# Chapter 11 (9<sup>th</sup> Edition) Chapter 10 (8<sup>th</sup> Edition)

**Acid-Base Titrations** 

## **Objectives**

- 11-1 Titration of Strong Base with Strong Acid
- 11-2 Titration of Weak Acid with Strong Base
- 11-3 Titration of Weak Base with Strong Acid
- 11-4 Titrations in Diprotic Systems
- 11-5 Finding the End Point with a pH Electrode
- 11-6 Finding the End Point with Indicators
- 11-7 Practical Notes
- 11-8 Kjeldahl Nitrogen Analysis
- 11-9 The Leveling Effect
- 1<del>1-10 Calculating Titration Curves with Spreadsheets</del>

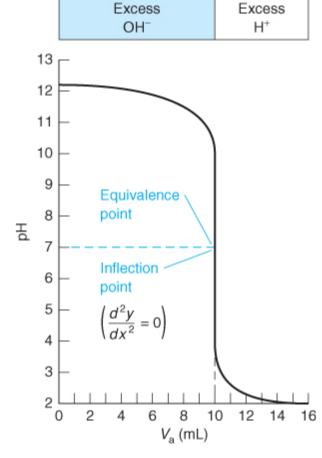
### 11-1: Titration of Strong Base with Strong Acid

Strong acid/strong base titration: pH is determined by the concentration of excess unreacted H<sup>+</sup> or OH<sup>-</sup>.

- 1. Before the equivalence point, pH is determined by excess OH- in the solution.
- 2. At the equivalence point, H<sup>+</sup> is just sufficient to react with all OH<sup>-</sup> to make H<sub>2</sub>O. The pH is determined by dissociation of water.
- 3. After the equivalence point, pH is determined by excess H<sup>+</sup> in the solution.

### 11-1: Titration of Strong Base with Strong Acid

TABLE 11-1	Calculation of the titration curve for 50.00 mL of 0.020 00 M KOH treated with 0.100 0 M HBr					
	$\begin{array}{c} \mathbf{mL} \ \mathbf{HBr} \\ \mathbf{added} \ (V_{\mathbf{a}}) \end{array}$	Concentration of unreacted OH <sup>-</sup> (M)	$\begin{array}{c} \textbf{Concentration of} \\ \textbf{excess } \textbf{H}^+ \ (\textbf{M}) \end{array}$	pН		
	0.00	0.020 0		12.30		
	1.00	0.017 6		12.24		
	2.00	0.015 4		12.18		
	3.00	0.013 2		12.12		
	4.00	0.011 1		12.04		
Region 1	5.00	0.009 09		11.95		
(excess OH )	6.00	0.007 14		11.85		
	7.00	0.005 26		11.72		
	8.00	0.003 45		11.53		
	9.00	0.001 69		11.22		
	9.50	0.000 840		10.92		
	9.90	0.000 167		10.22		
	9.99	0.000 016 6		9.22		
Region 2	10.00	_	_	7.00		
	[ 10.01		0.000 016 7	4.78		
	10.10		0.000 166	3.78		
	10.50		0.000 826	3.08		
	11.00		0.001 64	2.79		
Region 3	12.00		0.003 23	2.49		
(excess H <sup>+</sup> )	13.00		0.004 76	2.32		
	14.00		0.006 25	2.20		
	15.00		0.007 69	2.11		
STUDENTS-H	UB.com		0.009 09	2.04		



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### 11-2: Titration of Weak Acid with Strong Base

Four distinct regions of the titration curve:

- 1. Before base added, the solution contains just the weak acid, HA, in water.  $HA \rightleftharpoons H^+ + A^-$
- 2. Between the initial point and the equivalence point, there is a mixture of HA and A<sup>-</sup>. Buffer!
- 3. At the equivalence point, HA has been converted into A<sup>-</sup>, a weak base. The pH is calculated by considering the base hydrolysis reaction of A<sup>-</sup>.

$$A^- + H_2O \Rightarrow HA + OH^-$$

4. After the equivalence point, the excess strong base determines the pH.

### 11-3: Titration of Weak Base with Strong Acid

- The titration of a weak base with a strong acid is the reverse of the titration of a weak acid with a strong base.
- Because the reactants are a weak base and a strong acid, the reaction goes essentially to completion after each addition of acid.

