

Topic 1: Quantitative and qualitative analysis

Performance objectives

After studying this Topic, you should be able to do the following:

- 1.1 Titrate accurately and perform relevant calculations.
- 1.2 Analyse different salts for anions and cations.
- **1.3** Carry out simple tests for common gases.
- 1.4 Carry out simple redox titrations.
- 1.5 Test for fats, oils, proteins, starch, etc.

Qualitative analysis is based on the qualities present, for example, the type of elements in a substance. Quantitative analysis is based on the number and ratio of quantities present, for example, the concentration of a substance. In this topic, we will look at quantitative analysis of acid-base titrations and redox titrations. We will discuss the qualitative analysis on how to identify oxidants and reductants, how to identify cations and anions, how to test for common gases, and how to identify fats, oils, simple sugars, proteins and starch.

Acid-base titrations

Titration is a method for determining the amount or concentration of an unknown substance. The method is easy to use if the quantitative relationship between two reacting substances is known. The titration method can be used for acid-base and redox reactions. An acid-base titration determines the concentration of an acid or a base by exactly neutralising the acid/base with a base or acid of known concentration. A solution of known concentration is a **standard solution**. **Neutralisation** occurs at the equivalence point (or endpoint) of the reaction. This is the point where equal molar amounts of the acid and base have reacted according to the molar concentration ratio in the chemical equation. Neutralisation occurs between the H⁺ ions from the acid and the OH⁻ ions from the base. Before starting a titration, a suitable pH indicator must be chosen. The **endpoint** of a titration is that point where the indicator changes colour.

Titrations to determine percentage purity

The substances that we use in titrations are not always completely pure – they may contain impurities. Some substances are mixtures of different compounds. For example, an acid or a base may be contaminated by one of its salts, for instance NaOH may be contaminated by NaCl. Sometimes we have to calculate how pure the sample is or what percentage by mass there exists in a sample.

Theme 1 The chemical world

Chemical analysis can determine the composition of substances and from the composition we can work out the percentage purity. To calculate the percentage purity, we use this formula:

percentage purity = $\frac{\text{mass of the pure substance}}{\text{mass of the sample}} \times 100\%$

When finding the percentage purity of a sample of impure compounds, a standard solution of the impure solid is made. Titration with the other solution enables you to find the mass of the pure substance and from there you can calculate the percentage purity. It should be kept in mind that the neutralisation reaction is between the pure acid and the pure base – the impurities remain in solution.

Worked example: Calculate percentage purity

3.68 g of washing soda crystals (Na₂CO₃·10H₂O) are dissolved in water and made up to a volume of 275 cm³. Of this washing soda sample, 25.0 cm³ is neutralised by 23.5 cm³ of HCl of concentration 0.11 mol·dm⁻³. Calculate the percentage Na₂CO₃ in the washing soda. The balanced equation for the reaction is as follows:

 $Na_2CO_3 + 2HCl \rightarrow 2NaCl + H_2O + CO_2$

Solution:

The aim of our calculation is to determine how much of the 3.68 g of washing soda is actually Na_2CO_3 .

• Step 1: Calculate the number of moles of the pure acid used in the titration. $c = \frac{n}{V}$

 $0.11 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{dm}^{-3} = \frac{n}{0.0235 \text{ dm}^{-3}}$ $n = 2.59 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol}$ Step 2: Use the mole ratio to find the number of moles of Na₂CO₃ used in the titration.
Na CO + 2HCl → 2NaCl + H O + CO

 $Na_2CO_3 + 2HCl \rightarrow 2NaCl + H_2O + CO_2$ $Na_2CO_3:2HCl$ 1:2

:. $n(Na_2CO_3) = 2(2.59 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol})$ = 1.29 × 10⁻³ mol

Step 3: Determine the number of moles of Na₂CO₃ in the original 275 cm³ sample. 1.29×10^{-3} mol is the number of moles in 25 cm³ of Na₂CO₃ solution, and we need to know the number of moles in the original 275 cm³ sample. 1.29×10^{-3} mol ≈ 275 cm³

$$n = \frac{122 \times 10^{-10}}{25 \text{ cm}^3} \times 275 \text{ cm}^3$$

= 1.42 × 10⁻² mol

- $\therefore 1.42 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol Na}_2 \text{CO}_3 \text{ in } 275 \text{ cm}^3$ sample
- Step 4: Calculate the mass of Na_2CO_3 in the original 275 cm³ sample.

