NEPHAR 201 Analytical Chemistry II

Chapter 1

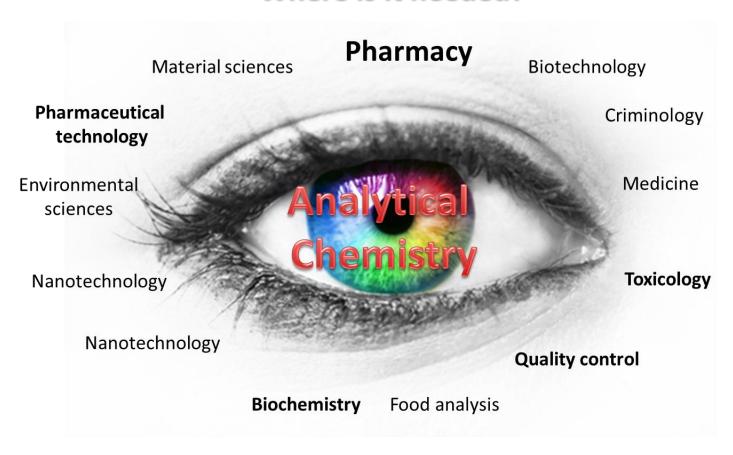
Introduction: Basic concepts and calculations in analytical chemistry

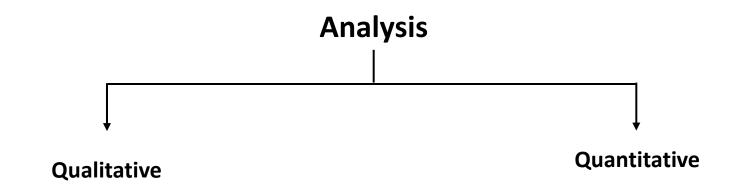
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Analytical chemistry

Analytical chemistry: is the study of the separation, identification, and quantification of the chemical components of natural and artificial materials.

Where is it needed?

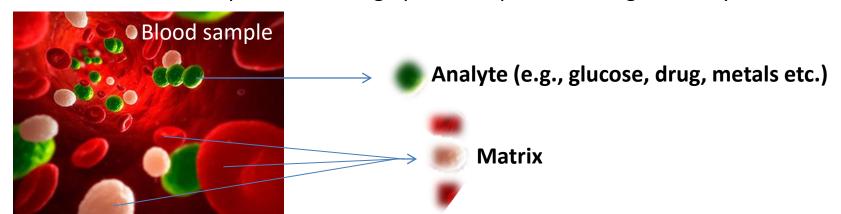


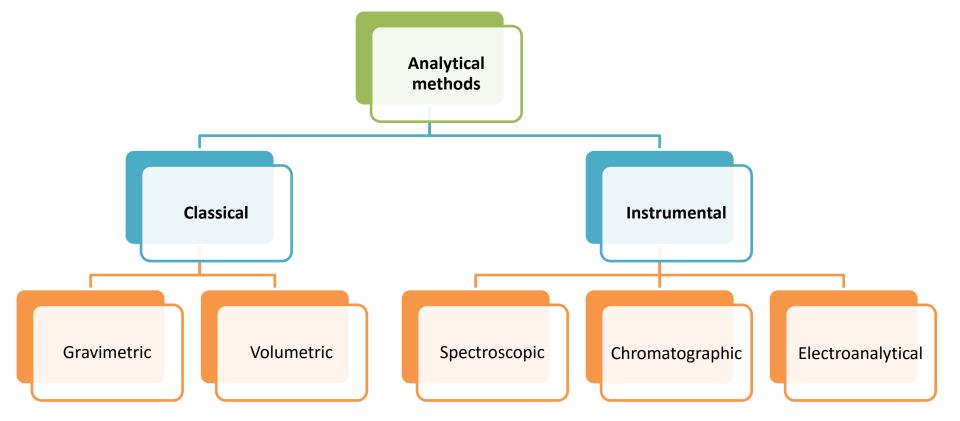


The process of finding out the **identity** of components in a sample (elements or compound)

The process of finding out the **amount** of components in a sample (elements or compound)

- Sample: A portion of material selected from a larger quantity of material.
- Analyte: The component of a sample (element, ion, compound, etc.) to be determined.
- Matrix: all of the components making up the sample containing the analyte.

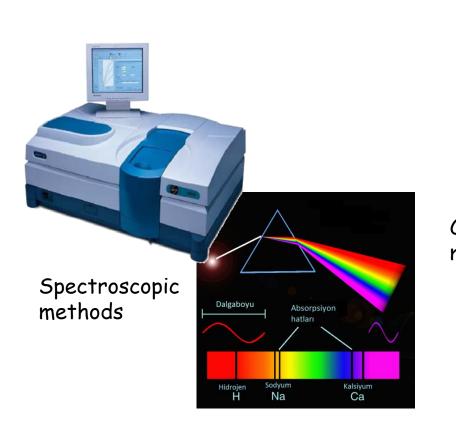




• **Gravimetric analysis:** a method that is based on the measurement of the <u>mass</u> a pure substance with an analytical balance.

Volumetric method: this method involves the measurement of the volume of a solution of known concentration which is used to determine the concentration of the analyte (e.g. titration).

- **Spectroscopic methods:** methods that are based on the measurement of the interaction of the analyte with light such as absorption, emission, scattering etc.
- **Chromatographic methods:** physical methods of separation that distribute components to separate between two phases, one stationary (stationary phase), the other (the mobile phase) moving in a definite direction.
- **Electroanalytical methods:** methods that are based on quantifying the analyte by measuring the potential (volts) and/or current (amperes) in an electrochemical cell containing the analyte.





Basic steps in analysis

 Choice of the technique/method Sampling Sample preparation Eliminating interferences • Calibration and measurement of concentration Calculations and validation of the method

6

SI Units

Measurement	Unit	Symbol
Mass	Kilogram	kg
Distance	Meter	m
Time	Second	S
Temperature	Kelvin	K
Amount of substance	Mole	Mol
Electric current	Amper	А

- **Mole:** the amount of any chemical substance that contains as many elementary entities, e.g., atoms, molecules, ions, or electrons, as there are atoms in 12 grams of pure carbon-12 (¹²C). This number is expressed by the **Avogadro constant**, which has a value of 6.022×10²³.
- Molar mass (molecular weight, M_r): the mass (in g) of one mole of any substance.

Prefixes of units

Prefix	Symbol	Meaning
giga-	G	10 ⁹
mega-	M	10 ⁶
kilo-	k	10 ³
deci-	d	10 ⁻¹
centi-	С	10 ⁻²
milli-	m	10 ⁻³
micro-	μ	10 ⁻⁶
nano-	n	10 ⁻⁹
pico-	р	10 ⁻¹²
femto-	f	10 ⁻¹⁵

🕙 Example

What is the mass (in mg) of a substance having a mass of 5.0 kg?

Solution

?
$$mg = 5.0 \text{ kg} \times \frac{10^3 \text{ g}}{1 \text{ kg}} \times \frac{10^3 \text{ mg}}{1 \text{ g}} = 5.0 \times 10^6 \text{ mg}$$

Example

How many liters (L) and milliliters (mL) is a solution of 50 μL volume?

Solution

(a)
$$?L = 50 \,\mu L \times \frac{1 \, L}{10^6 \,\mu L} = 5.0 \times 10^{-5} \, L$$

(b)
$$?mL = 50 \mu L \times \frac{1 L}{10^6 \mu L} \times \frac{10^3 mL}{1 L} = 5.0 \times 10^{-2} mL$$

Example

What is the mass (in g) of 1.00×10^{-2} mol HCl?

Solution

$$g = 1.00 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol} \times \frac{36.5 \text{ g}}{1 \text{ mol}} = 0.365 \text{ g}$$
 $m = M_r \times n = 36.5 \frac{g}{\text{mol}} \times 1.00 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol}$

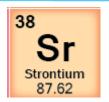
or:
$$M_r = \frac{m}{n}$$

$$m = M_r \times n = 36.5 \frac{g}{mol} \times 1.00 \times 10^{-2} \text{ mol}$$

$$= 0.365 \text{ g}$$

🜂 Example

What is the amount (in mol) of 39.6 mg strontium chloride (SrCl₂)?



Solution

?
$$mol = 39.6 \text{ mg} \times \frac{1 \text{ mol}}{158.52 \text{ g}} \times \frac{1 \text{ g}}{10^3 \text{ mg}} = 2.50 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol}$$



Concentration units, conversions and solution preparations

- Concentration units: the units that express the relative amount of a solute in a known amount (or volume) of the solution.
- Molarity (M): is a measure of the concentration of a solute in a solution, or of any chemical species in terms of amount of substance in a given volume. A commonly used unit for molar concentration used in chemistry is mol/L. A solution of concentration 1 mol/L is also denoted as 1 molar (1 M).

$$Molarity = \frac{mol \ of \ solute}{volume \ of \ solution}$$

$$\Box$$

$$1M (molar) = \frac{1 \, mol}{1 \, L}$$

Example

What is the molar concentration of 19.8 g strontium chloride (SrCl₂, $M_r = 158.52 \ g/mol$) in 250 mL of a solution? Describe how this solution is prepared.

