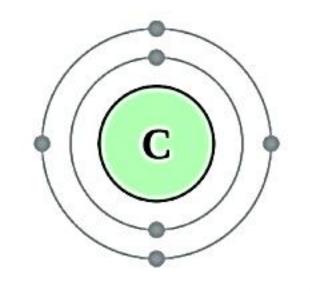


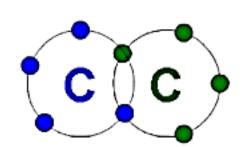
- · Most of the things are made up of compounds of carbon.
- All living structures and non-living structures such as food, clothes, medicines, books etc. are carbon based.
- When a carbon compound is burnt, CO<sub>2</sub> & water is produced. Presence of CO<sub>2</sub> can be confirmed by passing it through lime water which turns milky.
- Earth's crust has only 0.02% carbon (as minerals like carbonates, hydrogen carbonates, petroleum, coal etc.). The atmosphere has 0.03% CO<sub>2</sub>. But carbon has immense importance.

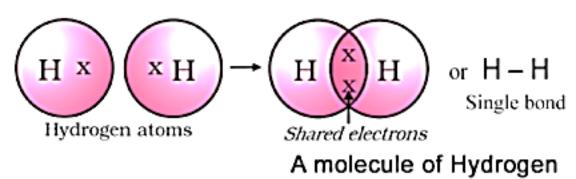
- Carbon compounds are poor conductors of electricity. So the bonding does not form ions. They have low melting & boiling points as compared to ionic compounds.
- Atomic number (Z) of Carbon= 6.
- Electronic configuration= 2, 4 (1s<sup>2</sup> 2s<sup>2</sup> 2p<sup>2</sup>).
- Carbon has 4 electrons in outermost shell.
- Gaining or losing 4 electrons is not possible to attain noble gas configuration because:
  - ✓ Gaining 4 electrons (C<sup>4-</sup> anion) makes it difficult to hold 6 protons and 10 electrons.
  - ✓ Losing 4 electrons (C⁴+ cation) needs high energy to leave 6 protons and two electrons.

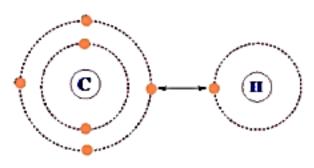
Carbon Compounds	Melting point (K)	Boiling point (K)
Acetic acid (CH <sub>3</sub> COOH)	290	391
Chloroform (CHCl <sub>3</sub> )	209	334
Ethanol (CH <sub>3</sub> CH <sub>2</sub> OH)	156	351
Methane (CH <sub>4</sub> )	90	111



- This problem is overcome by sharing valence electrons with other atoms of carbon or other elements. Thus both atoms attain noble gas configuration.
- The simplest molecule formed by the sharing of valence electrons is that of hydrogen (Z= 1).
  It has one electron in K shell and needs one more electron to fill the K shell. So two hydrogen atoms share their electrons to form a hydrogen molecule (H<sub>2</sub>) and attain nearest noble gas (helium- 2 electrons in K shell) configuration.
- To represent valence electrons, dots or crosses are used.
- The shared pair of electrons constitute a covalent bond between 2 hydrogen atoms. It is represented by a line.

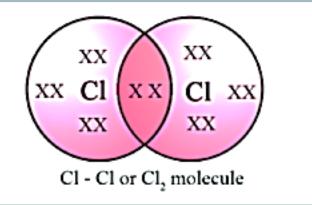






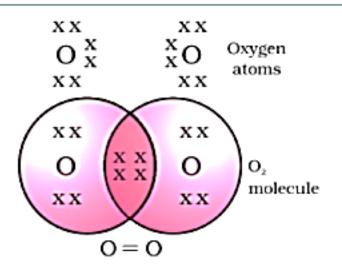
Electron dot structure of Chlorine

- Atomic number = 17.
- Electronic configuration= 2, 8, 7 (7 electrons in valence shell). It forms a diatomic molecule (Cl<sub>2</sub>).



Electron dot structure of Oxygen

- Atomic number = 8. It has 6 electrons in L shell.
- It requires two more electrons to complete its octet.
- So the oxygen atom shares 2 electrons with another oxygen atom forming double bond.

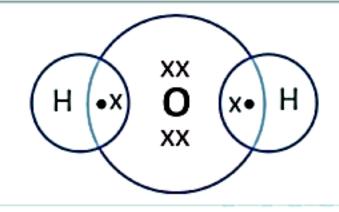


Double bond between two oxygen atoms

Н

### **BONDING IN CARBON – THE COVALENT BOND**

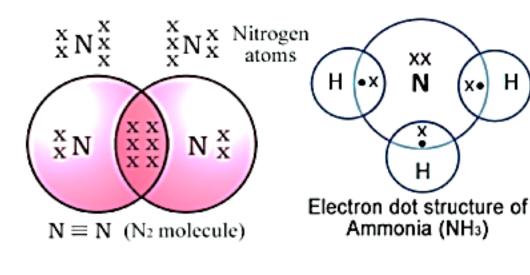
**Electron dot** structure of water (H<sub>2</sub>O)



H - O - H

Electron dot structure of Nitrogen

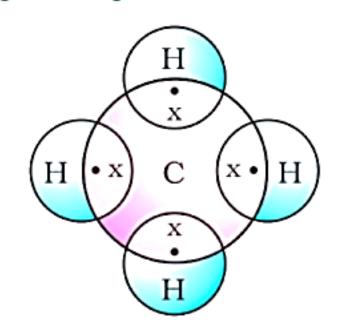
- Atomic number = 7.
- Electronic configuration = 2, 5.
- It forms a diatomic molecule  $(N_2)$ .
- To attain an octet, each nitrogen atom in a nitrogen molecule contributes 3 electrons forming triple bond.



