

ORGANIC Chemistry 1&2

Introduction to Organic chemistry

Organic chemistry is the branch of chemistry that studies carbon compounds present in living things, once living things or synthetic/man-made.

Compounds that makes up living things whether alive or dead mainly contain carbon. Carbon is tetravalent.

It is able to form stable covalent bonds with itself and many non-metals like hydrogen, nitrogen ,oxygen and halogens to form a variety of compounds. This is because:

- (i) carbon uses all the four valence electrons to form four strong covalent bond.
- (ii)carbon can covalently bond to form a single, double or triple covalent bond with itself.
- (iii)carbon atoms can covalently bond to form a very long chain or ring.

When carbon covalently bond with Hydrogen, it forms a group of organic compounds called **Hydrocarbons**

A.HYDROCARBONS (HCs)

Hydrocarbons are a group of organic compounds containing /made up of hydrogen and carbon atoms only.

Depending on the type of bond that exist between the individual carbon atoms, hydrocarbon are classified as:

- (i) Alk**a**nes
- (ii) Alk**e**nes
- (iii) Alk**y**nes

(i) Alka**nes**

(a)Nomenclature/Naming

These are hydrocarbons with a general formula C_nH_{2n+2} where **n** is the number of **Carbon** atoms in a molecule.

The carbon atoms are linked by single bond to each other and to hydrogen atoms.

They include:

n	General/ Molecular formula	Structural formula	Name
1	CH ₄	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array} $	Methane
2	C ₂ H ₆	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	Ethane
3	C ₃ H ₈	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	Propane
4	C ₄ H ₁₀	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $	Butane
5	C ₅ H ₁₂	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $ $ \text{CH}_3 (\text{CH}_2)_6 \text{CH}_3 $	Pentane
6	C ₆ H ₁₄	$ \begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array} $ $ \text{CH}_3 (\text{CH}_2)_6 \text{CH}_3 $	Hexane

		H H H H H H	
7	C_7H_{16}	<pre> H H H H H H H H—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—H H H H H H H H </pre>	Heptane
8	C_8H_{18}	<pre> H H H H H H H H H—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—H H H H H H H H H </pre>	Octane
9	C_9H_{20}	<pre> H H H H H H H H H H—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—H H H H H H H H H H </pre>	Nonane
10	$C_{10}H_{22}$	<pre> H H H H H H H H H H H—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—H H H H H H H H H H H </pre>	decane

Note

1. The **general formula/molecular formula** of a compound shows the number of each atoms of elements making the compound e.g.

Decane has a general/molecular formula $C_{10}H_{22}$; this means there are 10 carbon atoms and 22 hydrogen atoms in a molecule of decane.

2. The **structural formula** shows the arrangement/bonding of atoms of each element making the compound e.g

Decane has the structural formula as in the table above; this means the 1st carbon from left to right is bonded to three hydrogen atoms and one carbon atom.

The 2nd carbon atom is joined/bonded to two other carbon atoms and two Hydrogen atoms.

3. Since carbon is **tetravalent**, each atom of carbon in the alkane **MUST** always be bonded using **four** covalent bond /four shared pairs of electrons.

4. Since Hydrogen is **monovalent**, each atom of hydrogen in the alkane **MUST** always be bonded using **one** covalent bond/one shared pair of electrons.

5. One member of the alkane differ from the next/previous by a CH₂ group.

e.g

Propane differ from ethane by one carbon and two Hydrogen atoms form ethane.

Ethane differ from methane also by one carbon and two Hydrogen atoms

6. A group of compounds that differ by a CH₂ group from the next /previous **consecutively** is called a **homologous series**.

7. A homologous series:

(i) differ by a CH₂ group from the next /previous consecutively

(ii) have similar chemical properties

(iii) have similar chemical formula that can be represented by a general formula e.g alkanes have the general formula C_nH_{2n+2}.

(iv) the physical properties (e.g. melting/boiling points) show steady gradual change)

8. The 1st four alkanes have the prefix **meth_**, **eth_**, **prop_** and **but_** to represent 1,2,3 and 4 carbons in the compound. All other use the numeral prefix **pent_**, **Hex_**, **hept_**, etc to show also the number of carbon atoms.

9. If one hydrogen atom in an alkane is removed, an alkyl group is formed. e.g

Alkane name	molecular structure	Alkyl name	Molecula structure
	C _n H _{2n+2}		C _n H _{2n+1}
methane	CH ₄	methyl	CH₃
ethane	CH ₃ CH ₃	ethyl	CH₃ CH₂
propane	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₃	propyl	CH₃ CH₂ CH₂
butane	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₃	butyl	CH₃ CH₂ CH₂ CH₂

(b) Isomers of alkanes

Isomers are compounds with the same molecular **general formula** but different molecular **structural formula**.

Isomerism is the existence of a compounds having the same general/molecular formula but different structural formula.

The 1st three alkanes do not form isomers. Isomers are named by using the IUPAC (International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry) system of **nomenclature/naming**.

The IUPAC system of nomenclature uses the following basic rules/guidelines:

1. Identify the longest continuous carbon chain to get/determine the parent alkane.
2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain that is near the branches so as the branch get the lowest number possible
3. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of carbon chains attached to the parent alkane. Name them fluoro-,chloro-,bromo-,iodo- if they are halogens
4. Use prefix di-,tri-,tetra-,penta-,hexa- to show the number of branches attached to the parent alkane.

Practice on IUPAC nomenclature of alkanes

(a) Draw the structure of:

(i) 2-methylpentane

Procedure

1. Identify the longest continuous carbon chain to get/determine the parent alkane.

Butane is the parent name $\text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3$

2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain that is near the branches so as the branch get the lowest number possible

The methyl group is attached to Carbon "2"

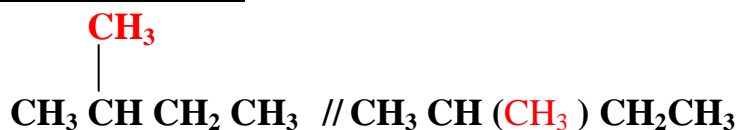
3. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of carbon chains attached to the parent alkane i.e

Position of the branch at carbon "2"

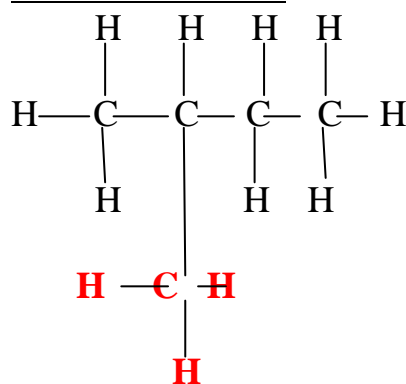
Number of branches at carbon "1"

Type of the branch "methyl" hence

Molecular formula



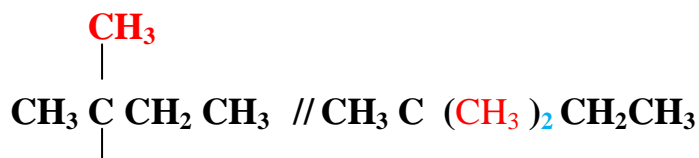
Structural formula



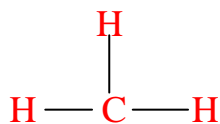
(ii) 2,2-dimethylpentane

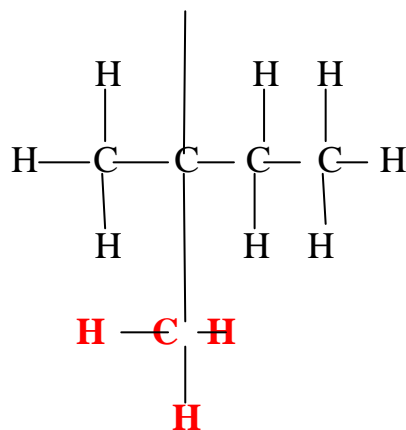
Procedure

1. Identify the longest continuous carbon chain to get/determine the parent alkane.
Butane is the parent name $\text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3$
2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain that is near the branches so as the branch get the lowest number possible
The methyl group is attached to Carbon "2"
3. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of carbon chains attached to the parent alkane i.e
Position of the branch at carbon "2"
Number of branches at carbon "2"
Type of the branch two "methyl" hence
Molecular formula



Structural formula





(iii) 2,2,3-trimethylbutane

Procedure

1. Identify the longest continuous carbon chain to get/determine the parent alkane.

Butane is the parent name $\text{CH}_3 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_2 \text{CH}_3$

2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain that is near the branches so as the branch get the lowest number possible

The methyl group is attached to Carbon "2 and 3"

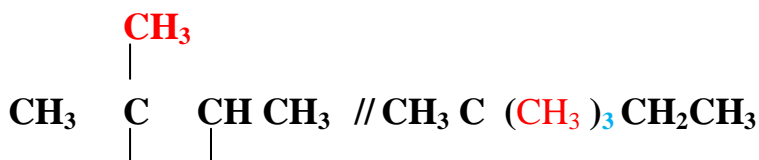
3. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of carbon chains attached to the parent alkane i.e

Position of the branch at carbon "2 and 3"

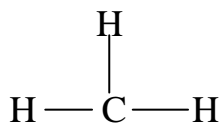
Number of branches at carbon "3"

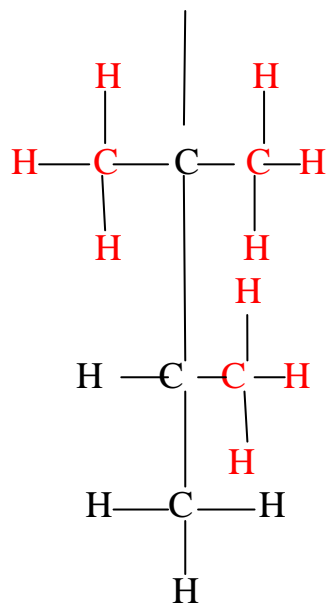
Type of the branch three "methyl" hence

Molecular formula



Structural formula

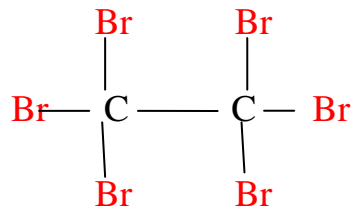




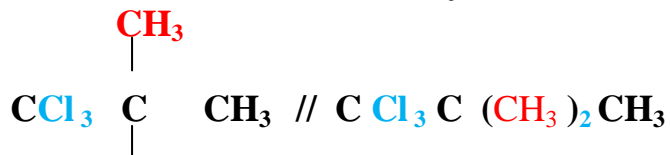
(iv) **1,1,1,2,2,2-hexabromoethane**
Molecular formula



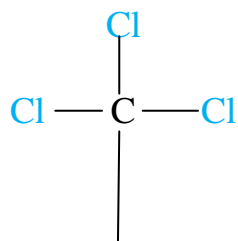
Structural formula

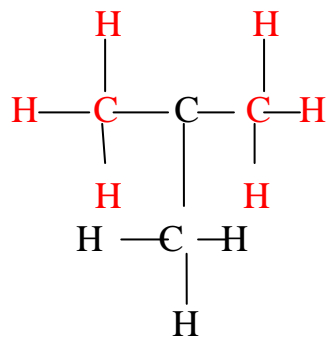


(v) **1,1,1-tetrachloro-2,2-dimethylbutane**



Structural formula





(c) Occurrence and extraction

Crude oil ,natural gas and **biogas** are the main sources of alkanes:

(i) Natural gas is found on top of crude oil deposits and consists mainly of methane.

(ii) Biogas is formed from the decay of waste organic products like animal dung and cellulose. When the decay takes place in absence of oxygen , 60-75% by volume of the gaseous mixture of methane gas is produced.

(iii) Crude oil is a mixture of many flammable hydrocarbons/substances. Using fractional distillation, each hydrocarbon fraction can be separated from the other. The hydrocarbon with lower /smaller number of carbon atoms in the chain have lower boiling point and thus collected first.

As the carbon **chain increase**, the **boiling** point, **viscosity** (ease of flow) and colour **intensity increase** as **flammability decrease**. Hydrocarbons in crude oil are not pure. They thus have no sharp fixed boiling point.

Uses of different crude oil fractions

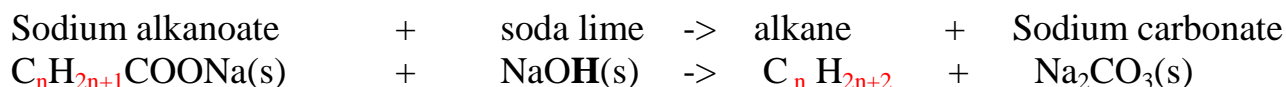
Carbon atoms in a molecule	Common name of fraction	Uses of fraction
1-4	Gas	L.P.G gas for domestic use
5-12	Petrol	Fuel for petrol engines
9-16	Kerosene/Paraffin	Jet fuel and domestic lighting/cooking
15-18	Light diesel	Heavy diesel engine fuel
18-25	Diesel oil	Light diesel engine fuel
20-70	Lubricating oil	Lubricating oil to

		reduce friction.
Over 70	Bitumen/Asphalt	Tarmacking roads

(d) School laboratory preparation of alkanes

In a school laboratory, alkanes may be prepared from the reaction of a sodium alkanoate with solid sodium hydroxide/soda lime.

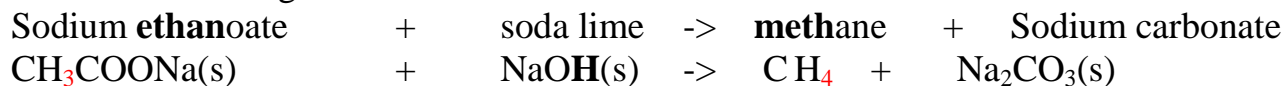
Chemical equation:



The “H” in NaOH is transferred/moves to the C_nH_{2n+1} in C_nH_{2n+1}COONa(s) to form C_nH_{2n+2}.

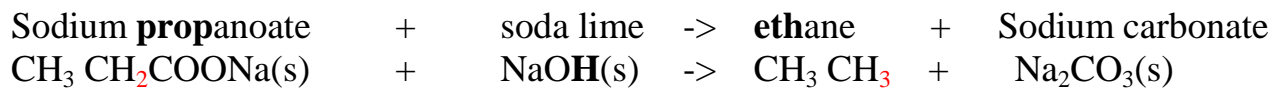
Examples

1. **Methane** is prepared from the heating of a mixture of sodium **ethanoate** and soda lime and collecting over water



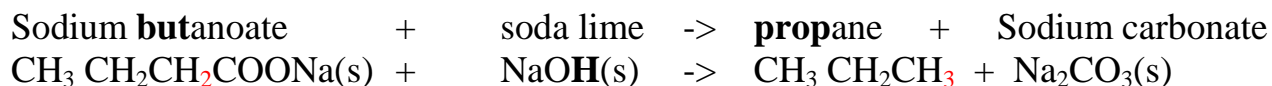
The “H” in NaOH is transferred/moves to the CH₃ in CH₃COONa(s) to form CH₄.

2. **Ethane** is prepared from the heating of a mixture of sodium **propanoate** and soda lime and collecting over water



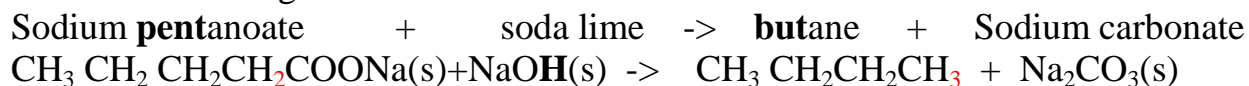
The “H” in NaOH is transferred/moves to the CH₃CH₂ in CH₃CH₂COONa (s) to form CH₃CH₃

3. **Propane** is prepared from the heating of a mixture of sodium **butanoate** and soda lime and collecting over water



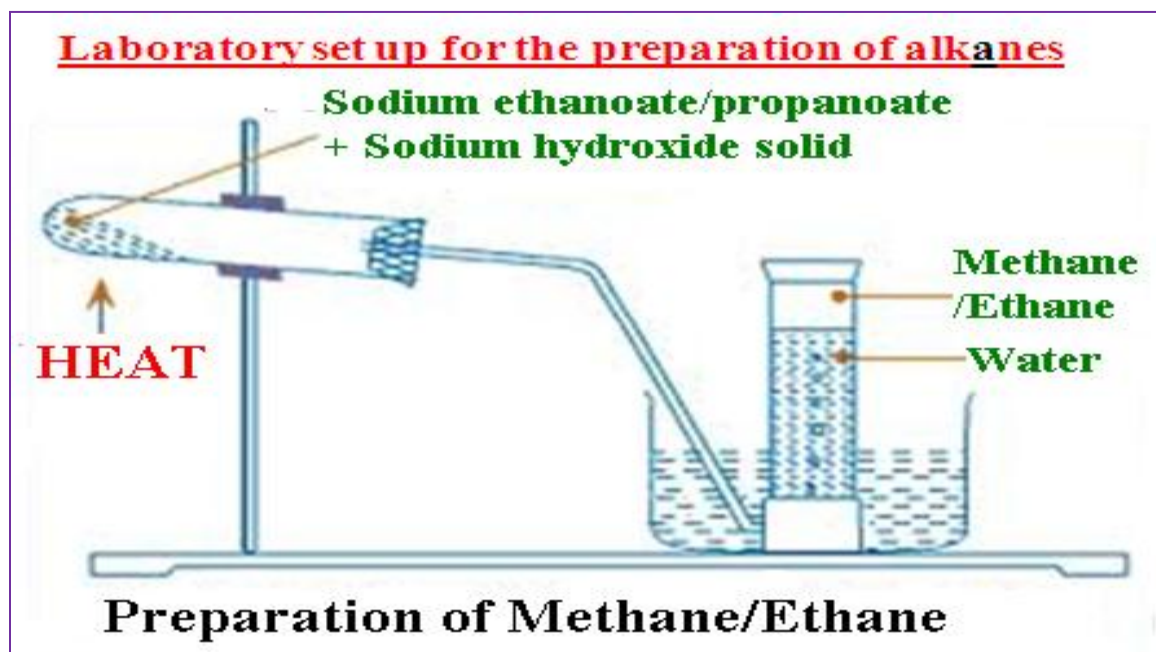
The "H" in NaOH is transferred/moves to the CH₃ CH₂ CH₂ in CH₃ CH₂CH₂COONa (s) to form CH₃ CH₂CH₃

4. **Butane** is prepared from the heating of a mixture of sodium **pentanoate** and soda lime and collecting over water



The "H" in NaOH is transferred/moves to the CH₃CH₂ CH₂ CH₂ in CH₃ CH₂CH₂ CH₂COONa (s) to form CH₃ CH₂ CH₂CH₃

Laboratory set up for the preparation of alkanes



(d) Properties of alkanes

I. Physical properties

Alkanes are colourless gases, solids and liquids that are not poisonous.

They are slightly soluble in water.

The solubility decrease as the carbon chain and thus the molar mass increase

The melting and boiling point increase as the carbon chain increase.

This is because of the increase in van-der-waals /intermolecular forces as the carbon chain increase.

The 1st four straight chain alkanes (methane,ethane,propane and butane)are therefore gases ,the next six(pentane ,hexane, heptane,octane,nonane, and decane) are liquids while the rest from undecane(11 carbon atoms) are solids .

The density of straight chain alkanes increase with increasing carbon chain as the intermolecular forces increases.

This reduces the volume occupied by a given mass of the compound.

Summary of physical properties of alkanes

Alkane	General formula	Melting point(K)	Boiling point(K)	Density gcm ⁻³	State at room(298K) temperature and pressure atmosphere (101300Pa)
Methane	CH ₄	90	112	0.424	gas
Ethane	CH ₃ CH ₃	91	184	0.546	gas
Propane	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₃	105	231	0.501	gas
Butane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₂ CH ₃	138	275	0.579	gas
Pentane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ CH ₃	143	309	0.626	liquid
Hexane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₄ CH ₃	178	342	0.657	liquid
Heptane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₅ CH ₃	182	372	0.684	liquid
Octane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₆ CH ₃	216	399	0.703	liquid
Nonane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₇ CH ₃	219	424	0.708	liquid
Octane	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₈ CH ₃	243	447	0.730	liquid

II. Chemical properties

(i) Burning.

Alkanes burn with a **blue**/non-luminous **non-sooty**/non-smoky flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

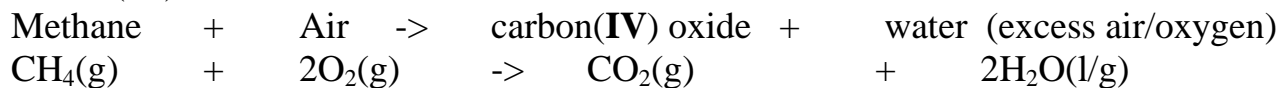
Alkane + Air -> carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)

Alkanes burn with a **blue**/non-luminous **no-sooty**/non-smoky flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.

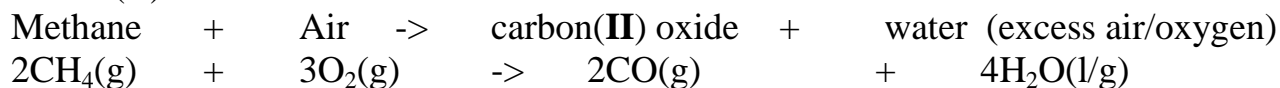
Alkane + Air -> carbon(II) oxide + water (limited air)

Examples

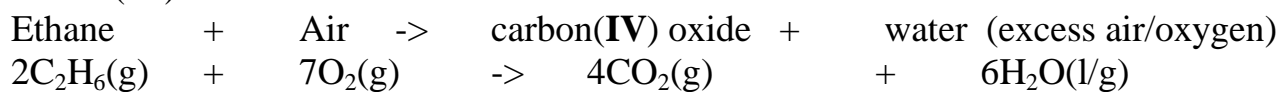
1.(a) Methane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.



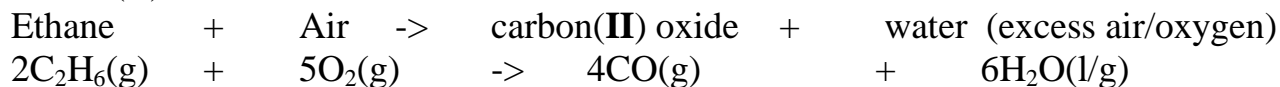
(b) Methane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.



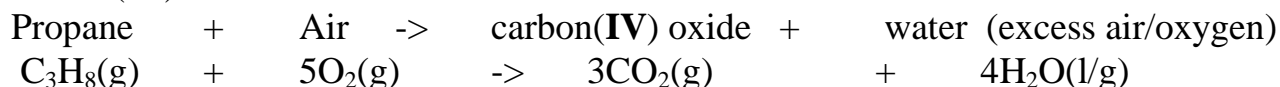
2.(a) Ethane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.



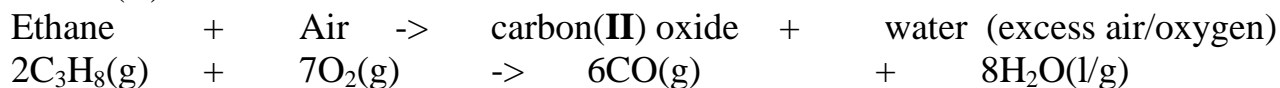
(b) Ethane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.



3.(a) Propane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.



(b) Ethane when ignited burns with a **blue non sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.



ii)Substitution

Substitution reaction is one in which a hydrogen atom is replaced by a halogen in presence of ultraviolet light.

Alkanes react with halogens in presence of ultraviolet light to form halogenoalkanes.

During substitution:

(i)the halogen molecule is split into free atom/radicals.

(ii)one free halogen radical/atoms knock /remove one hydrogen from the alkane leaving an alkyl radical.

(iii) the alkyl radical combine with the other free halogen atom/radical to form halogenoalkane.

(iv) the chlorine atoms substitute repeatedly in the alkane. Each substitution removes a hydrogen atom from the alkane and form hydrogen halide.

(v) substitution stops when all the hydrogen in alkanes are replaced with halogens.

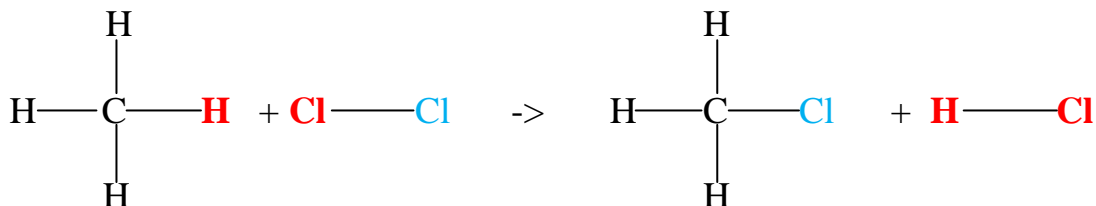
Substitution reaction is a highly **explosive** reaction in presence of **sunlight / ultraviolet** light that act as **catalyst**.

Examples of substitution reactions

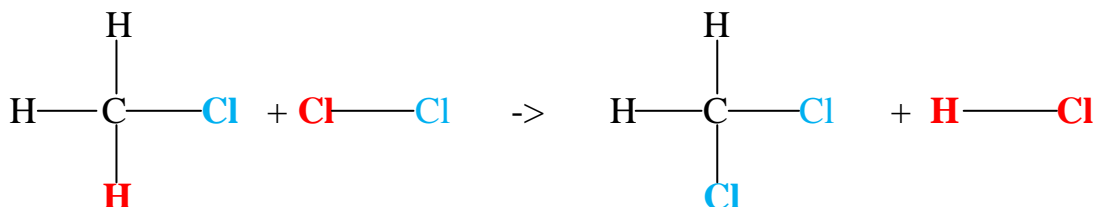
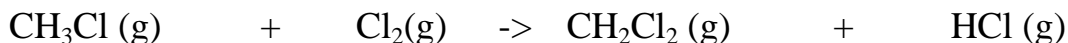
Methane has no effect on bromine or chlorine in diffused light/dark. In sunlight , a mixture of chlorine and methane explode to form colourless mixture of chloromethane and hydrogen chloride gas. The pale green colour of chlorine gas fades.

Chemical equation

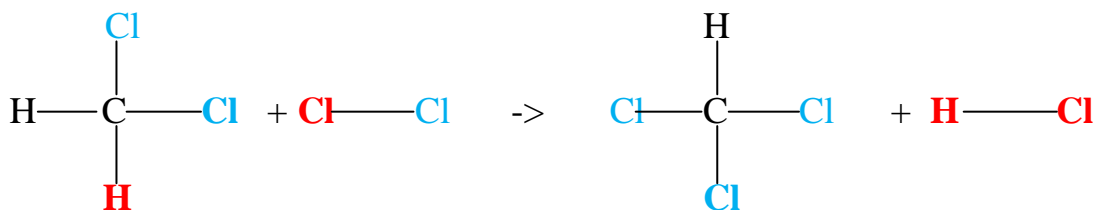
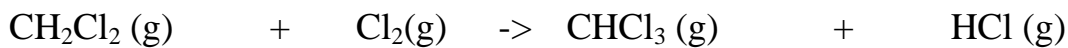
1.(a)Methane + chlorine -> Chloromethane + Hydrogen chloride



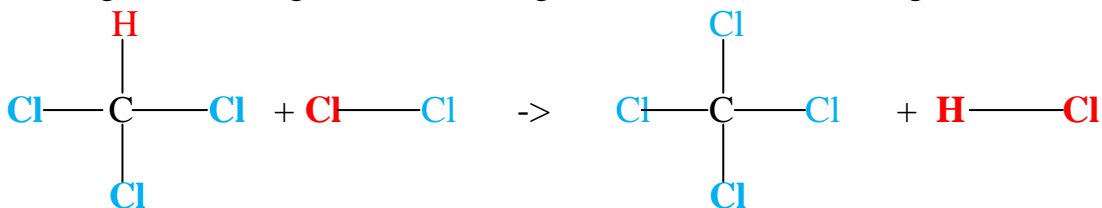
(b) Chloromethane + chlorine -> dichloromethane + Hydrogen chloride



(c) dichloromethane + chlorine \rightarrow trichloromethane + Hydrogen chloride



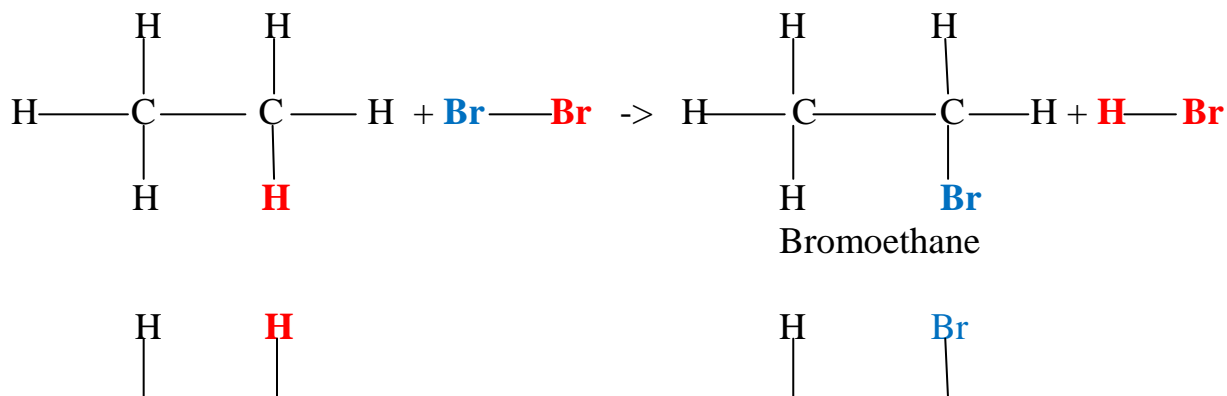
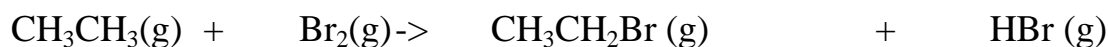
(c) trichloromethane + chlorine \rightarrow tetrachloromethane + Hydrogen chloride

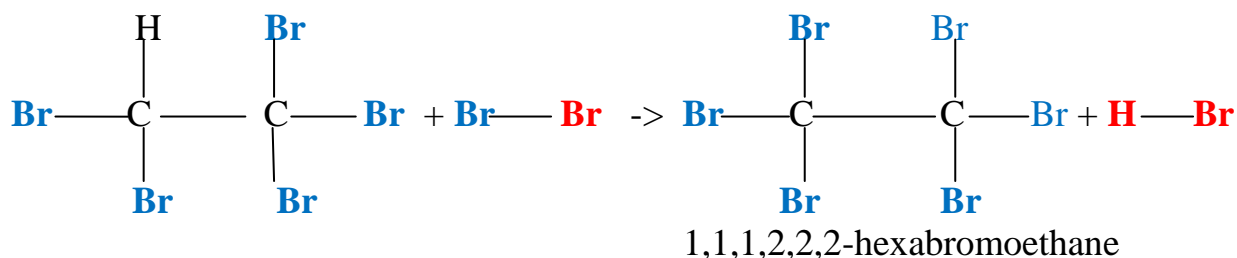
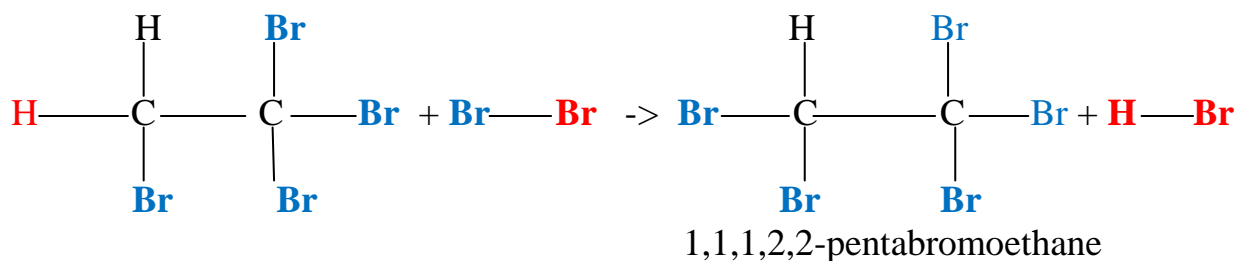
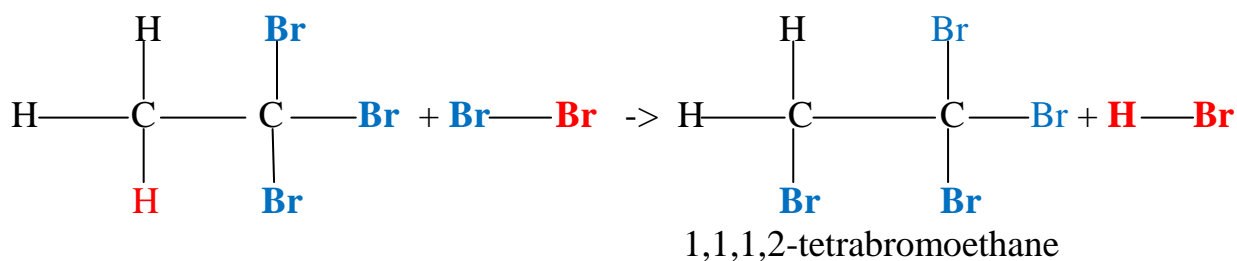
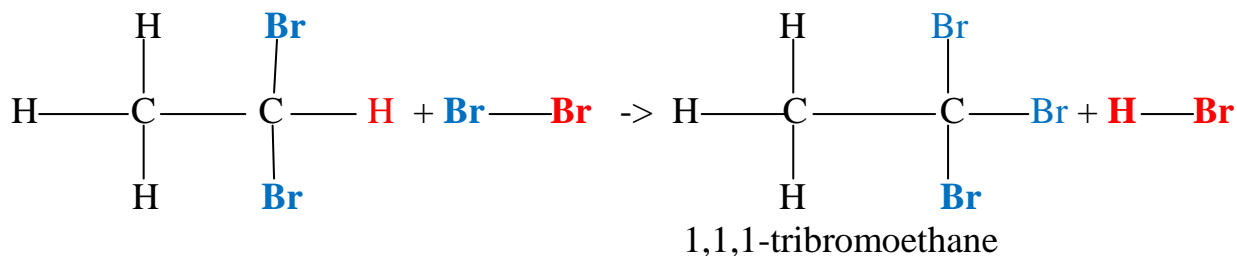
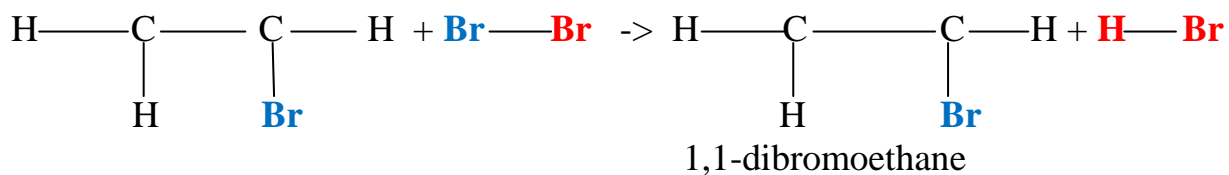


Ethane has no effect on bromine or chlorine in diffused light/dark. In sunlight, a mixture of bromine and ethane explodes to form a colourless mixture of bromoethane and hydrogen chloride gas. The red/brown colour of bromine gas fades.

Chemical equation

(a) Ethane + chlorine \rightarrow Chloroethane + Hydrogen chloride





Uses of alkanes

1. Most alkanes are used as fuel e.g. Methane is used as biogas in homes. Butane is used as the Laboratory gas.
2. On cracking, alkanes are a major source of Hydrogen for the manufacture of ammonia/Haber process.

3. In manufacture of Carbon black which is a component in printers ink.
 4. In manufacture of useful industrial chemicals like methanol, methanol, and chloromethane.

(ii) Alkenes

(a) Nomenclature/Naming

These are hydrocarbons with a general formula C_nH_{2n} and $\begin{array}{c} | \quad | \\ -C=C- \end{array}$ double bond as the functional group. n is the number of Carbon atoms in the molecule.

The carbon atoms are linked by at least one **double** bond to each other and single bonds to hydrogen atoms.

They include:

n	General/ Molecular formula	Structural formula	Name
1		Does not exist	
2	C_2H_4	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \\ \quad \\ H-C=C-H \\ \\ CH_2 \quad CH_2 \end{array}$	Ethene
3	C_3H_6	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \\ H-C=C-C-H \\ \\ H \\ \\ CH_2 \quad CH \quad CH_3 \end{array}$	Propene
4	C_4H_8	$\begin{array}{c} H \quad H \quad H \quad H \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ H-C=C-C-C-H \\ \quad \end{array}$	Butene

		$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \text{CH}_2 \text{ CH CH}_2\text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	
5	C_5H_{12}	$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & -\text{C} & =\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{H} & & \\ & & & & & & & & \\ & & & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & & \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{ CH (CH}_2\text{)}_2\text{CH}_3$	Pentene
6	C_6H_{14}	$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & -\text{C} & =\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{H} & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & & & \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{ CH (CH}_2\text{)}_3\text{CH}_3$	Hexene
7	C_7H_{16}	$\begin{array}{ccccccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{H} & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & \\ & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & & \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{ CH (CH}_2\text{)}_4\text{CH}_3$	Heptene
8	C_8H_{18}	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & -\text{C} & =\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{H} & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & & \end{array}$ $\text{CH}_2 \text{ CH (CH}_2\text{)}_5\text{CH}_3$	Octene
9	C_9H_{20}	$\begin{array}{cccccccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & -\text{C} & =\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{H} & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & \\ & & & & & & & & & & & \end{array}$	Nonene

		<p>H H H H H H H</p> <p>CH₂ CH (CH₂)₆CH₃</p>	
10	C ₁₀ H ₂₂	<pre> H H H H H H H H H H—C=C—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—C—H H H H H H H H H H </pre> <p>CH₂ CH (CH₂)₇CH₃</p>	decene

Note

1. Since carbon is **tetravalent**, each atom of carbon in the alkene **MUST** always be bonded using **four** covalent bond /four shared pairs of electrons including at the double bond.

2. Since Hydrogen is **monovalent**, each atom of hydrogen in the alkene **MUST** always be bonded using **one** covalent bond/one shared pair of electrons.

3. One member of the alkene, like alkanes, differ from the next/previous by a CH₂ group. They also form a homologous series.

e.g

Propene differ from ethene by one carbon and two Hydrogen atoms from ethene.

4. A homologous series of alkenes like that of alkanes:

(i) differ by a CH₂ group from the next /previous consecutively

(ii) have similar chemical properties

(iii) have similar chemical formula represented by the general formula C_nH_{2n}

(iv) the physical properties also show steady gradual change

5. The =C=C= double bond in alkene is the functional group. A functional group is the **reacting site** of a molecule/compound.

6. The =C=C= double bond in alkene can easily be broken to accommodate more two more monovalent atoms. The =C=C= double bond in alkenes make it thus **unsaturated**.

7. An unsaturated hydrocarbon is one with a double =C=C= or triple —C≡C— carbon bonds in their molecular structure. Unsaturated hydrocarbon easily reacts to be **saturated**.

8. A saturated hydrocarbon is one without a double =C=C= or triple —C≡C— carbon bonds in their molecular structure.

Most of the reactions of alkenes take place at the $=C=C=$ bond.

(b) Isomers of alkenes

Isomers are alkenes like alkanes have the same molecular **general formula** but **different molecular structural formula**.

Ethene and propene do not form isomers. Isomers of alkenes are also named by using the IUPAC (International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry) system of **nomenclature/naming**.

The IUPAC system of nomenclature of naming alkenes uses the following basic rules/guidelines:

1. Identify the longest continuous/straight carbon chain which contains the $=C=C=$ **double bond** get/determine the **parent alkene**.

2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain which contains the $=C=C=$ **double bond** so the $=C=C=$ **double bond** lowest number possible.

