Demo of Hydrolysis AlCl₃, CaCl₂, Na₂CO₃, etc.

Hydrolysis:

- Reaction between a salt (ion or ions in a salt) and water to produce an *acidic* or *basic* solution.
- Net ionic equations for *hydrolysis*:

An ion + water \rightarrow a molecule or ion + H₃O⁺ or OH⁻

SPECTATORS - ions which do <u>NOT</u> hydrolyze (need periodic table and acid table to find these)

Spectator Cations (look on per. table)

Group 1 (Alkali Metal ions) <u>eg. Li⁺, Na⁺, K⁺, Rb⁺, Cs⁺, Fr⁺</u> *Group 2* (Alkaline Earth ions) <u>eg. Be⁺, Mg²⁺, Ca²⁺, Ba²⁺, Sr²⁺, Ra²⁺</u>

Spectator Anions (look on acid table)

- Conjugate bases of strong acids.
- Top 5 ions on the right side of table.
- ClO_4^{-} I Br Cl NO₃

(HSO₄ is not a spectator – it is amphiprotic – will be dealt with later

spectators are eliminated in net ionic equations (NIE's) for hydrolysis!

<u>Process</u> – if given salt (dissociate \rightarrow eliminate \rightarrow evaluate)

- 1. Write **dissociation** equation
- 2. Eliminate spectators
- 3. Remaining ions \rightarrow <u>left</u> side of table undergo **acid** hydrolysis is –produce H₃O⁺
 - \rightarrow <u>right</u> side of table undergo **base** hydrolysis produce OH
 - \rightarrow amphiprotic determine K_a and K_b to find *dominant* hydrolysis.

Examples: Determining A, B, or N

Is the salt NaF Acidic, basic or neutral in water?

Dissociation: $\operatorname{NaF} \rightarrow \operatorname{Va}^+ + \operatorname{F}_{\operatorname{Spectator}}$ (alkali cation) Found on **right** side of acid table-forms a weak **base**.

- so NaF is **basic**

Is the salt NH₄ NO₃ acidic, basic or neutral in aqueous solution?

Dissociation: $NH_4NO_3 \rightarrow NH_4^+ + NQ_3^-$ Spectator top 5 on right side of table Found on **left** side of table – forms a weak **acid** - so NH_4NO_3 is <u>acidic</u>. Is the salt KCl acidic, basic or neutral?



List the 4 *hydrolyzing* cations on the acid table:

ANIONS WHICH HYDROLYZE

Looking on the RIGHT side of the ACID TABLE:



All of the anions in this section from IO_3^- down to S^{2-} will undergo **base** hydrolysis. Anions that are NOT *amphiprotic* will act as weak bases in water. We will deal with amphiprotic anions (eg. HCOO⁻) later.

Some examples of **<u>net-ionic</u>** *hydrolysis equations* for these would be:

 $IO_{3}^{-}{}_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(1)} \rightleftharpoons HIO_{3}{}_{(aq)} + OH^{-}{}_{(aq)}$ $NO_{2}^{-}{}_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(1)} \rightleftharpoons HNO_{2}{}_{(aq)} + OH^{-}{}_{(aq)}$ $CH_{3}COO^{-}{}_{(aq)} + H_{2}O_{(1)} \rightleftharpoons CH_{3}COOH_{(aq)} + OH^{-}{}_{(aq)}$

Salts which contain these anions may also be *basic* (depending on the cation). When you get a salt, you must *dissociate* it, *eliminate spectators* and then look for *hydrolysis* of any remaining ions.

Eg.) Determine whether the salt sodium carbonate (Na_2CO_3) is acidic, basic or neutral in aqueous solution.



The **<u>net-ionic equation</u>** for the *hydrolysis* taking place in this salt would be:

 $\text{CO}_3^{2-}_{(aq)} + \text{H}_2\text{O}_{(1)} \rightleftharpoons \text{HCO}_{3(aq)} + \text{OH}_{(aq)}$ and the salt would act as a *weak base* in water. Remember that "net-ionic" means that any spectator ions have been removed! Write the net-ionic equation for the hydrolysis taking place in aqueous magnesium sulphate:

Hydrolysis When BOTH Cation and Anion hydrolyze

Eg. Is the salt ammonium nitrite NH₄NO₂ acidic, basic or neutral?



