Colloidal Dispersions:

I. Introduction & Basic Concepts

- **Definition:** A heterogeneous system in which one substance is dispersed (dispersed phase) as very fine particles in another substance (dispersion medium). Particle size is intermediate between true solutions and suspensions (approx. 1 nm to 1000 nm).
- **Key Distinction:** Not homogeneous (like true solutions) and not settling (like suspensions).
- Phases:
 - **Dispersed Phase:** The substance present in colloidal form.
 - o **Dispersion Medium:** The medium in which the colloidal particles are dispersed.
- Types (on basis of state of dispersed phase & medium): (Refer to common table, e.g., solid in liquid = sol, liquid in gas = aerosol, solid in gas = aerosol, liquid in liquid = emulsion, gas in liquid = foam, etc.)

Aerosols: Solid/Liquid in Gas

Sols: Solid in Liquid

Emulsions: Liquid in LiquidFoams: Gas in Liquid/Solid

o Gels: Liquid in Solid

II. Classification of Colloids

- A. Based on Physical State of Dispersed Phase and Dispersion Medium: (See common table, e.g., milk is liquid in liquid emulsion, smoke is solid in gas aerosol, fog is liquid in gas aerosol, paint is solid in liquid sol, etc.) Be able to give examples!
- B. Based on Nature of Interaction between Dispersed Phase and Dispersion Medium:
 - 1. Lyophilic Colloids (Solvent-Loving):
 - **Nature:** Strong affinity between dispersed phase and medium.
 - **Examples:** Starch, gum, gelatin, proteins in water.
 - **Preparation:** Direct mixing (spontaneous).
 - **Stability:** Highly stable due to solvation layer and charge.
 - **Reversibility:** Reversible (if medium evaporated, can be reconstituted).
 - **Viscosity:** High viscosity.
 - Surface Tension: Lower than medium.
 - Coagulation: Difficult to coagulate; require high electrolyte concentration.
 - 2. Lyophobic Colloids (Solvent-Hating):
 - Nature: Little or no affinity between dispersed phase and medium.
 - Examples: Metal sols (Au, Ag), metal hydroxides, sulfides in water.
 - **Preparation:** Special methods required (condensation or dispersion).
 - **Stability:** Less stable; stabilized primarily by charge repulsion.

- Reversibility: Irreversible (once coagulated, cannot be easily reconstituted).
- Viscosity: Similar to medium.
- **Surface Tension:** Similar to medium.
- Coagulation: Easily coagulated by small amounts of electrolytes.
- 3. Association Colloids (Micelles):
 - Nature: Formed by aggregation of molecules (e.g., soaps, detergents) above a certain concentration (Critical Micelle Concentration, CMC) and temperature (Krafft Temperature).
 - **Structure:** Hydrophilic head (polar) on surface, hydrophobic tail (non-polar) in core
 - **Examples:** Soaps, synthetic detergents.
 - Application: Cleansing action (emulsification of grease).
- C. Based on Type of Particles of the Dispersed Phase:
 - 1. Multimolecular Colloids:
 - Nature: Aggregates of many atoms/small molecules (e.g., sulfur sol, gold sol).
 - Particle Size: Individual particles are smaller than 1 nm, but aggregate is in colloidal range.
 - Forces: Held by van der Waals forces.
 - 2. Macromolecular Colloids:
 - Nature: Large molecules (macromolecules) themselves are in colloidal range.
 - **Examples:** Polymers (nylon, polystyrene), starch, proteins, enzymes.
 - **Stability:** Resemble true solutions in many respects (stable).
 - 3. Associated Colloids (Micelles): (Already covered above)

