

CHEMISTRY

LEAVING CERTIFICATE
HIGHER LEVEL

ACID & BASE /
VOLUMETRIC ANALYSIS
TITRATION



**THE DUBLIN
ACADEMY OF
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Acids and Bases

Junior Cert Definitions:

Properties of acids:

- Have a sour taste
- React with bases to form salt and water
 $\text{HCl} + \text{NaOH} \rightarrow \text{NaCl} + \text{H}_2\text{O}$
- React with metals to form a salt plus hydrogen
 $\text{H}_2\text{SO}_4 + \text{Zn} \rightarrow \text{ZnSO}_4 + \text{H}_2$
- React with carbonates to form a salt plus water plus carbon dioxide
 $\text{CaCO}_3 + 2\text{HCl} \rightarrow \text{CaCl}_2 + \text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{CO}_2$
- Turn blue litmus red
- $\text{pH} < 7$

Properties of bases

- Neutralise acids.
- Have a bitter taste
- Can be very caustic: (*corrode* through materials)
- Base that dissolves in water is known as alkali. E.g sodium hydroxide.
- Turn red litmus blue
- $\text{pH} > 7$

Leaving Cert Chemistry:

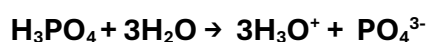
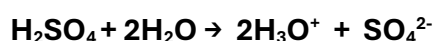
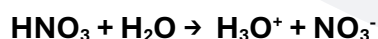
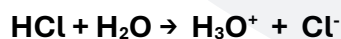
1. Arrhenius Theory of Acids and Bases

- *Received the Nobel Prize for Chemistry in 1903 for his theory about the dissociation of substances in solution.*



Definition: An Arrhenius acid is a substance that dissociates in water to produce H^+ ions. (Hydronium ions)

Examples:



Strong vs Weak Acids:

Definition: A strong acid is one that fully (readily) dissociates in water to produce H⁺ ions.

(Do not confuse with concentrated acid)

Common strong acids – HCl, H₂SO₄, H₃PO₄, HNO₃.

Hydrochloric and nitric acids are **monobasic (monoprotic)** - they dissociate to produce **one H⁺ ion**.

Sulphuric acid is **dibasic (diprotic)** - they dissociate to produce **two H⁺ ions**.

Phosphoric acid is **tribasic (triprotic)** – dissociate in water to produce **three H⁺ ions**.

The above acids dissociate fully in water and are said to be strong acids.

Definition: A weak acid is one that does not readily dissociate in water to produce H⁺ ions.

(Do not confuse with dilute acids)

Common weak acids: Carbonic acid (H₂CO₃), Ethanoic acid (CH₃COOH), Citric acid, Ascorbic acid (vitamin C) are examples of weak acids.

Formic acid as found in an ant bite or nettle sting is not dangerous – it is not very concentrated and they are small in volume, but in a bottle the acid has the potential to be dangerous.

pH (Covered more in detail in Equilibrium (6.1))

$$\text{pH} = -\log [\text{H}^+]$$

Bases (Arrhenius)

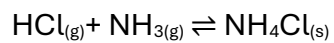
Definition : An Arrhenius base dissociates in water to produce OH⁻ ions (hydroxide ions)

Strong bases such as NaOH and KOH dissociate fully in water to produce OH⁻ ions

Weak bases such as Calcium hydroxide (Ca(OH)₂) and Magnesium hydroxide (Mg(OH)₂) do not dissociate fully in water to produce OH⁻ ions .

Limitations of Arrhenius

- It is H_3O^+ not H^+ that exists in water
- Restricted to aqueous solutions even though not all acid - base reactions require water.



- Doesn't account for amphiprotic / amphoteric behaviour



2. Brønsted – Lowry Theory of Acids and Bases

Independently had same idea at the same time (1923)



Definition: An **acid** is a **proton (H⁺) donor**.

- **Strong acids readily donate protons.**
- **Weak acids do not readily donate protons (H⁺ ions)**

Definition: A **base** is a **proton (H⁺) acceptor**.

- **Strong bases readily accept protons**
- **Weak bases do not readily accept protons**

Acid-base reactions involve the **transfer of a proton** from the acid to the base.