Remember that NH_4^+ produces H_3O^+ ($NH_4^+ + H_2O \rightleftharpoons H_3O^+ + NH_3$) (equation 1) And NO_2^- produces OH^- ($NO_2^- + H_2O \rightleftharpoons HNO_2 + OH^-$) (equation 2)

The Ka for NH_4^+ tells how much H_3O^+ it produces (The K_{eq} for equation 1 is the Ka of NH_4^+) The Kb for NO_2^- tells how much OH^- it produces (The K_{eq} for equation 2 is the Kb of NO_2^-)

The Ka for NH_4^+ is <u>5.6 x 10⁻¹⁰</u> (look up NH_4^+ on the left side of the table and it's Ka is on the right)

The Kb for NO₂⁻ must be calculated: Kb (NO₂) = <u>Kw</u> = <u>1.0 x 10⁻¹⁴</u> = <u>2.2 x 10⁻¹¹</u> = <u>2.2 x 10⁻¹¹</u>

Since the Ka of $NH_4^+ > Kb$ of NO_2^-

We can say that this salt is **ACIDIC**

So, in summary:IfThen the salt is:Ka (cation) > Kb (anion)AcidicKb (anion) > Ka (cation)BasicKa (cation) = Kb (anion)Neutral

Determine whether the salt NH₄CN (ammonium cyanide) is acidic, basic or neutral.

Hydrolysis of Amphiprotic Anions

Amphiprotic Anions \rightarrow Start with "H" and have a "-" charge.

Eg. HSO_4^- , HSO_3^- , $H_2PO_4^ HPO_4^{2-}$ HS⁻ etc.

Amphiprotic Anions hydrolyze as *acids* to produce H_3O^+ but they also hydrolyze as *bases* to produce *OH* So, how can we tell whether they are acidic or basic or neutral? We need to determine the *predominant* hydrolysis. See the next page...

Find the Ka of the ion. (Look for ion on the LEFT SIDE of the acid table, read Ka on the right.)

Find the Kb of the ion. (Look for the ion on the RIGHT SIDE of the table and use: Kb = Kw/Ka(conj. acid)

If	Then the predominant hydrolysis is:	And, in aqueous solution, the ion:
Ka (the ion) $>$ Kb (the ion)	ACID HYDROLYSIS	Acts as an Acid
Kb (the ion) $>$ Ka (the ion)	BASE HYDROLYSIS	Acts as a Base

Eg. Find the predominant hydrolysis of the hydrogen carbonate ion (HCO₃⁻) and write the net-ionic equation for it.

To find the Ka of HCO₃, look it up on the **left** side of table (6th from the bottom). It's Ka = 5.6×10^{-11}

To find the Kb of HCO_3^- , look it up of the **right** side of table. (15th from the bottom)

(It's conjugate acid is H_2CO_3 and the Ka of $H_2CO_3 = 4.3 \times 10^{-7}$)

So we calculate the Kb of HCO₃⁻ using : Kb(HCO₃⁻) = Kw $Ka(H_2CO_3) = \frac{1.0 \times 10^{-14}}{4.3 \times 10^{-7}} = 2.3 \times 10^{-8}$

So, since Kb (HCO₃⁻) > Ka (HCO₃⁻), the ion HCO₃⁻ predominantly undergoes <u>BASE HYDROLYSIS</u>. (2.3 x 10^8) (5.6 x 10^{-11})

And the net-ionic equation for the *predominant hydrolysis* is:

$$HCO_{3(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)} \rightleftharpoons H_2CO_{3(aq)} + OH_{(aq)}$$

Read p. 144 – 147 in SW & Do Ex. 69 (a-f) and Ex. 70 (a – j), 71, 72 & 73 on p. 148 SW.

Do Worksheet 4-5 (Hydrolysis) & Do Experiment 20-D (Hydrolysis)

Putting it all Together—Finding the pH in a Salt Solution

Eg. Calculate the pH of 0.30 M Na₂CO₃

Step 1: Dissociate and Eliminate any spectators. Identify any ions left as weak acids or weak bases.



Step 2: Write HYDROLYSIS EQUATION (Don't forget that CO₃²⁻ undergoes BASE hydrolysis!) And an ICE table underneath it:

	CO_{3}^{2-} (aq)	+ H ₂ O _(l) ₹	\Rightarrow HCO _{3 (aq)}	+ OH ⁻ _(aq)
[I]	0.30		0	0
[C]	- X		+ x	+ x
[E]	0.30 - x		Х	x

Step 3: Since CO_3^{2-} is a WEAK BASE, we need to calculate the value of Kb for CO_3^{2-} :

Kb (CO₃²⁻) = Kw =
$$1.0 \times 10^{-14}$$
 = 1.786×10^{-4} (use unrounded value in the next calculation)
Ka (HCO₃⁻) = 5.6×10^{-11}

Step 4: Write the Kb expression for the hydrolysis of CO_3^{2-} :

$$Kb = \frac{[HCO_3^{-1}] [OH^{-1}]}{[CO_3^{2^{-1}}]}$$

Step 5: Insert equilibrium concentration [E] values from the ICE table into the Kb expression. <u>State</u> any valid assumptions:

