## INORGANIC, ORGANIC AND PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY-III Subject Code: 18K3CH04

#### UNIT – II

### REACTIVE INTERMEDIATES, ALKYL AND ARYL HALIDES AND GRIGNARD REAGENT

#### **TWO MARKS**

- 1. What are reaction intermediates?
- 2. What are carbanions? Give an example.
- 3. What are carbonium ions?
- 4. What is meant by carbenes?
- 5. Give the general formula for alkyl halides.
- 6. Mention the classification of alkyl halides.
- 7. How is alkyl halides prepared?
- 8. What are aryl halides?
- 9. How is chlorobenzene prepared?
- 10. What are Grignard reagents?

#### **FIVE MARKS**

- 1. Write notes on stability of carbonium ions.
- 2. Write notes on carbenes with suitable example.
- 3. How are alkyl halides prepared? Describe their synthetic utility?
- 4. Write the preparation of aryl halides.
- 5. Write the physical and chemical properties of aryl halides.
- 6. How will you synthesise DDT from chlorobenzene?

#### **TEN MARKS**

- 1. Describe homolytic and heterolytic fission of a covalent bond.
- 2. Explain the relative stability of primary, secondary and tertiary carbonium ions.
- 3. Explain the relative stability of primary, secondary and tertiary carbanions.
- 4. Give the preparation and properties of alyll halides.
- 5. What are Grignard reagents? Describe their preparation and synthetic uses.

6. How is methyl magnesium iodide prepared? Using methyl magnesium iodide how will you prepare a primary, secondary and tertiary alcohol.

#### **REACTION INTERMEDIATES**

Definition. Many intermediates are short-lived and highly reactive, thus having a low concentration in the reaction mixture. As is always the case when discussing chemical kinetics, definitions like fast/slow short/long-lived are relative, and depend on the relative rates of all the reactions involved.

.Carbocations

.Carbanions

.Carbenes

.Arenium ions

.Benzynes

Synthetic intermediate are stable products which are prepared, isolated and purified and subsequently used as starting materials in a synthetic sequence. Reactive intermediate, on the other hand, are short lived and their importance lies in the assignment of reaction mechanisms on the pathway from the starting substrate to stable products. These reactive intermediates are not isolated, but are detected by spectroscopic methods, or trapped chemically or their presence is confirmed by indirect evidence.

• Carbocations

Carbocations are the key intermediates in several reactions and particularly in nucleophilic substitution reactions.

Structure of Carbocations : Generally, in the carbocations the positively charged carbon atom is bonded to three other atoms and has no nonbonding electrons. It is  $sp^2$  hybridized with a planar structure and bond angles of about  $120^{\circ}$ . There is a vacant unhybridized p orbital which in the case of  $CH_3^+$  lies perpendicular to the plane of C—H bonds.



Stability of Carbocations: There is an increase in carbocation stability with additional alkyl substitution. Thus one finds that addition of HX to three typical olefins decreases in the order  $(CH_3)_2C=CH_2>CH_3$ — $CH = CH_2 > CH_2 = CH_2$ . This is due to the relative stabilities of the carbocations formed in the rate determining step which in turn follows from the fact that the stability is increased by the electron releasing methyl group (+I), three such groups being more effective than two, and two more effective than one.



Stability of carbocations  $3^{\circ} > 2^{\circ} > 1^{\circ} > CH_{3^{+}}$ 

Electron release : Disperses charge, stabilizes ion.

Further, any structural feature which tends to reduce the electron deficiency at the tricoordinate carbon stabilizes the carbocation. Thus when the positive carbon is in conjugation with a double bond, the stability is more. This is so, because due to resonance the positive charge is spread over two atoms instead of being concentrated on only one. This explains the stability associated with the allylic cation. The benzylic cations are stable, since one can draw canonical forms as for allylic cations.



The benzyl cation stability is affected by the presence of substituents on the ring. Electron donating p-methoxy and p-amino groups stabilize the carbocation by 14 and 26 kcal/mole, respectively. The electron withdrawing groups like p-nitro destabilize by 20 kcal/mol.

A hetero atom with an unshared pair of electrons when present adjacent to the cationic centre strongly stabilizes the carbocation. The methoxymethyl cation has been obtained as a stable solid  $CH_3O^+CH_2SbF_6^-$ . Cyclopropylmethyl cations are even more stable than the benzyl cations. This special stability is a result of conjugation between the bent orbitals of the cyclopropyl ring and the vacant p orbital of the cationic carbon. That the carbocations are planar is shown by the fact that these are difficult or impossible to form at bridgeheads, where they cannot be planar.

The stability order of carbocation is explained by hyperconjugation. In vinyl cations

 $(CH_2 = C^+H)$ , resonance stability lacks completely and these therefore are very much less stable.

#### • Carbanions

**Structure of Carbanions:** A carbanion possesses an unshared pair of electron and thus represents a base. The best likely description is that the central carbon atom is  $sp^3$  hybridized with the unshared pair occupying one apex of the tetrahedron. Carbanions would thus have pyramidal structures similar to those of amines. It is believed that carbanions undergo a rapid interconversion between two pyramidal forms.

There is evidence for the sp<sup>3</sup> nature of the central carbon and for its tetrahedral structure. At bridgehead a carbon does not undergo reactions in which it must be converted to a carbocation. However, the reactions which involve carbanions at such centres take place with ease, and stable bridgehead carbanions are known. In case this structure is correct and if all three R groups on a carbanions are different, the carbanion should be chiral. All reactions therefore, which involve the formation of chiral carbanion should give retention of configuration. However, this never happens

and has been explained due to an umbrella effect as in amines. Thus the unshared pair and the central carbon rapidly oscillate from one side of the plane to the other.

EXAMPLE



**Stability and Generation of Carbanions:** The Grignard reagent is the best known member of a broad class of substances, called organometallic compounds where carbon is bonded to a metal lithium, potassium sodium, zinc, mercury, lead, thallium – almost any metal known. Whatever the metal it is less electronegative than carbon, and the carbon metal bond like the one in the Grignard reagent highly polar. Although the organic group is not a full-fledged carbanion – an anion in which carbon carries negative charge, it however, has carbanion character. Or organometallic compounds can serve as a source from which carbon is readily transferred with its electrons. On treatment with a metal, in RX the direction of the original dipole moment is reversed (reverse polarization).

Acetylene is ionized on treatment with amide ion in liquid ammonia to form a sodium acetylide; this has a little covalent character and may be regarded as a true carbanion. This property is used in making substituted alkynes. The stability order of carbanions points to their high electron density. Alkyl groups and other electron – donating groups in fact destabilize a carbanion. The order of stability is the opposite of that for carbocations and free radicals, which are electron deficient and are stabilized by alkyl groups. Based on this stability order it is easy to understand that carbanions that occur as intermediates in organic reactions are almost always bonded to stabilizing groups. An imporant method of preparation thus involves a loss of proton from a haloform to afford a stabilized carbanion. Another factor which leads to stability is resonance e.g., a carbonyl group stabilizes an adjacent carbanion via resonance e.g., a carbonyl group stabilizes an adjacent carbanion via overlap of its pi bond with the nonbonding electrons of the carbanion. Carbanions derived from carbonyl compounds are often called enolate anions. Among the other functional groups which exert a strong stabilizing effect on carbanions are nitro and cyano groups. The second row elements, particularly phosphorus and sulphur stabilize the adjacent carbanions. A very important nucleophilic carbon species constitute the phosphorus and sulphur ylide. The preparation of ylide is a two stage process, each state of which belongs to a familiar reaction type: nucleophilic attack on an alkyl halide, and abstraction of a proton by a base.



The phosphorus ylide have hybrid structure, and it is the negative charge on carbon i.e, the carbanion character of ylide which is responsible for their characteristic reactions. The sulphur atoms stabilize carbanions. When a double or triple bond is located a to the carbanionic carbon the ion is stabilized by resonance as in the case of benzylic type carbanions.

**Properties of Carbonions:** Carbanions are nucleophilic and basic and in this behaviour these are similar to amines, since the carbanion has a negative charge on its carbon, to make it a powerful base and a stronger nucleophile than an amine. Consequently a carbanion is enough basic to remove a proton from ammonia.

#### • Free Radicals

**Structure and Geometry of Free Radicals:** A free radical is a species which has one or more unpaired electrons. In the species where all electrons are paired the total magnetic moment is zero. In radicals, however, since there are one or more unpaired electrons, there is a net magnetic moment and the radicals as a result are paramagnetic. Free radicals are usually detected by electron spin resonance, which is also termed electron paramagnetic resonance. Simple alkyl radicals have a planar (trigonal) structure, i.e., these have sp<sup>2</sup> bonding with the odd electron in a p orbital. The pyramidal structure is another possibility when the bonding may be sp<sup>3</sup> and the odd electron is in an sp<sup>3</sup> orbital. The planar structure is in keeping with loss of activity when a free radical is generated at a chiral center. Thus, a planar radical will be attacked at either face after its formation with equal probability to give enantiomers. Unlike carbocations, the free radicals can be generated at bridgehead shows that pyramidal geometry for radicals is also possible and that free radicals need to be planar.



**Stability of Free Radicals:** As in the case of carbocation, the stability of free radicals is tertiary > secondary > primary and is explained on the basis of hyperconjugation. The stabilizing effects in allylic radicals and benzyl radicals is due to vinyl and phenyl groups in terms of resonance structures. Bond dissociation energies shown that 19 kcal / mol less energy is needed to form the benzyl radical from toluene than the formation of methyl radical from methane. The triphenyl methyl type radicals are no doubt stabilized by resonance, however, the major cause of their stability is the steric hindrance to dimerization.

$$\begin{array}{ccc} C_{0}H_{5}CH_{3} \longrightarrow C_{0}H_{5}CH_{2}^{\bullet} + H^{\bullet} & \Delta H = + 85 \text{ kcal} \\ \hline \text{Toluene} & \text{Benzyl radical} \\ \hline \text{Ease of formation} \\ \text{of free radicals} \end{array} \\ \begin{array}{c} \text{-Benzyl} > \text{allyl} > 3^{\circ} > 2^{\circ} > 1^{\circ} > CH_{3}^{\circ} > \text{vinyl} \end{array}$$

#### • Carbenes

Carbenes are neutral intermediates having bivalent carbon, in which a carbon atom is covalently bonded to two other groups and has two valency electrons distributed between two non bonding orbitals. When the two electrons are spin paired the carbene is a singlet, if the spins of the electrons are parallel it is a triplet.

**Structure of Carbenes :** A singlet carbene is thought to possess a bent sp2 hybrid structure in which the paired electrons occupy the vacant sp2 orbital. A triplet carbene can be either bent sp2 hybrid with an electron in each unoccupied orbital, or a linear sp hybrid with an electron in each of the unoccupied p-orbital. It has however, been shown that several carbenes are in a non-linear triplet ground state. However, the dihalogenocarbenes and carbenes with oxygen, nitrogen and sulphur atoms attached to the bivalent carbon, exist probably as singlets. The singlet and triplet state of a carbene display different chemical behaviour. Thus addition of singlet carbenes to olefinic double bond to form cyclopropane derivatives is much more stereoselective than addition of triplet carbenes.



#### Singlet and triplet carbenes

The two classes of carbenes are singlet and triplet carbenes. Singlet carbenes are spin-paired. In the language of valence bond theory, the

**Generation of Carbenes:** Carbenes are obtained by thermal or photochemical decomposition of diazoalkanes. These can also be obtained by a-elimination of a hydrogen halide from a haloform with base, or of a halogen from a gem dihalide with a metal.

**Reactions of Carbenes**: These add to carbon double bonds and also to aromatic systems and in the later case the initial product rearranges to give ring enlargement products (a car-benoids – oranometallic or complexed intermediates which, while not free carbenes afford products expected from carbenes are usually called carbenoids).

When a carbene is generated in a three membered ring allenes are formed by rearrangement. However, a similar formation at a cyclopropylmethyl carbon gives ring expansion. Carbenes are also involved in Reimer — Tiemann reaction.



#### • Arenium Ions

A considerable amount of experimental evidence indicates that electrophiles attack the p system of benzene to form a delocalized non-aromatic carbocation known as arenium ion or sometimes a s complex CMR spectroscopic evidence is available in favour of s complex.

#### • Benzynes

It is a reactive intermediate in some nucleophilic aromatic substitutions. It is a benzene with two hydrogen atoms removed. It is usually drawn with a highly strained triple bond in the six membered ring. Benzyne intermediate has been observed spectroscopically and trapped.

#### HOMOLYTIC AND HETEROLYTIC FISSION

Most chemical reactions involve the breakage of existing chemical bonds and the formation of new ones. However, chemical bonds can be broken in multiple ways. Furthermore, the manner in which a chemical bond breaks plays a vital role in deciding the overall outcome of the chemical reaction. The breakage of a chemical bond (usually a covalent bond) is often referred to as bond fission. The two primary types of bond fission are homolytic fission and heterolytic fission.

#### Homolytic Fission

Homolytic fission (sometimes referred to as hemolysis) is a type of bond fission that involves the dissociation of a given molecule wherein one electron is retained by each of the original fragments of the molecule. Therefore, when a neutrally charged molecule is subjected to homolytic fission, two free radicals are obtained as the product (since each of the chemical species retains one electron from the bond pair).

It can be noted that homolytic fission is also known as homolytic cleavage or bond homolysis. These terms are derived from the Greek root 'homo', and the term can be roughly translated as 'equal breaking'.

The energy required to facilitate homolytic fission in a molecule is often referred to as the homolytic bond dissociation energy of the molecule. An illustration detailing the homolytic fission of a molecule AB, resulting in the formation of two free radicals (A<sup>o</sup> and B<sup>o</sup>) is provided below



Typically, a large amount of energy is required to spark the homolytic fission of a molecule. This is the reason why this type of bond fission only occurs in some cases, as listed below.

- When the molecule is subjected to ultraviolet radiation (the electromagnetic radiation corresponding to the ultraviolet region of the electromagnetic spectrum)
- When the molecule is subjected to the required amount of heat in order to overcome the required bond dissociation energy for the homolytic fission
- When carbon compounds are subjected to extremely high temperatures in the absence of oxygen in order to facilitate the pyrolysis of the molecule

In some cases, homolytic fission can be achieved by supplying only a small amount of heat to the molecule. One such example is the homolytic cleavage of the oxygen-oxygen bonds in peroxides. These intramolecular bonds are fairly weak, implying that they have very small bond dissociation energies. Therefore, this barrier can be overcome with only a small amount of heat energy.

#### Heterolytic Fission

Heterolytic fission, also known as heterolysis, is a type of bond fission in which a covalent bond between two chemical species is broken in an unequal manner, resulting in the bond pair of electrons being retained by one of the chemical species (while the other species does not retain any of the electrons from the bond pair). When a neutrally charged molecule undergoes heterolytic fission, one of the products will have a positive charge whereas the other product will have a negative charge. It can be noted that the positively charged product of the heterolytic fission of a neutral molecule, usually called the cation, is the chemical species that did not retain any of the bonded electrons post the bond fission. On the other hand, the negatively charged product of the heterolysis (also known as the anion) is the chemical species that retains both the bonded electrons after the bond fission process.

The term 'heterolysis' has Greek roots and can be roughly translated as 'unequal breaking'. It is also referred to as homolytic cleavage. An illustration detailing the two ways in which a molecule AB can undergo heterolytic fission is provided below. In the first scenario, the bond pair of electrons is retained by B, making it the anion and A the cation. In the second scenario, A retains the bond pair and becomes the anion whereas B becomes the cation.



It can also be noted that when a covalent bond is subjected to heterolytic fission, the bonded species with the greater electronegativity is the one that usually retains the bond pair of electrons and obtains a negative charge. On the other hand, the more electropositive species usually does not retain any electrons and obtains a positive charge.

The energy required to cleave a covalent bond via heterolytic cleavage is often referred to as the heterolytic bond dissociation energy (not to be confused with homolytic bond dissociation energy). This value is sometimes used to denote the bond energy of a covalent bond. An example of homolytic fission can be observed in the hydrogen chloride molecule, as illustrated in the chemical reaction provided below.

#### $\text{H-Cl} \rightarrow \text{H^+} + \text{Cl^-}$

Here, the chlorine atom retains the bond pair of electrons because its electronegativity is higher than that of hydrogen. Therefore, the products formed are the chloride anion and the hydrogen cation.

#### Comparing Homolytic and Heterolytic Cleavage of Covalent Bonds

The bond dissociation energy for the same types of bond, it can be observed that the heterolytic bond dissociation energy is considerably higher than the homolytic dissociation for the same bond. Heterolysis of a neutral molecule yields a positive and a negative ion. However, separation of these charges which are opposite requires a great amount of energy. In the gas phase bond dissociation occurs by an easier route, namely homolysis. However, in an ionizing solvent heterolysis is the preferred kind of breakage.

