

CALCULATIONS IN ANALYTICAL CHEMISTRY

Quintus Fernando

University of Arizona

Michael D. Ryan

Marquette University



New York San Diego Chicago San Francisco Atlanta London Sydney Toronto

Copyright © 1982 by Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced or transmitted in any form or by any means, electronic or mechanical, including photocopy, recording, or any information storage and retrieval system, without permission in writing from the publisher.

Requests for permission to make copies of any part of the work should be mailed to: Permissions, Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Publishers, 757 Third Avenue, New York, NY 10017.

Printed in the United States of America

Library of Congress Catalog Card Number: 81-85460

ISBN: 0-15-505710-3

Preface

Titrimetric methods occupy an important position among the classical methods of analysis and are based mainly on acid—base, complexation, precipitation, and redox reactions in aqueous media. The principles underlying these chemical reactions are dealt with in most introductory courses, including undergraduate quantitative analysis courses. Competence in this area of quantitative analysis is enhanced by solving problems. This book presents a collection of worked-out examples and problems in titrimetric analysis. It is intended as a workbook—not as a textbook—that can be used to supplement any textbook in analytical chemistry.

The examples and problems in this workbook are based on the corresponding graphical illustrations, which have been accurately drawn with the aid of a digital computer and an x-y plotter. The graphical representations constitute the foundation of the book. Each problem provides sufficient information to identify one of the coordinates of a point on any of the curves; the solution involves calculating the value of the remaining coordinate from a knowledge of the appropriate equilibria. If the calculation is carried out correctly, the answer will agree with the value of the coordinate that can be obtained from the graph. For example, in a simple acid-base titration, the volume and molarity of the base and the volume and molarity of the acid added will give a value for the fraction titrated, that is, the x-coordinate in the acid-base titration curve. From a knowledge of the acid-base chemistry, it should be possible to calculate the pH of the resulting solution, that is, the value of the y-coordinate that corresponds to the fraction titrated.

In other words, all the answers to the problems, and consequently the validity of all the calculations, can be verified by reference to the appropriate graph. All the information given in the problems is summarized in the graphs, and the answers to the problems are built into them as well. Every point on a curve constitutes a problem as well as the answer to a problem. This approach to problem solving at the undergraduate level is unique.

In all calculations involving equilibrium constants, it is important to use values of the constants that correspond to the solution condition specified in the problems. It will be assumed that in all the examples and problems, aqueous solutions at 25°C are employed. If meaningful answers to the problems are required, all equilibrium constants must be corrected for ionic strength effects.

The authors are grateful to James T. Dyke for assistance with the graphics and the computer programs, and to Benjamin A. Feinberg and William H. Woodruff for reviewing the text.

Quintus Fernando University of Arizona

Michael D. Ryan

Marquette University

Contents

Introduction

Fundamental Concepts

Stoichiometric Principles 1
Concentrations of Solutions 3
Calculations in Gravimetric Analysis 6
Calculations in Titrimetric Analysis 9
Fundamental Equations in Equilibrium
Calculations 14

Equilibrium Constants in Aqueous Solutions 17
Acid-Base (Proton Transfer) Reactions 18

Precipitation Reactions 19

Metal Complexation Reactions 20

Oxidation-Reduction (Electron Transfer)

Reactions 20

Equilibrium Constants Corrected for Ionic Strength
Effects 21

vii

Acid-Base Equilibria

Mass Balance, Charge Balance, and Proton Balance
Equations 25
Strong Acids, and Strong Bases 27
Strong Acid versus Strong Base Titrations 30
Theoretical Titration Error in Strong Acid versus
Strong Base Titrations 35
Location of the Equivalence Point in Strong Acid versus
Strong Base Titrations 37

Weak Acids, Weak Bases, and Buffer Solutions

2

Weak Monoprotic Acids 45
Weak Bases 46
Buffer Solutions 47
Fractional Concentrations (α Values) 51
Titration of a Weak Acid versus a Strong Base 58
Titration of a Strong Base versus a Weak Acid 67
Location of the Equivalence Point in Weak Acid versus
Strong Base Titrations 71
Buffer Action and Buffer Capacity 75
Titration of a Weak Base versus a Strong Acid 85
Titration of a Weak Acid versus a Weak Base 93