Kb =
$$\frac{x^2}{(0.30 - x)}$$
 Assume
0.30-x ≈ 0.30

Step 6: Calculate the value of x. Remember in the ICE table, that x = [OH]

Kb
$$\approx \frac{x^2}{0.30}$$

1.786 x 10⁻⁴ = $\frac{x^2}{0.30}$
x² = 0.30 (1.786 x 10⁻⁴)
[OH] = x = $\sqrt{0.30 (1.786 \times 10^{-4})}$ = 7.319 x 10⁻³ M

Step 7: Calculate pOH (pOH = $-\log [OH^{-}]$)

$$pOH = -\log (7.319 \times 10^{-3}) = 2.1355$$

Step 8: Convert to pH (pH = 14.00 - pOH). Express in the correct # of SD's as justified by data:

Question: Calculate the pH of a 0.24 M solution of the salt aluminum nitrate. Show all your steps. State any assumptions used.

Metal, Non-metal and Metalloid Oxides (also called Anhydrides)

Demonstration of the pH's of metal and non-metal oxides.

Compound	Metal or Non-metal Oxide	Colour in Universal Indicator	Approximate pH
Aqueous MgO			
Aqueous CaO			
Aqueous ZnO			
Aqueous CO ₂			
Aqueous NO ₂			
Aqueous SO ₂			

Conclusions:

Metal oxides act as *(acids/bases)* in aqueous solution.

Non-Metal oxides act as *(acids/bases)* in aqueous solution.

Explanation:

Group 1 and Group 2 Oxides are <u>ionic</u>. They dissociate to form the oxide ion (O^{2-})



The oxide $(O^{2^{-}})$ ion then undergoes 100% hydrolysis (because it's a strong base) $O^{2^{-}}(aq) + H_2O_{(1)} \rightarrow 2OH_{(aq)}$ Another example: BaO_(s) \rightarrow Ba²⁺_(aq) + O²⁻_(aq) Spectator Spectator The oxide $(O^{2^{-}})$ ion then undergoes 100% hydrolysis (because it's a strong base) $O^{2^{-}}(aq) + H_2O_{(1)} \rightarrow 2OH_{(aq)}$

We can also summarize the reactions of group 1 and group 2 metals with water in the form of formula equations:

 $Na_2O + H_2O \rightarrow 2 NaOH$ $BaO + H_2O \rightarrow Ba(OH)_2$

Write a balanced for mula equation for the overall reactions of the following oxides with water:

Calcium oxide: _____

Lithium oxide: _____

Non-Metal Oxides act as ACIDS in aqueous solution:

Some common examples of <u>non-metal oxides</u>: NO_2 , N_2O_5 , SO_2 , SO_3 , CO_2 , Cl_2O

These compounds react with water to form ACIDS.

The **formula equations** for some of these are:

Don't get these confused with the IONS: NO_2^{-} (nitrite) and SO_3^{-2-} (sulphite)! They are covalent compounds, not ions!

 $SO_{2(g)} + H_2O_{(1)} \rightarrow H_2SO_{3 (aq)}$ (sulphurous acid)

 $2NO_{2(g)} + H_2O_{(l)} \rightarrow HNO_{3 (aq)} + HNO_{2 (aq)}$ (nitric and nitrous acids)

Once these acids are formed, they can ionize (strong ones 100%, weak ones < 100%) to form H₃O⁺ ions.

Eg. $H_2SO_{3 (aq)} + H_2O_{(1)} \rightleftharpoons H_3O^+_{(aq)} + HSO_3^-_{(aq)}$ (<100% ionization since H_2SO_3 is a weak acid)

Eg. HNO_{3 (aq)} + H₂O₍₁₎ \rightarrow H₃O⁺_(aq) + NO₃⁻_(aq) (100% ionization since HNO₃ is a strong acid)

Metalloid Oxides (by staircase)

Eg. Al_2O_3 , Ga_2O_3 , GeO_2 These compounds usually have LOW solubility so not many ions are freed to undergo hydrolysis. So very little hydrolysis occurs so they do not act AS acids or bases.

These compounds can react WITH acids or bases. Compounds that can do this are called amphoteric.

Anhydrides

Oxide compounds that react <u>as</u> acids or bases in aqueous solution are also called **Anhydrides**. (an-hydride translates to "without water") These are compounds that react WITH water to form acidic or basic solutions.

Acidic Anhydride—An oxide ("O" containing) compound which reacts with water to form an ACIDIC SOLUTION.

Acidic anhydrides are oxides of elements on the **<u>RIGHT</u>** side of the periodic table.

Some examples of *acidic anhydrides* are: SO₂, SO₃, Cl₂O etc.

