# Modern Quantitative Analysis Experiments for Non-Chemistry Majors

GEORGE G. GUILBAULT

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> MARCEL DEKKER, INC. 305 East 45th Street, New York, New York 10017

LIBRARY OF CONGRESS CATALOG CARD NUMBER: 73-86817

ISBN: 0-8247-6106-5

Current printing (last digit)

10 9 8 7 6 5 4 3 2 1

PRINTED IN THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

## PREFACE

Although there are many laboratory manuals available for courses in quantitative analysis, emphasis in these is placed on classical experiments or on techniques useful to students whose primary interest is chemistry. For several years at Louisiana State University in New Orleans, experiments have been introduced that were oriented to non-chemistry majors, which were modern, relevant and interesting to students in other fields, i. e., clinical chemistry, medical technology, biology, medicine, dentistry, pharmacy, veterinary science, etc. The experiments were carefully designed to be challenging and non "cook-book" in nature, and were intended to demonstrate the general importance and applicability of quantitative analysis to their fields of interest. A resurgence of interest and enthusiasm from the students performing these experiments, and a belief that these experiments would be of interest and benefit to students at other colleges and universities prompted the author to write this manual. All of the experiments are reliable and can be performed by sophomore, junior or senior level students with little difficulty.

This manual is intended to complement, rather than replace, available texts in quantitative analysis, and to provide experiments that demonstrate the principles learned in a course in modern quantitative analysis, such as that taught in a chemistry department or at a pharmacy or medical school. Each chapter is preceded by a short resume of the basic theory applicable to the experiments in the chapter. Each experiment is supplemented with a short, concise discussion of the principles upon which the experiment is based. This material helps to insure that the student gains sufficient understanding of the method and the object of the experiment, so that each experiment is a profitable experience.

A selected bibliography is provided at the end of each chapter as a source of additional information. Each experiment contains a discussion of the experiment, a brief, pertinent reference section, a list of all apparatus and reagents needed to perform the experiment, the procedure to be followed, an outline of the calculations to be performed, and a list of questions designed to test the

viii PREFACE

students' grasp of the experiment.

The manual is divided into 4 main sections:

Part I — Titrimetry, which consists of experiments in acid-base, redox and complexometric titrations.

Part II — Electrochemical Methods, which is subdivided into potentiometry, amperometry and coulometry.

Part III — Optical Methods, which is subdivided into molecular absorption, molecular emission and atomic absorption and emission spectroscopy.

Part IV — Separation Methods, which contains sections on gas chromatography, electrophoresis, ion exchange, liquid-solid, TLC and gel filtration.

This laboratory manual was designed for use in non-chemistry majors quantitative analysis courses, in both large and small universities. Experiments are provided covering a range of levels of achievement, and have been designed utilizing equipment normally available in most laboratories.

Almost all of the experiments can be performed in a single 3 to 4 hour laboratory period when properly planned and prepared in advance by a laboratory instructor. It is anticipated that most courses will have time for only about 15 of these experiments -- 30 have been provided so that sufficient latitude exists for selection of a set of experiments designed for the needs of the particular students in different disciplines. Although primarily intended for those in the bio-medical areas, the manual should prove useful for any course in modern chemical analysis.

Experiments in the classical areas of quantitative analysis, i.e., gravimetry, have been purposefully left out since there are very few modern labs that currently do analysis of this type today. Emphasis has been placed, rather, on new modern techniques, i.e., ion-selective electrodes, atomic absorption, electrophoresis, TLC, DEAE-ion exchange, fluorescence, etc. Furthermore, it was intended to provide relevant experiments for bio-medical students, i.e., chloride in blood by complexometric titration and by coulometry; glucose in blood spectrophotometrically and amperometrically; urea and cholesterol in blood spectrophotometrically; Mg<sup>++</sup> in blood by fluorescence; separation and identification of pharmaceutical products by TLC, etc.

