



INTRODUCTION

CEB 4032: ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY
CFB3032: ANALYTICAL INSTRUMENTATION

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Chemical
Engineering

Inspiring Potential • Generating Futures

Outline

- Analytical Objectives
- Qualitative Analysis
- Quantitative Analysis
- Analytical Methodology
- Type of equipment which includes Gravimetry, Spectrophotometry, Spectroscopy and Chromatography.
- Basic Tools and Operation
- Data Handling and Statistic
- Errors

Learning Outcomes:

At the end of this chapter:

- (1) **Objectives** of analytical chemistry.
- (2) **Definition** of analytical chemistry, qualitative analysis and quantitative analysis.
- (3) Type of **equipment** and **basic tools** used in analytical chemistry and laboratory safety.
- (4) Basic calculation, **statistical** method and **errors** in **data handling** for reliability and significant derived results.

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What is Analytical Chemistry?

The branch of chemistry that deals with the **separation, identification** and **determination** of component in a sample.



WHY BOTHER LEARNING ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY??????

LETS THINK AND SHARE

Main Objective of Analytical Chemistry

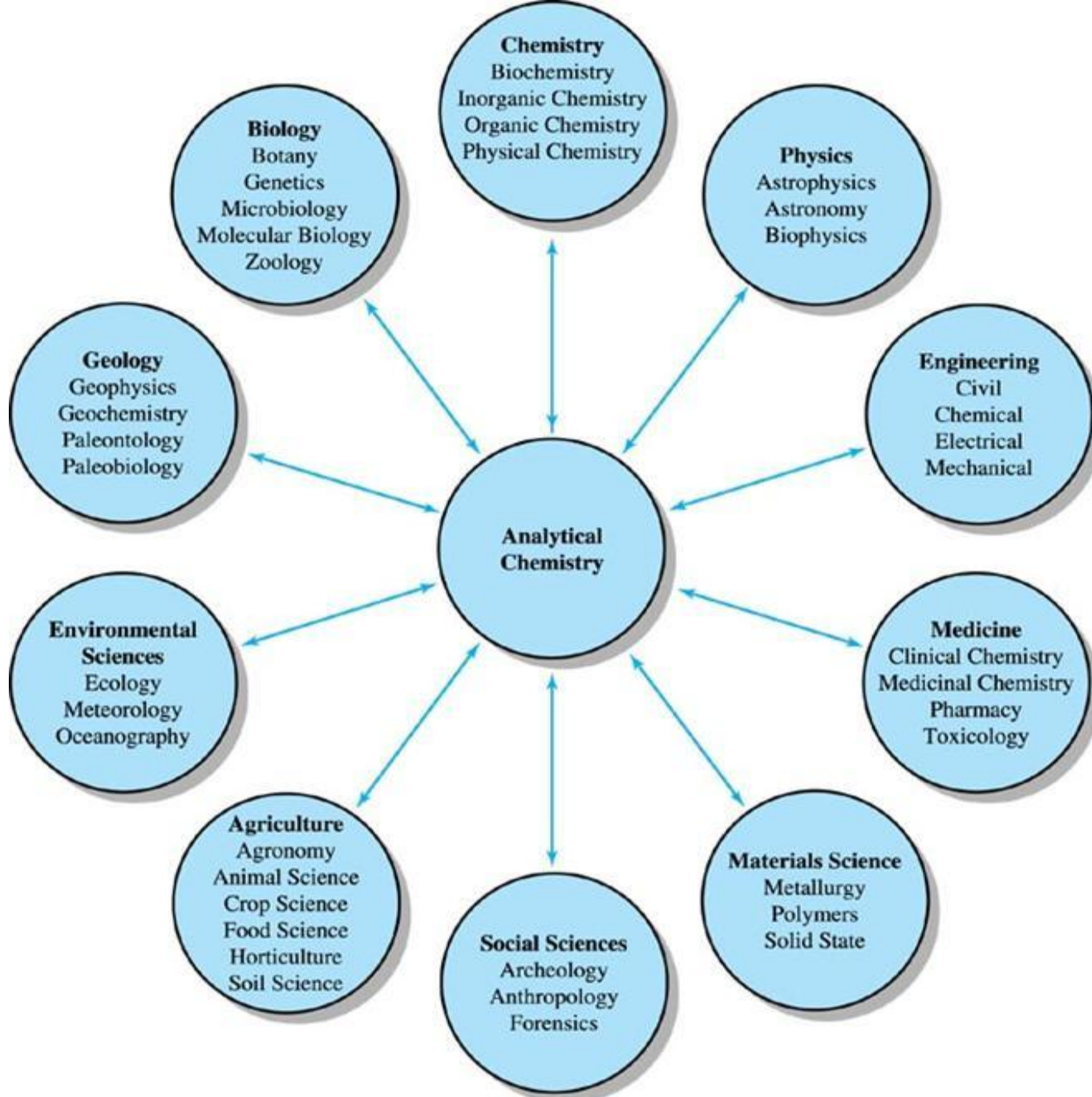
- Chemicals make up everything we use or consume, and knowledge of the **chemical composition of many substances** is important in our daily lives.



Examples:

- N content in fertilizer
- contaminants in food
- nutrients in food
- CO in air
- CO₂ in NG
- glucose in blood
- carbon in steel





Analytical Objectives

- Measuring the **chemical composition** of natural and artificial materials.
- **Identify the substances** which may be present in the material.
- Determine the **exact amounts** of the identified substance.

