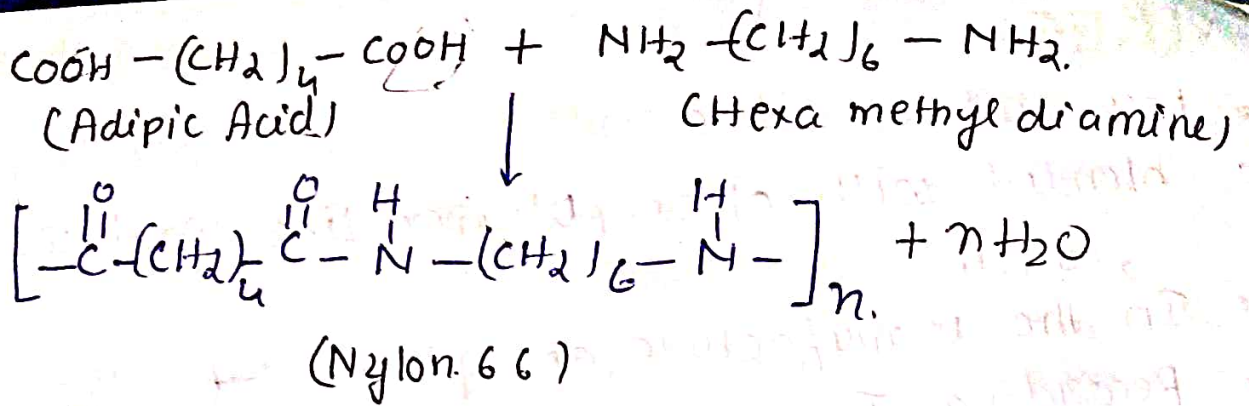
- High Elastic.
- Highly tough. (Tough)
- Where very flexible
- Due to presence of hydrogen bonding it is water sensitive (reactive).



USES:

- Use as a fiber in rope, thread, dresses, shirts
- ~~Parasuits~~ Parasuits fabric.
- Due to biologically resistant used for make insects screen.
- Nylon have high melting point is known as Kevlar.

NYLON-66: It is prepared by ^{Poly}condensation polymerization of Adipic acid and Hexamethyl diamine.



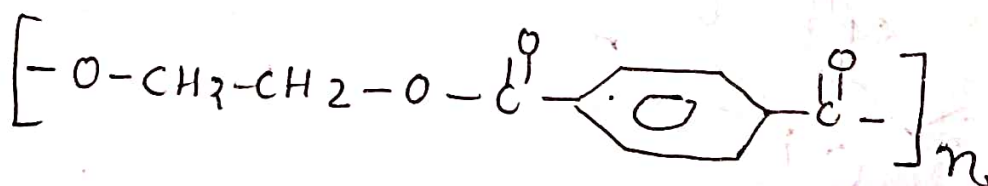
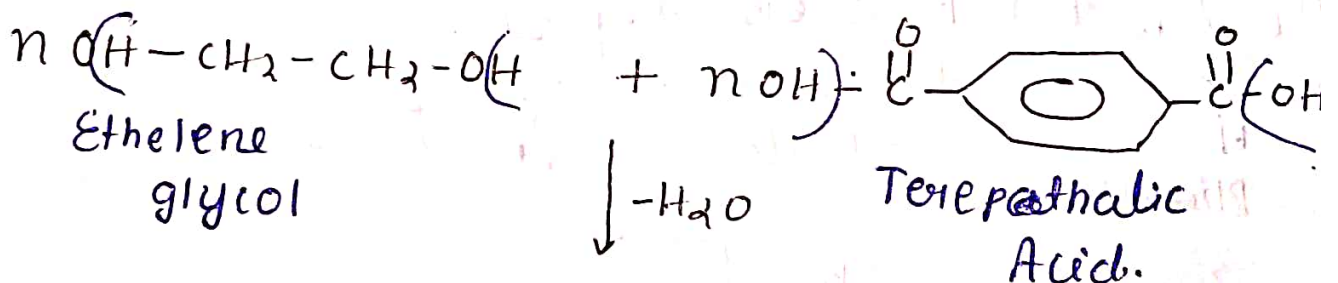
- **PROPERTIES:** Same as nylon 6
- **USES:** Same as nylon-6, 6

• TERYLENE OR DECRON (PET)

(PET → Poly^{Ethylene}ester Terephthalate)

[Thermosetting → Ex: Polyester]

- It is prepared by condensation polymerization of Ethylene glycol & Terephthalic acid.



PET

• PROPERTIES

- Presence of polar groups
- good Mechanical strength
- Resistant to insect Attack
- Wrinkles resistant
- Oxidant resistant

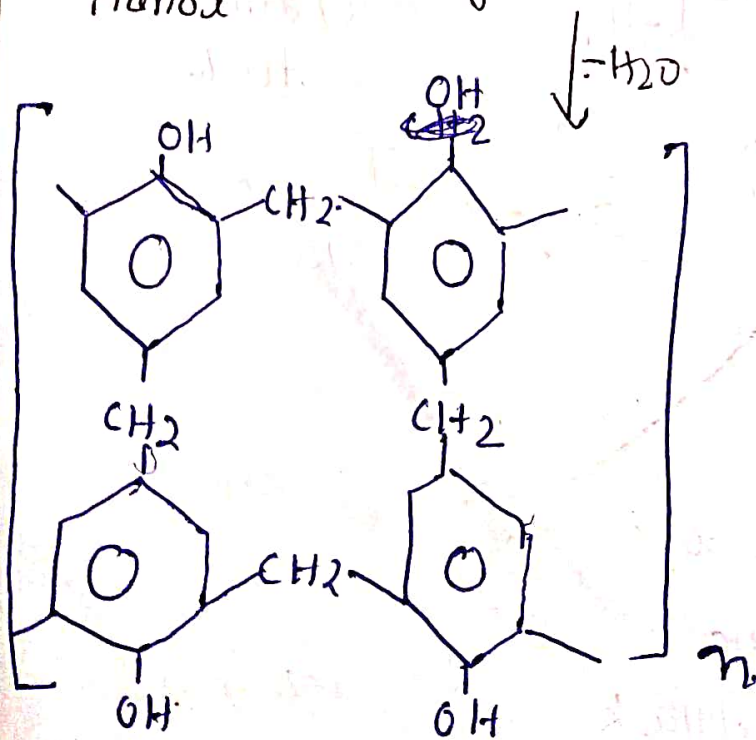
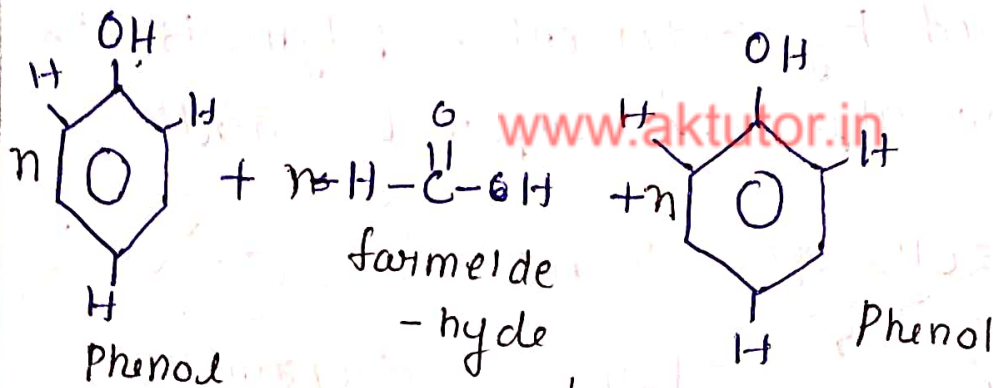
• USES

- For making fibre
- blended with other polymer like wood wool, cotton
- In the manufacture of plastic bottle
- Recording Tape
- In coffee machines, car heaters, toaster.

• BAKELITE

• (Phenol formaldehyde Resin)

Preparation: it is prepared by condensation polymerisation of phenol and formaldehyde.



PROPERTY

- High resistant to electricity, resistant to chemical
- High dimensional stability.
- Good dielectric properties.
- Excellent adhesive properties, and bonding strength
- it is scotch resistant.

USES

- Uses in Automobiles
- Uses in Electrical Appliances
- Used in Space shuttle.
- Telephone parts.
- Switches, Plug, switch board, handle, paints etc.

RUBBER

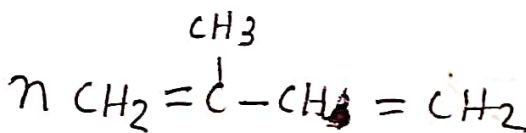
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- It occurs in two forms.

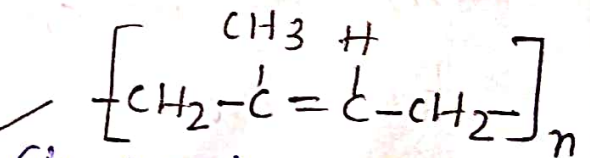
natural

Synthetic

- Its monomer is Isoprene.

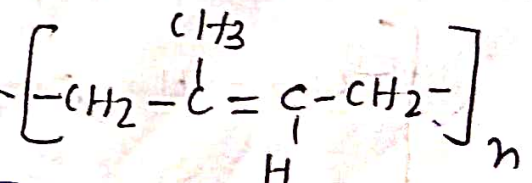


Methyl Butadiene
(Isoprene)



Cis-Poly-Isoprene

(Natural Rubber)



[Trans Poly Isoprene]

[Gutta
or
Parcha]

Synthetic
Rubber

• Vulcanisation of Rubber:

The introduction of sulphur links in polymer chain is known as vulcanization of Rubber.

Advantages/ Benefits of Vulcanisation: It

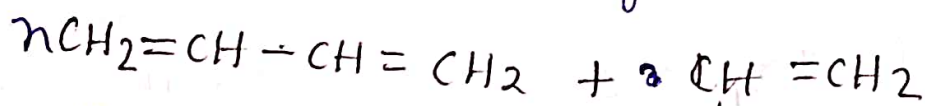
Stopped / Restrict the intermolecular movement and increase \rightarrow tensile strength.

- \rightarrow Stiffness
- \rightarrow Water absorption capacity
- \rightarrow Insulation
- \rightarrow Elasticity

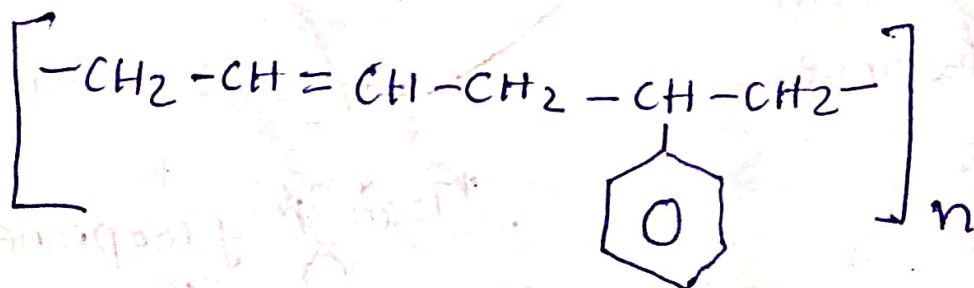
• TYPES OF SYNTHETIC RUBBER

1) SBR or Buna-S-Rubber:
(Styrene Butadiene Rubber)

Preparation: it is prepared by polymerisation of Butadiene and styrene.



Butadiene



BUNA-S-RUBBER

PROPERTIES

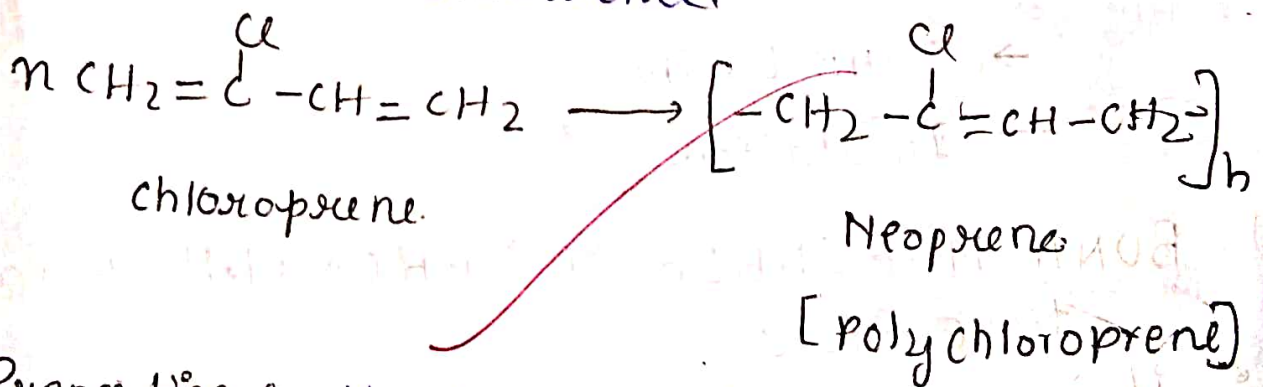
- Oil Resistance
- Sunlight Resistance
- High tensile strength.
- Friction resistance. ~~of~~

USES-

- Used in ~~fuel~~ fuel tank.
- printing roller.
- Aircraft
- Anti-freeze
- Textile and leather
- Blend component.

Neoprene or ~~Duprene~~ or Polychloro buta-
-diene

Prepared: it is prepared by polymerisation of chloro butadiene.



Properties: Vegetable and mineral oil resistance

- Soluble in polar solvent.
- Ozone resistance.
- High tensile strength.
- ~~High temp~~ Work at high temp. concern.

- USES: cable coating,
- gloves and fabric manufacture.
 - ~~sponges~~ sponges and belt manufacturing
 - Tube for carrying oil

Conducting Polymer

Polymers are insulators. But In some conditions they conduct electricity. Known as conducting polymers. "Thus conducting polymers are conjugated π e⁻ system. along the polymer chain. Or Ring structure."