3. Indicate the positions by splitting "**alk-positions-ene**" e.g. but-2-ene, pent-1,3-diene.

4. The position **indicated** must be for the carbon atom at the **lower** position in the $=C=C=$ **double bond**. i.e

But-2-ene means the double $=C=C=$ is between Carbon "2" and "3"

Pent-1,3-diene means there are two double bond one between carbon "1" and "2" and another between carbon "3" and "4"

5. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of alkyl carbon chains attached to the alkene. Name them fluoro-, chloro-, bromo-, iodo- if they are halogens

6. Use prefix di-, tri-, tetra-, penta-, hexa- to show the number of **double** $C=C$ bonds and **branches** attached to the alkene.

7. Position isomers can be formed when the $=C=C=$ double bond is shifted between carbon atoms e.g.

But-2-ene means the double $=C=C=$ is between Carbon "2" and "3"

But-1-ene means the double $=C=C=$ is between Carbon "1" and "2"

Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene are position isomers of Butene

8. Position isomers are molecules/compounds having the same general formula but different position of the functional group. i.e.

Butene has the molecular/general formula C_4H_8 but can form both But-1-ene and But-2-ene as position isomers.

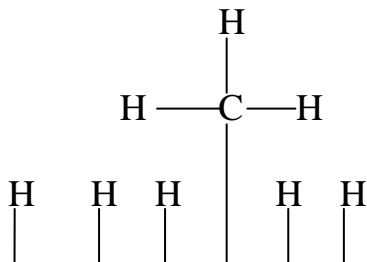
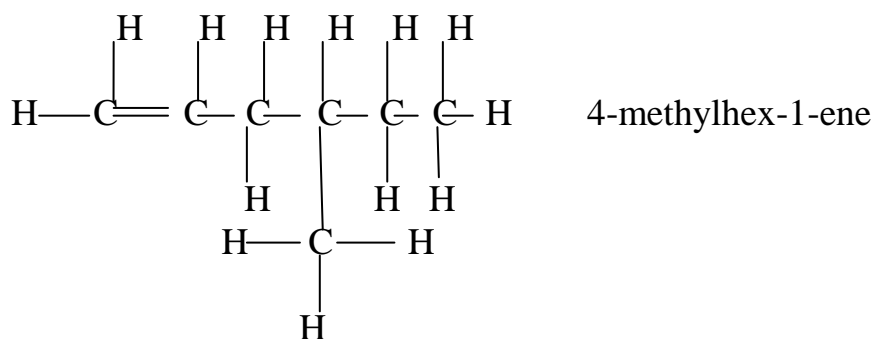
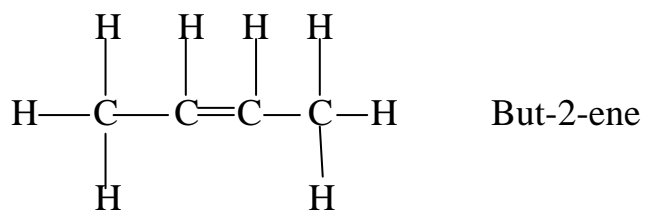
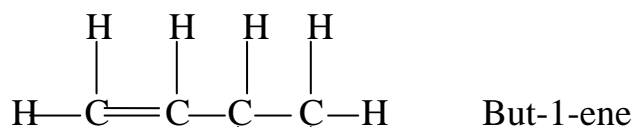
9. Like alkanes, an alkyl group can be attached to the alkene. Chain/branch isomers are thus formed.

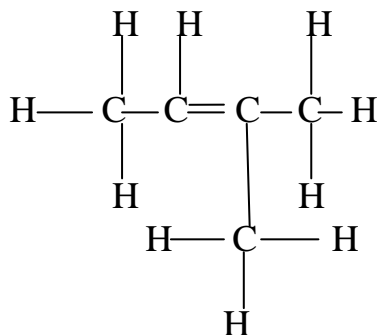
10. Chain/branch isomers are molecules/compounds having the same general formula but different structural formula e.g

Butene and 2-methyl propene both have the same general formula but different branching chain.

Practice on IUPAC nomenclature of alkenes

Name the following isomers of alkene

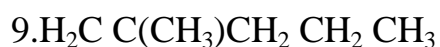




2,2-dimethylbut -2- ene



pent -1- ene



2-methylpent -1- ene



2,3,3-trimethylpent -1- ene



2,3,3,4,4-pentamethylpent -1- ene



2,3,4,4-tetramethylpent -2- ene



2,3,4-trimethylpent -1,3- diene



2,3,4-tribromopent -1,3- diene



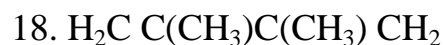
But -1,3- diene



1,1,2,3,4,4-hexabromobut -1,3- diene



1,1,2,3,4,4-hexaiodobut -1,3- diene



2,3-dimethylbut -1,3- diene

(c) Occurrence and extraction

At industrial level, alkenes are obtained from the cracking of alkanes. Cracking is the process of breaking long chain alkanes to smaller/shorter alkanes, an alkene and hydrogen gas at high temperatures.

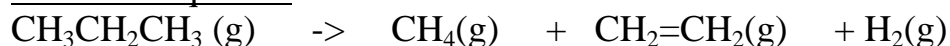
Cracking is a major source of useful hydrogen gas for manufacture of ammonia/nitric(V) acid/HCl i.e.

Long chain alkane \rightarrow smaller/shorter alkane + Alkene + Hydrogen gas

Examples

1. When irradiated with high energy radiation, Propane undergoes cracking to form methane gas, ethene and hydrogen gas.

Chemical equation



2. Octane undergoes cracking to form hydrogen gas, butene and butane gases

Chemical equation

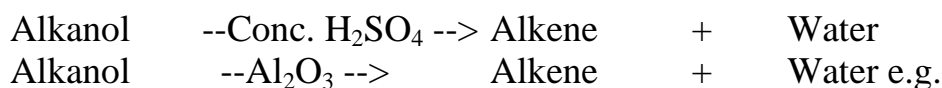


(d) School laboratory preparation of alkenes

In a school laboratory, alkenes may be prepared from dehydration of alkanols using:

(i) concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid (H_2SO_4).

(a) aluminium(III) oxide (Al_2O_3) i.e

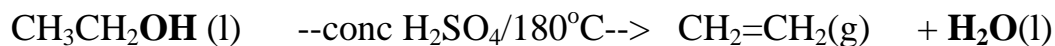


1.(a) At about 180°C , concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid dehydrates/removes water from ethanol to form ethene.

The gas produced contains traces of carbon(IV) oxide and sulphur(IV) oxide gas as impurities.

It is thus passed through concentrated sodium/potassium hydroxide solution to remove the impurities.

Chemical equation

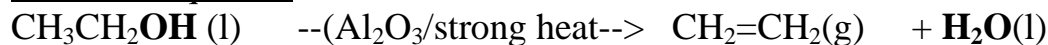


(b) On heating strongly aluminium(III) oxide (Al_2O_3), it dehydrates/removes water from ethanol to form ethene.

Ethanol vapour passes through the hot aluminium (III) oxide which catalyses the dehydration.

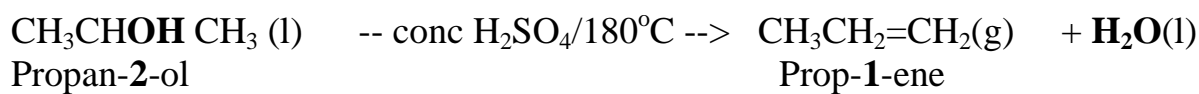
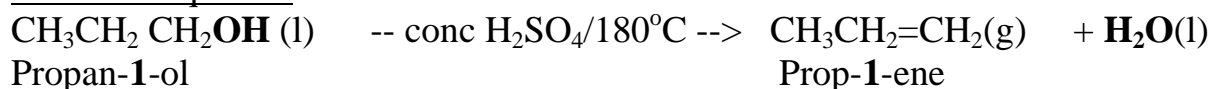
Activated aluminium(III)oxide has a very high affinity for water molecules/elements of water and thus dehydrates/ removes water from ethanol to form ethene.

Chemical equation



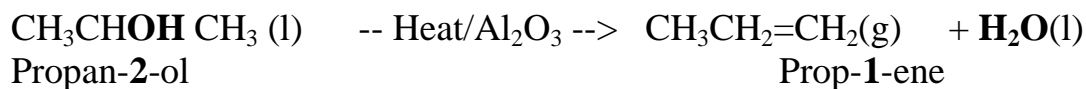
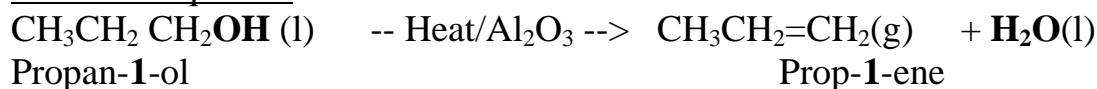
2(a) Propan-1-ol and Propan-2-ol(position isomers of propanol) are dehydrated by conc H_2SO_4 at about 180°C to propene(propene has no position isomers).

Chemical equation



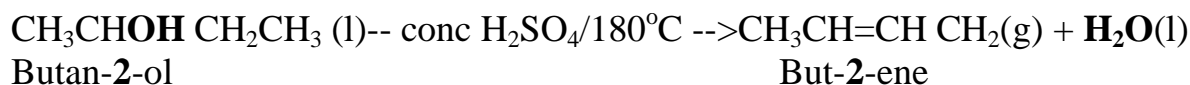
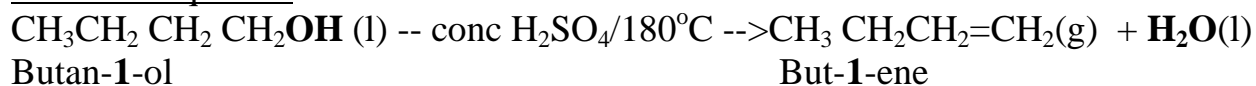
(b) Propan-1-ol and Propan-2-ol(position isomers of propanol) are dehydrated by heating strongly aluminium(III)oxide(Al_2O_3) form propene

Chemical equation



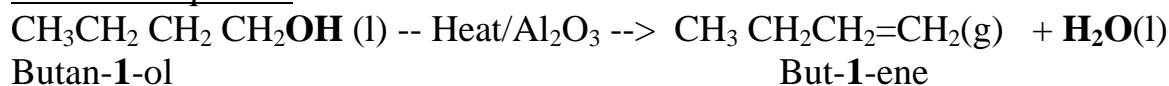
3(a) Butan-1-ol and Butan-2-ol(position isomers of butanol) are dehydrated by conc H_2SO_4 at about 180°C to But-1-ene and But-2-ene respectively

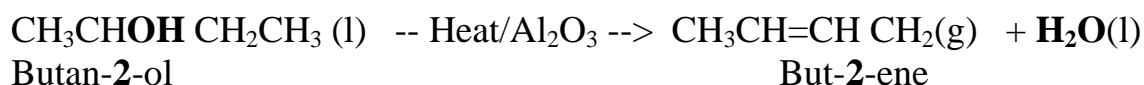
Chemical equation



(b) Butan-1-ol and Butan-2-ol are dehydrated by heating strongly aluminium (III) oxide (Al_2O_3) form But-1-ene and But-2-ene respectively.

Chemical equation



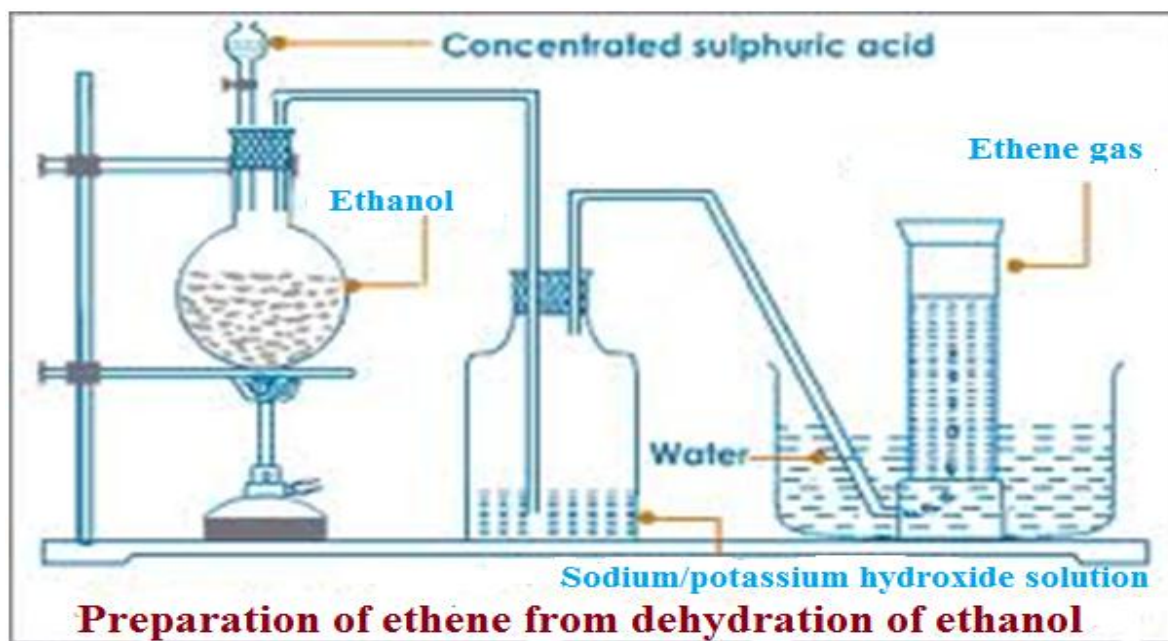


Laboratory set up for the preparation of alkenes/ethene

Caution

- (i) Ethanol is highly inflammable
- (ii) Conc H_2SO_4 is highly corrosive on skin contact.
- (iii) Common school thermometer has maximum calibration of 110°C and thus cannot be used. It breaks/cracks.

(i) Using concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid



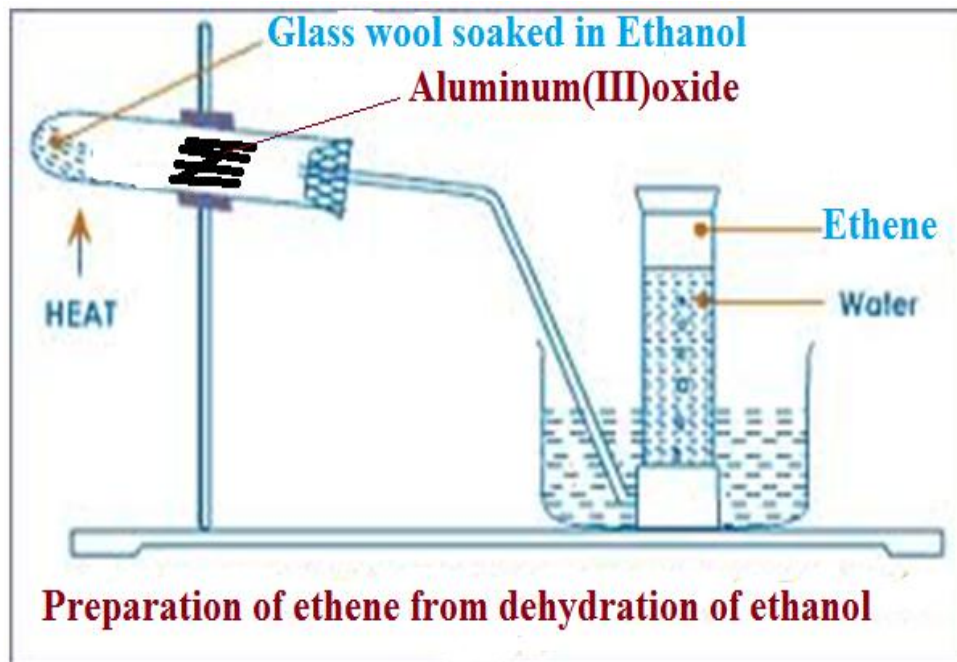
Some broken porcelain or sand should be put in the flask when heating to:

- (i) prevent bumping which may break the flask.
- (ii) ensure uniform and smooth boiling of the mixture

The temperatures should be maintained at above 160°C .

At lower temperatures another compound -**ether** is predominantly formed instead of ethene gas.

(ii) Using aluminium(III)oxide



(e) Properties of alkenes

I. Physical properties

Like alkanes, alkenes are colourless gases, solids and liquids that are not poisonous. They are slightly soluble in water.

The solubility in water decreases as the carbon chain and as the molar mass increase but very soluble in organic solvents like tetrachloromethane and methylbenzene.

The melting and boiling points increase as the carbon chain increases.

This is because of the increase in van-der-Waals /intermolecular forces as the carbon chain increases.

The first four straight chain alkenes (ethene, propene, but-1-ene and pent-1-ene) are gases at room temperature and pressure.

The density of straight chain alkenes, like alkanes, increases with increasing carbon chain as the intermolecular forces increase, reducing the volume occupied by a given mass of the alkene.

Summary of physical properties of the first five alkenes

Alkene	General	Melting	Boiling	State at room(298K)
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	formula	point(°C)	point(K)	temperature and pressure atmosphere (101300Pa)
Ethene	CH ₂ CH ₂	-169	-104	gas
Propene	CH ₃ CHCH ₂	-145	-47	gas
Butene	CH ₃ CH ₂ CHCH ₂	-141	-26	gas
Pent-1-ene	CH ₃ (CH ₂ CHCH ₂	-138	30	liquid
Hex-1-ene	CH ₃ (CH ₂) CHCH ₂	-98	64	liquid

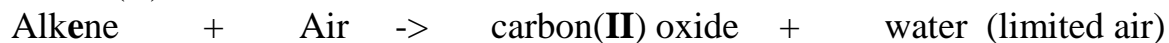
II. Chemical properties

(a) Burning/combustion

Alkenes burn with a **yellow**/ luminous **sooty**/ smoky flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.



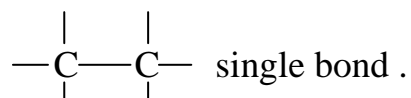
Alkenes burn with a **yellow**/ luminous **sooty**/ smoky flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.



Burning of alkenes with a **yellow**/ luminous **sooty**/ smoky flame is a confirmatory test for the **presence** of the =C=C= double bond because they have **higher C:H ratio**.

A homologous series with $\begin{array}{c} | \\ -\text{C} = \text{C}- \\ | \end{array}$ double or $-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-$ triple bond is said to be **unsaturated**.

A homologous series with $\begin{array}{c} | \quad | \\ -\text{C}-\text{C}- \\ | \quad | \end{array}$ single bond is said to be **saturated**. Most of the reactions of the unsaturated compound involve trying to be saturated to form a



Examples of burning alkenes

1.(a) Ethene when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

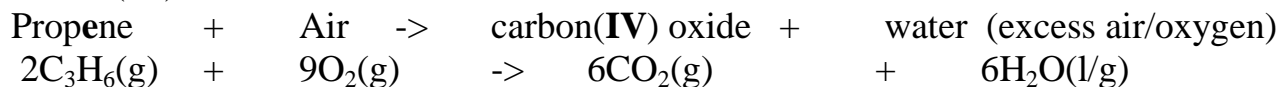




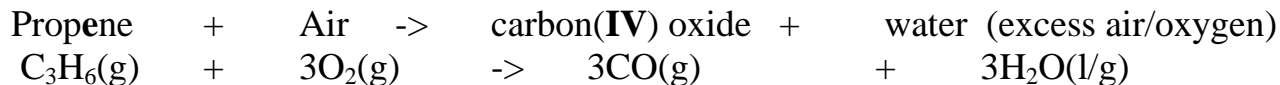
(b) Ethene when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.



2.(a) Propene when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.



(a) Propene when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.



(b) Addition reactions

An addition reaction is one which an unsaturated compound reacts to form a saturated compound. Addition reactions of alkenes are named from the reagent used to cause the addition/convert the double =C=C= to single C-C bond.

(i) Hydrogenation

Hydrogenation is an addition reaction in which **hydrogen** in presence of **Palladium/Nickel** catalyst at high temperatures react with alkenes to form alkanes.

Examples

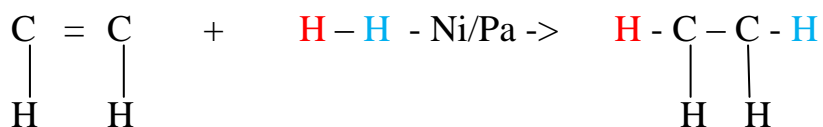
1. When Hydrogen gas is passed through liquid vegetable and animal **oil** at about 180°C in presence of Nickel catalyst, solid fat is formed.

Hydrogenation is thus used to **harden** oils to solid fat especially margarine.

During hydrogenation, one hydrogen atom in the hydrogen molecule attach itself to one carbon and the other hydrogen to the second carbon breaking the double bond to single bond.

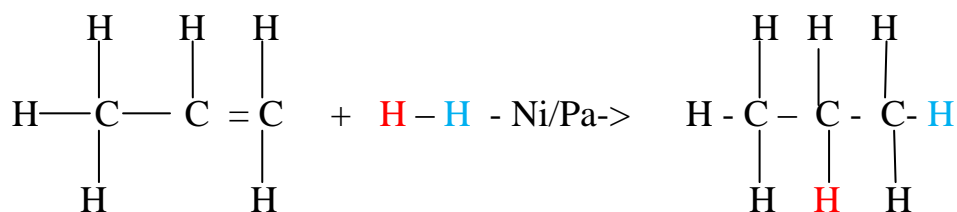
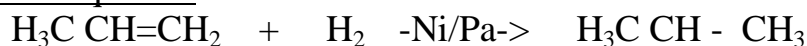
Chemical equation





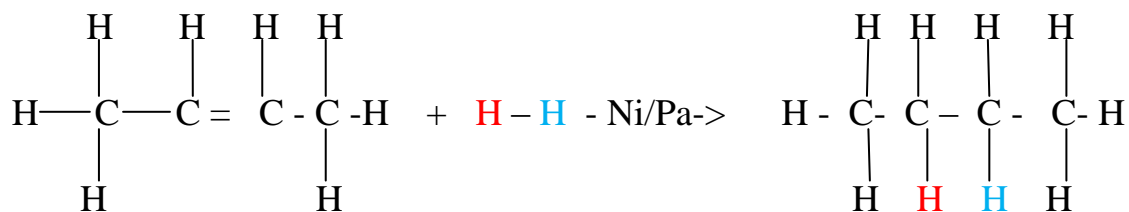
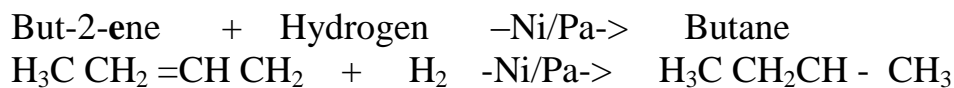
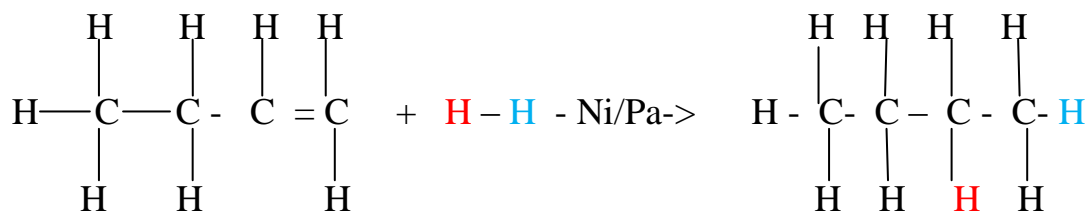
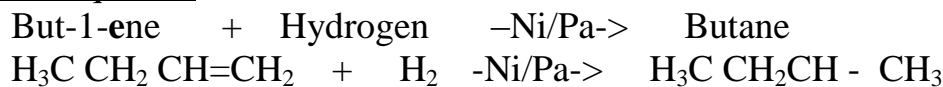
2. Propene undergoes hydrogenation to form Propane

Chemical equation

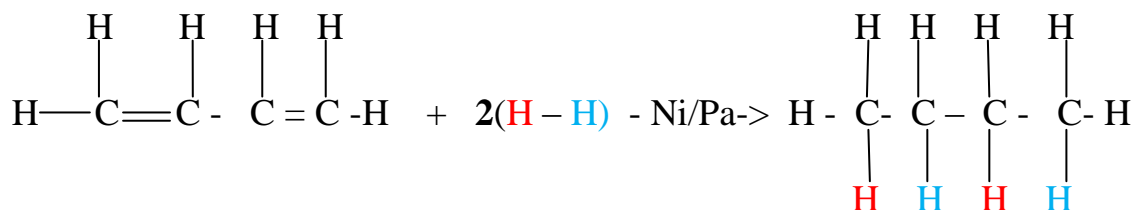
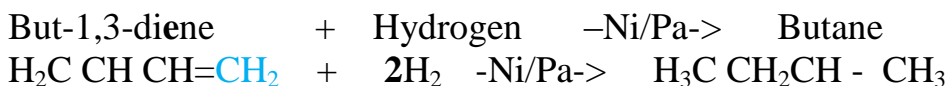


3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene undergo hydrogenation to form Butane

Chemical equation



4. But-1,3-diene should undergo hydrogenation to form Butane. The reaction uses **two moles** of hydrogen molecules/**four** hydrogen atoms to break the two double bonds.



(ii) Halogenation.

Halogenation is an addition reaction in which a halogen (Fluorine, chlorine, bromine, iodine) reacts with an alkene to form an alkane.

The double bond in the alkene break and form a single bond.

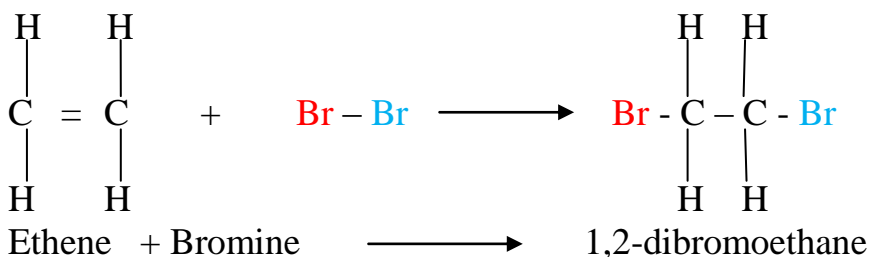
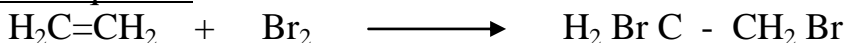
The colour of the halogen **fades** as the number of moles of the halogens remaining unreacted decreases/reduces.

One bromine atom bond at the 1st carbon in the double bond while the other goes to the 2nd carbon.

Examples

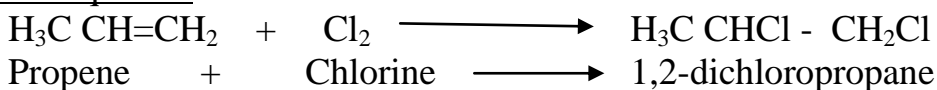
1.Ethene reacts with bromine to form 1,2-dibromoethane.

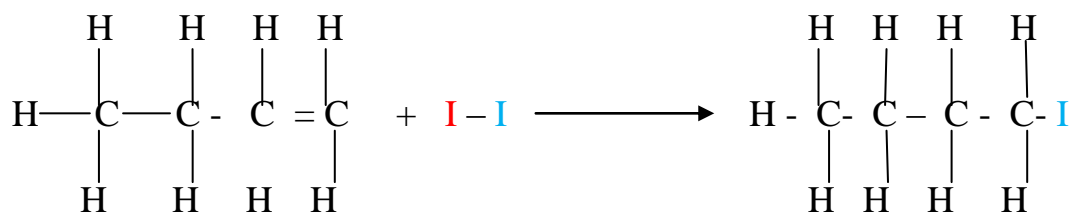
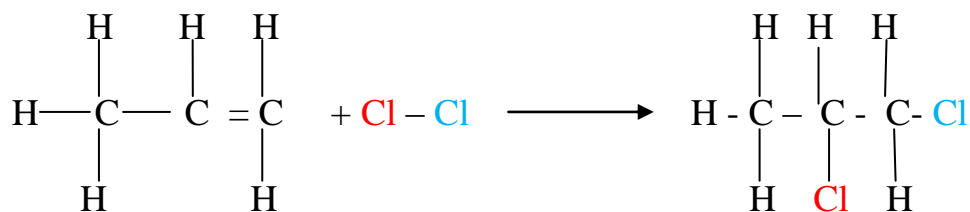
Chemical equation



2.Propene reacts with chlorine to form 1,2-dichloropropane.

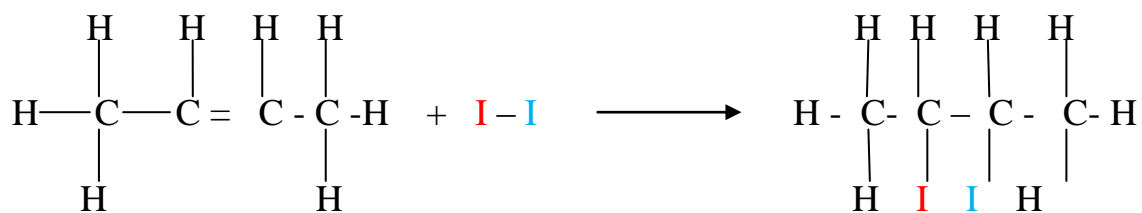
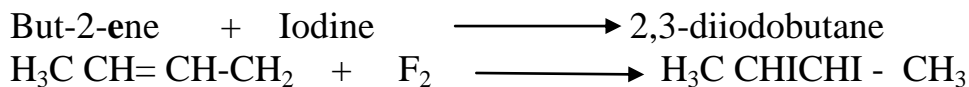
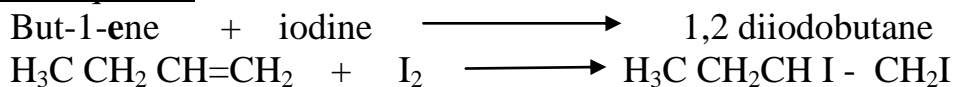
Chemical equation



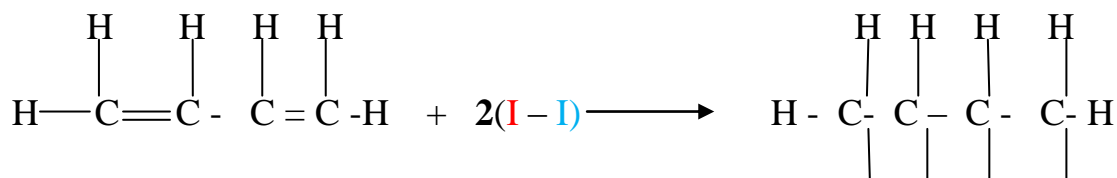
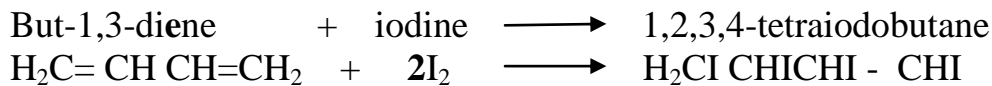


3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene undergo halogenation with iodine to form 1,2-diiodobutane and 2,3-diiodobutane

Chemical equation



4. But-1,3-diene should undergo halogenation to form Butane. The reaction uses **two moles** of iodine molecules/**four** iodine atoms to break the two double bonds.



(iii) Reaction with hydrogen halides.

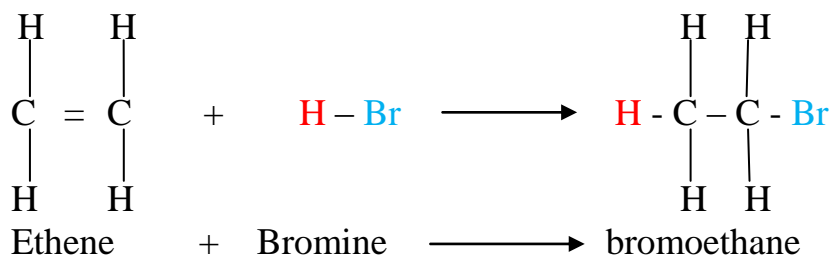
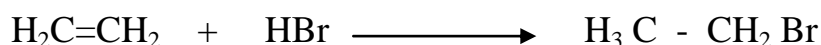
Hydrogen halides reacts with alkene to form a halogenoalkane. The double bond in the alkene break and form a single bond.

The main compound is one which the **hydrogen** atom bond at the carbon with **more hydrogen** .

Examples

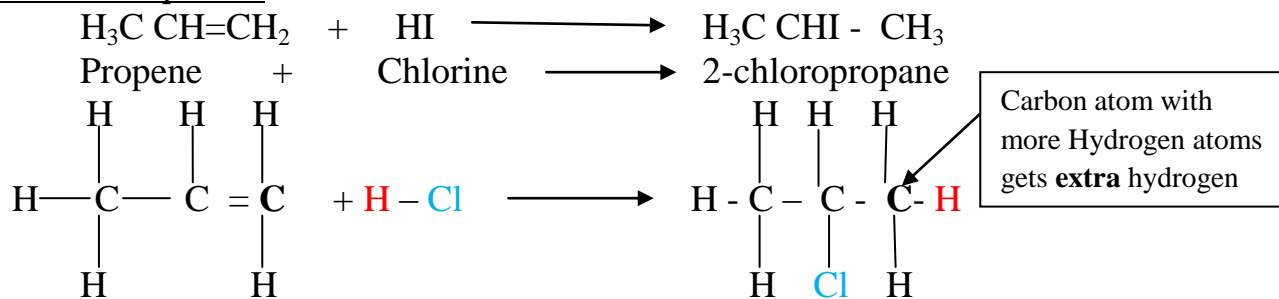
1. Ethene reacts with hydrogen bromide to form bromoethane.

Chemical equation



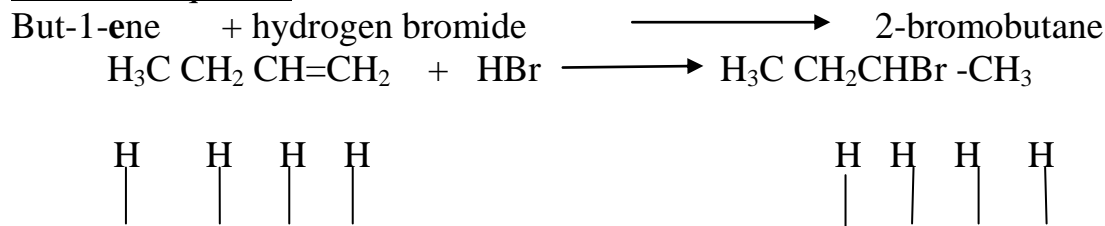
2. Propene reacts with hydrogen iodide to form 2-iodopropane.

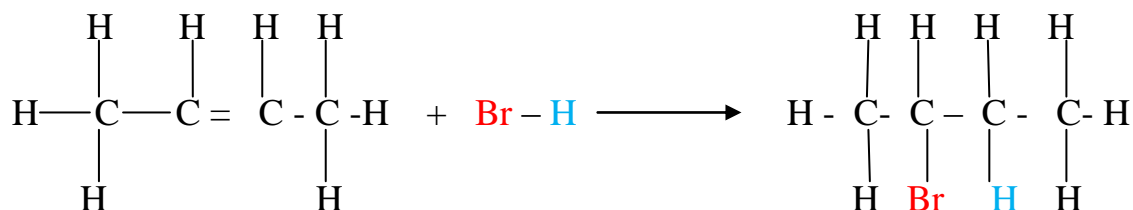
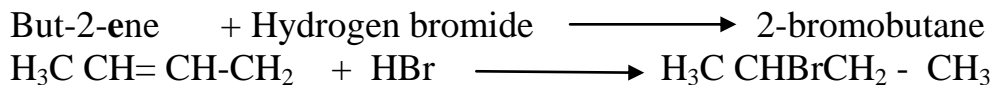
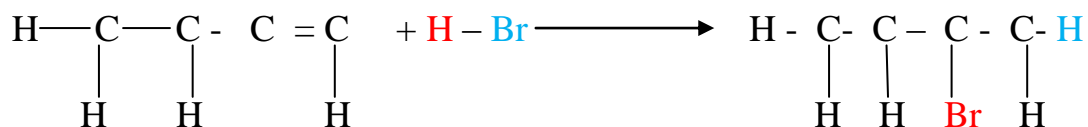
Chemical equation



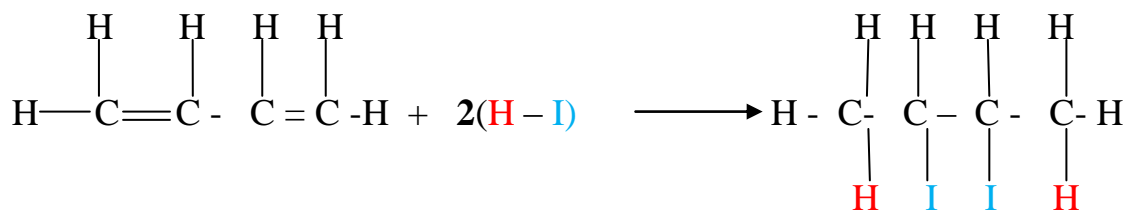
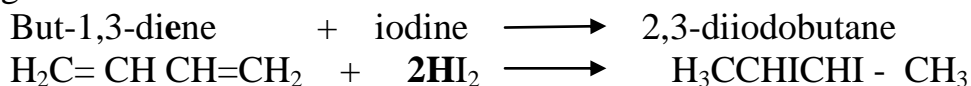
3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene reacts with hydrogen bromide to form 2-bromobutane

Chemical equation





4. But-1,3-diene react with hydrogen iodide to form 2,3- diiodobutane. The reaction uses **two moles** of hydrogen iodide molecules/**two** iodine atoms and two hydrogen atoms to break the two double bonds.



(iv) Reaction with bromine/chlorine water.

Chlorine and bromine water is formed when the halogen is dissolved in distilled water. Chlorine water has the formula HOCl (hypochlorous/chloric(I) acid). Bromine water has the formula HOBr (hydrobromic(I) acid).

During the addition reaction, the halogen moves to one carbon and the OH to the other carbon in the alkene at the =C=C= double bond to form a **halogenoalkanol**.

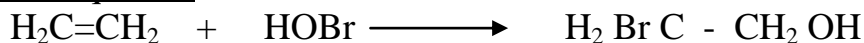
Bromine water + Alkene → bromoalkanol

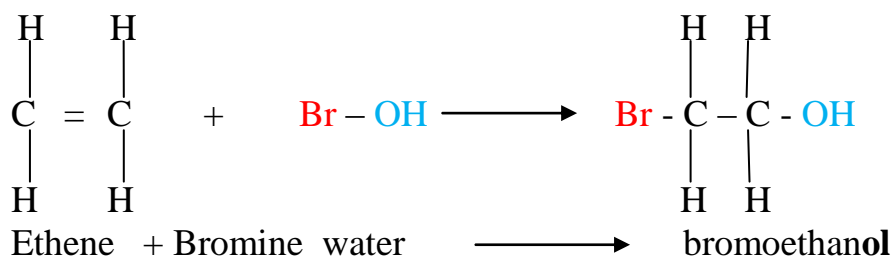
Chlorine water + Alkene → chloroalkanol

Examples

1 Ethene reacts with bromine water to form bromoethanol.

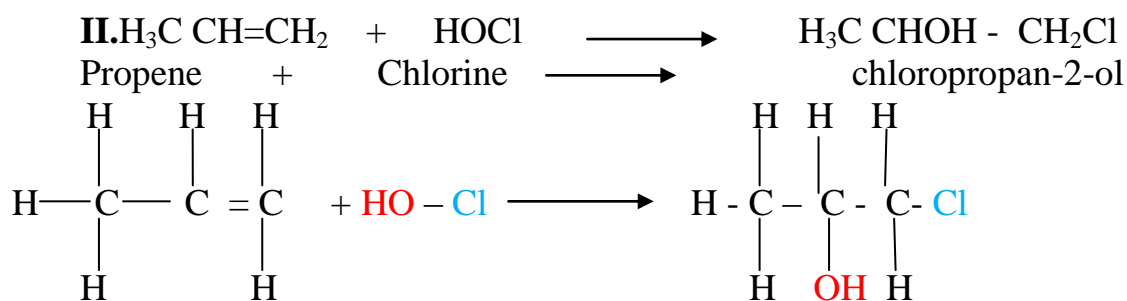
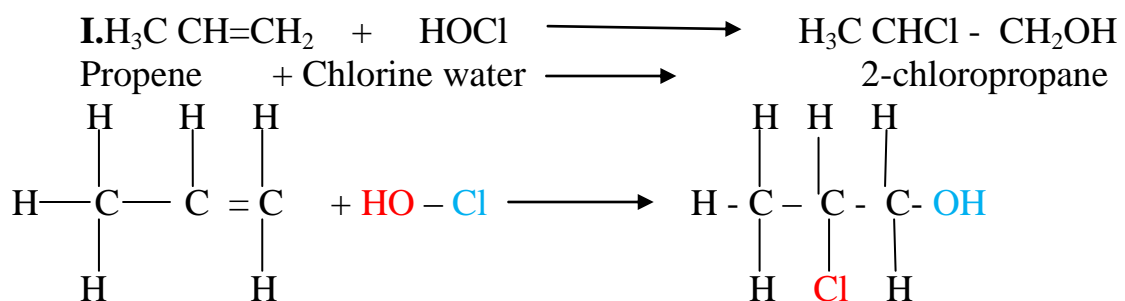
Chemical equation





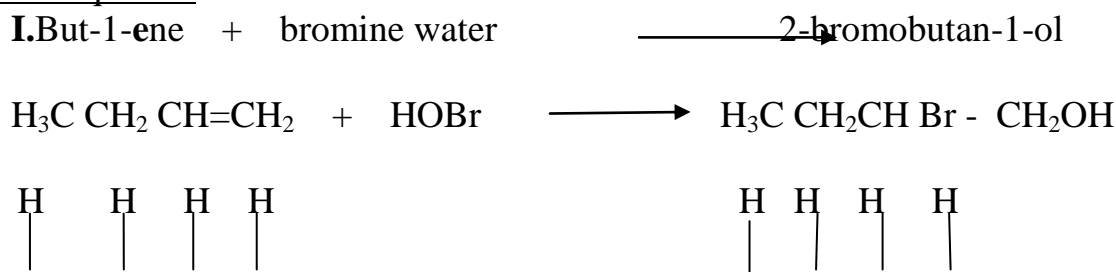
2. Propene reacts with chlorine water to form chloropropan-2-ol / 2-chloropropan-1-ol.