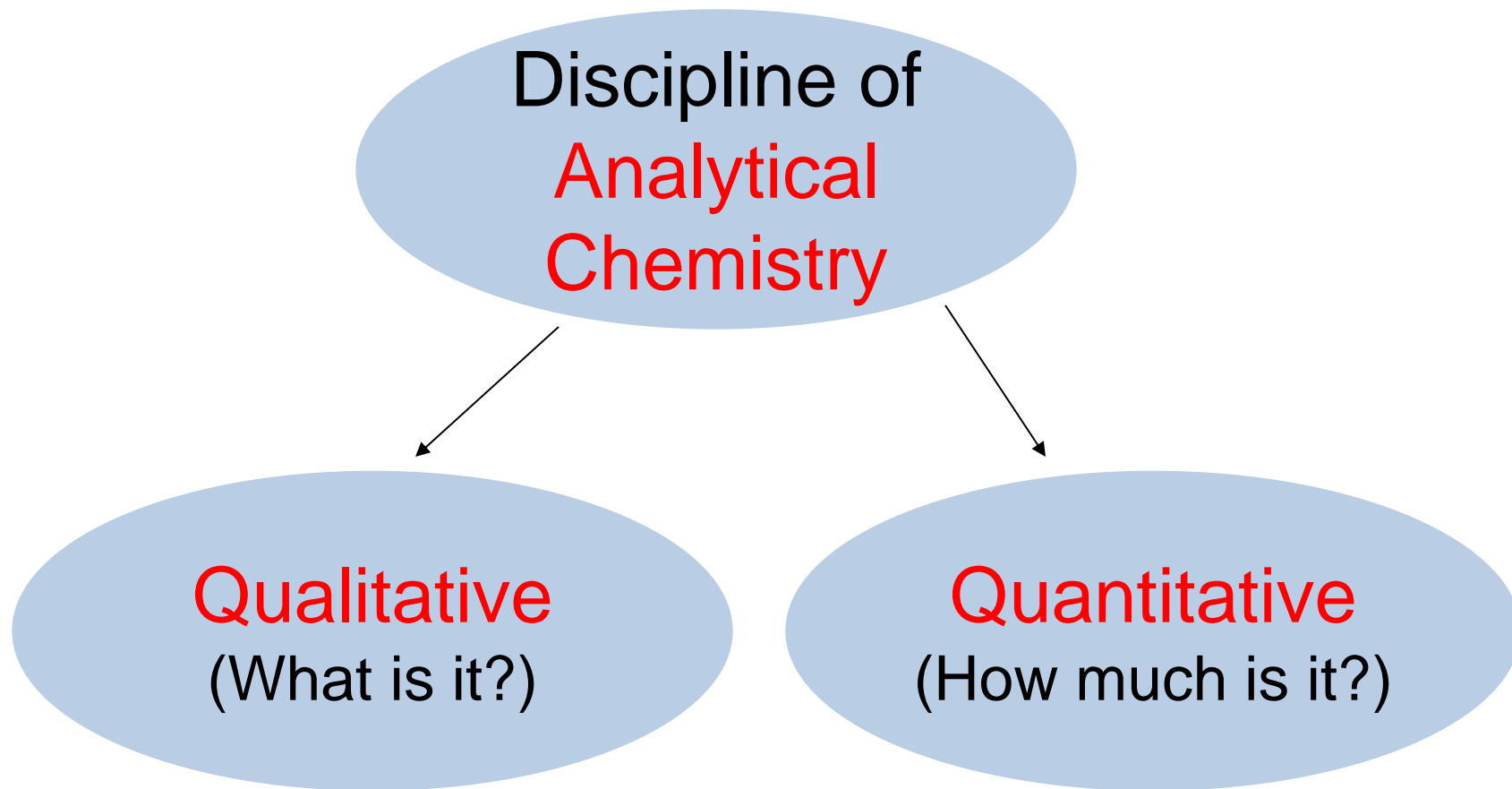
Analytical Chemist

- **Medicine**: basis for clinical laboratory tests which help physicians diagnose disease and chart progress in recovery.
- **Industry**: testing raw materials, assuring the quality of products whose chemical composition is critical (household products, fuels, paints, pharmaceuticals, etc).
- **Environment** quality: testing for suspected contamination.
- **Nutritional value** of **food**: major components such as protein, carbohydrates, trace amount of vitamins and minerals, calories.

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Qualitative and Quantitative Analysis



Qualitative Analysis

- Identification of **elements, ions or compounds present** in a sample.
- The sample may be solid, liquid or gas.

Example: The presence of gunpowder residue on a hand generally requires only qualitative analysis.

- Qualitative test may be performed by **selective chemical reactions** or with the use of **instrumentation**.

Selective and Specific reaction:

Selective reaction

- Reaction can occur with other substances but exhibits in degree of preference for the substance of interest.

Specific reaction

- Reaction that occur only with the substance of interest.

*few reactions are specific but many exhibit selective

Quantitative Analysis

- Determination of **how much** of one or more constituents is present.

Example: Price of diesel will be determined by the percent of sulfur impurity present

- A large portion of this course deals with methods that are used to determine **how much a material** is present.
- We need to review the **general steps** that are taken for any quantitative method.
- These steps are taken to insure **an accurate and reliable answer**.

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Getting Started: Analytical Methodology/Process

1. **Plan**: Qualitative or quantitative or both; what kind of information have; which technique is suitable/technique to be used.
2. **Sampling**: Accuracy depends on proper sampling, characteristic of sample is very important, required good representative sample.
3. **Sample preparation**: depends on analytical techniques.
4. **Analytical measurement**.
5. **Data Analysis**: Whether the data make sense or not.

1. Plan/Technique to be Used

1. Accuracy and sensitivity
2. Cost
3. Number of samples to be assayed
4. Number of components in a sample

The approach must produce the results in time and cost effective.

What type of information you need?

■ Complete analysis

- The goal is to determine the amount of each component in a sample.

■ Ultimate analysis

- The amount of each element present without regard to actual composition.

■ Partial analysis

- Determine one or a limited number of species in a sample (the most common approach)
e.g. Fe in an ore sample
Presence of lead in a water sample

2. Sampling

1. Must be representative

- To insure the results reflect **average composition**.
e.g. Fe in an ore- minerals and ores are heterogeneous → to assay any single sample may not yield valid results for an entire sample lot.
Proper sample selection and preparation may help.

2. Sample selection

- Requires some knowledge as to sample source and history, **random sampling** may help, powder the sample, blend the sample, etc.

3. Sample Preparation

One must then convert the sample to a **form of suitable** for the method of analysis:

This may include:

1. Drying to insure an accurate weight
2. Sample dissolution
3. Elimination or masking of potential interferences
4. Conversion of analyte to a single or measureable form

4. Analytical Measurement/Method

It is essential to define clearly the **nature of the analytical problem**.

In general, the following points should be considered when choosing an method for any measurement.

- Accuracy and precision required
- Available sample amount
- Concentration range of the analyte
- Interference in sample
- Physical and chemical properties of the sample matrix
- Number of sample to be analyzed
- Speed

- **Classical Methods: Wet chemical** methods such as precipitation, extraction, distillation, boiling or melting points, gravimetric and titrimetric measurements.
- **Instrumental Methods: Analytical** measurements (conductivity, electrode potential, light absorption or emission, mass-to-charge ratio, fluorescence etc.) are made using instrumentation.

Type of Method/Equipment

- Gravimetry → Methods based on a measured weight.
- Titrimetry → Methods based on the measured volume.
- Electrochemical → Approaches that rely on the measurement of potential, current, resistance, charge etc.
- Spectral Methods → Interaction of an analyte with electromagnetic radiation.
- Chromatography → Separation of a material due to its interaction with two different phases.



