## Acids, Bases and Buffers

## Bronsted - Lowry theory of acids and bases

An acid is a proton donor, e.g. $\mathrm{HCl} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}^{+}+\mathrm{Cl}^{-}$
A base is a proton acceptor, e.g. $\mathrm{NH}_{3}+\mathrm{H}^{+} \rightarrow \mathrm{NH}_{4}{ }^{+}$
Ionic equations can be used to show the role of $\mathrm{H}^{+}$in the reactions of acids with

1. Metals
$2 \mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}+\mathrm{Mg}_{(\mathrm{s})} \rightarrow \mathrm{Mg}^{2+}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}+\mathrm{H}_{2(\mathrm{~g})}$
2. Carbonates
$2 \mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}+\mathrm{MgCO}_{3(\mathrm{~s})} \rightarrow \mathrm{CO}_{2(\mathrm{~g})}+\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{(\mathrm{l})}+\mathrm{Mg}^{2+}{ }_{(\text {aq })}$ Insoluble metal carbonate
$2 \mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{(\text {aq) }}+\mathrm{CO}_{3}{ }^{2-}{ }_{(\text {aq })} \rightarrow \mathrm{CO}_{2(\mathrm{~g})}+\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{(\mathrm{I})} \quad$ Soluble metal carbonate (eg $\mathrm{Na}_{2} \mathrm{CO}_{3}$ )
3. Bases
$\begin{array}{ll}2 \mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{\text {(aq) }}+\mathrm{MgO}_{(\mathrm{s})} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{(l)}+\mathrm{Mg}^{2+}{ }_{(\text {aq })} & \text { Insoluble metal oxide } \\ 2 \mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{(\text {aq })}+\mathrm{O}^{2-(\text { (aq })} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{(l)} & \left.\text { Soluble metal oxide (eg } \mathrm{Na}_{2} \mathrm{O}\right)\end{array}$
4. Alkalis
$\mathrm{H}^{+}\left(\mathrm{aq)}+\mathrm{OH}^{-}\left(\mathrm{aq)} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}_{(\mathrm{l})} \quad\right.\right.$ Soluble acid (eg HCl) and alkali (eg NaOH )
Conjugate acid base pairs are chemicals which have the same formula except that the acid has an extra $\mathrm{H}^{+}$in its formula

| conjugate acid | conjugate base |
| :---: | :---: |
| HCl | $\mathrm{Cl}^{-}$ |
| $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ | $\mathrm{OH}^{-}$ |
| $\mathrm{HNO}_{2}{ }^{2+}$ | $\mathrm{NO}_{2}{ }^{+}$ |
| $\mathrm{H}_{3} \mathrm{O}^{+}$ | $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}$ |

Note that chemicals which are normally found as acids can behave as bases in some reactions e.g. $\mathrm{HNO}_{3}$ has a conjugate acid $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{NO}_{3}{ }^{+}$as well as a conjugate base $\mathrm{NO}_{3}{ }^{-}$

## Strong and weak acids

Strong acids are completely dissociated (broken down) into ions, e.g. hydrochloric and sulphuric acids
eg $\quad \mathrm{HCl}_{(\mathrm{aq})} \rightarrow \mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}+\mathrm{Cl}^{-}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})} \quad \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{SO}_{4(\mathrm{aq})} \rightarrow 2 \mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}+\mathrm{SO}_{4}{ }^{2-}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}$
Weak acids are only partially dissociated into ions, e.g. ethanoic acid (vinegar).
eg


There are many more $\mathrm{H}^{+}$ions in $1 \mathrm{dm}^{3} 1 \mathrm{M}$ hydrochloric acid than there are in the same volume of 1 M ethanoic acid.
$K_{a}$ The acid dissociation constant is the equilibrium constant for the ionisation of a weak acid.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{HA}(\mathrm{aq}) \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{A}^{-}(\mathrm{aq})+\mathrm{H}^{+}(\mathrm{aq}) \\
& \mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{a}}=\frac{\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}(\mathrm{aq})\right]\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}(\mathrm{aq})\right]}{[\mathrm{HA}(\mathrm{aq})]} \quad \text { units }=\mathrm{mol} \mathrm{dm}^{-3}
\end{aligned}
$$

$\mathrm{pK} a \quad \mathrm{pK}_{\mathrm{a}}=-\log _{10} \mathrm{Ka}_{\mathrm{a}}$
NB if an acid has pKa 4.00 that does not mean that its $p H$ is 4.00

## pH and $\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}(\mathrm{aq})\right]$

pH shows the hydrogen ion concentration of a solution in an easily written form

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{pH}=-\log _{10}\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right] \\
& {\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right]=10^{-\mathrm{pH}}}
\end{aligned}
$$

The use of logs for pH and pKa allows us to produce a manageable scale from very small numbers.
$\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{w}}$ the ionic product of water is the equilibrium constant for the ionisation of water.
At room temperature its value is $1.00 \times 10^{-14} \mathrm{~mol}^{2} \mathrm{dm}^{-6}$

$$
\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{l}) \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{H}^{+}(\mathrm{aq})+\mathrm{OH}^{-}(\mathrm{aq})
$$

$\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{w}} \quad=\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}(\mathrm{aq})\right]\left[\mathrm{OH}^{-}(\mathrm{aq})\right] \mathrm{mol}^{2} \mathrm{dm}^{-6}$

$$
=1 \times 10^{-14} \mathrm{~mol}^{2} \mathrm{dm}^{-6}\left(\text { at } 25^{\circ} \mathrm{C}\right)
$$