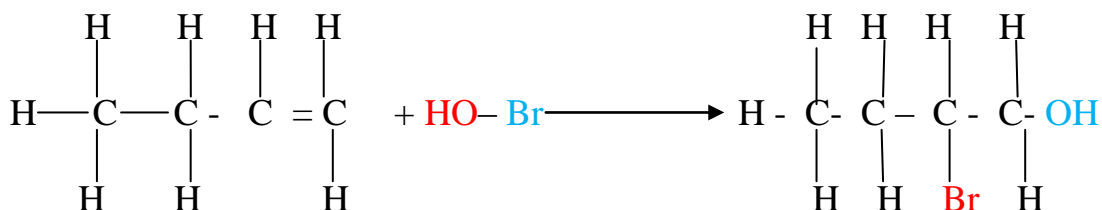
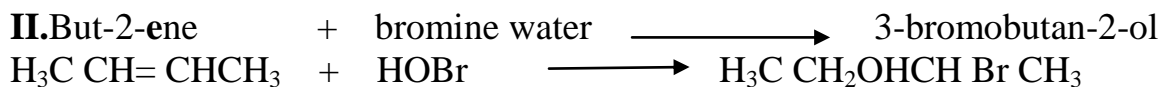
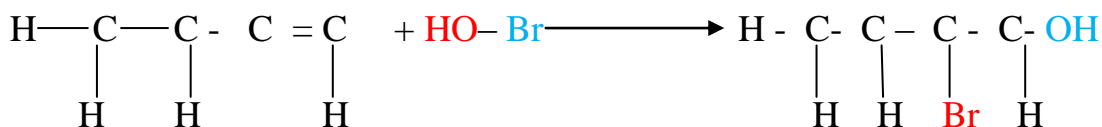
Chemical equation



3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene react with bromine water to form 2-bromobutan-1-ol / 3-bromobutan-2-ol respectively

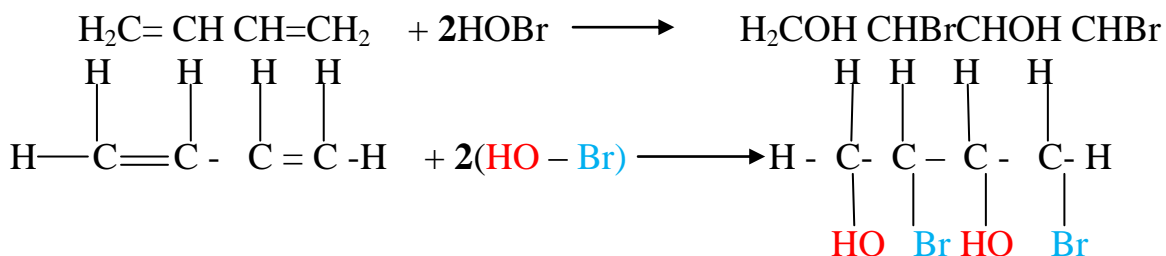
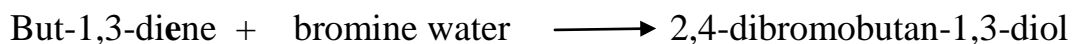
Chemical equation





4. But-1,3-diene reacts with bromine water to form Butan-1,3-diol.

The reaction uses **two moles** of bromine water molecules to break the two double bonds.



(v) Oxidation.

Alkenes are oxidized to alkanols with **duo/double** functional groups by oxidizing agents.

When an alkene is bubbled into orange acidified potassium/sodium dichromate (VI) solution, the colour of the oxidizing agent changes to green.

When an alkene is bubbled into purple acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution, the oxidizing agent is decolorized.

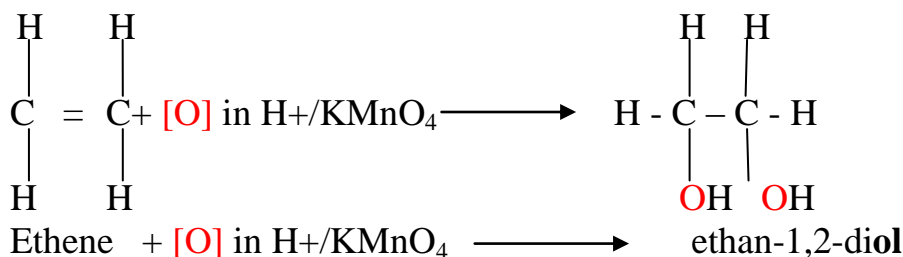
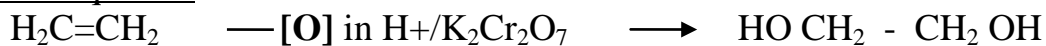
Examples

1Ethene is oxidized to ethan-1,2-diol by acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution/ acidified potassium/sodium dichromate(VI) solution.

The purple acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution is decolorized.

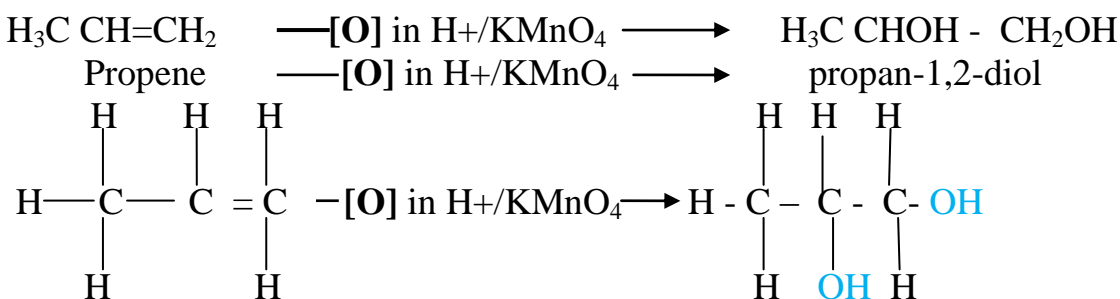
The orange acidified potassium/sodium dichromate(VI) solution turns to green.

Chemical equation



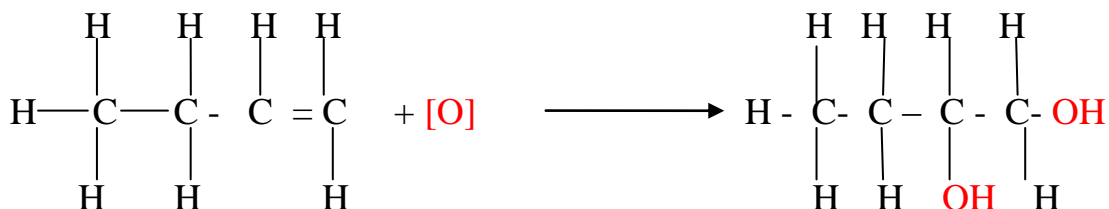
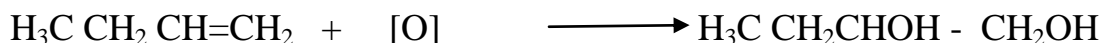
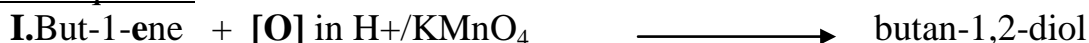
2. Propene is oxidized to propan-1,2-diol by acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution/ acidified potassium/sodium dichromate(VI) solution. The purple acidified potassium/sodium manganate(VII) solution is decolorized. The orange acidified potassium/sodium dichromate(VI) solution turns to green.

Chemical equation



3. Both But-1-ene and But-2-ene react with bromine water to form butan-1,2-diol and butan-2,3-diol

Chemical equation



(v) Hydrolysis.

Hydrolysis is the reaction of a compound with water/addition of H-OH to a compound.

Alkenes undergo hydrolysis to form alkanols .

This takes place in two steps:

(i) Alkenes react with **concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid** at room temperature and pressure to form **alkylhydrogen sulphate(VI)**.

Alkenes + concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid \rightarrow alkylhydrogen sulphate(VI)

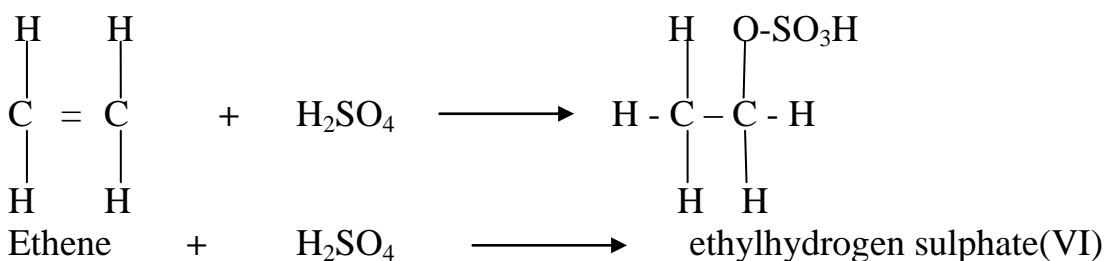
(ii) On adding **water** to alkylhydrogen sulphate(VI) then warming, an alkanol is formed.

alkylhydrogen sulphate(VI) + water -warm- \rightarrow Alkanol.

Examples

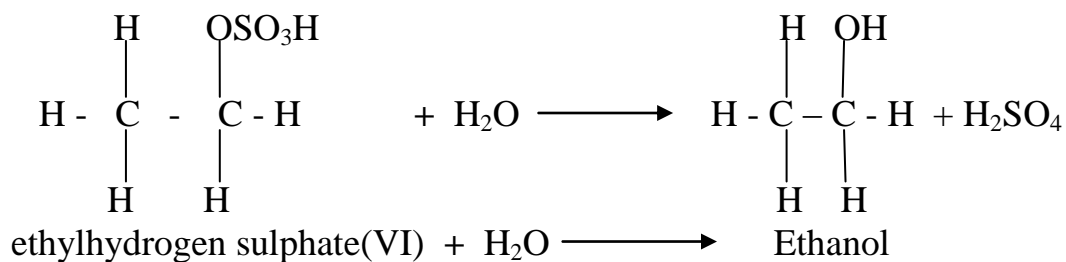
(i) Ethene reacts with cold concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid to form ethyl hydrogen sulphate(VI)

Chemical equation



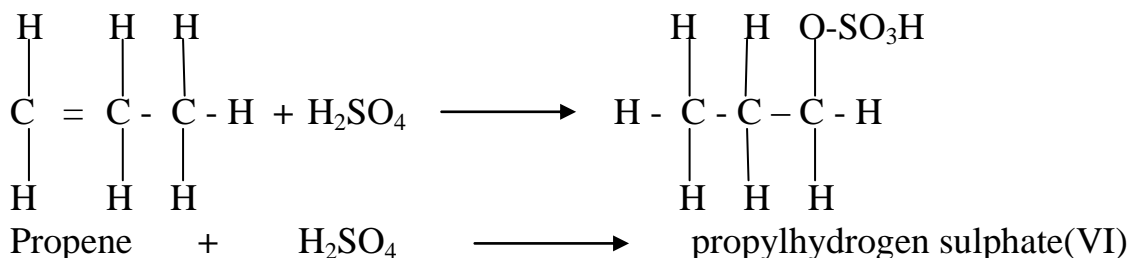
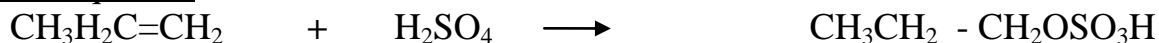
(ii) Ethylhydrogen sulphate(VI) is hydrolysed by water to ethanol

Chemical equation



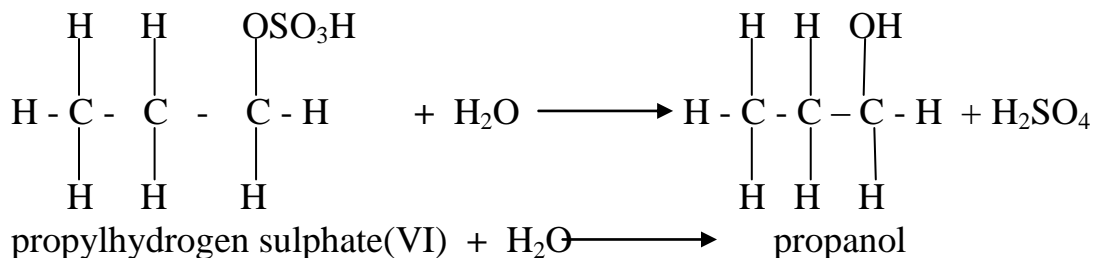
2. Propene reacts with cold concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid to form propyl hydrogen sulphate(VII)

Chemical equation



(ii) Propylhydrogen sulphate(VI) is hydrolysed by water to propanol

Chemical equation



(vi) Polymerization/self addition

Addition polymerization is the process where a small unsaturated monomer (alkene) molecule join together to form a large saturated molecule.

Only alkenes undergo addition polymerization.

Addition polymers are named from the alkene/monomer making the polymer and adding the prefix “**poly**” before the name of monomer to form a **polyalkene**

During addition polymerization

(i)the double bond in alkenes break

(ii)free radicals are formed

(iii)the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule.

The more collisions the larger the molecule.

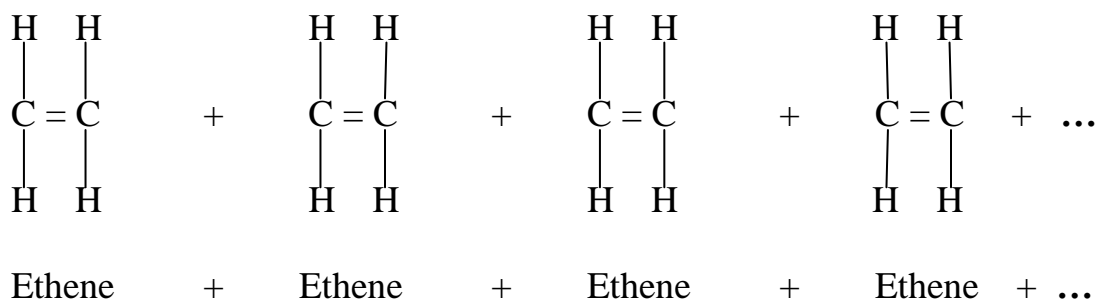
Examples of addition polymerization

1. Formation of Polyethene

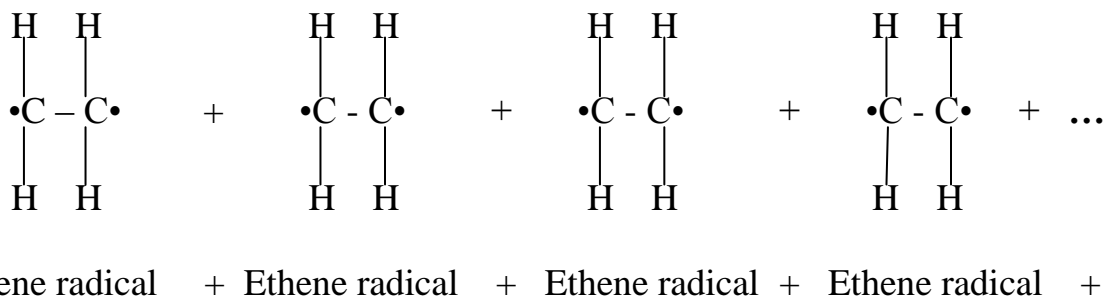
Polyethene is an addition polymer formed when ethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

During polymerization:

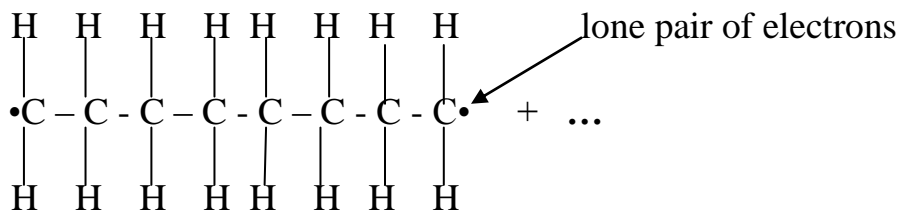
(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)



(ii) the double bond joining the ethane molecule break to free radicals

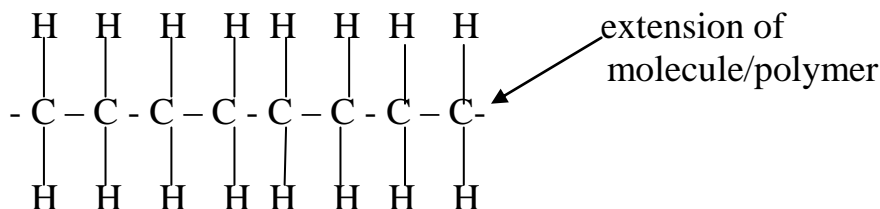


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

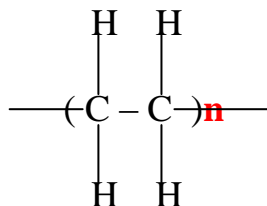


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polyethene.

Polyethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a **repetition** of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Where **n** is the number of monomers in the polymer. The number of monomers in the polymer can be determined from the molar mass of the polymer and monomer from the relationship:

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

Examples

Polythene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of ethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0)

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in polyomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Molar mass ethene (C}_2\text{H}_4) = 28 \text{ Molar mass polyethene} = 4760$$

$$\text{Substituting} \quad \frac{4760}{28} = \underline{\underline{170 \text{ ethene molecules}}}$$

The **commercial** name of polyethene is **polythene**.

It is an elastic, tough, transparent and durable plastic.

Polythene is used:

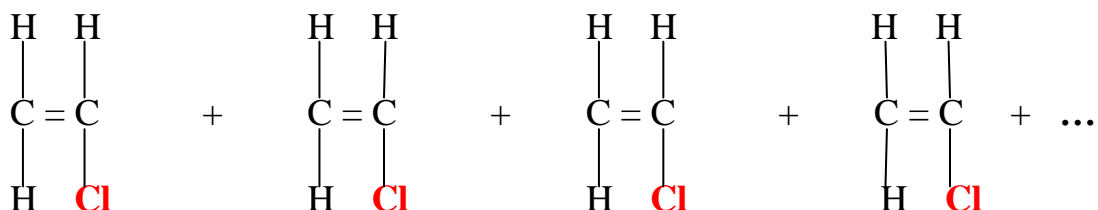
- (i) in making plastic bag
- (ii) bowls and plastic bags
- (iii) packaging materials

2. Formation of Polychlorethene

Polychloroethene is an addition polymer formed when chloroethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

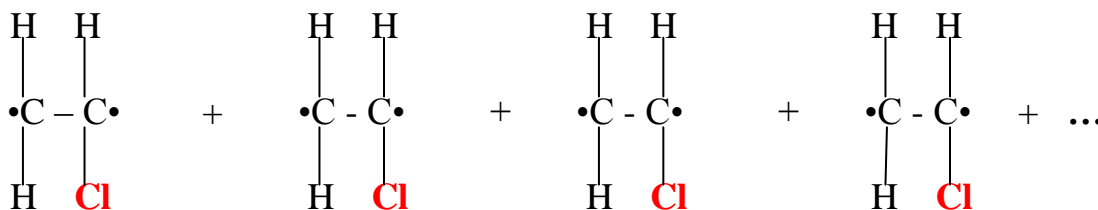
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

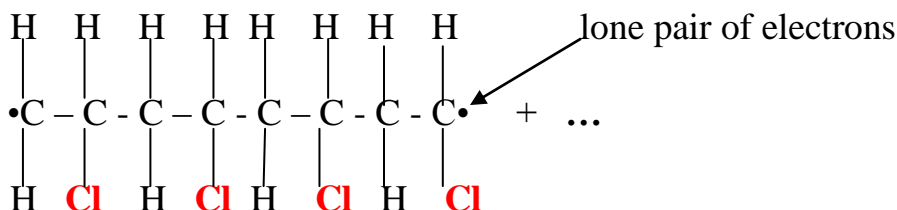


chloroethene + chloroethene + chloroethene + chloroethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the chloroethene molecule break to free radicals

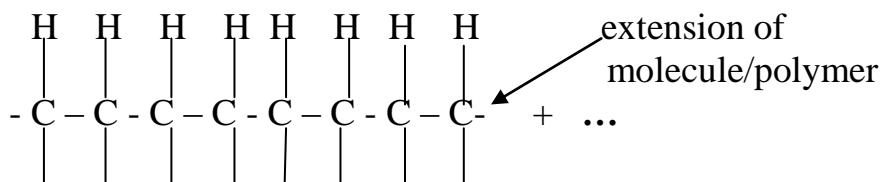


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



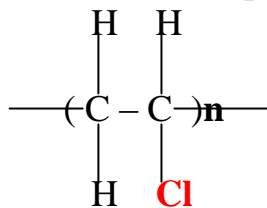
Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polychloroethene.

Polychloroethene molecule can be represented as:





Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polychloroethene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of chlorethene molecules in the polymer(C=12.0, H=1.0,Cl=35.5)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$
 \Rightarrow Molar mass ethene (C₂H₃Cl) = 62.5 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{62.5} = 77.16 \Rightarrow 77$ polychloroethene molecules(**whole number**)

The **commercial** name of polychloroethene is **polyvinylchloride(PVC)**. It is a tough, non-transparent and durable plastic. PVC is used:

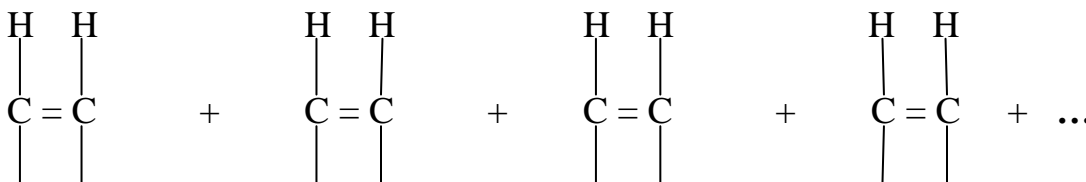
- (i)in making plastic rope
- (ii)water pipes
- (iii)crates and boxes

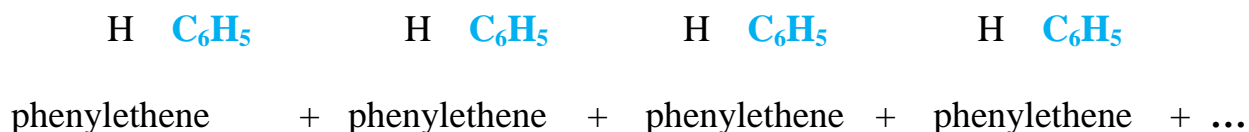
3.Formation of Polyphenylethene

Polyphenylethene is an addition polymer formed when phenylethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

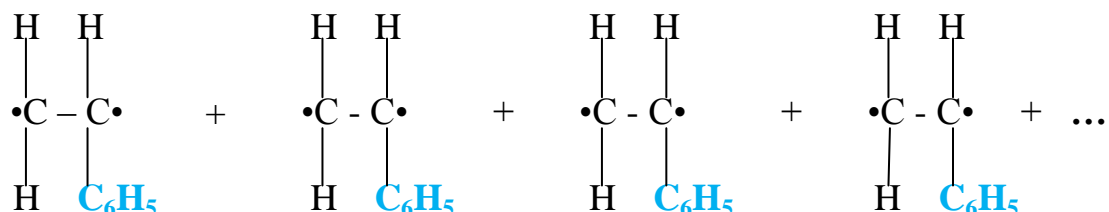
During polymerization:

(i)many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure(which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

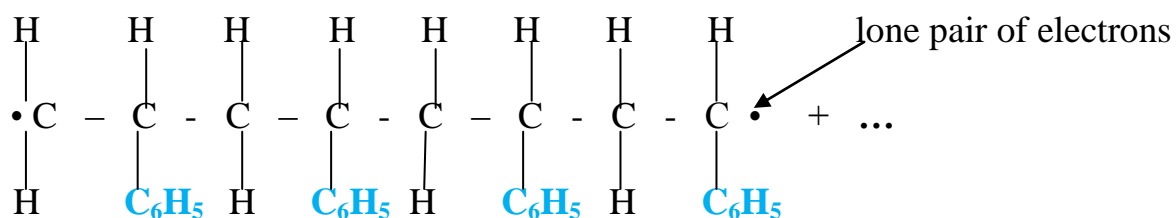




(ii) the double bond joining the phenylethene molecule break to free radicals

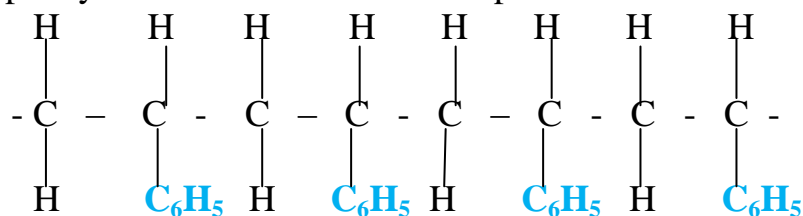


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

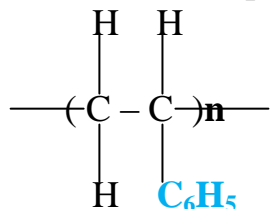


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polyphenylethene.

Polyphenylethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polyphenylthene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of phenylethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0,)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C₂H₄) = 28 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{28} = 170$ => 170 polyphenylethene molecules(whole number)

The **commercial** name of polyphenylethene is **polystyrene**. It is a very light durable plastic. Polystyrene is used:

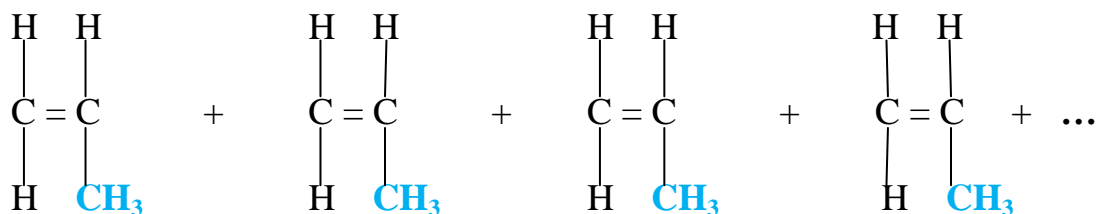
- (i) in making packaging material for carrying delicate items like computers, radion, calculators.
- (ii) ceiling tiles
- (iii) clothe linings

4. Formation of Polypropene

Polypropene is an addition polymer formed when propene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

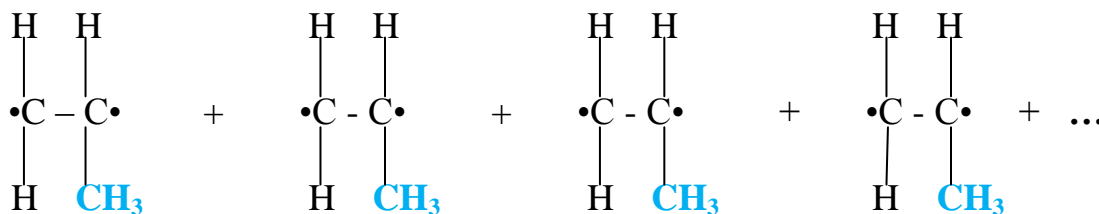
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

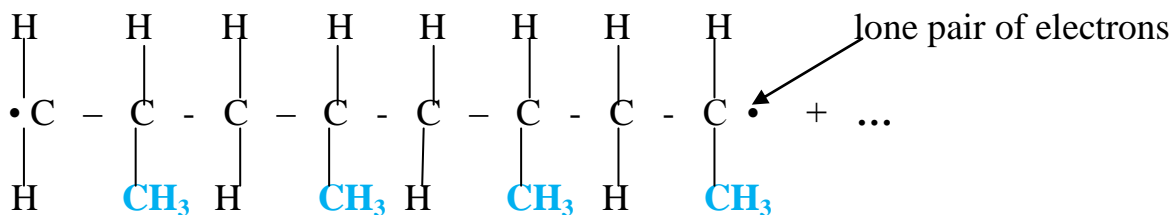


propene + propene + propene + propene + ...

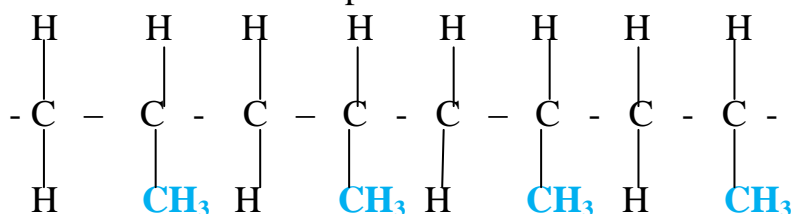
(ii) the double bond joining the phenylethene molecule break to free radicals



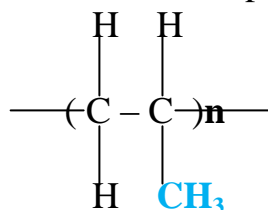
(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer propene. propene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polypropene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of propene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0,)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass propene (C₃H₆) = 44 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{44} = 108.1818 \Rightarrow 108$ propene molecules (whole number)

The **commercial** name of polyphenylethene is **polystyrene**. It is a very light durable plastic. Polystyrene is used:

(i) in making packaging material for carrying delicate items like computers, radion, calculators.

(ii) ceiling tiles

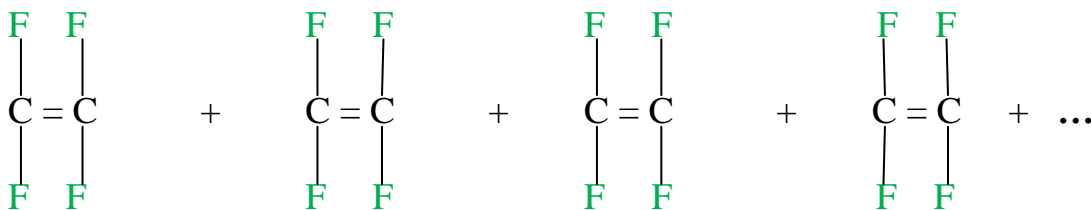
(iii)clothe linings

5. Formation of Polytetrafluoroethene

Polytetrafluoroethene is an addition polymer formed when tetrafluoroethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

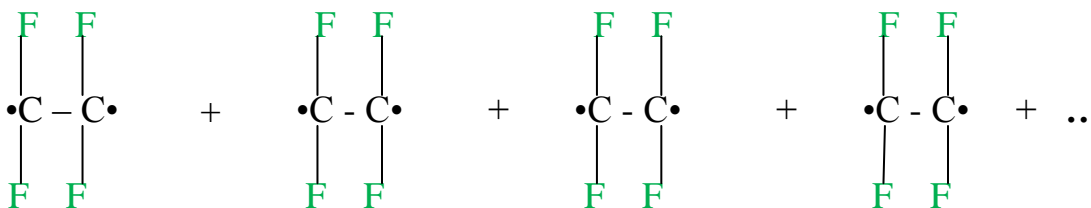
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

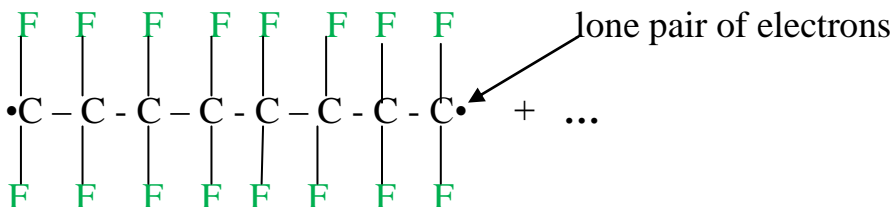


tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the tetrafluoroethene molecule break to free radicals

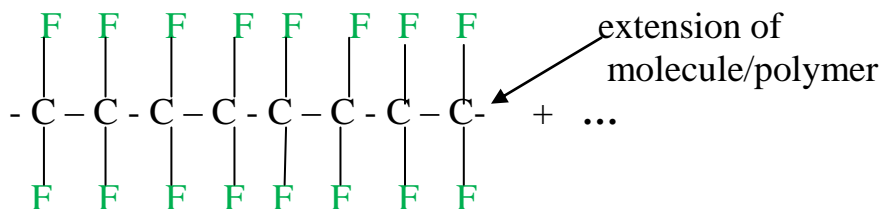


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

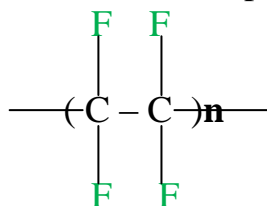


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polytetrafluoroethene.

polytetrafluoroethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polytetrafluoroethene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of tetrafluoroethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, F=19)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C₂F₄) = 62.5 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{62.5} = 77.16 \Rightarrow 77$ polychloroethene molecules (whole number)

The **commercial** name of polytetrafluoroethene (**P.T.F.E**) is **Teflon (P.T.F.E)**. It is a tough, non-transparent and durable plastic. PVC is used:

- (i) in making plastic rope
- (ii) water pipes
- (iii) crates and boxes

6. Formation of rubber from Latex

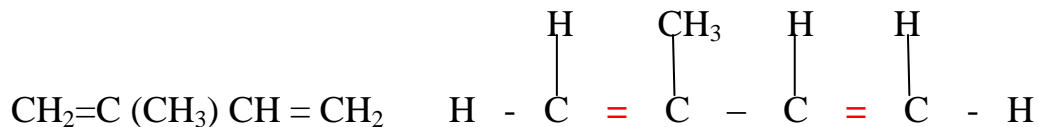
Natural rubber is obtained from rubber trees.

During harvesting an incision is made on the rubber tree to produce a milky white substance called **latex**.

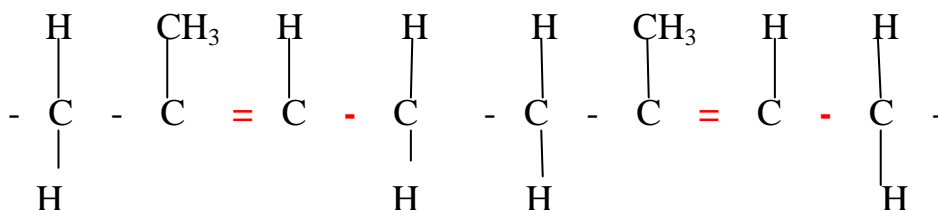
Latex is a mixture of rubber and lots of water.

The latex is then added an acid to coagulate the rubber.

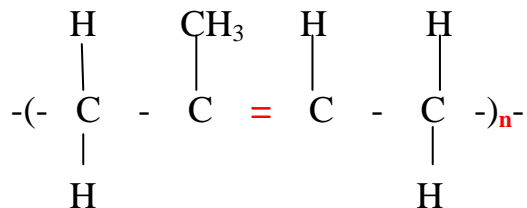
Natural rubber is a polymer of 2-methylbut-1,3-diene ;



During natural polymerization to rubber, one double C=C bond break to self add to another molecule. The double bond remaining move to carbon "2" thus;

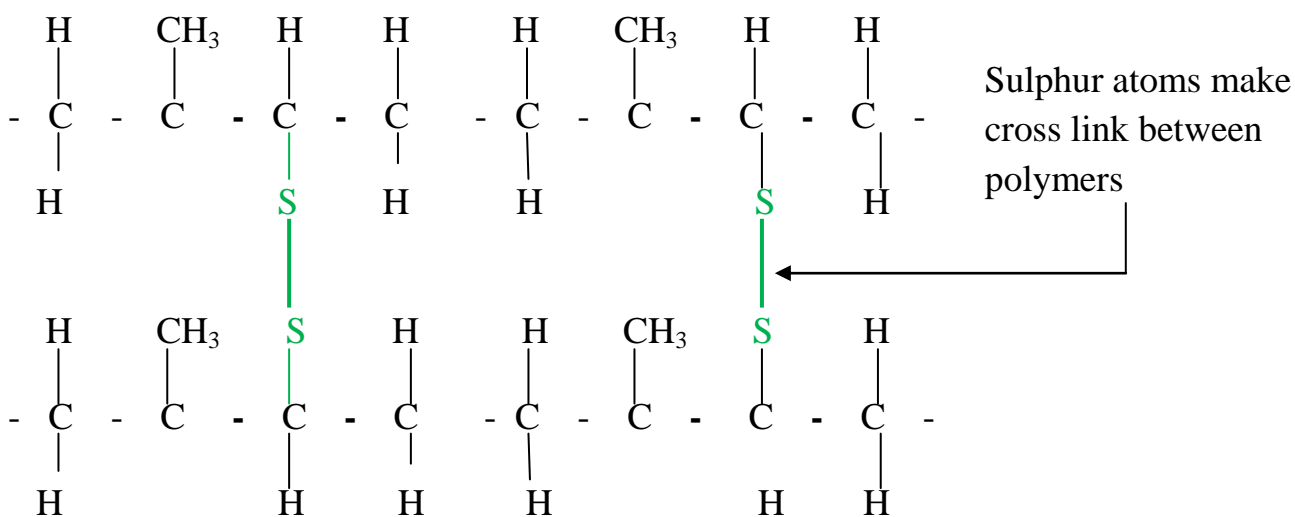


Generally the structure of rubber is thus;



Pure rubber is soft and sticky. It is used to make erasers, car tyres. Most of it is vulcanized. Vulcanization is the process of heating rubber with sulphur to make it harder/tougher.

During vulcanization the sulphur atoms form a cross link between chains of rubber molecules/polymers. This decreases the number of C=C double bonds in the polymer.

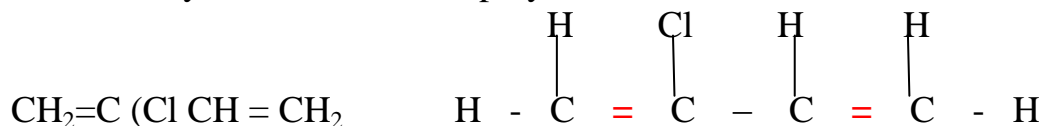


Vulcanized rubber is used to make **tyres, shoes** and **valves**.