Different methods provide a range of precision, sensitivity, selectivity, and speed capabilities

Table 1.1

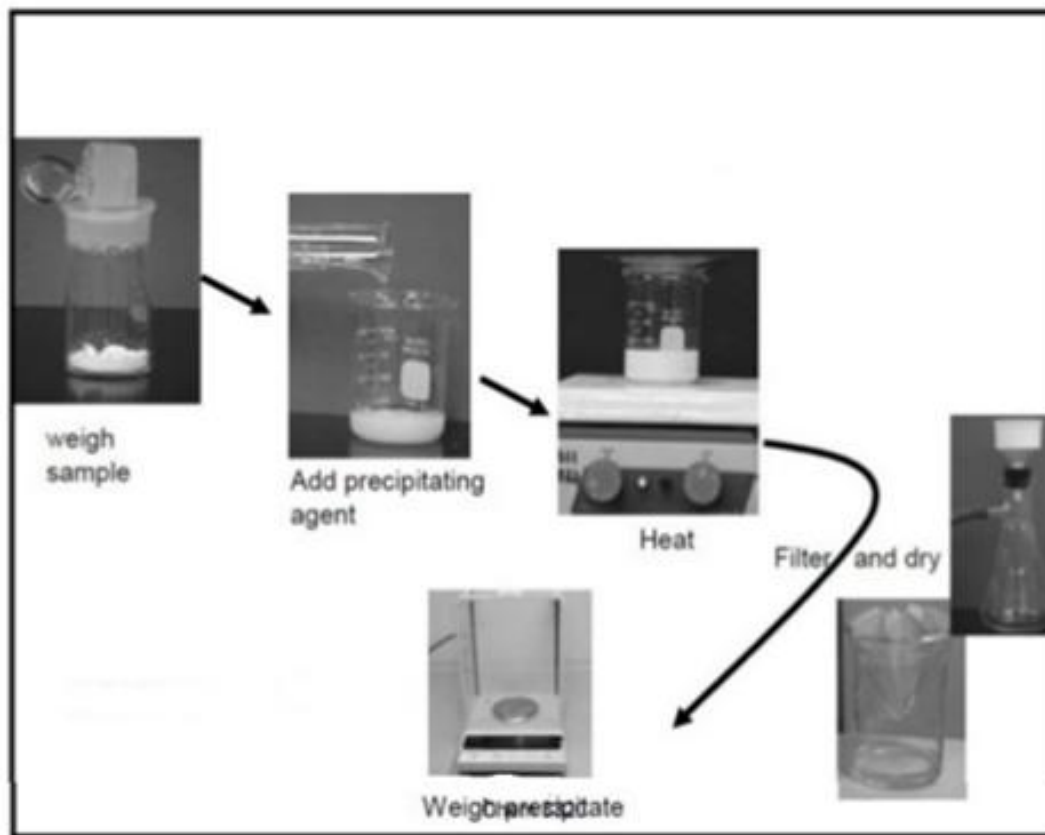
Comparison of Different Analytical Methods

Method	Approx. Range (mol/L)	Approx. Precision (%)	Selectivity	Speed	Cost	Principal Uses
Gravimetry	10^{-1} – 10^{-2}	0.1	Poor–moderate	Slow	Low	Inorg.
Titrimetry	10^{-1} – 10^{-4}	0.1–1	Poor–moderate	Moderate	Low	Inorg., org.
Potentiometry	10^{-1} – 10^{-6}	2	Good	Fast	Low	Inorg.
Electrogravimetry, coulometry	10^{-1} – 10^{-4}	0.01–2	Moderate	Slow–moderate	Moderate	Inorg., org.
Voltammetry	10^{-3} – 10^{-10}	2–5	Good	Moderate	Moderate	Inorg., org.
Spectrophotometry	10^{-3} – 10^{-6}	2	Good–moderate	Fast–moderate	Low–moderate	Inorg., org.
Fluorometry	10^{-6} – 10^{-9}	2–5	Moderate	Moderate	Moderate	Org.
Atomic spectroscopy	10^{-3} – 10^{-9}	2–10	Good	Fast	Moderate–high	Inorg., multielement
Chromatography	10^{-3} – 10^{-9}	2–5	Good	Fast–moderate	Moderate–high	Org., multicomponent
Kinetic methods	10^{-2} – 10^{-10}	2–10	Good–moderate	Fast–moderate	Moderate	Inorg., org., enzymes

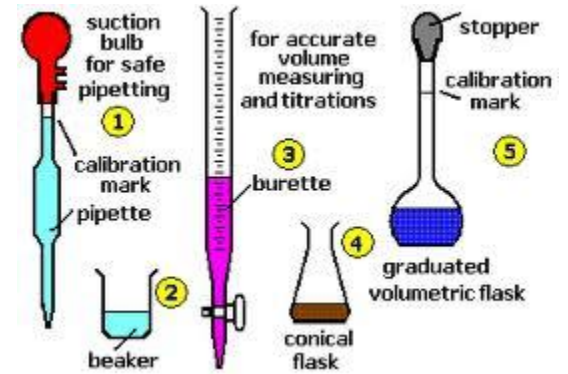
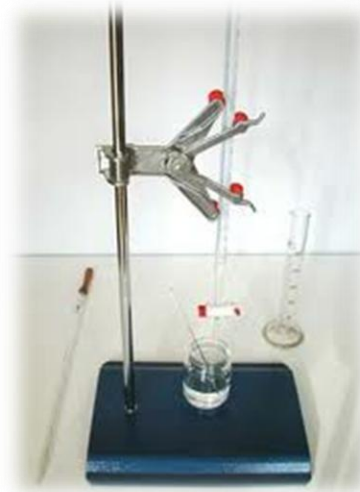
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Classical and Instrumentation Methods

