

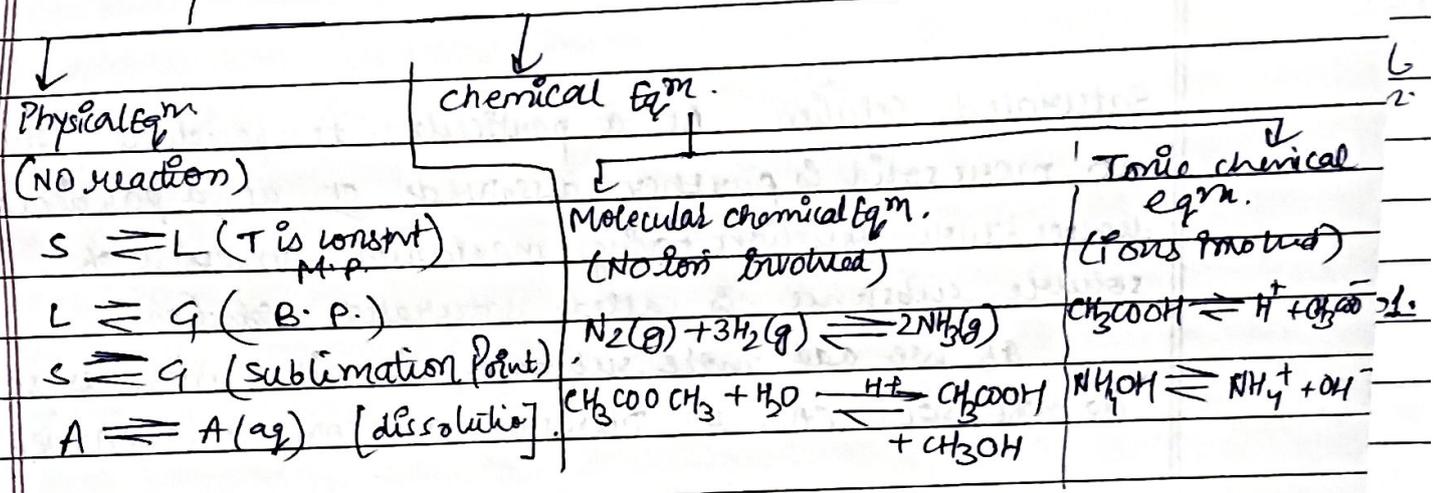
CHAPTER-7 EQUILIBRIUM

In chemistry, all equilibrium are dynamic equilibrium.
Rate of forward reaction = Rate of backward reaction

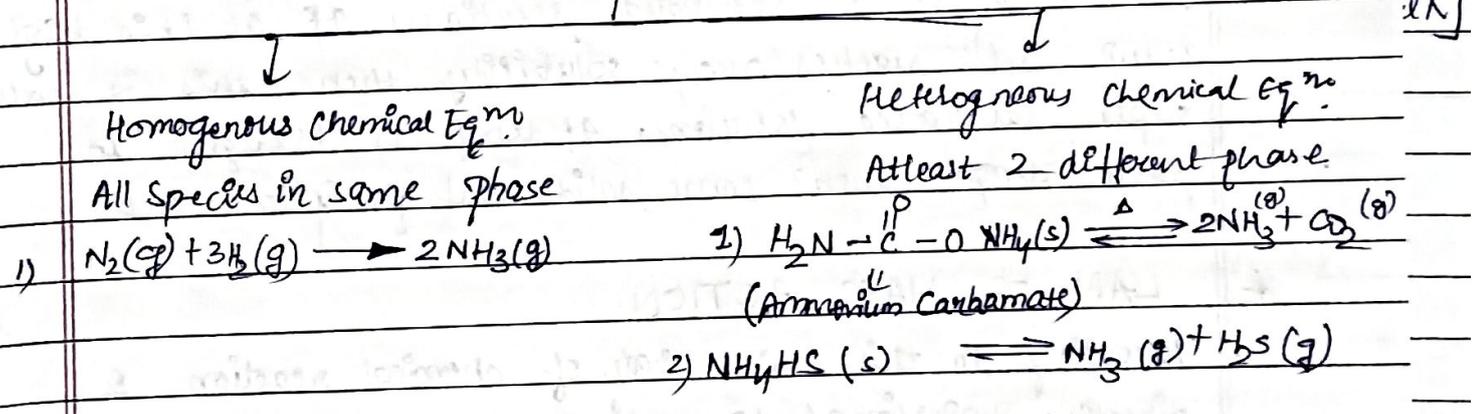
Sign of equilibrium = \rightleftharpoons or \rightleftharpoons

- At equilibrium \rightarrow Temperature is constant
 \rightarrow Partial pressure is constant
 \rightarrow Concentration constant

Equilibrium

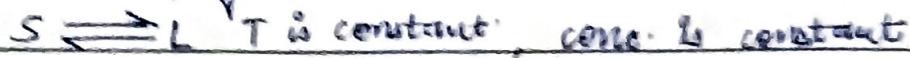


Chemical Eq^m.



* PHYSICAL EQUILIBRIUM

1) Melting or Freezing



Partial Pressure (vapour pressure is constant)

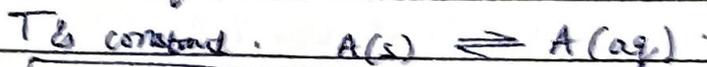
2) Boiling or Condensation



3) Sublimation or desublimation / deposition



4) Saturation of solution



Conc. is constant

Saturated Solution At a particular temperature when no more solid is further dissolved or at a particular temperature solution having maximum amount of soluble substance is called saturated solution.

If we add more substance, it will remain as solid.
"NO MORE SOLID CAN BE DISSOLVED AT SAME TEMPERATURE".

When temperature is increased then more solid can be dissolved in a saturated solution. If at this higher temp, solⁿ reaches max. solubility then this is called super saturated solution. If temp. is brought to room temp then some solid will precipitate out.

* LAW OF MASS ACTION

According to this law, rate of chemical reaction is directly proportional to active masses of reactants raised to the power of their respective stoichiometric coefficients.



Rate of forward reaction $\propto (a_A)^a (a_B)^b$

Rate of reverse reaction $\propto (a_C)^c (a_D)^d$

Active masses of A, B, C, D are a_A, a_B, a_C, a_D .

Active mass of substance \approx Molarity of substance
(for dilute solutions)

Active mass of solid substance or pure liquids are taken as unity (equal to 1).

If molar concentrations of A, B, C, D are respectively [A]

[B], [C], [D]

$$\therefore R_f \propto [A]^a [B]^b \Rightarrow R_f = k_f [A]^a [B]^b$$

$$R_b \propto [C]^c [D]^d \Rightarrow R_b = k_b [C]^c [D]^d$$

where k_f and k_b are rate constants of forward and backward reactions.

small k.
 specific rate
 or specific velocity

Rate constant of reaction is defined as the rate of reaction when molar concentration of all reactants equal to 1.

At equilibrium, $R_f = R_b$

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

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

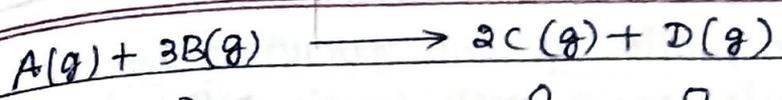
New constant called Equilibrium constant K_{eq} or K_c (capital K)

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

where $K_{eq} = \frac{k_f}{k_b}$

When with eq^m reaction completes no. of under normal conditions?

Equilibrium reaction never completes 100%.



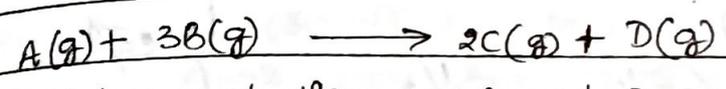
	2	2	0	0
t=0	2-x	2-3x	2x	x

At eqm, moles of B = moles of C
 $\Rightarrow 2-3x = 2x \Rightarrow x = 0.4$

equil. moles	2-x = 1.6	2-3x = 0.8	2x = 0.8	0.4
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eqm molar concentration $\frac{1.6}{2} = 0.8$ | $\frac{0.8}{2} = 0.4$ | $\frac{0.8}{2} = 0.4$ | $\frac{0.4}{2} = 0.2$

$$K_c = \frac{[C]^2 [D]}{[A] [B]^3} = \frac{(0.4)^2 \times 0.2}{0.8 \times (0.4)^3} = \frac{1}{1.6} = \boxed{0.625}$$



Initial concentration of A and B is 2 mol/litre. At eqm. concentration of B & C were found equal. Calculate value of Kc and % of B reacted?

	2 mol l ⁻¹	2 mol l ⁻¹	0	0
t=0	2-x	2-3x	2x	x

At eqm, [B] = [C]
 $\Rightarrow 2-3x = 2x \Rightarrow x = 0.4$

Concentration 1.6 0.8 0.8 0.4

$$K_c = \frac{[C]^2 [D]}{[A] [B]^3} = \frac{(0.8)^2 (0.4)}{1.6 \times (0.8)^3} = \frac{1}{2 \times 1.6} = \frac{1}{3.2} = \boxed{0.3125}$$

$$\% \text{ B reacted} = \frac{1.2}{2} \times 100 = \boxed{60\%}$$

* Kp calculation "we need partial pressure of each gaseous species".

- 1) Initial moles are given.
- a) using initial moles calculate moles at eqm.
- b) calculate total moles of gas at eqm.

- c) Calculate mole fraction of each gaseous species.
- d) using $\text{Partial Pressure} = \text{mole fraction} \times P_{\text{total}}$, calculate partial pressures of all gases. Put the value to calculate K_p .

Q $\text{PCl}_5(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{PCl}_3(g) + \text{Cl}_2(g)$ at T K.
 At eq^m total pressure was found to be 4 atm. If two moles of PCl_5 was initially taken and it shows 50% dissociation. calculate value of K_p .

	$\text{PCl}_5(g) \rightleftharpoons \text{PCl}_3(g) + \text{Cl}_2(g)$				
t=0	2 mol	0	0		
eq ^m	(2-1) = 1 mol (50% dissociation)	1 mol	1 mol	}	
mole fraction	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$	$\frac{1}{3}$		}
partial Press.	$\frac{4}{3}$ atm	$\frac{4}{3}$ atm	$\frac{4}{3}$ atm		

$$K_p = \frac{(P_{\text{PCl}_3}) \times P_{\text{Cl}_2}}{P_{\text{PCl}_5}} = \frac{\frac{4}{3} \times \frac{4}{3}}{\frac{4}{3}} = \left(\frac{4}{3}\right)$$

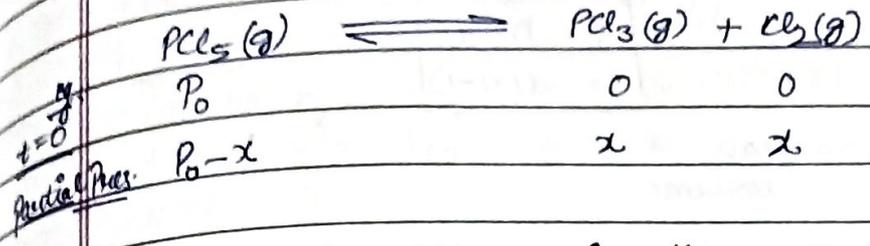
Q Calculate Total Pressure when 80% dissociation occurs at T K. (for above question).

After 50% diss! , $n_{\text{total}} = 3$.
 After 80% diso! $\text{PCl}_5 = 2 - 1.6 = 0.4$
 $\text{PCl}_3 = 1.6$
 $\text{Cl}_2 = 1.6$ } = 3.6

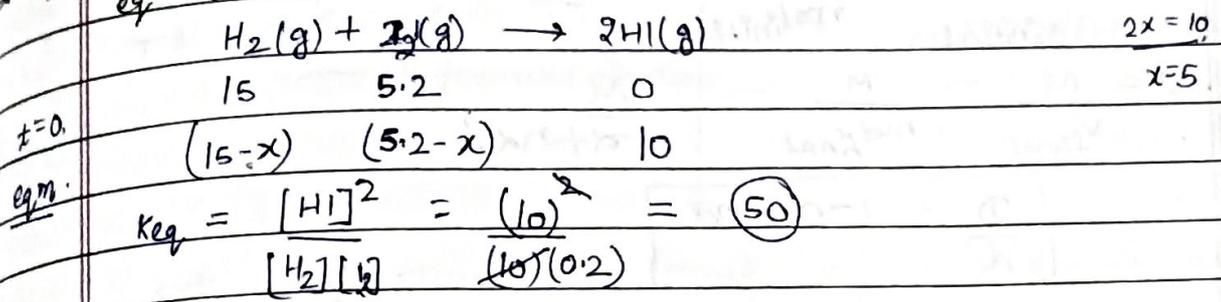
$K_p = \text{same}$.
 mole fraction. $\frac{0.4}{3.6} = \frac{1}{9}$, $\frac{1.6}{3.6} = \frac{4}{9}$.

