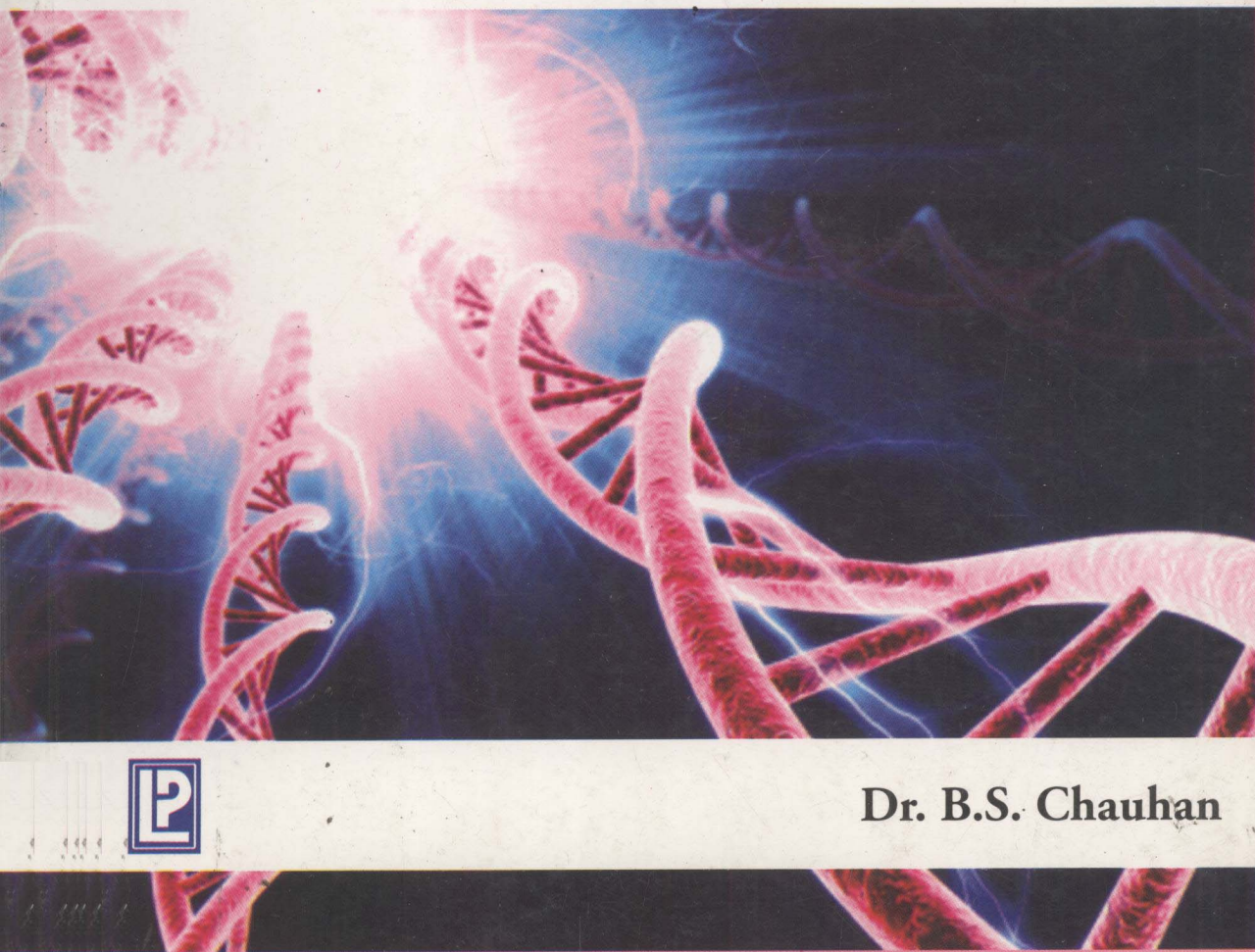


Second Edition

ENGINEERING CHEMISTRY



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ENGINEERING CHEMISTRY

*To My Parents With
Immense Love and Regard*

Preface

This book has been divided into sixteen chapters covering all the disciplines of engineering chemistry such as inorganic, organic, synthetic, physical, applied, industrial, spectroscopic, and environmental chemistry. The book is written with the requirements of engineering students in mind; *i.e.*, every aspect of a topic is dealt with, keeping the focus on engineering science. Key features of the book include a simple and holistic approach with a large number of illustrations and tables.

