

WJEC Chemistry A-Level

PI5.2: Acid-Base Equilibria

Detailed Notes English Specification

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Lowry-Brønsted Theory

Acid-base equilibria involve the **transfer of protons** between substances. Therefore, substances can be classified as **acids or bases** depending on their interaction with protons. This is the **Lowry-Brønsted theory** that helps to classify substances.

A Lowry-Brønsted **acid** is a proton **donor**. For example, ammonium ions (NH⁴ +). A Lowry-Brønsted **base** is a proton **acceptor**. For example, hydroxide ions (OH-).

Acid and Base Strength

Acid strength doesn't refer to the concentration of a solution. A **strong acid** is defined as being:

An acid that (almost) completely dissociates into its ions.

Examples of strong acids include HCI, H_2SO_4 and HNO₃. The **pH** of strong acids ranges from 0 to 3.

In comparison, a **weak acid** is defined as being:

An acid that partially dissociates when in solution.

Examples of weak acids include any organic carboxylic acid - like ethanoic acid. The **pH** of weak acids ranges from 4 to just below 7.

The same definitions are true for **strong and weak bases**.

Examples of **strong bases** are NaOH, KOH and Ca(OH)₂. Strong bases have **pH** 12-14. Examples of weak bases are NH₃ and CH₃NH₂. Weak bases have pH from just above 7 to 11.

Dissociation Constant Ka

Due to weak acids and bases only being able to **slightly dissociate**, they form an **equilibrium system** with an equilibrium dissociation constant, **Ka**.

$$
HA \rightleftharpoons H^+ + A^-
$$
\n
$$
Ka = \underbrace{[H^+][A^-]}_{[HA]}
$$

The **stronger** the acid, the **higher** the Ka value. This is because strong acids **dissociate** to ions more, meaning the **concentration of ions** at equilibrium is much greater, making Ka increase in value.

For a **weak acid** you can assume that all the H⁺ ions in solution come from the acid so that $[H^*_{(aq)}] \approx [A^-_{(aq)}]$ and you can assume that $[HA]_{equilibrium} \approx [HA]_{start}$.

So for a weak acid:

$$
\mathsf{Ka} = \underbrace{[\mathsf{H}^+]^2}_{[\mathsf{HA}]}
$$

Ka has the **units** mol dm-3 .

Ka can also be used to find **pKa**:

$$
pKa = -\log_{10} Ka
$$

$$
Ka = 10^{-pKa}
$$

The Ionic Product of Water

In **water** the following **equilibrium** is set up:

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

So,

Since [H₂O] is very large compared to [H⁺] and [OH], [H₂O]Kc can be considered to be **constant**. Then $[H_2O]$ Kc = Kw and so Kw = $[H^*][OH]$:

$$
\mathsf{Kw} = [\mathsf{H}^*][\mathsf{OH}]
$$

At **25^oC**, room temperature, Kw has a **constant value of 1 x 10-14**. However, as temperature changes, the value of this constant changes.

The **forward reaction** in the equilibrium of water is **endothermic** and is therefore favoured when the temperature of the water is increased. As a result, the pH at which water is neutral (concentration of H⁺ and OH- is still the same) **decreases with rising temperature**.

Acid-Base Calculations

The relationships between **Ka, pKa, Kw** and **[H⁺]** can be used to carry out calculations involving weak or strong acids and bases.

Depending on the reaction taking place and the relative concentrations of the species, a different method has to be used:

Strong acid - Assume [H⁺] is equal to [HA]. Use this in the formula pH=-log₁₀[H⁺]. **Strong base** - Use Kw to find $[H^+]$ then use the formula pH=- $log_{10}[H^+]$. Weak acids - Use Ka. Assume [H⁺] and [A⁻] are the same for monoprotic acids. Assume [HA] at equilibrium is the same as the concentration of weak acid at the start. **Buffers** - Use Ka, but remember: [H⁺] ≠[A⁻]

If [HA] = [A-] - In this case, pKa is equal to pH, so find pKa.

Titration Curves

A pH titration curve shows how **pH of a solution changes** during an acid-base reaction. When the species reacts, a **neutralisation point** is reached which can be identified as a **large**

vertical section on the pH curve. The neutralisation point is also known as the **equivalence point**.

To produce a pH curve, an alkali is slowly added to an acid (or vice versa) and the pH measured at **regular intervals** using a **pH probe**. The **smaller** the added volumes, the **more accurate** the curve produced.

For a **strong acid - strong base** reaction, this **neutralisation** point occurs around **pH 7**. Other combinations of strong and weak acids and bases results at a **different neutralisation point**:

Strong Acid + Strong Base = pH 7

Strong Acid + Weak Base < pH 7 (more acidic)

Weak Acid + Strong Base > pH 7 (more basic)

Weak Acid + Weak Base = normally pH 7 but hard to determine

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Buffer Action

An **acidic buffer solution** is formed from a weak **acid and one of its salts** and a **basic buffer solution** is formed from a weak **base and one of its salts**. This produces a mixture containing H⁺ ions and a large **reservoir of OH**⁻ ions which helps to **resist any change** in pH. Therefore, a buffer solution is defined as:

> **A solution which is able to resist changes in pH when small volumes of acid or base are added.**

The large reservoir of OH- ions allows the ratio of acid to base in the mixture to be kept **almost constant**.

The following **equilibrium** is set up within the **acidic buffer** solution made by mixing **sodium ethanoate with ethanoic acid**:

 $CH₃COOH \doteq H⁺ + CH₃COO⁻$

If a small amount of **acid is added**, the concentration of H^+ increases. Most of the extra H⁺ ions combine with **CH3COO-** ions to form **CH3COOH** so the **equilibrium shifts to the left**. This reduces the concentration of H⁺ to near to its **original value** so the pH does not change. This is how a buffer solution works.

Buffer Calculations

Ka, pKa, pH and **Kw** can all be used in buffer calculations. These are long, often complex, problems that use acid-base relationships. There are two main types, with differing methods:

Example:

 Q) A buffer solution contains 0.35 mol dm⁻³ methanoic acid and 0.73 mol dm⁻³ sodium methanoate. For methanoic acid, Ka = 1.6×10^{-4} mol dm⁻³. Find the pH of this buffer solution.

Uses of Buffers

Buffer solutions are **common in nature** in order to keep systems regulated. This is important as **enzymes** or reactions in living organisms often require a **specific pH**, which can be maintained using a **buffer solution**.

Industrial processes now also use buffer solutions to try and maintain the **optimum** reaction conditions for large scale manufacturing.

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Chemical Indicators

Specific indicators have to be used for specific reactions as they can only **indicate a pH change within a certain range**.

The two most common indicators used at A-Level are **methyl orange** and **phenolphthalein**:

Methyl Orange

Methyl orange is used in reactions with a more **acidic neutralisation** point. The colour change occurs at **pH range 3.1-4.4**. It is **red** in acids and turns **yellow** at the neutralisation point.

Phenolphthalein

Phenolphthalein is used for reaction with a more **basic neutralisation** point. The colour change occurs at **pH range 8.3-10**. It is **pink** in alkalis and turns **colourless** at the neutralisation point.

It is really important that the **correct indicator** is selected to use in a titration depending on the chemicals being used and the order in which they are being combined.