At new $P_{\text{total}} = P$.
 \therefore Partial Pressure. $\frac{P}{9}$, $\frac{4P}{9}$, $\frac{4P}{9}$
 $K_p = \frac{\frac{4P}{9} \times \frac{4P}{9}}{\frac{P}{9}} = \frac{16P}{9} = \frac{4}{3}$
 $\Rightarrow P = \frac{3}{4}$

Q. If initial partial pressure is given :
using initial partial pressure, calculate value of Partial Pressure.
Put value of Partial Pressure to calculate K_p .



Q. 15 mol H_2 & 5.2 mol I_2 attain eq^m. at 500°C . At eq^m. conc. of $\text{HI} = 10 \text{ mol}$
eq. constant is \rightarrow



* DEGREE OF DISSOCIATION (α)

It is defined as fraction of molecule dissociated per mole.

$$\alpha = \frac{\text{Moles dissociated}}{\text{Total moles taken (initial)}}$$

$\alpha \Rightarrow$ value lies b/w 0 to 1.

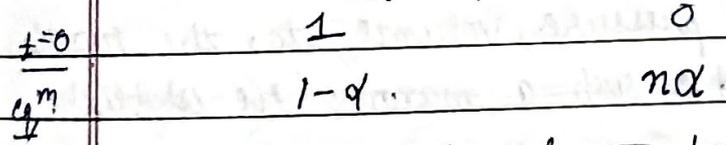
$\alpha = 0$ No dissociation $\alpha = 1$ 100% dissociation

$$\alpha = \frac{\% \text{ dissociation}}{100}$$

* VAPOUR DENSITY RELATION WITH DEGREE OF DISSOCIATION \rightarrow



From one gas particle dissociation we get n gas particle.



At eq^m. total moles = $1 - \alpha + n\alpha$.

$$\text{Vapour density (VD)} = \frac{mW}{2}$$

Suppose initial $V_D = D$

eqm. $V_D = d$

$$\boxed{\frac{D}{d} = 1 - \alpha + n\alpha} \Rightarrow \frac{D}{d} - 1 = (n-1)\alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{\alpha = \frac{D-d}{d(n-1)}}$$

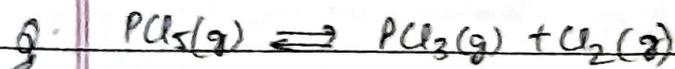
Proof D is density of gas = $\frac{\text{Mass}}{\text{Volume}}$

Volume of mole of gas & mass is constant

$$D = \frac{M}{V_{\text{initial}}} = \frac{M}{n_{\text{initial}}} = \frac{M}{1}$$

$$d = \frac{M}{V_{\text{final}}} = \frac{M}{n_{\text{final}}} = \frac{M}{1-\alpha+n\alpha}$$

$$\therefore \boxed{\frac{D}{d} = 1 - \alpha + n\alpha}$$



eqm. $V_D = 100$, then calculate α of PCl_5 if PCl_5

atomic mass are 31 & 35.5.

$$d = 100 \quad D = \frac{31 + (35.5)5}{2} = \frac{31 + 177.5}{2} = \frac{208.5}{2}$$

$$\underline{n=2} \quad \therefore \frac{D}{d} = 1 - \alpha + 2\alpha = 1 + \alpha$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \frac{208.5}{200} - 1 = 1.0425 - 1 = \boxed{0.0425}$$

* LE CHATELIER'S PRINCIPLE

It states that whenever equilibrium is disturbed due to change in temperature, pressure, volume, etc, the reaction ~~equilibrium~~ tries to adjust in such a manner re-establish the state of equilibrium.

Effect of Temperature

$$\log K_{eq} = \frac{-\Delta H^\circ}{2.303 RT} + \frac{\Delta S^\circ}{2.303 R}$$

$$\log \frac{K_2}{K_1} = \frac{\Delta H^\circ}{2.303 R} \left[\frac{1}{T_1} - \frac{1}{T_2} \right]$$

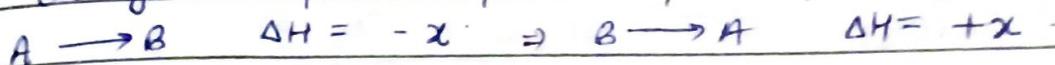
Van't Hoff Equation

where $K_2 = K_{eq}$ at T_2 K.
 $K_1 = K_{eq}$ at T_1 K.

Endothermic reaction $\Delta H = \oplus$
 $T \uparrow$ $K_{eq} \uparrow$
 $T \uparrow$ equil. shift
 \longrightarrow forward direction

Exothermic Reaction $\Delta H = \ominus$
 $T \uparrow$ $K_{eq} \downarrow$
 $T \uparrow$ equil. shift \longleftarrow

only temperature can change K_{eq} . K_{eq} doesn't change due to change in pressure, volume, conc., catalyst, etc.



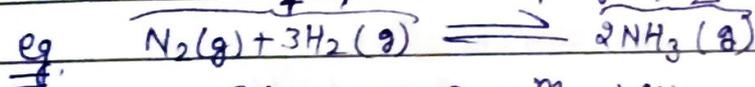
Effect of Pressure Change

It affects only those eq^m which contains atleast 1 gaseous species.

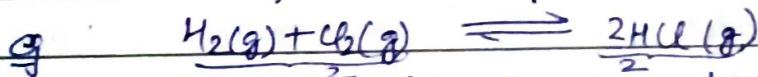
$$nRT = PV \Rightarrow \left(\frac{n}{V} \right)^{Corr.} = \frac{P}{RT} \Rightarrow C = \frac{P}{RT} \Rightarrow C \propto P$$

$P \uparrow \Rightarrow C \uparrow \Rightarrow$ Equilibrium shift to side with less moles of gas

$P \downarrow \Rightarrow C \downarrow \Rightarrow$ Equilibrium shifts to side with more moles of gas



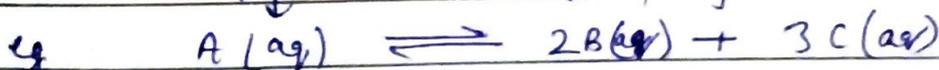
$P \uparrow \longrightarrow$ eq^m shift



$P \downarrow$ No shift in concentration.



$P \downarrow \longrightarrow$ eqm shift



No moles of gas \rightarrow No effect of P change.

Effect of catalyst

catalyst doesn't affect equilibrium. It only decreases time to reach equilibrium.

It decreases Activation Energy of reaction.

catalyst increases K_f and K_b by same factor.

Addition of Inert Gases - Gases that don't participate in rxn.

a) addition of inert gas at constant volume.

conc. is constant $\because V$ is constant

\Rightarrow No effect on equil.

b) addition of inert gas at constant pressure.

As inert gas at constant P and T will increase volume.

\therefore conc \downarrow

\therefore rxn. goes in direction having more moles.

only applicable for gaseous reaction.

$$Q > K_{eq}$$

\leftarrow (eqm shift)

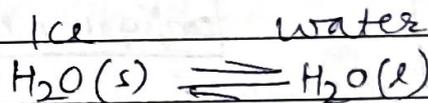
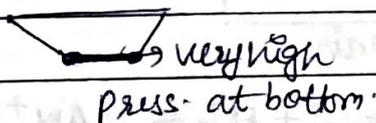
$$Q = K_{eq}$$

No shift.

$$Q < K_{eq}$$

\rightarrow (eqm shift)

Ice skating shoes.



If $P \uparrow$ \Downarrow eqm shift.

* ANY REACTION INVOLVING GAS CAN ONLY ATTAIN EQUILIBRIUM IN A CLOSED VESSEL.

* THEORY OF ACIDS AND BASES.

1. ARRHENIUS Acid-Base Theory

<p>Arrhenius acid are substance that can give H^+ ions in aqueous solution.</p> <p>eg- $HCl, HNO_3, H_2SO_4, H_3PO_4, H_2CO_3, SO_2$</p>	<p>Arrhenius bases are species that can give OH^- ions in aqueous soln.</p> <p>eg- $NaOH, KOH, Ca(OH)_2, B(OH)_3, NH_4OH, NH_3, Na_2O$</p> <p>Boric Acid ($H_3BO_3$).</p>
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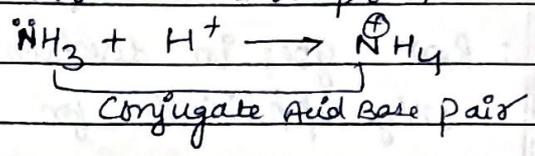
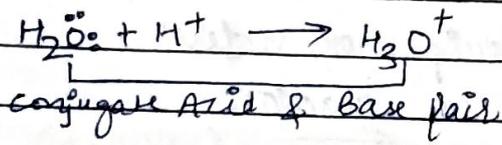
2. BRONSTED LOWRY Acid Base Theory

B.L. Acid = H^+ donor
in their aqueous solution.

B.L. Base = H^+ acceptor
in aqueous sol.

eg. same as Arrhenius Acid.

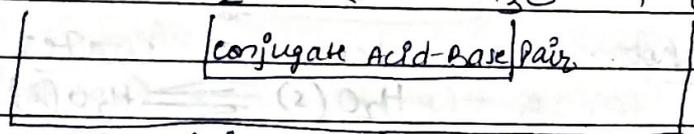
eg All Arrhenius base + some more examples like NH_3, H_2O etc. which can accept H^+ .



CONJUGATE ACID BASE PAIR.

Conjugate acid & conjugate base pair differ by one H^+

CA of Cl^- CB of H_3O^+ CA of H_2O CB of HCl

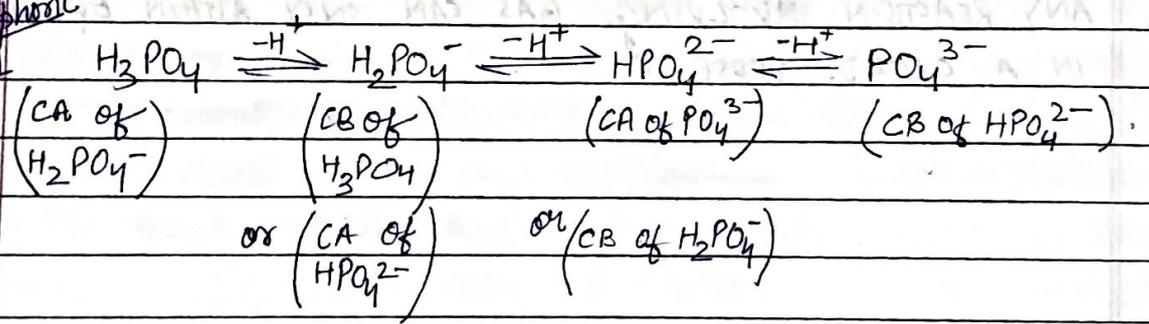


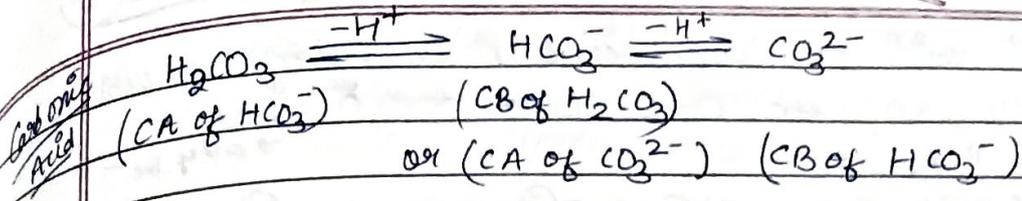
conjugate acid base pair.