Chapter 1, titled *Spectroscopic Methods of Analysis*, describes basic principles of spectroscopic analysis in brief and UV, IR, NMR Mass, and AAS spectroscopy in depth with a number of solved examples. Chapter 2, *Polymer Chemistry*, discusses classification, characteristics and properties, molecular weight, crystallinity, structure and properties of polymers, commercially important polymers and biopolymers. Preparation, properties, and applications of *conducting polymers* have also been described. Chapter 3 describes general principles involved in organic chemistry, reaction intermediates and types of organic reactions with energy profile diagrams. Chapter 4 provides complete mechanism and applications of organic name reactions provided in syllabus. Chapter 5 describes various aspects of stereochemistry. Optical, geometrical and conformational isomerism in organic molecules is explained in a simple manner with energy profile diagrams. Chapter 6 elaborates on electrochemical principles, galvanic cells, electrode potential, electrochemical series, chemical cells, concentration cells, relation of thermodynamic functions with cell potential and the Nernst equation with a large number of numerical problems and examples. Chapter 7 deals with concepts of chemical kinetics such as rate of reaction, rate law, order and molecularity of reactions, first and second order rate equation, activation energy, theories of reaction rate, and complex reactions. Chapter 8 explains Gibbs Phase rule and its applications to water and sulphur systems. Chapter 9 deals with the theories of corrosion, factors affecting corrosion, types of corrosion, and corrosion control. Chapter 10 describes water chemistry, explaining water hardness, water softening by zeolite, lime-soda method and ion exchange resins, boiler feed water, waste water treatment, and reverse osmosis. Chapter 11 discusses classification and calorific value of fuels, coal analysis, liquid and gaseous fuels, and nonconventional energy sources such as solar energy, biomass and biogas. Chapter 12 describes environmental pollution, different pollutants, air pollution, acid rain, smog, and ozone chemistry. Chapter 13 explains valence bond theory, molecular orbital theory, metallic bonding, semiconductors, Born-Haber cycle and hydrogen bonding. Chapter 14 describes the concept of coordination compounds. Chapter 15 discusses solid state chemistry covering the topics crystal structure, unit cell, space lattice, cubic systems, laws of crystallography, Bragg's Law, graphite and fullerenes.

Chapter 16, titled *Experimental Chemistry*, explains basic principles of volumetric analysis, types of titrations, preparation of solutions, and experiments, including organic analysis. Exhaustive discussion is given at the end of each experiment as well as general discussion questions and answers on volumetry and organic analysis. Complete information regarding laboratory accidents and first aid is provided in the same chapter.

At the end, useful appendices and examination papers are provided.

I hope the book will prove a useful tool for students of undergraduate engineering classes. Critical suggestions from users on material presented are welcomed for the improvement of the book.

—Author

CONTENTS

CHAPTERS	PAGES
Chapter 1 Spectroscopic Methods of Analysis	1–54
1.1 Introduction	1
1.2 Electromagnetic Spectrum	1
1.3 Lambert-Beer or Beer's law	3
1.4 UV Spectroscopy	6
1.5 Infrared Spectroscopy	17
1.6 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) Spectroscopy	32
1.7 Mass Spectroscopy	42
1.8 Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer (AAS)	48
<i>Question Bank</i>	50
Chapter 2 Polymer Chemistry	55–105
2.1 Introduction	55
2.2 Classification of Polymers	55
2.3 Characteristics and Properties of Polymers	58
2.4 Copolymerization	66
2.5 Addition Polymerization	68
2.6 Condensation Polymerization	83
2.7 Conducting Polymers	87
2.8 Biopolymers	92
<i>Solved Problems</i>	100
<i>Question Bank</i>	102
Chapter 3 General Organic Chemistry	106–128
3.1 Introduction	106
3.2 Electronic Displacements in Organic Molecules	106
3.3 Bond Fission in Organic Molecules	114
3.4 Reaction Intermediates	114
3.5 Types of Reagents	120
3.6 Types of Organic Reactions	120
<i>Question Bank</i>	127