Carbon and its Compounds

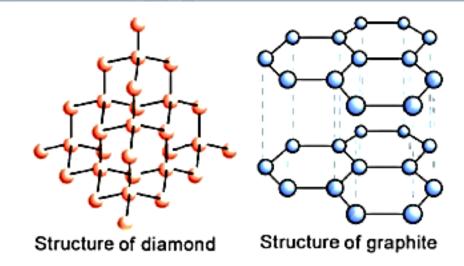
### Electron dot structure for Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>)

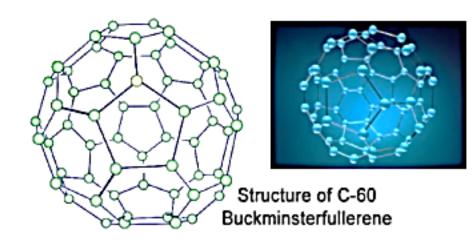
- Methane is one of the simplest compounds of carbon.
- It is used as a fuel and is a major component of biogas and Compressed Natural Gas (CNG).
- Valency of Hydrogen= 1. Valency of Carbon= 4.
- Carbon shares these electrons with 4 hydrogen atoms to get noble gas configuration.
- The bonds formed by sharing of an electron pair between two atoms are called covalent bonds.
- Covalently bonded molecules have strong bonds within the molecule, but intermolecular forces are weak. This gives rise to the low melting & boiling points.
- Since the electrons are shared between atoms and no charged particles are formed, covalent compounds are generally poor conductors of electricity.



### Allotropes (different forms) of carbon

- E.g. Diamond, Graphite & Fullerenes.
- Diamond: In this, each carbon atom is bonded to four other carbon atoms forming rigid three-dimensional structure.
- Graphite: In this, each carbon atom is bonded to three
   other carbon atoms in the same plane giving a
   hexagonal array. One bond is double-bond to satisfy
   valency. Hexagonal arrays are placed in layers one
   above the other.





### Allotropes (different forms) of carbon

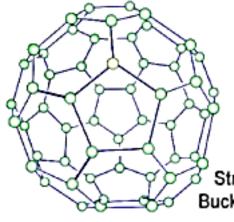
- Diamond & Graphite have different physical properties but same chemical properties.
- Diamond is the hardest substance. Graphite is smooth and slippery and a very good conductor of electricity.
- Synthetic diamonds can be produced by subjecting pure carbon to very high pressure and temperature. These are small but indistinguishable from natural diamonds.
- Fullerenes: The first identified one was C-60 which has carbon atoms arranged as a football. This looked like the geodesic dome designed by US architect Buckminster
   Fuller. So it was named fullerene.

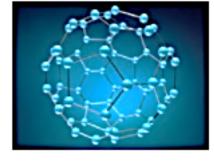






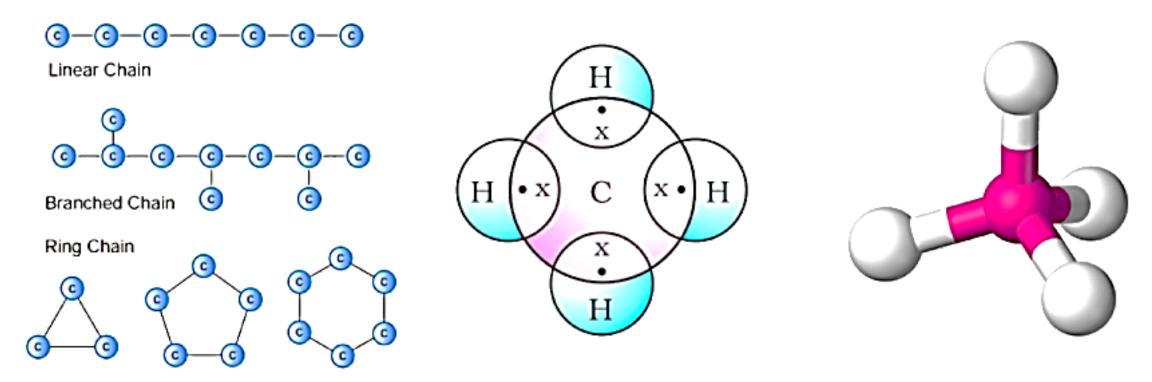
Graphite





Structure of C-60
Buckminsterfullerene

- Carbon has two unique properties called Catenation & Tetravalency. So it can form millions
  of compounds.
- This outnumbers the compounds formed by all the other elements put together.



