

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 (NH_4^+) . 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 HNO_3 . 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.

$$HA \rightleftharpoons H^{+} + A^{-}$$
$$Ka = \underline{[H^{+}][A^{-}]}$$
$$[HA]$$

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:

$$Ka = [H^+]^2$$
[HA]

Ka has the **units** mol dm⁻³.

Ka can also be used to find pKa:





The Ionic Product of Water

In water the following equilibrium is set up:

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

So,

Kc =	[H⁺][OH⁻]
	[H ₂ O]

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

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

At 25° C, room temperature, Kw has a constant value of 1×10^{-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 $pH=-log_{10}[H^+]$. **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⁺] \neq [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

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**:

 $CH_3COOH \Rightarrow H^+ + CH_3COO^-$

If a small amount of **acid is added**, the concentration of H^+ **increases**. Most of the extra H^+ ions combine with CH_3COO^- ions to form CH_3COOH 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:

Acid + Base	 Find the number of moles of each species after they have reacted. Calculate the concentration at equilibrium using the total volume. Use Ka to find [H⁺] and then use pH=-log₁₀[H⁺].
Acid + Salt	- Find the moles of the salt and the acid. - Use Ka to find pH.

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.

A) First write out the equation of the	reaction: $HCOOH \rightleftharpoons H^+ + HCOO^-$
Next find the expression for Ka:	Ka = ([H⁺][HCOO⁻]) / [HCOOH]
Rearrange Ka to give [H ⁺]:	[H⁺] = Ka x ([HCOOH] / [HCOO ⁻])
Substitute in the values given:	$[H^+] = (1.6 \times 10^{-4}) \times (0.35 / 0.73) = 7.67 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol dm}^{-3}$
Convert [H⁺] to pH:	$pH = -log_{10}[H^+] = -log_{10}(7.67 \times 10^{-5}) = 4.12$

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.