#### ALKYL HALIDES

Alkyl halides also called haloalkanes or halogenoalkanes are chemical compounds that are often derived from alkanes that contain one or more halogens. We can also say that alkyl halides are a subset of the general class of halocarbons.

Alkyl halide or haloalkanes are formed by the replacement of hydrogen atoms in an aliphatic hydrocarbon by halogen atoms (Fluorine, chlorine, bromine or iodine). They can also be manufactured from any organic precursors such as alkanes, alkenes, or alcohols and carboxylic acids. Generally, alkyl halides contain hydrogen atoms attached to the sp<sup>3</sup> hybridized carbon atom of alkyl groups.

Some examples of Alkyl halide include;

CH<sub>3</sub>-CH<sub>2</sub>-I CH<sub>3</sub>-CH-CH<sub>3</sub> CH<sub>3</sub>-CH-CH<sub>2</sub>-Br I CH<sub>3</sub> iodoethane 2-chloropropane 1-bromo-2-methylpropane

#### Classification Of Alkyl Halide

Alkyl Halide can be classified on the basis of various aspects. They are as follows.

#### Number of Halogen Atoms

Here, the classification mainly depends on whether they contain one, two, or more halogen atoms in their structure. Under this category we have;

1. Mono Haloalkane

Example: CH<sub>3</sub>-CH<sub>2</sub>-X [Where X can be Cl, F, Br or I]

2. Dihaloalkane

Example: X-CH<sub>2</sub>-CH<sub>2</sub>-X [Where X can be Cl, F, Br or I]

3. Trihaloalkane

Example: X-CH<sub>2</sub>-CHX-CH<sub>2</sub>-X [Where X can be Cl, F, Br or I]

#### The Position of Halogen atom Along the Chain of Carbon Atom

The classification depends on how the halogen atom is positioned on the chain of carbon atoms.

- 1. Primary alkyl halide
- 2. Secondary alkyl halide
- 3. Tertiary alkyl halide

#### Primary Alkyl Halide

In this type of haloalkanes, the carbon which is bonded to the halogen family will be only attached to one other alkyl group. It doesn't matter how much bulky group is attached to it.

Some examples of primary haloalkanes are,

#### Secondary Alkyl Halide

In this type of haloalkanes, the carbon atom which is bonded with the halogen atom is joined directly to the other two alkyl groups which can be the same or different. Some examples are:

#### Tertiary Alkyl Halide

In this type of haloalkanes, the carbon atom which carries the halogen atom is directly bonded to three alkyl group. This alkyl group maybe with a combination of the same or different. Some examples are,

$$\begin{array}{ccc} CH_3 & CH_3 \\ I \\ CH_3 - \begin{array}{c} C \\ - \end{array} CH_3 & CH_3 - \begin{array}{c} C \\ - \end{array} CH_2 CH_3 \\ I \\ Br & CI \end{array}$$

#### Preparation of Alkyl Halides

1. Preparation of Alkyl Halides from Alkenes



The addition of hydrogen halides to alkenes follows either Markovnikov's rule or exhibit Kharash effect. All the electrophilic addition reactions of alkenes following Markovnikov rule are known as Markovnikov addition reactions.

#### 2. Preparation of Alkyl Halides from Alcohols

Alkyl halides can easily be prepared from alcohols upon the addition of halides. In this reaction the hydroxyl group of alcohol is replaced with the halogen atom attached to the other compound involved. This reaction requires a catalyst for primary and secondary alcohols whereas it doesn't require any catalyst for tertiary alcohols.

CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> OH	+	SOCI	$2 \xrightarrow{\Delta}$	$\mathbf{CH_{3}CH_{2}CI}$	+	SO <sub>2</sub> + HCI
CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> OH	+	PCI <sub>2</sub>	$\xrightarrow{\Delta}$	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CI	+	P(OH) <sub>3</sub> +HCI
CH3CH2OH	+	PCI5	$\rightarrow$	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> CI	+	POCI <sub>3</sub> + HCI
CH3CH2OH	+	PBr <sub>3</sub>	$\xrightarrow{\Delta}$	CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> Br	+	P(OH) <sub>3</sub> + HBr

#### 3. Preparation of Alkyl Halides by Free Radical Halogenation

A complex mixture of isomeric mono- and polyhaloalkanes upon free radical chlorination or bromination of <u>alkanes</u>.



#### Alkyl Halide Properties

Alkyl halides are colourless when they exist in pure form. But, bromides and iodides develop colour when exposed to light. Many volatile halogen compounds have a sweet smell.

#### **Boiling and Melting Points**

- Methyl chloride, methyl bromide, ethyl chloride and some chlorofluoromethanes are in the form of gas at room temperature.
- Higher members are liquids or solids.
- As we know, molecules of organic halogen compounds are polar in nature.
- Due to greater polarity and greater molar mass as compared to parent hydrocarbon, the intermolecular force of attraction is stronger in halogen derivatives.
- So, the boiling points of chlorides, bromides and iodides are considerably higher than that of the hydrocarbon with the same molecular mass.
- The attraction gets stronger as the size and number of electrons increases.
- The boiling points of alkyl halides will decrease in the order RI > RBr > RCl > RF.

#### Density

- Bromo-derivatives, iodo-derivatives and polychloro derivatives of hydrocarbons are heavier than water.
- The density increases with an increase in the number of carbon atoms, halogen atoms and atomic mass of halogen atoms.

#### Solubility

- The haloalkanes are less soluble in water.
- To dissolve haloalkanes in water, energy is required to overcome the attractions between the haloalkane molecule and break the hydrogen bonds between the water molecules for haloalkanes to dissolve in water.
- Very less amount of energy is released when new attractions between the haloalkanes and the water molecules are formed. Which is not as strong as the original hydrogen bonds in water.
- So, the solubility of haloalkanes in water is less.

• But, the haloalkanes will dissolve in the organic solvent than in the water. Because of this, the complex interaction between the haloalkanes and the creative molecules has the same potential as those broken by the unique and molecular haloalkanes.

#### **Chemical Reactions**

The chemical reaction of haloalkanes can be divided into three categories:

- 1. Nucleophilic substitution reaction
- 2. Elimination reaction
- 3. Reaction with metals

#### Nucleophilic Substitution Reaction

In this type of reaction, a nucleophile reacts with haloalkane which is having a partial positive charge on the carbon atom which is bonded to halogen. A substitution reaction takes place and halogen atom called leaving group leaves as halide ion. Since the substitution reaction is initiated by a nucleophile, it is called nucleophilic substitution reaction.

Example:



It is one of the most useful classes of organic reactions of an alkyl halide in which halogen is bonded to sp<sup>3</sup> hybridized carbon.

#### **Elimination Reaction**

When a haloalkane having – hydrogen atom is heated with alcoholic solution of potassium hydroxide, it will lead to the elimination of hydrogen atom from  $\beta$  – carbon atom and a halogen atom from the  $\alpha$  – carbon atom. As a result, an alkene is formed as one of the products. Since  $\beta$  – hydrogen atom is involved in elimination, it is often called  $\beta$  – elimination reaction.



If there is any possibility of formation of more than one alkene due to the presence of more than one  $\beta$  – hydrogen atoms, usually one alkene is formed as the main product.

#### **Reaction With Metals**

Most organic chlorides, bromides and iodides react with certain metals to give compounds containing carbon-metal bonds. Such compounds are known as organometallic compounds. The product formed by the reaction of haloalkanes with magnesium metal in dry ether.

#### ARYL HALIDES

Aryl halides are the compounds that contain halogen atom directly attached to the benzene ring. They have general formula ArX.



Any halogen compound that contains a benzene ring is not classified as aryl halide. e.g. Benzyl chloride is not an aryl halide, but is a substituted alkyl halide

#### Preparation Methods of Aryl Halides

#### 1. Halogenation

$$Ar - H_{X2} \xrightarrow{X = Cl, Br} Ar - X + HX$$

For introducing only the halogen at para position, the Lewis acid thallium acetate is used.



#### 2. From diazonium salts



#### • Properties of Aryl Halides

#### 1. Reactivity of Aryl halides

In haloalkane, the carbon atom attached to halogen is  $sp^3$  hybridised while in case of haloarene, the carbon atom attached to halogen is  $sp^2$ -hybridised.



The sp<sup>2</sup> hybridised carbon with a greater s-character is more electronegative and can hold the electron pair of C-X bond more tightly than sp<sup>3</sup>-hybridised carbon in haloalkane with less s-character. Thus, C-X bond length in haloalkane are shorther than those present in haloarene. Since it is difficult to break a shorter bond than a longer bond, therefore, haloarenes are less reactive than haloalkanes

towards nucleophilic substitution reaction. Unlike alkyl halides, aryl halides are less reactive towards Nucleophilic substitution reactions, this can be attributed to their electron release via resonance



Structures III, IV and V stabilise chlorobenzene molecule and give a double bond character to the carbon-chlorine bond. Now because of this the carbon-chlorine bond has more strength and hence aryl halides are more stable towards Nucleophilic substitution reactions. In Alkyl halides the carbon atom attached to halogen is  $sp^3$  hybridized and in aryl halides it is  $sp^2$ , hybridized, as  $sp^2$  hybridized carbon is more electronegative it does not permit the chlorine atom to get displaced with the bonded pair of electrons.

#### • Nucleophilic Substitution Reactions of Aryl Halides

Aryl halides undergo Nucleophilic substitution reactions when a strong Electron withdrawing group is present on the benzene ring. Electron withdrawing groups activate the benzene ring towards nucleophilic substitution in aryl halides whereas Electron donating groups deactivate the ring.

Mechanism: Bimolecular Displacement Mechanism



Any factor that stabilizes the carbanion will increase the rate of Nucleophilic substitution reaction by dispersing the charge present on resonating structures. An electron withdrawing group present at meta position does not activate the ring as much as it does from ortho and para position. This can be known by looking at following resonance structures



#### **Elimination – Addition Mechanism**

In the absence of an electron withdrawing group, nucleophilic substitution takes place in presence of very strong bases, but the mechanism is entirely different from what we have seen in bimolecular nucleophilic substitution reactions. These reaction proceed by a mechanism called benzyne mechanism.



Benzyne is a symmetrical intermediate and can be attacked by nucleophile at both the positions.



Isotopic labelling confirmed that there is an equal chance of abstraction from both carbons. An aryl halide which does not contain alpha hydrogen with respect to halogen does not undergo this reaction. In the reactions involving Benzyne intermediates, two factors affect the position of incoming group, the first one is direction of aryne formation. When there are groups ortho or para to the leaving group, then, the following intermediates should be formed.



when a meta group is present, aryne can form in two ways, In such cases



more acidic hydrogen is removed, i.e., an electron attracting 'Z' favours removal of ortho hydrogen while an electron donating 'Z' favours removal of para hydrogen.

#### • Electrophilic Substitution Reactions of Aryl Halides

1. Halogenation of Aryl halides



#### 3. Sulphonation of Aryl halides



#### 4. Friedel-Crafts reaction for Aryl halides



#### • Reaction of Haloarenes With Metals

1. Wurtz-Fittig reaction



2. Fittig reaction



The aryl halides are insoluble in water and are denser than water and form a separate lower layer. The molecules are quite large compared with a water molecule. For chlorobenzene to dissolve in water, it would have to break many existing hydrogen bonds between water molecules.

#### Grignard reagent preparing, reactions, physical properties

Grignard is used to extend carbon chain. Griganard (R-MgX, here R= alkyl group, X= Cl,Br,I) is prepared by reaction of <u>alkyl halides</u> (halo alkanes) and magnesium in dry ether medium. Grignard reagent reacts with many organic compounds and give different organic compounds with extended carbon chains.



Lithium also can be used to prepare Grignard reagent. But most of times magnesium is used.

This tutorial, we discuss following sections of grignard reagent.

- 1. Preparing grignard reagent
- 2. Physical properties of grignard reagent and nomenclature
- 3. Reactions of grignard reagent and other organic compounds

Preparing Grignard reagent by alkyl halides

Magnesium and dry ether is mixed with alkyl halides to prepare Grignard reagent.

For keep Grignard stable, dry ether is essential. In aqueous medium, grignard reagent slowly hydrolyses and give **hydrocarbons**.



Nomenclature of Grignard

CH<sub>3</sub>MgBr - methyl magnesium bromide CH<sub>3</sub>CH<sub>2</sub>MgCl - ethyl magnesium chloride

Physical properties of grignard reagent

- Grignard reagent are strong alkalis. Therefore they react with compounds which can supply H<sup>+</sup> ions.
- Strong nucleophiles.
- Grignard reagent should be kept in dry environment (in dry ether). If moisture or water is contact with grignard, grignard is destroyed.

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- Grignard reagent are strong alkalis. Therefore they react with compounds which can supply H<sup>+</sup> ions.
- Strong nucleophiles.
- Grignard reagent should be kept in dry environment (in dry ether). If moisture or water is contact with grignard, grignard is destroyed.

#### **Reactions of Grignard reactions**

Grignard reagent reacts with different organic compounds and give different products such as alcohols, alkanes, alkynes with extended carbon chain. Usually grignard reagent is used to extend the carbon chain in organic chemistry.

#### Compounds reacting with grignard reagent

Following organic compounds react with grignard reagent and form compounds which have extended carbon chain. In some of these reactions one grignard molecules ( one alkyl group in grignard ) is attached, sometimes two grignard molecules are attached. Therefore you should learn mechanism of these reactions very well. Luckily, most of these reactions mechanisms are same.

- Alkynes
- alkyl halides
- aldehydes, ketones
- acid chlorides
- esters
- acid anhydrides

Grignard reagent also reacts with alcohols, carboxylic acids, amines and more. But those reactions products are not much useful and important

Alkanes, alkynes, alcohols can be given by grignard reagent reactions. Each product formation and grignard regent reactions are discussed below

Grignard reagent and alkyl halides reactions

Grignard react with alkyl halides and give hydrocarbons. Here, Grignard reagent acts as a nucleophile. This reaction extends the carbon chain.



#### Grignard reagent and water reaction

Grignard reagent reacts with water and give hydrocarbons. Alkyl group of grignard reagent takes a hydrogen atom from water molecule to produce the hydrocarbon. Most times this hydrocarbon will be an alkane.

 $CH3CH2MgBr + H2O \rightarrow CH3CH3 + MgBrOH$ 

 $CH3MgCl + H2O \rightarrow CH4 + MgClOH$ 

#### Grignard reagent with aldehydes, ketones

Aldehydes react with grignard reagent and give secondary alcohols. Only formaldehyde (simplest aldehyde compound) gives a primary alcohol. Also ketones give titary alcohols when they react with grignard reagent.

#### Ethanal and grignard reaction





#### Formaldehyde and grignard reaction

Simplest aldehyde, Formaldehyde ( methanal | HCHO ) reacts with ethylmagnesium bromide ( CH3CH2MgBr ) to form propanol. which is a primary alcohol. Water should be added as a reagent for the reaction to provide H+ ions.

First, alkyl group of grignard attacks the carbonyl carbon atom. Then a new bond between, carbonyl carbon and carbon atom of grignard (carbon atom which has high electrons density) is formed. With that, electrons of one bond of C=O bond, goes towards O atom. Finally, a hydrogen atom from a water molecule is taken by that O atom to make OH bond to give the alcohol.

#### Formaldehyde and ethyl magnesium bromide reaction mechanism



#### Acid chloride and grignard reagent reaction

Acid chloride react with excess grignard reagent and give tertiary alcohols. Two alkyl groups are substituted to the carbon atom which is attached to the Cl and O atoms. Water should be added after grignard adding. In this reaction, grignard reagent is acted as an nucleophile.

#### Ethanoyl chloride and grignard reaction



#### Esters and grignard reagent reaction

Esters and excess grignard reagent reaction will give a tertiary alcohols. First, grignard reagent react with ester and give a ketone. Due to presence of excess Grignard reagent, again ketone reacts with grignard reagent. Finally we add a diute acid(H+) or H2O to get the tertiary alcohol.



#### Phenyl magnesium bromide

Bromobenzene does not react easily like aliphatic alkyl halides. Phenyl magnesium bromide is an important grignard compound which is used to synthesis so many benzene substitutes organic compounds. Phenyl magnesium bromide can be prepared by reaction of bromobenzene with Mg and dry ether.



Phenyl magnesium bromide react with water and give benzene.



Also it reacts with ethyl bromide and give phenylethane.

Phenyl magnesium bromide and Ethanoyl chloride

When excess phenyl magnesium chloride is added to ethnoyl chloride and then H2O is added. We can get a tritary alcohol.



#### Preparing carboxylic acids by carbon dioxide and grignard reagent reaction

When Grignard, CO2 and H2O react, carboxylic acids are given. The number of carbon atoms in the grignard reagent is increased by one when final product is prepared.