Chapter 4	Organic Name Reactions	129–151
4.1	Beckmann Rearrangement	129
4.2	Hoffmann Reaction or Rearrangement	132
4.3	Cannizaro Reaction	134
4.4	Aldol Condensation	137
4.5	Friedal Craft Reactions	141
4.6	Diels-Alder Reaction	143
4.7	Reimer-Tiemann Reaction	146
4.8	Skraup's Synthesis	148
	<i>Question Bank</i>	150
Chapter 5	Stereoisomerism	152–183
5.1	Introduction	152
5.2	Enantiomerism or Optical Isomerism	153
5.3	Geometrical Isomerism	168
5.4	Conformational Analysis	175
5.5	Optical Activity without Chirality	180
	<i>Question Bank</i>	182
Chapter 6	Electrochemistry and Ionic Equilibrium	184–225
6.1	Introduction	184
6.2	Electrochemical Cells or Galvanic Cells	184
6.3	Electrode Potential (Reduction Potential)	192
6.4	Electrochemical Series	195
6.5	Types of Cells	203
6.6	Cell Potential Measurement and Thermodynamic Functions	207
6.7	EMF of the Cell and Equilibrium Constant of a Cell Reaction	209
6.8	The Nernst Equation	210
	<i>Solved Problems</i>	213
	<i>Question Bank</i>	223
Chapter 7	Chemical Kinetics	226–281
7.1	Rate of a Chemical Reaction	226
7.2	Average and Instantaneous Rate of a Reaction	226
7.3	Rate Law and Rate Constant	227
7.4	Order of a Reaction	229
7.5	Zero Order Reactions	230
7.6	Molecularity of a Reaction	230
7.7	Pseudo-Unimolecular Reaction	233
7.8	Integrated Rate Equations	233
7.9	Characteristics of 1st and 2nd Order Reactions	238

7.10	Determination of Order of Reaction	240
7.11	Effect of Temperature on Rate of Reaction	243
7.12	Theories of Reaction Rate	247
7.13	Complex Reactions	249
	<i>Solved Problems</i>	258
	<i>Question Bank</i>	279
Chapter 8	Phase Equilibrium—The Phase Rule	282—294
8.1	Introduction	282
8.2	Phase	282
8.3	Component	283
8.4	Degree of Freedom	284
8.5	The Phase Rule	284
	<i>Solved Problems</i>	290
	<i>Question Bank</i>	293
Chapter 9	Corrosion	295—313
9.1	Introduction	295
9.2	Theories of Corrosion	295
9.3	Cause of Corrosion	300
9.4	Factors Affecting Corrosion	301
9.5	Types of Corrosion	302
9.6	Corrosion Control	305
9.7	Passivity	310
	<i>Question Bank</i>	312
Chapter 10	Water and Water Treatment	314—355
10.1	Hardness of Water	314
10.2	Characteristics Imparted by Impurities in Water	319
10.3	Softening of Water or Water Treatment	320
10.4	Boiler Feed Water	333
10.5	Wastewater Treatment	340
10.6	Reverse Osmosis (RO)	343
	<i>Solved Problems</i>	348
	<i>Question Bank</i>	354
Chapter 11	Fuels	356—393
11.1	Introduction	356
11.2	Classification of Fuels	356
11.3	Characteristics of a Good Fuel	357
11.4	Calorific Value of a Fuel	358
11.5	Solid Fuels	361
11.6	Selection of Coal	363

11.7	Analysis of Coal	364
11.8	Liquid Fuels	367
11.9	Gaseous Fuels	371
11.10	Comparative Assessment of Fuels	375
11.11	Nonconventional Energy Sources	376
11.12	Solar Energy	377
11.13	Biomass and Biomass Energy	379
11.14	Biogas	380
11.15	Combustion Reactions	381
	<i>Solved Problems</i>	382
	<i>Question Bank</i>	391

Chapter 12 Environmental Pollution **394—413**

12.1	Introduction	394
12.2	Origin of Pollution	395
12.3	Pollutants	396
12.4	Classification of Pollutants	397
12.5	Types of Pollution	398
12.6	Air Pollution	398
12.7	Acid Rain	406
12.8	Smog Formation	407
12.9	Effects of Air Pollution	409
12.10	Ozone Chemistry	410
	<i>Question Bank</i>	412