Conjugate Acid (CA) of species A = $A + H^+ = AH^+$

Conjugate Base (CB) of species B = $BH - H^+ = B^-$

eg Phosphoric acid



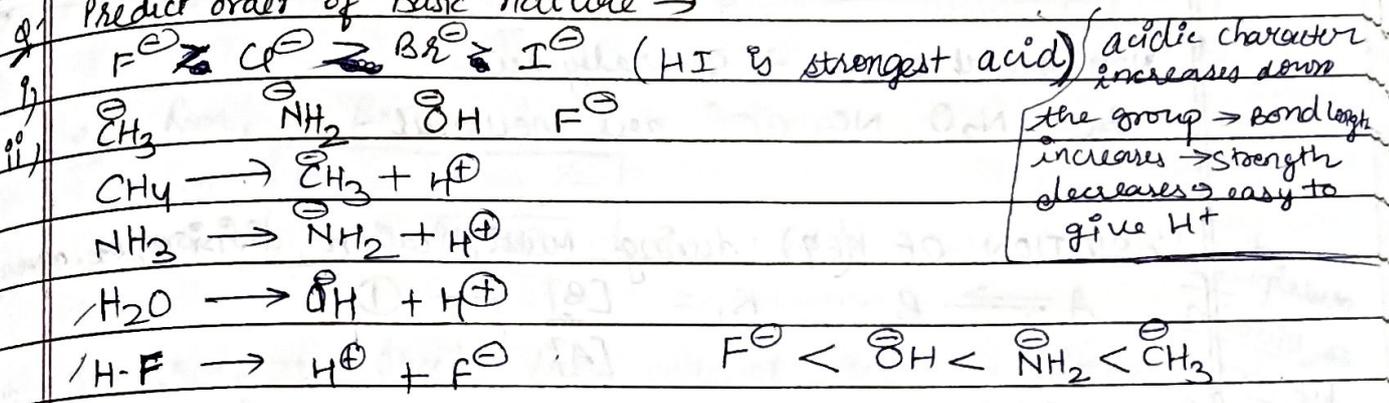


Amphoteric species can behave as acid as well as base.
eg. H_2PO_4^- , HPO_4^{2-} , HCO_3^- etc.

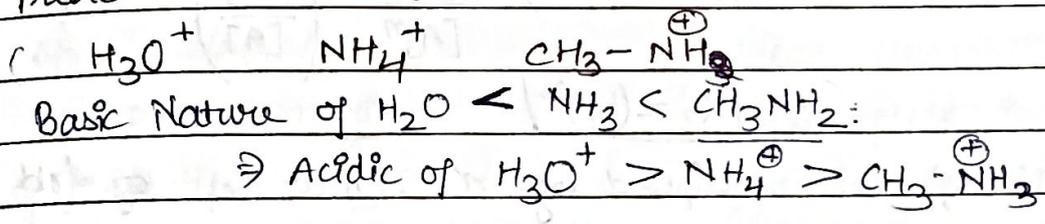
Important Rules

1. conjugate Base of strong ~~base~~ acid will be weak base & vice versa.
2. conjugate Acid of strong base will be weak acid & vice versa.

Predict order of Basic nature \rightarrow



Predict acidic nature order.



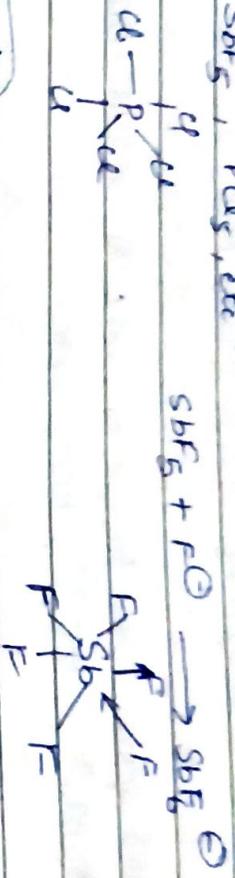
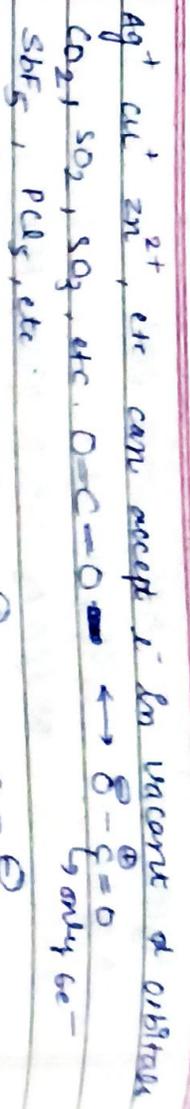
3. LEWIS ACID BASE THEORY:

Lewis Acid
are e^- pair acceptors.
eg. B-F_3 , F-B-F } central atom with incomplete octet.

Cl-Al-Cl } central atom with incomplete octet.

B(OH)_3

Lewis Base
are e^- pair donors.
eg. all anions.
 $:\text{Cl}^-$, Br^- , OH^- , NH_2^- , PO_4^{3-} , etc.
All species with 8 or more electrons & have at least one e^- pair on Central Atom.
eg. $\text{H}-\ddot{\text{O}}-\text{H}$, $:\text{N}(\text{H})_3$



$H-\overset{\ominus}{C}-H$ is not Lewis base as it has no lone pair.

C is not Lewis base. e^- lone pair present but not bent complete.

Non metal oxides \rightarrow generally acid
 but N_2O, NO, CO are neutral.

VARIATION OF K_{eq} during multiplication, division, etc. operations

multiplication or division
 $A \rightleftharpoons B \quad K_1 = \frac{[B]}{[A]} \quad \text{--- (1)}$

multiply eqn (1) by n .

$nA \rightleftharpoons nB \quad K_2 = \frac{[B]^n}{[A]^n} = (K_1)^n$
 $\therefore K_2 = (K_1)^n$

whenever eqn given multiplied by 'n' new K_{eq} ~~eq~~ = (old K_{eq})ⁿ

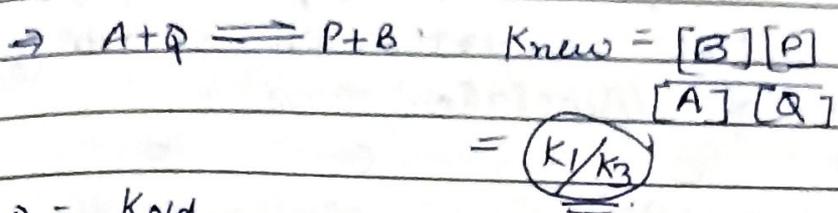
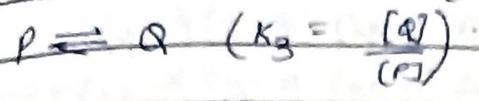
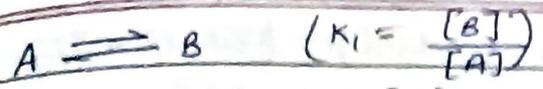
division of eqn
 $A \rightleftharpoons B \quad K_1 = \frac{[B]}{[A]}$

$P \rightleftharpoons Q \quad K_2 = \frac{[Q]}{[P]}$

Product of old K_{eq}

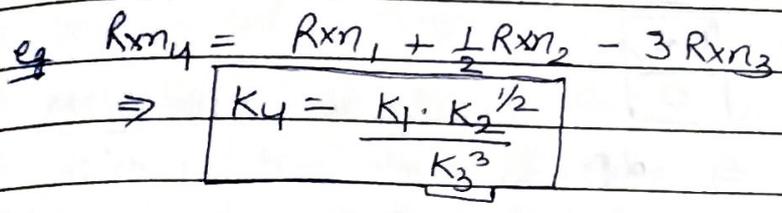
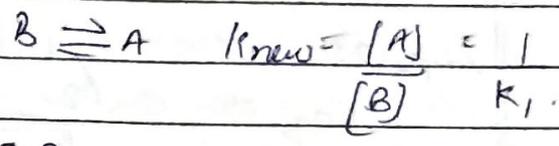
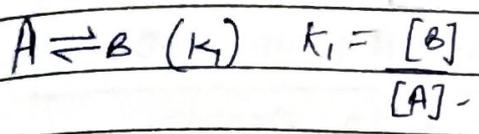
$A \rightleftharpoons B + Q \quad K_{new} = \frac{[B][Q]}{[A]}$

$K_{new} = K_1 \times K_2$



$K_{new} = K_{old}$
K_{old} of subtracted eqⁿ.

If reaction is reversed $K_{new} = \frac{1}{K_{old}}$



* Electrolytes Species that conduct electricity either in molten or aqueous solution or both.

Strong electrolyte

'complete ionisation'

eg HCl, HNO₃, H₂SO₄, NaOH, KOH, NaCl, Na₂SO₄.

Weak electrolyte

'incomplete ionisation'

eg HCN, H₃PO₄, CH₃COOH, H₂CO₃, HCOOH, NH₃(aq) \rightleftharpoons NH₄⁺(aq), PbCl₂.

Note: water is almost non-electrolyte.

* OSTWALD'S DILUTION LAW OF WEAK ELECTROLYTE.

As per this law, on dilution or decrease in concentration of weak electrolyte, its degree of dissociation (α) or ionisation increases.

Suppose AB is a weak electrolyte (~~weak acid~~)



Suppose initial concentration of AB (weak electrolyte) = c .

A degree of dissociation = α .

<u>$t=0$</u>	c	0	0
<u>eqm</u>	$c(1-\alpha)$	α	α

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[A^+][B^-]}{[AB]}$$

$$\rightarrow K_{eq} = \frac{\alpha c \alpha}{c(1-\alpha)} = \frac{\alpha^2}{1-\alpha}$$

Suppose $\alpha \ll 1, 1-\alpha \approx 1$.

$$K_{eq} \approx \alpha^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \alpha = \sqrt{\frac{K_{eq}}{c}}$$

dilution $c \downarrow \Rightarrow \alpha \uparrow$

Weak Monoprotic Acid (weak acid that can give $1 H^+$).



<u>$t=0$</u>	c	0	0
<u>equil.</u>	$c(1-\alpha)$	αc	αc

$$K_{eq} = \frac{[H^+][A^-]}{[HA][H_2O]}$$

As H_2O is in large excess. Amount of H_2O almost constant.

$\therefore [H_2O]_{constant} = 55.55 \text{ mol l}^{-1}$.

$$K_{eq} [H_2O] = \frac{[H^+][A^-]}{[HA]}$$

New constant

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

Dissociation or
ionisation
constant
of weak
Acid.

$$K_a = \frac{\alpha \cdot c \alpha}{c(1-\alpha)} = \frac{c\alpha^2}{1-\alpha}$$

When $\alpha \ll 1$, $1-\alpha \approx 1$

$$K_a \approx c\alpha^2$$

$$\rightarrow \alpha \approx \sqrt{\frac{K_a}{c}}$$

for weak monoprotic acid

$$[H^+] = c\alpha$$

$$[H^+] = \sqrt{K_a c}$$

$$pK_a = -\log K_a$$

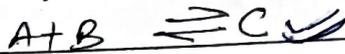
$$pH = -\log [H^+]$$

$$pOH = 14 - pH \quad (\text{at } 25^\circ\text{C})$$

stronger acid $K_a \uparrow \Rightarrow pK_a \downarrow$

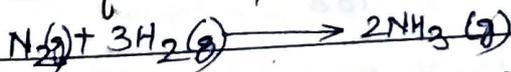
ASSIGNMENT set level!

1. which reaction almost completes:



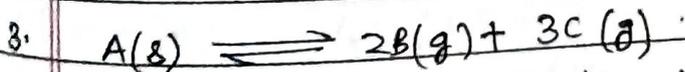
Because $K = 10^4$

2. At constant pressure, addition of Argon in Haber's process



add Ar. \Rightarrow Volume increases \Rightarrow concentration \downarrow .

\Rightarrow shifts toward ^{more} moles \Rightarrow NH_3 formation reduced.



$[C]$ at eqm is doubled, after eqm are established, conc. of B will be \rightarrow

$$K_c = \text{constant} \Rightarrow \frac{[C]^3 [B]^2}{[A]^1} = \frac{[C]_f^3 [B]_f^2}{[A]_f^1}$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{[C]^3}{[B]^2} = \frac{[C]_f^3}{[B]_f^2} \Rightarrow [B]_f^2 = \frac{[B]^2}{8}$$

$$\Rightarrow [B]_f = \frac{[B]}{2\sqrt{2}}$$

$$p_2 = 2.4 \text{ atm}$$

* pH - (continuous) \rightarrow .

$$pH = -\log[H^+] = -\log(C\alpha)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{pH = -\log \sqrt{K_a \cdot C}}$$

$$pH = -\log(K_a \cdot C)^{1/2}$$

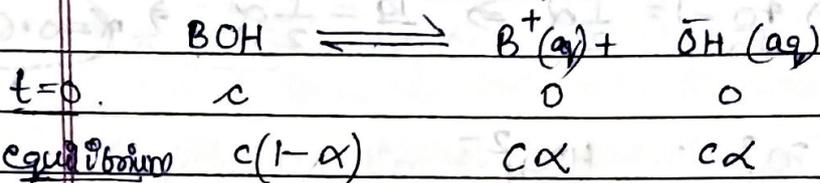
$$pH = \frac{1}{2} [-\log K_a - \log C]$$

$$\boxed{pH = \frac{1}{2} [pK_a - \log C]} \quad (pK_a = -\log K_a)$$

for same concentration (C), strong acid will have

- \rightarrow more $[H^+]$
- \rightarrow higher K_a
- \rightarrow lower pK_a

* WEAK MONOACIDIC BASE.