And some of their reactions with water are:

 $SO_{3(g)} + H_2O_{(1)} \rightarrow H_2SO_{4 (aq)}$ (sulphuric acid—a strong acid)

 $2 \text{ NO}_{2(g)} + H_2O_{(1)} \rightarrow \text{ HNO}_{2(aq)} + \text{ HNO}_{3(aq)}$ (nitrous and nitric acids)

 $Cl_2O_{(aq)} + H_2O_{(l)} \rightarrow 2HClO$ (hypochlorous acid)

(**NOTE**: You should KNOW these equations!)

Basic Anhydride—An oxide ("O" containing) compound which reacts with water to form a BASIC SOLUTION.

NOTE: **<u>Basic Anhydrides</u>** are METAL (**LEFT** side of Periodic Table) oxides.

Some examples are: Na_2O , CaO, MgO, CaOetc.

Formula equations for some Basic Anhydrides reacting with water:

Na₂O + H₂O \rightarrow 2 NaOH (the base is called sodium hydroxide)

 $CaO + H_2O \rightarrow Ca(OH)_2$ (the base is called calcium hydroxide – sometimes called "hydrated lime")

Read p. 184-185 in SW. Do Ex. 144-145 on p. 185 of SW.

Acid Rain

Since our atmosphere naturally contains CO_2 (an acidic anhydride), some of this reacts with water (rain) to make the rain slightly acidic:

 $CO_{2(g)} + 2H_2O_{(l)} \rightleftharpoons H_3O^+_{(aq)} + HCO_3^-_{(aq)}$

So natural rainwater (unaffected by human activities) can have a pH as low as 5.6 (due to the CO₂ in air)

If rain has a **pH < 5.6** it is called **ACID RAIN**.

Acid Rain is caused by Acidic Anhydrides (not counting CO₂) in the air.

The main human sources of **acid rain** are:

- 1. Burning fuels containing sulphur.
- 2. Car exhaust
- 1. When burning coal or other fuels containing sulphur, the sulphur burns too forming sulphur dioxide: $S_{(s)} + O_{2(g)} \rightarrow SO_{2(g)}$ (an acidic anhydride)

In the atmosphere further oxidation can occur producing sulphur trioxide: $2 \operatorname{SO}_{2(g)} + \operatorname{O}_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2 \operatorname{SO}_{3(g)}$ (an acidic anhydride)

In rainwater or cloud droplets two reactions can then occur:

 $SO_{2(g)} + H_2O_{(l)} \rightarrow H_2SO_{3 (aq)}$ (sulphurous acid – a weak acid) $SO_{3(g)} + H_2O_{(l)} \rightarrow H_2SO_{4 (aq)}$ (sulphuric acid – a strong acid)

2. In the hot cylinders in an internal combustion engine, N_2 from the air and O_2 from the air react to form nitrogen oxides:

$N_{2(g)}$	+	$O_{2(g)} \rightarrow$	2NO (g) (<i>nitrogen monoxide</i> – an acidic anhydride)	Oxides of nitroge
$N_{2(g)}$	+	$2O_{2(g)} \rightarrow$	$2NO_{2 (g)}$ (<i>nitrogen dioxide</i> – an acidic anhydride)	called: NO _x

Oxides of nitrogen are collectively called: NO_x

Nitrogen monoxide can further oxidize in the air to produce *nitrogen dioxide*:

 $2NO_{(g)} + O_{2(g)} \rightarrow 2NO_{2(g)}$

Nitrogen dioxide reacts with rain water or cloud droplets to produce both nitrous and nitric acids:



Some natural sources of Acid Rain

<u>Volcanoes</u> can produce SO_2 into the atmosphere (which produces both H_2SO_3 and H_2SO_4) <u>Lightning</u> can provide enough energy to cause nitrogen and oxygen in the air to react and form NO_2 (which produces HNO_2 and HNO_3).

Natural Protection

Some areas are not as sensitive to acid rain as others—even when there are major sources of acid rain present! This is because these areas have rocks and soils that are high in "carbonates" or compounds containing carbonate $(CO_3^{2^-})$. The $CO_3^{2^-}$ acts as a weak base and neutralizes the acid rain to a certain extent:

Eg.) $H_2SO_4_{(aq)} + CaCO_{3(s)} \rightarrow CaSO_{4(s)} + CO_{2(g)} + H_2O_{(l)}$ (This neutralizes the H₂SO₄ caused by acid rain)

In some cases, powdered limestone $(CaCO_{3(s)})$ is dumped onto lakes that are too acidic and this helps neutralize the acid rain. But the process is expensive.

Problems Associated with Acid Rain (see p. 187-188 in SW.)