Chapter 13 Advanced Theory of Chemical Bonding **414—461**

13.1	Valence Bond Theory of Bonding	414
13.2	Shapes of Molecules	419
13.3	Molecular Orbital Theory	428
13.4	Shapes of Molecular Orbitals	431
13.5	Theories of Metallic Bonding	442
13.6	Semiconductors	447
13.7	The Born-Haber Cycle	450
13.8	Hydrogen Bonding	453
	<i>Question Bank</i>	459

Chapter 14 Coordination Chemistry **462—487**

14.1	Introduction and Terminology	462
14.2	Classification of Ligands	463
14.3	Rules for Naming of Coordination Compounds	465
14.4	Theories of Coordination Compounds	469
	<i>Question Bank</i>	485

Chapter 15 Solid State Chemistry	488—530
15.1 Introduction	488
15.2 Types of Solids	488
15.3 Crystal Structure	491
15.4 Laws of Crystallography	505
15.5 Diffraction of X-Rays by Crystal	509
15.6 Bragg's Law	510
15.7 Allotropes of Carbon	516
15.8 Fullerenes	519
<i>Solved Problems</i>	521
<i>Question Bank</i>	528
Chapter 16 Experimental Chemistry	531—612
16.1 Volumetric Analysis	531
16.2 General Instructions for Volumetry	539
16.3 Preparation of Solutions	546
16.4 Experiments	555
16.5 General Discussion on Volumetric Analysis	607
16.6 Laboratory Accidents and First Aid	609
Appendices	613—618
Examination Papers	619—642
Index	643—652

SPECTROSCOPIC METHODS OF ANALYSIS

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Molecular spectroscopy is defined as *the study of interaction of electromagnetic radiations with matter*. It provides valuable information regarding molecular structure such as molecular symmetry, bond distances, bond angles; chemical structure such as chemical properties, electronic distribution, bond strength, molecular reactions; and thermodynamic properties.

1.2 ELECTROMAGNETIC SPECTRUM

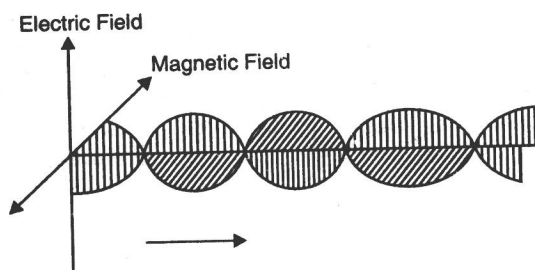


FIGURE 1.1 Beam of electromagnetic radiation according to wave nature concept.

An electromagnetic radiation is a form of energy that is transmitted through space at an enormous velocity. Quantum mechanics suggests that electromagnetic radiation has a dual character, *i.e.*, exhibiting wave as well as particle behavior. According to wave nature of radiations, the electromagnetic

wave consists of oscillating electric and magnetic fields. The vectors of electric and magnetic fields are perpendicular to the direction of propagation of radiations (Figure 1.1).

The electromagnetic spectrum extends from the radio wave to the microwave, infrared, visible, and ultraviolet regions. Beyond these are X-ray, gamma ray, and cosmic ray regions shown in Figure 1.2.

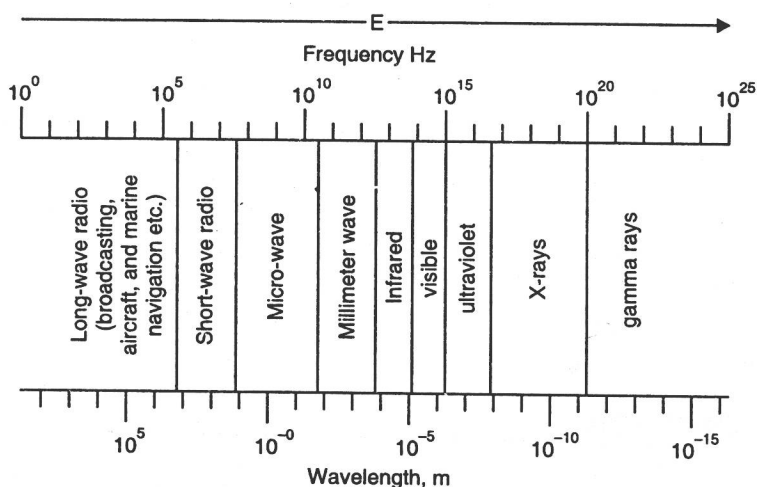


FIGURE 1.2 Various regions of the electromagnetic spectrum.