Methyl magnesium chloride, CO2 and water reaction

ethanoic acid given.



Ethyl magnesium bromide, CO2 and water reaction

propanoic acid is given.

 $CH_3CH_2MgBr \xrightarrow{CO_2} CH_3CH_2COOH + Mg(OH)Br$ 

Phenyl magnesium bromide, CO2 and water reaction

benzoic acid is given.



ANB - 2 எதிர்வினா திரை தின்னதல் மற்றும் அன்றல் 20000000 Bron Bahisonno Borocoison 2 மதிய்பைண் இனாக்கள் எதிர் விலை இடை நலை என்றால் என்ன? 2 கார்பன் அமன்கள் என்றால் என்ன? எ. கா நடுத. 3. Bring Hroofwi Dwood Fin wrood? 4. Entre Post son atom nou atom 2? 5. அസ്താടന് മുനതാസരികണ്ടന്ക് വെന്നിച്ചിനത്ന് ചിസ്ഥാന് ക്രേട്ട. 6. அസ്താന് ച്വാനതാഡ് നിന്ന് ചിതാന് പന്നതന് മിന്നില്ല. 7. ജീസ്താട്സ് ച്വാനത്തെ നല്ലിന്റ്റി മുയന്നിലാസ് ? 8. ഇതാന് ഇനതായ കെണ് നൽന്നൻ തൽത്താ? 9. கிகளாதாபைன்சின் எவ்வாறு தயாரிப்பாய? 5 ശനിവത്ത് ചിത്സഭ്രത 1. கார்பானியம் அமனியின் நிலைப்புத்தன் வைல Angl 6) milit or Gala. 2. கார்பின்களை திடுந்த உதாரணத்துடன் சிதுகுநியு எடுதுக. 3. ക്രാന് ചാനതാധിന്താന് നല്ലിന്ന് മുയന്ന് പ്പസ് ? Asignin and une food shand 4. Mongin annonal Bestion grantingemon or Gale. 5. Mongå annon Granfin Der julie bolgelige Looot blooot or Ggls. 6. இதனாதாலுள் தனிலிருந்து ஹா-லை வங்பாறி



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# 10 Loglionant abourisson.

- 1. ഭാതനഭ്യനസിലുട്ട് ഗത്ത്വിന് താതുല്യും പ്രതില്യും മിന്നാം ഗത്തി മിന്നുങ്ങ.
- 2. சேர்னைய, கார்க்கலைய மற்றிம் மேறியைய சோர்போனியம் அயனியின் நிலைய்புத்தன்மையை மூப்பிட்டு விவிரி
- கார்பன்றியனியின் நிலைப்புத்தன்னமலை இர்னைய, ஈர்கிணைய மற்றும் மூறினைய அயணிகளைபன் ஒப்பிட்டு விளக்குத.
  அல்லைல் ஹாலை டுகளின் திமாரிப்பு மற்றும் பண்புகளை தகுத.
  - ജിന്റ്റ്റ്റെന്ന ക്യാത്തിന്റെ കുന്നില്ല ഗന്നില് തുന്ന് പ്പ വയത്സന്ത്രത്തെന്ന് ക്ലിപ്പം
- 6. வமத்தல் வமக்னதியம் அலாபைடு இவற்றலிருந்து இசுனைய, எ.ரினைய மற்றும் அண்ணைய அத்வதைவது எவ்வாறு தயாரிப்பாய்?



### 2018-2

கரம் வேதியலில் நிகடும் அனைத்து வினைகளிலும் குரு கூப் பிணைப்பு மூறிந்து, மற்றைரடு சகப் பிணைப்பு 20 வாகிறது. சகப் பிணைப்புகளை பின்வருமாறு இர வழிகளில் பிளக்கலாம். அனவ

i) அரு படித்தாண (அ) சமப்பினப்பு (Homolytic fission) ii) பலபடித்தாண (அ) சமமற்ற பினப்பு (Heterolytic fission) சமபினப்பு:

X மற்றும் y அனுக்களுக்கிடையிலுள்ள சகப் பிணைப்பை X-Y (அ) X...X எனக் கிறிக்கலாம். இப்பிணைப்பிலுள்ள இடு எலக்டறான்கள், சமப் பிளப்பின்போது ஒவ்ணாஞ அனுடிய் இடு எலக்டீரானைத் தன்பால் றற்கும். இதனால்



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## Boot & guiyoson

ട്രിഡ്ട് ഒടന്ഥത്തിരുന്നെ ട്രമ് മിത്താല്ബ് சமமாக மிளக்கும்போது தனி உறுப்புகள் தோன்றுகின்றன. Donal Boot Bryn (D) ASMOB BLOOMOOT BORN 4 BEDNA எலக் மரான்களைக் கொண்டிருக்கும். (எ.கா) ப. . . . .

21005500

Lomon aling Bron குறை வாழ்நான 5000 2 milyson 5 of 2 miliyson (OT&M) GH5 (CIOH7)3C. (OT.B.M.) H., CH3.

towle autonuginad கார்பன் அனுவானது தனது இணைதிறன் நுட்டில் இத BOBAL எல் பரானைக் குறைவாகக் கொண்ட கரியின்

சோவையுடைய (R+) வதாகதிக்க, கார்போசியம் அமசி என்றி வலா  $(\sigma_{1,BH}) CH_{3}^{\dagger}, (CH_{3})_{3}C^{\dagger}, C_{6}H_{5}^{\dagger}$ Bwanfilly younger  $i)(CH_3)_3 C - cl \longrightarrow (CH_3)_3 C^{\dagger} + cl^{-1}$ ii)  $CH_2 = CH_2 + H^+ \longrightarrow CH_3 - CH_2^+$ Div for கார் பானியம் அவனி நலைப்புத்தன்மைட்i) சாலத்டீரானன அடிங்குடல் பதிலிட்டுத் தொடுத்தன், தார்வேகிய 21 woof ഡിൺ നിതസ് പുട്ടിത്തായതായ മുട്ടിങ്ങിൽ ഇത്. Abimsi തെട്ട് ക്രിക്ക് കുത്താി മത്താക്കും Common കന്നാണ് കുത്തുമിൽ ആന്ഥൽ ക്തഥതാധന് ക്രാനുറിൽനുത കില്ലാനുനമ മാന്ത്രസ് നട്ടന് റ്റിട്ടാന് , ഒന്ന് 80 നേഷ്യില് മുയങ്ങതാണ് ന്നെല്-





 $\begin{array}{ccc} R & R & R \\ R - \frac{1}{4} & R - \frac{1}{4} \\ H & 0 \end{array}$ Repairmente Bit as 10001 m and an ant Gion ant තියු කොල කර්ග කර්ග කර්ගත්තා කර්ගත්ත 556 garant Bitoncon Bringhungtung Anotomonia ത്താവ് പുട്ടുത്തിര തെത്തിന് തില്ല. 3 > 2 > 1 > しののの ii) on BLE Egr (NO2) En HELINODIOI & (-CO) BUNOTIN ETONBLE INON ന്ന് തിര് നതന്ത്രത്താന് തന്നെത്പാം ഉഡത്ലിൽ തന്നാത് அனுவுடன் இணைக்கப்பட்டாஸ் அதை நார்மோனியம் அயனியின் ആതാസ്145, ട്യാന്തിക്കായ തല്യാലൻ ത്രാന്ന് ക്ര്ന്നത്. 14

 $H - C + B D C ( Tomping the multiply the man <math>NO_2 - C + 1$ Ostracor Binong. (iii) கார்போனியம் அயனியிரைன்ன கேர்மீன் மீன்சிமையை 2 டனினை அலம் பறவலாக்கவல்ல தாகத் ஒன்றுடன் கார்போனியம் அமனி இணைக்கப்பட்டால் அப்போது நலைப்-படுத்தப்படுகிறது.  $CH_3 - CH_2 - CH_2^{\dagger} \angle \dot{C}H_2 = CH - CH_2 \angle C_6 H_5 CH_2^{\dagger}$ புரைப்பைல் கார்போனியம் அமனியில் உணிை அ சாத்தியமல்லை. என்கே இனைந்து நலைப்புத்துள்ளாலம் വെന്നുത്തെള്ളി. காப்போனியம் அவனிக்கு நலைப்புத்தண்ணம



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FITT LOT OTO IT LOT AWOND) Forg Doncont moi Escipa 95 Bany washing สามพันฐางสามอาการ์ อาสาสสาน สามานอาการ์ เป็นสายการ์ அത്തുക്തെ ചുക് തെന്നത്ന്⊥ ത എന് ആഴ്ക്ക് ഇനന് ഗത്ന പ്രതിന് പ്രത്ത് ക്ലാംഗ്രം (R<sup>E</sup>) otostal anum. (or. Br) CH3CH2, CH3CHCH3, CH2COOC2H5 5wmfill Grong i)  $(4_{6}H_{5})_{3}C - H + NaNH_{2} - > (4_{6}H_{5})_{3}C - H + NH_{3}$ (ii)  $R \cos \rightarrow R^{-} + \cos^{2}$ 15 moving & good on Lo i) எலக் 19 7 எனன அடிங்குமீ பதிலீட்டுத் தை குத்தன், கார்பன വേട്ടന് മായത്കാന്ത് ന്യാസ് പുള്ളത്താ ഗത്തം അനുക്കത്നാ  $\beta \sigma \sigma \omega > g f \sigma \sigma \omega > F f \sigma \sigma \omega > \omega$ மீத்தைல் தார்ப் எதிர்மன் அமனிலில், அமல்கைல் தைறகுதி இல்லாததால் அது கூடுதலான நிலைப்புத்தன்பையை வாற்றுள்ளது. (ii) otovés L. Jnon 17. ர்க்கும் வதாகத்தன் இருந்தால் அத்த திலைப்புத் தன்பை சுசாண்டி தக்கும்.  $No_2 - c^{\Theta} \rightarrow H - c^{\Theta}$ 

(iii) உடனினை அவின் அவமீ எதிர்மின் <del>இ</del>ணையலைய் பரவலாக்கவில்ல தொடூதி ஒன் அடன் எதிர்மின் அமையை உடைய அணு இணைக்கப்பட்டிரேக்குமானால் அப்போது கார்மன் காதிர் மின் அலனி நிலைப்படுத்தில் படுகிறது.

വ്യത്താടന് > அന്താന് > 4657 ப്രാവന്.



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### BATTLOOTBON

storighe glassotytus Fryward. Storthoon glassotwing 6 OFWONLIGIE. BRITH Doorlow Donor BRITHLOOD 4 OTONBLIGHOOTBOOM அතුත් සොයුග් තොවානීහුත්ත හ අතාවකත් හ හිතුක් ( dours gradian UBISLULISODALWAS DOBBOLO. (ot. 51) : CH2, : CC12 Swanig Groom (i) ത്വ அങ്ങങ്ങള് തലവ്വ சிതാള அறுகுல்.  $CH_2N_2 \longrightarrow : CH_2 + N_2$ (ii) CHCl3 +B ->> BH :CCl2 (001 @Bonn Bgn BrinDin) + CI ii)  $CH_{2CO} \longrightarrow : CH_{2} + CO$  filleoon

Hone 14 (NOLDLIE BHADSON P 85 T DL: LTON Brindson Brindson 02mml. P-86TULLINA R'/111 H Motottelle SP2 Dooris swig Brinuog. SP Dotis Barily காப்பீன்களின் நிலைப்புத்தன்மை 2 Loofanta Brigoot Loris Brin Loofan Donaoris glomon DJoon B groglissogle goof DJL and Bonny otovisignoor വെന്നിര്ക്ക്രിം. RON R2N  $R_2N$ R2N-



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## LI WOM LING BOM

) Блітолий ДЦДій Длогот RNH2 + CHCl3 + KOH (alc)  $\rightarrow$  RNC + 3Kcl + 3H20 i) Длинкі Длогот Ph3P + : ccl2  $\rightarrow$  (Ph3P ccl2)  $\leftarrow$  Ph3P = ccl2  $\leftrightarrow$  Ph3P - 0 + ii) Длінбий лого Длип Адай. Pc = c( + : cR2  $\rightarrow$  > c - c<  $\leftarrow$  [c - c ]  $\rightarrow$  > c = c = c  $R_2$  $2 \int c = c < + : cR_2 \rightarrow > c - c < (c - c ] \rightarrow > c = c = c < 2 \int c = c < 2 \int c = c = c < 2 \int c = c = c < 2 \int c = c$ 

(i) Эрон Бой эрнизалован ала Длоца Вилица Вилица



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CH3CH2I +	CT às son nou
	C2H5ONA
	$\rightarrow C_2H_5OC_2H_5 + NaI$
	டை எத்தில் ஈ.தர்
	Obars. NaSH
	C2H5SH + NaI
	FLOSES, on Swnow
	CH2COOA9
	CH3COOC2H5 + AgI
	(Jzjejov 3) ALBLL
	CLHG, AICI3
	$\rightarrow C_{H5}C_{2H5} + HL$
	ுத்தில் எயன்கள்
	reig, Frisht > CoHEMQI
	जरुंडीलं जाद है की कि आदे अहिलाका
	NIA FI-Bri
and a sub-	> CHECOHE + 2NAL



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Hanga Donasalason அதாகமட்டிக் உட்கத்துடன் உறாலகுள் அனு இரைன்க்கு நால் அனைல் உறாலைகளை வனப்படுகின்றன (at.sn) ourotonsn (BBonnogG). (C<sub>L</sub>H<sub>5</sub>Cl) 5 worth 580

i) B = 50 L g = 50



623 K, 300 atm. Press, NaOH





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$$HN_{2}, THF \qquad C_{H_{2}} Mgcl$$

$$C_{3}, Fecl_{3} \rightarrow O+B P - coll (Been regrowwinder)$$

$$HN_{2} / H_{2} SO_{H} \rightarrow O+P - conl(Been regrowwinder)$$

$$HN_{2} / H_{2} SO_{H} \rightarrow O+P - conl(Been regrowwinder)$$

$$HN_{2} / H_{2} SO_{H} \rightarrow O+P - conl(Been regrowwinder)$$

$$HN_{2} / H_{2} SO_{H} \rightarrow O+P - conl(Been regrowwinder)$$

$$HN_{2} / H_{2} SO_{H} \rightarrow O+P - conl(Been regrowwinder)$$

$$HN_{2} / H_{2} SO_{H} \rightarrow O+P - conl(Been regrowwinder)$$

$$HN_{2} / H_{2} SO_{H} \rightarrow O+P - conl(Been regrowwinder)$$

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$$HN_{2} / H_{2} / H_{2} O \rightarrow O+P - conl(Been regrowwinder)$$

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(5) 
$$\frac{g_{LL}g_{L}}{g_{L}g_{L}g_{L}g_{L}}$$
  
 $CH_{3}C \equiv N + CH_{3}M_{9}B_{1} \rightarrow CH_{3}C = NM_{9}B_{1}$   
 $L_{3}^{2}m_{3}n_{1}B_{1}B_{2}m_{3}n_{1}B_{2}$   
 $M_{3}^{(0H)}B_{1}F_{1} NH_{3}F_{1} CH_{3}COCH_{3}$   
 $H_{3}m_{1}m_{3}COCH_{3}$   
 $H_{2}O$   
 $CH_{3}COCH_{3} + M_{3}(OH)I$   
 $H_{2}O$   
 $CH_{3}COCH_{3} + M_{3}(OH)I$ 

7. oronulason GHSMgI+Clcooc2H5 -> GH5COOC2H5 + Mg(cl)I ர த்தைல் 46ராப்பு கீனாகியட

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CH3 MgIf CICN -> CH3CN + Mg(CI)I Horonon Fwomoth

9. தியா அல் தூறால்கள் S+CH3MgI -> CH3SMgI HOH> CH3SH + Mg(OH)I 18 g Bogod BUNO





Estile 2 Boursi BEALD BURGH 12. 2pbc12+4c2H5-MgI ->> (GH5)4Pb+Pb+ OLL: MA 4 Mg(ci)I ONLE (TEL)

-X



### UNIT IV

# PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY

#### **TWO MARKS**

1.What is wave character of matter?

2.Define Heisenberg uncertainity principle.

3. Write the schrodinger wave function of wave particle.

4. What is meant by operators?

5. What is eigen function?

6.Define eigen value.

7.Define dipole moment.

8. What is meant by curie temperature?

9. Give some examples for diamagnetism.

10.Write any two differences between ferro and antiferromagnetism.

# FIVE MARKS

1. Write short notes on Heisenberg uncertainity principle.

2. Write briefly about schrodinger wave equation.

3. Give any five postulates of quantum mechanics.

4. Write any one determination method of dipole moment.

5. Distinguish between diamagnetism and paramagnetism.

### TEN MARKS

1.Describe the Davission and Germer experiment.