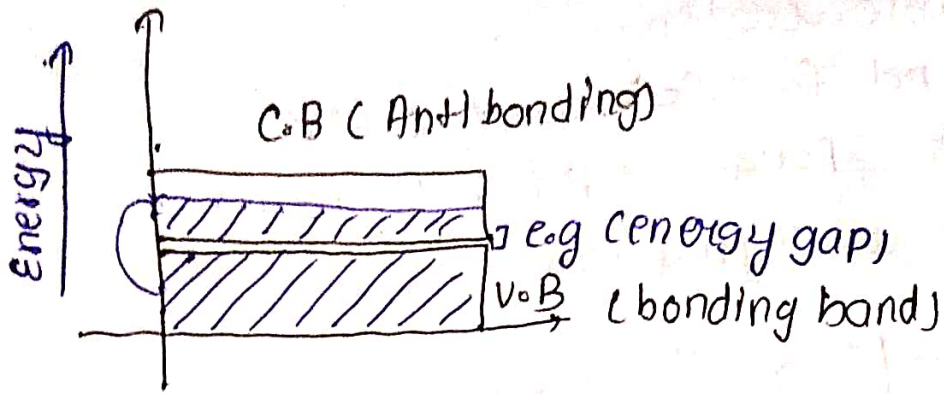
Ex: PolyAcetylene, Polypyrrol, PolyAnelene.

- The process of transforming polymer to conductive form ~~the~~ occurs via chemical oxidation ~~and~~ Or reduction. (Doping)

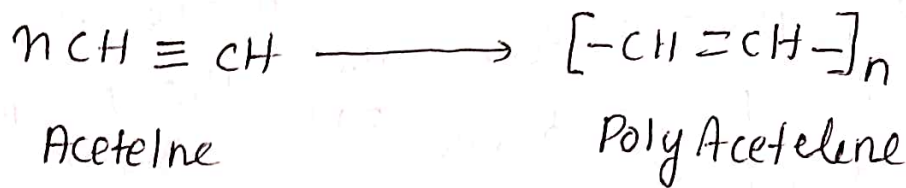
CLASSIFICATION / TYPES OF POLYMER

CONDUCTING

- Conjugated π -electron Conducting Polymer: The orbitals of conjugated π electrons overlapped the entire backbone of polymer, form valance band and conduction band.
- Highest occupied band is valance band.
- lowest unoccupied band is conduction band.
- Some gap occurs b/w valance band and conduction band is known as energy gap



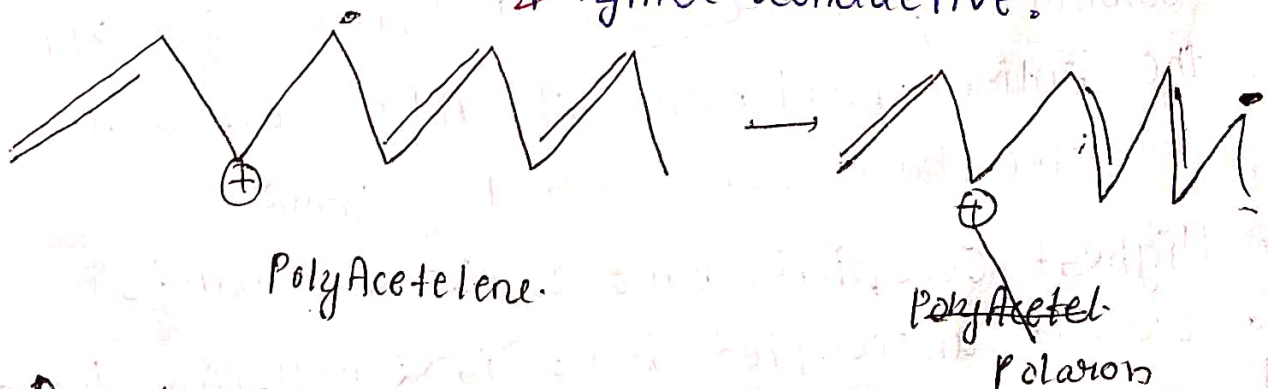
- In electric field conjugated π -electron excited and get sufficient energy to jump the gap. ex: PolyAcetelene, PolyAnelene.



DOPED CONDUCTING POLYMER

- Conductivity of polymer highly increase ^{10⁷ to 10¹² times to Alkali metal} through doping
- Doping carried out (occurs) in two methods

(i) Oxidation: Oxidation Remove e^- creates holes. They can move along the molecule, make polymer conductive.

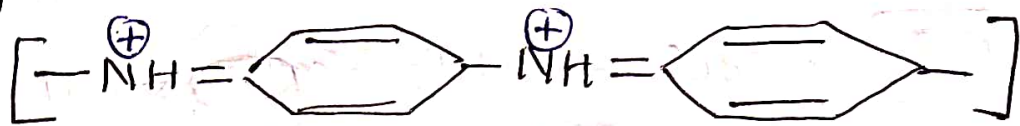


REDUCTION

- This process (carried out) occurs by adding Lewis Base they have high e^- affinity. (इलेक्ट्रॉन आवृत्ति कोष में इलेक्ट्रॉन ग्रहण करने की energy)

Ex: ClO₄, B in polypyrrol - (Adding reaction)

2) Poly Aniline



APPLICATION

- 3.) Carbon black. Metallic Fiber Metal oxide.
- 4.) Blended conducting polymer.

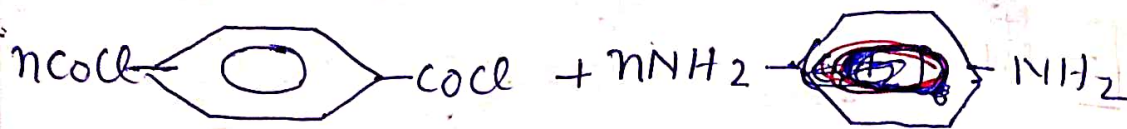
APPLICATION

- These are lighter, flexible, than other polymers.
- Thus they are use as
 - Rechargeable batteries.
 - Smart window
 - Analytical sensors
 - Light emitting Diode.
 - Photo voltaic devices.
 - Electroluminescence
 - Electrochromic display.

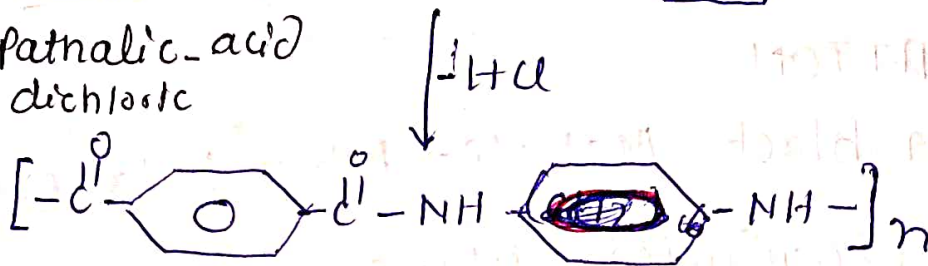
• BIODEGRADABLE POLYMER
• BIO PLASTICS, BIO POLYMERS.

1

KEVLAR



Terephthalic acid
dichloride



Kevlar

BIODEGRADABLE POLYMER , BIOPLASTICS, BIOPOLYMER

- Biodegradation is a chemical degradation of materials by the action of microorganisms like, Bacteria, virus, fungi, etc.
- Thus Biodegradable polymer can be broken down by nature by hydrolytic process or enzymatic process. produce non-toxic products.
- These polymers can be synthetic and or natural.

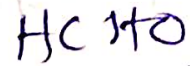
NATURAL POLYMER

- Natural polymer are available in high quantity from Renewable Sources.

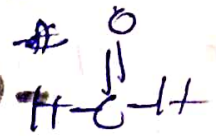
SYNTHETIC POLYMER

- Synthetic polymers produce from non Renewable Petroleum sources.

- Bio polymers, polysaccharide, starch, cellulose, proteins, lipids, polyesters, are the example of natural or Agro-polymers
- Aliphatic polyesters, PHB, PLA, PCL, PHBV are the example of synthetic polymer.

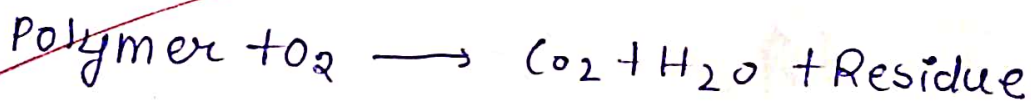


• PROCESS / MECHANISM OF BIO-DEGRADATION POLYMER

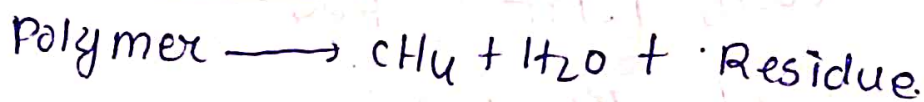


- Occurs in two steps.
- (i) Fragmentation of Polymer: Occurs by the process of A-Biotic, or Biotic reaction.
- (ii) Bioassimilation of Polymer: Occurs by Microorganisms convert in minerals.

Aerobic Oxidation:



Anaerobic Oxidation:



Biopolymer: Biopolymers are bioplastics present or created by living organisms. These are also known as green plastics.

APPLICATIONS:

- Cellulose: cellulose occurs in plants synthesize from proteins. included wood, cotton, corn, etc.

- 40% of all organic materials is cellulose, use as: derivative of in the form of carbohydrates:
- Soya Protein: It occurs in plant protein use for: making adhesives and coating for paper and cardboards.
- Starch: It occurs in potatoes, corn, tapioca, wheat
- Use in: Use in non-food purpose, ~~paper~~ making papers, textile, cardboard, etc.

• POLYLACTATE

- Produce by bacteria via fermentation process from cows milk. Use in: Biomedical Applications:

• LACTIC ACID

Occurs in corn, potatoes, Beets,
Use: use to produce plastics.

• TRIGLYCERIDES

Occurs in Soyabeans,
Use: in plastics.

• POLYMER BLEND

- Polymer blends are mixture of two or more micromolecular species.
- It is the technology make possible to re-build degraded polymers, and produce high performance polymers have excellent properties of all existing polymer.

• TYPES OF BLEND

(a) Miscible Polymer blend: They are homogenous and ~~so~~ there is no distinct phase.

- Properties: Their heat of mixture $[\Delta H_{20}]$ i.e. negative. Thus mixing must be exothermic (releases heat)

ex: PS/PPO combine the heat resistance and toughness of PPO with low cost of PS

(b) Partially Miscible: In this one blend component dissolved in other.

e.g: PC/ABS: combine ^{and} the ^{and} heat resistance and toughness of PC with low cost and stress cracking resistance of ABS.

(c) In MISCIBLE POLYMER BLEND: Their interphase is very sharp thus these blends are useless.

~~so~~ most of the polymer blend ~~are~~ have low Entropy with Specific Additives. These additives are hydrophobic and hydrophilic.

Sections align along the liquid phases to reduce interfacial tension, and increase the miscibility of polymers.

• APPLICATION / ADVANTAGES.

- It is the new processing method
- Increase Scale of Production.
- They use Multicomponent and multiphase material. Thus develop new polymeric ~~the~~ material.
- They change Semicrystalline into Amorphous.
- Provide material of desired properties at Lowest Price..
- Enhance waste recycling.
- Improve Specific qualities: → brittleness
 - rigidity / toughness
 - Heat resistant
 - chemical resistant
 - Biodegradability
 - strength / durability.
 - Solvent resistant.

✓ POLYMER COMPOSITE

Composite material is a combination of two or more materials, that exhibit significant properties of all the constituent materials.

e.g: Wood is a fiber composite made up of strong and flexible cellulose fiber. in stiffer lignin matrix (dissolving properties)

CONDITION FOR COMPOSITES: It is prepared artificially (synthetically)

- It consist of two or more physically or chemically distinct phases. (maintain identity) & separated by interphase.
- Enhance properties not detect showed by any of individual component.
- Constituent of composites. ~~ma~~

Matrix phase: Matrix form the body of composite they - 1) Binds the disperse

Phase together

- 2) Protect disperse phase from surface damage.
 - 3) It separate the particles of disperse phase
 - 4) It prevent the propagation of ~~pa~~ cracking
- matrix is a medium by which extern a load is transmitted and distributed to the disperse phase.

e.g. ~~PMC (Polymer matrix composite)~~

PMC (Polymer matrix composite)

CMC (Ceramic matrix composite)

MMC (Metal matrix composite)

- DISPERSE PHASE: (REINFORCING MATERIAL)
- It is structural constituent of composites to improve the strength of matrix.
- On the basis of Reinforcing material composites are →

(1) Particle Reinforce Composite:

(a) LARGE PARTICLE COMPONENT: When the Reinforcing material is in the form of large (particles ~~& Atom~~ ^{SITE} $>$ Atom or molecule) suspended in matrix known as large particle components.

- They have variety of geometry distributed throughout the matrix.

e.g.: Concrete \rightarrow Cement matrix with sand and gravel.

(b) Strengthened Composite: Very small particle of the (10-100nm) are used as strengthening material they may be metallic and non-metallic.

Ex: High temp. strength of (Ni) Nickel alloy is improve by adding Thorium in the form of disperse particle.

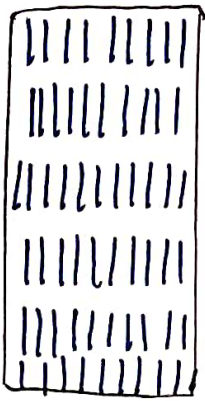
(2) FIBER Reinforce Composite

Fibers are highly flexible, provide high strength and stiffness

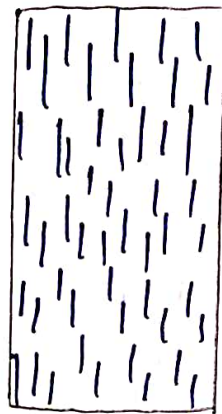
- They are:
- Continuous and Allign Fiber Composites:
- A uniform fiber distribution. give better result of composite properties. (An Isotropic)
- Ex: Longitudinal direction give maximum strength. - But tran-verse direction give

least strength.

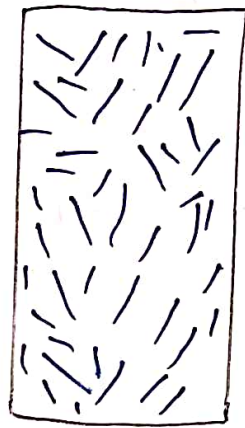
- Discontinuous Fiber Composite: They are lower than continuous. But they are cheap (low cost)



Continuous and Align.



Discontinuous and align.

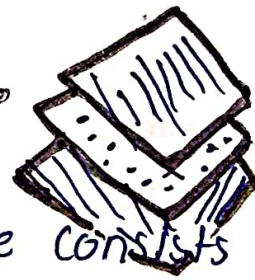


Discontinuous and Random.