Advantages of Brønsted – Lowry Theory

- Not limited to reactions in water
- Allows more species to be regarded as acids and bases
- Explains the amphoteric nature of some substances such as water and ammonia

Conjugate Acid/Base Pairs

Definition: A conjugate pair are two substances that differ by a proton (H⁺)

Example: $\text{HCl} + \text{H}_2\text{O} \rightleftharpoons \text{H}_3\text{O}^+ + \text{Cl}^-$

HCl donates a proton (H⁺) to become Cl⁻ so it is an acid.

H₂O accepts a proton to become H₃O⁺ so it is a base.

The reaction is reversible.

H₃O⁺ gives away a proton (H⁺) to become H₂O so it is an acid.

Cl⁻ accepts a proton to become HCl so it is a base.

Acids → Conjugate Base

The stronger the acid / base the weaker the conjugate base / acid

Base → Conjugate Acid

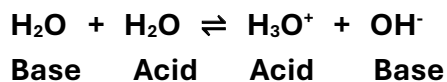
The weaker the acid / base the stronger the conjugate base / acid.

	ACID	BASE	
100% ionized in H ₂ O	HCl	Cl ⁻	Negligible
	H ₂ SO ₄	HSO ₄ ⁻	
	HNO ₃	NO ₃ ⁻	
Acid strength increases ↑	H ₃ O ⁺ (aq)	H ₂ O	Base strength increases ↓
	HSO ₄ ⁻	SO ₄ ²⁻	
	H ₃ PO ₄	H ₂ PO ₄ ⁻	
	HF	F ⁻	
	HC ₂ H ₃ O ₂	C ₂ H ₃ O ₂ ⁻	
	H ₂ CO ₃	HCO ₃ ⁻	
	H ₂ S	HS ⁻	
	H ₂ PO ₄ ⁻	HPO ₄ ²⁻	
	NH ₄ ⁺	NH ₃	
	HCO ₃ ⁻	CO ₃ ²⁻	
	HPO ₄ ²⁻	PO ₄ ³⁻	
	Negligible	H ₂ O	
OH ⁻		O ²⁻	
H ₂		H ⁻	
	CH ₄	CH ₃ ⁻	100% protonated in H ₂ O

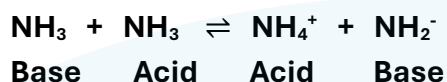
Amphiprotic / Amphoteric Substances

An amphiprotic substance is one which can act as an acid or a base.

Eg: **Self Ionisation of Water**



Another Example



This only happens to a very limited extent

Neutralisation Reactions



A **salt** is the substance formed when the **hydrogen in an acid** is replaced **by a metal** (or ammonium ion).

Everyday Examples of Neutralisation

- Shampoo is slightly basic and conditioner is slightly acidic.
- Wasp stings are alkaline and can be neutralised using vinegar (ethanoic acid).
- Bee stings are acidic and are neutralised using baking soda (basic).
- Medicine: Alka Seltzer / Gaviscon contains sodium bicarbonate which neutralises excess HCl acid found in the stomach.
- Acidic soil can be treated with lime (CaO) to neutralise it, and basic soil can be treated sulphuric acid to neutralise it.

Sample LC Questions:

2024:

9. (a) (i) Explain why ammonia (NH_3) is considered to be a base according to the Brønsted-Lowry theory but is not considered to be a base according to the Arrhenius theory.

The self-ionisation of liquid ammonia is described by the following balanced chemical equation:



- (ii) Identify the conjugate acid of NH_3 in this equilibrium.
(iii) Identify the conjugate base of NH_3 in this equilibrium. (12)

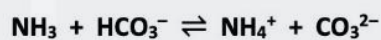
2023:

7. (a) Sulfuric acid is a strong dibasic acid; chloric(I) acid (HOCl) is a weak monobasic acid.

- (i) Define an acid according to the Brønsted-Lowry theory.
(ii) What is a strong acid?
(iii) Identify the conjugate base of HOCl .
(iv) Identify the conjugate acid of HSO_4^- . (12)

2023 (Deferred Paper)

9. (a) What is an acid according to
(i) the Arrhenius theory,
(ii) the Brønsted-Lowry theory?
(iii) Identify the two species acting as Brønsted-Lowry acids in the equilibrium below.



- (iv) Why can ammonia (NH_3) *not* be classified as a base according to the Arrhenius theory? (20)

Volumetric Analysis

Volumetric analysis is analysis using **volumes of solutions** and **their concentrations**.

