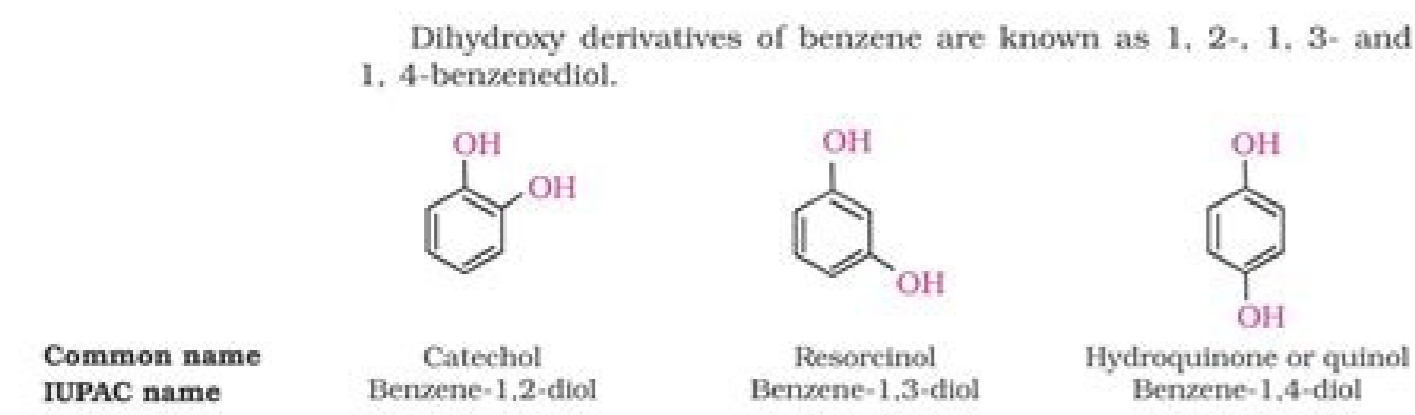
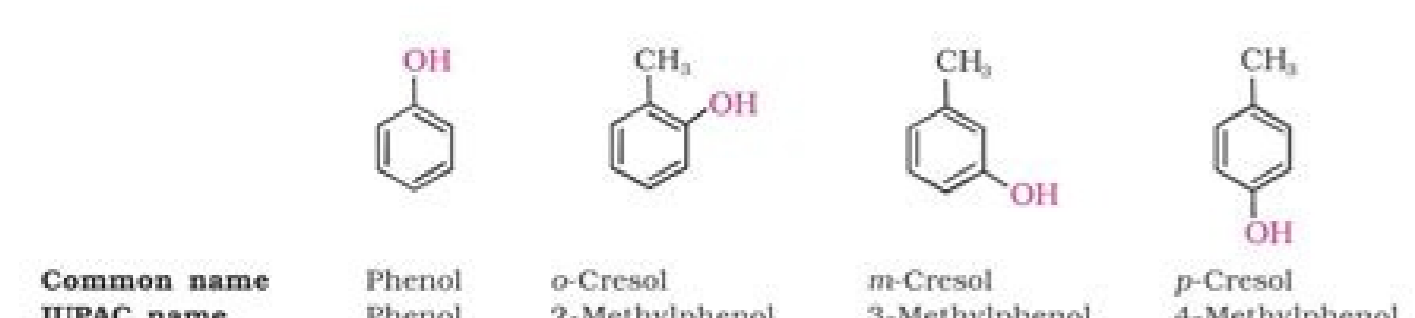


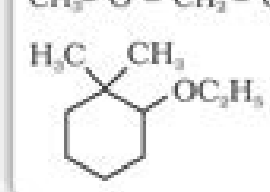
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(c) *Ethers*: Common names of ethers are derived from the names of alkyl/aryl groups written as separate words in alphabetical order and adding the word 'ether' at the end. For example, $\text{CH}_3\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5$ is ethylmethyl ether.