Solution

For the solute:
$$n = \frac{m}{M_r} = \frac{19.8 \text{ g}}{158.52 \text{ g/mol}} = 0.125 \text{ mol}$$

For the solution:
$$V = 250 \ mL \times \frac{1 \ L}{10^3 \ mL} = 0.250 \ L$$

$$M = \frac{n \text{ (solute, mol)}}{V \text{ (solution, L)}} = \frac{0.125 \text{ mol}}{0.250 \text{ L}} = 0.50 \text{ M (or } \frac{\text{mol}}{\text{L}})$$

To prepare this solution, 19.8 g strontium chloride (SrCl₂), are dissolved in an appropriate amount of water (approx. 125 mL), transferred into a 250-mL volumetric flask and the solution is made up to the mark with deionized water.

Example

How many grams of strontium chloride hexahydrate ($SrCl_2.6H_2O$, $M_r=266.62~g/mol$) would be weighed to prepare 250 mL of 0.540 M chloride ions (Cl-)? Explain how this solution would be prepared.

Solution

For Cl⁻:
$$M = \frac{n}{V} \implies n = M \times V = 0.540 \frac{mol}{L} \times 0.250 L = 0.135 mol Cl^-$$

For $SrCl_2.6H_2O$: 1 mol $SrCl_2.6H_2O$ \longrightarrow 2 mol Cl^-

$$x \text{ mol SrCl}_2.6\text{H}_2\text{O} \longleftarrow 0.135 \text{ mol Cl}^-$$

$$x = 0.0675 \ mol \ of \ SrCl_2.6H_2O$$

$$M_r = \frac{m}{n}$$
 \Longrightarrow $m = M_r \times n = 266.62 \frac{g}{mol} \times 0.0675 \text{ mol}$

$$= 18.0 \text{ g SrCl}_2.6H_2O$$



To prepare this solution, 18.0 g strontium chloride hexadydrate (SrCl₂.6H₂O) are weighed in a beaker and dissolved in an appropriate amount of deionized water (approx. 125 mL). The solution is transferred into a 250-mL volumetric flask and is made up to the mark with deionized water.



A mass of K₂FeSCN ($M_r=192~g/mol$) is dissolved in an appropriate volume of deionized water and the solution is made up to 500 mL. If the final concentration of Fe²⁺ ions is $2.0\times10^{-3}~M$, calculate the mass (in g) of K₂FeSCN that has been weighed.



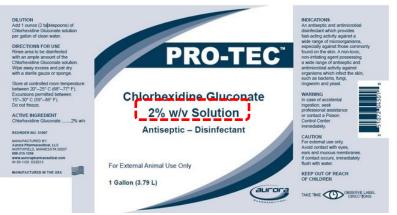
A solution of sodium chloride, NaCl (500 mL) contains 20.0 g of NaCl. What is the molar concentration of NaCl in this solution? Describe how this solution was prepared.

Percentage Concentration

- Percentage concentration: expresses the percentage of a solute in a solution.
- Percentage by weight (w/w), percentage by volume (v/v) and percentage by weight/volume (w/v) are also used to report concentrations. In the International System, "w" and "v" stand for weight and volume, respectively.

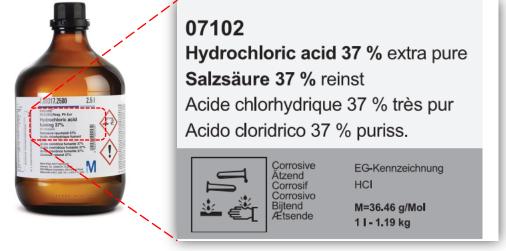




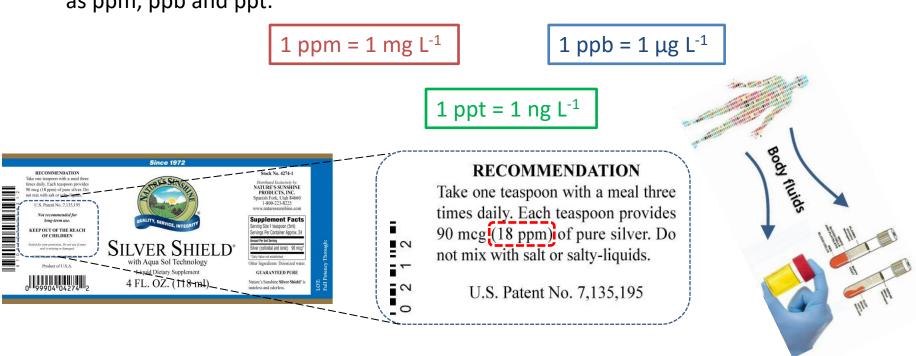


- Percentage by volume (v/v) is generally used to report the concentration of a liquid solute mixed with another liquid in a solution. For example, a 20 % ethanol (C₂H₅OH) solution is prepared by mixing 20.0 mL of pure ethanol with water and the volume is made up to 100 mL with water.
- **Percentage by weight/volume (w/v)** is generally used to describe the concentration of a solid solute in a solution. For example, 10 % KOH solution is prepared by dissolving 10 g KOH in water and the solution is made up to 100 mL.
- Percentage by weight (w/w) can also be used to tell the mass of a solute (in g) in 100 g of a solution. For example, on the label of HCl bottle, 37 % means that there are 37 g of HCl in 100 g of this solution.

For conversions, the density of solutions is generally given on the label, e.g., 1 L = 1.19 kg



• Part per million (ppm), part per billion (ppb) and part per trillion (ppt): Due to advancement in instruments, scientists also use low concentration expressions such as ppm, ppb and ppt.





These concentration units are sometimes used to describe the concentration of analytes in medicines, biological fluids (blood, urine, saliva), water, soil, air samples, etc.

Conversions among concentration units

🐧 Example

A commercial HCl solution has a concentration of 37 % (w/w) and a density of 1.19 kg L⁻¹.

What is the molar concentration of HCl in this solution?

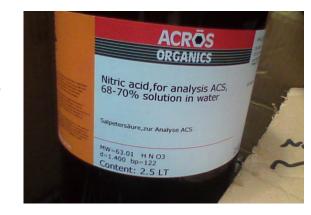
Solution

?
$$\frac{mol\ HCl}{L\ soln} = \frac{37\ g\ HCl}{100\ g\ soln} \times \frac{1\ mol\ HCl}{36.5\ g\ HCl} \times \frac{1.19 \times 10^{3}\ g\ soln}{1\ L\ soln}$$
$$= 12.0\ mol\ L$$





If the concentration of nitric acid (HNO_3) in a commercial solution is 69 % (w/w) that is equavilanet to $15.3 \ mol/L$. Calculate the density (in kg L⁻¹) of this solution.



Example

A sample of sea water having a density of 1.018 g mL⁻¹ contains 19.2 ppm nitrate ions (NO_3^-) . What is the molar concentration of nitrate ions in the sample?

Solution

$$? \frac{mol\ NO_3^-}{L\ soln} = \frac{19.2\ mg\ NO_3^-}{L\ soln} \times \frac{1\ mol\ NO_3^-}{62\ g\ NO_3^-} \times \frac{1\ g\ NO_3^-}{10^3\ mgNO_3^-} = 3.0 \times 10^{-4}\ mol/L$$





🐧 Example

International standards require that the maximum concentration of chloride ions in drinking water not exceed $2.5 \times 10^5 \rm ppb$. Calculate this concentration in mM.

1 ppb = 1
$$\mu$$
g L⁻¹

Solution

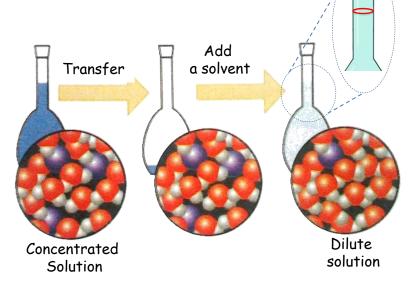


?
$$\frac{mol\ Cl^{-}}{L\ soln} = \frac{2.5 \times 10^{5}\ \mu g\ Cl^{-}}{L\ soln} \times \frac{1\ mol\ Cl^{-}}{35.45\ g\ Cl^{-}} \times \frac{1\ g\ Cl^{-}}{10^{6}\ \mu g\ Cl^{-}} = 7.0 \times 10^{-3}\ mol\ L$$

$$= 7.0 \ mmol/L = 7.0 \ mM$$

Preparation of solutions: Dilution

A certain amount (or volume) of the original solution is transferred into another volumetric flask. The solution is then made up to the mark with a solvent (e.g., water). The new solution is more dilute than the original.



Steps of dilution

Calculations

$$M_1V_1 = M_2V_2$$
 $Conc. soln$ dil. soln

🐧 Example

How many mL of 0.152 M $HCl_{(aq)}$ are needed to prepare 100 mL of 5.23 \times 10⁻⁴ M $HCl_{(aq)}$? State the steps for preparing this dilute solution.