III. Preparation of Colloidal Sols

- A. Condensation Methods (Aggregating Smaller Particles):
 - 1. Chemical Methods: Double decomposition, oxidation, reduction, hydrolysis.
 - Examples:
 - As_2S_3 sol: $2H_2S + As_2O_3 \rightarrow As_2S_3$ (sol) + $3H_2O$ (double decomposition)
 - Sulfur sol: $2H_2S + SO_2 \rightarrow 3S$ (sol) + $2H_2O$ (oxidation)
 - Gold sol: $2AuCl_3 + 3HCOOH \rightarrow 2Au$ (sol) + $3CO_2 + 6HCl$ (reduction)
 - Ferric hydroxide sol: $FeCl_3 + 3H_2O \rightarrow Fe(OH)_3$ (sol) + 3HCl (hydrolysis)
 - **2. Exchange of Solvent:** Substance insoluble in one solvent but soluble in another (e.g., sulfur in alcohol + water).
 - **3. Excessive Cooling:** Ice particles in ether/chloroform.
- B. Dispersion Methods (Breaking Down Larger Particles):
 - **1. Mechanical Dispersion:** Colloid mill (e.g., paints, inks, ointments). Grinding larger particles in a mill to colloidal size.
 - 2. Electrical Disintegration (Bredig's Arc Method): For preparing metal sols (Au, Ag, Pt). Electric arc struck between electrodes of metal immersed in dispersion medium. Intense heat vaporizes metal, which condenses to form colloidal particles.
 - 3. Peptization: Process of converting a precipitate into a colloidal sol by shaking it
 with dispersion medium in the presence of a small amount of electrolyte (peptizing

agent). Adsorption of ions from peptizing agent onto precipitate surface leads to repulsion and disintegration.

■ Example: Freshly prepared $Fe(OH)_3$ precipitate + small amount of $FeCl_3 \rightarrow Fe(OH)_3$ sol.

IV. Purification of Colloidal Sols

 Purpose: To remove excess electrolytes and other soluble impurities that destabilize colloids.

• A. Dialysis:

- Principle: Diffusion of ions and small molecules through a semi-permeable membrane, while colloidal particles (too large) are retained.
- **Setup:** Dialyzing bag (parchment paper, cellophane) containing sol, suspended in continuously flowing pure water.
- **Limitations:** Slow process.

• B. Electrodialysis:

- **Principle:** Faster dialysis using electric field. Ions move faster towards oppositely charged electrodes.
- **Setup:** Electrodes placed across the membrane.

• C. Ultrafiltration:

- Principle: Forcing sol through special filters (ultrafilters) with pores smaller than colloidal particles, but large enough for solvent and small impurities.
- **Preparation of Ultrafilters:** Collodion solution (nitrocellulose in alcohol/ether) hardened by formaldehyde.
- **Application:** More effective for separating colloids from impurities.

V. Properties of Colloidal Dispersions

• A. Colligative Properties:

- o Colloidal particles are aggregates, so number of particles is small.
- Osmotic pressure, freezing point depression, boiling point elevation, relative lowering of vapor pressure are small compared to true solutions of same concentration.

• B. Tyndall Effect:

 Phenomenon: Scattering of light by colloidal particles when a beam of light is passed through the sol, making the path visible.

Conditions:

- 1. Diameter of dispersed particles not much smaller than wavelength of light used.
- Refractive indices of dispersed phase and dispersion medium must differ appreciably.

Applications:

- Distinguishes true solutions (no Tyndall effect) from colloids.
- Used in ultramicroscope to observe colloidal particles indirectly.

C. Color:

Dependent on wavelength of light scattered (which depends on particle size, nature,

- and observer's position).
- o Example: Gold sol can be red, purple, blue, gold depending on particle size.

• D. Brownian Movement:

- **Phenomenon:** Continuous, random, zigzag motion of colloidal particles.
- Cause: Unbalanced bombardment by molecules of the dispersion medium.
- Importance: Provides evidence for kinetic theory of matter; prevents particles from settling (stability).

• E. Electrical Properties:

1. Charge on Colloidal Particles:

 All colloidal particles in a given sol carry the same type of charge (either positive or negative). This is the main reason for their stability (repulsion prevents aggregation).

Origin of Charge:

- **Preferential Adsorption of Ions:** Most common. Particles adsorb ions from the medium that are common to their own lattice or those that are preferentially adsorbed.
 - Example: Fe(OH)₃ sol (prepared from FeCl₃): Fe(OH)₃ + Fe³⁺ \rightarrow Fe(OH)₃/Fe³⁺ (positive sol). Or As₂S₃ sol: As₂S₃ + S²⁻ \rightarrow As₂S₃/S²⁻ (negative sol).
- Adsorption of Dipolar Molecules: (e.g., soaps, proteins).
- Dissociation of Surface Molecules: (e.g., proteins).
- Common Positive Sols: Hydrated metal oxides (Fe(OH)₃, Al(OH)₃), basic dyes (methylene blue), hemoglobin.
- Common Negative Sols: Metal sols (Au, Ag, Pt), metal sulfides (As₂S₃, CdS), acid dyes (Congo red), starch, gum.