(3) ~~Structural~~ STRUCTURAL REINFORCE COMPOSITE

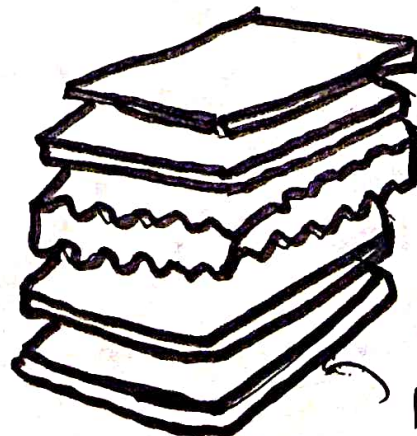
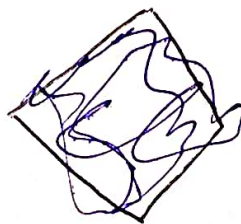
- (a) Laminar Composite: Two Dimensional layers of different materials stacked together to form composite structure.

ex: Plywood.



Structure of Laminar

- (b) Sandwich: These composite consists of two strong outer sheets separated by a layer of dense material (core).
ex: foamed polymer.



Face sheet

USES / APPLICATION

- i.) glass fiber
- ii.) Building and construction Industries: →
- Chemical Industry
 - transport Industry
 - Aerospace Industry
- iii) Carbon fiber: Commercial aircraft (Boeing)
- chassis part (Trucks)
 - turbine
 - Windmill
- iiii) Aramid fiber: kevlar is used in tyres, ropes, cable, many marine Industry.
- vii) Boron fiber: Military Aircraft components →
- helicopter blades
 - Tennis racket
 - bicycle frame

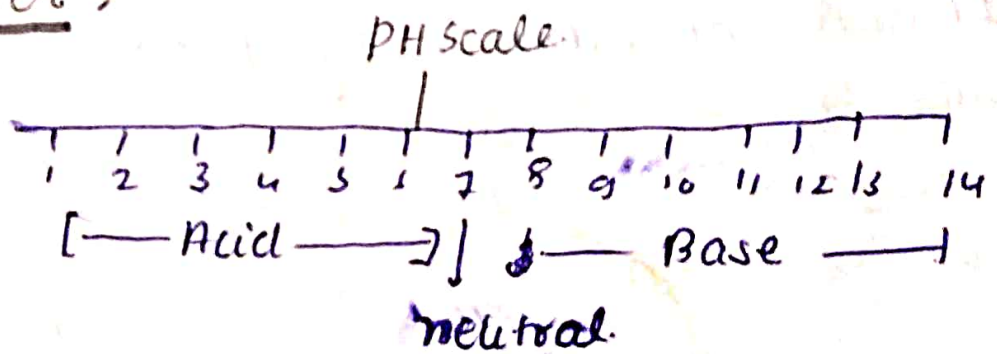
(10) A
1/1/22

WATER

- Hard water: Does not consume soap / Does not give lather / Does not give foam /
- ~~Soft water~~:
• Soft water: It consume soap. / It give lather
- Digital Water: Mineral water / Does not use in drinking.
• only use for testing.
- PH of water: [7] → neutral.

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PH order:



- **WATER HARDNESS**: Soap consuming capacity of water is known as hardness of water.
- It occurs in two forms.
- **TEMPORARY HARDNESS**: It occurs due to presence of Bicarbonates of calcium and magnesium.

$\text{Ca}(\text{HCO}_3)_2 \rightarrow$ Calcium bicarbonate

$\text{Mg}(\text{HCO}_3)_2 \rightarrow$ Magnesium bicarbonate

- It is also known as carbonate hardness. It can be removed by boiling of water.

• PERMANENT HARDNESS

- It occurs due to presence of sulphide and chloride of calcium and magnesium.

$\text{CaCl}_2 \rightarrow$ Calcium chloride

$\text{MgCl}_2 \rightarrow$ Magnesium chloride

$\text{CaSO}_4 \rightarrow$ Calcium sulphate

$\text{MgSO}_4 \rightarrow$ Magnesium sulphate

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- It cannot be removed by boiling.
- Hardness of water is expressed in terms of equivalent CaCO_3 because its molecular weight is 100 (easy calculation) and it precipitates easily and clearly.

$$\text{Equivalents of } \text{CaCO}_3 = \frac{\text{Mass of substance}}{\text{molar mass of substance}} \times 50$$

• UNITS OF HARDNESS

- PPM. P.P.M means of parts of CaCO_3 (calcium carbonate) 10^6 parts of water.

• Mg/Litre

- it is the milligram of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) per litre of water. (1L)

• CLARKE'S DEGREE

- it is the no of calcium carbonate (CaCO_3) (1 gallon) per gallon (70,000 parts of water)

• DEGREE FRENCH

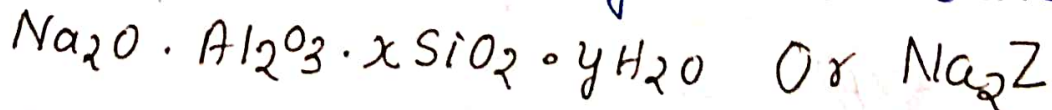
- it is the parts of CaCO_3 to 5 parts of water.

$$1 \text{ PPM} = 1 \text{ Mg/L} = 0.1^\circ \text{fr} = 0.07^\circ \text{cl.}$$

• WATER SOFTENING TREATMENT / REMOVING OF HARDNESS OF WATER

1) ZEOLITE PROCESS / BASE EXCHANGE: / SYNTHETIC ZEOLITE = PERMUTIT

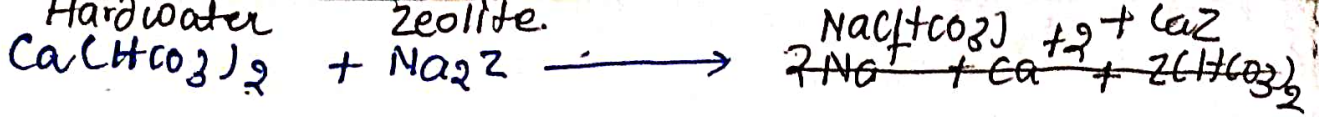
The chemical structure of sodium zeolite



(a) PRINCIPLE OF ZEOLITE PROCESS: Zeolite

is hydrated sodium aluminium silicate, capable of exchange its sodium ions. Z is insoluble

thus when hard water is passed via (through) a bed of active ~~N to Z~~ Na_2Z (sodium zeolite), calcium Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} (calcium and magnesium ion) removed by Na^+ (sodium ion)



- REGENERATION

- The Zeolite bed. Regenerated by passing concentrate sodium chloride (NaCl) solution through (Brine solution) it.



- A zeolite softener consists of steel tank packed with thick layer of permutit.

• ADVANTAGES

- Zero hardness can be produce

- Plant occupies less space

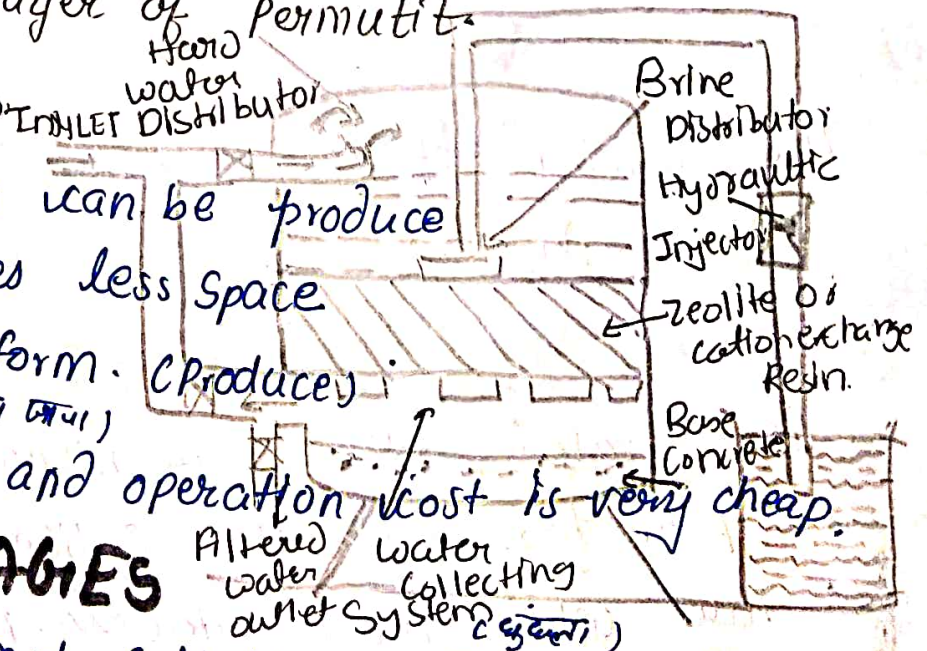
- No sludge form. (produce)

- Maintenance and operation cost is very cheap.

• DISADVANTAGES

- It is suitable not suitable of Turbit water.

- Treated water contains more salt than lime soda process.



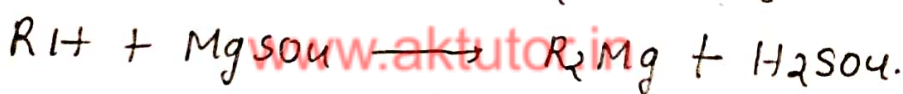
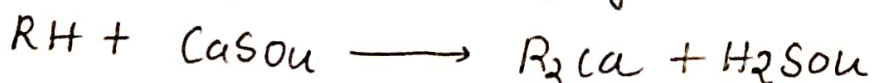
Ion Exchange or Deionisation or Demineralization

In this process to remove organic compounds involve used they have various functional groups responsible for Ion-Exchange.

Cation Exchange Resin: Resin contain

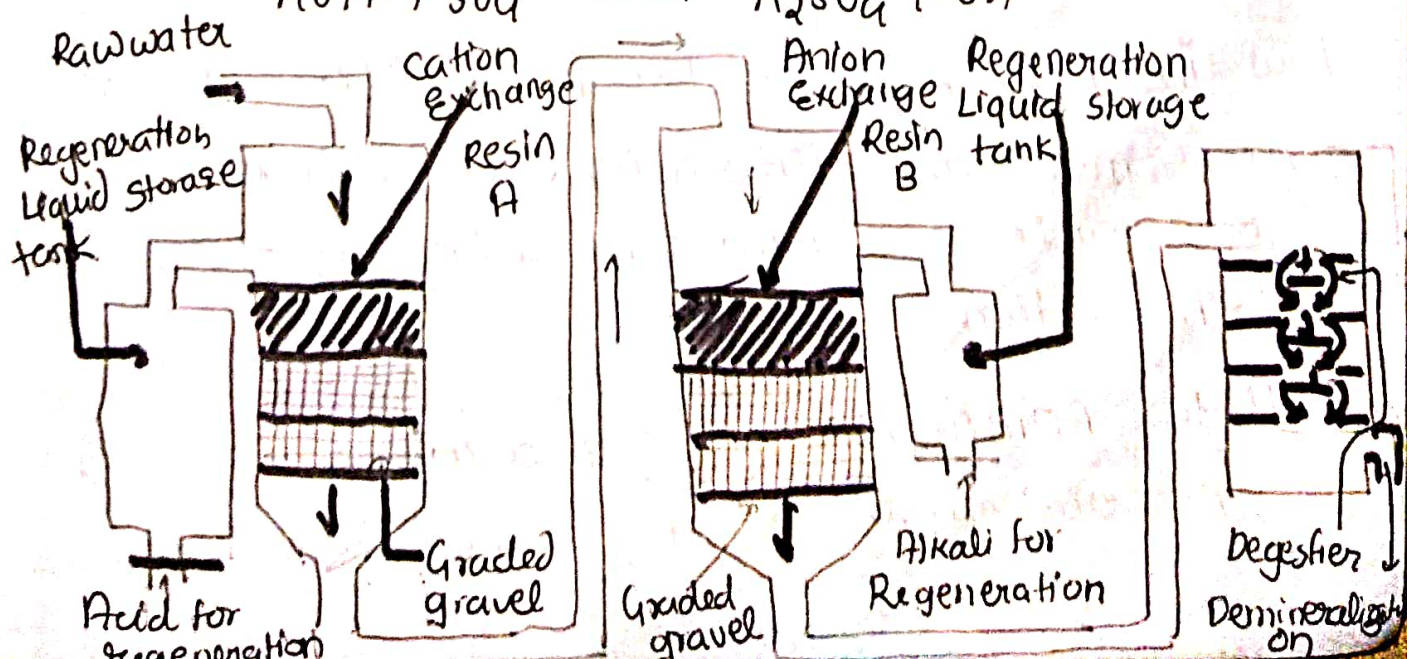
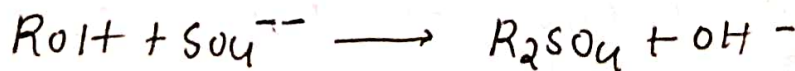
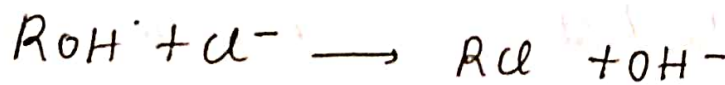
Acidic group like $-COOH$, $-SO_3H$

use for cation exchange. They exchange their hydrogen ion (H^+) with cation of hard water.



Anion Exchange Resin: Resins contain

Basic function group like NH_2 , exchange their ions with hard water



ADVANTAGES

- Highly Acidic or Alkine water can be softened
- Very low hardness produce
- Anion and cation both removed to avoid corrosion.