### 11-3: Titration of Weak Base with Strong Acid

Four distinct regions of the titration curve:

- 1. Before acid is added, the solution contains just the weak base, B, in water.
- 2. Between the initial point and the equivalence point, there is a mixture of B and BH<sup>+</sup>.
- 3. At the equivalence point, B has been converted into BH+, a weak acid. The pH is calculated by considering the acid dissociation reaction of BH+.
- 4. After the equivalence point, the excess strong acid determines the pH.

#### Titration of Pyridine with HCl EXAMPLE

Consider the titration of 25.00 mL of 0.083 64 M pyridine with 0.106 7 M HCl.

N: 
$$K_b = 1.59 \times 10^{-9} \implies K_a = \frac{K_w}{K_b} = 6.31 \times 10^{-6} \quad pK_a = 5.20$$

The titration reaction is

Pyridine

$$N: + H_+ \rightarrow NH_+$$

and the equivalence point occurs at 19.60 mL:

$$\underbrace{(V_{\rm e}(\rm mL))(0.106~7~M)}_{\rm mmol~of~HCl} = \underbrace{(25.00~\rm mL)(0.083~64~M)}_{\rm mmol~of~pyridine} \Rightarrow V_{\rm e} = 19.60~\rm mL$$

Find the pH when  $V_a = 4.63$  mL.

**Solution** Part of the pyridine has been neutralized, so there is a mixture of pyridine and pyridinium ion—Aha! A buffer! The fraction of pyridine that has been titrated is 4.63/19.60 =0.236, because it takes 19.60 mL to titrate the whole sample. The fraction of pyridine remaining is 1 - 0.236 = 0.764. The pH is

$$pH = pK_a + \log\left(\frac{[B]}{[BH^+]}\right)$$
$$= 5.20 + \log\frac{0.764}{0.236} = 5.71$$

The principles developed for titrations of monoprotic acids and bases extend directly to titrations of polyprotic acids and bases.

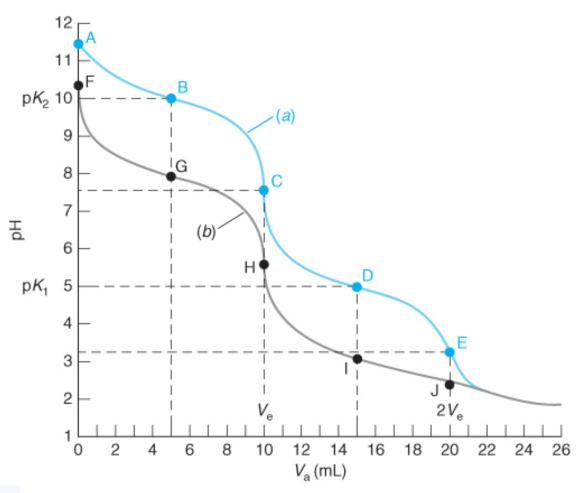
Consider the titration of 10.0 mL of 0.100 M base (B) with 0.100 M HCl. The base is dibasic, with  $pK_{b1} = 4.00$  and  $pK_{b2} = 9.00$ . The equivalence points correspond to the reactions below:

B + H<sup>+</sup> 
$$\rightarrow$$
 BH<sup>+</sup>  
BH<sup>+</sup> + H<sup>+</sup>  $\rightarrow$  BH<sub>2</sub><sup>2+</sup>

- 1. Find the first and second equivalence points.
- The volume at the first equivalence point is 10.00 mL because (V<sub>e</sub>(mL))(0.100 M) = (10.00 mL)(0.100 0 M) → V<sub>e</sub> = 10.00 mL mmol of HCl = mmol of B
- The volume at the second equivalence point must be  $2V_e$ , because the second reaction requires the same number of moles of HCl as the first reaction.  $2V_e = 20.0 \text{ mL}$ .
- Before acid is added, the solution contains just weak base,
  B, whose pH is governed by base hydrolysis. The fully basic form of a dibasic compound can be treated as if it were monobasic.