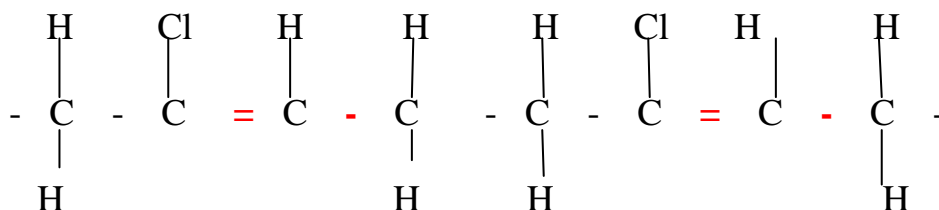
7. Formation of synthetic rubber

Synthetic rubber is able to resist action of oil, abrasion and organic solvents which rubber cannot.

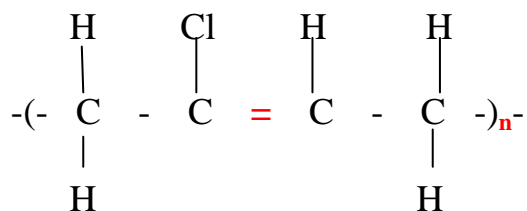
Common synthetic rubber is a polymer of 2-chlorobut-1,3-diene ;



During polymerization to synthetic rubber, one double C=C bond is broken to self add to another molecule. The double bond remaining move to carbon "2" thus;



Generally the structure of rubber is thus;



Rubber is thus strengthened through vulcanization and manufacture of synthetic rubber.

(c) **Test for the presence of $-\overset{|}{\text{C}}=\overset{|}{\text{C}}-$ double bond.**

(i) Burning/combustion

All unsaturated hydrocarbons with a $-\overset{|}{\text{C}}=\overset{|}{\text{C}}-$ or $-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-$ bond burn with a yellow sooty flame.

Experiment

Scoop a sample of the substance provided in a clean metallic spatula. Introduce it on a Bunsen burner.

Observation	Inference
Solid melt then burns with a yellow sooty flame	$- \underset{ }{\text{C}} = \underset{ }{\text{C}} -$ $- \text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{bond}$

(ii) Oxidation by acidified $\text{KMnO}_4/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$

Bromine water, Chlorine water and Oxidizing agents acidified $\text{KMnO}_4/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ change to **unique** colour in presence of $-\underset{|}{\text{C}} = \underset{|}{\text{C}} -$

or $-\text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{bond}$.

Experiment

Scoop a sample of the substance provided into a clean test tube. Add 10cm³ of distilled water. Shake. Take a portion of the solution mixture. Add three drops of acidified $\text{KMnO}_4/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$.

Observation	Inference
Acidified KMnO_4 decolorized	$-\underset{ }{\text{C}} = \underset{ }{\text{C}} -$
Orange colour of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ turns green	$-\text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{bond}$
Bromine water is decolorized	
Chlorine water is decolorized	

(d) Some uses of Alkenes

1. In the manufacture of plastic
2. Hydrolysis of ethene is used in industrial manufacture of ethanol.
3. In ripening of fruits.
4. In the manufacture of detergents.

(iii) Alkynes

(a) Nomenclature/Naming

These are hydrocarbons with a general formula C_nH_{2n-2} and $-C\equiv C-$ double bond as the functional group. n is the number of Carbon atoms in the molecule.

The carbon atoms are linked by at least one **triple** bond to each other and single bonds to hydrogen atoms.

They include:

n	General/ Molecular formula	Structural formula	Name
1		Does not exist	-
2	C_2H_2	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} - \text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \text{CH CH} \end{array}$	Ethyne
3	C_3H_4	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} - \text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \\ \text{CH C CH}_3 \end{array}$	Propyne
4	C_4H_6	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} \equiv \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$	Butyne

		$\begin{array}{c} \text{H}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \text{CH C CH}_2\text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	
5	C_5H_8	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \text{CH C (CH}_2\text{)}_2\text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	Pentyne
6	C_6H_{10}	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \text{CH C (CH}_2\text{)}_3\text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	Hexyne
7	C_7H_{12}	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \text{CH C (CH}_2\text{)}_4\text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	Heptyne
8	C_8H_{14}	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \text{CH C (CH}_2\text{)}_5\text{CH}_3 \end{array}$	Octyne
9	C_9H_{16}	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H}-\text{C}\equiv\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{C}-\text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$	Nonyne

		$\text{CH C (CH}_2)_6\text{CH}_3$	
10	$\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{18}$	$ \begin{array}{cccccccc} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & - \text{C} \equiv \text{C} & - \text{C} & - \text{C} & - \text{C} & - \text{C} & - \text{C} & - \text{C} - \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & \\ & & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array} $	Decyne
		$\text{CH C (CH}_2)_7\text{CH}_3$	

Note

1. Since carbon is **tetravalent**, each atom of carbon in the alkyne **MUST** always be bonded using **four** covalent bond /four shared pairs of electrons including at the triple bond.

2. Since Hydrogen is **monovalent**, each atom of hydrogen in the alkyne **MUST** always be bonded using **one** covalent bond/one shared pair of electrons.

3. One member of the alkyne ,like alkenes and alkanes, differ from the next/previous by a CH_2 group(molar mass of 14 **atomic mass units**).They thus form a homologous series.

e.g

Propyne differ from ethyne by (14 a.m.u) one carbon and two Hydrogen atoms from ethyne.

4.A homologous series of alkenes like that of alkanes:

- (i) differ by a CH_2 group from the next /previous consecutively
- (ii) have similar chemical properties
- (iii)have similar chemical formula with general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n-2}$
- (iv)the physical properties also show steady gradual change

5.The $-\text{C} \equiv \text{C}-$ triple bond in alkyne is the functional group. The functional group is the **reacting site** of the alkynes.

6. The $-\text{C} = \text{C}-$ triple bond in alkyne can easily be broken to accommodate more /four more monovalent atoms. The $-\text{C} \equiv \text{C}-$ triple bond in alkynes make it thus **unsaturated** like alkenes.

7. Most of the reactions of alkynes like alkenes take place at the $-\text{C} \equiv \text{C}-$ triple bond.

(b)Isomers of alkynes

Isomers of alkynes have the same molecular **general formula** but different molecular **structural formula**.

Isomers of alkynes are also named by using the IUPAC(International Union of Pure and Applied Chemistry) system of **nomenclature/naming**.

The IUPAC system of nomenclature of naming alkynes uses the following basic rules/guidelines:

1. Identify the longest continuous/straight carbon chain which contains the $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ **triple** bond to get/determine the **parent** alkene.

2. Number the longest chain from the end of the chain which contains the $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ **triple** bond so as $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ **triple** bond get lowest number possible.

3 Indicate the positions by splitting “**alk-positions-yne**” e.g. but-2-yne, pent-1,3-diyne.

4. The position **indicated** must be for the carbon atom at the **lower** position in the $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ **triple bond**. i.e

But-2-yne means the triple $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ is between Carbon “2” and “3”

Pent-1,3-diyne means there are two triple bonds; one between carbon “1” and “2” and another between carbon “3” and “4”

5. Determine the position, number and type of branches. Name them as methyl, ethyl, propyl e.tc. according to the number of alkyl carbon chains attached to the alkyne. Name them fluoro-,chloro-,bromo-,iodo- if they are halogens

6. Use prefix di-,tri-,tetra-,penta-,hexa- to show the number of **triple** $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ bonds and **branches** attached to the alkyne.

7. Position isomers can be formed when the $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ triple bond is shifted between carbon atoms e.g.

But-2-yne means the double $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ is between Carbon “2” and “3”

But-1-yne means the double $\text{-C}\equiv\text{C-}$ is between Carbon “1” and “2”

Both But-1-yne and But-2-yne are position isomers of Butyne.

9. Like alkanes and alkynes, an alkyl group can be attached to the alkyne.

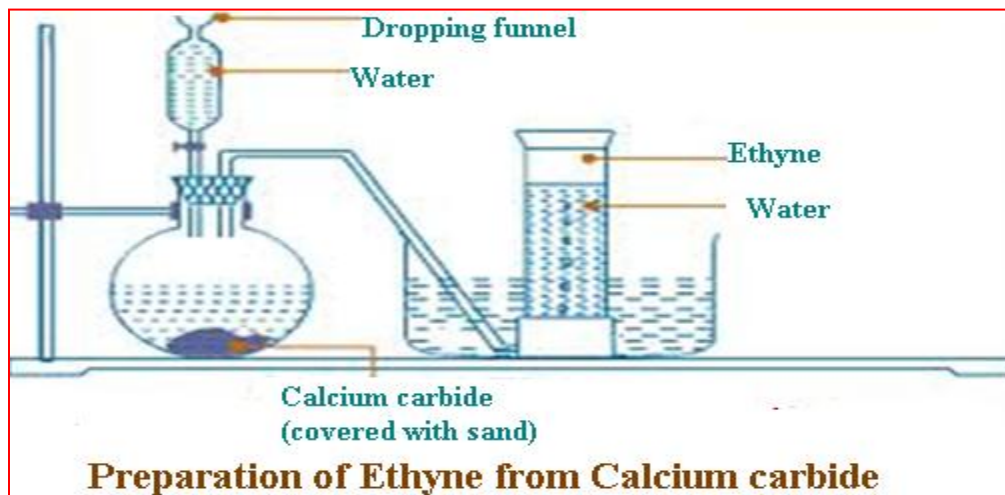
Chain/branch isomers are thus formed.

Butyne and 2-methyl propyne both have the same general formula but different branching chain.

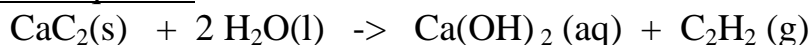
(More on powerpoint)

(c)Preparation of Alkynes.

Ethyne is prepared from the reaction of water on calcium carbide. The reaction is highly exothermic and thus a layer of sand should be put above the calcium carbide to absorb excess heat to prevent the reaction flask from breaking. Copper(II)sulphate(VI) is used to catalyze the reaction



Chemical equation



(d) Properties of alkynes

I. Physical properties

Like alkanes and alkenes, alkynes are colourless gases, solids and liquids that are not poisonous.

They are slightly soluble in water. The solubility in water decreases as the carbon chain and as the molar mass increase but very soluble in organic solvents like tetrachloromethane and methylbenzene. Ethyne has a pleasant taste when pure.

The melting and boiling point increase as the carbon chain increases.

This is because of the increase in van-der-Waals / intermolecular forces as the carbon chain increases. The first three straight chain alkynes (ethyne, propyne and but-1-yne) are gases at room temperature and pressure.

The density of straight chain alkynes increases with increasing carbon chain as the intermolecular forces increase, reducing the volume occupied by a given mass of the alkyne.

Summary of physical properties of the first five alkenes

Alkyne	General formula	Melting point(°C)	Boiling point(°C)	State at room(298K) temperature and pressure atmosphere (101300Pa)
Ethyne	CH CH	-82	-84	gas
Propyne	CH ₃ C CH	-103	-23	gas
Butyne	CH ₃ CH ₂ CCH	-122	8	gas
Pent-1-yne	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₂ CCH	-119	39	liquid
Hex-1-yne	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ C CH	-132	71	liquid

II. Chemical properties

(a) Burning/combustion

Alkynes burn with a **yellow**/ luminous very **sooty**/ smoky flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Alkyne + Air → carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)

Alkenes burn with a **yellow**/ luminous very **sooty**/ smoky flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide/carbon and water.

Alkyne + Air → carbon(II) oxide /carbon + water (limited air)

Burning of alkynes with a **yellow**/ luminous **sooty**/ smoky flame is a confirmatory test for the **presence** of the - C ≡ C – triple bond because they have very **high C:H ratio**.

Examples of burning alkynes

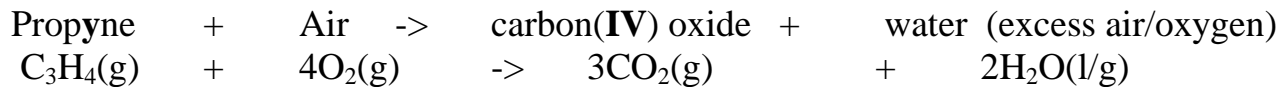
1.(a) Ethyne when ignited burns with a **yellow** very **sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.

Ethyne + Air → carbon(IV) oxide + water (excess air/oxygen)
 $2C_2H_2(g) + 5O_2(g) \rightarrow 4CO_2(g) + 2H_2O(l/g)$

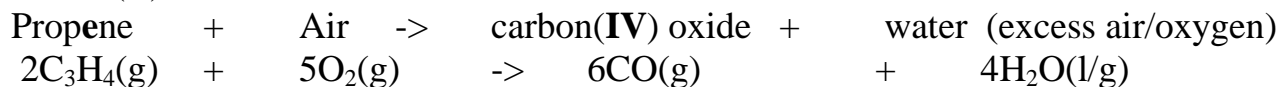
(b) Ethyne when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **limited** air to form a mixture of unburnt carbon and carbon(II) oxide and water.

Ethyne + Air → carbon(II) oxide + water (limited air)
 $C_2H_2(g) + O_2(g) \rightarrow 2CO_2(g) + C + 2H_2O(l/g)$

2.(a) Propyne when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **excess** air to form carbon(IV) oxide and water.



(a) Propyne when ignited burns with a **yellow sooty** flame in **limited** air to form carbon(II) oxide and water.



(b) Addition reactions

An addition reaction is one which an unsaturated compound reacts to form a saturated compound. Addition reactions of alkynes are also named from the reagent used to cause the addition/convert the triple $\text{C} \equiv \text{C}$ to single $\text{C}-\text{C}$ bond.

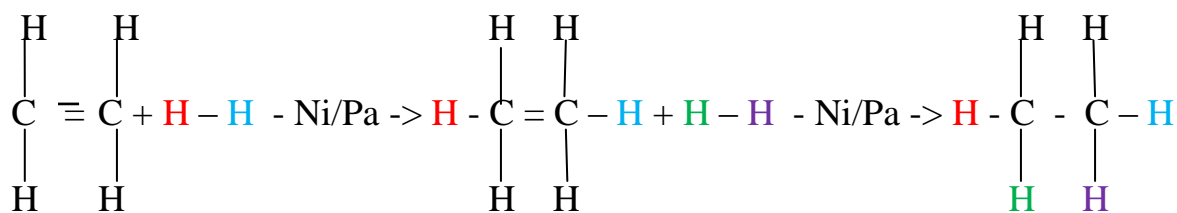
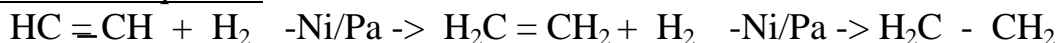
(i) Hydrogenation

Hydrogenation is an addition reaction in which **hydrogen** in presence of **Palladium/Nickel** catalyst at 150°C temperatures react with alkynes to form alkenes then alkanes.

Examples

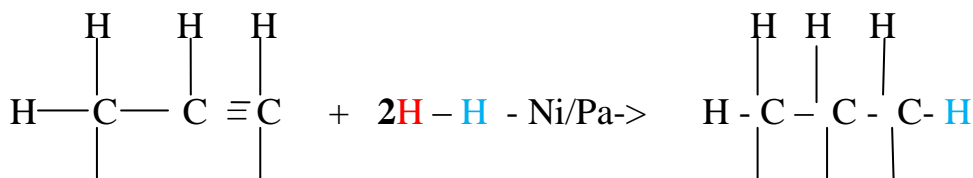
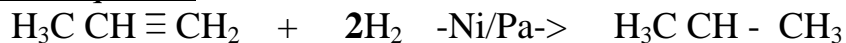
1. During hydrogenation, **two** hydrogen atom in the hydrogen molecule attach itself to one carbon and the other **two** hydrogen to the second carbon breaking the **triple** bond to **double** the **single**.

Chemical equation



2. Propyne undergo hydrogenation to form Propane

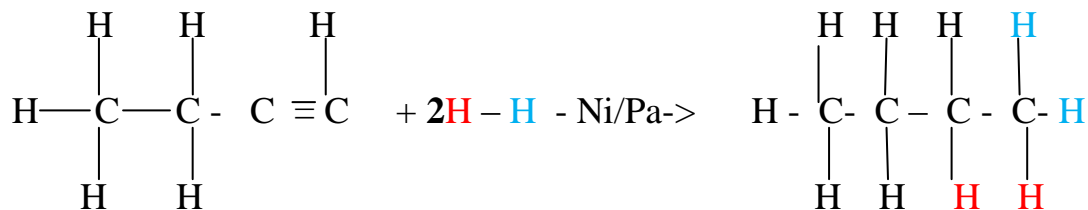
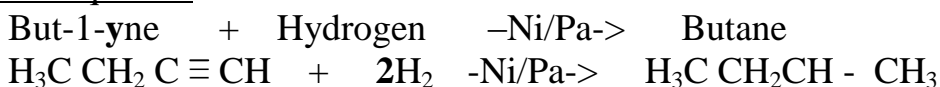
Chemical equation





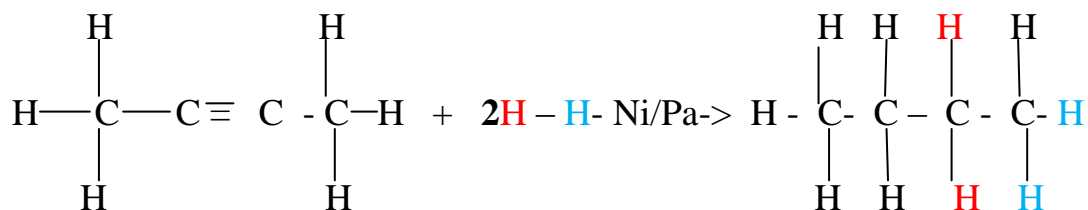
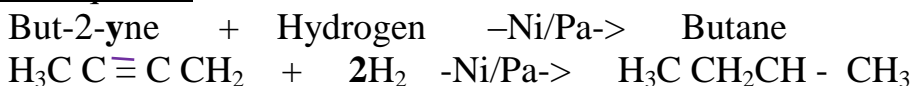
3(a) But-1-yne undergo hydrogenation to form Butane

Chemical equation



(b) But-2-yne undergo hydrogenation to form Butane

Chemical equation



(ii) Halogenation.

Halogenation is an addition reaction in which a halogen (Fluorine, chlorine, bromine, iodine) reacts with an alkyne to form an alkene then alkane.

The reaction of alkynes with halogens with alkynes is **faster** than with alkenes. The triple bond in the alkyne break and form a double then single bond.

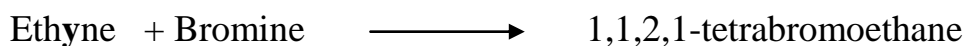
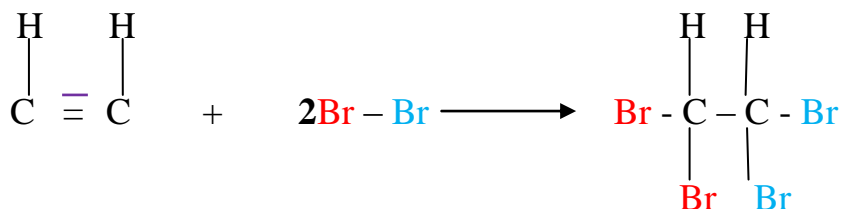
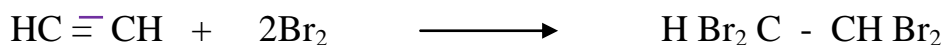
The colour of the halogen **fades** as the number of moles of the halogens remaining unreacted decreases.

Two bromine atoms bond at the 1st carbon in the triple bond while the other two goes to the 2nd carbon.

Examples

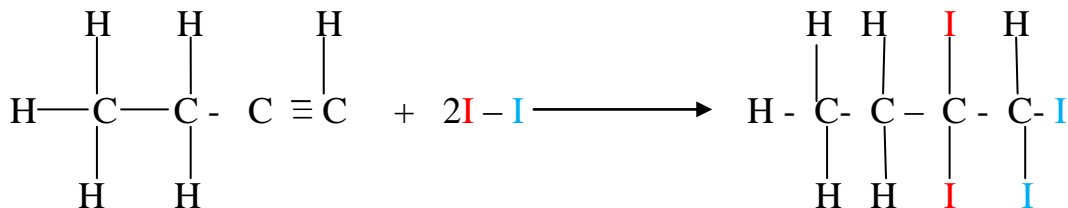
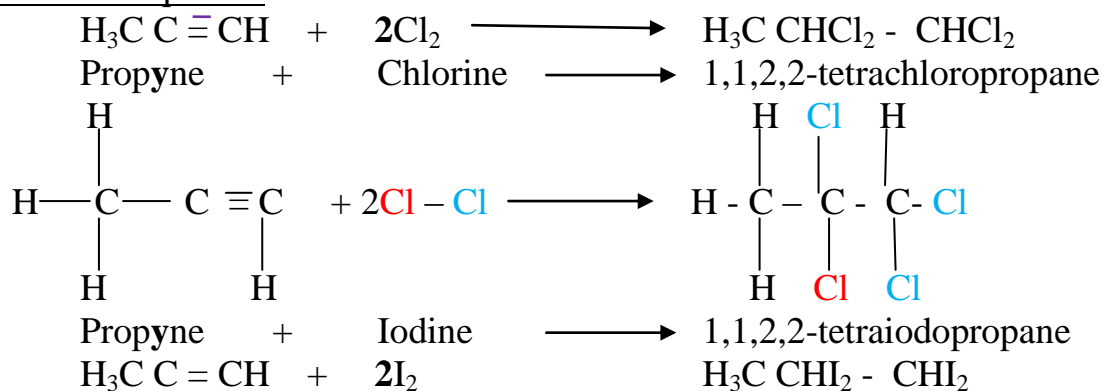
1Ethyne reacts with brown bromine vapour to form 1,1,2,2-tetrabromoethane.

Chemical equation



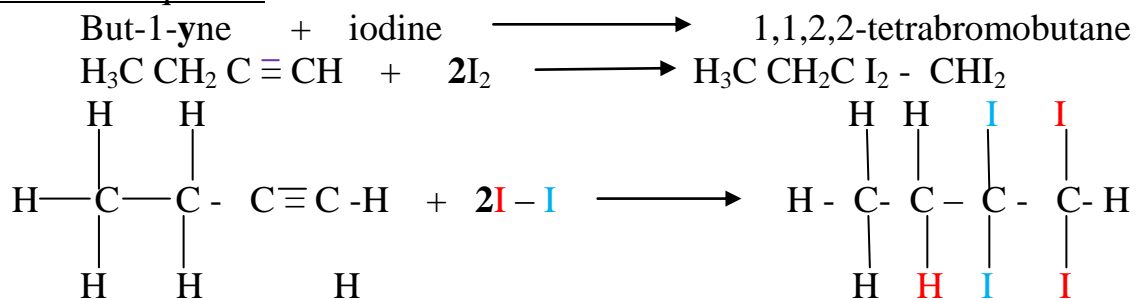
2. Propyne reacts with chlorine to form 1,1,2,2-tetrachloropropane.

Chemical equation

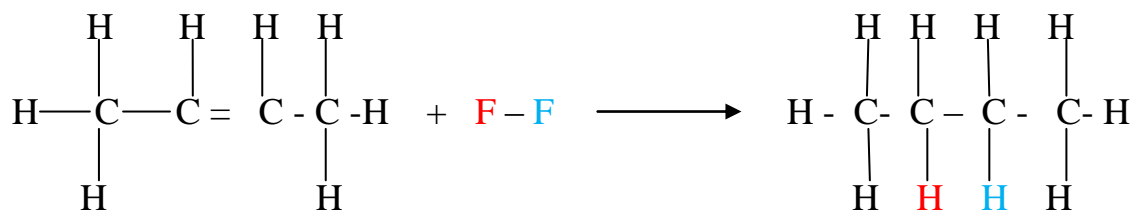
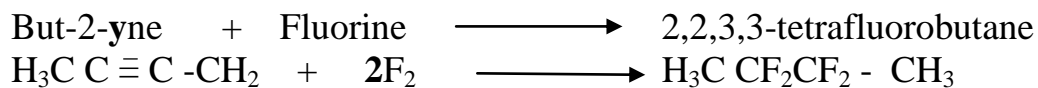


3(a) But-1-yne undergo halogenation to form 1,1,2,2-tetraiodobutane with iodine

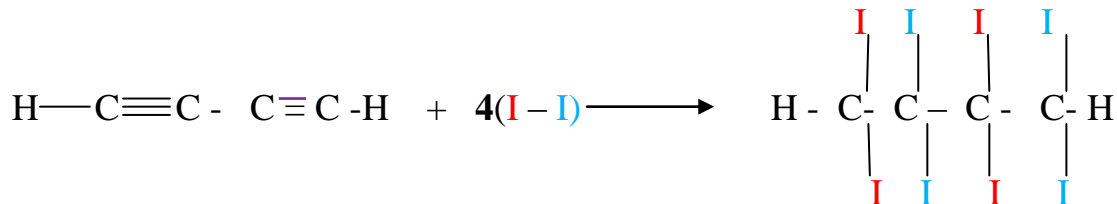
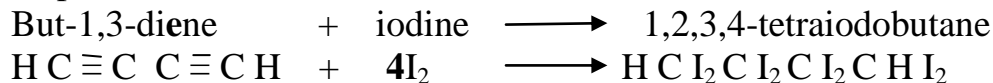
Chemical equation



(b) But-2-yne undergo halogenation to form 2,2,3,3-tetrafluorobutane with fluorine



4. But-1,3-diyne should undergo halogenation to form 1,1,2,3,3,4,4 octaiodobutane. The reaction uses **four moles** of iodine molecules/**eight** iodine atoms to break the two(2) triple double bonds at carbon "1" and "2".



(iii) Reaction with hydrogen halides.

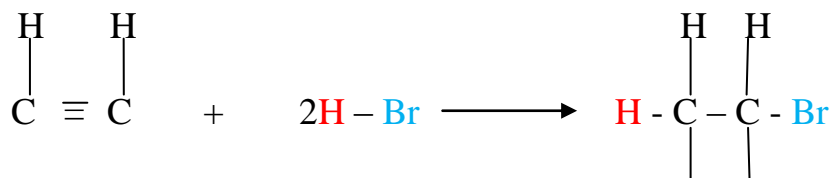
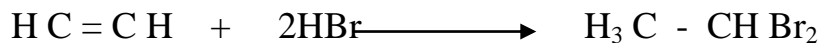
Hydrogen halides reacts with alkyne to form a halogenoalkene then halogenoalkane. The triple bond in the alkyne break and form a double then single bond.

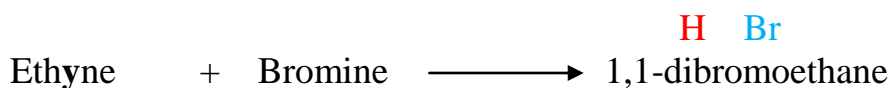
The main compound is one which the **hydrogen** atom bond at the carbon with **more hydrogen**.

Examples

1. Ethyne reacts with hydrogen bromide to form bromoethane.

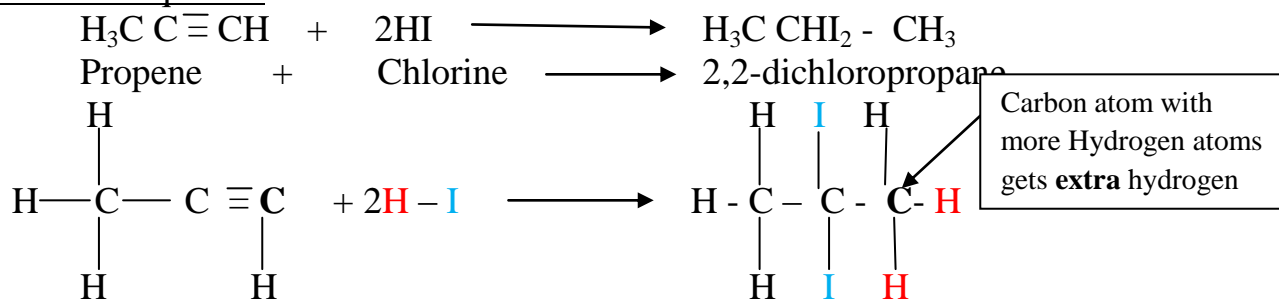
Chemical equation





2. Propyne reacts with hydrogen iodide to form 2,2-diiodopropane (as the main product)

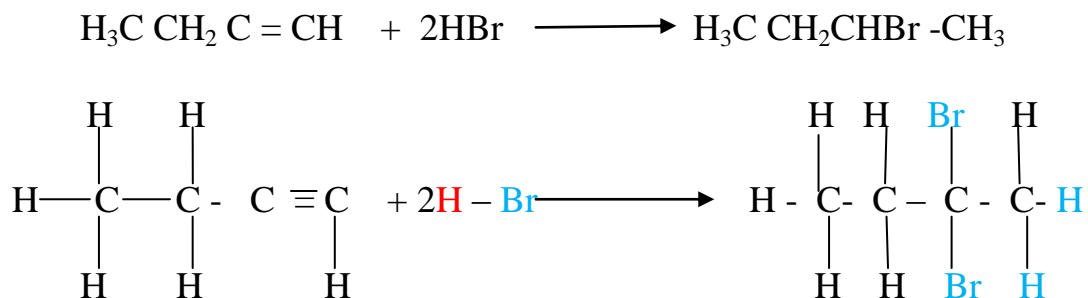
Chemical equation



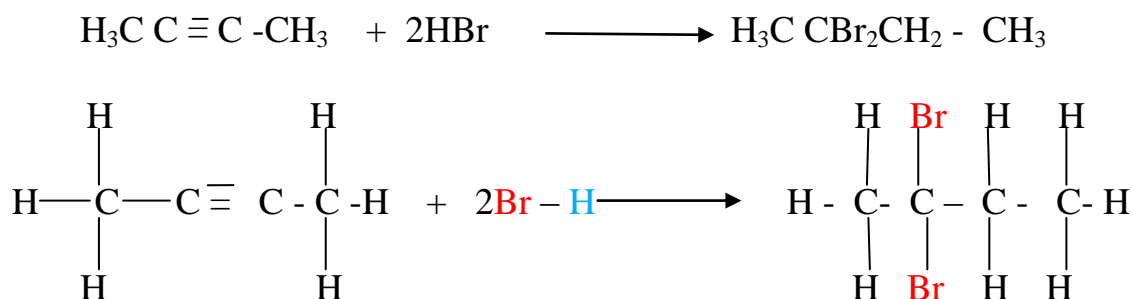
3. Both But-1-yne and But-2-yne reacts with hydrogen bromide to form 2,2-dibromobutane

Chemical equation

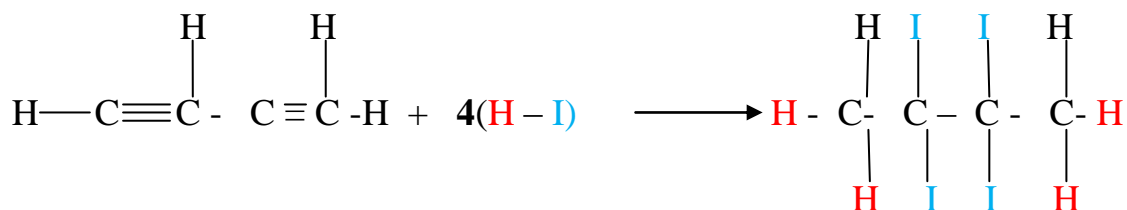
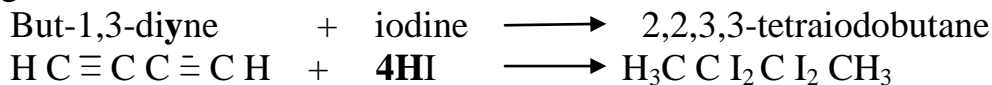
But-1-yne + hydrogen bromide \longrightarrow 2,2-dibromobutane



But-2-yne + Hydrogen bromide \longrightarrow 2,2-dibromobutane



4. But-1,3-diene react with hydrogen iodide to form 2,3- diiodobutane. The reaction uses **four moles** of hydrogen iodide molecules/**four** iodine atoms and two hydrogen atoms to break the two double bonds.



B.ALKANOLS(Alcohols)

(A) INTRODUCTION.

Alkanols belong to a homologous series of organic compounds with a general formula $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+1}\text{OH}$ and thus **-OH** as the functional group .The 1st ten alkanols include

n	General / molecular	Structural formula	IUPAC name

	formular		
1	CH ₃ OH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} \end{array}$	Methanol
2	CH ₃ CH ₂ OH C ₂ H ₅ OH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$	Ethanol
3	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₂ OH C ₃ H ₇ OH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$	Propanol
4	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₃ OH C ₄ H ₉ OH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$	Butanol
5	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₄ OH C ₅ H ₁₁ OH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$	Pentanol
6	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₅ OH C ₆ H ₁₃ OH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$	Hexanol
7	CH ₃ (CH ₂) ₆ OH C ₇ H ₁₅ OH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \end{array}$	Heptanol

		$\begin{array}{ccccccc} & & & & & & \\ & & \text{H} & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$	
8	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_7\text{OH}$ $\text{C}_8\text{H}_{17}\text{OH}$	$\begin{array}{cccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & \\ \text{H}-\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$	Octanol
9	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_8\text{OH}$ $\text{C}_9\text{H}_{19}\text{OH}$	$\begin{array}{ccccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H}-\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$	Nonanol
10	$\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_9\text{OH}$ $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{21}\text{OH}$	$\begin{array}{cccccccccc} \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H}-\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C} & -\text{C}-\text{O}-\text{H} \\ & & & & & & & & & \\ \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} & \text{H} \end{array}$	Decanol

Alkanols like Hydrocarbons(alkanes/alkenes/alkynes) form a homologous series where:

- (i) general name is derived from the alkane name then ending with “-ol”
- (ii) the members have –OH as the functional group
- (iii) they have the same general formula represented by R-OH where R is an alkyl group.
- (iv) each member differ by –CH₂ group from the next/previous.
- (v) they show a similar and gradual change in their physical properties e.g. boiling and melting points.
- (vi) they show similar and gradual change in their chemical properties.

B. ISOMERS OF ALKANOLS.

Alkanols exhibit both structural and position isomerism. The isomers are named by using the following basic guidelines:

- (i) Like alkanes , identify the **longest** carbon chain to be the parent name.

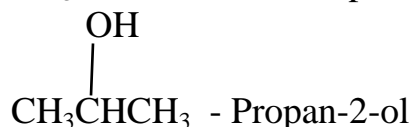
(ii) Identify the position of the **-OH** functional group to give it the **smallest /lowest** position.

(iii) Identify the type and position of the **side** branches.

Practice examples of isomers of alkanols

(i) Isomers of propanol C_3H_7OH

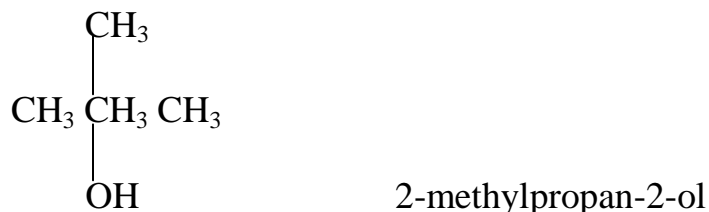
$CH_3CH_2CH_2OH$ - Propan-1-ol



Propan-2-ol and Propan-1-ol are position isomers because only the position of the **-OH** functional group changes.

(ii) Isomers of Butanol C_4H_9OH

$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$ Butan-1-ol

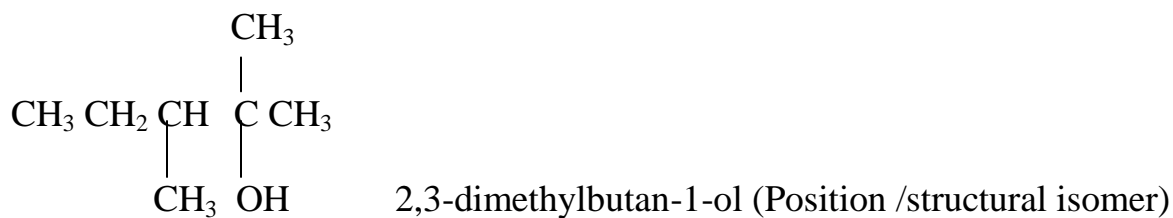
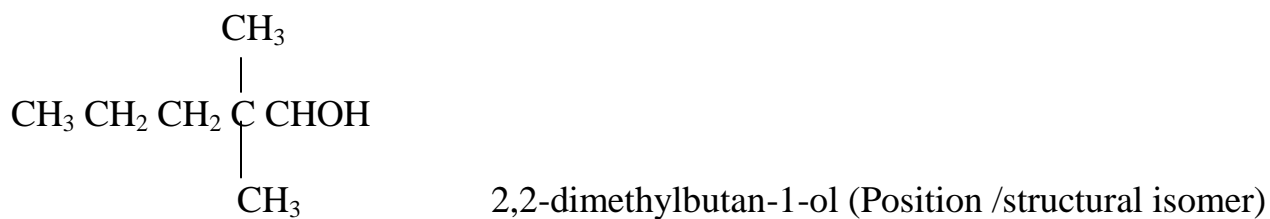
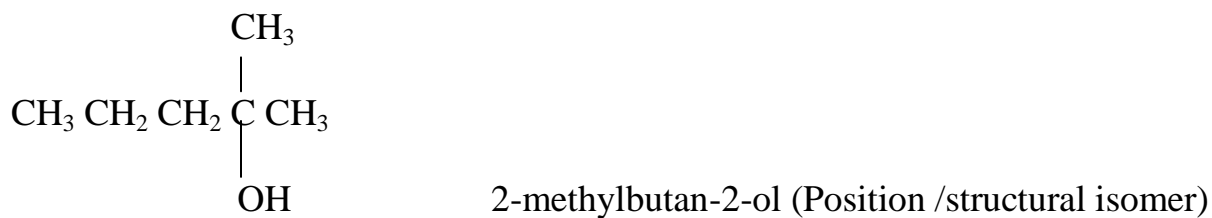
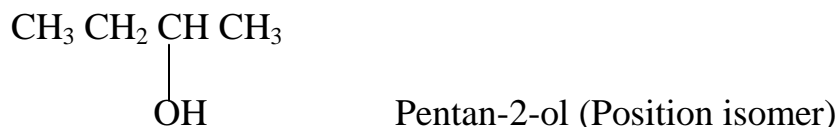


Butan-2-ol and Butan-1-ol are position isomers because only the position of the **-OH** functional group changes.

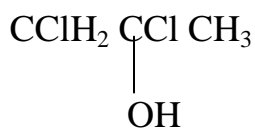
2-methylpropan-2-ol is both a structural and position isomers because both the position of the functional group and the arrangement of the atoms in the molecule changes.

(iii) Isomers of Pentanol $C_5H_{11}OH$

$CH_3CH_2CH_2CH_2CH_2OH$ Pentan-1-ol (Position isomer)



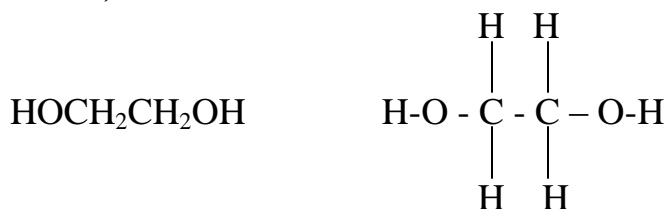
(iv) 1,2-dichloropropan-2-ol



(v) 1,2-dichloropropan-1-ol



(vi) Ethan1,2-diol



(vii) Propan1,2,3-triol



C. LABORATORY PREPARATION OF ALKANOLS.

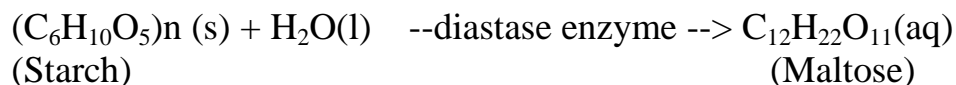
For decades the world over, people have been fermenting grapes juice, sugar, carbohydrates and starch to produce ethanol as a social drug for relaxation. In large amount, drinking of ethanol by mammals /human beings causes mental and physical lack of coordination.

Prolonged intake of ethanol causes permanent mental and physical lack of coordination because it damages vital organs like the liver.

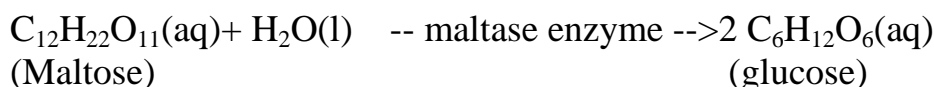
Fermentation is the reaction where sugar is converted to alcohol/alkanol using biological catalyst/enzymes in **yeast**.