Disadvantages

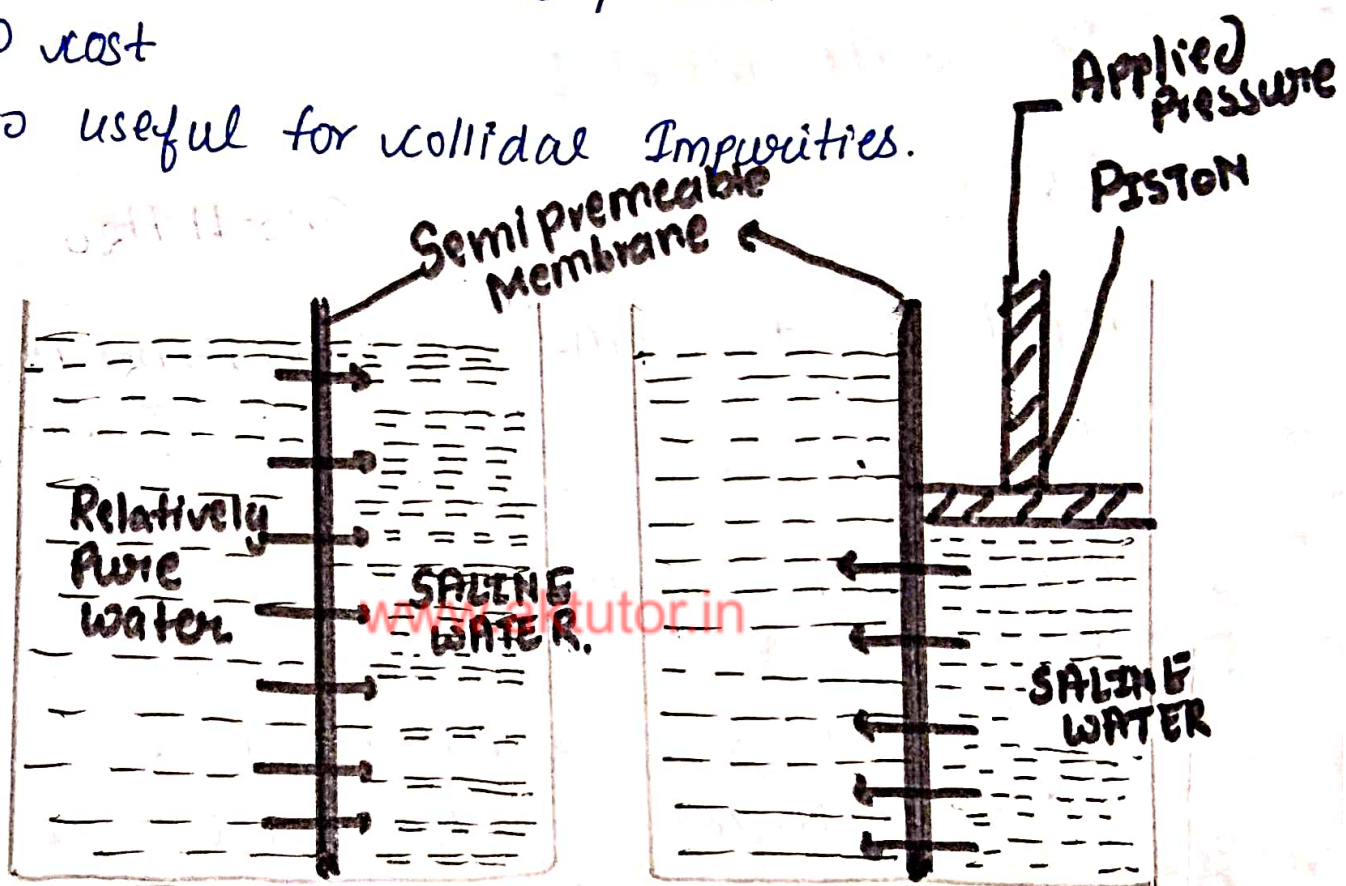
- Process is costly ~~not suitable for~~
- Not suitable for turbid water.

REVERSE OSMOSIS

- Two solutions separated by semipermeable membrane ~~but~~ have flow of solvent from low concentration to high concentration.
Process is known as osmosis
- Thus, the process of reversing the flow of solvent by applying hydrostatic pressure (osmotic pressure) is known as Reverse Osmosis
- Thus in R.O process water is purified through via membrane filtration, is this is also called as hyperfiltration ~~and~~ ^{or} Super-filtration
- Nylon, PMMA and cellulose are used for preparation of semipermeable membrane

ADVANTAGES.

- No chemical use in this process.
- Low cost
- Also useful for colloidal Impurities.



REVERSE OSMOSIS DIAGRAM

LIME SODA PROCESS.

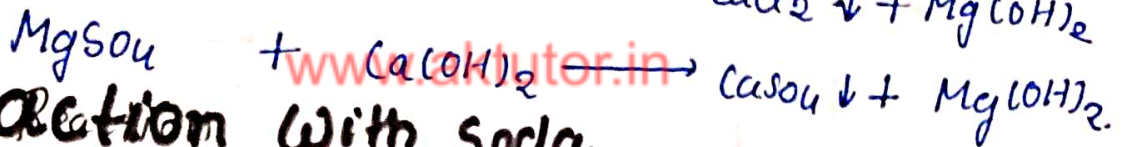
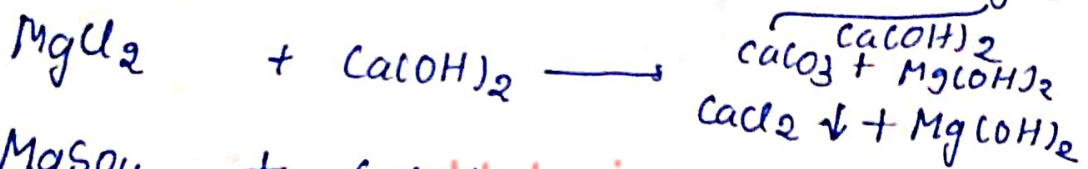
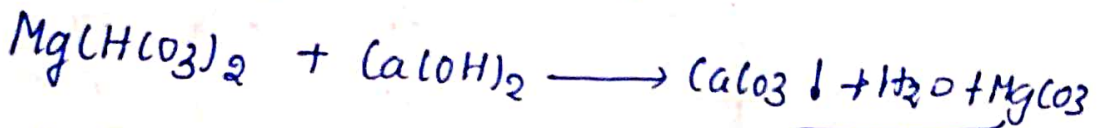
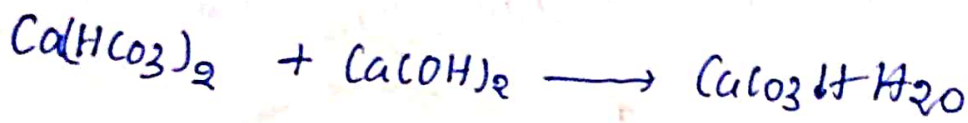
①

This process involve the conversion of soluble hardness into insoluble precipitates.

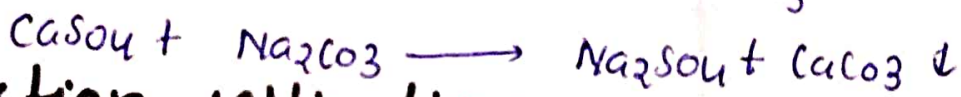
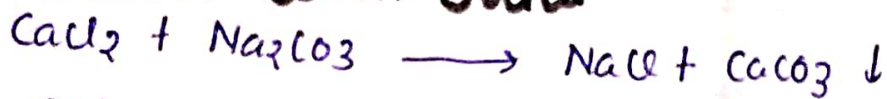
Removed by filtration.

Ca(OH)_2 , Na_2CO_3 are used.

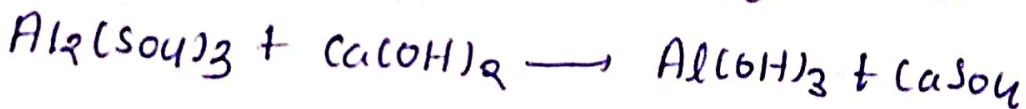
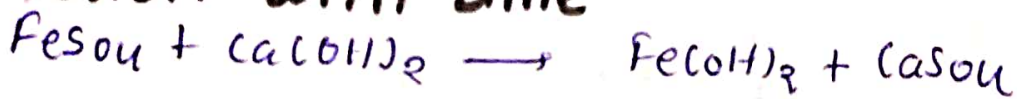
• Reaction with Lime :



• Reaction with Soda



• Reaction with Lime

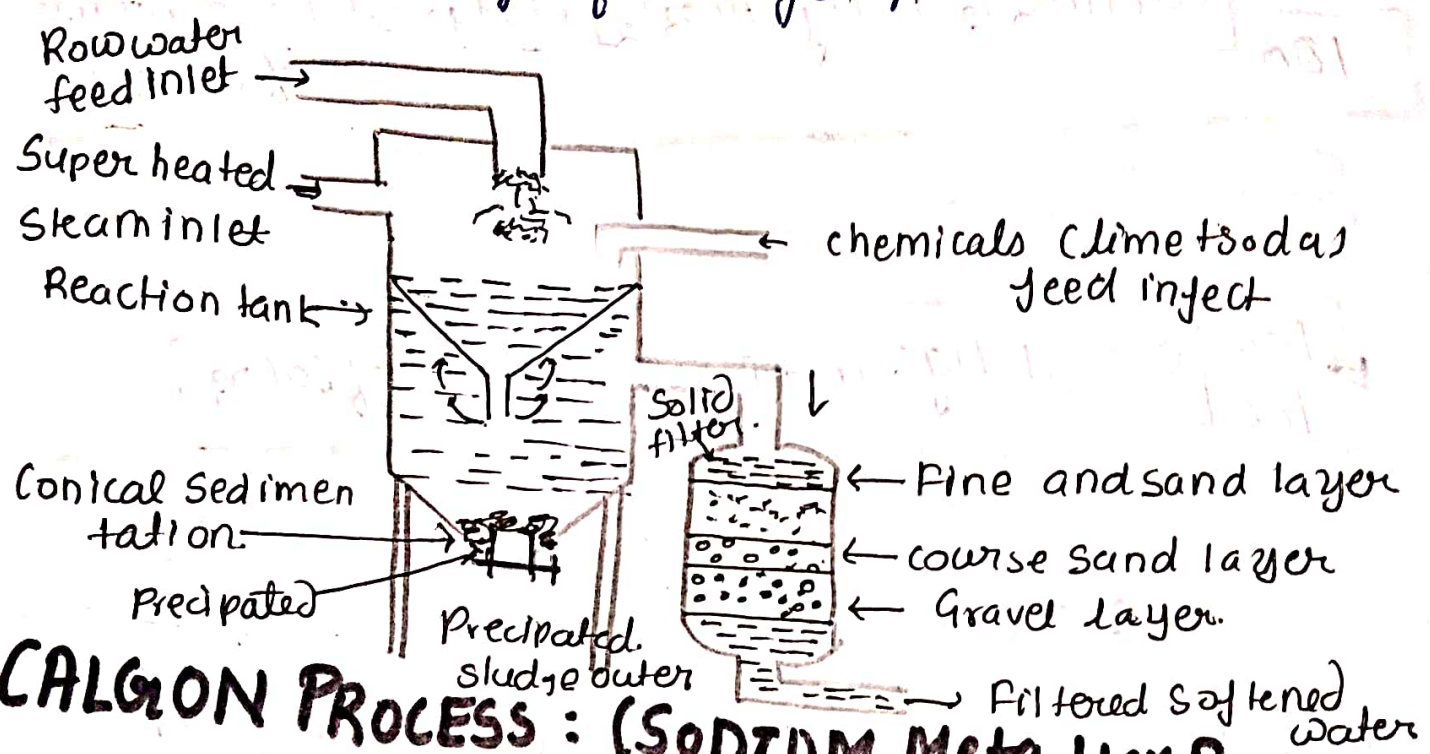


ADVANTAGES OF LIME SODA PROCESS

- This process can also remove other than calcium and magnesium ions like Fe^{2+} , Mn^{2+} , Al^{3+}
- This process also help in killing bacteria by increasing pH.

② DISADVANTAGES OF LIME SODA PROCESS

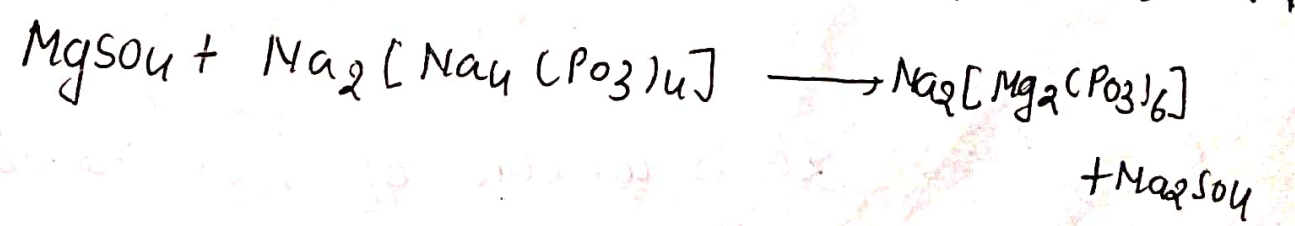
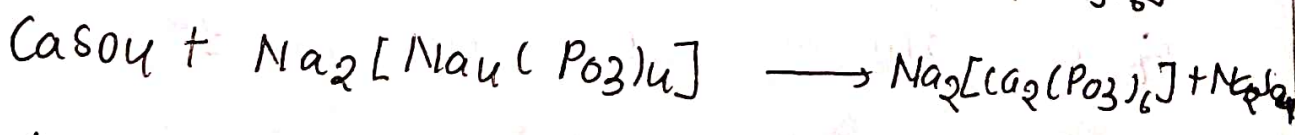
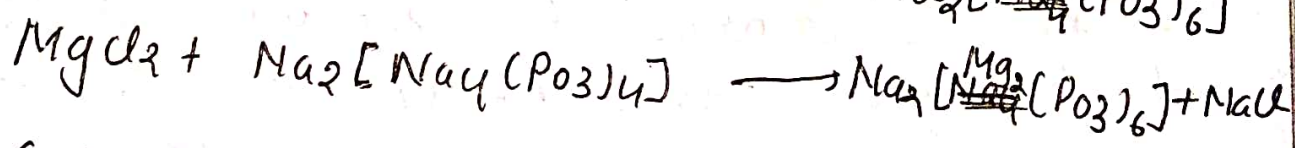
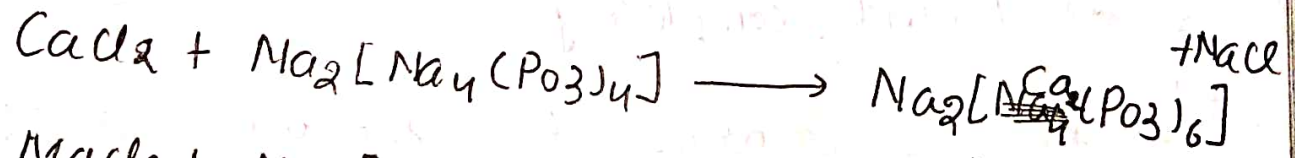
- Can't produce zero hardness.
- A large quantity of sludge produce.



CALGON PROCESS : (SODIUM META HEXA

PHOSPHATE : $\text{Na}_2[\text{Na}_4(\text{PO}_3)_6]$

- It can remove or replace calcium and magnesium anion from Hard water with its sodium ion- and convert it in soft water.