TABLE 1.1 Some Components of the Electromagnetic Spectrum

Type of Spectra	Wavelength	Energy in kcal/mol	Effect on the Molecule
1. Ultraviolet	200–400 nm	143–82	Changes in electronic energy levels within the molecule.
2. Visible	400–800 nm	82–36	Changes in electronic energy levels within the molecule.
3. Infrared	2–16 μm	14.3–1.8	Changes in vibrational and rotational movements of the molecule.
4. Nuclear magnetic resonance			Induces changes in the magnetic energy levels of certain nuclei.

The wavelengths of visible light range from 400 nm (violet) to 800 nm (red). The *visible region* however, is a very small part of the entire electromagnetic spectrum. Wavelengths slightly shorter than those of the visible fall into *ultraviolet region*, while slightly longer wavelengths fall into *infrared region*. Some components of the electromagnetic spectrum are listed in Table 1.1 along with their wavelength, the energy associated with them, and the type of effect they are capable of producing in a molecule.

Common symbols used in spectroscopy are given in Table 1.2.

TABLE 1.2 Symbols Used in Spectroscopy

Symbol	Definition
ν	Frequency in Hz cycles per second.
λ	Wavelength.
μm	Micrometre, same as micron (μ), 10^{-6} m.
\AA	Angstrom, 10^{-10} m or 10^{-12} cm.
cm^{-1}	Wave number, frequency in reciprocal or $1/\lambda$.

1.3 LAMBERT-BEER OR BEER'S LAW

Lambert's law states that, *when a monochromatic light is passed through a solution, the decrease in the intensity of light with the thickness of the solution is directly proportional to the intensity of incident light.*

$$I_t = I_o e^{-kx} \quad (1.1)$$

where,

I_t = intensity of the transmitted light

I_o = intensity of the incident light

x = thickness of the medium or the length of the solution

k = absorption coefficient

Beer's law an extension of Lambert's law states that, *when a monochromatic light is passed through a solution, the decrease in the intensity of light with the thickness of the solution is directly proportional to intensity of incident light as well as the concentration of the solution.*

$$I = I_o e^{-\epsilon cx} \quad (1.2)$$

where, ϵ = Molar absorption coefficient

c = concentration of solution

The equation (1.2) may be written

$$\frac{I}{I_o} = e^{-\epsilon cx}$$

$$\log \frac{I}{I_o} = -\epsilon cx$$

where, $\frac{I}{I_o}$ is called *transmittance*, T and, $-\log \frac{I}{I_o} = -\log T$ and is called *absorbance*.

$$-\log \frac{I}{I_o} = -\log T = A$$

$$\therefore A = \epsilon cx \quad (1.3)$$

$$\epsilon = \frac{A}{cx}$$

where, ϵ = molar absorbing coefficient

c = molar concentration

x = path length in centimeters

The magnitude of the molar absorption coefficient is directly related to the probability of a particular transition.

$$\epsilon_{\max} = 0.87 \times 10^{20} \text{ P.a.}$$

P = Transition probability with values ranging from 0 to 1.

a = Target area of the absorbing system.

Generally transitions with ϵ_{\max} value more than 10^4 are called *allowed transitions* and ϵ_{\max} value less than 10^4 are called *forbidden transitions*.

The instrument used for absorption measurement is composed of various instruments. For example, colorimeters or spectrometers are constructed according to the following general scheme (Figure 1.3).

1. **Light source.** In the infrared region, the source of heat radiations is Nernst glower or globar. In the Nernst glower, the filament consists of a mixture of oxides of the cerium and thorium, which are kept at high temperature ($\sim 1500^\circ\text{C}$) electrically. For more rarely studied regions (25 to 1000μ), sources like the Welsbach lamp (a quartz-jacketed mercury arc), strongly heated glass, etc. have been used. However, the radiation is not monochromatic, and for use in spectrographs it must be followed by some dispersing element.

In the visible-UV region, the usual sources are incandescent lamps or many types of discharge tubes such as hydrogen discharge lamps, deuterium lamps, and mercury arc. In Raman spectrometer, the source is mercury arc.