It involves **three** processes:

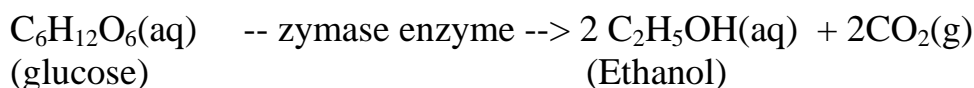
(i)Conversion of starch to maltose using the enzyme **diastase**.



(ii)Hydrolysis of Maltose to glucose using the enzyme **maltase**.



(iii)Conversion of glucose to ethanol and carbon(IV)oxide gas using the enzyme **zymase**.



At concentration greater than 15% by volume, the ethanol produced kills the yeast enzyme stopping the reaction.

To increase the concentration, fractional distillation is done to produce spirits (e.g. Brandy=40% ethanol).

Methanol is much more poisonous /toxic than ethanol.

Taken large quantity in small quantity it causes instant blindness and liver, killing the consumer victim within hours.

School laboratory preparation of ethanol from fermentation of glucose

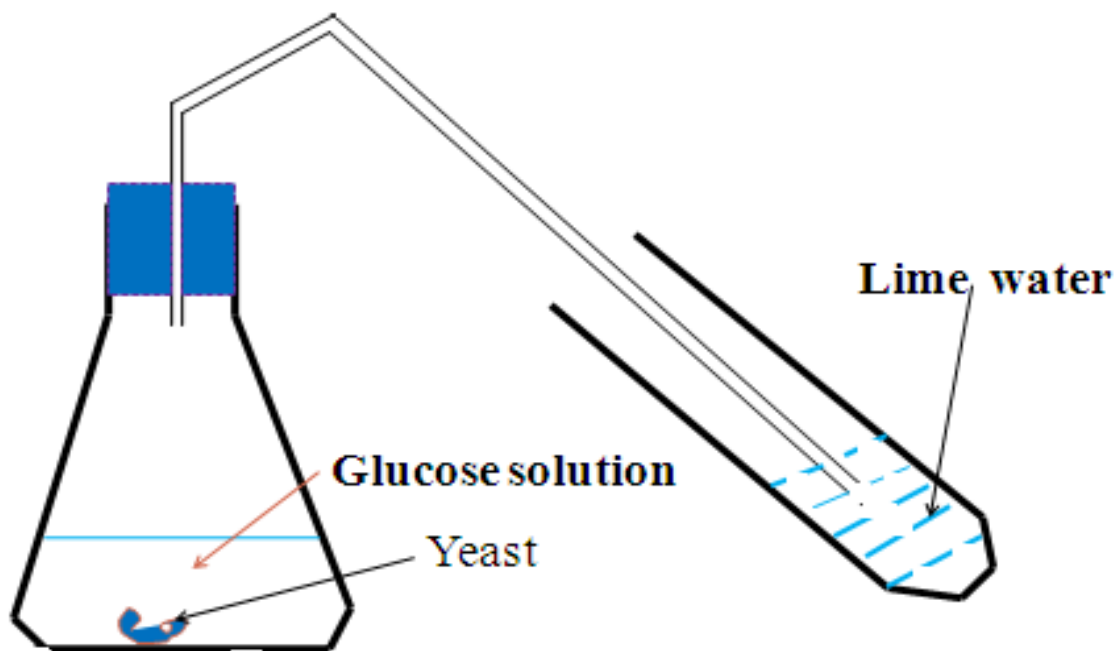
Measure 100cm³ of pure water into a conical flask.

Add about five spatula end full of glucose.

Stir the mixture to dissolve.

Add about one spatula end full of yeast.

Set up the apparatus as below.



Preserve the mixture for about **three** days.

D.PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF ALKANOLS

Use the prepared sample above for the following experiments that shows the characteristic properties of alkanols

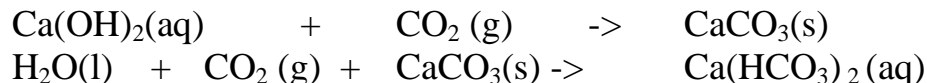
(a) Role of yeast

Yeast is a single cell fungus which contains the enzyme maltase and zymase that catalyse the fermentation process.

(b) Observations in lime water.

A white precipitate is formed that dissolve to a colourless solution later. Lime water/Calcium hydroxide reacts with carbon(IV)oxide produced during the fermentation to form insoluble calcium carbonate and water.

More carbon (IV)oxide produced during fermentation react with the insoluble calcium carbonate and water to form soluble calcium hydrogen carbonate.



(c) Effects on litmus paper

Experiment

Take the prepared sample and test with both blue and red litmus papers. Repeat the same with pure ethanol and methylated spirit.

Sample Observation table

Substance/alkanol	Effect on litmus paper
Prepared sample	Blue litmus paper remain blue Red litmus paper remain red
Absolute ethanol	Blue litmus paper remain blue Red litmus paper remain red
Methylated spirit	Blue litmus paper remain blue Red litmus paper remain red

Explanation

Alkanols are neutral compounds/solution that have characteristic sweet smell and taste.

They have no effect on both blue and red litmus papers.

(d) Solubility in water.

Experiment

Place about 5cm³ of prepared sample into a clean test tube Add equal amount of distilled water.

Repeat the same with pure ethanol and methylated spirit.

Observation

No layers formed between the two liquids.

Explanation

Ethanol is **miscible** in water. Both ethanol and water are polar compounds . The solubility of alkanols decrease with increase in the alkyl chain/molecular mass. The alkyl group is insoluble in water while –OH functional group is soluble in water.

As the molecular chain becomes **longer** ,the effect of the **alkyl** group **increases** as the effect of the functional group **decreases**.

e)Melting/boiling point.

Experiment

Place pure ethanol in a long boiling tube .Determine its boiling point.

Observation

Pure ethanol has a boiling point of 78°C at sea level/one atmosphere pressure.

Explanation

The melting and boiling point of alkanols increase with increase in molecular chain/mass .

This is because the intermolecular/van-der-waals forces of attraction between the molecules increase.

More heat energy is thus required to weaken the longer chain during melting and break during boiling.

f)Density

Density of alkanols increase with increase in the intermolecular/van-der-waals forces of attraction between the molecule, making it very close to each other.

This reduces the volume occupied by the molecule and thus increase the their mass per unit volume (density).

Summary table showing the trend in physical properties of alkanols

Alkanol	Melting point (°C)	Boiling point (°C)	Density gcm ⁻³	Solubility in water
Methanol	-98	65	0.791	soluble
Ethanol	-117	78	0.789	soluble

Propanol	-103	97	0.803	soluble
Butanol	-89	117	0.810	Slightly soluble
Pentanol	-78	138	0.814	Slightly soluble
Hexanol	-52	157	0.815	Slightly soluble
Heptanol	-34	176	0.822	Slightly soluble
Octanol	-15	195	0.824	Slightly soluble
Nonanol	-7	212	0.827	Slightly soluble
Decanol	6	228	0.827	Slightly soluble

g) Burning

Experiment

Place the prepared sample in a watch glass. Ignite. Repeat with pure ethanol and methylated spirit.

Observation/Explanation

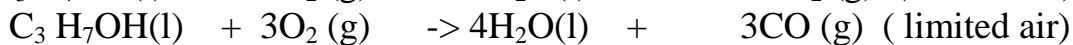
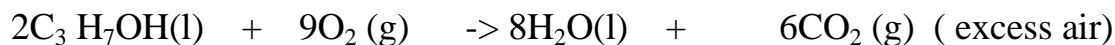
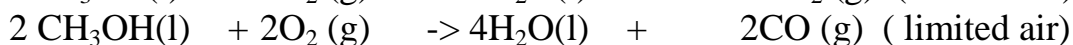
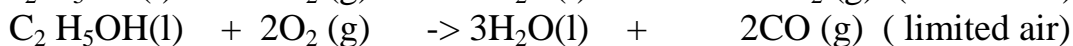
Fermentation produce ethanol with a lot of water(about a ratio of 1:3)which prevent the alcohol from igniting.

Pure ethanol and methylated spirit easily catch fire / highly flammable.

They burn with an almost colourless non-sooty/non-smoky **blue** flame to form **carbon(IV) oxide** (in excess air/oxygen)or **carbon(II) oxide** (limited air) and **water**.

Ethanol is thus a **saturated** compound like alkanes.

Chemical equation



Due to its flammability, ethanol is used;

- (i) as a fuel in spirit lamps
- (ii) as gasohol when blended with gasoline

(h)Formation of alkoxides

Experiment

Cut a very small piece of sodium. Put it in a beaker containing about 20cm³ of the prepared sample in a beaker.

Test the products with litmus papers. Repeat with absolute ethanol and methylated spirit.

Sample observations

Substance/alkanol	Effect of adding sodium
Fermentation prepared sample	(i)effervescence/fizzing/bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that extinguish burning splint with explosion/“Pop” sound (iii)colourless solution formed (iv)blue litmus papers remain blue (v)red litmus papers turn blue
Pure/absolute ethanol/methylated spirit	(i) slow effervescence/fizzing/bubbles (ii)colourless gas slowly produced that extinguish burning splint with explosion/“Pop” sound (iii)colourless solution formed (iv)blue litmus papers remain blue (v)red litmus papers turn blue

Explanations

Sodium/potassium reacts slowly with alkanols to form basic solution called **alkoxides** and producing **hydrogen** gas.

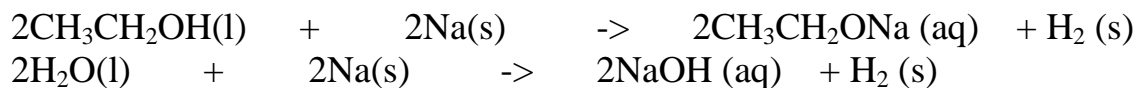
If the alkanol has some water the metals react faster with the water to form **soluble hydroxides/alkalis** i.e.



Examples

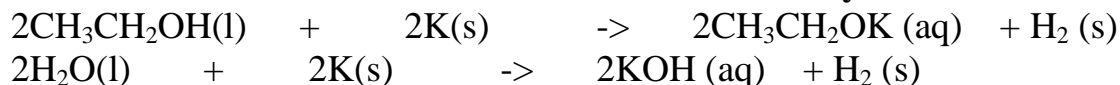
1.Sodium metal reacts with ethanol to form sodium **ethoxide**

Sodium metal reacts with water to form sodium **Hydroxide**



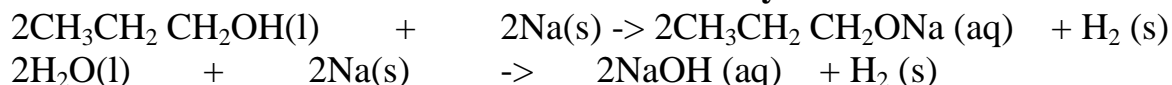
2. Potassium metal reacts with ethanol to form Potassium **ethoxide**

Potassium metal reacts with water to form Potassium **Hydroxide**



3. Sodium metal reacts with propanol to form sodium **propoxide**

Sodium metal reacts with water to form sodium **Hydroxide**



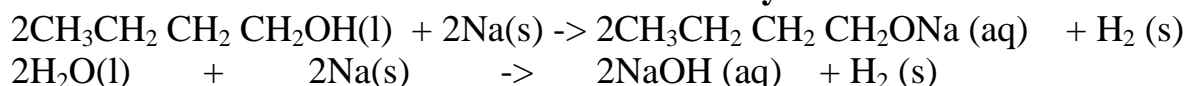
4. Potassium metal reacts with propanol to form Potassium **propoxide**

Potassium metal reacts with water to form Potassium **Hydroxide**



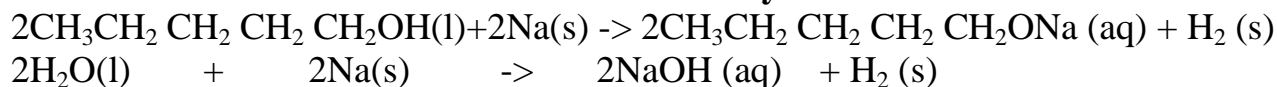
5. Sodium metal reacts with butanol to form sodium **butoxide**

Sodium metal reacts with water to form sodium **Hydroxide**



6. Sodium metal reacts with pentanol to form sodium **pentoxide**

Sodium metal reacts with water to form sodium **Hydroxide**



(i) Formation of Esters/Esterification

Experiment

Place 2cm³ of ethanol in a boiling tube.

Add equal amount of ethanoic acid. To the mixture add carefully 2drops of concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid.

Warm/Heat gently.

Pour the mixture into a beaker containing about 50cm³ of cold water.

Smell the products.

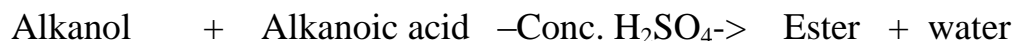
Repeat with methanol

Sample observations

Substance/alkanol	Effect on adding equal amount of ethanol/concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid
Absolute ethanol	Sweet fruity smell
Methanol	Sweet fruity smell

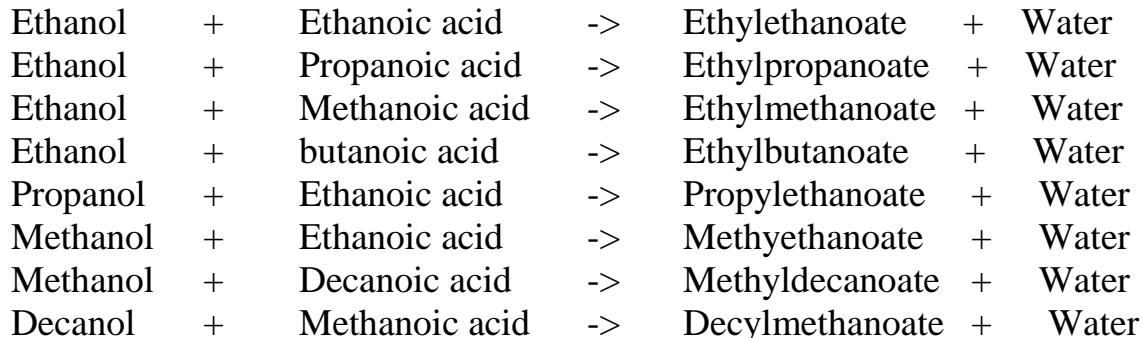
Explanation

Alkanols react with alkanolic acids to form a group of homologous series of sweet smelling compounds called esters and water. This reaction is catalyzed by concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid in the laboratory.

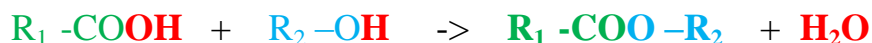


Naturally esterification is catalyzed by sunlight. Each ester has a characteristic smell derived from the many possible combinations of alkanols and alkanolic acids that create a variety of known natural (mostly in fruits) and synthetic (mostly in juices) esters.

Esters derive their names from the alkanol first then alkanolic acids. The alkanol “becomes” an **alkyl** group and the alkanolic acid “becomes” **alkanoate** hence **alkylalkanoate**. e.g.

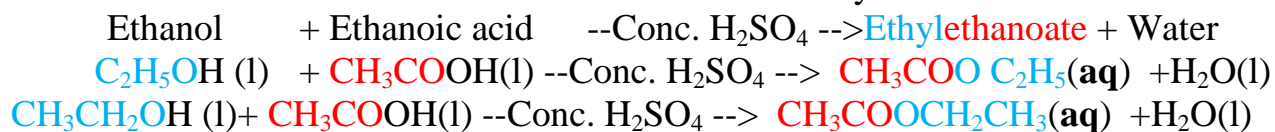


During the formation of the ester, the “O” joining the alkanol and alkanolic acid comes from the alkanol.

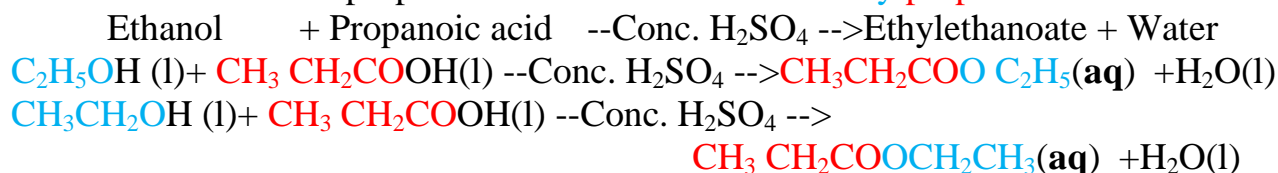


e.g.

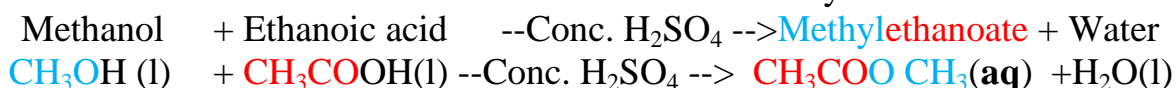
1. Ethanol reacts with ethanoic acid to form the ester ethyl ethanoate and water.



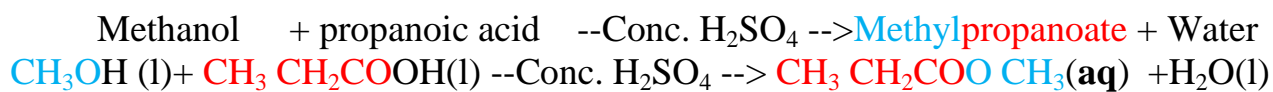
2. Ethanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester **ethylpropanoate** and water.



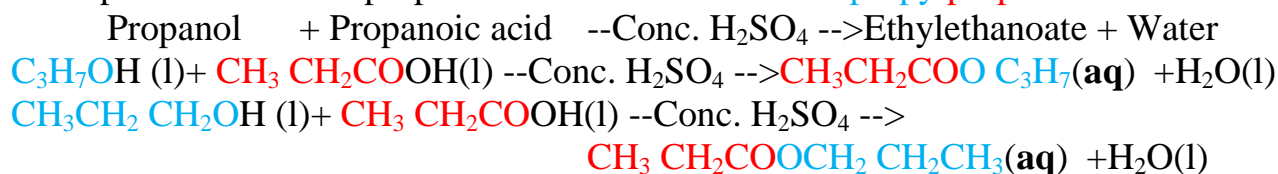
3. Methanol reacts with ethanoic acid to form the ester methyl ethanoate and water.



4. Methanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester methyl propanoate and water.



5. Propanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester **propylpropanoate** and water.



(j)Oxidation

Experiment

Place 5cm³ of absolute ethanol in a test tube. Add three drops of acidified potassium manganate(VII). Shake thoroughly for one minute/warm. Test the solution mixture using pH paper. Repeat by adding acidified potassium dichromate(VII).

Sample observation table

Substance/alkanol	Adding acidified KMnO ₄ /K ₂ Cr ₂ O ₇	pH of resulting solution/mixture	Nature of resulting solution/mixture
Pure ethanol	(i) Purple colour of KMnO ₄ decolorized	pH = 4/5/6	Weakly acidic
	(ii) Orange colour of K ₂ Cr ₂ O ₇ turns green.	pH = 4/5/6	Weakly acidic

Explanation

Both acidified KMnO₄ and K₂Cr₂O₇ are oxidizing agents (add oxygen to other compounds). They oxidize alkanols to a group of homologous series called alkanals

then further oxidize them to **alkanoic** acids. The oxidizing agents are themselves reduced hence changing their colour:

(i) Purple KMnO_4 is reduced to colourless Mn^{2+}

(ii) Orange $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ is reduced to green Cr^{3+}

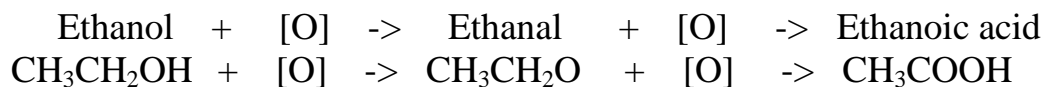
The pH of alkanolic acids show they have few H^+ because they are weak acids i.e



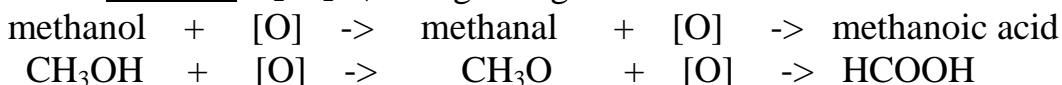
NB The [O] comes from the oxidizing agents acidified KMnO_4 or $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$

Examples

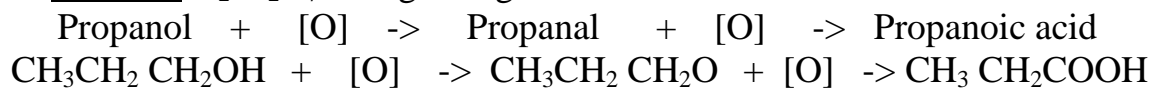
1. When ethanol is warmed with three drops of acidified KMnO_4 there is decolorization of KMnO_4



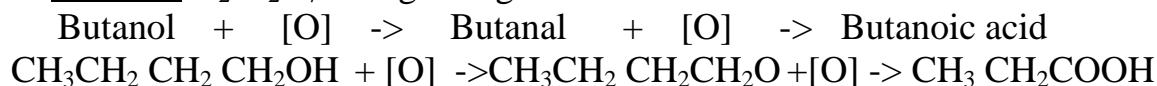
2. When methanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, the orange colour of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ changes to green.



3. When propanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, the orange colour of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ changes to green.



4. When butanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, the orange colour of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ changes to green.



Air slowly oxidizes ethanol to dilute ethanoic acid commonly called **vinegar**. If beer is not tightly corked, a lot of carbon(IV)oxide escapes and there is slow oxidation of the beer making it “flat”.

(k)Hydrolysis /Hydration and Dehydration

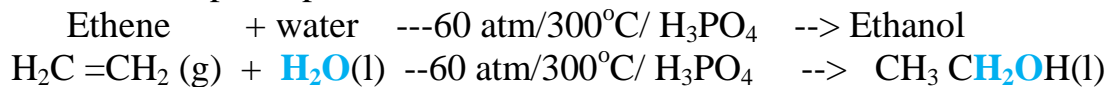
I. Hydrolysis/Hydration is the reaction of a compound/substance with water.

Alkenes react with water vapour/steam at high temperatures and high pressures in presence of phosphoric acid catalyst to form alkanols.i.e.

Alkenes + Water - H₃PO₄ catalyst-> Alkanol

Examples

(i) Ethene is mixed with steam over a phosphoric acid catalyst at 300°C temperature and 60 atmosphere pressure to form ethanol



This is the main method of producing large quantities of ethanol instead of fermentation

(ii) Propene + water $\xrightarrow{-60 \text{ atm}/300^\circ\text{C}/\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4}$ Propanol



(iii) Butene + water $\xrightarrow{-60 \text{ atm}/300^\circ\text{C}/\text{H}_3\text{PO}_4}$ Butanol



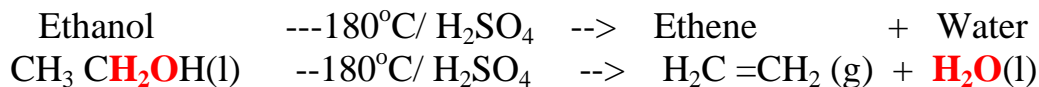
II. Dehydration is the process which concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid (**dehydrating agent**) removes water from a compound/substances.

Concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid dehydrates alkanols to the corresponding alkenes at about 180°C. i.e

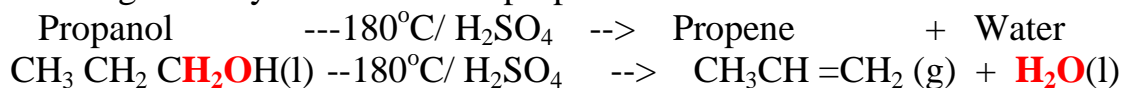
Alkanol $\xrightarrow{\text{Conc. H}_2\text{SO}_4/180^\circ\text{C}}$ Alkene + Water

Examples

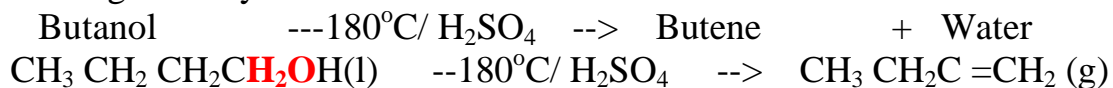
1. At 180°C and in presence of Concentrated sulphuric(VI) acid, ethanol undergoes dehydration to form ethene.



2. Propanol undergoes dehydration to form propene.

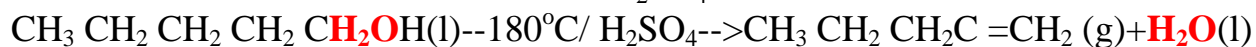


3. Butanol undergoes dehydration to form Butene.



+ H₂O(l)

3. Pentanol undergoes dehydration to form Pentene.

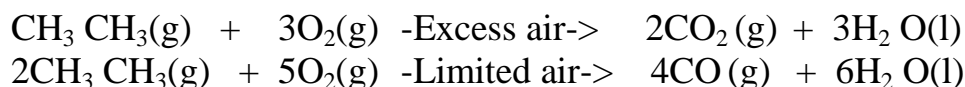
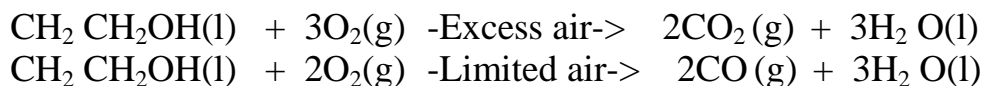


(I) Similarities of alkanols with Hydrocarbons

I. Similarity with alkanes

Both alkanols and alkanes burn with a **blue non-sooty flame** to form carbon(IV)oxide(in excess air/oxygen)/carbon(II)oxide(in limited air) and water. This shows they are saturated with high C:H ratio. e.g.

Both ethanol and ethane ignite and burns in air with a **blue non-sooty flame** to form carbon(IV)oxide(in excess air/oxygen)/carbon(II)oxide(in limited air) and water.



II. Similarity with alkenes/alkynes

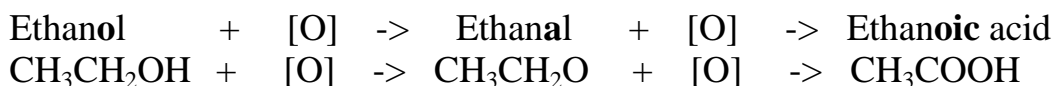
Both alkanols(R-OH) and alkenes/alkynes(with = C = C = double and - C ≡ C - triple) bond:

- (i) decolorize acidified KMnO_4
- (ii) turns Orange acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ to green.

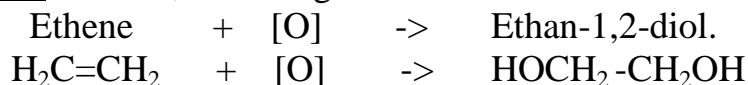
Alkanols(R-OH) are oxidized to alkanals(R-O) and then alkanonic acids(R-OOH). Alkenes are oxidized to alkanols with duo/double functional groups.

Examples

1. When ethanol is warmed with three drops of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ the orange of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ turns to green. Ethanol is oxidized to ethanal and then to ethanoic acid.



2. When ethene is bubbled in a test tube containing acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$, the orange of acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ turns to green. Ethene is oxidized to ethan-1,2-diol.



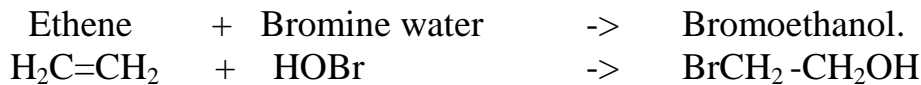
III. Differences with alkenes/alkynes

Alkanols do not decolorize bromine and chlorine water.

Alkenes decolorize bromine and chlorine water to form halogenoalkanes

Example

When ethene is bubbled in a test tube containing bromine water, the bromine water is decolorized. Ethene is oxidized to bromoethanol.



IV. Differences in melting and boiling point with Hydrocarbons

Alkanols have higher melting point than the corresponding hydrocarbon (alkane/alkene/alkyne)

This is because most alkanols exist as **dimer**. A dimer is a molecule made up of two other molecules joined usually by van-der-waals forces/hydrogen bond or dative bonding.

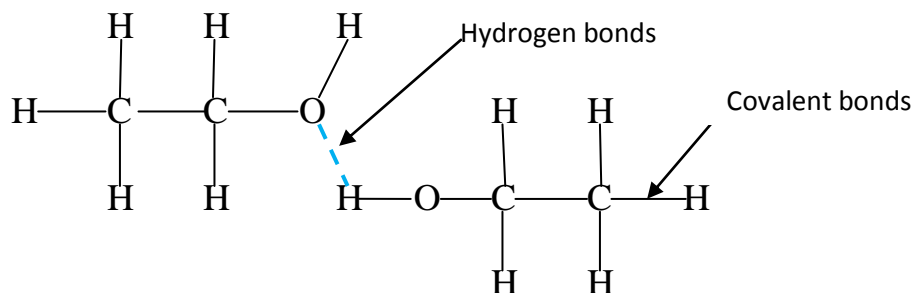
Two alkanol molecules form a dimer joined by hydrogen bonding.

Example

In Ethanol the oxygen atom attracts/pulls the shared electrons in the covalent bond more to itself than Hydrogen.

This creates a partial negative charge (δ^-) on oxygen and partial positive charge (δ^+) on hydrogen.

Two ethanol molecules attract each other at the partial charges through Hydrogen bonding forming a **dimer**.



Dimerization of alkanols means more energy is needed to break/weaken the Hydrogen bonds before breaking/weakening the intermolecular forces joining the molecules of all organic compounds during boiling/melting.

E. USES OF SOME ALKANOLS

(a) Methanol is used as industrial alcohol and making methylated spirit

(b) Ethanol is used:

1. as alcohol in alcoholic drinks e.g Beer, wines and spirits.
2. as antiseptic to wash wounds
3. in manufacture of vanishes, ink, glue and paint because it is volatile and thus easily evaporate
4. as a fuel when blended with petrol to make gasohol.

B.ALKANOIC ACIDS (Carboxylic acids)

(A) INTRODUCTION.

Alkanoic acids belong to a homologous series of organic compounds with a general formula $C_nH_{2n+1}COOH$ and thus **-COOH** as the functional group .The 1st ten alkanoic acids include:

Alkanoic acids like alkanols /alkanes/alkenes/alkynes form a homologous series where:

(i) the general name of an alkanoic acid is derived from the alkane name then ending with “-oic” acid as the table above shows.

(ii) the members have $R-\text{COOH}/R-\text{C}(=\text{O})-\text{O}-\text{H}$ as the functional group.

n	General /molecular formular	Structural formula	IUPAC name
0	HCOOH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \\ \text{O} \end{array}$	Methanoic acid
1	CH ₃ COOH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \\ \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{O} \end{array}$	Ethanoic acid
2	CH ₃ CH ₂ COOH C ₂ H ₅ COOH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{O} \end{array}$	Propanoic acid
3	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ COOH C ₃ H ₇ COOH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{O} \end{array}$	Butanoic acid
4	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ COOH C ₄ H ₉ COOH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{O} \end{array}$	Pentanoic acid
5	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ COOH C ₅ H ₁₁ COOH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{O} \end{array}$	Hexanoic acid
6	CH ₃ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ CH ₂ COOH C ₆ H ₁₃ COOH	$\begin{array}{c} \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{C} - \text{O} - \text{H} \\ \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \\ \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{H} \quad \text{O} \end{array}$	Pentanoic acid

O

(iii) they have the same general formula represented by R-COOH where R is an alkyl group.

(iv) each member differs by $-\text{CH}_2-$ group from the next/previous.

(v) they show a similar and gradual change in their physical properties e.g. boiling and melting point.

(vi) they show similar and gradual change in their chemical properties.

(vii) since they are acids they show similar properties with mineral acids.

(B) ISOMERS OF ALKANOIC ACIDS.

Alkanoic acids exhibit both structural and position isomerism. The isomers are named by using the following basic guidelines

(i) Like alkanes. identify the longest carbon chain to be the parent name.

(ii) Identify the position of the $\begin{array}{c} \text{-C-O-H} \\ || \\ \text{O} \end{array}$ functional group to give it the smallest

/lowest position.

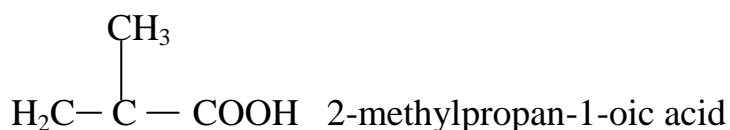
(iii) Identify the type and position of the side group branches.

Practice examples on isomers of alkanolic acids

1. Isomers of butanoic acid $\text{C}_3\text{H}_7\text{COOH}$



Butan-1-oic acid

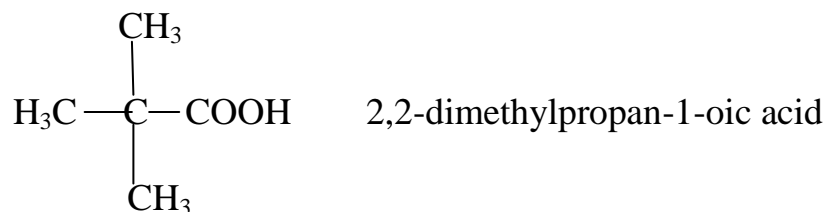


2-methylpropan-1-oic acid and Butan-1-oic acid are structural isomers because the position of the functional group does not change but the arrangement of the atoms in the molecule does.

2. Isomers of pentanoic acid $\text{C}_4\text{H}_9\text{COOH}$



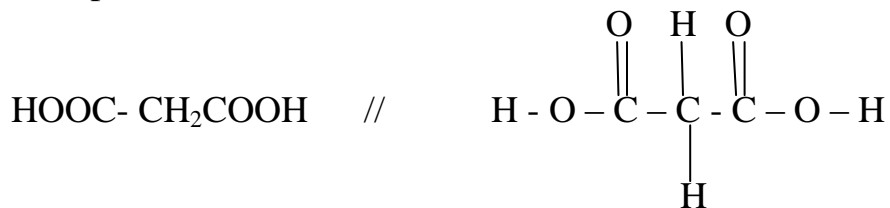
$\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH COOH}$ 2-methylbutan-1-oic acid



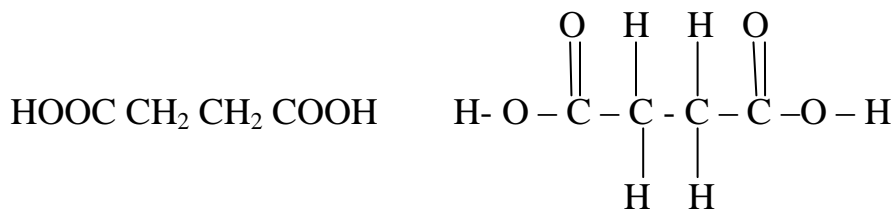
3.Ethan-1,2-dioic acid



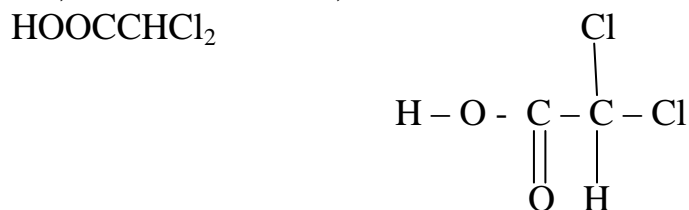
4.Propan-1,3-dioic acid



5.Butan-1,4-dioic acid



6.2,2-dichloroethan-1,2-dioic acid



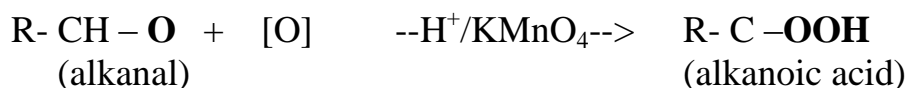
(C) LABORATORY AND INDUSTRIAL PREPARATION OF ALKANOIC ACIDS.

In a school laboratory, alkanolic acids can be prepared by adding an oxidizing agent (H^+/KMnO_4 or $\text{H}^+/\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$) to the corresponding alkanol then warming.

The oxidation converts the alkanol first to an alkanal then the alkanolic acid.

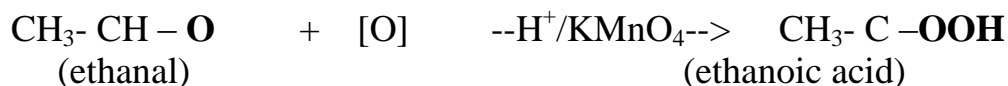
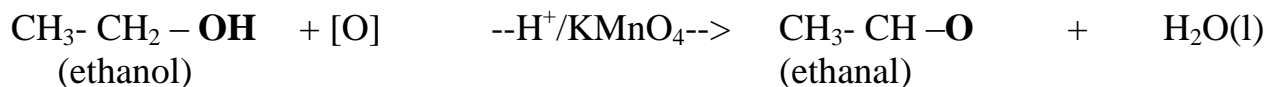
NB Acidified KMnO_4 is a stronger oxidizing agent than acidified $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$

General equation:

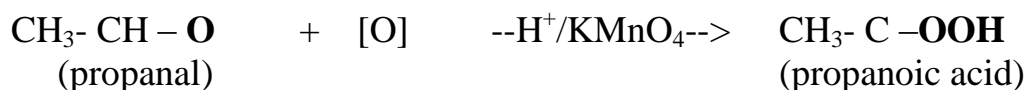
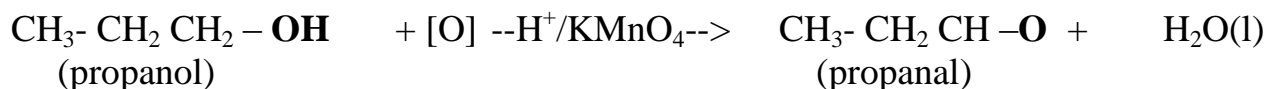


Examples

1. Ethanol on warming in acidified KMnO_4 is oxidized to ethanal then ethanoic acid.

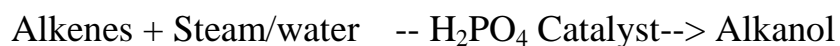


2 Propanol on warming in acidified KMnO_4 is oxidized to propanal then propanoic acid



Industrially, large scale manufacture of alkanolic acid like ethanoic acid is obtained from:

(a) Alkenes reacting with steam at high temperatures and pressure in presence of phosphoric(V) acid catalyst and undergo hydrolysis to form alkanols. i.e.

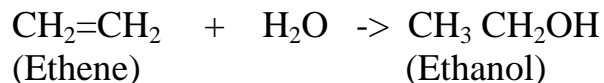


The alkanol is then oxidized by air at 5 atmosphere pressure with Manganese (II)sulphate(VI) catalyst to form the alkanolic acid.

Alkanol + Air -- MnSO₄ Catalyst/5 atm pressure--> Alkanolic acid

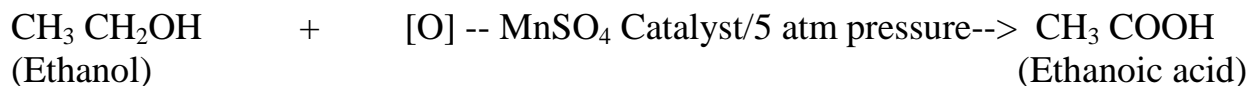
Example

Ethene is mixed with steam over a phosphoric(V)acid catalyst,300oC temperature and 60 atmosphere pressure to form ethanol.



This is the industrial large scale method of manufacturing ethanol

Ethanol is then oxidized by air at 5 atmosphere pressure with Manganese (II)sulphate(VI) catalyst to form the ethanoic acid.



(b)Alkynes react with liquid water at high temperatures and pressure in presence of Mercury(II)sulphate(VI)catalyst and 30% concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid to form alkanals.