$$n = \frac{m}{M}$$

1.42 × 10⁻² mol = $\frac{m}{106 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}}$
 $m = 1.51 \text{ g Na}_2 \text{CO}_3$

• Step 5: Calculate the percentage of Na₂CO₃ in the original sample. Percentage purity

 $= \frac{\text{mass of the pure substance}}{\text{mass of the sample}} \times 100\%$

$$\frac{1.51 \text{ g}}{3.68 \text{ g}} \times 100\% = 41\%$$

Therefore, the percentage purity of Na_2CO_3 is 41%

Experiment 1.1 Determine the percentage acetic acid in vinegar

In this experiment, you will determine the concentration of acetic acid in vinegar and calculate the percentage acetic acid in vinegar. The acetic acid reacts with the sodium hydroxide as follows:

$$\begin{split} & \text{CH}_{3}\text{COOH}(aq) + \text{NaOH}(aq) \rightarrow \\ & \text{CH}_{3}\text{COONa}(aq) + \text{H}_{2}\text{O}(l) \end{split}$$

Vinegar should contain about 5% acetic acid by volume.

Aim: To determine the percentage acetic acid in vinegar

Materials/apparatus:

- 250 cm³ volumetric flask
- vinegar
- sodium hydroxide
- 25.0 cm³ pipette
- phenolphthalein indicator
- burette
- conical flask

Method:

- Make a standard solution of sodium hydroxide in a 250 cm³ volumetric flask.
- Clean the burette and rinse with a small amount of sodium hydroxide solution. Fill the burette with NaOH and zero the reading.
- **3.** Using a pipette, add 25.0 cm³ of vinegar to a conical flask.
- **4.** Add a few drops of phenolphthalein indicator to the conical flask.
- 5. Using the burette, slowly add sodium hydroxide solution to the conical flask while swirling the conical flask until the

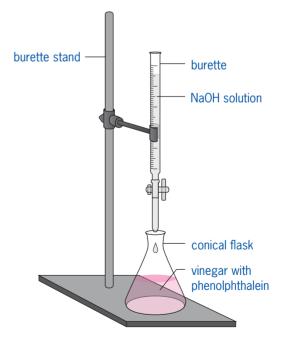
colour of the solution is a light pink. The colour in the solution must remain for 20 seconds.

- **6.** Record the final burette reading.
- 7. Repeat the procedure twice and record your titration results in a table. Take the average of the three final burette readings.

In this experiment, assume that the density of vinegar is 1 g·ml⁻¹, thus 25 ml = 25 g

Questions:

- **1.** Calculate the concentration of the acetic acid from the titration results.
- Calculate the mass of acetic acid in the 25 cm³ sample of vinegar used in the titration.
- **3.** Calculate the percentage of acetic acid in the vinegar sample.





Topic 1 Quantitative and qualitative analysis

Titration to determine heat of neutralisation

During a neutralisation reaction, the hydrogen ion (H⁺) or proton from the acid is neutralised by the hydroxide ions (OH⁻) from the alkali to form a water molecule (H₂O). The heat of neutralisation is the amount of heat liberated when 1 gram equivalent of an acid is completely neutralised in a base. The heat of neutralisation is the energy change that occurs when one mole of water is formed from the neutralisation between one mole of hydrogen ions (H⁺) from an acid and one mole of hydroxide ions (OH⁻) from a base.

In any calorimeter, the heat released or absorbed is given by the following equation:

Heat of neutralisation = mass \times specific heat capacity of H₂O \times change in temperature

$$Q = m \times C_{\rm H_2O} \times \Delta T$$

 $C_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}$ = specific heat capacity of water = 4.18 J·g⁻¹·K⁻¹

 ΔT = temperature change

In other words, it takes 4.18 J of heat energy to raise the temperature of 1 g of water by 1 degree. m = mass of the water absorbing the heat

You have to relate this heat change to the mass or molar mass quantities used to get the ΔH enthalpy change in kJ·mol⁻¹. At constant volume and pressure, the enthalpy change is approximately equal to the heat of the reaction.

Worked example: Calculate heat of neutralisation

50 ml (about 50 g) of NaOH was added to a calorimeter connected to a thermometer and the initial temperature of the solution was measured. 25 ml (about 50 g) of HCl was added to the NaOH in the calorimeter. The temperature rose from 23 °C to 55 °C.