Compound	Common name	IUPAC name
CH_3OCH_3	Dimethyl ether	Methoxymethane
$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OC}_2\text{H}_5$	Diethyl ether	Ethoxyethane
$\text{CH}_3\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_2\text{CH}_3$	Methyl n-propyl ether	1-Methoxypropane
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{OCH}_3$	Methyl phenyl ether (Anisole)	Methoxybenzene (Anisole)
$\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OCH}_2\text{CH}_3$	Ethyl phenyl ether (Phenetole)	Ethoxybenzene
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{O}(\text{CH}_2)_6-\text{CH}_3$	Heptyl phenyl ether	1-Phenoxyheptane
$\text{CH}_3\text{O}-\underset{\text{CH}_3}{\text{CH}}-\text{CH}_3$	Methyl isopropyl ether	2-Methoxypropane
$\text{C}_6\text{H}_5-\text{O}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\underset{\text{CH}_3}{\text{CH}}-\text{CH}_3$	Phenyl isopentyl ether	3-Methylbutoxybenzene
$\text{CH}_3-\text{O}-\text{CH}_2-\text{CH}_2-\text{OCH}_3$	—	1,2-Dimethoxyethane
	—	2-Ethoxy-1,1-dimethylcyclohexane

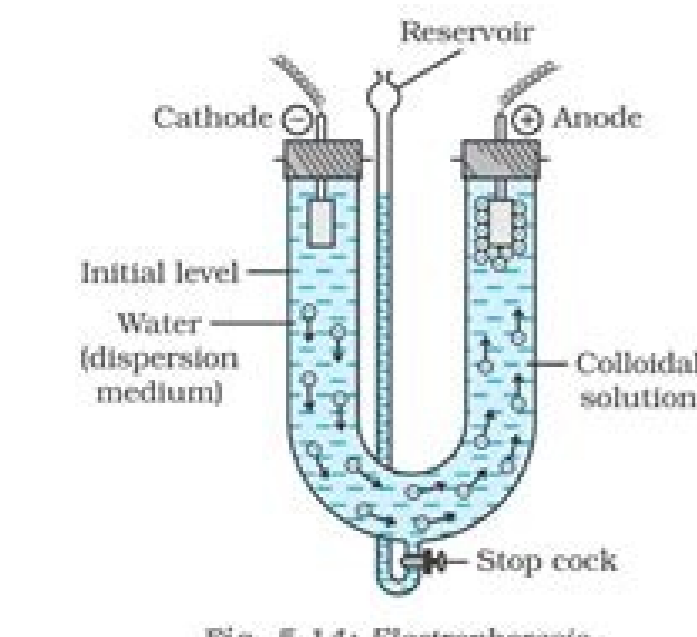


Fig. 5.14: Electrophoresis

particles move towards the anode. This can be demonstrated by the following experimental setup (Fig. 5.14).

When electrophoresis, i.e., movement of particles is prevented by some suitable means, it is observed that the dispersion medium begins to move in an electric field. This phenomenon is termed **electroosmosis**.

(vii) *Coagulation or precipitation*: The stability of the lyophobic sols is due to the presence of charge on colloidal particles. If, somehow, the charge is removed, the particles will come nearer to each other to form aggregates (or coagulate) and settle down under the force of gravity.

The process of settling of colloidal particles is called **coagulation or precipitation** of the sol.

The coagulation of the lyophobic sols can be carried out in the following ways:

- (i) *By electrophoresis*: The colloidal particles move towards oppositely charged electrodes, get discharged and precipitated.
- (ii) *By mixing two oppositely charged sols*: Oppositely charged sols when mixed in almost equal proportions, neutralise their charges and get partially or completely precipitated. Mixing of hydrated ferric oxide (+ve sol) and arsenious sulphide (-ve sol) bring them in the precipitated forms. This type of coagulation is called mutual coagulation.
- (iii) *By boiling*: When a sol is boiled, the adsorbed layer is disturbed due to increased collisions with the molecules of dispersion medium. This reduces the charge on the particles and ultimately leads to settling down in the form of a precipitate.
- (iv) *By persistent dialysis*: On prolonged dialysis, traces of the electrolyte present in the sol are removed almost completely and the colloids become unstable and ultimately coagulate.
- (v) *By addition of electrolytes*: When excess of an electrolyte is added, the colloidal particles are precipitated. The reason is that colloids interact with ions carrying charge opposite to that present on themselves. This causes neutralisation leading to their coagulation. The ion responsible for neutralisation of charge on the particles is called the coagulating ion. A negative ion causes the precipitation of positively charged sol and vice versa.