2.Particle in one dimension box –Explain.

3. Give an detailed account of shapes of simple molecules.

### The Wave Character of Matter

Einstein initially assumed that photons had zero mass, which made them a peculiar sort of particle indeed. In 1905, however, he published his special theory of relativity, which related energy and mass according to the famous equation:

E=hu=hc
$$\lambda$$
=mc2  
E=hu=hc $\lambda$ =mc2

According to this theory, a photon of wavelength  $\lambda\lambda$  and frequency uu has a nonzero mass, which is given as follows:

That is, light, which had always been regarded as a wave, also has properties typical of particles, a condition known as wave–particle duality (a principle that matter and energy have properties typical of both waves and particles). Depending on conditions, light could be viewed as either a wave or a particle.

In 1922, the American physicist Arthur Compton (1892–1962) reported the results of experiments involving the collision of x-rays and electrons that supported the particle nature of light. At about the same time, a young French physics student, Louis de Broglie (1892–1972), began to wonder whether the converse was true: Could particles exhibit the properties of waves? In his PhD dissertation submitted to the Sorbonne in 1924, de Broglie proposed that a particle such as an electron could be described by a wave whose wavelength is given by

### λ=hmv

### $\lambda = hmv$

where

- h is Planck's constant,
- m is the mass of the particle, and
- v is the velocity of the particle.

This revolutionary idea was quickly confirmed by American physicists Clinton Davisson (1881–1958) and Lester Germer (1896–1971), who showed that beams of electrons, regarded as particles, were diffracted by a sodium chloride crystal in the same manner as x-rays, which were regarded as waves. It was proven experimentally that electrons do exhibit the properties of waves. For his work, de Broglie received the Nobel Prize in Physics in 1929.

If particles exhibit the properties of waves, why had no one observed them before? The answer lies in the numerator of de Broglie's equation, which is an extremely small number. As you will calculate in Example 7.3.17.3.1, Planck's constant  $(6.63 \times 10^{-34} \text{ J} \cdot \text{s})$  is so small

that the wavelength of a particle with a large mass is too short (less than the diameter of an atomic nucleus) to be noticeable.

# The Heisenberg Uncertainty Principle

Because a wave is a disturbance that travels in space, it has no fixed position. One might therefore expect that it would also be hard to specify the exact position of a *particle* that exhibits wavelike behavior. A characteristic of light is that is can be bent or spread out by passing through a narrow slit. You can literally see this by half closing your eyes and looking through your eye lashes. This reduces the brightness of what you are seeing and somewhat fuzzes out the image, but the light bends around your lashes to provide a complete image rather than a bunch of bars across the image. This is called diffraction.

This behavior of waves is captured in Maxwell's equations (1870 or so) for electromagnetic waves and was and is well understood. An "uncertainty principle" for light is, if you will, merely a conclusion about the nature of electromagnetic waves and nothing new. De Broglie's idea of wave-particle duality means that particles such as electrons which exhibit wavelike characteristics will also undergo diffraction from slits whose size is on the order of the electron wavelength.

This situation was described mathematically by the German physicist Werner Heisenberg (1901–1976; Nobel Prize in Physics, 1932), who related the position of a particle to its momentum. Referring to the electron, Heisenberg stated that "at every moment the electron has only an inaccurate position and an inaccurate velocity, and between these two inaccuracies there is this uncertainty relation." Mathematically, the **Heisenberg uncertainty principle** states that the uncertainty in the position of a particle ( $\Delta x$ ) multiplied by the uncertainty in its momentum [ $\Delta(mv)$ ] is greater than or equal to Planck's constant divided by  $4\pi$ :

$$(\Delta x)(\Delta[mv]) \ge h4\pi(7.3.8)(7.3.8)(\Delta x)(\Delta[mv]) \ge h4\pi$$

Because Planck's constant is a very small number, the Heisenberg uncertainty principle is important only for particles such as electrons that have very low masses. These are the same particles predicted by de Broglie's equation to have measurable wavelengths.

If the precise position xx of a particle is known absolutely ( $\Delta x = 0$ ), then the uncertainty in its momentum must be infinite:

$$(\Delta[mv]) = h4\pi(\Delta x) = h4\pi(0) = \infty(7.3.9)(7.3.9)(\Delta[mv]) = h4\pi(\Delta x) = h4\pi(0) = \infty$$

Because the mass of the electron at rest (mm) is both constant and accurately known, the uncertainty in  $\Delta(mv)\Delta(mv)$  must be due to the  $\Delta v\Delta v$  term, which would have to be infinitely large for  $\Delta(mv)\Delta(mv)$  to equal infinity. That is, according to Equation 7.3.97.3.9, the more accurately we know the exact position of the electron (as  $\Delta x \rightarrow 0 \Delta x \rightarrow 0$ ), the less accurately and the kinetic energy of the electron  $(1/2 mv^2)$ we know the speed because  $\Delta(mv) \rightarrow \infty \Delta(mv) \rightarrow \infty$ . Conversely, the more accurately we know the precise momentum (and the energy) of the electron [as  $\Delta(mv) \rightarrow 0\Delta(mv) \rightarrow 0$ ], then  $\Delta x \rightarrow \infty \Delta x \rightarrow \infty$  and we have no idea where the electron is.

Bohr's model of the hydrogen atom violated the Heisenberg uncertainty principle by trying to specify *simultaneously* both the position (an orbit of a particular radius) and the energy (a quantity related to the momentum) of the electron. Moreover, given its mass and wavelike nature, the electron in the hydrogen atom could not possibly orbit the nucleus in a well-efined circular path as predicted by Bohr. You will see, however, that the *most probable radius* of the electron in the hydrogen atom is exactly the one predicted by Bohr's model.



# **Davisson and Germer Experiment**

The experimental setup for the Davisson and Germer experiment is enclosed within a vacuum chamber. Thus the deflection and scattering of electrons by the medium are prevented. The main parts of the experimental setup are as follows:

- Electron gun: An electron gun is a Tungsten filament that emits electrons via thermionic emission i.e. it emits electrons when heated to a particular temperature.
- Electrostatic particle accelerator: Two opposite charged plates (positive and negative plate) are used to accelerate the electrons at a known potential.
- Collimator: The accelerator is enclosed within a cylinder that has a narrow passage for the electrons along its axis. Its function is to render a narrow and straight (collimated) beam of electrons ready for acceleration.
- Target: The target is a Nickel crystal. The electron beam is fired normally on the Nickel crystal. The crystal is placed such that it can be rotated about a fixed axis.
- Detector: A detector is used to capture the scattered electrons from the Ni crystal. The detector can be moved in a semicircular arc as shown in the diagram above.

The basic thought behind the Davisson and Germer experiment was that the waves reflected from two different atomic layers of a Ni crystal will have a fixed <u>phase difference</u>. After reflection, these waves will interfere either constructively or destructively. Hence producing a diffraction pattern.

In the Davisson and Germer experiment waves were used in place of electrons. These electrons formed a diffraction pattern. The dual nature of matter was thus verified. We can relate the de Broglie equation and the Bragg's law as shown below:

From the de Broglie equation, we have:

 $\lambda = h/p$ 

$$= h/\sqrt{2mE} 2mE$$
$$= h/\sqrt{2meV} 2meV \dots (1)$$

where, m is the mass of an electron, e is the charge on an electron and h is the Plank's constant.

Therefore for a given V, an electron will have a wavelength given by equation (1).

The following equation gives Bragg's Law:

 $n\lambda = 2d \sin\theta$  ...(2)

Since the value of d was already known from the X-ray diffraction experiments. Hence for various values of  $\theta$ , we can find the wavelength of the waves producing a diffraction pattern from equation (2).

Results of the Davisson and Germer Experiment

From the Davisson and Germer experiment, we get a value for the scattering angle  $\theta$  and a corresponding value of the potential difference V at which the scattering of electrons is maximum. Thus these two values from the data collected by Davisson and Germer, when used in equation (1) and (2) give the same values for  $\lambda$ . Therefore, this establishes the de Broglie's wave-particle duality and verifies his equation as shown below:

From (1), we have:

 $\lambda = h/\sqrt{2meV} 2meV$ 

For V = 54 V, we have

 $\lambda = 12.27/\sqrt{54}54 = 0.167 \text{ nm} \dots (3)$ Now the value of 'd' from X-ray scattering is 0.092 nm. Therefore for V = 54 V, the angle of scattering is 500500, using this in equation (2), we have:  $n\lambda = 2 (0.092 \text{ nm}) \sin(900-500/2)900-500/2)$ 

For n = 1, we have:

 $\lambda = 0.165 \text{ nm} \dots (4)$ Therefore the experimental results are in a close agreement with the theoretical values got from the de Broglie equation. The equations (3) and (4) verify the de Broglie equation.

Wave function is used to describe 'matter waves'. Matter waves are very small particles in motion having a wave nature – dual nature of particle and wave. Any variable property that makes up the matter waves is a wave function of the matter-wave. Wave function is denoted by a symbol ' $\Psi$ '.

Amplitude, a property of a wave, is measured by following the movement of the particle with its Cartesian coordinates with respect of time. The amplitude of a wave is a wave function. The wave nature and the amplitudes are a function of coordinates and time, such that,

Wave function Amplitude =  $\Psi = \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ ; where, 'r' is the position of the particle in terms of x, y, z directions.

Schrodinger wave equation or just Schrodinger equation is one of the most fundamental equations of quantum physics and an important topic for JEE. The equation also called the Schrodinger equation is basically a differential equation and widely used in Chemistry and Physics to solve problems based on the atomic structure of matter.

Schrodinger wave equation describes the behaviour of a particle in a field of force or the change of a physical quantity over time. Erwin Schrödinger who developed the equation was even awarded the Nobel Prize in 1933.

Schrodinger wave equation is a mathematical expression describing the energy and position of the electron in space and time, taking into account the matter wave nature of the electron inside an atom.

It is based on three considerations. They are;.

Schrodinger equation gives us a detailed account of the form of the <u>wave functions</u> or probability waves that control the motion of some smaller particles. The equation also describes how these waves are influenced by external factors. Moreover, the equation makes use of the energy conservation concept that offers details about the behaviour of an electron that is attached to the nucleus.

Besides, by calculating the Schrödinger equation we obtain  $\Psi$  and  $\Psi$ 2 which helps us determine the quantum numbers as well as the orientations and the shape of orbitals where electrons are found in a molecule or an atom.

There are two equations which are time-dependent Schrödinger equation and a timeindependent Schrödinger equation.

#### Schrödinger Wave Equation Derivation (Time-Dependent)

Considering a complex plane wave:

$$\Psi(x,t) = A e^{i(kx-\omega t)}.$$

Now the Hamiltonian of a system is

$$H = T + V$$

Where 'V' is the potential energy and 'T' is the kinetic energy. As we already know that 'H' is the total energy, we can rewrite the equation as:

$$E=rac{p^2}{2m}+V(x).$$

Now taking the derivatives,

$$egin{aligned} &rac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t}=-i\omega Ae^{i(kx-\omega t)}=-i\omega\Psi(x,t)\ &rac{\partial^2\Psi}{\partial x^2}=-k^2Ae^{i(kx-\omega t)}=-k^2\Psi(x,t) \end{aligned}$$

We know that,

$$p=rac{2\pi\hbar}{\lambda}$$
 and  $k=rac{2\pi}{\lambda}$ 

where ' $\lambda$ ' is the wavelength and 'k' is the wavenumber.

We have

$$k = \frac{p}{\hbar}$$
.

Therefore,

$$rac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} = - rac{p^2}{\hbar^2} \, \Psi(x,t).$$

Now multiplying  $\Psi$  (x, t) to the Hamiltonian we get,

$$E\Psi(x,t)=rac{p^2}{2m}\,\Psi(x,t)+V(x)\Psi(x,t).$$

The above expression can be written as:

$$E\Psi(x,t)=rac{-\hbar^2}{2m}\,rac{\partial^2\Psi}{\partial x^2}+V(x)\Psi(x,t).$$

We already know that the energy wave of a matter wave is written as

$$E = \hbar \omega$$
,

So we can say that

$$E\Psi(x,t)=rac{\hbar\omega}{-i\omega}\,\Psi(x,t).$$

Now combining the right parts, we can get the Schrodinger Wave Equation.

$$i\hbar \, rac{\partial \Psi}{\partial t} = rac{-\hbar^2}{2m} \, rac{\partial^2 \Psi}{\partial x^2} + V(x) \Psi(x,t).$$

This is the derivation of Schrödinger Wave Equation (time-dependent). OPERATORS

The bracketed object in the time-independent Schrödinger Equation (in 1D)

$$[-\hbar 22m\nabla 2 + V(\vec{r})]\psi(\vec{r}) = E\psi(\vec{r})(3.2.1)(3.2.1)[-\hbar 22m\nabla 2 + V(\vec{r})]\psi(\vec{r}) = E\psi(\vec{r})(3.2.1)(3.2.1)(3.2.1)[-\hbar 22m\nabla 2 + V(\vec{r})]\psi(\vec{r}) = E\psi(\vec{r})(3.2.1)($$

is called an *operator*. An operator is a generalization of the concept of a function applied to a function. Whereas a function is a rule for turning one number into another, an operator is a rule for turning one function into another.

Hamiltonian operator operates on the wavefunction to produce the energy, which is a scalar (i.e., a number, a quantity and observable) times the wavefunction. Such an equation, where the operator, operating on a function, produces a constant times the function, is called an **eigenvalue equation**. The function is called an eigenfunction, and the resulting numerical value is called the eigenvalue.

### **POSTULATES OF QUANTUM MECHANICS:**

In this section, we will present six postulates of quantum mechanics. Again, we follow the presentation of McQuarrie, with the exception of postulate 6, which McQuarrie does not include. A few of the postulates have already been discussed in section 3.

**Postulate 1**. The state of a quantum mechanical system is completely specified by a  $\Psi(\mathbf{r}, t)$ 

function that depends on the coordinates of the particle(s) and on time. This function, called the wave function or state function, has the important property

 $\Psi^*(\mathbf{r},t)\Psi(\mathbf{r},t)d\tau$ 

that is the probability that the particle lies in the volume element  $d\tau$  located at  $\mathbf{r}$  at time  $\mathbf{t}$ .

The wavefunction must satisfy certain mathematical conditions because of this probabilistic interpretation. For the case of a single particle, the probability of finding it *somewhere* is 1, so that we have the normalization condition

$$\int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^*(\mathbf{r}, t) \Psi(\mathbf{r}, t) d\tau = 1$$
(110)

It is customary to also normalize many-particle wavefunctions to 1. The wavefunction must also be single-valued, continuous, and finite.

**Postulate 2**. To every observable in classical mechanics there corresponds a linear, Hermitian operator in quantum mechanics.

This postulate comes about because of the considerations raised in section if we require that the expectation value of an operator  $\hat{A}$  is real, then  $\hat{A}$  must be a Hermitian operator. Some common operators occuring in quantum mechanics are collected in Table 1.

<b>Table 1:</b> Physical observables and their corresponding quantum operators (single particle)							
Observable	Observable	Operator	Operator				
Name	Symbol	Symbol	Operation				
Position	<u>r</u>	ŕ	Multiply by <u>r</u>				
Momentum	р	Ŷ	$-i\hbar\left(\hat{i}\frac{\partial}{\partial x}+\hat{j}\frac{\partial}{\partial y}+\hat{k}\frac{\partial}{\partial z}\right)$				
Kinetic energy	Т	$\hat{T}$	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}\right)$				
Potential energy	$V(\mathbf{r})$	$\hat{V}(\mathbf{r})$	$V({f r})$ Multiply by				
Total energy	Ε	$\hat{H}$	$-\frac{\hbar^2}{2m}\left(\frac{\partial^2}{\partial x^2}+\frac{\partial^2}{\partial y^2}+\frac{\partial^2}{\partial z^2}\right)+V(\mathbf{r})$				
Angular momentum	$l_x$	$\hat{l}_x$	$-i\hbar\left(yrac{\partial}{\partial z}-zrac{\partial}{\partial y} ight)$				
	$l_y$	$\hat{l}_y$	$-i\hbar\left(zrac{\partial}{\partial x}-xrac{\partial}{\partial z} ight)$				
	$l_z$	$\hat{l}_z$	$-i\hbar \left( x\frac{\partial}{\partial y} - y\frac{\partial}{\partial x} \right)$				

**Postulate 3**. In any measurement of the observable associated with operator  $\hat{A}$ , the only values that will ever be observed are the eigenvalues  $\underline{a}$ , which satisfy the eigenvalue equation

$$\hat{A}\Psi = a\Psi \tag{111}$$

This postulate captures the central point of quantum mechanics--the values of dynamical variables can be quantized (although it is still possible to have a continuum of eigenvalues in the case of unbound states). If the system is in an eigenstate of  $\hat{A}$  with eigenvalue  $\underline{a}$ , then any measurement of the quantity A will yield  $\underline{a}$ .