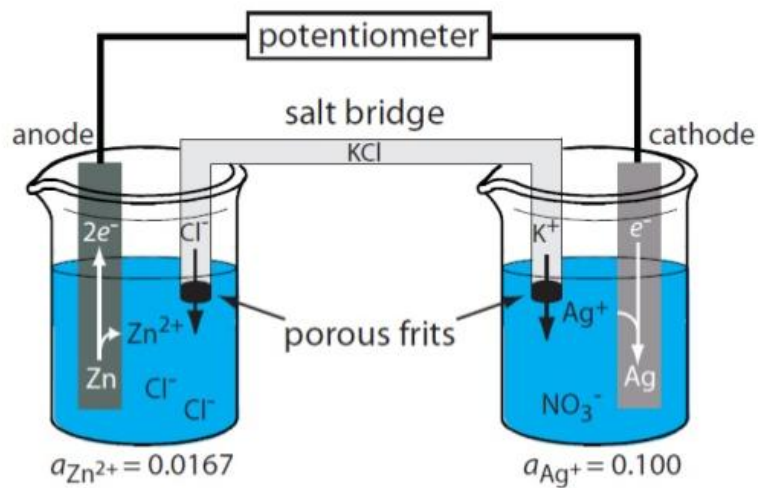
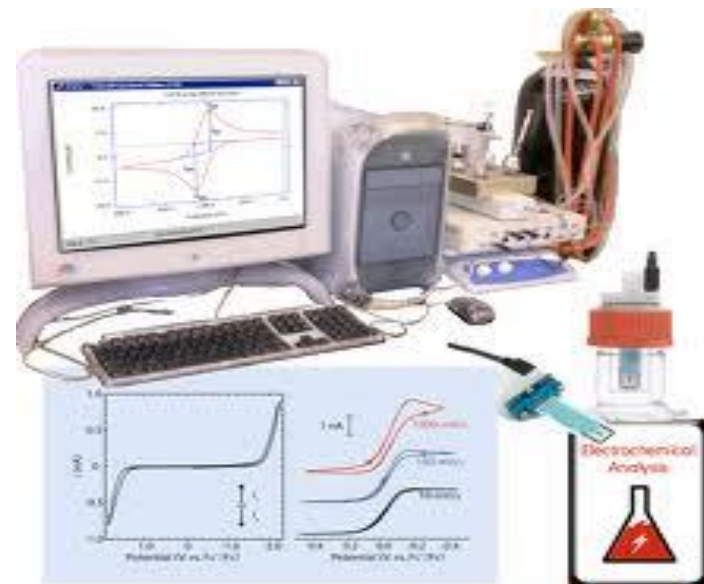
Gravimetric



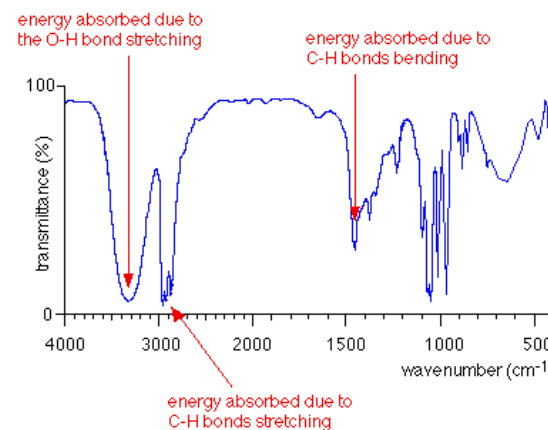
Volumetric



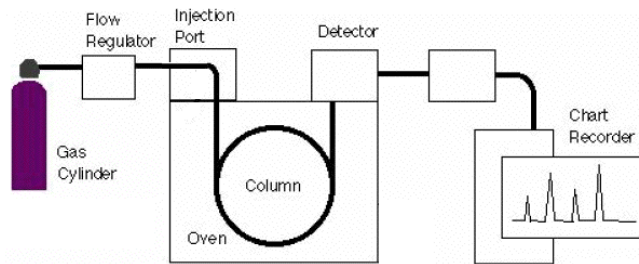
Electrochemical



Spectral Methods



Chromatography



5. Data Analysis/Results

Final step in analysis methodology:

This may include:

- Application of the **standard curve**
- Elimination of **error** based on replicates
- Reporting in a standard, useable format.

Verification of method → to analyze a **standard reference material** of known composition.

Summary Steps in an Analysis

Define the Problem

Factors

- What is the problem—what needs to be found? Qualitative and/or quantitative?
- What will the information be used for? Who will use it?
- When will it be needed?
- How accurate and precise does it have to be?
- What is the budget?
- The analyst (the problem solver) should consult with the client to plan a useful and efficient analysis, including how to obtain a useful sample.

1. Plan/ Technique to be used

Select a Method

Factors

- Sample type
- Size of sample
- Sample preparation needed
- Concentration and range (sensitivity needed)
- Selectivity needed (interferences)
- Accuracy/precision needed
- Tools/instruments available
- Expertise/experience
- Cost
- Speed
- Does it need to be automated?
- Are methods available in the chemical literature?
- Are standard methods available?

Obtain a Representative Sample

Factors

- Sample type/homogeneity/size
- Sampling statistics/errors

2. Sampling

Prepare the Sample for Analysis

Factors

- Solid, liquid, or gas?
- Dissolve?
- Ash or digest?
- Chemical separation or masking of interferences needed?
- Need to concentrate the analyte?
- Need to change (derivatize) the analyte for detection?
- Need to adjust solution conditions (pH, add reagents)?

3. Sample Preparation

Perform Any Necessary Chemical Separations

- Distillation
- Precipitation
- Solvent extraction
- Solid phase extraction
- Chromatography (may be done as part of the measurement step)
- Electrophoresis (may be done as part of the measurement step)

4. Analytical Measurement

Perform the Measurement


Factors

- Calibration
- Validation/controls/blanks
- Replicates

5. Data Analysis and Results

Calculate the Results and Report

- Statistical analysis (reliability)
- Report results with limitations/accuracy information



The way you perform an analysis will depend on your experience, the equipment available, the cost, and the time involved.

Good laboratory practice (validation) is required to assure accuracy of analyses.

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Safe, Ethical Handling of Chemicals and Waste

- Safety should come first.
- Before working, **familiarize yourself with safety features** of your laboratory.
- Wear **goggles or safety glasses** all the time → protect your eyes.
- Wear **lab coat, long pants and covered shoes**.
- **Rubber gloves** → protect hands from chemicals.
- **Clean up any chemical spills** immediately.
- **Chemicals with hazardous fume** should always be used under a fume hood.
- Label all the **vessels**.

GHS – Hazard Pictograms and correlated exemplary Hazard Classes

Physical Hazards



Explosives



Flammable Liquids



Oxidizing Liquids



Compressed Gases



Corrosive to Metals

Health Hazards



Acute Toxicity



Skin Corrosion



Skin Irritation



CMR¹, STOT²,
Aspiration Hazard



Hazardous to the
Aquatic Environment

1) carcinogenic, germ cell mutagenic, toxic to reproduction / 2) specific target organ toxicity



What do we use in a Analytical Lab?

Basic Tools:

- Chemicals
- Balances
- Glassware
- Heating apparatus
- Instruments
- Miscellaneous: filter paper, tongs, stir rods, beaker, etc

Handling of Chemicals

- The key is **to limit contamination of chemicals and reagents.**
- Never return excess chemicals to original bottle.
- Keep the workplace and balances clean.
- Not everything goes down the drain.