Dissociation constant $\Rightarrow K_b = \frac{c\alpha^2}{1-\alpha}$
of weak base

$$\alpha \ll 1 \Rightarrow 1-\alpha \approx 1$$

$$\therefore K_b = c\alpha^2 \Rightarrow \alpha \approx \sqrt{\frac{K_b}{c}}$$

$$[OH^-] = c\alpha$$

$$\text{Put } \alpha \approx \sqrt{\frac{K_b}{c}}$$

$$\Rightarrow [OH^-] \approx \sqrt{K_b \cdot c}$$

$$pOH = -\log[OH^-]$$

$$\boxed{pOH = -\log(C\alpha)}$$

$$\boxed{pOH = -\log \sqrt{K_b \cdot c}}$$

$$= -\log(K_b \cdot c)^{1/2}$$

$$= \frac{1}{2} (-\log K_b - \log c)$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{pOH = \frac{1}{2} (pK_b - \log c)} \quad pK_b = -\log K_b$$

At 25°C. $pH + pOH = 14$

$\Rightarrow pH = 14 - pOH$

for same concentration; stronger base will have \rightarrow

- \rightarrow more $[OH^-]$
- \rightarrow Higher K_b
- \rightarrow lower pK_b

Q. Calculate pH of following sol. at 25°C.

1) HCl. 0.01M. $= -\log[H^+] = -\log[0.01] = 2$

2) 0.01M $H_2SO_4 = -\log[H^+] = -\log[0.02] = 1.7$

3) 0.01M CH_3COOH . ($pK_a = 4.74$) $= \frac{1}{2}(4.74 + 2) = 3.37$

4) 0.04M NH_4OH ($pK_b = 4.8$) $= 14 - \frac{1}{2}(4.8 - \log 0.04) = 12.9$

5) 0.01M NaOH $14 - (-\log[OH^-]) = 14 - (-\log 0.01) = 12$

6) 0.01M $Ca(OH)_2$. $14 - (-\log[OH^-]) = 14 - (-\log 0.02) = 12.3$

7) 100 ml 0.01M HCl + 100 ml 0.01M H_2SO_4
 $\Rightarrow [H^+] = \frac{0.01 \times 100 + 0.01 \times 2 \times 100}{200} = \frac{3}{200}$

$pH = -\log\left(\frac{3}{200}\right) = -(\log 3 - \log 200)$
 $= -(0.48 - 2.3) = 2.3 - 0.48$
 $= 1.82$

8) 100 ml 0.01M NaOH + 100 ml 0.01M $Ca(OH)_2$
 $[OH^-] = \frac{0.01 \times 100 + 0.01 \times 2 \times 100}{200} = \frac{3}{200}$

$\therefore pOH = -\log[OH^-] = 1.82$
 $\therefore pH = 14 - 1.82 = 12.18$

9) 100 ml 0.01M HCl + 100 ml 0.01M $Ca(OH)_2$
 $meq = 1$ $meq = 100 \times 0.02 = 2$
 $\therefore [OH^-] = \frac{2-1}{200} = \frac{1}{200}$

$$\begin{aligned}
 \text{pOH} &= -\log[\text{OH}^-] \\
 &= -\log(1/200) \\
 &= -\log 1 + \log 200 \\
 &= \log 2 + \log 100 \\
 &= 0.3 + 2 = 2.3
 \end{aligned}$$

$$\therefore \text{pH} = 14 - 2.3 = \boxed{11.7}$$

10. 100 ml 0.01 M H_2SO_4 + 100 ml 0.01 M NaOH

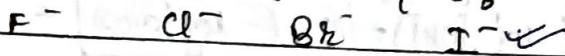
$$\text{Meq} = 2$$

$$\text{Meq} = 1$$

$$\therefore [\text{H}^+] = \frac{2-1}{200} = \frac{1}{200}$$

$$\text{pH} = -\log(1/200) = \boxed{2.3}$$

11. Which has highest pK_b ?



$\text{HI} = \text{strong acid} \Rightarrow \text{I}^- = \text{weak base} \Rightarrow \boxed{\text{highest } \text{pK}_b}$

$\text{HF} = \text{weak} \Rightarrow \text{F}^- = \text{strong base}$
highest pK_b .

12. Higher pK_a among H_2O and H_2S ?

$\text{H}_2\text{S} = \text{stronger acid} \Rightarrow \text{Higher } \text{pK}_a$

✓ $\text{H}_2\text{O} = \text{weak acid} \Rightarrow \boxed{\text{Higher } \text{pK}_a}$

* for strong Acid

$$[\text{H}^+] = n_1 \times M_{\text{acid}} = N_{\text{acid}}$$

$$\text{Mixture of strong acids} = \frac{n_1 M_1 V_1 + n_2 M_2 V_2}{V_1 + V_2}$$

n_1 & $n_2 = \text{nf of Acid 1 \& Acid 2}$

M_1 & $M_2 = \text{molarity of Acid 1 \& Acid 2}$

V_1 & $V_2 = \text{Volume of Acid 1 and Acid 2}$

* for strong base.

$$[\text{OH}^-] = n_f \times M_{\text{base}} = N_{\text{base}}$$

mixture of strong bases, $[\text{OH}^-] = \frac{n_1 M_1 V_1 + n_2 M_2 V_2}{V_1 + V_2}$

n_1 and n_2 = n_f of Base 1 & Base 2

V_1 and V_2 = volume of Base 1 & Base 2

M_1 and M_2 molarity of Base 1 & Base 2.

when strong Acid & strong base is mixed -

Case 1. $\text{Meq Acid} = \text{Meq Base}$

$$[\text{H}^+] = [\text{OH}^-] \Rightarrow \text{pH} = \text{pOH} = 7$$

Case 2

$$\text{Meq Acid} > \text{Meq Base}$$

Acid will be finally left

$$[\text{H}^+] = \frac{\text{Meq Acid} - \text{Meq Base}}{V_1 + V_2}$$

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

Case 3

$$\text{Meq Acid} < \text{Meq Base}$$

Base will be finally left

$$[\text{OH}^-] = \frac{\text{Meq Base} - \text{Meq Acid}}{V_1 + V_2}$$

$$\text{pOH} = -\log [\text{OH}^-]$$

$$\Rightarrow \text{pH} = 14 - \text{pOH}$$

At 25°C

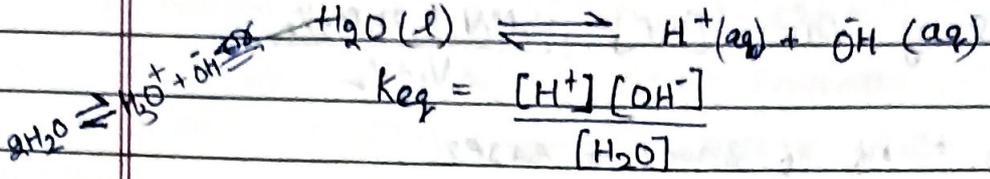
$$\text{pH of base} > 7$$

$$\text{pH of Acid} < 7$$

$$\text{pH of neutral} = 7$$

* DISSOCIATION CONSTANT OF WATER K_w

Water undergoes auto ionisation or self ionisation.



$$\Rightarrow K_{eq} \cdot [H_2O] = [H^+][OH^-]$$

$$[H_2O] = \text{constant} = 55.56$$

$\Rightarrow K_{eq} [H_2O] =$ New constant called K_w .

$$\Rightarrow K_w = K_{eq} [H_2O]$$

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

Experimentally it was found that at 25°C from H_2O

we get $[H^+] = 10^{-7} M$ $[OH^-] = 10^{-7} M$.

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

$$\Rightarrow K_w = 10^{-7} \times 10^{-7}$$

$$\Rightarrow K_w = 10^{-14} \text{ at } 25^\circ C.$$

$$-\log K_w = pK_w$$

$$pK_w = -\log 10^{-14}$$

$$pK_w = 14 \text{ at } 25^\circ C.$$

Now, $pK_w = [H^+][OH^-]$

Taking log both sides

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

$$\Rightarrow -\log K_w = -\log [H^+] + (-\log [OH^-])$$

$$\Rightarrow pK_w = pH + pOH$$

$$14 = pH + pOH \text{ at } 25^\circ C.$$

At 25°C, $[H^+][OH^-] = K_w = 10^{-14}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{[H^+] = 10^{-14}}{[OH^-]} \text{ and } [OH^-] = \frac{10^{-14}}{[H^+]}$$

$$pH = -\log [H^+] \Rightarrow [H^+] = 10^{-pH}$$

$$pOH = -\log [OH^-] \Rightarrow [OH^-] = 10^{-pOH}$$

* pH scale

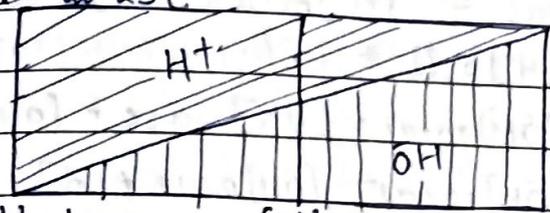
pH scale = 0 to pK_w
 neutral pH = $\frac{pK_w}{2}$

At 25°C, pK_w = 14.

⇒ at 25°C, pH scale = 0 to 14.

neutral pH = $14/2 = 7$

pH scale at 25°C.



$[H^+] = 1$	$[H^+] = 7$	$[H^+] = 10^{-14}$
$[OH^-] = 10^{-14}$	$[OH^-] = 7$	$[OH^-] = 1$
pH = 0	pH = 7	pH = 14
pOH = 14	pOH = 7	pOH = 0
$[H^+] > [OH^-]$	↓ Neutral solution	Basic solution $[OH^-] > [H^+]$
Acidic solution	Neutral solution	Basic solution
$pH < 7$, $pOH > 7$	⇒ $[H^+] = [OH^-]$	$pH > 7$, $pOH < 7$

At $T > 25^\circ C$. Suppose $K_w = 10^{-13}$.

$pK_w = 13$ ⇒ Neutral pH = $\frac{pK_w}{2} = \frac{13}{2} = 6.5$

* Pure water is always neutral at whatever temperature because $[OH^-] = [H^+]$.

Q. pH = 2 find $[OH^-]$.

Acidic solution. pOH = $14 - 2 = 12$.

∴ $12 = -\log [OH^-] \Rightarrow [OH^-] = 10^{-12}$

W. Q. Calculate the pH of

- i) 10^{-8} M HCl
- ii) 10^{-7} M HCl
- iii) 10^{-8} M NaOH
- iv) Final pH when equal volume of solutions pH = 2 and pH = 3 are mixed.

Q. If temperature is more than 25°C. then.

i) value of $K_w \rightarrow 10^{-14}$ [Ionization increases and

ii) $pK_w < 14$ increasing temperature]

iii) Neutral soln $pH = pK_w < 7$

iv) pH of pure water < 7

* Important Point.

In aqueous solution at 25°C, $10^{-7} M H^+$ and $10^{-7} OH^-$ from water.

∴ Always $[H^+]_{total} = [H^+]_{acid} + [H^+]_{water}$.

$$[H^+]_{total} = [H^+]_{acid} + 10^{-7}$$

Similarly, always $[OH^-]_{total} = [OH^-]_{base} + [OH^-]_{water}$.

$$[OH^-]_{total} = [OH^-]_{base} + 10^{-7}$$

Remember $[H^+]_{acid} \leq 10^{-5}$, add 10^{-7} to $[H^+]_{acid}$

Remember $[OH^-]_{base} \leq 10^{-5}$, add 10^{-7} to $[OH^-]_{base}$

$$\mu \rightarrow 10^{-8} M HCl. \quad [H^+] = 10^{-8} + 10^{-7} \quad [H^+] < [H^+]_{acid}$$

$$= 10^{-8} (10 + 1) = 10^{-8} \cdot 11$$

$$pH = -\log [H^+] \\ = -\log 10^{-8} - \log 11$$

$$= 8 - 1.05 = \boxed{6.95}$$

$$10^{-8} M NaOH. \quad [OH^-] = 10^{-8} + 10^{-7} = 10^{-8} \cdot 11$$

$$pOH = 6.95$$

$$\Rightarrow pH = 14 - 6.95 = \boxed{7.05}$$

$$10^{-7} M HCl. \quad [H^+] = 2 \cdot 10^{-7}$$

$$pH = -\log 2 - \log 10^{-7}$$

$$= 7 - 0.3 = \boxed{6.7}$$

equal volumes of $pH = 2$ & $pH = 3$.

$$[H^+] = 10^{-2} \quad [H^+] = 10^{-3}$$

$$N = \frac{N_1V_1 + N_2V_2}{2V} = \frac{N_1 + N_2}{2} \Rightarrow [H^+] = \frac{[H^+] + [H^+]}{2}$$

$$\Rightarrow [H^+] = \frac{10^{-2} + 10^{-3}}{2} = \frac{(10^{-3}) \times 11}{2}$$

$$pH = -\log 10^{-3} - \log 11 + \log 2$$

$$= 3 + 0.3 - 1.05 = 3.3 - 1.05 = \boxed{2.25}$$

Dilution factor pH changed to 4 from 2.

$$N_1V_1 = N_2V_2$$

$$\Rightarrow [H^+]_1 V_1 = [H^+]_2 V_2 \Rightarrow [10^{-2}] V_1 = [10^{-4}] V_2$$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{V_2}{V_1} = 10^2 \Rightarrow \boxed{V_2 = 100}$$

dilution factor = 100.