It has been observed that, generally, the greater the valence of the flocculating ion added, the greater is its power to cause precipitation. This is known as **Hardy-Schulze rule**. In the coagulation of a negative sol, the flocculating power is in the order: $\text{Al}^{3+} > \text{Ba}^{2+} > \text{Na}^+$

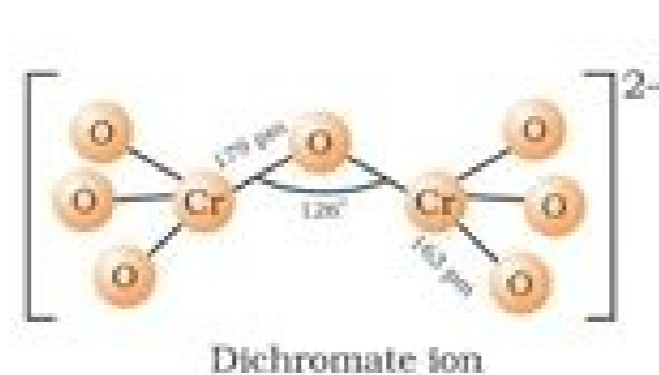
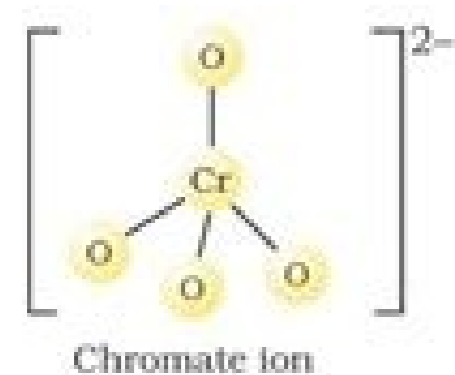
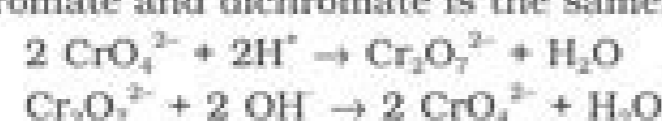
Similarly, in the coagulation of a positive sol, the flocculating power is in the order: $[\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6]^{4-} > \text{PO}_4^{3-} > \text{SO}_4^{2-} > \text{Cl}^-$

The minimum concentration of an electrolyte in millimoles per litre required to cause precipitation of a sol in two hours is called **coagulating value**. The smaller the quantity needed, the higher will be the coagulating power of an ion.

Sodium dichromate is more soluble than potassium dichromate. The latter is therefore, prepared by treating the solution of sodium dichromate with potassium chloride.



Orange crystals of potassium dichromate crystallise out. The chromates and dichromates are interconvertible in aqueous solution depending upon pH of the solution. The oxidation state of chromium in chromate and dichromate is the same.



The structures of chromate ion, CrO_4^{2-} and the dichromate ion, $\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7^{2-}$ are shown below. The chromate ion is tetrahedral whereas the dichromate ion consists of two tetrahedra sharing one corner with Cr-O-Cr bond angle of 126° .

Sodium and potassium dichromates are strong oxidising agents; the sodium salt has a greater solubility in water and is extensively used as an oxidising agent in organic chemistry. Potassium dichromate is used as a primary standard in volumetric analysis. In acidic solution, its oxidising action can be represented as follows:



Thus, acidified potassium dichromate will oxidise iodides to iodine, sulphides to sulphur, tin(II) to tin(IV) and iron(II) salts to iron(III). The half-reactions are noted below:



The full ionic equation may be obtained by adding the half-reaction for potassium dichromate to the half-reaction for the reducing agent, for e.g.,

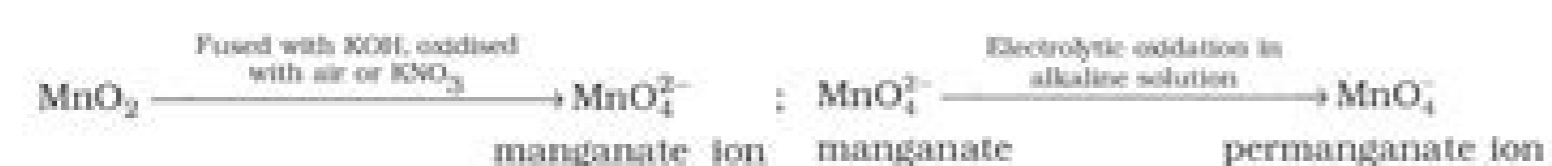


Potassium permanganate KMnO_4

Potassium permanganate is prepared by fusion of MnO_2 with an alkali metal hydroxide and an oxidising agent like KNO_3 . This produces the dark green K_2MnO_4 which disproportionates in a neutral or acidic solution to give permanganate.