Analytical Balance

- Electronic balance → to balance the load on the pan.
- Capacity → 100-200 g
- Sensitivity → 0.01-0.1 mg
- **Sensitivity** → the smallest increment of mass that can be measured.
- Chemical should never be placed directly on the weighing pan.



Using a Balance

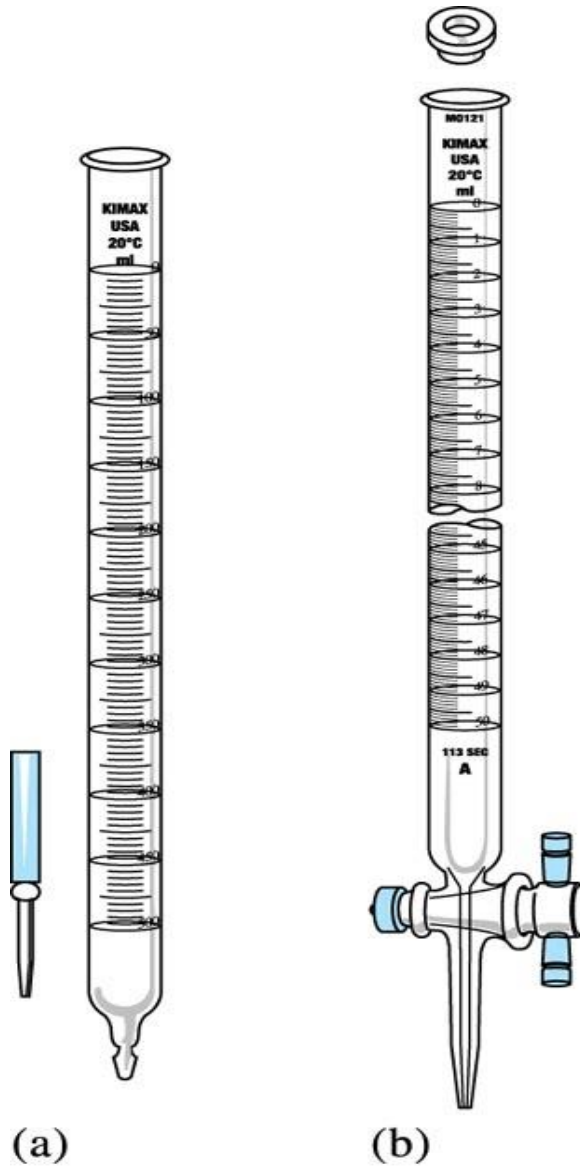
- Always weight chemicals in a **clean 'vessel'**, not on the pan!
- Vessel → glassware, weighing dish, or weighing paper (put on the balance).
- Samples normally need to be weight at **ambient temperature** (room temperature to get an accurate reading).
- Balance need to be **calibrated** and **leveled** to work properly.
- Using tongs, tissue or paper towel vessel.



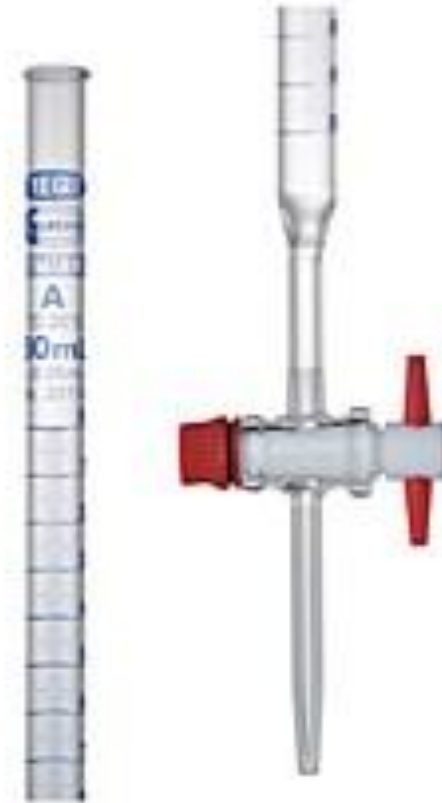
Glassware and Apparatus

- **Burets** → measure the volume of liquid precisely
- **Volumetric Flasks** → calibrated flasks to contain a particular volume
- **Pipets** → deliver known volumes of liquid (calibrated).
- **Syringes** → dispenses tiny volumes (accuracy and precision ~ 1%)
- **Desiccator** → closed chamber containing a drying agent called desiccant
- **Filters** → filter and collect precipitate

Burets



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Manipulating buret stopcock



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Volumetric Flasks



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Color
code



(a)

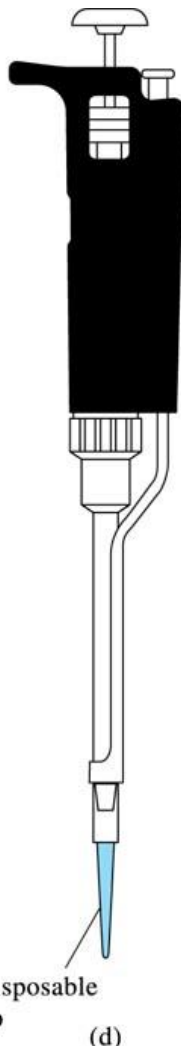


(b)



(c)

Disposable
tip



(d)



(e)