The author wishes to acknowledge the suggestions and advance of colleagues and students, especially those who have helped design experiments used in this manual: Dr. Larry Hargis, who co-authored the book on Modern Instrumental Analysis, some of the experiments from which are contained herein; Dr. Mary Good, who first sparked the interest of students at LSUNO

PREFACE

in quantitative analysis with her manual, Separations and Analysis; Dr. S. S. Kuan, who designed some of the separations experiments, and Dr. T. Rohm, who designed the coulometry experiment, as well as those whose open literature publications suggested some of the experiments outlined herein. In addition, I would like to thank Mrs. Mercedes Weiser who typed the entire book for photo-offset printing.

George G. Guilbault

Part I TITRIMETRY

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## CONTENTS

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Preface	be rechief	vii
101	who are a strong to the control of t	A TOPERS
PART I TIT	RIMETRY TO THE SECOND OF THE S	
181	18 Resembly Grain at the Edwine Challenge work	
Chapter 1.	Acid-Base Titrimetry  1. Determination of Bicarbonate in Blood  2. Nonaqueous Titration of an Organic Base	1 6 10
PEA. IN	. 20 Cutestation to be 2000 in Growth Albania About the	
Chapter 2.	Redox Titrimetry 3. Titrimetric Assay of Copper	15 20
Chapter 3.	Complexation 4. Determination of Total Hardness of Water 5. Titration of Chloride in Blood with Mercuric Ion	25 29 33
PART II EI	ECTROCHEMICAL METHODS	
	A CONTRACTOR OF THE PARTY OF TH	
Chapter 4.	Potentiometry  6. pH Titration of Organic Acids: Determination of	39
	Ionization Constants	42
	7. Evaluation of a Specific-Ion Electrode	49
Chapter 5.	Amperometry 8. Determination of Glucose: An Enzyme Kinetics	51 404 (55)
143	Experiment	59
Chapter 6.	Coulometry	65
(194)	<ol> <li>Coulometric Determination of Chloride in Serum, Sweat, and Urine</li> </ol>	68

iv CONTENTS

PART III O	PTICAL METHODS	
Chapter 7.	Molecular Absorption	75
	10. Determination of Glucose in Blood by	90
	Spectrophotometry 11. Assay of Serum Albumin by Methyl Orange	- 80
	Binding	84
	12. Spectrophotometric Assay of Cholesterol	87
	13. Assay of Blood Urea Nitrogen (BUN)	92
•	14. Determination of Phosphate in Blood Serum by a Reaction-Rate Method	96
	15. Determination of a Mixture of Organic Compounds	
	by Infrared	100
Chapter 8.	Molecular Emission	107
	16. Magnesium in Serum by Fluorescence	112.
	17. Assay of Phenylalanine by Fluorescence 18. Reaction-Rate Analysis of the Enzyme	116
	Cholinesterase	121
	the Acid-Parenting and State of the Acid-Parenting and A	Charten
Chapter 9.	Atomic Absorption and Emission  19. Determination of Sodium and Magnesium in Blood	127
	20. Determination of Zinc in Urine by Atomic Absorption	138
71		Chapter
	de la Linea de la company de partir de la company de la co	
PART IV SI	EPARATION METHODS	
	Determination of Torotte advess of Walking	
Chapter 10.	Gas Chromatography	143
	21. A Study of Some Important Parameters in Gas	
	Chromatography	148
1	22. Separation and Determination of Organic Mixtures by Gas Chromatography	153
	by das chromatography	
Chapter 11.	Electrophoresis	159
	23. Electrophoretic Separation of Enzymes 24. Separation of LDH Isoenzymes by Serum	163
	24. Separation of LDH Isoenzymes by Serum Electrophoresis	171
Chapter 12.	Ion Exchange	177
	25. Organic Ion-Exchange Resins. Separation of Proteins on DEAE	184
	26. Separation of Cobalt and Nickelon an Anion Exchange	
E3	Column Column	191
	- H. Conton state Determination of Chloride to Secure	
Chapter 13.	Liquid-Solid Chromatography	197
	27. Determination of Urinary Phosphobilinogen by	
	Column Chromatography	197
	28. Thin Layer Chromatography: Separation and Identification of Pesticides	203
	29. TLC of Pharmaceuticals	208
	30. Gel Filtration	212