Although measurements must always yield an eigenvalue, the state does not have to be an eigenstate of  $\hat{A}$  *initially*. An arbitrary state can be expanded in the complete set of

 $\hat{A}\Psi_i = a_i\Psi_i )$  eigenvectors of  $\hat{A}$  ( as

$$\Psi = \sum_{i}^{n} c_{i} \Psi_{i} \tag{112}$$

where  $\underline{n}$  may go to infinity. In this case we only know that the measurement of A will yield one of the values a, but we don't know which one. However, we do know the probability that eigenvalue will occur--it is the absolute value squared of the  $|c_i|^2$  coefficient, (cf. section 3.1.4), leading to the fourth postulate below. An important second half of the third postulate is that, after measurement of  $\Psi$  yields some eigenvalue, the wavefunction immediately ``collapses'' into the corresponding  $\Psi_i$   $a_i$ eigenstate (in the case that is degenerate, then  $\Psi$  becomes the projection of  $\Psi$  onto the degenerate subspace). Thus, measurement affects the state of the system. This fact is used

in many elaborate experimental tests of quantum mechanics.

**Postulate 4**. If a system is in a state described by a normalized wave function  $\Psi$ , then the average value of the observable corresponding to  $\hat{A}$  is given by

$$\langle A \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \Psi^* \hat{A} \Psi d\tau$$
 (113)

**Postulate 5**. The wavefunction or state function of a system evolves in time according to the time-dependent Schrödinger equation

$$\hat{H}\Psi(\mathbf{r},t) = i\hbar\frac{\partial\Psi}{\partial t}$$
(114)

The central equation of quantum mechanics must be accepted as a postulate, as discussed in section 2.2.

**Postulate 6**. The total wavefunction must be antisymmetric with respect to the interchange of all coordinates of one fermion with those of another. Electronic spin must be included in this set of coordinates.

The Pauli exclusion principle is a direct result of this *antisymmetry principle*. We will later see that Slater determinants provide a convenient means of enforcing this property on electronic wavefunctions.

### ELEMENTARY TREATMENT OF ELECTRICAL PROPERTIES

The combination of atoms or ions is no longer a pair of ions, but rather a polar molecule which has a measureable dipole moment. The dipole moment (D) is defined as if there were a positive (+q) and a negative (-q) charge separated by a distance (r):

#### D=qr

If there is no difference in electronegativity between the atoms (as in a diatomic molecule such as O2 or F2) there is no difference in charge and no dipole moment. The bond is called a covalent bond, the molecule has no dipole moment, and the molecule is said to be non-polar. Bonds between different atoms have different degrees of ionicity depending on the difference in the electronegativities of the atoms. The degree of ionicity may range from zero (for a covalent bond between two atoms with the same electronegativity) to one (for an ionic bond in which one atom has the full charge of an electron and the other atom has the opposite charge).

# APPLICATIONS OF DIPOLE MOMENT

Dipole moment application in chemistry, used for calculation of ionic character of covalent bonds, bond angle, electric polarization, and polarity of bond in the molecule. For example, the homonuclear non-polar diatomic molecules like molecular hydrogen, oxygen, and nitrogen define zero dipole moment but for carbon monoxide, water, methane, ammonia, we use group moment to calculate the net dipole moment and polarity of the molecule in chemistry.

When a chemical bond is formed between two identical atoms, the bonding electron balances by two atoms. Therefore, the centers of gravity of the two-electron and nucleus coincide and calculated dipole moment equal to zero. But dipole moment arises for two dissimilar units like hydrochloric acid, two electrons are not symmetrically balanced, because the electron attraction force of the hydrogen atom and the chlorine atom is different.



Dipole moment shows when chlorine and bromine combine to form covalent HBr, the electron forming the covalent bond displaced towards the bromine atom without any separation of the nucleus.

Calculation of Dipole Moment

The dipole moment application uses to define the structure, bond angle, bond energy, and polarity of different molecules in chemistry. For mono-atomic noble gases and benzene are non-polar because the charge of the constituent atom is distributed symmetrically.

Polarity of the Diatomic Molecules

Polarity homonuclear diatomic molecules like nitrogen, oxygen, and chlorine have zero due to the symmetrical charge distributions and similar electronegativity and ionization energy. Hydrogen bromide and hydrogen iodide have non zero dipole moment indicates the unsymmetrical charge distribution between two bonding chemical elements.

Due to the difference in electronegativity of the constituent atoms in heteronuclear diatomic molecules always polar. Hence the electron pair is not equally shared in hydridized orbital and shifted to the more electronegative atom. Therefore,  $\mu$ HCl = 1.03 Debye,  $\mu$ HBr = 0.79 Debye,  $\mu$ HI = 0.38 Debye,  $\mu$ HF = 2.00 Debye.

# Dipole Moment of the Water Molecule

Due to the non-linear structure of the water molecule, we can calculate the net electric dipole moment from the bond moment of water, which  $\neq 0$ . If the dipole moment of the water molecule,  $\mu = 1.84$  D and bond moment = 1.60 D. Therefore,  $(1.84)2 = 2 (1.60)2 (1 + \cos\theta)$ ; or  $\theta = 105^{\circ}$ . The contribution of non-bonding electron toward the total dipole moment is included within the bond moment of water.

Polarity of boron trifluoride

Boron trichloride, boron trifluoride are the tetratomic compound having dipole moment zero, indicating that they have a regular planar structure.



Halogen atoms are on a plane at the corner of the equilateral triangle and boron atom at the intersection of the molecules. Thus the  $\mu$  of the above molecules is zero.

# Polarity of Ammonia

Other types of the molecule such as ammonia and phosphine are polar, where  $\mu \neq 0$  indicated that the molecule has a pyramidal structure. Hence three hydrogen atoms on a plane and nitrogen atom at the apex of the pyramid in ammonia and phosphine. But NF3 shows a very small bond moment although there is a great difference of electronegativity and electron affinity between nitrogen and fluorine atoms and a similar structure of NH3.

This low value of  $\mu$  in NF3 is explained by the fact that the resultant bond moment of the three nitrogen – fluorine bonds are acting in the opposite direction to that of the lone pair

placed at the nitrogen-atom. But in NH3, the resultant bond moment is acting in the same direction as that of the lone pair electrons.

# **MAGNETIC PROPERTIES OF MATTER**

Magnetic properties of matter. All matter exhibits magnetic properties when placed in an external magnetic field. Even substances like copper and aluminum that are not normally thought of as having magnetic properties are affected by the presence of a magnetic field such as that produced by either pole of a bar magnet .

# Magnetic properties

These magnetic moments come from two types of motion of electrons:

- 1. The orbital movement around the nucleus of an atom.
- 2. When the electron spins around its own axis.

On the basis of the magnetic properties solids can be classified as follows:

Properties	Description	Alignment of magnetic dipoles	Examples	Application
Diamagnetic	They are weakly repelled by the magnetic fields	All the electrons in the orbitals are paired and are completely filled.	NaCl, Benzene	Behaves like an insulator.
Paramagnetic	They are weakly attracted by the magnetic fields.	Contains at least one unpaired electron in the orbital.	$O_2$ , $Cu^{2+}$ etc.	Electronic appliances
Ferromagnetic	Strongly attracted by the magnetic field. It can be magnetized permanently	Consists of unpaired electrons, all having the same direction	Cobalt, nickel, CrO <sub>2</sub> etc.	CrO <sub>2</sub> is commonly used in making cassette recorder.
Antiferromagnetic	Net magnetic moment	Dipole	NiO, MnO,	_

	is zero.	moments are arranged in a compensatory way	V <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub> etc.	
Ferrimagnetic	Possess small net magnetic moments	Unequal number of parallel and antiparallel arrangement of magnetic moments	Fe <sub>3</sub> O <sub>4</sub>	_

DIONB-4 വെണ്ട്ര ദ്വേദിധിവാ இரண்டு மதிப்பைண் வினாக்கள் 1. OUTBATANT ATOONI LOOTH OTOSTATION OTOSTOST? പി. ഇതായത്ത് ക്ലാമം സംപ്രം ക്നാനം ചിത്ത്യയും 3. அவைத் திகளின் ஸ்ந்நாடிங்கா் அலை வசயல் பாடனட எடுதுக 4. ADUBJELITBET stootmona otostost? Soot Enny Bort atost mna atostar? 5. ചത്വായപ്പ - ഇടത് പതില്പ. 6. அரையறு - இருடுகை நிரப்புத்றன். 7. 8. கூயூரி തച്ച ப்பந்தை என்றால் என்ன? 9. இதுக்கக்காந்த அற்றவுக்கு தில உதாரணங்களை தகுக. 10. லபர்தா மற்றும் ஆன்மலபர்தா காந்தத்தற்கு இரண்டு ട്ചോബ്ബ് നെ നെ നെ ஐந்து மகிப்பைன் தினாக்கள் 1. வைறலைன்பாக் கட்டிலா கான்னையப் பற்றி கிகூறப்பு வ 2. ஸ்க்ராடிங்சர் அலைச்சார்பு சமண்பாடனட அருக்கி எருத 3. (อยากอับเปล้อยเลี้สอาโมอมีอีก ซาร์ม ธลาเยมาติสอาก คุร 4. DE Good AGUHS Sport Front Duyli Stoppli 96 (formone or (fglos. 5. താപാനങന്റെ മത്തിന് വന്തനങ്ങള് തായിടത്ത கேறியல்த்தில் காணாக. പട്ടുള്ള പങ്കിയായത്ത് ഇത്തന്ത് കണ് 1. BL 258000 bognilio aggitlen 65150000 മിലന 2. ஒரு பர்மாண வட்டியில் திகள் — ചிளக்குக. 3. അന്ധ ക്രാഗ്കള് ഇക്കന്ത് ചില്ലങ്ങ്ങനെ ഇന്ചന് ചിച്ചർ Seanned by TapScanner

கவாண்டம் இந்திறியல்

டி பிராக்ளி சமன்பாடும் லபாருண்மை அலையும்

டி பிராக்ளியின் கூற்றுப்படி ஒவ்வாரு வபாருண்மைக் தொகைம் ஒரு அலையுடன் இணைக்கி எண்ணப்படல் கவண்டும். நகர்ந்து வகாண்டிருக்கும் ஒரு துகளின் டுடுக்கத்திற்கும் அதன் அலை நீளத்திற்கும் திரைடீயைான தைரடர்பை அவர் மேன்வைழித்தார். அருவித்தல்

$$E = hv$$

Advarge Grander Lo 
$$p = \frac{h}{\lambda}$$
 (A)  $\lambda = \frac{h}{P}$  [:mc=P]

இது கேடி பிராக்ளியின் அடிப்படைச் சமன்பாடாகும். வொருண்மை தாகளுடன் இணைந்து எண்ணர்ப்பட கவண்டில பொருண்டை - அலையின் அலை நீனமாகில & – வை இது தகுகிறது. பொருண்மைடித் துகள்கள் அலைப்பண்டிகளைப் ரகிறது. பொருண்மைடித் துகள்கள் அலைப்பண்டிகளைப் பாற்றிருந்தமையால் அவை வொருண்மை அலைகள் எனக்

செறிப்பட்டான. மேற்தூறிய சமன்பாடு ஏபாருண்மை உடைய, v என்ற திரைச கவகத்திடன் ரதார்நீதி தொண்டிருக்கும் எந்தத் துகளுக்கும் திரைச கவகத்திடன் ரதார்நீதி தொண்டாடு வாருநீதக்கடியது. இப்போது சமைன்பாடு

$$S = \frac{h}{mv} \operatorname{otorim} \pi \operatorname{otorim} \pi \operatorname{otorim} \sigma$$



E – எலக்டறான் சந்றை N – நிக்கல் படிகம் MC – நசுகும் ஏற்பி G1 – கால்வரை மீட்டர்

\* ஆயான இரைடி ஒன்றிலிருந்து எலக்டீறான்கள் உயிடிய் பென்றன இவை முடுக்கப்படல் ஒரு நிக்கல் படிகத்தின் மீது கடாதுமாது செய்யப்படுகின்றன. X – கதிர்கள் போண்ற கிளிம்பு வரைவைய பக்கங்கள் கிடைக்கின்றன. இச்சோதனை எலக்டீறா வசுள்ளீ அலைப்பண் பிற்டு, அதாவது வொருணியை அவை என்ற கடுத்திற்கு தேதடிச் சான்றாக அமைந்தது.

1. பாரீன் தொள்ளையும், அதன் விரிவுபடுத்தப்பட்ட அடிவமான சாமர் வைல்லி விதான் வரும் வைது உற்கன் நிறவையும் அறிவும்னா நடின் வரிகளையும் வினக்கிய போரிவூம் திளவ ஒரு எலக் உறானை திடக் கூடுதலான எலக் உறான் களைய நைரண்ட தனிமங்களின் நிரல் கனையும் மூலக் வறி நிறல்களையும கணிதத்துல் வியத்து டன் வினக்குவதாக தின்னை.

2. நுளிக்டூ எ. ரியல்புப் பண்டி உள்ளது என இன்ஸ்ட்ட மன் குடி டிக்காடிடினார். ஒளிலைப் தபான்றே வைக்கோஷம் நட அலையைப் கபாலவும் இடு துகனைப் தபாலவும் கையல் பகொது அலையைப் கபாலவும் இடு திறில நகர்ந்து கொண்டிக்கில் துகள்ள 2. எலக்டீதான் கிரீல்றி இடு சிறில நகர்ந்து கொண்டிக்கில் துகள்ள உர்தும் மற்றபிட் அது இருக்கிட் இடம் அகில இரண்டையும் இது கடலத்தில் துல்லியமாக அன விட மூடிலாது என்று ஆன்ஸன்றைக் என்ற மற்றைற்கு விற்தானி கூருத்துத் தைரிவித்தார். இத்தையன் திண்ண மின்னம் திரைனை கன அன்றுக்கப்படுகிறது.

Bootoon Loon on one (uncertainity principle) பாருண்மையின் எர்ரியல்புத் தன்மையின் மிக முக்கியமான விளைவு திண்ணமன்மைக் கொள்கை அதம். இக்கொள்கையின் படி ஒரு சிறிய நகரும்பையருள்ள உந்தம் மற்றும் அது இருக்கும் இடம் அதிய இரண்பையும் ஒதர சமயத்தில் துல்லியமாகக் சுண்க்கிட (440ாதி. இந்தத்தை தில்லியமாக அளவிட (சற்படும்போது துகன் இருக்குமிடத்தை நாணயித்தல் அவ்வளவு துல்லிய மாக இருப்பதில்லை. மாறாக திகள் உள்ள இடத்தை Lobகத் தில்லியத் BIL Boot எ தின்ணமில்லாமலா அகிவிடுகிறது. இன்வாறாத ஒரு பண்பைத் திண்ணமாக நிர்ணயித்தால் மற்றறாரு பணியை நிரணமித்தலில் திண்ண புகத்தப்படுகிறது. இருக்குமிடத்தை நிர்ண யித்துலில் உள்ள திண்ண மன்மை ∆× മന്നുഥ് ഉന്നു കുറ്റത്തു കുറ്റത്തു ക്രാക്കാക്ക് കുന്നത്തെ കുന്നത്തെ കുറ്റതിന് 2000 5) கான மன் க ( DP / Dmv ) அதியனாவு கூறிஸ் சிறபர்க் FLOONUMELITON Montal Glangel OBANGELIGUES BUT UL DOMONOOT.