Ground
rings



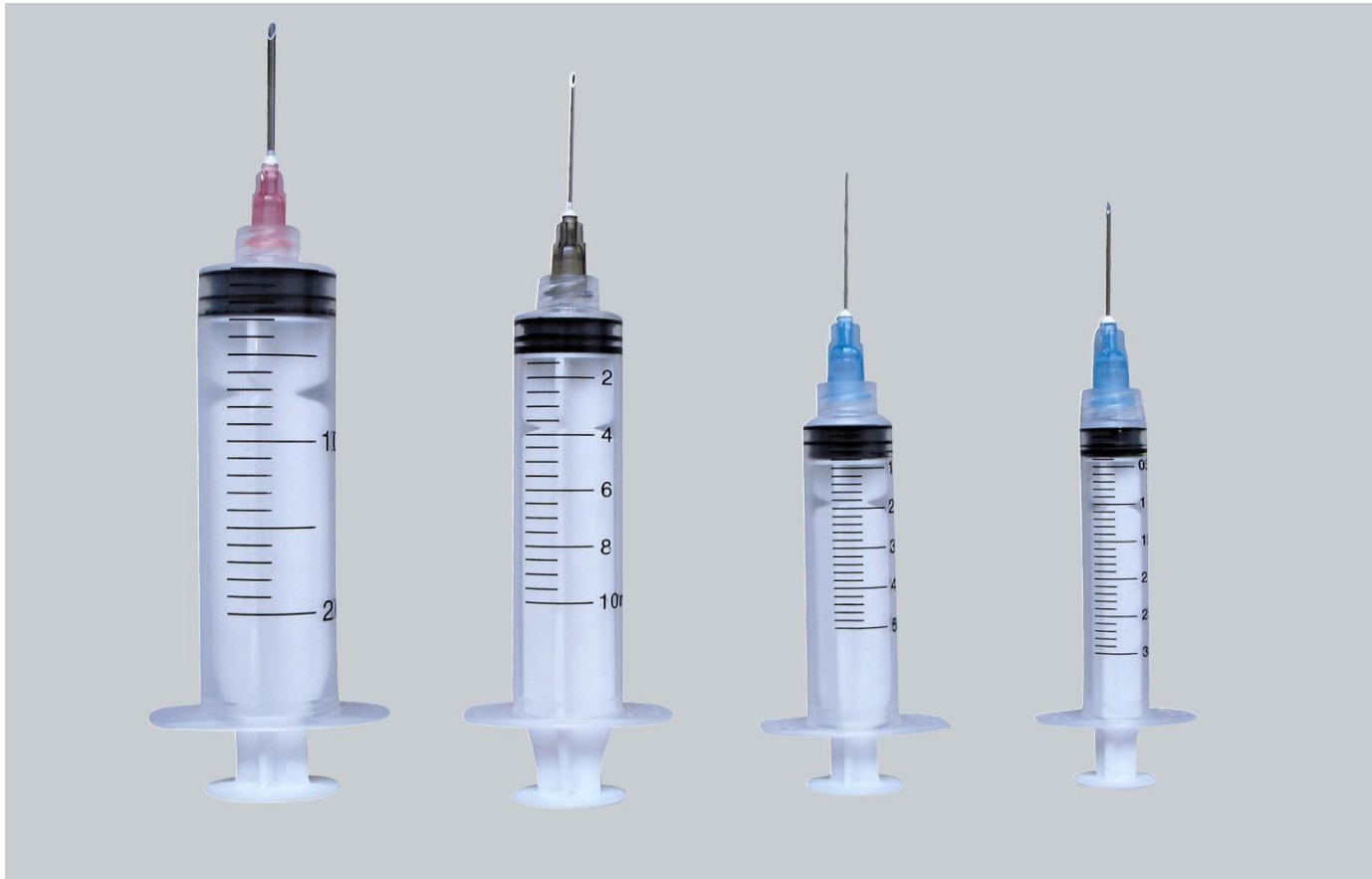
(f)



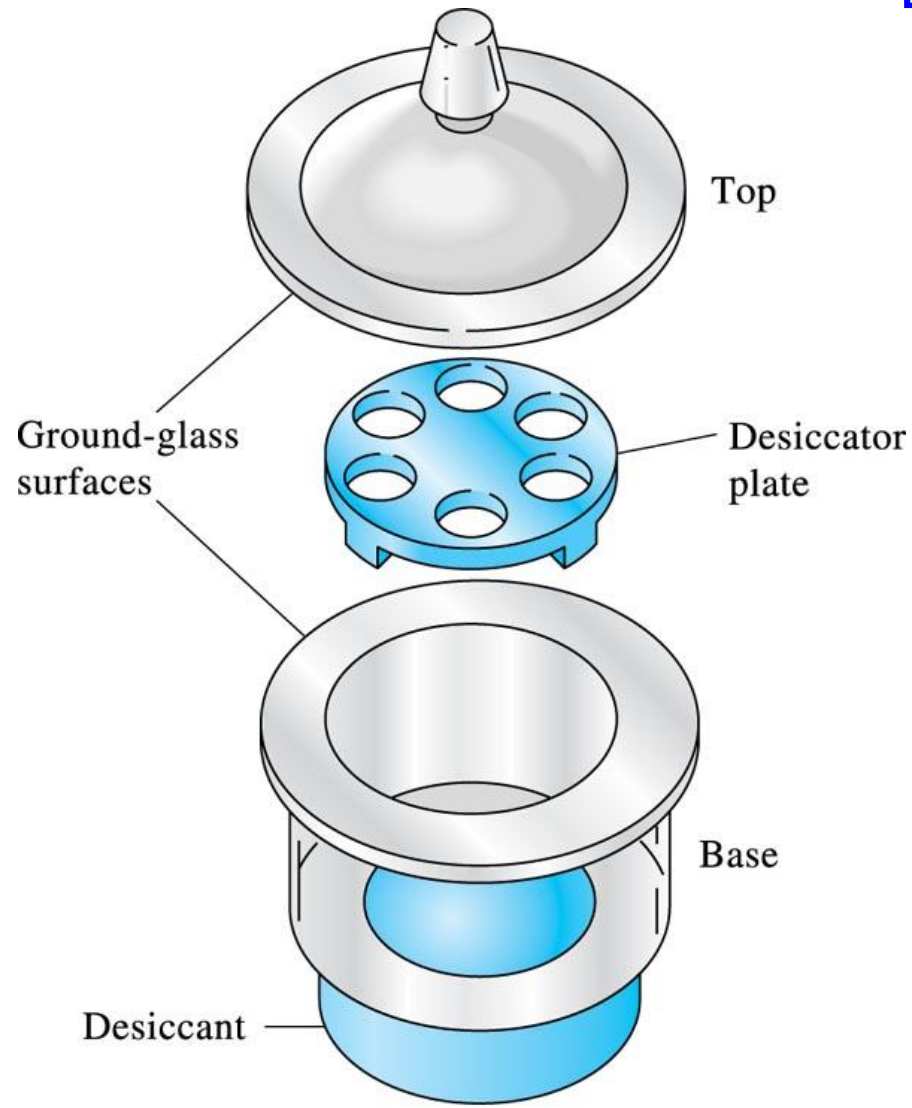
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Pipets and Micropipets