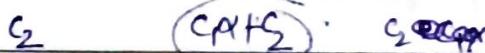
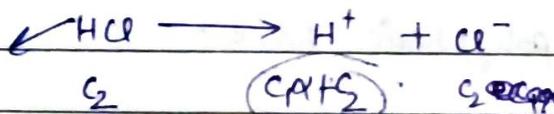
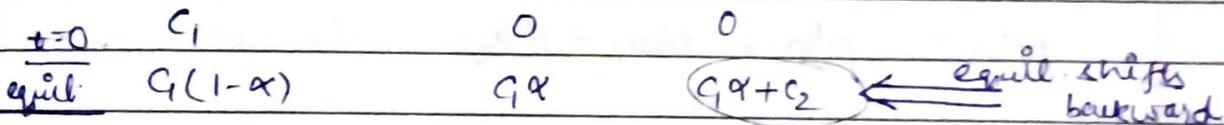
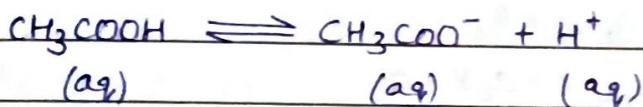
* POLYTROPIC - WEAK ACID.

* COMMON ION EFFECT.

When we have an equilibrium reaction and we get common ion from another equil reaction or simple reaction, then we will have common ion effect.

Concentration of common ion must be same in all reactions.

Example: Calculate pH of soln obtained by 0.01M CH_3COOH $K=10^{-5}$ with 0.01M HCl.



H^+ a common ion

Strong electrolyte dissociates completely.

Due to common ion, concⁿ of product (H^+) ion increases. \Rightarrow common ion shifts equil backward.

\Rightarrow ionisation of weak acid decreases.

$\rightarrow \alpha$ decreases.

$$pH = -\log(c_1 + c_2)$$

$$\text{But } c_2 \gg c_1 \Rightarrow c_1 + c_2 \approx c_2$$

$$pH = -\log c_2 = -\log 0.01 = \boxed{2}$$

* POLYPROTIC WEAK ACIDS.

Acids with n factors > 1.

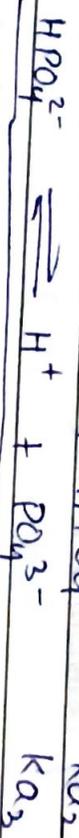
eg. H_2CO_3 ,	H_3PO_4 ,	etc
alkalic & diprotic acid	Triprotic & Triprotic acid	
(H_2A)	(H_3A)	



$$[K_{a1} \gg K_{a2}]$$

overall $K_a = K_{a1} \times K_{a2}$

$$pK_a = pK_{a1} + pK_{a2}$$



$$K_{a1} \gg K_{a2} > K_{a3}.$$

overall $K_a = K_{a1} \times K_{a2} \times K_{a3}$

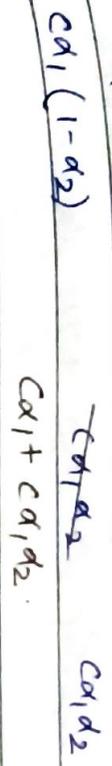
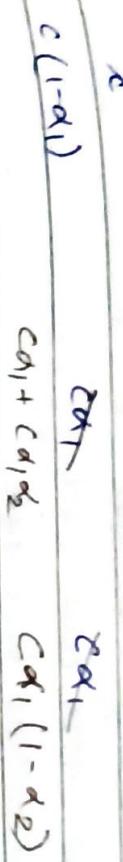
$$pK_a = pK_{a1} + pK_{a2} + pK_{a3}.$$

Similarly for weak polyprotic base.

$$K_{b1} \gg K_{b2} > K_{b3}.$$

$$\text{and } K_b = K_{b1} \cdot K_{b2} \cdot K_{b3}.$$

calculate concentration of ions in H_2A (weak acid)



NOTE: we have 2 different common ions

1) $H^+ \rightarrow$ conc. same everywhere

2) $HA^- \rightarrow$ conc. same everywhere

$$K_{a1} = \frac{[H^+][HA^-]}{[H_2A]} \Rightarrow K_{a1} = \frac{(c\alpha_1 + c\alpha_1\alpha_2)(c\alpha_1(1-\alpha_2))}{c(1-\alpha_1)}$$

$$K_{a2} = \frac{[H^+][A^{2-}]}{[HA^-]} \Rightarrow K_{a2} = \frac{(c\alpha_1 + c\alpha_1\alpha_2)(c\alpha_1\alpha_2)}{c\alpha_1(1-\alpha_2)}$$

using these 2 eqns. calculate α_1 and α_2 .

for conjugate Acid base pairs \rightarrow pK_a H_2O , H_3O^+

NH_3 , NH_4^+

pyridine, pyridinium

$$K_a \times K_b = K_w = 10^{-14}$$

$$pK_a + pK_b = pK_w = 14$$

* HYDROLYSIS OF SALT OF ACID AND BASE

There are 4 types of Acid base salt →

- i) strong acid strong base salt
- ii) weak acid strong base salt
- iii) strong acid weak base salt
- iv) weak acid weak base salt

when salt react with H_2O , then salt hydrolysis (Breaking of compound on reacting with H_2O) takes place.

HYDROLYSIS OF SALT OF STRONG ACID & STRONG BASE

eg: $NaCl, KCl, NaNO_3, Na_2SO_4, K_2SO_4$, etc.

Cation of strong base } These aren't hydrolysed.
 Na^+, K^+ , etc. } (they don't react with H_2O).
 Anion of strong acid }
 Cl^-, NO_3^-, SO_4^{2-} , etc. }

∴ No effect on pH.

∴ pH of salt of SA & SB = $\boxed{7}$

HYDROLYSIS OF SALT OF WEAK ACID AND STRONG BASE

eg: $CH_3COONa, NaCN, KCN$, etc.

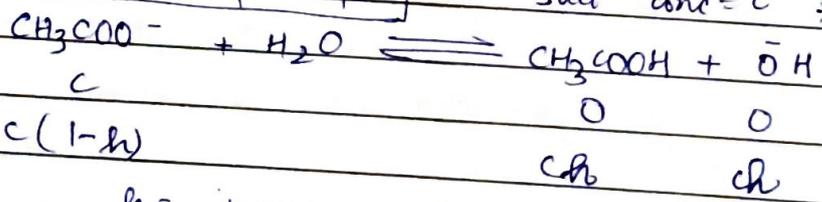
WA = CH_3COOH → SB = $NaOH$.

In such salt base is strong → overall salts are basic for salts of WA & SB, $\boxed{pH > 7}$

CH_3COO^- Anion of weak acid will get hydrolysed. Na^+ = cation of strong base → No hydrolysis.

ANIONIC HYDROLYSIS

salt conc = C ⇒ $[CH_3COO^-] = C$



h = degree of hydrolysis ⇒ h value = b/w 0 to 1.

K_h = equil. constant called hydrolysis constant

$$K_h = \frac{[CH_3COOH][OH^-]}{[CH_3COO^-]} \rightarrow K_h = \frac{CH_3COO^-}{1-h} = \frac{CH_3^2}{1-h}$$

$$K_h = \frac{CH_3^2}{1-h} \quad \text{As } h \ll 1 \Rightarrow 1-h \approx 1$$

$$\Rightarrow h = \sqrt{\frac{K_h}{C}} \quad \text{As } h \Rightarrow h \uparrow \quad (\text{Ostwald Dilution Law})$$

We have following equilib. constant

$$K_{a1} = K_{a1} \times K_{a2} \quad \alpha = \sqrt{\frac{K_{a1}}{K_{a1} \times K_{a2} \times C}}$$

$$pOH = -\log [OH^-] = -\log ch' = -\log c \sqrt{\frac{K_{a1}}{K_{a1} \times K_{a2} \times c}}$$

$$= -\log \sqrt{\frac{K_{a1} c}{K_{a1} \times K_{a2}}}$$

$$\Rightarrow pH = 14 - pOH = 14 + \log \left(\frac{K_{a1} c}{K_{a2}} \right)^{1/2}$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{pH = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(pK_{a1} + \log c)} \quad \text{at } 25^\circ C.$$

$$\boxed{pH = \frac{1}{2}(pK_{a1} + pK_{a2} + pC)} \quad (\text{at any temperature})$$

well assignment.

conjugate acid of PO_4^{3-} is HPO_4^{2-}

K_a for acids A, B, C are 10^{-4} , 10^{-6} , 10^{-10} . $C = 0.1M$.

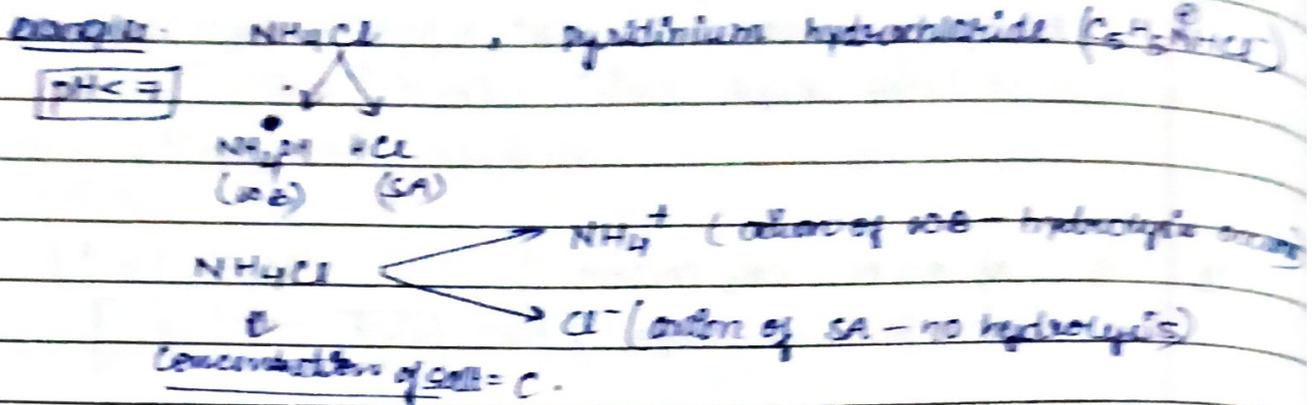
increasing pH order $\log c$ is constant.

$$\Rightarrow pH \propto pK_a \Rightarrow pH \propto \frac{1}{K_a}$$

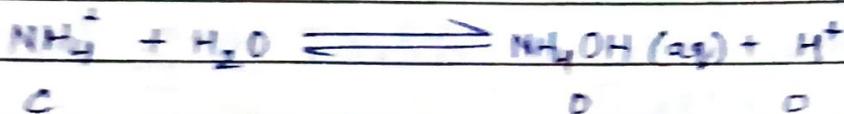
$$\therefore \boxed{A < B < C} \quad (pH)$$

250 ml of $\frac{50}{50} M H_2SO_4$, 1g NaOH added, resulting soln. diluted to 10L. pH of resulting solution \rightarrow