3

Polyfunctional Acids and Bases

Polyprotic Acids 105 Polyfunctional Bases 111 **Ampholytes** 115 Titration of a Polyprotic Acid versus a Strong Base 117 General Equation for the Titration Curve of a Polyprotic Acid versus a Strong Base 121 Location of the Equivalence Points in the Titration of a Diprotic Acid with NaOH 130 Titration of a Polyfunctional Base with a Strong Acid 132 Titration of a Mixture of Bases with a Strong Acid 138

4

Metal Complex Equilibria

Metal Complex Formation Constants 147
Silver-Ammonia Complexes 148
Copper-Ammonia Complexes 150
Mercury(II)-Chloro Complexes 154
The Average Ligand Number, \bar{n} 156
Metal versus Ligand Titrations 162
Metal Ion versus Ammonia Titrations 162

Metal Ion versus EDTA Titrations 164
Factors that Affect the Vertical Displacement in Metal versus Ligand Titration Curves 168
Location of the Equivalence Point with a
Metal Ion Indicator 178

5

Precipitation Equilibria

Solubility and Solubility Product 189

The Effect of Side Reactions on the Solubility of Sparingly Soluble Electrolytes 194

Precipitation Titrations 209

Location of the Equivalence Point in Precipitation Titrations 212

Gran Plots 212

Visual Indicators 213



Redox Equilibria

The Free-Energy Change in a Chemical Reaction 221
Electrochemical Cells 223
Calculation of Equilibrium Constants 226
Calculation of E^0 Values 227
Redox Titrations 228
Location of the Equivalence Point in a Redox Titration 233

Introduction

Fundamental Concepts

Stoichiometric Principles

In quantitative chemical analysis, the calculations involved are based on stoichiometric relationships that can be deduced from balanced chemical reactions. For example, when $CaCO_3$ is reacted with HCl, according to the balanced chemical equation, $CaCO_3 + 2HCl \rightarrow CaCl_2 + H_2O + CO_2$, 1 mol of $CaCO_3$ requires 2 mol of HCl for complete reaction. The *algebraic* relationship between the number of moles of $CaCO_3$ that reacted, n_{CaCO_3} , and the number of moles of HCl that reacted, n_{HCl_3} is expressed as

$$n_{\rm HCl} = 2 \times n_{\rm CaCOa}$$

The number of moles of $CaCO_3$ that reacted, n_{CaCO_3} , is multiplied by the factor 2—not the number of moles of HCl that reacted, n_{HCl} —although here 2 mol of HCl is required to balance the chemical equation. The reason for this is evident from the following example.

Example 1

A solution containing 8.00 mmol of HCl is added to 9.00 g of solid CaCO₃. How many moles of CaCO₃ are left unreacted? [molecular weight (MW) of CaCO₃ is 100.09]

A 9.00-g sample of CaCO₃ contains $\frac{9.00}{100.09} \times 1000 = 89.92$ mmol of CaCO₃.

Hence, the problem can be restated as follows: How many moles of CaCO₃ are left unreacted when 8.00 mmol of HCl is added to 89.92 mmol of CaCO₃?

It may be deduced from the balanced chemical equation,

$$CaCO_3 + 2HCl \longrightarrow CaCl_2 + H_2O + CO_2$$

that 2 mmol of HCl reacts with 1 mmol of CaCO₃. Therefore, 8.00 mmol of HCl must react with $\left(\frac{1}{2} \times 8.00\right)$ or 4.00 mmol of CaCO₃, and the number of moles of CaCO₃ left unreacted is

$$\frac{89.92 - 4.00}{1000} = .0859$$

The identical result may be deduced from the algebraic relationship between the number of moles of HCl that reacted and the number of moles of CaCO₃ that reacted:

Number of moles of HCl =
$$n_{\text{HCl}} = \frac{8.00}{1000}$$

Number of moles of $CaCO_3 = n_{CaCO_3}$

From the balanced chemical equation

$$n_{\text{HCI}} = 2 \times n_{\text{CaCO}_3}$$

$$n_{\text{CaCO}_3} = \frac{n_{\text{HCI}}}{2} = \frac{8.00}{1000 \times 2} = \frac{4.00}{1000}$$

Therefore, the number of moles of CaCO₃ left unreacted is

$$\frac{9.00}{100.09} - \frac{4.00}{1000} = .0859$$

This example also shows the manner in which grams, moles, and millimoles of the compound CaCO₃, with a molecular weight of 100.09, are interrelated.