ΔΧ × ΔΡ > <sup>h</sup>2π; or ΔΧ × Δmy > <sup>h</sup>/2π. பாந்த) вபான்ற ஒரு வார்ய வானேக்கும், எலக்டீரான் போன்றவதாரு சிறிய திகனக்கும், அவற்றில் ஒருகலாற்றில் 2 ன்ன ஒரு துல்லியமான கூறிபாடீனடர் கடியுக்காடீடுதல் இங்கு அவசியமாகிறது. வாரிய வாருள்கனைப் வாருத்த வன்றயில் вமலே கூறப்பட ΔΧ மற்றும் ΔΡ தில்லது Dmv அதியவற்றின் வாகுக்குத்தைராகை தன்னார் தக்க அன வி தலதாகி இருக்கும்-

Connatice organ alwalan seguernansin So obgerningente suji wou die Barnin i obfigelui Adores Brown Shut And with 2 Bartini un Dienon Gl. 1. 2 adrogili 8577 fin 98 some ister aunite More 4(x,t) ontragué somié en illerné stradené van jogi Déseñy x-in starrige witherstori againterwan Una armon songeli goliongiumen songingers way the Europei AL Dudinni minere quer Oli. 5 4 · (x. 2) 4 (x. 2) dx = 1 - 0 4"- 4 in Dormond Shana way in Bli 4 doing go i Bi etrisonivaris i aning stangen sincerivaris-i aving wing of y august (i=1) 2. y(x,t) in boyin stone in a gy(x,t) dx about. Olgon 22 (x,t)/dx2 Oboli. Donelyli x.in sunoriger Lapling Borg BOLD OGNLITZERWARD, UNA almon, Longraphi For LOUDION OF LOPILYOLWOODSOMNOGE 3. ത്യണ്ട്ട് ഒ ഒരുനുക്കിൽ പുറത്തെ വാത്നു മുക്നിതാത 2007 மல்ட்டன் 05 யலி ஒன்றின் வாயிலாகக் இறிப்பிடிவாக். A oriented is orswall, Dian al Bis Buingsportation frommer சைய்யுமாயின், அது உறாமில்பன் காயவி எனப்படுகிறது Syi \* A Widx = Syi (AWI) \* dx - (2) Seanned by TapScanner

4 வசலனிச் சமன் பாடாகில Au; = ai u; — (3) என்ற சமன் பாடிக்ஸ் A என்னும் புலனாடு பன்பின் அனுமதிக்கப்பட மதிப்புகள் இசுன் மதிப்புகள் a; அதும். சமன் பாடு(3) என்பது இசுன் மதிப்புச் சமன் பாடு எனப் படும். இங்கு A என்பதி புலனாடு பண் பிற்கான சைல விலாடும். மற்றும் யு, என்பது ai இசுன் மதிப்புடைய A யின் ஒடு இசுன் சார்பாடும். தவு அவனையில் தேரின் A என்னும் புலனாடு பண் பினை திளைத்தறிர்தாண் இசுன் மதிய்பு ai கிடைக்கும்.

5. A என்றும் சைலவிக்கு ஈடான ஒரு புலனாக பண்டி Aயின் சுராசரி மதிப்பு <A> பின்வரும் தொடர்பின் மூலம் வார்லக்கிறது

$$\overline{A} \equiv \langle A \rangle = \int_{-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi^* \hat{A} \psi dx$$

$$X \equiv \langle X \rangle_{-\infty}^{\infty} \varphi^* \hat{X} \psi dx$$

மாறிவிகளின் வாயிலாக மரபுவழகீ வூரடர்களை எருதிப் மன்னர் தறப்படிடுள்ளவாறு அத்தொடர்களை சையலிகளாக மாற்றி புலனாடு பண்புகளுக்கு எட்டான (தவாண்ட்டம் எர்திரவியல் செயலிகள் கடிடமைக்கப்படுகின்றன.

அவைச்சார்பு என்பது (x, t)  $A \varphi(x, t) = i \hbar \frac{\partial \psi(x, t)}{\partial t}$  என்ற துகைபாடீடின் ஒரு தீர்வு ஆகுடும். இரங்கு  $\hat{H}$  என்பத அமைப்பின் ஹாமில் ட்டன் சையனியாடும். 29 JTH 4 TELEST Stonové FLOOTLING (Schrodingers Wave Equation)

நிகழ்த்தவு அணுகு முறையை அறிவுப் பூர்வமானதாக்கவும் பாருளுடையதாக்கவும் ஷீராடிங்கர் ஒரு சமன் பாடீடை வருவித்தார். இச்சமன் பாடு அவர் வையரிலேயே அராடிங்கர் இலைச்சமன் பாடு எனப்படுகிறது. அவையிக்கவியலின் உயிர்நாடி இச்சமன் பாடாடும். அணுக்கருவைச் குடிந்தி நீன் நி தொண்டிருக்கும் அலையாக எலக் டீரான் கருத்ப் பட்டு, அர்தி அடிப்படையில் இச்சமன் பாடு தரப்பட்டுள்ளது.

ஒரு பரிமாண ந்திற்கான ஆராடி வீகள் சமன்பாடு மன்றுகுமாறு

$$\frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} + \frac{8\pi^2 m}{h^2} (E-U) \psi = 0$$
  
Duffermit 4monaberfulle Levenverbinde interverbinde i

G

#Lo

$$\frac{d^{2}\psi}{dx^{2}} + \frac{d^{2}\psi}{dy^{2}} + \frac{d^{2}\psi}{dz^{2}} + \frac{8\pi^{2}m}{h^{2}}(E-U)\psi = 0$$

$$\Re g_{1}g_{2}g_{1} + \frac{d^{2}\psi}{dz^{2}} + \frac{8\pi^{2}m}{h^{2}}(E-U)\psi = 0$$

$$\Re g_{1}g_{2}g_{1} + \frac{d^{2}\psi}{dz^{2}} + \frac{8\pi^{2}m}{h^{2}}(E-U)\psi = 0$$

$$\Re g_{1}g_{2}g_{1} + \frac{2m}{h^{2}}(HB)g_{2}g_{1} + \frac{2m}{h^{2}}(E-U)\psi = 0$$

$$\nabla^{2}\psi \frac{8\pi^{2}m}{h^{2}}(E-U)\psi = 0$$

பல் 8 வறு உறுப்புகளுக்கான விளக்கம்: ▽<sup>2</sup> என்பது

ourisea aplución ostual (Laplacian operator) 2686.

$$\nabla^2 \psi = \frac{d^2 \psi}{dx^2} + \frac{d^2 \psi}{dy^2} + \frac{d^2 \psi}{dz^2}$$

இங்க X, Y மற்றிம் z அகியனவ மூன்றி திரைசகள்வும் ஏற்படும் இடப்பையர்ச்சி அடும். டி = ஒரு கணிரச் சார்பு, அவையின் வீச்சைக் இறிக்கிறது. m = துகளினின் வைக்கே h = பிளாங்க் மாறிவி; E = திகளின் மொந்ற அதற்றவ். U = திகளின் நிலையாற்றவ்.

# முக்கியத்து வடம்

அறாடிங்கா அலைச்சமன்பாடிடிற்கப் பல தீர்வுகள் உண்டு அவற்றில் ஒரு சில தீர்வுகள் மடீடுகம் முக்கிலத்துவும் ஒ!ாய்ந்தவை, இந்ற முக்கியத்துவம் வாய்நீத மதிப்புகள் இதன் மதிப்புகள் எனப்படுகின்றன. இந்ற இசன் மதிப்புகள் சில, தனித்தனியாக உள்ள, அற்றல் மதிப்புகளின் வர்சைகளை திறுக்கும். இனவ ஹைடிற்றதன் அணுவிற்கான போரின் கொள்கையில் குறிப்பிடப்பட்ட அதற்றுல் டெட்டாங்களுக்கு நடின்கையில் குறிப்பிடப்பட்ட அதற்றுல் டெட்டாங்களுக்கு நடின்கையில் குறிப்பிடப்பட்ட அதற்றுல் டெட்டாங்களுக்கு நடில் மட்டங்கள் தன்றுல் மட்டாங்களுக்கு திறிப்பிடப்பட்ட அதற்றில் மட்டாங்கள் துல்லது ஆர்பிட்டுகளை திறிப்பிடப்பட்ட இதற்றில் மட்டாங்கள் துல்லது ஆர்பிட்டுகளை திற்தி ஐதன் தோர்புகளின் இனைவுகளாகை கொன்னலாடு

# இடுமுனனத் திருப்புர்திறும்

ஒரு மின்சுமையினுமை எண் அளவை, இரண்டு மின் சுமைகளுக்கு இடைலே உள்ள தாரத்தால் (பிணைப்பு தீனத்தால்) வைகுக்கில் திடைக்கக் நடில மதிப்பே இருமுனை திருப்புத்திறமாகும். (பு)

$$u = \mathbf{Z} \mathbf{X} \mathbf{d}$$

இருமுனைன் நிருப்புத்திறும் = ஆரு முனையில் உள்ள மன்கிலை × தாரம்.

நிரீணயித்தல் வைப்பநிலை முறை (அவியடரீத்தி முறை)மூலமீ முறைனவு வகாண்ட சூலக்கூறுகளைக்டு

$$P = P_1 + P_0$$

$$P = 4\sqrt{3}\pi N\alpha + \frac{4}{3}\pi N \left[\frac{\mu^2}{3kT}\right] - 0$$

$$P = A + \frac{B}{T}$$

$$A = \frac{4}{3} \text{TIN} \times B = \frac{4}{3} \text{TIN} \left[ \frac{H^2}{3\kappa T} \right]$$

என தேட நிலையான இடு முனை கொண்ட முனைவுள்ள மூலக் தற்கனைப் பொருத்த அறை பொத்த தமாலாள் முனைவு தொள்ளல் p-த்தும் 'து தீதும் எதிதே போடப்படும் அறைபடம் இடு தேள் தொடீடைக் வகாடுக்க தவண்டும். தே தீர்லிருத்து μ தின் மதிப்பைக் கணக்கிடலாம்.

CC14, CH4 Burron முனைவிற்ற மூலக்கறனால் µ=0 ஆனசுலால் B=0 என்கவ Pக்கும் 1/7 க்கும் Bur Li படும்வுறை 1/4 அச்சுக்கே இணையான இரு கர்கோடன்புக் கொடுக்கிறது.

மூலக்தூறு தன்ன் அழவங்கள் சகபணைப்பு மூலக்கூறுகளின் அடிவங்களை இருமனை திருப்புத்திற அளவீடுகளிலிருந்து அரியலாம்.

(റ) CO2 - മിൽ இരുക്തത திருப்புத்திறம் பூல்லம். കംസങ്ങുവ BETT BBATLLOODLILL (0= C=0) கொண்டிருந்தால் மட்டு BLO இத കിയപ്പാം കിര് (c=0) നിത്താൽ ப്പുകണ്ടുംബം കിര്യം താത് திருப்புத் திற மதிப்புகள் சமமாகவும் வதிர் வதிர் திகையிலும் இருப்பதனாஸ் ஒன்றை ஒன்று நீக்கி திடுகின்றன. நமக்டூ  $P = P_0 + P_D$  storing out of the pie  $C_2 - 2/5 = \mu = 0$  or an By  $P_0 = 0$ அத்த 621  $P = P_D$ . 2 (6 ( மைல் ) முறையில்  $P_D - or$ Honzy (A/3) TI Noc 211620. DB ODDIL BOONOODUL ത്ഥ എങ് എട്ടത്ത. എട്ടില്ല CO2 ചിൽ Blonon i (pതൽ a) തുന്നത് തല്പാട്ടത്തത്തം ത്വന്നേറ്റുട്ടത്ത. நித்தலமான இருமுனை திருப்புத்திறும் தொண்டுள்ள Balgi work B g Bonneloot HCN, H202, RCI, RBr, 6) RI, ROH, ROR, RCOR, RCN, RNO2 RNH2, Bunoimonal.

பாருன் காந்தப் பண்பு கள் பாதாதாந்தத் தன்னமனையயும் பயாகாந்தற் தண்ணமனையயும் ஒப்பிடுதல் 100014 レカガカあかあろう LWHBHBAS 8 atronio / தன்மை / பொடுள OUTBO ന്ന്നിത്ഥ சார்ந்திரைப்பதில்லை Fring GUUS inon காந்தப் புலச்தைற்றை சார்ந்திருத்தல் ട്രമ്പ നുന്നത്വം 21 1. காந்த உடிக திறன் மு >1 குறைவாக இருக்கும் FBG JONTES BOSBL காந்த ஏற்புத் திறைகள் மதிப்பு'x 2. எதிர்மதியிடி 6ரதர் மதிப்பு பின் துடை கோண உந்தம் eparte 3. FITT AS BUUSINE กฎมับเห็วอาณ 2000 வைப்புக்லையை 4. ₿⊔nது **டு**றைகிறத]. சாள்ந்றகுதீல காந்தப் பாமம் காந்ச விசையின் RG തµா@ன்ன் அழி8ம ത≠ல்ஷµம மைராத்த அரிகள் அல்லது மைரத்த காந்தப் புலம் தாந்தப்பாலம் எனப்படுகிறது. Seanned by TapScanner

# பைர்தா காந்தத்தன்டை.

பாராகாந்தும் வொஞ்சு தனைப் குபான்று ஆயிறம் மடங்கு அதிகமான காந்த உடிகு திறனைக் கொண்டுள்ள பொஞ்சுகள் வைர்றோ காந்தும் வபாருள்கள் எனம்படும். இந்தப் வபாஞ்சுகள் ஒரு காந்தும் புலத்தில் வைக்கப்படுமானன் வாருள்கள் தைரு காந்தும் புலத்தில் வைக்கப்படுமானன் வாருகாந்தும் வாருள்களில் திரைக்க கோகெகளின் எசரிவு பாறாகாந்தும் வபாருள்களில் உள்ளதை விட ஆயிரம் டிடங்கு அதிகமாக இருக்கும். (எ. கா.) Fe, co, Ni x உலாகக் கணைகள் இவற்றின் காந்த ஏற்புத்றிறன், வைப்பந்லை உயகும்8 மாது தேறைகிறது. க்யூரி புன்னி (curie point) அல்லது க்யூரி வைப்பநிலை (curie temperature) என்ற நிலைமாறு வைப்பநிலைக்கு குமல் அவை பாறாகாந்தத் தன்மை வைப்பநிலைக்கு கிலை அவை பாறாகாந்தத் தன்மை வற்றவிகையாகி திடுகின்றன.

<u>எதிர் வடர்றோ தார்த்தன்றைம்</u> எதிர் - வடர்தோ தார்த்தர் தீன்றைம் கொண்ட வபாகுள்கள் எதிர் - வடர்தோ தார்த்தர் தீன்றைம் கொண்ட வபாகுள்கள் சில உள்ளன. இவற்றின் X இறைர்த மற்றும் கேர்மதிப்பைப் சில உள்ளன. இவற்றின் X இறைர்த மற்றும் கேர்மதிப்பைப் வற்றுள்ளன. நீல் புள்ள (Neel point) நீல் வைப்பரிவை (Neel temperature) என்னும் திறிப்பிட்ட வைப்புதிலையில் அவை திலைமாற்றுமடைத்து வைர்தோ தார்த்தப் வொருள்களாக மாற்று மடை தின்றன.

இது நாந்தப்புலஞ்தின் சுறினவு பெர்ருத்திருக்கலாம். எதிர் பார்கோ தாந்தத்தன்மைக்கான மூல காரணி இருமுனை பரிமாற்றம் அடும் (1)

# UNIT V

# **DILUTE SOLUTIONS**

### TWO MARKS.

- 1.Define dilute solution.
- 2. What are colligative properties?
- 3.State Raoult's law.
- 4. What are the limitations of Raoult's law?
- 5. Why solutions of electrolyte do not obey Rauolt's law? Give the reason.
- 6. What is Osmotic Pressure?
- 7.State the law of osmosis .
- 8. What is meant by Isotonic solutions?
- 9.Define Vant hoff factor.
- 10. What are degree of dissociation of solutes?
- 11. What are degree of association of solutes?
- 12. How do you obtain abnormal molar masses?

# FIVE MARKS

- 1. Derive an expression that is useful for calculating the molecular weight of solute.
- 2. Derive an expression for relative lowering of vapour pressure.
- 3. Explain the analogy between osmotic pressure and gas pressure.
- 4. Derive an expression for relation between relative lowering of vapour pressure and elevation of boiling point.
- 5. Describe one method to determine the depression of freezing point.
- 6. Write a short notes on Vant's Hoff factor.

# **TEN MARKS**

1. Derive the relationship between osmotic pressure and lowering of vapour pressure for a solution.

2. Derive an expression connecting the elevation boiling point and molality of a solution.

3. Derive the expression for the cryoscopic constant of a volatile solvent in terms of its molar heat of fusion and freezing point.

4. Show how from osmotic pressure measurements the molecular weight of a substance can be determined.

5. Describe the cottrell's method.

# **DILUTE SOUUTIONS**

A Dilute solution is one in which a relatively small amount of the solute is dissolved in the solvent.Colligative properties of a dilute solution are those properties which depend entirely upon the number of particles of the solute present in a given volume of a solvent and not upon the nature of the solute.

The relative lowering of vapour pressure of a solution is equal to the mole fraction of the solute present in the solution.

P1=x1p01

Raoult's law is not applicable to solutions of electrolytes because they dissociate into ions when they are dissolved in water.

The pressure exerted by sugar solution in the capillary tube above the level of water in the beaker is called the osmotic pressure of the solution.i) Temperature remaing constant,the osmotic pressure of a solution is directly proportional to the concentration of the solute,that is at constant T.

ii) The osmotic pressure of a solution of a given concentraton is directly proportional to its temperature on Kelvin scale that is at constant C.

iii) At a given temperature solutions having equal molar concentrations of different soluteshave the same osmotic pressure.

Two solutions with same osmotic pressure are called isotonic solutions.

The ratio between the experimental value of a colligative property and the theoretical value is known as the vant hoff factor,i.