HYDROLYSIS OF SALT OF STRONG ACID AND WEAK BASE



This is called **CATIONIC HYDROLYSIS**



$$c(1-h) \qquad \qquad \qquad ch \qquad \qquad \qquad ch$$

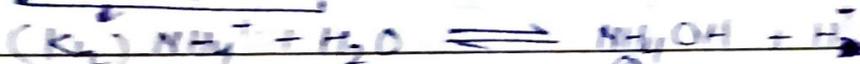
$$K_a = \frac{[\text{NH}_4\text{OH}][\text{H}^+]}{[\text{NH}_4^+]} = \frac{ch \cdot ch}{c(1-h)} = \frac{ch^2}{1-h}$$

as $h \ll 1 \Rightarrow 1-h \approx 1$

So, $K_a = ch^2 \Rightarrow h = \sqrt{\frac{K_a}{c}}$

OSTWALD dilution law. $c \uparrow \quad h \downarrow$

$$K_{a0} = K_a \cdot K_b$$



$$\Rightarrow K_{a0} = K_a K_b$$

$$[\text{H}^+] = ch = c \sqrt{\frac{K_a}{c}} = \sqrt{K_a c}$$

$$\Rightarrow [\text{H}^+] = \sqrt{\frac{K_{a0} \cdot c}{K_b}}$$

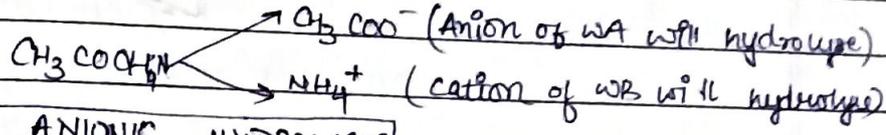
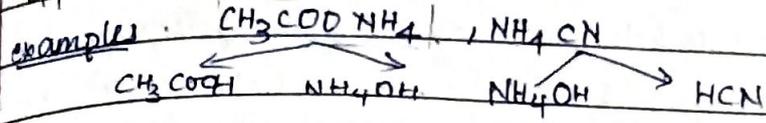
$$\Rightarrow -\log[\text{H}^+] = -\log \sqrt{\frac{K_{a0} c}{K_b}}$$

$$\therefore \text{pH} = -\log \left(\frac{K_{a0} c}{K_b} \right)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$\text{pH} = 7 - \frac{1}{2} [-\log b + \log c] \rightarrow \text{at } 25^\circ\text{C}$$

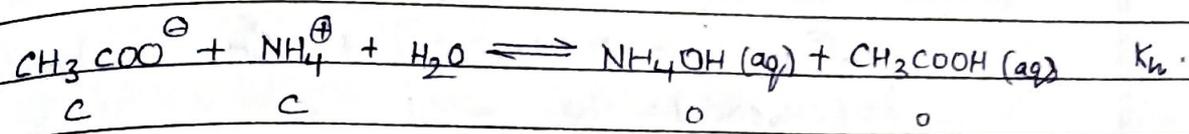
$$pH = \frac{1}{2} (pK_w - pK_b - \log c) \quad \text{at any temperature.}$$

HYDROLYSIS OF SALT OF WEAK ACID AND WEAK BASE



CATIONIC AND ANIONIC HYDROLYSIS

pH is close to 7.



$c(1-h) \quad c(1-h) \quad ch \quad ch$

$$K_h = \frac{[CH_3COOH][NH_4OH]}{[CH_3COO^-][NH_4^+]} = \frac{ch \cdot ch}{c(1-h) \cdot c(1-h)}$$

$$\Rightarrow K_h = \frac{h^2}{(1-h)^2}$$

$h \ll 1 \Rightarrow 1-h \approx 1 \Rightarrow K_h = h^2 \Rightarrow h = \sqrt{K_h}$

(Degree of hydrolysis doesn't change on dilution or change of salt concentration.)

$$K_w = K_h \cdot K_a \cdot K_b$$

$$pH = \frac{1}{2} (pK_w + pK_a - pK_b)$$

At 25°C, $pK_w = 14 \Rightarrow pH = 7 + \frac{1}{2} (pK_a - pK_b)$

Solution of salt of weak acid and weak base is called buffer solution.

Q. Calculate pH of final solution obtained by mixing 100ml 0.1M CH_3COOH and 100ml 0.1M $NaOH$. $pK_a = 4.74$.

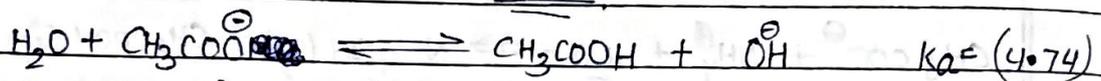
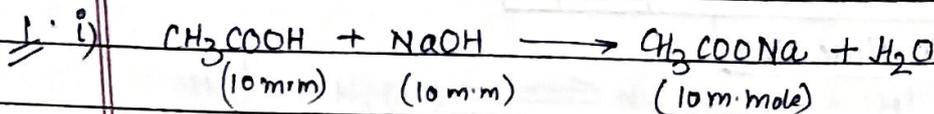
i) 100 ml 0.1M NH_4OH and 100 ml 0.1M HCl . ($pK_a = 9.2$)

ii) 100 ml, 0.1M CH_3COOH and 100 ml 0.1M NH_4OH .

$pK_b = 14 - 9.2$

Q 2. When salt solution concentration was diluted to 100 times salt with 0.1M concentration has 10% hydrolysis, upon dilution to 0.01M, its hydrolysis increases. The salt can't be \rightarrow

- a) $\text{C}_6\text{H}_5\text{NHCl}^-$ b) NH_4Cl ~~c) $\text{CH}_3\text{COONH}_4$~~ d) CH_3COONa
e) None of these.



$c = [\text{CH}_3\text{COO}^-] = \frac{10}{200} = \frac{1}{20}$

$\text{pH} = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(pK_a + \log c)$

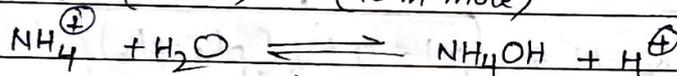
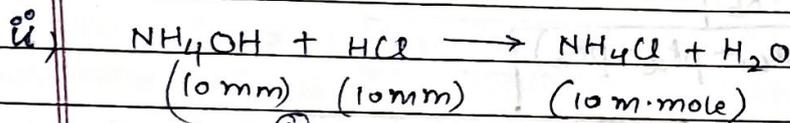
$= 7 + \frac{1}{2}(-\log 4.74 + \log \frac{1}{20})$

$= 7 + \frac{1}{2}(\log \frac{1}{20 \times 4.74}) = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(\log 20 + \log 4.74)$

$= 7 + \frac{1}{2}(4.74 - \log 20) = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(4.74 - \log 2 - \log 10)$

$= 7 + \frac{1}{2}(4.74 - 0.3 - 1) = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(3.44)$

$= 7 + 1.72 = \boxed{8.72}$



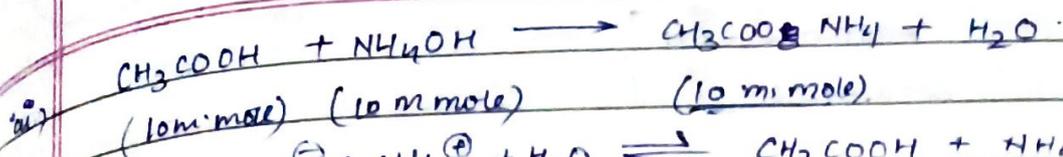
$c = [\text{NH}_4^+] = \frac{10}{200} = \frac{1}{20}$

$\text{pH} = 7 - \frac{1}{2}(pK_b + \log c) = 7 - \frac{1}{2}(9.2 + \log \frac{1}{20})$

$= 7 - \frac{1}{2}(9.2 - 1.3) = 7 - \frac{1}{2}(7.9)$

$= 7 - 3.95 = \boxed{3.05}$

$pK_b = 14 - 9.2$
 $= \boxed{4.8}$



$\Delta = \left(\frac{1}{20}\right) \quad c = \frac{1}{20}$
 $\text{pH} = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(\text{pK}_a - \text{pK}_b)$

$= 7 + \frac{1}{2}(4.74 - 4.8) = \cancel{7 + \frac{1}{2}(-0.06)} = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(-0.06) = \boxed{6.97}$

* BUFFER SOLUTION

solution whose pH doesn't change due to addition of small amount of acid or base are called buffer solutions.

buffer solutions resist change of pH.

Buffer Capacity = $\frac{\text{No. of moles of H}^+ \text{ or OH}^- \text{ added to 1L buffer sol}^n}{\text{change in pH}}$

higher buffer capacity \Rightarrow better buffer solution.

examples i) blood ii) saliva iii) soil iv) sea water.

Blood is basic buffer (7.4 = pH)

There are 3 types of Buffer solution \rightarrow

- 1) Acidic Buffer \rightarrow pH < 7. pH \approx between 4 to 7.
- 2) Basic Buffer \rightarrow pH > 7. pH \approx between 7 to 10.

Acidic buffer - mixture of weak acid and salt of weak acid & strong base.

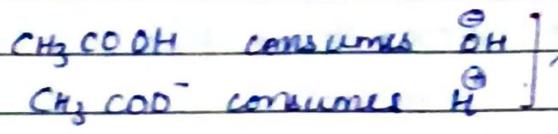
- eg. CH_3COOH and CH_3COONa
 HCN and NaCN .

$\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \log \frac{[\text{salt}]}{[\text{WA}]}$ Henderson and Haselblanc equation

If $[\text{salt}] = [\text{WA}]$, then $\log \frac{[\text{salt}]}{[\text{WA}]} = 0$

\Rightarrow $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a$ - max buffer capacity.

for good buffer (acidic) $\text{pH} = \text{pK}_a \pm 1$



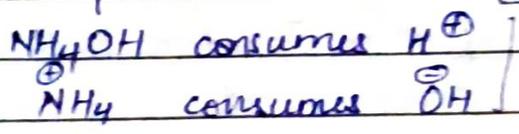
Basic buffer Mixture of weak base and salt of strong acid & weak base.
 eg. NH_4OH and NH_4Cl , NH_4NO_3 , etc.
 pyridine and pyridium hydrochloride
 $\text{C}_5\text{H}_5\text{N}$ $\text{C}_5\text{H}_5\text{NH}^+\text{Cl}^-$

$$\text{pOH} = \text{pK}_b + \log \frac{[\text{salt}]}{[\text{WB}]} \quad \text{(Henderson Hasselbalch equation)}$$

If $[\text{salt}] = [\text{WB}]$

$$[\text{pH}][\text{pOH} = \text{pK}_b] \quad \text{(max buffer capacity)}$$

Good basic buffer, $[\text{pOH} = \text{pK}_b \pm 1]$



Salt of weak acid & weak base in Buffer solution

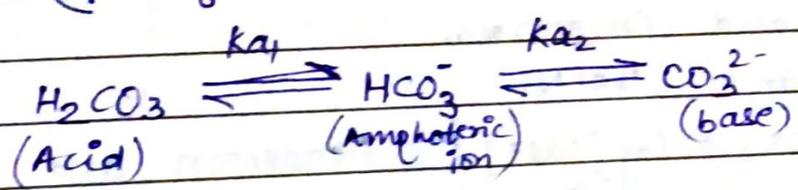
It is single compound buffer.

$$\text{pH} = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(\text{pK}_a - \text{pK}_b)$$

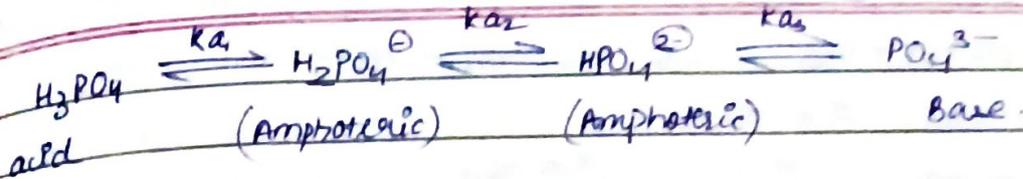
* pH of Amphoteric ions :-

Amphoteric ion solⁿ. is also called buffer solution.