Solution

$$M_1 = 0.152 M$$
 $V_1 = ?$ $M_2 = 5.23 \times 10^{-4} M$ $V_2 = 100 mL$

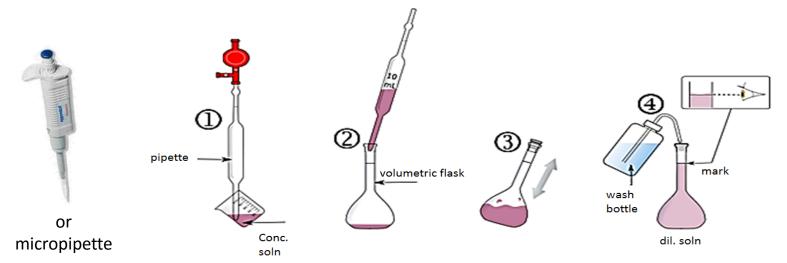
$$M_1V_1 = M_2V_2$$
 $Conc. soln$ dil. soln

$$0.152 M \times V_1 = 5.23 \times 10^{-4} M \times 100 mL$$
 $V_1 = 0.344 \text{ mL} (= 344 \mu L)$



$$V_1 = 0.344 \text{ mL} (= 344 \mu L)$$

(1) 344 μ L of the original concentrated HCl solution are withdrawn into a micropipette (if the volume was larger than 1 mL, a pipette is used) and transferred into a 100-mL volumetric flask (2) a small amount of DI water is added (3) the solution is swirled and (4) the solution is made up to the mark with DI water using a wash bottle.



Example

How many mL would be taken from 1.00 M sulfuric acid $[H_2SO_{4(aq)}]$ to prepare 250 mL, 0.02 M $H_2SO_{4(aq)}$ solution? How is this dilute solution prepared?

$$M_1 = 1.00 \, M$$

$$V_1 = ?$$

$$M_1 V_1 = M_2 V_2$$

$$M_2 = 0.02 \, M$$

$$V_2 = 250 \, mL$$
 Conc. soln dil. soln

$$1.00 \ M \times V_1 = 0.02 \ M \times 250 \ mL$$



$$V_1 = 5.00 \,\mathrm{mL}$$

 \pm 5.0 mL of the original concentrated H_2SO_4 solution are withdrawn into a pipette and transferred into a 250-mL volumetric flask. A small amount of DI water is added and the solution is swirled. The solution is made up to the mark with DI water using a wash bottle.



Describe how 100 mL, 0.5 M nitric acid [$HNO_{3(aq)}$] would be prepared from 2.00 M $HNO_{3(aq)}$.

Example

Atomic absorption spectrometry (AAS) and atomic emission spectrometry (AES) are used to determine metals in biological and environmental samples at concentrations below ppm. 1000 ppm commercial stock solutions are used to prepare working standard solutions. Describe how a 1.0 ppm, 100 mL lead ions (Pb²⁺) solution may be prepared starting with the 1000 ppm stock solution.

$$M_1 = 1000 \ ppm$$

$$V_1 = ?$$

$$M_2 = 1.0 \ ppm$$

$$V_2 = 100 \ mL$$

$$M_1 V_1 = M_2 V_2$$

$$Conc. \ soln \qquad dil. \ soln$$

$$1000 \ ppm \times V_1 = 1.0 \ ppm \times 100 \ mL$$
 $V_1 = 0.1 \ mL = 100 \ \mu L$

100 μ L of the stock Pb²⁺ solution are withdrawn into a micropipette and transferred into a 100-mL volumetric flask. A small amount of DI water is added and the solution is swirled. The solution is made up to the mark with DI water using a wash bottle.

* Example

A commercial ammonia (NH $_3$) solution has a concentration of 28.0 % (w/w) and a density of 0.899 g mL $^{-1}$. Using this solution, describe how 500 mL, 0.100 M NH $_3$ solution may be prepared.

Solution

First, convert % (w/w) into M;

$$? \frac{mol \ NH_3}{L \ soln} = \frac{28.0 \ g \ NH_3}{100 \ g \ soln} \times \frac{0.899 \ g \ soln}{1 \ mL \ soln} \times \frac{10^3 \ mL \ soln}{1 \ L \ soln} \times \frac{1 \ mol \ NH_3}{17 \ g \ NH_3} = 14.8 \ mol/L$$

Second;

$$M_1 \times V_1 = M_2 \times V_2$$

$$14.8 \frac{mol}{L} \times V_1 = 0.100 \frac{mol}{L} \times 500 mL$$



$$V_1 = 3.38 \, mL$$

 $3.38~\mathrm{mL}$ of the stock $\mathrm{NH_3}$ solution are withdrawn into a pipette and transferred into a 500-mL volumetric flask. A small amount of DI water is added and the solution is swirled. The solution is made up to the mark with DI water using a wash bottle.

End-Of-Section Questions



How many moles are there in 38.1 mg of sodium tetraborate decahydrate $(Na_2B_4O_7.10H_2O)$? How many moles of boron (B) does this sample contain?

(Na:22.99; B:10.81; O: 16.00; H: 1.00 g/mol)



If 400 mg of K_4 Fe(CN)₆ are dissolved in DI water and the volume is made up to 500 mL, what would the molar concentration of potassium ions (K⁺) in the solution be?

(K: 39.10; Fe: 55.85; C: 12.01; N: 14.01 g/mol)



In average, human blood contains 180 ppm of potassium ions (K⁺), what is the molar concentration of K⁺?

(K: 39.10 g/mol)



How many grams of oxalic acid ($H_2C_2O_4.2H_2O$) are required to prepare 500 mL, 0.300 M? Describe how this solution is prepared.

(H: 1.00; C: 12.01; O: 16.00 g/mol)



A commercial sulfuric acid (H_2SO_4) solution has a density of 1.84 g/mL and a concentration of 96 % (w/w). What is the molar concentration of H_2SO_4 in this solution?

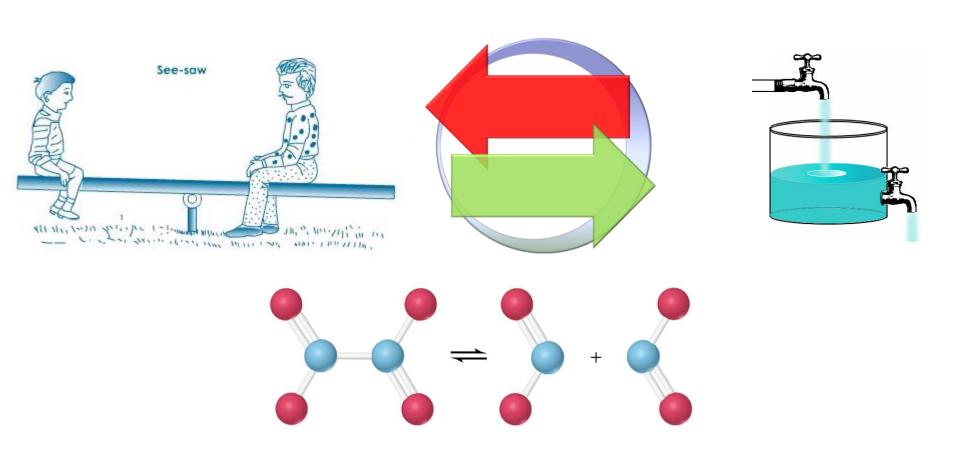
(H: 1.00; O: 16.00; S: 32.00 g/mol)

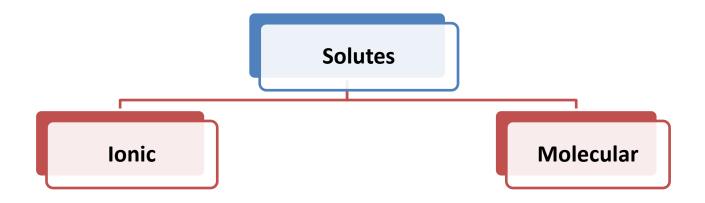


Describe how 250 mL, 3.00 M phosphoric acid (H_3PO_4) may be prepared from the commercial H_3PO_4 solution having a density of 1.70 g mL⁻¹ and a concentration of 85 % (w/w).

(H: 1.00; P: 30.97; O: 16.00 g/mol)

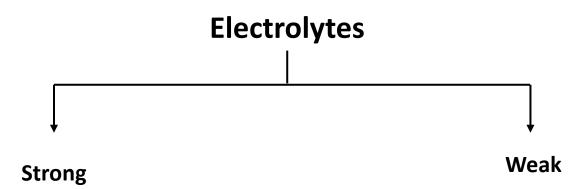
Chemical Equilibria





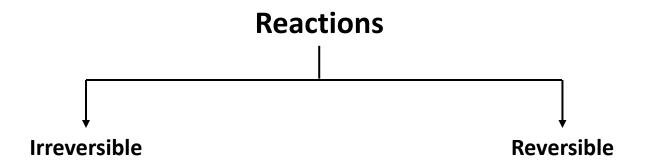
- Found as ions,
- Are called electrolytes,
- Conduct electricity,
- Ex. NaCl, Mgl₂, NaOH, K₂SO₄

- Found as molecules,
- Are not called electrolytes,
- Do not conduct electricity,
- Ex. Sugar $(C_6H_{12}O_6)$, methanol (CH_3OH)



A solute that **completely**, or almost completely, ionizes or dissociates in a solution. Ex. NaCl, HNO₃, KOH

A solute that does not fully dissociate into ions in solution. These substances only **partially** ionize in solution. Ex. H_2CO_3 , NH_3 , AgCl





Irreversible reactions:

- Proceed in one direction. Reactants cannot be obtained from products,
- The reaction proceed till the reactants are completely consumed up,
- No equilibrium is formed during the reaction,
- In reality, no reaction is completely irreversible. However, reactions proceeding so much to the right (product side) are said to be irreversible.