Questions:

1. Calculate the heat of neutralisation by using the formula:

Q = mass of solution (m) × specific heat of water (C) × change in temperature of solution (ΔT)

- 2. Why do we use a polystyrene (Styrofoam) cup in this experiment?
- **3.** What conclusion can we draw from these results?

Solutions:

- 1. $Q_{\text{neutralisation}} = m \times C \times \Delta T = (100)$ (4.18)(55 - 23) = 13.376 kJ
- 2. To prevent heat loss to the surroundings. Polystyrene is a heat insulator.
- **3.** A neutralisation reaction can occur when you combine an acid and a base. Neutralisation reactions give off energy, which is known as the heat of neutralisation.

In the following experiment, we will measure the heat of neutralisation when an acid and base react to form 1 mole of water. This quantity of heat is measured experimentally by allowing the reaction to take place in a thermally insulated polystyrene cup calorimeter. The heat liberated in the neutralisation reaction will cause an increase in the temperature of the solution and the calorimeter.

Experiment 1.2 Determine heat of neutralisation of an acid and a base

When aqueous solutions of HCl and NaOH are mixed, a reaction takes place and the products formed are a salt and water.

 $NaOH(aq) + HCl(aq) \rightarrow NaCl(aq) + H_2O(l)$

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> This is a neutralisation reaction since the H⁺ ion, which is responsible for acidic properties, has reacted with the hydroxide ion (OH⁻), which is responsible for basic properties.

$$OH^- + H^+ \rightarrow H_2O$$

Aim: To determine the heat change for the neutralisation reaction between NaOH and HCl

Materials/apparatus:

- 2×50 ml measuring cylinders
- beakers
- polystyrene cup calorimeter
- thermometer
- 0.5 M HCl
- 0.5 M NaOH
- 0.5 M HNO₃

Method:

Using NaOH as the base and HCl and HNO₃ as the acids, proceed as follows, performing the neutralisation in duplicate:

- Pour 40 ml of 0.5 M NaOH into one measuring cylinder and 40 ml of the acid into the other.
- 2. Measure accurately and record the temperature of each solution.
- **3.** Simultaneously, pour the acid and base together into the polystyrene cup calorimeter.
- **4.** Stir gently with the thermometer and record the highest temperature reached.
- 5. Wash the beaker and repeat the experiment twice.
- 6. Repeat the above procedure, but now use HNO_3 as the acid.

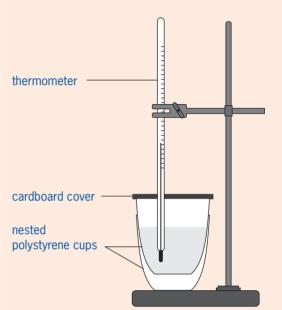


Figure 1.2 Experimental setup of calorimeter

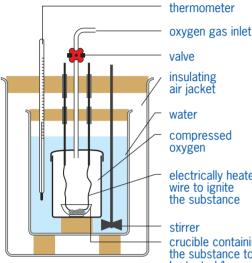
Questions:

- **1.** Calculate the average initial temperature of the acid and base.
- 2. Calculate the change in temperature $\Delta T = T_{\text{final}} - T_{\text{initial}}$
- 3. Calculate the heat evolved using: Energy transferred = mass × specific heat capacity × ΔT (for dilute solutions, specific heat capacity approximately equals that of H,O, i.e. 4.18 J·g⁻¹·K⁻¹).
- **4.** Calculate the number of moles of water produced.
- **5.** Calculate the heat evolved per mole of water.
- 6. What is the value of ΔH (neutralisation)?
- 7. Comment on the ΔH values determined in both cases.

Bomb calorimeter

The bomb calorimeter is a device that is used to measure the heat of reaction with a high level of accuracy. This type of calorimeter is commonly used for reactions that involve gases, especially for combustion that takes place at high

temperature and forms gaseous substances. It consists of a sealed container, like a bomb, where the chemical reaction takes place.



electrically heated wire to ignite the substance

crucible containing the substance to be tested/burned

Figure 1.3 Bomb calorimeter

Titration to determine water of crystallisation

Water of crystallisation is water which is found as part of the structure of a crystalline substance. Some ionic crystals trap water molecules between their ions when they form, and are called hydrated salts. The water of crystallisation is generally represented in the chemical equations of such compounds at the end of the formula, for example, $Na_{2}CO_{2} \cdot xH_{2}O$. The 'x' is a number which represents the number of water molecules in the crystal. The ratio of water molecules to the ions is a fixed number.