(pH of solⁿ is constant, doesn't depend on concentration)



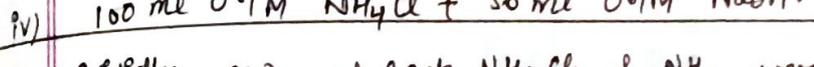
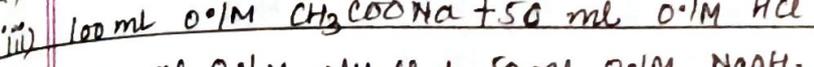
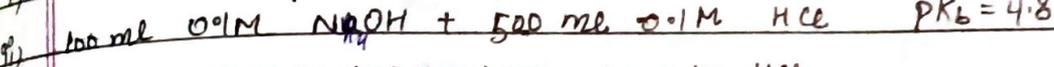
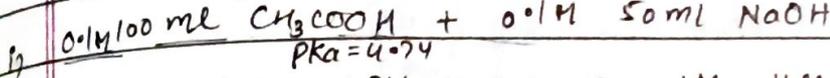
$$\text{HCO}_3^- \leftarrow \boxed{\text{pH of NaHCO}_3 \text{ Sol.} = \frac{\text{pK}_{a1} + \text{pK}_{a2}}{2}}$$



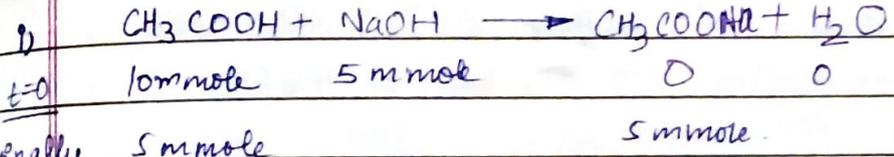
$\text{pH of } \text{NaH}_2\text{PO}_4 = \frac{\text{p}K_{a1} + \text{p}K_{a2}}{2}$

$\text{pH of } \text{Na}_2\text{HPO}_4 = \frac{\text{p}K_{a2} + \text{p}K_{a3}}{2}$

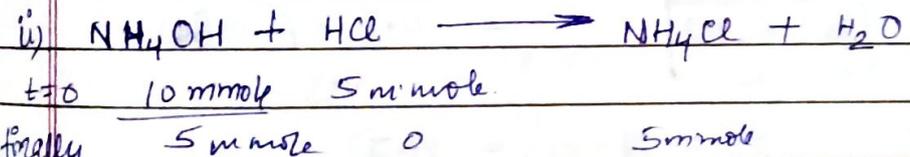
Identify which can be used to prepare buffer solution \rightarrow . Also calculate pH \rightarrow .



v) Initially 0.2 mol each NH_4Cl & NH_3 were present. If we add 4g NaOH to this mixture. Calculate pH.

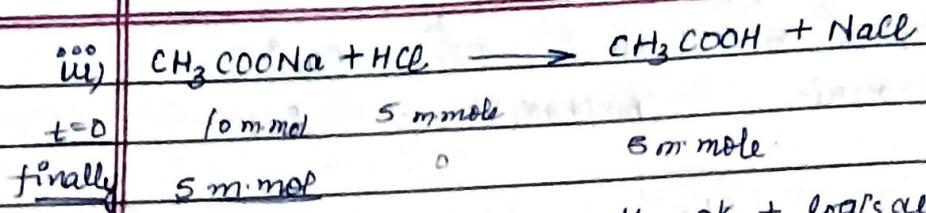


Acidic Buffer $\Rightarrow \text{pH} = \text{p}K_a + \frac{\log[\text{salt}]}{[\text{WA}]}$
 $= 4.74 + \log \left(\frac{5/10}{5/10} \right) = 4.74$



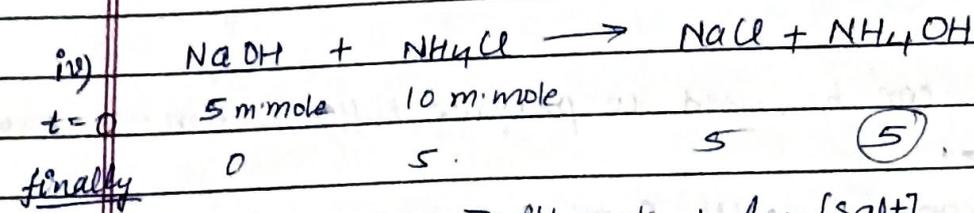
Basic buffer $\Rightarrow \text{pOH} = \text{p}K_b + \frac{\log[\text{salt}]}{[\text{WB}]}$ $= 4.8 + \log \left[\frac{5/10}{5/10} \right] = 4.8$

$\Rightarrow \text{pH} = 14 - 4.8 = 9.2$



Acidic Buffer $\Rightarrow \text{pH} = \text{pK}_a + \frac{\log[\text{salt}]}{[\text{WA}]}$

$= 4.74 + \log \frac{[5/10]}{[5/10]} = \boxed{4.74}$



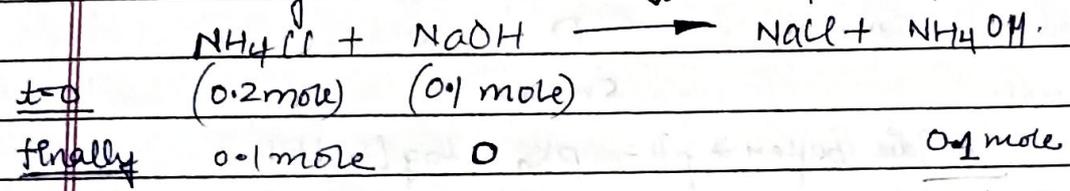
Basic Buffer $\Rightarrow \text{pH} = \text{pK}_b + \frac{\log[\text{salt}]}{[\text{WB}]}$

$= 4.08 + \log \frac{[5/10]}{[5/10]} = 4.08$

$\therefore \text{pH} = 14 - 4.08 = \boxed{9.92}$

v) 0.2 mole each of NH_4Cl and NH_4OH .

\Rightarrow initially it is basic buffer. $\Rightarrow \text{pOH} = \text{pK}_b = 4.8$



Now, it is a buffer with NH_4Cl and NH_4OH .

$\Rightarrow \text{pOH} = \text{pK}_b + \frac{\log[0.1/1]}{[0.3/1]} = \text{pK}_b + \log \frac{1}{3}$

$\therefore \boxed{\text{pH} = 9.2}$ $= 4.8 + (-0.50)$

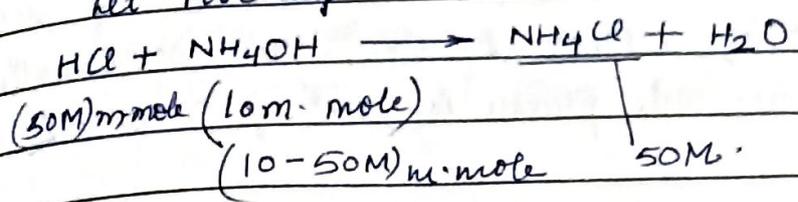
$= 4.3$

$\therefore \text{pH} = 14 - 4.3 = \boxed{9.7}$

Q. you have to make basic buffer pH = 8.9 using NH_4OH (aq) and HCl (aq). what is the molarity of HCl (aq) if 50 ml HCl (aq) is added to 0.1 M 100 ml NH_4OH to make required buffer.

$$pOH = 14 - 8.9 = 5.1$$

Let molarity be M.



t = 0
finally

$$pOH = pK_b + \log \frac{[salt]}{[W.B.]}$$

$$\Rightarrow 5.1 = 4.8 + \log \frac{[50M]}{[10-50M]}$$

$$\Rightarrow 0.3 = \log \frac{[50M]}{[10-50M]}$$

$$\Rightarrow 10^{(0.3)} = \frac{50M}{10-50M} \Rightarrow 2 = \frac{50M}{10-50M}$$

$$\Rightarrow 20 - 100M = 50M \Rightarrow 20 = 150M$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{M = 2/15}$$

Mains Q.

At 25°C, pH of pure water = 7. If 1 drop of 0.1M NaOH (aq) is added to 100ml H₂O, what will be new pH. (Vol. of 1 drop = 0.05ml)

- a) about 7 b) about 7.5 c) about 8 d) about 9

$$pH = \cancel{14} - \log [H^+]$$

$$[H^+] = \frac{M_1V_1 + M_2V_2}{V_1 + V_2} = \frac{(10^{-7})100 + (0.1)(0.05)}{100}$$

$$= \frac{10^{-5} + 0.005}{100} = \frac{10^{-5} + 500 \times 10^{-5}}{100}$$

$$= \frac{500 \times 10^{-5}}{100.05} = 5 \times 10^{-5}$$

$$\therefore pH = -\log 5 + (-\log 10^{-5})$$

$$= 5 + 0.7 = 5.7$$

$$\Rightarrow pH = 14 - 5.7 = \boxed{8.3}$$

9.7

* TITRATION

It is a process to determine the concentration of solution, with the help of another solution whose concentration is already known. This process is part of Volumetric Analysis.

Equivalence point

It is defined as the point at which reaction is 100% complete.

eg. Equivalents of all reactants become equal at this point.

Equivalence point	→	100% rxn completed
$\frac{1}{3}$ Equivalence point	→	$\frac{1}{3}$ rd rxn completed
$\frac{2}{3}$ Equivalence point	→	$\frac{2}{3}$ rd rxn completed
Half 50% Equivalence point	→	50% rxn completed

End Point

- The point at which reaction completion is marked by visual change (like colour change) or some other measurable change (like conductance) is called end point.
- At end point visual indicator changes its colour.
- End point is usually arrived just after the equivalence point. (Numerically, equivalence point is approximately equal to end point).

* Indicators (of Acid Base titrations)

These are usually weak organic acids. For example, phenolphthalein indicator, methyl orange indicator, litmus paper or soⁿ.

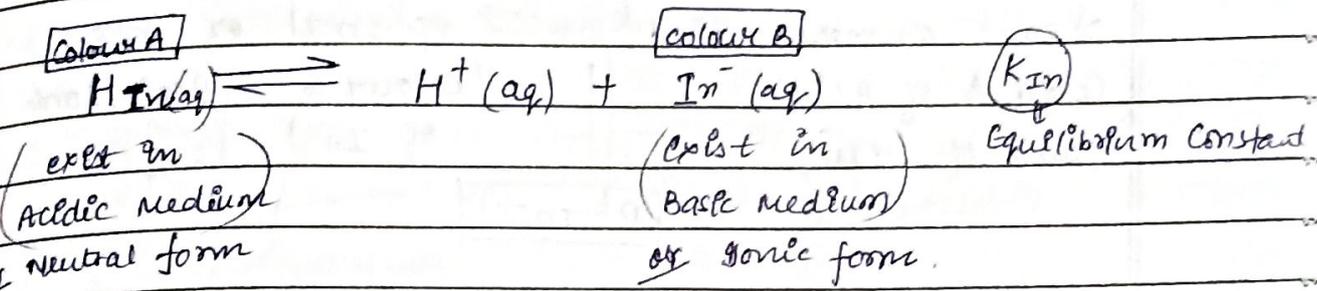
These indicators have different colours in different medium or different pH range.

Phenolphthalein Indicator

	Acidic medium	Alkaline	highly alkaline
Neutral Colourless	Colourless	Pink	Colourless

Indicator colour is determined based on the pH of solution and value of pK_{In} .

Phenolphthalein indicator \Rightarrow weak Acid (HIn) .



$$K_{In} = \frac{[H^+][In^-]}{[HIn]}$$

$$\log K_{In} = \log [H^+] + \log [In^-] - \log [HIn]$$

$$\Rightarrow -\log [H^+] = -\log K_{In} + \log \frac{[In^-]}{[HIn]}$$

$$\Rightarrow pH = pK_{In} + \log \frac{[In^-]}{[HIn]}$$

When we will have colour A \rightarrow

$$[HIn] \geq 10 [In^-]$$

$$\log \frac{[In^-]}{[HIn]} = \log \frac{1}{10} = -1$$

$$\therefore pH = pK_{In} - 1$$

Minimum % of HIn for colour A = $\frac{[HIn]}{[HIn] + [In^-]} \times 100$

$$= \frac{10x}{11x} \times 100 = \frac{1000}{11} \%$$

when we will have colour B.

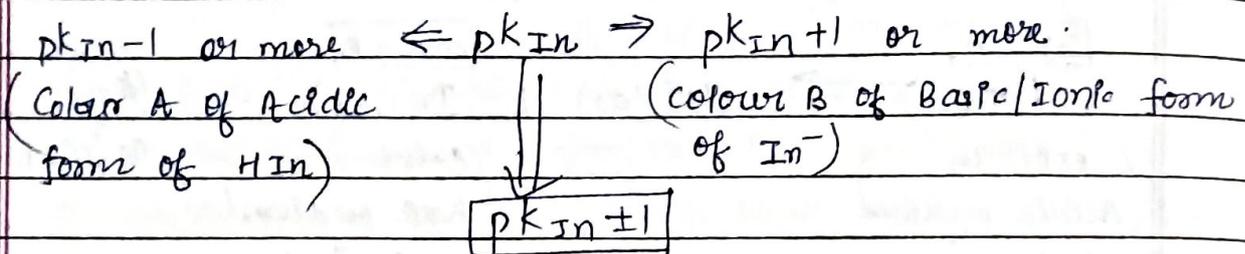
$$[In^-] \geq 10 [HIn]$$

$$\log \frac{[In^-]}{[HIn]} = \log 10 = 1$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{pH = pK_{In} + 1}$$

men. percentage of $[In^-]$ for colour B.

$$= \frac{10x}{11x} \times 100 = \boxed{\frac{1000}{11} \%}$$



Phenolphthalein

$$pK_{In} = 8.3$$

$$pH = pK_{In} - 1 \leq 7.3$$

colour of Acidic form

colorless

$$pH = pK_{In} + 1 = 9.3$$

Colour of Basic form

Pink

* TYPES OF ACID BASE TITRATIONS

for monoprotic acid & base, 4 types of acid base titrations -

At equivalence point, we will have salt & H_2O .