2. Electrophoresis (Cataphoresis):

- **Phenomenon:** Movement of charged colloidal particles under an applied electric field towards the oppositely charged electrode.
- Applications: Determining charge on sol particles, separating charged particles.

3. Electro-osmosis:

■ Phenomenon: Movement of dispersion medium (solvent) relative to the stationary dispersed phase under an applied electric field. Occurs when colloidal particles are prevented from moving.

4. Zeta Potential (Electrokinetic Potential):

- **Concept:** The potential difference between the fixed layer and the diffuse layer of opposite charge in the electrical double layer around a colloidal particle.
- **Significance:** Higher zeta potential means greater repulsion between particles, leading to greater stability of the sol.

• F. Coagulation/Flocculation/Precipitation:

• **Definition:** The process of aggregation of colloidal particles to form larger particles which settle down.

Methods of Coagulation:

■ 1. By Electrophoresis: Particles move to electrode, lose charge, coagulate.

- 2. By Mixing Two Oppositely Charged Sols: Mutual coagulation (e.g., positive Fe(OH)₃ sol + negative As₂S₃ sol).
- **3. By Boiling:** Increases collisions, removes adsorbed layer, reduces charge.
- 4. By Persistent Dialysis: Removes stabilizing electrolyte, leading to coagulation.
- 5. By Adding Electrolytes: Most important method.

■ Hardy-Schulze Rule:

- The coagulating power of an electrolyte is directly proportional to the valency of the active ion (the ion carrying charge opposite to that on the colloidal particles).
- Example: For a negative sol (e.g., As_2S_3), the coagulating power of cations follows: $Al^{3+} > Ba^{2+} > Na^+$.
- For a positive sol (e.g., Fe(OH)₃), the coagulating power of anions follows: $[Fe(CN)_6]^{4-} > PO_4^{3-} > SO_4^{2-} > Cl^-$.
- Flocculation Value: Minimum concentration of an electrolyte required to cause coagulation of a sol in 2 hours. Lower flocculation value means higher coagulating power.

• G. Protection of Colloids:

- **Concept:** Lyophilic colloids can protect lyophobic colloids from coagulation.
- Mechanism: Lyophilic colloid forms a protective layer around lyophobic particles, preventing them from coming together and also contributing to stability through solvation.
- **Gold Number:** Minimum weight of a protective colloid (in milligrams) which prevents the coagulation of 10 mL of a standard gold sol when 1 mL of 10% NaCl solution is added to it. Lower gold number indicates higher protective power. (Gelatin has a low gold number, high protective power).
- Conductivity Test: O/W shows higher conductivity than W/O (due to continuous water phase).
- **Demulsification:** Breaking an emulsion into its constituent liquids.
 - **Methods:** Boiling, freezing, centrifugation, adding electrolytes, adding demulsifiers.

VII. Applications of Colloids

• **Medicine:** Colloidal medicines are more effective due to large surface area and easy absorption (e.g., Argyrol - silver sol as eye lotion, milk of magnesia, colloidal gold/calcium/iron).

• Industry:

- Purification of Water: Alum (Al₂O₃) used to coagulate suspended impurities.
- Smoke Precipitation (Cottrell Precipitator): Electrostatic precipitation of carbon particles from smoke in chimneys.
- **Tanning:** Animal hides (positively charged protein) treated with negatively charged tannin to form leather.
- **Rubber Industry:** Latex (negatively charged rubber particles) is coagulated with acid to form rubber.

- o **Photography:** Gelatin (protective colloid) with AgBr in photographic plates.
- o **Dyeing:** Colloidal dyes adsorbed by fabrics.
- Cleansing Action of Soaps/Detergents: Micelle formation.
- **Sewage Disposal:** Electrical precipitation of sewage particles.
- **Formation of Deltas:** River water (colloidal clay) coagulates upon meeting sea water (electrolytes).
- Everyday Life: Milk, butter, cheese, ink, paints, blood (albuminous substance is a protective colloid), fog, clouds.