Because the constant is based on an equilibrium, $\mathbf{K}_{w}$ VARIES WITH TEMPERATURE
pOH can be a useful idea for working out the pH of alkalis.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{pOH}=-\log _{10}\left[\mathrm{OH}^{-}\right] \\
& \mathrm{pH}+\mathrm{pOH}=14.00
\end{aligned}
$$

pH of strong monobasic acids assume that the concentration of hydrogen ions is the same as the acid
pH of strong monobasic bases assume that the concentration of hydroxide ions is the same as the alkali. Two methods
a) Work out pOH the subtract from 14.00 to get pH .
b) Using $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{w}}$ directly. Remember $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{w}}=\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}\right)\left[\mathrm{OH}^{-}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}\right]$ so if you know $\left[\mathrm{OH}^{-}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}\right]$ then you can work out $\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}{ }_{(\mathrm{aq})}\right]$ by:

$$
\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}(\mathrm{aq})\right]=\frac{1 \times 10^{14}}{\left[\mathrm{OH}^{-}(\mathrm{aq})\right]}
$$

[In fact both a and b use the same equations. Mathematicians should be able to work this out.]
pH of weak monobasic acids assume that $\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right]=\left[\mathrm{A}^{-}\right]$and equilibrium acid concentration is equal to initial acid concentration so we can use

$$
\left[\mathrm{H}^{+}\right]=\sqrt{ }(\mathrm{Ka} \times \mathrm{C}) \quad(\mathrm{C} \text { is the initial concentration of the acid })
$$

## Buffers: action, uses and calculations

A buffer solution is a system that minimises pH changes on addition of small amounts of an acid or base.

A buffer solution can be made from a weak acid and a salt of the weak acid eg $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COOH} / \mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COONa}$.

## $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COOH} / \mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COO}^{-}$from ethanoic acid and sodium ethanoate:

## $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COOH} \rightleftharpoons \mathrm{H}^{+}+\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COO}^{-}$ <br> $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COONa}^{\rightarrow} \mathrm{Na}^{+}+\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COO}^{-}$

## Adding Alkali $\left(\mathrm{OH}^{-}\right)$

The $\mathrm{H}^{+}$reacts with the added alkali to produce water. This therefore neutralises any added $\mathrm{OH}^{-}$. Equilibrium moves to right to replace the $\mathrm{H}^{+}$used.

## Adding Acid ( $\mathbf{H}^{+}$)

The $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COO}^{-}$reacts with the added acid to produce $\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COOH}$. This therefore neutralises any added $\mathrm{H}^{+}$. The Equilibrium moves to left.

The pH of a buffer can be calculated using $\mathrm{pH}=\mathrm{pK} \mathrm{a}+\log _{10}$ [conjugate base]/[conjugate acid]

Blood pH is kept reasonably constant (between 7.35-7.45) using the carbonic acidhydrogencarbonate buffer. The $\mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{CO}_{3} / \mathrm{HCO}_{3}{ }^{-}$conjugate pair is the most important of these.

## Neutralisation

Titration curves show how pH changes during a titration. An indicator can give a sharp end-point if there is a sudden pH change covering the pH at which the indicator changes colour.

Strong acids give a sudden pH change between 3-7 (matches methyl orange)
Strong alkalis give a sudden change between 7-11 (matches phenolphthalein)
Weak acids or alkalis never give a sudden pH change. Titration Curves are shown on the following pages. You need to learn these.

It is essential that the correct indicators is chosen eg phenolphthalein can only be used in titrations with a strong alkali - the nature of the acid is immaterial.

The standard enthalpy change of neutralisation is the change in enthalpy that occurs when an acid and base undergo a neutralisation reaction to form one mole of water under standard conditions.

$$
\mathrm{H}^{+}(\mathrm{aq})+\mathrm{OH}^{-}(\mathrm{aq}) \longrightarrow \mathrm{H}_{2} \mathrm{O}(\mathrm{I})
$$

A value of $-57 \mathrm{~kJ} \mathrm{~mol}^{-1}$ is obtained when strong acids react with strong alkalis.

## Calculating standard enthalpy change of neutralisation from experimental results

Example:
$25.0 \mathrm{~cm}^{3}$ of $2.00 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{dm}^{-3} \mathrm{HCl}$ was added to $25.0 \mathrm{~cm}^{3}$ of $2.00 \mathrm{~mol} \mathrm{dm}^{-3} \mathrm{NaOH}$ in an insulated beaker.

The initial temperature of both solutions was $20.0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.
The highest temperature reached by the solution was $33.0^{\circ} \mathrm{C}$.
The specific heat capacity (c) of water is $4.18 \mathrm{~J} \mathrm{~K}^{-1} \mathrm{~g}^{-1}$


## Titration Curves

These titration curves assume that the alkali (in burette) is being added to the acid (in conical flask). You merely need to reverse them if the question specifies the acid is being added to alkali.

## strong acid (HCl) v. strong base ( NaOH )




## strong acid (HCl) v. weak base $\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)$


strong acid $(\mathbf{H C l}) \mathbf{v}$. weak base $\left(\mathbf{N H}_{3}\right)$


## weak acid $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COOH}\right)$ v. strong base $(\mathrm{NaOH})$



## weak acid $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COOH}\right)$ v. strong base $(\mathrm{NaOH})$



## weak acid $\left(\mathrm{CH}_{3} \mathrm{COOH}\right)$ v. weak base $\left(\mathrm{NH}_{3}\right)$