LIME REQUIRED:

(3)

$$= \frac{74}{100} [\text{Ca}(\text{HCO}_3)_2 + 2\text{Mg}(\text{HCO}_3)_2] + [\text{MgSO}_4 + \text{MgCl}_2 \text{ in terms of CaCO}_3]$$

SODA REQUIRED:

$$= \frac{106}{100} [\text{CaSO}_4 + \text{MgSO}_4 + \text{MgCl}_2 \text{ in terms of CaCO}_3]$$

FUEL

- The substance can release heat and energy on combustion (burning)

CALORIFIC VALUE: It is the total amount of heat released when a unit mass of fuel is burnt completely.

(a) **UNITS:** (i) Calorie: It is the amount of heat required to raise (↑) the temperature of one gm of water through 1°C

$$1 \text{ calorie} = 4.185 \text{ joules} = 4.185 \times 10^7 \text{ ergs}$$

(ii) Kcalorie: It is amount of heat required to raise (↑) the temperature of one kilogram of water through 1°C

$$1 \text{ Kcal} = 1000 \text{ calorie}$$

- (4) • **BRITISH THERMAL UNIT:-** It is the amount of heat required to raise the temp. of 1 Pound of water through

$$1^\circ F$$
$$1 \text{ B.Th.U} = 252 \text{ cal}$$

- **CENTIGRADE HEAT UNIT:** It is the amount of heat required to raise the temp. of 1 pound of water through $1^\circ C$

$$1 \text{ Kcal} = 2.2 \text{ CHU}$$

- **CALORIFIC VALUE TYPES:**

- **GROSS CALORIFIC VALUE: (G.C.V): OR**

(H.C.V):

It is the total amount of heat liberated when a unit quantity ~~one gram~~ one gram of fuel is totally burnt in oxygen. And product are cooled down to the room temperature. There is no loss of heat occurs.

- **NET CALORIFIC VALUE (N.C.V): \rightarrow L.C.V**

It is the total amount of heat released when 1 gm of fuel. It is completely burnt and products are allowed to escape. Then some amount of heat loss. ~~It~~ is known as net calorific value.

• This amount of heat known as Latent heat

$$G.C.V = L.C.V + L$$

$L =$ Latent heat

$L =$ wt of Hydrogen $\times 9 \times$ Latent heat of steam

$$L = \text{wt of Hydrogen} \times 9 \times 587$$

• DETERMINATION OF CALORIFIC VALUE

• BOMB CALORIMETER:

Construction: (Apparatus): It consists of —

- Steel bomb: It consists of a cylindrical container provided with two holes for electrodes and one oxygen valve.
- Copper calorimeter: It contains an unknown amount of water provided with a thermometer.
- Air Jacket / Water Jacket: It prevents any loss of heat.
- Crucible: It is made up of nickel crucible and silica and contains fuel.

WORKING: Fuel is taken in a silica crucible. Magnesium wire is stretched across the electrode without touching the fuel sample.

(6) Bomb is filled with oxygen at 25 atm.

- Bomb is placed inside calorimeter which contain unknown amount of water
- Initial temperature of water is noted, now burn the fuel.
- With the help of electrodes connected with 6V battery.
- The heat produce is transferred in water.
- And note (records) the temperature of water.

CALCULATION:

- GCV can calculate as.

$$GCV = C = \frac{(W+w)(t_2-t_1)}{x}$$

t_1 = Initial temp.

t_2 = Final temp.

w = water equivalent of calorimeter

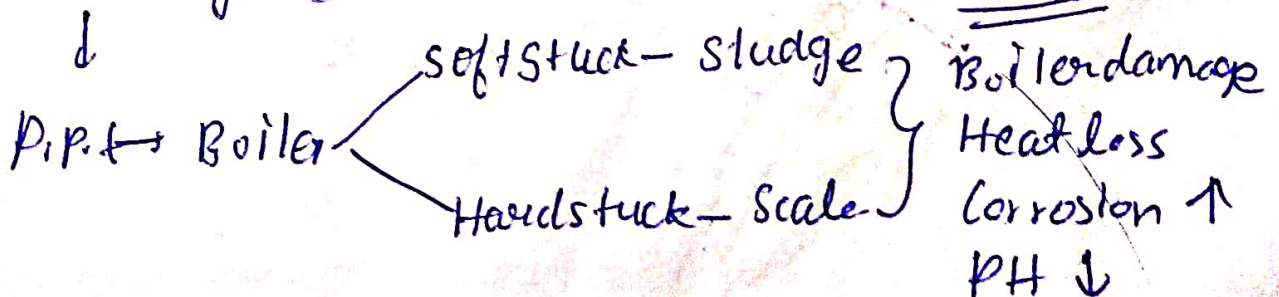
W = wto of water

x = wto of fuel.

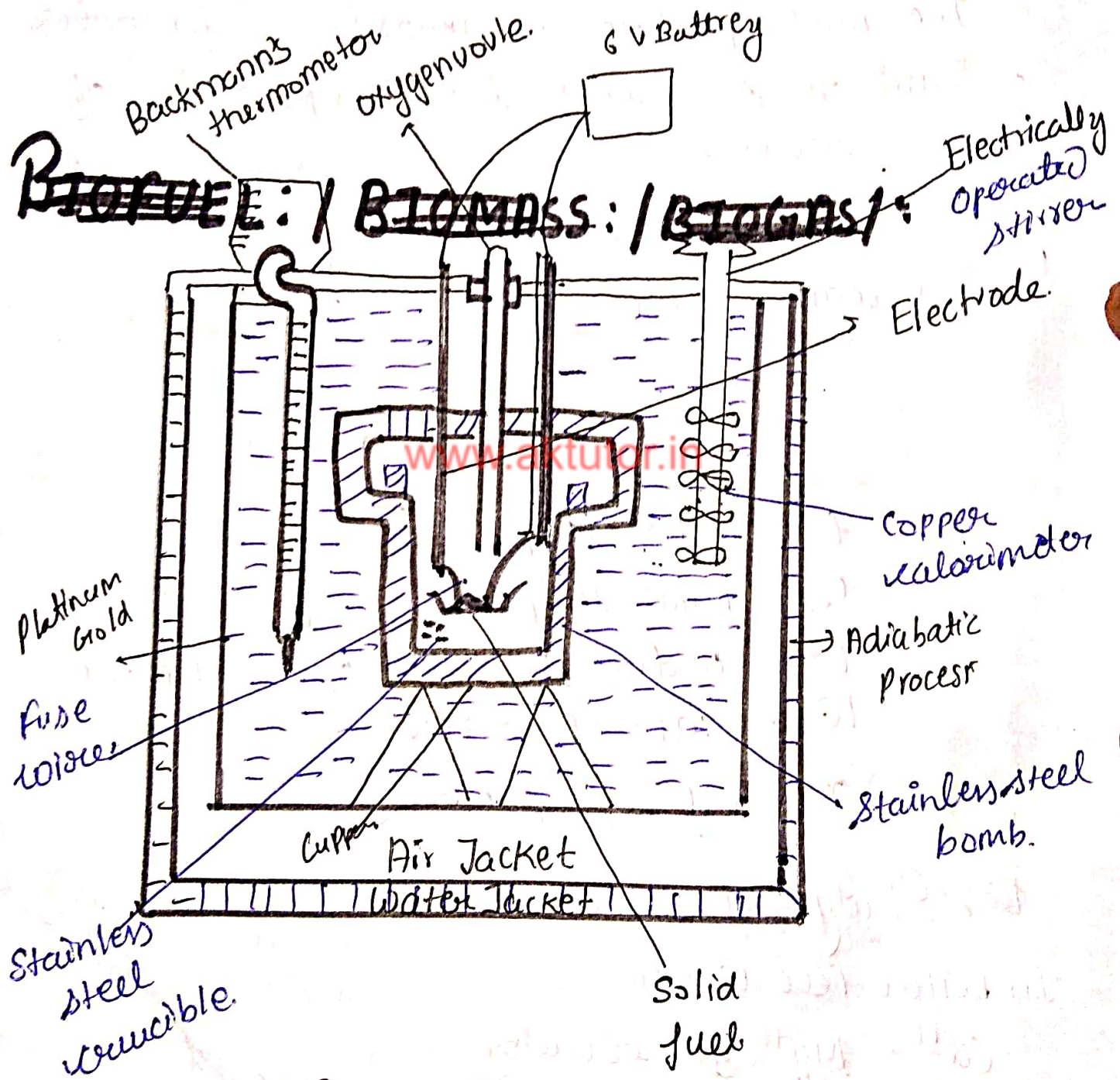
Q. Sludge and Scale

In boiler feed water

Ca^{++} Mg^{++} } - Hard water



7



Bomb calorimeter

⑧ BIOFUEL : / BIOMASS / BIOGAS :-

Biomass refers living waste material includes plants, animals and their products

These are **biodegradable waste**.

- These are **Renewable source**.
- These are also called **bio fuel**.
- Bio gas produce by decomposition of Organic material in absence of oxidation (oxygen) (**Aerobic oxid. fermentation**)

• COMPOSITION OF BIOGAS:

$CH_4 = 50\% - 60\%$

$CO_2 = 30\% - 40\%$

$H_2 = 5\% - 5\%$

$N_2 = 2\% - 2\%$

$H_2S = \text{Traces} - \text{Traces}$

30°

- Biogas plant consist of —

- (a) Fermentation tank: It is airtight container or tank. ~~filled with~~ filled with liquid slurry of animal waste and water (cow dung)
- (b) GAS HOLDER: It is a airtight steel container collect gas provided with overflow pipe

ADVANTAGES:

- 1) Electricity production
- 2) Cooking
- 3) Water heating, Space heating

5) not polluted

• calculate temporary and permanent and total hardness.

$$\text{Mg}^{(HCO_3)_2} = 7.3 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{Ca}^{(HCO_3)_2} = 8.1 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{MgCl}_2 = 9.5 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{CaSO}_4 = 6.8 \text{ mg/l}$$

• Calculate temporary and permanent and total hardness of water sample

$$\text{Mg}^{(HCO_3)_2} = 9.3 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{Ca}^{(HCO_3)_2} = 17.4 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{MgCl}_2 = 8.7 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{CaSO}_4 = 12.6 \text{ mg/l}$$

Solution

We know that

$$\text{Mg}^{(HCO_3)_2} = \frac{9.3 \times 100}{146} = 6.36 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{Ca}^{(HCO_3)_2} = \frac{17.4 \times 100}{162} = \frac{1740}{162} = 10.74 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{MgCl}_2 = \frac{8.7 \times 100}{95} = 9.15 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{CaSO}_4 = \frac{12.6 \times 100}{136} = 9.26 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\text{Temporary Hardness} = 6.36 + 10.74 = 17.10 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Permanent Hardness} &= 9.15 + 9.26 \\ &= 18.41 \text{ mg/l} \end{aligned}$$

$$\text{Total Hardness} = 35.51 \text{ mg/l}$$

4-132+88
105
32

67
241
52
24
18
21

Soln

$$Mg(HCO_3)_2 = \frac{7.3 \times 100}{146} = \frac{730}{146} = 5 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$Ca(HCO_3)_2 = 8.1 \text{ mg/l} = \frac{8.1 \times 100}{162} = \frac{810}{162} = 5 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$MgCl_2 = \frac{9.5 \times 100}{89.5} = \frac{950}{89.5} = 10 \text{ mg/l}$$

$$CaSO_4 = \frac{6.8 \times 100}{136} = \frac{680}{136} = 5 \text{ mg/l}$$

21
71
92

Temporary hardness = 5 mg/l + 5 mg/l = 10 mg/l

Permanent hardness = 10 mg/l + 5 mg/l = 15 mg/l

Total hardness = 10 + 15 = 25 mg/l

B = Calculate the amount of lime and soda required for softening 30000 litres of water using 20 ppm of sodium aluminate as coagulant. Impurities in water are as follows:

Ca²⁺ = 160 ppm, Mg²⁺ = 96 ppm, dissolved CO₂ = 34 ppm and HCO₃⁻ = 403 ppm

Soln

Volume of water = 30,000 litres.

$$Ca^{2+} = \frac{160 \times 100}{40} = \frac{16000}{40} = 400 \text{ ppm}$$

$$Mg^{2+} = \frac{96 \times 100}{24} = 400 \text{ ppm}$$

$$CO_2 = \frac{34 \times 100}{44} = 77.27 \text{ ppm}$$

$$HCO_3^- = \frac{403 \times 100}{61 \times 2} = 330.33 \text{ ppm}$$

$$2 NaAlO_2 = \frac{20 \times 100}{82 \times 2} = 12.19 \text{ ppm}$$

23 + 26
+ 32

$$\text{Lime Requirement} = \frac{74}{100} [\text{mg}^{2+} + \text{HCO}_3^- + \text{CO}_2 + \text{MgAlO}_2]$$

$$= \frac{74}{100} [400 + 330.33 + 77.27 + 12.19]$$

$$= 606.64 \text{ g/l}$$

Lime requirement for Softening 30,000 L

$$= \frac{606.64 \times 30,000}{1000} \text{ g} = 18199.2 \text{ g}$$

(12)

Soda requirement.

$$= \frac{106}{100} [Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+} + NaHCO_3 - HCO_3^-]$$

$$= \frac{106}{100} [400 + 400 + 12.19 - 330.33] = 510.782 \text{ g/L}$$

Soda requirement for softening 30,000 L

$$= \frac{510.782 \times 30,000}{1000} \text{ g} = 15323.46 \text{ g}$$

Q- A sample of water contain the following Impurities

Ca²⁺ = 20ppm, mg²⁺ = 18ppm

HCO₃⁻ = 183ppm, SO₄²⁻ = 24ppm

Calculate the lime and soda needed for softening.