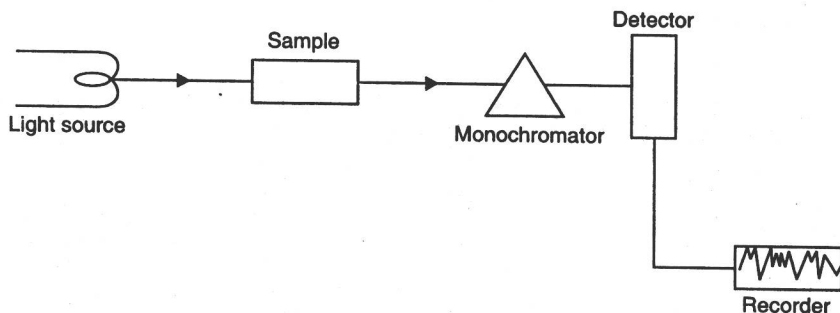


FIGURE 1.3 A simple sketch of absorption measurement instruments.

2. **The sample container.** The sample is placed in the sample container. The windows of the sample must be chemically resistant to the sample. In the visible-ultraviolet regions,

glass or quartz windows are used. In the infrared region, NaCl and KBr windows are used. For the study of aqueous solutions, AgCl windows are necessary. The length of the sample container is 0.91 mm to 01 mm for solid and liquid samples. Gas samples are usually contained in cells 5 cm to 10 cm long.

3. **The monochromator.** Except for microwave spectroscopy, some element is necessary by means of which the radiations can be separated in space according to wavelength, after it has passed the sample. This part of the spectrometer is known as monochromator. Its principal part is a dispersing element, *viz*, a prism or grating. Sometimes filters transparent over limited wavelength ranges can be used in combination with gratings.
4. **The detector.** In all spectrometers, the emitted radiations from the sample must be analyzed with regard to radiation intensity as a function. The radiation energy is measured by transforming it to some other forms of energy, usually electrical energy. The "transformer" is called the detector.

In the microwave region, the detector is a crystal rectifier. At the higher frequencies in the infrared region, thermocouples are used. In the visible and the ultraviolet region the photocells are used.

5. **Spectrum recording.** When there is no sample present, the detector output will be constant over the range of frequencies covered by the instrument. However, when the radiations are passed through a sample, having just two possible energy levels E_1 and E_2 , the detector output will show a sudden fall at frequency given by $\nu = [(E_2 - E_1)/h]$. It means some energy at this frequency will be absorbed by the sample and it no longer reaches the detector. The resulting trace on chart paper records the detector output on the percentage of the energy absorbed by the sample on the light (I). The spectrum has been scanned between the beginning and ending frequencies. Such a spectrum is referred to as 'frequency domain', which indicates record of detector output against frequency.

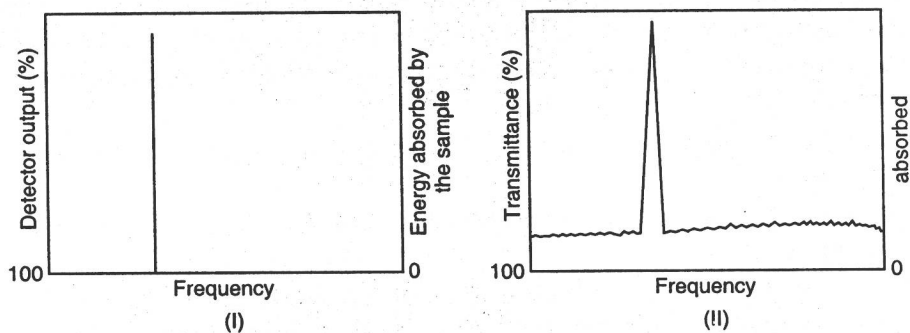


FIGURE 1.4

It is evident from the record (II) that the ideal situation represented in (I) is seldom attained. Thus, the base line is seldom horizontal (as represented in ideal situation). The reasons for this are:

- It is impossible to make the slits infinitely narrow. Therefore, a range of frequencies rather than a single frequency reaches the detector.
- Energy transitions in atoms or molecules are not absolutely sharp but always occur over a range of frequencies.