- Aquatic life is affected (from bottom of food chain up)
- Forests weakened and killed (Quebec, Germany, Scandinavia)
- Minerals are leached out of the topsoil to lower levels. Al³⁺ ions are released which are very toxic to fish (mucous in gills) and plants (prevents uptake of other important minerals)
- Metal and stone buildings and statues (especially marble (CaCO₃)) are damaged.
- Acid Rain is carried over large distances (due to high smoke stacks) –can cross international borders

Possible Solutions to the Problem

- International conferences and agreements to limit sulphur in fuels and NO_x in car exhaust.
- Alternate, less polluting energy sources being used. (geothermal, solar, wind etc.)
- Industrial processes are being modernized (eg. new process for pulp mills involving H₂O₂ instead of sulphites.)
- Devices to remove gases like SO₃ from smoke stacks. (scrubbers). SO₃ + CaO \rightarrow CaSO_{4(s)}. The CaSO₄ is removed by electrostatic precipitation.
- Recycling

Review of Titrations



Equivalence Point (Stoichiometric Point)

The point at where the **actual mole ratio** of Sample/Standard is the same as the **coefficient ratio** in the balanced equation.

Eg. Using the following reaction for a titration:

$$HCl + NaOH \rightarrow H_2O + NaCl$$

At equivalence point : moles of NaOH / moles of HCl = 1/1 (or mol NaOH = mol HCl)

Using the following reaction for a titration:

$$2HCl + Ba(OH)_2 \rightarrow 2H_2O + BaCl_2$$

At equivalence point : moles of $Ba(OH)_2$ / moles of HCl = 1/2 (or mol HCl = 2 x mol Ba(OH)_2)

In the most common type of titration question, we calculate: mol of standard \rightarrow mol of sample \rightarrow conc. of sample

Here's an example:

A solution of HCl of unknown concentration was titrated with $0.150 \text{ M Ba}(\text{OH})_2$. The equivalence point is reached when 14.83 mL of Ba(OH)₂ is added to 50.00 mL of the HCl solution. Find the [HCl] in the original sample.

(The standard solution is the one of known concentration \rightarrow in this case the 0.150 M Ba(OH)₂.)

1. Moles of $Ba(OH)_2 = 0.150 \text{ M} \times 0.01483 \text{ L} = 0.0022245 \text{ mol } Ba(OH)_2$

2. Moles of HCl:

Using the balanced equation:
$$2\text{HCl} + \text{Ba}(\text{OH})_2 \rightarrow 2\text{H}_2\text{O} + \text{BaCh}_2$$

 $0.0022245 \text{ mol Ba}(\text{OH})_2 \times \frac{2 \text{ mol HCl}}{1 \text{ mol Ba}(\text{OH})_2} = 0.004449 \text{ mol HCl}$
3. [HCl] = $0.004449 \text{ mol HCl} = 0.0890 \text{ M}$
 0.05000 L HCl
From the 50.00 mL of the original HCl solution.
Round to 3 SD's according to the data.

Don't forget, if a series of volume readings for different "Trials" are given, you may have to <u>discard</u> a reading that is more than 0.02 or so mL different from the rest of them. This ability to discard "far off" volume readings and then to calculate the "best average" volume will be tested!

Also markers always seem to use titration questions to test your ability to handle **Significant Digits**. *Remember,* when subtracting (or adding) use <u>decimal places</u> and when multiplying or dividing, use $\frac{\# \text{ of } SD's}{2}$!

Here's a question for you to try:

0.200 M NaOH is used to titrated 3 separate 50.0 mL samples of a solution of H_2SO_4 of unknown concentration. The NaOH is in the burette. Use the following data table to calculate the $[H_2SO_4]$ in the original H_2SO_4 solution. Show all of your steps clearly, including the balanced formula equation for the reaction.

	Trial 1	Trial 2	Trial 3
Initial Burette Reading (mL)	0.00	9.02	17.95
Final Burette Reading (mL)	9.02	17.95	26.89

Read "Experimental Note" on the bottom of page 157 of SW. Do Ex. 94 – 97 on p. 158 of SW.

NOTE: If you check your answers on p. 291 of SW, you'll notice, he uses "mmol's" (millimoles) in his work. See p. 154 - 155 of doing these using mmols. You don't have to use mmols. You can if you like. Just be careful with your units.

Do Worksheet 4-6

Indicators

- See demonstration of some indicators and their colours in acid and base solutions.

Acid-Base Indicators consist of equilibrium mixtures of:



Eg.) An indicator HInd has a yellow acid form (HInd) and a red base form (Ind⁻).