Solun

$$Ca^{2+} = \frac{20 \times 100}{100} = 20 \text{ ppm}$$

$$Ca^{2+} = \frac{200}{4} = 50 \text{ ppm}$$

$$Mg^{2+} = \frac{18 \times 100}{24} = 75 \text{ ppm}$$

$$HCO_3^- = \frac{183 \times 100}{2 \times 61} = 150 \text{ ppm}$$

$$SO_4^{2-} = \frac{24 \times 100}{96} = 25 \text{ ppm}$$

$$\text{Lime required} = \frac{74}{100} [Mg^{2+} + SO_4^{2-} + HCO_3^-]$$

$$= \frac{74}{100} [75 + 25 + 150]$$

$$= 185 \text{ ppm}$$

$$\text{Soda required} = \frac{106}{100} [Ca^{2+} + Mg^{2+} + SO_4^{2-} - HCO_3^-]$$

$$= \frac{106}{100} [50 + 75 + 25 - 150]$$

$$= 0 \text{ ppm}$$

Q- Calculate the lime and soda for softening 50,000 L of water

$$CaSO_4 = \frac{13.6 \times 100}{136} = 10 \text{ ppm}$$

$$MgCl_2 = \frac{9.5 \times 100}{95} = 10 \text{ ppm}$$

$$Mg(HCO_3)_2 = \frac{7.3 \times 100}{146} = 5 \text{ ppm}$$

$$Ca(HCO_3)_2 = \frac{16.2 \times 100}{162} = 10 \text{ ppm}$$

$$\text{Lime required} = \frac{74}{100}$$

$$[Ca(HCO_3)_2 + 2Mg(HCO_3)_2 + MgCl_2]$$

$$= [10 + 10 + 10]$$

$$= 30$$

$$\text{Soda required for 50,000 L of water} = \frac{30 \times 50,000}{1000}$$

$$= 1.11 \text{ kg}$$

$$\text{Soda required} = \frac{106}{100} [10 + 10]$$

$$= \frac{106}{100} \times 20$$

$$\text{for 50,000 L of water} = \frac{21.2 \times 50,000}{1000} = 1.06 \text{ kg}$$

Analysis of coal.

- Proximate Analysis: In this process, data varies with procedure adopted. It determines the presence of moisture, ash, volatile matter and fixed carbon.

MOISTURE CONTENT: It is determined by heating a known amount of coal in an oven for about one hour. Loss in weight of coal is reported as moisture content (%).

$$\% \text{ moisture} = \frac{\text{Loss in weight}}{\text{Total amount of coal}} \times 100$$

• Significance / BENEFITS:

- [1] Excess moisture is undesirable in coal.
- [2] Excess surface moisture may cause difficulty in handling the coal.
(Analysis)

• VOLATILE MATTER

- (i) Volatile matter consists of gaseous and liquid mixture resulting from thermal decomposition of coal.
- (ii) It can be determined as:

$$\% \text{ volatile matter} = \frac{\text{Loss in weight due to removal of volatile matter}}{\text{Known amount of coal}} \times 100$$

• SIGNIFICANCE :

- A High percent of volatile matter indicate Loss of ~~weight~~ fuel.
- High volatile content gives long flame, high smog

• Ash

- It consists of Silica, Alumina, Iron oxide, lime etc (SiO_2 , Al_2O_3 , Fe_2O_3 , CaO , H_2O)
- content is determine by heating the residue left after the removal of volatile matter for 1 hour.

$$\% \text{ Ash} = \frac{\text{Weight of Residue left}}{\text{Known Amount of Coal}} \times 100$$

• SIGNIFICANCE

- In boiler the fusion temperature of Ash is very significant
- The High percent of Ash ~~effect~~ affect the efficiency of coal.

• FIXED CARBON

- Carbon content increase ~~to~~ low ranking coal (Lignite) to high ranking coal (Anthracite)

$$\%C = 100 - [\text{Moisture } \% + \text{Volatile Matter } \% + \text{Ash } \%]$$

SIGNIFICANCE:

- The percent of fixed carbon increases the calorific value

ULTIMATE Analysis (Dulong Formula)

- It is used out / calculate to certain composition of coal.

- It include the ~~estim~~ calculation / Analysis of

CARBON AND Hydrogen: Coal combust. and carbon, hydrogen (C, H) converted into CO_2 and H_2O (Carbon di-oxide and water)

- CO_2 and H_2O absorbed by KOH and CaCl_2 .

$$\%C = \frac{12}{44} \times \frac{\text{Incr. in weight of KOH} \times 100}{\text{Wt. of coal}}$$

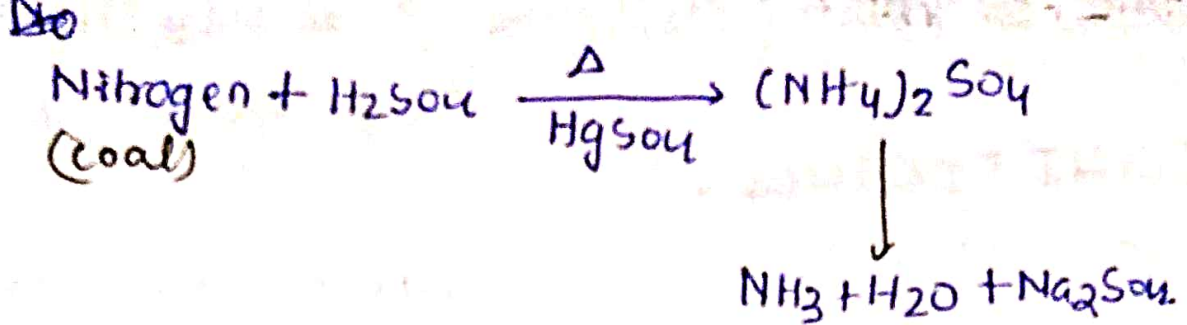
$$\%H = \frac{2}{18} \times \frac{\text{Incr. wt of CaCl}_2 \times 100}{\text{Wt. of coal}}$$

Significance: High percentage of carbon ^{& Hydrogen} increase the calorific value of coal.

- They also reduces the size ~~the~~ of chamber

• NITROGEN (Kjeldahl process)

- A known weight of coal heated with / Analyze with H_2SO_4 (sulphuric Acid) & nitrogen converted in NH_4SO_4 (Ammonium Sulphate)



- This liberated ammonia is absorbed by known volume of acid and percentage of nitrogen calculated.

$$\% \text{ N} = \frac{14}{1000} \times \frac{N \times V \times 100}{W} = \frac{1.4 NV}{W}$$

N = Normality of Acid

V = volume of Acid used

W = wt. of coal

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- **SIGNIFICANCE:** It is useful in carbonization industries

SULPHUR

- Sulphur in coal is oxidized in Sulphuric Acid and precipitated as Barium Sulphate (Basou). The ppt is filtered and heated to constant weight.

$$\% \text{ S} = \frac{32}{233} \frac{W_1}{W}$$

W = wt. of coal

W₁ = wt. of Basou

SIGNIFICANCE: It is undesirable, ~~high~~ cause
Pollution.

oxygen Analysis

- It is determine by difference.

$$\% O = 100 - [\% C + \% H + \% S + \% M + ash]$$

SIGNIFICANCE

- Less oxygen percentage
- The calorific value of coal is high.

Dulong formula:-

$$HCV = \frac{1}{100} [8080 C + 34500 \left[H + \frac{O}{8} \right] + 2240 S]$$

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Kcal/kg

∴ Minimum air required for combustion of 1 kg - ~~coal~~ coal

$$= \text{wt. of } \left[C \times \frac{32}{12} + H \times \frac{16}{2} - O \right] \times \frac{100}{23}$$

$$LCV = HCV - 0.09 H \times 587 \text{ kcal/kg}$$

Q= A coal has following ultimate Analysis data carbon 84.1. Sulphur 1.5. Nitrogen 0.6. or Hydrogen 5.5. and oxygen 8.4. find the G.C.V and N.C.V with the help of Dulong formula.

$$G.C.V = \frac{1}{100} \left[8080 \times 84 + 34500 \left[5.5 - \frac{8.4}{8} \right] + 2240 \times 5 \right]$$

$$= 8356.05$$

$$N.C.V = G.C.V - L$$

$$=$$

$$L.C.V = 8356.05 - 0.09 \times 5.5 \times 587$$

$$= 8355.55 \times 587$$

$$L.C.V = 8065.48$$

Q2 The percentage composition of coal sample is C=70%, H₂=10%, O₂=1%, S=5%, ash=0.5% and N=0.3%.

(i) calculate the quantity of air needed for complete of 1kg of coal, if 60% excess of air is supplied

(ii) Calculate the G.C.V and N.C.V of coal using Dulong formula.

$$G.C.V = \frac{1}{100} \left[8080 \times 70 + 34500 \left[10 - \frac{1}{8} \right] + 2240 \times 5 \right]$$

$$G.C.V = 9174.87$$

PHASE RULE:

- This rule is given by Gibbs according to this rule.
- In heterogeneous system the sum of no. of phase and degree of freedom is greater than ~~then~~ the no. of component by two.

$$F + P = C + 2$$

$$F = C - P + 2$$

F = degree of freedom
 C = component
 P = phase

Application of phase Rule:-

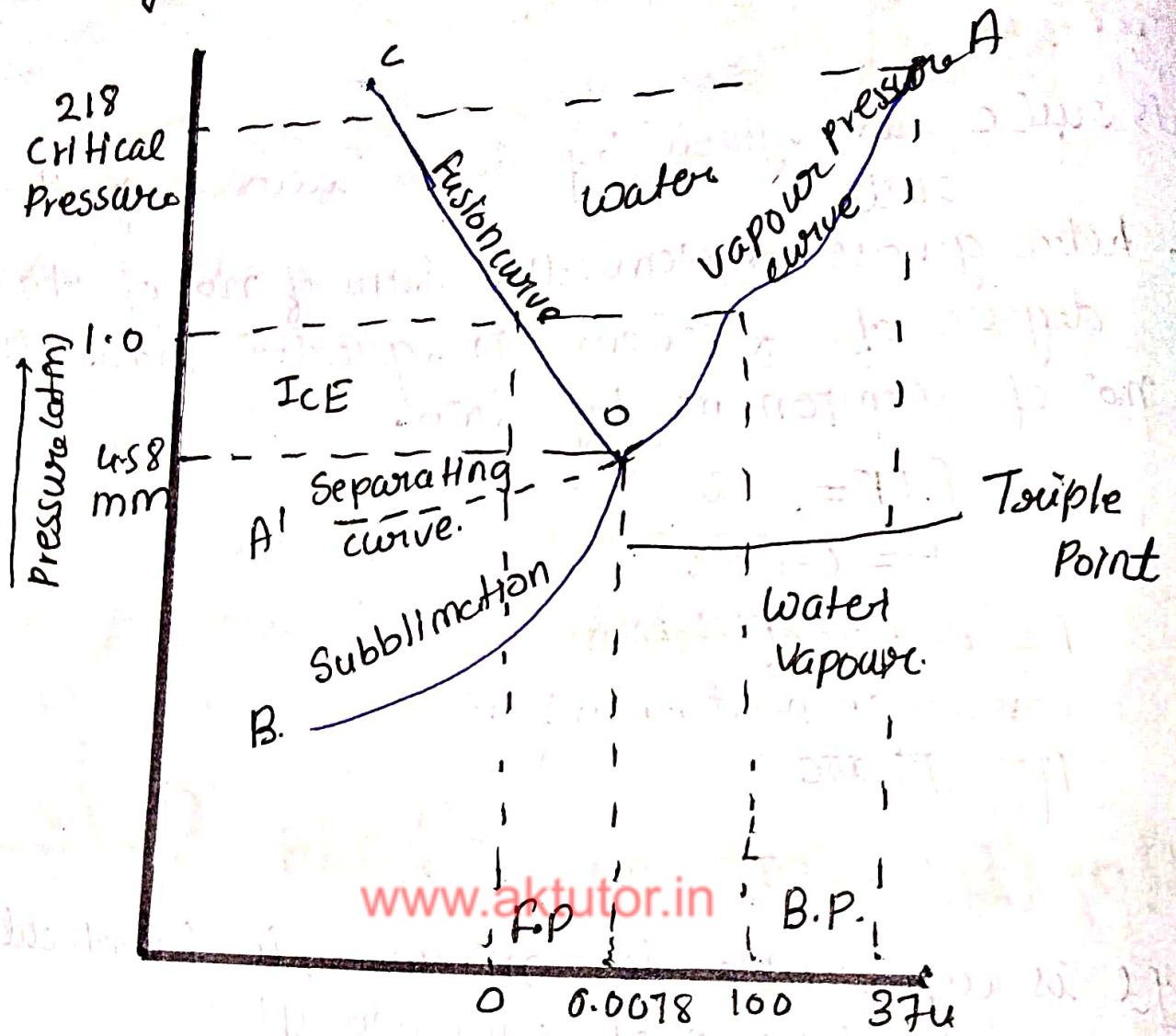
- It is applicable to macroscopic [molecular structure not compulsory]
- It is applicable to physicable as well as chemical equilibrium.
- It explain the behaviour of system when allow to changes in variable like, pressure, temperature and.

Phase: It represent the state of matter uniform through out.

Component: It is smallest no. of independent constituent.

Degree of freedom: It define the no. of independent variables like pressure, temperature, composition, concentration.

The component \Rightarrow
(Water system)



Water system can explain in following three steps:

• Single phase equilibrium: ^{Area} [Curve] :

- Solid: represented by BOC or COB (ice)
- Liquid: represented as COA (Water)
- Gas: represented by BOA (Vapour)

• All above curve shows

$$C = 1$$

$$P = 1$$

$$\text{Then } F = C - P + 2$$

$$= 1 - 1 + 2$$

$$\boxed{P = 2} \text{ Bivariant. (Temperature or pressure)}$$

• Two Phase Equilibrium (Curve) :

- Solid: represented by curve OC or CO / liquid
- Liquid / vapour: represented by curve OA or AO
- Gas / Solid: represented by curve OB

All above curve shows

$$C = 1$$

$$P = 2$$

$$F = C - P + 2$$

$$= 1 - 2 + 2$$

$$\boxed{P = 1} \text{ monovariant or univariant}$$

Curve OC represent melting or fusion curve

Curve OA is vapour pressure curve.

and curve OB is sublimation curve.

• Triple point

• At this point all the curves (phases) meet.
Thus.

$$C = 1$$

$$P = 3$$

$$F = C - P + 2$$

$$F = 1 - 3 + 2 = \boxed{F = 0} \text{ nonvariant.}$$

• Metastable curve. / Supercooling curve.

• It is the state in which liquid below its freezing point is in supercooled state.

(Unstable)

Supercooled liquid \rightleftharpoons Vapour.

$$C = 1$$

$$P = 2$$

Then $F = C - P + 2$

$$= 1 - 2 + 2$$

$$\boxed{F = 1} \text{ monovariant.}$$

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Corrosion: corrosion is a degradation of a metal by chemical reaction.

• Reason: 1) Rough surface of metal.

• Presence of Impurities on metal.

• Moisture and air presence on metal surface

ex: rusting of iron \rightarrow Reddish powder or layer
(Fe_2O_3)

• ex: green layer on carbon \rightarrow ($CaCO_3 + Ca(OH)_2$)

• ex: Tarnishing of silver \rightarrow (Black coating formed on silver)

metals are in higher energy state (unstable) wants to convert in stable natural combined form (stable) minerals.