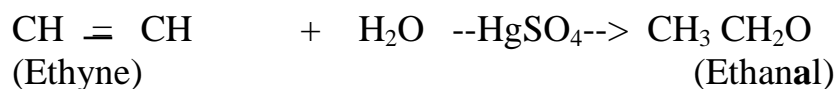
Alkyne + Water -- Mercury(II)sulphate(VI)catalyst--> Alkanal

The alkanal is then oxidized by air at 5 atmosphere pressure with Manganese (II) sulphate(VI) catalyst to form the alkanolic acid.

Alkanal + air/oxygen -- Manganese(II)sulphate(VI)catalyst--> Alkanolic acid

Example

Ethyne react with liquid water at high temperature and pressure with Mercury (II) sulphate (VI)catalyst and 30% concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid to form ethanal.



This is another industrial large scale method of manufacturing ethanol from large quantities of ethyne found in natural gas.

Ethanal is then oxidized by air at 5 atmosphere pressure with Manganese (II)sulphate(VI) catalyst to form the ethanoic acid.



(D) PHYSICAL AND CHEMICAL PROPERTIES OF ALKANOIC ACIDS.

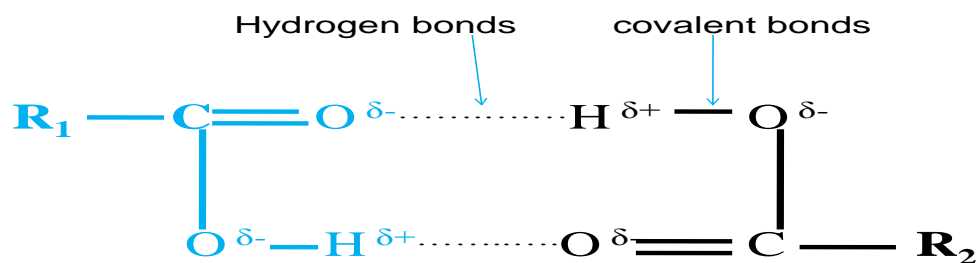
I.Physical properties of alkanolic acids

The table below shows some physical properties of alkanolic acids

Alkanol	Melting point(°C)	Boiling point(°C)	Density(gcm ⁻³)	Solubility in water
Methanoic acid	18.4	101	1.22	soluble
Ethanoic acid	16.6	118	1.05	soluble
Propanoic acid	-2.8	141	0.992	soluble
Butanoic acid	-8.0	164	0.964	soluble
Pentanoic acid	-9.0	187	0.939	Slightly soluble
Hexanoic acid	-11	205	0.927	Slightly soluble
Heptanoic acid	-3	223	0.920	Slightly soluble
Octanoic acid	11	239	0.910	Slightly soluble
Nonanoic acid	16	253	0.907	Slightly soluble
Decanoic acid	31	269	0.905	Slightly soluble

From the table note the following:

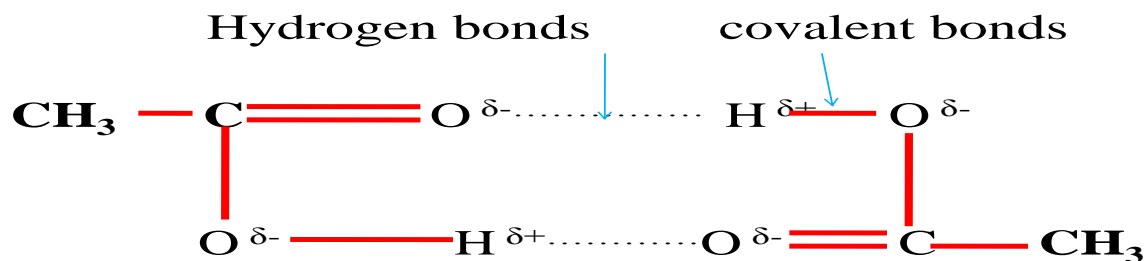
- (i) Melting and boiling point decrease as the carbon chain increases due to increase in intermolecular forces of attraction between the molecules requiring more energy to separate the molecules.
- (ii) The density decreases as the carbon chain increases as the intermolecular forces of attraction increases between the molecules making the molecule very close reducing their volume in unit mass.
- (iii) Solubility decreases as the carbon chain increases as the soluble –COOH end is shielded by increasing insoluble alkyl/hydrocarbon chain.
- (iv) Like alkanols ,alkanoic acids exist as dimmers due to the hydrogen bonds within the molecule. i.e..



R_1 and R_2 are **extensions** of the molecule.
For ethanoic acid the extension is made up of **CH_3-** to make the structure;

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For ethanoic acid the extension is made up of **CH_3-** to make the structure;



Ethanoic acid has a **higher** melting/boiling point than ethanol. This is because ethanoic acid has **two/more** hydrogen bond than ethanol.

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II Chemical properties of alkanolic acids

The following experiments shows the main chemical properties of ethanoic (alkanoic) acid.

(a) Effect on litmus papers

Experiment

Dip both blue and red litmus papers in ethanoic acid. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute nitric(V) acid.

Sample observations

Solution/acid	Observations/effect on litmus papers	Inference
---------------	--------------------------------------	-----------

Ethanoic acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Succinic acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Citric acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Oxalic acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Tartaric acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Nitric(V)acid	Blue litmus paper turn red Red litmus paper remain red	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion

Explanation

All acidic solutions contains $\text{H}^+/\text{H}_3\text{O}^+(\text{aq})$ ions. The $\text{H}^+/\text{H}_3\text{O}^+(\text{aq})$ ions is responsible for turning blue litmus paper/solution to red

(b)pH

Experiment

Place 2cm³ of ethanoic acid in a test tube. Add 2 drops of universal indicator solution and determine its pH. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute sulphuric (VI)acid.

Sample observations

Solution/acid	pH	Inference
Ethanoic acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Succinic acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Citric acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Oxalic acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Tartaric acid	4/5/6	Weakly acidic
Sulphuric(VI)acid	1/2/3	Strongly acidic

Explanations

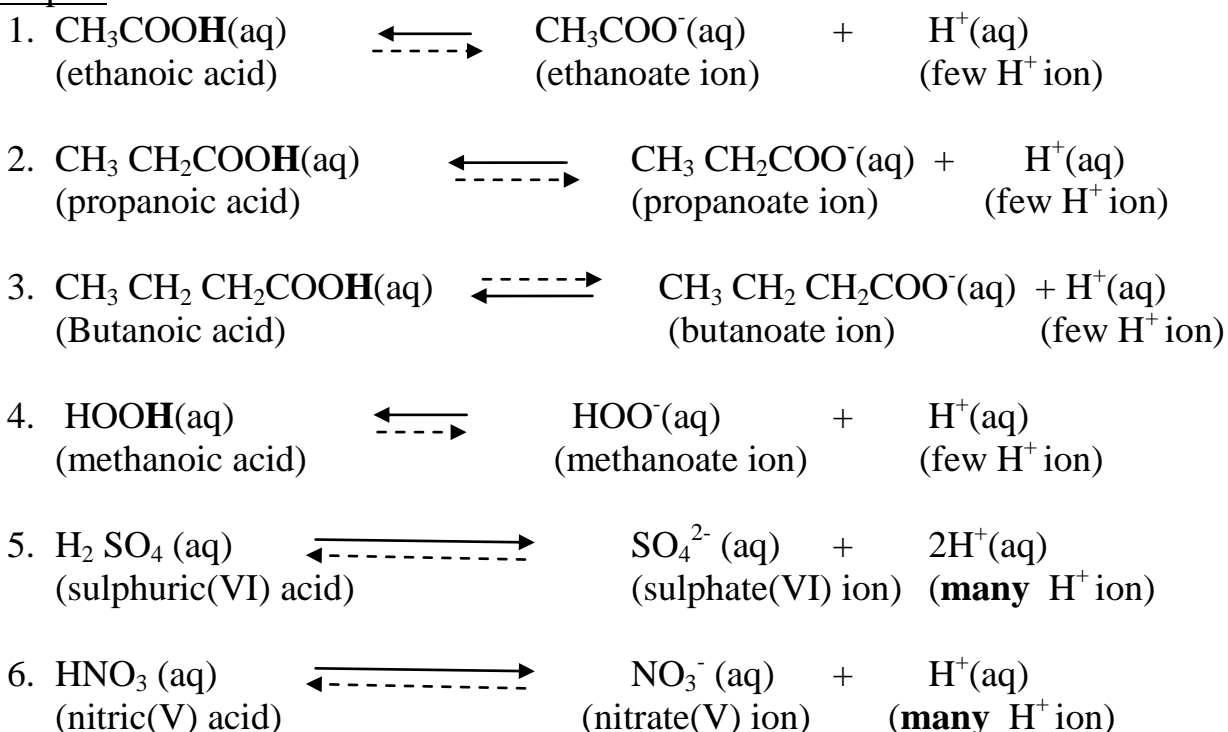
Alkanoic acids are weak acids that partially/partly dissociate to release few H^+ ions in solution. The pH of their solution is thus 4/5/6 showing they form weakly acidic solutions when dissolved in water.

All alkanoic acid dissociate to releases the “H” at the functional group in $-\text{COOH}$ to form the **alkanoate ion**; $-\text{COO}^-$

Mineral acids(Sulphuric(VI)acid, Nitric(V)acid and Hydrochloric acid) are strong acids that wholly/fully dissociate to release many H^+ ions in solution. The pH of

their solution is thus 1/2/3 showing they form strongly acidic solutions when dissolved in water.i.e

Examples



(c)Reaction with metals

Experiment

Place about 4cm³ of ethanoic acid in a test tube. Put about 1cm length of polished magnesium ribbon. Test any gas produced using a burning splint. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute sulphuric (VI) acid.

Sample observations

Solution/acid	Observations	Inference
Ethanoic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with “pop” sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Succinic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with “pop” sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Citric acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with “pop” sound/explosion	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion

Oxalic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with “pop” sound/explosion	H ₃ O ⁺ /H ⁺ (aq)ion
Tartaric acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with “pop” sound/explosion	H ₃ O ⁺ /H ⁺ (aq)ion
Nitric(V)acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that burn with “pop” sound/explosion	H ₃ O ⁺ /H ⁺ (aq)ion

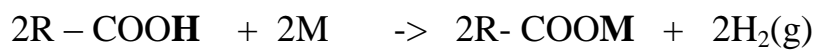
Explanation

Metals higher in the reactivity series displace the hydrogen in all acids to evolve/produce hydrogen gas and form a salt. Alkanoic acids react with metals with metals to form alkanoates salt and produce/evolve hydrogen gas .Hydrogen extinguishes a burning splint with a pop sound/explosion. Only the “H” in the functional group -COOH is /are displaced and not in the alkyl hydrocarbon chain.

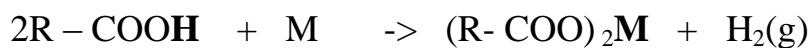
Alkanoic acid + Metal -> Alkanoate + Hydrogen gas. i.e.

Examples

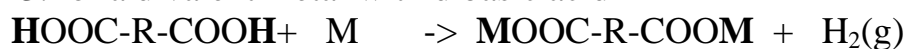
1. For a monovalent metal with monobasic acid



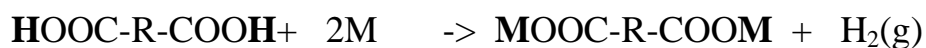
2.For a divalent metal with monobasic acid



3.For a divalent metal with dibasic acid

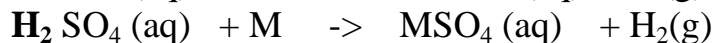
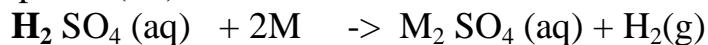


4.For a monovalent metal with dibasic acid

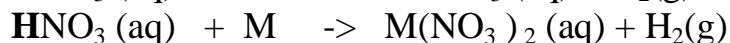
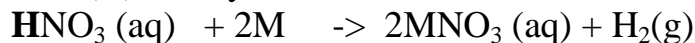


5 For mineral acids

(i)Sulphuric(VI)acid is a dibasic acid



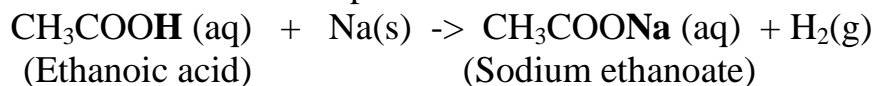
(ii)Nitric(V) and hydrochloric acid are monobasic acid



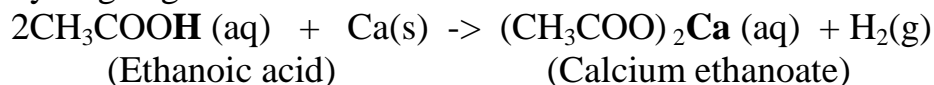
Examples

1. Sodium reacts with ethanoic acid to form sodium ethanoate and produce hydrogen gas.

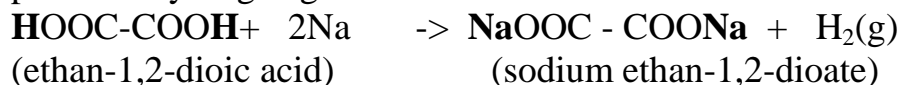
Caution: This reaction is explosive.



2. Calcium reacts with ethanoic acid to form calcium ethanoate and produce hydrogen gas.

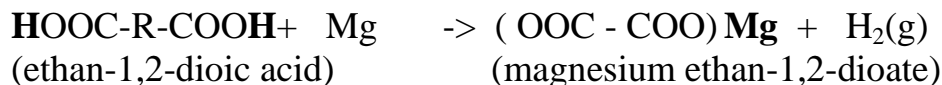


3. Sodium reacts with ethan-1,2-dioic acid to form sodium ethan-1,2-dioate and produce hydrogen gas.



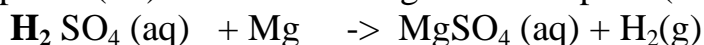
Commercial name of ethan-1,2-dioic acid is oxalic acid. The salt is sodium oxalate.

4. Magnesium reacts with ethan-1,2-dioic acid to form magnesium ethan-1,2-dioate and produce hydrogen gas.

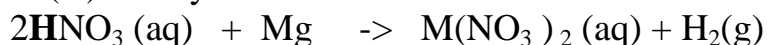


5. Magnesium reacts with

(i) Sulphuric(VI) acid to form Magnesium sulphate(VI)



(ii) Nitric(V) and hydrochloric acid are monobasic acid



(d) Reaction with hydrogen carbonates and carbonates

Experiment

Place about 3cm³ of ethanoic acid in a test tube. Add about 0.5g/ ½ spatula end full of sodium hydrogen carbonate/sodium carbonate. Test the gas produced using lime water. Repeat with a solution of succinic acid, citric acid, oxalic acid, tartaric acid and dilute sulphuric (VI) acid.

Sample observations

Solution/acid	Observations	Inference
Ethanoic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Succinic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Citric acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Oxalic acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Tartaric acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion
Nitric(V)acid	(i)effervescence, fizzing, bubbles (ii)colourless gas produced that forms a white precipitate with lime water	$\text{H}_3\text{O}^+/\text{H}^+(\text{aq})$ ion

All acids react with hydrogen carbonate/carbonate to form salt ,water and evolve/produce bubbles of carbon(IV)oxide and water.
Carbon(IV)oxide forms a white precipitate when bubbled in lime water/extinguishes a burning splint.

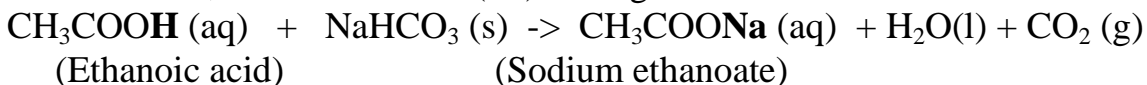
Alkanoic acids react with hydrogen carbonate/carbonate to form alkanoates ,water and evolve/produce bubbles of carbon(IV)oxide and water.

Alkanoic acid + hydrogen carbonate -> alkanoate + water + carbon(IV)oxide

Alkanoic acid + carbonate -> alkanoate + water + carbon(IV)oxide

Examples

1. Sodium hydrogen carbonate reacts with ethanoic acid to form sodium ethanoate ,water and carbon(IV)oxide gas.



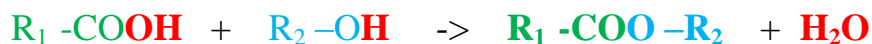
2.Sodium carbonate reacts with ethanoic acid to form sodium ethanoate ,water and carbon(IV)oxide gas.

Alkanol + Alkanoic acids → Ester + water

Esters derive their names from the alkanol first then alkanoic acids. The alkanol “becomes” an **alkyl** group and the alkanoic acid “becomes” **alkanoate** hence **alkylalkanoate**. e.g.

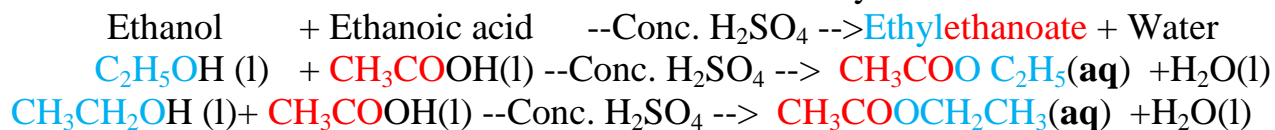
Ethanol	+	Ethanoic acid	→	Ethylethanoate	+	Water
Ethanol	+	Propanoic acid	→	Ethylpropanoate	+	Water
Ethanol	+	Methanoic acid	→	Ethylmethanoate	+	Water
Ethanol	+	butanoic acid	→	Ethylbutanoate	+	Water
Propanol	+	Ethanoic acid	→	Propylethanoate	+	Water
Methanol	+	Ethanoic acid	→	Methylethanoate	+	Water
Methanol	+	Decanoic acid	→	Methyldecanoate	+	Water
Decanol	+	Methanoic acid	→	Decylmethanoate	+	Water

During the formation of the ester, the “O” joining the alkanol and alkanoic acid comes from the alkanol.

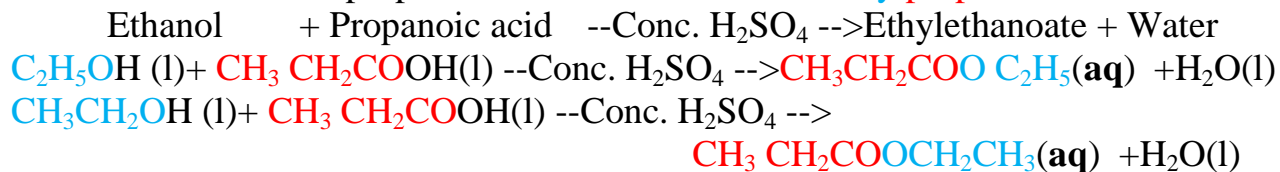


Examples

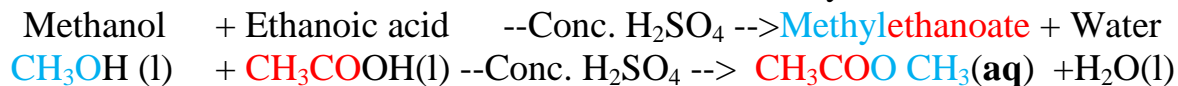
1. Ethanol reacts with ethanoic acid to form the ester ethyl ethanoate and water.



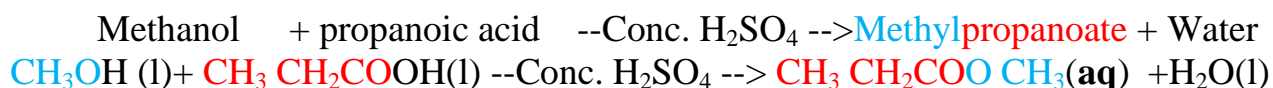
2. Ethanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester ethylpropanoate and water.



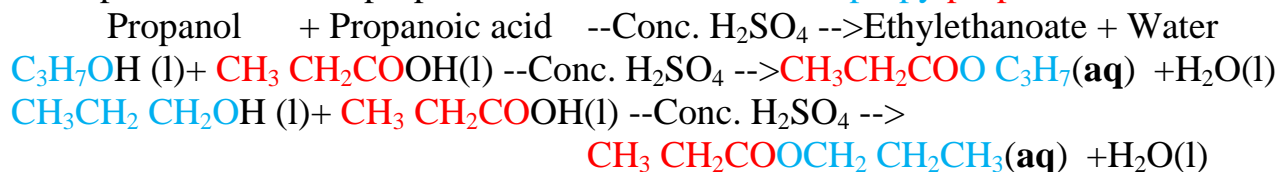
3. Methanol reacts with ethanoic acid to form the ester methyl ethanoate and water.



4. Methanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester methyl propanoate and water.



5. Propanol reacts with propanoic acid to form the ester **propylpropanoate** and water.



C. DETERGENTS

Detergents are cleaning agents that improve the cleaning power /properties of water. A detergent therefore should be able to:

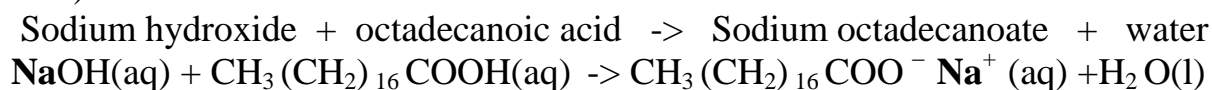
- (i) dissolve substances which water can not e.g grease ,oil, fat
- (ii) be washed away after cleaning.

There are two types of detergents:

- (a) Soapy detergents
- (b) Soapless detergents

(a) SOAPY DETERGENTS

Soapy detergents usually called soap is long chain salt of organic alkanolic acids. Common soap is sodium octadecanoate .It is derived from reacting concentrated sodium hydroxide solution with octadecanoic acid(18 carbon alkanolic acid) i.e.



Commonly ,soap can thus be represented ;

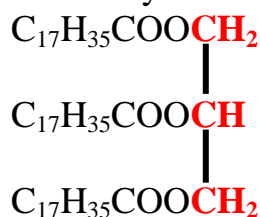


R is a long chain alkyl group and $-\text{COO}^- \text{Na}^+$ is the alkanoate ion.

In a school laboratory and at industrial and domestic level,soap is made by reacting concentrated sodium hydroxide solution with esters from (animal) **fat** and **oil**. The process of making soap is called **saponification**. During saponification ,the ester is **hydrolyzed** by the alkali to form sodium salt /soap and **glycerol/propan-1,2,3-triol** is produced.

Fat/oil(ester)+sodium/potassium hydroxide->sodium/potassium salt(soap)+ glycerol

Fats/Oils are esters with fatty acids and glycerol parts in their structure;



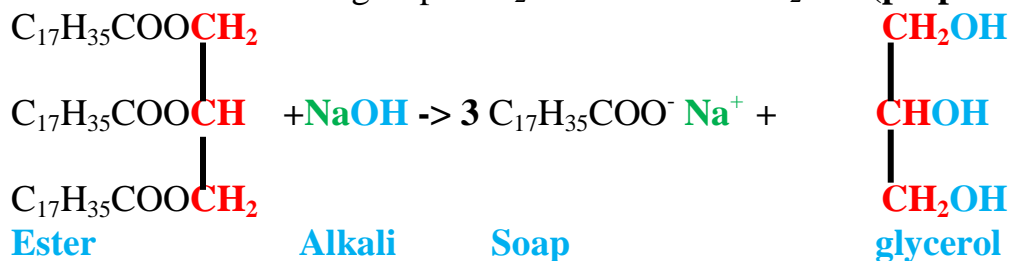
When boiled with concentrated sodium hydroxide solution NaOH;

(i)NaOH ionizes/dissociates into Na^+ and OH^- ions

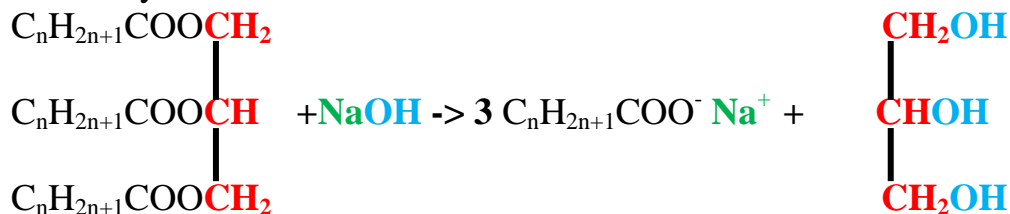
(ii)fat/oil split into **three** $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{35}\text{COO}^-$ and **one** $\text{CH}_2 \text{CH} \text{CH}_2$

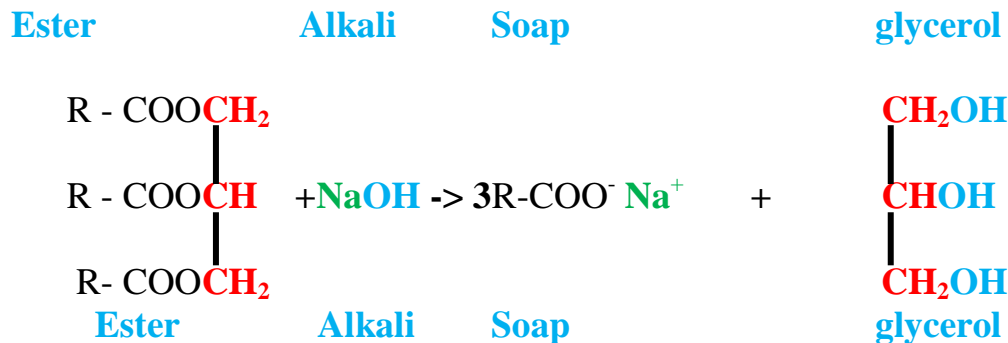
(iii) the three Na^+ combine with the three $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{35}\text{COO}^-$ to form the salt $\text{C}_{17}\text{H}_{35}\text{COO}^- \text{Na}^+$

(iv)the three OH^- ions combine with the $\text{CH}_2 \text{CH} \text{CH}_2$ to form an alkanol with three functional groups $\text{CH}_2 \text{OH} \text{CH} \text{OH} \text{CH}_2 \text{OH}$ (**propan-1,2,3-triol**)



Generally:





During this process a little sodium chloride is added to **precipitate** the soap by reducing its solubility. This is called **salting out**.

The soap is then added colouring agents ,perfumes and herbs of choice.

School laboratory preparation of soap

Place about 40 g of fatty (animal fat)beef/meat in 100cm³ beaker .Add about 15cm³ of 4.0M sodium hydroxide solution. Boil the mixture for about 15minutes.Stir the mixture .Add about 5.0cm³ of distilled water as you boil to make up for evaporation. Boil for about another 15minutes.Add about four spatula end full of pure sodium chloride crystals. Continue stirring for another five minutes. Allow to cool. Filter of /decant and wash off the residue with distilled water .Transfer the clean residue into a dry beaker. Preserve.

The action of soap

Soapy detergents:

(i)act by reducing the surface tension of water by forming a thin layer on top of the water.

(ii)is made of a **non-polar** alkyl /hydrocarbon tail and a **polar** -COO⁻Na⁺ head. The non-polar alkyl /hydrocarbon tail is **hydrophobic** (water hating) and thus does not dissolve in water .It dissolves in non-polar solvent like grease, oil and fat. The polar -COO⁻Na⁺ head is **hydrophilic** (water loving)and thus dissolve in water. When washing with soapy detergent, the non-polar tail of the soapy detergent surround/dissolve in the dirt on the garment /grease/oil while the polar head dissolve in water.

Through **mechanical agitation**/stirring/squeezing/rubbing/beating/kneading, some grease is dislodged/lifted of the surface of the garment. It is immediately surrounded by more soap molecules It float and spread in the water as tiny droplets that scatter light in form of emulsion making the water cloudy and shinny. It is removed from the garment by rinsing with fresh water.The repulsion of the soap head prevent

/ensure the droplets do not mix. Once removed, the dirt molecules cannot be redeposited back because it is surrounded by soap molecules.

Advantages and disadvantages of using soapy detergents

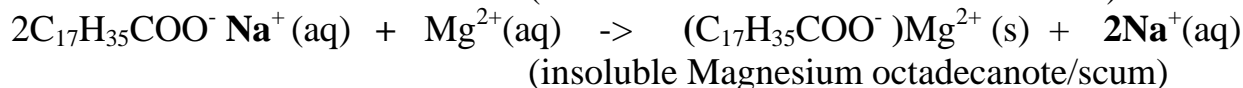
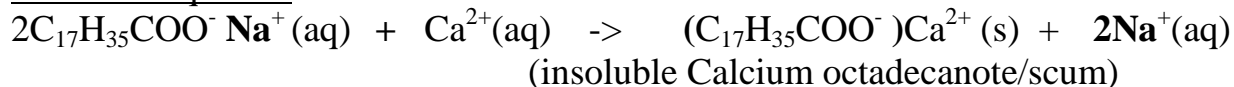
Soapy detergents are biodegradable. They are acted upon by bacteria and rot. They thus do not cause environmental pollution.

Soapy detergents have the disadvantage in that:

(i) they are made from fat and oils which are better eaten as food than make soap.

(ii) forms an insoluble precipitate with hard water called **scum**. Scum is insoluble calcium octadecanoate and Magnesium octadecanoate formed when soap reacts with Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} present in hard water.

Chemical equation



This causes wastage of soap.

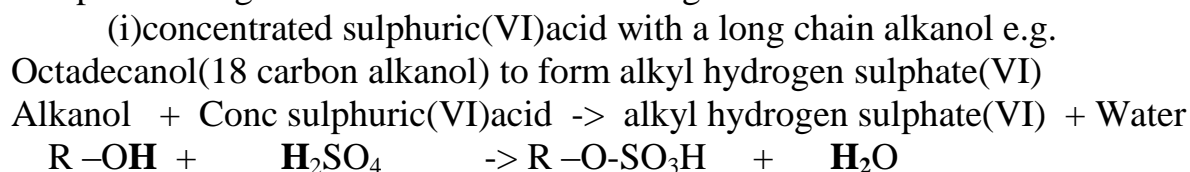
Potassium soaps are better than Sodium soap. Potassium is more expensive than sodium and thus its soap is also more expensive.

(b) SOAPLESS DETERGENTS

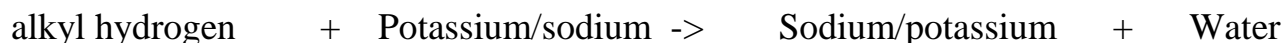
Soapless detergent usually called detergent is a long chain salt formed from by-products of fractional distillation of crude oil. Commonly used soaps include:

- (i) washing agents
- (ii) toothpaste
- (iii) emulsifiers/wetting agents/shampoo

Soapless detergents are derived from reacting:



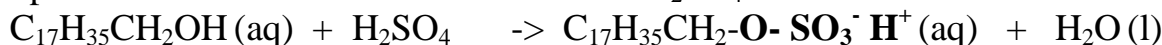
(ii) the alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) is then neutralized with sodium/potassium hydroxide to form sodium/potassium alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI). Sodium/potassium alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) is the soapless detergent.





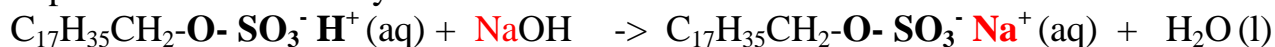
Example

Step I : Reaction of Octadecanol with Conc.H₂SO₄



octadecanol + sulphuric(VI)acid → Octadecyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + water

Step II: Neutralization by an alkali



Octadecyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + sodium hydroxide → sodium octadecyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + Water

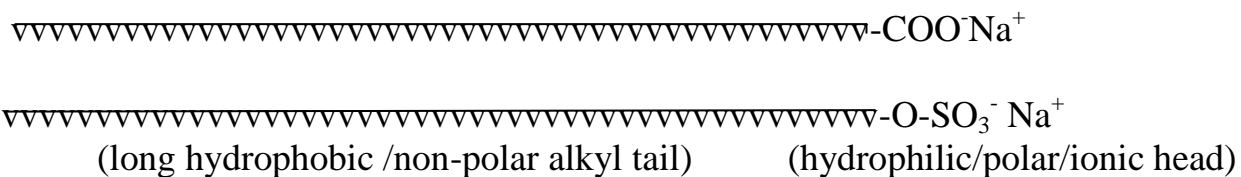
School laboratory preparation of soapless detergent

Place about 20g of olive oil in a 100cm³ beaker. Put it in a trough containing ice cold water.

Add dropwise carefully 18M concentrated sulphuric(VI)acid stirring continuously into the olive oil until the oil turns brown. Add 30cm³ of 6M sodium hydroxide solution. Stir. This is a soapless detergent.

The action of soapless detergents

The action of soapless detergents is similar to that of soapy detergents. The soapless detergents contain the hydrophilic head and a long hydrophobic tail. i.e.



The tail dissolves in fat/grease/oil while the ionic/polar/ionic head dissolves in water. The tail stick to the dirt which is removed by the attraction of water molecules and the polar/ionic/hydrophilic head by mechanical agitation /squeezing/kneading/ beating/rubbing/scrubbing/scatching.

The suspended dirt is then surrounded by detergent molecules and repulsion of the anion head preventing the dirt from sticking on the material garment. The tiny droplets of dirt emulsion makes the water cloudy. On rinsing the cloudy emulsion is washed away.

Advantages and disadvantages of using soapless detergents

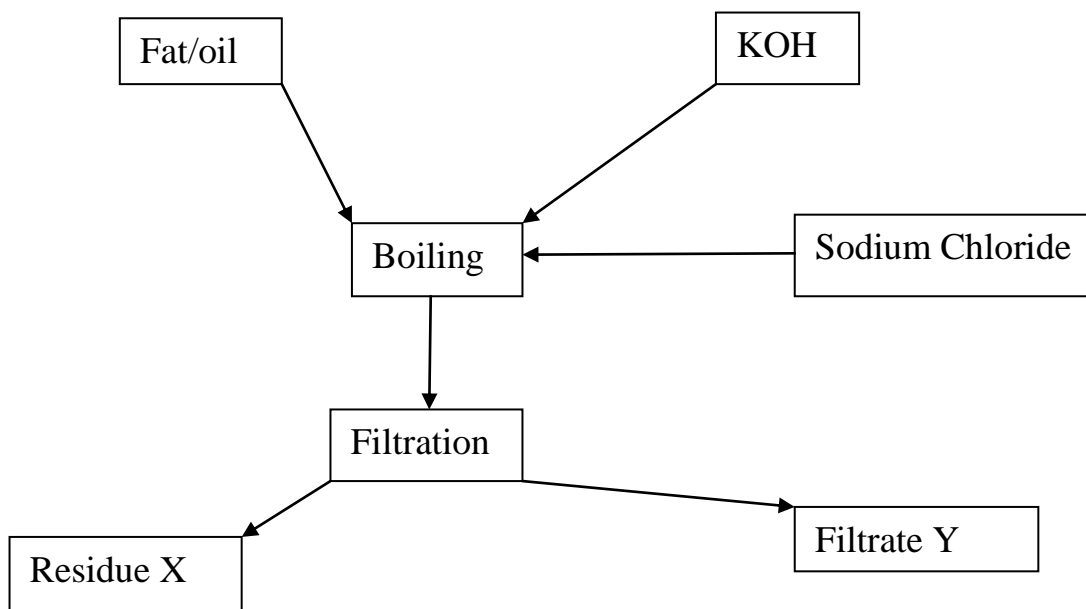
Soapless detergents are non-biodegradable unlike soapy detergents. They persist in water during sewage treatment by causing foaming in rivers, lakes and streams leading to marine/aquatic death.

Soapless detergents have the advantage in that they:

- (i) do not form scum with hard water.
- (ii) are cheap to manufacture/buying
- (iii) are made from petroleum products but soaps are made from fats/oil for human consumption.

Sample revision questions

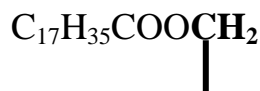
1. Study the scheme below

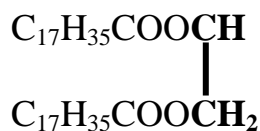


(a) Identify the process

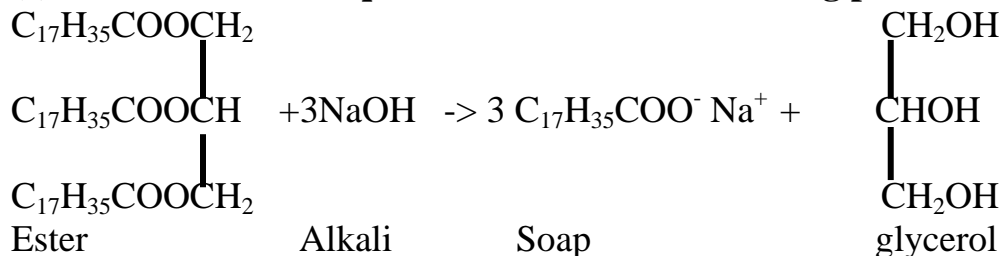
Saponification

(b) Fats and oils are esters. Write the formula of a common structure of ester





(c) Write a balanced equation for the reaction taking place during boiling



(d) Give the IUPAC name of:

(i) Residue X

Potassium octadecanoate

(ii) Filtrate Y

Propan-1,2,3-triol

(e) Give one use of filtrate Y

Making paint

(f) What is the function of sodium chloride

To reduce the solubility of the soap hence helping in precipitating it out

(g) Explain how residue X helps in washing.

Has a non-polar hydrophobic tail that dissolves in dirt/grease /oil/fat

Has a polar /ionic hydrophilic head that dissolves in water.

From mechanical agitation, the dirt is plucked out of the garment and surrounded by the tail end preventing it from being deposited back on the garment.

(h) State one:

(i) advantage of continued use of residue X on the environment

Is biodegradable and thus do not pollute the environment

(ii) disadvantage of using residue X

Uses fat/oil during preparation/manufacture which are better used for human consumption.

(i) Residue X was added dropwise to some water. The number of drops used before lather forms is as in the table below.

	Water sample		
	A	B	C
Drops of residue X	15	2	15
Drops of residue X in boiled water	2	2	15

(i) State and explain which sample of water is:

I. Soft

Sample B . Very little soap is used and no effect on amount of soap even on boiling/heating.

II. Permanent hard

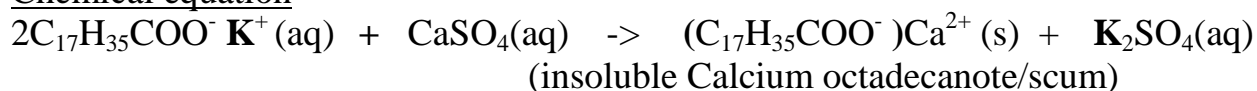
Sample C . A lot of soap is used and no effect on amount of soap even on boiling/heating. Boiling does not remove permanent hardness of water.

III. Temporary hard

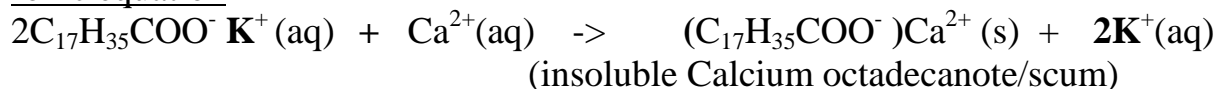
Sample A . A lot of soap is used before boiling. Very little soap is used on boiling/heating. Boiling remove temporary hardness of water.

(ii) Write the equation for the reaction at water sample C.