Ex.
$$CH_{4(g)} + 2O_{2(g)}$$
 $CO_{2(g)} + 2H_2O_{(g)}$

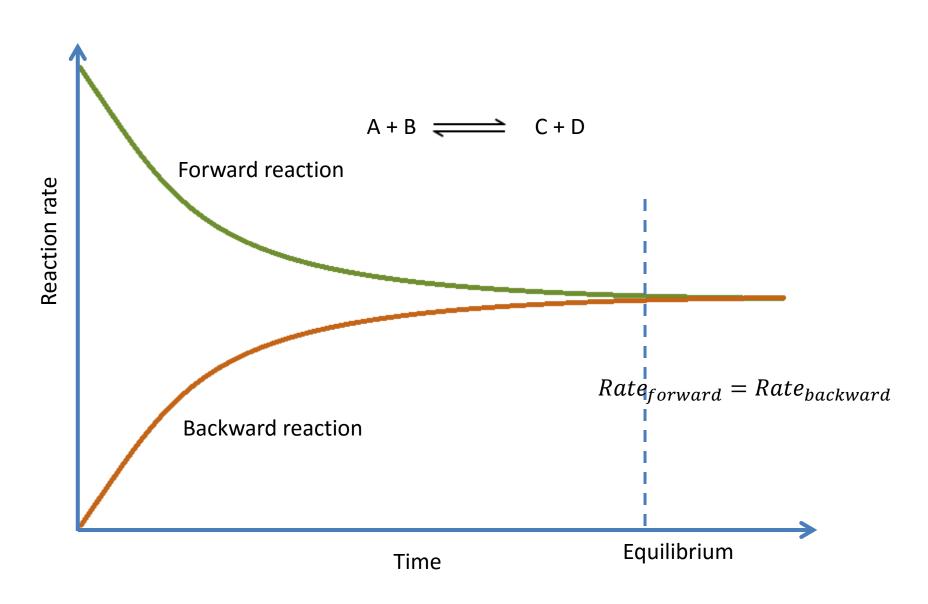


Reversible reactions:

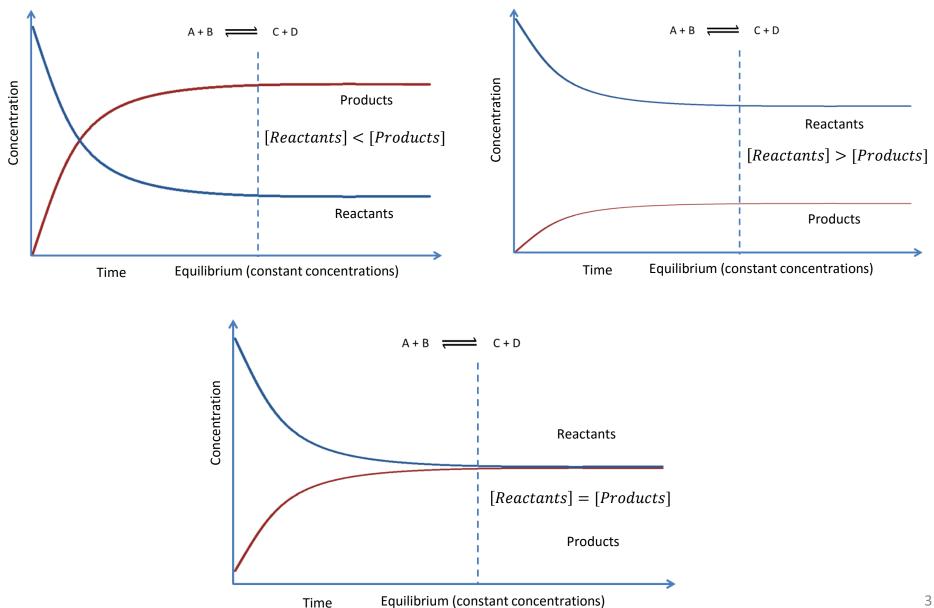
- Proceed in two directions. Products are obtained from reactants (forward reaction)
 and reactants from products (backward reaction),
- When the rate of the forward reaction equals the rate of the backward reaction, the reaction is said to have reached dynamic equilibrium.
- At equilibrium, the concentrations of reactants and products are constant (but do not have to be equal).

Ex.
$$3N_{2(g)} + 2H_{2(g)}$$
 $2NH_{3(g)}$ $2SO_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)}$ $2SO_{3(g)}$ $2SO_{3(g)}$ $2SO_{4(k)} + 5H_2O_{(g)}$

Rate-time relationship in equilibrium reactions



Concentration-time relationship in equilibrium reactions



EQUILIBRIUM CONSTANT (K_c)

Equilibrium constant

$$aA + bB \longrightarrow cC + dD$$

Forward reaction

$$aA + bB \longrightarrow cC + dD$$

$$rate_f = k_f \times [A]^a \times [B]^b$$

Backward reaction

$$cC + dD \longrightarrow aA + bB$$

$$rate_b = k_b \times [C]^c \times [D]^d$$

At equilibrium, the rates are equal:

$$k_f \times [A]^a \times [B]^b = k_b \times [C]^c \times [D]^d$$

Therefore;

$$\mathbf{K}_{c} = \frac{[C]^{c}[D]^{d}}{[A]^{a}[B]^{b}}$$

This ratio is expressed as the **equilibrium constant** (K_c). Therefore, for the general reaction written above:

$$K_c = \frac{[C]^c [D]^d}{[A]^a [B]^b}$$

🐧 Example

Writing equilibrium constant expressions

Write the equilibrium constant expressions for the following reactions:

a)
$$2SO_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)}$$
 \Longrightarrow $2SO_{3(g)}$

b)
$$4NH_{3(g)} + 5O_{2(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $4NO_{(g)} + 6H_2O_{(g)}$

c)
$$CH_3COOH_{(s)} + CH_3OH_{(s)}$$
 \longrightarrow $CH_3COOCH_{3(s)} + H_2O_{(s)}$

Solution

a)
$$2SO_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)}$$
 \implies $2SO_{3(g)}$

$$K_c = \frac{[SO_3]^2}{[SO_2]^2[O_2]}$$

b)
$$4NH_{3(g)} + 5O_{2(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $4NO_{(g)} + 6H_2O_{(g)}$

$$K_c = \frac{[NO]^4 [H_2O]^6}{[NH_3]^4 [O_2]^5}$$

c)
$$CH_3COOH_{(s)} + CH_3OH_{(s)}$$
 \longrightarrow $CH_3COOCH_{3(s)} + H_2O_{(s)}$

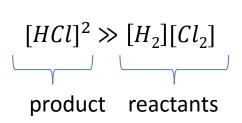
$$K_c = \frac{[CH_3COOCH_3][H_2O]}{[CH_3COOH][CH_3OH]}$$

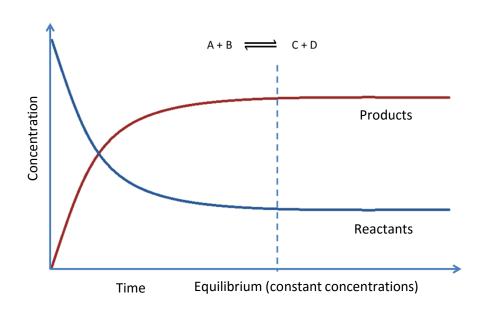
Comparison of equilibrium constants

Case 1

$$H_{2(g)} + Cl_{2(g)}$$
 \Longrightarrow $2HCl_{(g)}$ $K_c = 4.0 \times 10^{31}$ $T = 300 K$

$$K_c = \frac{[HCl]^2}{[H_2][Cl_2]} = 4.0 \times 10^{31}$$



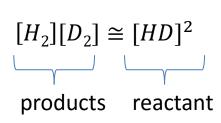


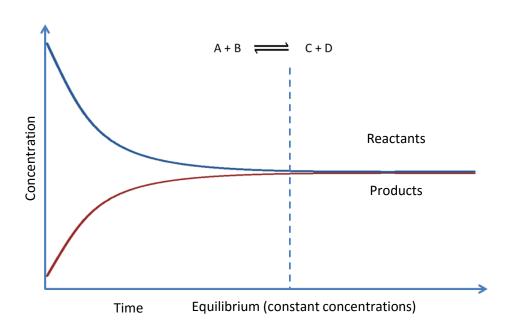
Comparison of equilibrium constants

Case 2

2HD_(g)
$$\longrightarrow$$
 H_{2(g)} + D_{2(g)} $K_c = 0.52$ $T = 100 K$

$$K_c = \frac{[H_2][D_2]}{[HD]^2} = 0.52$$



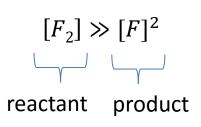


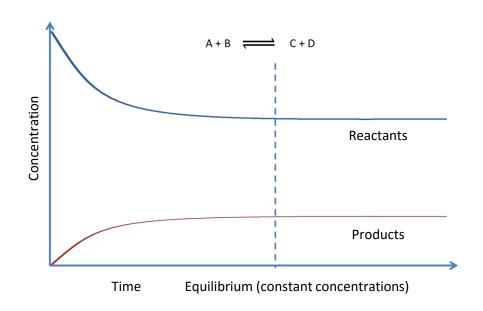
Comparison of equilibrium constants

Case 3

$$F_{2(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $2F_{(g)}$ $K_c = 7.3 \times 10^{-13}$ $T = 500 K$

$$K_c = \frac{[F]^2}{[F_2]} = 7.3 \times 10^{-13}$$





Determination and use of equilibrium constants

* Example

Determination of the equilibrium constant

$$N_{2(g)}$$
 + $3H_{2(g)}$ \Longrightarrow $2NH_{3(g)}$

At equil.