- 3. At any point between  $V_a = 0$  and  $V_e$ , we have a buffer containing B and BH<sup>+</sup>. Use the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation to calculate the pH.
- 4. At the first equivalence point, Ve, B has been converted into BH+. The intermediate form of the diprotic acid, BH<sub>2</sub>+, BH+ is both an acid and a base.
- 5. At any point between Ve and 2Ve, the pH is governed by the buffer containing BH+ and BH<sub>2</sub>+. Again the Henderson-Hasselbalch equation is used.
- 6. After the second equivalence point, 2Ve, the pH is governed by the excess strong acid in solution, H<sup>+</sup>.





- Titrations are commonly performed to find out how much analyte is present or to measure equilibrium constants.
- We can obtain the information necessary for both purposes by monitoring pH during the titration.
- An autotitrator performs the entire operation automatically. The instrument waits for pH to stabilize after each addition of titrant before adding the next increment. The end point is computed automatically by finding the maximum slope in the titration curve.

	Α	В	С	D	E	F
1	Derivat	ives of a Titrat	ion Curve			
2	Data		1st derivative		2nd derivative	
3	μL NaOH	рН	μL	ΔρΗ/ΔμL		$\Delta(\Delta pH/\Delta \mu L)$
4	85.0	4.245	1		μL	ΔμL
5			85.5	0.155	)	
6	86.0	4.400	J		86.0	0.0710
7			86.5	0.226	J	
8	87.0	4.626			87.0	0.0810
9			87.5	0.307		
10	88.0	4.933			88.0	0.0330
11			88.5	0.340		
12	89.0	5.273			89.0	-0.0830
13			89.0	0.257		
14	90.0	5.530			90.0	-0.0680
15			90.5	0.189		
16	91.0	5.719			91.25	-0.0390
17			92.0	0.131		
18	93.0	5.980				
19	Representative formulas:					
20	C5 = (A6 + A4)	1)/2		E6 = (C7 + C5)		
21	D5 = (B6 - B4)	I)/(A6-A4)		F6 = (D7-D5		

#### **EXAMPLE** Computing Derivatives of a Titration Curve

Let's see how the first and second derivatives in Figure 11-6 are calculated.

**Solution** The first number in the third column, 85.5, is the average of the first two volumes (85.0 and 86.0) in the first column. The derivative  $\Delta pH/\Delta V$  is calculated from the first two pH values and the first two volumes:

$$\frac{\Delta \text{pH}}{\Delta V} = \frac{4.400 - 4.245}{86.0 - 85.0} = 0.155$$

The coordinates (x = 85.5, y = 0.155) are one point in the graph of the first derivative in Figure 11-5b.

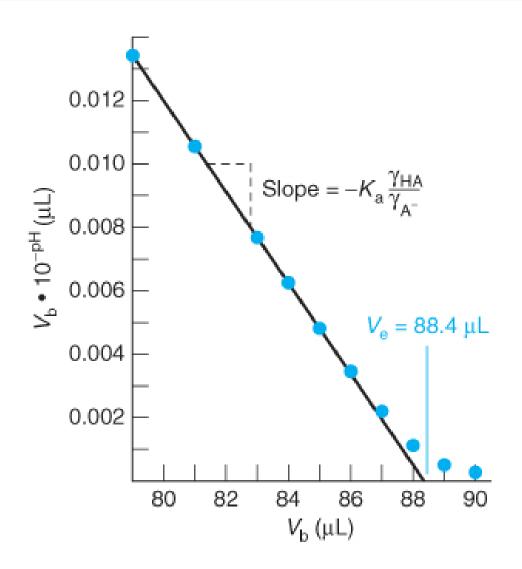
The second derivative is computed from the first derivative. The first entry in the fifth column of Figure 11-6 is 86.0, which is the average of 85.5 and 86.5. The second derivative is

$$\frac{\Delta(\Delta pH/\Delta V)}{\Delta V} = \frac{0.226 - 0.155}{86.5 - 85.5} = 0.071$$

The coordinates (x = 86.0, y = 0.071) are plotted in the second derivative graph in Figure 11-5c.