The stoichiometric relationships that can be deduced from the balanced chemical reaction

$$aA + bB \longrightarrow cC$$

are $b \cdot n_A = a \cdot n_B$ where n_A and n_B are the number of moles of A and B, respectively, that react;

 $c \cdot n_A = a \cdot n_C$ where n_C is the number of moles of product that is formed from n_A mol of reactant A;

 $b \cdot n_{\rm C} = c \cdot n_{\rm B}$ where $n_{\rm C}$ is the number of moles of product that is formed from $n_{\rm B}$ mol of reactant B.

Example 2

A sample of iron ore (.5356 g) is dissolved in H_2SO_4 . All the iron(III) is reduced quantitatively to iron(II), and the solution is titrated with a standard potassium dichromate solution made by dissolving .4836 g of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ in 1 liter of water. If 28.46 ml of the $K_2Cr_2O_7$ is required to reach the endpoint in the titration, calculate the percentage of iron (% Fe) in the sample of iron ore. (Fe 55.847; MW $K_2Cr_2O_7$ 294.18.)

The balanced chemical equation for this determination is

$$6Fe^{2+} + Cr_2O_7^{2-} + 14H^+ \longrightarrow 6Fe^{3+} + 2Cr^{3+} + 7H_2O$$

The algebraic expression that gives the relationship between the number of moles of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ that reacted and the number of moles of Fe^{2+} that reacted is

$$6 \times n_{K_2Cr_2O_7} = n_{Fe^2}$$

But $n_{K_2Cr_2O_7} = V_l \times M$ where V_l is the volume of $K_2Cr_2O_7$ in liters and M is the molarity of $K_2Cr_2O_7$. The volume of the titrant required, in liters, multiplied by the concentration of the titrant, in moles per liter, gives the number of moles of the titrant that reacted. If the volume of the titrant, in milliliters, is multiplied by the concentration of the titrant in moles per liter, the number of millimoles of titrant that reacted is obtained. Hence

$$n_{\text{K}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7} = \frac{28.46}{1000} \times \frac{.4836}{294.18} = 4.679 \times 10^{-5} \text{ mol}$$

and

$$n_{\rm Fe} = 4.679 \times 10^{-5} \times 6 \, \rm mol$$

Therefore, in the ore sample

$$% \text{ Fe} = \frac{4.679 \times 10^{-5} \times 6 \times 55.847 \times 100}{.5356} = 2.927$$

Concentrations of Solutions

A standard solution is defined as a solution that has a known concentration. The concentration of a solution can be expressed in a number of different ways: molarity (M), molality (m), weight percent $({}^{0}_{0}w/w)$, parts per million (ppm), and parts per billion (ppb). A solution that is made by dissolving .5844 g NaCl in water and made up to the mark in a 1-liter volumetric flask is a solution that contains .0100 mol NaCl per liter and is defined as a .0100 M solution. In such a solution the exact amount of the solvent (water) that is present is not known because the dissolved NaCl (solute) occupies an unknown fraction of the total volume of the solution. If the density of the solution is known, the exact amounts of solute and solvent that

are present in this solution can be calculated. On the other hand, if .5844 g of NaCl is dissolved in 1 kg of water, the resulting solution is a 1 m solution of NaCl. In this solution, the exact amounts of solute and of solvent present are known. The following examples illustrate the uses of various methods of expressing concentrations of solutions and also show the relationship between molarity, molality, and weight percent.

Example 3

How many milliliters of concentrated (conc.) HCl (MW 36.461), 37.2% w/w and density (1.19 g/ml), are required to make 5 liters of a 6.00 M solution? How many milliliters of this 6.00 M solution are required to react quantitatively with 12.00 g of Na₂CO₃ (MW 105.99)?

One hundred grams of the conc. HCl solution contains 37.2 g or $\frac{37.2}{36.461}$ mol HCl.

One liter of the conc. HCl solution contains

$$\frac{37.2}{36.461} \times \frac{1.19}{100} \times 1000 = 12.14 \text{ mol HCl}$$

The conc. HCl solution is therefore 12.14 M.