Commercially it is prepared by the alkaline oxidative fusion of MnO_2 followed by the electrolytic oxidation of manganate (VI).



10.8 Polyhalogen Compounds

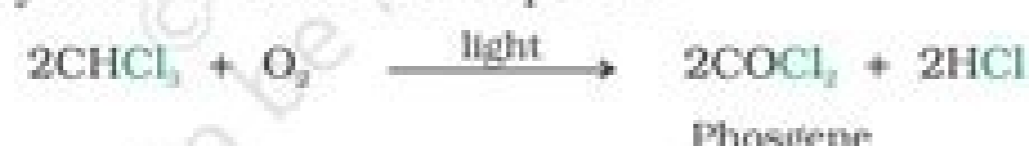
Carbon compounds containing more than one halogen atom are usually referred to as polyhalogen compounds. Many of these compounds are useful in industry and agriculture. Some polyhalogen compounds are described in this section.

10.8.1 Dichloromethane (Methylene chloride)

Dichloromethane is widely used as a solvent as a paint remover, as a propellant in aerosols, and as a process solvent in the manufacture of drugs. It is also used as a metal cleaning and finishing solvent. Methylene chloride harms the human central nervous system. Exposure to lower levels of methylene chloride in air can lead to slightly impaired hearing and vision. Higher levels of methylene chloride in air cause dizziness, nausea, tingling and numbness in the fingers and toes. In humans, direct skin contact with methylene chloride causes intense burning and mild redness of the skin. Direct contact with the eyes can burn the cornea.

10.8.2 Trichloromethane (Chloroform)

Chemically, chloroform is employed as a solvent for fats, alkaloids, iodine and other substances. The major use of chloroform today is in the production of the freon refrigerant R-22. It was once used as a general anaesthetic in surgery but has been replaced by less toxic, safer anaesthetics, such as ether. As might be expected from its use as an anaesthetic, inhaling chloroform vapours depresses the central nervous system. Breathing about 900 parts of chloroform per million parts of air (900 parts per million) for a short time can cause dizziness, fatigue, and headache. Chronic chloroform exposure may cause damage to the liver (where chloroform is metabolised to phosgene) and to the kidneys, and some people develop sores when the skin is immersed in chloroform. Chloroform is slowly oxidised by air in the presence of light to an extremely poisonous gas, carbonyl chloride, also known as phosgene. It is therefore stored in closed dark coloured bottles completely filled so that air is kept out.



10.8.3 Triiodomethane (Iodoform)

It was used earlier as an antiseptic but the antiseptic properties are due to the liberation of free iodine and not due to iodoform itself. Due to its objectionable smell, it has been replaced by other formulations containing iodine.

10.8.4 Tetrachloromethane (Carbon tetrachloride)

It is produced in large quantities for use in the manufacture of refrigerants and propellants for aerosol cans. It is also used as feedstock in the synthesis of chlorofluorocarbons and other chemicals, pharmaceutical manufacturing, and general solvent use. Until the mid 1960s, it was also widely used as a cleaning fluid, both in industry, as a degreasing agent, and in the home, as a spot remover and as fire extinguisher. There is some evidence that exposure to carbon tetrachloride causes liver cancer in humans. The most common effects are dizziness, light headedness, nausea and vomiting, which can cause permanent damage to nerve cells. In severe cases, these effects can lead rapidly to stupor, coma, unconsciousness or death. Exposure to CCl_4 can make the heart beat irregularly or stop. The chemical may irritate the eyes on contact. When carbon tetrachloride is released into the air, it rises to the atmosphere and depletes the ozone layer. Depletion of the

317 Haloalkanes and Haloarenes

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