Solutions

A **solution** is a **uniform mixture** of two substances.

Solute + Solvent = **Solution**

Concentrated solutions have large amounts of solute per unit solution

Dilute solutions have small amounts of solute per unit solution

Ways of expressing concentration

- **Molarity** (mols per litre) - M
 - e.g 0.5 M = 0.5 mols/L
- **g / dm³** (g/L)
- **% w / v** (weight per volume)
- **% v / v** (volume per volume)
- **% w / w** (weight per weight)
- **p.p.m** (mg L⁻¹) (Parts Per Million)

Molarity

- **moles per litre:** mols / dm³, mol.dm⁻³ or mol / L
- A **1 molar (1M) solution** contains **1 mole of solute per 1 litre** of solution.

This is the most common way of expressing concentration of the solutions in the lab.

What is the molarity of these solutions?

(i) 8 g NaOH in 200 cm³ of solution
solution

(ii) 5 g KMnO₄ in 600 cm³ of

(iii) 18 g K₂Cr₂O₇ in 400 cm³ of solution

(iv) 20 g HNO₃ in 100 cm³ of solution

(v) 25 g CuSO₄·5H₂O in 50 cm³ of solⁿ

(vi) 40 g of NaOH in 1600 cm³ of solⁿ

2. Grams per litre (g /dm³, g.dm⁻³ or g/L)

- grams of solute per litre of solution

$$\text{Concentration} = \text{Molarity} * \text{Molar Mass}$$

Eg: What is the concentration of 0.2 M NaCl in g / dm³ ?

$$M_r \text{ NaCl} = 23 + 35.5 = 58.5 \text{ g/mol}$$

$$\text{Conc.} = \text{Molarity} \times M_r$$

$$\text{conc} = 0.2 \text{ mol/dm}^3 \times 58.5 \text{ g/mol}$$

$$= \mathbf{11.7 \text{ g/dm}^3 \text{ (g.dm}^{-3}\text{)}}$$

Try a few:

(i) 0.1 M NaOH

(ii) 0.5 M H₂SO₄

(ii) 0.05 M KMnO₄

(iv) 10 M NH₄OH

(v) 2.5 M HNO₃

(vi) 0.0125 M HCl

Moles in solutions:

$$\text{Moles} = \frac{\text{Volume (cm}^3\text{)} \times \text{conc (moles/L)}}{1000}$$

Eg: How many moles of nitric acid (HNO₃) are contained in 50 cm³ of 0.05M nitric acid.

Effect of dilutions on concentration

Eg. If 20cm³ of a 0.1M NaOH solution is diluted to a volume of 250cm³ with water, what is the concentration of the diluted solution.

$$\text{Formula} = V_{\text{dil}} \times M_{\text{dil}} = V_{\text{conc}} \times M_{\text{conc}}$$

Try a few:

- (i) If 10cm³ of a 2 M solution of nitric acid is diluted to a volume of 2 L, what is the concentration of the diluted acid?
- (ii) If 12cm³ of a 0.1 M solution of sodium hydroxide is diluted to a volume of 500cm³, what is the concentration of the diluted base?
- (iii) What volume of a 1M solution of sodium hydroxide is required to make up 250 cm³ of a 0.05 M NaOH solution?
- (iv) What volume of a 0.5 M solution of sulfuric acid is required to make up 250 cm³ of a 0.1 M H₂SO₄ solution?

16.2 Standard Solutions

A Primary Standard is a substance which can be obtained in a stable, pure and soluble solid form, so that it can be accurately weighed and dissolved to give a solution of known concentration.

A **Standard Solution** is a solution where the concentration is accurately known.

It is prepared by dissolving a precisely known amount of solute (primary standard) in a suitable solvent (de-ionised water)

Examples of Primary Standards

- **anhydrous** Na_2CO_3
- NaCl
- $\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$.

We cannot use:

- KMnO_4 as Primary Standard - it cannot be obtained pure and it is effected by sunlight.
- Iodine [I_2] because it sublimates and it is not soluble in water.
- KOH or NaOH they absorb CO_2 and moisture from the air.

Secondary Standard A solution whose concentration is found by titrating it against a primary standard solution.

Standardise means to find the concentration of a solution by titrating it against a solution of known concentration.