Degree of dissociation of a is the ratio between the number of molecules dissociated and total number of molecules taken.

By degree of association is meant the fraction of the total number of molecules which combine to form bigger molecules.

# RELATIVE LOWERING OF VAPOUR PRESSURE

Let us assume a binary solution in which the mole fraction of the solvent be  $x_1$  and that of the solute be  $x_2$ , p1 be the vapour pressure of the solvent and  $p_1^{\circ}$  be the vapour pressure of the solvent in pure state.

According to Raoult's Law:

The decrease in vapour pressure of the solvent  $(\Delta p_1)$  is given by:

 $\Rightarrow \Delta p_1 = p_1^{\circ} - p_1$ 

 $\Rightarrow \Delta p_1 = p_1^o \cdot p_1^o x_1$ 

[using equation (1)]

 $\Rightarrow \Delta p_1 = p_1^o (1 - x_1)$ 

Since we have assumed the solution to be binary solution,  $x_2=1-x_1$ 

 $\Rightarrow \Delta p_1 = p_1^{o} x_2$ 

 $\Rightarrow x_2 = \Delta p_1/p_1^o$ 

The above equation gives the relative lowering in vapour pressure which is equal to the mole fraction of the solute.

# **Colligative Properties and Determination of Molar Mass**

When we a non-volatile solute in a volatile solvent we observe that there is a decrease in vapour pressure of the solution. This decrease of vapour pressure can be quantitatively used to measure several properties of liquid solutions. These properties depend more on solute particles of the solution and are called colligative properties. The word "**colligative**" is derived from the Latin word "**coligare**" which means "to bind together". The following properties come in the category of colligative properties.

- Relative Lowering of Vapour Pressure
- Elevation of Boiling Point
- Depression of Freezing Point
- OsmosisandOsmoticPressure

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Relative Lowering of Vapour Pressure
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Image 1: There is a relative lowering of vapour pressure because less surface area is available for the solvent molecules to escape out.

The vapour pressure of a solvent is lowered when we add a non-volatile solute in it; this is called **Lowering of Vapour Pressure**. The French chemist François-Marie Raoult's observed that the concentration of solute particles is mainly responsible for the lowering of vapour pressure and also discovered a relation between vapour pressure of solution, vapour pressure of pure solvent and mole fraction of solute and solvent.





If the vapour pressure of the solution is  $P_1$ , the vapour pressure of the pure solvent is  $P_1^0$  and mole fraction of solvent is  $x_1$ , then according to Raoult's Law:

 $\mathbf{P}_1 = \mathbf{P}_1^0 \mathbf{x}_1$ 

The decrement in vapour pressure of solvent that is,  $\Delta P_1$  will be

Decrement in Vapour Pressure = Vapour Pressure of Pure Solvent – Vapour Pressure of Solvent

 $\Delta P_1 = P_1^0 - P_1$ Substituting  $P_1 = P_1^0 x_1$  in the above relation we get,  $\Delta P_1 = P_1^0 - P_1^0 x_1$   $\Delta P_1 = P_1{}^0 (1 - x_1)$ 

Since the sum of mole fraction of solute  $(x_2)$  and mole fraction of solvent  $(x_1)$  is 1, we can write

 $1 - x_1 = x_2$  $\Delta P_1 = P_1^0 x_2$ 

It is obvious that decrease in vapour pressure depends on mole fraction of solute  $(x_2)$  as mentioned by Raoult's.

The equation can be re-written as:

$$\frac{\Delta P_1}{P_1^0} = X_2$$

 $\frac{\Delta P_1}{D^0}$ 

The term <sup>11</sup> is called **Relative Lowering** in vapour pressure and equals to mole-fraction of the solute.

If  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the respective moles of solute and solvent, then we can re-write the equation as:

$$\frac{\Delta P_1}{P_1^0} = \frac{n_2}{n_1 + n_2}$$

If the solution is quite diluted, we can neglect moles of solute  $n_1$  in front of moles of solvent  $n_2$ . So, in case of dilute solution, the equation becomes

$$\frac{\Delta P_1}{P_1^0} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \qquad (n_1 \gg \gg n_2)$$

We know that moles of any substance can be calculated by dividing the given mass by its molecular mass. Then moles of solute  $(n_2)$  is equal to

$$n_2 = \frac{m_2}{M_2}$$

where  $m_2$  and  $M_2$  are given mass and molecular mass of solute. Similarly, a mole of solvent  $(n_1)$  equals

$$n_1 = \frac{m_1}{M_1}$$

Substituting the value of  $n_1$  and  $n_2$  in the dilute solution vapour pressure relation, we get

$$\frac{\Delta P_1}{P_1^0} = \frac{m_2 \times M_1}{m_1 \times M_2}$$

So, we know the other quantities, we can easily determine the molar mass of solute  $M_2$  with the above relation.

### **Elevation of Boiling Point**

We know that on addition of non-volatile solute in a solvent, the vapour pressure of the solvent decreases. However the boiling point of the solution is greater than that of the pure solvent, this is because vapour pressure is directly proportional to temperature. And in order to boil a solution, we need to raise the boiling point of the solution to a certain temperature. This raising of temperature is called elevation of boiling point and just like the relative lowering of vapour pressure it also depends on solute particles in the solution.

Mathematically, if  $T_b{}^0$  is the boiling point of pure solvent and  $T_b$  denotes boiling point of the solution, then elevation in boiling point (denoted by  $\Delta T_b$ ) is  $\Delta T_b = T_b - T_b{}^0$ 

Experimentally it has been found that elevation in boiling point in dilute solutions is directly proportional to molality 'm' of solute present in a solution.

 $\Delta T_b \propto m$ 

 $\Delta T_b = K_b m$ 

The term molality 'm' denotes the number of moles of solute present in 1000 g or 1 kg of solvent. In the relation  $K_b$  is the called molal elevation constant or ebullioscopic constant. The standard unit of molal elevation constant  $K_b$  is K kg mol<sup>-1</sup>.

Let  $m_1$  and  $m_2$  be the given masses of solvent and solute respectively. And molar masses of solute be  $M_2$  and that of solvent is  $M_1$ , then molality can be evaluated from the relation:

$$m = \frac{\frac{m_2}{M_2}}{\frac{m_1}{1000}} = \frac{1000 \times m_2}{M_2 \times m_1}$$

Putting the value of molality in the boiling elevation relation, we get

$$\Delta T_{b} = \frac{k_{b} \times 1000 \times m_{2}}{M_{2} \times m_{1}}$$

Hence, if know the remaining quantities we can easily determine the molar mass of solute with the boiling elevation relation.

### **Depression of Freezing Point**

When the vapour pressure of a solution is reduced, the freezing of the solution decreases. The freezing point of a solution is defined as the temperature at which vapour pressure of its substance become equal in liquid and vapour phase. If the vapour pressure of the solution equals to vapour pressure of the pure solvent, then the

solution will be frozen. According to Raoult's Law when we add a non-volatile solute in a solvent we find that the freezing point of the solution is slightly less than that of the pure solvent. This is called depression of freezing point.

The freezing point depression is denoted by  $\Delta$   $T_{\rm f}$  and equals to  $\Delta$   $T_{\rm f}$  =  $T_{\rm f}{}^0$  -  $T_{\rm f}$ 

The freezing point depression for dilute solutions is directly proportional to molality of the solute, just like the boiling elevation point. That is

 $\Delta T_{\rm f} \propto m$  $\Delta T_{\rm f} = K_{\rm f} m$ 

The proportionality constant  $K_f$  is called **Molal Depression Constant** and is also known as **Cryoscopic Constant**, which depends upon the nature of the solvent.

We know that molality 'm' equals to

$$m = \frac{1000 \times m_2}{M_2 \times m_1}$$

where  $m_2$  is a mass of solute,  $m_1$  is a mass of solvent and  $M_2$  is the molar mass of added non-volatile solute.

Putting the value of molality in above equation we get depression in freezing point as

$$\Delta T_{f} = K_{f}m$$
$$\Delta T_{f} = \frac{K_{f} \times 1000 \times m_{2}}{M_{2} \times m_{1}}$$

Hence, we can use depression of freezing point to evaluate molar mass of solute.

#### **Osmosis and Osmotic Pressure**



#### Image 4: Osmosis process

Osmosis is defined as the flow of liquid through a semi-permeable membrane which allows only solvent molecules to pass through it. The term membrane can be wellunderstood from real life examples like blood cells get destroyed when placed in a salt-water solution, raw mangoes get shrined when we prepare pickles with brine solution etc. A membrane is a continuous sheet or film with a pore network embedded in such way that it allows only desired substances to flow through it. It can be natural like a pig's bladder or it can be man-made as cellophane is.

The membrane which allows only small solvent molecules to pass through it and resist the flow of bigger solute molecules is called **Semipermeable Membrane** or **SPM**. Osmotic Pressure is the defined as the extra pressure one can add to stop the solvent molecules to flow. In other words, the pressure exerted on a solution to prevent osmosis with the help of semi-permeable membrane is called **Osmotic Pressure**. Osmotic pressure is a colligative property and depends on solute particles of the solution. Experimentally for dilute solutions, osmotic pressure is

 $\pi = CRT$ 

where  $\pi$  is osmotic pressure, R is gas constant, T is constant and C denotes concentration or molarity of the solution.

Molarity (C) is defined as moles of solute divided by the volume of solution in liters. Mathematically

#### $C=n_2 \; / \; V$

where  $n_2$  is moles of solute and V is the volume of the solution. Putting the value of c in osmotic pressure we get

$$\pi = (n_2 / V) R T$$

Since moles  $n_2 = m_2 / M_2$ , where  $m_2$  is given mass and  $M_2$  is molar mass, we can derive a new relation between osmotic pressure and molar mass of solute  $M_2$  as

$$\pi = \frac{w_2 RT}{M_2 V}$$

Thus, if we know the remaining quantities we can easily determine the molecular masses of solute. In fact, this method is used to determine molecular masses of several biomolecules, proteins, and polymers. The advantage of using osmotic pressure is that we use molarity of the solution instead of molality at standard room temperature.

We can also determine density of the solution with the relation

 $\pi = d g h$ 

where  $\pi$  is osmotic pressure, d is density of the solution, g is acceleration due to gravity and h is height of the liquid column.



Image 5: Relation between osmotic pressure and density of the solution Notes:

- Two solutions which have same osmotic pressure are said to be isotonic solutions and when we separate these solutions by an SPM, osmosis never occurs
- The solution with higher osmotic pressure as compared to other solution is called **Hypertonic Solution**
- The solution with lower osmotic pressure as compared to other solution is called **Hypotonic Solution**

#### **Applications of Osmosis**

Osmosis process is of great utility in commercial and daily life. It has following applications:

• Reverse Osmosis, (a process in which we reverse the direction of osmosis by applying larger pressure than osmotic pressure on the other side, which help in getting pure solvent out of the solution) is used to obtain fresh water from the sea water



#### Image 6: We add cellulose acetate to act as semipermeable membrane

• Also, we use cellulose acetate membrane to obtain fresh water as it only allows pure water solvent molecules and is impermeable to impurities and ions present in contaminated water

#### Elevation of boiling point of dilute solutions

The boiling point of a pure liquid is the temperature at which its vapour pressure becomes equal to the atmospheric pressure. Since the vapour pressure of a solution is always lower than that of the pure solvent, it follows that the boiling point of a solution will always be higher than of the pure solvent.

In the Fig., the upper curve represents the vapour pressure - temperature dependance of the pure solvent. The lower curve represents the vapour pressure - temperature dependance of a dilute solution with known concentration. It is evident that the vapour pressure of the solution is lower than that of the pure solvent at every temperature. The temperature  $T^{\circ}$  gives the boiling point of the pure solvent and T the boiling point of the pure solution. This is because at these temperatures ( $T^{\circ}$ , T) the vapour pressures of pure solvent and solution becomes equal to the atmospheric pressure.



The elevation of boiling point =  $\Delta T_b = T - T^0$ 

Elevation of boiling point is found directly proportional to the molality of the solution (or) inturn the number of molecules of solute. Also it is independent of the nature of the solute for a non-volatile solute. Hence, boiling point elevation is a colligative property.

Thus it may be written as

 $\Delta T_b$  prop to m

#### Determination of molecular weight from boiling point elevation

By measuring the boiling point elevation of a solution of a known concentration, it is possible to calculate molecular weight of a non-volatile non-electrolyte solute.

 $\Delta T_b$  prop to m

 $\Delta T_b = K_b m$ 

The proportionality constant Kb is characteristic of the solvent and it is called the **molal boiling point elevation constant** or **ebullioscopic constant**. It is defined as the elevation of boiling point of one molal solution.

When  $n_2$  moles of the solute is dissolved in  $W_1$  kg of the solvent, the molality is given by  $n_2/W_1$ .

 $\Delta T_b = Kb W2 / M2W1$ 

Since  $W_2$ , is the weight of the solute, we can calculate the molecular weight of the solution using the following expression.

$$M2 = Kb \cdot W2 / \Delta T_b W_1$$

#### Determination of elevation of boiling point by Cottrell's Method

The apparatus (Fig.) consists of a boiling tube (a) which is graduated and contains weighed amount of the liquid under examination. An inverted funnel tube (b) placed in the boiling tube collects the bubbles rising from a few fragments of a porous pot placed inside the liquid. When the liquid starts boiling, it pumps a stream of a liquid and vapour over the bulb of the Beckmann thermometer (f) held a little above the liquid surface. In this way, the bulb is covered with a thin layer of boiling liquid which is in equilibrium with the vapour. This ensures that the temperature reading is exactly that of the boiling liquid and that superheating is minimum. After determining the boiling point of the pure solvent, a weighed amount of the solute is added and procedure is repeated for another reading. The vapours of the boiling liquid is cooled in a condenser (C) which has circulation of water through (d) and (e). The cooled liquid drops into the liquid in (a).



HONG-5 DITION LA L'UNLOU DE TIME සිස්නීන නතොලළබ - නතාලාගතු. 2. OBTODEETT LOOTHBON WHODER? 3. Japane afgoow of malos. 4. Japoni algulion alongwangson wronal? 5. 500 78 സിഡ് ഫിന്ന് നിടന് ചച്ചവം മിക്കായ മത്സന് നിച്ചും തിനെ --BITTOOTLO SEB. 6. ക്കിച്ചുന്ന പ്യാചിസ് ത്യാന്ത് ത്യാന്ത് ത്യാന് തുട്ടും പ്രാപ്പുന്നത് ത്യാന്ത് തുട്ട പ്രാപ്പുന്നത് ത്യാന്ത് തുട 7. 500 എട് പ്യാമിന് മിട്ടതായ കേന്വുക. ഇട്ടേപന്ത്ത് കത്യാക് തൽന്നസ് തൽത് ? 8. 9. OLTOOTL OMASSI FLOORUNGOOL DOOTWAL. 5താനവന്നുണ്കാണ്ത് വിന്താട് ഇദ്ദ്വാം ത്രാസത്തായ ഡനതാല ? 10. Bonjonun Génerantia Dooris algue oroituat whomal ? 11. 9 Unlolario la rejens romage mondi munorale July root of 20 நீது 105 ப்பைன் தினாக்கள் 1. 500 നവന്ത്രന്ത് ഹോദ്യാപ്പ നന്ന തയ്ക് താത്രങ്കി പട്ടത്കനാന് Barriconel താധ ചാര്ത്തിക്ക. 2. ஒப்பு ஆன்மருத்தக் குறைவிற்கான கமன்பாடனட வகவி). କର୍ଣ୍ଣରେ ଯମ୍ବାର୍ଭର ଅନ୍ତର୍ବ୍ୟୁର୍ତ୍ତରେ ଆଳ୍ୟ ଅନ୍ତର୍ବ୍ଧୁର୍ତ୍ତରେ 20101 QUY2100000 2non \$ 88. ලධ් නිව ගලින්න් හිතාන්තුමර මතා ගතාබ්තුනෙ Purioyis & Gomon obstruit Booot 21 (52). 200m good of good is Front while 30 BE no porton and and 5.



பத்து பதிப்பைண் தினாக்கள் കത്താമിന്റ്രിം കിരാപ ഡെന്ത് നെടുന്നത്തി ചിരുമി. 2. തുടന്നുിന്നതു ഉഡന്ത്യിന്റ്റ് കത്യാന് നിന്നത് ലിന്നതില് മന്തിം ളിത്വ Burnant നള്ന്വന്ത്വ ചിരുന്നി 3. உறைறவைத் தாழ்விற்டும் மற்றிம் கமாலார் உருகிகுவ் ດຢມໍມີເພື່ອງພັງຫຼືອີ ອີດກະຣິພພາສາ ດອາເມີ່າວາມ ଅକ୍ତିଅ). 4. சவ்ஜூ பறவல் அழுத்த அளவிகள் மூலம் மூலக்கது ഞാപ ആന്താനധിവന്റെ പ്രാലന്ത്വ കനത്താനഡ്? 5. 5ന് നേന്ന് നാത്തയ മിചനി.