Hydrated substances are sometimes used in volumetric analysis. During the titration process, it is only the anhydrous part of the substance that is actually neutralised and the water of crystallisation remains in the solution, just like impurities.

Worked example: Determine water of crystallisation

3.5 g of hydrated oxalic acid

 $(H_2C_2O_4 \cdot xH_2O)$ was made up to 250 cm³ of solution. 25.0 cm³ of this solution required 22.2 cm³ of 0.25 mol·dm⁻³ NaOH solution for complete neutralisation. Calculate the value of 'x' to the nearest whole number.

Solution:

 $H_2C_2O_4 + 2NaOH \rightarrow Na_2C_2O_4 + 2H_2O$ n(NaOH) = cV = (0.25)(0.0222) $= 0.00555 \text{ mol} (\text{or } 555 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol})$ 2 moles of NaOH require 1 mole of $H_2C_2O_4$ 5.55×10^{-3} mol of NaOH requires $\frac{1}{2}(5.55 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol}) = 2.78 \times 10^{-3} \text{ mol } \text{H}_2\text{C}_2\text{O}_4$ $c(\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{C}_{2}\mathrm{O}_{4}) = \frac{n}{V} = \frac{2.78 \times 10^{-3} \,\mathrm{mol}}{25 \times 10^{-3} \,\mathrm{dm}^{3}}$ $= 0.111 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{dm}^{-3}$

To find the value of 'x': Mass concentration of hydrated acid in 3.5 g in 250 cm³: i.e. 250 cm³ contains 3.5 g of hydrated acid 1 000 cm³ contains 3.5 g $(\frac{1\ 000}{250}) = 3.5 \times 4$ $= 14.0 \text{ g} \cdot \text{dm}^{-3}$ molar mass of hydrated acid = $\frac{\text{mass concentration}}{\text{contration}} = \frac{14 \text{ g} \cdot \text{um}}{0.111 \text{ mol} \cdot \text{dm}^{-3}}$ $= 126.1 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}$ Relative molar mass of $H_2C_2O_4$ $\cdot xH_2O_4$ = 126.12(1) + 2(12) + 4(16) + 18x = 126.118x = 36.1x = 2

Experiment 1.3 Percentage water of crystallisation

Aim: To determine the percentage of water of crystallisation in hydrated sodium carbonate (washing soda) by titration

Materials/apparatus:

- watch glass
- mass meter
- sodium carbonate
- 250 ml volumetric flask
- 25 ml pipette
- conical flask
- methyl orange
- burette

Method:

- 1. Weigh 5.0 g of sodium carbonate on a watch glass.
- 2. Make up a standard solution of sodium carbonate by using a 250 ml volumetric flask filled up to the mark with water.
- **3.** Using a pipette, add 25 ml of the solution to a conical flask.
- 4. Add a few drops of methyl orange to the solution in the conical flask.
- 5. Place the 0.2 mol·dm⁻³ HCl in the burette.
- 6. Titrate until the yellow colour is replaced by a permanent pink colour, which indicates the endpoint of the titration.
- 7. Record the volume of acid required to reach the endpoint and repeat the experiment several times.

Results:

Record the results in a table with headings such as the one shown at the top of the next column.

Trial	Volume of sodium carbonate (ml)	Volume of hydrochloric acid (ml)
1		
2		
3		
Average volume		

Questions:

- **1.** Calculate the concentration of sodium carbonate.
- 2. Calculate the percentage of water of crystallisation in sodium carbonate.
- **3.** Calculate the number of water molecules 'x' in $Na_2CO_3 \cdot xH_2O_3$.

Activity 1.1 Acid-base titrations Work on your own.

- **1.** Students were asked to determine the amount of inert impurities in a contaminated sample of anhydrous oxalic acid $(H_2C_2O_4)$. They prepared a standard solution of sodium hydroxide by diluting 50 cm³ of a 1.63 mol·dm⁻³ solution in a 1.0 dm³ volumetric flask. They then prepared a solution of contaminated oxalic acid by dissolving 0.25 g of oxalic acid in 75 cm³ of water. The acid solution was then titrated against the NaOH solution. The titration required 40 cm³ of the NaOH solution to reach the equivalence point. The equation for the reaction is: $2NaOH + H_2C_2O_4 \rightarrow Na_2C_2O_4 + H_2O$
 - a) What is meant by the equivalence point?
 - **b)** Suggest a suitable indicator for the titration.