• EFFECT OF CORROSION

- Decrease efficiency of machine.
- Cause leakage in pipe line
- To release toxic and inflammable products
- Cause condensation/contamination of water
- Cause accidents due to decayed/rusting in Architecture, bridges, buildings etc

• ELECTROCHEMICAL CORROSION / WET CORROSION / Rusting of Iron / Immersed corrosion.

In this corrosion metal is oxidized to a soluble form or ionic state.

A corrosion cell (galvanic cell) is formed where following reaction takes place.

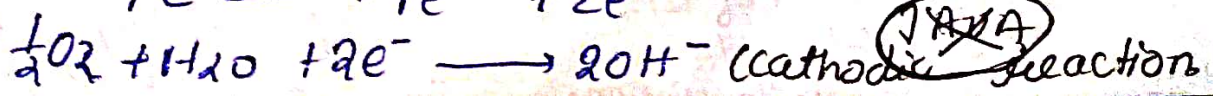
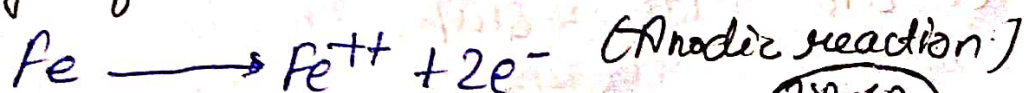
Anodic Reaction: At anode metal loss their electrons (oxidation).

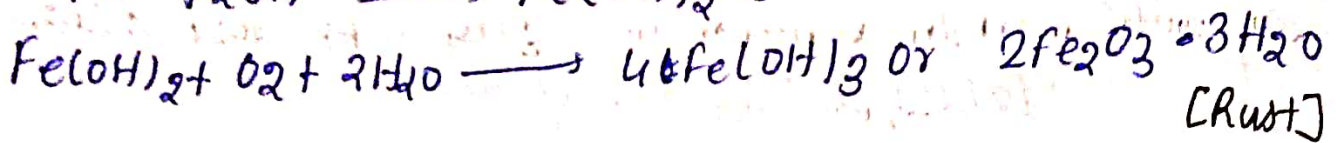
Cathodic Reaction: The electron released from anode consumed at cathode.

They causes → evolution of hydrogen.

→ Absorption of oxygen.

ex. Rusting of iron





- corrosion occurs at anode and rust is formed near cathode because smaller ferrous ion Fe^{2+} produce at anode diffuse rapidly towards the cathode as compare to diffusion of larger OH^- ions towards the anode.

Prevention of corrosion by Anodic Protection

- 1.) Cathodic Protection or Electrochemical Protection
Cathodic Protection is to force the metal to be protected to behave like a cathode as a result of which it is not corroded.
 - cathodic protection can be achieved in two ways.
 - A) Galvanic or Sacrificial Anodic Protection: In galvanic or Sacrificial Anodic Protection the metal structure to be protected is made the cathode by connecting a wire to a more anodic material.
 - (i) As a result, the corrosion takes place at anodic material and the metal structure is saved from corrosion.
 - (ii) The more active material metal used for the purpose is known as sacrificial anode.
 - (iii) Most commonly metals used for the sacrificial anodic protection are Mg , Zn , Al and their alloys.

Ex Zinc metal in ship: In ship a sacrificial anode (sheets of zinc metal) electrically linked to the ship (cathode) to be protected, that is more reactive surrounding of an environment.

Ques-1

- Why does corrosion occur in steel pipe connected to copper plumbing?
- Bolt and nut made of same metal is preferred explain.
- Iron corrode faster than aluminium, even iron is placed below aluminium on the electrochemical series
- Impurities increase the rate of corrosion. Explain (metals)

Ans-1

- Steel is an alloy of iron which is higher on the electrochemical series. Hence Iron undergoes oxidation and gets corroded when steel pipe is connected to copper plumbing is exposed to be a corroding environment

Ans-3

- Aluminium is more reactive than iron but it does not corrode easily because it forms a layer of aluminium oxide which prevents it from further reaction with air. On the other hand iron keeps on reacting with air and keeps on corroding

Ans-2

- Nuts and bolt made up of same metal because they have same stress and same strength resistance
-

Which part of an electrochemical cell formed by two metals, suffer corrosion cathode or anode?

Q-2 Presence of moisture increases the corrosion rate but metals do not rust. if covered with ice

Q-3 Wire mesh corrodes faster at joints why?

Ans-1

- It occurs in galvanic corrosion. It is also called bimetallic corrosion or dissimilar metal corrosion.
- It is an electrochemical process. When two dissimilar metals and alloys have different electrode potential and when two or more metal come into contact with electrolyte, one metal (high reactive) ~~and~~ works as anode ^{and} other are metal less reactive work as cathode.

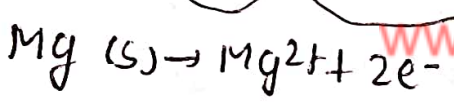
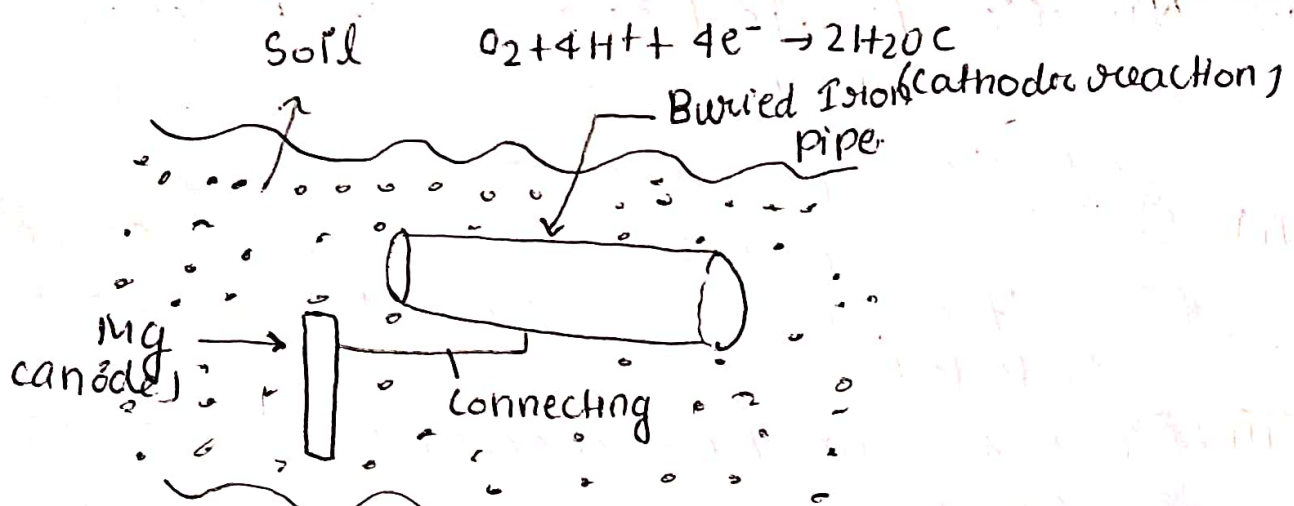
Ans-2

- Presence of moisture increase the corrosion rate but metals do not rust. But if covered with ice. firstly we know that corrosion occurs in liquid, air, gasses. In the condition with ice when the temp. of ice is high then corrosion rate increases. But temp. of ice low then corrosion decreases.

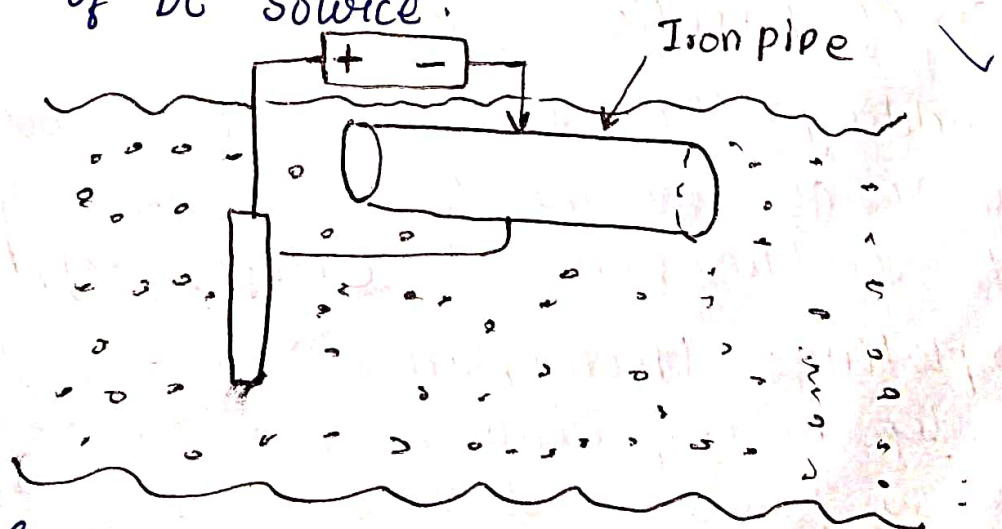
- Q1 Differentiate pitting corrosion & crevice corrosion.
- Q2 Can we store caustic in iron vessel? why
- Q3 chemical energy is converted into electrical energy? energy than cell is & vice versa.

Pitting corrosion.

Crevice corrosion.



b.) Impressed current cathodic protection: The method known as electrolytic method of cathodic protection, the object to be protected is made cathode by connecting it to negative terminal of DC source.



The (+ve) terminal is connected to the insoluble anode like graphite or scrap iron, platinum.

cii) The impressed current cathodic protection has been applied.

a.) Buried pipelines, transmission line towers

b.) water pipes, water tanks, marine piers etc

civ) This kind of technique is particularly useful for large structures which require long term applications

2.) Anodic Protection: Anodic Protection is applicable to the metals which can be passivated by the deposition of oxide films

cii) In Anodic protection, oxide film is grown on the surface of the metal structure to be protected.

ciii) This is done by electrochemical means i.e by applying current in a direction that makes the metal structure more anodic.

civ) Under these condition, the metal structure is passivated when required potential is maintained and hence rate of corrosion decreases.

- five factors of prevention of corrosion:

- Metal cladding: Metal cladding is the process of coating of base metal by a dense homogeneous layer of cladding materials (Ni, Pb, Ag, Pt, Cu)
- Electro plating: Electro plating is the process of deposition of coating metal on the base metal by passing a direct current in an electrolytic solution which contains the soluble salt of coating metal

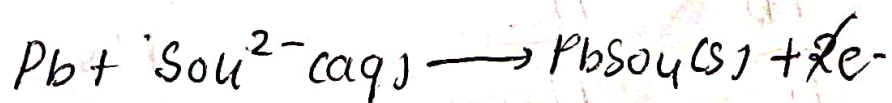
- 3.) Proper design: The contact b/w diff metals and alloys should not made especially if they are far apart in the galvanic series

• **LEAD STORAGE BATTERY:** Lead storage battery (or lead acid battery) is the oldest type of rechargeable battery and one of the common storage energy devices

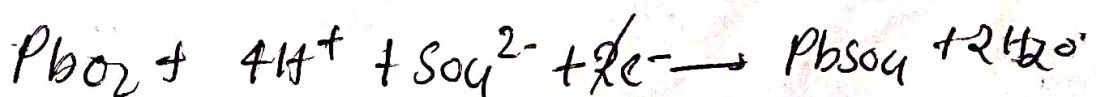
- The Batteries used in automobiles for ex: incars, buses, trucks, etc are lead storage battery.
- Construction: The cell consists of a lead grid filled with a spongy lead as anode and a lead grid packed with lead oxide as cathode.
- A solution of H_2SO_4 is used as an electrolyte.
- This is the battery acid which one can buy at service stations.
- The Battery consists of 6 such cells connected in series, each cells having an emf 2V, means total emf 12V.

Working

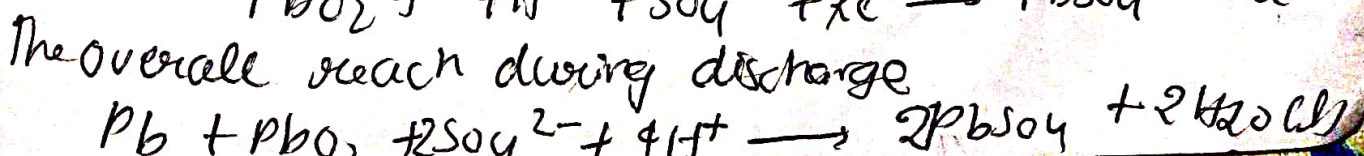
- 1- **Discharging:** when the battery is discharging i.e when all it is supplying a current reaction at the anode:



At the cathode:



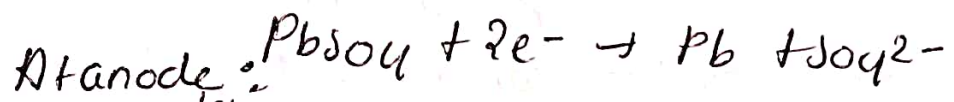
The overall reaction during discharge



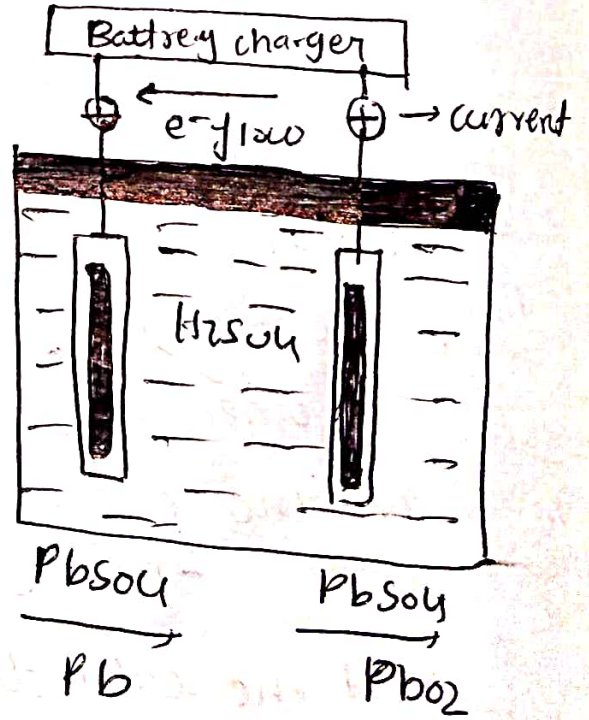
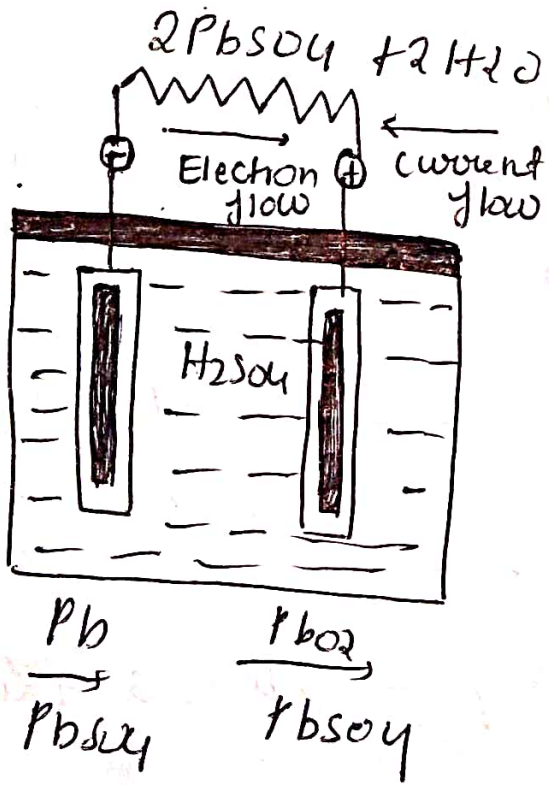
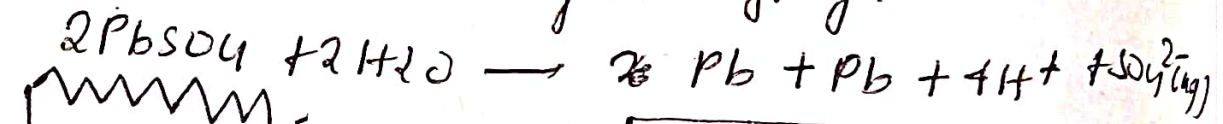
- 1) The electrolyte is sulphuric acid which is used.
- 2) Both electrodes become coated with an insoluble layer of lead sulphate which being an insulator, would eventually ruin the battery.