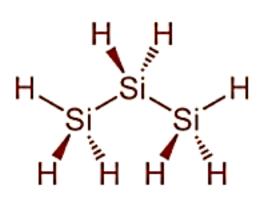
Catenation property of carbon

Tetravalency of carbon

#### 1. Catenation

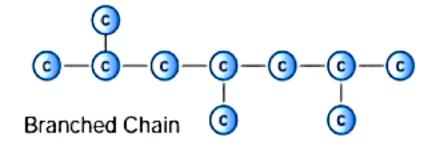
- It is ability of carbon to form bonds with other atoms of carbon, giving rise to large molecules.
- They may be long chains, branched chains or ring forms.
- No other element exhibits catenation like carbon.

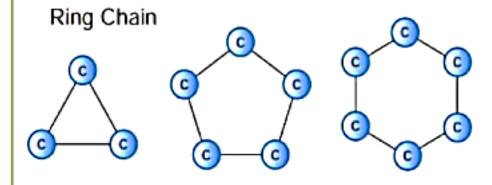
Silicon forms compounds with hydrogen which have chains of up to 7 or 8 atoms, but these are very reactive. Carbon-carbon bond is very strong & stable. This gives large number of compounds.





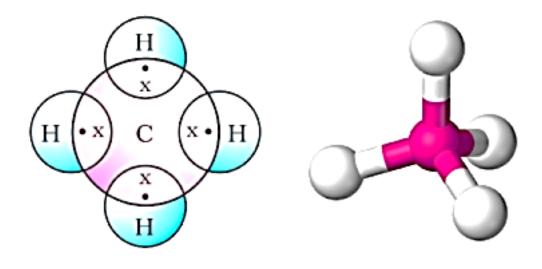
Linear Chain

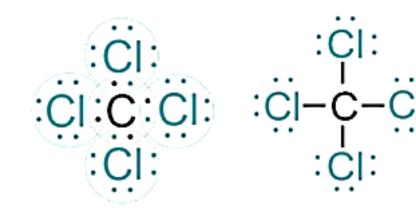




### 2. Tetravalency

- Carbon can bond with four other atoms of carbon or some other monovalent elements.
- Carbon compounds are formed with oxygen, hydrogen, nitrogen, sulphur, chlorine etc. giving specific properties.
- Carbon atom is small sized. So the nucleus can hold the shared pairs of electrons strongly. So carbon can make very stable compounds with other elements. The bonds formed by elements having bigger atoms are weaker.

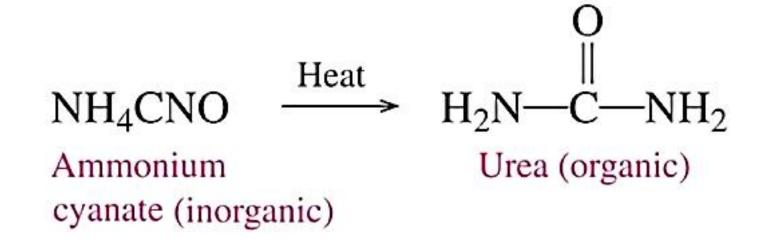




- It was thought that organic or carbon compounds could only be formed with the help of a
  vital force (i.e., a living system is needed).
- Friedrich Wöhler (1828) disproved this by preparing urea from ammonium cyanate.
- But carbon compounds, except for carbides, oxides of carbon, carbonate and hydrogencarbonate salts are studied under organic chemistry.



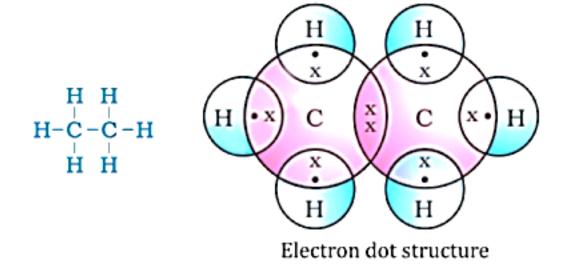
Friedrich Wöhler

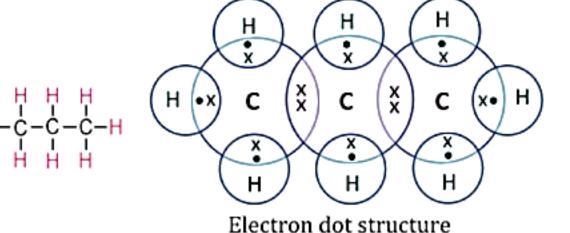


### Saturated and Unsaturated Carbon Compounds

# Saturated compounds

- They are linked by only single bonds between the carbon atoms.
- These are not very reactive. E.g. Ethane (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub>).





Structure of ethane

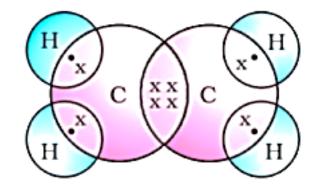
Structure of propane (C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub>)

### Saturated and Unsaturated Carbon Compounds

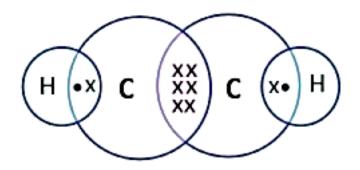
Unsaturated compounds

- They have double or triple bonds between carbon atoms.
- · They are more reactive. E.g.
  - ❖ Ethene (C₂H₄): It needs double bond to satisfy the valency.
  - **Ethyne** ( $C_2H_2$ ): It has triple bond between carbon atoms to satisfy the valency (H C  $\equiv$  C H).