212

CONTENTS

## APPENDIXES

I.	Balances	21	19
II.	Common Volumetric Procedures	22	23
III.	Selection of Fluorescence Filters	22	25
IV.	Ionization Constants of Acids	22	29
V.	Solubility Product Constants	23	33
VI.	Formation Constants of Some Metal Complexes	23	37
VII.	Oxidation Potentials from Latimer's Oxidation		
	Potentials	23	39
/III.	Common Reference Electrodes	24	43

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## ACID-BASE TITRIMETRY

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The determination of an acid by titration with a base or the assay of a base by reaction with acid is one of the oldest and most widely used volumetric methods. In these determinations a measured sample of the acid or base is dissolved or diluted in water and titrated with a "standard" acid or base. The standard solution is of known concentration, hence, the amount of sample can be calculated by determining the number of equivalents of titrant required for complete reaction:

Volume of titrant (liter) x normality of titrant = number of
equivalents of acid or base (1)

or

Volume of acid x normality of acid = volume of base (liter) x

normality of base (2)

The number of equivalents of the sample can be calculated from Eq. (1). The amount of sample in grams can easily be determined from Eq. (3).

Grams of sample = equivalents of sample x gram-equivalent weight

of sample (3)

or

Grams of sample = liter x N x g-equiv. wt.

Before any given acid-base reaction can be used as the basis of a volumetric determination a number of requirements must be met:

 The acid-base reaction involved in the determination must be rapid and stoichiometric, and go essentially to completion.

- 2. A method for determining the equivalent point (equal equivalents of acid and base) must be available. This might be the use of a chemical indicator or a physicochemical method such as potentiometry.
  - 3. A standard solution must be available for use as a titrant.

The standard solution can be prepared by accurately weighing out an acid or base (a primary standard) and diluting it to a known volume. A primary standard material must be chemically pure, easily weighed (not hygroscopic, etc.), and must react completely with the material to be determined. Very often the standard solution desired cannot be prepared directly and must be standardized against a primary standard solution. A good example is a standard solution of NaOH. Solid NaOH is very hygroscopic and difficult to weigh accurately; thus standard solutions of NaOH must be prepared by standardization against a primary standard acid. A standard solution prepared in this fashion is referred to as a secondary standard.

Acid-base reactions that have small equilibrium constants, such as reactions between weak acids and weak bases, are not useful for volumetric determinations. Reactions between strong acids and weak bases or strong bases and weak acids are possible provided the concentrations are maintained at fairly high levels (i. e. ,  $0.1~\mathrm{M}$ ) and the equilibrium constant for the weak acid or base is not too small (  $>10^{-7}$ ).

## INDICATION OF EQUIVALENCE POINT

Suitable chemical indicators include the classic colorimetric compounds which exhibit different colors in acid and basic solution. These compounds are usually either weak acids or weak bases and ionize as follows:

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Craims of according sequivalents of sample x stam of

or

where I represents all of the indicator compound except the acid or base form.

If the nonionized compound has one color and the ion another, the compound can

be used as an acid-base indicator. The value of the ionization constant  $(K_i)$  will determine the pH at which the indicator color change will occur. For example, if the indicator is of the weak acid type:

$$K_{i} = \frac{H^{+}|I^{+}|I^{-}|}{(H)}$$
 of ["I] the second s

changing in the pH range 4 R must be used, such as bromphenel blug

and

$$[H^{+}] = K_{i} \frac{[HI]}{[I]}$$

$$(5)$$

In basic solution the ionized I will be in excess and in acid solution the nonionized HI will predominate. Thus Eq. (5) can be rewritten:

$$[H^{+}] = K_{i} - \frac{[acid color]}{[basic color]}$$
(6)