- **Charging:** when the battery is being charged electrons are supplied to the anode of the battery and this converts the lead sulphate to lead.
- At the same time, the lead sulphate at the cathode is converted to lead di-oxide.
- Thus the cell reaction are reversed.

At cathode:



Overall reaction during charging =



SPECTROSCOPY

• It is the branch of science deals with determination of structure and properties of compound through the interaction of electromagnetic radiation with the matter.

• ADVANTAGES OF SPECTROSCOPY

- 1.) Require less time
- 2.) required a very small amount of substance
- 3.) Substance remains unchanged during test / examination and can again used.

• Electromagnetic Radiation

it is a form of energy, transmitted through space it has dual character exhibit particle as well as wave.

Exc: Visible light, UV-radiation, IR-radiation.

• PROPERTIES OF ELECTROMAGNETIC RADIATION:

- Wave length: it is the distance b/w two adjacent peak (crests) of particular wave.
- Wave Number: it is the reciprocal of wave length expressed in cm.
- frequency: It is the no^o of wave which can pass through a point in 1 second.

• Energy: Electromagnetic radiation. consists of packets of pure energy called quanta or photon

$$v = \frac{c}{\lambda}$$

$$\bar{\nu} = \frac{1}{\lambda}$$

$$E = h\nu = mc^2$$

ν = frequency

c = velocity of light

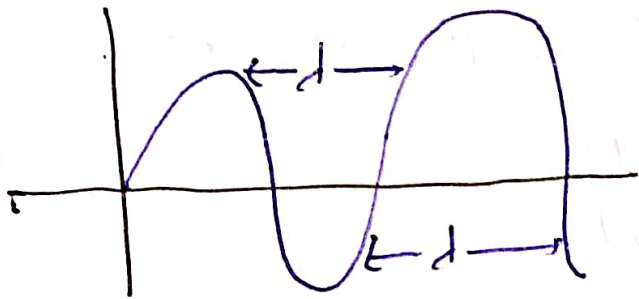
$\bar{\nu}$ = wave no.

λ = wave length

E = energy, h → plank constant

$h\nu$ = packets of energy

m = mass of particle.

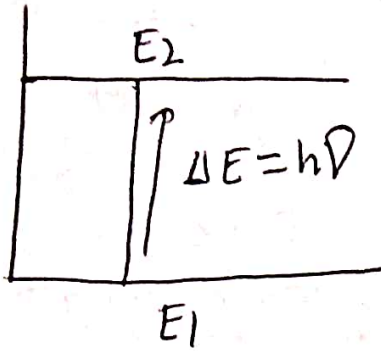


Wave motion www.aktutor.in

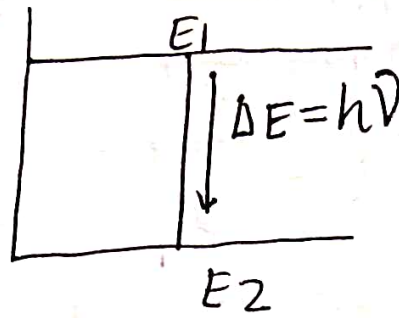
- The electromagnetic spectrum is the arrangement of electromagnetic radiation.
- In order of their increasing wave length or decreasing frequency.
- Visible light: Visible light occurs in. (4300 Å - 6900 Å)
- **ORIGIN OF SPECTRA:** when light radiation is passed through a sample of an compound then some wave length absorbed - have certain / fix frequency.
- But in some transition energy emitted. Thus they form emission spectrum and absorption

Spectrum.

- In absorption spectrum some dark line (band)



Absorption spectrum



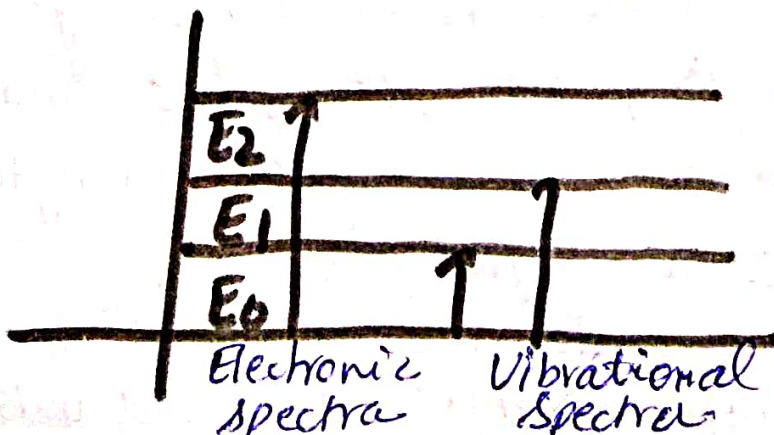
Emission spectrum

TYPES OF ENERGY

The total energy of molecule is the sum of

- 1) Translational energy (E_t)
- 2) Rotational energy (E_r)
- 3) Vibrational energy (E_v)
- 4) Electronic energy (E_e)

- E_r arises when molecule rotate about an axis
- E_v is due to and fro motion of the molecule
- E_e arises transition of an electron from ground state energy level to excited state energy.
- E_t is very small thus, it is not envelope in spectrum.



Types of Spectroscopy

Ultraviolet or Visible Spectroscopy

• it is use to measure the no of conjugated double bonds in molecules.

• It's region - 200-750nm.

• It involve the transition of electrons from ground state to excited state.

(a) Electronic Transition: ~~This~~ It involve absorption of ultraviolet radiation. shows / carried out following transition.

(i) σ to σ^* Transition: It require large energy and absorption occurs b/w 120 to ~~120~~ 200nm range. www.aktutor.in

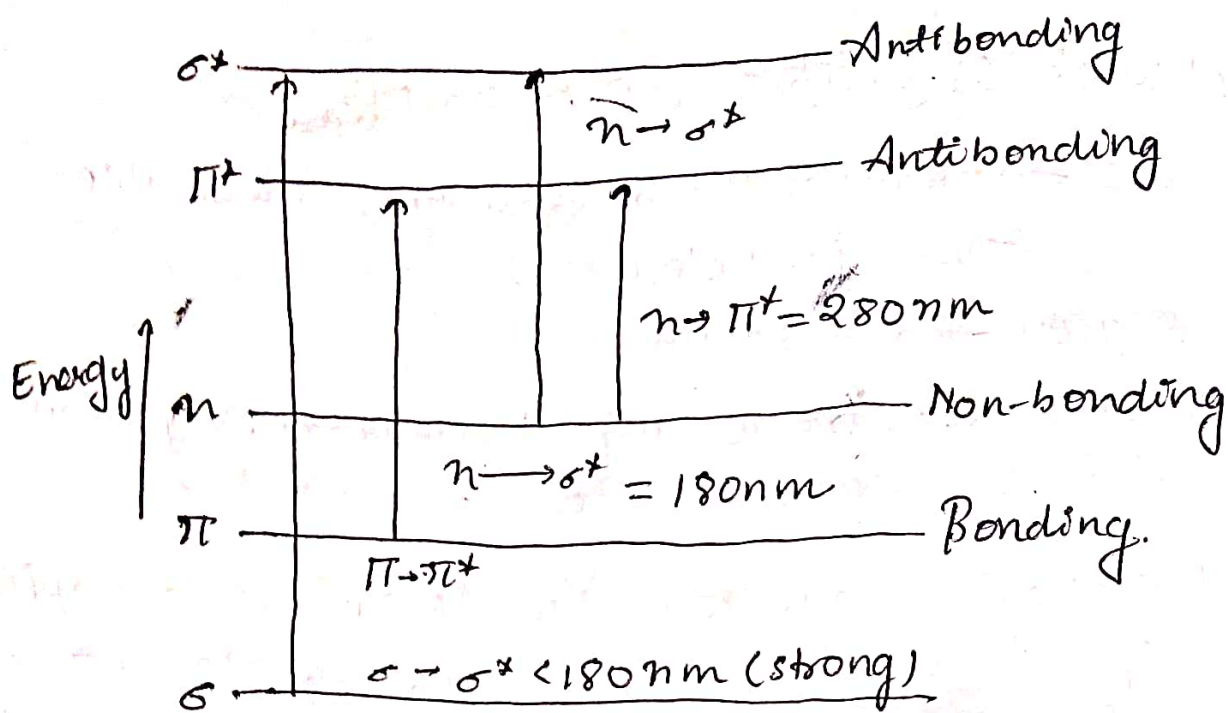
(ii) π to π^* Transition: It occurs in compounds having double (=) or triple bond (\equiv). It require smaller energy thus occurs b/w 170 to 190nm range.

(iii) n to π^* Transition: It occurs in compounds containing double bond (=) and hetero atoms: (Aniline, pyrid). It required smaller energy and longer wave length because non-bonding electrons are held loosely (free).

(iv) They occurs b/w 180-280nm range.

(v) n to σ^* Transition: It involve the transition of electron of unshared pair thus it occurs in saturated halides, alcohols OH, ether, $R-O-R$ etc.

- It requires lesser energy.

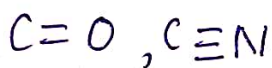


• Oxochrome:

(b) Chromophores: They are colour carriers, defined as covalent unsaturated species that shows a characteristic absorption in V-V region. —

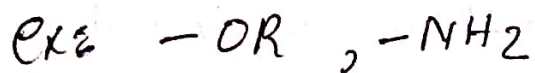
→ ~~the~~ chromophores which contain π electron undergo π to π^* transition, ex: $C=C$, $C\equiv C$

→ Chromophores contains π e- as well as non-bonding electrons. undergo n to π^* ,



(c) Oxochrome / Auxochrome: They are defined as the species brings a shift of absorption band ~~when~~ to longer wave length.

- They are colour enhancing group.



ex: Benzene shows absorption at 255 nm with ϵ_{max} 203. But in Aniline it is at

ϵ_{max} 280 nm with ϵ_{max} 1430. Thus Amino group is Oxochrome.

(1) Absorption shift:

- (i) Bathochromic shift: It occurs due to the presence of oxochrome or change in polarity of solvent. Ex: Conversion to phenol to phenolate ion causes.
Bathochromic shift ($n \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition)
- (ii) Hypsochromic shift (blue shift): It occurs due to Increase in polarity of solvent or removal of conjugation.

• It causes shift of absorption maximum to (ϵ_{max}) shorter wave length.

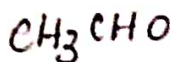
ex: Aniline absorbed at 280 nm. But in acidic solution blue shift occurs and absorption occurs at 203 nm.

- (iii) Hyperchromic shift: It occurs due to increase in intensity of absorption maximum (ϵ_{max}) ex: β band ($\pi \rightarrow \pi^*$ transition) for pyridine at 257 nm with ϵ_{max} 2750 shift to 262 nm with ϵ_{max} 3860 (methyl pyridine)

- (iv) Hypochromic shift: It occurs due to decrease in intensity of absorption maximum (ϵ_{max}) ex: Benzene absorb 230 nm with ϵ_{max} 11600 shift to 224 nm with ϵ_{max} 8700 (Benzoate)

Print

Q- Predict Give the Basic principle. of UV spectroscopy
 explain various types of Electronic Transition
 ? predict electronic transition in Acetaldehyde



• **Lambert's Beer Law** - It explain the quantitative Analysis of UV spectroscopy. it is represented as

$$A = \epsilon c l$$

A = absorbance at specific wave length
 ε = molar Absorptivity
 c = concentration.

• for two Solution

$$\frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{c_1}{c_2}$$

• For a solution of campher in hexane in a 10cm cell the absorbance (A) was found to be 2.52 at 295 nm with $\epsilon_{max} = 14$ what is the concentration of campher

we know that

$$A = \epsilon c l$$

$$l = 10 \text{ cm}$$

$$A = ?$$

$$\epsilon_{max} = 14$$

~~$$A = \epsilon c l$$~~

$$\frac{A_1}{A_2} = \frac{c_1}{c_2} = \frac{2.52}{295} \Rightarrow c =$$

$$c = 8.5 \times 10^{-3} \text{ M.}$$

~~$$A = 14 \times 8.5 \times 10^{-3} \times 10$$~~

$$A =$$

IR (INFRARED) SPECTROSCOPY [VIBRATION SPECTROSCOPY]

- It used for detection of functional groups in pure compounds and mixtures.
- It involve transition ~~to~~ shifting vibrational and rotational energy level of molecule in range of $(650 - 4000 \text{ cm}^{-1})$
- Infra red radiation do not have sufficient energy to cause the excitation of electrons.
- It causes atoms and groups of atoms ~~of~~ to vibrate.
- Some find structures obtained known as do

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