Structure of ethene



Electron dot structure



Electron dot structure for ethyne

### **Chains, Branches and Rings**

There are number of chains of carbon atoms. E.g.

No. of C atoms	Name	Formula	Structure	No. of C atoms	Name	Form
1	Methane	$\mathrm{CH_4}$	H H-C-H H	4	Butane	C <sub>4</sub> H
2	Ethane	$C_2H_6$	H H H-C-C-H H H	5	Pentane	C <sub>5</sub> H
3	Propane	$C_3H_8$	H H H H-C-C-C-H H H H	6	Hexane	C <sub>6</sub> H

No. of C atoms	Name	Formula	Structure
4	Butane	C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>10</sub>	H H H H H-C-C-C-C-H H H H H
5	Pentane	$C_5H_{12}$	H H H H H H-C-C-C-C-C-H H H H H H
6	Hexane	$C_{6}H_{14}$	H H H H H H H-C-C-C-C-C-H H H H H H H

### **Chains, Branches and Rings**

Carbon 'skeleton' of 4 carbon atoms has two forms:

These structures have same formula  $C_4H_{10}$ . Such compounds with identical molecular formula but different structures are called structural isomers.

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Complete molecules for two structures with formula C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>10</sub>

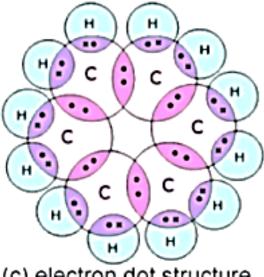
# Chains, Branches and Rings

Some compounds have carbon atoms arranged in the form of a ring. E.g., cyclohexane  $(C_6H_{12}).$ 

### Structure of Cyclohexane

(a) carbon skeleton

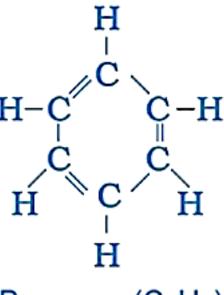
(b) complete molecule



(c) electron dot structure

# **Chains, Branches and Rings**

- Straight chain, branched chain & cyclic compounds may be saturated or unsaturated. E.g. benzene (C<sub>6</sub>H<sub>6</sub>).
- All carbon compounds that contain only carbon and hydrogen are called hydrocarbons.
- Saturated hydrocarbons are called alkanes.
- The unsaturated hydrocarbons which contain one or more double bonds are called alkenes. Those containing one or more triple bonds are called alkynes.



Benzene (C6H6)

# Will you be my Friend?

- Carbon also bonds with other elements such as halogens, oxygen, nitrogen & sulphur.
- In a hydrocarbon chain, one or more hydrogens are replaced by these elements. The
  element replacing hydrogen is called a heteroatom.
- Heteroatoms and the group containing these give specific properties to the compound, regardless of the length and nature of the chain. So they are called functional groups.



# Will you be my Friend?

#### Some functional groups in carbon compounds

Hetero atom	Class of compounds	Formula of functional group
Cl/Br	Halo- (Chloro/bromo) alkane	—Cl, —Br (substitutes for hydrogen atom)
	1. Alcohol	—ОН
Oxygen	2. Aldehyde	-c O
	3. Ketone	O -C-
	4. Carboxylic acid	-C-OH O

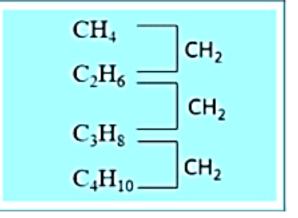
Free valency or valencies of the group are shown by the **single line**. The functional group is attached to the carbon chain through this valency.

### Homologous Series

- A functional group such as alcohol decides the properties of the carbon compound. E.g. chemical properties of CH<sub>3</sub>OH, C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>5</sub>OH, C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>7</sub>OH and C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>9</sub>OH are very similar.
- Such a series of compounds in which the same functional group substitutes for hydrogen in a carbon chain is called a homologous series.

Homologous series for alkanes Succeeding members differ by a -CH<sub>2</sub> unit. E.g.

- ❖ CH<sub>4</sub> and C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>6</sub> differ by a –CH<sub>2</sub> unit
- ❖ C₂H<sub>6</sub> and C₃H<sub>8</sub> differ by a –CH₂ unit
- ❖ C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>8</sub> and C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>10</sub> differ by a −CH<sub>2</sub> unit

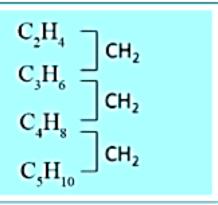


They show a difference of 14 U in molecular masses b/w the pairs (atomic mass of carbon = 12 u, hydrogen = 1 u).

### Homologous Series

Homologous series for alkenes

- They also differ by a –CH<sub>2</sub> unit.
- First member is ethene (C<sub>2</sub>H<sub>4</sub>).
- Succeeding members are C<sub>3</sub>H<sub>6</sub>, C<sub>4</sub>H<sub>8</sub>, C<sub>5</sub>H<sub>10</sub> etc.