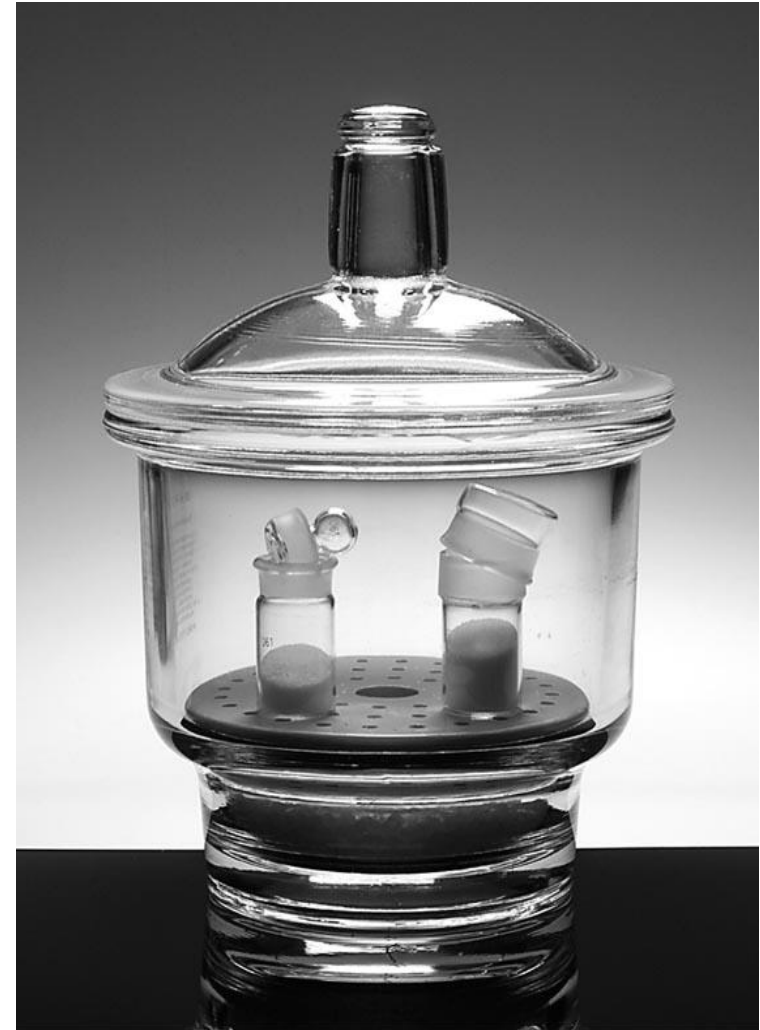
Syringes



Desiccator



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Filter Paper





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Washing by decantation and transferring the precipitate



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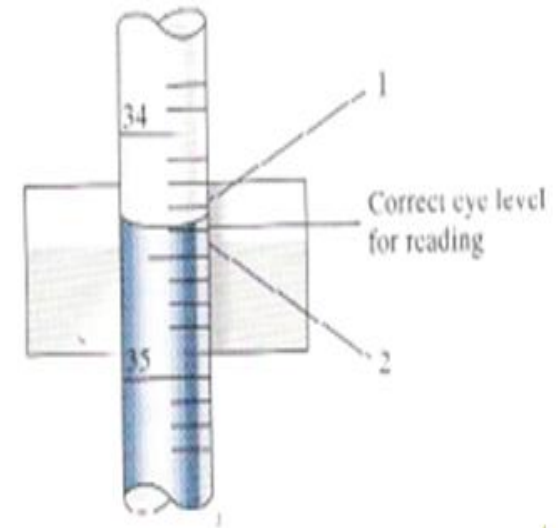


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Dispensing an aliquot

Reading Volume

- **Meniscus** → the curved surface of a liquid at its interface with the atmosphere.
- Read the **bottom of the concave** of the meniscus.
- Make sure your line of sight is level with meniscus.
- **Parallax** → apparent displacement of a liquid level or of a pointer as an observer changes position.
- Parallax occurs when an object is viewed from a position that is **not at a correct angle** to the object.





(a)



(b)



(c)



(d)



(e)



(f)

Charles D. Winters

The Lab Notebook

- To record **what you did** and what **you observed during the experiment**.
- Should be understandable to someone else.
- Contains
 - Experiment objective and purpose
 - List of glassware and chemicals
 - Safety info on chemicals
 - Flow chart of procedures
 - Data
 - Analysis and conclusions

Gravimetric Determination of Chloride

08

The chloride in a soluble sample was precipitated as AgCl and weighed as such.

Sample masses	1	2	3
Mass bottle plus sample, g	27.6115	27.2185	26.8105
-less bottle, g	<u>27.2185</u>	<u>26.8105</u>	<u>26.4517</u>
mass sample, g	0.3930	0.4080	0.3588
Crucible masses, empty	20.7925	22.8311	21.2488
	20.7926	22.8311	21.2482
			21.2483
Crucible masses, with AgCl , g	21.4294	23.4920	21.8324
	21.4297	23.4914	21.8323
	<u>21.4296</u>	<u>23.4915</u>	
Mass of AgCl , g	0.6370	0.6604	0.5840
Percent Cl -	40.10	40.04	40.27
Average percent Cl -		40.12	
Relative standard deviation	3.0 parts per thousand		
Date Started	1-10-03		
Date Completed	1-16-03		

Calculation Used in Analytical Chemistry

Some Important Units of Measurement

SI Units

- A standardized system of units known as the **International System of Units (SI)**.
- This system is based on the **seven fundamental base units**.
- Numerous other useful units, such as **volts, hertz, coulombs, and joules**, are derived from these base units.

SI Base Units

Physical Quantity	Name of Unit	Abbreviation
Mass	kilogram	kg
Length	meter	m
Time	second	s
Temperature	kelvin	K
Amount of substance	mole	mol
Electric current	ampere	A
Luminous intensity	candela	cd

Prefixes for Units

Prefix	Abbreviation	Multiplier
giga-	G	10^9
mega-	M	10^6
kilo-	k	10^3
deci-	d	10^{-1}
centi-	c	10^{-2}
milli-	m	10^{-3}
micro-	μ	10^{-6}
nano-	n	10^{-9}
pico-	p	10^{-12}
femto-	f	10^{-15}
atto-	a	10^{-18}

The *ångstrom unit*, Å, is a **non-SI unit** of length that is widely used to express the wavelength of very short radiation such as X-rays (**$1 \text{ Å} = 0.1 \text{ nm} = 10^{-10} \text{ m}$**). Typical X-radiation lies in the range of 0.1 to 10 Å.

The Mole

- The **mole (mol)** is the SI unit for the **amount of a chemical species**.
- It is always associated with a chemical formula and represents **Avogadro's number (6.022×10^{23})** of particles represented by that formula.
- The **molar mass (M)** of a substance is the **mass in grams of one mole, g/mol** of the substance.

Example 1

How many mole and milimoles of benzoic acid (MW = 122.1 g/mol) are contained in 2.00 g of the pure acid?

Answer

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Amount of HBz} &= 2.00 \text{ g} / 122.1 \text{ g/mol} \\ &= 0.0164 \text{ mol}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{In millimoles} &= 0.0164 \text{ mol} \times (1000 \text{ mmol/1 mol}) \\ &= 16.4 \text{ mmol}\end{aligned}$$

Example 2

How many grams of Na^+ (MW = 22.99 g/mol) are contained in 25.0 g of Na_2SO_4 (MW = 142.0 g/mol)?