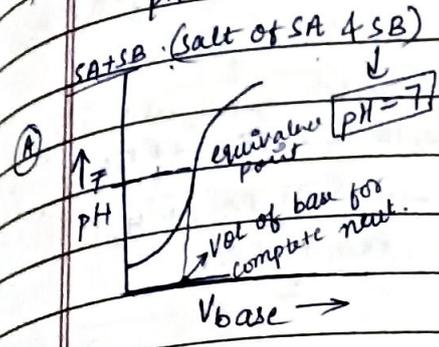
- 1) $SA + SB$ equivalence point $pH = 7$ (Salt of SA & SB)
- 2) $SA + WB$ equivalence point $pH < 7$ (Salt of SA & WB)
- 3) $WA + SB$ equivalence point $pH > 7$ (Salt of WA & SB)
- 4) $WA + WB$ equivalence point $pH \approx$ close to 7. (Salt of WA & WB)

Besides, polyprotic Acid Titrations are also possible.

(like H_2CO_3 , H_3PO_4 , etc.)

ACID-BASE TITRATION CURVE

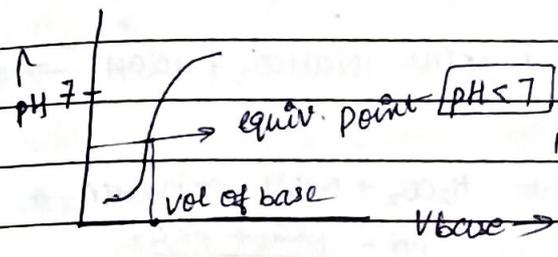
* PH vs 'Volume of Base solution added' is plotted.



Near end point, PH change is very sharp

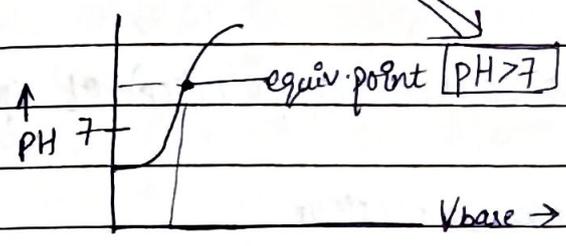
Base solution is added slowly to an acid solution. so, initial PH < 7

(B) SA + WB ⇒ salt of SA & WB



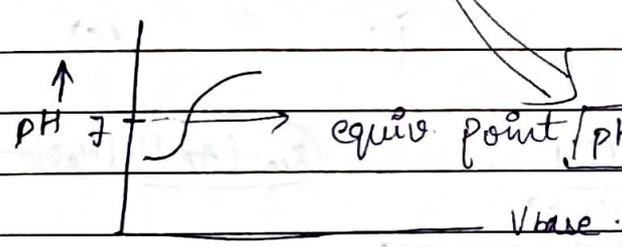
$$PH = 7 - \frac{1}{2}(PK_b + \log c)$$

(C) WA + SB ⇒ salt of WA & SB



$$PH = 7 + \frac{1}{2}(PK_a + \log c)$$

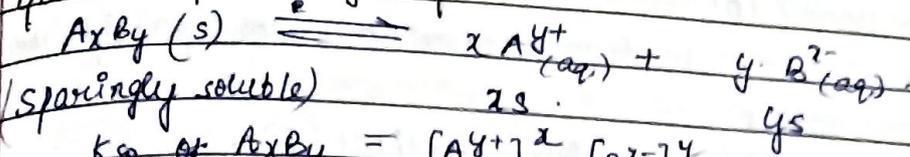
(D) WA + WB ⇒ salt of WA & WB



$$PH = \frac{7 + \frac{1}{2}(PK_a - PK_b)}{2}$$

Note: If PH versus volume of Acid solⁿ added is plotted, then graph might change.

General Expression for K_{sp} .



$K_{sp} \text{ of } A_x B_y = [A^{y+}]^x [B^{x-}]^y$
 $= (xs)^x (ys)^y$

$\Rightarrow \boxed{K_{sp} \text{ of } A_x B_y = x^x \cdot y^y \cdot s^{x+y}}$

Type of salt (with eqn)	$K_{sp} = x^x y^y s^{x+y}$	Solubility (s)
AB type. (x=1 y=1) AgCl, AgBr, AgI, $CaCO_3$ BaSO ₄ , etc.	$K_{sp} = s^2$	$s = \sqrt{K_{sp}}$
$A_2 B$ type x=2 y=1 $Ag_2CrO_4, Ag_2CO_3, Ag_2S$	$K_{sp} = 4s^3$ ($2^2 \cdot 1 \cdot s^{2+1}$)	$s = \sqrt[3]{\frac{K_{sp}}{4}}$
AB_2 type x=1 y=2 $Mg(OH)_2, PbCl_2$	$K_{sp} = 27s^3$ ($3^3 \cdot 1 \cdot s^{3+1}$)	$\Rightarrow s = \sqrt[4]{\frac{K_{sp}}{27}}$
$A_3 B_2$ x=3 y=2 $Ca_3(PO_4)_2$	$K_{sp} = 3^3 2^2 s^{5}$ $= 108s^5$	$s = \sqrt[5]{\frac{K_{sp}}{108}}$

Q.11

	K_{sp}	$Hg_2Cl_2 \rightarrow Hg^{2+} + 2Cl^-$ $AB_2 \Rightarrow \boxed{K_{sp} = 4s^3}$
AX (1)	10^{-12}	
BX ₂ (2)	4×10^{-15}	
CX ₃ (3)	2.7×10^{-19}	

Arrange in increasing order of solubility.

$S(1) = \sqrt{K_{sp}} = \sqrt{10^{-12}} = 10^{-6}$ | $\Rightarrow AX_2 < BX_2 = CX_3$

$S(2) = \sqrt[3]{\frac{K_{sp}}{4}} = \sqrt[3]{\frac{4 \times 10^{-15}}{4}} = 10^{-5}$ |

$S(3) = \sqrt[4]{\frac{K_{sp}}{27}} = \sqrt[4]{\frac{2.7 \times 10^{-19}}{27 \times 10}} = 10^{-5}$ |

* IONIC PRODUCT (IP)

Its value can be used to determine when precipitate formation starts.

IP is like reaction Quotient (Q) solution.

$IP < K_{sp}$ unsaturated

$IP = K_{sp}$ saturated

$IP > K_{sp}$ ppt formation starts

formula of IP is same as K_{sp} .

♀ Solution contains:

$A^+ = 0.01M$

$B^+ = 0.01M$

$C^+ = 0.01M$

TO this solution, NaCl is added slowly which ppt will form first.

	K_{sp}
AgCl	10^{-18}
BaCl	10^{-12}
CdCl	10^{-16}

Determine min. concentration of $[Cl^-]$ when AgCl ppt formation starts.

$K_{sp} = IP_{AgCl} = [A^+][Cl^-]$

$\Rightarrow 10^{-18} = [A^+][Cl^-]$

$\Rightarrow [Cl^-] = \frac{10^{-18}}{[A^+]} = \frac{10^{-18}}{0.01} = \underline{\underline{10^{-16}}}$

BaCl $\Rightarrow [Cl^-] = \frac{10^{-12}}{0.01} = 10^{-10}$

CdCl $[Cl^-] = \frac{10^{-16}}{0.01} = 10^{-12}$

AgCl needs least $[Cl^-]$ value \Rightarrow form ppt first.

Exercise 7.4

20. Aqueous soln. of Aluminium chloride is acidic due to \Rightarrow CATIONIC HYDROLYSIS

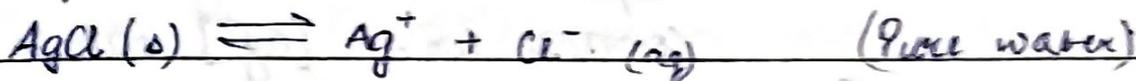
Different factors affecting solubility.

Effect of common ion.

Presence of common ion usually decrease the solubility.

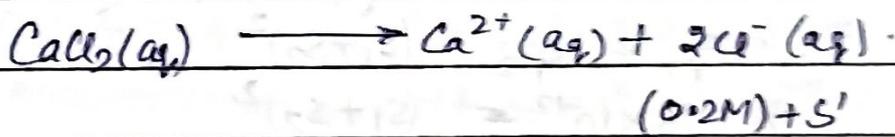
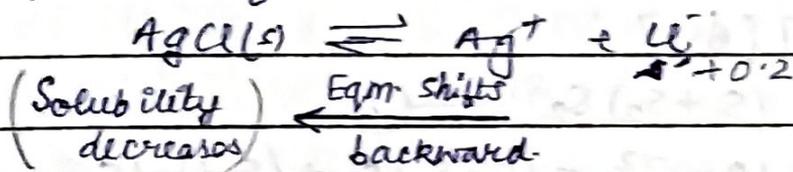
Common ion must have equal concentration in all reactions.

Calculate the ratio of solubility of AgCl in water to new solubility in presence of 0.1M CaCl_2 aqueous (CaCl_2 is completely ionised). [K_{sp} of AgCl = 4×10^{-12}]



$$K_{sp} = s^2 \Rightarrow s = \sqrt{K_{sp}} = \sqrt{4 \times 10^{-12}} = 2 \times 10^{-6}$$

In presence of common ion \rightarrow



Cl^- is common ion in both rxn.

$\Rightarrow [\text{Cl}^-]$ equal in both rxn

$$K_{sp} \text{ of AgCl} = [\text{Ag}^+][\text{Cl}^-]$$

$$= s' (0.2 + s')$$

$$s' \lll 0.2 \Rightarrow s' + 0.2 \approx 0.2$$

$$4 \times 10^{-12} = s' \times 0.2$$

$$\Rightarrow s' = \frac{4 \times 10^{-12}}{0.2} \Rightarrow \boxed{s' = 2 \times 10^{-11}}$$

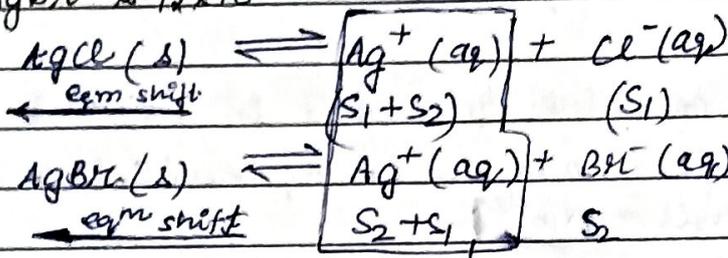
$$\text{Ratio} = \frac{s}{s'} = \frac{2 \times 10^{-6}}{2 \times 10^{-11}} = \boxed{10^5}$$

B) SIMULTANEOUS SOLUBILITY

When in same solution, we have two or more partially soluble compounds having common ion among them, then we will get simultaneous solubility.

Due to simultaneous solubility, solubility of all partially soluble compounds decreases.

Q. In 1 l pure water, AgCl and AgBr are added, calculate the total solubility. K_{sp} of AgCl is 4×10^{-12} K_{sp} of AgBr is 12×10^{-12} .



Common ion \Rightarrow $[\text{Ag}^+]$ same in both eqn.

$$K_{sp} \text{ AgCl} = [\text{Ag}^+][\text{Cl}^-]$$

$$\Rightarrow 4 \times 10^{-12} = (s_1 + s_2) s_1 \quad \text{--- (1)}$$

$$K_{sp} \text{ AgBr} = [\text{Ag}^+][\text{Br}^-]$$

$$\Rightarrow 12 \times 10^{-12} = (s_1 + s_2) s_2 \quad \text{--- (2)}$$

$$\textcircled{1} + \textcircled{2}, \quad 4 \times 10^{-12} + 12 \times 10^{-12} = (s_1 + s_2) s_1 + (s_1 + s_2) s_2$$

$$\Rightarrow K_{sp1} + K_{sp2} = (s_1 + s_2)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow 16 \times 10^{-12} = (s_1 + s_2)^2$$

$$\Rightarrow \boxed{(s_1 + s_2) = 4 \times 10^{-6}}$$

Divide $\textcircled{1}$ by $\textcircled{2}$, $\frac{K_{sp1}}{K_{sp2}} = \frac{s_1}{s_2}$

$$\Rightarrow \frac{4 \times 10^{-12}}{12 \times 10^{-12}} = \frac{s_1}{s_2} \Rightarrow \boxed{\begin{array}{l} s_1 = 1 \\ s_2 = 3 \end{array}}$$