- General formula for alkenes is  $C_nH_{2n}$  [n = 2, 3, 4].
- General formula for alkanes is C<sub>n</sub>H<sub>2n+2</sub>
- General formula for alkynes is C<sub>n</sub>H<sub>2n-2</sub>

As the molecular mass increases, physical properties such as melting & boiling points, solubility in solvent etc. also increase. But chemical properties remain similar.

# Homologous Series

Homologous series of Alcohols

Compounds	Difference in formula	Difference in molecular mass	
CH₃OH & C₂H₅OH	−CH <sub>2</sub> -	14 U	
C <sub>2</sub> H <sub>5</sub> OH & C <sub>3</sub> H <sub>7</sub> OH	-CH <sub>2</sub> -	14 U	
C₃H <sub>7</sub> OH & C₄H <sub>9</sub> OH	−CH <sub>2</sub> -	14 U	
C <sub>4</sub> H <sub>9</sub> OH & C <sub>5</sub> H <sub>11</sub> OH	−CH <sub>2</sub> -	14 U	

### Nomenclature of Carbon Compounds

#### Method of naming a carbon compound:

- Identify number of carbon atoms. E.g. three-carbon compound is named as propane.
- 2. Presence of functional group is indicated by a prefix or a suffix.
- If the suffix of the functional group begins with a vowel, the final letter 'e' is deleted from the name of the carbon chain.
   E.g., Propane with a ketone group is named as

Propane - 'e' = propan + 'one' = propanone

 For unsaturated carbon chain, the final 'ane' is substituted by 'ene' or 'yne'. E.g., propene (double bond), propyne (triple bond) etc.

Functional Group	<u>Prefix</u>	Suffix
Carboxylic Acid	carboxy-	-oic acid
Ester	alkoxycarbonyl-	-oate
Acyl Halide	halocarbonyl-	-oyl halide
Amide	amido-	-amide
Nitrile	cyano-	-nitrile
Aldehyde	охо-	-al
Ketone	keto/oxo	-one
Alcohol	hydroxy-	-ol
Amine	amino-	-amine
Ether	alkoxy-	-ether

Functional group	Prefix/suffix	example	
alkane	-ane	propane	
- 11		/\	
alkene	-ene or -en-	propene	
alkyne	-yne	— <u></u>	
		propyne	

# Nomenclature of Carbon Compounds

Nomenclature of organic compounds

Class of compounds	Prefix/Suffix	Example			
1. Halo alkane	Prefix-chloro, bromo, etc.	H H H H-C-C-C-C-CI H H H	Chloropropane	$\begin{array}{cccc} H & H & H \\ I & I & I \\ H - \overset{\cdot}{C} - \overset{\cdot}{C} - \overset{\cdot}{C} - Br \\ I & H & H \end{array}$	Bromopropane
2. Alcohol	Suffix - ol	Н Н Н Н-С-С-С-ОН Н Н Н	Propanol		
3. Aldehyde	Suffix - al	H H H H-C-C-C-O H H	Propanal		
4. Ketone	Suffix - one	Н Н Н-С-С-С-Н Н О Н	Propanone		
5. Carboxylic acid	Suffix - ole acid	н о н н н о н-с-с-с-он н н	Propanoic acid		
6. Alkenes	Suffix - ene	H - C - C = C H	Propene		
7. Alkynes	Suffix - yne	H H-C -C =C -H H	Propyne		

#### Combustion

 Carbon (all allotropic forms) & most carbon compounds burn in oxygen to give CO<sub>2</sub> releasing heat and light. These are oxidation reactions.

$$C + O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + \text{heat \& light}$$

$$CH_4 + 2O_2 \rightarrow CO_2 + 2H_2O + \text{heat \& light}$$

$$CH_3CH_2OH + 3O_2 \rightarrow 2CO_2 + 3H_2O + \text{heat \& light}$$

- Saturated hydrocarbons generally give a clean flame.
- Unsaturated carbon compounds give a yellow flame with black smoke or sooty deposit (carbon). E.g.
   Camphor & Naphthalene (unsaturated hydrocarbons) burn with yellow flame and leave residues.
- · Alcohol is saturated and burns with clean blue flame.



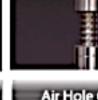


#### Combustion

- Light a Bunsen burner and adjust the air hole at the base to get different types of flames/presence of smoke.
- If there is no sufficient supply of air, it results in incomplete combustion of even saturated hydrocarbons giving a yellow, sooty flame. In presence of sufficient air with oxygen, it gives blue flame.
- The gas/kerosene stove has inlets for sufficient supply of air, the fuel is burnt to give a clean blue flame.
- Blackening of the bottom of cooking vessel indicates that the air holes are blocked and fuel is getting wasted.
- Coal and petroleum have some nitrogen & sulphur. Their combustion forms oxides of sulphur & nitrogen. They are major air pollutants.







Air Hole Open

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Air Hole Closed

#### Combustion

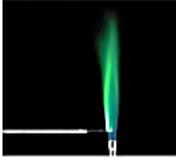
### Why do substances burn with or without a flame?