0.305 M

0.324 M

0.796 M

Calculate K_c for the above equilibrium.

$$K_c = \frac{[NH_3]^2}{[H_2]^3 [N_2]}$$

$$K_c = \frac{(0.796 \, M)^2}{(0.324 \, M)^3 (0.305 \, M)} = 61.0 \, M^{-2}$$



$$2CO_{(g)}$$
 + $2H_{2(g)}$ \longrightarrow $CH_{4(g)}$ + $CO_{2(g)}$

At equil.

 $4.3 \times 10^{-6} M$ $1.15 \times 10^{-5} M$ $5.14 \times 10^{-4} M$ $4.12 \times 10^{-4} M$

Calculate K_c for the above equilibrium.

$$K_c = \frac{[CH_4][CO_2]}{[H_2]^2[CO]^2}$$

$$K_c = \frac{(5.14 \times 10^{-4} \, M) \times (4.12 \times 10^{-4} \, M)}{(4.3 \times 10^{-6} \, M)^2 \times (1.15 \times 10^{-5} \, M)^2}$$

$$= 8.66 \times 10^{13} M^{-2}$$

$$H_{2(g)}$$

$$Cl_{2(g)}$$

$$2HCl_{(g)}$$
 $K_c = 4.0 \times 10^{31}$

At equil.

$$2.0 \times 10^{-16} M$$
 $1.0 \times 10^{-17} M$

$$1.0 \times 10^{-17} M$$

Calculate the concentration of HCl at equilibrium.

$$K_c = \frac{[HCl]^2}{[H_2][Cl_2]} = 4.0 \times 10^{31}$$

$$\Rightarrow$$

$$\frac{x^2}{(2.0 \times 10^{-16} \, M) \times (1.0 \times 10^{-17} \, M)} = 4.0 \times 10^{31}$$

$$x = [HCl] = 0.28 M$$

$$F_{2(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $2F_{(g)}$

$$K_c = 7.3 \times 10^{-13}$$

At equil.

? M

 $8.55 \times 10^{-7} M$

Calculate the concentration of F₂ at equilibrium.

$$K_c = \frac{[F]^2}{[F_2]} = 7.3 \times 10^{-13}$$

$$\frac{(8.55 \times 10^{-7} M)^2}{x} = 7.3 \times 10^{-13}$$

$$x = [F_2] = 1.00 M$$



0.500~M nitrogen (N_2) and 0.800~M hydrogen (H_2) are allowed to react till equilibrium is reached. At equilibrium, the concentration of ammonia (NH_3) was found as 0.150~M. Calculate the concentration of N_2 and H_2 at equilibrium and find the equilibrium constant.

$$N_{2(g)}$$
 + $3H_{2(g)}$ \Longrightarrow $2NH_{3(g)}$



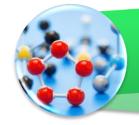
1.50 mol of PCl_5 is left in a 500-mL flask at 250 °C and allowed to reach equilibrium with its decomposition products of PCl_3 and Cl_2 . If $K_c=1.80$, calculate the equilibrium composition for this reaction.

$$PCl_{5(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $PCl_{3(g)} + Cl_{2(g)}$

Factors that affect equilibrium position



Removing/adding reactants/products



Pressure



Temperature



Using a catalyst

Le Chatelier's Principle

When a system at equilibrium is subjected to change in concentration, temperature, volume, or pressure, then the system readjusts itself to (partially) counteract the effect of the applied change and a new equilibrium is established.



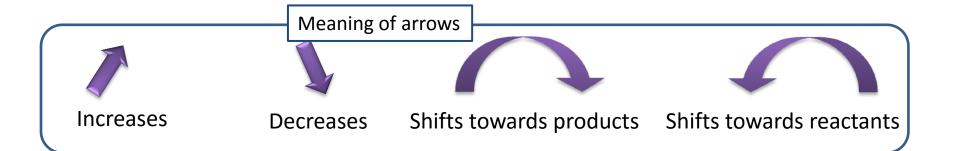
Hanri Le Chatelier (1850-1936)



Removing/adding reactants/products

To a system at equilibrium:

- if a reactant is added, the equilibrium shifts towards the products side.
- if a **reactant** is removed, the equilibrium shifts towards the **reactants** side.
- if a **product** is added, the equilibrium shifts towards the **reactants** side.
- if a product is removed, the equilibrium shifts towards the products side.



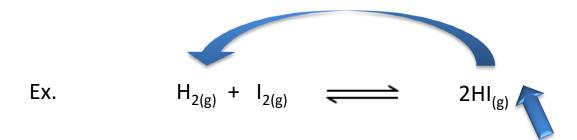
• If a **reactant** is added to a system at equilibrium, the equilibrium shifts towards the **products** side.

Ex.
$$H_{2(g)} + I_{2(g)} \longrightarrow 2HI_{(g)}$$

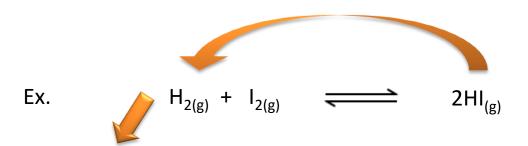
• If a **product** is removed from a system at equilibrium, the equilibrium shifts towards the **products** side.

Ex.
$$H_{2(g)} + I_{2(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $2HI_{(g)}$

 If a product is added to a system at equilibrium, the equilibrium shifts towards the reactants side.



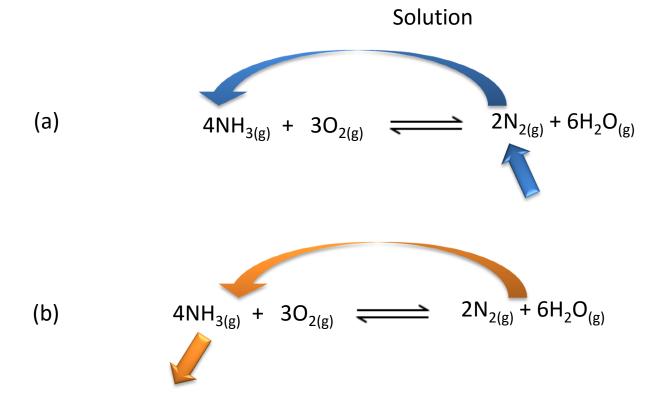
 If a reactant is removed from a system at equilibrium, the equilibrium shifts towards the reactants side.

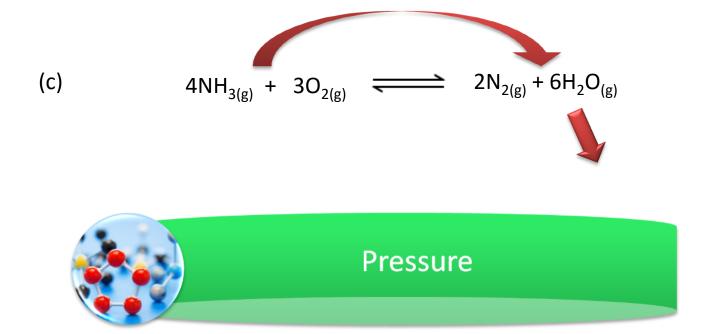




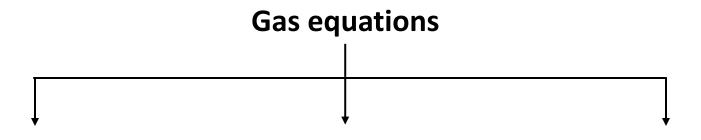
$$4NH_{3(g)} + 3O_{2(g)} = 2N_{2(g)} + 6H_2O_{(g)}$$

Considering the above equilibrium, predict the effect on equilibrium position of (a) adding N_2 , (b) removing N_3 and (c) removing H_2O .





- Molecules comprising solids and liquids are more regularly packed and very small gaps
 exist between them as compared to gases. Therefore, in solids and liquids, pressure
 has no effect on equilibrium position.
- If the pressure is increased by decreasing the volume of a reaction mixture, the equilibrium shifts in the direction of fewer moles of gas.