**TEST YOURSELF** Verify the derivative in cell D7 of Figure 11-6.

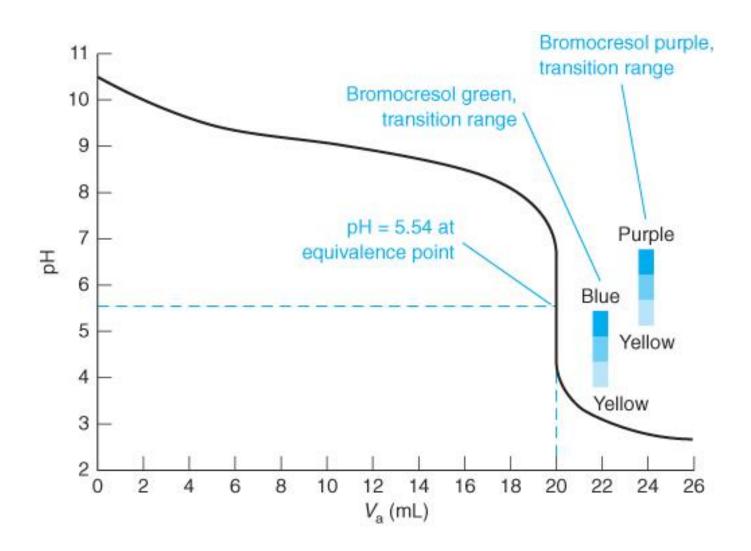
- A problem with using derivatives to find the end point is that titration data are least accurate right near the end point (buffering is minimal and electrode response is sluggish).
- A Gran plot is a graph of V<sub>b</sub> × 10<sup>-pH</sup> versus V<sub>b</sub>.
- A Gran plot uses data from before the end point to locate the end point.
- The slope of the linear portion of the graph is K<sub>a</sub> and the x-intercept is V<sub>e</sub>.



### 11-6: Finding the End Point with Indicators

- An acid-base indicator is itself an acid or base whose various protonated species have different colors.
- One of the most common indicators is phenolphthalein, usually used for its colorless-to-pink transition at pH 8.0– 9.6.
- In strong acid, the colorless form of phenolphthalein turns orange-red. In strong base, the red species loses its color.
- Choose an indicator whose transition range overlaps the steepest part of the titration curve.
- Indicator error is the difference between the observed end point (color change) and the true equivalence point.

### 11-6: Finding the End Point with Indicators



### 11-7: Practical Notes

- Acids and bases in Table 11-4 can be obtained pure enough to be primary standards.
- NaOH and KOH are not primary standards because they contain carbonate and adsorbed water. Solutions of NaOH and KOH must be standardized.
- Alkaline solutions (e.g., 0.1 M NaOH) must be protected from the atmosphere; otherwise, they absorb CO<sub>2</sub>.
   Standard solutions are commonly stored in high-density polyethylene bottles with screw caps.

$$OH^- + CO_2 \rightarrow HCO_3^-$$

 Strongly basic solutions attack glass and are best stored in plastic containers.

### 11-8: Kjeldahl Nitrogen Analysis

### Kjeldahl nitrogen analysis:

- One of the most widely used methods for determining nitrogen in organic substances, especially for proteins (~16 wt% nitrogen).
- A sample is first digested (decomposed and dissolved) in boiling sulfuric acid, which converts amine and amide nitrogen into ammonium ion, NH<sub>4</sub>+, and oxidizes other elements present.
- To speed the reaction, the boiling point of concentrated (98 wt%) sulfuric acid is raised by adding K<sub>2</sub>SO<sub>4</sub>.
- Digestion is carried out in a long-neck Kjeldahl flask that prevents loss of sample from spattering.

### 11-8: Kjeldahl Nitrogen Analysis

- After digestion is complete, the solution containing NH<sub>4</sub><sup>+</sup> is made basic, and the liberated NH<sub>3</sub> is steam distilled (with a large excess of steam) into a receiver containing a known amount of HCI.
- Excess, unreacted HCl is then titrated with standard NaOH to determine how much HCl was consumed by NH<sub>3</sub>.

### 11-8: Kjeldahl Nitrogen Analysis

#### **EXAMPLE** Kjeldahl Analysis

A typical protein contains 16.2 wt% nitrogen. A 0.500-mL aliquot of protein solution was digested, and the liberated NH<sub>3</sub> was distilled into 10.00 mL of 0.021 40 M HCl. Unreacted HCl required 3.26 mL of 0.019 8 M NaOH for complete titration. Find the concentration of protein (mg protein/mL) in the original sample.