- A flame is produced only when gaseous substances burn. So a candle or LPG burns with a flame.
- Wood, coal or charcoal burn with a flame at first due to the volatile substances in them. After that they just glow red and gives out heat.
- Atoms of gas substance are heated and glow to produce flame.
   Each element produces characteristic colour. E.g. heating a copper wire in flame gives bluish green flame.
- Yellow colour of a candle flame is due to incomplete combustion of carbon particles. When light falls on them, they scatter yellow colour.





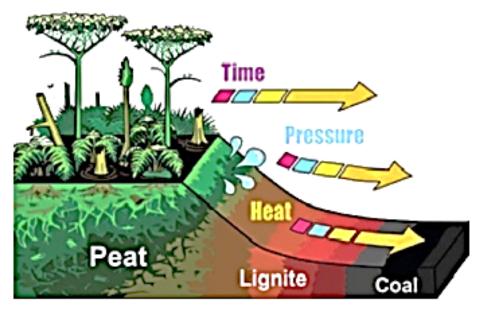


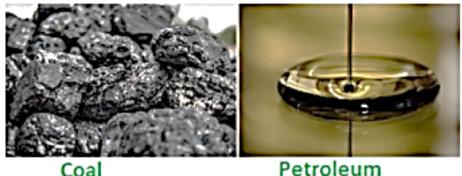


#### Combustion

### Formation of coal and petroleum (fossil fuels)

- Fossil fuels were formed from biomass by biological and geological processes.
- Millions of years ago, trees, ferns and other plants were crushed into the earth due to earthquakes or volcanic eruptions. They were pressed down by layers of earth and rock. They slowly decayed into coal.
- Dead marine tiny plants and animals sank to the sea bed and were covered by silt. Due to bacterial action, they turned into oil & gas under high pressure. The silt was compressed into rock. The oil & gas seeped into porous rock parts, and got trapped like water in a sponge.





#### **Oxidation**

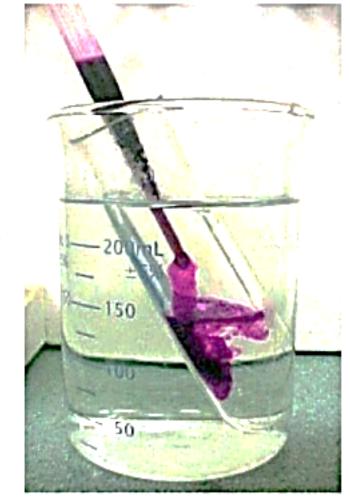
- · Carbon compounds are easily oxidised on combustion.
- Alcohols can be oxidised to carboxylic acids. Here, oxidising agents like alkaline potassium permanganate (KMnO<sub>4</sub>) or acidified potassium dichromate (K<sub>2</sub>Cr<sub>2</sub>O<sub>7</sub>) are used.

(Oxidising agents: The substances that can add oxygen to others).

- E.g. Take 3 mL ethanol in a test tube and warm gently in a water bath.
   Add a 5% solution of alkaline KMnO<sub>4</sub> drop by drop. Purple colour of KMnO<sub>4</sub> disappears initially.
- When more KMnO<sub>4</sub> is added, the colour persists because all the alcohol gets consumed and the reaction stops.

$$\mathsf{CH_3} - \mathsf{CH_2OH} \xrightarrow{Alkaline\ KMnO_4 + Heat} \mathsf{CH_3COOH}$$

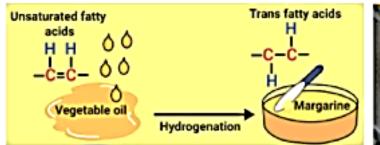
$$Or\ acidified\ K_2Cr_2O_7 + Heat$$



#### **Addition Reaction**

- Unsaturated hydrocarbons add hydrogen in the presence of catalysts such as palladium or nickel to give saturated hydrocarbons. (Catalysts: The substances that influences the rate of a reaction without changing itself).
- This reaction is commonly used in the hydrogenation of vegetable oils using a nickel catalyst.

- Vegetable oils generally have long unsaturated carbon chains (fatty acids). So they are healthy.
- Animal fats generally contain saturated fatty acids which are harmful to health.







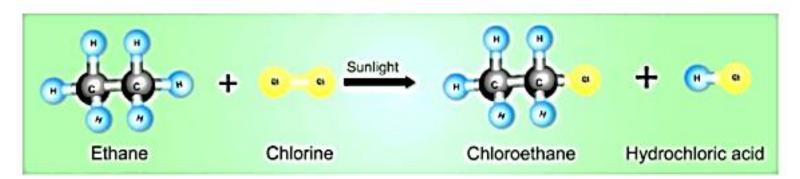


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#### **Substitution Reaction**

- Saturated hydrocarbons are unreactive and inert in the presence of most reagents.
- · However, in presence of sunlight, hydrocarbons undergo substitution reaction very fast. E.g.

CH<sub>4</sub> + Cl<sub>2</sub> → CH<sub>3</sub>Cl + HCl (in the presence of sunlight)



- Here, chlorine replaces the hydrogen atoms one by one.
- Higher homologues of alkanes can form many products.