நீர்த்த தறைசல்கள் ഏറ്റ കത്വാവനത്തി ക്രിങ്ങ് ത്രതന്റെ എന്നവു കത്യത്തവന്നത്ന കത്വന്റെ കോന്നും കോന്നും പോന്റെ കുന്നും കുന്നും പോലാം தானைகசாம் பண்டிகள்: ஒரு நீர்த்த கரைசலின் வதாகைசார் Lowigen என்பன இறிப்பிட்ட கீன அளவு கூரைப்பானிஸ் തെ ന്ന്ന് തെ തെ നേന്ന് ക്ലാന്ത്തിന് നൽ തിന്ന് നൽ തിന്നെ തെ പ முடும் வாகுத்து அமையும் (எ. கா) (i) නුනිසාලින්නුන් ලිකානුත් ii) පත්පුතියානුන් නැයුණුයි iii) 2001 for for in in (iv) and for ewing. Jajoic 2019]: 96 800 JEN 201 2014 252 21 216999

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என்பது ஒப்பு அதி அதுத்தத் தாச்பு எனப்பது.  $X_{2} = P_{1} - P_{1}$ : Boir Bortis songensonsie ரவுஸ்ட விழியின் கிரைபாடு Jajoil இத பாருந்தாது. இவ்விதி மோல் மின்னத்துடன் のあったみ いしの見あの見. சவ்ஆடு பரவுஸ் அருத்தும் Foi തിൽ കിന്നത്ന പങ്ങങ്ങങ്ങളില് ഉണ്ണ அருத்த கவறுபாட்டினாஸ் கவதி அருத்தத் தமநிலை வைறப்படுகிறது මාල්ඉ තිහාගාග 'h' ගැන් ඉත්අන්න හැ පොළන්ගේ නිත්හ නිය දේහින සාකාර්ග "P' ගැන්න නැතින් නිවාර් Bongen P. I oroin ABBBBBBBBBB 200000. P+IT otoin අපිද්දේනි වේග හිතු පෙනිස් කිලිපහස් අග BOUTILIMOTON BONG ALGESSLO MCT, P+TI, X) 353 DEBBUG



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அடுத்தத்திற்கும் ஒப்பு ஆதியகுற்றத் தாழ்வு சவ்துடைப்பு

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 $\ln \frac{P_0}{P} = \frac{\Delta H_v}{R} \left[ \frac{T - T_0}{T T_0} \right]$ TT. = T. 2  $\frac{\partial b \mathcal{E} \mathcal{E} \mathcal{E}}{P} = \frac{\Delta H_V}{R} \begin{bmatrix} \overline{T} - \overline{T_0} \\ -\overline{T_0}^2 \end{bmatrix}$  $(\dot{u}) \ln \frac{P_0}{P} = \Delta H_v \Delta T_b - (7)$   $\frac{1}{R} \frac{P_v}{T^2} = \frac{P_v}{R} \frac{\Delta T_b}{T^2} - (7)$ AHY -> BLOMOVITI 26 DW "BAN ODLILLE ムアム ーン のあっのうめのの 足いかみ.  $P[ajaiL: allo], P/P_p = X_1 = 1 - X_2 - (8)$ FLOOTLING (7)-88 Singl or (39 Lin Lovinlo

 $-\ln \frac{P}{\rho_0} = \frac{\Delta H_V}{R} \cdot \frac{\Delta T_b}{\frac{T_0^2}{T_0^2}}$  $-\ln\left(1-x_{2}\right) = \frac{\Delta H_{v}}{R} - \frac{\Delta T_{b}}{T_{2}^{2}} - 9$  $-\ln(1-x_2)$  shift of www.wommen.  $-\ln(1-x_2) = x_2 + \frac{x_2^2}{2} + \frac{x_2^3}{2} + \dots$ നുന്ന മന്ന്ന് 2ഡന് அருக்குகளைய் புறக்கணிற்றுல்  $-|n(1-x_2) = x_2 - 0$ 10 gg 9-à 011693  $X_{2} = \frac{\Delta H_{V}}{R} \cdot \frac{\Delta T_{b}}{T_{o}^{2}} (\mathcal{H}) \Delta T_{b} = \frac{X_{2} R_{0}^{2}}{\Delta H_{V}} - (\mathcal{H})$  $X_2 = \frac{n_2}{n_1 n_2} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} = \frac{W_2 M_1}{M_1 W_2} \text{ or objecting on optimilies}$ 



(11) à 
$$\mu R_{fol}^{2} \otimes \sigma F_{w}^{2} \otimes M_{1} = \frac{M_{1}}{M_{2}} \frac{RT_{0}^{2}}{\Delta H_{v}} - (12)$$
  

$$\frac{\Delta H_{v}}{M_{1}} = 1$$

$$\Delta T_{b} = \frac{M_{2}RT_{0}^{2}}{M_{2}W_{1}I} - (13)$$

$$Floodilling(11) \otimes 1000 \text{ for non outbrish} 2106 \text{ for so}$$

$$\Delta T_{b} = \frac{M_{2}}{M_{2}} \frac{1000}{W_{1}} \frac{RT_{0}^{2}}{1000 \times 1} - (14)$$

$$\Delta T_{b} = m K_{b} - (15)$$

$$m - \beta \text{Lorrownolling}; K_{b} - \sigma H_{0} \text{Numon Besnible Lorroflad}.$$

 $M_{2} = K_{b} \frac{W_{2} looo}{\Delta T_{b} W_{i}} - \frac{16}{16}$   $K_{b} \neq \Re lo \Delta H_{V} \neq \Re Monter D = \frac{1}{\Delta T_{b} W_{i}}$   $\Delta T_{b} = \frac{X_{2} R T_{0}^{2}}{\Delta H_{V}} \text{ strenged } \frac{2 \sigma n \sigma \sigma n n n n}{\sigma n n n n} \frac{1}{2} \cdot \frac{1}{2}$   $X_{2} \approx \frac{n_{2}}{n_{i} + n_{2}} \approx \frac{n_{2}}{n_{i}} \approx \frac{n_{2} M_{i}}{W_{i}} - \frac{17}{17}$   $M = \frac{n_{2} looo}{W_{i}} - \frac{18}{W_{i}}$   $\frac{1}{100} + \frac{18}{1000} = \frac{M_{1}}{1000} = \frac{M_{1}}{1000}$   $\therefore X_{2} = \frac{M_{1}}{1000} \times m - \frac{19}{19}$ 



Déversioninger à des pour legré 2000 51.

இவ்வு பகரணைற்றன் அடிப்பாகத்தில் பக்கக் இடிரய்கதைடன் 540 B என்ற புனல் கவிழ்த்து வைக்கப்பட டுள்ளது. <u>KL இ</u> நிர்ணாயித்தல் : கொற்டு டிரயில் எடை தைரித்த (W, கிராம்) கரைப்பான் முறலில் எடுத்திர் கொள்ளப்படுகிறது. சில பீங்கான் கில்லுகள் இடியின் அடிப்பாகத்தில் திடப்பட்டு டுடிரம் குடுபடுத்தப் படுற்றது. கரைப்பான் காறிக்க அதரம்பிர்நிறது இப்போது பீங்கான் சில்லுகளிலிருந்து எடும் தொப்புளங்களை கவிழ்ந்து தைக்கப்டூரைன் தேகரித்து வற்களுக்கு அதரம்பிர்நிறது இப்போது பீங்கான் சில்லுகளிலிருந்து எடும் தொப்புளங்களை கவிழ்ந்து வைக்கப்டூருள்ள கிலல் தீர்மடும் ஆவியுமாக 2ன்ன கலவையாகத் தைனிக்கிறது. இவ்வாது கொறிக்கும் நீர்மத்தின் ஒரு வமல்லிய படலத்தால் வெப்பமானில் இம்லீ குடிப்படுகிறது. இப்போது கணைப்பானின் கொறிற்லை (To) தேக்கப்படுகிறது. இற்றின் இதனின் உள்ள வொருள்களுடன்



otoon (M2) orghing Boorgonn 6m going Grynulloglon BETTERD-படுகிறது. (poor on இவரித்தவாறு கரைசலின் வகாதிறிலை(T,) நிர்ணயிக்கப்படுகிறது. இப்போது வகாதிற்றைல உலர்து.

 $\Delta T_{b} = T_{1} - T_{n} = \mathcal{B} \mathcal{B} \mathcal{B} \mathcal{B}.$ 



Encorra 245500016

 $K_{B} = \frac{M_{2}}{M_{2}} \times \frac{M_{1}}{1000} \times \Delta T_{L} \text{ or obtain glawwinkton }$   $L worth Giff) K_{B} = \frac{M_{2}}{1000} \times \Delta T_{L} \text{ or obtain glawwinkton }$ M2 = 1000 Kb W2 orosim 2/1WW1LOOOL ATS W, LEW OF LOIS AN 2 BOOTS BILLIND SIME!

 $\ln \frac{P_0}{P} = \frac{DH_F}{R} \left[ \frac{\Delta T_F}{T_2^2} \right] - (22) \quad \Delta T_F = \frac{2}{9} \frac{D}{9} \frac{1}{9} \frac{1}$  $J_{2}(v)L: = 2R_{1}, P_{1}(P_{0} = X_{1} = 1 - X_{2} - (23)$  $-\ln \frac{1}{P_0} = \frac{\Delta H_f \Delta T_f}{RT_0^2} - (24)$  $P/P_0$  Logition (24) à Logia G = 0 = 0 = 0 $-\ln(1-x_2) = \Delta H_f \Delta T_f$  $-\ln(1-x_2)$  ships of www.u.G.  $(1-x_2)$  $-\ln(1-x_2) = x_2 + \frac{x_2^2}{3} + \frac{x_2^3}{3} + \cdots$  $X_2 = \Delta H_f \Delta T_f \quad (or) \Delta T_f = X_2 R T_0^2$ -(25)



 $X_2 = \frac{n_2}{n_1 + n_2} = \frac{n_2}{n_1} \quad \vdots \quad X_2 = \frac{w_2}{m_1}$ × 20 filon 25- à uporto orie  $\Delta T_{f} = \frac{W_{a}M_{i}}{M_{a}W_{i}} \frac{RT_{i}^{2}}{\Delta H_{f}} = \frac{W_{a}RT_{o}^{2}}{M_{a}W_{i}}$ - 1000  $\Delta T_{f} = \frac{W_{2} R T_{2}^{2}}{M_{2} W_{1}} \times \frac{1000}{1000}$  $\Delta T_f = k_f \, W_2 \, 1000 = k_f \, m.$ MaW,1 Kg - Flownow BANDA Longalwooks. L . 11 1000

$$M_{2} = \frac{k_{f} M_{1} (100)}{\Delta T_{f} W_{i}}$$

$$k_{f} \stackrel{\text{ACBLÉ DH}_{f} DH_{f} \stackrel{\text{ACBLÉ DDL BW Bainon Degnetity}}{\Delta T_{f}}$$

$$\frac{\Delta T_{f}}{\Delta T_{f}} = \frac{x_{2} R T_{0}^{2}}{\Delta H_{f}} - (25)$$

$$x_{2} = \frac{n_{2} M_{i}}{W_{i}} \frac{1263}{i}; m = \frac{n_{2} 1000}{W_{i}} - (27)$$

$$(26) \stackrel{\text{C}}{=} (27) \qquad x_{2} = M_{i} 1 1000 \times m$$

$$\Delta T_{f} = \frac{M_{i}}{1000} \times m \times \frac{R T_{0}^{2}}{R H_{f}} - (28)$$

$$\Delta T_{f} = \left(\frac{R T_{0}^{2}}{1000} \times \frac{M_{i}}{\Delta H_{f}}\right) m$$

$$(24) \quad \Delta T_{f} = k_{f} m$$

$$\boxed{k_{f}} = \frac{R T_{0}^{2}}{X} \frac{M_{i}}{M_{i}}$$



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A என்ற உறைகுடியில் எடை தைர்ந்த (W, கிராம்) கூறைப்பான் எடுத்துக் கொள்ளப்படுகிறது. அது வதுவாக குளிர்விக்கப்படுகிறது. கறைப்பானின் உறைநிலை (To) குறிக்கப்படுகிறது. உறைந்த தறைப்பானை உருக்க, A தைனியில் எதுக்கப்பட்டு தூடு தூறைப்பானை உருக்கு, A தைனியில் எதுக்கப்பட்டு தூடு தூல்லப்படுகிறது. முன்னதே எடை தைர்த்து கறைபா குளில் W2 கிறாம் எடை எடுத்து பக்கக்கு டிரயின் அடியாகக் தறைப்பா துடன் தேர்க்கப்படுகிறது. கறைபாகுள் கறைகிறது.



A மீணிமும் அதனிடத்தில் வைக்கப்பட்டே கரைசலில் உறைநிலை நிலை (T,) நிரீணலிக்கப்படுகிறது. இப்போது இறைநிலை வில்



W., W2, AT& LongryLo M2 Strand on frage or gov noi  $k_{f} = \frac{M_{2} \times W_{1} \times \Delta T_{f}}{M_{2} \times 1000}$ SITWHLOODL woodunge Ke soonisslungs  $M_{2} = \frac{1000 \times k_{f} \times W_{2}}{\Delta T_{f} \times W_{1}} \xrightarrow{\text{or comp}} 2 \ln \tilde{w} \frac{1}{w} \frac{1}$ NWOOTNGAR M2 BOOTBALLING SIMPSI. Dwoining (4000111:1) BLOMOUNT Blompson: തടുന്തുള്നന് പത്തിനുത്തെ കുന്നുള്ള ആന്താവിക്കല്പട്ടില് Bunnin நிறைகள், சில வாகள்களை வாகத்தவரை, สุรากับแก่กับแห่ง (คฎออกการ สาธาะสอกกา สุรรณธ์ สอาระจาล ഉന്ന കത്യത്വന്ത്ന കിയാക്കഥത്വവും പേന്നേന്ന നിന്തതാം എം - 8111 83 ന മിട്ടത്താടെഡ ഗ്രൂത്തി പ്രവുമാണ് പെന്ന് വിതിക്ത്തുന്ന ന്റന് Addies നേട്ട മിന്ന തെന്ന് പ്രത്തോ പ്രം തന്വാം തോന്നും തോന്ന്റെ ത്രത്തങ്ങള്ളിന്റ്റെ മണ്ണന്തിങ്ങുത്ത. പ്രത്തേല് ക്ലിച്ചും വൃച്ച കുട്ട്രില്. തെടുന്നുക്കാര മധന്ചു, മത്തന്തായറ്റ് ഇന്വു്ച്ച കുട്ഡലന്ന്ത് ิสอกฏาเม่นแน แสมมนุร์ดี สออาสสาบบนแน แสมนุรออาการใน 600molns 2000001. (07. 81) கணைக்கிடப்பட்ட Hon ALULIL கதையாகுள் கதைப்பானி BUTTONT FOOM Burrovni mon 1. 21 FIL: 4 5 60 118 ന് പത് ക്രീ ALBALE 2. നഗങ് നധിക് 122 242 பைன்சீன்



பாண்ட உறாஃப் தேனைகம்: (1)  

$$i = \frac{2000 \, 2012 \, 2$$

Difors Maring Plant Doin BLETING of at ataliant south あのりょういん めぼあちしのが400ののの のうけいかがあひいしん BLOMON BONTON atom of B ONB B B ON LEW WHOIT DIGLO.  $i = 1 + (n-1) \alpha$ തത്താനന്ത്രങ്ങണ്ണ് എന്താക മിക്രം വിനിത്തെയത്വന്റെ ഗോഗങ്ങ്ങിക്കന്റെ തൽങ്ങങ്ങ്ങ് எடுத்துக் oranoon CAN க்க றுகள்ள வாத்த எண்ணிக்கைக்கும் Don LEWWHOOT She BLO Sto Bong on Gong Alfors



 (பிரினை மனடந்த உமால் களின் எண்ணிக்கை கறைக்கப்பட்ட உொல்களின் எண்ணிக்கை
 குறைக்கப்பட்ட உோல்களின் எண்ணிக்கை
 குறைக்கப்பட்ட உோல்களின் எண்ணிக்கை
 குறைக்கும் உள்ள மூலக்கூறுகளில் எவ்விளவு மின்னம் இன்ணிற்கு வாரிய மூலக்கூறுகளைக் கொடுக்கிறதேர அதுதவ இணைக்க வீதும் எனப்படும்.
 \* ' என்ற இரு இணிக்கமடைந்த மூலக்கூறுகள் பின்னு எணிணிக்கையுடைய சாத்றண மூலக்கூறுகள்