**Solution** The initial quantity of HCl in the receiver was (10.00 mL)(0.021 40 mmol/mL) = 0.214 0 mmol. The NaOH required for titration of unreacted HCl in Reaction 11-11 was (3.26 mL)(0.019 8 mmol/mL) = 0.064 5 mmol. The difference, 0.214 0 - 0.064 5 = 0.149 5 mmol, must be the quantity of NH  $_3$  produced in Reaction 11-9 and distilled into the HCl.

Because 1 mol of N in the protein produces 1 mol of NH <sub>3</sub>, there must have been 0.149 5 mmol of N in the protein, corresponding to

$$(0.149 \text{ 5 mmol}) \left(14.007 \frac{\text{mg N}}{\text{mmol}}\right) = 2.094 \text{ mg N}$$

If the protein contains 16.2 wt% N, there must be

$$\frac{2.094 \text{ mg N}}{0.162 \text{ mg N/mg protein}} = 12.9 \text{ mg protein} \Rightarrow \frac{12.9 \text{ mg protein}}{0.500 \text{ mL}} = 25.8 \frac{\text{mg protein}}{\text{mL}}$$

TEST YOURSELF Find mg protein/mL if 3.00 mL of NaOH were required. ( Answer: 26.7 mg/mL)

### 11-9: The Leveling Effect

### Acid strength: Expect HClO₄ (aq) > HCl (aq)

- The strongest acid that can exist in water is H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> and the strongest base is OH<sup>-</sup>.
- If an acid stronger than H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup> is dissolved in water, it protonates H<sub>2</sub>O to make H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>.
- If a base stronger than OH<sup>-</sup> is dissolved in water, it deprotonates H<sub>2</sub>O to make OH<sup>-</sup>.
- Because of this leveling effect, HClO<sub>4</sub> and HCl behave as if they had the same acid strength; both are leveled to H<sub>3</sub>O<sup>+</sup>.

# 11-10: Calculating Titration Curves with Spreadsheets

• The approximations used previously are of limited value when concentrations are too dilute or equilibrium constants are not of the right magnitude or  $K_a$  values are too closely spaced, like those in a protein.

Spreadsheets can be used to deal with titrations in a

general manner.

	Α	В	С	D	Е	F	G
1	Titration of weak acid with strong base		g base				
2							
3	C <sub>b</sub> =	рН	[H <sup>+</sup> ]	[OH <sup>-</sup> ]	α(A <sup>-</sup> )	ф	V <sub>b</sub> (mL)
4	0.1	3.90	1.26E-04	7.94E-11	0.004	-0.002	-0.020
5	C <sub>a</sub> =	3.99	1.02E-04	9.77E-11	0.005	0.000	0.001
6	0.02	5.00	1.00E-05	1.00E-09	0.051	0.050	0.505
7	V <sub>a</sub> =	6.00	1.00E-06	1.00E-08	0.349	0.349	3.493
8	50	6.27	5.37E-07	1.86E-08	0.500	0.500	5.000
9	K <sub>a</sub> =	7.00	1.00E-07	1.00E-07	0.843	0.843	8.430
10	5.37E-07	8.00	1.00E-08	1.00E-06	0.982	0.982	9.818
11	K <sub>w</sub> =	9.00	1.00E-09	1.00E-05	0.998	0.999	9.987
12	1.E-14	9.25	5.62E-10	1.78E-05	0.999	1.000	10.000
13		10.00	1.00E-10	1.00E-04	1.000	1.006	10.058
14		11.00	1.00E-11	1.00E-03	1.000	1.061	10.606
15		12.00	1.00E-12	1.00E-02	1.000	1.667	16.667
16							
17	C4 = 10^-B4			F4 = (E4-(C4-D4)/\$A\$6)/(1+(C4-D4)/\$A\$4)			
18	D4 = \$A\$12/C4			G4 = F4*\$A\$6*\$A\$8/\$A\$4			
19	E4 = \$A\$10/(C	4+\$A\$10)		Ur	loaded B	v: Mariar	n Oadah