### **Properties of Ethanol**

- Ethanol is liquid at room temperature.
- It is commonly called alcohol and is the active ingredient of all alcoholic drinks.
- It is a good solvent. So it is used in medicines such as tincture iodine, cough syrups, and tonics.
- · Ethanol is soluble in water in all proportions.





### **Properties of Ethanol**

- Consumption of small quantities of dilute ethanol causes drunkenness. Intake of even a small quantity of pure ethanol (absolute alcohol) is lethal. Longterm intake leads to many health problems.
- Ethanol for industrial use is made unfit for drinking by adding methanol. It is called denatured alcohol.
   Blue dyes are added to alcohol to identify easily.
- Some countries use alcohol as an additive in petrol since it is a cleaner fuel. It releases only CO<sub>2</sub> & water.









### Properties of Ethanol: Reactions of Ethanol

#### a. Reaction with sodium

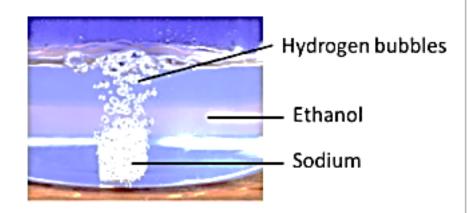
- Alcohols react with sodium evolving hydrogen.
- E.g. Drop a small piece of sodium into pure ethanol. It produces sodium ethoxide (2CH3CH2O-Na+) and H2.

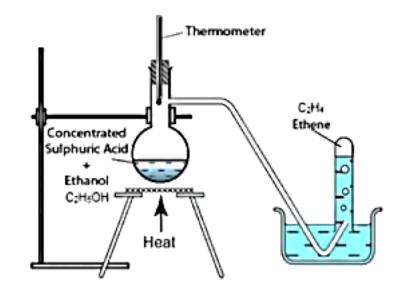
$$2Na + 2CH_3CH_2OH \rightarrow 2CH_3CH_2O-Na^+ + H_2$$

#### b. Reaction to give unsaturated hydrocarbon

Heating ethanol at 443 K with excess conc. H₂SO₄ results in dehydration of ethanol to give ethene. Conc. H<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub> is a dehydrating agent (removes water from ethanol).

$$CH_3 - CH_2OH \xrightarrow{Hot \ Conc \ .H2SO4} CH_2 = CH_2 + H_2O$$





### Properties of Ethanoic acid (Acetic acid)

- It belongs to carboxylic acids (weak acids).
- 5-8% solution of acetic acid in water is called vinegar. It is used as a preservative in pickles.







- The melting point of pure ethanoic acid is 290 K and hence it often freezes during winter. So it is known as glacial acetic acid.
- Acetic acid is weak acid and HCl is strong acid.





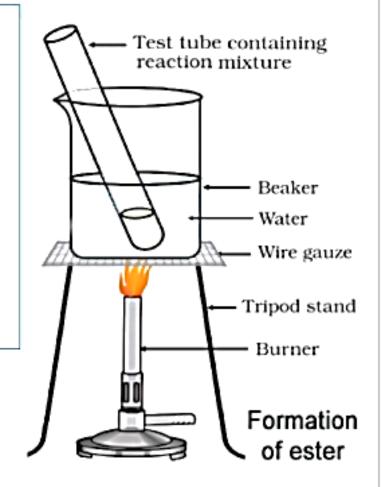
# Properties of Ethanoic acid (Acetic acid): Reactions of ethanoic acid

a. Esterification reaction

It is the formation of **esters** by reaction of an **acid** & an **alcohol**. E.g.

- Take 1 mL absolute ethanol + 1 mL glacial acetic acid (ethanoic acid) + few drops of conc. H₂SO₄ (acid catalyst) in a test tube.
- Warm in a water-bath for 5 minutes.
- Pour into a beaker containing 20-50 mL of water. The resulting mixture is an ester.

$$\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3\text{--COOH} + \text{CH}_3\text{--CH}_2\text{OH} \xrightarrow{\text{Acid}} \text{CH}_3\text{--C-C}_{11}\text{--CH}_2\text{--CH}_3\text{+-H}_2\text{O} \\ \text{(Ethanoic acid)} & \text{(Ethanol)} & \text{(Ester)} & \text{O} \end{array}$$



### Properties of Ethanoic acid (Acetic acid): Reactions of ethanoic acid

- Esters have sweet smell.
- Uses of esters: To make perfumes & as flavouring agents.
- On treating with NaOH (an alkali), the ester is converted back to alcohol and sodium salt of carboxylic acid. This is called saponification because it is used to prepare soap.



$$CH_3COOC_2H_5 \xrightarrow{NaOH} C_2H_5OH + CH_3COONa$$





### Properties of Ethanoic acid (Acetic acid): Reactions of ethanoic acid

b. Reaction with a base

Ethanoic acid reacts with a base like NaOH to give a salt (sodium ethanoate or sodium acetate) and water.

c. Reaction
with
carbonates
& hydrogen
carbonates

 Take a spatula full of sodium carbonate in a test tube and add 2 mL dilute ethanoic acid. Following reaction occurs:

$$2CH_3COOH + Na_2CO_3 \rightarrow 2CH_3COONa + CO_2 + H_2O_3$$

(Sodium acetate)

Ph: 9848143855

Pass the gas produced through lime-water. It turns milky. i.e., the gas is CO2.