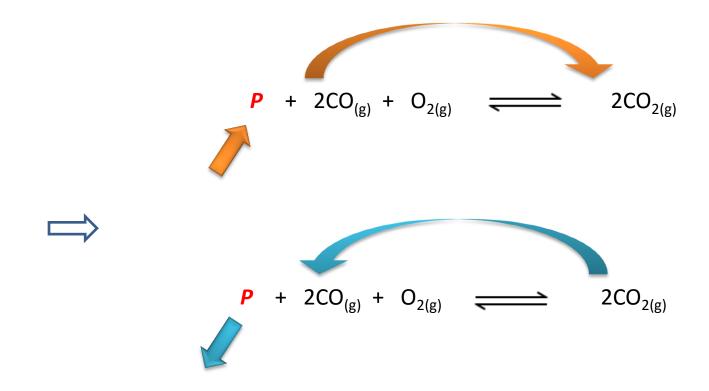


 $n_{reactants} > n_{products}$ $n_{reactants} < n_{products}$ $n_{reactants} = n_{products}$

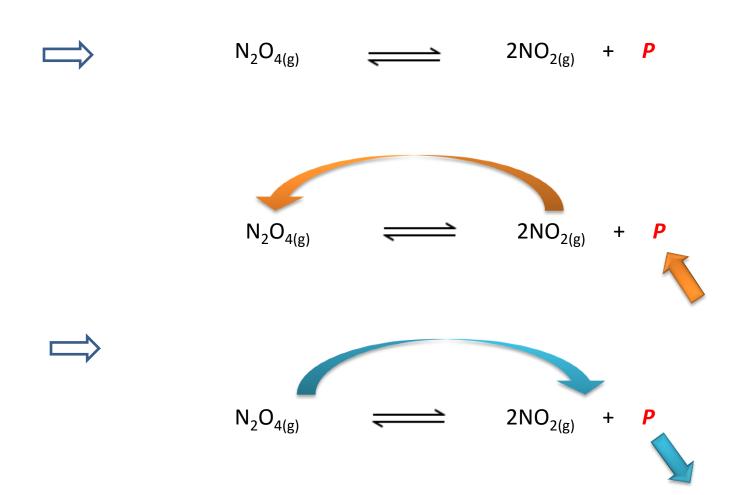
 $n_{reactants} > n_{products}$

$$2CO_{(g)} + O_{2(g)} \longrightarrow 2CO_{2(g)}$$

$$3 mol \qquad 2 mol$$



$$N_2O_{4(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $2NO_{2(g)}$ \longrightarrow $1 mol$ $2 mol$



 $\mathbf{0} \quad n_{reactants} = n_{products}$

$$H_{2(g)} + I_{2(g)} = 2HI_{(g)}$$

$$2 mol$$

$$2 mol$$



No effect of pressure on equilibrium position

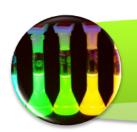


Predict the effect of increasing (a) the pressure and (b) the volume on the equilibrium position in the following equilibria:

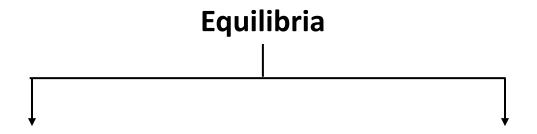
(a)
$$CO_{(g)} + 3H_{2(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $CH_{4(g)} + H_2O_{(g)}$

(b)
$$C_{(s)} + CO_{2(g)}$$
 \Longrightarrow $2CO_{(g)}$

(c)
$$2Fe_{(s)} + 3H_2O_{(g)}$$
 \longrightarrow $Fe_2O_{3(s)} + 3H_{2(g)}$



Temperature



Exothermic

 ΔH_{rxn} negative

Endothermic

 ΔH_{rxn} positive

1 Exothermic equilibria

Ex.
$$2SO_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)}$$
 \Longrightarrow $2SO_{3(g)}$ $\Delta H_{rxn} = -197,78 \ kJ$

$$2SO_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)} \Longrightarrow 2SO_{3(g)} + \Delta$$

$$2SO_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)} \Longrightarrow 2SO_{3(g)} + \Delta$$

$$2SO_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)} \Longrightarrow 2SO_{3(g)} + \Delta$$

2 Endothermic equilibria

$$CH_{4(g)} + H_{2}O_{(g)} \iff CO_{(g)} + 3H_{2(g)} \qquad \Delta H_{rxn} = +206 \, kJ$$

$$\Delta + CH_{4(g)} + H_{2}O_{(g)} \iff CO_{(g)} + 3H_{2(g)}$$

$$\Delta + CH_{4(g)} + H_{2}O_{(g)} \iff CO_{(g)} + 3H_{2(g)}$$



Using a catalyst

A catalyst is a substance that speeds up a reaction by lowering the activation energy. In equilibrium reactions, it speeds up both directions and thus has no net effect on the equilibrium position.

$$2SO_{2(g)} + O_{2(g)} \longrightarrow 2SO_{3(g)}$$



The catalyst (V_2O_5) has no effect on the equilibrium position.

Fe
$$N_{2(g)} + 3H_{2(g)} = 2NH_{3(g)}$$



The catalyst (Fe) has no effect on the equilibrium position.

ACIDS AND BASES

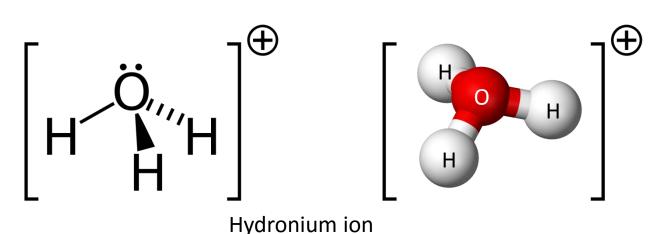
- Acid: a substance that turns litmus paper red and behaves as a proton donor.
- Base: a substance that turns litmus paper blue and behaves as a proton acceptor.

Acid-base definitions

1 Arrhenius acid-base definition:

Acid: Arrhenius acid is a substance that dissociates in water to form hydrogen ions (H^+), or hydronium ion (H_3O^+)

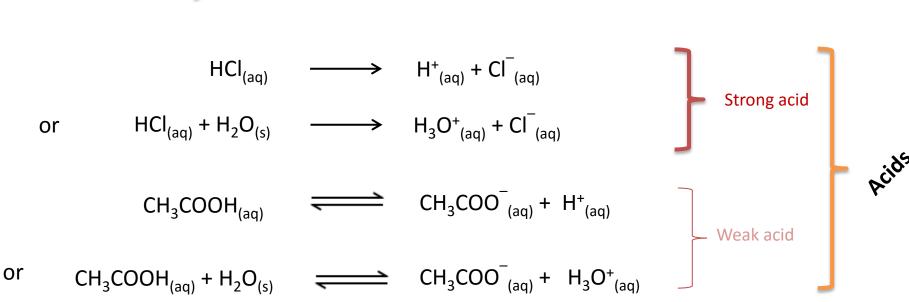
Base: Arrhenius base is a substance that dissociates in water to form hydroxide ions (OH-).

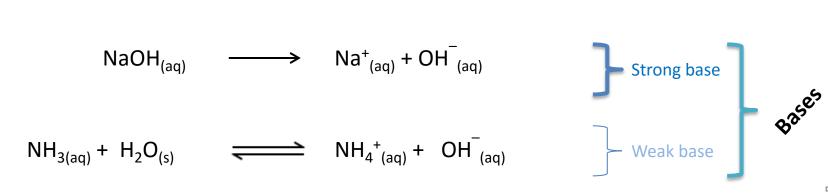


Hydronium ion:

A species forms when H⁺ binds covalently to a water (H₂O) molecule.

Acids and Bases | Strong | Weak | | Dissociates completely in water | Dissociates partially in water |





2 Brønsted-Lowery acid-base definition:

Acid: Proton (or H⁺) donor,

Base: Proton (or H⁺) acceptor.

🕙 Example

59

Example

$$CH_3COOH_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(s)}$$
 \longrightarrow $CH_3COO_{(aq)}^- + H_3O_{(aq)}^+$

Acid Base (proton donor) (proton acceptor)

🜂 Example

$$HCI_{(aq)} + NaOH_{(aq)} \longrightarrow NaCI_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(aq)}$$

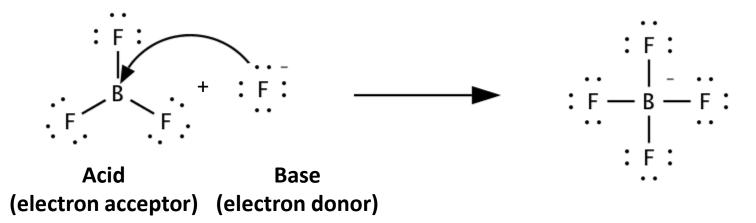
$$H \rightarrow CI_{(aq)} + NaOH_{(aq)} \longrightarrow NaCI_{(aq)} + H$$
Acid Base (proton donor) (proton acceptor)

3 Lewis acid-base definition:

Acid: Electron acceptor,

Base: Electron donor.

Example



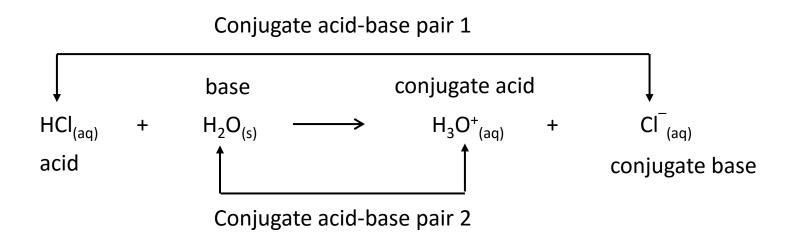
🐧 Example



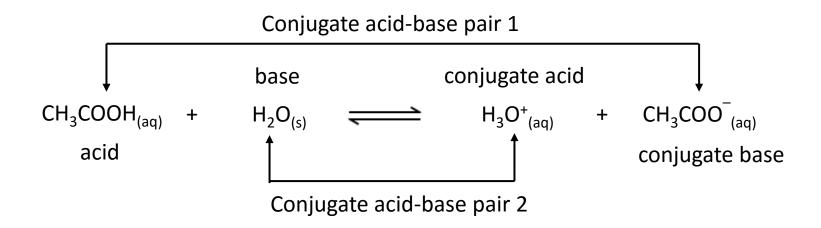
Conjugate acid-base pairs

 A conjugate pair refers to acids and bases with common features. These common features are the equal loss/gain of protons between the pairs. Conjugate acids and conjugate bases are characterized as the acids and bases that lose or gain protons.