For the acid color to be distinct the ratio of  $[HI]/[I^-]$  must be about 10 and for the basic color to predominate the ratio must be about 0.1; i.e.,  $[H^+]$  for the acid color will be approximately 10 K<sub>1</sub> and for the basic color it will be about 0.1 K<sub>1</sub>. For example, if K<sub>1</sub> = 1 x 10<sup>-5</sup>, then the  $[H^+]$  for the acid color would be 1 x 10<sup>-6</sup> (pH = 4), and for the basic color it would be 1 x 10<sup>-6</sup> (pH = 6). Thus the color change of the indicator will be at a pH = pK<sub>1</sub> ± 1, and an indicator should be chosen whose pK approximately equals the pH expected at the end point of the titration. Some common acid-base indicators and the pH over which they change color are presented in Table 1. In acid-base

Acid-Base Indicators

el electrode and a relete	Acid for	Acid form		Base form	
Indicator and the same	total beg Colorse A:	pH	an Color on	insHqleol	
Thymol blue	Red	1. 2	Yellow	2.8	
Bromphenol blue	Yellow	3.0	Purple	4.6	
Methyl orange .	Red	3.1	Yellow	4. 4	
Methyl red	Red	4. 2	Yellow	6. 2	
Bromthymol blue	Yellow	6.0	Blue	76	
Phenol red	Yellow	6.4	Red	8.0	
Thymol blue	Yellow	8.0	Blue	9.6	
Phenolphthalein	Colorless	8.0	Red	9.8	

AIG. 2. Analysis of illigation curve, (a) Graphical method; (b) first derivative method.

reactions where a rapid change in pH occurs near the equivalence point [Fig. 1(a), 2] any indicator in Table 1 could be used. However, for a weak acid titrated with strong base [curve 1, Fig. 1(a)] an indicator changing in the pH range 8-11 must be used, such as phenolphthalein. For the titration of a weak base, such as ammonia, with a strong acid, e.g., HCl, an indicator changing in the pH range 4-7 must be used, such as bromphenol blue [Curve 4, Fig. 1 (b)].

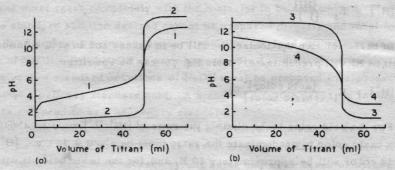


FIG. 1. Typical titration curves for acids (a) and bases (b). (1) Weak acid-strong base (i.e., acetic with NaOH); (2) strong acid-strong base (i.e., HCl with NaOH); (3) strong base-strong acid (i.e., NaOH with HCl); (4) weak base-strong acid (i.e., NH<sub>3</sub> with HCl).

Alternatively, it is possible to determine the equivalence point of an acid-base reaction by a potentiometric titration using a pH meter. With a pH meter one can read the pH after successive additions of titrant so that a complete titration curve (pH vs volume of titrant) can be constructed (Fig. 2). Proper analysis of this curve will indicate the equivalence point. In such a titration two electrodes, usually a standard calomel electrode and a reference glass electrode are used, which are plugged into the pH meter. The glass

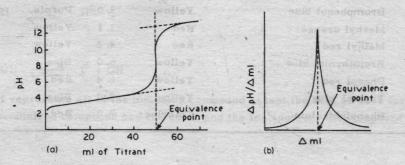


FIG. 2. Analysis of titration curve. (a) Graphical method; (b) first derivative method.

electrode-calomel electrode system behaves as an electrochemical cell; changes in the total potential occur as the  $[H^{\dagger}]$  is increased or decreased. A schematic of the total cell is as follows:

The potential of the system is defined as

$$E = k + 0.0591 \text{ pH}$$
 (7)

The potential of the cell system is displayed on a meter (usually in pH units) and the particular pH meter is standardized with a set of solutions of known pH.

The end point of the titration can be determined either graphically [Fig. 2(a)] where the equivalence point is defined as the midpoint of the rapidly changing portion of the curve, or by the first derivative method [Fig. 2(b)] as the point at which the curve reaches a maximum.