The equilibrium equation representing this indicator is :

$$\begin{array}{cccc} HInd & + & H_2O & \rightleftharpoons & H_3O^+ & + & Ind^-\\ yellow & & & red \end{array}$$

If <u>reactants</u> are favoured (equilibrium shifts to the LEFT), then: [HInd] > [Ind]

And the solution will be **YELLOW**

So: yellow is much greater than red.

If <u>products</u> are favoured (equilibrium shifts to the **RIGHT**), then: **[Ind**⁻] > **[HInd**]

So: red is much greater than yellow.

And the solution will be **<u>RED</u>**

If there are equal amounts of reactant and products (equilibrium favours neither reactants nor products), then: [HInd] = [Ind⁻]

So: there is an equal mixture of yellow and red.

And the solution will be **ORANGE**

Make sure you read the material above a few times and make sure you understand how the shifts affect the colours of the solution in each case. This understanding is VERY important in dealing with indicators!

Finding Colours of Acid and Base forms of indicators experimentally

Looking at the equilibrium equation representing any indicator:

HInd + $H_2O \rightleftharpoons H_3O^+$ + Ind^-

Adding any **strong acid** (eg. 1 M HCl) to an indicator (mixture of HInd and Ind⁻) will:

- \blacktriangleright Increase the [H₃O⁺]
- > Cause the equilibrium to shift to the LEFT
- $\blacktriangleright Make [HInd] > [Ind]$
- Cause the solution to turn the colour of HInd.

Go over those last 4 points while looking at the equilibrium equation and make sure you understand them. (Remember Le Chatelier's Principle!)

So when HCl is added to an indicator (mixture of HInd and Ind⁻), it increases $[H_3O^+]$ causing the equilibrium:

$$\underbrace{ \text{Shifts Left}}_{\text{HInd}} + H_2 O \rightleftharpoons \mathbf{H}_3 O^+ + \text{Ind}^-$$

To shift LEFT so [HInd] > [Ind⁻] and <u>the colour of HInd predominates</u>

In summary: If you add any strong acid (eg. HCl) to an indicator, it will turn the colour of the ACID FORM (HInd).

What about the Base Form (Ind⁻)?

Looking at the equilibrium equation representing any indicator:

HInd + $H_2O \rightleftharpoons H_3O^+$ + Ind^-

Adding any strong base (eg. 1 M NaOH) to an indicator (mixture of HInd and Ind⁻) will:

- ▷ <u>Decrease</u> the $[H_3O^+]$ (because the OH neutralizes H_3O^+ to form H_2O : $H_3O^+ + OH^- \rightarrow H_2O$)
- > Cause the equilibrium to shift to the RIGHT
- Make $[Ind^-] > [HInd]$
- > Cause the solution to turn the colour of Ind⁻.

So when NaOH is added to an indicator (mixture of HInd and Ind⁻), it decreases [H₃O⁺] causing the equilibrium:

 $HInd + H_2O \rightleftharpoons H_3O^+ + Ind^-$

To shift RIGHT so [Ind⁻] > [HInd] and <u>the colour of Ind⁻ predominates</u>

In summary: If you add any strong base (eg. NaOH) to an indicator, it will turn the color of the BASE FORM (Ind⁻).

Question: When a drop of 0.1M HCl is added to the indicator bromcresol green, the colour is yellow. When a drop of 0.10M NaOH is added to the indicator, the colour is blue.

- a. What colour is the acid form of bromcresol green (HInd)?
- b. What colour is the base form of bromcresol green (Ind⁻)?
- c. What would the colour be if [HInd] = [Ind⁻] for bromcresol green? _____

Transition Point

The <u>*Transition Point*</u> for an indicator is reached when [HInd] = [Ind⁻]

This is where you have equal amounts of the colour of HInd and the colour of Ind⁻.

(See the next page...)

Eg.) Looking on the "Acid-Base Indicators" Table (on the back of your Acid Table):

The two colours on the right side of the table for each indicator lists the colour of the ACID FORM first and then the colour of the BASE FORM.

So the Acid Form of methyl violet (HInd) is YELLOW and the Base Form of methyl violet (Ind⁻) is BLUE.