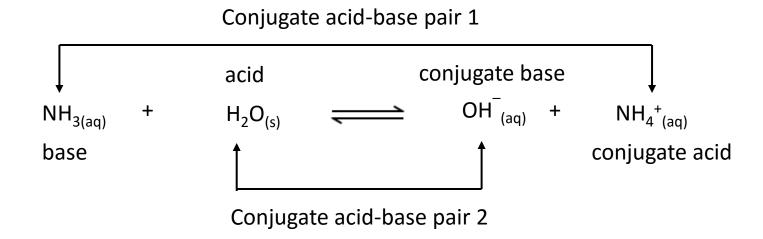




Example



🐧 Example



Amphoteric substance: a molecule or ion that can react as an acid as well as a base.

* Example

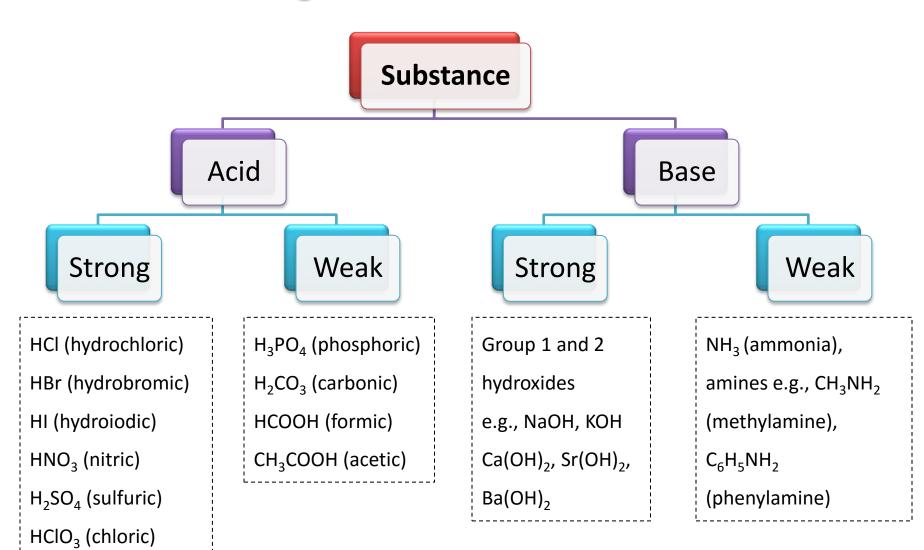
$$HCI_{(aq)}$$
 + $H_2O_{(s)}$ \longrightarrow $H_3O^+_{(aq)}$ + $CI^-_{(aq)}$ acid base $NH_{3(aq)}$ + $H_2O_{(s)}$ \longrightarrow $OH^-_{(aq)}$ + $NH_4^+_{(aq)}$ base acid H_2O is an amphoteric substance.

Example

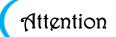
3HCI +
$$AI(OH)_3$$
 \longrightarrow $AICI_3$ + $3H_2O$
acid base

NaOH + $AI(OH)_3$ \longrightarrow $Na[AI(OH)_4]$
base $AI(OH)_3$ is an amphoteric substance.

Strength of acids and bases



HClO₄ (perchloric)





Dissociation of strong acids and bases is irreversible and thus a single arrow (\rightarrow) is used, while dissociation of weak acids and bases is reversible, thus an equilibrium arrow (\rightleftharpoons) is used.

Example

$$HCl_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(s)} \longrightarrow H_3O^+_{(aq)} + Cl_{(aq)}^-$$
 Strong acid \longrightarrow $CH_3COOH_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(s)} \longrightarrow CH_3COO_{(aq)}^- + H_3O^+_{(aq)}$ Weak acid \longrightarrow $NaOH_{(aq)} \longrightarrow Na^+_{(aq)} + OH_{(aq)}^-$ Strong base \longrightarrow $NH_{3(aq)} + H_2O_{(s)} \longrightarrow NH_{4^+(aq)}^+ + OH_{(aq)}^-$ Weak base \longrightarrow

Self-ionization of water and ion-product constant (K_{w})

Although pure water is considered a nonelectrolyte, precise measurements show a very small conduction which is due to self-ionization of water. Two water molecules react to to give hydronium (H_3O^+) and hydroxide (OH^-) ions.

$$^{2}\text{H}_{2}\text{O}$$
 $^{+}$ $^{+}$ $^{-}$ $^{+}$ $^{-}$ or simply, $^{+}$ $^{+}$ $^{-}$ $^{-}$ $^{-}$ $^{+}$ $^{-}$

Equilibrium constant expression:

$$K_c = \frac{[H^+][OH^-]}{[H_2O]}$$

$$Constant = K_W (Ion-product for water)$$

$$K_w = [H^+][OH^-]$$

at 25 °C
$$K_w = 1.00 \times 10^{-14}$$

Start — —

Equilibrium x = x

$$K_w = [H^+][OH^-] = 1.00 \times 10^{-14}$$

$$x^2 = 1.00 \times 10^{-14}$$

$$[H^+] = 1.00 \times 10^{-7}$$
 and $[OH^-] = 1.00 \times 10^{-7}$



Calculate [H⁺] and [OH⁻] in 0.050 M HCl solution.

Solution

HCl is a strong acid

Start
$$0.05 M - -$$

End $- 0.05 M 0.05 M$

$$[H^+] = 0.05 M$$

$$[H^+][OH^-] = 1.00 \times 10^{-14}$$

$$0.05 \times [OH^-] = 2.00 \times 10^{-13} M$$



Calculate [H⁺] ve [OH⁻] in 0.050 M NaOH solution.

Solution

NaOH is a strong base

Start
$$0.05 M - -$$
End $- 0.05 M 0.05 M$

$$[OH^-] = 0.05 M$$

$$[H^+][OH^-] = 1.00 \times 10^{-14}$$

$$[H^+] = 2.00 \times 10^{-13} M$$

pH and pOH concepts

$$pH = -\log[H^+]$$
 and $pOH = -\log[OH^-]$

$$[H^+][OH^-] = 1.00 \times 10^{-14}$$

$$-\log([H^+][OH^-]) = -\log(1.00 \times 10^{-14})$$

$$-\log[H^+] - \log[OH^-] = 14$$

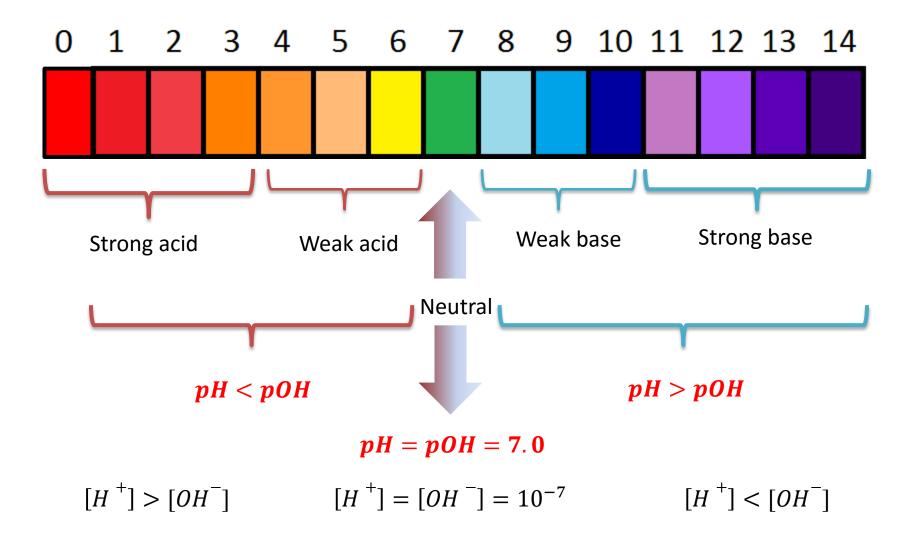
$$pH \qquad pOH$$



$$pH + pOH = 14$$

pH Scale

• **pH**: is a measure of the acidity or basicity of a solution.





Calculate the pH and pOH of 0.0250 M HCl solution.

$$[H^+] = 0.0250 M$$
 $\implies pH = -\log[H^+]$ $\implies pH = -\log 0.0250 = 1.60$

$$[H^+][OH^-] = 1,00 \times 10^{-14}$$
 $0.0250 \times [OH^-] = 1.00 \times 10^{-14}$

$$[OH^{-}] = 4.00 \times 10^{-13} M$$
 $\implies pOH = -\log[OH^{-}]$ $\implies pOH = 12.40$

or,
$$pH + pOH = 14$$
 \longrightarrow $pOH = 14.00 - 1.60 = 12.40$



Calculate [H⁺], [OH⁻], pH and pOH of the following solutions:

- (a) 0.033 M aqueous NaOH solution.
- (b) 0.024 M aqueous HNO₃ solution.
- (c) 0.011 M aqueous Ca(OH)₂ solution.
- (d) 0.032 M aqueous H₂SO₄ solution.