16.3 Titrations

A titration is a laboratory procedure where a measured volume of one solution (of known concentration) is added to a known volume of another solution (where the concentration is not known) until the reaction is complete and the concentration can be calculated.

To make a standard solution:

- Accurately weigh primary standard (solute) on a **clock glass** and transfer into a beaker and **dissolve** in a small amount of deionised water.
- Transfer to a **volumetric flask** using a **funnel**.
- Add **rinsings** from beaker into the volumetric flask.
- Using a water bottle add more distilled water until you are 1cm from the calibration mark.
- Add dropwise until the **bottom of the meniscus is on the line**, reading it at **eye-level**.
- **Stopper and invert** to ensure a homogenous solution.

To use a Pipette

- Rinse with **deionised water** and with the **solution** it will contain.
- Fill using **pipette filler** until bottom of the meniscus is on the graduation mark, reading at eye level.
- Empty the pipette into a conical flask, touching the tip of the pipette against the side of the flask. (There will be a drop left in the tip of the pipette, but it is calibrated to allow for this).



To use a Burette

- Rinse with **deionised water** and then with the **solution** it is going to contain.
- **Clamp vertically**
- **Fill burette above the 0 cm³ mark using a funnel and remove it** (*as drops may fall from it or it may dip into the liquid giving a false level*).
- Run the solution through the tip to **remove the air bubble**.
- Read the volume from the **bottom of meniscus at eye level** – Initial Volume.



*KMnO₄ - read from the top of the meniscus.

*Do not put NaOH in burette it may react with glass of burette or block tap

To use a Conical Flask

- Rinse out with **deionised water only** (do not rinse with the solution it will contain)
- Place on white tile - to see colour change of indicator more easily.
- Mix continuously by swirling
- Wash down drops on the side of the flask with deionised water if required. (This won't affect amount of reactant in flask or change the result as there is no change in amount of solute present)



To use a Volumetric Flask

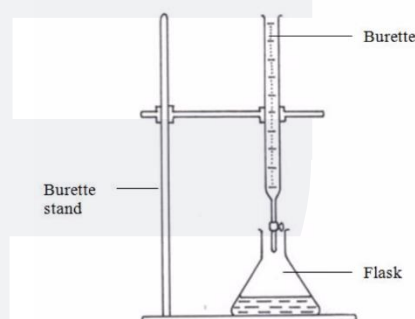
Long thin neck to make it accurate.

- Fill, using a **funnel**, until nearly at calibration line, add final few cm^3 slowly using a dropper / water bottle.
- Read from **bottom of meniscus at eye level**.
- 20 times to ensure a homogeneous solution.



To carry out a titration

- Use the correct indicator for the type of titration (covered in Booklet 6.1)
- Only 3 - 4 drops of indicator should be used as they are weak acid/bases themselves so can affect the result.
- One rough and two accurate titres with the two accurate titres being within 0.1 cm^3 of each other.
- Use the **average the two accurate titres**. (Often in the LC you will just be given one value to use.)
- Mix well by swirling the conical flask, careful not to spill any mixture.
- Add the solution from burette **drop by drop** near the **end point**.
- Endpoint is identified when a readily identifiable **colour change** occurs.
- Rinse down the side of the conical flask using **de-ionised water** as this will not affect the result.



Titration Calculations:

Always identify the standard solution, the solution you know the concentration of, to allow for calculations that follow:

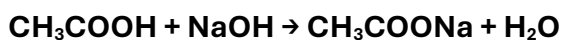
$$n = c \times \frac{V}{1000}$$

Unit: mols/L



- 50.0 cm³ of 0.10 M sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution is titrated with hydrochloric acid (HCl) of unknown concentration. It requires 40.0 cm³ of the HCl solution to completely neutralize the NaOH. Find
 - The average number of moles of NaOH used up in the titration.
 - The number of moles of HCl neutralised in the titration.
 - Find the concentration of the hydrochloric acid in moles / L (0.125M)

- A 0.20 M solution of HCl is used to titrate 25.0 cm³ of NaOH solution of unknown concentration. The volume of HCl required to reach the endpoint is 35.0 cm³.
 - The average number of moles of HCl used up in the titration.
 - The number of moles of NaOH neutralised in the titration.
 - Find the concentration of the NaOH solution. (0.28M)



3. During a titration, 25.0 cm³ of 0.05 M ethanoic acid (CH₃COOH) is neutralized by 22.5 cm³ of sodium hydroxide (NaOH) solution.