The colour at the TRANSITION POINT of

Methyl violet would be

The colour at the TRANSITION POINT of

Bromcresol green would be _____

The colour at the TRANSITION POINT of

Indigo carmine would be _____

Indicator	pH Range in Which Colour Change Occurs	Colour Change as pH Increases
Methyl violet	0.0 - 1.6	yellow to blue
Thymol blue	1.2 - 2.8	red to yellow
Orange IV	1.4 - 2.8	red to yellow
Methyl orange	3.2 - 4.4	red to yellow
Bromcresol green	3.8 - 5.4	yellow to blue
Methyl red	4.8 - 6.0	red to yellow
Chlorophenol red	5.2 - 6.8	yellow to red
Bromthymol blue	6.0 - 7.6	yellow to blue
Phenol red	6.6 - 8.0	yellow to red
Neutral red	6.8 - 8.0	red to amber
Thymol blue	8.0 - 9.6	yellow to blue
Phenolphthalein	8.2 - 10.0	colourless to pink
Thymolphthalein	9.4 - 10.6	colourless to blue
Alizarin yellow	10.1 - 12.0	yellow to red
Indigo carmine	11.4 - 13.0	blue to yellow

ACID-BASE INDICATORS

Transition Point and Ka of Indicator

The equilibrium equation for an indicator (HInd) is, as you know:

≥ HInd + H₂O H_3O^+ + Ind

So the acid form (HInd) can be thought of as a weak acid. And weak acids, as you know, have a "Ka". The Ka expression for the weak acid HInd would be:

 $Ka = [H_3O^+] [Ind^-]$ [HInd]

or

If we look back to the definition of transition point: The <u>*Transition Point*</u> for an indicator is reached when [HInd] = [Ind⁻]

Since [HInd] = [Ind⁻] at the transition point, we can <u>cancel them out</u> in the Ka expression:

So AT THE TRANSITION POINT: $Ka = [H_3O^+]$ [Ind] [HInd]

AT THE TRANSITION POINT: $Ka = [H_3O^+]$

Now, I'd like to throw in another definition. It's a quantity called "pKa":

Going back to the Ka at transition point:

AT THE TRANSITION POINT: $Ka = [H_3O^+]$

We take the $-\log$ of both sides: $-\log Ka = -\log [H_3O^+]$ or as we know from definitions:

```
AT THE TRANSITION POINT: \mathbf{pKa} = \mathbf{pH}
```

Remember, this is ONLY true at the TRANSITION POINT of the indicator. (When [HInd] = [Ind⁻] and the two colours are equal)

So now, we can summarize FOUR things we know to be true at the Transition Point:



You need to remember all that really well to understand the next material!

Transition Range and Transition Point

If you look at the Indicator Table on the back of the Acid Table, there is a column entitled "pH Range in which Colour Change Occurs".

As the pH is gradually raised, the colour does not instantaneously change from acid colour to base colour. There is a gradual change over a range of pH's.

For example:

Indicator	pH Range in Which Colour Change Occurs	Colour Change as pH Increases	It says that Methyl Violet gradually changes from yellow to blue in the pH range of $0.0 - 1.6$.
Methyl violet	0.0 - 1.6	yellow to blue	This means when pH is at or below 0.0, the colour of methyl violet is yellow.
Thymol blue	1.2 - 2.8	red to yellow	
Orange IV	1.4 - 2.8	red to yellow	When pH is 1.6 or above, the colour of methyl violet is blue. But what about between?

Between pH of 0.0 and 1.6, there is a mixture of the yellow and the blue form of methyl violet, so the colour is GREEN. We can refine it even further by saying that between pH of 0.0 and 0.8, the colour is more of a yellow green and between pH 0.8 and 1.6, it is more of a blue green. At a pH of 0.8 (half way between 0.0 and 1.6), the colour would be simply Green! See if you can fill these colours in the table on the next page...

	Indicator		
pН	Thymol Blue	Orange IV	
0.8			
2.0			
3.5			

Finding the Ka of an Indicator

To find the pH at Transition Point:

- 1. Look on the Indicator table
- 2. Find the midpoint of the pH range by adding the two numbers and dividing by two.

Remember from the last page:

pKa = pH at the Transition Point.

Since $pKa = -\log Ka$

Ka = antilog (-pKa)

Let's do an example. Find the Ka of Phenol Red:



Find the Ka of Alizarin Yellow:

Thymol Blue (A diprotic Indicator)

You'll notice that Thymol Blue appears twice on the Indicator Table:



This is because Thymol Blue is a diprotic acid. Each time it loses a proton, it goes through a color change.

We can call Thymol Blue (Tb) a weak acid $H_2 T b \,$

The equilibrium equation for the **first ionization** is: $H_2Tb + H_2O \rightleftharpoons H_3O^+ + HTb^-$ Using the table above, fill in the colours:

The equilibrium equation for the second ionization is: $HTb^- + H_2O \Leftrightarrow H_3O^+ + Tb^{2-}$ Using the table below, fill in the colours:

Indicator	pH Range in Which Colour Change Occurs	Colour Change as pH Increases	
Thymol blue	1.2 - 2.8	red to yellow	
Thymol blue	8.0 - 9.6	yellow to blue	

Looking at the pH ranges above, try to fill in the following information:

рН	Form(s) which predominate(s) (H ₂ Tb, HTb ⁻ or Tb ²⁻)	Approximate Colour
1.0		
2.0	& are equal	
3.0		
7.0		
8.8	& are equal	
10.0		

Also, fill in the colours on the following diagram:

Colours of Thymol Blue:



Find the pH's and the colours of the given indicators in the following solutions (assume temp. = 25° C):

Solution	рН	Colour in Thymol Blue	Colour in Methyl Red	Colour in Alizarin Yellow
0.2 M HC1				
0.01 M HCl				
0.0005 M HCl				
Pure water				
0.0001 M NaOH				
0.2 M NaOH				

Chemistry 12 Notes

A variety of indicators can also be used to narrow the known pH range for a solution and help identify the solution:

For example, a solution displays the following colours in the indicators shown. See if you can narrow the pH down to a range:

Indicator	Colour of Solution	Approximate pH Range
Bromthymol blue	Blue	
Thymol blue	Yellow	
Phenolphthalein Colourless		
Approximate pH range of the		

Let's try another one:

For example, a solution displays the following colours in the indicators shown. See if you can narrow the pH down to a range:

Indicator	Colour of Solution	Approximate pH Range
Orange IV	Yellow	
Methyl red	Red	
Methyl Orange	Red	
Approximate pH range of the		

For example, a solution displays the following colours in the indicators shown. See if you can narrow the pH down to a range:

Indicator	Colour of Solution	Approximate pH Range
Methyl Orange	Yellow	
Alizarin Yellow	Yellow	
Thymol Blue	Green	
Approximate pH range of the solution using all information:		

Universal Indicators - Give a variety of colours over a larger pH range

If several indicators are mixed, the combinations of colours can lead to many different colours as we move from one pH to another. Study the 3 tables given on page 162 of SW to give you an idea of how universal indicators can be made. The second table is somewhat simplified as it does not include the colours of indicators in their transition ranges. The third table is more precise.

Read p. 159 – 162 in SW. Do Ex. 108 – 112 and 114 – 120 on p. 162 – 163 of SW

Using Indicators to Rank Weak Acids in Order of Strengths

To understand this section, recall that equilibrium always favours the side with the WEAKER acid (or weaker base)

Let's say an indicator HInd is Red in 0.1M HCl and Blue in 0.1M NaOH

Give the equilibrium equation for this indicator and write the colour of each form(HInd) and (Ind⁻) underneath it:

A few drops of this indicator (a mixture of HInd and Ind⁻) is added to a weak acid called HA₁ and the colour is **blue**. Which is the stronger acid, HA₁ or HInd?

To find out, we write an equilibrium equation (NOT with H_2O this time!). For reactants, we use the weak acid HA_1 and the <u>base</u> form of the indicator, Ind⁻. (two acids are not written on the same side of equilibrium equations!) I'm sure you can fill in the two products: Write the colours of Ind⁻ and HInd right underneath each one.

 $HA_1 + Ind^- \Leftrightarrow +$

Since the colour of the indicator was <u>blue</u>, it means that the form of the indicator (*HInd or Ind*) ______ is

predominating (favoured by the equilibrium). So the (reactants/products)______of the

equation above are favoured, meaning (*HA*₁/*HInd*) ______ is the Weaker acid or

(*HA*₁/*HInd*) ______ is the Stronger Acid.

Now let's look at another experiment involving the same indicator and a different weak acid HA₂.

A few drops of this indicator (a mixture of HInd and Ind⁻) is added to a weak acid called HA₂and the colour is <u>red</u>. Which is the stronger acid, HA₂ or HInd?

To find out, we write an equilibrium equation (NOT with H_2O this time!). For reactants, we use the weak acid HA_2 and the <u>base</u> form of the indicator, Ind⁻. (two acids are not written on the same side of equilibrium equations!) I'm sure you can fill in the two products: Write the colours of Ind⁻ and HInd right underneath each one.

 $HA_2 + Ind^- \Leftrightarrow +$

Since the colour of the indicator was <u>red</u> , it means	that the form of the in	ndicator (HInd or Ind)	is
predominating (favoured by the equilibriu m). So t	he (reactants/products)_		of the
equation above are favoured, meaning (<i>HA</i> ₂ / <i>HInd</i>)		_ is the Weaker acid or	
(<i>HA</i> ₂ / <i>HInd</i>) is the Stronger A	Acid.		
So, to summarize the results of both experiments:	Experiment 1:	>	
	Experiment 2:	>	
So, in comparing strengths of HA_1 and HA_2 , we ca	n say that	>>	

Now, make a little mini acid table with the acids on the left , a \rightleftharpoons in the middle and H⁺ + conj. base on the right.

Put the acids in order of strongest \rightarrow weakest.



Do Worksheet 4 - 7-Indicators