The number of moles HCl in 5 liters of a 6.00 M solution is (5×6.00) . Hence

$$5 \times 6.00 = V_l 12.14$$

where V_l = volume in liters of the 12.14 M solution that is required to make 5 liters of the 6.00 M solution of HCl:

$$V_l = \frac{5 \times 6.00}{12.14} = 2.47$$
 liters

Therefore, the number of milliliters required is $2.47 \times 1000 = 2470$. The balanced chemical equation for the reaction of Na₂CO₃ with HCl is

$$Na_2CO_3 + 2HCl \longrightarrow 2NaCl + H_2O + CO_2$$

The algebraic relationship between the number of moles of Na₂CO₃ and the number of moles of HCl required for complete reaction is

$$n_{\rm HCl} = 2 \times n_{\rm Na,CO}$$

But

$$n_{\text{Na}_2\text{CO}_3} = \frac{12.00}{105.99}$$

$$n_{\text{HCl}} = 2 \times \frac{12.00}{105.99} = V_l \times 6.00$$

$$V_l = \frac{2 \times 12.00}{105.99 \times 6} = .03774 \text{ liters}$$

The number of milliliters of 6.00 M HCl required to react quantitatively with 12.00 g Na₂CO₃ is 37.74.

Example 4

Concentrated nitric acid (HNO₃ MW 63.01) is 15.9 M and has a density of 1.42 g/ml. Calculate the weight percent of HNO₃ in the concentrated acid and the molality of the solution.

One liter of concentrated acid contains 15.9 mol HNO₃ or (15.9×63.01) g HNO₃. One hundred grams of concentrated acid contains

$$\frac{15.9 \times 63.01 \times 100}{1000 \times 1.42} = 70.6 \text{ g HNO}_3$$

The conc. HNO₃ is therefore 70.6% w/w.

One liter of concentrated acid or 1420 g of concentrated acid contains (15.9 \times 63.01) g HNO₃ and (1420 - 15.9 \times 63.01) g water, that is, (1420 - 15.9 \times 63.01) g water contains 15.9 mol HNO₃.

Therefore, 1000 g water contains $\frac{15.9 \times 1000}{1420 - 15.9 \times 63.01}$ mol HNO₃.

The molality of the conc. HNO_3 is 38.0.

Example 5

Derive an algebraic relationship between the molarity M of an aqueous solution and its molality m if the density of the aqueous solution is d g/ml and the molecular weight of the solute is G.

One thousand milliliters of an M molar solution contains $(M \times G) g$ of solute and $(1000 \times d - M \times G) g$ of the solvent water. One thousand grams of water contains

$$\frac{M \times G \times 1000}{1000 \times d - M \times G}$$
g solute

or

$$\frac{M \times 1000}{1000 \times d - M \times G}$$
 mol solute

Therefore, the molality of the solution is given by

$$m = \frac{M \times 1000}{1000 \times d - M \times G}$$

In very dilute solutions $d \to 1$ and $(M \times G)$ is negligible in comparison with $1000 \times d$. Under these conditions, $m \approx M$.

Example 6

The concentration of SO_2 in ambient air is found to be .055 ppm. How many milligrams of SO_2 are present in 1 m³ of ambient air? The density of air = .001185 g/ml (at 25°C and 760 torr).

 10^6 g of air contains .055 g SO₂

$$\frac{10^6}{1.185\times 10^{-3}}\,\text{ml}$$
 of air contains .055 g SO $_2$

One cubic meter (106 ml) contains

$$.055 \times \frac{1.185 \times 10^{-3}}{10^6} \times 10^6 \times 10^3 = .065 \text{ mg SO}_2$$

Calculations in Gravimetric Analysis

Chemical reactions that are assumed to proceed to completion and that form insoluble products are employed in gravimetric analysis. A reagent is added to a solution containing the species that is to be determined and the precipitate that is formed is separated and weighed. It is necessary that the precipitated compound have a definite stoichiometry and be free of impurities. In certain instances the precipitate must be converted, usually by heating or ignition, into an appropriate form that has a definite stoichiometry and can be weighed conveniently. The following examples illustrate the application of stoichiometric calculations in gravimetric analysis.