· Reaction with sodium hydrogen carbonate:

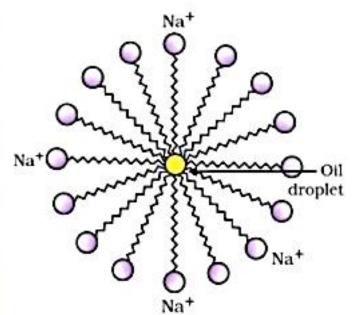
$$CH_3COOH + NaHCO_3 \rightarrow CH_3COONa + H_2O + CO_2$$

- Take 10 mL of water each in two test tubes A & B.
- · Add a drop of cooking oil to both the test tubes.
- · To the test tube B, add few drops of soap solution.
- Shake test tubes vigorously to get unclear mixtures.
- Leave the test tubes undisturbed for some time. Oil layer separates out in both test tubes. But this happens first in test tube A.
- This activity demonstrates the effect of soap in cleaning.
- Most dirt is oily and does not dissolve in water.



- Soap molecules are sodium / potassium salts of long-chain carboxylic acids.
- Ionic-end (hydrophilic) of soap interacts with water while carbon chain (hydrophobic tail)
  interacts with oil. The soap molecules, thus form structures called micelles. In this, one end
  of the molecules is towards the oil droplet and the ionic-end faces outside. It forms an
  emulsion in water. The soap micelle thus helps in pulling out the dirt in water and clothes
  become clean.

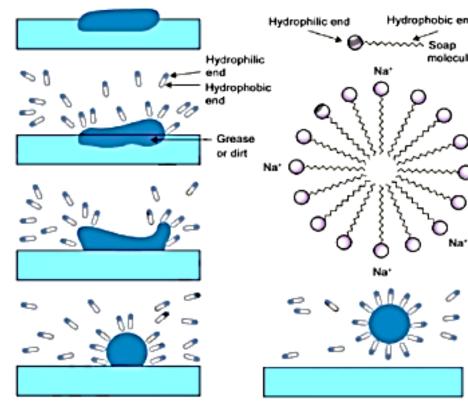




Formation of micelles

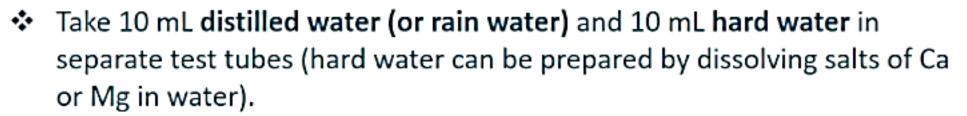
### Effect of soap in cleaning

- At the surface of water, soap aligns such that its ionic end is in water and hydrocarbon tail protrude out of water.
- Inside water, these molecules form clusters in which the hydrophobic tails are oriented towards interior and the ionic ends towards exterior. This cluster is called a micelle.
- The oily dirt is collected in the centre of micelle. The
  micelles stay as a colloid and will not come together to
  precipitate because of ion-ion repulsion. So, the dirt in
  micelles is easily rinsed away.
- The soap micelles are large enough to scatter light. Hence a soap solution appears cloudy.





- The water containing sulphates/ chlorides/ hydrogen carbonates of calcium or magnesium is called hard water. E.g. Water from tube well or hand-pump.
- It is difficult to produce foam by soaps in hard water. So bathing and washing become difficult. After washing, an insoluble substance (scum) remains in hard water. It can be demonstrated by the following experiment:



- Add few drops of soap solution to both and shake well for same period.
- Test tube with distilled water gets more foam.
- Test tube with hard water gets white curdy precipitate.
- This scum or precipitate is caused by the reaction of soap with the calcium and magnesium salts.

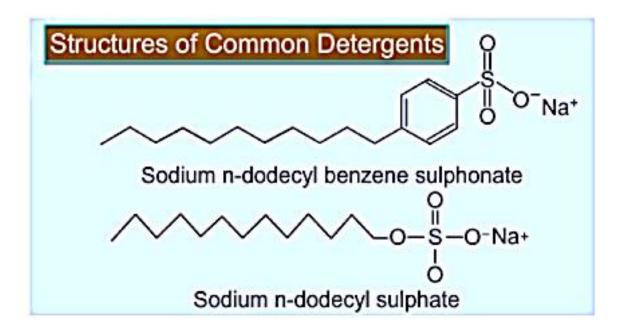




#### Detergents

- These are sodium salts of sulphonic acids or ammonium salts with chlorides or bromides ions, etc.
- Both have long hydrocarbon chain. Charged ends of these compounds do not form insoluble precipitates with Ca & Mg ions. Thus, they are also effective in hard water.





#### Detergents

- It can be demonstrated by the following experiment:
  - Take two test tubes with 10 mL hard water in each.
  - Add five drops of soap solution to one and five drops of detergent solution to the other.
  - Shake both test tubes for the same period.
  - The test tube with detergent gets more foam.
  - In test tube with soap, curdy precipitate is formed.



Uses of Detergents

To make **shampoos** and products to **clean clothes**.