- c) Use the information that the learners obtained and calculate the percentage purity of the oxalic acid sample.
- 150 cm³ of 1.0 mol·dm⁻³ hydrochloric acid was placed in a polystyrene cup and its temperature was recorded. 50 cm³ of 1.0 mol·dm⁻³ sodium hydroxide (at the same temperature) was added to the acid in the cup. The reaction mixture was stirred with the thermometer and the highest temperature was recorded. The following results were obtained:

<u> </u>		
	Temperature (°C)	
NaOH solution	26.5	
HCI solution	26.0	
Average initial temperature	26.25	
Final temperature	27.0	
Change in temperature	0.75	

Answer the following questions:

- a) Calculate the number of moles of NaOH in 50 cm³ of 1.0 mol·dm⁻³ NaOH solution.
- b) Calculate the number of moles of HCl in 50 cm³ of 1.0 mol·dm⁻³ HCl solution.
- c) Calculate the energy transferred from the experiment.
- **d)** What is the enthalpy change of the reaction?

 Washing soda was titrated against hydrochloric acid. 0.352 g of hydrated sodium carbonate crystals (Na₂CO₃·xH₂O) was titrated with 0.1 mol·dm⁻³ standard hydrochloric acid solution. If the titrated value was 24.65 cm³, calculate the number of moles of Na₂CO₃ titrated and determine the value of 'x' (the number of molecules of water of crystallisation) in washing soda crystals.

Redox titrations involving $KMnO_4$, Fe^{2+} , C_2O_4 , I_2 , KI, $S_2O_3^{2-}$

A redox reaction is a chemical reaction that involves a transfer of electrons. Electrons lost by one substance are gained by another. Reduction and oxidation always happen at the same time. A change in the oxidation number of an atom during a reaction means that the atom has either lost or gained electrons. The substance that gains electrons is the oxidising agent (oxidant) and the substance that loses electrons is the reducing agent (reductant).

Redox titrations involve the chemical reaction between the oxidising agent and reducing agent in aqueous solutions under suitable conditions. For redox titrations, one solution must be the standard solution. For some reactions, for example those involving the permanganate ion (MnO_4^-), the endpoint will be indicated by a colour change in the reacting solutions, whereas for others an indicator must be added in order to detect the endpoint.

Volumetric analysis involving redox reactions can be used to determine the composition of many substances. When a solution of an oxidising agent is titrated against a solution of a reducing agent, the amounts of the oxidising agent and that of the reducing agent titrated are in the same ratio as in the stoichiometry in the balanced equation at the endpoint. We can use stoichiometric calculations, for example, to determine the composition of substances by using the following equation:

$$\frac{c_{\mathrm{OA}}V_{\mathrm{OA}}}{c_{\mathrm{RA}}V_{\mathrm{RA}}} = \frac{n_{\mathrm{OA}}}{n_{\mathrm{RA}}}$$

where:

 c_{OA} is the concentration of the oxidising agent c_{RA} is the concentration of the reducing agent

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 V_{OA} is the volume of the oxidising agent V_{RA} is the volume of the reducing agent n_{OA} is the amount in moles of the oxidising agent

 $n_{\rm RA}$ is the amount in moles of the reducing agent

Potassium permanganate titrations

Some titrations involve the use of potassium permanganate ($KMnO_4$) as oxidising agent against the reducing agents such as ferrous salts, oxalic acid or oxalate salts in an acidic medium. The MnO_4^- ion is a powerful oxidising agent:

 $\begin{array}{ll} \mathrm{MnO_4^-}(aq) + 8\mathrm{H^+}(aq) + 5\mathrm{e^-} \rightarrow \mathrm{Mn^{2+}}(aq) + 4\mathrm{H_2O}(l) \\ \mathrm{intense\ purple} & \mathrm{colourless} \end{array}$

Due to the strong oxidising ability of permanganate ions, it can be used to determine reducing agents. In a redox titration involving $KMnO_4$ solution and a colourless reducing agent, it is not necessary to use an external indicator, because the colour change is so intense that no indicator is required. The permanganate ion is purple while the manganese(II) ion is colourless. $KMnO_4$ acts as its own indicator.