Example 7

A .1500-g sample of zinc metal that contains an inert impurity is dissolved in acid and the zinc precipitated as zinc ammonium phosphate ($ZnNH_4PO_4$). The precipitate is separated and ignited to zinc pyrophosphate ($Zn_2P_2O_7$). If the weight of the zinc pyrophosphate is .3333 g, calculate the percentage of zinc (% Zn) in the original sample. (Zn 65.38; P 30.974)

The balanced chemical equation can be written as

$$2Zn^{2+} \longrightarrow 2ZnNH_4PO_4 \longrightarrow Zn_2P_2O_7$$

The algebraic relationship between the number of moles of zinc in the sample $(n_{\rm Zn})$ and the number of moles of zinc pyrophosphate $(n_{\rm Zn_2P_2O_7})$ formed is

$$n_{\rm Zn} = 2 \times n_{\rm Zn_2P_2O_7}$$

$$n_{\rm Zn} = 2 \times \frac{.3333}{304.71}$$

In a .1500-g sample

$$2 \times \frac{.3333}{304.71} \times 65.38 \text{ g Zn}$$

In a 100-g sample

$$\frac{2 \times .3333 \times 65.38 \times 100}{304.71 \times .1500}$$
 g Zn

In the sample

$$\frac{1}{2}$$
 Zn = 95.35

Example 8

A mixture contains only NaCl and KCl. When .1500 g of this mixture is dissolved and precipitated with PtCl₄, a precipitate of K₂PtCl₆ that weighs .2222 g is formed. (The NaCl does not react with PtCl₄ to form an insoluble precipitate.) Calculate the percentage of Na in the mixture. (Na 22.99; K 39.10; Cl 35.45; Pt 195.1)

The balanced chemical reaction for the formation of the insoluble compound K_2PtCl_6 is

$$2KCl + PtCl_4 \longrightarrow K_2PtCl_6$$

The algebraic expression that relates the number of moles of K₂PtCl₆ formed to the number of moles of KCl in the mixture is

$$n_{KCl} = 2 \times n_{K_2PtCl_6}$$

$$= \frac{2 \times .2222}{486.0}$$

$$= 9.144 \times 10^{-4} \text{ mol KCl}$$

$$= 9.144 \times 10^{-4} 74.55 \text{ g KCl}$$

$$= .06817 \text{ g KCl}$$

The number of grams of NaCl in the mixture is

$$.1500 - .06817 = .08183$$

In the mixture

% Na = .08183
$$\times \frac{22.99}{58.44} \times \frac{100}{.1500}$$

= 21.46

Example 9

A mixture contains CaO and CaCO₃ only. When this mixture is ignited and cooled in a desiccator, there is a 5% loss in weight. Calculate the percentage of CaCO₃ in the mixture. (Ca 40.08)

The chemical reaction that occurs upon ignition and results in the weight loss is

$$CaCO_3 \longrightarrow CaO + CO_2$$

If 100 g of the mixture is ignited, 5 g is lost as CO_2 . Let the number of moles of CO_2 lost be n_{CO_2} :

$$n_{\text{CO}_2} = n_{\text{CaCO}_3}$$

$$\frac{5}{44.00} = n_{\text{CaCO}_3}$$

The number of grams of CaCO₃ in 100 g of the mixture is

$$\frac{5}{44.00} \times 100.08 = 11.37$$

In the mixture

$$% CaCO_3 = 11.37$$

Example 10

The sulfate in .2345 g of a mixture containing only K₂SO₄ and Na₂SO₄ is precipitated by the addition of an excess of BaCl₂. The weight of the BaSO₄ precipitate formed is .3456 g. Calculate the percentage of K₂SO₄ in the mixture. (Na 22.99; K 39.10; S 32.06; Ba 137.33)

The balanced chemical equations for the formation of the BaSO₄ precipitate are

$$Na_2SO_4 + BaCl_2 \longrightarrow BaSO_4$$

 $K_2SO_4 + BaCl_2 \longrightarrow BaSO_4$

The algebraic expression that gives the relationship between the number of moles of BaSO₄ formed, n_{BaSO_4} , the number of moles of Na₂SO₄, $n_{\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4}$, and the number of moles of K₂SO₄, $n_{\text{K}_3\text{SO}_4}$, is

$$n_{\text{Na}_2\text{SO}_4} + n_{\text{K}_2\text{SO}_4} = n_{\text{BaSO}_4}$$

Let x g of K_2SO_4 be present in the mixture. Then (.2345 - x) g of Na_2SO_4 is present in the mixture:

$$\frac{.2345 - x}{142.04} + \frac{x}{174.26} = \frac{.3456}{233.39}$$

$$1.647 = 7.040x + 5.739x = 1.480$$

$$x = \frac{.1670}{1.301}$$

$$= .1284 \text{ g}$$