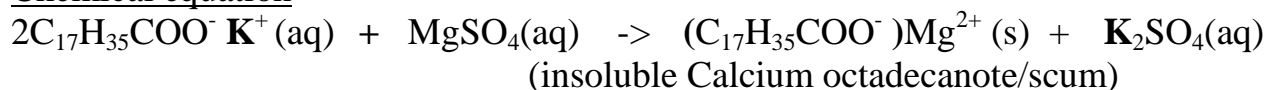
Chemical equation



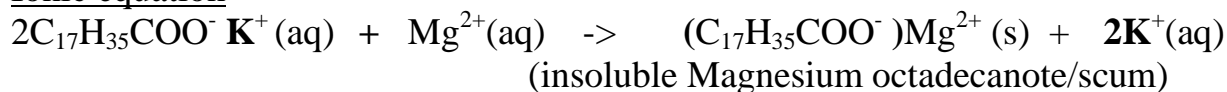
Ionic equation



Chemical equation

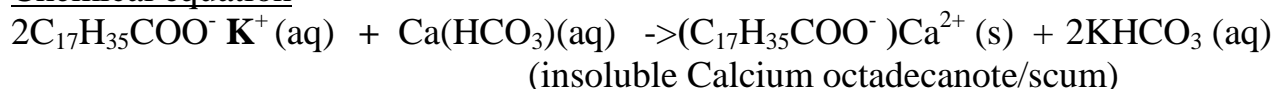


Ionic equation

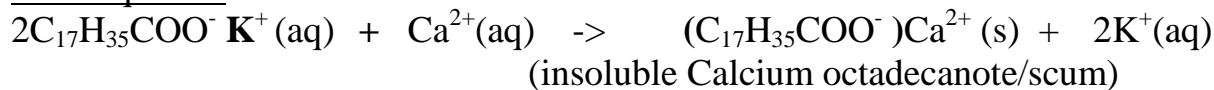


(iii) Write the equation for the reaction at water sample A before boiling.

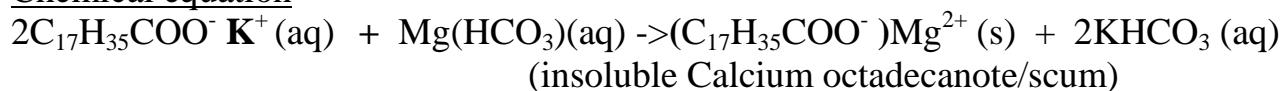
Chemical equation



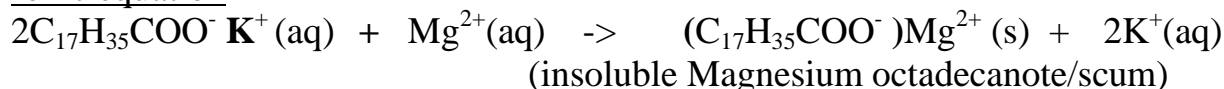
Ionic equation



Chemical equation



Ionic equation



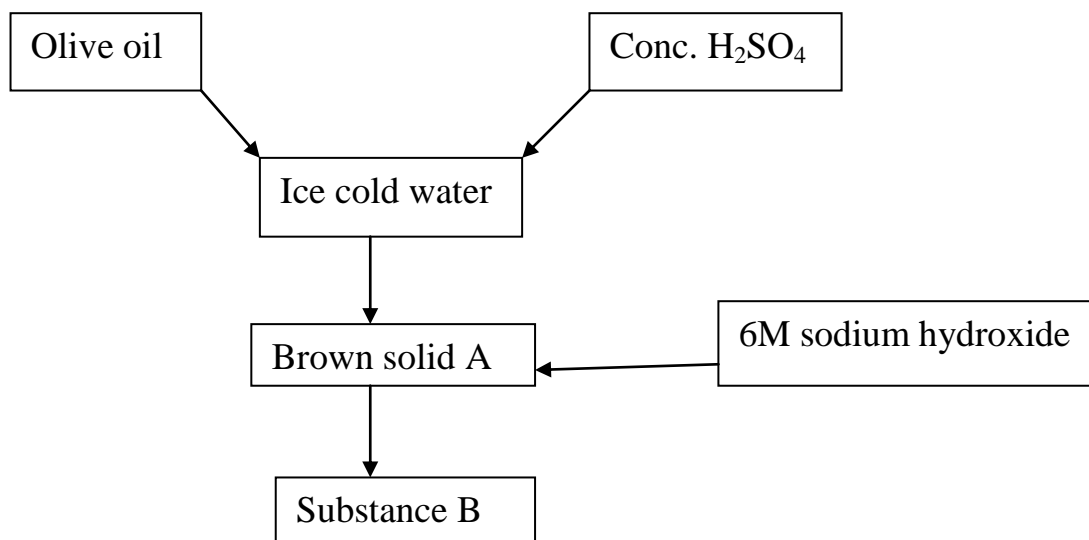
(iv) Explain how water becomes hard

Natural or rain water flowing /passing through rocks containing calcium (chalk, gypsum, limestone) and magnesium compounds (dolomite) dissolve them to form soluble Ca^{2+} and Mg^{2+} ions that causes water hardness.

(v) State two useful benefits of hard water

- Used in bone and teeth formation
- Coral polyps use hard water to form coral reefs
- Snails use hard water to make their shells

2. Study the scheme below and use it to answer the questions that follow.



(a) Identify :

(i) brown solid A

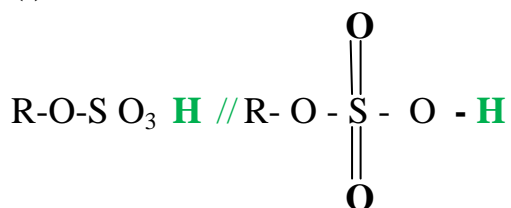
Alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI)

(ii) substance B

Sodium alkyl hydrogen sulphate(VI)

(b) Write a general formula of:

(i) Substance A.



(ii) Substance B



(c) State one

(i) advantage of continued use of substance B

- Does not form scum with hard water
- Is cheap to make
- Does not use food for human as a raw material.

(ii) disadvantage of continued use of substance B.

Is non-biodegradable therefore do not pollute the environment

(d) Explain the action of B during washing.

Has a non-polar hydrocarbon long tail that dissolves in dirt/grease/oil/fat.

Has a polar/ionic hydrophilic head that dissolves in water

Through mechanical agitation the dirt is plucked /removed from the garment and surrounded by the tail end preventing it from being deposited back on the garment.

(e) Ethene was substituted for olive oil in the above process. Write the equation and name of the new products A and B.

Product A



Product B

Ethyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + sodium hydroxide \rightarrow sodium Ethyl + Water
hydrogen sulphate(VI)



(f) Ethanol can also undergo similar reactions forming new products A and B. Show this using a chemical equation.

Product A

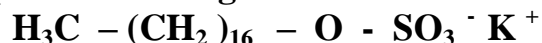


Product B

Ethyl hydrogen sulphate(VI) + sodium hydroxide \rightarrow sodium Ethyl + Water
hydrogen sulphate(VI)



3. Below is part of a detergent



(a) Write the formula of the polar and non-polar end

Polar end



Non-polar end



(b) Is the molecule a soapy or soapless detergent?

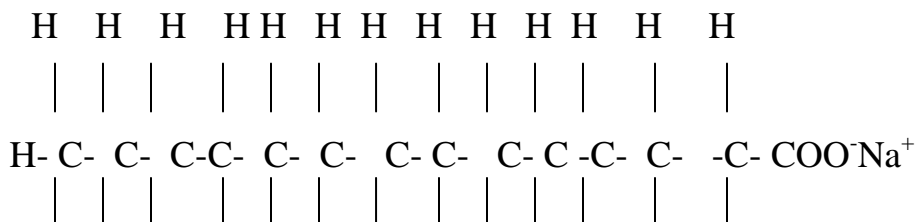
Soapless detergent

(c) State one advantage of using the above detergent

- does not form scum with hard water

- is cheap to manufacture

4. The structure of a detergent is



H H H H H H H H H H H H H H

- a) Write the molecular formula of the detergent. (1mk)
 $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_{12}\text{COO}^-\text{Na}^+$
- b) What type of detergent is represented by the formula? (1mk)
Soapy detergent
- c) When this type of detergent is used to wash linen in hard water, spots (marks) are left on the linen. Write the formula of the substance responsible for the spots
 $(\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_{12}\text{COO}^-)_2\text{Ca}^{2+}$ / $(\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_{12}\text{COO}^-)_2\text{Mg}^{2+}$

D. POLYMERS AND FIBRES

Polymers and fibres are giant molecules of organic compounds. Polymers and fibres are formed when **small** molecules called monomers join together to form **large** molecules called polymers at high temperatures and pressures. This process is called polymerization.

Polymers and fibres are either:

- (a) **Natural** polymers and fibres
- (b) **Synthetic** polymers and fibres

Natural polymers and fibres are found in living things (plants and animals) Natural polymers/fibres include:

- proteins/polypeptides making amino acids in animals
- cellulose that make cotton, wool, paper and silk
- Starch that come from glucose
- Fats and oils
- Rubber from latex in rubber trees.

Synthetic polymers and fibres are man-made. They include:

- polyethene

- polychloroethene
- polyphenylethene(polystyrene)
- Terylene(Dacron)
- Nylon-6,6
- Perspex(artificial glass)

Synthetic polymers and fibres have the following characteristic advantages over natural polymers

1. They are light and portable
2. They are easy to manufacture.
3. They can easily be molded into shape of choice.
4. They are resistant to corrosion, water, air , acids, bases and salts.
5. They are comparatively cheap, affordable, colourful and aesthetic

Synthetic polymers and fibres however have the following disadvantages over natural polymers

1. They are non-biodegradable and hence cause environmental pollution during disposal
2. They give out highly poisonous gases when burnt like chlorine/carbon(II)oxide
3. Some on burning produce Carbon(IV)oxide. Carbon(IV)oxide is a green house gas that cause global warming.
4. Compared to some metals, they are poor conductors of heat,electricity and have lower tensile strength.
- 5.

To reduce environmental pollution from synthetic polymers and fibres, the following methods of disposal should be used:

- 1.Recycling: Once produced all synthetic polymers and fibres should be recycled to a new product. This prevents accumulation of the synthetic polymers and fibres in the environment.
- 2.Production of biodegradable synthetic polymers and fibres that **rot** away.

There are two types of polymerization:

- (a)addition polymerization
- (b)condensation polymerization

(a)addition polymerization

Addition polymerization is the process where a small unsaturated monomer (alkene) molecule join together to form a large saturated molecule. Only alkenes undergo addition polymerization.

Addition polymers are named from the alkene/monomer making the polymer and adding the prefix “**poly**” before the name of monomer to form a **polyalkene**

During addition polymerization

- (i) the double bond in alkenes break
- (ii) free radicals are formed
- (iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule.

The more collisions the larger the molecule.

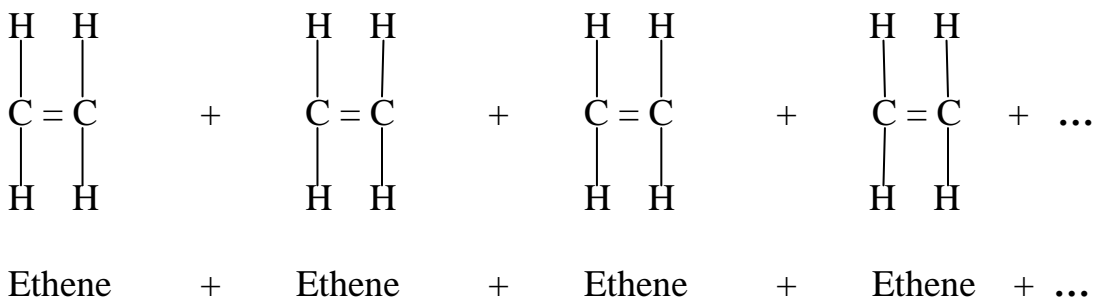
Examples of addition polymerization

1. Formation of Polyethene

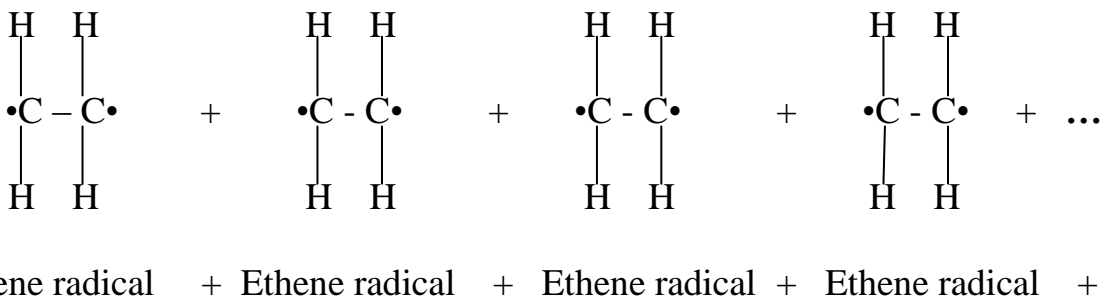
Polyethene is an addition polymer formed when ethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

During polymerization:

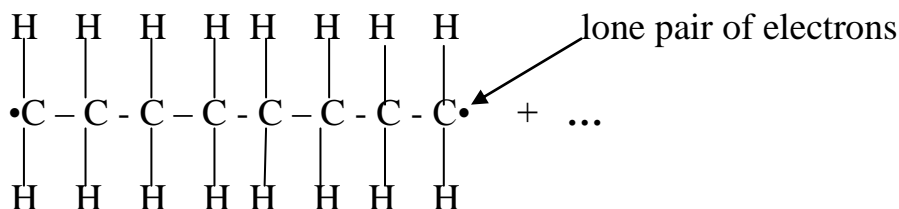
- (i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)



- (ii) the double bond joining the ethane molecule break to free radicals

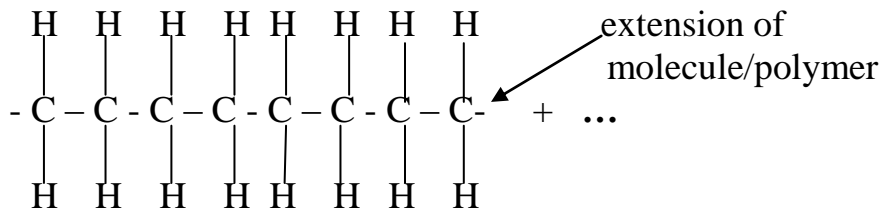


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule

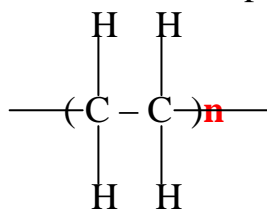


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polyethene.

Polyethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Where n is the number of monomers in the polymer. The number of monomers in the polymer can be determined from the molar mass of the polymer and monomer from the relationship:

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

Examples

Polythene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of ethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0)

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in polymer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Molar mass ethene (C}_2\text{H}_4) = 28 \quad \text{Molar mass polyethene} = 4760$$

$$\text{Substituting } \frac{4760}{28} = \underline{170 \text{ ethene molecules}}$$

The **commercial** name of polyethene is **polythene**. It is an elastic, tough, transparent and durable plastic. Polythene is used:

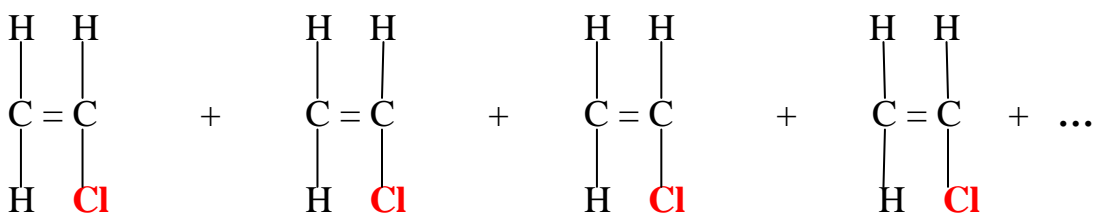
- (i) in making plastic bag
- (ii) bowls and plastic bags
- (iii) packaging materials

2. Formation of Polychlorethene

Polychloroethene is an addition polymer formed when chloroethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

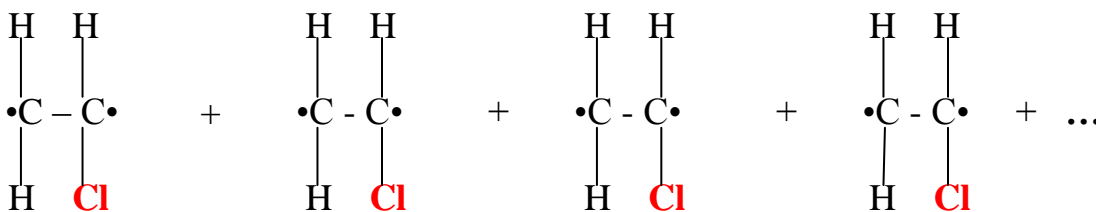
During polymerization:

- (i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

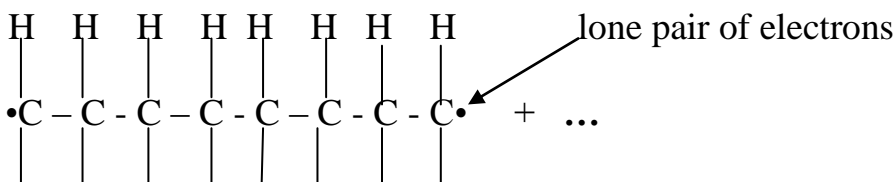


chloroethene + chloroethene + chloroethene + chloroethene + ...

- (ii) the double bond joining the chloroethene molecule break to free radicals



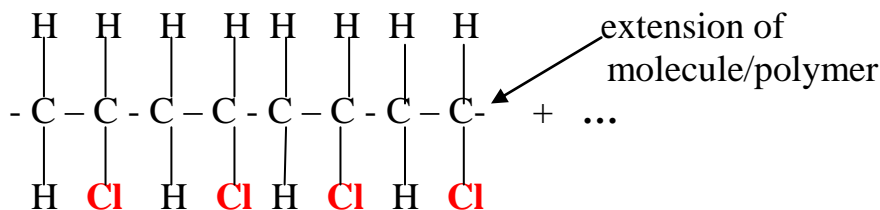
- (iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



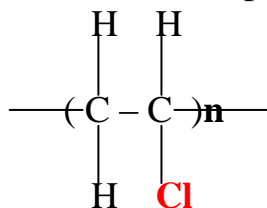


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polychloroethene.

Polychloroethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polychloroethene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of chloroethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0, Cl=35.5)

$$\text{Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer} = \frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{Molar mass ethene (C}_2\text{H}_3\text{Cl)} = 62.5 \quad \text{Molar mass polyethene} = 4760$$

$$\text{Substituting } \frac{4760}{62.5} = 77.16 \Rightarrow 77 \text{ polychloroethene molecules (whole number)}$$

The **commercial** name of polychloroethene is **polyvinylchloride(PVC)**. It is a tough, non-transparent and durable plastic. PVC is used:

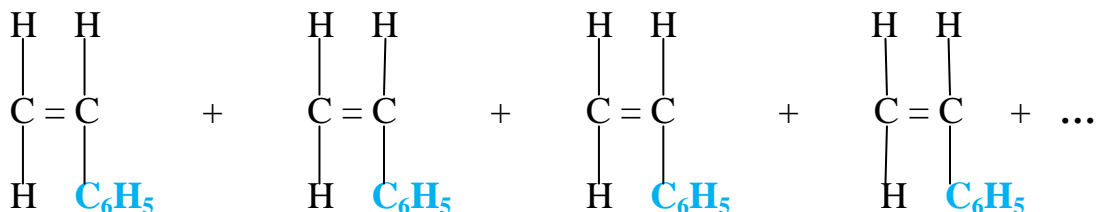
- (i) in making plastic rope
- (ii) water pipes
- (iii) crates and boxes

3. Formation of Polyphenylethene

Polyphenylethene is an addition polymer formed when phenylethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

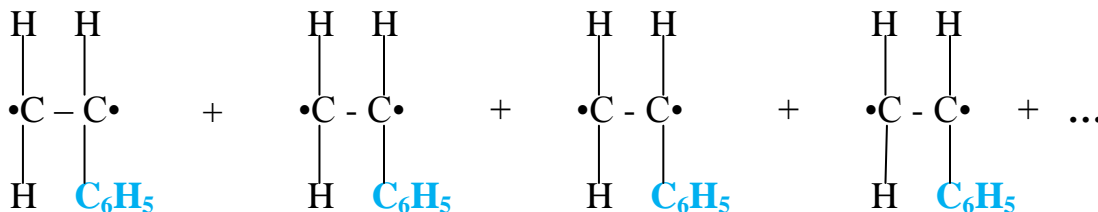
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

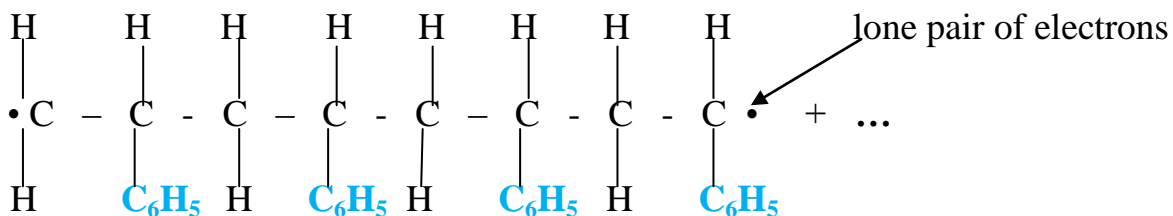


phenylethene + phenylethene + phenylethene + phenylethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the phenylethene molecule break to free radicals

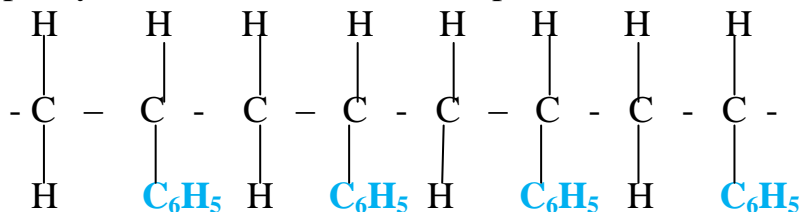


(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



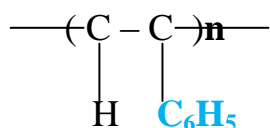
Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polyphenylethene.

Polyphenylethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:





Examples

Polyphenylthene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of phenylethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0,)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C₂H₄) = 104 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{104} = 45.7692 \Rightarrow 45$ polyphenylethene molecules (**whole number**)

The **commercial** name of polyphenylethene is **polystyrene**. It is a very light durable plastic. Polystyrene is used:

(i) in making packaging material for carrying delicate items like computers, radion, calculators.

(ii) ceiling tiles

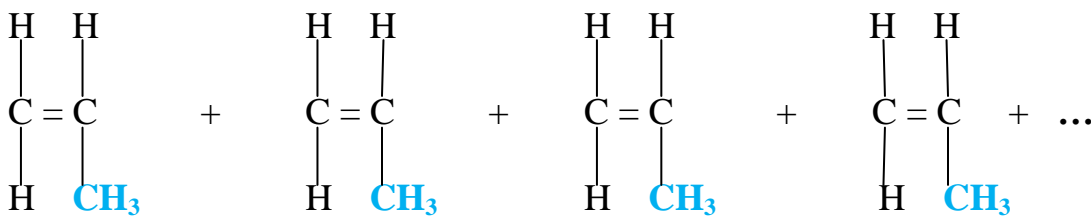
(iii) clothe linings

4. Formation of Polypropene

Polypropene is an addition polymer formed when propene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

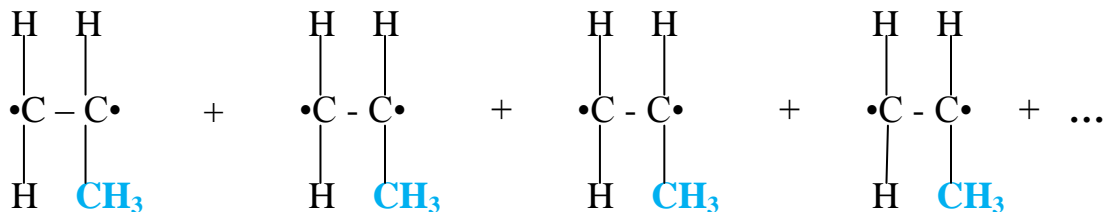
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

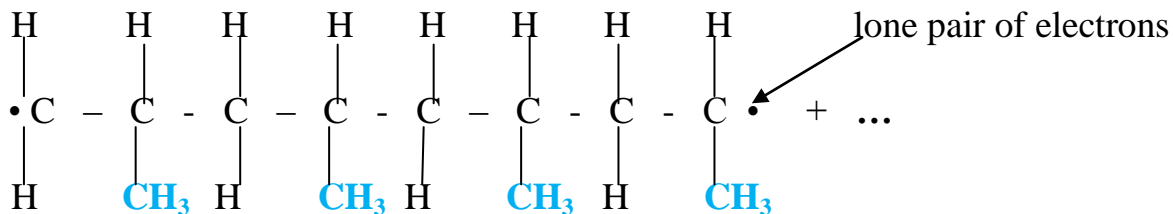


propene + propene + propene + propene + ...

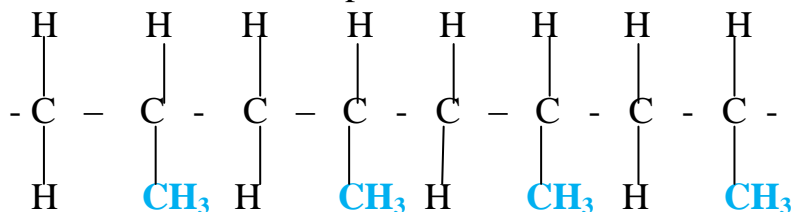
(ii) the double bond joining the phenylethene molecule break to free radicals



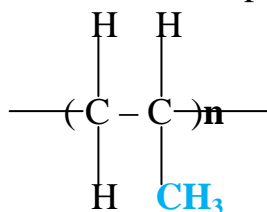
(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer propene. propene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polypropene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of propene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, H=1.0,)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass propene (C₃H₆) = 44 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{44} = 108.1818 \Rightarrow 108$ propene molecules (whole number)

The **commercial** name of polyphenylethene is **polystyrene**. It is a very light durable plastic. Polystyrene is used:

(i) in making packaging material for carrying delicate items like computers, radion, calculators.

(ii) ceiling tiles

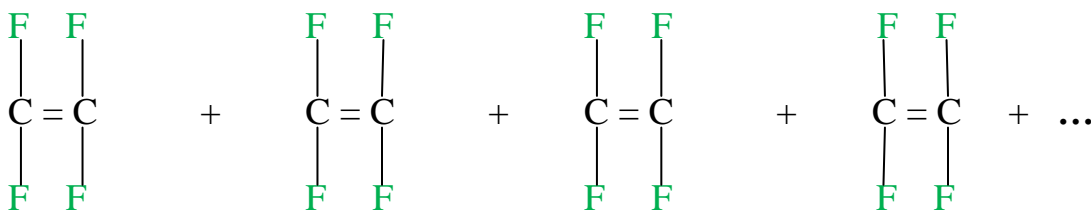
(iii) clothe linings

5. Formation of Polytetrafluoroethene

Polytetrafluoroethene is an addition polymer formed when tetrafluoroethene molecule/monomer join together to form a large molecule/polymer at high temperatures and pressure.

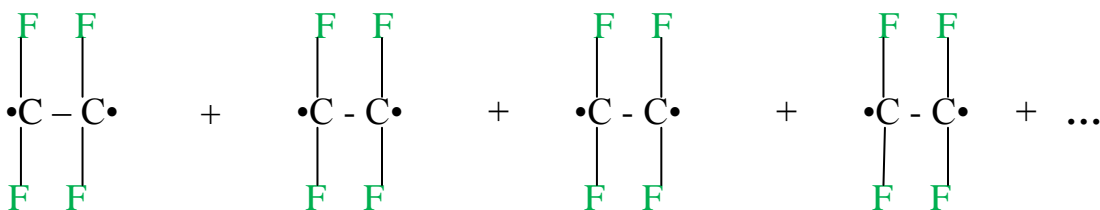
During polymerization:

(i) many molecules are brought nearer to each other by the high pressure (which reduces the volume occupied by reacting particles)

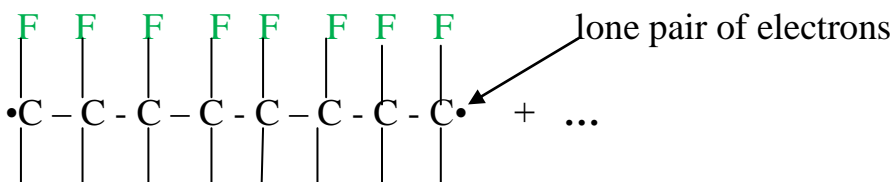


tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + tetrafluoroethene + ...

(ii) the double bond joining the tetrafluoroethene molecule break to free radicals



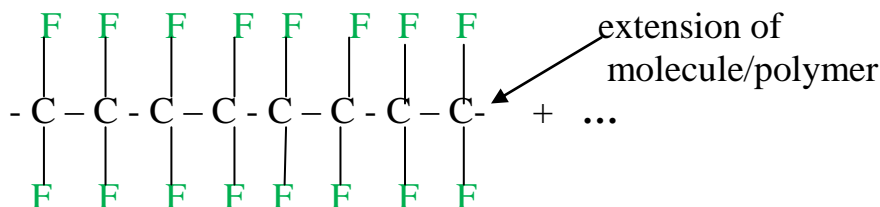
(iii) the free radicals collide with each other and join to form a larger molecule



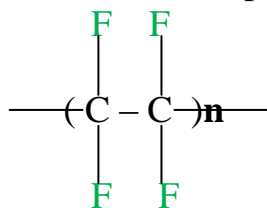


Lone pair of electrons can be used to join more monomers to form longer polytetrafluoroethene.

polytetrafluoroethene molecule can be represented as:



Since the molecule is a repetition of one monomer, then the polymer is:



Examples

Polytetrafluoroethene has a molar mass of 4760. Calculate the number of tetrafluoroethene molecules in the polymer (C=12.0, F=19)

Number of monomers/repeating units in monomer = $\frac{\text{Molar mass polymer}}{\text{Molar mass monomer}}$

=> Molar mass ethene (C₂F₄) = 62.5 Molar mass polyethene = 4760

Substituting $\frac{4760}{62.5} = 77.16 \Rightarrow 77$ polychloroethene molecules (whole number)

The **commercial** name of polytetrafluoroethene (**P.T.F.E**) is **Teflon (P.T.F.E)**. It is a tough, non-transparent and durable plastic. PVC is used:

- (i) in making plastic rope
- (ii) water pipes
- (iii) crates and boxes

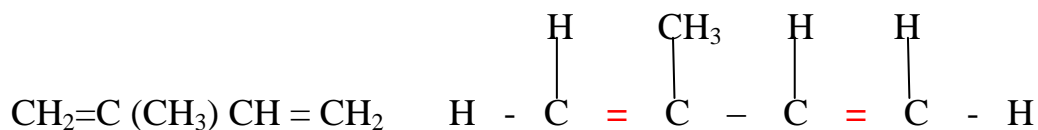
5. Formation of rubber from Latex

Natural rubber is obtained from rubber trees.

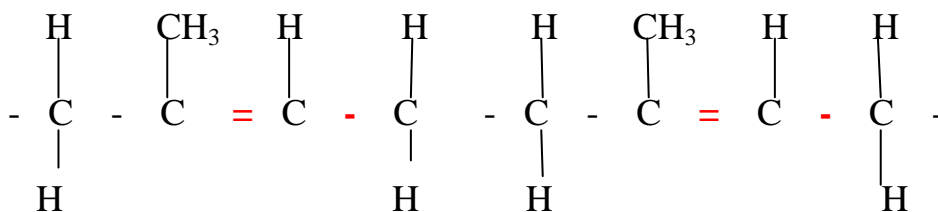
During harvesting an incision is made on the rubber tree to produce a milky white substance called **latex**.

Latex is a mixture of rubber and lots of water.

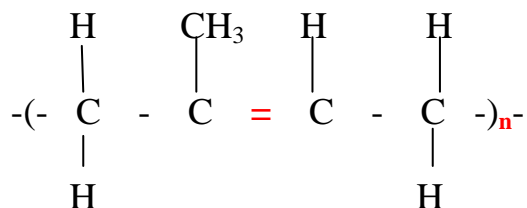
The latex is then added an acid to coagulate the rubber.
 Natural rubber is a polymer of 2-methylbut-1,3-diene ;



During natural polymerization to rubber, one double C=C bond break to self add to another molecule. The double bond remaining move to carbon "2" thus;

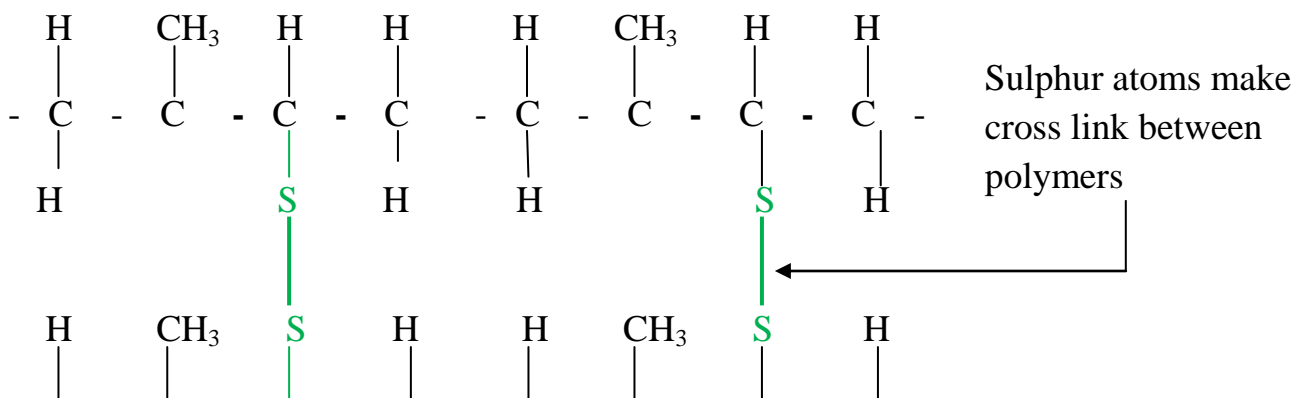


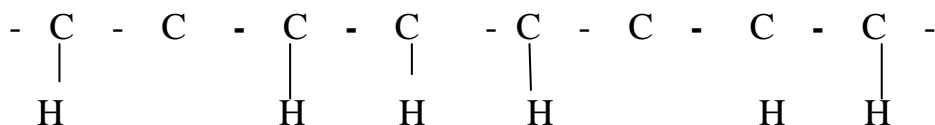
Generally the structure of rubber is thus;



Pure rubber is soft and sticky. It is used to make erasers, car tyres. Most of it is vulcanized. Vulcanization is the process of heating rubber with sulphur to make it harder/tougher.

During vulcanization the sulphur atoms form a cross link between chains of rubber molecules/polymers. This decreases the number of C=C double bonds in the polymer.



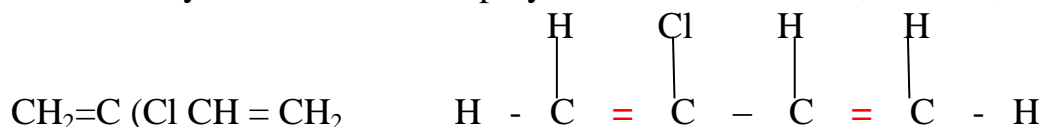


Vulcanized rubber is used to make **tyres, shoes** and **valves**.

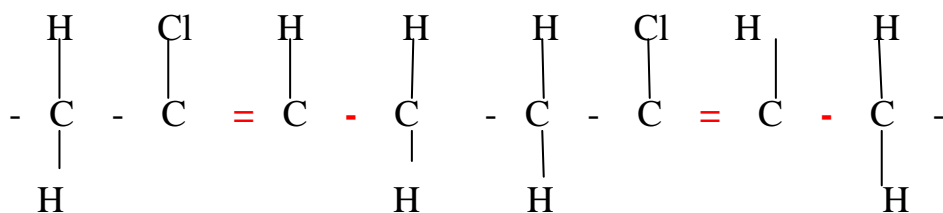
6. Formation of synthetic rubber

Synthetic rubber is able to resist action of oil, abrasion and organic solvents which rubber cannot.

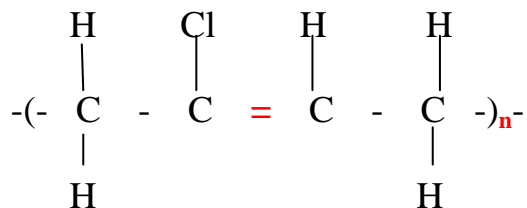
Common synthetic rubber is a polymer of 2-chlorobut-1,3-diene ;



During polymerization to synthetic rubber, one double C=C bond is broken to self add to another molecule. The double bond remaining move to carbon "2" thus;



Generally the structure of rubber is thus;



Rubber is thus strengthened through vulcanization and manufacture of synthetic rubber.

(b) Condensation polymerization

Condensation polymerization is the process where two or more small monomers join together to form a larger molecule by elimination/removal of a simple molecule. (usually water).

Condensation polymers acquire a different name from the monomers because the two monomers are two different compounds

During condensation polymerization:

(i) the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them.

(ii) monomers realign themselves at the functional group.

(iii) from each functional group an element is removed so as to form simple molecule (of usually H₂O/HCl)

(iv) the two monomers join without the simple molecule of H₂O/HCl

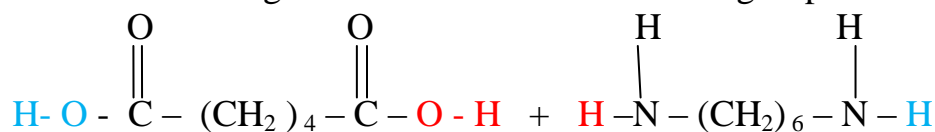
Examples of condensation polymerization

1. Formation of Nylon-6,6

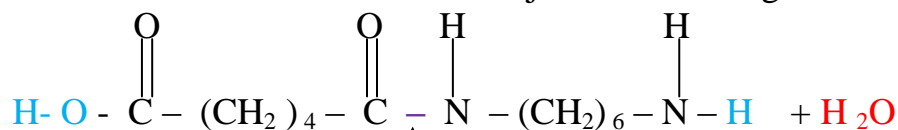
Method 1: Nylon-6,6 can be made from the condensation polymerization of hexan-1,6-dioic acid with hexan-1,6-diamine. Amines are a group of homologous series with a general formula R-NH₂ and thus -NH₂ as the functional group.

During the formation of Nylon-6,6:

(i) the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them and realign themselves at the functional groups.



(iii) from each functional group an element is removed so as to form a molecule of H₂O and the two monomers join at the linkage .



↑
Polymer bond linkage

Nylon-6,6 derive its name from the two monomers each with **six** carbon chain

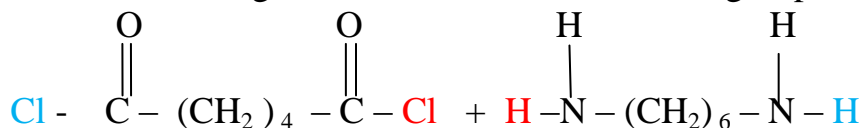
Method 2: Nylon-6,6 can be made from the condensation polymerization of hexan-1,6-dioyl dichloride with hexan-1,6-diamine.

Hexan-1,6-dioyl dichloride belong to a group of homologous series with a general formula R-OC_l and thus -OC_l as the functional group.

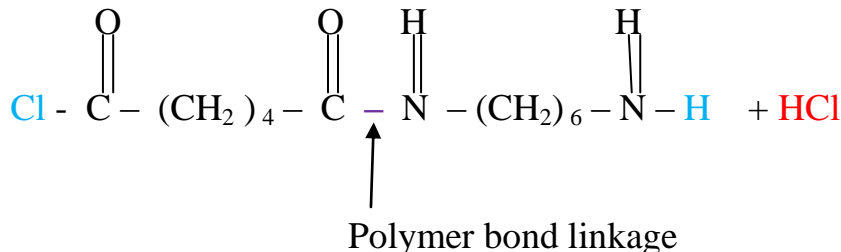
The R-OC_l is formed when the “OH” in R-OOH/alkanoic acid is replaced by Cl/chlorine/Halogen

During the formation of Nylon-6,6:

(i) the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them and realign themselves at the functional groups.



(iii) from each functional group an element is removed so as to form a molecule of HCl and the two monomers join at the linkage .



The two monomers each has **six** carbon chain hence the name “nylon-6,6”

The commercial name of Nylon-6,6 is **Nylon** It is a a tough, elastic and durable plastic. It is used to make **clothes, plastic ropes and carpets.**

2. Formation of Terylene

Method 1: Terylene can be made from the condensation polymerization of ethan-1,2-diol with benzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid.