Answer

From chemical formula, 1 mol of Na_2SO_4 contains
2 mol of Na^+

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Number of mol of } \text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4 &= 25 \text{ g} / 142 \text{ g/mol} \\ &= 0.1761 \text{ mol}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Number of mol of } \text{Na}^+ &= 0.1761 \text{ mol} \times 2 \\ &= 0.3521 \text{ mol}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Mass of } \text{Na}^+ &= 0.3521 \text{ mol} \times 22.99 \text{ g/mol} \\ &= 8.10 \text{ g}\end{aligned}$$

Solutions and Their Concentrations

■ Expressing Solution Concentrations

• Molar Concentration

- The molar concentration (c_x) of a solution of a chemical species X is the **number of moles** of the solute species that is contained in **one liter** of the solution (*not one liter of the solvent*).

$$c_x = \frac{\text{no. mol solute}}{\text{no. L solution}}$$

- Molar concentration, or **molarity M**, has the **dimensions of mol L⁻¹**.

Example 3

Calculate the molar concentration of ethanol in an aqueous solution that contained 2.30 g of $\text{C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH}$ (MW = 46.07 g/mol) in 3.50 L of solution.

Answer

$$\begin{aligned}\text{No of mol of C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH} &= 2.30 \text{ g} / 46.07 \text{ g/mol} \\ &= 0.05 \text{ mol}\end{aligned}$$

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Molar concentration of C}_2\text{H}_5\text{OH} &= 0.05 \text{ mol} / 3.5 \text{ L} \\ &= 0.0143 \text{ mol/L} \\ &= 0.0143 \text{ M}\end{aligned}$$

- Percent Concentration

- Chemists frequently express concentrations in **terms of percent** (parts per hundred).
- Three common methods are:

$$\text{weight percent (w/w)} = \frac{\text{weight solute}}{\text{weight solution}} \times 100\%$$

$$\text{volume percent (v/v)} = \frac{\text{volume solute}}{\text{volume soln}} \times 100\%$$

$$\text{weight/volume percent (w/v)} = \frac{\text{weight solute, g}}{\text{volume soln, mL}} \times 100\%$$

• Parts Per Million and Parts Per Billion

$$C_{\text{ppm}} = \frac{\text{mass of solute}}{\text{mass of solution}} \times 10^6 \text{ ppm}$$

$$C_{\text{ppb}} = \frac{\text{mass of solute}}{\text{mass of solution}} \times 10^9 \text{ ppb}$$

- *parts per billion* (ppb)
- *parts per thousand* (ppt)

- 1 ppm = 1 mg/L
- 1 ppb = 1 µg/L

Example 5

What is the molarity of K^+ in a solution that contains 63.3 ppm of $K_3Fe(CN)_6$ (MW = 329.3 g/mol)?

Answer

63.3 ppm of $\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$ = 63.3 mg/L of $\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$

Molarity of $\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$

$$\begin{aligned} &= 63.3 \text{ mg/L} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol}}{329.3 \text{ g}} \times \frac{1 \text{ g}}{1000 \text{ mg}} \\ &= 1.9223 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/L} \end{aligned}$$

From the chemical formula, 1 mol of $\text{K}_3\text{Fe}(\text{CN})_6$ contains 3 mol of K^+ , thus,

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Molarity of } \text{K}^+ &= 1.9223 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/L} \times 3 \\ &= 5.7669 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol/L} \end{aligned}$$

Chemical Stoichiometry

- Stoichiometry is defined as the **mass relationships** among **reacting chemical species**.
- This section provides a brief review of stoichiometry and its applications to chemical calculations.

Empirical Formulas and Molecular Formulas

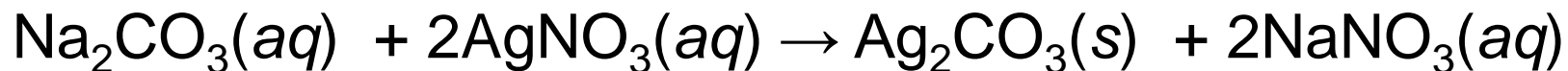
- An **empirical formula** gives the simplest whole-number ratio of atoms in a chemical compound.
- In contrast, a **molecular formula** specifies the number of atoms in a molecule.
- Two or more substances may have the same empirical formula but different molecular formulas.

- For example, CH_2O is both the empirical and the molecular formula for formaldehyde.
- It is also the empirical formula for such diverse substances as acetic acid ($\text{C}_2\text{H}_4\text{O}_2$), glyceraldehyde ($\text{C}_3\text{H}_6\text{O}_3$), and glucose ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_{12}\text{O}_6$).
- The empirical formula is obtained from the **percent composition** of a compound.
- In addition, the molecular formula requires a **knowledge of the molar mass** of the species.

Example 6: Stoichiometric Calculations

What mass of AgNO_3 (MW = 169.9 g/mol) is needed to convert 2.33 g of Na_2CO_3 (MW = 106.0 g/mol) to Ag_2CO_3 ?

Given:



Answer

- Step 1: Mol of Na_2CO_3

$$\begin{aligned} n_{\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3} &= 2.33 \text{ g } \cancel{\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol Na}_2\text{CO}_3}{106.0 \text{ g } \cancel{\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3}} \\ &= 0.02198 \text{ mol Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \end{aligned}$$

- Step 2: The balanced equation reveals that

$$\begin{aligned} n_{\text{AgNO}_3} &= 0.02198 \cancel{\text{ mol Na}_2\text{CO}_3} \times \frac{2 \text{ mol AgNO}_3}{1 \cancel{\text{ mol Na}_2\text{CO}_3}} \\ &= 0.04396 \text{ mol AgNO}_3 \end{aligned}$$

- Step 3: Mass of AgNO_3

$$\begin{aligned}
 m_{\text{AgNO}_3} &= 0.04396 \cancel{\text{mol AgNO}_3} \times \frac{169.9 \text{ g AgNO}_3}{\cancel{\text{mol AgNO}_3}} \\
 &= 7.47 \text{ g AgNO}_3
 \end{aligned}$$

End of Topic

Exercise 1

Q1:

Calculate the mass of Ag_2CO_3 (MW = 275.7 g/mol) formed when 25.0 mL of 0.200 M AgNO_3 (MW = 169.9 g/mol) are mixed with 50 mL of 0.0800 M Na_2CO_3 (MW = 106 g/mol)?

Q2:

Exactly 0.2220 g of pure Na_2CO_3 (MW = 106 g/mol) was dissolved in 100.0 mL of 0.0731 M HCl (MW = 36.46 g/mol).

- What mass in grams of CO_2 (MW = 44 g/mol) were evolved?
- What was the molarity of the excess reactant (HCl or Na_2CO_3)?