Figure 1.4 Potassium permanganate solution has an intense purple colour in solution

Generally, we place the $KMnO_4$ solution in the burette. As the $KMnO_4$ is added to the solution under investigation, the reducing agent will immediately start to decolourise. The endpoint of the reaction is detected when a pink colour remains in the conical flask, indicating that the MnO_4^- ions are no longer being reduced.

The MnO_4^- ion is only an effective oxidising agent in an acidic medium, so it is necessary to add excess acid (H_2SO_4) to the conical flask before carrying out the titration.

The following redox reaction will occur when permanganate ions are titrated against ferrous ions (Fe²⁺) and oxalates ($C_2O_4^{2-}$):

• Oxidation of ferrous salts $MnO_4^-(aq) + 5Fe^{2+}(aq) + 8H^+(aq) \rightarrow$ permanganate ions ferrous ions

$$\frac{\mathrm{Mn}^{2+}(\mathit{aq}) + 5\mathrm{Fe}^{3+}(\mathit{aq}) + 4\mathrm{H_2O}(\mathit{l})}{_{\mathrm{ferric\ ions}}}$$

• Oxidation of oxalates $2MnO_{4}^{-}(aq) + 5C_{2}O_{4}^{2-}(aq) + 16H^{+}(aq) \rightarrow$ permanganate ions oxalate ions

 $2Mn^{2+}(aq) + 10CO_2(g) + 8H_2O(l)$

Worked example: Determine the concentration of a solution

Potassium permanganate is used in many redox titrations. Potassium permanganate must be standardised before it is used for analytical purposes. Sodium oxalate $(Na_2(COO)_2)$ can be used as a primary standard for this purpose.

The balanced equation for the reaction between the permanganate and oxalate ions is:

$$\begin{split} & 2\mathrm{MnO}_{4}^{-}(aq) + 16\mathrm{H}^{+}(aq) + \\ & 5(\mathrm{COO})_{2}^{-}(aq) \rightarrow 2\mathrm{Mn}^{2+}(aq) + 8\mathrm{H}_{2}\mathrm{O}(l) \\ & + 10\mathrm{CO}_{2}(g) \end{split}$$

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> A solution containing 0.161 g of sodium oxalate $(Na_2(COO)_2)$ reacted with 26.7 ml of a potassium permanganate solution. Determine the concentration of this solution.

 $n_{\rm RA} = \frac{m}{M} = \frac{0.161 \text{ g}}{134 \text{ g} \cdot \text{mol}^{-1}} = 0.0012 \text{ mol}$

From the equation:

 $n(\text{MnO}_{4}^{-}) = \frac{2}{5}n((\text{COO})_{2}^{2-})$ = $\frac{2}{5} \times 0.0012 \text{ mol} = 0.000481 \text{ mol}$ $c(\text{MnO}_{4}^{-}) = \frac{n}{V} = \frac{0.000481 \text{ mol}}{0.0267 \text{ dm}^{-3}}$ = 0.0180 M

Experiment 1.4 Redox titration with potassium permanganate

Aim: To standardise an iron(II) solution using a standard solution of potassium permanganate

The equation of the reaction taking place during the titration is:

 $MnO_{4}^{-}(aq) + 5Fe^{2+}(aq) + 8H^{+}(aq) \rightarrow$ $Mn^{2+}(aq) + 5Fe^{3+}(aq) + 4H_{2}O(l)$

Materials/apparatus:

- burette
- conical flask
- burette stand
- pipette
- measuring cylinder
- standardised KMnO₄
- iron(II) solution of unknown concentration
- dilute H_2SO_4 solution

Method:

- **1.** Fill the burette with $KMnO_4$ and record the initial reading.
- 2. Rinse the pipette with iron(II) solution, then transfer 25 cm³ into a clean conical flask and add 10 cm³ dilute H_2SO_4 .
- Titrate the iron(II) solution with the KMnO₄ while swirling the conical flask until the solution just retains a permanent pink colour.
- **4.** Repeat the titration twice using fresh samples each time.
- Record your reading in a table and calculate the average volume of KMnO₄ used.

Questions:

- **1.** From your results, calculate the amount of iron(II) in 25 cm³ of iron(II) solution.
- 2. Calculate the concentration (in mol·dm⁻³) of the iron(II) solution.



Figure 1.5 Redox titration with potassium permanganate