Benzene-1,4-dicarboxylic acid a group of homologous series with a general formula R-COOH where R is a ring of six carbon atom called Benzene ring .The functional group is -COOH.

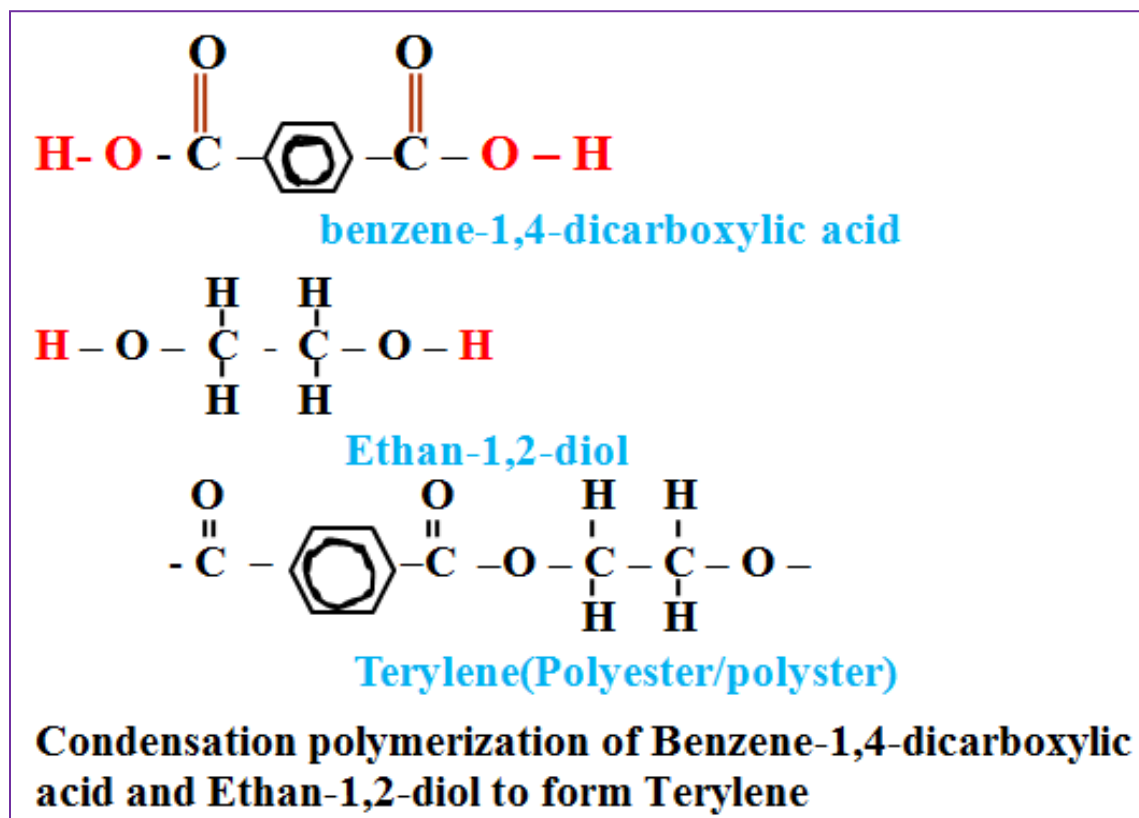
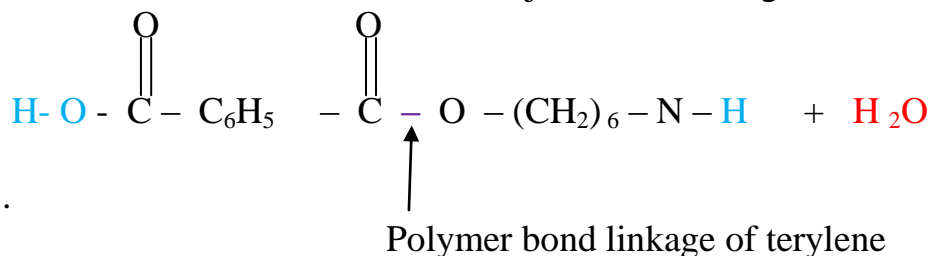
During the formation of Terylene:

(i) the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them and realign themselves at the functional groups.





(iii) from each functional group an element is removed so as to form a molecule of H₂O and the two monomers join at the linkage .



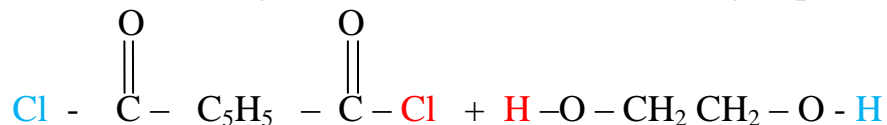
Method 2: Terylene can be made from the condensation polymerization of benzene-1,4-dieryl dichloride with ethan-1,2-diol.

Benzene-1,4-dieryl dichloride belong to a group of homologous series with a general formula R-OCl and thus -OCl as the functional group and R as a benzene ring.

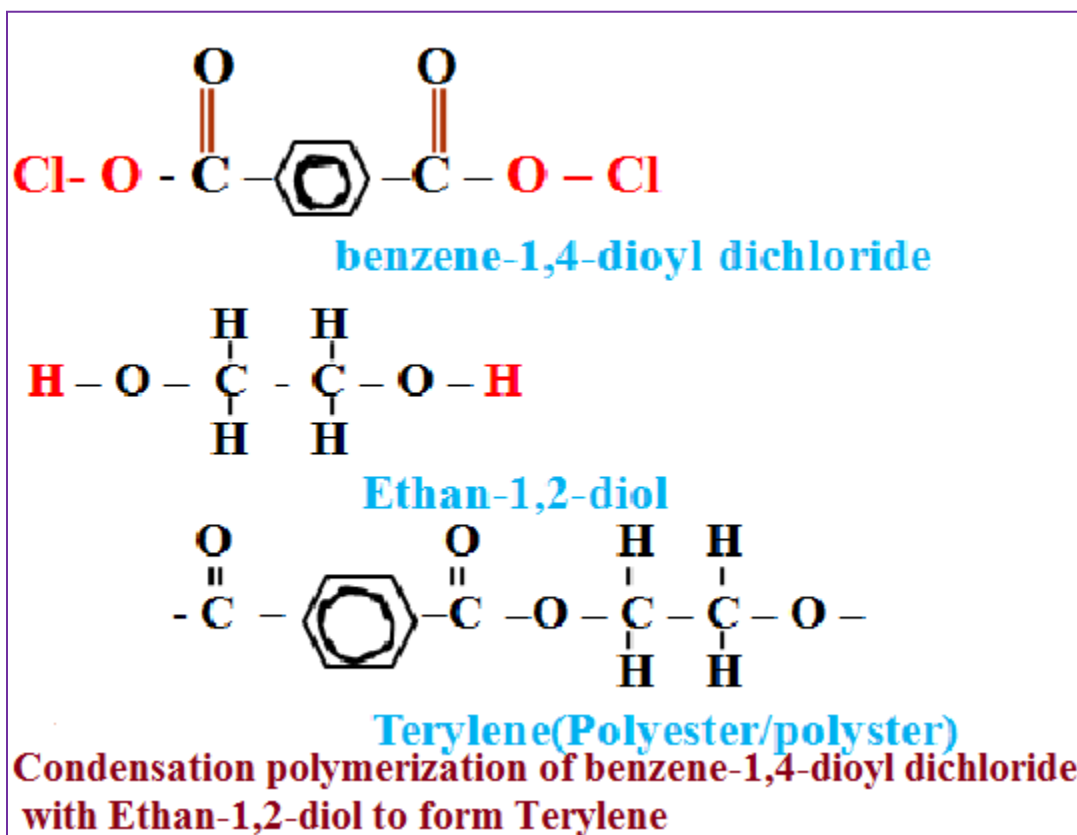
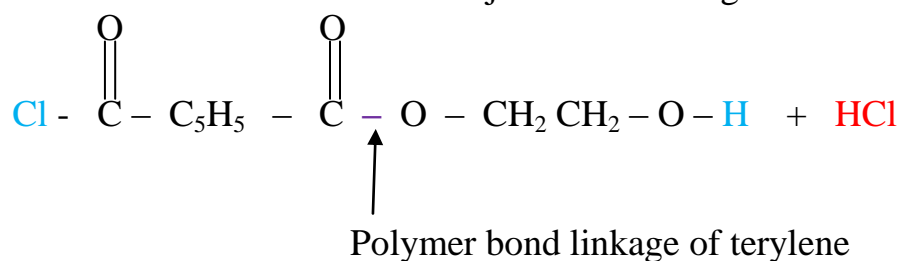
The R-OCl is formed when the "OH" in R-OOH is replaced by Cl/chlorine/Halogen

During the formation of Terylene

(i) the two monomers are brought together by high pressure to reduce distance between them and realign themselves at the functional groups.



(iii) from each functional group an element is removed so as to form a molecule of HCl and the two monomers join at the linkage.



The commercial name of terylene is **Polyester /polyster** It is a a tough, elastic and durable plastic. It is used to make **clothes, plastic ropes and sails** and **plastic model kits**.

Practice questions Organic chemistry

1. A student mixed equal volumes of Ethanol and butanoic acid. He added a few drops of concentrated Sulphuric (VI) acid and warmed the mixture

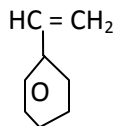
(i) Name and write the formula of the main products

Name.....

Formula.....

(ii) Which homologous series does the product named in (i) above belong?

2. The structure of the monomer phenyl ethene is given below:-



a) Give the structure of the polymer formed when four of the monomers are added together

b) Give the name of the polymer formed in (a) above

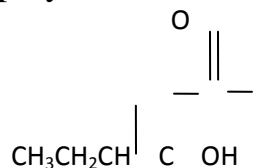
3. Explain the environmental effects of burning plastics in air as a disposal method

4. Write chemical equation to represent the effect of heat on ammonium carbonate

5. Sodium octadecanoate has a chemical formula $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_{16}\text{COO}^-\text{Na}^+$, which is used as soap.

Explain why a lot of soap is needed when washing with hard water

6. A natural polymer is made up of the monomer:



(a) Write the structural formula of the repeat unit of the polymer

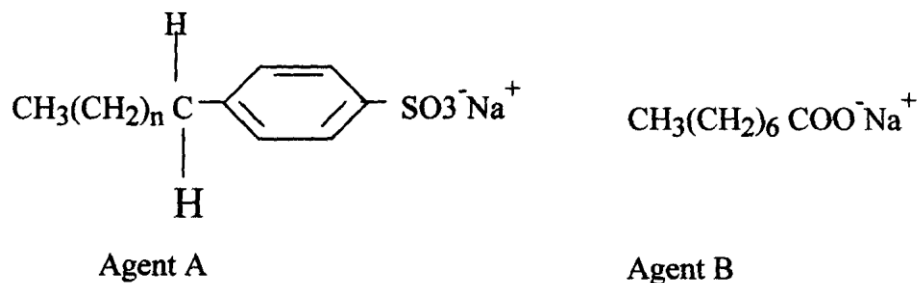
(b) When 5.0×10^{-5} moles of the polymer were hydrolysed, 0.515g of the monomer

were obtained.

Determine the number of the monomer molecules in this polymer.

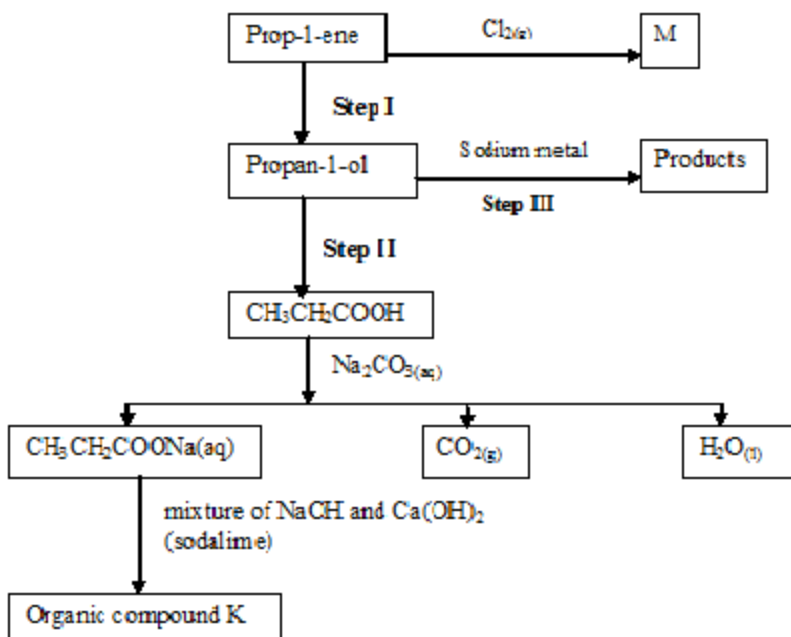
(C = 12; H = 1; N = 14; O =16)

7. The formula below represents active ingredients of two cleansing agents **A** and **B**

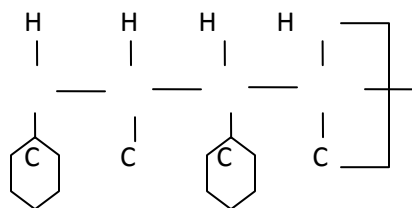


Which one of the cleansing agents would be suitable to be used in water containing magnesium hydrogen carbonate? Explain

(b) Study the flow chart below and use it to answer the questions that follow.



8. Study the polymer below and use it to answer the questions that follow:



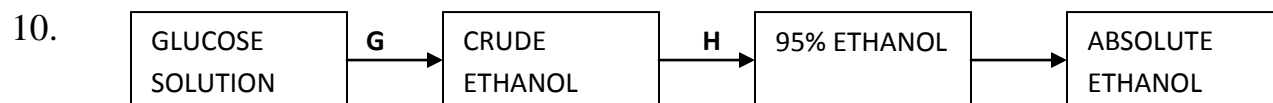
(a) Give the name of the monomer and draw its structures

(b) Identify the type of polymerization that takes place

(c) State **one** advantage of synthetic polymers

9. Ethanol and Pentane are miscible liquids. Explain how water can be used to separate a mixture

of ethanol and pentane



(a) What is absolute ethanol?

(b) State **two** conditions required for process **G** to take place efficiently

11. (a) (i) The table below shows the volume of oxygen obtained per unit time when hydrogen

peroxide was decomposed in the presence of manganese (IV) Oxide.

Use it to answer

the questions that follow:-

Time in seconds	Volume of Oxygen evolved (cm ³)
0	0
30	10
60	19
90	27
120	34
150	38
180	43
210	45
240	45
270	45
300	45

(i) Plot a graph of volume of oxygen gas against time

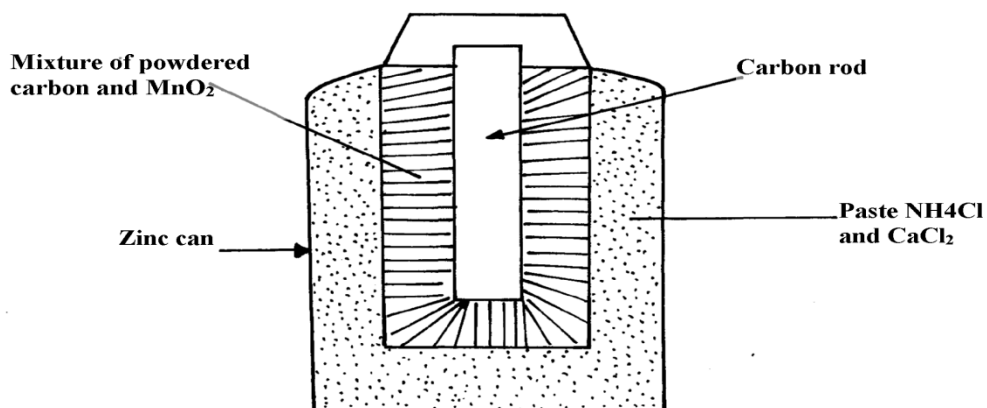
(ii) Determine the rate of reaction at time 156 seconds

(iii) From the graph, find the time taken for 18cm^3 of oxygen to be produced

(iv) Write a chemical equation to show how hydrogen peroxide decomposes in the presence

of manganese (IV) Oxide

(b) The diagram below shows how a Le'clanche (Dry cell) appears:-



(i) What is the function of MnO_2 in the cell above?

(ii) Write the equation of a reaction that occurs at the cathode

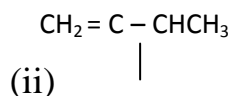
(iii) Calculate the mass of Zinc that is consumed when a current of 0.1 amperes flows

through the above cell for 30 minutes ($1F = 96500\text{c}$ $Zn = 65$)

12. (a) Give the IUPAC names of the following compounds:

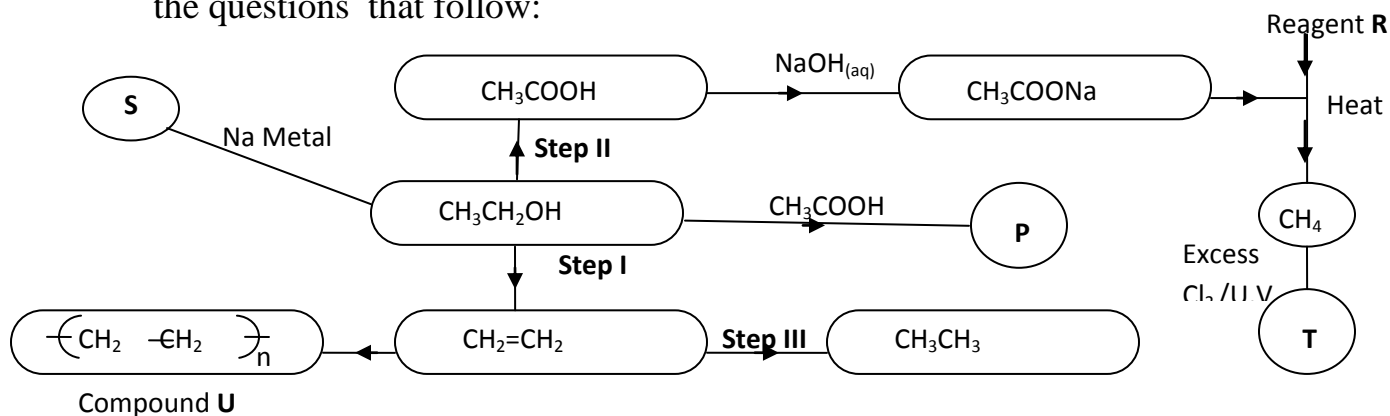


*



(b) The structure below shows some reactions starting with ethanol. Study it and answer

the questions that follow:



(i) Write the formula of the organic compounds **P** and **S**

*

(ii) Name the type of reaction, the reagent(s) and condition for the reactions in the following steps :-

(I) Step I

*

(II) Step II

*

(III) Step III

*

(iii) Name reagent **R**

..... *

(iv) Draw the structural formula of **T** and give its name

*

(v) (I) Name compound

U.....

(II) If the relative molecular mass of **U** is 42000, determine the value of **n** (**C**=12, **H**=1)

(c) State why C_2H_4 burns with a more smoky flame than C_2H_6

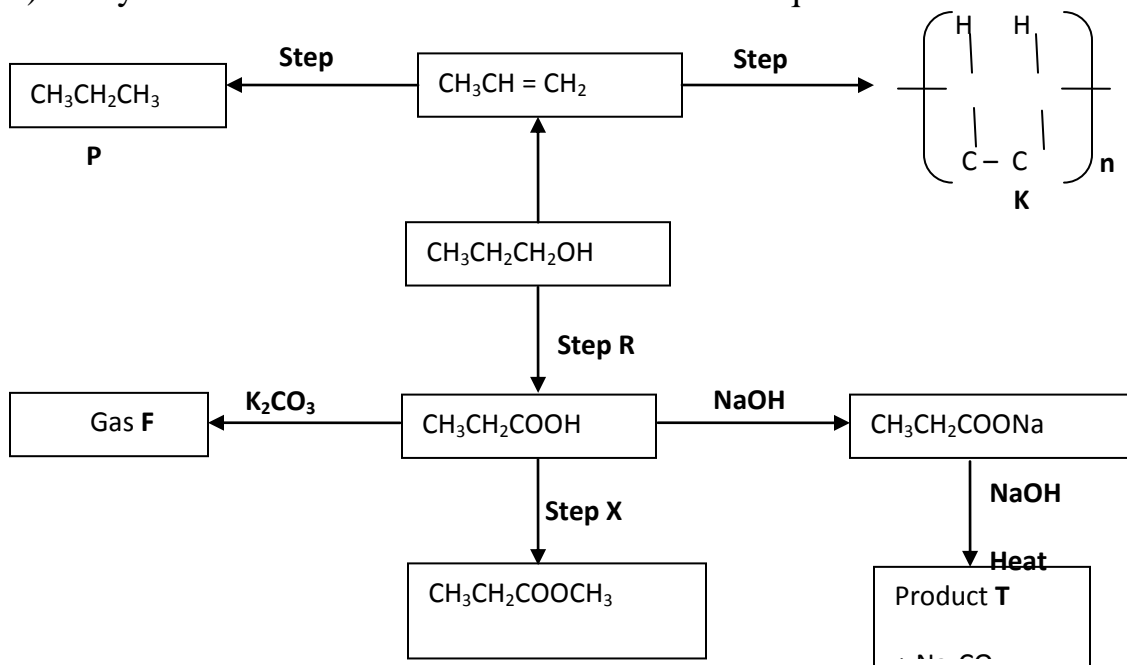
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13. a) State **two** factors that affect the properties of a polymer

b) Name the compound with the formula below :



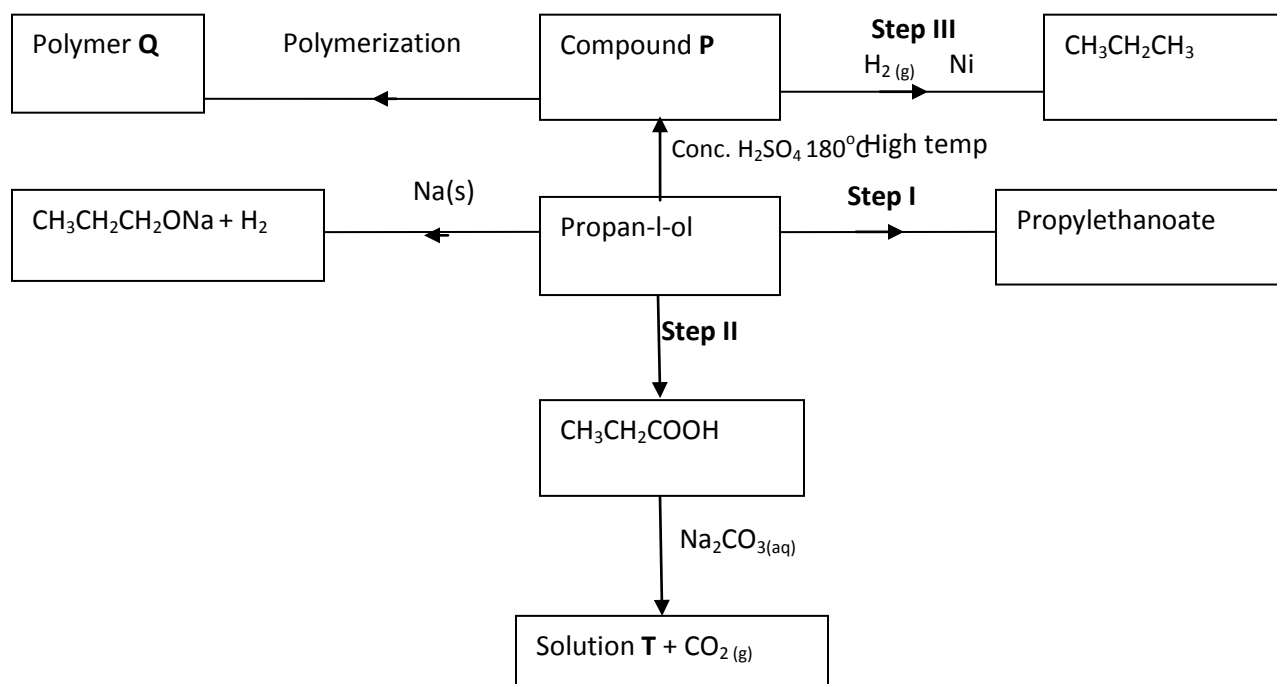
c) Study the scheme below and use it to answer the questions that follow:-



i) Name the following compounds:-

I. Product **T** II. **K**

- ii) State **one** common physical property of substance **G**
- iii) State the type of reaction that occurred in step **J**
- iv) Give **one** use of substance **K**
- v) Write an equation for the combustion of compound **P**
- vi) Explain how compounds $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$ and $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ can be distinguished chemically
- vii) If a polymer **K** has relative molecular mass of 12,600, calculate the value of **n** ($\text{H}=1$ $\text{C}=12$)
14. Study the scheme given below and answer the questions that follow:-



(a) (i) Name compound **P**

.....

(ii) Write an equation for the reaction between $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$ and Na_2CO_3

(b) State **one** use of polymer **Q**

(c) Name **one** oxidising agent that can be used in **step II**

.....

(d) A sample of polymer **Q** is found to have a molecular mass of 4200. Determine the number of

monomers in the polymer (H = 1, C = 12)

(e) Name the type of reaction in **step I**

.....

(f) State **one** industrial application of **step III**

(g) State how burning can be used to distinguish between propane and propyne.
Explain your

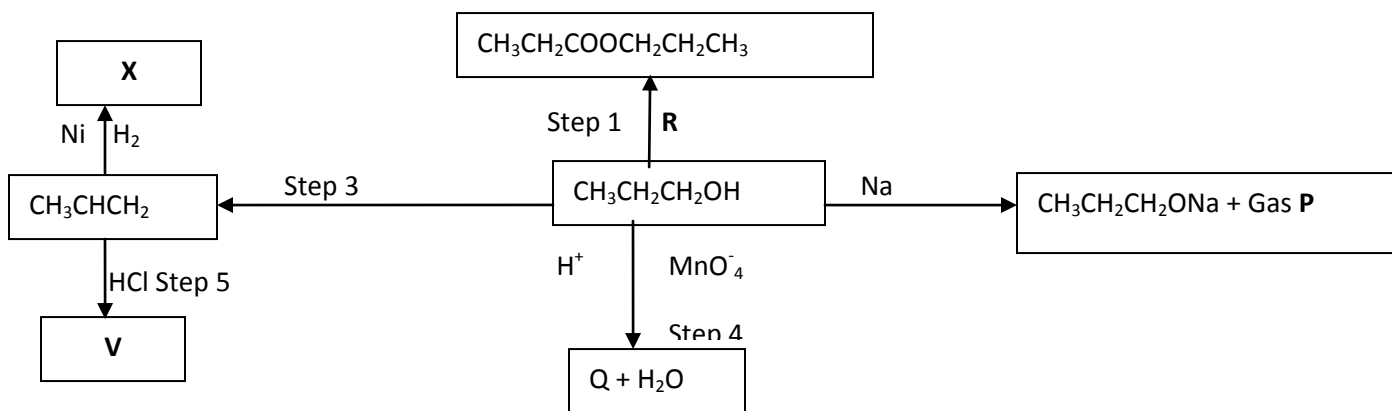
answer

(h) 1000cm^3 of ethene (C_2H_4) burnt in oxygen to produce Carbon (II) Oxide and water vapour.

Calculate the minimum volume of air needed for the complete combustion of ethene

(Air contains 20% by volume of oxygen)

15. (a) Study the schematic diagram below and answer the questions that follow:-



(i) Identify the following:

Substance Q

.....

Substance

R.....

Gas

P.....

(ii) Name:

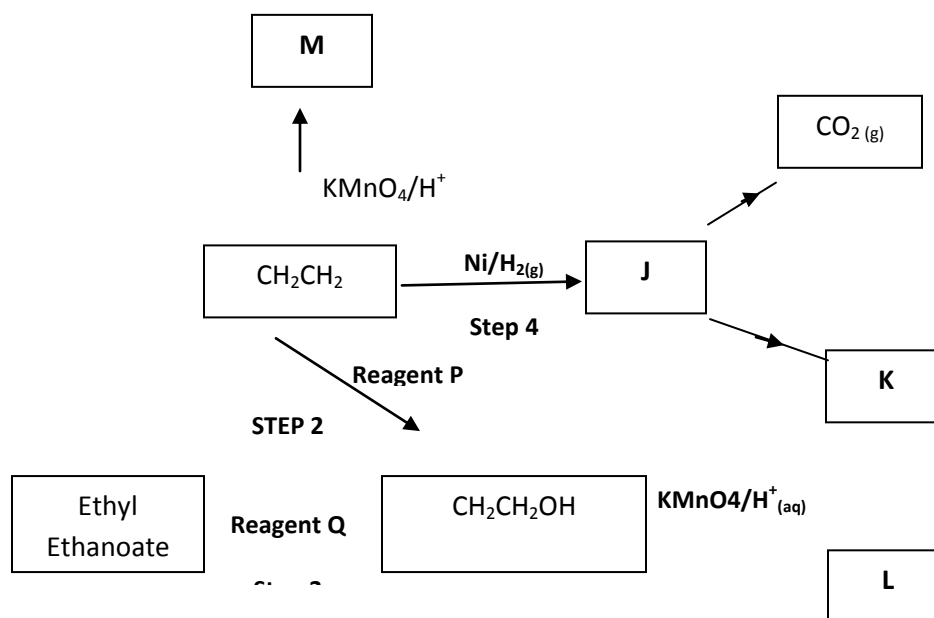
Step 1.....

Step 4.....

(iii) Draw the structural formula of the major product of step 5

(iv) State the condition and reagent in step 3

16. Study the flow chart below and answer the questions that follow





(a) (i) Name the following organic compounds:

M.....

L.....

(ii) Name the process in step:

Step 2

.....

Step 4

(iii) Identify the reagent **P** and **Q**

(iv) Write an equation for the reaction between $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$ and sodium

17. a) Give the names of the following compounds:

i) $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{OH}$

.....

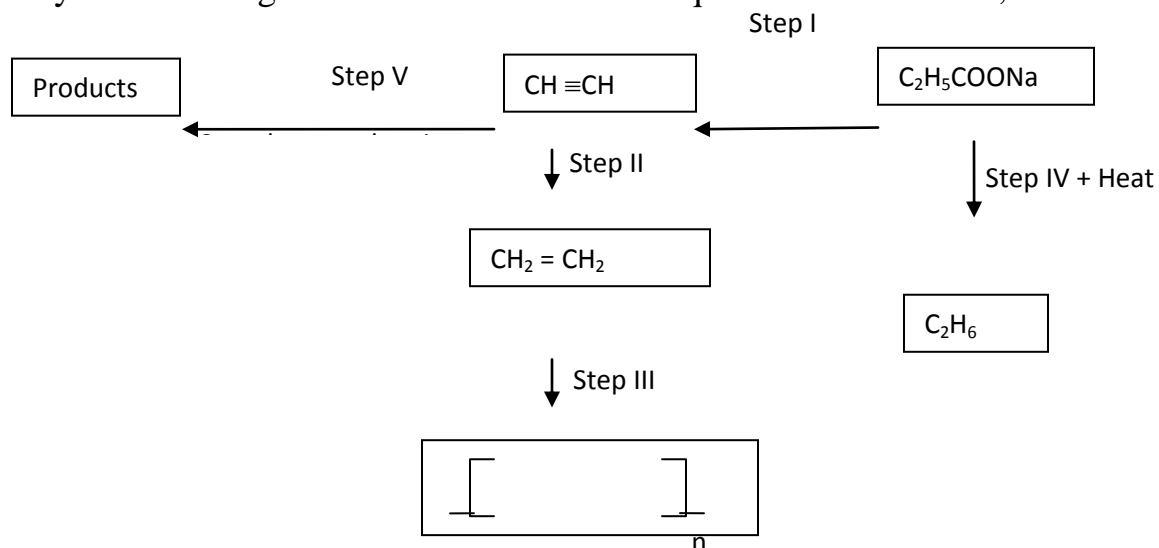
ii) $\text{CH}_3\text{CH}_2\text{COOH}$

.....

iii) $\text{CH}_3\text{C} - \text{O} - \text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$

.....

18. Study the scheme given below and answer the questions that follow;



i) Name the reagents used in:

Step I:

.....

Step II

.....

Step III

.....

ii) Write an equation to show products formed for the complete combustion of $\text{CH}=\text{CH}$

iii) Explain **one** disadvantage of continued use of items made from the compound formed

in step III

19. A hydrated salt has the following composition by mass. Iron 20.2 %, oxygen 23.0%,

sulphur 11.5%, water 45.3%

i) Determine the formula of the hydrated salt (Fe=56, S=32, O=16, H=11)

ii) 6.95g of the hydrated salt in **c(i)** above were dissolved in distilled water and the total

volume made to 250cm³ of solution. Calculate the concentration of the resulting salt solution

in moles per litre. (Given that the molecular mass of the salt is 278)

20. Write an equation to show products formed for the complete combustion of CH₂=CH₂

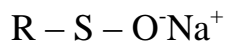
iii) Explain **one** disadvantage of continued use of items made from the compound formed

in step III

21. Give the IUPAC name for each of the following organic compounds;



22. The structure below represents a cleansing agent.



a) State the type of cleansing agent represented above

b) State **one** advantage and one disadvantage of using the above cleansing agent.

23. The structure below shows part of polymer .Use it to answer the questions that follow.

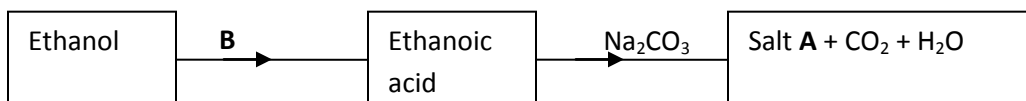




a) Derive the structure of the monomer

b) Name the type of polymerization represented above

24. The flow chart below represents a series of reactions starting with ethanoic acid:-



(a) Identify substances **A** and **B**

(b) Name the process **I**

25. a) Write an equation showing how ammonium nitrate may be prepared starting with

ammonia gas

(b) Calculate the maximum mass of ammonium nitrate that can be prepared using 5.3kg of

ammonia (H=1, N=14, O=16)

26. (a) What is meant by the term, esterification?

(b) Draw the structural formulae of **two** compounds that may be reacted to form ethylpropanoate

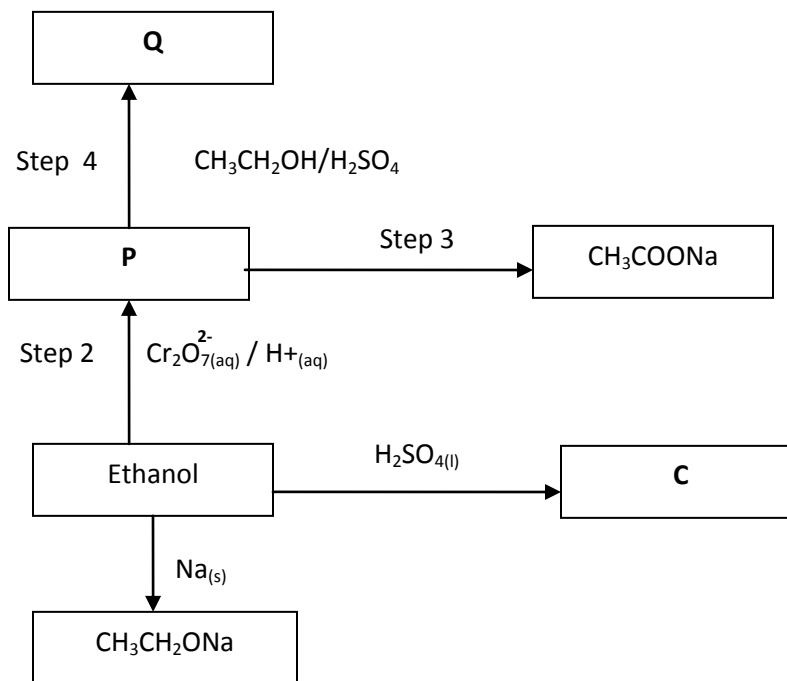
27. (a) Draw the structure of pentanoic acid

(b) Draw the structure and give the name of the organic compound formed when ethanol

reacts with pentanoic acid in presence of concentrated sulphuric acid

28. The scheme below shows some reactions starting with ethanol. Study it and answer the questions

that follow:-



(i) Name and draw the structure of substance Q

(ii) Give the names of the reactions that take place in **steps 2** and **4**

(iii) What reagent is necessary for reaction that takes place in step 3

29. Substances **A** and **B** are represented by the formulae **ROH** and **RCOOH** respectively.

They belong to two different homologous series of organic compounds. If both **A** and **B**

react with potassium metal:

(a) Name the common product produced by both

(b) State the observation made when each of the samples **A** and **B** are reacted with sodium

hydrogen carbonate

(i) **A**

(ii) **B**

30. Below are structures of particles. Use it to answer questions that follow. In each case only

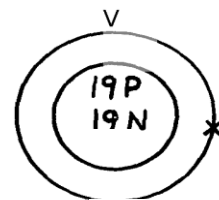
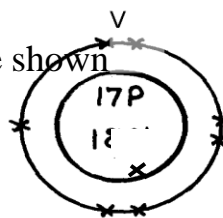
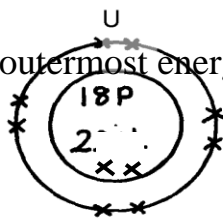
electrons in the outermost energy level are shown

key

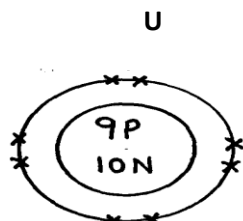
P = Proton

N = Neutron

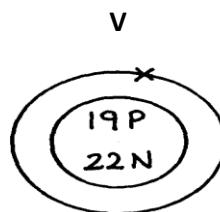
X = Electron



19P



Y



Z

W

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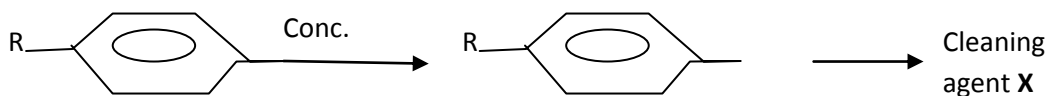
(a) Identify the particle which is an anion

31. Plastics and rubber are extensively used to cover electrical wires.

(a) What term is used to describe plastic and rubbers used in this way?

(b) Explain why plastics and rubbers are used this way

32. The scheme below represents the manufacture of a cleaning agent **X**



(a) Draw the structure of **X** and state the type of cleaning agent to which **X** belong

(b) State **one** disadvantage of using **X** as a cleaning agent

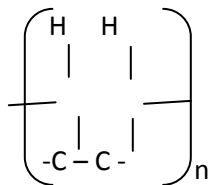
33. **Y** grams of a radioactive isotope take 120days to decay to 3.5grams. The half-life period

of the isotope is 20days

(a) Find the initial mass of the isotope

(b) Give **one** application of radioactivity in agriculture

34. The structure below represents a polymer. Study and answer the questions that follow:-



(i) Name the polymer
above.....

(ii) Determine the value of **n** if giant molecule had relative molecular mass of 4956

35. RCOO^-Na^+ and $\text{RCH}_2\text{OSO}_3^-\text{Na}^+$ are two types of cleansing agents;

i) Name the class of cleansing agents to which each belongs

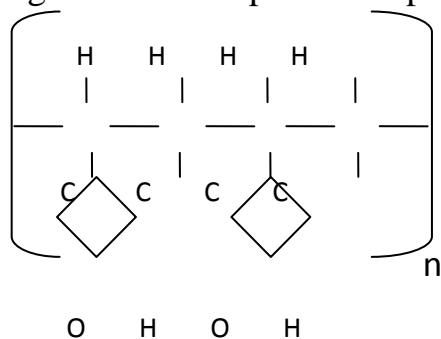
ii) Which one of these agents in (i) above would be more suitable when washing with water

from the Indian ocean. Explain

iii) Both sulphur (IV) oxide and chlorine are used bleaching agents. Explain the difference

in their bleaching properties

36. The formula given below represents a portion of a polymer



(a) Give the name of the polymer

(b) Draw the structure of the monomer used to manufacture the polymer

*******END*******

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