Calculate the concentration of the acid or base in the following solutions if:

- (a) pH of an aqueous NaOH solution is 11.5.
- (b) pOH of aqueous HNO₃ solution is 12.2.
- (c) pOH of aqueous Ca(OH)₂ solution is 3.5.
- (d) pH of aqueous H₂SO₄ solution is 1.5.

Weak acids: Acid dissociation constant (K_a)

$$CH_3COOH_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(s)}$$
 \longrightarrow $CH_3COO_{(aq)}^- + H_3O_{(aq)}^+$ Weak acid

$$K_c = \frac{[H_3O^+][CH_3COO^-]}{[CH_3COOH][H_2O]} \cong constant$$

$$K_c[H_2O] = \frac{[H_3O^+][CH_3COO^-]}{[CH_3COOH]}$$

 $Constant = K_a$ Acid dissociation constant

or,
$$CH_3COOH_{(aq)} \longrightarrow CH_3COO^-_{(aq)} + H^+_{(aq)}$$

$$K_a = \frac{[H_3O^+][CH_3COO^-]}{[CH_3COOH]}$$
 Acid dissociation constant

The general equation for acid dissociation reactions:

At equilibrium 0.010 - x

$$HA_{(aq)}$$
 \longrightarrow $H^+_{(aq)} + A^-_{(aq)}$

$$K_a = \frac{[H^+][A^-]}{[HA]}$$

🕙 Example

pH of weak acidic solutions

 χ

 χ

Calculate [CH₃COOH], [CH₃COO $^-$], [H⁺] and pH of 0.010 M aqueous acetic acid (CH₃COOH, $K_a = 1.78 \times 10^{-5}$).

$$K_a = \frac{[H_3O^+][CH_3COO^-]}{[CH_3COOH]}$$

$$K_a = 1.78 \times 10^{-5} = \frac{x^2}{0,010 - x}$$
 $(\frac{0,010}{1.78 \times 10^{-5}} < 1000)$
 $x^2 = 1.78 \times 10^{-7} - 1.78 \times 10^{-5}x$ \Rightarrow $x^2 + 1.78 \times 10^{-5}x - 1.78 \times 10^{-7} = 0$
 $x = \frac{-b \pm \sqrt{b^2 - 4(a)(c)}}{2(a)}$ \Rightarrow $x = 4.2 \times 10^{-4} M$

CH₃COOH_(aq) \Rightarrow CH₃COO $^-$ _(aq) + H⁺_(aq)

Start $0.010 M$ - -

At equil. $(0.010 - x)$ (x)

$$pH = -\log[H^+] = -\log(4.2 \times 10^{-4}) = 3.38$$

 $= 9.58 \times 10^{-3} M = 4.2 \times 10^{-4} M = 4.2 \times 10^{-4} M$

Calculate $[C_6H_5COOH]$, $[C_6H_5COO^-]$, $[H^+]$ and pH of 0.130 M aq. benzoic acid (C_6H_5COOH) , $K_a = 6.31 \times 10^{-5}$).

Solution

$$C_6H_5COOH_{(aq)} \iff C_6H_5COO_{(aq)}^- + H_{(aq)}^+$$
Start
$$0.130 M - - -$$
At equil.
$$0.130 - x \times x$$

$$K_a = \frac{[H^+][C_6H_5COO^-]}{[C_6H_5COOH]} \longrightarrow K_a = 6.31 \times 10^{-5} = \frac{x^2}{0.130 - x}$$

$$\frac{0.130}{6.31 \times 10^{-5}} \gg 1000 \qquad \Longrightarrow \qquad 6.31 \times 10^{-5} = \frac{x^2}{0.130 - x} \qquad \text{By approximation method}$$

$$\implies x = 2.86 \times 10^{-3} M$$

$$C_6H_5COOH_{(aq)}$$
 \longrightarrow $C_6H_5COO_{(aq)}^-$ + $H_{(aq)}^+$

0.130 M

$$(0.130-x)$$

$$= 0.127 M$$

$$= 2.86 \times 10^{-3} M = 2.86 \times 10^{-3} M$$

$$= 2.86 \times 10^{-3} M$$

$$pH = -\log[H^+] = -\log(2.86 \times 10^{-3}) = 2.54$$

What if it were a strong acid, what would the pH be?

$$C_6H_5COOH_{(aq)} \longrightarrow$$

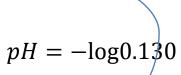
$$\longrightarrow$$
 $C_6H_5COO_{(aq)}^- + H_{(aq)}^+$

0.130 M

End

0.130 M

0.130 M



$$= 0.89$$

If pH of 0.025 M aq. citric asit (HCit) is 2.41, calculate K_a value of this acid.

Solution

$$HCit_{(aq)}$$
 \longrightarrow $H^+_{(aq)}$ + $Cit_{(aq)}^-$

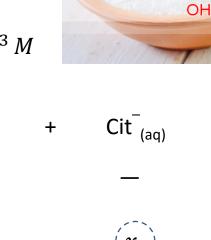
Start 0.025 M

At equil. 0.025 - x

$$\boldsymbol{x}$$
 \boldsymbol{x}

$$pH = -\log[H^+] = 2.41$$

$$[H^+] = 3.92 \times 10^{-3} M$$



Start

 $HCit_{(aq)}$

 $H^+_{(aq)}$

At equil.

$$\langle 0.025 - x \rangle$$

ОН

Citric acid

$$K_a = \frac{[H^+][Cit^-]}{[HCit]}$$

$$K_{a3}$$

$$K_{a4}$$

$$K_{a1}$$

$$K_{a1}$$

$$K_{a1}$$

$$K_{a2}$$

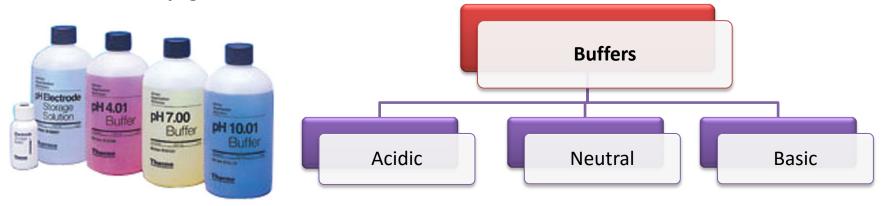
Citric acid

Polyprotic acids $(K_{a1}, K_{a2}, ...)$

# of dissociable H's	Weak acid	Formula	K_{a}
1	Hydrofluoric	HF	6.92×10^{-4}
	Formic (methanoic)	НСООН	1.78×10^{-4}
	Benzoic	C ₆ H₅COOH	6.31×10^{-5}
	Acetic (ethanoic)	CH₃COOH	1.82×10^{-5}
	Acetylsalicylic(aspirin)	C ₈ H ₇ O ₂ COOH	3.31×10^{-4}
2	Ascorbic	$H_2C_6H_6O_6$	$K_{a1} = 7.94 \times 10^{-5}, K_{a2} = 1.58 \times 10^{-12}$
	Carbonic	H_2CO_3	$K_{a1} = 4.27 \times 10^{-7}, K_{a2} = 5.62 \times 10^{-11}$
3	Phosphoric	H ₃ PO ₄	$K_{a1} = 7.59 \times 10^{-3}, K_{a2} = 6.17 \times 10^{-8},$ $K_{a3} = 2.14 \times 10^{-13}$
4	Citric acid	C ₆ H ₈ O ₇	$K_{a1} = 8.91 \times 10^{-4}, K_{a2} = 2.14 \times 10^{-5}, K_{a3} = 4.07 \times 10^{-6}, K_{a4} = 1.20 \times 10^{-14}$

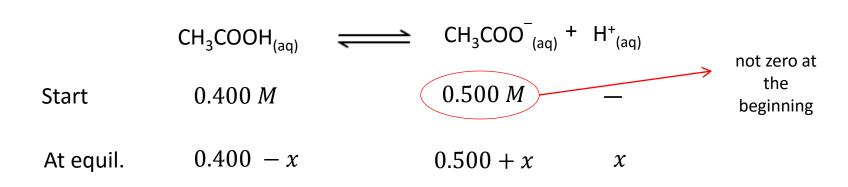
Buffer Solutions

- A buffer is a solution that can resist pH change upon the addition of an acidic or basic components. It is able to neutralize small amounts of added acid or base, thus maintaining the pH of the solution relatively stable. This is important for processes and/or reactions which require specific and stable pH ranges.
- Buffer solutions have a working pH range and capacity (buffer capacity) which
 dictate how much acid/base can be neutralized before pH changes, and the amount
 by which it will change.
- To effectively maintain a pH range, a buffer must consist of a weak conjugate acid-base pair, meaning either (a) a weak acid and its conjugate base, or (b) a weak base and its conjugate acid.



Calculate the pH of a solution composed of 0.400 M acetic acid (CH₃COOH) and 0.500 M acetate ions (CH₃COO $^-$). $K_a = 1.75 \times 10^{-5}$

Solution



$$K_a = \frac{[CH_3COO^-][H^+]}{[CH_3COOH]}$$

By approximation method

$$\implies 1.75 \times 10^{-5} = \frac{0.500x}{0.400}$$

$$\implies x = 1.4 \times 10^{-5} M$$



Calculate the pH of a buffer solution composed of 0.250 M formic acid (HCOOH) and 0.300 M formate ion (HCOO $^-$). $K_a=1.78\times10^{-4}$