## MEDIA FOR TITRATION

Acid-base titrations can be performed in either aqueous (i. e., H<sub>2</sub>O) or nonaqueous solution. In this chapter two experiments are given. The first describes the aqueous titration of bicarbonate in blood; the second, the non-aqueous titration of an organic base. In both experiments, chemical indicators are used to determine the end point of the titration. The use of potentiometry to determine the end point of a titration is demonstrated in Experiment 6 of Chapter 4.

## Suggested Readings

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- R. A. Day and A. L. Underwood, Quantitative Analysis, 2nd ed.,
  Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 1967, Ch. 4.
- J. S. Fritz and G. H. Schenk, Quantitative Analytical Chemistry, Allyn and Bacon, Boston, Mass., 1969, Ch. 8, 9.

Experiment 1

DETERMINATION OF BICARBONATE IN BLOOD

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PURPOSE

The titration, in aqueous solution, of bicarbonate ion in blood is demonstrated. Sodium hydroxide is used as titrant.

## Suggested Reading

N. W. Tietz, <u>Fundamentals of Clinical Chemistry</u>, Saunders, Philadelphia, Pa., 1970, pp. 625-636.

THEORY

About 95% of all of the CO<sub>2</sub> in human blood exists as bicarbonate ion, HCO<sub>3</sub>; the remainder exists as dissolved CO<sub>2</sub>. The pH of blood is controlled very rigidly at 7.4 because of the CO<sub>2</sub>-bicarbonate equilibrium in blood (Henderson-Hasselbach equation). Standard nomograms are available that relate the pH, CO<sub>2</sub>, and HCO<sub>3</sub> concentrations (thus an assay of two of these variables allow calculation of the third):

$$pH = pK + log \frac{[HCO_3]}{[CO_2]}$$

The clinical laboratory uses the assay of  $HCO_3$  as a diagnostic aid. Bicarbonate is determined by adding an excess of 0.01 M HCl to volatilize the  $HCO_3$  as  $CO_2$ , swirling to allow the  $CO_2$  to escape, and then backtitrating the excess HCl with 0.01 M NaOH.

#### APPARATUS

Analytical balance

Burets: 10-ml (1), 50-ml (1)

Pipets: 0.1-ml(1), 1.00-ml(1), 4-ml(1), 6-ml(1), 50-ml(2)

Volumetric flasks: 100-ml (1), 500-ml (1), 1-liter (2)

Erlenmeyer flasks: 25-ml (4), 250-ml (4)

Meker burner (1)

Gooch crucible (1)

Test-tubes (2)

Bottle: 1-liter (1)

Florence flask: 1-liter (1)

## REAGENTS AND SOLUTIONS

 $1\,\%$  Saline solution — Prepare by dissolving about 10 g of NaCl in 1.0 l of CO  $_2$  -free water.

Cardina anticon, at textile disease the englished and the feet period a september

HCl, concentrated

NaOH, C. P. pellets

Phenol red indicator — Prepare by grinding 0.1 g of phenol red (phenolsulfonaphthalein) in a mortar with 5.7 ml of 0.05 M NaOH. Transfer to a 100-ml volumetric flask and dilute to the mark with CO<sub>2</sub>-free water.

Phenolphthalein indicator — Dissolve 1.0 g of phenolphthalein powder in 90 ml of alcohol. Dilute to 100 ml with distilled water.

Antifoam A (Dow Corning Corporation)

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Serum (obtain from a local hospital) — A 10-15 ml sample (20-30 ml of whole blood) should be adequate for triplicate determinations by a class of 30 students. The analysis should be performed on the day the blood is drawn. Fluoride should be added to prevent glycolysis, or breakdown of glucose, which can change the pH. The fluoride inhibits the glycolysis-causing enzyme and stabilizes the pH for about 2 hr. Touch the end of a stirring rod to antifoam A and rotate it in the pooled serum sample. This will prevent excess foaming when the sample is swirled.