- (i) The average number of moles of ethanoic acid (CH₃COOH) used up in the titration.
- (ii) The number of moles of NaOH neutralised in the titration.
- (iii) Find the concentration of the NaOH in moles / L (0.0556mol/L)

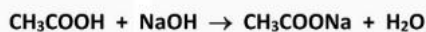
4. In a titration, 25.0 cm³ of 0.10 M ethanoic acid (CH₃COOH) is titrated with sodium hydroxide (NaOH). The titration requires 32.5 cm³ of NaOH to reach the endpoint.

- (i) Calculate the number of moles of ethanoic acid in 25.0 cm³ of 0.10 M solution.
- (ii) Calculate the moles of NaOH that reacted with ethanoic acid.
- (iii) Calculate the concentration of NaOH in mol/L. (0.0769 mol/L)

LC Practice Questions:

- 2024: 1. A student carried out an experiment to determine the concentration of ethanoic acid in vinegar. A 10.0 cm³ portion of the vinegar was first diluted to exactly 50.0 cm³. The diluted vinegar solution was titrated against a 0.09 M sodium hydroxide solution in a conical flask. On average, 12.4 cm³ of the *diluted* vinegar were required to neutralise 25.0 cm³ of the **NaOH** solution.

The titration reaction is described by the following balanced chemical equation:



- (a) (i) Name the piece of apparatus used to measure accurately the 10.0 cm³ portion of the original vinegar.
- (ii) Describe how this piece of apparatus was rinsed before use.
- (iii) Describe a suitable method to dilute the 10.0 cm³ portion of the original vinegar to exactly 50.0 cm³. (15)
- (b) (i) Calculate the volume of *undiluted* vinegar which would be required to neutralise 25.0 cm³ of the 0.09 M **NaOH** solution.
- (ii) Outline an advantage of diluting the vinegar before carrying out the titration. (9)
- (c) (i) Name a suitable indicator for this titration.
- (ii) State the colour change observed at the end point. (9)
- (d) (i) Calculate the number of moles of sodium hydroxide in each 25.0 cm³ portion.
- (ii) Calculate the number of moles of ethanoic acid in each cm³ of the *diluted* vinegar.
- (iii) Calculate the concentration of ethanoic acid in the original vinegar in moles per litre.
- (iv) Calculate the concentration of ethanoic acid in the original vinegar in % (w/v). (17)

2020 Q1:

Washing soda is a cheap, household chemical used for laundry, removing grease and softening water. Washing soda crystals are hydrated sodium carbonate ($\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$). The crystals effloresce (lose some water of crystallisation) in dry air becoming powdery in the process.

To determine the average value of x in the formula $\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3 \cdot x\text{H}_2\text{O}$ for a sample of washing soda, 3.46 g of the crystals were dissolved in deionised water and made up to exactly 250 cm^3 of solution. 25.0 cm^3 volumes of this solution were pipetted into a conical flask and titrated with a previously standardised hydrochloric acid solution using a suitable indicator.

The balanced equation for the titration reaction is:



- (a) Identify a primary standard that could have been used to standardise the hydrochloric acid solution for this analysis. (5)
- (b) Describe how the 250 cm^3 solution of washing soda was prepared starting with 3.46 g of washing soda measured out accurately on a weighing boat. (12)
- (c) (i) Name a suitable indicator for this titration.
(ii) Justify your choice of indicator.
(iii) Using this indicator what colour change was observed in the conical flask at the end point? (12)
- (d) On average 21.5 cm^3 of 0.12 M hydrochloric acid solution were required to completely neutralise 25.0 cm^3 of the washing soda solution.
Find by calculation
(i) the average number of moles of HCl used up in a titration,
(ii) the number of moles of Na_2CO_3 neutralised in each titration,
(iii) the number of moles of Na_2CO_3 in 250 cm^3 of the washing soda solution,
(iv) the mass of Na_2CO_3 in 250 cm^3 of the washing soda solution,
(v) the mass of water of crystallisation and hence the number of moles of water in 3.46 g of the crystals,
(vi) the ratio of moles of water of crystallisation to moles of Na_2CO_3 in the crystals and hence the value of x to the nearest whole number. (21)

